N. Dignard R. Lalumière A. Reed M. Julien

Habitats of the northeast coast of James Bay

Occasional Paper Number 70 **Canadian Wildlife Service** 

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### Abstract

This study describes the coastal habitats of northeastern James Bay and provides a preliminary description of their potential use by waterfowl. The interpretation of colour aerial photographs at a scale of 1:10 000 led to a preliminary classification of the coastal habitats and served as a basis for field verification, which was done by helicopter at low speed and altitude, with about 80 stops along the coast.

From offshore to mainland, the principal habitats were open water, eelgrass beds, mud/sand or boulder-strewn tidal flats, boulder-strewn shores fringed with vegetation, rocky tidal flats, salt marshes, heaths, shrubs, and forests. Their distribution pattern between the Au Castor River and Point Louis-XIV was mapped at a scale of 1:125 000.

Eelgrass beds are located mainly south of Point Attikuan and are absent from the mouths of the main rivers. Vast mudflats are common between the Au Castor River and Point Kakassituq; northward from there, the coast is more exposed, and boulder-strewn tidal flats are more common. The vegetation and structure of marshes change from south to north, with the disappearance or strong variation in the importance of certain communities, reduced diversity of species, and the appearance of bare areas in the upper marsh.

Heaths dominated by lichens and having few or no rocky outcrops are found south of Dead Duck Bay and north of Point Kakassituq. Between these two locations, rocky heaths, characterized by *Empetrum* cover, dominate the insular and coastal landscapes. Areas of shrub and forests tend to decrease in northward and seaward directions.

The eastern shore of James Bay represents a vital staging and feeding area for migrating waterfowl — mainly Canada Geese Branta canadensis, Brant B. bernicla, and Lesser Snow Geese Anser caerulescens caerulescens. Habitat diversity plays a key role in attracting waterfowl. Most of these habitats are used in spring, summer, or fall for feeding, cover, resting, moulting, nesting, and brood rearing. Salt marshes, heaths, and eelgrass beds show the highest potential for utilization by waterfowl.

Multidisciplinary studies aimed at improving our knowledge of the habitats of the eastern James Bay coast and their use by waterfowl should be undertaken in the near future.

### 2.0 Methods and terminology

Because of its geographic location and the diversity of
its coastal habitats, James Bay is of vital importance to
several species of migratory birds, particularly waterfowl
(geese and ducks) and shorebirds (sandpipers, plovers, etc.)
(Manning and Macpherson 1952; Todd 1963; Curtis and
Allen 1976; Prevett et al. 1979; Thomas and Prevett 1982;
Morrison and Gaston 1986). The shores of this region are an
important staging area for several long-distance migrants;
for others, the region is a final destination, a nesting site,
and a place to raise young.

Since the early part of this century, the eastern shore of James Bay has interested the scientific community. The pioneering work of Low (1909), Hustich (1950), Dutilly and Lepage (1948), Baldwin (1949, 1953), and Dutilly et al. (1958) described the major characteristics of the physiography and flora of this remote area.

Interest in this coastline was revived in the early 1970s with the opening of the La Grande hydroelectric complex. Since then, several studies have been undertaken to identify the coast's various biophysical components. Lamoureux and de Repentigny (1972), Lamoureux and Zarnovican (1972), and Lacoursière and Maire (1976) contributed significantly to our knowledge of the vegetation along the shore of Rupert Bay. In 1974, the vegetation of the coastal marsh of Des Oies Bay was studied in detail by Lamoureux and Zarnovican (1974), and Curtis (1974-75) produced a map of eelgrass beds at a scale of 1:125 000 for the Canadian Wildlife Service.

Other important contributions include those of the Regional Ecological Studies Service (Gérardin 1980), geomorphological work by Dionne (1976, 1978, 1980), and studies conducted by the James Bay Energy Corporation, which are summarized in the paper titled "Connaissance du milieu des territoires de la baie James et du Nouveau-Québec" (James Bay Energy Corporation 1978).

Between 1982 and 1989, the eelgrass beds in this region were studied extensively by Roche Associés Ltée. (1982, 1985), Lalumière (1986a, 1987a, 1987b, 1988a), and Lalumière and Belzile (1989). Since 1986, the James Bay Energy Corporation has studied certain coastal marshes (Lalumière 1986b, 1988b).

A review of this literature provides only an incomplete view of the coastal habitats, however, and often only for specific sections of the shore. To date, no single report has described the diversity and distribution of habitats on the eastern shore of James Bay and their use by waterfowl in spring, summer, and fall.

The aim of this publication is to fill this gap, at least partially. The coastal habitats are described briefly, especially in terms of their vegetation, and are mapped at a scale of 1:125 000. A final section discusses potential use of those habitats by waterfowl. The habitats described and mapped are located in the coastal area of James Bay between the Au Castor River and Point Louis-XIV. For the purposes of this report, the coastal area is considered to extend from the offshore islands to 5 km inland from the mainland coast.

The methods were dictated largely by the availability of basic information (aerial photographs 1:10 000, topographical maps 1:50 000), by the scale chosen for mapping (1:125 000), by the short period available for ground verification (10 days), and by the need to produce a concise overview.

Preliminary interpretation was based on colour aerial photographs at a scale of 1:10 000, taken at low tide in August and September 1986. The habitats were identified on the basis of our previous experience and observations on the eastern shore of James Bay. Habitat types were chosen and defined in relation to features likely to influence their selection by waterfowl for feeding, resting, nesting, brood rearing, and moulting. The information was transferred to topographical maps at a scale of 1:50 000 to give a preliminary view of the distribution of habitats along the coast and to help us plan the field verification.

Field verification was carried out from 21 to 31 July 1989 by helicopter, while flying slowly at low altitude. Two observers transferred the information onto the aerial photographs and onto topographical maps at a scale of 1:50 000. About 80 landings were made, mostly on coastal islands and the intertidal zone, including salt marshes. Because emphasis was placed on open habitats preferred by waterfowl, ground checks were not made in forested areas; these were, nevertheless, mapped. The vast region of heathland north of Point Attikuan was not surveyed in detail, but several stops were made to document its principal features.

At each stop, the dominant plant species were recorded. Those that could not be identified in the field were collected for further examination. The nomenclature used was that of Taylor (1957), Scoggan (1978-79), Crum and Anderson (1981), Arnell (1979), and Hale and Culberson (1970). Most of the specimens collected were deposited at the Herbier du Québec (QUE); a few were deposited at the herbaria of Agriculture Canada (DAO) and the Canadian Museum of Nature (CANM) in Ottawa. Appendix 1 contains the complete list of plants collected by us in 1988-89 on the northeast coast of James Bay.

The entire coast of our study area, including all the islands, was systematically overflown, and all waterfowl observations (broods, moulting birds, etc.) were recorded on topographical maps at a scale of 1:50 000.

Table 1 Coastal habitat terminology	
Habitat	Map designation
Aquatic milieu Open water Eelgrass beds	Open water Eelgrass beds
Shoreline milieu Mud/sand tidal flat Boulder-strewn tidal flat Boulder-strewn shore fringed with vegetation Rocky tidal flat Salt marsh	Mud/sand tidal flat Boulder-strewn shore fringed with vegetation Rocky outcrop Salt marsh
Terrestrial milieu Freshwater marsh Lichen heath Rocky heath ( <i>Empetrum</i> ) Shrub formations Forest formations	Not mapped Heath Rocky heath Shrub Forest

The final interpretation of photographs was conducted in parallel by two observers using a twin stereoscope; the information was transferred to topographical maps at a scale of 1:50 000 and later to 1:125 000, with some loss of information with each reduction in scale. The results are, nevertheless, available at all three scales.

The eelgrass beds were also mapped using the distribution maps (1:125 000) produced by Lalumière (1987b) and Curtis (1974-75).

Habitat descriptions were based on data recorded during the 1989 ground check and on knowledge acquired during earlier studies. Salt marsh descriptions, in particular, benefited from our past experience with more than 200 vegetation surveys in 10 marshes during 1988 (Lalumière 1988b).

The habitats were grouped in three milieus: aquatic, shoreline, and terrestrial (Table 1). This report does not describe the vegetation of bogs and coastal lakes. Our terminology is not intended to replace earlier, more classical classifications (Gauthier 1982; Jacques and Hamel 1982; Couillard and Grondin 1986); it was chosen for the practical purpose of designating areas with distinct features that are readily identifiable from the ground or from the air and that would likely be selected differentially by waterfowl. Information on the use of coastal habitats by waterfowl is drawn mainly from the following sources:

- Canadian Wildlife Service (Curtis and Allen 1976),
- observations of waterfowl made in August 1989 (this study),
- signs of use noted during earlier fieldwork (1986-89),
- information obtained during visits accompanied by Cree during the spring hunts in 1986 and 1989, and
- a review of the literature.

In the absence of recent survey data, our waterfowl information remains incomplete. As a result, some of our conclusions regarding waterfowl use are speculative and require further research for validation.

Finally, the map (1:125 000) that accompanies this report (pocket on inside back cover) illustrates the distribution of the various habitats along the coast of the study area.

# 3.0 Physical characteristics of the coast

The study area is part of the James Bay lowland and extends from the mouth of the Au Castor River (53°24'N, 78°58'W) to Point Louis-XIV (54°38'N, 79°45'W) (Fig. 1). The distance between those points is approximately 160 km, but the coastline that connects them and surrounds the adjacent islands, because of its extreme irregularities, exceeds 1500 km. There are hundreds of islands, shoals, and reefs within 10–15 km of the coast, which itself is punctuated by a multitude of peninsulas and bays.

Rock formations are composed mainly of granites, gneiss, and granodiorites of the Canadian Shield, which has been eroded and partially covered by quaternary deposits (Eade 1966). Through isostatic rebound, the coastline is currently rising at a rate of 0.9–1.2 m per century (Hunter 1970).

The area is low, with little relief. Only a few rocky hills exceed 25 m in height, and few islands are higher than 10 m. The La Grande River is the only important river that empties into the study area, but there are several minor ones: Au Castor, Caillet, Guillaume, Piagochioui, Kapsaouis, Roggan, and Au Phoque rivers. All contribute to reduced salinity in the littoral zone and to the transport of sediments to James Bay.

The islands, points, and peninsulas represent bedrock outcrops, glacial deposits, especially drumlins (Lee et al. 1960), and spits (Dionne 1976). Bays represent bedrock depressions that have been partially filled by glacial and glaciomarine sediments, covered by recent deposits of clay, silt, or fine sand. The slope of the tidal flats is gradual, 0.5–3 degrees (Dionne 1976), and their lower portions are strewn with glacial boulders originating from drumlins, spits, and boulder piles surrounding the islands. In large bays, the intertidal zone is more than 2 km wide. During mean and strong tides, the tidal amplitude is in the order of 1.5 m and 2.4 m, respectively (Anonymous 1973; CSSA Inc. 1987). This amplitude varies considerably in response to wind speed and direction (Godin 1975).

Surface salinity in the littoral zone is subject to seasonal variations and to the effects of freshwater input from rivers. In summer, the salinity is approximately 25% near Point Louis-XIV and 20% south of the La Grande River (Dionne 1976); it decreases to 5% at the mouths of the principal rivers (Messier et al. 1989).

The regional climate is rigorous and subject to marked fluctuations in temperature. The mean monthly temperatures for July and January are greater than 10°C and less than -25°C, respectively. The annual mean temperature is -2.5°C, and precipitation averages approximately 650 mm per year (Wilson 1971). Extreme temperatures registered at Fort George (former village located near the

Figure 1 Location of the study area, showing biological zones proposed by Ducruc et al.



present site of Chisasibi) were 34.4°C and -40.3°C (Villeneuve 1967); north of Point Attikuan, extreme temperatures were lower. The bay is covered with ice from December to May. Shore ice 75-150 cm thick covers the tidal flats and part of the lower salt marshes and extends 15-25 km seaward (Messier et al. 1989), reducing the buffering influence of the large water mass of the bay and allowing penetration of polar-like conditions. In summer, cold currents and floating ice in James and Hudson bays delay the arrival of warm weather and prolong the period of frost (James Bay Energy Corporation 1978). Dominant westerly winds also keep the temperature cool and contribute to the formation of thick fog when atmospheric humidity is high.

Figure 1 illustrates the location of our study area in relation to biological zones described by Ducruc et al. (1976). From south to north, three zones are involved, distinguished principally by the number of degree-days of growth: the middle-subarctic zone, ending at Paul Bay; the highsubarctic zone, from Paul Bay to the Roggan River; and, northward, the arctic zone. This area of arctic zone, which extends beyond Point Louis-XIV to Point Vauquelin, represents the most southerly extension of the arctic zone in the world. Its limits coincide with the isolines of 600 mm annual precipitation and -4°C mean annual temperature. They also coincide with two marked changes in vegetative structure: the first is physiognomic and related to the northern limit of tree growth; the second is floristic and related to the southern limit of the range of several species of arctic plants. The presence of permafrost, palsen, and, in certain marshes, ice-lifted boulders attests to the arctic affinities of this coastal area (Dionne 1978). Most of the outer islands south of this boundary that are dominated by heath could also be included in the arctic zone.

Although, over the long term, isostatic rebound has been the prime force determining the configuration of the coastline, other factors are also important. Waves and currents are the most important, even if their action is felt over only six months of the year. Much of the high energy they carry as they arrive near the coast is, however, dissipated as they encounter shallow waters (<20 m) of the coastal shelf, shoals, reefs, islands, and a highly convoluted shoreline (Dionne 1976).

Currents transport sediments from the coast towards offshore areas. They also influence the movement of ice and patterns of erosion and sedimentation. Tides do not play a major role except in areas where they create strong currents (Dionne 1980). The main influence of ice along the coastline is one of scouring and deposition, although in some areas it serves to protect against other erosive factors. The presence of numerous ponds created by ice rafting and scouring, which has been reported for southern James Bay marshes (Dionne 1976), is much less evident north of latitude 53°N. The most visible sign of ice action is the occurrence of stones and boulders strewn over the tidal flats.

### 4.0 Coastal habitats

### 4.1 Aquatic milieu

### 4.1.1 Open water

This category covers the largest surface area of all habitats in our study area. By early June, the temperature of these waters may, in certain protected bays, reach 7-10°C and, by the end of July, 18°C. By the end of October, water temperature has decreased to 1°C (Lalumière 1990). The open water area extending from the outer islands to the mainland coast is as broad as 20 km at some locations, but the water is shallow throughout. Beyond the outer islands, the sea bottom drops off quickly. Between the numerous islands, there are many reefs and shoals that are evident at low tide.

### 4.1.2 Eelgrass beds

The coastline offers excellent conditions for the development of vast subtidal meadows of eelgrass (Zostera marina L.): protection provided by the many islands, numerous bays with gently sloping floors, substrate of proper texture, low tidal amplitude, salinity that remains within the optimal range (10-30%) during the growing season (Phillips and Watson 1984), and summer water temperatures that reach almost 20°C in protected bays.

The eelgrass beds colonize fine sediments in areas sheltered from the direct action of wind and waves at depths between 0.5 and 4.0 m below average low water. Towards the open sea, they generally give way to a zone colonized by Fucus distichus and Ascophyllum nodosum. In shallow water, where hydrodynamic conditions are weak,

Enteromorpha sp., Cladophora sp., Rhizoclonium riparium, Chorda filum, Potamogeton pectinatus, and, more rarely, Ruppia maritima are associated with the eelgrass. In deeper waters, the subtidal bed is generally monospecific (Lalumière 1988a).

Depending on conditions, Zostera marina grows at a density ranging from 50 to 1500 shoots/m<sup>2</sup> and produces a dry biomass in the order of  $30-675 \text{ g/m}^2$  (Lalumière and Belzile 1989). The blades of the most vigorous plants reach 5 mm in width and 2.5 m in length.

These eelgrass meadows are concentrated mainly in Dead Duck Bay, Aquatuc Bay, and Bay of Many Islands, and along the shore between Point Kakassitug and Point Attikuan; they are absent from the mouths of the main rivers because of the instability of the substrate and the low water salinity.

### 4.2 Shoreline milieu

The shoreline area generally coincides with the intertidal zone and is here defined as extending from the lower limit of weak tides to the upper limit of spring tides (see Couillard and Grondin [1986] for tidal range definition). Three general types of shoreline habitat are recognized: tidal flats, salt marshes, and boulder-strewn shores fringed with vegetation. We have used the term tidal flat to describe that portion of the intertidal area that occurs below the lower limit of terrestrial or salt-marsh vegetation.

### 4.2.1 Tidal flats

Three types of tidal flats are recognized, based on physical features and the degree of exposure to wave and current action: mud/sand tidal flat, boulder-strewn tidal flat, and rocky tidal flat. Although based on physiography rather than geomorphology, this breakdown appears meaningful in terms of habitat selection by waterfowl.

Mud/sand tidal flats occur in large bays with gentle slopes and are often broader than 1 km (Fig. 2). Boulders are generally rare in the upper portion but may be abundant near the lower tidal limit where ice action is greater. These are areas of sedimentation and are fully exposed at low tide. Towards the north, they tend to be narrower and to have steeper slopes and higher densities of boulders (Fig. 3). Portions of these flats are sometimes colonized by *Fucus distichus*, *Ascophyllum nodosum*, *Potamogeton pectinatus*, and, more rarely, *Ruppia maritima*.

Boulder-strewn tidal flats occur along shores exposed to more active erosion and are narrower and have steeper slopes than mud/sand tidal flats. Substrate material may vary from boulders and gravels, as is often the case north of the Roggan River (Fig. 4), to boulders on finer sediments (Fig. 5). Because of difficulties in displaying the narrow tracts of boulder-strewn tidal flats at the chosen map scale, this habitat, along with small islands of unvegetated boulders, has been mapped with the same colour symbol as "boulder-strewn shores fringed with vegetation."

Rocky tidal flats (Fig. 6) are generally characterized by bedrock that, except for a few algae, is barren. For mapping purposes, they have been grouped with barren rocky islands and rocky outcrops and displayed under the colour code for "rocky outcrops."

### 4.2.2 Salt marshes

Salt marshes develop in protected areas where there is active sedimentation. Tarnocai (1980) recognized two zones: the lower marsh, which extends from the upper limit of the tidal flat to the mean high-tide level, and the upper marsh, which extends farther towards dry land, as far as the upper level of spring tides. Of the 264 salt marshes mapped, fewer than 10 were greater than 1 km<sup>2</sup> in extent; these are located principally in the Bay of Many Islands and Dead Duck, Aquatuc, Des Oies, and Paul bays, all within the subarctic zone. North of Point Attikuan, the coast is more exposed, has fewer bays, and has few large marshes. The transition from subarctic to arctic salt marsh occurs between Point Kakassituq and the Roggan River.

In general, the plant communities are well defined. The size of the communities and their relative position along the slope depend on the time they are submerged, the texture and salinity of the substrate, the microrelief caused by ice action, the drainage network of the particular marsh, and the amount of freshwater inflow.

### 4.2.2.1 Subarctic zone

The lower marsh (Fig. 7) is colonized by *Eleocharis* kamtchatica, Triglochin palustris, and Hippuris tetraphylla, which sometimes forms extensive colonies in depressions that retain water at low tide and at the outlets of streams where salinity is reduced by freshwater runoff. *Puccinellia phryganodes*, Spergularia canadensis, Ranunculus cymbalaria, and Plantago maritima occupy firmer sediments and form low herbaceous meadows, which become continuous near the high-tide line (Fig. 8).

Puccinellia phryganodes extends farther inland to the lower portion of the upper marsh, where it is replaced by a low herbaceous meadow of *Carex subspathacea* and *Potentilla egedii*, with *Triglochin maritima* as a minor component. These two herbaceous meadows sometimes cover several hectares in the larger marshes.

Farther inland, on the upper marsh, Carex paleacea takes over (Fig. 9). It usually forms such a thick canopy that only a few other species can become established: Puccinellia langeana, Carex salina, C. subspathacea, Ranunculus cymbalaria, Galium trifidum, Potentilla egedii, and Stellaria longifolia. Carex paleacea meadows are closely associated with areas of freshwater inflow (Grandtner 1975; Martini and Glooschenko 1983-84). Carex mackenziei is found in wet depressions, whereas Hippuris tetraphylla colonizes ponds and stream edges (Fig. 10). This latter species tends to be gradually replaced by Eleocharis smallii towards the inland limit of the upper marsh.

Festuca rubra, Rhinanthus borealis, Triglochin maritima, Euphrasia arctica, Chrysanthemum arcticum, Potentilla egedii, Hierochloe odorata, Parnassia palustris, Primula egaliksensis, and Lomatogonium rotatum replace Carex paleacea farther inland in the upper marsh. Juncus balticus and Scirpus rufus occasionally form small colonies in depressions at the base of the willow thickets that border the marsh (Fig. 11). Dominated by Salix candida and S. brachycarpa, the thickets mark the upper limit of the marsh and the maximal reach of the high tides (Payette and Lepage 1977). Castilleja pallida, Pedicularis groenlandica, Polygonum viviparium, Aster borealis, Lathyrus palustris, Drepanocladus uncinatus, and Aulacomnium palustre are nearly always present.

### 4.2.2.2 Arctic zone

The structure and vegetation of the arctic salt marshes are somewhat different from those of the subarctic zone. They are more exposed, have a steeper slope, and have a less developed drainage network. Greater intensity of ice action has moulded the marsh surface into a mosaic pattern of mounds and depressions. Different plant communities are present in an intricate pattern that mirrors that of the marsh surface (Fig. 12). Zones devoid of vegetation often occupy areas of appreciable size.

Immediately above the tidal flat, the lower marsh is colonized by patches of *Puccinellia phryganodes*; *Stellaria humifusa*, *Triglochin palustris*, *Eleocharis kamtchatica*, and *Ranunculus cymbalaria* are found near the inner edge of the lower marsh, which is usually narrow. They are replaced by *Carex subspathacea*, *C. salina*, *Potentilla egedii*, and *Triglochin maritima* in the upper marsh; these, in turn, give way to *Calamagrostis deschampsioides*, *Festuca rubra*, *Dupontia fisheri*, *Potentilla egedii*, *Chrysanthemum arcticum*, *Primula stricta*, and *Parnassia palustris* towards the inland limit of the marsh.

Salix candida and S. brachycarpa, which marked the upper reaches of the subarctic marshes, are absent in the arctic marshes that merge abruptly with heaths or narrow Carex aquatilis fens. In this narrow transition zone, upper marsh, heath, and fen species intermingle: Empetrum nigrum, Salix reticulata, S. uva-ursi, Carex microglochin, C. aquatilis, C. scirpoidea, C. bigelowii, Drepanocladus uncinatus, Paludella squarrosa, Helodium blandowii, and Scorpidium scorpioides. Stream edges are colonized by Eleocharis smallii and Senecio congestus, whereas ponds support little, if any, aquatic vegetation.

4.2.3 Boulder-strewn shores fringed with vegetation

Along sections of the coast exposed to erosion, shoreline vegetation occurs in a narrow band that marks the point of contact between the upper part of the boulderstrewn shore and terrestrial habitats. The vegetation is usually dominated by *Elymus mollis* or *Carex paleacea*.

Elymus mollis usually occurs on coarse sands fringing the outer shores of the bay or islands, where it is accompanied by Ligusticum scothicum, Lathyrus japonicus, Chrysanthemum arcticum, Arenaria peploides, and, more rarely, Poa eminens (Fig. 13). On points or sand spits, Elymus mollis and Epilobium angustifolium often form meadows.

*Carex paleacea* forms similar belts in finer substrates along sheltered shores of Dead Duck Bay, around certain islands, along narrow inlets, and on the edges of some coastal lakes that connect with the sea. It generally backs onto willow thickets of the same type as those bordering subarctic salt marshes (Fig. 14).

North of Point Attikuan, the vegetative fringes associated with boulder-strewn shores gradually disappear and are replaced by the occasional patch of *Elymus mollis* and *Arenaria peploides*.

### 4.3 Terrestrial milieu

### 4.3.1 Freshwater marshes

In the subarctic zone, the salt marsh will often be succeeded by a freshwater marsh. These marshes are beyond the reach of the highest tides and usually have an important inflow of fresh water. With the buildup of organic material, they become fens that can spread several kilometres inland. The freshwater marsh is characterized by Menyanthes trifoliata, Potentilla palustris, Carex limosa, C. rariflora, Caltha palustris, Sium suave, Calamagrostis neglecta, Eriophorum angustifolium, E. russeolum, Calliergon spp., and Drepanocladus spp. Carex aquatilis, which characterizes the lower portion of the fen, is also an important freshwater marsh species. Ponds and streams are colonized by Eleocharis smallii or Hippuris vulgaris. Dutilly et al. (1958) reported a number of taxa in coastal fens, including Carex × subsalina Lepage (C. aquatilis × salina), that indicate past contact with the sea. Majcen (1973) and Gagnon (1976) provided further descriptions of the wetlands of the interior.

### 4.3.2 Heaths

The vegetation of the heaths consists of lichens or low shrubs with subarctic/arctic affinities. The presence of heaths is governed primarily by climatic variables: in the subarctic zone, heaths occur on islands and points exposed to winds from the sea; in the arctic zone, where the climate prevents tree growth and limits the presence of shrubs to protected areas, heaths occupy a strip — which widens to 20 km at Point Louis-XIV — along the entire coast.

Two types of heath can be distinguished: those that have developed on rocky outcrops, and those on deposits of

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glacial and glaciomarine origin. Those on rocky outcrops (rocky heaths) are characterized by a distinct dominance of *Empetrum nigrum* over lichens and bryophytes (Fig. 15) and occur between the Au Castor River and the Bay of Many Islands. Those on nonconsolidated glacial/ glaciomarine deposits are characterized by lichens (lichen heaths) (Fig. 16). Both types contain similar plant species, but there is a net dominance of *Empetrum nigrum* and ericaceous shrubs in the former, and lichens dominate in the latter. The most characteristic species are *Empetrum* nigrum, Vaccinium uliginosum, V. vitis-idaea, Betula glandulosa, Shepherdia canadensis, Arctostaphylos rubra, Cetraria nivalis, Cladina stellaris, C. rangiferina, C. mitis, Alectoria ochroleuca, Bryoria nitidula, Ptilidium ciliare, Dicranum elongatum, and Rhacomitrium lanuginosum. This recognition of two types of heath is further justified by a marked difference in attractiveness to certain migratory birds that feed extensively on the berries of shrubs.

In northward and seaward directions, the heaths develop a more arctic character due to increasingly rigorous climatic conditions. Additional species are added: Saxifraga tricuspidata, Salix arctica, S. uva-ursi, S. reticulata, Dryas integrifolia, Ledum palustre, Rhododendron lapponicum, Poa alpina, Festuca brachyphylla, Carex bigelowii, and Silene acaulis. The inland heaths north of the Roggan River are similar to those of the coast and are dominated largely by these same species (Gérardin 1980).

The two types of heath are generally dotted with ponds or small lakes, and their edges are often occupied by *Carex aquatilis, C. rariflora, Scirpus caespitosus, S. hudsonianus, Myrica gale, Alnus rugosa, Eriophorum angustifolium,* and *Aulacomnium palustre. Eleocharis smallii, Potamogeton perfoliatus* ssp. *richardsonii, Ranunculus aquatilis,* and *R. gmelinii* often form distinct communities in those wetlands, especially in the southern part of the study area. This aquatic vegetation is poorly developed or absent north of the Roggan River.

### 4.3.3 Shrub formations

Shrub communities are most often found along the forest edges (Fig. 17) and around ponds in the southern part of the area and, farther north, in depressions and sheltered slopes where protection from snow cover is greater (Fig. 18). Their density varies considerably, attaining a maximum on moist soils. They are composed mainly of Salix glauca, S. arctophila, Alnus crispa, or Betula glandulosa, with an undercover of Calamagrostis canadensis, Rubus acaulis, Carex spp., Maianthemum canadense, Lycopodium annotinum, Coptis trifolia, Solidago macrophylla, Pleurozium schreberi, Hylocomium splendens, and Ptilidium ciliare. Shrub formations are particularly extensive between Point Kakachischuan and Point Kakassituq. They disappear almost completely north of the Au Phoque River.

### 4.3.4 Forest formations

White spruce *Picea glauca* has become the dominant species of the coastal forest (Fig. 19), apparently as a result of the intensity and frequency of fog rolling off James and Hudson bays (Ducruc et al. 1976). It is the principal element of both forest types recognized by Gérardin (1980). The open white spruce-lichen forest colonizes coarse or thin deposits on rock and supports *Empetrum nigrum*, *Ledum groenlandicum*, *Betula glandulosa*, *Solidago macrophylla*, *Cladina stellaris*, *C. rangiferina*, and *Pleurozium schreberi*. The white spruce-moss forest is

### Figure 2 Mud/sand tidal flat below a salt marsh a few kilometres north of the La Grande River



Figure 3 Mud/sand tidal flat with numerous glacial boulders near the Kapsaouis River

Figure 4 Narrow boulder-strewn tidal flat north of the Roggan River





Figure 5 Boulder-strewn tidal flat on fine sediments south of Dead Duck Bay

Figure 6 Rocky tidal flat near Paul Bay



Figure 7 Lower salt marsh colonized by Hippuris tetraphylla



Figure 8 Lower salt marsh dominated by Puccinellia phryganodes



Figure 10 Stream colonized by *Hippuris tetraphylla* in a salt marsh south of Point Attikuan



Figure 12 Typical salt marsh of the arctic zone north of the Roggan River



Figure 9 Carex paleacea meadow in the upper salt marsh south of the La Grande River



Figure 11 Willow thicket marking the inner limit of a Festuca rubra meadow in the upper marsh



Figure 13 Strip of *Elymus mollis* bordering an island



### Figure 14 Strip of Carex paleacea near Dead Duck Bay

Figure 15 Rocky heath dominated by Empetrum nigrum near Point Walrus





Figure 16 Lichen heath near Point Attikuan





Figure 18 Shrub formations typical of the coastal landscape near Point Attikuan



Figure 19 White spruce coastal forest

Figure 17

Shrub formation bordering the coastal forest



### Figure 20

Schematic transects of the coastal habitats of the three biological zones of northeastern James Bay (S: shrub; By; boulder-strewn shore fringed with vegetation; W: open water; TF: mud/sand tidal flat; F: forest; H: heath; HR: rocky heath; R: rocky outcrop; E: eelgrass bed; MS: salt marsh)







found on finer, poorly drained deposits and has an undercover dominated by ericaceous shrubs and the mosses Pleurozium schreberi and Hylocomium splendens. Other common species are Cornus canadensis, Trientalis borealis, Carex disperma, Petasites palmatus, and Calamagrostis canadensis. Beyond the limit of maritime fogs, black spruce Picea mariana gradually replaces white spruce to become the dominant species of the immense interior forests.

Picea glauca forests occupy the entire coast northward to Point Kakassituq; beyond that point, they retreat progressively inland, separated from the coast by a widening band of heath. They also cover most of the inner islands in the southern portion of the study area. On the outer islands south of Point Attikuan, they occur as isolated groves. In the study area, white spruce rarely attain full size, but they do not develop the distorted growth forms that occur in exposed individuals of Picea mariana (Payette 1974).

### 4.4 Overview

Northeastern James Bay is characterized principally by its irregular coastline, the presence of hundreds of islands, reefs, and shoals, and shallow, subtidal waters. Overall, it is considered a low-energy coastline (Dionne 1980). The waters are brackish and covered by ice through six months of the year. Isostatic rebound, waves, ice action, currents, and tides have been the active forces behind the shaping of the coast.

At the regional level, the distribution of the broad plant communities (Fig. 20) is the result of climatic variables (temperature and precipitation); at the local level, the texture and physicochemical properties of the surface deposits have been most influential. On a north-south

axis, there are marked changes in coastal vegetation, which correspond with the biological zones and subzones proposed by Ducruc et al. (1976); within each, the plant communities show strong structural and floristic homogeneity.

The presence of vast subtidal eelgrass meadows is explained by the abundance of well-protected bays, low tidal amplitude, optimal salinity during the growing period, and relatively warm water temperatures during summer.

There are many salt marshes, the most developed of which are found in the large bays. Notable changes take place in their structure and vegetation from south to north, especially in the upper marsh. Carex paleacea and C. mackenziei, which often cover large areas, and Salix candida and S. brachycarpa, which mark the upper limit of the same subarctic marshes, are rare or absent in the arctic zone. Similarly, Festuca rubra is gradually replaced by Calamagrostis deschampsioides. These changes are attributable to lower temperatures, as shown by the reappearance of these species in the hemiarctic (Payette and Lepage 1977; Deshaye and Cayouette 1988), where climatic conditions are less severe, and disappearance again in the arctic zone (Blondeau 1986, 1989). The mosaic pattern of mounds and depressions in the upper marsh of the arctic zone could be the result of former more intense ice action along this exposed portion of the coast. The presence of bare patches in the upper marsh of the arctic zone is more difficult to explain but could be due to the absence of such plants as Carex paleacea and C. mackenziei, which occupy that niche in subarctic marshes.

Because of the shape of the coastline of northeastern James Bay, vast expanses of marshy flats cannot develop as they have done on the west coast of James and Hudson

bays, where they cover 85-90% of the shore (Glooschenko 1980). At equal latitudes, however, the vegetation and zonation of the salt marshes are similar on both sides of James Bay. In southern James Bay, the coastal marshes are dominated by *Scirpus americanus* and *S. validus* where salinity is very low or nil, or by *Hippuris tetraphylla* and *Scirpus maritimus* in brackish areas (Lacoursière and Maire 1976; Glooschenko 1983). According to Lacoursière and Maire (1976), the first halophytes appear just south of the estuary of the Pontax River (51°35'N).

The marshes between the Eastmain and Au Castor rivers have not been studied. In general, the vegetation of the salt marshes of the arctic and subarctic zones of James Bay is similar to those of the same zones elsewhere in the northern hemisphere (Glooschenko 1980), except that their species diversity is greater. Only the marshes of southern James Bay show floristic similarities with those of the St. Lawrence estuary and certain regions along the Atlantic coast.

Heaths cover some or all of the outer islands north of 53°N, as well as a narrow band along the coast in the upper subarctic zone. A progressive increase in the number of arctic species, from south to north and from the coast seaward, reflects increasing severity of climate. The arctic zone is devoid of trees and is dominated by heaths.

White spruce forests are limited to the subarctic coast and extend inland to the limit of penetration by sea fog. These forests are dense in the middle subarctic and open in the high subarctic. Increasing climatic severity limits their development and allows the establishment of shrub formations only in protected areas. They disappear progressively in the arctic zone.

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### 5.0 Use by waterfowl

James Bay's chief attraction for migratory birds is the abundance of food, both animal and plant, in the diverse and relatively productive habitats along the coast. The western shore of James Bay has been studied in some detail, and its use by aquatic birds has received considerable attention. The same is not true of the eastern shore of the bay.

This section makes a preliminary assessment of waterfowl use of the coastal habitats of northeastern James Bay. This assessment is, by necessity, based mainly on our general knowledge of waterfowl ecology and on information gleaned from the literature. Presented as a basis for future detailed studies, it draws heavily from earlier reports on bird distribution by Manning and Macpherson (1952), Todd (1963), Bourget (1973), and Curtis and Allen (1976) for the east coast, and, for James Bay in general, by Manning (1952, 1981), Manning and Coates (1952), and Morrison and Gaston (1986). The ecological studies by Prevett et al. (1979), Wypkema and Ankney (1979), Thomas and Prevett (1982), and Ross (1982, 1983, 1984) along the west coast of James Bay were also consulted.

### 5.1 Species diversity

James Bay is generally characterized by a great diversity of species, especially waterfowl. The Tundra Swan *Cygnus columbianus*, Lesser Snow Goose *Anser caerulescens caerulescens* (both white and blue colour phases), Canada Goose *Branta canadensis*, Brant *B. bernicla*, and about 24 duck species are found there. All but six of the duck species have been recorded within the mapped area (Table 2). Canada Geese and at least eight species of duck nest in the study area.

Approximately 23 species of shorebirds have been observed along the northeast shore of James Bay (Table 2), about eight of which nest there (Todd 1963; Bourget 1973). Herring Gulls Larus argentatus, Glaucous Gulls L. hyperboreus, Arctic Terns Sterna paradisaea, and Black Guillemots Cepphus grylle are also present. Common Loons Gavia immer and Red-throated Loons G. stellata can be observed in spring and fall, but no nesting has been reported (Todd 1963). American Bitterns Botaurus lentiginosus nest there, and migrating Sandhill Cranes Grus canadensis have been seen occasionally (Ouellet and Bourget 1975). In addition, several species of passerines and raptors occur in the study area, but these are not discussed in this report.

Species	Presence of birds	Presence of nests
Ducks		
Mallard Anas platyrhynchos	x	X
American Black Duck A. rubripes	x	X
Northern Pintail A. acuta	X	X
Green-winged Teal A. crecca	X	X
American Wigeon A. americana	X	X
Greater Scaup Aythya marila	X	1
Lesser Scaup A. affinis	X	:
Ring-necked Duck A. collaris	X	
Common Goldeneye Bucephala clangula	X	
Common Eider Somateria mollissima	X	X
Common Merganser Mergus merganser	X	:
Red-breasted Merganser M. servator	X	
Hooded Merganser Lophodytes cucultatus	X	
Black Scoter Melanitta nigra	X	
Surf Scoter M. perspicillata	X	A
White-winged Scoter M. fusca	. <u>X</u>	
Oldsquaw Clangula hyemalis	X	×.
Harlequin Duck Histrionicus histrionicus	X	1 
Shorebirds		
Lesser Golden-Plover Pluvialis dominica	X	
Black-bellied Plover P. squatarola	X	
Semipalmated Plover Charadrius semipalmati	us X	X
Killdeer C. vociferus	X	Х
Greater Yellowlegs Tringa melanoleuca	X	
Lesser Yellowlegs T. flavipes	X	
Solitary Sandpiper T. solitaria	X	2
Spotted Sandpiper Actitis macularia	X	
Whimbrel Numenius phaeopus	X	
Hudsonian Godwit Limosa haemastica	X	
Ruddy Turnstone Arenaria interpres	X	
Red Knot Calidris canutus	( 	
Sanderling C. alba		
Semipalmated Sandpiper C. pusitia	X	
Least Sandpiper C. minutilla	X	
White-rumped Sandpiper C. fuscicollis	X	
Baird's Sandpiper C. bairdii	ź	
Pectoral Sandpiper C. melanotos	X	
Purple Sandpiper C. maritima	X	
Dunlin C. alpina	č.	
Short-billed Dowitcher Limnodromus griseus	1 1	,
Common Snipe Gallinago gallinago	X	2
Red-necked Phalarope Phalaropus lobatus	Х	2

<sup>a</sup>Principal references: Manning and Macpherson 1952; Todd 1963.

### 5.2 Synthesis of current knowledge

Table 3 summarizes current knowledge of the potential use of coastal habitats by waterfowl in spring, summer, and fall, and the following paragraphs provide further details.

5.2.1.1 Open water

Large areas of coastal water gradually become free of ice through the spring migration period, providing resting areas for most aquatic birds (geese, ducks, loons, gulls, terns, guillemots).

Diving ducks (scaups, goldeneyes, scoters, mergansers, eiders, oldsquaws) and seabirds (gulls, terns, guillemots) feed there throughout the ice-free season. Many of the same diving ducks moult in these open water areas, but only the Common Eider *Somateria mollissima* is likely to raise its young there.

### 5.2.1.2 Eelgrass beds

These subtidal meadows are a source of food for several species of waterfowl. Although water depth poses certain limits, the leaves, seeds, and rhizomes of eelgrass are grazed. The invertebrates and fish associated with eelgrass beds are also an important food source. In early spring, the eelgrass beds are covered with shorefast ice and unavailable to the birds. With the thaw, openings in the ice gradually expose the beds. Brant, which migrate later than Canada Geese and Lesser Snow Geese, use these openings to graze on eelgrass, their favourite food. Canada Geese and American Wigeon *Anas americana* probably exploit this food source as well.

There is no specific information available on the use of eelgrass beds in summer, but moulting diving ducks probably use them, feeding mainly on molluscs, crustaceans, and fish found there.

In fall, migrating birds have full access to the eelgrass beds. Brant and Canada Geese frequent them in large numbers (Curtis and Allen 1976). American Wigeon probably eat the blades of eelgrass and other underwater plants, whereas American Black Duck *Anas rubripes* and Northern Pintail *A. acuta* probably eat eelgrass seeds. As in summer, several species of diving duck feed on invertebrates and crustaceans.

### 5.2.2 Shoreline milieu

5.2.2.1 Tidal flats and boulder-strewn shores fringed with vegetation

With the spring thaw, the tidal flats become

available for use by Canada Geese, American Black Ducks, and Northern Pintail. Use of these habitats in summer is not well documented, but several groups of diving ducks were seen on mud/sand tidal flats during the summer of 1989. Moulting scoters, goldeneyes, and mergansers feed there. In fall, they are used extensively by Canada Geese and dabbling ducks for feeding.

Generally, the mud/sand tidal flats are potentially more attractive to feeding waterfowl than the narrower, boulder-strewn tidal flats. Boulder-strewn shores with fringes of vegetation offer a certain amount of food and cover for broods and moulting ducks travelling along the coast. Finally, the blades of eelgrass that accumulate in windrows along the shore, as well as the associated invertebrates, are consumed by several species of duck and, probably, geese.

Rocky tidal flats appear to hold little attraction for waterfowl. Eiders and mergansers may rest on rocky points during low tide and, along with other diving ducks, feed on molluscs, amphipods, and fish when the tide is high. Only Common Eiders are likely to frequent this habitat during brood rearing.

Certain rocky islets could serve as nest sites for Herring Gulls, Arctic Terns, and Black Guillemots.

### 5.2.2.2 Salt marshes

Salt marshes provide an abundant and varied source of food for several species of dabbling duck throughout the ice-free season, for Canada Geese during the two migration periods, and for Lesser Snow Geese, particularly in autumn.

In spring, the marshes are used by Canada Geese, which feed on *Triglochin palustris* bulbs and the seeds of *Carex* spp. (Reed et al. 1990). American Black Duck, Mallard *Anas platyrhynchos*, Northern Pintail, and Greenwinged Teal *A. crecca* also frequent the marshes in spring, probably feeding on seeds and invertebrates. During spring, the timing of the thaw has a strong influence on the availability of food. While the marshes are still mostly covered with snow, meltponds attract many migratory birds. Seeds, bulbs, and other plant material are abundant then. As the thaw progresses, increasingly larger areas of

<sup>5.2.1</sup> Aquatic milieu

Table 3 Potential use of coastal habitats b	y waterfowl		
Habitats	Spring	Summer	Fall
Aquatic milieu Open water	Feeding and resting by diving ducks and seabirds; resting by geese and other ducks	Feeding, resting, and moulting by diving ducks and seabirds; brood rearing by Common Eiders	Feeding and resting by diving ducks and seabirds
Eelgrass bed	Feeding at openings in ice: Brant, Canada Geese, and American Wigeon	Feeding by diving ducks in moulting season	Feeding by Canada Geese, Brant, American Wigeon, American Black Duck, Northern Pintail, diving ducks
Shoreline milieu Mud/sand tidal (lats	Variable use depending on thaw; feeding and resting by Canada Geese, American Black Duck, and Northern Pintail	Feeding by diving ducks in moulting season	Feeding and resting by Canada Geese and dabbling ducks
Boulder-strewn tidal flat	Similar to mud/sand tidal flats, but not used to the same extent	Similar to mud/sand tidal flats, but not used to the same extent	Similar to mud/sand tidal flats, but not used to the same extent
Rocky tidal flat (rocky outcrop)	Limited attraction for resting and feeding by some diving ducks; brood rearing by Common Eiders	Limited attraction for resting and feeding by some diving ducks; brood rearing by Common Eiders	Limited attraction for resting and feeding by some diving ducks; brood rearing by Common Eiders
Salt marsh	Variable use depending on thaw; feeding by geese and dabbling ducks	Raising broods and moulting by ducks	Feeding by Canada Geese and dabbling ducks
Boulder-strewn shore fringed with vegetation	Same as marsh, but not nearly as attractive	Escape cover and feeding by broods and moulting ducks travelling along the coast	Same as marsh, but not nearly as attractive
Terrestrial milieu Freshwater marsh	Unknown, probably used for feeding	Unknown, probably used for feeding	Unknown, probably used for feeding
Heath	Feeding by Canada Geese	Nesting by ducks; moulting by geese and ducks	Feeding by Canada Geese and American Black Duck
Shrub	Not used	Nesting, moulting, escape cover, and feeding by ducks if along the edge of marsh or pond	Not used
Forest	Not used	Nesting along edges by ducks	Not used

the marsh become available. In summer, some dabbling ducks (American Black Duck, Northern Pintail, American Wigeon, Green-winged Teal) probably raise their broods in the marshes, benefiting from the abundant food supply (both animal and plant) and good escape cover provided by the vast expanses of *Carex paleacea* and/or the adjacent fringe of willows. These same features also undoubtedly attract dabbling ducks during the moulting period. In fall, *Canada Geese frequent the marshes to graze the foliage and to glean the seeds of sedges and grasses to supplement their main diet, which consists chiefly of the berries of <i>Empetrum* and *Vaccinium* and the foliage of eelgrass. Dabbling ducks also use this habitat to feed on seeds and invertebrates.

### 5.2.3 Terrestrial milieu

5.2.3.1 Freshwater marshes

Little information is available on the use of freshwater marshes, but they are probably used for feeding.

### 5.2.3.2 Heaths

At present, it is not possible to distinguish between bird use of *Empetrum* heaths and bird use of lichen heaths. Both types of heath appear to play an important role in the life cycle of several species of aquatic birds.

In spring, berries (*Empetrum nigrum, Vaccinium* spp.) that have remained under the snow all winter represent an important food source for Canada Geese (Reed et al. 1990); because snow cover on the islands is not deep, the berries become available early. In summer, several species of duck probably nest in the dense cover provided by ericaceous shrubs or in *Elymus* meadows, especially near the numerous ponds on the islands. Moulting ducks and geese also use these ponds. In fall, the heaths provide

an enormous quantity of food for Canada Geese and American Black Ducks in the form of *Empetrum* and *Vaccinium* berries.

The vast expanse of coastal heath north of Point Attikuan is frequented by Lesser Snow Geese, but little is known about their diet in this area.

### 5.2.3.3 Shrub and forest formations

During migration, shrub habitat is not used by waterfowl. In summer, shrub thickets are probably used for cover by some nesting, brood-rearing, and moulting ducks. Shrubs are particularly attractive as escape cover when they are located adjacent to feeding sites, such as ponds or marshes. Similarly, forest habitats are not used by aquatic birds during migration; in summer, however, some ducks (especially dabbling ducks) nest under trees (particularly conifers) on the edge of the forest or in groves of trees found on islands.

### 5.3 Key habitats for waterfowl

It is undoubtedly the diversity of habitats that makes the east coast of James Bay so attractive to aquatic birds, particularly waterfowl. Of the various types of habitat, it is the salt marshes, eelgrass beds, and heaths that seem to be the most important feeding and resting areas. During an overflight in the summer of 1989, it became evident that the shallow coastal lakes that are directly linked to the sea are also used by ducks for nesting and raising their young.

### 6.0 Conclusion

As was pointed out by the National Wetlands Working Group (1988), there is a paucity of information on the wetlands of the east coast of James Bay. Knowledge on their use by waterfowl is also inadequate, given the evident importance of the area as a major staging area for many species. This report has described the characteristic plant life, extent, and diversity of coastal habitats on the northeast coast of James Bay; we hope it will serve as a basis for future, more detailed, studies.

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1) Algae

List of plant species collected or observed in different habitats along the northeast co

Aquatic milieu: eelgrass l Shoreline milieu: tidal flat with veg Terrestrial milieu: freshwate forest (F)

ULVACEAE Énteromorpha sp CLADOPHORÁCEAE Cladophora sp. Rhizoclonium riparium (Roth) Harvey CHORDARIACEAE Chordaria flagelliformis (Müll.) C. Ag. LAMINARIACEAE Chorda filum (L.) Lamour. FUCACEAE Ascophyllum nodosum (L.) Le Jol. Fucus distichus L. 2) Vascular LYCOPODIACEAE Lycopodium annotinum L. sensu lato Lycopodium selago L. **OPHIOGLOSSACEAE** Botrychium lunaria (L.) Sw. PINACEAE Juniperus communis L. var. depressa Pursh Larix laricina (Du Roi) Koch Picea glauca (Moench) Voss Picea mariana (Mill.) BSP. SPARGANIACEAE Sparganium chlorocarpum Rydb ZOSTERACEAE Potamogeton filiformis Pers. var. borealis (Raf.) St. John Potamogeton perfoliatus L. ssp. richardsonii (Benn.) Hult. Potamogeton pectinatus L. Zostera marina L. RUPPIACEAE Ruppia maritima L. JUNCAGINACEAE Triglochin maritima L. Triglochin palustris L. POACEAE Agropyron trachycaulum (Link) Malte var. novae-angliae (Scribn.) Fern. Agrostis hyemalis (Walt.) BSP. I. tuckermanii (Fern.) Scoggan Calamagrostis canadensis (Michx.) Nutt. var. canadensis Calamagrostis deschampsioides Trin. Calamagrostis inexpansa Grav Calamagrostis neglecta (Ehrh.) Gaerin., Mey. & Scherb. Catabrosa aquatica (L.) Beauv. var. laurentiana Fern. Dupontia fisheri R. Br. ssp. psilosantha (Rupr.) Hult. Elymus mollis Trin. Restuca brachyphylla Schult. & Schult. I. ssp. brachyphylla Festuca rubra L. Festuca richardsonii Hook. Hierochloë odorata (L.) Beauv. Hordeum jubatum L. Poa albina L. Poa arctica R. Br. Poa eminens Presl Poa pratensis L. sensu lato Puccinellia langeana (Berl.) Soer. Puccinellia lucida Fern. & Weath. Puccinellia phryganodes (Trin.) Scribn. & Merr. Trisetum spicatum (L.) Richter var. molle (Michx.) Beal Trisetum spicatum (L.) Richter var. pilosiglume Fern. CYPERACEAE Carex aquatilis Wahl. ssp. aquatilis Carex aquatilis Wahl. var. stans (Drej.) Boott Carex aurea Nutt. Carex bicolor All. Carex bigelowii Torr. Carex canescens L. Carex capitata L. var. capitata

Carex diandra Schrank Carex disperma Dewey

Carex limosa L.

Carex gynocrates Wormsk.

Carex mackenziei Krecz.

Carex maritima Gunn. Carex microglochin Wahl.

Carex norvegica Retz. Carex paleacea Wahl.

Carex rariflora (Wahl.) Sm.

Carex glareosa Wahl. var. amphigena Fern.

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2) Vascular	E	T <sub>F</sub>	Bv	M <sub>S</sub>	M <sub>F</sub>	Н	S	F
Carex salina Wahl.				х		v		
Carex saxatilis L. var. militaris (Micrix.) Balley Carex scirpoidea Micrix.				х	х	x		
Carex subspathacea Wormsk.				X				
Eleocharis acicularis (L.) R. & S. Eleocharis kamtschatica (Mey.) Komprov				X				
Eleocharis smallii Britt.				x	X			
Eriophorum angustifolium Honckeny Eriophorum russeolum Fries sensu lato				X X	x	Х		
Eriophorum viridicarinatum (Engelm.) Fern.					x			
Scirpus caespitosus L. var. callosus Bigel.					X	X		
Scirpus maritimus L. var. paludosus (Nels.) Kük.				х				
Scirpus rufus (Huds.) Schrad. var. neogaeus Fern.			Х	X				
Lemna minor L.					х			•
Lemna trisulca L.					х			
Juncus albescens Lange				X		х		
Juncus alpinus Vill.			v	X				
Juncus bathcus willa. var. httoralis Engelin. Juncus bufonius L. sensu lato			л	x				
Luzula confusa Lindeberg						х		
LILIACEAE Maianthemum canadense Desf.							x	x
Tofieldia pusilla (Michx.) Pers.					X	х	х	
ORCHIDACEAE Habenaria dilatata (Pursh) Hook.				х	x			
Habenaria hyperborea (L.) R. Br.				x				
Habenaria obtusata (Pursh) Richards. Spiranthes romanzottiana Cham				x		x	x	
SALICACEAE								
Salix arctica Pallas Salix arctophila Cockerell ev A A Heller			·		x	x	x	
Salix brachycarpa Nutt.		•		х	n			
Salix candida Fluegge Salix glauca L. S.D. callicarbasa (Trouty.) Böcher				х		x	x	
Salix lanata L. ssp. calcicola (Fern. & Wieg.) Hult.						x		
Salix planifolia Pursh				v		v	· x	. <b>X</b>
Salix serissima (Bailey) Fern.				x	х	л		
Salix uva-ursi Pursh						х		
Myrica gale L.					х		х	ر
BETULACEAE						v	v	v
Alnus crispa (Alt.) Pursh var. moliis Fern. Alnus rugosa (Du Roi) Spreng.						л	<u>л</u> .	л
Betula glandulosa Michx.	,					х	x	X
Polygonum viviparum L.				х		х		
Rumex occidentalis Wats.				х	х			
Montia fontana L.				х				
CHENOPODIACEAE			1/	v				
Attriplex cf. glabriuscula Edmonston Salicornia europaea L. var. prostrata (Pall.) Fern.			х	X				
CARYOPHYLLACEAE								
Cerastium alpinum L. ssp. lanatum (Lam.) Aschers. & Graebn.			х			x		
Lychnis alpina L.			х	v		x		
Sagina nodosa (L.) Frenzi, var. pubescens Mert. & Koch Silene acaulis L. var. exscapa (All.) DC.				х		x		
Spergularia canadensis (Pers.) Don				· X				
Stellaria crassifolia Ehrh. Stellaria humifusa Roub.				X				
Stellaria longifolia Muhl.				x	х			
RANUNCULACEAE Anemone partillora Michx			. <b>x</b>			х		
Caltha palustris L.				•	х			
Coptis trifolia (L.) Salisb. ssp. groenlandica (Oeder) Hult. Ranunculus aquatilis L. var. eradicatus Laest				x	x		х	х
Ranunculus cymbalaria Pursh				x	••			
Ranunculus gmelinii DC. var. hookeri (Don) Benson Ranunculus pedatifidus Sm. ssp. affinis (R. Br.) Hult			x	х	х	x		
BRASSICACEAE			4			4		
Cardamine pratensis L. var. angustifolia Hook.				X x	X x			
Draba glabella Pursh			x	л	Δ	x		
DROSERACEAE Drosern anglica Huds					Y			
Drosera rotundifolia L.					x			
SARRACENIACEAE								v
SAXIFRAGACEAE								л
Parnassia kotzebuei Cham.			v	v		х	х	
ramassia patustiis L. ssp. neogaea (rem.) Hult. Saxifraga aizoides L.			X	А		х		
Saxifraga aizoon Jacq. var. neogaea Butters						X		

Saxifraga caespitosa L. ssp. exaratoides (Simm.) Englm. & Irmsch. Saxifraga oppositifolia L. Saxifraga tricuspidata Rottb. ROSACEAE Dryas integrifolia Vahl Potentilla egedii Wormsk. sensu lato Potentilla nivea L. sensu lato Potentilla palustris (L.) Scop. Potentilla pulchella R. Br. Potentilla tridentata Ait. Rubus acaulis Michx. Rubus chamaemorus L. Rubus pubescens Raf. FABACEAE Astragalus alpinus L. sensu lato Lathyrus japonicus Willd. var. aleuticus (Greene) Fern. Lathyrus palustris L. var. linearifolius Ser. Oxytropis viscida Nutt. var. hudsonica (Greene) Barneby EMPETRACEAE Empetrum nigrum L. ssp. hermaphroditum (Lange) Böcher VIOLACEAE Viola macloskeyi Lloyd ssp. pallens (DC.) S. Baker ELAEAGNACEAE Shepherdia canadensis (L.) Nutt. ONAGRACEAE Epilobium angustifolium L. ssp. angustifolium Epilobium latifolium L. Epilobium palustre L. var. lapponicum Wahl. Epilobium palustre L. var. longiramerum Fern. & Wieg. HALORAGACEAE Myriophyllum spicatum L. var. exalbescens (Fern.) Jeps. Myriophyllum verticillatum L. HIPPURIDACEAE Hippuris tetraphylla L.f. Hippuris vulgaris L. APIACEAE Cicuta bulbifera L. Heracleum lanatum Michx. Ligusticum scothicum L. Sium suave Walt. CORNACEAE Cornus canadensis L. PYROLACEAE Pyrola grandiflora Radius Pyrola secunda L. var. obtusata Turcz. ERICACEAE Andromeda glaucophylla Link Arctostaphylos rubra (Rehd. & Wils.) Fern. Kalmia angustifolia L. Kalmia polifolia Wang. Ledum groenlandicum Oeder Ledum groenlandicum Oeder Ledum palustre L. ssp. decumbens (Ait.) Hult. Rhododendron lapponicum (L.) Wahl. Vaccinium angustifolium Ait. sensu lato Vaccinium oxycoccus L. Vaccinium uliginosum L. ssp. gaultherioides (Bigel.) Young Vaccinium uliginosum L. ssp. pubescens (Wormsk.) Young Vaccinium vitis-idaea L. ssp. minus (Lodd.) Hult. PRIMULACEAE Primula with a structure of the st Primula egaliksensis Wormsk. Primula stricta Hornem. Trientalis borealis Raf. PLUMBAGINACEAE Armeria maritima (Mill.) Willd. ssp. labradorica (Wallr.) Hult. GENTIANACEAE Gentianella amarella (L.) Börner sensu lato Lomatogonium rotatum (L.) Fries Menyanthes trifoliata L. var. minor Raf. SCROPHULARIACEAE Castilleja pallida (L.) Spreng. ssp. septentrionalis (Lindl.) Scoggan Castilleja raupii Pennell Euphrasia arctica Lange Pedicularis groenlandica Retz. Pedicularis labradorica Wirsing Pedicularis habradorica wrising Pedicularis parvijlora Sm. Rhinanthus borealis (Sterneck) Druce LENTIBULARIACEAE Pinguicula vulgaris L. Utricularia intermedia Hayne PLANTAGINACEAE Plantago maritima L. sensu lato RUBIACEAE Galium trifidum L. Galium trifidum L. var. pusillum Gray CAPRIFOLIACEAE Linnaea borealis L. ssp. americana (Forbes) Hult. CAMPANULACEAE

2) Vascular

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Campanula rotundifolia L.

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2) Vascular	E	T <sub>F</sub>	Bv	Ms	M <sub>F</sub>	н	s	F
ASTERACEAE								
Achillea nigrescens (Mey.) Rydb. Antennaria bulcherrima (Hook.) Greene			х			X		
Artemisia campestris L. ssp. borealis (Pall.) Hall & Clements			х		v	x (		
Aster borealis (T. & G.) Provancher Aster cf. johannensis Fern.*					x			
Aster lanceolatus Willd. ssp. hesperius (A. Gray) Semple & Chmiel.			х	x	X X		х	
Chrysanthemum arcticum L. ssp. polare Hult.			х	х				v
Petasites palmatus (Ait.) Gray Petasites sagittatus (Banks) Gray				х	x			л
Senecio congestus (R. Br.) DC.				х				
Solidago macrophylla Pursh var. thyrsoldea (Mey.) Fern. Tanacetum huronense Nutt. sensu lato						х		
Taraxacum cf. lacerum Greene Taraxacum cf. umbrimum Dablet			X X			x		
3) Cryptogams				M_s	M_F	н	5	<u> </u>
Bryophytes								
PTILIDIACEAE Ptilidium ciliare (L.) Hampe						х	x	х
SPHAGNACEAE								x
Sphagnum capillifolium (Ehrh.) Hedw. var. capillifolium Sphagnum compactum DC. ex Lam. & DC.							х	x
Sphagnum fallax (Klinggr.) Klinggr.							x	· X
Sphagnum lindbergii Schimp. ex Lindb.							х	X
Sphagnum magellanicum Brid. Sphagnum russowii Warnst.			·					x
Sphagnum squarrosúm Crome					x			
ANDREAEACEAE Andreaea rupestris Hedw.						х	х	х
POLYTRICHACEAE				x	· .	x	x	
Polytrichum alpham Hedw.					x	X	х	Х
Polytrichum hyperboreum R. Br. Polytrichum juniperinum Hedw.						x	х	х
Polytrichum longisetum Brid.						X X		
Polytrichum pitiferum Heaw. Polytrichum strictum Brid.					x	x	х	х
FUNARIACEAE					x			
ORTHOTRICHACEAE						v		
Orthotrichum speciosum Nees ex Sturm var. speciosum Ulota hutchinsiae (Sm.) Hamm.						X	х	х
BRYACEAE				x				
Bryum algenieum Hodw. Bryum caespiticium Hedw.				х		v		
Bryum lisae var. cuspidatum (B.S.G.) Marg. Bryum stenotrichum C. Miill.				<b>x</b> '		л		
Leptobryum pyriforme (Hedw.) Wils.						X X		
MNIACEAE								
Cinclidium stygium Sw. Plagiomnium ellipticum (Brid.) Kop				x	X X			
Rhizomnium gracile Kop.					х	•		
AULACOMNIACEAE Aulacomnium palustre (Hedw.) Schwaegt.				x	х	x	х	Х
Aulacomnium turgidum (Wahlenb.) Schwaegr.				x		X		
Meesia triquetra (Richt.) Aongstr.					х	v		
Meesia uliginosa Hedw. Paludella squarrosa (Hedw.) Brid.				x	x	л		
THUIDIACEAE					x	x		
AMBLYSTEGIACEAE								
Calliergon cordifolium (Hedw.) Kindb.					X X			
Calliergon richardsonii (Mitt.) Kindb. ex Warnst.			•		х	x		
Calliergon sarmentosum (Wahlenb.) Kindb. Calliergon stramineum (Brid.) Kindb.						А	x	х
Campylium polygamum (B.S.G.) C. Jens.				X X	х			
Drepanocladus aduncus (Hedw.) Warnst. var. kneiffii (B.S.G.) Monk.				x	v	v	v	
Drepanocladus exannulatus (B.S.G.) Warnst. Drepanocladus fluitans (Hedw.) Warnst.				X	X	X	л	
Drepanocladus revolvens (Sw.) Warnst.				Y	x	X X	x	
Drepanocladus uncinatus (Hedw.) Warnst. Scorpidium scorpioides (Hedw.) Limpr.				x	x	~	<i>*</i>	
BRACHYTHECIACEAE Brachythecium salebrosum (Web & Mohr) BSG		•		x				
Tomenthypnum nitens (Hedw.) Loeske					·x	х	x	
HYPNACEAE Ptilium crista-castrensis (Hedw.) De Not.							х	х

### 3) Cryptogams HYLOCOMIACEAE Hylocomium splendens (Hedw.) B.S.G. Pleurozium schreberi (Brid.) Mitt. RHYTIDIACEAE Rhytidium rugosum (Hedw.) Kindb. DICRANACEAE Cynodontium strumiferum (Hedw.) Lindb. Dicranum elongatum Schleich. ex Schwaegr. Dicranum fuscescens Sm. Dicranum groenlandicum Brid. Dicranum leioneuron Kindb. Dicranum majus Sm. Dicranum polysetum Sw. Dicranum scoparium Hedw. Dicranum spadiceum Zett. Dicranum undulatum Brid. Oncophorus virens (Hedw.) Brid. Oncophorus wahlenbergii Brid. Paraleucobryum longifolium (Hedw.) Loeske DITRICHACEAE Ceratodon purpureus (Hedw.) Brid. Distichum inclinatum (Hedw.) B.S.G. GRIMMIACEAE Grimmia affinis Hoppe & Hornsch. ex Hornsch. Rhacomitrium canescens (Hedw.) Brid. Rhacomitrium heterostichum (Hedw.) Brid. var. microcarpon (Hedw.) Boul. Rhacomitrium lanuginosum (Hedw.) Brid. Schistidium rivulare (Brid.) Podp. Lichens PELTIGERACEAE Peltigera aphthosa (L.) Willd. NEPHROMACEAE Nephroma arcticum (L.) Torss. LECIDEACEAE Rhizocarpon geographicum (L.) DC. CLADONIACEAE Cladina mitis (Sandst.) Hale & W. Culb. Cladina rangiferina (L.) Harm. Cladina stellaris (Opiz) Brodo Cladonia amaurocraea (Flörke) Schaer. Cladonia ecmocyna (Ach.) Nyl. Cladonia gracillis (L.) Willd. ssp. gracilis Cladonia metacorallifera Asah. Cladonia uncialis (L.) Wigg. UMBILICARIACEAE Umbilicaria cylindrica (L.) Del. LECANORACEAE Cetraria cucullata (Bell.) Ach. Cetraria cucullata (Bell.) Ach. Cetraria ericetorum Opiz Cetraria laevigata Rass. Cetraria nivalis (L.) Ach. USNEACEAE Alectoria nidulifera Norrl. Alectoria ochroleuca (Hoffm.) Mass. Bryoria nitidula (Th. Fr.) Brodo & D. Hawksw. Cornicularia divergens Ach. Thamnolia vermicularis (Sw.) Ach. ex Schaer. SPHAEROPHORACEAE Sphaerophorus globosus (Huds.) Vain.

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•Aster johannensis. Apparently a variant of the complex Aster simplex - Aster hesperius (Riley and McKay 1980).

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			· X		
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			X		
•	x		X X X X X	X X X	x x x
			X X	х	х
			X	x	x
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			X X X X X	x x x	x
			X	x	
			X X X X	x	

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