

3.0 METHODOLOGY FOR IMPACT ANALYSIS

This chapter provides a discussion of the methodology used to conduct the quantitative analysis to understand the impacts of alternatives on pollock catch (Chapter 4), Chinook salmon (Chapter 5), and the economic impacts (RIR). For the remaining resource categories considered in this analysis, marine mammals, seabirds, other groundfish, EFH, ecosystem relationships, and environmental justice, impacts of the alternatives were evaluated largely qualitatively based on results and trends from the quantitative analysis.

The following description of the methodology and subsequent analyses are unavoidably lengthy. We have tried to err on the side of inclusiveness, rather than run the risk of omitting any information or analysis that might aid decision-makers and the public in evaluating the relative merits of the alternatives. Also, the description of modeling methods in Section 3.3 contains highly technical information and mathematical equations that we have seen fit to include in the text rather than consign to an appendix. Although we do not expect that all readers will want to follow these equations, we have placed the methods description prominently to encourage public scrutiny of the scientific rigor with which the analyses have been conducted. Yet, however lengthy, detailed, and technical the analyses, we have tried our best where possible to keep the information accessible to the reader.

This chapter also provides a summary of the reasonably foreseeable future actions that may change the predicted impacts of the alternatives on the resources components analyzed in this EIS. Relevant and recent information on each of the resource components analyzed in this EIS is contained in the chapter addressing that resource component and is not repeated here in Chapter 3.

3.1 Estimating Chinook salmon bycatch in the pollock fishery

Overall, salmon bycatch levels are estimated based on extensive observer coverage using the NMFS Catch Accounting System (CAS). For the pollock fishery, the vast majority of tows are observed either directly at sea or at offloading locations aboard motherships or at shore-based processing plants. The observer data is used to allow inseason managers to evaluate when to open and close all groundfish fisheries based on bycatch levels of prohibited species, such as salmon and halibut, and catch levels of target groundfish species. The process of using observer data (in addition to other landings information) to set fishery season length relies on assuming that catch and bycatch rate information collected by observers is similar to catch and bycatch rates by unobserved fishing vessels. Data from observed vessels and processors is extrapolated to catch made by unobserved vessels.

The sampling intensity for salmon bycatch in the pollock fishery is very high in order to reduce the severity of potential sampling issues and to satisfy the demands of inseason management. Because sampling fractions are high for the pollock fishery, uncertainty associated with the magnitude of salmon bycatch is relatively low. Statistically rigorous estimators have been developed that suggest that for the Eastern Bering Sea pollock fishery, the levels of salmon bycatch are precisely estimated with coefficients of variation of around 5 percent (Miller 2005²⁷). This indicates that, assuming that the observed fishing

²⁷ Miller's dissertation represents a thorough presentation of statistically sound methodology that accurately characterizes low variation in salmon bycatch estimates. However, NMFS recognizes the differences between its estimates and

operations are unbiased relative to unobserved operations, the total salmon bycatch levels are precisely estimated for the fleet as a whole. Imprecision of the estimates of total annual Chinook salmon bycatch is considered negligible.

3.1.1 Monitoring Catcher/processors and motherships

Catcher/processors and motherships are required to carry two NMFS-certified observers during each fishing day. These vessels must also have an observer sampling station and a motion-compensated flow scale, which is used to weigh all catch in each haul. The observer sampling station is required to include a table, motion compensated platform scale, and other monitoring tools to assist observers in sampling. Each observer covers a 12 hour shift and all hauls are observed unless an observer is unable to sample (*e.g.*, due to illness or injury).

Estimates of the weight of each species in the catch are derived from sampling. A sample is a specific portion of the haul that is removed and examined by the observer. Catch in the sample is sorted by species, identified, and weighed by the observer. Species counts also are obtained for non-predominant species. Observer samples are collected using random sampling techniques to the extent possible on commercial fishing vessels. Observer samples are extrapolated to the haul level under the assumption that sample composition represents the composition of an entire haul. The sample proportion of each haul in the pollock fishery is relatively high because catch is generally not diverse and excellent sampling tools, such as flow scales and observer sample stations, are available.

Sampling for salmon is conducted as part of the overall species composition sampling for each haul. The observer collects and records information about the number of salmon in each sample and the total weight of each haul. NMFS estimates the total number of salmon in each haul by extrapolating the number of salmon in the species composition samples to the total haul weight. In the rare case that an observer on an AFA catcher/processor or mothership is unable to sample a haul for species composition, NMFS applies species composition information from observed hauls to non-observed hauls.

Catcher vessels deliver unsorted catch to the three motherships that participate in the AFA pollock fisheries. NMFS does not require these catcher vessels to carry observers because catch is not removed from the trawl's codend (the detachable end of the trawl net where catch accumulates) prior to it being transferred to the mothership. Observer sampling occurs on the mothership following the same estimation processes and monitoring protocols that are described above for catcher/processors.

While regulations require vessel personnel to retain salmon until sampled by an observer, salmon that are retained by catcher/processor and mothership crew outside of the observer's sample are not included in the observer's samples and are not used to estimate the total number of salmon caught. However, observers examine these salmon for coded-wire tags and may collect biological samples.

those presented in Miller 2005. Chapter 9 addresses the public comment about this issue. In brief, the main reason that Miller's estimates are considerably higher than NMFS is that partial and whole-haul samples with no Chinook salmon were inadvertently excluded in his estimation. Prior to 2008, the observer program had a data convention that if a sample was taken and no salmon were found, then a zero for the number of salmon in the sample was recorded. These specimen records were inadvertently overlooked in Miller's dissertation. A second, relatively minor issue, is that Miller's design and model-based estimators assume that the observer coverage for 60-125' vessels was exactly 30 percent for all trips within each quarter of the calendar year. In reality, these vessels often have a much higher levels of coverage based on trips (sometimes in excess of 50 percent) and therefore this assumption may lead to estimates that are biased (depending on the real level of observer coverage). One simple solution is to use the true ratio of observed and unobserved trips or fishing days for each year and quarter and this was noted in his study but at the time, the information was unavailable.

3.1.2 Monitoring catcher vessels delivering to shoreside processors or stationary floating processors

Catcher vessels in the inshore sector are required to carry observers based on vessel length.

Catcher vessels 125 feet in length or greater are required to carry an observer during all of their fishing days (100 percent coverage).

Catcher vessels greater than 60 feet in length and up to 125 feet in length are required to carry an observer at least 30 percent of their fishing days in each calendar quarter, and during at least one fishing trip in each target fishery category (30 percent coverage).

Catcher vessels less than 60 feet in length are not required to carry an observer. However, no vessels in this length category participate in the Bering Sea pollock fisheries.

Observers sample hauls onboard the catcher vessels to collect species composition and biological information. Observers use a random sampling methodology that requires observers to take multiple, equal sized, samples from throughout the haul to obtain a sample size of approximately 300 kilograms. Catch from catcher vessels delivering to shoreside processing plants or floating processors generally is either dumped or mechanically pumped from a codend (i.e., the end of the trawl net where catch accumulates) directly into recirculating seawater (RSW) tanks. Observers attempt to obtain random, species composition samples by collecting small amounts of catch as it flows from the codend to the RSW tanks.

This particular collection method is difficult and dangerous, as observers must obtain a relatively small amount of fish from the catch flowing out of the codend as it is emptied into the RSW tanks. A large codend may contain over 100 mt of fish. This sampling is typically done on-deck, where the observer is exposed to the elements and subject to the operational hazards associated with the vessel crew's hauling, lifting, and emptying of the codend into the large hatches leading to the tanks. In contrast, the sampling methods used on catcher/processors and motherships allow observers to collect larger samples under more controlled conditions. On these vessels, the observer is able to collect samples downstream of the fish holding tanks, just prior to the catch sorting area that precedes the fish processing equipment. Additionally, the observer is below decks and has access to catch weighing scales and an observer sampling station.

Because the composition of catch in the pollock fishery is almost 100 percent pollock, species composition sampling generally works well for common species. However, for uncommon species such as salmon, a larger sample size is desired; however, large sample sizes are generally not logistically possible on the catcher vessels. Instead, estimates of salmon bycatch by catcher vessels are based on a full count or census of the salmon bycatch at the shoreside processing plant or stationary floating processor whenever possible.

Vessel operators are prohibited from discarding salmon at sea until the number of salmon has been determined by an observer, either on the vessel or at the processing plant, and the collection of any scientific data or biological samples from the salmon has been completed. Few salmon are reported discarded at sea by observed catcher vessels. However, any salmon reported as discarded at sea by the observer are added into the observer's count of salmon at the processing plant. Unlawful discard of salmon at sea may also subject a vessel operator to enforcement action.

3.1.3 Monitoring shoreside processors

AFA inshore processors are required to provide an observer for each 12 consecutive hour period of each calendar day during which the processor takes delivery of, or processes, groundfish harvested by a vessel directed fishing for pollock in the Bering Sea. NMFS regulates plant monitoring through a permitting process. Each plant that receives AFA pollock is required to develop and operate under a NMFS-approved catch monitoring and control plan (CMCP). Monitoring standards for CMCP are described in regulation at 50 CFR 679.28(g).

These monitoring standards detail the flow of fish from the vessel to the plant ensuring all groundfish delivered are sorted and weighed by species. CMCPs include descriptions and diagram of the flow of catch from the vessel to the plant, scales for weighing catch, and accommodations for observations. Depending on the plant, observers will physically remove all salmon from the flow of fish before the scale as it is conveyed into the plant, or supervise the removal of salmon by plant personnel. Observers assigned to the processing plant are responsible for reading the CMCPs and verifying the plant is following the plan laid out in the CMCP. Vessel observers complete the majority of a salmon census during an offload, with the plant observer providing breaks during long offloads.

One performance standard required in CMCPs is that all catch must be sorted and weighed by species. The CMCP must describe the order in which sorting and weighing processes take place. Processors meet this performance standard in different ways. Some processors choose to weigh all of the catch prior to sorting and then deduct the weight of non-pollock catch in order to obtain the weight of pollock. Other processors choose to sort the catch prior to weighing and obtain the weight of pollock directly. No matter how the weight of pollock is obtained, it will only be accurate if bycatch is effectively sorted, and methods must be in place to minimize the amount of bycatch that makes it past the sorters into the factory. CMCPs were not designed to track individual fish throughout the shoreside processing plant and the focus of the performance standards is on monitoring the large volumes of species such as pollock, not on monitoring small quantities of bycatch. Currently, the practice of deducting bycatch from the total catch weight of pollock provides an incentive for processors to report bycatch, including salmon.

3.1.3.1 Salmon accounting at shoreside processors

When a catcher vessel offloads at the dock, prohibited species such as crab, salmon, and halibut are identified and enumerated by the vessel observer during the offload. The observer monitors the offload and, with the assistance of the plant's processing crew, attempts to remove all salmon from the catch. Salmon that are missed during sorting will end up in the processing facility, which requires special treatment by the plant and the observers to ensure they are counted. These "after-scale" salmon (so called because they were initially weighed along with pollock) creates tracking difficulties for the plant and the observer.

Although after scale salmon are required to be given to an observer, there is no direct observation of salmon once they are moved past the observer and into the plant. Observers currently record after scale salmon as if they had collected them. However, such salmon can better be characterized as plant reported information. Further complications in plant based salmon accounting occur when multiple vessels are delivering simultaneously, making it difficult or impossible to determine which vessel's trip these salmon should be assigned to. Currently, plant personnel are very cooperative with saving after-scale salmon for observers at this stage of sampling and after scale salmon numbers are relatively low. However, if management measures create incentives for not reporting salmon, this reportedly high level of cooperation could be reduced. Additionally, complications occur when multiple vessels are delivering in quick succession to a plant because it is often impossible to assign salmon to a vessel.

3.1.4 NMFS Catch Accounting System

NMFS determines the number of Chinook salmon caught as bycatch in the Bering Sea pollock fishery using the NMFS's CAS. The CAS was developed to receive catch reports from multiple sources, evaluate data for duplication or errors, estimate the total catch by species or species category, and determine the appropriate "bin" or account to attribute the catch. Historically, these accounts have been established to mirror the myriad combinations of gear, area, sector, and season that are established in the annual groundfish harvest specifications. In general, the degree to which a seasonal or annual allocation requires active NMFS management is often inversely related to the size of the allocation. Typically, the smaller the catch limit, the more intensive the management required to ensure that it is not exceeded.

The CAS account structure is different for each major regulatory program, such as the Amendment 80 Program, the GOA Rockfish Program, the AFA pollock fishery, and the CDQ Program. For example, separate accounts are used to monitor Atka mackerel caught by Amendment 80 vessels and non-Amendment 80 vessels. To monitor this catch, accounts are created for all Atka mackerel caught, separate accounts if the vessel is in a cooperative or limited access sector, separate accounts for fish caught in or outside special harvest limit areas, and finally, seasonal accounts for all scenarios combined. This results in 10 separate accounts that had to be created by programmers for use by NMFS fisheries managers.

The AFSC's Fisheries Monitoring and Analysis Division provides observer data about groundfish catch and salmon bycatch, including expanded information to NMFS. NMFS estimates salmon bycatch for unobserved catcher vessels using algorithms implemented in its CAS. The haul-specific observer information is used by the CAS to create salmon bycatch rates from observed vessels that are applied to total groundfish catch in each delivery (trip level) by an unobserved vessel. The rate is calculated using the observed salmon bycatch divided by the groundfish weight, which results in a measure of salmon per metric ton of groundfish caught. Salmon bycatch rates are calculated separately for Chinook salmon and non-Chinook salmon.

The CAS is programmed to extrapolate information from observed vessels to unobserved vessels by matching the type of information available from observed vessels with that of an unobserved vessel. Surrogate bycatch rates are applied using the most closely available data from an observed catcher vessel by:

- processing sector (in this case, inshore sector)
- week ending date,
- fishery (pollock),
- gear (pelagic trawl),
- trip target,
- special area (such as the catcher vessel operational area), and
- federal reporting area.

If no data are available for an observed vessel within the same sector, then rates will be applied based on observer data from vessels in all sectors in the target fishery. If observer data are not available from the same week, then a three-week moving average (if the reporting area or special area is the same) or three-month moving average (if data with the same reporting or special areas are not available) is applied. Similarly, if data from the same Federal reporting area is not available, then observer data from the pollock fishery in the Bering Sea, as a whole, will be applied. However, this latter methodology is rarely used. NMFS generally receives adequate information to calculate bycatch rates for observed vessels that operate in a similar time and place as the unobserved catcher vessels.

The CAS methodology used to estimate prohibited species catch is the same for the inshore and offshore sectors; however, the methodology to obtain haul-specific estimates is different between the sectors. The offshore sector relies on robust sampling methods and the inshore sector uses a census approach.

Estimates of salmon, crab, and halibut bycatch for catcher processors and motherships in the pollock fishery rely on at-sea sampling. To estimate the bycatch of these species, at-sea observers take several “within haul” samples that are extrapolate to obtain an estimate of specie-specific catch for a sampled haul. The haul-specific estimate is used by CAS to calculate a bycatch rate that is applied to unobserved hauls. Thus, there are several levels of estimation: (1) from sample to haul, (2) sampled hauls to unsampled hauls within a trip, and potentially, (3) sampled hauls to unsampled hauls between vessels.

The extrapolation method for prohibited species, such as halibut, salmon, and crab are the same for observed vessels in the inshore pollock sector. Sampling of prohibited species for this sector is conducted by observers both at-sea and shoreside. The majority of catch is assessed by observers when a vessel offloads catch at a plant (shoreside). During an offload, observers count all prohibited species as they are removed from the vessel. Prohibited species catch that is discarded at-sea is assessed by onboard observers. The total amount of prohibited species at-sea discard is added to the shoreside census information to obtain a total amount of specie-specific discard for a trip. NMFS uses the total discard information (inshore discards plus at-sea discards) to create a bycatch rate that is applied to unobserved vessels. The catch accounting system uses the shoreside information for salmon bycatch only if the offloading vessel also had an observer onboard. As a result, only salmon bycatch data from observed trips are used when calculating a bycatch rate.

3.2 Estimating Chinook salmon saved and forgone pollock catch

The first step in the impact analysis was to estimate how Chinook salmon bycatch (and pollock catch) might have changed in each year from 2003 to 2007 under the different alternatives. The years 2003 to 2007 were chosen as the analytical base years because that was the most recent 5 year time period reflective of recent fishing patterns at the time of initial Council action, with 2007 representing the highest historical bycatch of Chinook. Catch accounting changed beginning in the 2003 pollock fishery with the CAS. Since 2003, the CAS has enabled consistent sector-specific and spatially-explicit treatment of the Chinook salmon bycatch data for comparative purposes across years. Thus, starting the analysis in 2003 utilized the most consistent and uniform data set that was available from NMFS on a sector-specific basis.

The selected years for analysis included the available data at that time (2008 data were unavailable). NMFS decided that including 2008 in the analysis would have delayed completion and since the purpose of the analysis was to estimate the Chinook salmon saved and forgone pollock catch and related impacts, extending the period would have had little effect on the conclusions. In fact, because the bycatch in 2008 was below all caps under consideration, most likely there would have been no salmon saved or pollock forgone under any of the alternatives in 2008. The data from 2003-2007 is sufficient to highlight relative differences among the alternatives and associated options and show how these alternatives and options perform given the variability in Chinook salmon bycatch between seasons and among sectors and years. Final EIS and Final RIR do include 2008 data on Chinook salmon bycatch, the pollock fishery, and Chinook salmon stock status and directed fisheries to provide an understanding of the existing conditions.

This analysis assumes that past fleet behavior approximates operational behavior under the alternatives, but stops short of estimating changes in fishing vessel operations. While it is expected that the vessel operators will change their behavior to avoid salmon bycatch and associated potential losses in pollock revenue, data were unavailable to accurately predict the nature of these changes.

The impact of alternative Chinook salmon bycatch management measures is evaluated by using the actual bycatch of Chinook salmon, by season and sector, for the years 2003-2007 to estimate when alternative cap levels would have been reached and closed the pollock fishery during those years. This allows the alternatives to be compared to Alternative 1 status quo (no hard cap).

In some cases, the alternatives and options would not have closed the pollock fisheries earlier than actually occurred during these years and in other cases the alternative and options would have closed the pollock fisheries earlier than actually occurred. When an alternative would have closed the pollock fishery earlier, an estimate is made of (1) the amount of pollock TAC that would have been left unharvested and (2) the reduction in the amount of Chinook salmon bycatch as a result of the closure. The unharvested or forgone pollock catch and the reduction in Chinook salmon bycatch is then used as the basis for assessing the impacts of the alternative. This estimate of forgone pollock catch and reduction in Chinook salmon bycatch also is used as a basis for estimating the economic impacts of the alternatives.

The analysis used actual catch of Chinook salmon in the Bering Sea pollock fishery, by season, first at the fleet level (CDQ and non-CDQ), and then at the sector-level (inshore CV (S), Mothership (M), offshore CP (P), and CDQ) for the years 2003-2007. Weekly data from the NMFS Alaska Region were used to approximate when the potential cap would have been reached. The day when the fishery would have closed was estimated by interpolating the week-ending totals that bracketed the fleet- or sector-specific seasonal cap. This date was then used to estimate the total pollock that was taken by that date and compared against total pollock catch by fleet or sector during the whole season, to provide an estimate of pollock catch that would have been forgone had a sector or fleet been closed down by the cap. Using an interpolated value for the date a cap would be reached gives a better approximation of the procedure inseason management uses to notify the fleet of a closure resulting from reaching a PSC limit (whereby caps are rarely exceeded because closure notifications are issued when PSC limits/caps are projected to be reached).

Tables of when caps would have been reached under each scenario (fleetwide and then separately by sector) are included in Chapter 5. The date upon which the cap would have been reached was estimated by taking the interpolated midpoint between week-ending dates based on the level of catch at the next week-ending date (when the cap was exceeded) and the one preceding that week. With this date, the remaining salmon caught by the fleet (or sector, depending upon the option under investigation) was computed as the sum from that date until the end of the year. For example, to compute the expected number of Chinook that would have been caught under a particular a cap in a given year:

- 1) Evaluate the cumulative daily bycatch records of Chinook salmon and find the date that the cap was exceeded (e.g., September 15);
- 2) Compute the number of pollock and Chinook salmon that the fleet (or sector) caught from September 16 through the end of the season.

Tables indicating the fleet-wide and sector specific amount of salmon saved (in absolute numbers of salmon) were constructed and are included in Chapter 5. Corresponding levels of pollock that was forgone under these scenarios is presented in the RIR. The impact of the forgone pollock on the pollock population is discussed in Section 4.3.

Chapter 4 analyzes the affect on the anticipated take of pollock within seasons and areas under the alternative hard caps and options for season and sector splits. This was illustrated by analyzing historical fishing patterns (among sectors and in space) and accounting for changes in the bycatch when sector-specific caps were reached. To illustrate this effect, tables were constructed and are included in Chapter 4 to show how the percentage of bycatch within each of the section and area strata would change.

Alternative 2

For the range of cap options under Alternative 2, a subset of the options under consideration was selected for detailed impact analysis. These include the following seasonal A/B percentage allocation options: 70/30, 58/42, 50/50. To facilitate the examination of the options, seasonal split Option 1-3 (55/45) is not evaluated in detail as the effects of this seasonal distribution are similar to 58/42 split and thus would not provide much contrast in comparison with other options. The following sector split allocations were examined in detail:

	CDQ	inshore CV	Mothership	Offshore CP
Option 1	10%	45%	9%	36%
Option 2a	3%	70%	6%	21%
Option 2d	6.5%	57.5%	7.5%	28.5%

Sector split allocations are constant across seasons in Alternative 2. Results for Alternative 2 do not incorporate a rollover provision from A to B season.

The seasonal cap allocations influence the extent to which different overall fishery cap levels would be constraining. The extent to which seasonal allocations impact salmon mortality is evaluated explicitly since the age and stock composition are also broken out by season. Seasonal distributional effects are evaluated individually at the fleet-wide level (Chapter 5.3.2.1) as well as in conjunction with the broad range sector split options in Alternative 2 for magnification of specific effects at the sector level (Chapter 5.3.2.2).

Cooperative provisions for the inshore CV fleet are examined qualitatively. Cooperative provisions apply under Alternatives 2 and 4 and do not apply for Alternative 3, triggered caps.

Alternatives 4 and 5

For the scenarios under Alternative 4, the following options, as indicated in Chapter 2, were examined:

- 1) Sector split (by season):

	CDQ	inshore CV	Mothership	Offshore CP
A season	9.3%	49.8%	8.0%	32.9%
B season	5.5%	69.3%	7.3%	17.9%

- 2) Seasonal split (70/30)
- 3) Rollover 80% within sectors from A to B seasons
- 4) Unrestricted transferable quotas

For the scenarios under Alternative 5, the following options, as indicated in Chapter 2, were examined:

- 1) Sector split (by season):

	CDQ	inshore CV	Mothership	Offshore CP
A season	9.3%	49.8%	8.0%	32.9%
B season	5.5%	69.3%	7.3%	17.9%

- 2) Seasonal split (70/30)
- 3) Rollover 100% within sectors from A to B seasons
- 4) Unrestricted transferable quotas

The analysis uses sector specific information with the option of transferability and other options as follows. If the catch within a sector is below its cap, the catch remains the same. If the cap for a specific

sector is reached, the cap gets adjusted by the sum of the difference of other caps (which may be zero). This assumes that information about transfer levels exists during the season so that the amount of salmon that would be remaining from the other sectors at the end of the season is known. If a sector's catch is below the cap, the remaining allowance is allocated to the other sectors based on their relative salmon allocation specified by the alternative and season. In practice, the reallocation of salmon may be done by perceived needs relative to pollock quota remaining. For generality, a transferability factor was added such that when set to 1.0, all sectors donate their remaining salmon bycatch to an inseason reserve. Non-negative values less than 1.0 indicate that degree that sectors provide their remaining seasonal cap at levels lower than the total available (values of zero indicate no transfers among sectors). The steps to this process can be summarized as:

- 1) Determine the initial salmon allocation remaining for each year and sector cap, without transfer or rollover (Alternative 4 scenarios 1 and 2, Alternative 5 scenarios 1 and 2).
- 2) Calculate the sector transfer levels for each year for the A-seasons and re-adjust sector caps and recomputed A-season values (allocating reserves when available).
- 3) Compute updated A-season effective sector-specific caps (with transfers), save these dates.
- 4) With any salmon cap remaining from A-season, optionally allow 80% to rollover to B-season amounts (from A-season) and provide new sector specific caps for B-season (Alternative 4 only)
- 5) B-season sector caps invoked with transferability for all cases (though the ability to do calculations with non-transferability is retained).

For both scenarios under Alternatives 4 and 5, as with the previous alternatives evaluated, "effective" mean seasonal caps were computed as the mean overall cap that resulted in any years (from 2003-2007) when a sector reached its pre-transfer, within season cap. This resulted in a mean value of 46,561 for the "A" season and 20,372 salmon for the "B" season (for Alternative 4 scenario 1, with 80% A-season rollover and sector transferability). For the same scenario with no A-season transferability, the mean "cap" for the A-season drops to 44,974 Chinook salmon (the B season was the same). For Alternative 5, the effective caps were 31,550 Chinook for the A season cap and 23,490 for the B season. The purpose of this approach was to simplify computation of the adult equivalent values that would be expected (since stock-of-origin and age composition information wasn't available at sector-specific levels). Note that the "effective cap" described here is based on a mean values as applied for 2003-2007. The intention is to capture the anticipated effect of alternative cap scenarios and account for seasonal and sector-specific bycatch patterns.

In order to estimate the relative impact of an 80% rollover from the A to B seasons under Alternative 4, a sensitivity analysis was conducted by comparing results for 80% against two alternative scenarios: no rollover (0%) or full rollover (100%). The ability to have transferable quotas within each season is evaluated by making two different fleet behavior assumptions in the A season to operate under either perfect transferability or no transferability. This provides two contrasting sets of results for A season catch. In the B season it is assumed that the fleet would have perfect transferability.

Alternative 3

To evaluate cap trigger dates, a database was created which expanded observer data proportionally from within each NMFS statistical area, month, and sector (and CDQ) to match NMFS Alaska Regional statistics, as of April 30th 2008. This allowed for the data to be evaluated with a spatial component, but the data still sum to the official total estimates maintained by the NMFS Alaska Region. The trigger areas considered were different for the A and B seasons, so each observation was classified as falling within or outside these areas as part of the database. The individual haul records were then aggregated to match unique area-month-sector strata, along with inside- and outside-trigger area categorizations. The observer data from 1991-2002 were retained for the analysis, but for clarity, the 2003-2007 period was the focus time period for evaluating trigger closure areas.

The treatment of the data involved finding when some specified trigger salmon bycatch levels would have been reached, then simply summing values from that date onwards through the end of the season. For example, to compute the expected number of Chinook that would have been caught under a particular cap in a given year:

- 1) Evaluate the cumulative daily bycatch records of Chinook and find the date that the cap was exceeded (e.g., September 15th);
- 2) Compute the number of pollock that the fleet (or sector) caught from September 16th till the end of the season;
- 3) Compute the average Chinook divided by tons of pollock *outside of trigger area* from September 16th onwards in that year (the Chinook rate)
- 4) Multiply the Chinook rate by the pollock from (2) to get expected total Chinook, given trigger closure date from (1).

Since this procedure implies that the pollock *could have* been caught outside of trigger area, it is useful to evaluate the catch rate of pollock from these same data. For this purpose, the pollock catch per tow and catch per hour towed (relative to observed values inside trigger areas) was examined.

To evaluate the consequence of these triggered closures on catch composition to river-of-origin, qualitative comparisons were made drawing from results on the impacts of hard caps. The genetics data and accounting methods were unavailable at the level required to evaluate the impact of closing a trigger at different times of the year.

3.3 Estimating Chinook salmon adult equivalent bycatch

To understand impacts on Chinook populations, a method was developed to estimate how the different bycatch numbers would propagate to adult equivalent spawning salmon. Estimating the adult equivalent bycatch is necessary because not all salmon caught as bycatch in the pollock fishery would otherwise have survived to return to their spawning streams. Currently, accurate in-season Chinook salmon abundance levels are unavailable. Therefore, this analysis relies on analyses of historical data. Developing regulations designed to reduce the impact of bycatch requires methods that appropriately assess the impact of bycatch on the various salmon populations. A stochastic “adult equivalence” model was developed, which accounts for sources of uncertainty. The model is an extension of Witherell et al.’s (2002) evaluation, and relaxes a number of that study’s assumptions.

Adult-equivalency (AEQ) of the bycatch was estimated to translate how different hard caps may affect Chinook salmon stocks. This is distinguished from the annual bycatch numbers that are recorded by observers each year for management purposes. The AEQ bycatch applies the extensive observer datasets on the length frequencies of Chinook salmon found as bycatch and converts these to the ages of the bycaught salmon, appropriately accounting for the time of year that catch occurred. Coupled with information on the proportion of salmon that return to different river systems at various ages, the bycatch-at-age data is used to pro-rate, for any given year, how bycatch affects future potential spawning runs of salmon.

Evaluating impacts to specific stocks was done by using historical scale-pattern analysis (Myers et al. 1984, Myers and Rogers 1988, Myers et al. 2003) and preliminary genetics studies from samples collected in 2005, 2006 and 2007 (Seeb et al. 2008). While sample collection issues exist (as described in section 3.3.2) and different methodologies were employed (scale pattern analyses and genetic analyses), these stock estimates nonetheless provide similar overall proportions of between 54-60% for western Alaska. The consistency of these results from these different methodologies lends credibility to this

general estimate. Where possible, historical run sizes were contrasted with AEQ mortality arising from the observed pollock fishery Chinook bycatch to river of origin.

3.3.1 Estimating Chinook salmon catch-at-age

In order to appropriately account for the impact of salmon bycatch in the groundfish fisheries, it is desirable to correct for the age composition of the bycatch. For example, the impact on salmon populations of a bycatch level of 10,000 adult mature salmon is likely greater than the impact of catching 10,000 salmon that have just emerged from rivers and only a portion of which are expected to return for spawning in several years time. Hence, estimation of the age composition of the bycatch (and the measure of uncertainty) is critical. The method follows an expanded version of Kimura (1989) and modified by Dorn (1992). Length at age data are used to construct age-length keys for each stratum and sex. These keys are then applied to randomly sampled catch-at-length frequency data. The stratum-specific age composition estimates are then weighted by the catch within each stratum to arrive at an overall age composition for each year.

The modification from Kimura's (1989) approach was simply to apply a two-stage bootstrap scheme to obtain variance estimates. In the first stage, for a given year, sampled tows were drawn with replacement from all tows from which salmon were measured. In the second stage, given the collection of tows from the first stage, individual fish measurements were resampled with replacement. All stratum-specific information was carried with each record. For the length-age data, a separate but similar two-stage bootstrap process was done. Once samples of lengths and ages were obtained, age-length keys were constructed and applied to the catch-weighted length frequencies to compute age composition estimates. This process was repeated 100 times, and the results stored to obtain a distribution of both length and age composition.

Three years of length-at-age data are available from Myers et al. (2003). These data are based on salmon scale samples collected by the NMFS groundfish observer program from 1997-1999 and processed for age determination (and river of origin) by scientists at the University of Washington (Table 3-1). The bycatch in the A-season is dominated by age 5 fish (51%) with ages 6 and 7 Chinook representing 15% on average while ages 3 and 4 are 35%.

Table 3-1 Summary of Chinook salmon bycatch age data from Myers et al (2003) used to construct age-length keys for this analysis.

Year	A	B	Total
1997	842	756	1,598
1998	873	826	1,699
1999	645	566	1,211
Total	2,360	2,148	4,508

Extensive salmon bycatch length frequency data are available from the NMFS groundfish observer program since 1991 (Table 3-2). The age data were used to construct age length keys for nine spatio-temporal strata (one area for winter, two areas for summer-fall, for each of three fishery sectors). Each stratum was weighted by the NMFS Alaska Region estimates of salmon bycatch (Table 3-3). To the extent possible, sex-specific age-length keys within each stratum were created and where cells were missing, a "global" sex-specific age-length key was used. The global key was simply computed over all strata within the same season. For years other than 1997-1999, a combined-year age-length key was used (based on all of the 1997-1999 data). This method was selected in favor of simple (but less objective) length frequency slicing based on evaluations of using the combined key on the individual years and comparing age-composition estimates with the estimates derived using annual age-length keys. The

reason that the differences were minor is partially due to the fact that there are only a few age classes caught as bycatch, and these are fairly well determined by their length at-age distribution (Fig. 3-1).

The bootstrapped distributions of salmon length frequencies are shown in Fig. 3-2 and the resulting application of bootstrapped age-length keys is shown in Fig. 3-3 with mean values given in (Table 3-4). For modeling purposes, it's necessary to track the estimated numbers of salmon caught by age and season (Table 3-5). The estimates catch-age uncertainty (Table 3-6) were propagated through the analysis and includes covariance structure (e.g., as illustrated in Fig. 3-4).

Table 3-2 The number of Chinook salmon measured for lengths in the pollock fishery by season (A and B), area (NW=east of 170°W; SE=west of 170°W), and sector (S=shorebased catcher vessels, M=mothership operations, CP=catcher-processors). *Source: NMFS Alaska Fisheries Science Center observer data.*

Season	A			B			B			Total
	All	All	All	NW	NW	NW	SE	SE	SE	
	S	M	CP	S	M	CP	S	M	CP	
1991	2,227	302	2,569		25	87	221	10	47	5,488
1992	2,305	733	889	2	4	14	1,314	21	673	5,955
1993	1,929	349	370	1	11	172	298	255	677	4,062
1994	4,756	408	986	3	93	276	781	203	275	7,781
1995	1,209	264	851		8	31	457	247	305	3,372
1996	9,447	976	2,798		17	161	5,658	1,721	493	21,271
1997	3,498	423	910	12	303	839	12,126	370	129	18,610
1998	3,124	451	1,329		38	191	8,277	2,446	1,277	17,133
1999	1,934	120	1,073		1	627	1,467	97	503	5,822
2000	608	17	1,388	4	40	179	564	3	120	2,923
2001	4,360	268	3,583		25	1,816	1,597	291	1,667	13,607
2002	5,587	850	3,011		23	114	5,353	520	494	15,952
2003	9,328	1,000	5,379	258	290	1,290	4,420	348	467	22,780
2004	7,247	594	3,514	1,352	557	1,153	8,884	137	606	24,044
2005	9,237	694	3,998	4,081	244	1,610	10,336	45	79	30,324
2006	17,875	1,574	5,716	685	66	480	12,757	3	82	39,238
2007	16,008	1,802	9,012	881	590	1,986	21,725	2	801	52,807

Table 3-3 Chinook salmon bycatch in the pollock fishery by season (A and B), area (NW=east of 170°W; SE=west of 170°W), and sector (S=shorebased catcher vessels, M=mothership operations, CP=catcher-processors). *Source: NMFS Alaska Region, Juneau.*

Season	A	A	A	B	B	B	B	B	B	
Area	All	All	All	NW	NW	NW	SE	SE	SE	
Sector	S	M	CP	S	M	CP	S	M	CP	Total
1991	10,192	9,001	17,645	0	48	318	1,667	103	79	39,054
1992	6,725	4,057	12,631	0	26	187	1,604	1,739	6,702	33,672
1993	3,017	3,529	8,869	29	157	7,158	2,585	6,500	4,775	36,619
1994	8,346	1,790	17,149	0	121	771	1,206	452	2,055	31,890
1995	2,040	971	5,971		35	77	781	632	2,896	13,403
1996	15,228	5,481	15,276		113	908	9,944	6,208	2,315	55,472
1997	4,954	1,561	3,832	43	2,143	4,172	22,508	3,559	1,549	44,320
1998	4,334	4,284	6,500		309	511	27,218	6,052	2,037	51,244
1999	3,103	554	2,694	13	12	1,284	2,649	362	1,306	11,978
2000	878	19	2,525	4	230	286	714	23	282	4,961
2001	8,555	1,664	8,264	0	162	5,346	3,779	1,157	4,517	33,444
2002	10,336	1,976	9,481	0	38	211	9,560	1,717	1,175	34,495
2003	16,488	2,892	14,428	764	864	2,962	6,437	1,076	1,081	46,993
2004	12,376	2,092	9,492	2,530	1,573	2,844	21,171	503	1,445	54,028
2005	14,097	2,111	11,421	8,873	744	4,175	26,113	144	168	67,847
2006	36,039	5,408	17,306	936	175	1,373	21,718	25	178	83,159
2007	35,458	5,860	27,943	1,672	3,494	4,923	40,079	50	2,225	121,704

Table 3-4 Calendar year age-specific Chinook salmon bycatch estimates based on the mean of 100 bootstrap samples of available length and age data. Age-length keys for 1997-1999 were based on Myers et al. (2003) data split by year while for all other years, a combined-year age-length key was used.

Year	Age 3	Age 4	Age 5	Age 6	Age 7	Total
1991	5,624	15,901	13,486	3,445	347	38,802
1992	5,136	9,528	14,538	3,972	421	33,596
1993	2,815	16,565	12,992	3,673	401	36,446
1994	849	5,300	20,533	4,744	392	31,817
1995	498	3,895	4,827	3,796	367	13,382
1996	5,091	18,590	26,202	5,062	421	55,366
1997	5,855	23,972	7,233	5,710	397	43,167
1998	19,168	16,169	11,751	2,514	615	50,216
1999	870	5,343	4,424	1,098	21	11,757
2000	662	1,923	1,800	518	34	4,939
2001	6,512	12,365	11,948	1,994	190	33,009
2002	3,843	13,893	10,655	5,469	489	34,349
2003	5,703	16,723	20,124	3,791	298	46,639
2004	6,935	23,740	18,371	4,406	405	53,858
2005	10,466	30,717	21,886	4,339	304	67,711
2006	11,835	31,455	32,452	6,636	490	82,869
2007	16,174	66,024	33,286	5,579	357	121,419

Table 3-5 Age specific Chinook salmon bycatch estimates by season and calendar age based on the mean of 100 bootstrap samples of available length and age data.

Year/season	Age 3	Age 4	Age 5	Age 6	Age 7	Total
1991	5,624	15,901	13,486	3,445	347	38,802
A	5,406	14,764	12,841	3,270	313	36,593
B	218	1,137	646	174	34	2,209
1992	5,136	9,528	14,538	3,972	421	33,596
A	1,017	4,633	13,498	3,798	408	23,355
B	4,119	4,895	1,040	174	13	10,241
1993	2,815	16,565	12,992	3,673	401	36,446
A	1,248	3,654	7,397	2,778	290	15,368
B	1,567	12,910	5,595	895	111	21,078
1994	849	5,300	20,533	4,744	392	31,817
A	436	3,519	18,726	4,211	326	27,218
B	413	1,781	1,807	533	66	4,599
1995	498	3,895	4,827	3,796	367	13,382
A	262	1,009	3,838	3,534	327	8,969
B	236	2,885	989	263	40	4,413
1996	5,091	18,590	26,202	5,062	421	55,366
A	863	7,187	23,118	4,431	349	35,947
B	4,228	11,403	3,085	632	71	19,418
1997	5,855	23,972	7,233	5,710	397	43,167
A	456	2,013	3,595	3,899	271	10,234
B	5,399	21,958	3,638	1,811	126	32,933
1998	19,168	16,169	11,751	2,514	615	50,216
A	1,466	2,254	8,639	2,079	512	14,950
B	17,703	13,915	3,112	435	103	35,266
1999	870	5,343	4,424	1,098	21	11,757
A	511	1,639	3,151	898	18	6,217
B	360	3,704	1,272	200	3	5,540
2000	662	1,923	1,800	518	34	4,939
A	365	1,167	1,406	453	26	3,416
B	298	757	395	66	8	1,522
2001	6,512	12,365	11,948	1,994	190	33,009
A	2,840	3,458	9,831	1,798	171	18,098
B	3,672	8,907	2,117	196	19	14,910
2002	3,843	13,893	10,655	5,469	489	34,349
A	1,580	5,063	9,234	5,328	478	21,683
B	2,263	8,830	1,421	141	11	12,666
2003	5,703	16,723	20,124	3,791	298	46,639
A	2,941	9,408	17,411	3,437	267	33,464
B	2,763	7,315	2,713	354	31	13,175
2004	6,935	23,740	18,371	4,406	405	53,858
A	1,111	5,520	13,090	3,763	354	23,838
B	5,824	18,220	5,282	643	51	30,020
2005	10,466	30,717	21,886	4,339	304	67,711
A	1,407	6,993	15,563	3,361	226	27,550
B	9,059	23,724	6,323	978	78	40,161
2006	11,835	31,455	32,452	6,636	490	82,869
A	3,604	17,574	30,447	6,404	465	58,494
B	8,231	13,881	2,005	232	25	24,374
2007	16,174	66,024	33,286	5,579	357	121,419
A	5,791	29,269	28,648	5,059	317	69,084
B	10,384	36,755	4,638	520	40	52,336

Table 3-6 Estimates of coefficients of variation of Chinook salmon bycatch estimates by season and calendar age based on the mean of 100 bootstrap samples of available length and age data.

A season	Age 3	Age 4	Age 5	Age 6	Age 7
1991	14%	6%	6%	10%	31%
1992	20%	9%	4%	9%	27%
1993	22%	9%	5%	10%	37%
1994	27%	12%	3%	10%	30%
1995	25%	12%	5%	6%	22%
1996	19%	6%	2%	9%	21%
1997	35%	12%	6%	7%	28%
1998	16%	9%	3%	10%	23%
1999	19%	10%	5%	11%	91%
2000	25%	9%	6%	9%	27%
2001	10%	6%	3%	7%	22%
2002	15%	6%	3%	4%	16%
2003	14%	6%	3%	8%	21%
2004	15%	6%	2%	5%	20%
2005	18%	6%	3%	7%	23%
2006	17%	5%	3%	7%	22%
2007	22%	5%	4%	8%	25%
B season	Age 3	Age 4	Age 5	Age 6	Age 7
1991	23%	8%	12%	27%	67%
1992	9%	9%	25%	69%	87%
1993	19%	4%	9%	20%	65%
1994	17%	6%	6%	14%	27%
1995	21%	5%	12%	23%	48%
1996	6%	3%	7%	11%	29%
1997	12%	3%	10%	12%	39%
1998	5%	6%	9%	23%	36%
1999	16%	3%	8%	22%	149%
2000	9%	5%	8%	25%	49%
2001	7%	3%	8%	20%	52%
2002	6%	2%	8%	17%	43%
2003	8%	3%	5%	15%	32%
2004	6%	2%	5%	12%	30%
2005	5%	2%	5%	10%	23%
2006	4%	3%	8%	15%	33%
2007	6%	2%	7%	13%	28%

3.3.2 Estimating genetic composition of Chinook salmon bycatch

This section provides an overview the best available information used to determine the region or river of origin of the Chinook salmon caught as bycatch in the Bering Sea pollock fishery. The AEQ model uses genetic estimates of Chinook salmon taken as bycatch in the Bering Sea pollock fishery to determine where the AEQ Chinook salmon would have returned. To determine the stock composition mixtures of Chinook salmon in the Bering Sea, the model uses best available genetics analysis from ADF&G scientists (Templin et al. 2008). Genetic stock identification estimated the relative composition of 15 regional groups in the bycatch samples. For this analysis, estimates are provided for the 8 largest contributing groups and the remaining components were combined into the ‘other’ category, resulting in 9 stock groups (Table 3-7).

A scale pattern analysis completed in 2003 estimated age and stock composition of Chinook salmon in the 1997-1999 BSAI groundfish fishery bycatch samples from the NMFS Groundfish Observer Program database (Myers et al. 2003). Results indicated that bycatch samples were dominated by younger (age 1.2) fish in summer and older (age 1.3 and 1.4) fish in winter (Myers et al. 2003). The stock structure was dominated by western Alaskan stocks, with the estimated overall stock composition of 56% western Alaska, 31% Cook Inlet, 8% Southeast Alaska-British Columbia and 5% Russia. Here “western Alaska” included the Yukon River, Kuskokwim River, and Bristol Bay (Nushagak and Togiak) rivers. Within this aggregate grouping, the proportion of the sub-regional stock composition estimates averaged 40% Yukon River, 34% Bristol Bay and 26% Kuskokwim Chinook salmon Table 3-8 Myers et al. 2003).

For comparison against previous estimates, results from Myers and Rogers (1988) scale pattern analysis of bycatch samples from 1979-1982 (collected by U.S. foreign fishery observers on foreign or joint venture vessels in the Bering Sea EEZ) indicated that stock structure was dominated by western Alaskan stocks with estimated overall stock composition of 60% western Alaska, 17% South Central, 13% Asia (Russia) and 9% Southeast Alaska-British Columbia. Within the aggregated western Alaskan group, 17% were of Yukon River salmon, with 29% Bristol Bay and 24% Kuskokwim salmon.

As indicated in Myers et al. (2003), the origin of salmon also differs by season. In the winter, age-1.4 western Alaskan Chinook were primarily from the subregions of the Yukon and Kuskokwim. In the fall, results indicated that age-1.2 western Alaskan Chinook were from subregions of the Kuskokwim and Bristol Bay with a large component of Cook Inlet Chinook salmon stocks as well.

The proportions of western Alaskan subregional stocks (Yukon, Kuskokwim, and Bristol Bay) appear to vary considerably with factors such as brood year, time and area (Myers et al. 2003). Yukon River Chinook are often the dominant stock in winter while Bristol Bay, Cook Inlet, and other Gulf of Alaska stocks are often the dominant stocks in the eastern BSAI in the fall (Myers et al. 2003). Additional studies from high seas tagging results as well as scale pattern analyses from Japanese driftnet fishery in the Bering Sea indicate that in the summer immature western Alaskan Chinook are distributed further west in the Bering Sea than other North American stocks. For the scale-pattern analyses, freshwater-type (age 0.1, 0.2, etc) Chinook were omitted. Although the proportion of these samples were relatively small, the extent that Chinook bycatch could be attributed to southern stocks where this type is more common (e.g., from the Columbia River) may be underestimated in the Myers et al. (2003) analysis.

More recent analyses of bycatch samples are underway (Templin et al. 2008). For purposes of evaluation of impacts of alternatives on individual river systems, the most recent estimates (Seeb et al. 2008) are the main reference for evaluating the impact of bycatch on the 9 sets of river systems. These more recent estimates were chosen since they are most representative of the timeframe analyzed. Earlier work presented in Myers et al. (2003) had a different resolution to stock composition and was from samples covering an earlier period.

To illustrate the influence of bycatch temporal and spatial variability regarding bycatch stock composition, retrospective analyses were performed using the available genetics data collected from 2005-2007. We acknowledge that this assumption (i.e., constant stock composition within season-area strata) may be poor, especially for years beyond this period. For the main impact analysis the time period was selected to be from 2003-2007 which overlaps with the sample collection period and may reduce concerns about mis-matches between the sampling period for genetics work and the application period for impact analysis.

Scientists at ADF&G developed a DNA baseline to resolve the stock composition mixtures of Chinook salmon in the Bering Sea (Templin et al. 2008). This baseline includes 24,100 individuals sampled from

over 175 rivers from the Kamchatka Peninsula, Russia, to the central Valley in California (see Table 3-7 for list of rivers).

The Templin et al. (2008) genetic stock identification (GSI) study used classification criteria whereby the accuracy of resolution to region-of-origin must be greater than or equal to 90%. This analysis identified 15 regional groups for reporting results and for purposes of this analysis these were combined into nine stock units. The nine stock units are: Pacific Northwest (PNW, comprised of baseline stocks across BC, OR, WA and CA); Coastal western Alaska (Coast WAK comprised of the lower Yukon, the Kuskokwim River and Bristol Bay (Nushagak) river systems); Cook Inlet; Middle Yukon; Northern Alaska Peninsula (NAK Penin); Russia; Southeast and Transboundary River Systems (TBR); and Upper Yukon, while minor components in the bycatch are combined into the “other” category for clarity. Consistent with previous observations regarding the seasonal and regional differences in stock origin of bycatch samples (Myers et al. 2003), bycatch samples were stratified by year, season and region (Table 3-9).

The Seeb et al. (2008) study analyzed samples taken from the bycatch during the 2005 B season, both A and B seasons during 2006, and a sample from an excluder test fishery during the 2007 A season. Where possible, the genetics samples from the bycatch were segregated by major groundfish bycatch regions. Effectively, this entailed a single region for the entire fishery during winter (which is typically concentrated in space to the region east of 170°W) and two regions during the summer, a NW region (west of 170°W) and a southeast region (east of 170°W). The genetic sampling distribution varies considerably by season and region compared to the level of bycatch (as reported by the NMFS Alaska Region, Table 3-3).

The samples used in the Seeb et al. (2008) analysis were obtained opportunistically for a study to evaluate using scales and other tissues as collected by the NMFS observer program for genetic sampling. Unfortunately, during this study, the collected samples failed to cover the bycatch in groundfish fisheries in a comprehensive manner. For example, in 2005 most sampling was completed prior to the month (October) when most of the bycatch occurred (Fig. 3-5). To account for these sampling issues we computed a weighted average of the samples over years within regions and seasons. The 2005 B-season stock composition results were given one third of the weight since sampling effort was low during October of that year (relative to the bycatch) while the 2006 B-season stock composition data was given two-thirds of the weight in simulating stock apportionments. For the A season, the 2007 data (collected from a limited number of tows) were given one fifth the weight while the 2006 was weighted 4 times that value.

Once these mean stock composition estimates (and associated uncertainties) were obtained, it was necessary to apply the stratum-specific stock composition levels (Table 3-11) to the stratum specific bycatch totals to arrive at an annual stock-specific bycatch level for application in the model (Fig. 3-6). An important feature of this analysis is that the bycatch amounts by location and season were used explicitly for the estimates of the relative contribution of bycatch from different salmon regions (e.g. Fig. 3-8). This is also an important distinction from previous studies (e.g. Myers et al, 2003) which assumed that the stock identification samples were proportional to the season and area specific bycatch over all years.

For the purposes of assigning the bycatch to region of origin, the level of uncertainty is important to characterize. While there are many approaches to implement assignment uncertainty, the method chosen here assumes that the stratified stock composition estimates are unbiased and that the assignment uncertainty based on a classification algorithm (Seeb et al. 2008; Table 3-9) adequately represents the uncertainty (i.e., the estimates and their standard errors are used to propagate this component of uncertainty). Inter-annual variability is introduced two ways: (1) by accounting for inter-annual variability in bycatch among strata; and (2) by using the point estimates (and errors) from the data (Table

3-11) over the different years (2005-2007) while weighting appropriately for the sampling intensity. The procedure for introducing variability in regional stock assignments of bycatch followed a Monte Carlo procedure with the point estimates and their variances used to simulate beta distributed random variables (which have the desirable property of being bounded by 0.0 and 1.0) and applied to the catch weightings (for the summer/fall (B) season) where areas are disaggregated. Areas were combined for the winter fishery since the period of bycatch by the fishery is shorter and from a more restricted area.

Application of GSI to estimate the composition of the bycatch by reporting region suggests that, if the goal is to provide estimates on the stock composition of the bycatch, there is a need to adjust for the magnitude of bycatch occurring within substrata (e.g., east and west of 170°W during the B season, top panels of Fig. 3-6). Applying the stock composition results presented in Table 3-11 over different years and weighted by catch gives stratified proportions that have similar characteristics to the raw genetics data (Table 3-9). Importantly, these stratified stock composition estimates can be applied to bycatch levels in other years which will result in overall annual differences in bycatch proportions by salmon stock region. These simulations can be characterized graphically in a way that shows the covariance structure among regional stock composition estimates. This application extrapolates beyond the current analysis of these genetic data however and additional investigation of the temporal variation in stock composition is recommended.

The preliminary stock composition estimates for this more recent study based on the genetics are shown broken out by regions, year and season for the 9 stock units identified (Table 3-9). Accounting for sampling variability, the mean stock compositions by strata, and mean apportionments of the bycatch to stock (region) of origins by area and season of the pollock fishery are shown in Table 3-11.

While stock units differ from previous studies in levels of aggregation, results for western Alaskan aggregate river systems (e.g., AYK region) are similar to the scale-pattern study presented by Myers and Rogers (1988) and Myers et al. (2003; Table 3-12). The three studies indicate similarities in overall estimates of stock composition by river system even though aggregation levels, years of samples, and methodologies differ (Table 3-12). However, comparisons of stock composition estimates from other areas are more variable. For example the contribution from Cook Inlet stocks ranges from 4%-31% amongst studies while Russian stocks vary from 2%-14% (Table 3-12). There is particular variation amongst the two scale patterns studies (Myers and Rogers 1988 and Myers et al. 2003) for these other stocks. Due to this apparent variability the impact analysis focused mainly on the AYK stocks, in particular the Yukon, Kuskokwim and Bristol Bay river systems. Impacts are characterized in aggregate for these stocks, in aggregate for Coastal western Alaska grouping (which includes the lower Yukon, Kuskokwim and other minor stocks) as well as by individual river system. Impacts are reported in general for stocks such as Cook Inlet, aggregate Pacific Northwest, and Russia but discussions of these are limited due to the uncertainty.

For this impact analysis, it was desirable to provide some estimates of AEQ specific to the following western Alaska river systems individually: Yukon, Kuskokwim, Bristol Bay. The recent genetics study treated these stocks as a group. Thus, for purposes of discussion in this analysis, the AEQ results for the Coastal western Alaska stock grouping were combined with results for the middle and upper Yukon and the resulting aggregate broken out to individual river systems using the proportions estimated by Myers et al. (2003). Doing so provides a way to make rough comparisons of bycatch impacts (AEQ) and river system specific measures of run size, harvest, and escapement. However, impacts presented in this analysis are characterized to the extent possible within the limitations of the data. AEQ estimation was employed to provide some information on the relative impacts by genetic groupings and in conjunction with scale pattern estimates by western Alaskan river systems. As noted previously, these data are limited by their uncertainty thus extensions of these results beyond the scope of the data was carefully avoided.

Use of total run-size estimates for impact analysis by river system or in aggregate is problematic. As described in sections 5.2 assessment of total run size and escapement by river system is highly variable between systems. Some river systems in the WAK region lack total run or escapement estimates. As such, combining available estimates to determine an "aggregate total run" for WAK is inappropriate due to magnification of errors as well as masking the uncertainties and data limitations associated with individual river system estimates. Use of individual run estimates to compare with bycatch AEQ is also complicated by the caveats associated with the stock composition estimates. AEQ estimation to river of origin is used to estimate the relative changes under various cap scenarios. These estimates are also uncertain and that uncertainty increases with further extrapolations historically and to finer resolutions. Therefore, judgments with respect to detailed impacts were avoided, especially in cases where it would require interpretations beyond the extent of the data. Finally, impact rates by river system (i.e., explicit comparison of AEQ with run size for runs) would presume analyses on productivity thresholds about river systems that are beyond the scope of this analysis.

Additional funding and research focus is being directed towards both collection of samples from the EBS trawl fishery for Chinook salmon species as well as the related genetic analyses to estimate stock composition of the bycatch. Additional information on the status of these data collections and analysis programs will be forthcoming.

Table 3-7 Chinook baseline collections used in analysis of bycatch mixtures for genetics studies (from Templin et al. 2008).

No.	Region	Location	Years	N
1	Russia	Bistraya River	1998	94
2		Bolshaya River	1998, 2002	77
3		Kamchatka River (Late)	1997, 1998	119
4		Pakhatcha River	2002	50
5	Coast W AK (Norton Sound)	Pilgrim River	2005, 2006	82
6		Unalakleet River	2005	82
7		Golsovia River	2005, 2006	111
8	Coast W AK (Lower Yukon)	Andreafsky River	2002, 2003	236
9		Anvik River	2002	95
10		Gisasa River	2001	188
11		Tozitna River	2002, 2003	290
12	Middle Yukon	Henshaw Creek	2001	147
13		S. Fork Koyuk	2003	56
14		Kantishna River	2005	187
15		Chena River	2001	193
16		Salcha River	2005	188
17		Beaver Creek	1997	100
18		Chandalar River	2002, 2003, 2004	175
19		Sheenjok River	2002, 2004, 2006	51
20	Upper Yukon	Chandindu River	2000, 2001, 2003	247
21		Klondike River	1995, 2001, 2003	79
22		Stewart River	1997	99
23		Mayo River	1992, 1997, 2003	197
24		Blind River	2003	134
25		Pelly River	1996, 1997	140
26		Little Salmon River	1987, 1997	100
27		Big Salmon River	1987, 1997	117
28		Tatchun Creek	1987, 1996, 1997, 2002, 2003	369
29		Nordenskiold River	2003	55
30		Nisutlin River	19,871,997	56
31		Takhini River	1997, 2002, 2003	162
32		Whitehorse Hatchery	1985, 1987, 1997	242
33	Coast W AK (Kuskokwim)	Goodnews River	1993, 2005, 2006	368
34		Arolik River	2005	147
35		Kanektok River	1992, 1993, 2005	244
36		Eek River	2002, 2005	173
37		Kwethluk River	2001	96
38		Kisaralik River	2001, 2005	191
39		Tuluksak River	1993, 1994, 2005	195
40		Aniak River	2002, 2005, 2006	336
41		George River	2002, 2005	191
42		Kogrukluk River	1992, 1993, 2005	149
43		Stony River	1994	93
44		Cheeneetnu River	2002, 2006	117
45		Gagaryah River	2006	190
46		Takotna River	1994, 2005	176
47	Upper Kuskokwim	Tatlawiksuk River	2002, 2005	191
48		Salmon River (Pitka Fork)	1995	96
49	Coast W AK (Bristol Bay)	Togiak River	1993, 1994	159
50		Nushagak River	1992, 1993	57
51		Mulchatna River	1994	97
52		Stuyahok River	1993, 1994	87
53		Naknek River	1995, 2004	110
54		Big Creek	2004	66
55		King Salmon River	2006	131
56	N. AK Peninsula	Meshik River	2006	42
57		Milky River	2006	67
58		Nelson River	2006	95
59		Black Hills Creek	2006	51
60		Steelhead Creek	2006	93
61	S. AK Peninsula	Chignik River	1995, 2006	75
62		Ayakulik River	1993, 2006	136
63		Karluk River	1993, 2006	140

Table 3-7 (continued) Chinook baseline collections used in analysis of bycatch mixtures for genetics studies (from Templin et al. 2008).

No.	Region	Location	Years	N
64	Cook Inlet	Deshka River	1995, 2005	251
65		Deception Creek	1991	67
66		Willow Creek	2005	73
67		Prairie Creek	1995	52
68		Talachulitna River	1995	58
69		Crescent Creek	2006	164
70		Juneau Creek	2005, 2006	119
71		Killey Creek	2005, 2006	266
72		Benjamin Creek	2005, 2006	205
73		Funny River	2005, 2006	220
74		Slikok Creek	2005	95
75		Kenai River (mainstem)	2003, 2004, 2006	302
76		Crooked Creek	1992, 2005	306
77		Kasilof River	2005	321
78		Anchor River	2006	200
79		Ninilchik River	2006	162
80	Upper Copper River	Indian River	2004, 2005	50
81		Bone Creek	2004, 2005	78
82		E. Fork Chistochina River	2004	145
83		Otter Creek	2005	128
84		Sinona Creek	2004, 2005	157
85	Lower Copper River	Gulkana River	2004	211
86		Mendeltna Creek	2004	144
87		Kiana Creek	2004	75
88		Manker Creek	2004, 2005	62
89		Tonsina River	2004, 2005	75
90		Tebay River	2004, 2005, 2006	68
91	Northern SE AK	Situk River	1988, 1990, 1991, 1992	143
92		Big Boulder Creek	1992, 1993, 1995, 2004	178
93		Tahini River	1992, 2004	169
94		Tahini River (LMH) Pullen Creek Hatchery	2005	83
95		Kelsall River	2004	96
96		King Salmon River	1989, 1990, 1993	144
97	Coast SE AK	King Creek	2003	143
98		Chickamin River	1990, 2003	56
99		Chickamin River - Little Port Walter	1993, 2005	126
100		Chickamin River - Whitman Lake Hatchery	1992, 1998, 2005	331
101		Humpy Creek	2003	94
102		Butler Creek	2004	95
103		Clear Creek	1989, 2003, 2004	166
104		Cripple Creek	1988, 2003	143
105		Genes Creek	1989, 2003, 2004	95
106		Kerr Creek	2003, 2004	151
107		Unuk River - Little Port Walter	2005	150
108		Unuk River - Deer Mountain Hatchery	1992, 1994	147
109		Keta River	1989, 2003	144
110		Blossom River	2004	95
111	Andrew Cr	Andrews Creek	1989, 2004	152
112		Crystal Lake Hatchery	1992, 1994, 2005	397
113		Medvejie Hatchery	1998, 2005	273
114		Hidden Falls Hatchery	1994, 1998	155
115		Macaulay Hatchery	2005	94
116	TBR Taku	Klukshu River	1989, 1990	174
117		Kowatua River	1989, 1990	144
118		Little Tatsemeanie River	1989, 1990, 2005	144
119		Upper Nahlin River	1989, 1990	130
120		Nakina River	1989, 1990	141
121		Dudidontu River	2005	86
122		Tahltan River	1989	95

Table 3-7 (continued) Chinook baseline collections used in analysis of bycatch mixtures for genetics studies (from Templin et al. 2008).

No.	Region	Location	Years	N
123	BC/WA/OR	Kateen River	2005	96
124		Damdochax Creek	1996	65
125		Kincolith Creek	1996	115
126		Kwinageese Creek	1996	73
127		Oweegee Creek	1996	81
128		Babine Creek	1996	167
129		Bulkley River	1999	91
130		Sustut	2001	130
131		Ecstall River	2001, 2002	86
132		Lower Kalum	2001	142
133		Lower Atnarko	1996	144
134		Kitimat	1997	141
135		Wannock	1996	144
136		Kliniklini	1997	83
137		Nanaimo	2002	95
138		Porteau Cove	2003	154
139		Conuma River	1997, 1998	110
140		Marble Creek	1996, 1999, 2000	144
141		Nitinat River	1996	104
142		Robertson Creek	1996, 2003	106
143		Sarita	1997, 2001	160
144		Big Qualicum River	1996	144
145		Quinsam River	1996	127
146		Morkill River	2001	154
147		Salmon River	1997	94
148		Swift	1996	163
149		Torpy River	2001	105
150		Chilko	1995, 1996, 1999, 2002	246
151		Nechako River	1996	121
152		Quesnel River	1996	144
153		Stuart	1997	161
154		Clearwater River	1997	153
155		Louis Creek	2001	179
156		Lower Adams	1996	46
157		Lower Thompson River	2001	100
158		Middle Shuswap	1986, 1997	144
159		Birkenhead Creek	1997, 1999, 2002, 2003	93
160		Harrison	2002	96
161		Makah National Fish Hatchery	2001, 2003	94
162		Forks	2005	150
163		Upper Skagit River	2006	93
164		Soos Creek Hatchery	2004	119
165		Lyons Ferry Hatchery	2002, 2003	191
166		Hanford Reach	2000, 2004, 2006	191
167		Lower Deschutes River	2002	96
168		Lower Kalama	2001	95
169		Carson Stock - Mid and Upper Columbia spring	2001	96
170		McKenzie - Willamette River	2004	95
171		Alsea	2004	93
172		Siuslaw	2001	95
173		Klamath	1990, 2006	52
174		Butte Creek	2003	96
175		Eel River	2000, 2001	88
176		Sacramento River - winter run	2005	95

Table 3-8 Maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) of the western Alaska subregional (Yukon, Kuskokwim, and Bristol Bay) stock composition of Chinook salmon in incidental catches by U.S. commercial groundfish fisheries in the eastern Bering Sea portion of the U.S. exclusive economic zone in 1997-1999 (from Myers et al. 2003). The estimates are summarized by (a) brood year (BY) 1991-1995 and (b) for the fishery area east of 170°W by fishery season, year, and age group. Fishery season: fall = July-December, winter = January-June. Numbers in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals (CI) derived from 1000 bootstrap runs (random sampling with replacement). An estimate of zero without a confidence interval indicates that the stock was not present and the data were re-analyzed without those baseline groups. Percentages represented by 0.0 are small numbers, less than 0.05 but greater than zero. Dashes indicate that no baseline data were available for that regional stock group.

Sample Description	Age(s)	N	Kamchatka		Yukon		Kuskokwim		Bristol Bay		Cook Inlet		SE Alaska		British Columbia	
			MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)	MLE	(95% CI)
(a) Summary by brood year:																
BY91	1.4-1.5	373	4.1	(0.0-10.0)	37.2	(17.2-56.1)	27.0	(4.4-47.4)	4.2	(0.0-12.1)	27.5	(18.3-37.5)	-	-	0	
BY92	1.3-1.5	530	6.0	(2.5-9.6)	29.7	(16.6-39.9)	5.5	(0.0-22.1)	21.0	(12.4-29.2)	33.4	(24.6-41.3)	-	-	4.4	(1.5-8.2)
BY93	1.2-1.4	1111	5.9	(3.0-9.5)	12.7	(4.0-23.2)	24.5	(11.4-37.3)	17.9	(11.1-25.3)	28.5	(21.8-34.1)	8.5	(5.7-11.2)	2.0	(0.0-4.1)
BY94	1.1-1.3	762	0		20.2	(12.3-30.4)	0		41.7	(33.9-49.7)	30.0	(20.5-37.5)	8.1	(5.1-11.8)	-	-
BY95	1.1-1.2	481	4.4	(0.1-10.2)	12.2	(4.2-20.7)	15.8	(6.7-24.1)	10.6	(0.0-28.1)	41.9	(28.4-52.4)	15.1	(9.2-22.0)	-	-
(b) Summary for the fishery area east of 170°W by fishery season, year, and age group:																
Fall 1998	1.1	134	0		6.1	(0-15.0)	3.9	(0-9.4)	0		57.7	(37.1-74.8)	32.3	(16.5-47.9)	-	-
Fall 1997	1.2	286	3.8	(0.0-8.7)	0.0	(0-13)	16.1	(1.7-25.4)	17.6	(9.5-28.5)	49.2	(37.1-58.5)	8.5	(3.7-14.5)	4.8	(0.2-10.5)
Fall 1998	1.2	249	0		10.2	(2.5-21.4)	0		41.4	(29.8-51.6)	38.7	(25.5-50.2)	9.7	(4.7-16.2)	-	-
Fall 1999	1.2	222	5.8	(0.0-12.9)	13.0	(2.0-25.3)	18.3	(5.6-33.3)	27.2	(4.5-50.2)	31.3	(16.3-44.7)	4.4	(0.0-9.8)	-	-
Winter 1997	1.3	240	5.7	(1.5-10.4)	24.6	(10.2-38.3)	5.9	(0.0-27.6)	28.0	(14.5-39.5)	30.0	(18.2-40.8)	-	-	5.8	(1.3-11.3)
Winter 1998	1.3	428	4.6	(0.8-9.7)	23.1	(11.2-36.9)	22.8	(6.7-38.8)	17.3	(8.8-27.3)	18.2	(9.9-26.4)	11.9	(7.5-16.3)	2.1	(0-6.3)
Winter 1999	1.3	279	0		34.7	(23.0-47.4)	0		37.6	(27.4-47.8)	18.5	(8.9-28.3)	9.2	(5.3-13.5)	-	-
Winter 1997	1.4	327	3.9	(0.0-9.7)	34.6	(14.8-53.7)	28.4	(6.8-48.9)	4.7	(0.0-13.4)	28.4	(20.3-34.6)	-	-	0	
Winter 1998	1.4	178	10.9	(3.8-18.6)	35.0	(17.4-49.9)	12.8	(0.0-34.9)	10.1	(0.0-21.0)	31.2	(19.3-41.9)	-	-	0	
Winter 1999	1.4	122	22.0	(9.1-36.4)	9.9	(0.0-31.2)	32.2	(8.6-50)	2.9	(0-13.5)	28.2	(11.2-44.4)	4.8	(0-10.4)	0	

Table 3-9 ADF&G preliminary estimates of stock composition based on genetic samples stratified by year, season, and region (SE=east of 170°W, NW=west of 170°W). Standard errors of the estimates are shown in parentheses and were used to evaluate uncertainty of stock composition. Source: Seeb et al. 2008.

Year / Season / Area	PNW	Coast W AK	Cook Inlet	Middle Yukon	N AK Penin	Russia	TBR	Upper Yukon	Other
2005 B SE N = 313	45.3% (0.032)	34.2% (0.032)	5.3% (0.019)	0.2% (0.003)	8.8% (0.021)	0.6% (0.005)	3.3% (0.016)	0.0% (0.001)	2.4% (0.015)
2005 B NW N = 543	6.5% (0.012)	70.9% (0.047)	2.2% (0.011)	4.7% (0.013)	6.7% (0.042)	2.0% (0.007)	3.5% (0.012)	2.8% (0.009)	0.7% (0.008)
2006 B SE N = 309	38.4% (0.029)	37.2% (0.032)	7.5% (0.020)	0.2% (0.004)	7.0% (0.019)	0.6% (0.005)	4.3% (0.017)	0.1% (0.002)	4.7% (0.020)
2006 B NW N = 296	6.4% (0.016)	67.3% (0.035)	3.0% (0.020)	8.0% (0.020)	2.1% (0.016)	3.3% (0.013)	0.5% (0.007)	8.0% (0.019)	1.4% (0.014)
2006 A All N = 902	22.9% (0.015)	38.2% (0.038)	0.2% (0.004)	1.1% (0.005)	31.2% (0.039)	1.1% (0.004)	1.1% (0.007)	2.3% (0.006)	1.9% (0.011)
2007 A All N = 380	9.4% (0.016)	75.2% (0.031)	0.1% (0.004)	0.5% (0.005)	12.0% (0.025)	0.2% (0.003)	0.1% (0.002)	0.1% (0.003)	2.4% (0.014)

Table 3-10 NMFS regional office estimates of Chinook salmon bycatch in the pollock fishery compared to genetics sampling levels by season and region, 2005-2007 (SE=east of 170°W, NW=west of 170°W).

	Season	Area			Area		
		SE	NW	Total	SE	NW	
Bycatch	2005	B	26,425	13,793	40,217	66%	34%
	2006	B	21,922	2,484	24,405	90%	10%
	2006	A			58,753		
	2007	A			69,261		
Genetic Samples	2005	B	489	282	771	63%	37%
	2006	B	286	304	590	48%	52%
	2006	A			801		
	2007	A			360		

Table 3-11 Mean values of catch-weighted stratified proportions of stock composition based on genetic sampling by season, and region (SE=east of 170°W, NW=west of 170°W). Standard errors of the estimates (in parentheses) were derived from 200 simulations based on the estimates from Table 3-9 and weighting annual results as explained in the text.

Season / Area	PNW	Coast W AK	Cook Inlet	Middle Yukon	N AK Penin	Russia	TBR	Upper Yukon	Other
B SE	45.0% (0.025)	34.7% (0.024)	5.1% (0.017)	0.1% (0.002)	8.6% (0.016)	0.6% (0.004)	3.4% (0.014)	0.0% (0.001)	2.4% (0.014)
B NW	6.4% (0.010)	68.9% (0.023)	2.6% (0.012)	6.6% (0.011)	4.4% (0.019)	2.7% (0.007)	1.8% (0.006)	5.6% (0.012)	1.0% (0.008)
A All	12.1% (0.012)	67.7% (0.021)	0.1% (0.003)	0.6% (0.004)	16.0% (0.019)	0.4% (0.002)	0.2% (0.002)	0.6% (0.003)	2.3% (0.010)

Table 3-12 Comparison of stock composition estimates for three different studies on Chinook bycatch samples taken from trawl fisheries in the eastern Bering Sea.

Study	Myers and Rogers (1988)			Myers et al (2003)			Seeb et al. 2008			
Years sampled	1979-1982			1997-1999			2005-2007 ¹			
Stocks and estimated aggregate % composition in bycatch	Western AK	60%			56%					
		Yukon	Bristol Bay	Kusko-kwim	Yukon	Bristol Bay	Kusko-kwim			
		17%	29%	24%	40%	34%	26%			
Smaller scale breakouts (where available) listed to the right (with associated % contrib. of aggregate below)	Coastal WAK (also includes Norton Sound)							48%		
								Lower Yukon	Kusko-kwim	Bristol Bay
								Na	Na	Na
	Middle Yukon							3%		
	Upper Yukon							3%		
	NAK Penin							13%		
	Cook Inlet	17%			31%			4%		
	SEAK/Can	9%			8%					
	TBR							2%		
	PNW ²							23%		
	Russia	14%			5%			2%		
Other ³							3%			

¹note for purposes of comparison, only 2006 stock composition estimates *averaged annually and across regions* are shown here.

²PNW is an aggregate of 54 stocks from British Columbia, Washington, Oregon and California. For a full list of stocks included see Table 3-7

³'other' is comprised of minor components after aggregation to major river systems as described in Table 3-7.

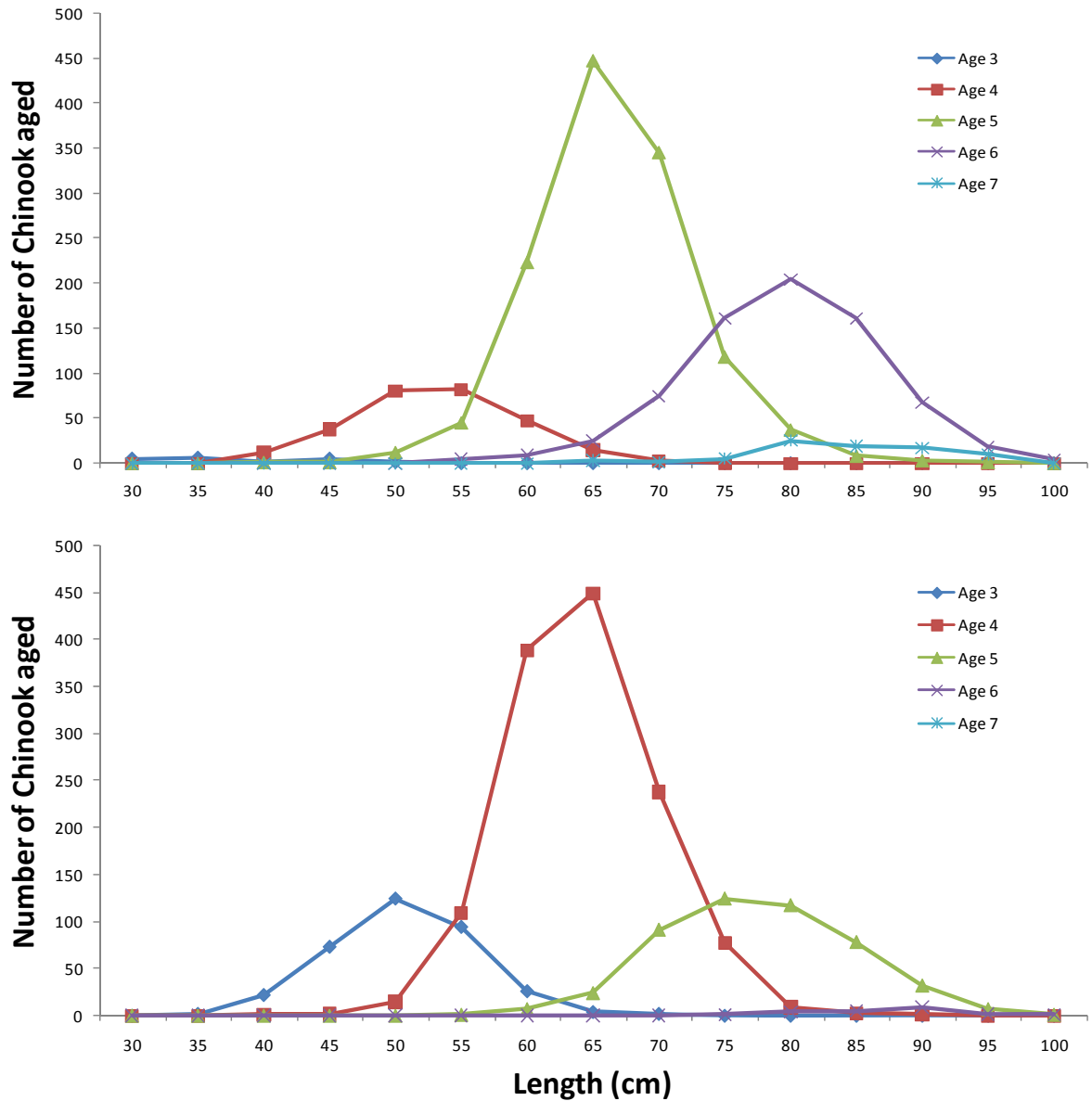


Fig. 3-1 Summary distribution of age samples by length collected by the NMFS groundfish observer program during 1997-1999 and analyzed by University of Washington scientists (Myers et al. (2003) for the A-season (top panel) and B season (bottom panel).

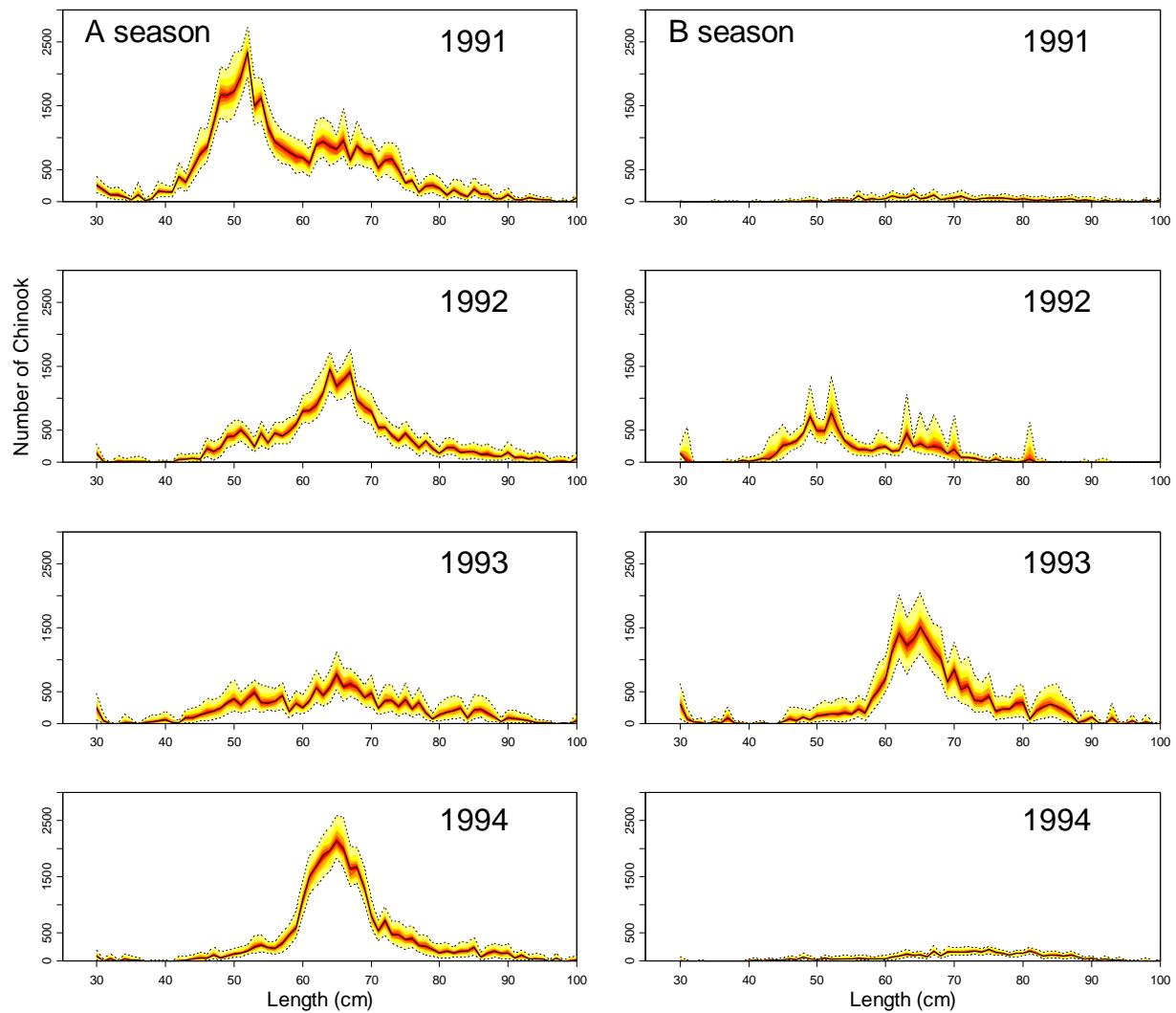


Fig. 3-2 Length frequency by season and year of Chinook salmon occurring as bycatch in the pollock fishery. Error distributions based on two-stage bootstrap re-sampling procedure.

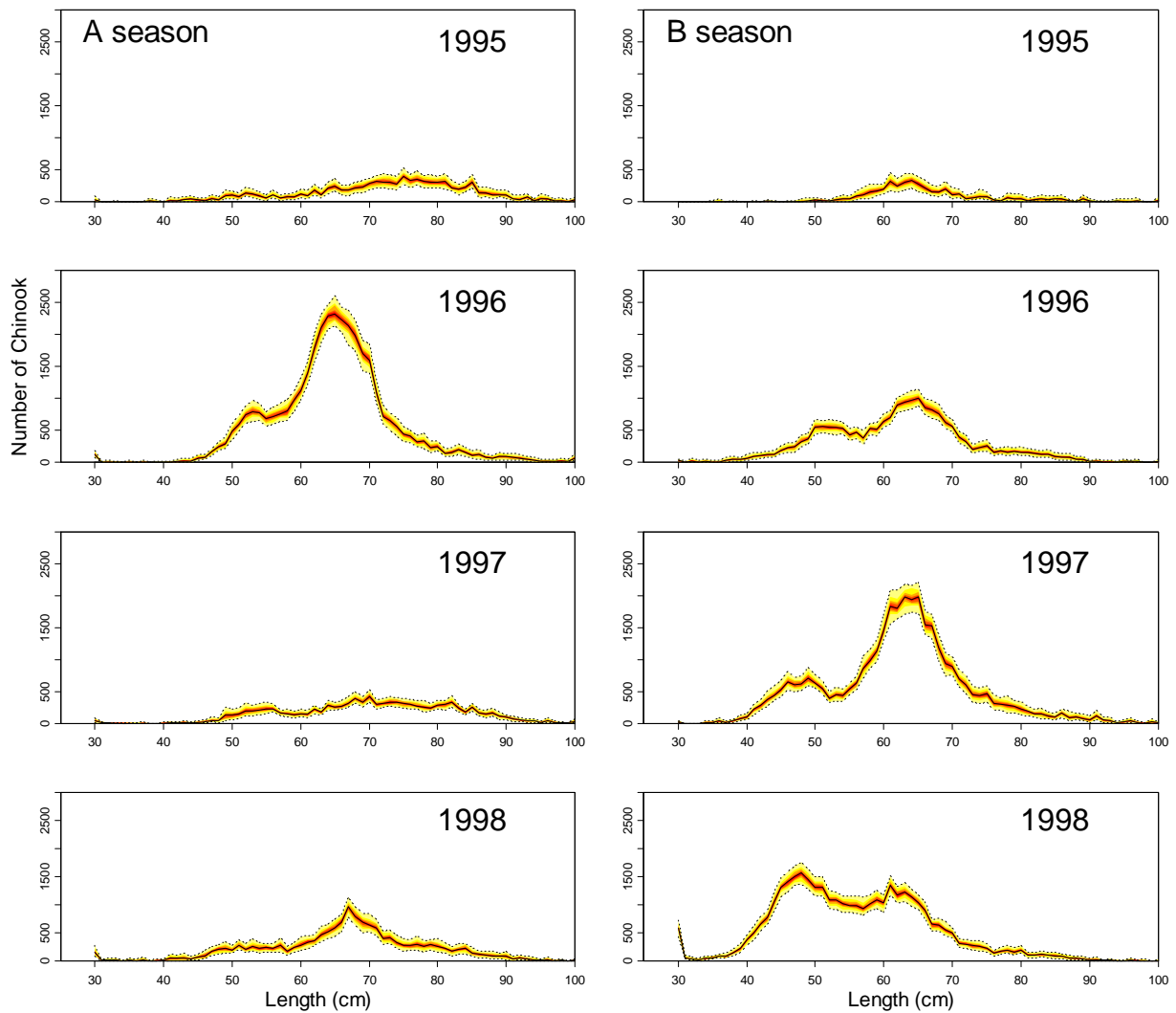


Fig. 3-2 (continued) Length frequency by season and year of Chinook salmon occurring as bycatch in the pollock fishery. Error distributions based on two-stage bootstrap re-sampling procedure.

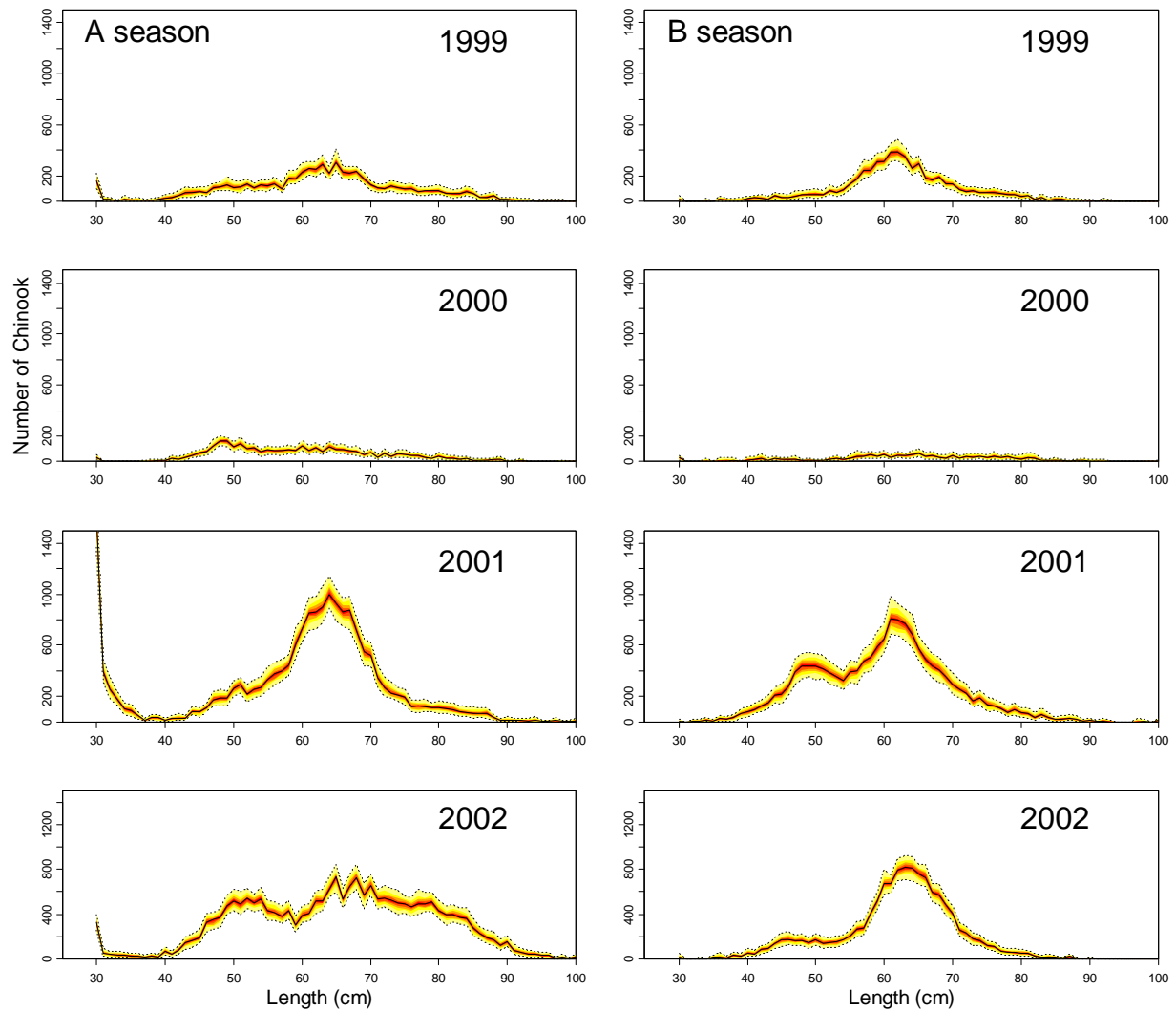


Fig. 3-2 (continued) Length frequency by season and year of Chinook salmon occurring as bycatch in the pollock fishery. Error distributions based on two-stage bootstrap re-sampling procedure.

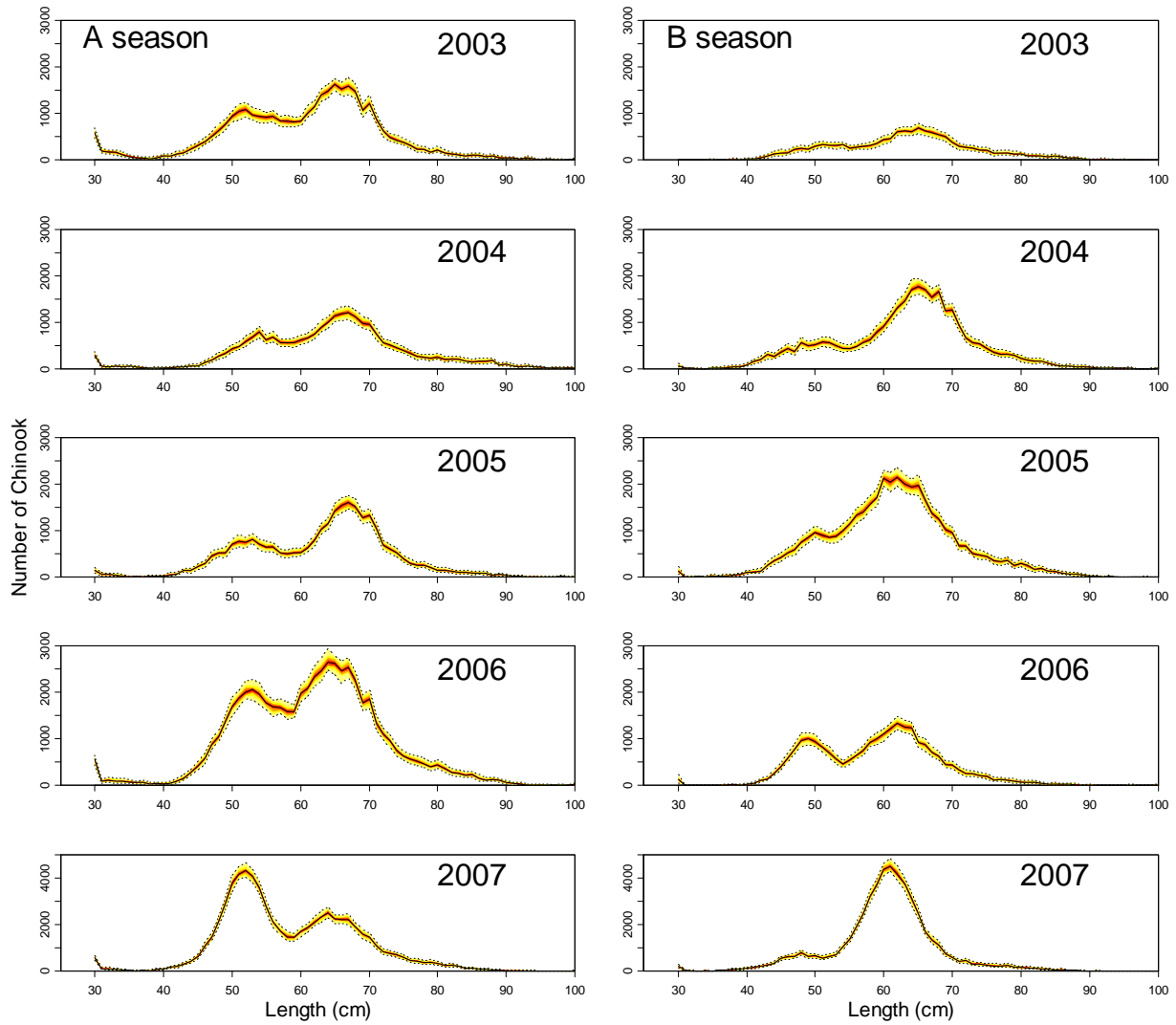


Fig. 3-2 (continued) Length frequency by season and year of Chinook salmon occurring as bycatch in the pollock fishery. Error distributions based on two-stage bootstrap re-sampling procedure.

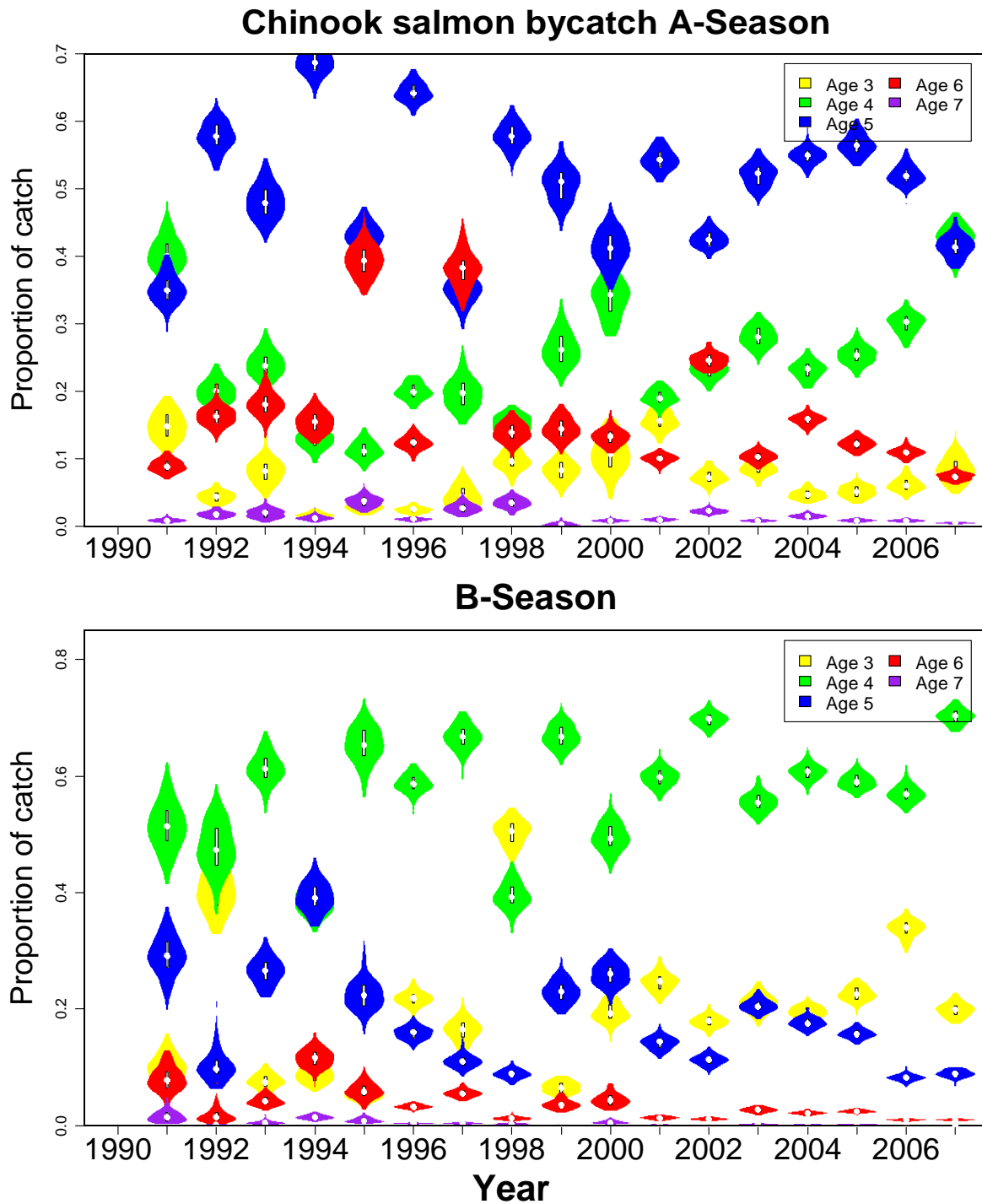


Fig. 3-3 Chinook salmon bycatch age composition by year and A-season (top) and B-season (bottom). Vertical spread of blobs represent uncertainty as estimated from the two-stage bootstrap re-sampling procedure.

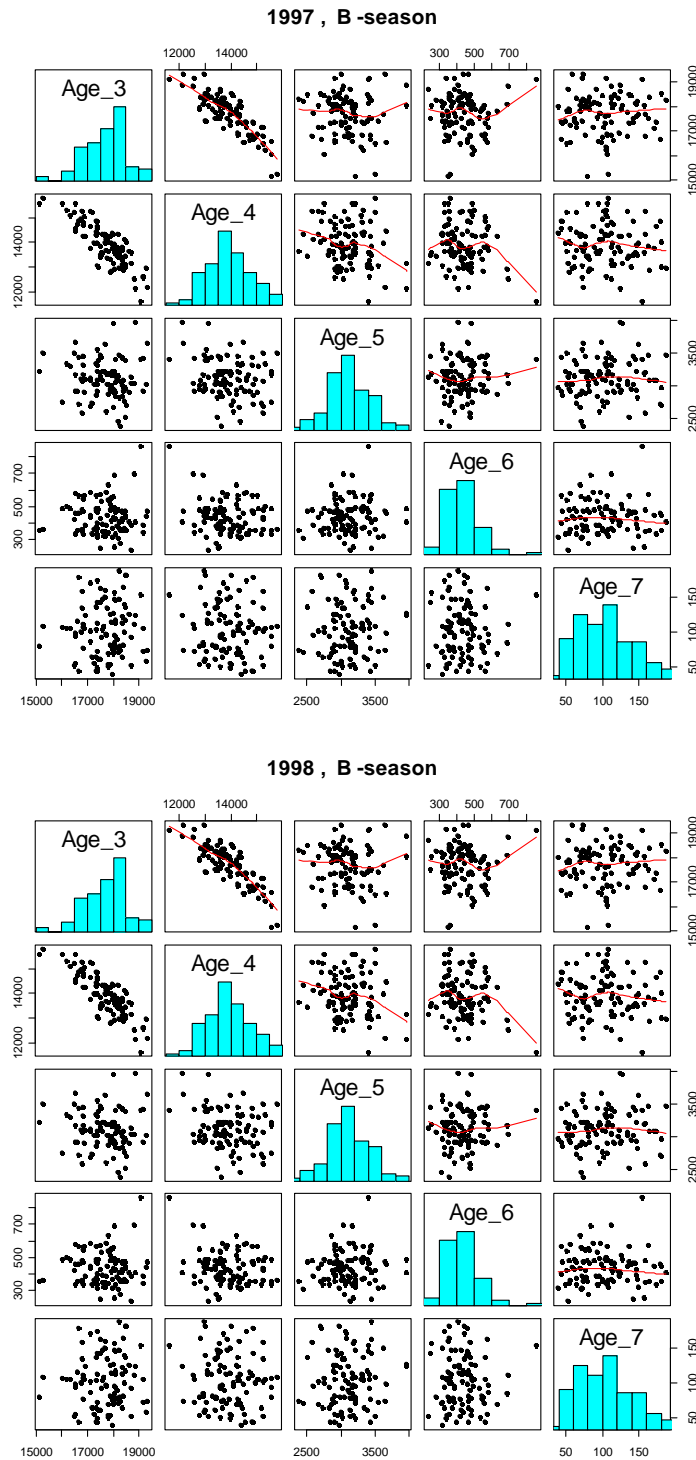


Fig. 3-4 Bootstrap estimates of Chinook salmon bycatch example showing correlation of bycatch at different ages for the B-season in 1997 (top) and 1998 (bottom).

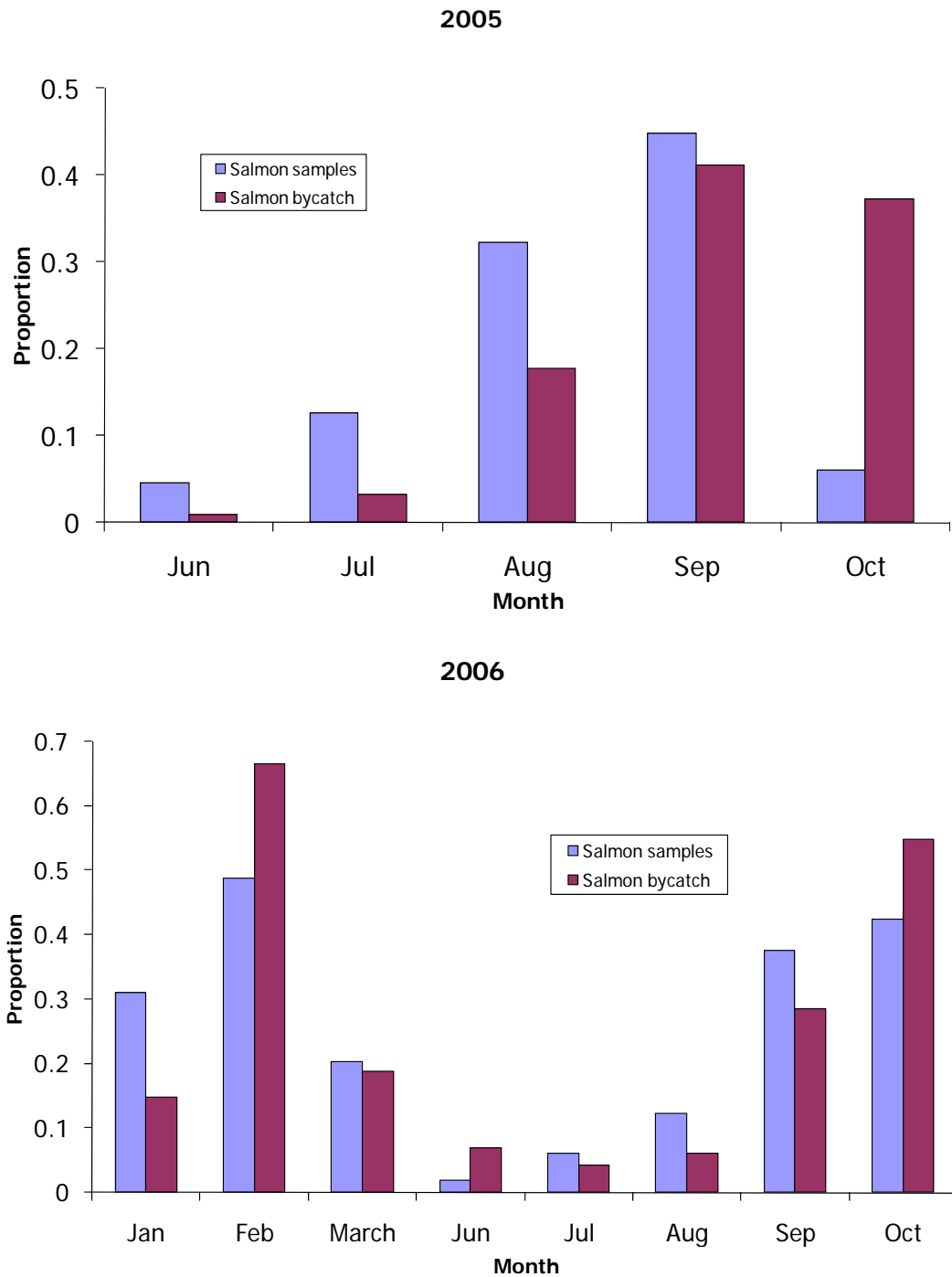


Fig. 3-5 Proportion of Chinook salmon samples collected for genetics compared to the proportion of bycatch by month for 2005 B-season only (top panel) and 2006 A and B season combined (bottom panel).

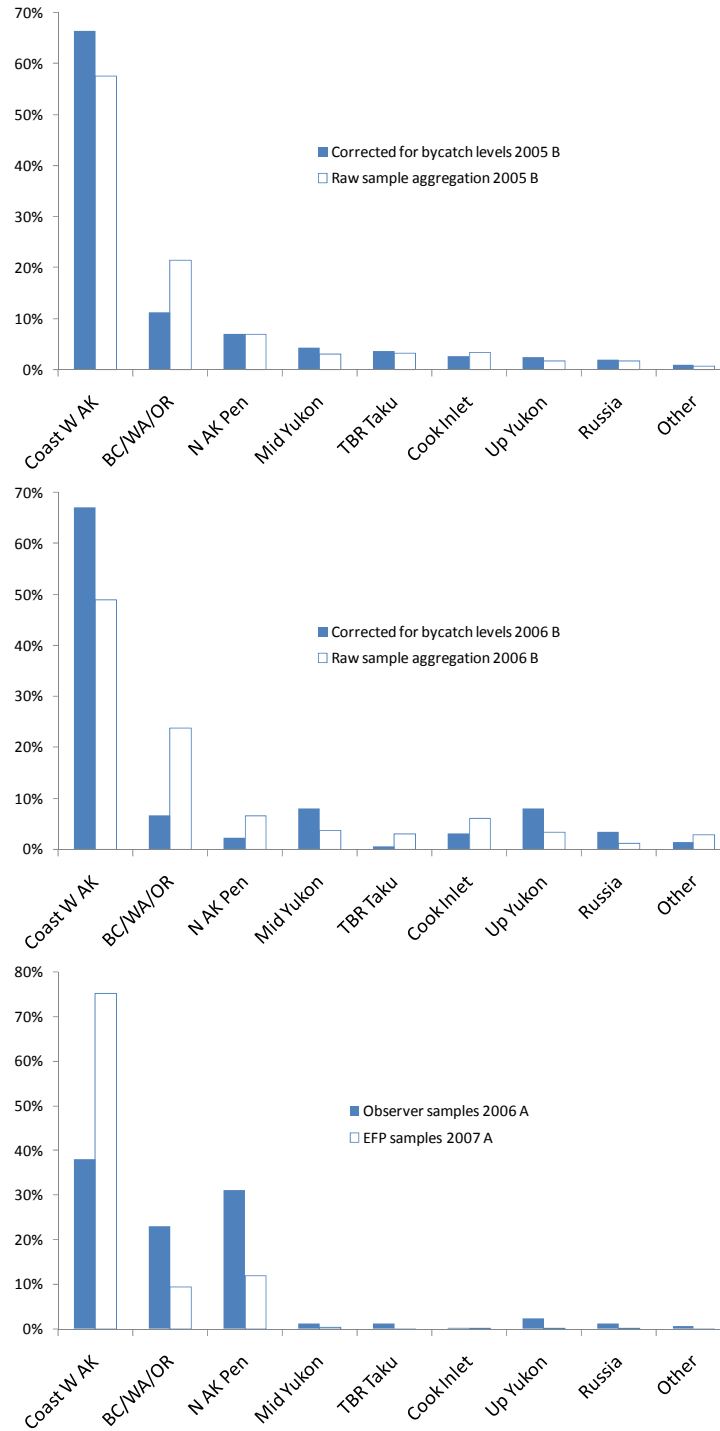


Fig. 3-6 Chinook salmon bycatch results by reporting region for 2005 B season (top), 2006 B season (middle), and the 2006 and (partial sample) of 2007 A seasons (bottom). The top two panels include uncorrected results where bycatch differences between regions (east and west of 170°W) are ignored (empty columns).

3.3.3 Estimating adult equivalence

The impact of bycatch on salmon runs is the primary output statistic. This measure relates the historical bycatch levels relative to the subsequent returning salmon run k in year t as:

$$u_{t,k} = \frac{AEQ_{t,k}}{AEQ_{t,k} + S_{t,k}} \quad (1)$$

where $AEQ_{t,k}$ and $S_{t,k}$ are the adult-equivalent bycatch and stock size (run return) estimates of the salmon species in question, respectively. The calculation of $AEQ_{t,k}$ includes the bycatch of salmon returning to spawn in year t and the bycatch from previous years for the same brood year (i.e., at younger, immature ages). This latter component needs to be decremented by ocean survival rates and maturity schedules. The impact of current year and previous years bycatch on salmon returning (as adult equivalents in year t) can be expressed in expanded form (without stock specificity) as:

$$\begin{aligned} AEQ_t = & \sum_{a=3}^7 c_{t,a} \gamma_a + \\ & \gamma_4 (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 c_{t-1,3} + \\ & \gamma_5 (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 c_{t-2,3} + \\ & \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 s_5 c_{t-3,3} + \\ & \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 s_5 s_6 c_{t-4,3} + \\ & \\ & \gamma_5 (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 c_{t-1,4} + \\ & \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 s_5 c_{t-2,4} + \\ & \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 s_5 s_6 c_{t-3,4} + \\ & \\ & \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) s_5 c_{t-1,5} + \\ & \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) s_5 s_6 c_{t-2,5} + \\ & \\ & \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) s_6 c_{t-1,6} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $c_{t,a}$ is the bycatch of age a salmon in year t , s_a is the proportion of salmon surviving from age a to $a+1$, and γ_a is the proportion of salmon at sea that will return to spawn at age a . Since this model is central to the calculation of AEQ values, an explanatory schematic is given in Fig. 3-7. Maturation rates vary over time and among stocks detailed information on this is available from a wide variety of sources. For the purpose of this study, an average over putative stocks was developed based on a variety of studies (Table 3-13). Note that there is a distinction between the distribution of mature age salmon found in rivers (Table 3-13) and the expected age-specific maturation rate of oceanic salmon ($\gamma_{a,k}$) used in this model. However, given ocean survival rates the values for $\gamma_{a,k}$ can be solved which satisfy the age-specific maturation averaged over different stocks (bottom row of Table 3-13).

To carry out the computations in a straightforward manner, the numbers of salmon that remain in the ocean (i.e., they put off spawning for at least another year) are tracked through time until age 7 where for this model, all Chinook in the ocean at that age are considered mature and will spawn in that year.

Stochastic versions of the adult equivalence calculations acknowledge both run-size inter-annual variability and run size estimation error, as well as uncertainty in maturation rates, the natural mortality rates (oceanic), river-of-origin estimates, and age assignments. The variability in run size can be written as (with $\dot{S}_{t,k}$ representing the stochastic version of $S_{t,k}$):

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{S}_{t,k} &= \bar{S}_k e^{\varepsilon_t + \delta_t} & \varepsilon_t &\sim N(0, \sigma_1^2), \\ & & \delta_t &\sim N(0, \sigma_2^2) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where σ_1^2, σ_2^2 are specified levels of variability in inter-annual run sizes and run-size estimation variances, respectively. Note that for the purposes of this EIS, estimates of run sizes were unavailable for some stocks hence this method is described here for conceptual purposes only.

The stochastic survival rates were simulated as:

$$\dot{s}_a = 1 - \exp(-M_a + \delta), \quad \delta \sim N(0, 0.1^2) \quad (4)$$

whereas the maturity in a given year and age was drawn from beta-distributions:

$$\dot{\gamma}_a \sim B(\alpha_a, \beta_a) \quad (5)$$

with parameters α_a, β_a specified to satisfy the expected value of age at maturation (Table 3-13) and a pre-specified coefficient of variation term (provided as model input).

Similarly, the parameter responsible for assigning bycatch to river-system of origin was modeled using a combination of years and “parametric bootstrap” approach, also with the beta distribution:

$$\dot{p}_k \sim B(\alpha_k, \beta_k) \quad (6)$$

again with α_k, β_k specified to satisfy the expected value the estimates and variances shown in Table 3-1.

For the purposes of this study, the estimation uncertainty is considered as part of the inter-annual variability in this parameter. The steps (implemented in a spreadsheet) for the AEQ analysis can be outlined as follows:

1. Select a bootstrap sample of salmon bycatch-at-age ($c_{t,a}$) for each year from the catch-age procedure described above;
2. Sum the bycatch-at-age for each year and proceed to account for year-of-return factors (e.g., stochastic maturation rates and ocean survival (Eqs. 2-5));
3. Partition the bycatch estimates to stock proportions (by year and area) drawn randomly from each parametric bootstrap;
4. Store stratum-specific AEQ values for each year;
5. Repeat 1-4 200 times;
6. Based on updated genetics results, assign to river of origin components (\dot{p}_k , Eq. 6).
7. Compile results over all years and compute frequencies from which relative probabilities can be estimated;

Sensitivity analyses on maturation rates by brood year were conducted and contrasted with alternative assumptions about natural mortality (M_a) schedules during their oceanic phase as follows:

Model	3	4	5	6	7
1 - None	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2 - Variable	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.05	0.0
3 - Constant	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0

The pattern of bycatch relative to AEQ is variable and relatively insensitive to mortality assumptions (Fig. 3-10). For simplicity in presenting the analysis, subsequent values are based on the intermediate age-specific natural mortality (Model 2). The corresponding age-specific probabilities that a salmon would return to spawn (given the in-river mature population proportions shown in Table 3-13) are:

Age	3	4	5	6	7
Maturation probability (γ_a)	0.059	0.273	0.488	0.908	1.000

Notice that in some years, the bycatch records may be below the actual AEQ due to the lagged impact of previous years catches (e.g., in 1999 and 2000). A similar result would be predicted for AEQ model results in 2008 regardless of actual bycatch levels in this year due to the cumulative effect of bycatch prior to 2008, and particularly the impact of bycatch levels in 2007 as that will continue to impact the AEQ (and thus subsequent returns to river systems) for several years.

Overall, the estimate of AEQ Chinook mortality from 1994-2007 ranged from about 15,000 fish to over 78,000 with the largest contribution of the mortality comprised of stocks in the coastal west-Alaska (Table 3-14). Note that the intent here is to show that annual stock composition estimates of the bycatch is affected by the seasons and areas when and where bycatch occurs. Note that these results are based on the assumption that the genetics findings from the 2005-2007 data represent the historical pattern of bycatch stock composition (by strata).

Evaluations of alternative Chinook salmon caps were done based on re-casting historical catch levels as if a cap proposal had been implemented. Since the alternatives all have specific values by season and sector, the effective limit on Chinook bycatch levels can vary for each alternative and over different years. This is caused by the distribution of the fleet relative to the resource and the variability of bycatch rates by season and years. To capture the effect of an alternative policy, the 2003-2007 mean “effective” cap for each alternative was computed, and used as the seasonal limit for evaluation purposes (Table 3-15). These values were then used in the AEQ simulation model as season-specific caps. This means that the minimum of the historical season-specific bycatch and the effective cap level given in Table 3-15 was applied for estimating the AEQ for each policy.

The sum over ages of catch in year t that would have returned in that year

$$AEQ_t = \sum_{a=3}^7 c_{t,a} \gamma_a + \text{Fish caught in earlier years that would have survived:}$$

The catch of age 3 salmon in previous years that survived and had not returned in earlier years

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gamma_4 (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 c_{t-1,3} + \\ \gamma_5 (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 c_{t-2,3} + \\ \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 s_5 c_{t-3,3} + \\ \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) (1 - \gamma_3) s_3 s_4 s_5 s_6 c_{t-4,3} + \end{array} \right.$$

The catch of age 4 salmon in previous years that survived and had not returned in earlier years

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gamma_5 (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 c_{t-1,4} + \\ \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 s_5 c_{t-2,4} + \\ \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) (1 - \gamma_4) s_4 s_5 s_6 c_{t-3,4} + \end{array} \right.$$

The catch of age 5 salmon...

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gamma_6 (1 - \gamma_5) s_5 c_{t-1,5} + \\ \gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) (1 - \gamma_5) s_5 s_6 c_{t-2,5} + \end{array} \right.$$

$$\gamma_7 (1 - \gamma_6) s_6 c_{t-1,6}$$

Fig. 3-7 Explanatory schematic of main AEQ equation. Symbols are defined in text.

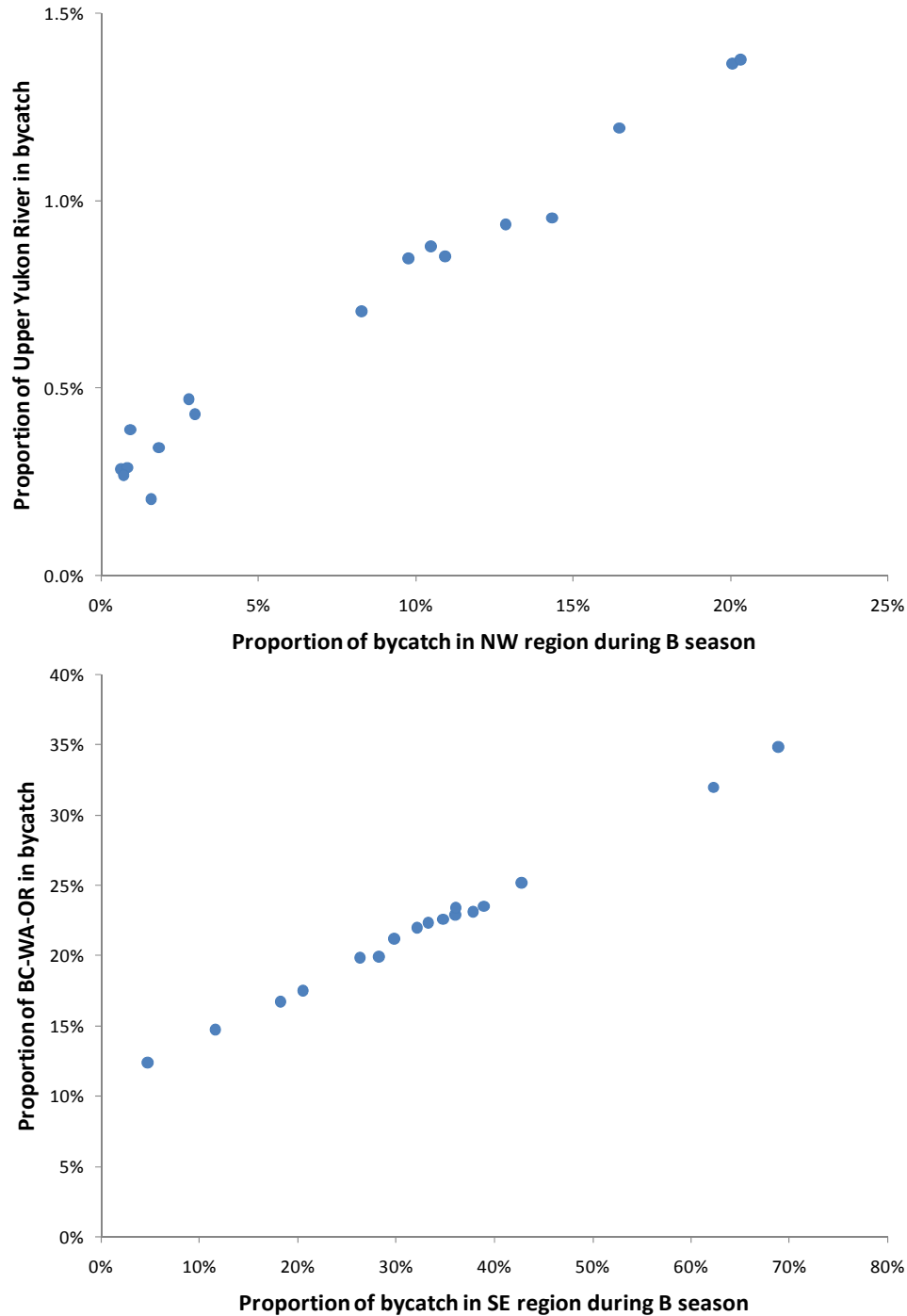


Fig. 3-8 Figure showing how the overall proportion of Upper Yukon River relates to the bycatch proportion that occurs in the NW region (west of 170°W; top panel) and how the proportion of the BC-WA-OR (PNW) relates to the SE region (east of 170°W; bottom panel) during the summer-fall pollock fishery, 1991-2007.

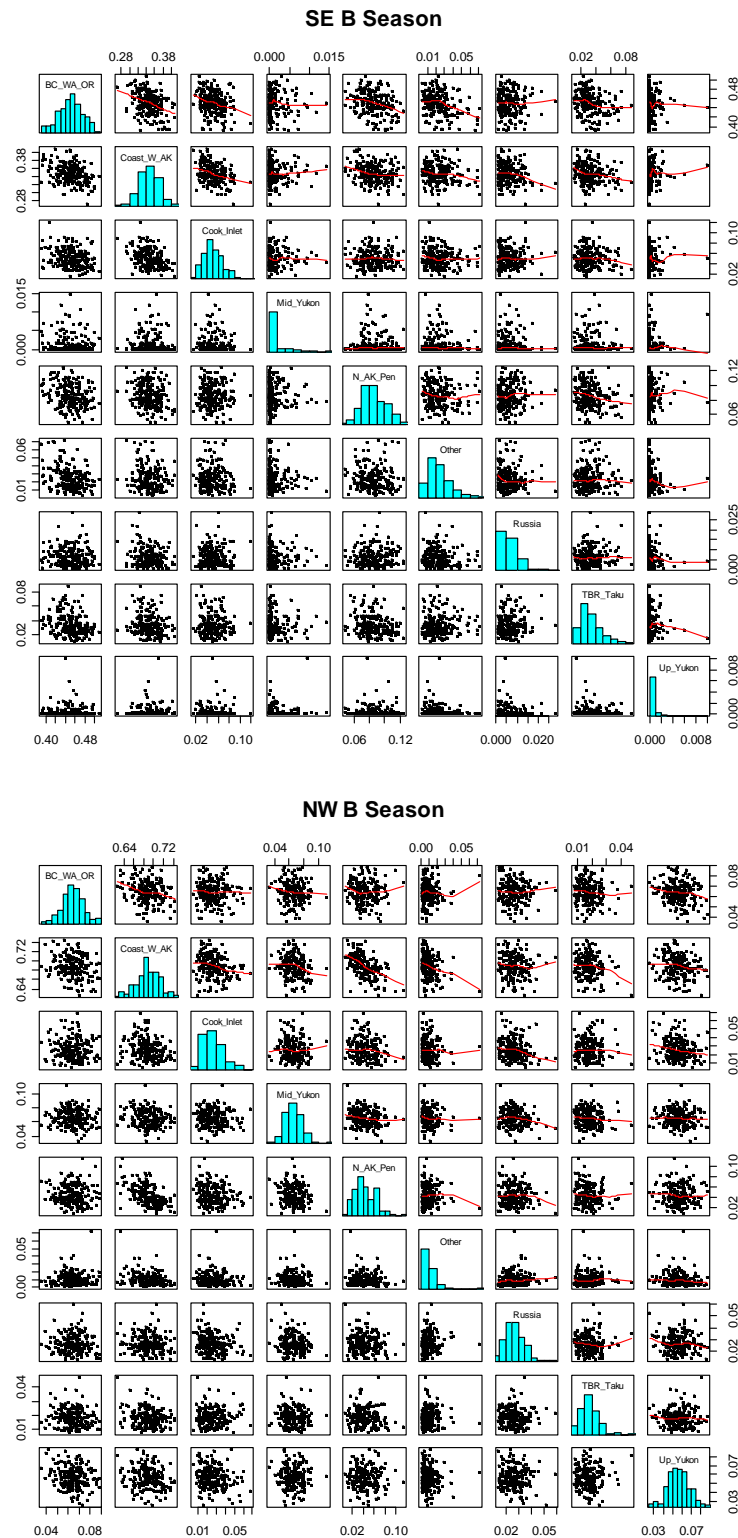


Fig. 3-9 Simulated Chinook salmon stock proportion by region for the B season based on reported standard error values from ADF&G analyses and assuming that the 2006 data has better coverage and is hence weighted 2:1 compared to the 2005 B-season data.

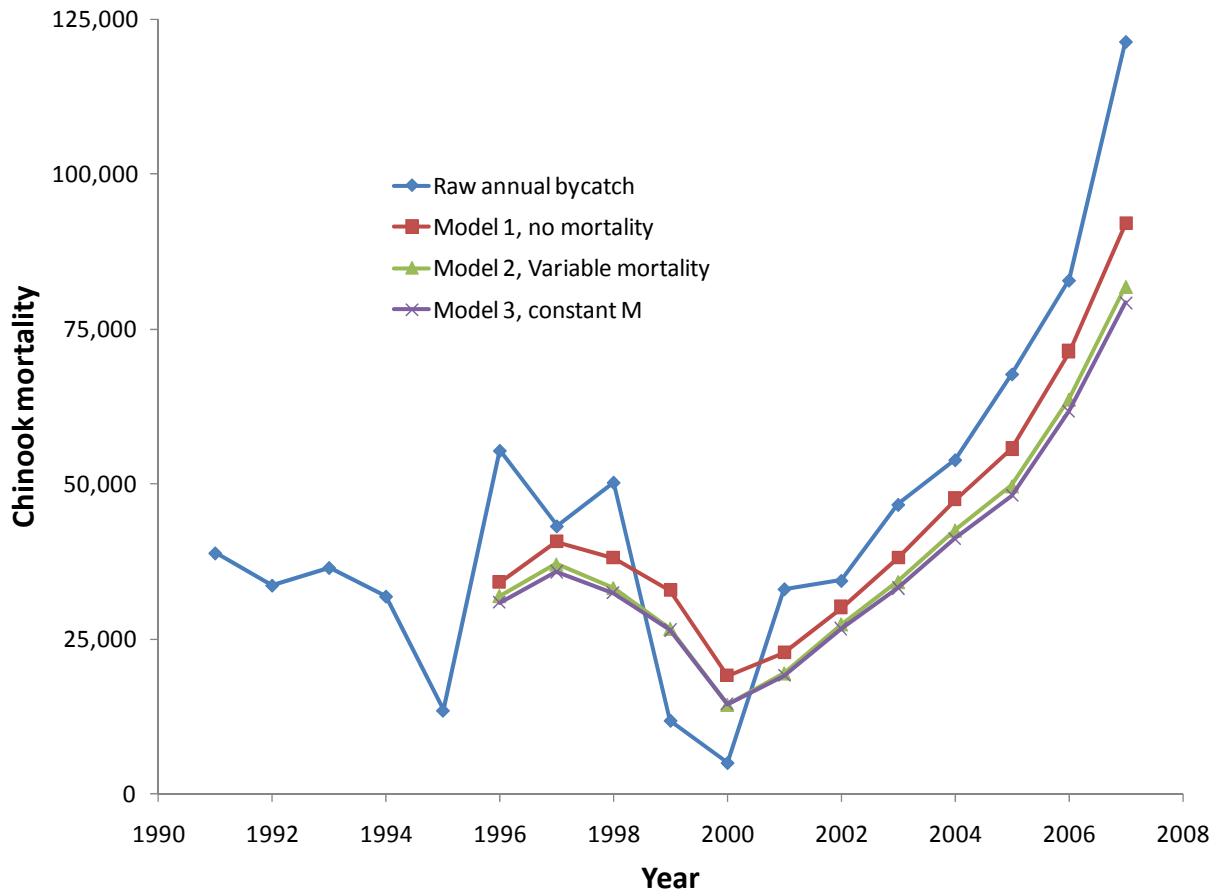


Fig. 3-10 Time series of Chinook adult equivalent bycatch from the pollock fishery, 1991-2007 compared to the annual totals under different assumptions about ocean mortality rates.

Table 3-13 Range of estimated mean age-specific maturation by brood year used to compute adult equivalents. The weighted mean value is based on the relative Chinook run sizes between the Nushagak and Yukon Rivers since 1997. Sources: Healey 1991, Dani Evenson (ADF&G pers. comm.), Rishi Sharma (CRITFC, pers. comm.).

	Weight	Age 3	Age 4	Age 5	Age 6	Age 7
Yukon	2.216	1%	13%	32%	49%	5%
Nushagak since 82	1.781	1%	21%	38%	39%	2%
Nushagak since 66	0	0%	17%	36%	43%	3%
Goodnews	0	0%	20%	31%	45%	4%
SE Alaska (TBR)	0.3	0%	18%	40%	37%	5%
BC, WA, OR, & CA	0.7	3%	28%	53%	14%	1%
Weighted mean		1%	18%	37%	40%	3%

Table 3-14 Median values of stochastic simulation results of AEQ Chinook mortality attributed to the pollock fishery by region, 1994-2007. These simulations include stochasticity in natural mortality (Model 2, CV=0.1), bycatch age composition (via bootstrap samples), maturation rate (CV=0.1), and stock composition (as detailed above). NOTE: these results are based on the assumption that the genetics findings from the 2005-2007 data represent the historical pattern of bycatch stock composition (by strata).

	BC, WA, OR, and CA	Coastal W. AK	Cook Inlet	Middle Yukon	N. Alaska Peninsula	Other	Russia	Upper Yukon	TBR (SE)	Total
1994	5,198	21,518	242	201	4,898	714	147	194	198	33,310
1995	5,635	14,084	415	104	3,302	532	112	96	279	24,559
1996	6,974	17,025	520	154	3,939	632	142	137	364	29,886
1997	11,376	16,895	1,276	413	3,364	715	277	343	783	35,442
1998	10,967	14,218	1,110	103	3,382	696	165	87	711	31,439
1999	6,429	15,099	573	297	3,193	561	188	245	387	26,973
2000	2,815	9,383	219	167	2,106	330	99	147	152	15,418
2001	3,694	10,473	349	260	2,141	375	149	221	238	17,899
2002	6,236	14,516	509	106	3,467	609	117	96	341	25,997
2003	5,743	20,065	398	356	4,424	679	207	311	292	32,475
2004	10,164	21,904	1,018	466	4,592	859	305	393	685	40,386
2005	11,169	25,462	1,203	767	5,107	923	439	645	772	46,487
2006	12,719	36,337	892	363	8,355	1,348	290	339	633	61,275
2007	18,079	44,380	1,597	694	9,743	1,688	485	608	1,069	78,344

Table 3-15 Chinook salmon effective bycatch “caps” in the pollock fishery by season (A and B) based on average values of the caps (if they occurred) had they been applied from 2003-2007.

Cap, A/B, sector	A season	B season	Total
Alt 5 AS 1	31,550	23,490	55,040
Alt 4 AS 1 w/ transfer	46,561	20,372	66,933
Alt 4 AS 1 w/o transfer	44,974	20,372	65,346
Alt 4 AS 2 w/ transfer	33,010	13,500	46,510
Alt 4 AS 2 w/o transfer	31,809	13,500	45,309
87,500 50/50 opt2a	31,950	32,844	64,793
87,500 50/50 opt2d	36,899	28,791	65,690
87,500 58/42 opt1	44,118	20,321	64,439
87,500 58/42 opt2a	41,653	30,463	72,116
87,500 58/42 opt2d	42,234	24,258	66,492
87,500 70/30 opt1	49,368	16,277	65,644
87,500 70/30 opt2a	44,665	18,427	63,092
87,500 70/30 opt2d	55,376	17,815	73,191
68,100 50/50 opt1	27,784	18,272	46,056
68,100 50/50 opt2a	26,459	28,264	54,723
68,100 50/50 opt2d	25,196	24,258	49,455
68,100 58/42 opt1	29,569	17,581	47,150
68,100 58/42 opt2a	28,587	21,247	49,834
68,100 58/42 opt2d	32,676	19,997	52,674
68,100 70/30 opt1	41,021	13,253	54,274
68,100 70/30 opt2a	35,980	15,495	51,475
68,100 70/30 opt2d	42,234	14,640	56,874
48,700 50/50 opt1	19,292	16,196	35,488
48,700 50/50 opt2a	18,053	17,439	35,493
48,700 50/50 opt2d	21,242	16,725	37,966
48,700 58/42 opt1	21,142	13,253	34,394
48,700 58/42 opt2a	19,592	15,495	35,087
48,700 58/42 opt2d	23,610	14,640	38,250
48,700 70/30 opt1	27,784	10,225	38,009
48,700 70/30 opt2a	26,459	12,262	38,721
48,700 70/30 opt2d	25,196	11,612	36,809
29,300 50/50 opt1	9,761	10,225	19,985
29,300 50/50 opt2a	10,637	12,262	22,900
29,300 50/50 opt2d	10,070	11,612	21,682
29,300 58/42 opt1	12,725	8,740	21,465
29,300 58/42 opt2a	12,177	10,520	22,697
29,300 58/42 opt2d	12,031	10,634	22,665
29,300 70/30 opt1	15,120	6,885	22,005
29,300 70/30 opt2a	17,010	7,065	24,074
29,300 70/30 opt2d	14,859	6,775	21,634

3.4 Consideration of Future Actions

An environmental impact statement must consider cumulative effects when determining whether an action significantly affects environmental quality. The Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) regulations for implementing NEPA define cumulative effects as:

...the impact on the environment, which results from the incremental impact of the action when added to other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions regardless of what agency (federal or nonfederal) or person undertakes such other actions.

Cumulative effects can result from individually minor but collectively significant actions taking place over a period of time (40 CFR 1508.7).

In this EIS, relevant past and present actions are identified and integrated into the impacts analysis for each resource component in Chapters 4 through 8. Each chapter also includes a section on consideration of future actions to provide the reader with an understanding of the changes in the impacts of the alternatives on each resource component when we take into account the reasonable foreseeable future actions. The discussions relevant to each resource component have been included in each chapter (1) to help each chapter stand alone as a self-contained analysis, for the convenience of the reader, and (2) as a methodological tool to ensure that the threads of each discussion for each resource component remain distinct, and do not become confused.

This section provides a summary description of the reasonably foreseeable future actions that may affect resource components and that also may be affected by the alternatives in this analysis. These include future actions that may affect the Bering Sea pollock fishery, the salmon caught as bycatch in that fishery, and the impacts of salmon bycatch on the resources components analyzed in this EIS. The actions in the list have been grouped in the following four categories:

- Ecosystem-sensitive management
- Traditional management tools
- Actions by other Federal, State, and international agencies
- Private actions

The “action area” for salmon bycatch management includes the Federal waters of the Bering Sea. Impacts of the action may occur outside the action area in salmon freshwater habitats and along salmon migration routes.

Table 3-16 summarizes the reasonably foreseeable “actions” identified in this analysis that are likely to have an impact on a resource component within the action area and timeframe. Actions are understood to be human actions (e.g., a proposed rule to designate northern right whale critical habitat in the Pacific Ocean), as distinguished from natural events (e.g., an ecological regime shift). Identification of actions likely to impact a resource component, or change the impacts of any of the alternatives, within this action’s area and time frame will allow decision makers and the public to make a reasoned choice among alternatives.

CEQ regulations require a consideration of actions, whether taken by a government or by private persons, which are reasonably foreseeable. This is interpreted as indicating actions that are more than merely possible or speculative. Actions have been considered reasonably foreseeable if some concrete step has been taken toward implementation, such as a Council recommendation or the publication of a proposed rule. Actions simply “under consideration” have not generally been included because they may change substantially or may not be adopted, and so cannot be reasonably described, predicted, or foreseen.

Table 3-16 Reasonably foreseeable future actions

Ecosystem-sensitive management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ongoing Research to understand the interactions between ecosystem components • Increasing protection of ESA-listed and other non-target species • Increasing integration of ecosystems considerations into fisheries management
Traditional management tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authorization of pollock fishery in future years • Increasing enforcement responsibilities • Technical and program changes that will improve enforcement and management • Development of a Salmon Excluder Device
Other Federal, State, and international agencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • State management of salmon fisheries • Hatchery release of salmon • Future exploration and development of offshore mineral resources • Expansion and construction of boat harbors • Other State actions
Private actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial pollock and salmon fishing • CDQ investments in western Alaska • Subsistence harvest of Chinook salmon • Sport harvest of Chinook salmon • Increasing levels of economic activity in Alaska's waters and coastal zone

3.4.1 Ecosystem-sensitive management²⁸

3.4.1.1 Ongoing research to understand the interactions between ecosystem components

Researchers are learning more about the components of the ecosystem, the ways these interact, and the impacts of fishing activity on them. Research topics include cumulative impacts of climate change on the ecosystem, the energy flow within an ecosystem, and the impacts of fishing on the ecosystem components. Ongoing research will improve the interface between science and policy-making and facilitate the use of ecological information in making policy. Many institutions and organizations are conducting relevant research.

Recent fluctuations in the abundance, survival, and growth of salmon in the Bering Sea have added significant uncertainty and complexity to the management of Bering Sea salmon resources. Similar fluctuations in the physical and biological oceanographic conditions have also been observed; however, the limited information on Bering Sea salmon ecology was not sufficient to adequately identify mechanisms linking recent changes in ocean conditions to salmon resources. North Pacific Anadromous Fish Commission (NPAFC) scientists responded by developing BASIS (Bering-Aleutian Salmon International Survey), a comprehensive survey of the Bering Sea pelagic ecosystem. BASIS was designed to improve our understanding of salmon ecology in the Bering Sea and to clarify mechanisms linking

²⁸ The term “ecosystem-sensitive management” is used in this EIS in preference to the terms “ecosystem-based management” and “ecosystem approaches to management.” The term was chosen to indicate a wide range of measures designed to improve our understanding of the interactions between groundfish fishing and the broader ecosystems, to reduce or mitigate the impacts of fishing on the ecosystems, and to modify fisheries governance to integrate ecosystems considerations into management. The term was used because it is not a term of art or commonly used term which might have very specific meanings. When the term “ecosystem-based management” is used, it is meant to reflect usage by other parties in public discussions.

recent changes in ocean conditions with salmon resources in the Bering Sea. The Alaska Fisheries Science Center's Ocean Carrying Capacity (OCC) Program is responsible for BASIS research in U.S. waters.

Researchers with the OCC Program have conducted shelf-wide surveys during fall 2002 through 2006 on the eastern Bering Sea shelf as part of the multiyear BASIS research program. The focus of BASIS research was on salmon; however, the broad spatial coverage of oceanographic and biological data collected during late summer and early fall provided insight into how the pelagic ecosystem on the eastern Bering Sea shelf responded to changes in spring productivity. Salmon and other forage fish (e.g., age-0 walleye pollock, Pacific cod, and Pacific herring) were captured with a surface net trawl, zooplankton were collected with oblique bongo tows, and oceanographic data were obtained from conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) vertical profiles. More information on BASIS is provided in Chapter 5 and is available at the AFSC website at: http://www.afsc.noaa.gov/ABL/occ/ablocc_basis.htm.

In 2008, North Pacific Research Board (NPRB) and National Science Foundation (NSF) began a project for understanding ecosystem processes in the Bering Sea called the Bering Sea Integrated Ecosystem Research Program (BSIERP). Approximately 90 federal, state and university scientists will provide coverage of the entire Bering Sea ecosystem. Scientists will conduct three years of field research on the eastern Bering Sea Shelf, from St. Lawrence Island to the Aleutians, followed by two more years for analysis and reporting. They will study a range of issues, including atmospheric forcing, physical oceanography, and the economic and social impacts on humans and communities of a changing ecosystem. More information on this research project is available on the NPRB web site at: <http://bsierp.nprb.org/index.htm>.

Additionally, ecosystem protection is supported by an extensive program of research into ecosystem components and the integrated functioning of ecosystems, carried out at the AFSC. The AFSC's Fishery Interaction Team (FIT), formed in 2000 to investigate the ecological impacts of commercial fishing, is focusing on the impacts of Pacific cod, pollock, and Atka mackerel fisheries on Steller sea lion populations (Connors and Logerwell 2005). The AFSC's Fisheries and the Environment (FATE) program is investigating potential ecological indicators for use in stock assessment (Boldt 2005). The AFSC's Auke Bay Lab and RACE Division map the benthic habitat on important fishing grounds, study the impact of fishing gear on different types of habitats, and model the relationship between benthic habitat features and fishing activity (Heifetz et al. 2003). Other AFSC ecosystem programs include the North Pacific Climate Regimes and Ecosystem Productivity Program, the Habitat and Ecological Processes program, and the Loss of Sea Ice program (J. Boldt, pers. comm., September 26, 2005). More information on these research programs is available at the AFSC website at: <http://www.afsc.noaa.gov>.

3.4.1.2 Increasing protection of ESA-listed and other non-target species

Pollock fishing may impact a wide range of other resources, such as seabirds, marine mammals, and non-target species, such as salmon and halibut. Recent Council and NMFS actions suggest that the Council and NMFS may consider measures for protection for ESA-listed and other non-target species.

Changes in the status of species listed under the ESA, the addition of new listed species, designation of critical habitat, and results of future Section 7 consultations may require modifications to pollock fishing practices to reduce the impacts of this fishery on listed species and critical habitat.

The discussion of ESA-listed salmon is in Chapter 5. We are not aware of any changes to the ESA-listed salmon status or designated critical habitat that may affect the future pollock fishery. The impacts of the pollock fishery on ESA-listed salmon are currently limited to the Upper Willamette and Lower Columbia River stocks. The tracking of coded-wire tagged surrogate salmon for ESA-listed stocks may result in

additional ESA-listed salmon stocks being identified as potentially impacted by the pollock fisheries. The possible take of any additional ESA-listed salmon stocks would trigger ESA consultation and may result in additional management measures for the pollock fishery depending on the result of the consultation.

Washington State's Sea Grant program is currently working with catcher-processors in the Bering Sea pollock fishery to study the sources of seabird strikes in their operations and to look for ways fishermen can reduce the rate of strikes (Melvin et al. 2004). Other studies are investigating the potential for use of video monitoring of seabird interactions with trawl and longline gear (McElderry et al. 2004; Ames et al. 2005). This research is especially important because action area has very high seabird densities and potential aggregations of ESA-listed short tailed albatross (NMFS 2007b).

The Council is in the process of considering revisions to the Steller sea lion protection measures applicable to the pollock fishery. Since the Steller sea lion protection measures were implemented, extensive scientific research has been conducted to understand the impacts of fisheries on Steller sea lions and life history and foraging activities of these animals. These studies have changed our understanding of Steller sea lion and groundfish fisheries interactions. On October 18, 2005, the Council requested that NMFS reinstate consultation on the November 2000 Biological Opinion and evaluate all new information that has developed since the previous consultations, including the 2001 Biological Opinion on the Steller sea lion protection measures for the Alaska groundfish fisheries (NMFS 2006). The March 2008 Steller sea lion recovery plan provides a thorough review of the threats to the recovery to the species, the status of the species, and criteria that must be met to down-list and delist the species (NMFS 2008a). NMFS is preparing a new FMP-level Biological Opinion to thoroughly review and synthesize information regarding potential impacts on Steller sea lions and their prey by the groundfish fisheries identified since the previous FMP-level Biological Opinion, the 2001 Biological Opinion, the 2003 supplement, and the recovery plan. From this new information, revisions to the Steller sea lion protection measures may be proposed so that the best scientific information available is used to ensure the fisheries are not likely to result in jeopardy of extinction and destruction or adverse modification of designated critical habitat and to alleviate any unnecessary restrictions for the fleet to improve efficiency and ensure economic viability for the industry. NMFS and the Council would develop an EIS to analyze the impacts of proposed changes to the Steller sea lion protection measures.

Northern fur seals forage in the pelagic area of the Bering Sea and reproduce on the Pribilof and Bogoslof Islands. On June 17, 1988, NMFS declared the northern fur seal stock of the Pribilof Islands, Alaska (St. Paul and St. George Islands), to be depleted under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA). The Pribilof Islands population was designated depleted because it had declined to less than 50% of levels observed in the late 1950s, and no compelling evidence suggested that carrying capacity has changed substantially since the late 1950s (NMFS 2007a). The EIS for the annual subsistence harvest of fur seals determined that the groundfish fisheries in combination with the subsistence harvest may have a conditional cumulative effect on prey availability if the fisheries were to become further concentrated spatially or temporally in fur seal habitat, especially during June through August (NMFS 2005). The Northern Fur Seal Conservation Plan recommends gathering information on the effects of the fisheries on fur seal prey, including measuring and modeling effects of fishing on prey (both commercial and noncommercial) composition, distribution, abundance, and schooling behavior, and evaluate existing fisheries closures and protected areas (NMFS 2007a). As more information becomes available regarding the interaction between the groundfish fisheries and northern fur seals, fishing restrictions may be necessary to mitigate potential adverse effects.

In December 2007, NMFS was petitioned by the Center for Biological Diversity (CBD) to list ribbon seals as endangered or threatened under the ESA (CBD 2007). This petition is based on the dependence of this species on sea ice and the loss of sea ice due to global climate change. The petition presents information on (1) global warming which is resulting in the rapid melt of the seals' sea-ice habitat, (2)

high harvest levels allowed by the Russian Federation, (3) current oil and gas development, (4) rising contaminant levels in the Arctic, and (5) bycatch mortality and competition for prey resources from commercial fisheries. NMFS determined that the petition presented substantial information that a listing may be warranted and started a status review of the species to determine whether listing is warranted (73 FR 16617, March 28, 2008). NMFS determined that the listing is not warranted at this time due to modeling of future sea ice extent and population estimates (73 FR 79822, December 30, 2008). On March 31, 2009, the CBD and Greenpeace filed a 60 day notice of intent to sue NMFS for failing to propose listing ribbon seals under the ESA. The CBD and Greenpeace filed a complaint for declaratory and injunctive relief on September 3, 2009, asking for the 12 month finding to be remanded. The CBD and Greenpeace filed a complaint for declaratory and injunctive relief on September 3, 2009, asking for the 12 month finding to be remanded.

On May 28, 2008, the CBD petitioned NMFS to list ringed, bearded, and spotted seals under the ESA due to threats to the species from (1) global warming, (2) high harvest levels allowed by the Russian Federation, (3) oil and gas exploration and development, (4) rising contaminant levels in the Arctic, and (5) bycatch mortality and competition for prey resources from commercial fisheries (CBD 2008a). NMFS has initiated the status review for ringed, bearded, and spotted seals (73 FR 51615, September 4, 2008). Pursuant to a court settlement, NMFS completed the status review and issued a 12-month finding on October 15, 2009 for the spotted seal (74 FR 53683, October 20, 2009) and is scheduled to complete the status reviews and 12-month findings on November 1, 2010 for the ringed and bearded seals. NMFS determined that the status of the stocks of spotted seals occurring in Alaska indicated that no listing was needed. Listing of ringed or bearded seals would require ESA consultation on federal actions that may adversely affect them or any designated critical habitat.

3.4.1.3 Increasing integration of ecosystems considerations into fisheries management

Ecosystem assessments evaluate the state of the environment, including monitoring climate–ocean indices and species that indicate ecosystem changes. Ecosystem-based fisheries management reflects the incorporation of ecosystem assessments into single species assessments when making management decisions, and explicitly accounts for ecosystem processes when formulating management actions. Ecosystem-based fisheries management may still encompass traditional management tools, such as TACs, but these tools will likely yield different quantitative results.

To integrate such factors into fisheries management, NMFS and the Council will need to develop policies that explicitly specify decision rules and actions to be taken in response to preliminary indications that a regime shift has occurred. These decision rules need to be included in long-range policies and plans. Management actions should consider the life history of the species of interest and can encompass varying response times, depending on the species' lifespan and rate of production. Stock assessment advice needs to explicitly indicate the likely consequences of alternate harvest strategies to stock viability under various recruitment assumptions.

Management strategy evaluations (MSEs) can help in this process. MSEs use simulation models of a fishery to test the success of different management strategies under different sets of fishery conditions, such as shifts in ecosystem regimes. The AFSC is actively involved in conducting MSEs for several groundfish fisheries, including for several flatfish species in the BS, and for pollock in the GOA.

Both the Pew Commission report and the Oceans Commission report point to the need for changes in the organization of fisheries and oceans management to institutionalize ecosystem considerations in policy making (Pew 2003; U.S. Commission on Ocean Policy 2004). The Oceans Commission, for example,

points to the need to develop new management boundaries corresponding to large marine ecosystems, and to align decision-making with these boundaries (U.S. Commission on Ocean Policy 2004).

Since the publication of the Oceans Commission report, the President has established a cabinet-level Committee on Ocean Policy by executive order. The Committee is to explore ways to structure government to implement ecosystem-based ocean management (Evans and Wilson 2005). Congress reauthorized the Magnuson-Stevens Act in December 2006 to address ecosystem-based management.

NMFS and the Council are continuing to develop their ecosystem management measures for the fisheries in the EEZ off Alaska. NMFS is currently developing national Fishery Ecosystem Plan guidelines. It is unclear at this time whether these will be issued as guidelines, or as formal provisions for inclusion in the Magnuson-Stevens Act.

The Council has created a committee to research ecosystem developments and to assist in formulating positions with respect to ecosystem-based management. The Council completed a fishery ecosystem plan for the Aleutian Islands ecosystem (NPFMC 2007). An interagency Alaska Marine Ecosystem Forum (AMEF) is improving inter-agency communication on marine ecosystem issues. The Council has signed a Memorandum of Understanding with 10 Federal agencies and 4 State agencies, to create the AMEF. The AMEF seeks to improve communication between the agencies on issues of shared responsibilities related to the marine ecosystems off Alaska's coast. The initial focus of the AMEF will be on the Aleutian Islands marine ecosystem. The SSC has begun to hold annual ecosystem scientific meetings at the February Council meetings.

In addition to these efforts to explore how to develop its ecosystem management efforts, the Council and NMFS continue to initiate efforts to take account of ecosystem impacts of fishing activity. The Council has recommended habitat protection measures for the eastern Bering Sea (73 FR 12357, March 7, 2008). These measures include the Northern Bering Sea Research Area to address potential impacts of shifts in fishing activity to the north.

The Council's Ecosystem Committee discusses ecosystem initiatives and advise the Council on the following issues: (1) defining ecosystem-based management; (2) identifying the structure and Council role in potential regional ecosystem councils; (3) assessing the implications of NOAA strategic planning; (4) drafting guidelines for ecosystem-based approaches to management; (5) drafting Magnuson-Stevens Act requirements relative to ecosystem-based management; and (6) coordinating with NOAA and other initiatives regarding ecosystem-based management. More details are available in the Council's website at http://www.fakr.noaa.gov/npfmc/current_issues/ecosystem/Ecosystem.htm.

The Council established Federal fisheries management in the Arctic Management Area. The Council developed, and NMFS approved, an Arctic Fishery Management Plan that (1) closes the Arctic to commercial fishing until information improves so that fishing can be conducted sustainably and with due concern to other ecosystem components, (2) determines the fishery management authorities in the Arctic and provide the Council with a vehicle for addressing future management issues, and (3) implements an ecosystem based management policy that recognizes the unique issues in the Alaskan Arctic. No significant fisheries exist in the Arctic Management Area, either historically or currently. However, the warming of the Arctic and seasonal shrinkage of the sea ice may be associated with increased opportunities for fishing in this region. The action is necessary to prevent commercial fisheries from developing in the Arctic without the required management framework and scientific information on the fish stocks, their characteristics, and the implications of fishing for the stocks and related components of the ecosystem.

At this writing, while it seems likely that changes in oceans management and associated changes in fisheries management will occur as a result of these discussions and debates, it is not clear what form these new changes will take.

3.4.1.4 Fishery management responses to the effects of climate change

While climate warming trends are being studied and increasingly understood at a global scale (IPCC 2007), the ability for fishery managers to forecast biological responses to changing climate continues to be difficult. The Bering Sea is subject to periodic climatic and ecological “regime shifts.” These shifts change the values of key parameters of ecosystem relationships, and can lead to changes in the relative success of different species. The impacts of climate change in the Bering sea, and the related phenomenon of ocean acidification, is addressed in Section 8.4.

The Council and NMFS have taken actions that indicate a willingness to adapt fishery management to be proactive in the face of changing climate conditions. The Council currently receives an annual update on the status and trends of indicators of climate change in the Bering Sea through the presentation of the Ecosystem Assessment and Ecosystem Considerations Report (Boldt 2007). Much of the impetus for Council and NMFS actions in the northern Bering Sea, where bottom trawling is prohibited in the Northern Bering Sea Research Area, and in the Alaskan Arctic, where the Council and NMFS have prohibited all fishing until further scientific study of the impacts of fishing can be conducted, derives from the understanding that changing climate conditions may impact the spatial distribution of fish, and consequently, of fisheries. In order to be proactive, the Council has chosen to close any potential loopholes to unregulated fishing in areas that have not previously been fished.

Consequently, it is likely that as other impacts of climate change become apparent, fishery management will also adapt in response. Because of the large uncertainties as to what these impacts might be, however, and our current inability to predict such change, it is not possible to estimate what form these adaptations may take.

3.4.2 Traditional management tools

3.4.2.1 Authorization of pollock fishery in future years

The annual harvest specifications process for the pollock (and the associated pollock fishery) creates an important class of reasonably foreseeable actions that will take place in every one of the years considered in the cumulative impacts horizon (out to, and including, 2015). Annual TAC specifications limit each year’s harvest within sustainable bounds. The overall OY limits on harvests in the BSAI constrain overall harvest of all species. Each year, OFLs, ABCs, and TACs are specified for two years at a time, as described in the Alaska Groundfish Harvest Specifications EIS (NMFS 2007b).

The harvest specifications are adopted in accordance with the mandates of the Magnuson-Stevens Act, following guidelines prepared by NMFS, and in accordance with the process for determining overfishing criteria that is outlined in Section 3.2 of each of the groundfish FMPs. Specifications are developed using the most recent fishery survey data (often collected the summer before the fishery opens) and reviewed by the Council and its SSC, AP, and Plan Teams. The process provides many opportunities for public comment. The management process, of which the specifications are a part, is analyzed in an EIS (NMFS 2007b). Each year’s specifications and the status of the environment are reviewed to determine the appropriate level of NEPA analysis.

Annual pollock harvests, conducted in accordance with the annual specifications, will impact pollock stocks. Annual harvest activity may change total mortality for the pollock stock, may affect stock

characteristics through time by selective harvesting, may affect reproductive activity, may increase the annual harvestable surplus through compensatory mechanisms, may affect the prey for the target species, and may alter EFH.

The annual pollock harvests also impact the environmental components described in this EIS: salmon, non-target fish species, seabirds, marine mammals, and a more general set of ecological relationships. In general, the environmental components are renewable resources, subject to environmental fluctuations. Ongoing harvests of pollock may be consistent with the sustainability of other resource components if the fisheries are associated with mortality rates that are less than or equal to the rates at which the resources can grow or reproduce themselves.

The on-going pollock fishery employs hundreds of fishermen and fish processors, and contributes to the maintenance of human communities, principally in Alaska, Washington, and Oregon.

The number of TAC categories with low values for ABC/OFL is increasing which tends to increase the likelihood that NMFS will close directed fisheries to prevent overfishing. Currently, the NPFMC is considering separating components of the 'other species' category (sharks, skates, octopus, sculpin). Should that occur, incidental catch of sharks for example could impact management of the pollock fishery. As part of the 2006 'other species' incidental catch of 1,973 mt in the pollock fishery, 504 mt were shark. The tier 6 ABC for shark as part of the 'other species' category in 2006 was 463 mt and OFL 617 mt. If sharks were managed as a separate species group under their current tier, the pollock fishery would likely have been constrained in 2006. Managers closely watch species with fairly close amounts between the OFL and ABCs during the fishing year and the fleet will adjust behavior to prevent incurring management actions. While managing the species with separate ABCs and OFLs reduces the potential for overfishing the individual species, the effect of creating more species categories can increase the potential for incurring management measures to prevent overfishing.

3.4.2.2 Increasing enforcement responsibilities

The U.S. Coast Guard (USCG) conducts fisheries enforcement activities in the EEZ off Alaska in cooperation with NOAA Office for Law Enforcement (OLE). New programs to protect resource components from pollock fishery impacts will create additional responsibilities for enforcement agencies. Despite this likely increase in enforcement responsibilities, it is not clear that resources for enforcement will increase proportionately.

The USCG is expected to bear a heavy responsibility for homeland security and is not expected to receive proportionate increases in its budget to accommodate increased fisheries enforcement. Increased responsibilities for homeland security and for detection of increasing drug-smuggling activities in waters off Alaska have limited the resources available for the USCG to conduct enforcement activities at the same level as in the recent past. Any deterrent created by Coast Guard presence in enforcing fisheries regulations and restrictions would likely be reduced, as would the opportunities for detection of fisheries violations at-sea.

Likewise, the NOAA OLE has not recently received increased resources consistent with its increasing enforcement obligations (J. Passer, pers. comm., March 2008). However, new enforcement assistance has become available in recent years through direct Congressional line item appropriations for Joint Enforcement Agreements (JEAs) with all coastal states. The State of Alaska has received approximately \$10 million of this funding since 2001, and has used JEA money to purchase capital assets such as patrol vessels and patrol vehicles. The State has also hired new personnel to increase levels of at-sea and dockside enforcement and used JEA money to pay for support and operational expenses pertaining to this increased effort (J. Passer, pers. comm., March 2008).

Uncertainties about Congressional authorization of increased enforcement funding preclude any prediction of trends in the availability of resources to meet increased enforcement responsibilities. Thus, while an increase in responsibilities is reasonably foreseeable, a proportionate increase in funding is not.

3.4.2.3 Technical and program changes that will improve enforcement and management

Managers are increasingly using technology for fisheries management and enforcement. Managers are likely to increase use of vessel monitoring systems (VMS) in coming years. Vessels fishing for pollock in the Bering Sea are required to operate VMS units (50 CFR 679.7(a)(18)). Managers and enforcement personnel are making extensive use of the information from existing VMS units, and are likely to make more use of it in the future, as they continue to learn how to use it more effectively.

A joint project by NMFS, the State of Alaska, and the IPHC led to electronic landings reporting for groundfish during 2006. When fish are delivered on shore, fishermen and buyers fill out a web-based form with the information on landings. The program generates a paper form for industry and will forward the data to a central repository, where they will be available for use by authorized parties. Electronic reporting allows enforcement staff to look at large masses of data for violations and trends. The web-based input form contains numerous automatic quality control checks to minimize data input errors. The program gets data to enforcement agents more quickly, increases the efficiency of record audits, and makes enforcement activity less intrusive, as agents will have less need to board vessels to review documents onboard, or enter plants to review documents on the premises. Although rationalization programs increase the monitoring obligations for enforcement, they also improve enforcement and management capabilities by shifting enforcement efforts from the water to dockside for monitoring landings and other records. Moreover, by stabilizing or reducing the number of operations and by creating fishing and processing cooperatives, rationalization reduces the costs of private and joint action by industry to address certain management issues, particularly the monitoring and control of bycatch. For example, in the salmon bycatch monitoring program in the AFA pollock fisheries, fishermen contract together for in-season catch monitoring by a private firm, and agree to restrict fishing activity when bycatch rates rise to defined levels.

Monitoring the catch of pollock and salmon bycatch in the pollock fisheries relies heavily on data collected by NMFS-certified observers. Observer coverage requirements for the pollock fisheries and the use of observer data are described in more detail in the RIR. Observers currently are provided through a system known as “pay-as-you-go” under which vessels operators required to carry a NMFS certified observer contract directly for observer services with observer providers (businesses who hire and provide observers). The Council and NMFS have been analyzing alternatives for restructuring the North Pacific Groundfish Observer Program to provide a new system for procuring and deploying observers supported by broad-based user fees and/or direct Federal subsidies, in which NMFS would contract directly for observer coverage and be responsible for determining when and where observers should be deployed. This system would address problems associated with the lack of flexibility in the current system to deploy observers when and where needed to collect needed data and the disproportionately high cost of observers for smaller vessels.

The observer restructuring analysis has been on hold since June 2006 as a result of unanswered questions about the potential costs of the restructured program and because revisions to NMFS’s legal authority to collect fees to support a restructured program in the Magnuson-Stevens Act were expected. The Magnuson-Stevens Act was amended in late 2006 to provide the needed revisions to NMFS’s fee collection authority. However, questions still exist about the potential costs of the restructured program.

At its April 2008 meeting, the Council tasked staff to develop a discussion paper about the status of the restructuring analysis and as yet unresolved questions so that the Council could provide further direction on observer program restructuring at its December 2008 meeting. Future revisions to the observer program service delivery model could affect the pollock fisheries. However, this fishery has very high observer coverage levels now to monitor sector, cooperative, and CDQ group level allocations of pollock and further increases in observer coverage requirements are recommended by NMFS to better monitor salmon bycatch under some alternatives in this EIS. While some alternatives under consideration in the observer restructuring analysis could result in increased observer coverage costs for vessels that participate in the AFA fisheries, it is unlikely that any future changes in the observer program would lead to a decrease in observer coverage in the Bering Sea pollock fisheries or any reduction in the quality and quantity of observer data that would be collected to support this fishery or any of the salmon bycatch alternatives in this EIS.

Support of the North Pacific Groundfish Observer Program (NPGOP) and investigations involving observers and observer data quality are the highest priority of the NOAA OLE. Since 1998, the NOAA OLE has provided dedicated staff to investigate observer reported violations and to maintain the partnership between NOAA OLE and the NPGOP. NOAA OLE currently dedicates two Special Agents to liaison with and to provide law enforcement support for the NPGOP. The dedicated agents provide inseason enforcement, observer deployment and debriefing support, subject matter expertise, and observer training to the NPGOP staff and the observers. NOAA OLE provides support to observers and industry through public outreach, partnership building, education, program development, and the enforcement of laws and regulations intended to protect observers and to provide them safe and productive work environments. NOAA OLE strives to promote voluntary compliance and law enforcement through communication with the observers themselves, the NPGOP, fishery stakeholders, and other law enforcement agencies.

In 2008, when compared to 2006 and 2007, NOAA OLE saw an increase of at least 62% in the total number of NPGOP observer statements alleging violations. This increase coincides with the increased concerns regarding prohibited species numbers and with the implementation of the Amendment 80 Program fisheries. Stronger prohibited species restrictions will continue to increase the need for the high quality observer data, while simultaneously providing greater incentive for industry to hide fish or to manipulate or bias observer data.

During 2008, NOAA OLE provided compliance monitoring training to more than 450 new and prior observers in more than 40 training sessions. NOAA OLE provides observer training on prohibited species mishandling, sample station requirements, limited access fishery requirements, reasonable assistance, accommodations, access to catch and records, recordkeeping and reporting, conflict resolution, interference, sample biasing, and hostile work environments. Under Amendment 91, NOAA OLE anticipates the need for additional law enforcement support and NOAA OLE provided training on the above subject categories and on issues related specifically to salmon number verification.

NMFS is investigating the use of shipboard video monitoring to ensure compliance with full retention requirements in other regions. In the Alaska Region, NMFS has implemented video monitoring to monitor catch sorting actions of crew members inside fish holding bins and investigating the use of video to monitor regulatory discards. An EFP for continued development of the capability to do video monitoring of rockfish catch in the GOA is currently under consideration by NMFS and Council (73 FR 14226, March 14, 2008). NMFS is hopeful that these investigations could lead to regulations that allow use of video monitoring to supplement observer coverage in some fisheries. Electronic monitoring technology is evolving rapidly, and it is probable that video and other technologies will be introduced to supplement current observer coverage and enhance data collection in some fisheries. Video monitoring as

not been sufficiently tested to ensure compliance with a no discard requirement at this time, but NMFS would support and encourage research to explore the feasibility of video for this use.

In addition to the technical aspects of video monitoring, several other issues related to video must be resolved. These include the amount of staff time and resources that would be required to review video footage, curation and storage questions, and the costs to NMFS and the fishing industry. Until these issues are resolved, NMFS will continue to implement existing proven monitoring and catch estimation protocols. Electronic monitoring is discussed in more detail in section 10.5.7.4.

3.4.2.4 Development of the salmon excluder device

Gear modifications are one way to reduce salmon bycatch in the pollock fisheries. NMFS has issued exempted fishing permits for the purpose of testing a salmon excluder device in the pollock trawl fishery of the Bering Sea from 2004 to 2006 and for fall 2008 through spring 2010. The experiment would be conducted from Fall 2008 through Spring 2010. The successful development of a salmon excluder device for pollock trawl gear may result in reductions of salmon bycatch, potentially reducing costs associated with the harvest of pollock and reducing the potential impact on the salmon stocks.

3.4.3 Actions by Other Federal, State, and International Agencies

3.4.3.1 State salmon fishery management

ADF&G is responsible for managing commercial, subsistence, sport, and personal use salmon fisheries. The first priority for management is to meet spawning escapement goals to sustain salmon resources for future generations. Highest priority use is for subsistence under both State and Federal law. Surplus fish beyond escapement needs and subsistence use are made available for other uses. The Alaska Board of Fisheries (BOF) adopts regulations through a public process to conserve fisheries resources and to allocate fisheries resources to the various users. Yukon River salmon fisheries management includes obligations under an international treaty with Canada. Subsistence fisheries management includes coordination with U.S. Federal government agencies where federal rules apply under ANILCA. Subsistence salmon fisheries are an important culturally and greatly contribute to local economies. Commercial fisheries are also an important contributor to many local communities as well as supporting the subsistence lifestyle. While specific aspects of salmon fishery management continue to be modified, it is reasonably foreseeable that the current State management of the salmon fisheries will continue into the future (Section 5.2.1).

3.4.3.2 Hatchery releases of salmon

Hatcheries produce salmon fry and release these small salmon into the ocean to grow and mature before returning as adults to the hatchery or local rivers and streams for harvest or breeding. Hatchery production increases the numbers of salmon in the ocean beyond what is produced by the natural system. A number of hatcheries produce salmon in Korea, Japan, Russia, the US, and Canada. Studies have suggested that efforts to increase salmon populations with hatcheries may have an impact on the body size of Pacific salmon (Holt et al 2008). The North Pacific Anadromous Fish Commission summarizes information on hatchery releases, by country and by area, where available. Chapter 5, Chinook Salmon, and Chapter 6, Chum Salmon, provide more information on current and past hatchery releases. It is reasonably foreseeable the hatchery production will continue at a similar level into the future.

3.4.3.3 Future exploration and development of offshore mineral resources

The Minerals Management Service (MMS) expects that reasonably foreseeable future activities include numerous discoveries that oil companies may begin to develop in the next 15-20 years in federal waters

off Alaska. Potential environmental risks from the development of offshore drilling include the impacts of increased vessel offshore oil spills, drilling discharges, offshore construction activities, and seismic surveys. In an EIS prepared for sales in the OCS Leasing Program, the MMS has assessed the cumulative impacts of such activities on fisheries and finds only small incremental increases in impacts for oil and gas development, which are unlikely to significantly impact fisheries and essential fish habitat (MMS 2003).

On April 8, 2008, MMS published a notice of intent to prepare an Environmental Impact Statement for oil and gas lease Sale 214 which is tentatively scheduled for 2011 in the “program area” of North Aleutian Basin, offshore the State of Alaska. The proposed action is to offer for lease all of the blocks in the program area. The EIS analysis will focus on the potential environmental effects of oil and gas exploration, development, and production on the fish, wildlife, socioeconomic, and subsistence resources in the North Aleutian Basin “program area” and neighboring communities.

The North Aleutian Basin underlies the northern coastal plain of the Alaska Peninsula and the waters of Bristol Bay and is believed to be gas-prone. The “program area” consists of approximately 2.3 million hectares (5.6 million acres) and extends offshore from about 10 statute miles to approximately 120 statute miles, in water depths from approximately 40 feet (12 meters) to 120 feet (37 meters). In October 1989, the North Aleutian Basin Planning Area was placed under a congressional moratorium which banned Department of Interior expenditures in support of any petroleum leasing or development activities in the planning area. In 1998, an Executive Order extended the moratorium as a Presidential withdrawal until 2012. In 2004, the congressional moratorium on petroleum-related activities in the North Aleutian Basin was discontinued and in 2007 the Presidential withdrawal was modified to exclude the North Aleutian Basin.

As part of the EIS process, MMS is collaborating with NMFS on a study of the North Pacific right whale in the North Aleutian Basin. The MMS also contracted to modify an ice-ocean circulation model for Alaska’s Bristol Bay. Proposed studies for fiscal year 2008 include research on subsistence food harvest and sharing activities, studies of juvenile and maturing salmon, and nearshore mapping of juvenile salmon and settling crab. Additional studies are proposed for fiscal year 2009. Information on the Environmental Studies Program, completed studies, and a status report for continuing studies in the NAB area may be found at the Web site: <http://www.mms.gov/alaska>.

3.4.3.4 Expansion and construction of boat harbors by U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, Alaska District, Civil Works Division (COE-CW)

COE-CW funds harbor developments, constructs new harbors, and upgrades existing harbors to meet the demands of fishing communities. Several upgraded harbors have been completed to accommodate the growing needs of fishing communities and the off-season storage of vessels. Local storage reduces transit times of participating vessels from other major ports, such as Seattle, Washington. Upgraded harbors include, King Cove, Dutch Harbor, Sand Point, Seward, Port Lions, Dillingham, and Kodiak. Additionally, new harbors are planned for Akutan, False Pass, Tatitlek, and Valdez.

3.4.3.5 Other State of Alaska actions

Several State actions in development may impact habitat and those animals that depend on the habitat. These potential actions will be tracked, but cannot be considered reasonably foreseeable future actions because the State has not proposed regulations. These actions include the following:

- Changes to the residue criteria under the Alaska Water Quality Standards. The State proposes to significantly generalize the language of the residues criterion and increase discretion in

determining what constitutes an overage. The Alaska Department of Environmental Conservation's proposed residues criterion eliminates the prohibition on residues that cause leaching of toxic or deleterious substances. Under the new system, any and all residue discharges would be allowed without a permit, unless some type of harm (objectionable characteristics or presence of nuisance species) is discovered. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has provided comments to the State regarding this proposed change and determined that major changes were needed for EPA approval. This proposed regulation change became effective for state purposes on July 30, 2006. The State expects EPA's approval of the State regulations by the end of 2008 (Nancy Sonafrank, Alaska Department of Environmental Quality, pers. comm., March 18, 2008).

- The State has passed legislation to implement State primacy for the National Pollution Discharge Elimination System Program under the Clean Water Act and has submitted a primacy package to EPA. The program is required to be as stringent as the current federal program but the effectiveness of implementation will be the key to whether impacts on habitat may be seen. The State expects to receive control of the program from EPA by the end of 2008 (Hartig 2008).

NMFS will track the progress of these potential actions and will include these in effects analyses in future NEPA documents when proposed rules are issued.

3.4.4 Private actions

3.4.4.1 Commercial pollock and salmon fishing

Fishermen will continue to fish for pollock, as authorized by NMFS, and salmon, as authorized by the State. Fishing constitutes the most important class of reasonably foreseeable future private actions and will take place indefinitely into the future. Chapter 4 and the RIR, provide more information on the Bering Sea pollock fishery.

Commercial salmon fisheries exist throughout Alaska, in marine waters, bays, and rivers. Chapter 5 Chinook Salmon, Chapter 6 Chum Salmon, and the RIR provide more information on the commercial salmon fisheries.

The Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) is a non-profit organization that seeks to promote the sustainability of fishery resources through a program of certifying fisheries that are well managed with respect to environmental impacts (<http://eng.msc.org/>). Certification conveys an advantage to industry in the marketplace, by making products more attractive to consumers who are sensitive to environmental concerns. A fishery must undergo a rigorous review of its environmental impact to achieve certification. Fisheries are evaluated with respect to the potential for overfishing or recovery of target stocks, the potential for the impacts on the "structure, productivity, function and diversity of the ecosystem," and the extent to which fishery management respects laws and standards, and mandates "responsible and sustainable" use of the resource (SCS 2004). Once certified, fisheries are subject to ongoing monitoring, and other requirements for recertification.

The MSC has certified the BSAI and GOA pollock, BSAI Pacific cod freezer longline, halibut, and sablefish fisheries. The MSC has also certified the State of Alaska's management of all five salmon species. Because the program requires ongoing monitoring and re-evaluation for certification every five years (SCS 2004), and because the program may convey a marketing advantage, MSC certification may change the pollock industry incentive structure to increase sensitivity to environmental impacts.

3.4.4.2 CDQ Investments in western Alaska

The CDQ Program was designed to improve the social and economic conditions in western Alaska communities by facilitating their economic participation in the BSAI fisheries. The large-scale commercial fisheries of the BSAI developed in the eastern BS without significant participation from rural western Alaska communities. These fisheries are capital-intensive and require large investments in vessels, infrastructure, processing capacity, and specialized gear. The CDQ Program was developed to redistribute some of the BSAI fisheries' economic benefits to adjacent communities by allocating a portion of commercially important BSAI species to such communities as fixed shares, or quota, of groundfish, halibut, and crab. The percentage of each annual BSAI catch limit allocated to the CDQ Program varies by both species and management area. These allocations, in turn, provide an opportunity for residents of these communities to both participate in and benefit from the BSAI fisheries.

Sixty-five communities participate in the CDQ Program. These communities have formed six non-profit corporations (CDQ groups) to manage and administer the CDQ allocations, investments, and economic development projects. Annual CDQ allocations provide a revenue stream for CDQ groups through various channels, including the direct catch and sale of some species, leasing quota to various harvesting partners, and income from a variety of investments. The six CDQ groups had total revenues in 2005 of approximately \$134 million, primarily from pollock royalties.

One of the most tangible direct benefits of the CDQ Program has been employment opportunities for western Alaska village residents. CDQ groups have had some successes in securing career track employment for many residents of qualifying communities, and have opened opportunities for non-CDQ Alaskan residents, as well. Jobs generated by the CDQ Program included work aboard a wide range of fishing vessels, internships with the business partners or government agencies, employment at processing plants, and administrative positions.

Many of the jobs generated by the CDQ Program are associated with shoreside fisheries development projects in CDQ communities. This includes a wide range of projects, including those directly related to commercial fishing. Examples of such projects include building or improving seafood processing facilities, purchasing ice machines, purchasing and building fishing vessel, gear improvements, and construction of docks or other fish handling infrastructure. CDQ groups also have invested in peripheral projects that directly or indirectly support commercial fishing for halibut, salmon, and other nearshore species. This includes seafood branding and marketing, quality control training, safety and survival training, construction and staffing of maintenance and repair facilities that are used by both fishermen and other community residents, and assistance with bulk fuel procurement and distribution. Several CDQ groups are actively involved in salmon assessment or enhancement projects, either independently or in collaboration with ADF&G. Salmon fishing is a key component of western Alaska fishing activities, both commercially and at a subsistence level. The CDQ Program provides a means to support and sustain both such activities.

3.4.4.3 Subsistence harvest of Chinook salmon

Communities in western and Interior Alaska depend on Chinook salmon from the Bering Sea for subsistence and the associated cultural and spiritual needs. Chinook salmon consumption can be an important part of regional diets, and Chinook salmon and Chinook salmon products are distributed as gifts or through barter and small cash exchanges to persons who do not directly participate in the subsistence fishery. Subsistence harvests will continue indefinitely into the future. Chapters 9 and 10 provide more information on subsistence harvests.

3.4.4.4 Sport fishing for Chinook salmon

Regional residents may harvest Chinook salmon for sport, using a State sport fishing license, and then use these salmon for essentially subsistence purposes. Regional sport fisheries, including Chinook salmon fisheries may also attract anglers from other places. Anglers who come to the action area from elsewhere to sport fish generate economic opportunities for local residents. Sport fishing for Chinook salmon will continue indefinitely into the future. Chapters 9 and 10 provide more information on sport harvests.

3.4.4.5 Increasing levels of economic activity in Alaska's waters and coastal zone

Alaska's population has grown by over 100,000 persons since 1990 (U.S. Census Bureau website accessed at <http://www.census.gov/> on July 14, 2005). As of June 2005, Alaska's estimated population is about 662,000. The Alaska State Demographer's projection for the end of the forecast period of this analysis (2015) is about 734,000, an 11% increase (Williams 2005).

Alaska's population in its coastal regions is expected to continue to grow (Crossett et al. 2004). Population growth in these regions may have larger impacts on salmon stocks than growth in inland areas. So far, Alaska's total population growth in coastal areas remains low compared to that in other states. Alaska had the second largest percentage change in growth over the period from 1980 to 2002, but this% was calculated from a relatively low base. Its coastal population grew by about 63%. Alaska has the smallest coastal population density of all the states, with an average of 1.4 persons per square mile in 2003. By comparison, coastal densities were 641 persons per square mile in the northeastern states, 224 on the Atlantic southeastern states, 164 along the Gulf of Mexico, 299 along the West Coast exclusive of Alaska, and 238 in the Great Lakes states (including New York's Great Lakes counties). Maine and Georgia, the states with the next lowest coastal population density, had 60 persons per square mile (Crossett et al. 2004). Crossett et al. project continued population growth in Alaska's coastal regions; however growth in these areas will never approach the levels seen in Hawaii and the lower 48 states.

In Alaska, the success of the CDQ Program and the expansion of such community based allocation programs in the future (as discussed under the earlier section on reasonably foreseeable rationalization programs) may lead to increased population in affected communities. A growing population will create a larger environmental "footprint," and increase the demand for marine environmental services. A larger population will be associated with more economic activity from increased cargo traffic from other states, more recreational traffic, potential development of lands along the margin of the marine waters, increased waste disposal requirements, and increased demand for sport fishing opportunities.

Shipping routes from Pacific Northwest ports to Asia run across the GOA and through the BSAI, and pass near or through important fishing areas. The key transportation route between West Coast ports in Washington, Oregon, and British Columbia to East Asia passes from the GOA into the EBS at Unimak Pass, and then returns to the Pacific Ocean in the area of Buldir Island. An estimated 3,100 large vessels used this route in the year ending September 30, 2006. An estimated 853 of these were bulk carriers, and an estimated 916 were container ships (Nuka Research 2006, page 12). The direct routes from California ports to East Asia pass just south of the Aleutian Islands. Continued globalization, growth of the Chinese economy, and associated growth in other parts of the Far East may lead to increasing volumes of commercial cargo vessel traffic through Alaska waters. U.S. agricultural exports to China, for example, doubled between 2002, and 2004; 41% of the increase, by value, was in soybeans and 13% was in wheat (USDA 2005). In future years, this may be an important route for Canadian oil exports to China (Zweigg and Jianhai 2005).

The significance of this traffic for the regional environment and for fisheries is highlighted by recent shipping accidents, including the December 2004 grounding of the *M/V Selendang Ayu* and the July 2006 incapacitation of the *M/V Cougar Ace*. The *M/V Selendang Ayu* dumped the vessel's cargo of soybeans

and as much as 320,000 gallons of bunker oil, on the shores of Unalaska Island (USCG, Selendang Ayu grounding Unified Command press release, April 23, 2005). On July 23, 2006, the *M/V Cougar Ace*, a 654-foot car carrier homeported in Singapore, contacted the US Coast Guard and reported that their vessel was listing at 80 degrees and taking on water. The *M/V Cougar Ace* was towed to Dutch Harbor where the listing problem was corrected. The vessel was then towed to Portland, Oregon (Alaska Department of Conservation Final situation report, September 1, 2006, available at:

http://www.dec.state.ak.us/spar/perp/response/sum_fy07/060728201/sitreps/060728201_sr_10.pdf).

Mining activities in Alaska are expected to increase in the coming years. The Red Dog mine in Northwest Alaska will continue operations and a new deposit in the Bristol Bay region is being explored for possible large-scale strip mining. The continued development and/or expansion of mines, though expected, will be dependent on stable metals prices in the coming years. At present it appears such prices will be stable.

In southwest Alaska copper, gold, and molybdenum may be mined at the prospective Pebble mine (www.pebblepartnership.com). The Pebble mine would be situated in the Bristol Bay region near the northeast end of Iliamna Lake, which feeds directly into Bristol Bay. The Pebble mine is at the pre-feasibility and pre-permitting stage of development, and faces a lengthy and rigorous timeline to production. The Pebble Partnership's proposed mine development plan will be subject to a regulatory review involving 11 state and federal agencies. The Pebble Partnership must provide the required information for an Environmental Impact Statement and be issued more than 60 State and Federal permits. The combined review and permitting process could take three years or more to complete.

Also in southwestern Alaska, near the Kuskokwim River, is the Donlin Creek gold mining project, which is currently completing its feasibility study, and is in preparation for beginning the permitting process. The land is owned by the Kuskokwim Corporation, and the subsurface rights are owned by the Calista Corporation, both Native corporations formed under the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act. Donlin Creek is one of the largest undeveloped gold deposits in the world.

Oil and gas development can also be expected to increase due to the currently high oil and gasoline prices. Plans are underway for development of a gas pipeline that may include a shipping segment through the GOA. Exploration and eventual extraction development of the Arctic National Wildlife Preserve is also anticipated. It is also possible that fuel prices may create incentive for oil and gas lease sales on the continental shelf off western Alaska, which is the prime fishing ground of the EBS.

It is possible that hydrokinetic power will be generated on WAK rivers within the next ten years. The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission has issued 12 preliminary permits for in-river turbines on Alaskan mainstem rivers. One very small project operated for 60 days on the Yukon River at Ruby last year, and one larger project is likely to be installed at Eagle this year. NMFS statutory authorities require alternative energy permitting and licensing agencies to consult with NMFS regarding the impacts of proposed ocean energy projects on ocean and anadromous resources. FPA also grants NMFS the authority to prescribe fishways and to propose conservation measures to address any adverse effects to fish and wildlife resources at projects licensed by FERC. These consultations offer the opportunity to provide recommendations to both the permitting agencies and energy companies on how to avoid, minimize, or mitigate the impacts of their energy projects on living marine resources and essential habitat. Therefore, NMFS will be aware and review any future studies on the impacts of the hydrokinetic turbines. Additionally, NMFS is reviewing a proposal for ocean kinetic energy generation near Teller-Brevig Mission.²⁹ The NMFS Alaska Region web page provides more information at <http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/habitat/habitatprotection/oceanrenewableenergy/index2.html>.

²⁹ Sue Walker, Hydropower Coordinator, NMFS Alaska Region, personal communication, August 2009.

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