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Marine Mammal Stock Assessments: 2000

by

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PREFACE

Under the 1994 amendments to the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) are required to publish Stock Assessment Reports for all stocks of marine mammals within U.S. waters, to review new information every year for strategic stocks and every three years for non-strategic stocks, and to update the stock assessment reports when significant new information becomes available. This report presents a complete set of revised stock assessments for Pacific marine mammal stocks under NMFS jurisdiction (55 stocks). Stock Assessments for Alaskan marine mammals are published by the National Marine Mammal Laboratory (NMML) in a separate report . Stock assessment reports prepared by the USFWS for the California and Washington state stocks of sea otters appear in Appendix 5.

The assessments in this report include stocks studied by the Southwest Fisheries Science Center (SWFSC, La Jolla, California and Honolulu, Hawaii) and the National Marine Mammal Laboratory (NMML, Seattle, Washington). Staff of the National Marine Mammal Laboratory wrote seven reports, including two stocks of harbor seals in Oregon and Washington, northern fur seal (San Miguel Island stock), two stocks of harbor porpoise in Oregon and Washington, and two stocks of Eastern North Pacific killer whales (Southern Resident and Transient stocks). Southwest Fisheries Science Center personnel prepared stock assessments for the remaining 48 stocks. A summary table for these revised stock assessment reports is provided in Appendix 4.

In the 2000 Stock Assessment Reports, descriptions of commercial fisheries that interact with or take marine mammals have been updated to include recent estimates of fishing effort and bycatch mortality (Appendix 1). Where possible, fishery mortality sections for individual species have been updated to include information on fishery mortality through 1998. Mortality estimates reflect the most recent 5 years of available data (1994-98), with the exception of the California drift gillnet fishery, where mortality estimates are based on data from 1997-98 only. This reflects the fact that entanglement rates of marine mammals declined after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan in 1997. New abundance estimates are available and have been included for 10 Hawaiian stocks and 25 U.S. West Coast stocks. There were changes in the status of three stocks: (1) the California/Oregon/Washington stock of short-finned pilot whale is no longer strategic, owing to a reduction in driftnet mortality; (2) the central California stock of harbor porpoise is now strategic, owing to increased mortality in the halibut set gillnet fishery; and (3) the Hawaii stock of false killer whale is now strategic, owing to serious injuries documented in the longline fishery. Of the remaining stocks, ten remain strategic and 42 non-strategic. The 10 strategic stocks include 10 endangered species that are automatically considered strategic. The stock assessment report for the California/Oregon/Washington stock of dwarf sperm whale (*Kogia sima*) has been discontinued, reflecting its rarity in California waters. A change in the species name of the dwarf sperm whale (from *simus* to *sima*) is briefly reviewed in the Hawaii report for this species (Rice 1998). The stock of blue whale formerly known as the '*California/Mexico stock'* has been renamed the '*Eastern North Pacific stock*' to reflect current knowledge of whale movements between the U.S. west coast and the eastern tropical Pacific (Mate et al. 1999, Stafford et al. 1999). Sighting plots for each species have been updated by eliminating older Minerals and Management Service (MMS) survey data from the 1970s and 1980s and by including more recent NMFS survey data from 1991-98. The exception to this is the sighting plot for the California/Oregon/Washington stock of short-finned pilot whale, which retains the MMS sighting data prior to the 1983-84 El Niño event, in part to reflect the rarity of pilot whales along the U.S. west coast since that event.

Earlier versions of these stock assessment reports were reviewed by members of the Pacific and Alaska Scientific Review Groups and by Doug DeMaster, Scott Hill, and Paul Wade; we thank them for their helpful comments. We thank the Marine Mammal Commission, Center for Marine Conservation, and The Humane Society of the United States for their constructive criticism. The authors also wish to thank those who provided unpublished data. The cover photograph was provided by the SWFSC photogrammetry group. Any omissions or errors are the sole responsibility of the authors.

This is a working document and individual stock assessment reports will be updated as new information becomes available and as changes to marine mammal stocks and fisheries occur. The authors solicit any new information or comments which would improve future stock assessment reports.

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CALIFORNIA SEA LION (*Zalophus californianus californianus*): U.S. Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The California sea lion *Zalophus californianus* includes three subspecies: *Z. c. wollebaeki* (on the Galapagos Islands), *Z. c. japonicus* (in Japan, but now thought to be extinct), and *Z. c. californianus* (found from southern Mexico to southwestern Canada; herein referred to as the California sea lion). The breeding areas of the California sea lion are on islands located in southern California, western Baja California, and the Gulf of California (Figure 1). These three geographic regions are used to separate this subspecies into three stocks: (1) the United States stock begins at the U.S./Mexico border and extends northward into Canada; (2) the Western Baja California stock extends from the U.S./Mexico border to the southern tip of the Baja California Peninsula; and (3) the Gulf of California stock which includes the Gulf of California from the southern tip of the Baja California peninsula and across to the mainland and extends to southern Mexico (Lowry et al. 1992). Some movement has been documented between these geographic stocks, but rookeries in the United States are widely separated from the major rookeries of western Baja California, Mexico. Males from western Baja California rookeries may spend most of the year in the United States. Genetic differences have been found between the U.S. stock and the Gulf of California stock (Maldonado et al. 1995). There are no international agreements for joint management of California sea lions between the U.S., Mexico, and Canada.

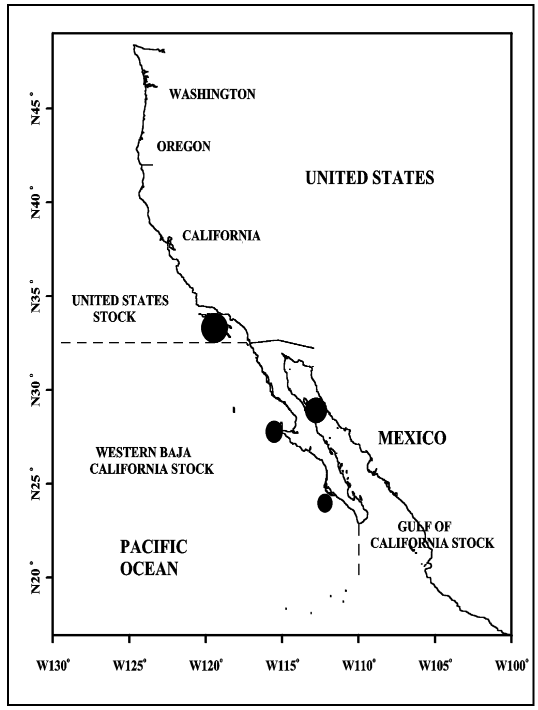

Figure 1. Geographic range of California sea lions showing stock boundaries and locations of major rookeries.

POPULATION SIZE

The entire population cannot be counted because all age and sex classes are never ashore at the same time. In lieu of counting all sea lions, pups are counted during the breeding season (because this is the only age class that is ashore in its entirety), and the number of births is estimated from the pup count. The size of the population is then estimated from the number of births and the proportion of pups in the population.

Censuses are conducted in July after all pups have been born. To estimate the number of pups born, the pup count in 1999 (42,388) was adjusted for an estimated 15% pre-census mortality (Boveng 1988; Lowry et al. 1992), giving an estimated 48,746 live births in the population. The fraction of newborn pups in the population (22.8% to 23.9%) was estimated from a life table derived for the northern fur seal (*Callorhinus ursinus*) (Boveng 1988, Lowry et al. 1992) which was modified to account for the growth rate of this California sea lion population (5.0% to 6.2% yr^{-1}, respectively, see below). Multiplying the number of pups born by the inverse of these fractions (4.39 to 4.19) results in population estimates ranging from 214,000 to 204,000 (respectively).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population size was determined from counts of all age and sex classes that were ashore at all the major rookeries and haulout sites during the 1999 breeding season. The minimum population size of the U.S. stock is 109,854 (NMFS unpubl. data). It includes all California sea lions counted during the July 1999 census at the four rookeries in southern California and at the haulout sites located between Point Conception and the Oregon/California border. *An additional unknown number of California sea lions are at sea or hauled out at locations that were not censused.*

Current Population Trend

Records of pup counts from 1975 to 1999 (Figure 2) were compiled from the literature, NMFS reports, unpublished NMFS data, and Lowry 1999 (the literature up to 1992 is listed in Lowry et al. 1992). Pup counts from 1975 through 1999 were examined for four rookeries in southern California and for haulouts in central and northern California. Log-linear interpolation between adjacent counts was used to estimate counts for rookeries when they were not censused in a given year: (1) 1980 at Santa Barbara Is.; (2) 1978-1980 at San Clemente Is.; (3) 1978, 1979, 1988, and 1989 at San Nicolas Is. The mean was used when more than one count was available for a given rookery. Also, an index was used for San Miguel Island because some years lacked data for certain areas. Three major declines in the number of pups counted occurred during El Niño events in 1983, 1992-93, and 1998 (Figure 2). A regression of the natural logarithm of the pup counts against year indicates that the counts of pups increased at an annual rate of 5.0% between 1975 and 1999. The counts of pups between the 1976, 1983, and 1992 El Niño events increased at 8.8% annually (from 1976 to 1982) and at 10.2% annually (from 1983 to 1991). Since 1983, the counts of pups has increased at 6.2% annually.

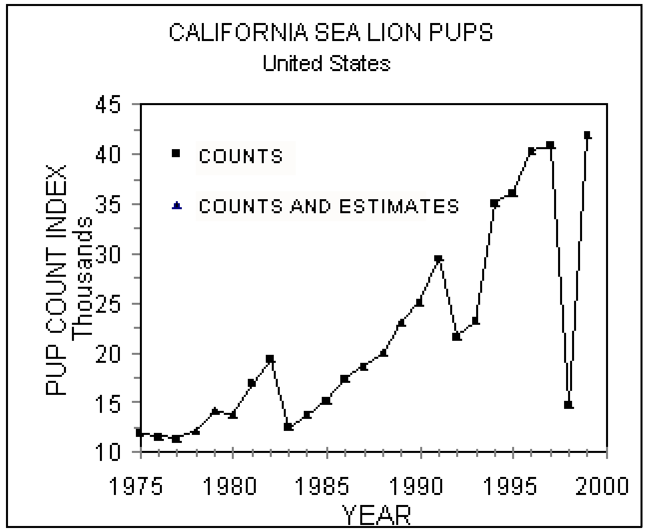

Figure 2. U.S pup count index for California sea lions (1975-99).

The 1975-99 time series of pup counts shows the effect of three El Niño events on the sea lion population. Pup production decreased by 35 percent in 1983, 27 percent in1992, and 64 percent in 1998. After the 1992-93 and 1997-98 El Niños, pup production rebounded by 52 percent and 185 percent, respectively, but there was no rebound after the 1983-84 El Niño (Figure 2). Unlike the 1992-93 and 1997-98 El Niños, the 1983-84 El Niño affected adult female survivorship (DeLong et al 1991) which prevented the rebound in pup production after the event was over because there were fewer adult females available in the population to produce a pup (it took five years for pup production to return to the 1982 level). Other characteristics of El Niños are higher pup and juvenile mortality rates (DeLong et al 1991, NMFS unpubl. data) which affect future recruitment into the adult population for the affected cohorts. The long term effects of the 1992-93 event, which resulted in fewer females being recruited into the adult population, is manifested in lower net productivity rates for 1997 and 1999 (relative to 1997; Figure 2) because fewer females reached reproductive age (females reach reproductive age at 3 to 5 years). Therefore, the effects of the 1992-93 and 1997-98 El Niños will result in lower net productivity rates for several years due to a drop in adult female recruitment. The drop in net production shows the long-term effect of El Niños and does not signal that the population has reached carrying capacity. The severity, timing, length, and frequency of future El Niños will govern the growth rate of the sea lion population in the future.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

The rate of net production is greater than the observed growth rate because human related mortalities take a fraction of the net production. Net productivity was, therefore, calculated for 1980-1999 as the realized rate of population growth (increase in pup counts from year *I* to year *I*+1, divided by pup count in year *I*) plus human related mortalities (fishery and non-fishery mortalities in year *I* divided by population size in year *I*). For California sea lions, the total mortalities estimated from NMFS, California Dept. of Fish and Game, Columbia River Area observer programs, and reports from stranding programs and from salmon net pen fisheries were 1,967, 1,967, 1,967, 4,344, 2,476, 2,364, 4,417, 2,847, 3,753, 2,315, 2,753, 1,901, 3,520, 2,039, 946, 827, 1,107, 1,502, 1,435, 1,348 for 1980 to 1998, respectively (Miller et al. 1983; Hanan et al. 1988; Hanan and Diamond 1989; Brown and Jeffries 1993; Barlow et al. 1994, Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999, NMFS unpubl. data). Fishery mortality for 1999 (1,261) was estimated as the mean of 1996-1998.

Between 1980 and 1999 the net productivity rate averaged 16.1% (Figure 3). A regression (thin line) shows a slight increase in net production rates, but the regression is strongly influenced by the El Niño years (1983, 1992, and 1998) and the high net production rate during El Niño recovery years (1994 and 1999). When El Niño years (1983, 1992, and 1998) and El Niño recovery years (1994 and 1999) are removed, the regression line shows a slight decrease (thick line) and net production averages 13.2%. Maximum net productivity rates cannot be estimated from available data.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (109,854) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for pinnipeds (½ of 12%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 1.0 (for a stock of unknown status that is growing, Wade and Angliss 1997); resulting in a PBR of 6,591 sea lions per year.

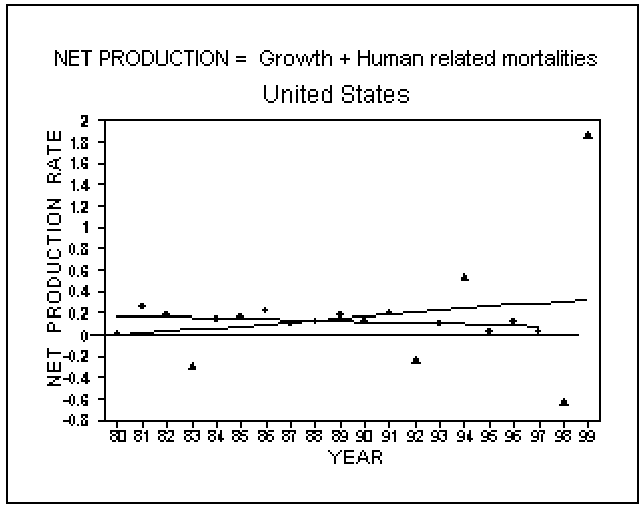

Figure 1. Net productivity rates and regression lines estimated from pup counts with corrections for incidental human related mortalities. Thick line excludes El Niño years and El Niño recovery years (i.e., triangles); thin line includes all years.

ANNUAL HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Fisheries Information

California sea lions are killed incidentally in set and drift gillnet fisheries (Hanan et al. 1993; Barlow et al. 1994; Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson, 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999; Table 1). Detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California the set and drift gillnet fisheries are included in Table 1 for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). A controlled experiment during 1996-97 demonstrated that the use of acoustic warning devices (pingers) reduced sea lion entanglement rates considerably within the drift gillnet fishery (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, entanglement rates increased again during the 1997 El Niño and continued during 1998. The reasons for the increase in entanglement rates are unknown. However, it has been suggested that sea lions may have foraged further offshore in response to limited food supplies near rookeries, which would provide opportunity for increased interactions with the drift gillnet fishery (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of interannual variability in entanglement rates, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 158 (CV = 0.23) California sea lions taken annually.

Logbook and observer data, and fisher reports, indicate that mortality of California sea lions occurs, or has occurred in the past, also in the following fisheries: (1) California, Oregon, and Washington salmon troll fisheries; (2) Oregon and Washington non-salmon troll fisheries; (3) California herring purse seine fishery; (4) California anchovy, mackerel, and tuna purse seine fishery; (5) California squid purse seine fishery, (6) Washington, Oregon, California and British Columbia, Canada salmon net pen fishery, (7) Washington, Oregon, California groundfish trawl fishery, and (8) Washington, Oregon and California commercial passenger fishing vessel fishery (NMFS 1995, M. Perez pers. comm, and P. Olesiuk pers. comm.). The OR Columbia River gillnet fishery has been reduced to such levels that California sea lion mortality, if any, is negligible (J. Scordino, per. comm.). The California Marine Mammal Stranding Network database maintained by the National Marine Fisheries Service, Southwest Region contains records of human-related fishery mortalities of stranded California sea lions. These records show that at least 17 additional mortalities and 17 injuries occurred in 1998 as a result of fishing net entanglement and 24 additional mortalities and 31 injuries from hook and line fisheries.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the U.S. stock. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet has increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993. (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the mortality and serious injury of California sea lions in commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999, M. Perez per. comm, Appendix 1). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA driftnet fishery for sharks and swordfish	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	5 4 4 36 23	28 (0.40) 26 (0.45) 36 (0.55) 201(0.34) 114 (0.23)	158 (0.23)[1]
CA set gillnet fishery for halibut and angel shark	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer estimate extrapolated estimate	7.7% 0% 0% 0% 0%	109 - - - -	905 (0.15) 724 (0.08) [1] 999 (0.06) [1] 1,206 (0.06) [1] 1,228 (0.07) [1]	1,012 (0.04)[2]
WA, OR, CA domestic groundfish trawl fishery (At-sea processing Pacific whiting fishery only)	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer	53.8% 56.2% 65.2% 65.7% 77.3%	1 0 0 0 1	2(0.68) 0 0 0 1(0.48)	1(0.48)
WA, OR salmon net pen fishery	1996 1997 1998	logbook		4 9 9	4 9 9	7(0.39)
Canada: BC salmon pen fishery	1994 1995 1996	reports			13 23 54	30(0.71)
Minimum total annual takes						1,208 (0.05)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).
[2] The CA set gillnets were not observed after 1994; mortality was extrapolated from effort estimates and previous entanglement rates. Changes in the distribution of effort in this fishery add considerable uncertainty to these estimates.

Other Mortality

California sea lions that were injured by entanglement in gillnet and other man-made debris have been observed at rookeries and haulouts (Stewart and Yochem 1987, Oliver 1991). The proportion of those entangled ranged from 0.08% to 0.35% of those present on land, with the majority (52%) entangled with monofilament gillnet material. A marine mammal rehabilitation center found that 87% of 87 rescued California sea lions were entangled in 4 to 4.5 inch square-mesh monofilament gillnet (Howorth 1995). Of California sea lions entangled in gillnets, 0.8% in set gillnets and 5.4% in drift gillnets were observed to be released alive from the net by fishers during 1991-95 (Julian and Beeson 1998). Clearly, some are escaping from gillnets after being caught by them; however, the rate of escape from gillnets, as well as the mortality rate of these injured animals, is unknown.

Live strandings and dead beach-cast California sea lions have also been observed with gunshot wounds in California (Lowry and Folk 1987, Deiter 1991, Barocchi et al. 1993). A summary of records for 1998 from the California Marine Mammal Stranding Network (CMMSN) and the Oregon and Washington stranding databases shows the following non-fishery related mortality: boat collision (3 mortalities), entrainment in power plants (30 mortalities), and shootings (70 mortalities and 8 injuries). Stranding records are a gross under-estimate of injury and mortality. However, CMMSN stranding records indicate a higher mortality rate as a result of shootings and hook and line entanglements during the1997-98 El Niño period (115 shootings, 26 hook and line entanglements) than during the 1995-96 non-El Niño period (61 shootings, 5 hook and line entanglements). There are currently no estimates of the total number of California sea lions being killed or injured by guns, boat collisions, entrainment in power plants, marine debris, or gaffs, but the minimum number in 1998 was 144.

Several Northwest Indian tribes have developed, or are in the process of developing, regulations for ceremonial and subsistence harvests of California sea lions and for the incidental take of marine mammals during tribal fisheries. The tribes have agreed to cooperate with NMFS in gathering and submitting data on takes of marine mammals.

Sea lion mortalities in 1998 along the central California coast have recently been linked to the algal-produced neurotoxin domoic acid (Scholin et al. 2000). Future mortalities may be expected to occur, owing to the periodic nature of such harmful algal blooms.

STATUS OF STOCK

Lowry et al. (1992) concluded that there was no evidence of a density dependent signal in counts of California sea lions between 1983 and 1990, and that it was not possible to determine the status of this stock relative to OSP. They are not listed as "endangered" or "threatened" under the Endangered Species Act or as "depleted" under the MMPA. They are not considered a "strategic" stock under the MMPA because total human-caused mortality (1208 fishery-related mortalities plus 144 from other sources) is less than the PBR (6,591). The total fishery mortality and serious injury rate for this stock is not less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, cannot be considered to be insignificant and approaching a zero mortality and serious injury rate. The population has been growing recently at 6.2% per year, and the fishery mortality is increasing.

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HARBOR SEAL (*Phoca vitulina richardsi*): California Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*) are widely distributed in the North Atlantic and North Pacific. Two subspecies exist in the Pacific: *P. v. stejnegeri* in the western North Pacific, near Japan, and *P. v. richardsi* in the eastern North Pacific. The latter subspecies inhabits near-shore coastal and estuarine areas from Baja California, Mexico, to the Pribilof Islands in Alaska. These seals do not make extensive pelagic migrations, but do travel 300-500 km on occasion to find food or suitable breeding areas (Herder 1986; D. Hanan unpublished data). In California, approximately 400-500 harbor seal haulout sites are widely distributed along the mainland and on offshore islands, including intertidal sandbars, rocky shores and beaches (Hanan 1996).

Within the subspecies *P. v. richardsi*, abundant evidence of geographic structure comes from differences in mitochondrial DNA (Huber et al. 1994; Burg 1996; Lamont et al. 1996), mean pupping dates (Temte 1986), pollutant loads (Calambokidis et al. 1985), pelage coloration (Kelly 1981) and movement patterns (Jeffries 1985; Brown 1988). LaMont (1996) identified four discrete subpopulation differences in mtDNA between harbor seals from Washington (two locations), Oregon, and California. Another mtDNA study (Burg 1996) supported the existence of three separate groups of harbor seals between Vancouver Island and southeastern Alaska. Although we know that geographic structure exists along an almost continuous distribution of harbor seals from California to Alaska, stock boundaries are difficult to draw because any rigid line is (to a greater or lesser extent) arbitrary from a biological perspective. Nonetheless, failure to recognize geographic structure by defining management stocks can lead to depletion of local populations. Previous assessments of the status of harbor seals have recognized 3 stocks along the west coast of the continental U.S.: 1) California, 2) Oregon and Washington outer coast waters, and 3) inland waters of Washington. Although the need for stock boundaries for management is real and is supported by biological information, the exact placement of a boundary between California and Oregon was largely a political/jurisdictional convenience. A small number of harbor seals also occur along the west coast of Baja California, but they are not considered to be a part of the California stock because no international agreements exist for the joint management of this species by the U.S. and Mexico. Lacking any new information on which to base a revised boundary, the harbor seals of California will be again treated as a separate stock in this report (Fig. 1). Other Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports cover the five other stocks that are recognized along the U.S. west coast: Oregon/Washington outer coastal waters, Washington inland waters, and three stocks in Alaska coastal and inland waters.

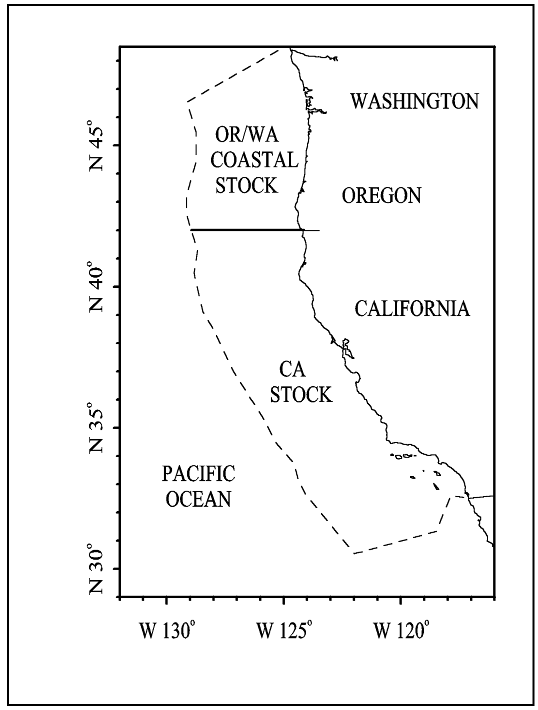

Figure 1. Stock boundaries for the California and Oregon/Washington coastal stocks of harbor seals. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ.

POPULATION SIZE

A complete count of all harbor seals in California is impossible because some are always away from the haulout sites. A complete pup count (as is done for other pinnipeds in California) is also not possible because harbor seals are precocious, with pups entering the water almost immediately after birth. Population size is estimated by counting the number of seals ashore during the peak haul-out period (the May/June molt) and by multiplying this count by the inverse of the estimated fraction of seals on land. Boveng (1988) reviewed studies estimating the proportion of seals hauled out to those in the water and suggested that a correction factor for harbor seals is likely to be between 1.4 and 2.0. Huber (1995) estimated a mean correction factor of 1.53 (CV=0.065) for harbor seals in Oregon and Washington during the peak pupping season. Hanan (1996) estimated that 83.3% (CV=0.17) of harbor seals haul out at some time during the day during the May/June molt, and he estimated a correction factor of 1.20 based on those data. Neither correction factor is directly applicable to an aerial photographic count in California: the 1.53 factor was measured at the wrong time of year (when fewer seals are hauled out) and in a different area and the 1.20 factor was based on the fraction of seals hauled out over an entire 24 hr day (correction factors for aerial counts should be based on the fraction of seals hauled out at the time of the survey). Hanan (pers. comm.) revised his haul-out correction factor to 1.3 by using only those seals hauled out between 0800 and 1700 which better corresponds to the timing of his surveys. Based on the most recent harbor seal counts (23,302 in May/June 1995, Hanan 1996) and Hanan's revised correction factor, the harbor seal population in California is estimated to number 30,293. A harbor seal count in California was attempted in 1999, but was not successful due to bad weather and camera failure (Hanan, pers. comm.). Another survey is planned for 2000.

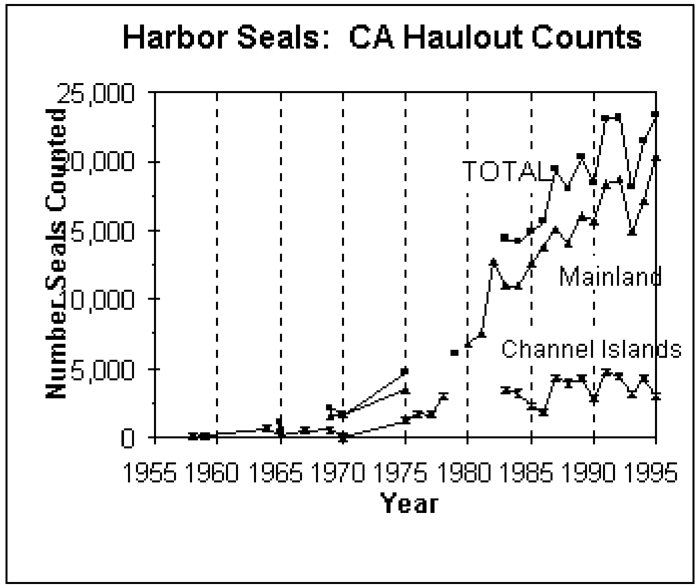

Figure 2. Harbor seal haulout counts in California during May/June (Hanan 1996).

Minimum Population Estimate

Because of the way it was calculated (based on the fraction of seals hauled out at any time during a 24 hr day), Hanan's (1996) correction factor of 1.2 can be viewed as a minimum estimate of the fraction hauled out at a given instant. A population size estimated using this correction factor provides a reasonable assurance that the true population is greater than or equal to that number, and thus fulfills the requirement of a minimum population estimate. The minimum size of the California harbor seal population is therefore 27,962.

Current Population Trend

Harbor seal counts have continued to increase except during El Niño events (eg. 1992-93) (Fig. 2). The net production appears, however, to be slowing in California (Fig. 3) and in Oregon and Washington (see separate Stock Assessment Report).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

A realized rate of increase was calculated for the 1982-1995 period by linear regression of the natural logarithm of total count versus year. The slope this regression line was 0.035 (s.e.=0.007) which gives an annualized growth rate estimate of 3.5%. The current rate of net production is greater than this observed growth rate because fishery mortality takes a fraction of the net production. Annual gillnet mortality may have been as high as 5-10% of the California harbor seal population in the mid-1980s; a kill this large would have depressed population growth rates appreciably. Net

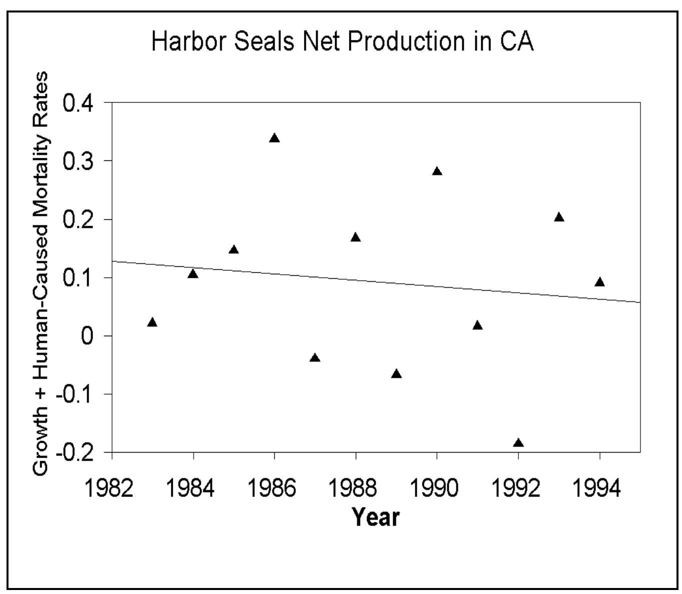

Figure 3. Net production rates and regression line estimated from haulout counts and fishery mortality.

productivity was therefore calculated for 1980-1994 as the realized rate of population growth (increase in seal counts from year *i* to year *i*+1, divided by the seal count in year *i*) plus the human-caused mortality rate (fishery mortality in year *i* divided by population size in year *i*). Between 1983 and 1994, the net productivity rate for the California stock averaged 9.2% (Fig. 3). A regression shows a decrease in net production rates, but the decline is not statistically significant. Maximum net productivity rates cannot be estimated because measurements were not made when the stock size was very small.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (27,962) times one half the default maximum net productivity rate for pinnipeds (½ of 12%) times a recovery factor of 1.0 (for a stock of unknown status that is growing, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 1,678.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Historical Takes

Prior to state and federal protection and especially during the nineteenth century, harbor seals along the west coast of North America were greatly reduced by commercial hunting (Bonnot 1928, 1951; Bartholomew and Boolootian 1960). Only a few hundred individuals survived in a few isolated areas along the California coast (Bonnot 1928). In the last half of this century, the population has increased dramatically.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the mortality and serious injury of harbor seals (California stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species (NMFS 1995; Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994-98	observer data	12-23%	0	0,0,0,0,0	0[1]
CA angel shark/halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery	1991 1992 1993 1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data extrapo-lated estimate	9.8% 12.5% 15.4% 7.7% 0.0% 0.0% 0.0% 0.0%	42 90 71 23 - - - -	601 (0.23) 1,204 (0.47) 475 (0.13) 227 (0.33) 228 (0.13)[2] 296 (0.08)[2] 349 (0.08)[2] 392 (0.10)[2]	n/a
CA, OR, and WA salmon troll fishery	1990-92	logbook data	-		Avg. Annual take = 7.33	n/a
CA herring purse seine fishery	1990-92	logbook data	-		Avg. Annual take = 0	n/a
CA anchovy, mackerel, and tuna purse seine fishery	1990-92	logbook data	-		Avg. Annual take = 0.67	n/a
WA, OR, CA groundfish trawl	1991-95	observer data	54-73%	0	0,0,0,0,0	0
CA squid purse seine fishery	1990-92	logbook data	-		Avg. Annual take = 0	n/a
(unknown net and hook fisheries)	1995-98	stranding data			17	4
Total annual takes						n/a

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).
[2] The CA set gillnets were not observed after 1994; mortality was extrapolated from effort estimates and previous entanglement rates.

Fishery Information

A summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of harbor seals is given in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Because the vast majority of harbor seal mortality in California fisheries occurs in the set gillnet fishery, because that fishery has undergone dramatic reductions and redistributions of effort, and because that fishery has not been observed since 1994, average annual mortality cannot be accurately estimated for the recent years (1995-98). Rough estimates for 1995-1998 have been made by extrapolation of prior kill rates using recent effort estimates (Table 1). Preliminary gillnet observations from April to September 1999 in central California included 47 harbor seals in 24.6% of the sets for a rough extrapolated estimate of 191 mortalities in this half-year period. Stranding data reported to the California Marine Mammal Stranding Network in 1995-98 include harbor seal deaths and injuries caused by hook-and-line fisheries (17 deaths, 4 injuries) and gillnet fisheries (1 death, 2 injuries).

Other Mortality

The California Marine Mammal Stranding database maintained by the National Marine Fisheries Service, Southwest Region, contains the following records of human-related harbor seal mortalities and injuries in 1995-98: (1) boat collision (10 mortalities, 2 injuries), (2) entrainment in power plants (20 mortalities), and (3) shootings (9 mortalities).

STATUS OF STOCK

A review of harbor seal dynamics through 1991 concluded that their status relative to OSP could not be determined with certainty (Hanan 1996). They are not listed as "endangered" or "threatened" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Total fishing mortality cannot be accurately estimate for recent years, but extrapolations from past years and preliminary data for 1999 indicate that fishing mortality is less than the calculated PBR for this stock (1,678), and thus they would not be considered a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The average rate of incidental fishery mortality for this stock is likely to be greater than 10% of the calculated PBR; therefore, fishery mortality cannot be considered insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The population appears to be growing and the fishery mortality is declining. There are no known habitat issues that are of particular concern for this stock. All west-coast harbor seals that were tested for morbilliviruses were found to be seronegative, indicating that this disease is not endemic in the population and that this population is extremely susceptible to an epidemic of this disease (Ham-Lammé et al. 1999).

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HARBOR SEAL (*Phoca vitulina richardsi*): Oregon/Washington Coast Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Harbor seals inhabit coastal and estuarine waters off Baja California, north along the western coasts of the continental U.S., British Columbia, and Southeast Alaska, west through the Gulf of Alaska and Aleutian Islands, and in the Bering Sea north to Cape Newenham and the Pribilof Islands. They haul out on rocks, reefs, beaches, and drifting glacial ice, and feed in marine, estuarine, and occasionally fresh waters. Harbor seals generally are non-migratory, with local movements associated with such factors as tides, weather, season, food availability, and reproduction (Scheffer and Slipp 1944; Fisher 1952; Bigg 1969, 1981). Harbor seals do not make extensive pelagic migrations though some long distance movement of tagged animals in Alaska (174 km) and along the U.S. west coast (up to 550 km) have been recorded (Pitcher and McAllister 1981, Brown and Mate 1983, Herder 1986). Harbor seals have also displayed strong fidelity for haul out sites (Pitcher and Calkins 1979, Pitcher and McAllister 1981).

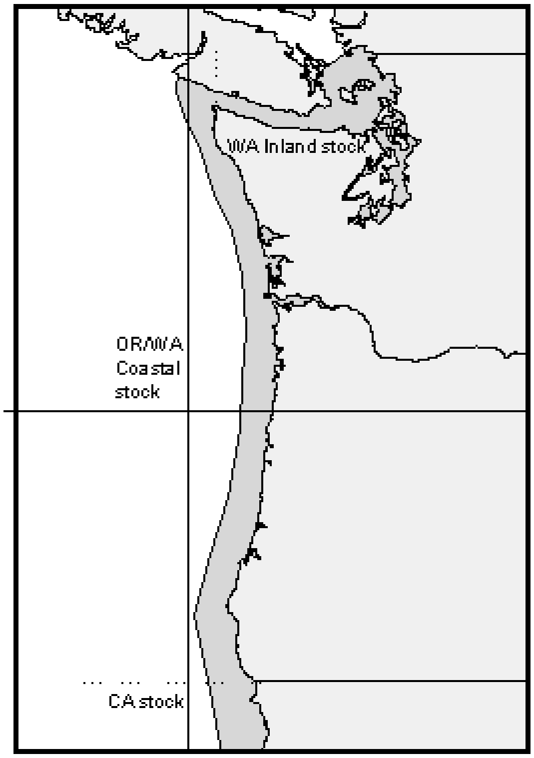

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of harbor seals in the U.S. Pacific Northwest (shaded area). Stock boundaries separating the three stocks are shown.

For management purposes, differences in mean pupping date (Temte 1986), movement patterns (Jeffries 1985, Brown 1988), pollutant loads (Calambokidis et al. 1985) and fishery interactions have led to the recognition of 3 separate harbor seal stocks along the west coast of the continental U.S. (Boveng 1988): 1) inland waters of Washington State (including the Hood Canal, Puget Sound, and Strait of Juan de Fuca out to Cape Flattery), 2) outer coast of Oregon and Washington, and 3) California (see Fig. 1). Recent genetic analyses provide additional support for this stock structure (Huber et al. 1994, Burg 1996, Lamont et al. 1996). Samples from Washington, Oregon, and California demonstrate a high level of genetic diversity and indicate that the harbor seals of inland Washington possess unique haplotypes not found in seals from the coasts of Washington, Oregon, and California (Lamont et al. 1996). This report considers only the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. Three harbor seal stocks are also recognized in the inland and coastal waters of Alaska, including the Southeast Alaska, Gulf of Alaska, and Bering Sea stocks. The three Alaska harbor seal stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

Aerial surveys of harbor seals in Oregon and Washington were conducted by personnel from the National Marine Mammal Laboratory (NMML) and the Oregon and Washington Departments of Fish and Wildlife (ODFW and WDFW) during the 1997 pupping season. Total numbers of hauled-out seals (including pups) were counted during these surveys. In 1997, the mean count of harbor seals occurring along the Washington coast was 11,864 (CV=0.028) animals (WDFW, unpubl. data; NMML, unpubl. data). In 1997, the mean count of harbor seals occurring along the Oregon coast and in the Columbia River was 5,247 (CV=0.042) animals (ODFW, unpubl. data; Brown 1997). Combining these counts results in 17,111 (CV=0.023) harbor seals in the Oregon/Washington Coast stock.

Radio-tagging studies conducted at 6 locations (3 Washington inland waters sites and 3 Oregon and Washington coastal sites) collected information on haulout pattern from 63 harbor seals in 1991 and 61 harbor seals in 1992. Data from coastal and inland sites were not significantly different and were thus pooled, resulting in a correction factor of 1.53 (CV=0.065) to account for animals in the water which are missed during the aerial surveys (Huber 1995). Using this correction factor results in a population estimate of 26,180 (17,111 x 1.53; CV=0.069) for the Oregon/Washington Coast stock of harbor seals in 1997 (WDFW, unpubl. data; NMML, unpubl. data; ODFW, unpubl. data).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1997 population estimate for this stock is 24,705 harbor seals.

Current Population Trend

Historical levels of harbor seal abundance in Oregon and Washington are unknown. The population apparently decreased during the 1940s and 1950s due to bounty hunting. Approximately 17,133 harbor seals were killed in Washington by bounty hunters between 1943 and 1960 (Newby 1973). More than 3,800 harbor seals were killed in Oregon between 1925 and 1972 by a state-hired seal hunter, as well as bounty hunters (Pearson 1968). The population remained relatively low during the 1960s, but since the termination of the harbor seal bounty program and with the protection provided by the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) harbor seal counts for this stock have increased from 6,389 in 1977 to 17,111 in 1997 (WDFW, unpubl. data; NMML, unpubl. data; ODFW, unpubl. data).

Between 1983 and 1996, the annual rate of increase for this stock was 4%, with the peak count of 18,667 seals occurring in 1992. From 1991 to 1996, however, this stock declined 1.6% ($t=3.25$; $p=0.083$) annually (Jeffries et al. 1997), which may indicate that this population has exceeded equilibrium levels. Analyzing only the Oregon data (average annual rate of increase was 0.3% from 1988-96) indicates that the Oregon segment of the stock may be approaching equilibrium (Brown 1997). It is possible that the lower total counts for the population as a whole may have resulted from changes in haulout behavior. Increased disturbance, reduced food availability necessitating longer foraging periods, or other unknown reasons may have caused a larger number of seals to be in the water during the surveys (Jeffries et al. 1997).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

From 1978 to 1993, counts of harbor seals throughout Washington State increased at an annual rate of 7.68% (Huber 1995). The Oregon/Washington Coast harbor seal stock increased at an annual rate of 7% from 1983 to 1992 and at 4% from 1983 to 1996 (Jeffries et al. 1997). Because the population was not at a very low level, the observed rates of increase will underestimate the maximum net productivity (R_{MAX}). Therefore, until additional data become available, the pinniped default maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 12% will be employed for this harbor seal stock (Wade and Angliss 1997).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population estimate (24,705) <u>times</u> one-half the default maximum net growth rate for pinnipeds (½ of 12%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 1.0 (for stocks thought to be within OSP, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 1,482 harbor seals per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

NMFS observers monitored the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery during 1993-1998 (Gearin et al. 1994, 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data); 1994 observer data recently became available and will be included in a future stock assessment report. For the entire fishery (coastal + inland waters), observer coverage ranged from approximately 40 to 98% during those years. Fishing effort is conducted within the range of both stocks of harbor seals (Oregon/Washington Coast and Inland Washington stocks) occurring in Washington State waters. Some of the animals taken in the inland waters portion of the fishery (see the Inland Washington stock assessment report for details) may have been animals from the coastal stock. Similarly, some of the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery may have been from the inland stock. For the purposes of this stock assessment report, the animals taken in the inland portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Inland Washington stock and the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. However, as noted, some movement of animals between Washington's coastal and inland waters is likely, although data from tagging studies have not shown movement of harbor seals between the two locations (Huber 1995). Accordingly, Table 1 includes data only from that portion of the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery occurring within the range of the Oregon/Washington Coast stock (those waters south and west of Cape Flattery), where observer coverage was 100% in 1995-1997. No fishing effort occurred in the coastal portion of the fishery in 1993 or 1998. Data from 1993 to 1998 are included in Table 1, although the mean estimated annual mortality is calculated using only the most recent 5 years for which data are available. The mean estimated mortality for this fishery is 5 (CV=0.52) harbor seals per year from this stock.

The WA/OR/CA groundfish trawl fishery (Pacific whiting component) was monitored for incidental take during 1994-1998. The only harbor seal mortalities occurred in 1996 and 1997, years in which observer coverage (based on observed tons) was 65 and 66%, respectively. Both mortalities occurred during unmonitored hauls and therefore were not used to estimate mortality for the entire fishery in those years. However, observers monitored 100% of the vessels during the fishery and the reported mortalities are thought to be the only harbor seal mortalities in that fishery. The mean estimated mortality from 1994 to 1998 for monitored hauls in this fishery is zero harbor seals per year from this stock, plus 0.4 animals per year from unmonitored haul data.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of harbor seals (Oregon/Washington Coast stock) in commercial and tribal fisheries that might take this species and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. All entanglements resulted in the death of the animal. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless otherwise noted.

Fishery name	**Years**	**Data type**	**Percent observer coverage**	**Observed mortality**	**Estimated mortality**	**Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)**
Northern WA marine set gillnet (tribal fishery: coastal waters)	93 94 95 96 97 98	obs data	no fishery n/a 100% 100% 100% no fishery	0 n/a 3 9 13 0	0 n/a 3 9 13 0	5 (0.52)[1]
WA/OR/CA groundfish trawl (Pacific whiting component)	94 95 96 97 98	obs data	53.8% 56.2% 65.2% 65.7% 77.3%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0
	96 97	unmonitored hauls		1 1		0.4 (n/a)
WA Grays Harbor salmon drift gillnet	91-93	obs data	4-5%	0, 1, 1	0, 10, 10	6.7 (0.50)
WA Willapa Bay drift gillnet	91-93	obs data	1-3%	0, 0, 0	0, 0, 0	0
				Reported mortalities		
WA Willapa Bay drift gillnet	90-98	self reports	n/a	0, 0, 6, 8, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a	n/a	≥3.5 (n/a) see text
Minimum total annual takes						≥15.6 (0.36)

[1]1993 and 1995-98 mortality estimates are included in the average.

The Washington and Oregon Lower Columbia River drift gillnet fishery was monitored during the entire year in 1991-1993 (Brown and Jeffries 1993, Matteson et al. 1993c, Matteson and Langton 1994a). Harbor seal mortalities, incidental to the fishery, were observed only in the winter season and were extrapolated to estimate total harbor seal mortality. However, the structure of the fishery has changed substantially since the 1991-1992 fishing seasons, and this level of take no longer applies to the current fishery (see Appendix 1).

The Washington Grays Harbor salmon drift gillnet fishery was also monitored from 1991-1993 (Herczeg et al. 1992a; Matteson and Molinaar 1992; Matteson et al. 1993a; Matteson and Langton 1994b, 1994c). During the 3-year period, 98, 307 and 241 sets were monitored, representing approximately 4-5% observer coverage in each year. No mortalities were recorded in 1991. In 1992 observers recorded 1 harbor seal mortality incidental to the fishery, resulting in an extrapolated estimated total kill of 10 seals (CV=1.0). In 1993 observers recorded 1 harbor seal mortality incidental to the fishery, though a total kill was not extrapolated. Similar observer coverage in 1992 and 1993 (4.2%

and 4.4%, respectively) suggests that 10 is also a reasonable estimate of the total kill in 1993. Thus, the mean estimated mortality for this fishery from 1991-1993 is 6.7 (CV=0.50) harbor seals per year (Table 1). No observer data are available for this fishery after 1993.

Combining the estimates from the northern Washington marine set gillnet (5), WA/OR/CA groundfish trawl (0 from monitored hauls + 0.4 from unmonitored haul data), and Washington Grays Harbor salmon drift gillnet (6.7) fisheries results in an estimated mean mortality rate in observed fisheries of 12.1 harbor seals per year from this stock.

The Washington Willapa Bay drift gillnet fishery was also monitored at low levels of observer coverage from 1991-1993 (Herczeg et al. 1992a, 1992b; Matteson and Molinaar 1992; Matteson et al. 1993b; Matteson and Langton 1994c, 1994d). In those years, 752, 576, and 452 sets were observed representing approximately 2.5%, 1.4% and 3.1% observer coverage, respectively. No harbor seal mortalities were reported by observers. However, because mortalities were self-reported by fishers in 1992 and 1993, the low level of observer coverage failed to document harbor seal mortalities which had apparently occurred. Due to the low level of observer coverage for this fishery, the self-reported fishery mortalities have been included in Table 1 and represent a minimum mortality estimate resulting from that fishery (3.5 harbor seals per year).

An additional source of information on the number of harbor seals killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fisher self-reports of any harbor seal mortalities. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998).

Other Mortality

Strandings of harbor seals resulting from collisions with boats, from gunshot injuries, or entanglement in line unrelated to fisheries are another source of mortality data. During the 5-year period from 1994 to 1998, human-related mortalities or serious injuries occurred in 1994 (4), 1997 (2) and 1998 (2), resulting in an estimated annual mortality of 1.6 harbor seals (rounded to 2) from this stock during 1994 to 1998. This estimate is considered a minimum because not all stranded animals are found, reported, or examined for cause of death (via necropsy by trained personnel).

Subsistence Harvests by Northwest Treaty Indian Tribes

Several Northwest Indian tribes have developed, or are in the process of developing, regulations for ceremonial and subsistence harvests of harbor seals and for the incidental take of marine mammals during tribal fisheries. The tribes have agreed to cooperate with NMFS in gathering and submitting data on takes of marine mammals.

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor seals are not considered as "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened " or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Based on currently available data, the level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (16 + 2 = 18) does not exceed the PBR (1,482). Therefore, the Oregon/Washington Coast stock of harbor seals is not classified as a strategic stock. The minimum total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (16; based on observer data (12) and self-reported fisheries information (4) where observer data were not available or failed to detect harbor seal mortality) is also less than 10% of the calculated PBR (148) and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The stock size increased until 1992, but has declined in recent years. At this time it is not possible to assess the status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level.

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Revised 12/15/2000

HARBOR SEAL (*Phoca vitulina richardsi*): Washington Inland Waters Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Harbor seals inhabit coastal and estuarine waters off Baja California, north along the western coasts of the continental U.S., British Columbia, and Southeast Alaska, west through the Gulf of Alaska and Aleutian Islands, and in the Bering Sea north to Cape Newenham and the Pribilof Islands. They haul out on rocks, reefs, beaches, and drifting glacial ice, and feed in marine, estuarine, and occasionally fresh waters. Harbor seals generally are non-migratory, with local movements associated with such factors as tides, weather, season, food availability, and reproduction (Scheffer and Slipp 1944; Fisher 1952; Bigg 1969, 1981). Harbor seals do not make extensive pelagic migrations though some long distance movement of tagged animals in Alaska (174 km) and along the U.S. west coast (up to 550 km) have been recorded (Pitcher and McAllister 1981, Brown and Mate 1983, Herder 1986). Harbor seals have also displayed strong fidelity for haul out sites (Pitcher and Calkins 1979, Pitcher and McAllister 1981).

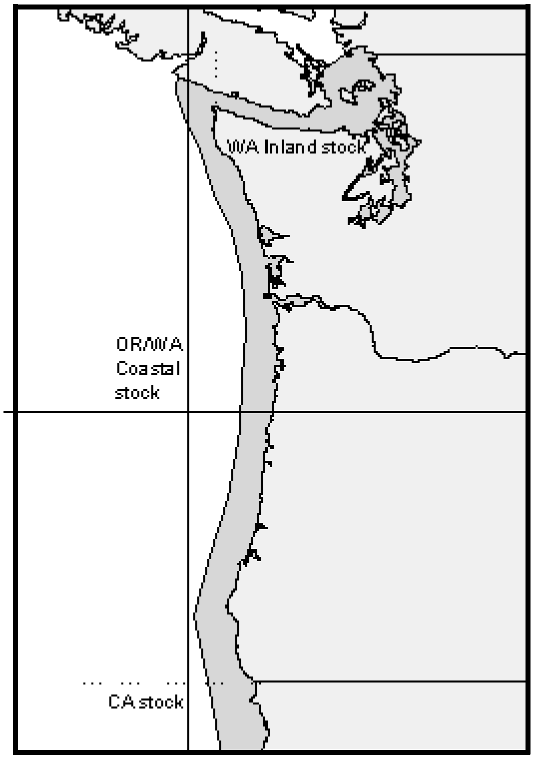

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of harbor seals in the U.S. Pacific Northwest (shaded area). Stock boundaries separating the three stocks are shown.

For management purposes, differences in mean pupping date (Temte 1986), movement patterns (Jeffries 1985, Brown 1988), pollutant loads (Calambokidis et al. 1985) and fishery interactions have led to the recognition of 3 separate harbor seal stocks along the west coast of the continental U.S. (Boveng 1988): 1) inland waters of Washington State (including the Hood Canal, Puget Sound, and Strait of Juan de Fuca out to Cape Flattery), 2) outer coast of Oregon and Washington, and 3) California (see Fig. 1). Recent genetic analyses provide additional support for this stock structure (Huber et al. 1994, Burg 1996, Lamont et al. 1996). Samples from Washington, Oregon, and California demonstrate a high level of genetic diversity and indicate that the harbor seals of inland Washington possess unique haplotypes not found in seals from the coasts of Washington, Oregon, and California (Lamont et al. 1996). This report considers only the Inland Washington stock. Three harbor seal stocks are also recognized in the inland and coastal waters of Alaska, including the Southeast Alaska, Gulf of Alaska, and Bering Sea stocks. The three Alaska harbor seal stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

Aerial surveys of harbor seals in Washington were conducted during the pupping season in 1997, during which time the total number of hauled-out seals (including pups) were counted. In 1997 the mean count of harbor seals occurring in Washington's inland waters was 10,494 (CV=0.017) animals (WDFW, unpubl. data; NMML, unpubl. data).

Radio-tagging studies conducted at 6 locations (3 Washington inland waters sites and 3 Oregon and Washington coastal sites) collected information on haulout patterns from 63 harbor seals in 1991 and 61 harbor seals in 1992. Data from coastal and inland sites were not significantly different and were thus pooled, resulting in a correction factor of 1.53 (CV=0.065) to account for animals in the water which are missed during the aerial surveys (Huber 1995). Using this correction factor results in a population estimate of 16,056 (10,494 x 1.53; CV=0.067) for the Inland Washington stock of harbor seals (WDFW, unpubl. data; NMML, unpubl. data).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1997 population estimate for this stock is 15,174 harbor seals.

Current Population Trend

Historical levels of harbor seal abundance in Washington are unknown. The population apparently decreased during the 1940s and 1950s due to bounty hunting. Approximately 17,133 harbor seals were killed in Washington by bounty hunters between 1943 and 1960 (Newby 1973). The population remained relatively low during the 1970s, but since the termination of the harbor seal bounty program in 1960 and with the protection provided by the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), harbor seal numbers in Washington have increased (Jeffries 1985).

Between 1983 and 1996, the annual rate of increase for this stock was 6%. From 1991 to 1996, this stock increased 10% (t=5.28; p=0.034) annually, with the peak count occurring in 1996. The higher rate of increase in recent years may be due to emigration of harbor seals from the Canadian waters of the Strait of Georgia to the San Juan Islands (Jeffries et al. 1997).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

From 1991 to 1996, counts of harbor seals in Washington State have increased at an annual rate of 10% (Jeffries et al. 1997). Because the population was not at a very low level, the observed rate of increase will underestimate the maximum net productivity (R_{MAX}). Therefore, until additional data become available, the pinniped default maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 12% will be employed for this harbor seal stock (Wade and Angliss 1997).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (15,174) <u>times</u> one-half the default maximum net growth rate for pinnipeds (½ of 12%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 1.0 (for stocks of unknown status that are increasing in size, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 910 harbor seals per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

NMFS observers monitored the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery during 1993-1998 (Gearin et al. 1994, 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data); 1994 observer data recently became available and will be included in a future stock assessment report. For the entire fishery (coastal + inland waters), observer coverage ranged from approximately 40 to 98% during those years. Fishing effort is conducted within the range of both stocks of harbor seals (Oregon/Washington Coast and Inland Washington stocks) occurring in Washington State waters. Some of the animals taken in the inland waters portion of the fishery may have been animals from the coastal stock. Similarly, some of the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery (see the Oregon/Washington Coast stock assessment report for details) may have been from the inland stock. For the purposes of this stock assessment report, the animals taken in the inland portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Inland Washington stock and the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. However, as noted, some movement of animals between Washington's coastal and inland waters is likely, although data from tagging studies have not shown movement of harbor seals between the two locations (Huber 1995). Accordingly, Table 1 includes data only from that portion of the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery occurring within the range of the Inland Washington stock (those waters east of Cape Flattery), where observer coverage ranged from 6 to 80% between 1993 and 1998. Data from 1993-1998 are included in Table 1, although the mean estimated annual mortality is calculated using the most recent 5 years of available data. Little effort occurred in the inland portion of the fishery in 1995, 1997, and 1998. No harbor seal mortalities were observed or reported in this fishery from 1995 to 1998. The mean estimated mortality for this fishery is 4 (CV=1.0) harbor seals per year from this stock.

In 1993 as a pilot for future observer programs, NMFS in conjunction with the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) monitored all non-treaty components of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon gillnet fishery (Pierce et al. 1994). Observer coverage was 1.3% overall, ranging from 0.9% to 7.3% for the various components of the fishery. Two harbor seal mortalities were reported (Table 1). Pierce et al. (1994) cautioned against extrapolating these mortalities to the entire Puget Sound fishery due to the low observer coverage and potential biases inherent in the data. The area 7/7A sockeye landings represented the majority of the non-treaty salmon landings in 1993, approximately 67%. Results of this pilot study were used to design the 1994 observer programs discussed below.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of harbor seals (Inland Washington stock) in commercial and tribal fisheries that might take this species and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. All entanglements resulted in the death of the animal. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
Northern WA marine set gillnet (tribal fishery: inland waters)	93 94 95 96 97 98	obs data	61% n/a 24% 6% 80% 40%	12 n/a 0 0 0 0	20 n/a 0 0 0 0	4.0 (1.0)[1]
WA Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet (observer programs listed below covered segments of this fishery):	-	-	-	-	-	-
Puget Sound non-treaty salmon gillnet (all areas and species)	93	obs data	1.3%	2	n/a	see text
Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 10/11 and 12/12B)	94	obs data	11%	1	10	10 (n/a)
Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 12, 12B, and 12C)	94	obs data	2.2%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty chum and sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 4B, 5, and 6C)	94	obs data	7.5%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 7 and 7A)	94	obs data	7%	1	15	15 (1.0)
				Reported mortalities		
WA Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet	94-98	self reports	n/a	n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a	n/a	see text
WA salmon net pens	97-98	self reports	n/a	10, 5	n/a	≥7.5 (n/a)
unknown Puget Sound fishery	94-98	strand data	n/a	3, 0, 2, 1, 1	n/a	≥1.4 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						≥37.9 (0.82)

[1]1993 and 1995-98 mortality estimates are included in the average.

In 1994, NMFS in conjunction with WDFW conducted an observer program during the Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery (areas 10/11 and 12/12B). A total of 230 sets were observed during 54 boat trips, representing approximately 11% observer coverage of the 500 fishing boat trips comprising the total effort in this fishery as estimated from fish ticket landings (Erstad et al. 1996). One harbor seal was taken in the fishery, resulting in an entanglement rate of 0.02 harbor seals per trip (0.004 harbor seals per set), which extrapolated to approximately 10 mortalities for the entire fishery. The Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery in Hood Canal (areas 12, 12B, and 12C) and Puget Sound treaty sockeye/chum gillnet fishery in the Strait of Juan de Fuca (areas 4B, 5, and 6C) were also monitored in 1994 (NWIFC 1995). No harbor seal mortalities were reported in the observer programs covering these treaty salmon gillnet fisheries, where observer coverage was estimated at 2.2% (based on % of total catch observed) and approximately 7.5% (based on % of observed trips to total landings), respectively.

Also in 1994, NMFS in conjunction with WDFW and the Tribes monitored the Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet fishery (areas 7 and 7A). During this fishery observers monitored 2,205 sets, representing approximately 7% of the estimated number of sets in the fishery (Pierce et al. 1996). There was one observed harbor seal mortality (two others were entangled and released unharmed), resulting in a mortality rate of 0.00045 harbor seals per set, which extrapolated to 15 mortalities (CV=1.0) for the entire fishery. In 1996, Washington Sea Grant Program conducted a test fishery in the non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet fishery (area 7) to compare entanglement rates of seabirds and marine mammals and catch rates of salmon using three experimental gears and a control (monofilament mesh net). The experimental nets incorporated highly visible mesh in the upper quarter (50 mesh gear) or upper eighth (20 mesh gear) of the net or had low-frequency sound emitters attached to the corkline (Melvin et al. 1997). In 642 sets during 17 vessel trips, there were two harbor seal mortalities (one other was released alive with no apparent injuries).

Combining the estimates from the northern Washington marine set gillnet (4), Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet in areas 10/11 and 12/12B (10), and Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet in areas 7 and 7A (15) fisheries results in an estimated minimum annual mortality rate in observed fisheries of 29 harbor seals per year from this stock. It should be noted that the 1994 observer programs did not sample all segments of the entire Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet fishery, and further, the extrapolations of total kill did not include effort for the unobserved segments of this fishery. Therefore, 29 is an underestimate of the harbor seal mortality due to the entire fishery. It is not possible to quantify what percentage of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet fishery was actually observed in 1994. However, the areas having the highest salmon catches and in which a majority of the vessels operated in 1994 were covered by the 1994 observer programs (J. Scordino, pers. comm.).

An additional source of information on the number of harbor seals killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. Fisher self-reports from 1994-1998 for the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set and drift gillnet fishery are shown in Table 1. Unlike the 1994 observer program data, the self-reported fishery data cover the entire fishery (including treaty and non-treaty components) and have thus been included in the table. There were fisher self-reports of 15 harbor seal mortalities due to entanglement in Washington salmon net pens, 10 in 1997 and 5 in 1998 (Table 1), resulting in an annual mortality of 7.5 harbor seals from this stock in those two years. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 in Hill and DeMaster 1998).

Strandings of harbor seals entangled in fishing gear or with injuries caused by interactions with gear are a final source of fishery-related mortality information. During the period from 1994 to 1998, small numbers of fishery-related strandings of harbor seals have occurred in most years. As the strandings could not be attributed to a particular fishery, they have been included in Table 1 as occurring in an unknown Puget Sound fishery. Fishery-related strandings during 1994-1998 result in an estimated annual mortality of 1.4 harbor seals from this stock. This estimate is considered a minimum because not all stranded animals are found, reported, or examined for cause of death (via necropsy by trained personnel).

The minimum estimated fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is 37.9 (rounded to 38) harbor seals per year, based on observer program data (29), fisher self-reports (7.5), and stranding data (1.4). However, a reliable estimate of the total mortality rate incidental to commercial fisheries is currently unavailable due to the absence of observer placements in segments of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set and drift gillnet fishery.

Other Mortality

Strandings of harbor seals resulting from collisions with boats, from gunshot injuries, or entanglement in line unrelated to fisheries are another source of mortality data. During the 5-year period from 1994 to 1998, human-related mortalities occurred each year, with reports of 7, 1, 8, 7, and 2 animals for those years, respectively. These mortalities resulted in an estimated annual mortality of 5 harbor seals from this stock during 1994-1998. This estimate is considered a minimum because not all stranded animals are found, reported, or cause of death determined (via necropsy by trained personnel).

Subsistence Harvests by Northwest Treaty Indian Tribes

Several Northwest Indian tribes have developed, or are in the process of developing, regulations for ceremonial and subsistence harvests of harbor seals and for the incidental take of marine mammals during tribal fisheries. The tribes have agreed to cooperate with NMFS in gathering and submitting data on takes of marine mammals.

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor seals are not considered to be "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened " or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Based on currently available data, the level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (38 + 5 = 43) does not exceed the PBR (910). Therefore, the Inland Washington stock of harbor seals is not classified as a strategic stock. At present, the minimum estimated fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (38) is less that 10% of the calculated PBR (91) and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The stock size has increased in recent years, although at this time it is not possible to assess the status of the stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level.

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NORTHERN ELEPHANT SEAL (*Mirounga angustirostris*): California Breeding Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Northern elephant seals breed and give birth in California (U.S.) and Baja California (Mexico), primarily on offshore islands (Stewart et al. 1994), from December to March (Stewart and Huber 1993). Males feed near the eastern Aleutian Islands and in the Gulf of Alaska, and females feed further south, south of 45°N (Stewart and Huber 1993; Le Boeuf et al. 1993). Adults return to land between March and August to molt, with males returning later than females. Adults return to their feeding areas again between their spring/summer molting and their winter breeding seasons.

Populations of northern elephant seals in the U.S. and Mexico were all originally derived from a few tens or a few hundreds of individuals surviving in Mexico after being nearly hunted to extinction (Stewart et al. 1994). Given the very recent derivation of most rookeries, no genetic differentiation would be expected. Although movement and genetic exchange continues between rookeries, most elephant seals return to their natal rookeries when they start breeding (Huber et al. 1991). The California breeding population is now demographically isolated from the Baja California population. No international agreements exist for the joint management of this species by the U.S. and Mexico. The California breeding population is considered here to be a separate stock.

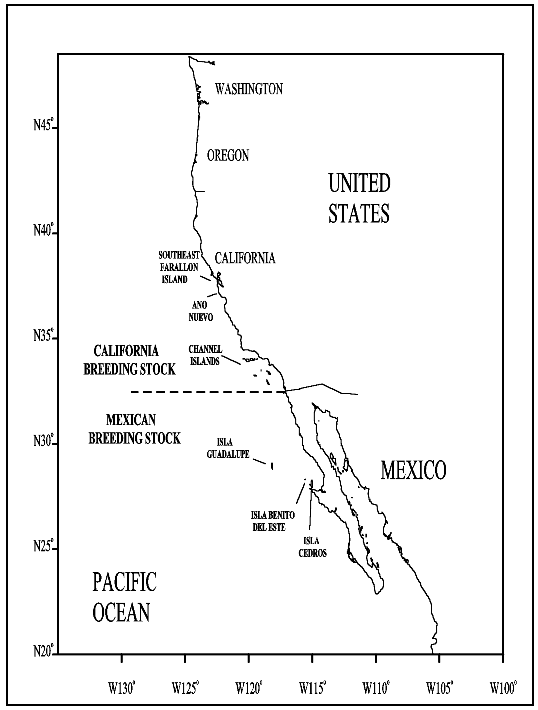

Figure 1. Stock boundary and major rookery areas for northern elephant seals in the U.S. and Mexico.

POPULATION SIZE

A complete population count of elephant seals is not possible because all age classes are not ashore at the same time. Elephant seal population size is typically estimated by counting the number of pups produced and multiplying by the inverse of the expected ratio of pups to total animals (McCann 1985). Stewart et al. (1994) used McCann's multiplier of 4.5 to extrapolate from 28,164 pups to a population estimate of 127,000 elephant seals in the U.S. and Mexico in 1991. The multiplier of 4.5 was based on a non-growing population. Boveng (1988) and Barlow et al.(1993) argue that a multiplier of 3.5 is more appropriate for a rapidly growing population such as the California stock of elephant seals. Based on the estimated 24,000 pups born in California in 1994-96 (Fig. 2) and this 3.5 multiplier, the California stock was approximately 84,000 in 1996.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population size for northern elephant seals can be estimated very conservatively as 51,625, twice the observed pup count (to account for the pups and their mothers) plus the peak number of males and juveniles counted at the Channel Island (Lowry, pers. comm.) and Año Nuevo (Le Boeuf 1996) sites in 1996. More sophisticated methods of estimating minimum population size could be applied if the variance of the multiplier used to estimate population size were known.

Current Population Trend

Based on trends in pup counts, northern elephant seal colonies were continuing to grow in California through 1994 but appear to be stable or slowly decreasing in Mexico (Stewart et al. 1994). The number of pups born appears

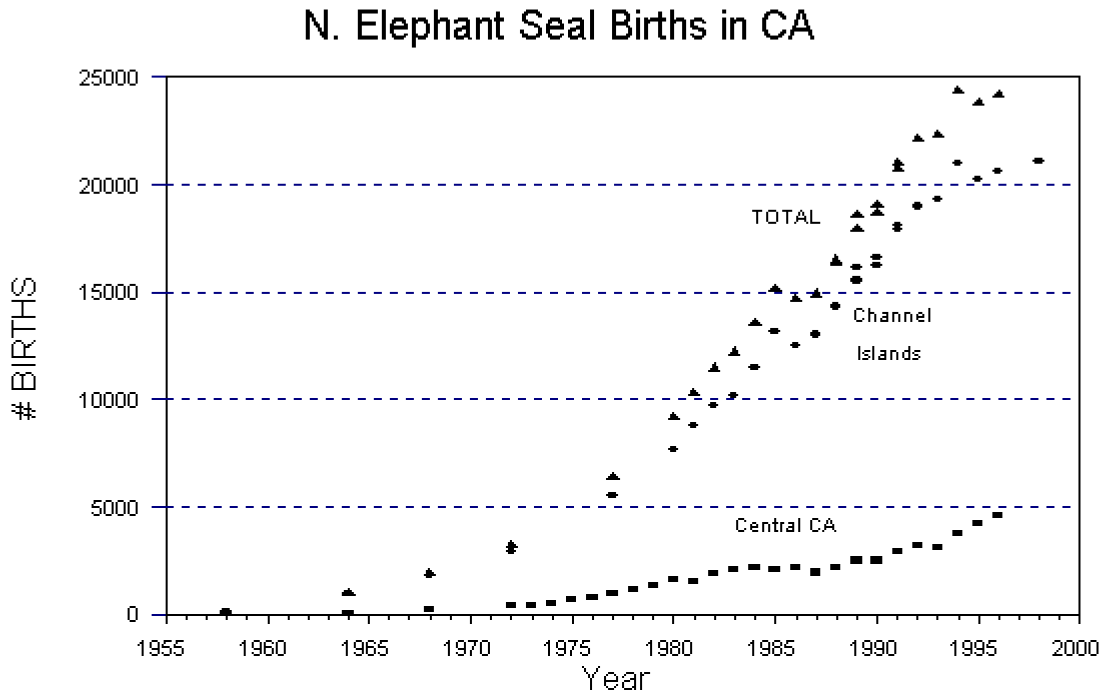

Figure 1. Estimated number of northern elephant seal births in California 1958-98. Multiple independent estimates are presented for the Channel Islands 1988-91. Total and central California counts are not yet available for 1998. Estimates are from Stewart et al. (1994), Lowry et al. (1996), and unpublished data from S. Allen, B. Hatfield, R. Jameson, B. Le Boeuf, M. Lowry, and W. Sydeman.

to be leveling off in California over the last five years (Fig. 2). More time is required to determine whether the reduction in growth at the California rookeries is temporary (as was observed in 1985) or whether it represents an approach to carrying capacity.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

Although growth rates as high as 16% per year have been documented for elephant seal rookeries in the U.S. from 1959 to 1981 (Cooper and Stewart 1983), much of this growth was supported by immigration from Mexico. The highest growth rate measured for the whole U.S./Mexico population was 8.3% between 1965 and 1977 (Cooper and Stewart 1983). A continuous growth rate of 8.3% is consistent with an increase from approximately 100 animals in 1900 to the current population size. The "maximum estimated net productivity rate" as defined in the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) would therefore be 8.3%. In California, the net productivity rate appears to have declined in recent years [Figure 3; net production rate was calculated as the realized rate of population growth (increase in pup abundance from year *i* to year *i+1*, divided by pup

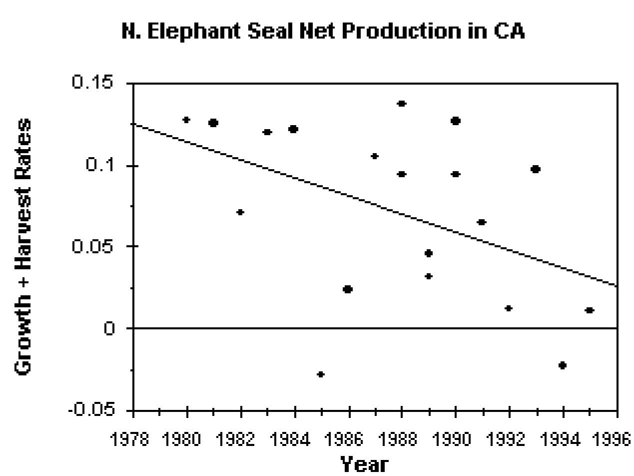

Figure 1. Net production rates for northern elephant seals in California based on pup births and fishery mortality. Annual mortality for 1980-1987 is assumed to be 300, the average of 1988-90 values (Perkins et al. 1994).

abundance in year *i*) plus the harvest rate (fishery mortality in year *i* divided by population size in year *i*)].

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (51,625) times one half the observed maximum net growth rate for this stock (½ of 8.3%) times a recovery factor of 1.0 (for a stock of unknown status that is increasing, Wade and Angliss 1997) resulting in a PBR of 2,142.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Fisheries Information

A summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of northern elephant seals is given in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Because the set gillnet fishery has undergone dramatic reductions and redistributions of effort and because that fishery has not been observed since 1994, average annual mortality for that fishery cannot be accurately estimated for the recent years (1995-98). Rough estimates for 1995-1998 have been made by extrapolation of prior kill rates using recent effort estimates (Table 1). Preliminary set gillnet observations in Monterey Bay from April to September 1999 included 3 elephant seals in 24.6% of the sets for a rough extrapolated estimate of 12 mortalities in this half-year period. Stranding data reported to the California Marine Mammal Stranding Network in 1995-98 include elephant seal injuries caused by hook-and-line fisheries (2

Table 1. Summary of available information on the mortality and serious injury of northern elephant seals (California breeding stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999; Perez, in prep.; NMFS unpubl. data). n/a indicates information is not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 22.8% 20.2%	22 14 4 8 4	123 (0.23) 90 (0.25) 37 (0.55) 45 (0.33) 20 (0.44)	33 (0.27)[1]
CA angel shark/halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery	1991 1992 1993 1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data extrapo-lated estimate	9.8% 12.5% 15.4% 7.7% 0.0% 0.0% 0.0% 0.0%	3 7 11 2 - - - -	30 (0.55) 51 (0.35) 70 (0.27) 16 (0.66) 47 (0.29) [2] 46 (0.23) [2] 60 (0.24) [2] 70 (0.26) [2]	n/a
WA, OR, CA groundfish trawl	1991-95	observer data	54-73%	0	0,0,0,0,0	0
WA Willapa Bay drift gillnet fishery (salmon)	1991	personal communica tion	n/a	2	2	n/a
Chehalis River salmon setnet fishery	1993	personal communica tion	n/a	4	4	n/a
Total annual takes						>33.0 (0.27)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers). Following these changes in the fishery, entanglement rates of northern elephant seals declined.
[2] The CA set gillnets were not observed after 1994; mortality was extrapolated from effort estimates and previous entanglement rates.

injuries) and gillnet fisheries (1 injuries). The average estimated annual mortality for northern elephant seals in these fisheries for the five most recent years of monitoring (1994-98) is likely to be substantially greater than 33 (the number estimated for the drift gillnet fishery alone) but, based on extrapolations from previous years, is not likely to be more than two or three times greater (ie. less than 100).

Although all of the mortalities in Table 1 occurred in U.S. waters, some may be of seals from Mexico's breeding population that are migrating through U.S. waters. Similar drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and probably take northern elephant seal. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which has increased from two vessels in 1986 to 29 vessels in 1992 (Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.). The number of set-gillnet vessels in this part of Mexico is unknown. The take of northern elephant seals in other North Pacific fisheries that have been monitored appears to be trivial (Barlow et al. 1993, 1994).

Other Mortality

The California Marine Mammal Stranding database maintained by the National Marine Fisheries Service, Southwest Region, contains the following records of human-related elephant seal mortalities and injuries in 1995-98: (1) boat collision (1 injury), (2) automobile collision (5 mortalities), and (3) shootings (3 mortalities). Protective measures were taken to prevent future automobile collisions in the vicinity of Piedras Blancas/San Simeon (Hatfield and Rathbun 1999).

STATUS OF STOCK

A review of elephant seal dynamics through 1991 concluded that their status could not be determined with certainty, but that they might be within their Optimal Sustainable Population (OSP) range (Barlow et al. 1993). They are not listed as "endangered" or "threatened" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Because their annual human-caused mortality is much less than the calculated PBR for this stock (2,142), they would not be considered a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The average rate of incidental fishery mortality for this stock over the last 5 years also appears to be less than 10% of the calculated PBR; therefore, the total fishery mortality appears to be insignificant and approaching a zero mortality and serious injury rate. The population is continuing to grow and fishery mortality is relatively constant. There are no known habitat issues that are of particular concern for this stock.

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GUADALUPE FUR SEAL (*Arctocephalus townsendi*)

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Commercial sealing during the 19th century reduced the once abundant Guadalupe fur seal to near extinction in 1894 (Townsend 1931). Prior to the harvest it ranged from Monterey Bay, California, to the Revillagigedo Islands, Mexico (Fleischer 1987, Hanni et al. 1997; Figure 1). The capture of two adult males at Guadalupe Island in 1928 established the species' return (Townsend 1931); however, they were not seen again until 1954 (Hubbs 1956). Guadalupe fur seals pup and breed mainly at Isla Guadalupe, Mexico. In 1997, a second rookery was discovered at Isla Benito del Este, Baja California (Maravilla-Chavez and Lowry 1999) and a pup was born at San Miguel Island, California (Melin and DeLong 1999). Individuals have stranded or been sighted as far north as Blind Beach, California (38° 26' 10" N, 123° 07' 20" W); inside the Gulf of California and as far south as Zihuatanejo, Mexico (17° 39' N, 101° 34'W; Hanni et al. 1997 and Aurioles-Gamboa and Hernadez-Camacho 1999). The population is considered to be a single stock because all are recent descendants from one breeding colony at Isla Guadalupe, Mexico.

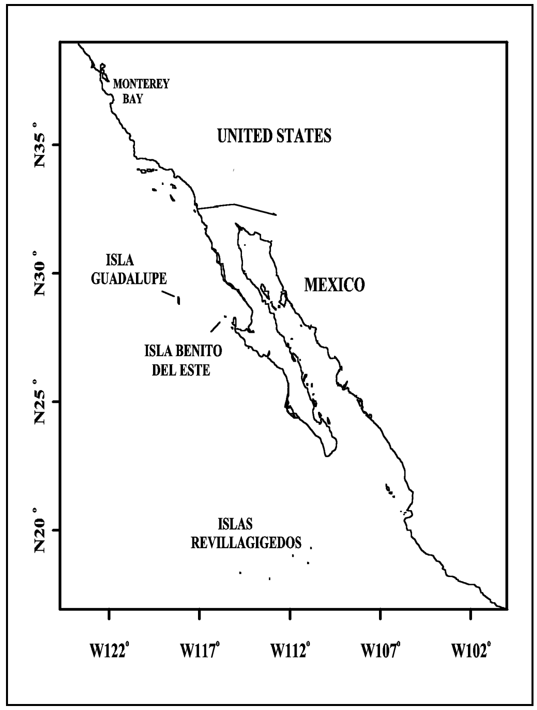

Figure 1. Geographic range of the Guadalupe fur seal, showing location of two rookeries at Isla Guadalupe and Isla Benito Del Este.

POPULATION SIZE

The size of the population prior to the commercial harvests of the 19th century is not known, but estimates range from 20,000 to 100,000 animals (Wedgeforth 1928, Hubbs 1956, Fleischer 1987). The population was estimated by Gallo (1994) to be about 7,408 animals in 1993. The population estimate was derived by multiplying the number of pups (counted and estimated) by a factor of 4.0.

Minimum Population Estimate

All the individuals of the population cannot be counted because all age and sex classes are never ashore at the same time and some individuals that are on land are not visible during the census. Sub-sampling portions of the rookery indicate that only 47-55% of the seals present (i.e., hauled out) are counted during the census (Gallo 1994). The 1993 count of all age classes plus the estimate of missed animals was 6,443 (Gallo 1994). The minimum size of the population in Mexico can be estimated as the actual count of 3,028 hauled out seals [The actual count data were not reported by Gallo (1994); this number is derived by multiplying the estimated number hauled out by 47%, the minimum estimate of the percent counted]. In the United States, a few Guadalupe fur seals are known to inhabit California sea lion rookeries in the Channel Islands (Stewart et al. 1987).

Current Population Trend

Counts of Guadalupe fur seals have been made sporadically since 1954. Records of Guadalupe fur seal counts through 1984 were compiled by Seagars (1984), Fleischer (1987), and Gallo (1994). The count for 1988 was taken from Torres et al. (1990). A few of these counts were made during the breeding season, but the majority were made at other times of the year (Figure 1). Also, the counts that are documented in the literature generally provide only the total of all Guadalupe fur seals counted (i.e., the counts are not separated by age/sex class). The counts that were made during the breeding season, when the maximum number of animals are present at the rookery, were used to examine population growth (Gallo 1994). The natural logarithm of the counts was regressed against year to calculate the growth rate of the population. These data indicate that the population of Guadalupe fur seals is increasing exponentially at an average annual growth rate of 13.7% (Gallo 1994; Figure 2).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

The maximum net productivity rate can be assumed to be equal to the annual growth rate observed over the last 30 years (13.7%) because the population was at a very low level and should have been growing at nearly its maximum rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (3,028) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for pinnipeds (½ of 12%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.5 (for a threatened species, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 104 Guadalupe fur seals per year. The vast majority of this PBR would apply towards incidental mortality in Mexico.

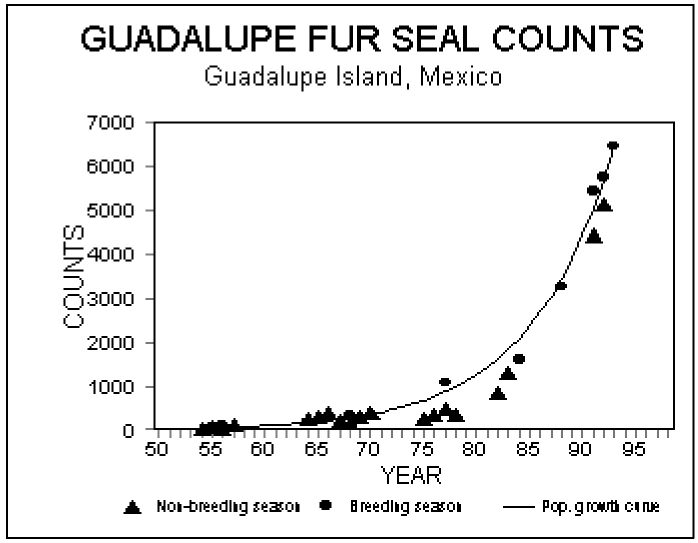

Figure 2. Counts of Guadalupe fur seals at Guadalupe Island, Mexico, and the estimated population growth curve derived from counts made during the breeding season.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

Drift and set gillnet fisheries may cause incidental mortality of Guadalupe fur seals in Mexico and the United States. In the United States there have been no reports of mortalities or injuries for Guadalupe fur seals (Barlow et al. 1994, Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999. No information is available for human-caused mortalities or injuries in Mexico. However, similar drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery (Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-93 (0.15 marine mammals per set), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.). The number of set gillnets used in Mexico is unknown.

Other mortality

Juvenile female Guadalupe fur seals have stranded in central and northern California with net abrasions around the neck, fish hooks and monofilament line, and polyfilament string (Hanni et al. 1997).

STATUS OF STOCK

The state of California lists the Guadalupe fur seal as a fully protected mammal in the Fish and Game Code of California (Chap. 8, sec. 4700, d), and it is listed also as a threatened species in the Fish and Game Commission California Code of Regulations (Title 14, sec. 670.5, b, 6, H). The Endangered Species Act lists it as a threatened species, which automatically qualifies this as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the Marine Mammal Protection Act. There is insufficient information to determine whether the fishery mortality in Mexico exceeds the PBR for this stock. The total U.S. fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The population is growing at approximately 13.7% per year.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Guadalupe fur seals in commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999, M. Perez per. comm, Appendix 1). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA driftnet fishery for sharks and swordfish	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 22.8% 20.2%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0[1]
CA set gillnet fishery for halibut and angel shark	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer extrapolated estimates (1995-98)	7.7% 0% 0% 0% 0%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0[2] 0[2] 0[2] 0[2]	0[2]
WA, OR, CA ground fish trawl fishery (At-sea processing Pacific whiting fishery only)	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer	53.8% 56.2% 65.2% 65.7% 77.3%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).
[2] The CA set gillnets were not observed after 1994; mortality was extrapolated from effort estimates and previous entanglement rates.

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NORTHERN FUR SEAL (*Callorhinus ursinus*): San Miguel Island Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Northern fur seals occur from southern California north to the Bering Sea and west to the Okhotsk Sea and Honshu Island, Japan (Fig. 1). During the breeding season, approximately 74% of the worldwide population is found on the Pribilof Islands in the southern Bering Sea, with the remaining animals spread throughout the North Pacific Ocean (Lander and Kajimura 1982). Of the seals in U.S. waters outside of the Pribilofs, approximately 1% of the population is found on Bogoslof Island in the southern Bering Sea and San Miguel Island off southern California (NMFS 1993). Northern fur seals may temporarily haul out on land at other sites in Alaska, British Columbia, and on islets along the coast of the continental United States, but generally outside of the breeding season (Fiscus 1983).

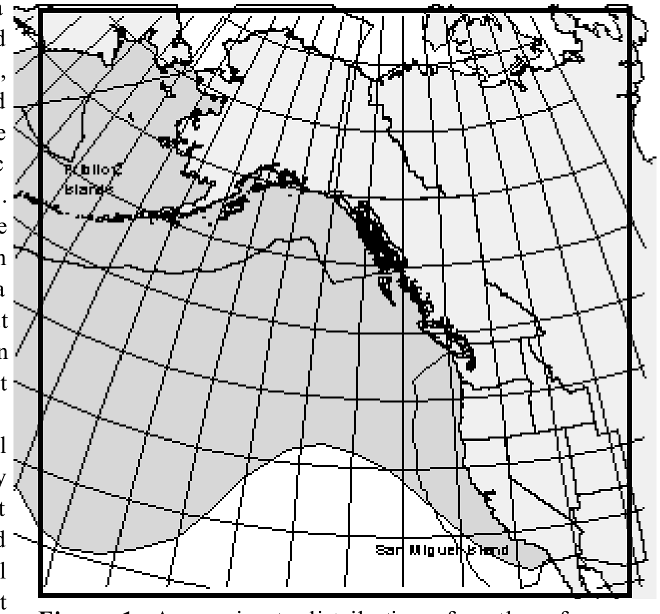

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of northern fur seals in the eastern North Pacific (shaded area).

Due to differing requirements during the annual reproductive season adult males and females typically occur ashore at different, though overlapping times. Adult males usually occur on shore during the 4-month period from May-August, though some may be present until November (well after giving up their territories). Adult females are found ashore for as long as six months (June-November). After their respective times ashore, seals of both genders spend the next 7-8 months at sea (Roppel 1984). Adult females and pups from the Pribilof Islands migrate through the Aleutian Islands into the North Pacific Ocean, often to the Oregon and California offshore waters. Many pups may remain at sea for 22 months before returning to their rookery of birth. Adult males from the Pribilof Islands generally migrate only as far south as the Gulf of Alaska (Kajimura 1984). There is considerable interchange of individuals between rookeries.

The following information was considered in classifying stock structure based on the Dizon et al. (1992) phylogeographic approach: (1) Distributional data: geographic distribution is continuous during feeding, geographic separation during the breeding season, high natal site fidelity (DeLong 1982); (2) Population response data: substantial differences in population dynamics between Pribilofs and San Miguel Island (DeLong 1982, DeLong and Antonelis 1991, NMFS 1993); (3) Phenotypic data: unknown; and (4) Genotypic data: unknown. Based on this information, two separate stocks of northern fur seals are recognized within U.S. waters: an Eastern Pacific stock and a San Miguel Island stock. The Eastern Pacific stock is reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

The population estimate for the San Miguel Island stock of northern fur seals is calculated as the estimated number of pups at rookeries multiplied by an expansion factor. Based on research conducted on the Eastern Pacific stock of northern fur seals, a life table analysis was performed to estimate the number of yearlings, 2 year olds, 3 year olds, and animals at least 4 years old (Lander 1981). The resulting population estimate was equal to the pup count multiplied by 4.475. The expansion factors are based on a sex and age distribution estimated after the harvest of juvenile males was terminated. A more appropriate expansion factor for the San Miguel Island stock is 4.0, based on the known increased immigration of recruitment-age females (DeLong 1982) and mortality and possible emigration of adults associated with the El Niño Southern Oscillation event in 1982-1983 (R. DeLong, pers. comm.). A 1998 pup count resulted in a total count of 627 pups, a 79.6% decrease from the 1997 count of 3,068 (Melin and DeLong 2000). In 1999, the population began to recover with a total pup count of 1,084 (S. Melin, unpubl. data). Based on the 1999 count and the expansion factor, the most recent population estimate of the San Miguel Island stock is 4,336 (1,084 x 4.0) northern fur seals. Currently, a CV for the expansion factor is unavailable.

Minimum Population Estimate

The survey technique utilized for estimating the abundance of northern fur seals within the San Miguel Island stock is a direct count, with no associated CV(N) as sites are surveyed only once. Additional estimates of the overall population size (i.e., N_{BEST}) and associated CV are also unavailable. Therefore N_{MIN} for this stock can not be estimated by calculating the log-normal 20th percentile of the population estimate. Rather, N_{MIN} is estimated as twice the maximum number of pups born in 1999 (to account for the pups and their mothers) plus the maximum number of adult and sub-adult males counted for the 1999 season, which results in an N_{MIN} of 2,336 ((1,084 x 2) + 168). This method provides a very conservative estimate of the northern fur seal population at San Miguel Island.

Current Population Trend

The population of northern fur seals on San Miguel Island originated from the Pribilof Islands population during the late 1950s or early 1960s (DeLong 1982). The colony has increased steadily, since its discovery in 1968, except for severe declines in 1983 and 1998 associated with El Niño Southern Oscillation events in 1982-1983 and 1997-1998 (DeLong and Antonelis 1991, Melin and DeLong 2000). El Niño events, which occur periodically along the California coast, impact population growth of fur seals at San Miguel Island and are an important regulatory mechanism for this population (DeLong and Antonelis 1991; Melin and DeLong 1994, 2000; Melin et al. 1996).

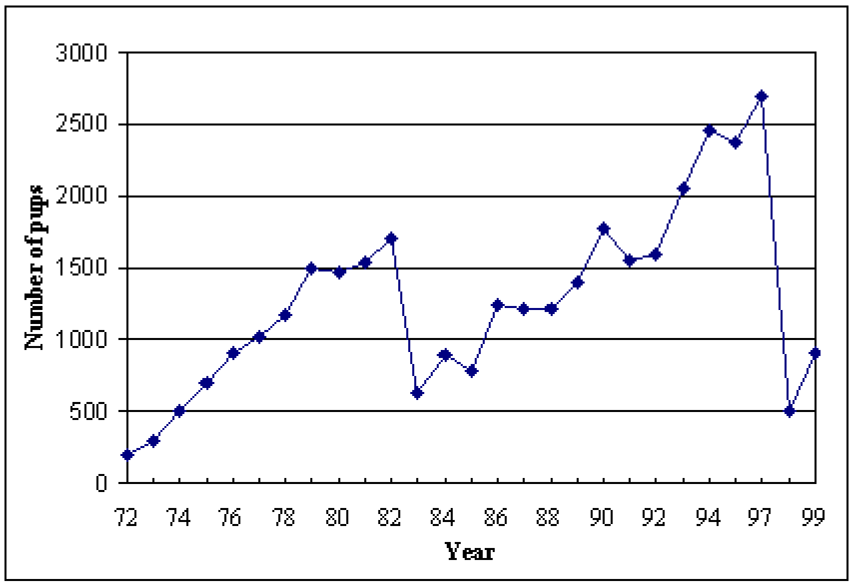

Figure 2. Northern fur seal live pup counts on San Miguel Island, 1972-1999. Counts from 1996 were incomplete and have not been included in the figure.

Specifically, live pup counts increased about 24% annually from 1972 through 1982, an increase due, in part, to immigration of females from the Bering Sea and the western North Pacific Ocean (DeLong 1982) (Fig. 2). The 1982-1983 El Niño event resulted in a 60.3% decline in the northern fur seal population at San Miguel Island (DeLong and Antonelis 1991). It took the population 7 years to recover from this decline, because adult female mortality occurred in addition to pup mortality (Melin and DeLong 1994). The 1992-1993 El Niño conditions resulted in reduced pup production in 1992, but the population recovered in 1993 and increased in 1994 (Melin et al. 1996).

From July 1997 through May 1998, the most severe El Niño event in recorded history affected California coastal waters (Lynn et al. 1998). In 1997, total fur seal pup production was 3,068 pups, the highest recorded since the colony has been monitored. However, it appears that up to 87% of the pups born in 1997 died before weaning, and total production in 1998 was only 627 pups, a decline of 79.6% from 1997 (Melin and DeLong 2000). Although total production increased to 1,084 in 1999 (S. Melin, unpubl. data), a slow recovery from the 1998 decline is anticipated if adult female mortality occurred in addition to the high pup mortality in 1997 and 1998 (Melin and DeLong 2000).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

The northern fur seal population in the Pribilof Islands increased steadily during 1912-1924 after the commercial harvest no longer included pregnant females. During this period, the rate of population growth was approximately 8.6% (SE=1.47) per year (A. York, unpubl. data), the maximum recorded for this species. This growth rate is similar and slightly higher than the 8.12% rate of increase (approximate SE=1.29) estimated by Gerrodette et al. (1985). Given the extremely low density of the population in the early 1900s, the 8.6% rate of increase is considered a reliable estimate of R_{MAX}.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population estimate (2,336) times one-half the observed maximum net growth rate (½ of 8.6%) times a recovery factor of 1.0 (for stocks of unknown status that are increasing in size, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 100 San Miguel Island northern fur seals per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

Northern fur seals taken during the winter/spring along the west coast of the continental U.S. could be from the Pribilofs and thus belong to the Eastern Pacific stock. However, it is the intention of NMFS to consider any takes of northern fur seals by commercial fisheries in waters off California, Oregon, and Washington as being from the San Miguel Island stock. Information concerning the three observed fisheries that may have interacted with northern fur seals are listed in Table 1. There were no reported mortalities of northern fur seals in any observed fishery along the west coast of the continental U.S. during the period from 1994-1998 (Table 1; Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999). Overall entanglement rates in the California/Oregon thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably after the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-1998 data. Fishing effort in the California angel shark/halibut set gillnet fishery was substantially reduced as a result of a California voter proposition banning gillnet fishing in certain areas (Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998). For this fishery, there were no observed sets after 1994. The estimated mean mortality rate in observed fisheries is zero northern fur seals per year from this stock.

An additional source of information on the number of northern fur seals killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fisher self-reports of northern fur seal mortalities from any fisheries operating within the range of this stock. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of northern fur seals (San Miguel Island stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/ swordfish drift gillnet	94	obs data	17.9%	0	0	0[1]
	95		15.6%	0	0	
	96		12.4%	0	0	
	97		23.0%	0	0	
	98		20.0%	0	0	
CA angel shark/halibut set gillnet	94	obs data	7.7%	0	0	0
	95	extrapolated estimates (1995-98)	0%	0	0[2]	0
	96		0%	0	0[2]	
	97		0%	0	0[2]	
	98		0%	0	0[2]	
WA/OR/CA groundfish trawl (Pacific whiting component)	94	obs data	53.8%	0	0	0
	95		56.2%	0	0	
	96		65.2%	0	0	
	97		65.7%	0	0	
	98		77.3%	0	0	

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/ swordfish drift gillnet	94-98	self reports	n/a	n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a	n/a	-
CA angel shark/halibut set gillnet	94-98	self reports	n/a	n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a	n/a	-
unknown west coast fishery	94-98	strand data	n/a	0, 0, 0, 0, 0	n/a	0
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).
[2] The California set gillnets were not observed after 1994; mortality was extrapolated from effort and previous entanglement rates.

Strandings of northern fur seals entangled in fishing gear or with injuries caused by interactions with gear are a final source of fishery-related mortality information. During 1994-1998, no northern fur seal strandings occurred. Fishery-related strandings during 1994-1998 resulted in an estimated annual mortality of zero animals from this stock. This estimate is considered a minimum because not all stranded animals are found, reported, or examined for cause of death (via necropsy by trained personnel).

STATUS OF STOCK

The San Miguel Island northern fur seal stock is not considered to be "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Based on currently available data, the estimated annual level of total human-caused mortality and serious injury (0) does not exceed the PBR (100). Therefore, the San Miguel Island stock of northern fur seals is not classified as a strategic stock. The minimum total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (0) is not known to exceed 10% of the calculated PBR (10) and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The stock size decreased 79.6% from 1997 to 1998 and began to recover in 1999. The status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level is unknown, unlike the Eastern Pacific northern fur seal stock which is formally listed as "depleted" under the MMPA.

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HAWAIIAN MONK SEAL (*Monachus schauinslandi*)

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Hawaiian monk seals are distributed throughout the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) in six main reproductive populations at French Frigate Shoals, Laysan Island, Lisianski Island, Pearl and Hermes Reef, Midway Atoll, and Kure Atoll. Small populations at Necker Island and Nihoa Island are maintained by immigration, and a few seals are distributed throughout the main Hawaiian Islands. Studies of Hawaiian monk seals have focused on their abundance and behavior on land during the reproductive season (spring and summer). Expanded research is underway, but currently the pelagic distribution and behavior of monk seals cannot be fully characterized.

In the last two centuries, the species has experienced two major declines which, presumably, have severely reduced its genetic variation. The tendency for genetic drift may have been (and continue to be) relatively large, due to the small size of different island/atoll populations. However, 10-15% of these seals migrate among the populations (Johnson and Kridler 1983; National Marine Fisheries Service [NMFS] unpubl. data) and, to some degree, this movement should counter the development of separate genetic stocks. Genetic variation among the different island populations is low (Kretzmann et al., 1997).

Demographically, the different island populations have exhibited considerable independence. For example, abundance at French Frigate Shoals grew rapidly during the 1950s to the 1980s, while other populations declined rapidly. However, variation in past population trends may be partially explained by changes in the level of human disturbance (Gerrodette and Gilmartin 1990). Current demographic variability among the island populations probably reflects a combination of different recent histories and varying environmental conditions. While research and recovery activities focus on the problems of single island/atoll populations, the species is managed as a single stock.

POPULATION SIZE

Abundance of the main reproductive populations is best estimated using the number of seals identified at each site. Individual seals are identified by applied flipper-tags and bleach-marks, and natural features such as scars and distinctive pelage patterns. Flipper-tagging of weaned pups began in the early 1980s, and the majority of the seals in the main reproductive populations can be identified on the basis of those tags. In 1998, identification efforts were conducted during two- to five-month studies at all main reproductive sites except Midway Atoll, where the study period was 12 months. A total of 1308 seals (including 246 pups) were observed at the main reproductive populations in 1998 (NMFS, unpubl. data). Removal analyses in previous years and sighting probability calculations suggest that 90% or more of the seals were identified at each site (i.e., any negative bias should be less than 10%).

Monk seals also occur at Necker and Nihoa Islands, where repeated counts in a single year were last conducted in 1993. Single counts in subsequent years do not indicate abundance at those sites has changed appreciably. The 1993 studies were not of sufficient duration to identify all individuals, so local abundance is best estimated by correcting mean beach counts and assuming that abundance at these sites has not changed. In 1993, mean (±SD) counts (excluding pups) were 22 (±5.2) at Necker Island and 18 (±7.3) at Nihoa Island (Ragen and Finn 1996). The observed relationship between mean counts and total abundance at the reproductive sites indicates that the total abundance can be estimated by multiplying the mean count by a correction factor (±SE) of 2.89 (±0.06, NMFS unpubl. data). Resulting estimates (plus the number of pups born in 1993) are 65 (±15.1) at Necker Island and 56 (±21.1) at Nihoa Island.

Finally, a small number of seals are distributed throughout the main Hawaiian Islands. These include an unknown number of seals, which naturally occur in the main Hawaiian Islands. In addition, twenty-one seals were released around these islands in 1994. All but two were subsequently resighted near their respective release sites, but their survival to 1998 is unknown, because there is no formal resighting effort in the main Hawaiian Islands. Sporadic reports indicate total abundance on the main Hawaiian Islands (including seals released in 1994) may be as high as 40 seals.

Minimum Population Estimate

The total number of seals identified at the main reproductive sites is the best estimate of minimum population size at those sites (i.e., 1308 seals). Minimum population sizes for Necker and Nihoa Islands (based on the formula provided by Wade and Angliss (1997)) are 54 and 41, respectively. If it is assumed that the abundance estimate for seals in the main Hawaiian Islands is, say, 40 ±10 seals (i.e., a coefficient of variation of 0.25), then an estimate of the minimum population size in the main Islands is 33 seals. The minimum population size for the entire stock (species) is the sum of these estimates, or 1436 seals.

Current Population Trend

Between 1958 and 1998, the total of mean non-pup beach counts at the main reproductive populations declined by 60%. From 1985 to 1998, the rate of decline was approximately 3% yr^{-1}, although there has been little change since 1993 (Fig. 1). Further decline is likely, due to extremely high juvenile mortality and an imminent drop in reproductive recruitment in the largest population (French Frigate Shoals).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

Assuming mean beach counts are a reliable index of total abundance, then the current net productivity rate for this species is -0.03 yr^{-1} (loglinear regression of beach counts of non-pups, 1985-98; R^2 = 0.82, P<0.001). This trend is largely due to a severe decline at French Frigate Shoals, where non-pup beach counts decreased by 60% between 1989 and 1998. Populations at Laysan and Lisianski Islands have not grown, but have remained relatively stable since approximately 1990.

Contrary to trends at the above sites, the population at Kure Atoll has grown at ca. 5% yr^{-1} since 1983 (loglinear regression of beach counts, 1983-98; R^2 = 0.79, P<0.001), due largely to decreased human disturbance and introduced females. The population at Pearl and Hermes Reef has grown at approximately 7% yr^{-1} since 1983 (loglinear regression of beach counts, 1983-1998; R^2 = 0.81, P<0.001). The latter annual growth rate is the best indicator of the maximum net productivity rate (R_{max}) for this species. Finally, the small population at Midway Atoll is showing signs of incipient recovery.

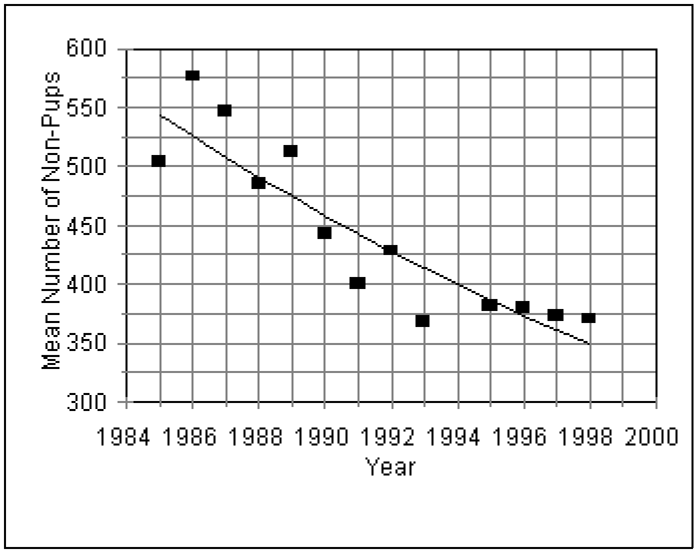

Figure 1. Mean beach counts of Hawaiian monk seals (non-pups) at the main reproductive rookeries (excluding Midway Atoll), 1985-98.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (1,436) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for this stock (½ of 7%) times a recovery factor of 0.1 (for an endangered species, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 5 monk seals per year. However, the Endangered Species Act takes precedence in the management of this species and, under the Act, allowable take is zero.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Human-related mortality has caused two major declines of the Hawaiian monk seal. In the 1800s, this species was decimated by sealers, crews of wrecked vessels, and guano and feather hunters (Dill and Bryan 1912; Wetmore 1925; Clapp and Woodward 1972). Several populations may have been driven extinct; for example, no seals were seen at Midway Atoll during a 14-month period in 1888-89, and only a single seal was seen during three months of observations at Laysan Island in 1912-13 (Bailey 1952). A survey in 1958 indicated at least partial recovery of the species in the first half of this century (Rice 1960). However, subsequent surveys revealed that all populations except French Frigate Shoals declined severely after the late 1950s (or earlier). This second decline has not been explained at Pearl and Hermes Reef, or Lisianski and Laysan Islands. At Kure Atoll, Midway Atoll, and French Frigate Shoals, trends appear to have been determined by the pattern of human disturbance from military or U.S. Coast Guard activities. Such disturbance caused pregnant females to abandon prime pupping habitat and nursing females to abandon their pups (Kenyon 1972; Gerrodette and Gilmartin 1990). The result was a decrease in pup survival, which led to poor reproductive recruitment, low productivity, and population decline.

Since 1979, disturbance from human activities on land has been limited primarily to Kure and Midway Atolls. The U.S. Coast Guard LORAN station at Kure Atoll was closed in 1992 and vacated in 1993. The U.S. Naval Air Facility at Midway was closed in 1993 and, following clean-up and restoration activities, jurisdiction was transferred in 1997 to the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, which manages the atoll as a National Wildlife Refuge. The refuge station and the atoll runway are maintained cooperatively with a commercial aircraft company, which supports its Midway operations, in part, by establishing a tourism center at the site. Strict regulations have been established to prevent further human disturbance of the seals, but careful monitoring of human activities will be essential to ensure that the regulations are both adequate and observed (see Habitat Issues below).

In addition to disturbance on land, disturbance at sea (e.g., direct and indirect fisheries interactions) may also impede recovery. As described below, however, the possible types of disturbance at sea cannot yet be characterized or quantified.

Fishery Information

Detrimental fishery interactions with monk seals fall into four categories: operations/gear conflict, entanglement in fisheries debris (most of which likely originate in North Pacific fisheries outside the NWHI), seal consumption of potentially toxic discards, and competition for prey. Since 1982, a total of nine fishery-related monk seal deaths have been recorded, including six from entanglement in fisheries debris (Henderson 1990; NMFS, unpubl. data), one from entanglement in the bridle rope of lobster trap (1986; NMFS, unpubl. data), one from entanglement in an illegally set gill net off the western shore of Oahu (1994; NMFS, unpubl. data), and one from ingestion of a recreational fish hook and probable drowning off the island of Kauai (1995; NMFS, unpubl. data). In addition, 17 other seals have been observed with embedded fish hooks, 23 seals have been observed with wounds suspected to have resulted from interactions with fisheries, and 172 cases of seals entangled in fishing gear or other debris have been observed through 1998 (NMFS, unpubl. data). Importantly, the majority of these deaths and injuries have been observed incidentally during land-based research or other activities; monk seal/fisheries interactions need to be monitored to assess the rate of fisheries-related injury or mortality for this species.

Four fisheries interact with Hawaiian monk seals. The NWHI lobster fishery began in the late 1970s, and developed rapidly in the early 1980s (Polovina, 1993). Annual landings peaked in 1985 (1.92 million lobsters) and 1986 (1.69 million lobsters; Haight and DiNardo 1995). Thereafter, the fishery declined and was closed temporarily in 1993 due to low spawning stock biomass of spiny lobster. Since 1994, landings remained lower than in the mid- to late 1980s, while catch of slipper lobster has increased in some areas. The number of vessels in the fishery increased from four in 1983 to 17 in 1985, then ranged from 0-12 during 1991-1998, with five vessels participating in 1998 (Dollar 1995; DiNardo et al. 1998; Kawamoto and Pooley, 2000). Historically, both effort and landings have been concentrated at Gardner Pinnacles, Maro Reef, Necker Island, and St. Rogatien Bank (Clarke and Todoki 1988; Polovina and Moffitt 1989). However, spatial management of the NWHI lobster fishery began in 1998 with the formation of four management areas: Necker Island, Maro Reef, Gardner Pinnacles, and all remaining banks from Nihoa Island in the east to Kure Atoll in the west (called Area 4). This approach was adopted in an effort to prevent local depletion of lobster stocks at Necker Island, Maro Reef, and Gardner Pinnacles and to disperse fishing effort, which in recent years has been limited to Necker Island and Maro Reef. As a result of the new management approach, 48,200 lobsters, comprising 21% of the total catch, were taken from Area 4, which had not been fished since the early 1990's (DiNardo et al.1998; Kawamoto and Pooley 2000). Summaries of catch by area, trends and available data on bycatch are published in annual reports, the most recent being Kawamoto and Pooley (2000). A significant portion of the Area 4 catch in 1998 was taken at locations where monk seal subpopulations occur. Neither incidental mortality nor serious injury have been observed by NMFS observers of the lobster fishery through 1998. As was noted, one mortality was documented in 1986; a monk seal drowned after becoming entangled in the bridle rope of an actively fishing lobster trap near Necker Island. The potential for indirect interaction due to competition for prey is being investigated (see Habitat Issues below).

A noteworthy event associated with the lobster fishery was the 16 October 1998 grounding of a transiting lobster vessel (Paradise Queen II) on the fringing reef at Kure Atoll, near Green Island. As a result of the shipwreck, approximately 4,000 gallons of diesel fuel spilled but no significant direct impact from the fuel was detected on monk seals or other wildlife in the vicinity. The hull of the vessel has since broken up, and pieces remain scattered on the reef and on shore. Trap line and several hundred lobster traps equipped with rope bridles were lost. Some of these have been recovered and removed after washing ashore. Salvage of the Paradise Queen II and her gear were halted due to inclement weather and insufficient funding. This vessel grounding represents a direct threat to monk seals via potential entanglement in derelict line and lobster traps, and entrapment in pieces of the ship's hull. Most of the traps and line which washed ashore have since been removed from the atoll as part of an ongoing marine debris mitigation effort. Indirect impacts on monks seals via habitat degradation is another threat, as the vessel damaged the coral reef and lost lobster traps were observed to be ghost fishing for reef organisms that monk seals may prey upon.

The NWHI bottomfish fishery also interacts with monk seals. This fishery occurred at low levels (< 50 t per year) until 1977, steadily increased to 460 metric tons in 1987, then dropped to 284 metric tons in 1988, and varied from 137 - 201 metric tons per year from 1989-1998 (Kawamoto 1995; Kawamoto pers. comm.). The number of vessels rose from 19 in 1984 to 28 in 1987, and then varied from 10 to 17 in 1988 through 1998 (Kawamoto 1995; Kawamoto, pers. comm.). The fishery was monitored by observers from October 1990 to December 1993 (ca. 13% coverage), but is currently monitored by the State of Hawaii using logbooks. However, the State logbook does not include information on protected species and, therefore, the nature and extent of interactions with monk seals cannot be assessed. Nitta and Henderson (1993) evaluated observer data from 1991-92 and reported an interaction rate of one event per 34.4 hours of fishing, but they do not provide a confidence interval for their estimate. The authors documented one seal found with a bottom fish hook in her mouth at French Frigate Shoals, observer reports of seals taking bottomfish and bait off fishing lines, and observer reports of seals attracted to discarded bottom fish bycatch, which may contain ciguatoxin or other biotoxins. Injury or mortality resulting from hooking or consumption of toxic discards cannot be determined with the available data. The ecological effects of this fishery on monk seals (e.g., competition for prey or alteration of prey assemblages by removal of key predator fishes) are unknown. However, published studies on monk seal prey selection based upon scat/spew analysis and seal-mounted video, rarely revealed evidence that monk seals fed on families of bottomfish which contain commercial species (many hard parts of scats and spews were identified only to the level of family; Goodman-Lowe 1998, Parrish et al. 2000). Fatty acid signature analysis is inconclusive regarding the importance of commercial bottomfish in the monk seal diet, but this methodology continues to be pursued.

Table 1. Summary of incidental mortality of Hawaiian monk seals due to commercial and recreational fisheries since 1990 and calculation of annual mortality rate. n/a indicates that sufficient data are not available.

Fishery Name	Years	Range of # of vessels per year	Date type	Range of observer coverage	Total observed mort.	Estimated mort. (in given years)	Mean annual mort.
NWHI lobster	91-98	0-12	Observer Log book	0-100%	0	n/a	n/a
NWHI Bottomfish	91-98	12-17	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Pelagic longline	91-98	103-141	Observer Log book	4-5%	0	n/a	n/a
Recreational	91-95	n/a	n/a	n/a	2[†]	n/a	n/a

[†] Data collected incidentally.

A third fishery in which past interactions with monk seals were documented is the pelagic longline fishery. This fishery targets swordfish and tunas, primarily, and does not compete with Hawaiian monk seals for prey. The fishery began in the 1940s, and operated at a relatively low level (< 5000 t per year) until the mid-1980s. In 1987, 37 vessels participated, but by 1991, the number had grown to 141 (Ito, 1995). The number of active vessels ranged from 103-141 during 1991-98. Entry is currently limited to a maximum of 164 vessels (Ito and Machado, 1999). Total landings ranged from 8,100-13,000 metric tons during 1991-1998. While most of the fishery has operated outside of the NWHI Exclusive Economic Zone, the rapid expansion raised concerns about the potential for interactions with protected species, including the monk seal. Evidence of interactions began to accumulate in 1990, including three hooked seals and 13 unusual seal wounds thought to have resulted from interactions. In response, NMFS established a permanent Protected Species Zone extending 50 nautical miles around the NWHI and the corridors between the islands in October 1991. Subsequent shore-based observations of seals suggest that interactions decreased substantially after establishment of the Protected Species Zone. At present, interactions with protected species are assessed using Federal logbooks and observers (4-5% coverage), which may lack sufficient statistical power to estimate monk seal mortality/serious injury rates from longline interactions. However, since 1991, there have been no observed or reported interactions of this fishery with monk seals.

There have also been interactions between recreational fisheries and monk seals in both the NWHI and around the main Hawaiian Islands. At least three seals have been hooked at Kure Atoll, but such incidents should no longer occur at this site because the atoll was vacated by the U.S. Coast Guard in 1993. In the main Hawaiian Islands, one seal was found dead in an offshore (non-recreational) gillnet in 1994 and a second seal was found dead with a recreational hook lodged in its esophagus. At least seven other seals have been hooked. Three of these incidents involved hooks used to catch ulua (Caranx spp.). One hooked seal had been translocated from Laysan Island to the main Hawaiian Islands in July 1994. The recent establishment of sport fishing at Midway clearly increases the potential for monk seals to be harmed by hooks at that site.

Recent interest in the harvest of precious coral in the NWHI represents a potential for future interactions with monk seals. The impact that removal of precious corals might have on monk seal prey resources and foraging habitat is not known. However, recent studies of seals with satellite transmitters and surveys using manned submersibles indicate that some monk seals forage at patches of precious gold corals occurring over 500m in depth (Parrish, pers. comm.). Recruitment of gold coral is very slow (perhaps on the order of 100 years), so there is concern that harvesting could have a long term impact on monk seal foraging habitat. As a result, the Western Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Council has recommended regulations to suspend or set to zero annual quotas for gold coral harvest at specific locations until information on impacts of such harvests on monk seal foraging habitat become available.

Fishery Mortality Rate

Because monk seals continue to die as a result of entanglement in North Pacific fishing debris and data are unavailable to assess interaction with specific fisheries, one must conclude that the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is greater than 1) zero allowable take under the Endangered Species Act and 2) 10% of the calculated PBR. Therefore, total fishery mortality and serious injury can not be considered to be insignificant and approaching a rate of zero.

Direct fishery interactions with this species remain to be thoroughly evaluated and, therefore, the information above represents only the observed level of interactions. Without further study, an accurate estimate cannot be determined. In addition, interactions may be indirect (i.e., involving competition for prey or consumption of discards from the bottomfish fishery) and, to date, the extent or consequences of such indirect interactions remain the topic of ongoing investigation.

Other Mortality

Since 1982, 22 seals died during rehabilitation efforts, two died in captivity, two died when captured for translocation, one was euthanized (an aggressive male known to cause mortality), three died during captive research and three died during field research.

Seals have also died after encounters with marine debris from sources other than fisheries. In 1986, a weaned pup died at East Island, French Frigate Shoals, after becoming entangled in wire left when the U.S. Coast Guard abandoned the island three decades earlier. In 1991, a seal died after becoming trapped behind an eroding seawall on Tern Island, French Frigate Shoals. This seawall continues to erode and poses an ongoing threat to the safety of seals and other wildlife.

The only documented case of illegal killing of an Hawaiian monk seal occurred when a resident of Kauai killed an adult female in 1989.

Other sources of mortality which are (or may be) impeding the recovery of this population include mobbing, sharks, poisoning by ciguatoxin or other biotoxins, and disease/parasitism. Mobbing occurs when multiple males attempt to mount and mate with an adult female or immature animal of either sex, often leading to the injury or death of the attacked seal. Since 1982, at least 66 seals have died or disappeared after being mobbed. The resulting increase in female mortality appears to have been a major impediment to recovery at Laysan and Lisianski Islands. Mobbing has also been documented at French Frigate Shoals, Kure Atoll, and Necker Island. The primary cause of mobbing is thought to be an imbalance in the adult sex ratio, with males outnumbering females. In 1994, 22 adult males were removed from Laysan Island, and only two seals are thought to have died from mobbing at this site since their removal (1995-98). Such imbalances in the adult sex ratio are more likely to occur when populations are reduced (Starfield et al. 1995).

In addition to mobbing, aggressive attacks by single adult males have resulted in several monk seal mortalities. This was most notable at French Frigate Shoals in 1997, where at least 8 pups died as a result of adult male aggression. Many more pups were likely killed in the same way but the cause of their deaths could not be confirmed. Two males who had been known to kill pups in 1997 were observed exhibiting aggressive behavior toward pups at the beginning of the 1998 pupping season. These two males were translocated to Johnston Atoll, 870 km to the southwest. Subsequently, mounting injury to pups decreased and survival to weaning in 1998 was markedly higher than in 1997.

The incidence of shark-related injury and mortality may have increased in the late 1980s and early 1990s at French Frigate Shoals, but such mortality was probably not the primary cause of the decline at this site (Ragen 1993). However, indications are that shark predation has accounted for a significant portion of pup mortality in the last few years. The potential causes of high pup mortality, including shark predation, disease, male aggression and food limitation are currently being investigated at French Frigate Shoals. Poisoning by ciguatoxin or related toxins is suspected as the primary cause of the Laysan die-off in 1978, and may have contributed to the high mortality of juvenile seals translocated to Midway Atoll in 1992 and 1993. While virtually all wild monk seals carry parasites after they begin to forage, the role of parasitism in monk seal mortality is unknown. The effect of disease on monk seal demographic trends is also uncertain.

STATUS OF STOCK

In 1976, the Hawaiian monk seal was designated depleted under the Marine Mammal Protection Act of 1972 and as endangered under the Endangered Species Act of 1973. The species is assumed to be well below its optimum sustainable population (OSP) and, since 1985, has declined approximately 3% per year. Therefore, the Hawaiian monk seal is characterized as a strategic stock.

Habitat Issues

Available data indicate that the substantial decline at French Frigate Shoals was to some degree attributable to lack of available prey and subsequent emaciation and starvation. The two leading hypotheses to explain the lack of prey are 1) the local population reached its carrying capacity in the 1970s and 1980s, and essentially diminished its own food supply, and 2) carrying capacity was simultaneously reduced by changes in oceanographic conditions and a resulting decrease in productivity (Polovina et al. 1994; Craig and Ragen 2000;). Thus, this population may have significantly exceeded its carrying capacity, leading to a catastrophic increase in juvenile mortality. In addition, available prey also may have been reduced by competition with the NWHI lobster fishery. Monk seals forage at the four main banks where the fishery has primarily operated: Maro Reef, Gardiner Pinnacles, St. Rogatien Bank, and Necker Island. In 1998, the fishery expanded into areas where monk seal breeding populations are concentrated within the fishery's Area 4. Thus, competition for prey is under investigation. This potential for competition cannot yet be determined, however, because it is not known if lobster is an important component of the monk seal diet. Preliminary research indicates that lobster have identifiable fatty acid signatures, which will potentially make possible an assessment of its importance in the monk seal diet. This promising area of research is being actively pursued.

A second important habitat issue is the management of human activities at Midway Atoll. Historically, human activities have led to the near extinction of the resident monk seal population at Midway both in the late 1800s, and again in the 1960s. The seal population failed to recover in the 1970s and 1980s, but is finally beginning to show some signs of growth due to immigration from nearby sites. Management jurisdiction of Midway Atoll has been transferred from the U.S. Navy to the Fish and Wildlife Service. The Fish and Wildlife Service maintains a refuge station at Midway Atoll by cooperating with a commercial aircraft company that uses the runway on Sand Island (the largest island at Midway Atoll), and support its operations, in part, by establishing an on-site eco-tourism destination. Tourist activities include a range of land-based and marine recreational activities (e.g., scuba diving and sport fishing), as well as harbor services to visiting vessels. As the tourism venture develops, so does a potential conflict of interest. The economic success of the venture may depend on the nature and variety of human activities or privileges allowed at the site. Importantly, those activities that are intended to enhance the Midway experience may be disruptive or detrimental to the refuge and its wildlife. The issue is whether such potential conflicts can be identified and resolved in a manner that allows for continuation of the ecotourism venture but does not impede monk seal recovery. The Fish and Wildlife Service and NMFS are working cooperatively to ensure that human activities do not impede recovery at this site.

Another important habitat issue is the degrading seawall at Tern Island, French Frigate Shoals. Tern Island is the site of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife refuge station, and is one of two sites in the NWHI accessible by aircraft. The island and the runway have played a key role in efforts to study the local monk seal population, and to mitigate its severe and ongoing decline. During World War II, the U.S. Navy enlarged the island to accommodate the runway. A sheet-pile seawall was constructed to maintain the modified shape of the island. Degradation of the seawall is creating entrapment hazards for seals and other wildlife, and is threatening to erode the runway. Erosion of the sea wall has also raised concerns about the potential release of toxic wastes into the aquatic environment. The loss of the runway could lead to the closure of the Fish and Wildlife Service station at the site and would thereby reduce on-site management of the refuge. The loss of the runway and refuge station would also hinder research and management efforts to recover the monk seal population.

A fourth important habitat issue involves entanglement in marine debris. Marine debris is removed from the beaches and entangled seals during annual population assessment activities at the main reproductive sites. Efforts to remove potentially entangling marine debris from the reefs surrounding haulout sites utilized by monk seal are ongoing. In 1996, efforts commenced to assess and remove potentially entangling marine debris from reefs surrounding haulout sites utilized by monk seals. Preliminary surveys suggest a very large number of nets are fouled on nearshore reefs in the NWHI, and may pose a serious threat to seals in these areas. During 1996-1998 debris survey and removal efforts, 11,000 kg of derelict net and other debris were removed from coral reefs at French Frigate Shoals and Pearl and Hermes Reef (Boland, pers. comm.).

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HARBOR PORPOISE (*Phocoena phocoena*): Central California Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

In the Pacific, harbor porpoise are found in coastal and inland waters from Point Conception, California to Alaska and across to Kamchatka and Japan (Gaskin 1984). Harbor porpoise appear to have more restricted movements along the western coast of the continental U.S. than along the eastern coast. Regional differences in pollutant residues in harbor porpoise indicate that they do not move extensively between California, Oregon, and Washington (Calambokidis and Barlow 1991). That study also showed some regional differences within California (although the sample size was small). This pattern stands as a sharp contrast to the eastern coast of the U.S. and Canada where harbor porpoise are believed to migrate seasonally from as far south as the Carolinas to the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy (Polacheck et al. 1995). A phylogeographic analysis of genetic data from northeast Pacific harbor porpoise did not show complete concordance between DNA sequence types and geographic location (Rosel 1992). However, an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) of the same data with additional samples found significant genetic differences for four of the six pair-wise comparisons between the four areas investigated: California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (Rosel et al. 1995). These results demonstrate that harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America are not panmictic or migratory, and movement is sufficiently restricted that genetic differences have evolved. Recent preliminary genetic analyses of samples ranging from Monterey Bay, California to Vancouver Island, British Columbia indicate that there are at least nine genetically distinct populations, including two within the present central California stock range (S. Chivers, pers. comm.).

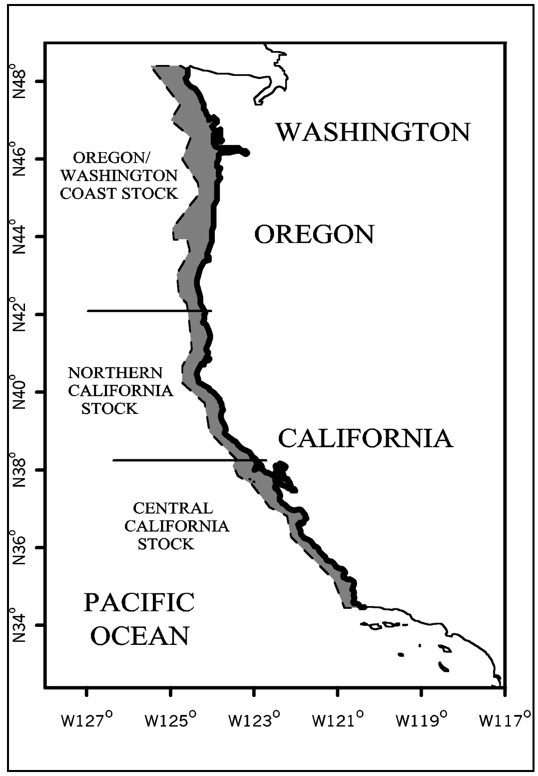

Figure 1. Stock boundaries and distributional range of harbor porpoise along the U.S. west coast. Shaded area represents harbor porpoise habitat (0-200 m) along the U.S. west coast.

In their assessment of harbor porpoise, Barlow and Hanan (1995) recommended that the animals inhabiting central California (defined to be from Point Conception to the Russian River) be treated as a separate stock. Their justifications for this were: 1) fishery mortality of harbor porpoise is limited to central California, 2) movement of individual animals appears to be restricted within California, and consequently 3) fishery mortality could cause the local depletion of harbor porpoise if central California is not managed separately. Although geographic structure exists along an almost continuous distribution of harbor porpoise from California to Alaska, stock boundaries are difficult to draw because any rigid line is (to a greater or lesser extent) arbitrary from a biological perspective. Nonetheless, failure to recognize geographic structure by defining management stocks can lead to depletion of local populations. Following the guidance of Barlow and Hanan (1995), we will consider the harbor porpoise in central California as a separate stock. However, based on recent genetic findings (Chivers, pers. comm.), it appears likely that the central California stock will be further subdivided into two stocks (with a division somewhere between Monterey Bay and San Francisco) once the ongoing analyses have been finalized and peer-reviewed. Other U.S. West coast stocks are also likely to be re-evaluated at that time. For the 2000 Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) Stock Assessment Reports, other Pacific coast harbor porpoise stocks include: 1) a northern California stock 2) an Oregon/Washington coast stock, 3) an Inland Washington stock, 4) a Southeast Alaska stock, 5) a Gulf of Alaska stock, and 6) a Bering Sea stock. Stock assessment reports for northern California and the Oregon and Washington stocks appear in this volume.

The three Alaska harbor porpoise stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

Forney (1999a) estimates the abundance of central California harbor porpoise to be 5,732 (CV=0.39) based on aerial surveys in 1993-97. This estimate is not significantly different from the estimate of 4,120 (CV=0.22) presented by Barlow and Forney (1994). The more recent estimate is less precise, because it was calculated using a more recently developed correction factor for submerged animals (3.42 = 1/g(0) with g(0)=0.292, CV=0.366; Laake et al. 1997); this correction factor is slightly higher than and has a larger estimated variance than the one used by Barlow and Forney (1994; g(0)=0.324, CV=0.173). Both of these estimates only include the region between the coast and the 50-fathom (91m) isobath. Barlow (1988) found that the vast majority of harbor porpoise in California were within this depth range; however, Green et al.(1992) found that 24% of harbor porpoise seen during aerial surveys of Oregon and Washington were between the 100m and 200m isobaths (55 to 109 fathoms). A recent analysis of harbor porpoise trends including oceanographic data suggests that the proportion of California harbor porpoise in deeper waters may vary between years (Forney 1999b; see Current Population Trend below). Therefore, an unknown number of animals from the central California population may have been in waters deeper than those covered by the surveys in 1993-97, and the above abundance estimate may underestimate the total population size by an unknown amount. Additional aerial surveys are planned in 1999 to cover waters deeper than 50 fathoms (91 m), and the results are expected to shed light on the magnitude of this potential bias.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for harbor porpoise in central California is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of the abundance estimated from the 1993-97 aerial surveys (Forney 1999a) or 4,172.

Current Population Trend

Analyses of a 1986-95 time series of aerial surveys have been conducted to examine trends in harbor porpoise abundance in central California (Forney, 1995; 1999b). After controlling for the effects of sea state, cloud cover, and area on sighting rates, Forney (1995) found a negative trend in population size; however, that trend was no longer significant when sea surface temperature (a proxy measure of oceanographic conditions) was included in an updated non-linear trend analysis (Forney 1999b). The negative correlation between harbor porpoise sighting rates and sea surface temperatures indicates that apparent trends could be caused by changing oceanographic conditions and movement of animals into and out of the study area. Encounter rates for the 1997 survey, however, were very high (Forney 1999a) despite the warmer sea surface temperatures caused by strong El Niño conditions. These observations suggest that patterns of harbor porpoise movement are not directly related to sea surface temperature, but rather to the more complex distribution of potential prey species in this area.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

Based on what are argued to be biological limits of the species (i.e. females give birth first at age 4 and produce one calf per year until death), the theoretical, maximum-conceivable growth rate of a closed harbor porpoise population was estimated as 9.4% per year (Barlow and Boveng 1991). This maximum theoretical rate may not be achievable for any real population. [Woodley and Read (1991) calculate a maximum growth rate of approximately 5% per year, but their argument for this being a maximum (i.e. that porpoise survival rates cannot exceed those of Himalayan thar) is not well justified.] Population growth rates have not actually been measured for any harbor porpoise population. Because a reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is not available for central California harbor porpoise, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% (Wade and Angliss 1997) be employed.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (4,172) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status and a mortality rate $CV \leq 0.30$; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 42.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Fishery Information

The incidental capture of harbor porpoise is largely limited to the halibut set gillnet fishery in central California (coastal setnets are not allowed in northern California, and harbor porpoise do not occur in southern California). Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. A summary of estimated fishery mortality and injury for this stock of harbor porpoise is given in Table 1. The mortality estimate for 1994 is based on actual 1994 observer data (Julian and Beeson 1998). At the end of 1994, however, the observer program was discontinued, and mortality estimates for 1995-98 are therefore based on total estimated fishing effort and prior-year entanglement rate data. Forney et al. (in press) evaluated uncertainties in estimating mortality for unobserved years, and presented several alternate analyses of harbor porpoise mortality for this fishery. Their analysis 'C', which includes data from both a 1987-90 California Department of Fish and Game observer program and a 1990-94 National Marine Fisheries Service observer program, best captures the range of variability in entanglement rates and is most consistent with the patterns observed more recently in the 1999 observer program (for which only preliminary results are available at this time; Table 1). Analysis 'C' is also stratified to reflect regional differences in bycatch rates between Monterey Bay and Morro Bay. Table 1 includes the 1995-98 mortality estimates from analysis 'C' in Forney et al. (in press), as was recommended by the Pacific Scientific Review Group at their December 1999 meeting. Although mortality estimates for the most recent five years (1994-98) are presented in Table 1, average annual takes in the setnet fishery are calculated using only 1996-98 data, because fishing effort approximately doubled after 1995, and the majority of recent effort has taken place in the southern areas of Monterey Bay, where very little effort took place prior to 1996.

Table 1. Summary of available information on incidental mortality and injury of harbor porpoise (central CA stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian and Beeson 1998; Forney et al., in press; NMFS/SWFSC, unpublished data). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise. n/a indicates that data are not available.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA angel shark / halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery	1994	observer data	7.7%	1	14 (0.96)	
	1995	1987-90	0%	-	42 (0.19)	
	1996	and	0%	-	48 (0.19)	
	1997	1990-94	0%	-	80 (0.19)	62 (0.19) [1]
	1998	observer data	0%	-	57 (0.19)	
	1999	Prelim. 1999 observer data	22.0%	27	approx. 123 (n/a) for Jan-September	
Unknown fishery	1994-98	Strandings	-	3 (in 1998)	n/a	≥0.60 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						63 (0.19)

Only 1996-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of changes in the distribution and amount of fishing effort after 1995 (see text).

The revised mortality data indicate that an average of 63 harbor porpoise (CV= 0.19) have been killed each year in central California during the period 1996-98. An observer program was initiated in the Monterey Bay area in April 1999, and the preliminary mortality estimate for January-September 1999 is 123 harbor porpoise (27 mortalities observed in 22% of total effort; NMFS, unpublished data). Thus, it appears that entanglement rates have increased substantially since the early 1990's.

Two harbor porpoise mortalities were inaccurately reported in Marine Mammal Authorization Permit (MMAP) fisher self-reports for the California drift gillnet fishery during 1996-98. Both of the mortalities occurred on an observed fishing trip and were actually short-beaked common dolphins (NMFS, Southwest Fisheries Science Center, unpublished data). This fishery has not previously been known to take harbor porpoise.

Three fishery-related harbor porpoise strandings were reported in central California in 1998, north of the known set gillnet fishing areas: two near Bodega Head and one inside San Francisco Bay (NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data). These mortalities were probably taken from the central California harbor porpoise stock, although it is possible that the northern two animals were taken from the northern California stock and drifted southward to the stranding location. Efforts are underway to identify possible fisheries responsible for these mortalities. Based on experience with other fisheries (e.g. the set gillnet fishery), the proportion of incidentally killed animals that strand is generally only a fraction of the total mortality, and therefore these unidentified fisheries are likely to have taken more than the three observed harbor porpoise.

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor porpoise in California are not listed as threatened or endangered under the Endangered Species Act nor as depleted under the Marine Mammal Protection Act. Barlow and Hanan (1995) calculate the status of harbor porpoise relative to historic carrying capacity (K) using a technique called back-projection. They calculate that the central California population could have been reduced to between 30% and 97% of K by incidental fishing mortality, depending on the choice of input parameters. They conclude that there is no practical way to reduce the range of this estimate. New information does not change this conclusion, and the status of harbor porpoise relative to their Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) levels in central California must be treated as unknown. The average annual mortality for 1996-98 (63 harbor porpoise) is greater than the calculated PBR (42) for central California harbor porpoise; therefore, the central California harbor porpoise population is "strategic" under the MMPA. Based on the success of pingers for reducing harbor porpoise mortality in east coast fisheries (Kraus et al. 1997; Trippel et al. 1999), efforts are presently underway to encourage voluntary use of pingers in the central California halibut set gillnet fishery. The observer program is scheduled to continue and will provide information on the success of any voluntary measures. *On September 13, 2000, the California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG) restricted fishing in the central California halibut set gillnet fishery to waters deeper than 60 fathoms, citing concerns over the continued mortality of common murres and decline of the southern sea otter population. The closure area extends from Point Reyes to Yankee Point in Monterey County and from Point Arguello to Point Sal in Santa Barbara County. The area from Yankee Point to Point Sal will remain open to halibut fishing outside of 30 fathoms. This closure is effective for 120 days and may be extended or reissued by the CDFG. The exclusion of this fishery from inshore waters less than 60 fathoms is expected to considerably reduce the mortality of harbor porpoise in Monterey Bay.* Research activities will continue to monitor the population size and to investigate population trends. The average gillnet mortality for 1996-98 (63 porpoise per year) is greater than the calculated PBR; therefore, the fishery mortality cannot be considered insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. There are no known habitat issues that are of particular concern for this stock.

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HARBOR PORPOISE (*Phocoena phocoena*): Northern California Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

In the Pacific, harbor porpoise are found in coastal and inland waters from Point Conception, California to Alaska and across to Kamchatka and Japan (Gaskin 1984). Harbor porpoise appear to have more restricted movements along the western coast of the continental U.S. than along the eastern coast. Regional differences in pollutant residues in harbor porpoise indicate that they do not move extensively between California, Oregon, and Washington (Calambokidis and Barlow 1991). That study also showed some regional differences within California (although the sample size was small). This pattern stands as a sharp contrast to the eastern coast of the U.S. and Canada where harbor porpoise are believed to migrate seasonally from as far south as the Carolinas to the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy (Polacheck et al. 1995). A phylogeographic analysis of genetic data from northeast Pacific harbor porpoise did not show complete concordance between DNA sequence types and geographic location (Rosel 1992). However, an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) of the same data with additional samples found significant genetic differences for four of the six pair-wise comparisons between the four areas investigated: California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (Rosel et al. 1995). These results demonstrate that harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America are not panmictic or migratory, and movement is sufficiently restricted that genetic differences have evolved. Recent preliminary genetic analyses of samples ranging from Monterey Bay, California to Vancouver Island, British Columbia indicate that there are at least nine genetically distinct populations (S. Chivers, pers. comm.).

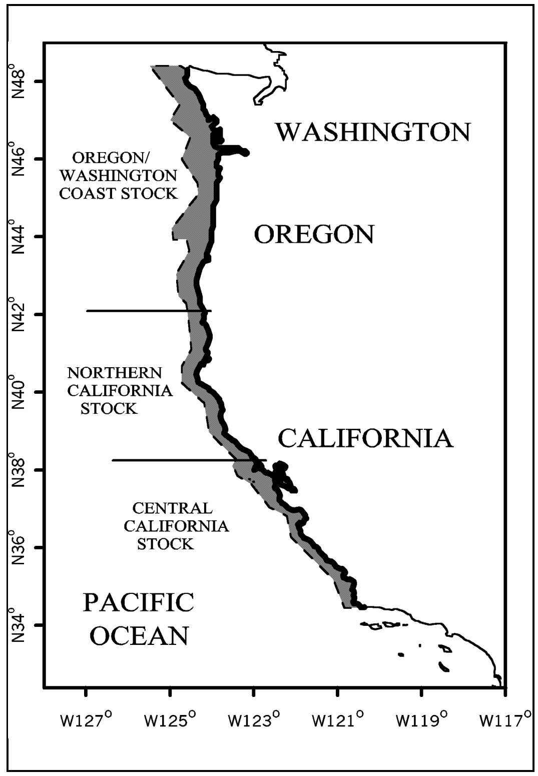

Figure 1. Stock boundaries and distributional range of harbor porpoise along the U.S. west coast. Shaded area represents harbor porpoise habitat (0 - 200 m) along the U.S. west coast.

In their assessment of harbor porpoise, Barlow and Hanan (1995) recommended that the animals inhabiting central California (defined to be from Point Conception to the Russian River) be treated as a separate stock. Their justifications for this were: 1) fishery mortality of harbor porpoise is limited to central California, 2) movement of individual animals appears to be restricted within California, and consequently 3) fishery mortality could cause the local depletion of harbor porpoise if central California is not managed separately. Although geographic structure exists along an almost continuous distribution of harbor porpoise from California to Alaska, stock boundaries are difficult to draw because any rigid line is (to a greater or lesser extent) arbitrary from a biological perspective. Nonetheless, failure to recognize geographic structure by defining management stocks can lead to depletion of local populations. Following the guidance of Barlow and Hanan (1995), we will consider the harbor porpoise in northern California as a separate stock. Based on recent genetic findings (Chivers, pers. comm.), U.S. West coast stocks are likely to be re-evaluated once ongoing analyses have been finalized and peer-reviewed. For the 2000 Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) Stock Assessment Reports, other Pacific coast harbor porpoise stocks include: 1) a central California stock, 2) an Oregon/Washington coast stock, 3) an Inland Washington stock, 4) a Southeast Alaska stock, 5) a Gulf of Alaska stock, and 6) a Bering Sea stock. Stock assessment reports for central California and the Oregon and Washington stocks appear in this volume. The three Alaska harbor porpoise stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

Forney (1999a) estimates the abundance of northern California harbor porpoise to be 11,066 (CV=0.39) based on aerial surveys in 1993-97. This estimate is not significantly different from the estimate of 9,250 (CV=0.23) presented by Barlow and Forney (1994) based on a series of aerial surveys from 1989 to 1993. The more recent estimate is less precise, because it was calculated using a more recently developed correction factor for submerged animals (3.42 = 1/g(0) with g(0)=0.292, CV=0.366; Laake et al. 1997); this correction factor is slightly higher than and has a larger estimated variance than the one used by Barlow and Forney (1994; g(0)=0.324, CV=0.173). Both estimates only include the region between the coast and the 50-fathom (91m) isobath. Barlow (1988) found that the vast majority of harbor porpoise in California were within this depth range; however, Green et al. (1992) found that 24% of harbor porpoise seen during aerial surveys of Oregon and Washington were between the 100m and 200m isobaths (55 to 109 fathoms). A recent analysis of harbor porpoise trends including oceanographic data suggests that the proportion of California harbor porpoise in deeper waters may vary between years (Forney 1999b; see Current Population Trend below). Therefore, an unknown number of animals from the northern California population may have been in waters deeper than those covered by the surveys in 1993-97, and the above abundance estimate may underestimate the total population size by an unknown amount. Additional aerial surveys are planned for waters deeper than 50 fathoms (91 m) during 1999, and the results may shed light on the magnitude of this potential bias.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for harbor porpoise in northern California is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of the abundance estimated from the 1993-97 aerial surveys (Forney 1999a) or 8,061.

Current Population Trend

Forney (1999b) examines trends in relative harbor porpoise abundance in central and northern California based on aerial surveys from 1989-95. No significant trends were evident over this time period for the Northern California Stock.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

Based on what are argued to be biological limits of the species (i.e. females give birth first at age 4 and produce one calf per year until death), the theoretical, maximum-conceivable growth rate of a closed harbor porpoise population was estimated as 9.4% per year (Barlow and Boveng 1991). This maximum theoretical rate may not be achievable for any real population. [Woodley and Read (1991) calculate a maximum growth rate of approximately 5% per year, but their argument for this being a maximum (i.e. that porpoise survival rates cannot exceed those of Himalayan thar) is not well justified.] Population growth rates have not actually been measured for any harbor porpoise population. Because a reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is not available for northern California harbor porpoise, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% (Wade and Angliss 1997) be employed.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (8,061) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 1.0 (for a species within its Optimal Sustainable Population; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 161.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Fishery Information

The incidental capture of harbor porpoise in California is largely limited to set gillnet fisheries in central California. Coastal setnets are not allowed in northern California (to protect salmon resources there). However, one harbor porpoise mortality was documented from stranding reports for the Klamath River tribal salmon

gillnet fishery
in 1995 (NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data). Additionally, in 1998, two harbor porpoise strandings near Bodega Head were attributed to fishery-related mortality, but the responsible fishery is unknown. Although the stranding location falls within the range of the central California harbor porpoise stock and this is probably the source stock for the mortalities, it is possible that these animals were taken from the northern California stock and subsequently drifted southward to the stranding location. Efforts are underway to identify fisheries that may have been responsible.

Table 1. Summary of available information on incidental mortality and injury of harbor porpoise (northern CA stock) in fisheries that might take this species. n/a indicates that data are not available.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA Klamath River tribal salmon gillnet fishery	1994-98	Stranding reports	n/a	1 (1998)	≥1	≥0.2 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						≥0.2 (n/a)

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor porpoise in California are not listed as threatened or endangered under the Endangered Species Act nor as depleted under the Marine Mammal Protection Act. There are no known habitat issues that are of particular concern for this stock. Because of the lack of recent or historical sources of human-caused mortality, the harbor porpoise stock in northern California has been concluded to be within their Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level (Barlow and Forney 1994). Because the known human-caused mortality or serious injury (0.2 harbor porpoise per year) is less than the PBR (161), this stock is not considered a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. Because average annual fishery mortality is less than 10% of the PBR, the fishery mortality can be considered insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

HARBOR PORPOISE (*Phocoena phocoena*): Oregon/Washington Coast Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

In the eastern North Pacific Ocean, the harbor porpoise ranges from Point Barrow, along the Alaskan coast, and down the west coast of North America to Point Conception, California (Gaskin 1984). Harbor porpoise primarily frequent coastal waters. Harbor porpoise are known to occur year-round in the inland trans-boundary area of Washington and British Columbia, Canada (Osborne et al. 1988), and along the Oregon/Washington coast (Barlow 1988, Barlow et al. 1988, Green et al. 1992). Aerial survey data from coastal Oregon and Washington, collected during all seasons, suggests that harbor porpoise distribution varies by depth (Green et al. 1992). Although distinct seasonal changes in abundance along the west coast have been noted, and attributed to possible shifts in distribution to deeper offshore waters during late winter (Dohl et al. 1983, Barlow 1988), harbor porpoise have also been conspicuously absent in offshore areas in late November (B. Taylor, pers. comm.) leaving a gap in the current understanding of their movements.

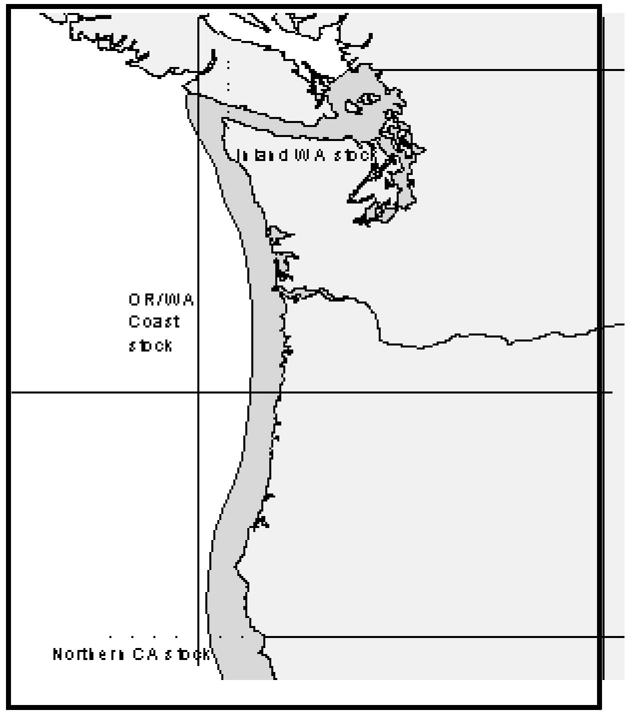

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of harbor porpoise in the U.S. Pacific Northwest (shaded area). Stock boundaries separating the stocks are shown.

Stock discreteness in the eastern North Pacific was analyzed using mitochondrial DNA from samples collected along the west coast (Rosel 1992) and is summarized in Osmek et al. (1994). Two distinct mtDNA groupings or clades exist. One clade is present in California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (no samples were available from Oregon), while the other is found only in California and Washington. Although these two clades are not geographically distinct by latitude, the results may indicate a low mixing rate for harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America. Investigation of pollutant loads in harbor porpoise ranging from California to the Canadian border also suggests restricted harbor porpoise movements (Calambokidis and Barlow 1991). Further genetic testing of the same data mentioned above, along with additional samples, found significant genetic differences for four of the six pair-wise comparisons between the four areas investigated: California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (Rosel et al. 1995). These results demonstrate that harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America are not panmictic or migratory, and that movement is sufficiently restricted to evolve genetic differences. This is consistent with low movement suggested by genetic analysis of harbor porpoise specimens from the North Atlantic, where numerous stocks have been delineated with clinal differences over areas as small as the waters surrounding the British Isles.

Using the 1990-91 aerial survey data of Calambokidis et al. (1993) for water depths < 50 fathoms, Osmek et al. (1996) found significant differences in harbor porpoise mean densities ($z=5.9$, $p<0.01$) between the waters of coastal Oregon/Washington and inland Washington/southern British Columbia, Canada (i.e., Strait of Juan de Fuca/San Juan Islands). Although differences in density exist between coastal Oregon/Washington and inland Washington, a specific stock boundary line cannot be identified based upon biological or genetic differences. However, because harbor porpoise movements and rates of intermixing within the northeast Pacific are restricted, there has been a significant decline in harbor porpoise sightings within southern Puget Sound since the 1940s and, following a risk averse management strategy, two stocks are recognized to occur in Oregon and Washington waters (the Oregon/Washington Coast stock and the Inland Washington stock), with the boundary at Cape Flattery. Recent genetic evidence suggests that the population of eastern North Pacific harbor porpoise is more finely structured than is currently recognized (S. Chivers, pers. comm.). All relevant data (e.g., genetic samples, contaminant studies, and satellite tagging) will be reviewed to determine whether to adjust the stock boundaries for harbor porpoise in Oregon and Washington waters.

In their assessment of California harbor porpoise, Barlow and Hanan (1995) recommended two stocks be recognized in California, with the stock boundary at the Russian River. Based on the above information, four separate harbor porpoise stocks are recognized to occur along the west coast of the continental U.S. (see Fig. 1): 1) the Inland Washington stock, 2) the Oregon/Washington Coast stock, 3) the Northern California stock, and 4) the Central California stock. This report considers only the Oregon/Washington Coast stock, with stock assessment reports for the Inland Washington and both California stocks appearing in this volume. Three harbor porpoise stocks are also recognized in the inland and coastal waters of Alaska, including the Southeast Alaska, Gulf of Alaska, and Bering Sea stocks. The three Alaska harbor porpoise stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region. The harbor porpoise occurring in British Columbia have not been included in any stock assessment report from either the Alaska Region or Pacific Northwest (Oregon/Washington).

POPULATION SIZE

In August and September 1997, an aerial survey of Oregon, Washington, and southern British Columbia coastal waters, from shore to 200 m depth, resulted in an observed abundance of 13,036 (CV=0.11) harbor porpoise in U.S. waters (Laake et al. 1998a). Using a correction factor of 3.42 (1/g(0); g(0)=0.292, CV=0.366) to adjust for groups missed by aerial observers, the corrected estimate of abundance for harbor porpoise in coastal Oregon and Washington waters is 44,644 (CV=0.38). This estimate represents a substantial increase over the 1991 estimate of 26,175 (Osmek et al. 1996) due to: 1) the larger sampling region in the 1997 survey (out to water depths of 200 m vs. 91 m in 1991), and 2) a different estimate of g(0) (Laake et al. 1998a).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate (N_{MIN}) for this stock is calculated using Equation 1 from the PBR Guidelines (Wade and Angliss 1997): $N_{MIN} = N/\exp(0.842*[\ln(1+[CV(N)]^2)]^{½})$. Using the population estimate (N) of 44,644 and its associated CV(N) of 0.38, N_{MIN} for the Oregon/Washington Coast stock of harbor porpoise is 32,769.

Current Population Trend

There are no reliable data on population trends of harbor porpoise for coastal Oregon, Washington, or British Columbia waters.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

A reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is currently not available for harbor porpoise. Therefore, until additional data become available, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% (Wade and Angliss 1997) be employed for the Oregon/Washington Coast harbor porpoise stock.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (32,769) times one-half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.5 (for a stock of unknown status, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 328 harbor porpoise per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

Within the EEZ boundaries of coastal Oregon and Washington, human-caused (fishery) mortalities of harbor porpoise are presently known to occur only in the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery. During 1992-1993 the WA/OR Lower Columbia River, WA Grays Harbor, and WA Willapa Bay drift gillnet fisheries were monitored at observer coverages of approximately 4% and 2%, respectively. There were no observed harbor porpoise mortalities in these fisheries.

NMFS observers monitored the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery during 1993-1998 (Gearin et al. 1994, 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data); 1994 observer data recently became available and will be included in a future stock assessment report. For the entire area fished (coastal + inland waters), observer coverage ranged from approximately 40 to 98% during those years. Fishing effort is conducted within the range of both harbor porpoise stocks (Oregon/Washington Coast and Inland Washington stocks) occurring in Washington State waters. Some of the animals taken in the inland waters portion of the fishery (see the Inland Washington stock assessment report for details) may have been animals from the coastal stock. Similarly, some of the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery may have been from the inland stock. For the purposes of this stock assessment report, the animals taken in the inland portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Inland Washington stock and the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. Some movement of harbor porpoise between Washington's coastal and inland waters is likely, but it is currently not possible to quantify the extent of such movements. Accordingly, Table 1 includes data only from that portion of the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery occurring within the range of the Oregon/Washington Coast stock (those waters south and west of Cape Flattery), where observer coverage was 100% in 1995-1997. No fishing effort occurred in the coastal portion of the fishery in 1993 or 1998. Data from 1993 to 1998 are included in Table 1, although the mean estimated annual mortality is calculated using the most recent 5 years of available data. The mean estimated mortality for this fishery is 12.4 (CV=0.46) harbor porpoise per year from this stock.

Table 1. Summary of incidental mortality of harbor porpoise (Oregon/Washington Coast stock) in commercial and tribal fisheries and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
Northern WA marine set gillnet (tribal fishery: coastal waters)	93	obs data	no fishery	0	0	12.4 (0.46)[1]
	94		n/a	n/a	n/a	
	95		100%	20	20	
	96		100%	29	29	
	97		100%	13	13	
	98		no fishery	0	0	
Estimated total annual takes						12.4 (0.46)

[1] 1993 and 1995-98 mortality estimates are included in the average.

The 1995-1997 data for the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery were collected as part of an experiment, conducted in cooperation with the Makah Tribe, designed to explore the merits of using acoustic alarms to reduce bycatch of harbor porpoise in salmon gillnets. Results in 1995-1996 indicated that the nets equipped with acoustic alarms had significantly lower entanglement rates, as only 2 of the 49 mortalities occurred in alarmed nets (Gearin et al. 1996, 2000; Laake et al. 1997). Harbor porpoise were displaced by an acoustic buffer around the net, but it is unclear whether the porpoise were repelled by the alarms or whether it was their prey that were repelled (Kraus et al. 1997, Laake et al. 1998b). Because this fishery is likely to have acoustic devices on all nets in the future, the mean mortality estimated from non-alarmed nets may not be applicable. In 1997, 13 mortalities were observed (100% observer coverage) in this fishery and 96% of the sets were equipped with acoustic alarms (Gearin et al. 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data).

An additional source of information on the number of harbor porpoise killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fisher self-reports of harbor porpoise mortalities from any fisheries operating within the range of the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 in Hill and DeMaster 1998).

There have been no fishery-related strandings of harbor porpoise from this stock dating back to at least 1990.

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor porpoise are not listed as "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened "or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Based on the currently available data, the level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (12) does not exceed the PBR (328). Therefore, the Oregon/Washington Coast stock of harbor porpoise is not classified as strategic. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (12; based on observer data) is not known to exceed 10% of the calculated PBR (33) and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level and population trends is unknown.

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HARBOR PORPOISE (*Phocoena phocoena*): Washington Inland Waters Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

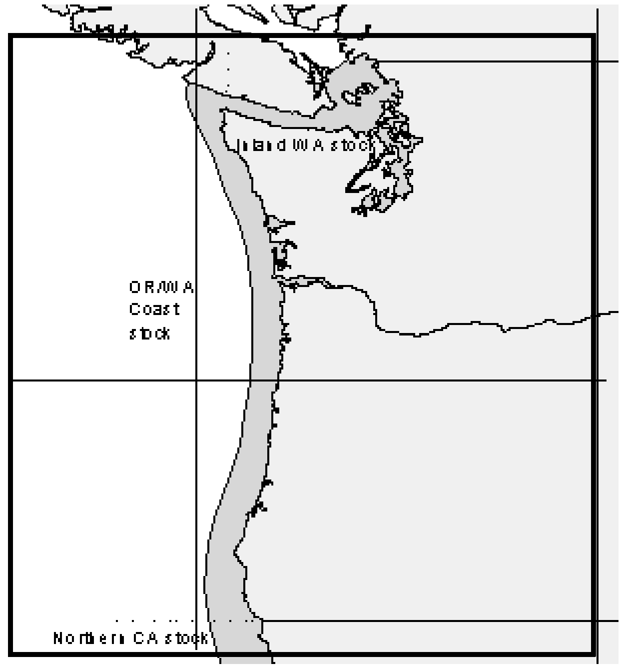

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of harbor porpoise in the U.S. Pacific Northwest (shaded area). Stock boundaries separating the stocks are shown.

In the eastern North Pacific Ocean, the harbor porpoise ranges from Point Barrow, along the Alaskan coast, and down the west coast of North America to Point Conception, California (Gaskin 1984). Harbor porpoise primarily frequent coastal waters. Harbor porpoise are known to occur year-round in the inland trans-boundary area of Washington and British Columbia, Canada (Osborne et al. 1988), and along the Oregon/Washington coast (Barlow 1988, Barlow et al. 1988, Green et al. 1992). Aerial survey data from coastal Oregon and Washington, collected during all seasons, suggests that harbor porpoise distribution varies by depth (Green et al. 1992). Although distinct seasonal changes in abundance along the west coast have been noted, and attributed to possible shifts in distribution to deeper offshore waters during late winter (Dohl et al. 1983, Barlow 1988), harbor porpoise have also been conspicuously absent in offshore areas in late November (B. Taylor, pers. comm.) leaving a gap in the current understanding of their movements. Stock discreteness in the eastern North Pacific was analyzed using mitochondrial DNA from samples collected along the west coast (Rosel 1992) and is summarized in Osmek et al. (1994). Two distinct mtDNA groupings or clades exist. One clade is present in California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (no samples were available from Oregon), while the other is found only in California and Washington. Although these two clades are not geographically distinct by latitude, the results may indicate a low mixing rate for harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America. Investigation of pollutant loads in harbor porpoise ranging from California to the Canadian border also suggests restricted harbor porpoise movements (Calambokidis and Barlow 1991). Further genetic testing of the same data mentioned above, along with additional samples, found significant genetic differences for four of the six pair-wise comparisons between the four areas investigated: California, Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska (Rosel et al. 1995). These results demonstrate that harbor porpoise along the west coast of North America are not panmictic or migratory, and that movement is sufficiently restricted to evolve genetic differences. This is consistent with low movement suggested by genetic analysis of harbor porpoise specimens from the North Atlantic, where numerous stocks have been delineated with clinal differences over areas as small as the waters surrounding the British Isles.

Using the 1990-1991 aerial survey data of Calambokidis et al. (1993) for water depths < 50 fathoms, Osmek et al. (1996) found significant differences in harbor porpoise mean densities ($z=5.9$, $p<0.01$) between the waters of coastal Oregon/Washington and inland Washington/southern British Columbia, Canada (i.e., Strait of Juan de Fuca/San Juan Islands). Although differences in density exist between coastal Oregon/Washington and inland Washington, a specific stock boundary line cannot be identified based upon biological or genetic differences. However, because harbor porpoise movements and rates of intermixing within the northeast Pacific are restricted, there has been a significant decline in harbor porpoise sightings within southern Puget Sound since the 1940s and, following a risk averse management strategy, two stocks are recognized to occur in Oregon and Washington waters (the Oregon/Washington Coast stock and the Inland Washington stock), with the boundary at Cape Flattery. Recent genetic evidence suggests that the population of eastern North Pacific harbor porpoise is more finely structured than is currently recognized (S. Chivers, pers. comm.). All relevant data (e.g., genetic samples, contaminant studies, and satellite tagging) will be reviewed to determine whether to adjust the stock boundaries for harbor porpoise in Oregon and Washington waters.

In their assessment of California harbor porpoise, Barlow and Hanan (1995) recommended two stocks be recognized in California, with the stock boundary at the Russian River. Based on the above information, four separate harbor porpoise stocks are recognized to occur along the west coast of the continental U.S. (see Fig. 1): 1) the Inland Washington stock, 2) the Oregon/Washington Coast stock, 3) the Northern California stock, and 4) the Central California stock. This report considers only the Inland Washington stock, with stock assessment reports for the Oregon/Washington Coast and both California stocks appearing in this volume. Three harbor porpoise stocks are also recognized in the inland and coastal waters of Alaska, including the Southeast Alaska, Gulf of Alaska, and Bering Sea stocks. The three Alaska harbor porpoise stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region. The harbor porpoise occurring in British Columbia have not been included in any stock assessment report from either the Alaska Region or Pacific Northwest (Oregon/Washington).

POPULATION SIZE

Aerial surveys of the inside waters of Washington and southern British Columbia were conducted during August of 1996 (Calambokidis et al. 1997). These aerial surveys included the Strait of Juan de Fuca, San Juan Islands, Gulf Islands, and Strait of Georgia, which includes waters inhabited by harbor porpoise from British Columbia, as well as the Inland Washington stock. A total of 2,117 km of survey effort was completed within U.S. waters, resulting in an uncorrected abundance of 1,025 (CV=0.151) harbor porpoise in the inside waters of Washington (Calambokidis et al. 1997, Laake et al. 1997a). When corrected for availability and perception bias, using a correction factor of 3.42 (1/g(0); g(0)=0.292, CV=0.366), the estimated abundance for the Inland Washington stock of harbor porpoise is 3,509 (CV=0.396) animals (Laake et al. 1997a, 1997b).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate (N_{MIN}) for this stock is calculated using Equation 1 from the PBR Guidelines (Wade and Angliss 1997): $N_{MIN} = N/\exp(0.842*[\ln(1+[CV(N)]^2)]^{½})$. Using the population estimate (N) of 3,509 and its associated CV(N) of 0.396, N_{MIN} for the Inland Washington stock of harbor porpoise is 2,545.

Current Population Trend

There are no reliable data on long-term population trends of harbor porpoise for most waters of Oregon, Washington, or British Columbia. For comparability to the 1996 survey, a re-analysis of the 1991 aerial survey data was conducted (Calambokidis et al. 1997). The abundance of harbor porpoise in the Inland Washington stock in 1996 was not significantly different than in 1991 (Laake et al. 1997a).

A different situation exists in southern Puget Sound where harbor porpoises are now rarely observed, a sharp contrast to 1942 when they were considered common in those waters (Scheffer and Slipp 1948). Although quantitative data for this area are lacking, marine mammal survey effort (Everitt et al. 1980), stranding records since the early 1970s (Osmek et al. 1995), and the results of harbor porpoise surveys of 1991 (Calambokidis et al. 1992) and 1994 (Osmek et al. 1995) indicate that harbor porpoise abundance has declined in southern Puget Sound. In 1994 a total of 769 km of vessel survey effort and 492 km of aerial survey effort conducted during favorable sighting conditions produced no sightings of harbor porpoise in southern Puget Sound. Reasons for the apparent decline are unknown, but it may be related to fishery interactions, pollutants, vessel traffic, or other activities that may affect harbor porpoise occurrence and distribution in this area (Osmek et al. 1995). Research to identify trends in harbor porpoise abundance is also needed for the other areas within inland Washington.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

A reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is not currently available for harbor porpoise. Hence, until additional data become available, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% (Wade and Angliss 1997) be employed for the Inland Washington harbor porpoise stock.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (2,545) times one-half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.40 (for a stock of unknown status with a mortality rate CV $\geq$ 0.80, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 20 harbor porpoise per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

NMFS observers monitored the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery during 1993-1998 (Gearin et al. 1994, 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data); 1994 observer data recently became available and will be included in a future stock assessment report. For the entire area fished (coastal + inland waters), observer coverage ranged from approximately 40 to 98% during those years. Fishing effort is conducted within the range of both harbor porpoise stocks (Oregon/Washington Coast and Inland Washington stocks) occurring in Washington State waters. Some of the animals taken in the inland waters portion of the fishery may have been animals from the coastal stock. Similarly, some of the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery (see the Oregon/Washington Coast stock assessment report for details) may have been from the inland stock. For the purposes of this stock assessment report, the animals taken in the inland portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Inland Washington stock and the animals taken in the coastal portion of the fishery are assumed to have belonged to the Oregon/Washington Coast stock. Some movement of harbor porpoise between Washington's coastal and inland waters is likely, but it is currently not possible to quantify the extent of such movements. Accordingly, Table 1 includes data only from that portion of the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery occurring within the range of the Inland Washington stock (those waters east of Cape Flattery), where observer coverage ranged from 6 to 80% between 1993 and 1998. Data from 1993-1998 are included in Table 1, although the mean estimated annual mortality is calculated using the most recent 5 years of available data. No mortalities were observed in the inland portion of the fishery between 1993 and 1998. Little effort occurred in the inland portion of the fishery in 1995, 1997, or 1998. The mean estimated mortality for this fishery is zero harbor porpoise per year from this stock.

In 1993, as a pilot for future observer programs, NMFS in conjunction with the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) monitored all non-treaty components of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon gillnet fishery (Pierce et al. 1994). Observer coverage was 1.3% overall, ranging from 0.9% to 7.3% for the various components of the fishery. No harbor porpoise mortalities were reported (Table 1). Pierce et al. (1994) cautioned against extrapolating these mortalities to the entire Puget Sound fishery due to the low observer coverage and potential biases inherent in the data. The area 7/7A sockeye landings represented the majority of the non-treaty salmon landings in 1993, approximately 67%. Results of this pilot study were used to design the 1994 observer programs discussed below.

In 1994, NMFS in conjunction with WDFW conducted an observer program during the Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery (areas 10/11 and 12/12B). A total of 230 sets were observed during 54 boat trips, representing approximately 11% observer coverage of the 500 fishing boat trips comprising the total effort in this fishery as estimated from fish ticket landings (Erstad et al. 1996). No harbor porpoise were reported within 100 m of observed gillnets. The Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery in Hood Canal (areas 12, 12B, and 12C) and Puget Sound treaty sockeye/chum gillnet fishery in the Strait of Juan de Fuca (areas 4B, 5, and 6C) were also monitored in 1994 (NWIFC 1995). No harbor porpoise mortalities were reported in the observer programs covering these treaty salmon gillnet fisheries, where observer coverage was estimated at 2.2% (based on % of total catch observed) and approximately 7.5% (based on % of observed trips to total landings), respectively.

Also in 1994, NMFS in conjunction with WDFW and the Tribes conducted an observer program to examine seabird and marine mammal interactions with the Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet fishery (areas 7 and 7A). During this fishery, observers monitored 2,205 sets, representing approximately 7% of the estimated 33,086 sets occurring in the fishery (Pierce et al. 1996). There was one observed harbor porpoise mortality (one other was entangled and released alive with no indication the animal was injured), resulting in a mortality rate of 0.00045 harbor porpoise per set, which extrapolates to 15 mortalities (CV=1.0) for the entire fishery. In 1996, Washington Sea Grant Program conducted a test fishery in the non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet fishery (area 7) to compare entanglement rates of seabirds and marine mammals and catch rates of salmon using three experimental gears and a control (monofilament mesh net). The experimental nets incorporated highly visible mesh in the upper quarter (50 mesh gear) or upper eighth (20 mesh gear) of the net or had low-frequency sound emitters attached to the corkline (Melvin et al. 1997). In 642 sets during 17 vessel trips, 2 harbor porpoise were killed in the 50 mesh gear.

Combining the estimates from the 1994 observer programs (15) with the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery (0) results in an estimated mean mortality rate in observed fisheries of 15 harbor porpoise per year from this stock. It should be noted that the 1994 observer programs did not sample all segments of the entire Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet fishery, and further, the extrapolation of total kill did not include effort for the unobserved segments of this fishery. Therefore, 15 is an underestimate of the harbor porpoise mortality due to the entire fishery. Though it is not possible to quantify what percentage of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet fishery was actually observed in 1994, the observer programs covered those segments of the fishery which had the highest salmon catches, the majority of vessel participation, and the highest likelihood of interaction with harbor porpoise (J. Scordino, pers. comm.). Accordingly, the estimated harbor porpoise mortality (15) appears to be only a slight underestimate for the fishery. See Appendix 1 for additional information regarding the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet fishery.

Table 1. Summary of incidental mortality of harbor porpoise (Inland Washington stock) due to commercial and tribal fisheries and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	**Years**	**Data type**	**Percent observer coverage**	**Observed mortality**	**Estimated mortality**	**Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)**
Northern WA marine set gillnet (tribal fishery: inland waters)	93 94 95 96 97 98	obs data	61% n/a 24% 6% 80% 40%	0 n/a 0 0 0 0	0 n/a 0 0 0 0	0[1]
WA Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet (observer programs listed below covered segments of this fishery):	-	-	-	-	-	-
Puget Sound non-treaty salmon gillnet (all areas and species)	93	obs data	1.3%	0	0	see text
Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 10/11 and 12/12B)	94	obs data	11%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 12, 12B, and 12C)	94	obs data	2.2%	0	0	0

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
Puget Sound treaty chum and sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 4B, 5, and 6C)	94	obs data	7.5%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 7 and 7A)	94	obs data	7%	1	15	15 (1.0)
				Reported mortalities		
WA Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet	94-98	self reports	n/a	n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a, n/a	n/a	see text
Minimum total annual takes						≥ 15 (1.0)

[1] 1993 and 1995-98 mortality estimates are included in the average.

An additional source of information on the number of harbor porpoise killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fishery self-reports of any harbor porpoise mortalities from the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set and drift gillnet fishery (Table 1). Unlike the 1994 observer program data, the self-reported fisheries data cover the entire fishery. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates of harbor porpoise mortality. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998).

Strandings of harbor porpoise wrapped in fishing gear or with injuries caused by interactions with gear are a final source of fishery-related mortality information. No fishery-related strandings of harbor porpoise occurred during 1994-1998.

There are few data concerning the mortality of marine mammals incidental to commercial gillnet fisheries in Canadian waters, which have not been monitored but are known to have taken harbor porpoise in the past (Barlow et al. 1994, Stacey et al. 1997). As a result, the number of harbor porpoise from this stock currently taken in the waters of southern British Columbia is not known.

STATUS OF STOCK

Harbor porpoise are not listed as “depleted” under the MMPA or listed as “threatened “ or “endangered” under the Endangered Species Act. Based on currently available data, the level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (15) is not known to exceed the PBR (20). Therefore, the Inland Washington harbor porpoise stock is not classified as strategic. The minimum total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (15) exceeds 10% of the calculated PBR (2.0) and, therefore, cannot be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level and population trends is unknown, although harbor porpoise sightings in southern Puget Sound have declined since the 1940s.

Although this stock is not recognized as strategic at this time, there is cause for concern due to the following issues: 1) the estimated take level is close to exceeding the PBR, 2) the extent to which harbor porpoise from U.S. waters frequent the waters of British Columbia, and are therefore subject to fishery-related mortality, is unknown, and 3) the mortality rate is based on observer data from a subset of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon set and gillnet fishery.

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Revised 12/15/2000

DALL'S PORPOISE (*Phocoenoides dalli*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Dall's porpoise are endemic to temperate waters of the North Pacific Ocean. Off the U.S. west coast, they are commonly seen in shelf, slope and offshore waters (Figure 1; Morejohn 1979). Sighting patterns from aerial and shipboard surveys conducted in California, Oregon and Washington at different times (Green et al. 1992, 1993; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995) suggest that north-south movement between these states occurs as oceanographic conditions change, both on seasonal and inter-annual time scales. The southern end of this population's range is not well-documented, but they are commonly seen off Southern California in winter, and during cold-water periods they probably range into Mexican waters off northern Baja California. The stock structure of eastern North Pacific Dall's porpoise is not known, but based on patterns of stock differentiation in the western North Pacific, where they have been more intensively studied, it is expected that separate stocks will emerge when data become available (Perrin and Brownell 1994). Although Dall's porpoise are not restricted to U.S. territorial waters, there are no cooperative management agreements with Mexico or Canada for fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Dall's porpoises within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Alaskan waters.

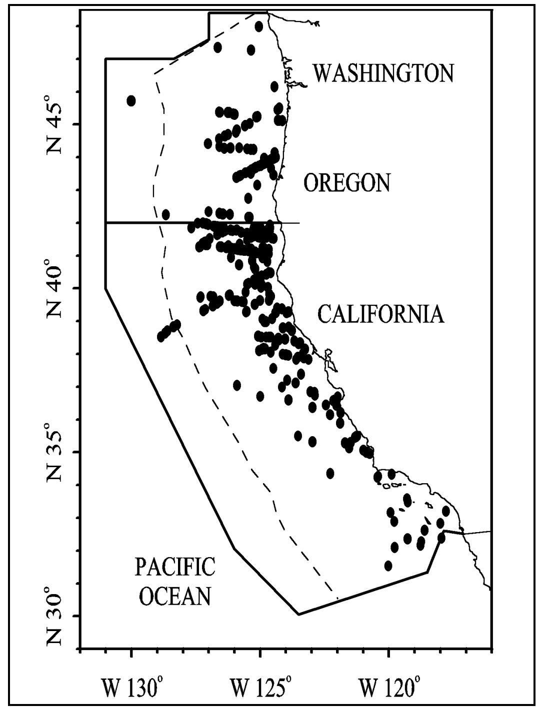

Figure 1. Dall's porpoise sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Shipboard surveys are expected to be more reliable for this species than aerial surveys because of the large, unknown fraction of diving animals missed from the air (Forney 1994). Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). The distribution of Dall's porpoise throughout this region is highly variable between years and appears to be affected by oceanographic conditions (Forney 1997; Forney and Barlow 1998). Because animals may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone as oceanographic conditions change, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 116,016 (CV = 0.45) Dall's porpoise (Barlow 1997). Additional aerial surveys were conducted in the inland waters of Washington in 1991 and 1996, resulting in Dall's porpoise abundance estimates of 2,747 (CV=0.48) in 1991, and 900 (CV=0.40) in 1996 (Calambokidis et al. 1997), with a weighted average estimate of 1,509 (CV=0.46). Both estimates include approximate correction factors for animals missed due to perception and availability bias. Combining the average estimate for inland Washington waters with the 1991-96 outer coast estimate of Barlow (1997) yields a total abundance estimate of 117,545 (CV=0.45) Dall's porpoise for the California/Oregon/Washington stock.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for both the outer coast of California, Oregon and Washington and inland Washington waters is 81,866 Dall's porpoise.

Current Population Trend

No information is available regarding trends in abundance of Dall's porpoise in California, Oregon and Washington. Their distribution and abundance in this region varies considerably at both seasonal and interannual time scales as oceanographic conditions vary (Forney 1997; Forney and Barlow 1998).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for Dall's porpoise off the U.S. west coast.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (81,866) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.45 (for a species of unknown status and a mortality rate CV>0.60 and ≤0.80; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 737 Dall's porpoise per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for this stock of Dall's porpoise is given in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of Dall's porpoise entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 10 (CV = 0.95) Dall's porpoise taken annually.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take some Dall's porpoise from the same population during cold-water periods. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Low levels of mortality for Dall's porpoise have also been documented in the California/Oregon/Washington domestic groundfish trawl fisheries (Perez and Loughlin 1991; Perez, in prep). Between 1994 and 1998, with 54%-77% of the fishing effort observed, five Dall's porpoise were reported killed in the at-sea processing portion of the Pacific whiting trawl fishery, and five animals were reported in unmonitored hauls.. Based only on the systematically observed hauls, Dall's porpoise mortality was estimated to be five (CV=0.44) in 1997 and three (CV=0.33) in 1998 (Perez, in prep). Combining these estimates with the three reported mortalities for 1994 and 1996 that are not accounted for in the estimates, the minimum average annual mortality for 1994-98 is 2.0 (CV=0.23) Dall's porpoise per year.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Dall's porpoise in California, Oregon and Washington relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate potential trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (12 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (737), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Dall's porpoise (California/Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements of Dall's porpoise resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses; n/a = not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	**Data Type**	**Year(s)**	**Percent Observer Coverage**	**Observed Mortality**	**Estimated Annual Mortality**	**Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)**
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994	17.9%	2	11 (0.64)	
		1995	15.6%	1	6 (0.92)	
		1996	12.4%	2	24 (0.68)	
		1997	23.0%	4	20 (0.95)	
		1998	20.0%	0	0	10 (0.95)[1]
WA/OR/CA domestic groundfish trawl fisheries (At-sea processing Pacific whiting fishery only).	observer data	1994	53.8%	0	0	
		1995	56.2%	0	0	
		1996	65.2%	0	0	1.6 (0.23)
		1997	65.7%	3	5 (0.44)	
		1998	77.3%	2	3 (0.33)	
	unmonitored hauls	1994		2		
		1996		1		0.6 (n/a)
		1997		2		
Minimum total annual takes						12 (CV=0.79)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because overall cetacean entanglement rates dropped considerably after a Take Reduction Plan was implemented in 1997.

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Revised 12/15/2000

PACIFIC WHITE-SIDED DOLPHIN (*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*): California/Oregon/Washington, Northern and Southern Stocks

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Pacific white-sided dolphins are endemic to temperate waters of the North Pacific Ocean, and are common both on the high seas and along the continental margins. Off the U.S. west coast, Pacific white-sided dolphins have been seen primarily in shelf and slope waters (Figure 1). Sighting patterns from recent aerial and shipboard surveys conducted in California, Oregon and Washington at different times of the year (Green et al. 1992; 1993; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995) suggest seasonal north-south movements, with animals found primarily off California during the colder water months and shifting northward into Oregon and Washington as water temperatures increase in late spring and summer (Green et al. 1992; Forney 1994).

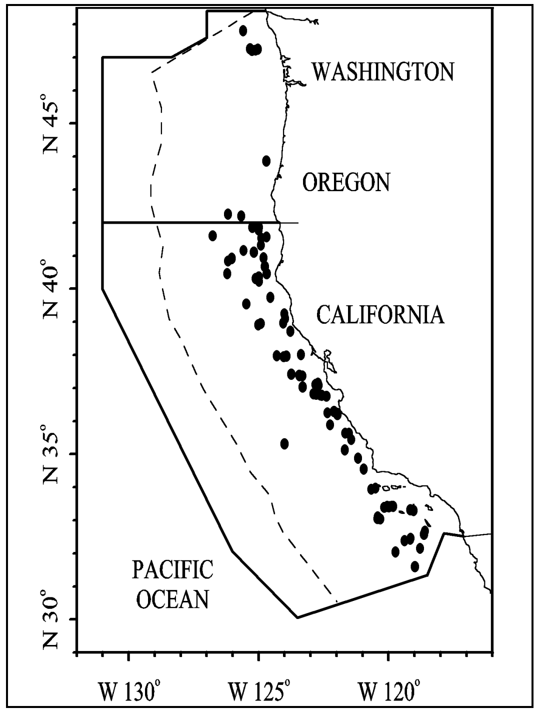

Figure 1. Pacific white-sided dolphin sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

Stock structure throughout the North Pacific is poorly understood, but based on morphological evidence, two forms are known to occur off the California coast (Walker et al. 1986; Chivers et al. 1993). Specimens belonging to the northern form were collected from north of about 33°N, (Southern California to Alaska), and southern specimens were obtained from about 36°N southward along the coasts of California and Baja California. Samples of both forms have been collected in the Southern California Bight, but it is unclear whether this indicates sympatry in this region or whether they may occur there at different times (seasonally or interannually). Recent genetic analyses have confirmed the distinctness of animals found off Baja California from animals occurring in U.S. waters north of Point Conception, California and in the high seas of the North Pacific (Lux et al. 1997). Based on these genetic data, a boundary or area of mixing between the two forms appears to be located off Southern California (Lux et al. 1997).

Although there is clear evidence that two forms of Pacific white-sided dolphins occur along the U.S. west coast, there are no known differences in color pattern, and it is not currently possible to distinguish animals without genetic or morphometric analyses. Geographic stock boundaries appear dynamic and are poorly understood, and therefore cannot be used to differentiate the two forms. Until means of differentiating the two forms for abundance and mortality estimation are developed, these two stocks must be managed as a single unit; however, this is an undesirable management situation. Furthermore, Pacific white-sided dolphins are not restricted to U.S. territorial waters, but cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Additional means of differentiating the two types must be found, and cooperative management with Mexico is particularly important for this species, given the apparently dynamic nature of geographical stock boundaries. Until these goals are accomplished, the management stock includes animals of both forms. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Pacific white-sided dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Alaskan waters.

POPULATION SIZE

The previous best estimates of abundance for Pacific white-sided dolphins (Barlow et al. 1997) were based on winter/spring 1991-92 aerial surveys (Forney et al. 1995) off California, which were presumed to include Pacific white-sided dolphins that are found off Oregon and Washington during summer and fall. Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). The distribution of Pacific white-sided dolphins throughout this region is highly variable, apparently in response to oceanographic changes on both seasonal and interannual time scales (Forney and Barlow 1998). As oceanographic conditions vary, Pacific white-sided dolphins may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, and therefore a multi-year average abundance estimate including California, Oregon and Washington is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 25, 825 (CV = 0.49) Pacific white-sided dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 17,475 Pacific white-sided dolphins.

Current Population Trend

No long-term trends in the abundance of Pacific white-sided dolphins in California, Oregon and Washington are suggested based on historical and recent surveys (Dohl et al. 1980; 1983; Green et al. 1992; 1993; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995;).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for Pacific white-sided dolphins off the U.S. west coast.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (17,475) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.45 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV≥0.60 and ≤0.80; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 157 Pacific white-sided dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for this stock of Pacific white-sided dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of Pacific white-sided dolphin entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 6.0 (CV = 0.68) Pacific white-sided dolphins taken annually.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and probably take the southern form of this species. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S.

drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki, 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson,1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Pacific white-sided dolphins (California/ Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements of Pacific white-sided dolphins resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses; n/a = not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994	17.9%	3	17 (0.67)	
		1995	15.6%	1	6 (0.92)	
		1996	12.4%	3	25 (0.96)	
		1997	23.0%	3	12 (0.68)	6.0 (0.68)[1]
		1998	20.0%	0	0	
WA/OR/CA domestic groundfish trawl fisheries (At-sea processing Pacific whiting fishery only).	observer data	1994	53.8%	0	0	
		1995	56.2%	0	0	
		1996	65.2%	0	0	0.2 (0.48)
		1997	65.7%	0	0	
		1998	77.3%	1	1 (0.48)	
	other records	1996		3	≥3	0.6 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						6.8 (0.60)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because overall cetacean entanglement rates dropped considerably after a Take Reduction Plan was implemented in 1997.

Low levels of mortality for Pacific white-sided dolphins have also been documented in the California/Oregon/ Washington domestic groundfish trawl fisheries (Perez and Loughlin 1991; Perez, in prep;). Between 1994 and 1998, with 54%-77% of the fishing effort observed, one Pacific white-sided dolphin was reported killed in the at-sea processing portion of the Pacific whiting trawl fishery, and three additional animals were reported in unmonitored hauls. Based only on the systematically observed hauls, mortality was estimated to be one Pacific white-sided dolphin (CV=0.48, Perez, in prep) in 1998. Combining this estimate with the three additional reported mortalities for 1996 that are not accounted for in the estimate, the minimum average annual mortality for 1994-98 is 0.8 (CV=0.48) Pacific white-sided dolphins.

Other removals

Additional removals of Pacific white-sided dolphins from the wild have occurred in live-capture fisheries off California. Brownell et al. (1999) estimate a minimum total live capture of 128 Pacific white-sided dolphins between the late 1950s and 1993. The most recent capture was in November 1993, when three animals were taken for public display (Forney 1994). No MMPA permits are currently active for live-captures of Pacific white-sided dolphins.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Pacific white-sided dolphins in California, Oregon and Washington relative to OSP is not known, and there is no indication of a trend in abundance for this stock. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (6.8 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (157), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

RISSO'S DOLPHIN (*Grampus griseus*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Risso's dolphins are distributed world-wide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Off the U.S. West coast, Risso's dolphins are commonly seen on the shelf in the Southern California Bight and in slope and offshore waters of California, Oregon and Washington. Based on sighting patterns from recent aerial and shipboard surveys conducted in these three states during different seasons (Figure 1), animals found off California during the colder water months are thought to shift northward into Oregon and Washington as water temperatures increase in late spring and summer (Green et al. 1992). The southern end of this population's range is not well-documented, but on a recent joint U.S./Mexican ship survey, Risso's dolphins were sighted off northern Baja California, and a conspicuous 500 nmi gap was present between these animals and Risso's dolphins sighted south of Baja California and in the Gulf of California (Mangels and Gerrodette 1994). Thus this population appears distinct from animals found in the eastern tropical Pacific and the Gulf of California. Although Risso's dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Risso's dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Hawaiian waters.

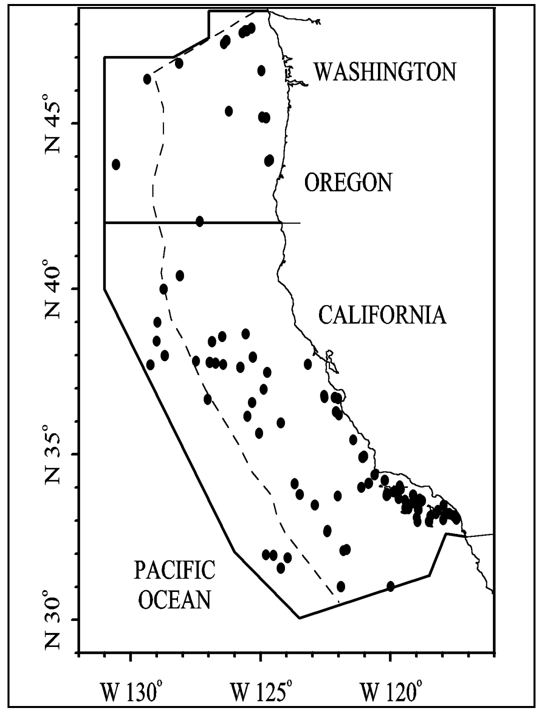

Figure 1. Risso's dolphin sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

The previous best estimates of abundance for Risso's dolphins (Barlow et al. 1997) were based on winter/spring 1991-92 aerial surveys (Forney et al. 1995) off California, which were presumed to include Risso's dolphins that are found off Oregon and Washington during summer and fall. Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). The distribution of Risso's dolphins throughout this region is highly variable, apparently in response to oceanographic changes on both seasonal and interannual time scales (Forney and Barlow 1998). As oceanographic conditions vary, Risso's dolphins may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, and therefore a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 16,483 (CV = 0.28) Risso's dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 13,079 Risso's dolphins.

Current Population Trend

Although sighting records of Risso's dolphins appear to have increased during the last two decades in some areas off the U.S. West coast (Green et al. 1992; 1993; Shane 1994), sampling effort has also increased, and there are no statistical estimates of historical abundance on which to base a quantitative comparison. Thus, it is possible that Risso's dolphin abundance off the U.S. West coast has increased, but no definitive statement regarding trends in abundance of Risso's dolphins off California, Oregon and Washington can be made.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for Risso's dolphins in California, Oregon and Washington.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (13,079) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.40 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV $\geq$ 0.80; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 105 Risso's dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for this stock of Risso's dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of Risso's dolphin entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 5.5 (CV = 0.96) Risso's dolphins taken annually.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and probably take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al., 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Risso's dolphin (California/Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements of Risso's dolphins resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses; n/a = not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 6 0 3 0	6 (0.91) 39 (0.57) 0 11 (0.96) 0	5.5 (0.96) [1]
Minimum total annual takes						5.5 (0.96)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because overall cetacean entanglement rates dropped considerably after a Take Reduction Plan was implemented in 1997.

Additional mortality of unknown extent has been documented for Risso's dolphins in the squid purse seine fishery off Southern California (Heyning et al. 1994). This mortality probably represented animals killed intentionally to protect catch or gear, rather than incidental mortality, and such intentional takes are now illegal under the 1994 Amendment to the MMPA. This fishery has expanded markedly since 1992 (California Department of Fish and Game, unpubl. data). No recent Risso's dolphin mortality has been reported for this fishery, but it is currently not monitored.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Risso's dolphins off California, Oregon and Washington relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate potential trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (5.5 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (105), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

BOTTLENOSE DOLPHIN (*Tursiops truncatus*): California Coastal Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Bottlenose dolphins are distributed world-wide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. In many regions, including California, separate coastal and offshore populations are known (Walker 1981; Ross and Cockcroft 1990; Van Waerebeek et al. 1990). California coastal bottlenose dolphins are found within about one kilometer of shore (Figure 1; Hansen, 1990; Carretta et al. 1998; Defran and Weller 1999) primarily from Point Conception south into Mexican waters, at least as far south as Ensenada. Oceanographic events appear to influence the distribution of animals along the coasts of California and Baja California, Mexico, as indicated by a change in residency patterns along Southern California and a northward range extension into central California after the 1982-83 El Niño (Hansen and Defran 1990; Wells et al. 1990). Since the 1982-83 El Niño, which increased water temperatures off California, they have been consistently sighted in central California as far north as San Francisco. Photo-identification studies have documented north-south movements of coastal bottlenose dolphins (Hansen 1990; Defran et al. 1999), and monthly counts based on surveys between the U.S./Mexican border and Point Conception are variable (Carretta et al. 1998), indicating that animals are probably moving into and out of this area. Although coastal bottlenose dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Therefore, the management stock includes only animals found within U.S. waters. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, bottlenose dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into three stocks: 1) California coastal stock (this report), 2) California, Oregon and Washington offshore stock, and 3) Hawaiian stock.

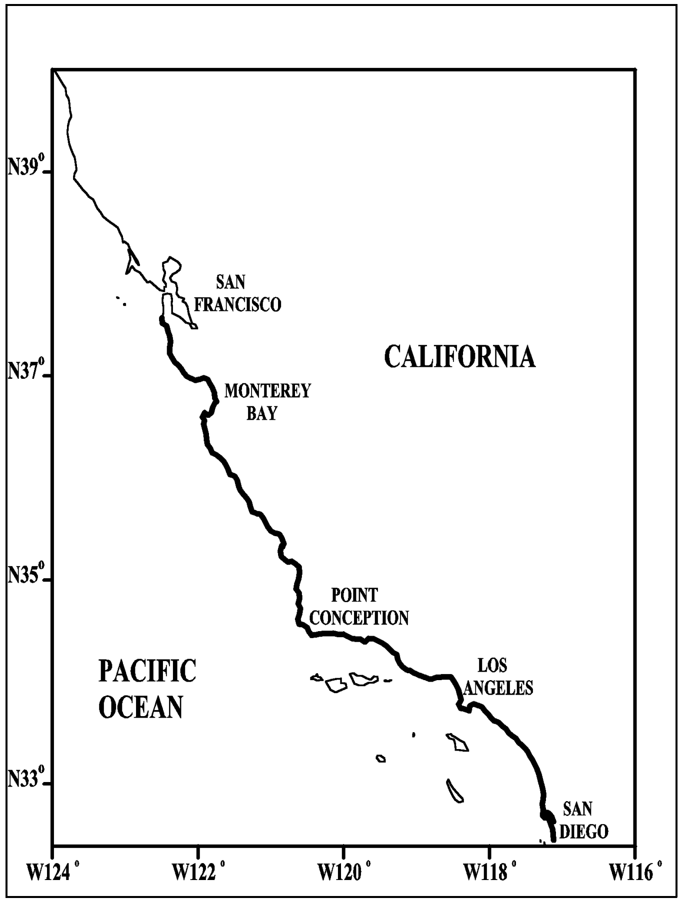

Figure 1. Range (in bold) of the coastal bottlenose dolphin based on aerial surveys along the coast of California from 1990-99 (see Appendix 2, Figure 7, for data sources and information on timing and distribution of survey effort). This population of bottlenose dolphins is found within about 1 km of shore.

POPULATION SIZE

Photo-identification studies along the coasts of southern California and northern Mexico identified 404 unique individuals in this population between 1981 and 1989 based on dorsal fin characteristics, with an estimated 35% of animals lacking identifiable characters at any particular time (Defran and Weller 1999). This cannot be considered a minimum population estimate, however, because an unknown number of animals died during this period and rates of acquisition of dorsal fin characters are not known. Mark-recapture estimates based on photo-identification studies in 1985-89 range from 234 (95% CI 205-263) to 285 (95% CI 265-306) animals for the entire California-Mexico population (Defran and Weller 1999). Because coastal bottlenose dolphins spend an unknown amount of time in Mexican waters, where they are subject to mortality in Mexican fisheries, an average abundance estimate for California only is the most appropriate for U.S. management of this stock. Tandem aerial surveys were conducted in 1990-94 to estimate the abundance of coastal bottlenose dolphins throughout the southern California portion of their U.S. range. (Carretta et al. 1998). These estimates, which are corrected for the fraction of animals missed by a single observer team, range from 78 to 271 animals, with a mean abundance estimate of 140 bottlenose dolphins (CV = 0.05). These surveys did not include the central California portion of this stock's range, and therefore the published abundances underestimate the total number of animals is U.S. waters by an unknown amount. More recently, two surveys were conducted in 1994 and 1999, covering virtually the entire U.S. range of this species, from the U.S./Mexican border to just south of San Francisco, California. Using the same methods and correction factors as in Carretta et al. (1998), the weighted average abundance estimate for these two surveys is 169 (CV=0.11) coastal bottlenose dolphins (NMFS, SWFSC, unpublished data). This presently is the best estimate of the average number of coastal bottlenose dolphins in U.S. waters.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the above average abundance estimate for U.S. waters based on the 1994 and 1999 surveys is 154 coastal bottlenose dolphins.

Current Population Trend

No trend in abundance of coastal bottlenose dolphins is apparent based on the available data.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for California coastal bottlenose dolphins.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (154) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 1.5 coastal bottlenose dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Due to its exclusive use of coastal habitats, this bottlenose dolphin population is susceptible to fishery-related mortality in coastal set net fisheries. A summary of information on fishery mortality and injury for this stock of bottlenose dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on the set gillnet fishery is provided in Appendix 1. From 1991-94, no bottlenose dolphins were observed taken in this fishery with 10-15% observer coverage (Julian and Beeson 1998). The observer program was discontinued at the end of 1994, when coastal set gillnet fishing was banned within 3 nmi of the southern California coast. In central California, gillnets have been restricted to waters deeper than 30 fathoms (56m) since 1991 in all areas except between Point Sal and Point Arguello. Because of these closures, the potential for mortality of coastal bottlenose dolphins in the California set gillnet fishery has been greatly reduced since 1994. Fisher self-report data and stranding records for 1994-98 do not include any records of fishery interactions for this stock. Coastal gillnet fisheries exist in Mexico and probably take animals from this population, but no details are available.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of bottlenose dolphins (California Coastal Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes
CA angel shark/ halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5in) set gillnet fishery	observer data	1991-94 1995-98	10-15% 0%	0	0	0
Minimum total annual takes						0

Other removals

Seven coastal bottlenose dolphins were collected during the late 1950s in the vicinity of San Diego (Norris and Prescott 1961). Twenty-seven additional bottlenose dolphins were captured off California between 1966 and 1982 (Walker 1975; Reeves and Leatherwood 1984), but based on the locations of capture activities, these animals probably were offshore bottlenose dolphins (Walker 1975). No additional captures of coastal bottlenose dolphins have been documented since 1982, and no live-capture permits are currently active for this species.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of coastal bottlenose dolphins in California relative to OSP is not known, and there is no evidence of a trend in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Because no recent fishery takes have been documented, coastal bottlenose dolphins are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

Habitat Issues

Pollutant levels, especially DDT residues, found in Southern California coastal bottlenose dolphins have been found to be among the highest of any cetacean examined (O'Shea et al. 1980; Schafer et al. 1984). Although the effects of pollutants on cetaceans are not well understood, they may affect reproduction or make the animals more prone to other mortality factors (Britt and Howard 1983; O'Shea et al. 1999). This population of bottlenose dolphins may also be vulnerable to the effects of morbillivirus outbreaks, which were implicated in the 1987-88 mass mortality of bottlenose dolphins on the U.S. Atlantic coast (Lipscomb et al. 1994).

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Revised 12/15/2000

BOTTLENOSE DOLPHIN (*Tursiops truncatus*): California/Oregon/Washington Offshore Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Bottlenose dolphins are distributed world-wide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. In many regions, including California, separate coastal and offshore populations are known (Walker 1981; Ross and Cockcroft 1990; Van Waerebeek et al. 1990). On surveys conducted off California, offshore bottlenose dolphins have been found at distances greater than a few kilometers from the mainland and throughout the Southern California Bight. They have also been documented in offshore waters as far north as about 41°N (Figure 1), and they may range into Oregon and Washington waters during warm-water periods. Sighting records off California and Baja California (Lee 1993; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994) suggest that offshore bottlenose dolphins have a continuous distribution in these two regions. Based on aerial surveys conducted during winter/spring 1991-92 (Forney et al. 1995) and shipboard surveys conducted in summer/fall 1991 (Barlow 1995), no seasonality in distribution is apparent (Forney and Barlow 1998). Offshore bottlenose dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, but cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Therefore, the management stock includes only animals found within U.S. waters. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, bottlenose dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into three stocks: 1) California coastal stock, 2) California, Oregon and Washington offshore stock (this report), and 3) Hawaiian stock.

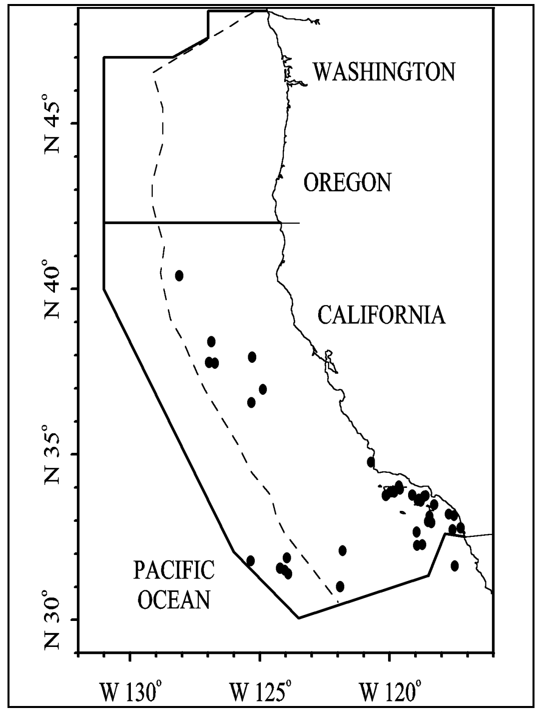

Figure 1. Offshore bottlenose dolphin sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). All sightings were made at distances greater than a few kilometers from the mainland California coast. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

The previous best estimates of abundance for offshore bottlenose dolphins (Barlow et al. 1997) were based on a weighted average for winter/spring 1991-92 aerial surveys (Forney et al. 1995), and summer/fall ship surveys in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) along the coast of California. An additional summer/fall shipboard surveys was conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). Because the distribution of bottlenose dolphins appears to vary interannually and they may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The most comprehensive multi-year average abundance is the weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the 1991-96 ship surveys, 956 (CV = 0.14) offshore bottlenose dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 850 offshore bottlenose dolphins.

Current Population Trend

No information on trends in abundance of offshore bottlenose dolphins is available.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for this population of offshore bottlenose dolphins.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (850) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 8.5 offshore bottlenose dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of bottlenose dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the rarity of bottlenose dolphin entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero offshore bottlenose dolphins taken annually.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of bottlenose dolphins (California/Oregon/Washington Offshore Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0[1]
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because overall cetacean entanglement rates dropped considerably after a Take Reduction Plan was implemented in 1997.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Offshore bottlenose dolphins are often associated with Risso's dolphins and pilot whales, for which mortality has been documented in the squid purse seine fishery off Southern California (Heyning et al. 1994). Based on this association, offshore bottlenose dolphins may also have experienced some mortality in this fishery. However these would probably represent animals killed intentionally to protect catch or gear, rather than incidental kills, and such intentional takes are now illegal under the 1994 Amendment to the MMPA.

Other removals

Twenty-seven bottlenose dolphins were captured off California between 1966 and 1982 (Walker 1975; Reeves and Leatherwood 1984). Based on the locations of capture activities, these animals probably were offshore bottlenose dolphins (Walker 1975). No additional captures of bottlenose dolphins off California have been documented since 1982, and no MMPA live-capture permits are currently active for this species.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of offshore bottlenose dolphins in California relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Because no recent fishery takes have been documented, offshore bottlenose dolphins are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

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Revised 12/15/2000

STRIPED DOLPHIN (*Stenella coeruleoalba*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Striped dolphins are distributed world-wide in tropical and warm-temperate pelagic waters. On recent shipboard surveys extending about 300 nmi offshore of California, they were sighted within about 100-300 nmi from the coast (Figure 1). No sightings have been reported for Oregon and Washington waters, but striped dolphins have stranded in both states (Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife, unpublished data; Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, unpublished data). Striped dolphins are also commonly found in the central North Pacific, but sampling between this region and California has been insufficient to determine whether the distribution is continuous. Based on sighting records off California and Mexico, striped dolphins appear to have a continuous distribution in offshore waters of these two regions (Perrin et al. 1985; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994). No information on possible seasonality in distribution is available, because the California surveys which extended 300 nmi offshore were conducted only during the summer/fall period. Although striped dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Therefore, the management stock includes only animals found within U.S. waters. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, striped dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) waters around Hawaii.

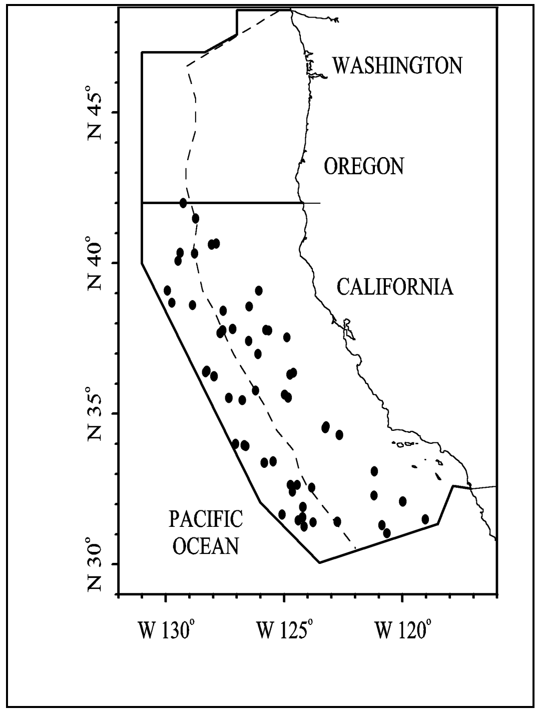

Figure 1. Striped dolphin sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). The abundance of striped dolphins in this region appears to be variable between years and may be affected by oceanographic conditions, as with other odontocete species (Forney 1997, Forney and Barlow 1998). Because animals may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone as oceanographic conditions change, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above three ship surveys is 20,235 (CV = 0.14) striped dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 17,995 striped dolphins.

Current Population Trend

Prior to the 1991 shipboard survey (Barlow 1995), striped dolphins were not thought to be common off California (Leatherwood et al. 1982), and two surveys extending approximately 200 nmi offshore of California and Baja California in 1979 and 1980 resulted in only one sighting of three striped dolphins (Smith et al. 1986). Thus it is possible that striped dolphin abundance off California has increased over the last decade (consistent with the observed warming trend for these waters; Roemmich 1992); however, no definitive statement can be made, because statistical estimates of abundance were not obtained for the earlier surveys.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for striped dolphins off California.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (17,995) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 180 striped dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for this stock of striped dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the rarity of striped dolphin entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero striped dolphins taken annually.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of striped dolphins (California/Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. The single observed entanglement of a striped dolphin resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 0 0 0 0	6 (0.90) 0 0 0 0	0 [1]
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because overall cetacean entanglement rates dropped considerably after a Take Reduction Plan was implemented in 1997.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993; Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of striped dolphins in California relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate potential trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet information only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 is zero. Because recent mortality is zero, striped dolphins are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

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SHORT-BEAKED COMMON DOLPHIN (*Delphinus delphis*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

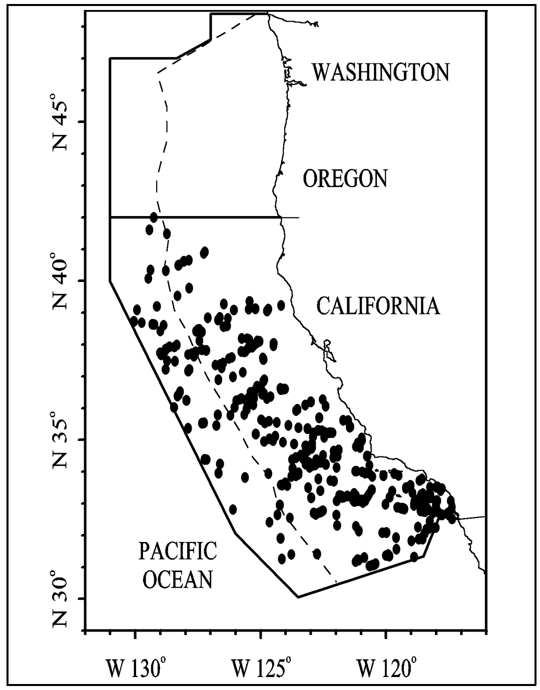

Figure 1. Short-beaked common dolphin sightings based on shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 3-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). No *Delphinus* sightings have been made off Oregon and Washington. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

Short-beaked common dolphins are the most abundant cetacean off California, and are widely distributed between the coast and at least 300 nmi distance from shore. The abundance of this species off California has been shown to change on both seasonal and inter-annual time scales (Dohl et al. 1986; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995). Historically, they were reported primarily south of Pt. Conception (Dohl et al. 1986), but on recent (1991/93/96) summer/fall surveys, they were commonly sighted as far north as 42°N (Figure 1). Four strandings of common dolphins have been reported in Oregon and Washington since 1942 (B. Norberg, pers. comm.). Of these, three were not identified to the species level, and one animal, which stranded in 1983, was identified as a short-beaked common dolphin (J. Hodder, pers. comm.). Significant seasonal shifts in the abundance and distribution of common dolphins have been identified based on winter/spring 1991-92 and summer/fall 1991 surveys (Forney and Barlow 1998). Their distribution is continuous southward into Mexican waters to about 13°N (Perrin et al. 1985; Wade and Gerrodette 1993; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994), and short-beaked common dolphins off California may be an extension of the "northern common dolphin" stock defined for management of eastern tropical Pacific tuna fisheries (Perrin et al. 1985). However, preliminary data on variation in dorsal fin color patterns suggest there may be multiple stocks in this region, including at least two possible stocks in California (Farley 1995). The less abundant long-beaked common dolphin has only recently been recognized as a different species (Heyning and Perrin 1994; Rosel et al. 1994), and much of the available information has not differentiated between the two types of common dolphin. Although short-beaked common dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), short-beaked common dolphins involved in tuna purse seine fisheries in international waters of the eastern tropical Pacific are managed separately, and they are not included in the assessment reports. For the MMPA stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of California, Oregon and Washington.

POPULATION SIZE

Aerial line transect surveys conducted in winter/spring of 1991-92 resulted only in a combined abundance estimate of 305,694 (CV=0.34) animals for short-beaked and long-beaked common dolphins, because species-level identification was not possible from the air (Forney et al. 1995). Based on sighting locations, the majority of these were probably short-beaked common dolphins. A better, species-specific abundance estimate is available based on three summer/fall shipboard surveys that were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997). The distribution of short-beaked common dolphins throughout this region is highly variable, apparently in response to oceanographic changes on both seasonal and interannual time scales (Heyning and Perrin 1994; Forney 1997; Forney and Barlow 1998). As oceanographic conditions vary, short-beaked common dolphins may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, and therefore a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 373,573 (CV=0.19) short-beaked common dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 318,795 short-beaked common dolphins.

Current Population Trend

In the past, common dolphin abundance has been shown to increase off California during the warm-water months (Dohl et al. 1986). Surveys conducted during both cold-water and warm-water conditions in 1991 and 1992 (Barlow 1995, Forney et al. 1995) resulted in overall abundance estimates (for both types of common dolphins combined) which were considerably greater than historical estimates (Dohl et al. 1986). The recent combined abundance estimate for the 1991-96 summer/fall surveys (Barlow 1997) is the highest and most precise to date. Environmental models (Forney 1997) and seasonal comparisons (Forney and Barlow 1998) have shown that the abundance of short-beaked common dolphins off California varies with seasonal and interannual changes in oceanographic conditions. An ongoing decline in the abundance of ‘northern common dolphins’ (including both long-beaked and short-beaked common dolphins) in the eastern tropical Pacific and along the Pacific coast of Mexico suggests a possible northward shift in the distribution of common dolphins (IATTC 1997) during this period of gradual warming of the waters off California (Roemmich 1992). The majority of this is likely to reflect an increase in the abundance of short-beaked common dolphins. Heyning and Perrin (1994) have detected changes in the proportion of short-beaked to long-beaked common dolphins stranding along the California coast, with the short-beaked common dolphin stranding more frequently prior to the 1982-83 El Niño (which increased water temperatures off California), and the long-beaked common dolphin more commonly observed for several years afterwards. Thus, it appears that both relative and absolute abundances of these species off California may change with varying oceanographic conditions.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of current or maximum net productivity rates for short-beaked common dolphins.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (318,795) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV< 0.30; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 3,188 short-beaked common dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for short-beaked common dolphins is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality of common dolphins primarily has been observed in California drift gillnet fisheries (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). Because of the difficulty in distinguishing short-beaked and long-beaked common dolphins in the field, tissue samples have been collected for most of the animals observed killed. These tissue samples have enabled positive identification using genetic techniques for all except two of the common dolphins killed

(NMFS, unpublished data). Based on past patterns (Barlow et al. 1997), these two animals are likely to have been a short-beaked common dolphin, and they are included below for this species. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, common dolphin entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this species in the long term. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 78 (CV=0.23) short-beaked common dolphins taken annually.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of short-beaked common dolphins (California/Oregon/Washington Stock), in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All entanglements resulted in the death of the animal. The observer program for the set gillnet fishery was discontinued during 1994. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses; n/a = not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	**Data Type**	**Year**	**Percent Observer Coverage**	**Observed Mortality**	**Estimated Annual Mortality**	**Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)**
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	26 36 27 21 9	146 (0.18) 231 (0.29) 319 (0.23) 105 (0.30) 51 (0.33)	(includes prorated) 78 (0.23)[1]
CA angel shark/ halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5in) set gillnet fishery		Common dolphins, species not determined				
	observer data	1994 1995-98	7.7% 0%	0 n/a	0 n/a	n/a
	MMAP self-reporting	1995 1996 1998	- - -	1 1 2	≥1 ≥1 ≥2	≥0.8 (n/a)
Undetermined	strandings	1994-98	2 common dolphins (species not determined) stranded with evidence of fishery interactions			≥0.4 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						79 (0.23)

[1]Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers). Following these changes in the fishery, entanglement rates of short-beaked common dolphin declined.

Additional common dolphin mortality has been reported for set gillnets in California (Julian and Beeson 1998); however, because of a 1994 ban on gillnets in nearshore areas of Southern California, the size of this fishery decreased by about a factor of two (see Appendix 1), and the observer program was discontinued. No observer data are available for the set gillnet fishery after 1994, but Marine Mammal Authorization Permit (MMAP) fisher self-reports for 1994-98 indicate that at least four common dolphins (type not specified) were killed between 1995 and 1998. Although these reports are considered unreliable (see Appendix 4 of Hill and

DeMaster 1998) they represent a minimum mortality for this fishery.

Two common dolphins (type not specified) stranded with evidence of fishery interaction (NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data); one animal had a hook and line in its mouth and a slit ventrum, and the other animal had its flukes cut off. It is not known which fisheries were responsible for these deaths.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, probably take short-beaked common dolphins from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Other Mortality

In the eastern tropical Pacific, 'northern common dolphins' have been incidentally killed in international tuna purse seine fisheries since the late 1950's. Cooperative international management programs have dramatically reduced overall dolphin mortality in these fisheries during the last decade (Joseph 1994). Between 1994 and 1998, annual mortality of northern common dolphins (potentially including both short-beaked and long-beaked common dolphins) ranged between 9 and 261 animals, with an average of 91 (IATTC, in prep). Although it is unclear whether these animals are part of the same population as short-beaked common dolphins found off California, they are managed separately under a section of the MMPA written specifically for the management of dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna fisheries.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of short-beaked common dolphins in Californian waters relative to OSP is not known. The observed increase in abundance of this species off California over the last decade probably reflects a distributional shift (Anganuzzi et al. 1993; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995; Forney and Barlow 1998), rather than an overall population increase due to growth. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (79 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (3,188), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total estimated fishery mortality and injury for short-beaked common dolphins is less than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

LONG-BEAKED COMMON DOLPHIN (*Delphinus capensis*): California Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Long-beaked common dolphins have only recently been recognized as a distinct species (Heyning and Perrin 1994; Rosel et al. 1994). Along the U.S. west coast, their distribution overlaps with that of the short-beaked common dolphin, and much historical information has not distinguished between these two species. Long-beaked common dolphins are commonly found within about 50 nmi of the coast, from Baja California (including the Gulf of California) northward to about central California (Figure 1). Stranding data and sighting records indicate that the relative abundance of this species off California changes both seasonally and inter-annually, with highest densities observed during warm-water events (Heyning and Perrin 1994). Although long-beaked common dolphins are not restricted to U.S. waters, cooperative management agreements with Mexico exist only for the tuna purse seine fishery and not for other fisheries which may take this species (e.g. gillnet fisheries). Under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), long-beaked ("Baja neritic") common dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna fisheries are managed separately as part of the 'northern common dolphin' stock (Perrin et al. 1985), and these animals are not included in the assessment reports. For the MMPA stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of California.

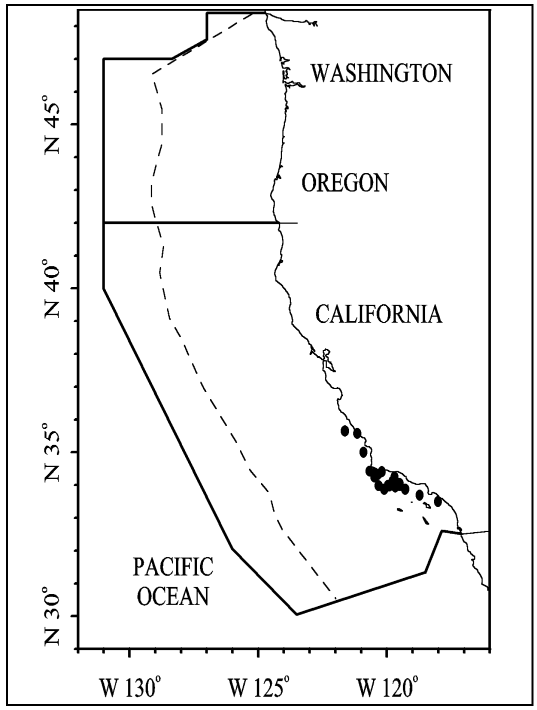

Figure 1. Long-beaked common dolphin sightings based on shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 3-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). No *Delphinus* sightings have been made off Oregon and Washington. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Aerial line transect surveys conducted in winter and spring of 1991 and 1992 resulted only in a combined abundance estimate of 305,694 (CV=0.34) long-beaked and short-beaked common dolphins, because species-level identification was not possible from the air (Forney et al. 1995). Based on sighting locations, the majority of these animals were probably short-beaked common dolphins. A better, species-specific abundance estimate is available based on three summer/fall shipboard surveys that were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997). The distribution and abundance of long-beaked common dolphins off California appears to be variable on interannual and seasonal time scales (Heyning and Perrin 1994). As oceanographic conditions change, long-beaked common dolphins may spend time in Mexican waters, and therefore a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within the U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 32,239 (CV=0.18) long-beaked common dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 27,739 long-beaked common dolphins.

Current Population Trend

Due to the historical lack of distinction between the two species of common dolphins, it is difficult to establish trends in abundance for this species. In the past, common dolphins have been shown to increase in abundance off California during the warm-water months (Dohl et al. 1986). Surveys conducted during both cold-water and warm-water conditions in 1991 and 1992 (Barlow 1995, Forney et al. 1995) resulted in overall abundance estimates (for both types of common dolphins combined) which were considerably greater than historical estimates (Dohl et al. 1986). The combined abundance estimate for the 1991-96 summer/fall surveys (Barlow 1997) is the highest and most precise to date. An ongoing decline in the abundance of 'northern common dolphins' (including both long-beaked and short-beaked common dolphins) in the eastern tropical Pacific and along the Pacific coast of Mexico (IATTC 1997) suggests a possible northward shift in the distribution of common dolphins during this period of gradual warming of the waters off California (Roemmich 1992). However, it is unclear how much of this increase reflects an increase in the abundance of the long-beaked common dolphin. Heyning and Perrin (1994) have detected changes in the proportion of short-beaked to long-beaked common dolphins stranding along the California coast, with the short-beaked common dolphin stranding more frequently prior to the 1982-83 El Niño (which increased water temperatures off California), and the long-beaked common dolphin more commonly observed for several years afterwards. Thus, it appears that both relative and absolute abundance of these species off California may change with varying oceanographic conditions.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of current or maximum net productivity rates for long-beaked common dolphins.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (27,629) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.45 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV$\geq$0.60 and $\leq$0.80; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 250 long-beaked common dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for long-beaked common dolphins is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality of common dolphins primarily has been observed in California drift gillnet fisheries (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). Because of the difficulty in distinguishing short-beaked and long-beaked common dolphins in the field, tissue samples have been collected for most of the animals observed killed. These tissue samples have enabled positive identification using genetic techniques for all except two of the common dolphins killed (NMFS, unpublished data). Based on past patterns (Barlow et al. 1997), these two animals are likely to have been a short-beaked common dolphin, and they have not been included in the mortality calculations below for long-beaked common dolphins. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, common dolphin entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this species in the long term. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 13 (CV=0.74) long-beaked common dolphins taken annually.

Additional common dolphin mortality has been reported for set gillnets in California (Julian and Beeson 1998);

however, because of a 1994 ban on gillnets in nearshore areas of Southern California, the size of this fishery decreased by about a factor of two (see Appendix 1), and the observer program was discontinued. No observer data are available for the set gillnet fishery after 1994, but Marine Mammal Authorization Permit (MMAP) fisher self-reports for 1994-98 indicate that at least four common dolphins (type not specified) were killed between 1995 and 1998. Although these reports are considered unreliable (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998) they represent a minimum mortality for this fishery.

Two common dolphins (type not specified) stranded with evidence of fishery interaction (NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data); one animal had a hook and line in its mouth and a slit ventrum, and the other animal had its flukes cut off. It is not known which fisheries were responsible for these deaths.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of long-beaked common dolphins (California Stock) and prorated unidentified common dolphins in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements resulted in the death of the animal. The observer program for the set gillnet fishery was discontinued during 1994. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses, when available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 6 1 4 0	6 (0.91) 39 (0.65) 12 (0.96) 25 (0.74) 0	13 (0.74)[1]
CA angel shark/ halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5in) set gillnet fishery		Common dolphins, species not determined				
	observer data	1994 1995-98	7.7% 0%	0 n/a	0 n/a	n/a
	MMAP self-reporting	1995 1996 1998	- - -	1 1 2	≥1 ≥1 ≥2	≥0.8 (n/a)
Undetermined	strandings	1994-98	2 common dolphins (species not determined) stranded with evidence of fishery interactions			≥0.4 (n/a)
Minimum total annual takes						14 (0.74)

[1]Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices. Following these changes in the fishery, entanglement rates of long-beaked common dolphin declined.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take long-beaked common dolphins from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Other Mortality

In the eastern tropical Pacific, 'northern common dolphins' have been incidentally killed in international tuna purse seine fisheries since the late 1950's. Cooperative international management programs have dramatically reduced overall dolphin mortality in these fisheries during the last decade (Joseph 1994). Between 1994 and 1998, annual mortality of northern common dolphins (potentially including both short-beaked and long-beaked common dolphins) ranged between 9 and 261 animals, with an average of 91 (IATTC, in prep). Although it is likely that the long-beaked common dolphins included in the 'northern common dolphin' stock are part of the same population as those found off California, they are managed separately under a section of the MMPA written specifically for the management of dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna fisheries.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of long-beaked common dolphins in California waters relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate potential trends in abundance of this species of common dolphin. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (14 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (250), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The average total fishery mortality and injury for long-beaked common dolphins is less than 10% of the PBR and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

NORTHERN RIGHT-WHALE DOLPHIN (*Lissodelphis borealis*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Northern right-whale dolphins are endemic to temperate waters of the North Pacific Ocean. Off the U.S. west coast, they have been seen primarily in shelf and slope waters (Figure 1), with seasonal movements into the Southern California Bight (Leatherwood and Walker 1979; Dohl et al. 1980; 1983; NMFS, unpublished data). Sighting patterns from recent aerial and shipboard surveys conducted in California, Oregon and Washington during different seasons (Green et al. 1992; 1993; Forney et al. 1995; Barlow 1995) suggest seasonal north-south movements, with animals found primarily off California during the colder water months and shifting northward into Oregon and Washington as water temperatures increase in late spring and summer (Green et al. 1992; Forney 1994; Forney and Barlow 1998). The southern end of this population's range is not well-documented, but during cold-water periods, they probably range into Mexican waters off northern Baja California. Genetic analyses have not found statistically significant differences between northern right-whale dolphins from the U.S. West coast and other areas of the North Pacific (Dizon et al. 1994); however, power analyses indicate that the ability to detect stock differences for this species is poor, given traditional statistical error levels (Dizon et al. 1995). Although northern right-whale dolphins are not restricted to U.S. territorial waters, there are currently no international agreements for cooperative management. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of California, Oregon and Washington.

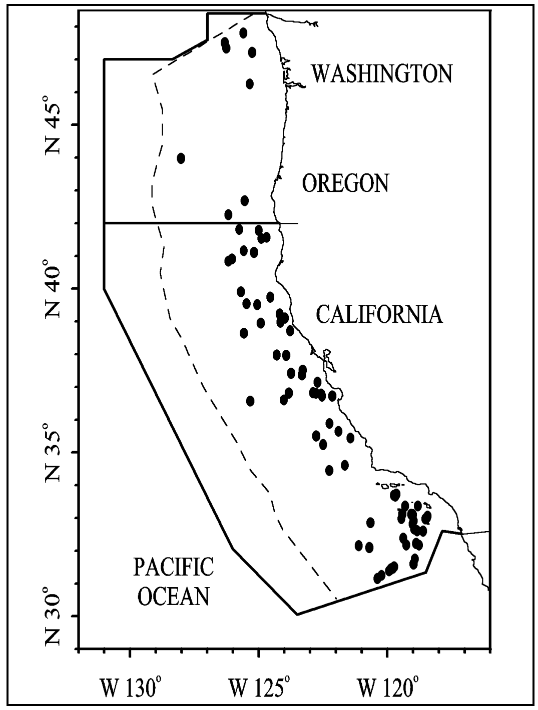

Figure 1. Northern right-whale dolphin dolphin sightings based on aerial and ship board surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

The previous best estimates of abundance for northern right-whale dolphins (Barlow et al. 1997) were based on winter/spring 1991-92 aerial surveys (Forney et al. 1995) off California, which were presumed to include northern right-whale dolphins that are found off Oregon and Washington during summer and fall. Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California in 1991 and 1993 (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington in 1996 (Barlow 1997). The distribution of northern right-whale dolphins throughout this region is highly variable, apparently in response to oceanographic changes on both seasonal and interannual time scales (Forney and Barlow 1998). As oceanographic conditions vary, northern right-whale dolphins may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, and therefore a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the three ship surveys is 13,705 (CV=0.38) northern right-whale dolphins (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 10,060 northern right-whale dolphins.

Current Population Trend

No information is available regarding trends in abundance of northern right-whale dolphins in California, Oregon and Washington.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for northern right-whale dolphins off the U.S. west coast.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (10,060) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.48 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV>0.30; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 97 northern right-whale dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for this stock of northern right-whale dolphin is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of northern right-whale dolphin entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 15 (CV=0.42) northern right-whale dolphins taken annually.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of northern right-whale dolphins (California/Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements of northern right-whale dolphins resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	7 9 5 5 0	39 (0.42) 58 (0.59) 27 (0.68) 29 (0.42) 0	15 (0.42)[1]
Minimum total annual takes						15 (0.42)

[1]Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers). Following these changes within the fishery, entanglement rates of northern right-whale dolphin declined.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population during cold-water periods. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of northern right-whale dolphins in California, Oregon and Washington relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (15 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (97), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for northern right-whale dolphins is greater than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, cannot be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

KILLER WHALE (*Orcinus orca*): Eastern North Pacific Transient Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Killer whales have been observed in all oceans and seas of the world (Leatherwood and Dahlheim 1978). Although reported from tropical and offshore waters, killer whales prefer the colder waters of both hemispheres, with greatest abundances found within 800 km of major continents (Mitchell 1975). Along the west coast of North America, killer whales occur along the entire Alaskan coast (Braham and Dahlheim 1982), in British Columbia and Washington inland waterways (Bigg et al. 1990), and along the outer coasts of Washington, Oregon, and California (Green et al. 1992; Barlow 1995, 1997; Forney et al. 1995). Seasonal and year-round occurrence has been noted for killer whales throughout Alaska (Braham and Dahlheim 1982) and in the intracoastal waterways of British Columbia and Washington State, where pods have been labeled as 'resident,' 'transient,' and 'offshore' (Bigg et al. 1990, Ford et al. 1994) based on aspects of morphology, ecology, genetics, and behavior (Ford and Fisher 1982, Baird and Stacey 1988, Baird et al. 1992, Hoelzel et al. 1998). Through examination of photographs of recognizable individuals and pods, movements of whales between geographical areas have been documented. For example, whales identified in Prince William Sound have been observed near Kodiak Island (Matkin et al. 1999) and whales identified in Southeast Alaska have been observed in Prince William Sound, British Columbia, and Puget Sound (Leatherwood et al. 1990, Dahlheim et al. 1997). Movements of killer whales between the waters of Southeast Alaska and central California have also been documented (Goley and Straley 1994).

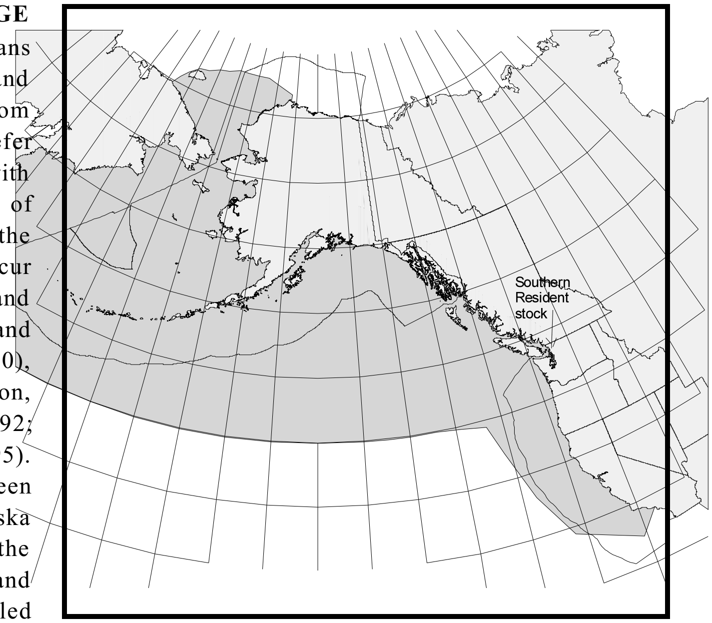

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of killer whales in the eastern North Pacific (shaded area). The distribution of the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident and Transient stocks are largely overlapping (see text).

Studies on mtDNA restriction patterns provide evidence that the 'resident' and 'transient' types are genetically distinct (Stevens et al. 1989, Hoelzel 1991, Hoelzel and Dover 1991, Hoelzel et al. 1998). Analysis of 73 samples collected from eastern North Pacific killer whales from California to Alaska has demonstrated significant genetic differences among 'transient' whales from California through Alaska, 'resident' whales from the inland waters of Washington, and 'resident' whales ranging from British Columbia to the Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea (Hoelzel et al. 1998).

Based on data regarding association patterns, acoustics, movements, genetic differences and potential fishery interactions, five killer whale stocks are recognized within the Pacific U.S. EEZ: 1) the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock - occurring from British Columbia through Alaska, 2) the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock - occurring mainly within the inland waters of Washington State and southern British Columbia, but also in coastal waters from British Columbia through California, 3) the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock - occurring from Alaska through California (see Fig. 1), 4) the Eastern North Pacific Offshore stock - occurring from Southeast Alaska through California, and 5) the Hawaiian stock. 'Transient' whales in Canadian waters are considered part of the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock. The Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region contain information concerning the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock

POPULATION SIZE

The Eastern North Pacific Transient stock is a trans-boundary stock, including killer whales from British Columbia. Preliminary analysis of photographic data resulted in the following minimum counts for 'transient' killer whales belonging to the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock (Note: individual whales have been matched between geographical regions and missing animals likely to be dead have been subtracted). In British Columbia and southeastern Alaska, 219 'transient' whales have been cataloged (Ford and Ellis 1999). In the Gulf of Alaska, 21 'transient' killer whales have been identified genetically and/or acoustically (Matkin et al. 1999). The 'transient' group AT1, commonly seen in Prince William Sound/Kenai Fjords, had only 11 remaining whales in 1998 (Matkin et al. 1999). Based on data collected from all Alaska waters west of Seward (Dahlheim and Waite 1993; Dahlheim 1994, 1997), 68 whales are considered 'residents' as they have been linked by association to 'resident' whales from Prince William Sound (G. Ellis, pers. comm.), and the remainder are provisionally classified as 174 'residents' and 53 'transients.' Provisional classifications were based primarily on morphological differences identified from the photographs. Accordingly, the numbers of 'residents' and 'transients' in Alaska waters west of Seward are considered preliminary at this time. Off the coast of California, 105 'transient' whales have been identified (Black et al. 1997): 10 whales were matched to photos of 'transients' in other catalogs and the remaining 95 were linked by association. An additional 14 whales in southeastern Alaska (M. Dahlheim, unpubl. data) and 16 whales off the coast of California (N. Black, pers. comm.) have been provisionally classified as 'transient' whales by association. Combining the counts of cataloged 'transient' whales gives a minimum number of 346 (219 + 21 + 11 + 95) killer whales belonging to the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock.

Minimum Population Estimate

The abundance estimate of killer whales is a direct count of individually identifiable animals. However, the number of cataloged whales does not necessarily represent the number of live animals. Some animals may have died, but whales can not be presumed dead if not resighted because long periods of time between sightings is common for some 'transient' animals. On the other hand, given that researchers continue to identify new whales, the estimate of abundance based on the number of uniquely identified individuals cataloged is likely conservative. However, the rate of discovering new whales within Southeast Alaska and Prince William Sound is relatively low. In addition, the abundance estimate does not include 53 whales from western Alaska, 14 whales from southeastern Alaska, and 16 whales off the coast of California that have been provisionally classified as 'transients.'

Other estimates of the overall population size (i.e., N_{BEST}) and associated CV(N) are not currently available. Thus, the minimum population estimate (N_{MIN}) for the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock of killer whales is 346 animals, which includes animals found in Canadian waters (see PBR Guidelines regarding the status of migratory trans-boundary stocks, Wade and Angliss 1997). Information on the percentage of time animals typically encountered in Canadian waters spend in U.S. waters is unknown. However, as noted above, this minimum population estimate is considered conservative. This approach is consistent with the recommendations of the Alaska Scientific Review Group (DeMaster 1996).

Current Population Trend

At present, reliable data on trends in population abundance for the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock of killer whales are unavailable.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

A reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is currently unavailable for this stock of killer whales. Studies of 'resident' killer whale pods in the Pacific Northwest resulted in estimated population growth rates of 2.92% and 2.54% over the period from 1973 to 1987 (Olesiuk et al. 1990, Brault and Caswell 1993). However, a population increases at the maximum growth rate (R_{MAX}) only when the population is at extremely low levels; thus, the estimate of 2.92% is not a reliable estimate of R_{MAX}. Hence, until additional data become available, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% be employed for this stock (Wade and Angliss 1997).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (346) times one-half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.40 (for a cetacean stock of unknown status with a mortality rate CV≥0.80, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 2.8 whales per year. The proportion of time that this trans-boundary stock spends in Canadian waters cannot be determined (G. Ellis, pers. comm.).

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

Six different commercial fisheries in Alaska that could have interacted with killer whales were monitored for incidental take by fishery observers from 1994 to 1998: Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands (BSAI) and Gulf of Alaska groundfish trawl, longline, and pot fisheries. Of the six observed fisheries, killer whale mortalities occurred only in the Bering Sea groundfish trawl and longline fisheries (Table 1; Perez in prep.). From 1994 to 1998, one killer whale mortality was observed in 1997 in the Bering Sea groundfish trawl fishery. The 1995 mortality in the longline fishery occurred during an unmonitored haul and could not be used to estimate total mortality for the fishery.

NMFS observers also monitored the California/Oregon thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery from 1994 to 1998 (Table 1; Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999). The observed mortality in this fishery, in 1995, was a transient whale as determined by genetic testing (S. Chivers, pers. comm.). Overall entanglement rates in the California/Oregon thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably after the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-1998 data. Additional fisheries that could interact with the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock of killer whales are listed in Appendix 1.

The mean annual mortality was 0.4 (CV=1.0) for the Bering Sea groundfish trawl fishery, 0.2 (0 from monitored hauls + 0.2 from unmonitored haul data) for the combined Bering Sea longline fishery, and zero for the California/Oregon thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery (1997-1998 data), resulting in a mean annual mortality rate of 0.6 killer whales per year from observed fisheries.

An additional source of information on the number of killer whales killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fisher self-reports of killer whale mortalities from any Alaska fisheries operating within the range of this stock. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998).

The estimated minimum mortality rate incidental to recently monitored U.S. commercial fisheries is 0.6 animals per year, based on observer data (0.4 from monitored hauls + 0.2 from unmonitored hauls). As the animals which were taken incidental to commercial fisheries in Alaska have not been identified genetically, it is not possible to determine whether they belonged to the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident or the Eastern North Pacific Transient killer whale stock. Accordingly, these same mortalities can be found in the stock assessment report for the Northern Resident stock.

Table 1. Summary of incidental mortality of killer whales (Eastern North Pacific Transient stock) due to commercial fisheries and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
Bering Sea/Aleutian Is. (BSAI) groundfish trawl	94 95 96 97 98	obs data	65.5% 67.3% 66.2% 63.9% 67.0%	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 0 2 0	0.4 (1.0)
BSAI groundfish longline (incl. misc. finfish and sablefish fisheries)	94 95 96 97 98	obs data	27.3% 28.0% 28.7% 32.5% 36.2%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0
	95	unmonitored haul		1		0.2
CA/OR thresher shark/ swordfish drift gillnet	94 95 96 97 98	obs data	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 1 0 0 0	0 6 0 0 0	0[1]
Estimated total annual takes						0.6 (1.0)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Due to a lack of Canadian observer programs, there are few data concerning the mortality of marine mammals incidental to Canadian commercial fisheries, which are analogous to U.S. fisheries that are known to interact with killer whales. The sablefish longline fishery accounts for a large proportion of the commercial fishing/killer whale interactions in Alaska waters. Such interactions have not been reported in Canadian waters where sablefish are taken via a pot fishery. Since 1990, there have been no reported fishery-related strandings of killer whales in Canadian waters. However, in 1994, one killer whale was reported to have contacted a salmon gillnet, but it did not entangle (Guenther et al. 1995). Data regarding the level of killer whale mortality related to commercial fisheries in Canadian waters, though thought to be small, are not readily available or reliable which results in an underestimate of the annual mortality for this stock.

Subsistence/Native Harvest Information

There are no reports of a subsistence harvest of killer whales in Alaska or Canada.

Other Mortality

There is considerable interaction between killer whales and longline vessels in the Bering Sea (Dahlheim 1988; Yano and Dahlheim 1995; Perez in prep.; M. Perez, unpubl. data), as well as reports of killer whales consuming the processing waste of Bering Sea groundfish trawl fishing vessels (M. Perez, unpubl. data). However, it most likely is the 'resident' stock of killer whales that is involved in such fishery interactions since these whales are known to be fish eaters, while 'transient' whales have only been observed feeding on marine mammals.

The shooting of killer whales in Canadian waters has also been a concern in the past. However, in recent years there have been no reports of shooting incidents in Canadian waters. In fact, the likelihood of shooting incidents involving 'transient' killer whales is thought to be minimal since commercial fishermen are most likely to observe 'transients' feeding on seals or sea lions instead of interacting with their fishing gear (G. Ellis, pers. comm.).

Collisions with boats are another source of mortality. One mortality due to a ship strike occurred in 1998, when a killer whale struck the propeller of a vessel in the Bering Sea groundfish trawl fishery, resulting in an estimated annual mortality of 0.2 killer whales from this stock in 1994-1998.

STATUS OF STOCK

Killer whales are not listed as "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Recall that the human-caused mortality has been underestimated, primarily due to a lack of information on Canadian fisheries, and that the minimum abundance estimate is considered conservative (because researchers continue to encounter new whales and provisionally classified whales from western Alaska, southeastern Alaska, and off the coast of California were not included), resulting in a conservative PBR estimate. Based on currently available data, the estimated annual fishery-related mortality level (0.6) exceeds 10% of the PBR (0.28) and, therefore, can not be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The estimated annual level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (0.6 + 0.2 = 0.8 animals per year) is not known to exceed the PBR (2.8). Therefore, the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock of killer whales is not classified as a strategic stock. Population trends and status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level are currently unknown.

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Revised 12/15/2000

KILLER WHALE (*Orcinus orca*): Eastern North Pacific Offshore Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

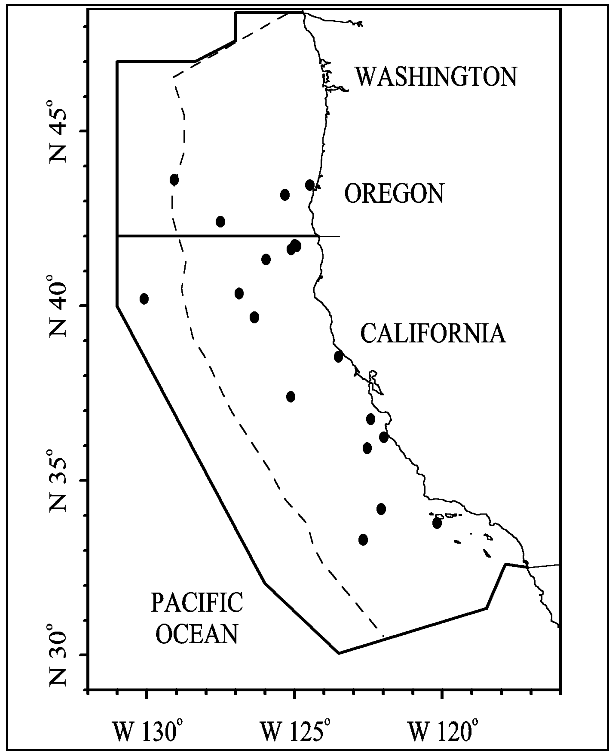

Figure 1. Killer whale sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Sightings include killer whales from all stocks found in this region. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

Killer whales have been observed in all oceans and seas of the world (Leatherwood and Dahlheim 1978). Although reported from tropical and offshore waters, killer whales prefer the colder waters of both hemispheres, with greatest abundances found within 800 km of major continents (Mitchell 1975). Along the west coast of North America, killer whales occur along the entire Alaskan coast (Braham and Dahlheim 1982), in British Columbia and Washington inland waterways (Bigg et al. 1990), and along the outer coasts of Washington, Oregon and California (Green et al. 1992; Barlow 1995, 1997; Forney et al. 1995). Seasonal and year-round occurrence has been noted for killer whales throughout Alaska (Braham and Dahlheim 1982) and in the intracoastal waterways of British Columbia and Washington State, where pods have been labeled as 'resident', 'transient' and 'offshore' (Bigg et al. 1990, Ford et al. 1994) based on aspects of morphology, ecology, genetics and behavior (Ford and Fisher 1982; Baird and Stacey 1988; Baird et al. 1992, Hoelzel et al. 1998). Through examination of photographs of recognizable individuals and pods, movements of whales between geographical areas have been documented. For example, whales identified in Prince William Sound have been observed near Kodiak Island (Heise et al. 1991) and whales identified in Southeast Alaska have been observed in Prince William Sound, British Columbia, and Puget Sound (Leatherwood et al. 1990, Dahlheim et al. 1997). Movements of killer whales between the waters of Southeast Alaska and central California have also been documented (Goley and Straley 1994).

Offshore killer whales have more recently also been identified off the coasts of California, Oregon, and rarely, in Southeast Alaska (Ford et al. 1994, Black et al. 1997, Dahlheim et al. 1997). They apparently do not mix with the transient and resident killer whale stocks found in these regions (Ford et al. 1994, Black et al. 1997). Studies indicate the 'offshore' type, although distinct from the other types ('resident' and 'transient'), appears to be more closely related genetically, morphologically, behaviorally, and vocally to the 'resident' type killer whales (Black et al. 1997, Hoelzel et al. 1998; J. Ford, pers. comm.; L. Barrett-Lennard, pers. comm.). Based on data regarding association patterns, acoustics, movements, genetic differences, and potential fishery interactions, five killer whale stocks are recognized within the Pacific U.S. EEZ 1) the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock - occurring from British Columbia through Alaska, 2) the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock - occurring within the inland waters of Washington State and southern British Columbia, 3) the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock - occurring from Alaska through California, 4) the Eastern North Pacific Offshore stock - occurring from Southeast Alaska through California (this report), and 5) the Hawaiian stock. 'Offshore' whales in Canadian waters are considered part of the Eastern North Pacific

Offshore stock. The Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region contain assessments of the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock, and the most recent assessment for the Hawaii Stock is included in this volume.

POPULATION SIZE

Off British Columbia, approximately 200 offshore killer whales were identified between 1989 and 1993 (Ford et al. 1994), and 20 of these individuals have also been seen off California (Black et al. 1997). Using only good quality photographs that clearly show characteristics of the dorsal fin and saddle patch region, an additional 11 offshore killer whales that were not previously known have been identified off the California coast, bringing the total number of known individuals in this population to 211. This is certainly an underestimate of the total population size, because not all animals in this population have been photographed. In the future, it may be possible estimate the total abundance of this transboundary stock using mark-recapture analyses based on individual photographs. Based on summer/fall shipboard line-transect surveys in 1991, 1993 and 1996 (Barlow 1997), the total number of killer whales within 300 nmi of the coasts of California, Oregon and Washington was recently estimated to be 819 animals (CV=0.38). There is currently no way to reliably distinguish the different stocks of killer whales from sightings at sea, but photographs of individual animals can provide a rough estimate of the proportion of whales in each stock. A total of 161 individual killer whales photographed off California and Oregon have been determined to belong to the transient (105 whales) and offshore (56 whales) stocks (Black et al. 1997). Using these proportions to prorate the line transect abundance estimate yields an estimate of 56/161 * 819 = 285 offshore killer whales along the U.S. west coast. This is expected to be a conservative estimate of the number of offshore killer whales, because offshore whales apparently are less frequently seen near the coast (Black et al. 1997), and therefore photographic sampling may be biased towards transient whales. For stock assessment purposes, this combined value is currently the best available estimate of abundance for offshore killer whales off the coasts of California, Oregon and Washington.

Minimum Population Estimate

The total number of known offshore killer whales along the U.S. West coast, Canada and Alaska is 211 animals, but it is not known what proportion of time this transboundary stock spends in U.S. waters, and therefore this number is difficult to work with for PBR calculations. A minimum abundance estimate for all killer whales along the coasts of California, Oregon and Washington can be estimated from the 1991-1996 line-transect surveys as the 20th percentile of the abundance estimate, or 601 killer whales. Using the same prorating as above, a minimum of 56/161 * 601 = 209 offshore killer whales are estimated to be in U.S. waters off California, Oregon and Washington.

Current Population Trend

No information is available regarding trends in abundance of Eastern North Pacific offshore killer whales.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for killer whales in this region.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (209) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 2.1 offshore killer whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of information on fisheries that may take animals from this killer whale stock is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. In the California drift gillnet fishery, no offshore killer whales have been observed entangled (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and

Forney 1999), but one killer whale from the Eastern North Pacific Transient Stock was observed taken in 1995, and offshore killer whales may also occasionally be entangled. Additional potential sources of killer whale mortality are set gillnets and longlines. In California, an observer program between July 1990 and December 1994 monitored 5-15% of all sets in the large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery for halibut and angel sharks, and no killer whales were observed taken. Based on observations for longline fisheries in other regions (i.e. Alaska; Yano and Dahlheim 1995), fishery interactions may also occur with U.S. West coast pelagic longline fisheries, but no such interactions have been documented to date.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of killer whales (Eastern North Pacific Offshore Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0[1]
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Set and drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Historical mortality

California coastal whaling operations killed five killer whales between 1962 and 1967 (Rice 1974). An additional killer whale was taken by whalers in British Columbian waters (Hoyt 1981). It is unknown whether any of these animals belonged to the Eastern North Pacific Offshore stock.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of killer whales in California in relation to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. There has been no documented human-caused mortality of this stock, and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for offshore killer whales is zero and can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

KILLER WHALE (*Orcinus orca*): Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Killer whales have been observed in all oceans and seas of the world (Leatherwood and Dahlheim 1978). Although reported from tropical and offshore waters, killer whales prefer the colder waters of both hemispheres, with greatest abundances found within 800 km of major continents (Mitchell 1975). Along the west coast of North America, killer whales occur along the entire Alaskan coast (Braham and Dahlheim 1982), in British Columbia and Washington inland waterways (Bigg et al. 1990), and along the outer coasts of Washington, Oregon, and California (Green et al. 1992; Barlow 1995, 1997; Forney et al. 1995). Seasonal and year-round occurrence has been noted for killer whales throughout Alaska (Braham and Dahlheim 1982) and in the intracoastal waterways of British Columbia and Washington State, where pods have been labeled as 'resident,' 'transient,' and 'offshore' (Bigg et al. 1990, Ford et al. 1994) based on aspects of morphology, ecology, genetics, and behavior (Ford and Fisher 1982, Baird and Stacey 1988, Baird et al. 1992, Hoelzel et al. 1998). Through examination of photographs of recognizable individuals and pods, movements of whales between geographical areas have been documented. For example, whales identified in Prince William Sound have been observed near Kodiak Island (Matkin et al. 1999) and whales identified in Southeast Alaska have been observed in Prince William Sound, British Columbia, and Puget Sound (Leatherwood et al. 1990, Dahlheim et al. 1997). Movements of killer whales between the waters of Southeast Alaska and central California have also been documented (Goley and Straley 1994).

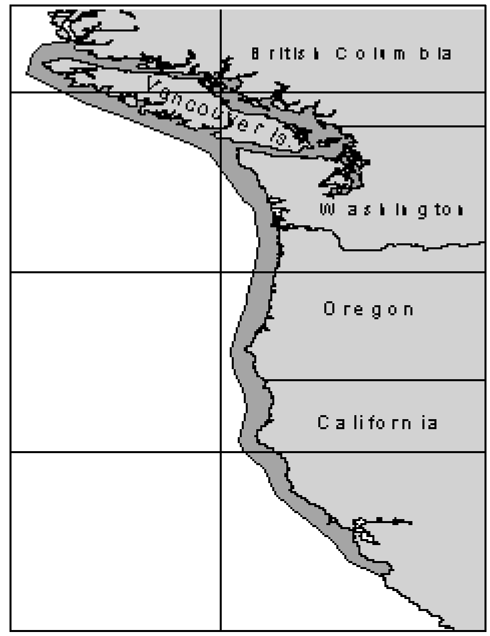

Figure 1. Approximate distribution of the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident killer whale stock (shaded area).

Studies on mtDNA restriction patterns provide evidence that the 'resident' and 'transient' types are genetically distinct (Stevens et al. 1989, Hoelzel 1991, Hoelzel and Dover 1991, Hoelzel et al. 1998). Analysis of 73 samples collected from eastern North Pacific killer whales from California to Alaska has demonstrated significant genetic differences among 'transient' whales from California through Alaska, 'resident' whales from the inland waters of Washington, and 'resident' whales ranging from British Columbia to the Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea (Hoelzel et al. 1998). Most sightings of the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock of killer whales have occurred in inland waters of Washington and southern British Columbia. However, pods belonging to this stock have also been sighted in coastal waters off Vancouver Island and Washington (Bigg et al. 1990, Ford et al. 2000), as far south as Grays Harbor (Bigg et al. 1990), and members of two pods were observed in Monterey Bay, California, in January 2000 (N. Black, pers. comm.).

Based on data regarding association patterns, acoustics, movements, genetic differences and potential fishery interactions, five killer whale stocks are recognized within the Pacific U.S. EEZ: 1) the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock - occurring from British Columbia through Alaska, 2) the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock - occurring mainly within the inland waters of Washington State and southern British Columbia, but also in coastal waters from British Columbia through California (see Fig. 1), 3) the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock - occurring from Alaska through California, 4) the Eastern North Pacific Offshore stock - occurring from Southeast Alaska through California, and 5) the Hawaiian stock. The Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region contain information concerning the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock.

POPULATION SIZE

The Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock is a trans-boundary stock including killer whales in inland Washington and southern British Columbia waters. Photo-identification of individual whales through the years has resulted in a substantial understanding of this stock's structure, behaviors, and movements. In 1993, the three pods comprising this stock totaled 96 killer whales (Ford et al. 1994). The population increased to 99 whales in 1995, then declined to the current population of 84 whales in 1999 (Fig. 2; Ford et al. 2000).

Minimum Population Estimate

The abundance estimate for this stock of killer whales is a direct count of individually identifiable animals. Other estimates of the overall population size (i.e., N_{BEST}) and associated CV(N) are not currently available. Thus, the minimum population estimate (N_{MIN}) for the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock of killer whales is 84 animals.

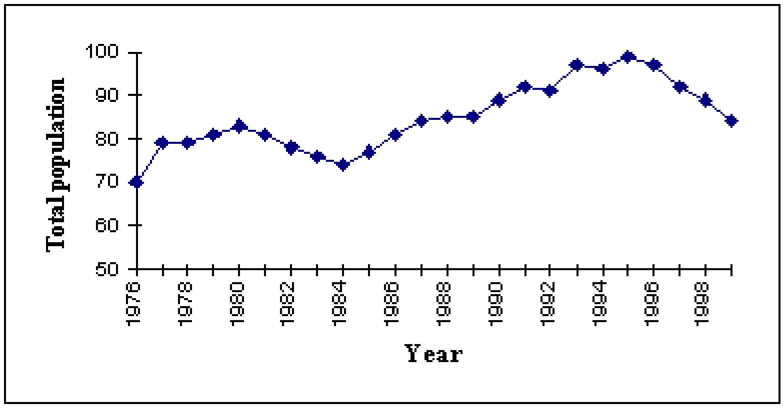

Figure 2. Population of Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock of killer whales, 1976-1999. Each year's count includes animals first seen and first missed; a whale is considered first missed the year after it was last seen alive (Ford et al. 2000).

Current Population Trend

During the live-capture fishery that existed from 1967 to 1973, it is estimated that 47 killer whales, mostly immature, were taken out of this stock (Ford et al. 1994). The first complete census of this stock occurred in 1974. Between 1974 and 1993 the Southern Resident stock increased approximately 35%, from 71 to 96 individuals (Ford et al. 1994). This represents a net annual growth rate of 1.8% during those years. Since 1995, the population has declined to 84 whales (Ford et al. 2000). A Southern Resident Killer Whale Workshop, sponsored by the AFSC's National Marine Mammal Laboratory (NMML), the Center for Whale Research, Six Flags Marine World Vallejo, and The Whale Museum, was held at the NMML in Seattle, WA, on 1-2 April 2000. Workshop participants discussed possible factors influencing killer whale populations including contaminant levels (Ross et al. 2000; G. Ylitalo, pers. comm.), whale-watching activities, and the availability of prey resources (NMML 2000).

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

A reliable estimate of the maximum net productivity rate is currently unavailable for this stock of killer whales. Studies of 'resident' killer whale pods in British Columbia and Washington waters resulted in estimated population growth rates of 2.92% and 2.54% over the period from 1973 to 1987 (Olesiuk et al. 1990, Brault and Caswell 1993). However, a population increases at the maximum growth rate (R_{MAX}) only when the population is at extremely low levels; thus, the estimate of 2.92% is not considered a reliable estimate of R_{MAX}. Hence, until additional data become available, it is recommended that the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) of 4% be employed for this stock (Wade and Angliss 1997).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (84) <u>times</u> one-half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.5 (for a cetacean stock of unknown status, Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.8 whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fisheries Information

NMFS observers have monitored the northern Washington marine set gillnet fishery since 1988 (Gearin et al. 1994, 2000; P. Gearin, unpubl. data); 1994 observer data recently became available and will be included in a future stock assessment report. Observer coverage ranged from approximately 40 to 98% in the entire fishery (coastal + inland waters) between 1993 and 1998. Data from 1993 to 1998 are included in Table 1, although the mean estimated annual mortality is calculated using only the most recent 5 years for which data are available. No killer whale mortalities have been recorded in this fishery since the inception of the observer program.

In 1993, as a pilot for future observer programs, NMFS in conjunction with the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) monitored all non-treaty components of the Washington Puget Sound Region salmon gillnet fishery (Pierce et al. 1994). Observer coverage was 1.3% overall, ranging from 0.9% to 7.3% for the various components of the fishery. Encounters (whales within 10 m of a net) with killer whales were reported, but not quantified, though no entanglements occurred.

In 1994, NMFS and WDFW conducted an observer program during the Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery (areas 10/11 and 12/12B). A total of 230 sets were observed during 54 boat trips, representing approximately 11% observer coverage of the 500 fishing boat trips comprising the total effort in this fishery, as estimated from fish ticket landings (Erstad et al. 1996). No interactions with killer whales were observed during this fishery. The Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet fishery in Hood Canal (areas 12, 12B, and 12C) and Puget Sound treaty sockeye/chum gillnet fishery in the Strait of Juan de Fuca (areas 4B, 5, and 6C) were also monitored in 1994 at 2.2% (based on % of total catch observed) and approximately 7.5% (based on % of observed trips to total landings) observer coverage, respectively (NWIFC 1995). No interactions resulting in killer whale mortalities were reported in either treaty salmon gillnet fishery.

Also in 1994, NMFS, WDFW, and the Tribes conducted an observer program to examine seabird and marine mammal interactions with the Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet fishery (areas 7 and 7A). During this fishery, observers monitored 2,205 sets, representing approximately 7% of the estimated number of sets in the fishery (Pierce et al. 1996). Killer whales were observed within 10 m of the gear during 10 observed sets (32 animals in all), though none were observed to have been entangled.

An additional source of information on the number of killer whales killed or injured incidental to commercial fishery operations is the self-reported fisheries information required of vessel operators by the MMPA. During the period between 1994 and 1998, there were no fisher self-reports of killer whale mortalities from any fisheries operating within the range of this stock. However, because logbook records (fisher self-reports required during 1990-94) are most likely negatively biased (Credle et al. 1994), these are considered to be minimum estimates. Self-reported fisheries data are incomplete for 1994, not available for 1995, and considered unreliable after 1995 (see Appendix 4 of Hill and DeMaster 1998).

Table 1. Summary of incidental mortality of killer whales (Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock) due to commercial and tribal fisheries and calculation of the mean annual mortality rate; n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery name	Years	Data type	Percent observer coverage	Observed mortality	Estimated mortality	Mean annual takes (CV in parentheses)
Northern WA marine set gillnet (tribal fishery: coastal + inland waters)	93 94 95 96 97 98	obs data	61% n/a 87% 59% 98% 40%	0 n/a 0 0 0 0	0 n/a 0 0 0 0	0[1]
WA Puget Sound Region salmon set/drift gillnet (observer programs listed below covered segments of this fishery):	-	-	-	-	-	-
Puget Sound non-treaty salmon gillnet (all areas and species)	93	obs data	1.3%	0	0	0
Puget Sound non-treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 10/11 and 12/12B)	94	obs data	11%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty chum salmon gillnet (areas 12, 12B, and 12C)	94	obs data	2.2%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty chum and sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 4B, 5, and 6C)	94	obs data	7.5%	0	0	0
Puget Sound treaty and non-treaty sockeye salmon gillnet (areas 7 and 7A)	94	obs data	7%	0	0	0
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1]1993 and 1995-98 mortality estimates are included in the average.

Due to a lack of observer programs, there are few data concerning the mortality of marine mammals incidental to Canadian commercial fisheries. Since 1990, there have been no reported fishery-related strandings of killer whales in Canadian waters. However, in 1994 one killer whale was reported to have contacted a salmon gillnet but did not entangle (Guenther et al. 1995). Data regarding the level of killer whale mortality related to commercial fisheries in Canadian waters are not available, though the mortality level is thought to be minimal. During this decade there have been no reported takes from this stock incidental to commercial fishing operations (D. Ellifrit, pers. comm.), no reports of interactions between killer whales and longline operations (as occurs in Alaskan waters; see Yano and Dahlheim 1995), no reports of stranded animals with net marks, and no photographs of individual whales carrying fishing gear. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock is zero.

STATUS OF STOCK

Killer whales are not listed as "depleted" under the MMPA or listed as "threatened " or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act. Based on currently available data, the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock (0) is not known to exceed 10% of the calculated PBR (0.08) and, therefore, can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The estimated annual level of human-caused mortality and serious injury of zero animals per year is not known to exceed the PBR (0.8). Therefore, the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock of killer whales is not classified as a strategic stock. The stock size has decreased in recent years, although at this time it is not possible to assess the status of this stock relative to its Optimum Sustainable Population (OSP) level.

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SHORT-FINNED PILOT WHALE (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Short-finned pilot whales were once commonly seen off Southern California, with an apparently resident population around Santa Catalina Island, as well as seasonal migrants (Dohl et al. 1980). After a strong El Niño event in 1982-83, short-finned pilot whales virtually disappeared from this region, and despite increased survey effort along the entire U.S. west coast, few sightings were made from 1984-1992 (Jones and Szczepaniak 1992; Barlow 1997; Carretta and Forney 1993; Shane 1994; Green et al. 1992, 1993). In 1993, six groups of short-finned pilot whales were again seen off California (Carretta et al. 1995; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996), and mortality in drift gillnets increased (Julian and Beeson 1998) but sightings remain rare (Barlow 1997). Figure 1 summarizes the sighting history of short-finned pilot whales off the U.S. west coast. Although the full geographic range of the California/Oregon/Washington population is not known, it may be continuous with animals found off Baja California, and its individuals are morphologically distinct from short-finned pilot whales found farther south in the eastern tropical Pacific (Polisini 1981). Separate southern and northern forms of short-finned pilot whales have also been documented for the western North Pacific (Kasuya et al. 1988; Wada 1988; Miyazaki and Amano 1994). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, short-finned pilot whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Hawaiian waters.

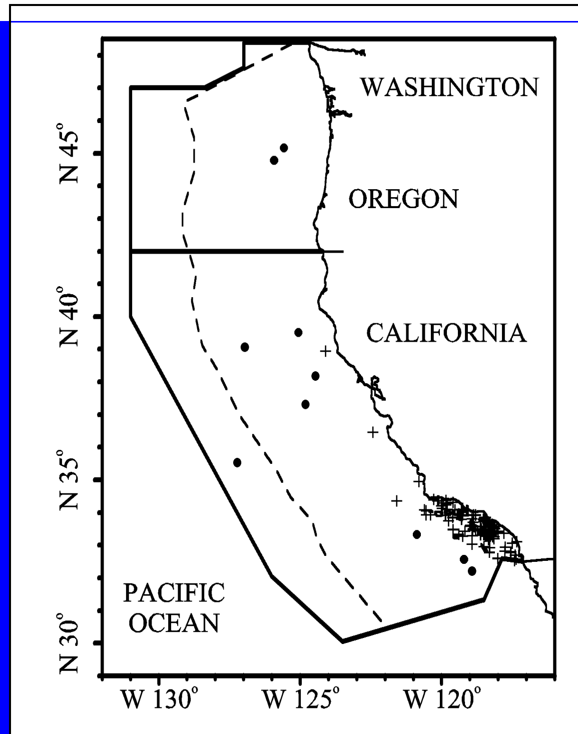

Figure 1. Short-finned pilot whale sightings made during aerial and shipboard surveys conducted off California in 1975-83 (+) and off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (●). See Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997). The abundance of short-finned pilot whales in this region appears to be variable and may relate to oceanographic conditions, as with other odontocete species (Forney 1997, Forney and Barlow 1998). Because animals may spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone as oceanographic conditions change, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above three ship surveys is 970 (CV=0.37) short-finned pilot whales (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 717 short-finned pilot whales.

Current Population Trend

Approximately nine years after the virtual disappearance of short-finned pilot whales following the 1982-83 El Niño, they appear to have returned to California waters, as indicated by an increase in sighting records as well as incidental fishery mortality (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996; Carretta et al. 1995; Julian and Beeson 1998). However, this cannot be considered a true growth in the population, because it merely reflects large-scale, long-term movements of this species in response to changing oceanographic conditions. It is not known where the animals went after the 82-83 El Niño, nor where the recently observed animals came from. Until the range of this population and the movements of animals in relation to environmental conditions are better documented, no inferences can be drawn regarding trends in abundance of short-finned pilot whales off California, Oregon and Washington.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for short-finned pilot whales off California, Oregon and Washington.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (717) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.40 (for a species of unknown status with a mortality rate CV>0.80; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 5.7 short-finned pilot whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of short-finned pilot whale is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of short-finned pilot whale entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. The observed mortality of a single short-finned pilot whale in 1997 was in a pingered net. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 3.0 (CV=0.96) short-finned pilot whales taken annually.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of short-finned pilot whales (California/ Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. All observed entanglements of pilot whales resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses; n/a = not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9 % 15.6 % 12.4 % 22.8 % 20.2 %	0 0 0 1 0	0 0 0 6 (0.96) 0	3.0 (0.96)[1]
Undetermined (probably squid purse seine fishery)	strandings	1975-90	14 short-finned pilot whales stranded in Southern California with evidence of fishery interactions, probably with the squid purse seine fishery			n/a
Minimum total annual takes						3.0 (0.96)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, in press), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Historically, short-finned pilot whales were also killed in squid purse seine operations off Southern California (Miller et al. 1983; Heyning et al. 1994). No recent mortality has been reported, presumably because short-finned pilot whales are no longer common in the areas of squid purse seine fishing activity; however, there have been recent anecdotal reports of pilot whales seen near squid fishing operations off Southern California during the October 1997- April 98 fishing season. This fishery is not currently monitored, and has expanded markedly since 1992 (Vojkovich 1998).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of short-finned pilot whales off California, Oregon and Washington in relation to OSP is unknown. They have declined in abundance in the Southern California Bight, likely a result of a change in their distribution since the 1982-83 El Niño, but the nature of these changes and potential habitat issues are not adequately understood. Short-finned pilot whales are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 (3.0 animals) is estimated to be less than the PBR (5.7), and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for short-finned pilot whales is greater than 10% of the calculated PBR and, therefore, cannot be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

BAIRD'S BEAKED WHALE (*Berardius bairdii*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Baird's beaked whales are distributed throughout deep waters and along the continental slopes of the North Pacific Ocean (Balcomb 1989). They have been harvested and studied in Japanese waters, but little is known about this species elsewhere (Balcomb 1989). Along the U.S. west coast, Baird's beaked whales have been seen primarily along the continental slope (Figure 1) from late spring to early fall. They have been seen less frequently and are presumed to be farther offshore during the colder water months of November through April. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Baird's beaked whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Alaskan waters.

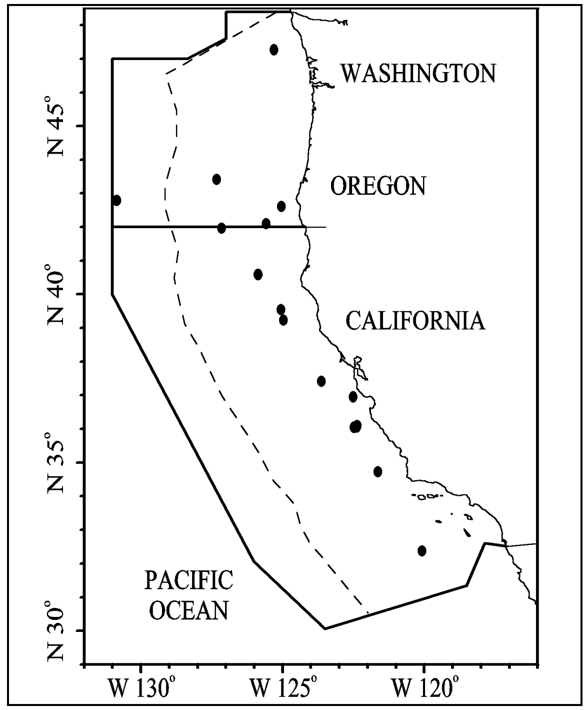

Figure 1. Baird's beaked whale sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Three summer/fall shipboard surveys were conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997), resulting in a combined total of 10 Baird's beaked whale sightings. Because their distribution varies and animals probably spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above three ship surveys is 379 (CV=0.23) Baird's beaked whales (Barlow 1997). This abundance estimate includes correction factors for the proportion of animals missed (g(0) = 0.90 for groups of 1-3 animals, g(0)=1.0 for larger groups), which are similar to the estimate of g(0)=0.96 calculated more recently (Barlow 1999) based on dive-interval studies.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate is 313 Baird's beaked whales.

Current Population Trend

Due to the rarity of sightings of this species on surveys along the U.S. West coast, no information exists regarding trends in abundance of this population. Future studies of trends must take the apparent seasonality of the distribution of Baird's beaked whales into account.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for this species.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (313) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 3.1 Baird's beaked whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for Baird's beaked whales in this region is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of Baird's beaked whale entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimated annual mortality of zero Baird's beaked whales.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Baird's beaked whales (California/ Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. The single observed entanglement resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994	17.9%	1	6 (0.90)	0[1]
		1995	15.6%	0	0	
		1996	12.4%	0	0	
		1997	23.0%	0	0	
		1998	20.0%	0	0	
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Other mortality

California coastal whaling operations killed 15 Baird's beaked whales between 1956 and 1970, and 29 additional Baird's beaked whales were taken by whalers in British Columbian waters (Rice 1974).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Baird's beaked whales in California, Oregon and Washington waters relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species, but in recent years questions have been raised regarding potential effects of human-made sounds on deep-diving cetacean species, such as Baird's beaked whales (Richardson et al. 1995). They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 is zero. Because recent mortality is zero, Baird's beaked whales are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

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Revised 12/15/2000

MESOPLODONT BEAKED WHALES (*Mesoplodon* spp.): California/Oregon/Washington Stocks

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Mesoplodont beaked whales are distributed throughout deep waters and along the continental slopes of the North Pacific Ocean. At least 5 species in this genus have been recorded off the U.S. west coast, but due to the rarity of records and the difficulty in identifying these animals in the field, virtually no species-specific information is available (Mead 1989). The five species known to occur in this region are: Blainville's beaked whale (*M. densirostris*), Hector's beaked whale, (*M. hectori*), Stejneger's beaked whale (*M. stejnegeri*), Gingko-toothed beaked whale (*M. gingkodens*), and Hubbs' beaked whale (*M. carlhubbsi*). Insufficient sighting records exist off the U.S. west coast (Figure 1) to determine any possible spatial or seasonal patterns in the distribution of mesoplodont beaked whales. Until methods of distinguishing these five species are developed, the management unit must be defined to include all *Mesoplodon* stocks in this region. However, in the future, species-level management is desirable, and a high priority should be placed on finding means to obtain species-specific abundance information. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, three *Mesoplodon* stocks are defined: 1) all *Mesoplodon* species off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), 2) *M. stejnegeri* in Alaskan waters, and 3) *M. densirostris* in Hawaiian waters.

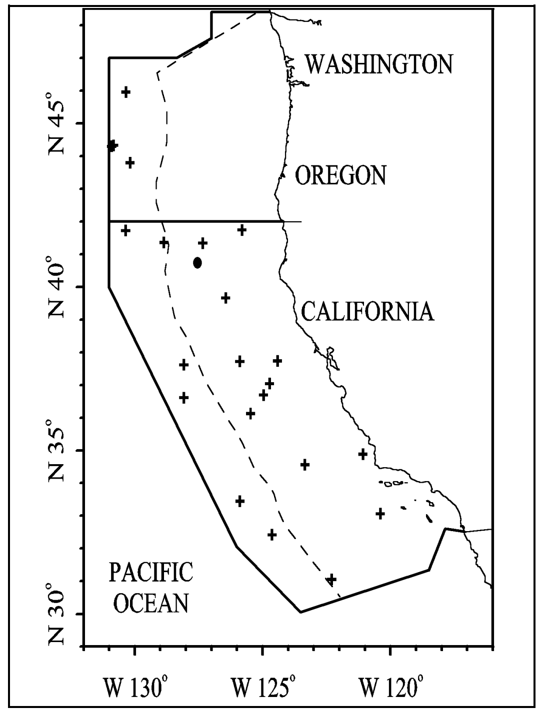

Figure 1. *Mesoplodon* beaked whale sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Key: ● = *Mesoplodon densirostris,* + = *Mesoplodon* spp. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Although mesoplodont beaked whales have been sighted along the U.S. west coast on several line transect surveys utilizing both aerial and shipboard platforms, sightings have generally been too rare to produce reliable population estimates, and species identification has been problematic. Previous abundance estimates have been imprecise and biased downward by an unknown amount because of the large proportion of time mesoplodont beaked whales spend submerged, and because the surveys on which they were based covered only California waters, and thus could not include animals off Oregon/Washington. Furthermore, there were a large number of unidentified beaked whale sightings, which were either *Mesoplodon* sp. or Cuvier's beaked whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*). Recent analyses (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996, Barlow and Sexton 1996, Barlow 1997) have resulted in improved estimates of abundance by 1) combining data from three surveys conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997), 2) whenever possible, assigning unidentified beaked whale sightings to *Mesoplodon* spp. or *Ziphius cavirostris* based on written descriptions, size estimates, and 'most probable identifications' made by the observers at the time of the sightings, and 3) estimating a correction factor for animals missed because they are submerged, based on dive-interval data collected for mesoplodont whales in 1993-95 (about 26% of all trackline groups are estimated to be seen). The first species-specific abundance estimate is now available for Blainville's beaked whale, which was identified once during the 1993 cruise. Because their distribution varies and animals probably spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive

Economic Zone, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimates for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above analyses are 3,738 (CV=0.50) mesoplodont beaked whales of unknown species plus 360 (CV=2.0) Blainville's beaked whales (Barlow 1997, with corrected CV).

Minimum Population Estimate

Based on the combined abundance estimate of 4,098 (CV=0.50), the minimum population estimate (defined as the log-normal 20th percentile of the abundance estimate) for mesoplodont beaked whales in California, Oregon, and Washington is 2,734 animals. This includes a species-specific minimum abundance estimate of 123 Blainville's beaked whales.

Current Population Trend

Due to the rarity of sightings of these species on surveys along the U.S. West coast, no information exists regarding possible trends in abundance.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for mesoplodont beaked whales.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (2,734) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known recent fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 27 mesoplodont beaked whales per year. This includes at least 1.1 Blainville's beaked whales.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for mesoplodont beaked whales in this region is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1). Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). A recently completed genetic analysis of tissue samples has allowed the reliable identification of the majority of these animals (Henshaw et al. 1997). Based on past patterns of identification (NMFS, unpublished data), the remaining unidentified beaked whale is likely to have been a *Mesoplodon* sp. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of mesoplodont beaked whale entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this group of species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimated annual mortality of zero mesoplodont beaked whales.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, and may take animals from the same populations. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCKS

The status of mesoplodont beaked whales in California, Oregon and Washington waters relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species, but in recent years questions have been raised regarding potential effects of human-made sounds on

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of *Mesoplodon* beaked whales (California/Oregon/Washington Stocks) in commercial fisheries that might take these species. All observed entanglements of *Mesoplodon* beaked whales resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Annual Mortality	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	Hubbs' beaked whale, *Mesoplodon carlhubbsi*					
	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	2 0 0 0 0	11 (0.64) 0 0 0 0	0[1]
	Stejneger's beaked whale, *Mesoplodon stejnegeri*					
	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 0 0 0 0	6 (0.91) 0 0 0 0	0[1]
	Unidentified beaked whale (probably *Mesoplodon*)					
	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 0 0 0 0	6 (0.90) 0 0 0 0	0[1]
Minimum total annual takes of *Mesoplodon* beaked whales						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

deep-diving cetacean species, such as mesoplodont beaked whales (Richardson et al. 1995). In particular, Low Frequency Active Sonar (LFAS) has been implicated in the mass stranding of beaked whales in the Mediterranean Sea (Frantzis 1998) and more recently in the Caribbean. None of the five species is listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor considered "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 is zero. Because recent mortality is zero, mesoplodont beaked whales are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero. It is likely that the difficulty in identifying these animals in the field will remain a critical obstacle to obtaining species-specific abundance estimates and stock assessments in the future.

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Revised 12/15/2000

CUVIER'S BEAKED WHALE (*Ziphius cavirostris*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Cuvier's beaked whales are distributed widely throughout deep waters of all oceans (Heyning 1989). Off the U.S. west coast, this species is the most commonly encountered beaked whale (Figure 1). No seasonal changes in distribution are apparent from stranding records, and morphological evidence is consistent with the existence of a single eastern North Pacific population from Alaska to Baja California, Mexico (Mitchell 1968). However, there are currently no international agreements for cooperative management of this species. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Cuvier's beaked whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into three discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), 2) Alaskan waters, and 3) Hawaiian waters.

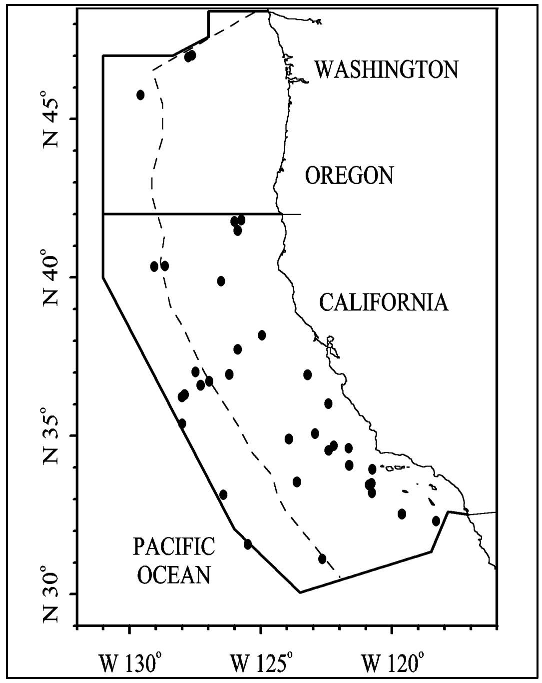

Figure 1. Cuvier's beaked whale sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Although Cuvier's beaked whales have been sighted along the U.S. west coast on several line transect surveys utilizing both aerial and shipboard platforms, sightings have generally been too rare to produce reliable population estimates. Previous abundance estimates have been imprecise and biased downward by an unknown amount because of the large proportion of time this species spends submerged, and because the ship surveys on which they were based covered only California waters, and thus could not observe animals off Oregon/Washington. Furthermore, there were a large number of unidentified beaked whale sightings, which were probably either *Mesoplodon* sp. or Cuvier's beaked whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*). Recent analyses (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996, Barlow and Sexton 1996) have resulted in improved estimates of abundance by 1) combining data from three surveys conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997), 2) whenever possible, assigning unidentified beaked whale sightings to *Mesoplodon* spp. or *Ziphius cavirostris* based on written descriptions, size estimates, and 'most probable identifications' made by the observers at the time of the sightings, and 3) estimating a correction factor for animals missed because they are submerged, based on dive-interval data collected for Cuvier's beaked whales in 1993-95 (an estimated 13% of all groups are estimated to be seen). Because animals probably spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above analyses is 5,870 (CV=0.38) Cuvier's beaked whales (Barlow 1997, with corrected CV).

Minimum Population Estimate

Based on the above abundance estimate and CV, the minimum population estimate (defined as the log-normal 20th percentile of the abundance estimate) for Cuvier's beaked whales in California, Oregon, and Washington is 4,309 animals.

Current Population Trend

Due to the rarity of sightings of this species on surveys along the U.S. West coast, no information exists regarding trends in abundance of this population.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for this species.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (4,309) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known recent fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 43 Cuvier's beaked whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for Cuvier's beaked whales in this region is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. Mortality estimates for the California drift gillnet fishery are included for the five most recent years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian and Beeson 1998; Julian 1997; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the relative rarity of Cuvier's beaked whale entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of this particular species. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimated annual mortality of zero Cuvier's beaked whales.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Cuvier's beaked whales (California/ Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. One Cuvier's beaked whale was released alive in the driftnet fishery in 1995; all other entanglements resulted in the death of the animal. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Annual mortality estimates for 1995 are shown both including and excluding the animal released alive. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality + Released Alive	Estimated Annual Mortality / Mortality + Entanglements	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	6 5+1 0 0 0	34 (0.36) 32 (0.40) / 39 (0.36) 0 0 0	0[1]
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Cuvier's beaked whales in California, Oregon and Washington waters relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species, but in recent years questions have been raised regarding potential effects of human-made sounds on deep-diving cetacean species, such as Cuvier's beaked whales (Richardson et al. 1995). In particular, Low Frequency Active Sonar (LFAS) has been implicated in the mass stranding of beaked whales in the Mediterranean Sea (Frantzis 1998) and more recently in the Caribbean. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 is zero. Because recent mortality is zero, Cuvier's beaked whales are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

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Revised 12/15/2000

PYGMY SPERM WHALE (*Kogia breviceps*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Pygmy sperm whales are distributed throughout deep waters and along the continental slopes of the North Pacific and other ocean basins (Ross 1984; Caldwell and Caldwell 1989). Along the U.S. west coast, sightings of this species and of animals identified only as *Kogia* sp. have been very rare (Figure 1). However, this is probably a reflection of their pelagic distribution, small body size and cryptic behavior, rather than an indication of true rareness. Strandings of pygmy sperm whales in this region are known from California, Oregon and Washington (Roest 1970; Caldwell and Caldwell 1989; NMFS, Northwest Region, unpublished data; NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data). Available data are insufficient to identify any seasonality in the distribution of pygmy sperm whales, or to delineate possible stock boundaries. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, pygmy sperm whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington (this report), and 2) Hawaiian waters.

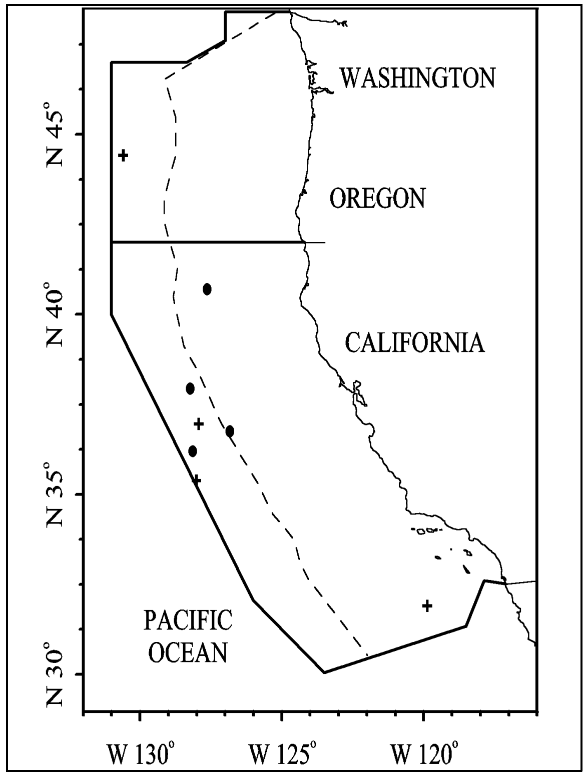

Figure 1. *Kogia* sightings based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort). Key: ● = *Kogia breviceps*, + = *Kogia* spp. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Although pygmy sperm whales have been sighted along the U.S. west coast on several line transect surveys utilizing both aerial and shipboard platforms, sightings have generally been too rare to produce reliable population estimates. Previous abundance estimates have been imprecise and biased downward by an unknown amount because pygmy sperm whales spend a large proportion of time submerged and are very difficult to detect at the surface unless seas are calm. Furthermore, the ship survey covered only California waters, and thus could not observe animals off Oregon/Washington. Recent analyses (Barlow and Gerrodette 1996, Barlow and Sexton 1996) have resulted in improved estimates of abundance by 1) combining data from three surveys conducted within 300 nmi of the coasts of California (in 1991 and 1993; Barlow and Gerrodette 1996) and California, Oregon and Washington (in 1996; Barlow 1997), and 2) estimating a correction factor for animals missed because they are submerged, based on dive-interval data collected for *Kogia simus* in 1993-95 (about 19% of all groups are estimated to be seen). Because animals probably spend time outside the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone, a multi-year average abundance estimate is the most appropriate for management within U.S. waters. The 1991-96 weighted average abundance estimate for California, Oregon and Washington waters based on the above analyses is 2,933 (CV=0.54) pygmy sperm whales plus an estimated 1,813 (CV=1.53) pygmy or dwarf sperm whales, based on sightings that could only be identified to the genus *Kogia* (Barlow 1997, with corrected CV). Because there have been no reported sightings, strandings, or entanglements of dwarf sperm whales along the U.S. West coast since the early 1970s, it is almost certain that these additional *Kogia* were pygmy sperm whales, bringing the total abundance estimate to 4,746 (CV=0.67).

Minimum Population Estimate

Based on the above abundance estimate and CV, the minimum population estimate (defined as the log-normal 20th percentile of the total *Kogia* abundance estimate) for pygmy sperm whales in California, Oregon, and Washington is 2,837 animals.

Current Population Trend

Due to the rarity of sightings of this species on surveys along the U.S. West coast, no information exists regarding trends in abundance of this population.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rates is available for this species.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (2,837) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known recent fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 28 pygmy sperm whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

A summary of recent fishery mortality and injury for pygmy sperm whales and unidentified *Kogia*, which may have been pygmy sperm whales, is shown in Table 1. More detailed information on the drift gillnet fishery is provided in Appendix 1. In the California drift gillnet fishery, no mortality of pygmy sperm whales or unidentified *Kogia* was observed during the most recent five years of monitoring, 1994-98 (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, because of interannual variability in entanglement rates and the rarity of *Kogia* entanglements, additional years of data will be required to fully evaluate the effectiveness of pingers for reducing mortality of pygmy sperm whales. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes in Table 1 are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimated annual mortality of zero pygmy sperm whales.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California, Mexico and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson, 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of pygmy sperm whales in California, Oregon and Washington waters relative to OSP is not known, and there are insufficient data to evaluate potential trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species, but in recent years questions have been raised regarding potential effects of human-made sounds on deep-diving cetacean species, such as pygmy sperm whales (Richardson et al. 1995). They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Including driftnet mortality only for years after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan (1997-98), the average annual human-caused mortality in 1994-98 is zero. Because recent mortality is zero, pygmy sperm whales are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA, and the total fishery mortality and serious injury for this stock can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of pygmy sperm whales and unidentified *Kogia* sp. (California/Oregon/Washington Stock) in commercial fisheries that might take this species. Coefficients of variation for mortality estimates are provided in parentheses. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Data Type	Year(s)	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality *K. breviceps/Kogia* sp.	Estimated Annual Mortality of *K. breviceps/Kogia* sp.	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	observer data	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0	0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0 0 / 0	0[1]
Minimum total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

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Revised 12/15/2000

SPERM WHALE (*Physeter macrocephalus*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Sperm whales are widely distributed across the entire North Pacific and into the southern Bering Sea in summer but the majority are thought to be south of 40°N in winter (Rice 1974; Gosho et al. 1984; Miyashita et al. 1995). For management, the International Whaling Commission (IWC) has divided the North Pacific into two management regions (Donovan 1991) defined by a zig-zag line which starts at 150°W at the equator, is 160°W between 40-50°N, and ends up at 180°W north of 50°N; however, the IWC has not reviewed this stock boundary in many years (Donovan 1991). Sperm whales are found year-round in California waters (Dohl et al. 1983; Barlow 1995; Forney et al. 1995), but they reach peak abundance from April through mid-June and from the end of August through mid-November (Rice 1974). They were seen in every season except winter (Dec.-Feb.) in Washington and Oregon (Green et al. 1992). Of 176 sperm whales that were marked with Discovery tags off southern California in winter 1962-70, only three were recovered by whalers: one off northern California in June, one off Washington in June, and another far off British Columbia in April (Rice 1974). Recent summer/fall surveys in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993) show that although sperm whales are widely distributed in the tropics, their relative abundance tapers off markedly westward towards the middle of the tropical Pacific (near the IWC stock boundary at 150°W) and tapers off northward towards the tip of Baja California. The structure of sperm whale populations in the eastern tropical Pacific is not known, but the only photographic matches of known individuals from this area have been between the Galapagos Islands and coastal waters of South America (Dufault and Whitehead 1995), suggesting that the eastern tropical animals constitute a distinct stock. A recent survey designed specifically to investigate stock structure and abundance of sperm whales in the northeastern temperate Pacific revealed no apparent hiatus in distribution between the U.S. EEZ off California and areas farther west, out to Hawaii (Barlow and Taylor 1998). Recent analyses of genetic relationships of animals in the eastern Pacific found that mtDNA and microsatellite DNA of animals sampled in the California Current is significantly different from animals sampled further offshore and that genetic differences appeared larger in an east-west direction than in a north-south direction (Mesnick et al., in press).

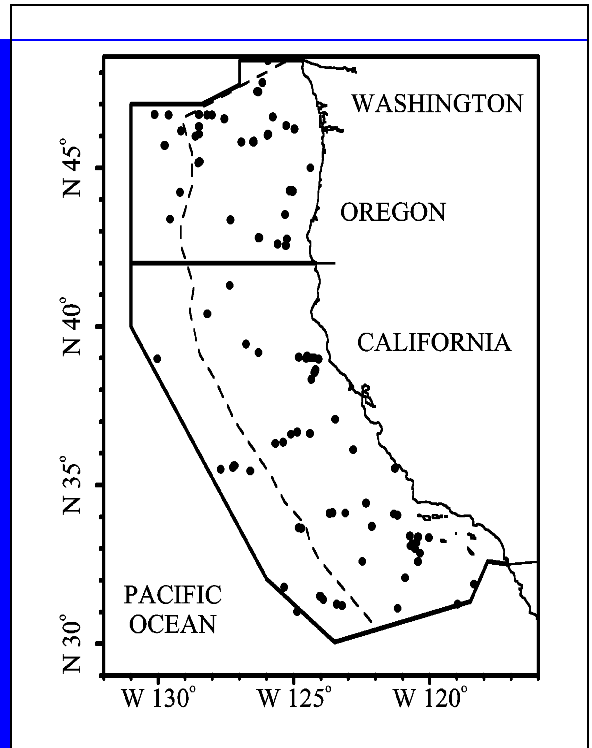

Figure 1. Sperm whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1989-96. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined. Greater effort was conducted off California (south of 42°N) and in the inshore half of the U.S. EEZ. See Appendix 2 of Barlow et al. (1997) and Barlow (1997) for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort.

For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, sperm whales within the Pacific U.S. EEZ are divided into three discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) California, Oregon and Washington waters (this report), 2) waters around Hawaii, and 3) Alaska waters.

POPULATION SIZE

Barlow (1997) estimates 1,191 (CV=0.22) sperm whales along the coasts of California, Oregon, and Washington during summer/fall based on ship line transect surveys in 1991, 1993, and 1996 (lognormal 95% C.I.= 778-1,824). Forney et al. (1995) estimate 892 (CV=0.99) sperm whales off California during winter/spring based on aerial line-transect surveys (95% C.I.=176-4,506), but this estimate does not correct for diving whales that were missed. Because of the long dive time of sperm whales (Leatherwood et al. 1982), it is reasonable to assume that a corrected estimate would be three to eight times the estimates from aerial surveys. Green et al. (1992) report that sperm whales were the third most abundant large whale (after gray and humpback whales) in aerial surveys off Oregon and Washington, but they did not estimate population size for that area. A large 1982 abundance estimate for the entire eastern North Pacific (Gosho et al. 1984) was based on a CPUE method which is no longer accepted as valid by the International Whaling Commission. Recently, a combined visual and acoustic line-transect survey conducted in the eastern temperate North Pacific in spring 1997 resulted in estimates of 24,000 (CV=0.46) sperm whales based on visual sightings, and 39,200 (CV=0.60) based acoustic detections and visual group size estimates (Barlow and Taylor 1998). However, it is not known whether any or all of these animals routinely enter the U.S. EEZ. In the eastern tropical Pacific, the abundance of sperm whales has been estimated as 22,700 (95% C.I.=14,800-34,600; Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but this area does not include areas where sperm whales are taken by drift gillnet fisheries in the U.S. EEZ and there is no evidence of sperm whale movements from the eastern tropical Pacific to the U.S. EEZ.

Clearly, large populations of sperm whales exist in waters that are within several thousand miles west and south of the California, Oregon, and Washington region that is covered by this report; however, there is no evidence of sperm whale movements into this region from either the west or south and genetic data suggest that mixing to the west is extremely unlikely. There **is** limited evidence of sperm whale movement from California to northern areas off British Columbia, but there are no abundance estimates for this area. The most precise estimate of sperm whale abundance for this stock is therefore from the ship survey estimate of Barlow (1997); however, this is probably an underestimate of true abundance because recent studies suggest sperm whale group sizes may have been underestimated on past line-transect surveys (Barlow and Taylor 1998; B. Taylor, unpubl. data).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for sperm whales is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of abundance estimated from the summer/fall ship surveys off California, Oregon and Washington (Barlow 1997) or approximately 992. More sophisticated methods of estimating minimum population size would be available if a correction factor (and associated variance) were available to correct the aerial survey estimates for missed animals.

Current Population Trend

Sperm whale abundance appears to have been rather variable off California between 1979/80 and 1996 (Barlow 1994; Barlow 1997) but does not show any obvious trends. Although the population in the eastern North Pacific is expected to have grown since large-scale pelagic whaling stopped in 1980, the possible effects of large unreported catches are unknown (Yablokov 1994) and the ongoing incidental ship strikes and gillnet mortality make this uncertain.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no published estimates of the growth rate for any sperm whale population (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for the California portion of this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (992) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.1 (the default value for an endangered species), resulting in a PBR of 2.0.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

Between 1800 and 1909, about 60,842 sperm whales were estimated taken in the North Pacific (Best 1976). The reported take of North Pacific sperm whales by commercial whalers between 1947 and 1987 totaled 258,000 (C. Allison, pers. comm.). Ohsumi (1980) lists an additional 28,198 sperm whales taken mainly in coastal whaling operations from 1910 to 1946. Based on the massive under-reporting of Soviet catches, Brownell et al. (1998) estimate that about 89,000 whales were additionally taken by the Soviet pelagic whaling fleet between 1949 and 1979. The Japanese coastal operations apparently also under-reported catches by an unknown amount (Kasuya 1998). Thus a total of at least 436,000 sperm whales were taken between 1800 and the end of commercial whaling for this species in 1987. Of this grand total, an estimated 33,842 were taken by Soviet and Japanese pelagic whaling operations in the eastern North Pacific from the longitude of Hawaii to the U.S. West coast, between 1961 and 1976 (Allen 1980, IWC statistical Areas II and III), and 965 were reported taken in land-based U.S. West coast whaling operations between 1947 and 1971 (Ohsumi 1980). In addition, 13 sperm whales were taken by shore whaling stations in California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997). There has been a prohibition on taking sperm whales in the North Pacific since 1988, but large-scale pelagic whaling stopped earlier, in 1980.

Fishery Information

The offshore drift gillnet fishery is the only fishery that is likely to take sperm whales from this stock. Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. A 1994-98 summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of sperm whales is given in Table 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). However, two sperm whales have been observed taken in nets with pingers (1996 and 1998). Because sperm whale entanglement is rare and because those nets which took sperm whales did not use the full mandated complement of pingers, it is difficult to evaluate whether pingers have any effect on sperm whale entanglement in drift gillnets. Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of 2.5 (CV = 0.89) sperm whale mortalities per year.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of sperm whales (CA/OR/WA stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). Injury includes any entanglement that does not result in immediate death and may include serious injury resulting in death. The injured whale observed in 1996 was not expected to survive. n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality (and injury in parentheses)	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 0 0 (1) 0 1	Mortality 0,0,0,0,5 (0.89) Injury 0,0,1,0,0	Mortality 2.5 (0.89)[1] Injury 0.0 (n/a)
Total annual takes						2.5 (0.89)

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson,1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Ship Strikes

No sperm whale mortalities have been attributed to ship strikes during the period 1994-98 (J. Cordaro, Southwest Region, NMFS, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The only estimate of the status of North Pacific sperm whales in relation to carrying capacity (Gosho et al. 1984) is based on a CPUE method which is no longer accepted as valid. Sperm whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the California to Washington stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The annual rate of kill and serious injury (2.5 per year) is greater than the calculated PBR for this stock (2.0) which would also result in the classification of this stock as "strategic". Total fishery takes are not approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like sperm whales that feed in the oceans "sound channel".

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HUMPBACK WHALE (*Megaptera novaeangliae*): California/Oregon/Washington - Mexico Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Although the International Whaling Commissio (IWC) only considered one stock (Donovan 1991) there is now good evidence for multiple population of humpback whales in the North Pacific (Johnso and Wolman 1984; Baker et al. 1990). Aeria vessel, and photo-identification surveys, and geneti analyses indicate that within the U.S. EEZ, there ar at least three relatively separate populations tha migrate between their respective summer/fal feeding areas and winter/spring calving and matin areas (Calambokidis et al. 1997, Baker et al. 1998) 1) winter/spring populations in coastal Centra America and Mexico which migrate to the coast o California to southern British Columbia i summer/fall (Steiger et al. 1991, Calambokidis et a 1993) - referred to as the California Oregon/Washington - Mexico stock (Figure 1); 2 winter/spring populations of the Hawaiian Island which migrate to northern Britis Columbia/Southeast Alaska and Prince Willia Sound west to Kodiak (Baker et al. 1990, Perry e al. 1990, Calambokidis et al. 1997) - referred to a the Central North Pacific stock; and 3) winter/sprin populations of Japan which, based on Discovery Tag information, probably migrate to waters west of the Kodiak Archipelago (the Bering Sea and Aleutian Islands) in summer/fall (Berzin and Rovnin 1966, Nishiwaki 1966, Darling 1991) - referred to as the Western North Pacific stock. Winter/spring populations of humpback whales also occur in Mexico's offshore islands; the migratory destination of these whales is not well known (Calambokidis et al. 1993, Calambokidis et al. 1997), but Norris et al. (1999) speculate that they may travel to the Bering Sea or Aleutian Islands. Significant levels of genetic differences were found between the California and Alaska feeding groups based on analyses of mitochondrial DNA (Baker et al. 1990) and nuclear DNA (Baker et al. 1993). The genetic exchange rate between California and Alaska is estimated to be less than 1 female per generation (Baker 1992). Two breeding areas (Hawaii and coastal Mexico) showed fewer genetic differences than did the two feeding areas (Baker 1992). This is substantiated by the observed movement of individually-identified whales between Hawaii and Mexico (Baker et al. 1990). There have been no individual matches between 597 humpbacks photographed in California and 617 humpbacks photographed in Alaska (Calambokidis et al. 1996). Only two of the 81 whales photographed in British Columbia have matched with a California catalog (Calambokidis et al. 1996), indicating that the U.S./Canada border is an approximate geographic boundary between feeding populations.

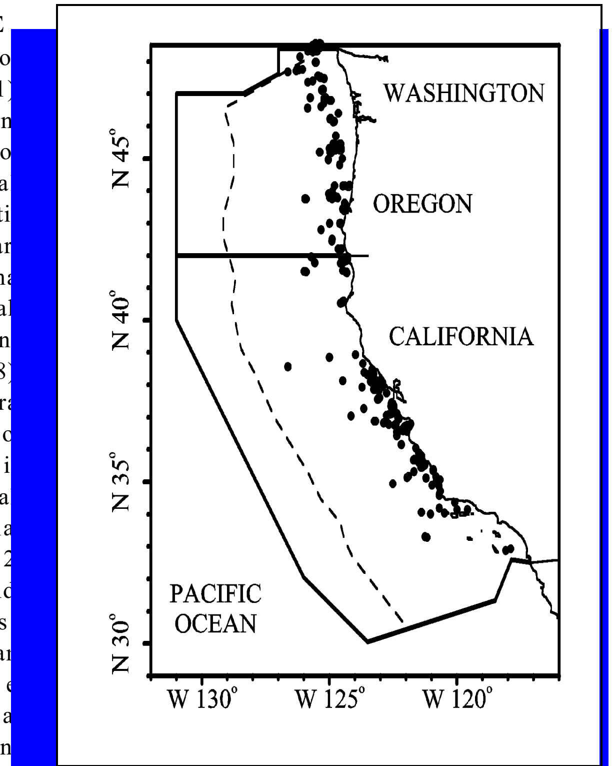

Figure 1. Humpback whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1989-96. Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ, thick line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined. Greater effort was conducted off California (south of 42°N) and in the inshore half of the U.S. EEZ. See Appendix 2 of Barlow et al. (1997) and Barlow (1997) for data sources and information on timing and location of survey effort.

Until further information becomes available, three management units of humpback whales (as described above) are recognized within the U.S. EEZ of the North Pacific: the California/Oregon/Washington - Mexico Stock (this report), the Central North Pacific Stock, and the Western North Pacific Stock. The Central and Western North Pacific stocks are reported separately in the Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region.

POPULATION SIZE

Based on whaling statistics, the pre-1905 population of humpback whales in the North Pacific was estimated to be 15,000 (Rice 1978), but this population was reduced by whaling to approximately 1,200 by 1966 (Johnson and Wolman 1984). The North Pacific total now almost certainly exceeds 6,000 humpback whales (Calambokidis et al. 1997). Dohl et al. (1983) first estimated the central California feeding population to be 338 (CV=0.29) based on aerial surveys in August through November of 1980-83; however, this estimate does not include a correction for submerged animals. More recently, the size of the "California" feeding stock of humpback whales has been estimated by three independent methods. 1) Calambokidis et al. (1999) estimated the number of humpback whales in California-Washington to be 905 (CV=0.06) based on mark-recapture estimates comparing their 1997 and 1998 photo-identification catalogs. 2) Barlow (1997) estimates 1,152 (CV=0.15) humpbacks in California, Oregon and Washington waters based on ship line-transect surveys in summer/autumn of 1991, 1993, and 1996. 3) Forney et al. (1995) estimate 319 (CV=0.41) humpback whales in California coastal waters based on aerial line-transect surveys in winter/spring of 1991 and 1992 (not corrected for diving whales). In addition, Green et al. (1992) report that humpback whales were the second most abundant large whale (after the gray whale) in aerial surveys off Oregon and Washington, but they did not estimate population size. These estimates for the west-coast stock are not significantly different from each other. The shipboard estimates are likely to be the most unbiased, and the aerial surveys are likely to be the most negatively biased because submerged animals are missed. Mark-recapture estimates may also be negatively biased due to heterogeneity in sighting probabilities (Hammond 1986). However, given that the above mark-recapture estimate is based on a large fraction of the entire population (1997-98 catalog contained 544 known individuals), this bias is likely to be minimal. Also, in previous mark-recapture analyses on the same population, when methods were used which account for heterogeneity, estimates were comparable or smaller (Calambokidis et al. 1993). The most precise and least biased estimate is likely to be the mark-recapture estimate of 905 (CV=0.06) humpback whales for this population.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for humpback whales in the California/Mexico stock is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of 1997-98 abundance estimated from mark-recapture methods (Calambokidis et al. 1999) or approximately 861.

Current Population Trend

Ship surveys provide some indication that humpback whales increased in abundance in California coastal waters between 1979/80 and 1991 (Barlow 1994) and between 1991 and 1996 (Barlow 1997). Mark-recapture population estimates increased steadily from 1988/90 to 1997-98 at about 8% per year (Calambokidis et al. 1999). Population estimates for the entire North Pacific have also increased substantially from 1,200 in 1966 to 6,000-8,000 circa 1992. Although these estimates are based on different methods and the earlier estimate is extremely uncertain, the growth rate implied by these estimates (6-7%) is consistent with the recently observed growth rate of the California/Oregon/Washington stock.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

The proportion of calves in the California/Mexico stock from 1986 to 1994 appeared much lower than previously measured for humpback whales in other areas (Calambokidis and Steiger 1994), but in 1995-97 a greater proportion of calves were identified, and the 1997 reproductive rates for this population are closer to those reported for humpback whale populations in other regions (Calambokidis et al. 1998). Despite the apparently low proportion of calves, two independent lines of evidence indicate that this stock appears to be growing (Barlow 1994; Calambokidis et al. 1999) with a best estimate of 8% growth per year (Calambokidis et al. 1999).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (861) <u>times</u> one half the estimated population growth rate for this stock of humpback whales (½ of 8%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.1 (for an endangered species), resulting in a PBR of 3.4. Because this stock spends approximately half its time outside the U.S. EEZ, the PBR allocation for U.S. waters is 1.7 whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

The reported take of North Pacific humpback whales by commercial whalers totaled approximately 7,700 between 1947 and 1987 (C. Allison, pers. comm.). In addition, approximately 7,300 were taken along the west coast of North America from 1919 to 1929 (Tonnessen and Johnsen 1982). Total 1910-1965 catches from the California-Washington stock includes at least the 2,000 taken in Oregon and Washington, the 3,400 taken in California, and the 2,800 taken in Baja California (Rice 1978). Shore-based whaling apparently depleted the humpback whale stock off California twice: once prior to 1925 (Clapham et al. 1997) and again between 1956 and 1965 (Rice 1974). There has been a prohibition on taking humpback whales since 1966.

Fishery Information

A 1994-98 summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of humpback whales is given in Table 1. Detailed information on these fisheries is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero humpback whales taken annually. Some gillnet mortality of large whales may go unobserved because whales swim away with a portion of the net. The deaths of two humpback whales that stranded in the Southern California Bight have been attributed to entanglement in fishing gear (Heyning and Lewis 1990), and a humpback whale was observed off Ventura, CA in 1993 with a 20 ft section of netting wrapped around and trailing behind, but no other gillnet-caused strandings or entanglements were reported for the period 1994-98 (J. Cordero, NMFS SW Region, pers. comm.). Other unobserved fisheries may also result in injuries or deaths of humpback whales. In 1997, one humpback whale was snagged by a central California salmon troller, and the animal swam away with the hook and many feet of trailing monofilament (NMFS, Southwest Region, unpublished data); this type of injury is not likely to be serious.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of humpback whales (CA/OR/WA - Mexico stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998, Cameron and Forney 1999). Injury includes any entanglement that does not result in immediate death and may include serious injury resulting in death. n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality (and Injury)	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	0 (1) 0 0 0 0	Mortality 0,0,0,0,0 Injury 6,0,0,0,0 (0.91)	Mortality 0 Injury 0[1]
CA angel shark/halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery	1990-94	observer data	10-15%	0,0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0,0	n/a

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality (and Injury)	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA salmon troll fishery	1997	incidental report	0%	(1)	n/a	Injury >0.2 (n/a)
Total annual takes						>0.2

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes were implicated in the deaths of at least two humpback whales in 1993 and one humpback whale in 1995, and one unidentified whale, which may have been a humpback whale, was struck and injured by a small boat in 1997 (J. Cordaro, pers. comm.). Additional mortality from ship strikes probably goes unreported because the whales do not strand or, if they do, they do not have obvious signs of trauma. Several humpback whales have been photographed in California with large gashes in their dorsal surface that appear to be from ship strikes (J. Calambokidis, pers. comm.). The average number of humpback whale deaths by ship strikes for 1994-98 is at least 0.2 per year.

STATUS OF STOCK

Humpback whales in the North Pacific were estimated to have been reduced to 13% of carrying capacity (K) by commercial whaling (Braham 1991). Clearly the North Pacific population was severely depleted. The initial abundance has never been estimated separately for the "California" stock, but this stock was also depleted (probably twice) by whaling (Rice 1974; Clapham et al. 1997). Humpback whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the California/Mexico stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The estimated annual mortality and injury due to entanglement (0.2/yr) plus ship strikes (0.2/yr) in California is less than the PBR allocation of 1.7 for U.S. waters. In a review of the severity of injury to the humpback whale entangled in 1994, the Pacific Scientific Review Group determined that this animal was not seriously injured. Based on strandings and gillnet observations, annual humpback whale mortality and serious injury in California's drift gillnet fishery is probably greater than 10% of the PBR; therefore, total fishery mortality is not approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The California stock appears to be increasing in abundance. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans, such as those produced by ATOC (Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate) or LFA (Low Frequency Active) Sonar, have been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for baleen whales that may communicate using low-frequency sound.

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Revised 12/15/2000

BLUE WHALE (*Balaenoptera musculus*): Eastern North Pacific Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) has formally considered only one management stock for blue whales in the North Pacific (Donovan 1991), but now this ocean is thought to include more than one population (Ohsumi and Wada 1972; Braham 1991), possibly as many as five (Reeves et al. 1998). This report covers one population that feeds in California waters in summer/fall (from June to November) and migrates south to productive areas off Mexico (Calambokidis et al. 1990) and as far south as the Costa Rica Dome (10^{o} N) (Mate et al. 1999; Calambokidis, pers. comm.) in winter/spring. Blue whales are occasionally seen or heard off Oregon (McDonald et al. 1994, Stafford et al. 1998; VonSaunder and Barlow 1999), but sightings there are rare. Reilly and Thayer (1990) speculate that blue whales found near the Costa Rica Dome from June to November are likely to be part of a southern hemisphere population or an isolated resident population; however, based on acoustic call similarities, Stafford et al. (1999) linked these animals to the population that feeds off California at the same time of year. Rice (1974) hypothesized that blue whales from Baja California migrated far offshore to feed in the eastern Aleutians or Gulf of Alaska and returned to feed in California waters; however, he has more recently concluded that the California population is separate from the Gulf of Alaska population (Rice 1992). Recently, blue whale feeding aggregations have not been found in Alaska despite several surveys (Leatherwood et al. 1982; Stewart et al. 1987; Forney and Brownell 1996). One other stock of North Pacific blue whales (in Hawaiian waters) is recognized in the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) Stock Assessment Reports.

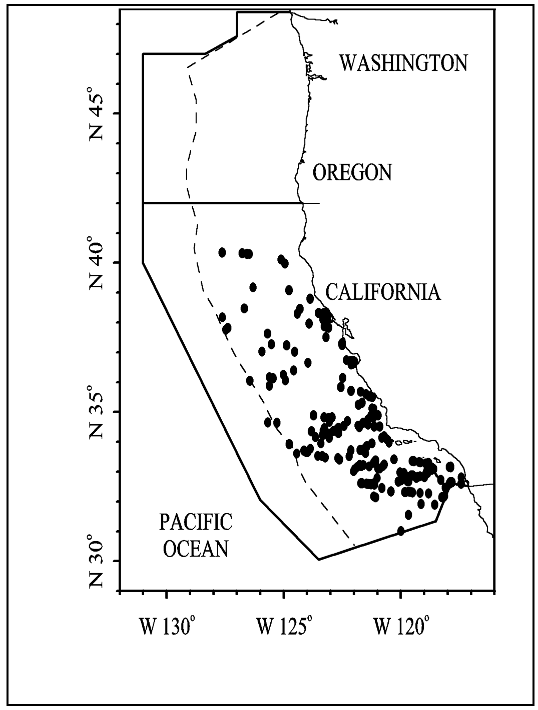

Figure 1. Blue whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1991-96(see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5, for data sources and information on timing and location of surveys). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ; bold line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

The size of the feeding stock of blue whales in California was estimated recently by both line-transect and mark-recapture methods. Barlow (1997) estimates 1,927 (CV=0.16) blue whales off California, Oregon, and Washington based on ship line-transect surveys in 1991-96. Calambokidis and Steiger (1994) used photographic mark-recapture and estimated population sizes of 2,038 (CV=0.33) based on photographs of left sides and 1,997 (CV=0.42) based on right sides. The average of the mark-recapture estimates (2,017, CV=0.38) is in surprisingly good agreement with the line-transect estimate. Mark-recapture estimates are often negatively biased by individual heterogeneity in sighting probabilities (Hammond 1986); however, Calambokidis and Steiger (1994) minimize such effects by selecting one sample that was taken randomly with respect to distance from the coast. Similarly, the line-transect estimates may also be negatively biased because some blue whales in this stock are probably along Baja California and, therefore, out of the study area at the time of survey (Wade and Gerrodette 1993). The best estimate of blue whale abundance is the average of the line-transect and mark-recapture estimates, weighted by their variances, or 1,940 (CV=0.15).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for blue whales is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of abundance estimated from the combined mark-recapture and line-transect estimates, or approximately 1,716.

Current Population Trend

There is some indication that blue whales have increased in abundance in California coastal waters between 1979/80 and 1991 (regression $p<0.05$, Barlow 1994) and between 1991 and 1996 (not significant, Barlow 1997). Although this may be due to an increase in the stock as a whole, it could also be the result of an increased use of California as a feeding area. The size of the apparent increase abundance seen by Barlow (1994) is too large to be accounted for by population growth alone. Also, Larkman and Veit (1998) did not detect any increase along consistently surveyed tracklines in the Southern California Bight from 1987 to 1995. Although the population in the North Pacific is expected to have grown since being given protected status in 1966, the possibility of continued unauthorized takes after blue whales were protected (Yablokov 1994) and the existence of incidental ship strikes and gillnet mortality makes this uncertain.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information exists on the rate of growth of blue whale populations in the Pacific (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (1,716) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.1 (for an endangered species), resulting in a PBR of 3.4 . Because this stock spends approximately half its time outside the U.S. EEZ, the PBR allocation for U.S. waters is half this total, or 1.7 whales per year.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

The reported take of North Pacific blue whales by commercial whalers totaled 9,500 between 1910 and 1965 (Ohsumi and Wada 1972). Approximately 2,000 were taken off the west coast of North America between 1919 and 1929 (Tonnessen and Johnsen 1982). Partially overlapping with this is Rice's (1992) report of at least 1,378 taken by factory ships off California and Baja California between 1913 and 1937. Between 1947 and 1987, reported takes of blue whales in the North Pacific were approximately 2,400. Shore-based whaling stations in central California took 3 blue whales between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997) and 48 blue whales between 1958 and 1965 (Rice 1974). Blue whales in the North Pacific were given protected status by the IWC in 1966.

Fisheries Information

The offshore drift gillnet fishery is the only fishery that is likely to take blue whales from this stock, but no fishery mortalities or serious injuries have been observed (Table 1). Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero blue whales taken annually. Some gillnet mortality of large whales may go unobserved because whales swim away with a portion of the net; however, fishermen report that large rorquals (blue and fin whales) usually swim through nets without entangling and with very little damage to the nets.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of blue whales (Eastern North Pacific stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994-98	observer data	12-23%	0,0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0,0	0[1]
Total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes were implicated in the deaths of blue whales in 1980, 1986, 1987, and 1993 (J. Cordaro, Southwest Region, NMFS and J. Heyning, pers. comm.). Additional mortality from ship strikes probably goes unreported because the whales do not strand or, if they do, they do not always have obvious signs of trauma. Several blue whales have been photographed in California with large gashes in their dorsal surface that appear to be from ship strikes (J. Calambokidis, pers. comm.). The average number of blue whale mortalities in California attributed to ship strikes was 0.0 per year for 1994-98.

STATUS OF STOCK

Previously, blue whales in the entire North Pacific were estimated to be at 33% (1,600 out of 4,900) of historic carrying capacity (Mizroch et al. 1984). The initial abundance has never been estimated separately for the "California" stock, but this stock was almost certainly depleted by whaling. Blue whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the Eastern North Pacific stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The annual incidental mortality from ship strikes is apparently less than the calculated PBR for this stock. To date, no blue whale mortality has been associated with California gillnet fisheries; therefore, total fishery mortality is approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The population appears to be growing. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for blue whales (Reeves et al. 1998).

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Revised 12/15/2000

FIN WHALE (*Balaenoptera physalus*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) recognized two stocks of fin whales in the North Pacific: the East China Sea and the rest of the North Pacific (Donovan 1991). Mizroch et al. (1984) cites evidence for additional fin whale subpopulations in the North Pacific. From whaling records, fin whales that were marked in winter 1962-70 off southern California were later taken in commercial whaling operations between central California and the Gulf of Alaska in summer (Mizroch et al. 1984). More recent observations show aggregations of fin whales year-round in southern/central California (Dohl et al. 1983; Barlow 1997; Forney et al. 1995), year-round in the Gulf of California (Tershy et al. 1993), in summer in Oregon (Green et al. 1992; McDonald 1994), and in summer/autumn in the Shelikof Strait/Gulf of Alaska (Brueggeman et al. 1990). Acoustic signals from fin whale are detected year-round off northern California, Oregon and Washington, with a concentration of vocal activity between September and February (Moore et al. 1998). Fin whales appear very scarce in the eastern tropical Pacific in summer (Wade and Gerrodette 1993) and winter (Lee 1993).

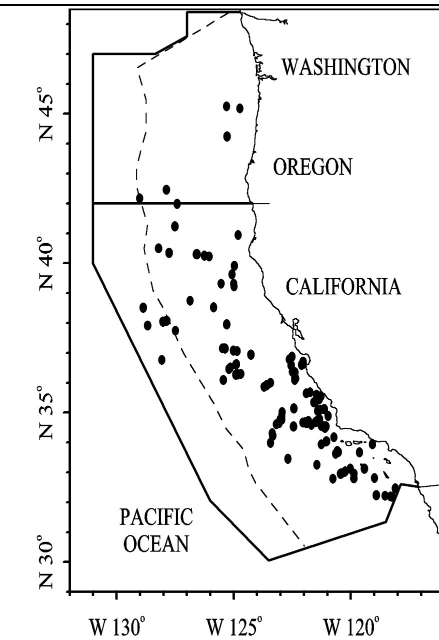

Figure 1. Fin whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5 for data sources and information on timing and location of surveys). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ; bold line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

There is still insufficient information to accurately determine population structure, but from a conservation perspective it may be risky to assume panmixia in the entire North Pacific. In the North Atlantic, fin whales were locally depleted in some feeding areas by commercial whaling (Mizroch et al. 1984), in part because subpopulations were not recognized. This assessment will cover the stock of fin whales which is found along the coasts of California, Oregon, and Washington. Because fin whale abundance appears lower in winter/spring in California (Dohl et al. 1983; Forney et al. 1995) and in Oregon (Green et al. 1992), it is likely that the distribution of this stock extends seasonally outside these coastal waters. Coincidentally, fin whale abundance in the Gulf of California increases seasonally in winter and spring (Tershy et al. 1993). It is premature, however, to conclude that the Gulf whales are part of the U.S. west coast population. The Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports recognize three stocks of fin whales in the North Pacific: 1) the California/Oregon/Washington stock (this report), 2) the Hawaii stock, and 3) the Alaska stock.

POPULATION SIZE

The initial pre-whaling population of fin whales in the North Pacific was estimated to be 42,000-45,000 (Ohsumi and Wada 1974). In 1973, the North Pacific population was estimated to have been reduced to 13,620-18,680 (Ohsumi and Wada 1974), of which 8,520-10,970 were estimated to belong to the eastern Pacific stock. A minimum of 148 individually-identified fin whales are found in the Gulf of California (Tershy et al. 1990). Recently, 1,236 (CV=0.20) fin whales were estimated to be off California, Oregon and Washington based on ship surveys in summer/autumn of 1991, 1993, and 1996 (Barlow 1997). Fin whale abundance in

California was estimated as only 49 (CV=1.0) based on aerial surveys in winter/spring of 1991/92 (Forney et al. 1995); however, this estimate does not include a correction for diving animals that were missed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for fin whales is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of abundance estimated from summer/fall ship survey (Barlow 1997) or approximately 1,044.

Current Population Trend

There is some indication that fin whales have increased in abundance in California coastal waters between 1979/80 and 1991 (Barlow 1994) and between 1991 and 1996 (Barlow 1997), but these trends are not significant. Although the population in the North Pacific is expected to have grown since receiving protected status in 1976, the possible effects of continued unauthorized take (Yablokov 1994) and incidental ship strikes and gillnet mortality make this uncertain.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of the growth rate of fin whale populations in the North Pacific (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (1,044) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.1 (for an endangered species), resulting in a PBR of 2.1.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

Approximately 46,000 fin whales were taken from the North Pacific by commercial whalers between 1947 and 1987 (C. Allison, IWC, pers. comm.), including 1,060 fin whales taken by coastal whalers in central California between 1958 and 1965 (Rice 1974). In addition, approximately 3,800 were taken off the west coast of North America between 1919 and 1929 (Tonnessen and Johnsen 1982), and 177 were taken by coastal whalers off California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997). Fin whales in the North Pacific were given protected status by the IWC in 1976.

Fisheries Information

The offshore drift gillnet fishery is the only fishery that is likely to take fin whales from this stock, but no fishery mortalities or serious injuries have been observed (Table 1). Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero fin whales taken annually. Some gillnet mortality of large whales may go unobserved because whales swim away with a portion of the net; however, fishermen report that large rorquals (blue and fin whales) usually swim through nets without entangling and with very little damage to the nets.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of fin whales (CA/OR/WA stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994-98	observer data	12-23%	0,0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0,0	0[1]
Average annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes were implicated in the deaths of one fin whale in 1991, one in 1996, and one in 1997 (J. Heyning and J. Cordaro, Southwest Region, NMFS, pers. comm.). Additional mortality from ship strikes probably goes unreported because the whales do not strand or, if they do, they do not always have obvious signs of trauma. The average observed annual mortality due to ship strikes is 0.4 fin whales per year for the period 1994-98.

STATUS OF STOCK

Fin whales in the entire North Pacific were estimated to be at less than 38% (16,625 out of 43,500) of historic carrying capacity (Mizroch et al. 1984). The initial abundance has never been estimated separately for the "west coast" stock, but this stock was also probably depleted by whaling. Fin whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the California to Washington stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total incidental mortality due to fisheries (0.0/yr) and ship strikes (0.4/yr) appears to be less than the calculated PBR (2.1). In fact, no fin whale mortality has been associated with California gillnet fisheries; therefore, total fishery mortality is approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. There is some indication that the population may be growing. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for baleen whales that may communicate using low-frequency sound.

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BRYDE'S WHALE (*Balaenoptera edeni*): Eastern Tropical Pacific Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) recognizes 3 stocks of Bryde's whales in the North Pacific (eastern, western, and East China Sea), 3 stocks in the South Pacific (eastern, western and Solomon Islands), and one cross-equatorial stock (Peruvian) (Donovan 1991). Bryde's whales are distributed widely across the tropical and warm-temperate Pacific (Leatherwood et al. 1982), and there is no real justification for splitting stocks between the northern and southern hemispheres (Donovan 1991). Recent surveys (Lee 1993; Wade and Gerrodette 1993) have shown them to be common and distributed throughout the eastern tropical Pacific with a concentration around the equator east of 110°W (corresponding approximately to the IWC's "Peruvian stock") and a reduction west of 140°W. They are also the most common baleen whale in the central Gulf of California (Tershy et al. 1990). Only one was positively identified in surveys of California coastal waters (Barlow 1997). Bryde's whales in California are likely to belong to a larger population inhabiting at least the eastern part of the tropical Pacific. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Bryde's whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two areas: 1) the eastern tropical Pacific (east of 150°W and including the Gulf of California and waters off California; this report), and 2) Hawaiian waters.

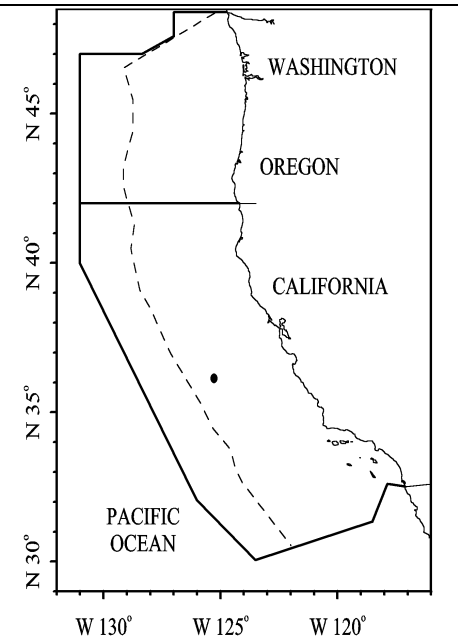

Figure 1. Sighting locations of Bryde's whales based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5 for data sources and information on timing and location of surveys). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ; bold line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

In the western North Pacific, Bryde's whale abundance in the early 1980s was estimated independently by tag mark-recapture and ship survey methods to be 22,000 to 24,000 (Tillman and Mizroch 1982; Miyashita 1986). Bryde's whale abundance has never been estimated for the entire eastern Pacific; however, a portion of that stock in the eastern tropical Pacific was estimated recently as 13,000 (CV=0.20; 95% C.I.=8,900-19,900) (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), and the minimum number in the Gulf of California is 160 based on individually-identified whales (Tershy et al. 1990). Only one confirmed sighting of Bryde's whales and five possible sightings (identified as sei or Bryde's whales) were made in California waters during extensive ship and aerial surveys in 1991, 1992, 1993, and 1996 (Hill and Barlow 1992; Carretta and Forney 1993; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994; VonSaunder and Barlow 1999). Green et al. (1992) did not report any sightings of Bryde's whales in aerial surveys off Oregon and Washington. The estimated abundance of Bryde's whales in California, Oregon, and Washington coastal waters is 12 (CV=2.0) (Barlow 1997).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for Bryde's whales is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of abundance estimated from the summer/fall ship surveys in 1986-90 (Wade and Gerrodette 1993) plus the minimum of 160 whales counted in the Gulf of California (Tershy et al. 1990), or 11,163.

Current Population Trend

There are no data on trends in Bryde's whale abundance in the eastern tropical Pacific.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of the growth rate of Bryde's whale populations in the Pacific (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock cannot be calculated because the only relevant abundance estimate (Wade and Gerrodette 1993) is more than 8 years old. Additional data on the abundance of Bryde's whales in the eastern Pacific was gathered in 1998-99, but their abundance has not yet been estimated from those data.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

The reported take of North Pacific Bryde's whales by commercial whalers totaled 15,076 in the western Pacific from 1946-1983 (Holt 1986) and 2,873 in the eastern Pacific from 1973-81 (Cooke 1983). In addition, 2,304 sei-or-Bryde's whales were taken in the eastern Pacific from 1968-72 (Cooke 1983) (based on subsequent catches, most of these were probably Bryde's whales). None were reported taken by shore-based whaling stations in central or northern California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997) or 1958 and 1965 (Rice 1974). There has been a prohibition on taking Bryde's whales since 1988.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of Bryde's whales (eastern tropical Pacific stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994-98	observer data	12-23%	0,0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0,0	0[1]
Mexico thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1991-95	observer data	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
					Total annual takes	0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Fishery Information

The offshore drift gillnet fishery is the only fishery that is likely to take Bryde's whales from this stock, but no fishery mortalities or serious injuries have been observed (Table 1). Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero Bryde's whales taken annually. However, some gillnet mortality of large whales may go unobserved because whales swim away with a portion of the net.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes may occasionally kill Bryde's whales as they are known to kill their larger relatives: blue and fin whales. No ship strikes have been reported for this species in this area.

STATUS OF STOCK

Commercial whaling of Bryde's whales was largely limited to the western Pacific. Bryde's whales are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA). Bryde's whales in the eastern tropical Pacific would not be considered a strategic stock under the MMPA. The total human-caused mortality rate is estimated to be zero; therefore, under the MMPA, total fishery mortality is approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for baleen whales that may communicate using low-frequency sound.

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SEI WHALE (*Balaenoptera borealis*): Eastern North Pacific Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) only considers one stock of sei whales in the North Pacific (Donovan 1991), but some evidence exists for multiple populations (Masaki 1977; Mizroch et al. 1984; Horwood 1987). Sei whales are distributed far out to sea in temperate regions of the world and do not appear to be associated with coastal features. Whaling effort for this species was distributed continuously across the North Pacific between 45-55°N (Masaki 1977). Two sei whales that were tagged off California were later killed off Washington and British Columbia (Rice 1974) and the movement of tagged animals has been noted in many other regions of the North Pacific. Sei whales are now rare in California waters (Dohl et al. 1983; Barlow 1997; Forney et al. 1995; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994), but were the fourth most common whale taken by California coastal whalers in the 1950s-1960s (Rice 1974). They are extremely rare south of California (Wade and Gerrodette 1993; Lee 1993). Lacking additional information on sei whale population structure, sei whales in the eastern North Pacific (east of longitude 180°) will be considered as a separate stock.

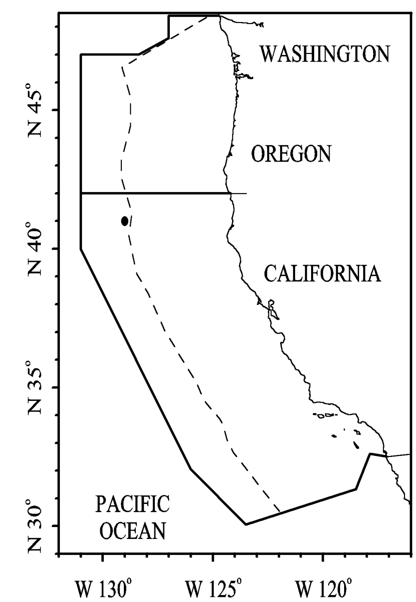

Figure 1. Sei whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5 for data sources and information on timing and location of surveys). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ; bold line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

Ohsumi and Wada (1974) estimate the pre-whaling abundance of sei whales to be 58,000-62,000 in the North Pacific. Later, Tillman (1977) used a variety of different methods to estimate the abundance of sei whales in the North Pacific and revised this pre-whaling estimate to 42,000. His estimates for the year 1974 ranged from 7,260 to 12,620. All methods depend on using the history of catches and trends in CPUE or sighting rates; there have been no direct estimates of sei whale abundance in the entire (or eastern) North Pacific based on sighting surveys. Only one confirmed sighting of sei whales and 5 possible sightings (identified as sei or Bryde's whales) were made in California waters during extensive ship and aerial surveys in 1991, 1992, 1993, and 1996 (Hill and Barlow 1992; Carretta and Forney 1993; Mangels and Gerrodette 1994; VonSaunder and Barlow 1999). Green et al. (1992) did not report any sightings of sei whales in aerial surveys of Oregon and Washington. There are no abundance estimates for sei whales along the west coast of the U.S. or in the eastern North Pacific.

Minimum Population Estimate

Minimum population estimates do not exist for sei whales in the eastern North Pacific.

Current Population Trend

There are no data on trends in sei whale abundance in the eastern North Pacific waters. Although the population in the North Pacific is expected to have grown since being given protected status in 1976, the possible effects of continued unauthorized take (Yablokov 1994) and incidental ship strikes and gillnet mortality make this uncertain.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of the growth rate of sei whale populations in the North Pacific (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No estimate exists for the minimum abundance of the eastern North Pacific stock of sei whales. Estimates for the entire North Pacific are more than 10 years old and do not include statistical estimates of precision. Consequently, PBR levels cannot be calculated.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

The reported take of North Pacific sei whales by commercial whalers totaled 61,500 between 1947 and 1987 (C. Allison, IWC, pers. comm.). Of these, 384 were taken by-shore-based whaling stations in central California between 1958 and 1965 (Rice 1974). An additional 26 were taken off central and northern California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997). There has been an IWC prohibition on taking sei whales since 1976, and commercial whaling in the U.S. has been prohibited since 1972.

Fishery Information

The offshore drift gillnet fishery is the only fishery that is likely to take sei whales from this stock, but no fishery mortalities or serious injuries have been observed (Table 1). Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero sei whales taken annually. However, some gillnet mortality of large whales may go unobserved because whales swim away with a portion of the net.

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of sei whales (eastern North Pacific stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Julian 1997; Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). n/a indicates that data are not available. Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994-98	observer data	12-23%	0,0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0,0	0[1]
Total annual takes						0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes may occasionally kill sei whales as they have been shown to kill their larger relatives: blue and fin whales. No ship strikes have been reported for this species in this area.

STATUS OF STOCK

Previously, sei whales were estimated to have been reduced to 20% (8,600 out of 42,000) of their pre-whaling abundance in the North Pacific (Tillman 1977). The initial abundance has never been reported separately for the eastern North Pacific stock, but this stock was also probably depleted by whaling. Sei whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the eastern North Pacific stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA). Total estimated fishery mortality is zero and therefore is "approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate". The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for baleen whales that may communicate using low-frequency sound.

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MINKE WHALE (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata*): California/Oregon/Washington Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) recognizes 3 stocks of minke whales in the North Pacific: one in the Sea of Japan/East China Sea, one in the rest of the western Pacific west of 180°N, and one in the "remainder" of the Pacific (Donovan 1991). The "remainder" stock only reflects the lack of exploitation in the eastern Pacific and does not imply that only one population exists in that area (Donovan 1991). In the "remainder" area, minke whales are relatively common in the Bering and Chukchi seas and in the Gulf of Alaska, but are not considered abundant in any other part of the eastern Pacific (Leatherwood et al. 1982; Brueggeman et al. 1990). In the Pacific, minke whales are usually seen over continental shelves (Brueggeman et al. 1990). In the extreme north, minke whales are believed to be migratory, but in inland waters of Washington and in central California they appear to establish home ranges (Dorsey et al. 1990). Minke whales occur year-round in California (Dohl et al. 1983; Forney et al. 1995; Barlow 1997) and in the Gulf of California (Tershy et al. 1990). Minke whales are present at least in summer/fall along the Baja California peninsula (Wade and Gerrodette 1993). Because the "resident" minke whales from California to Washington appear behaviorally distinct from migratory whales further north, minke whales in coastal waters of California, Oregon, and Washington (including Puget Sound) will be considered as a separate stock. Minke whales in Alaskan waters are considered in a separate stock assessment report.

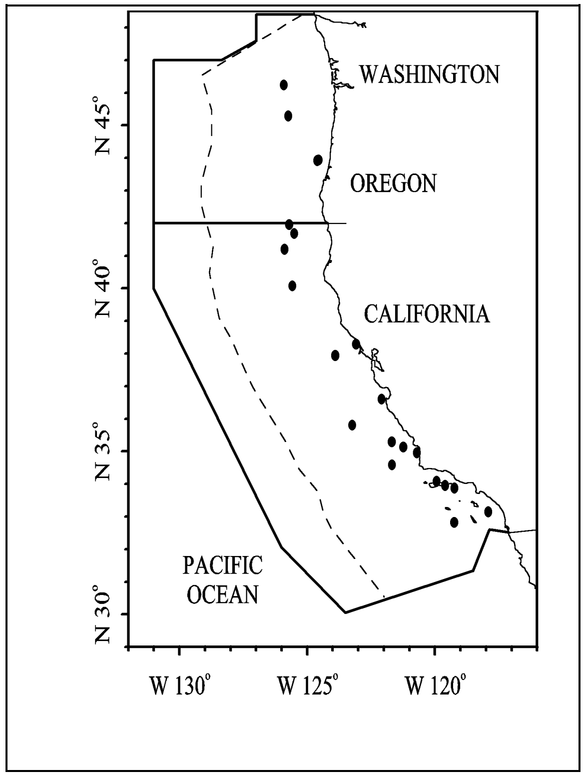

Figure 2. Minke whale sighting locations based on aerial and shipboard surveys off California, Oregon, and Washington, 1991-96 (see Appendix 2, Figures 1-5 for data sources and information on timing and location of surveys). Dashed line represents the U.S. EEZ; bold line indicates the outer boundary of all surveys combined.

POPULATION SIZE

No estimates have been made for the number of minke whales in the entire North Pacific. The number of minke whales is estimated as 631 (CV = 0.45) based on ship surveys in 1991, 1993, and 1996 off California and in 1996 off Oregon and Washington (Barlow 1997). Forney et al. (1995) estimate at total of 73 (CV=0.62) in California based on an aerial survey, but this estimate is negatively biased because it excludes diving whales. In addition, Green et al. (1992) report 4 sightings of minke whales in aerial surveys of Oregon and Washington, but they did not estimate population size for that area. Two minke whales were seen during 1996 aerial surveys in Washington and British Columbia inland waters (Calambokidis et al. 1997), but no abundance estimates are available for this area.

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate for minke whales is taken as the lower 20th percentile of the log-normal distribution of abundance estimated from the summer/fall ship survey in California, Oregon, and Washington waters (Barlow 1997) or approximately 440. More sophisticated methods of estimating minimum population size would be available if a correction factor (and associated variance) were available to correct the aerial survey estimates for missed animals.

Current Population Trend

There are no data on trends in minke whale abundance in waters of California, Oregon and/or Washington.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

There are no estimates of the growth rate of minke whale populations in the North Pacific (Best 1993).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (440) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.5 (for a stock of unknown status), resulting in a PBR of 4.4.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY

Historic Whaling

The estimated take of western North Pacific minke whales by commercial whalers was approximately 31,000 from 1930 to 1987 (C. Allison, IWC, pers. comm.). Minke whales were not harvested commercially in the eastern North Pacific: none were reported taken by shore-based whaling stations in central or northern California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997) or between 1958 and 1965 (Rice 1974). Reported aboriginal takes of minke whales in Alaska totaled 7 between 1930 and 1987 (C. Allison, IWC, pers. comm.).

Table 1. Summary of available information on the incidental mortality and injury of minke whales (CA/OR/WA stock) for commercial fisheries that might take this species (Pierce et al. 1996; Julian 1997, Julian and Beeson 1998; Cameron and Forney 1999). Mean annual takes are based on 1994-98 data unless noted otherwise.

Fishery Name	Year(s)	Data Type	Percent Observer Coverage	Observed Mortality	Estimated Mortality (CV in parentheses)	Mean Annual Takes (CV in parentheses)
CA/OR thresher shark/swordfish drift gillnet fishery	1994 1995 1996 1997 1998	observer data	17.9% 15.6% 12.4% 23.0% 20.0%	1 0 1 0 0	6 (0.91) 0 12 (0.96) 0 0	0[1]
WA Puget Sound Region salmon drift gillnet fishery (areas 7 and 7A)	1994	observer data	7%	0	0	0
CA angel shark/halibut and other species large mesh (>3.5") set gillnet fishery	1991-94	observer data	10-18%	0,0,0,0	0,0,0,0	n/a
Total annual takes						0.0

[1] Only 1997-98 mortality estimates are included in the average because of gear modifications implemented within the fishery as part of a 1997 Take Reduction Plan. Gear modifications included the use of net extenders and acoustic warning devices (pingers).

Fishery Information

Minke whales may occasionally be caught in coastal set gillnets off California, in salmon drift gillnet in Puget Sound, Washington, and in offshore drift gillnets off California and Oregon. A summary of known fishery mortality and injury for this stock of minke whales is given in Table 1. Detailed information on this fishery is provided in Appendix 1. After the 1997 implementation of a Take Reduction Plan, which included skipper education workshops and required the use of pingers and minimum 6-fathom extenders, overall cetacean entanglement rates in the drift gillnet fishery dropped considerably (Barlow and Cameron 1999). Because of the changes in this fishery after implementation of the Take Reduction Plan, mean annual takes for this fishery (Table 1) are based only on 1997-98 data. This results in an average estimate of zero minke whales taken annually. Total fishery mortality for minke whales was not estimated for the 1980-86 California Department of Fish and Game observer program for the drift gillnet fishery, but based on the 2 observed deaths in 1% of the total sets, the total mortality during this time may have been on the order of 200 minke whales or 40 per year.

Drift gillnet fisheries for swordfish and sharks exist along the entire Pacific coast of Baja California and may take animals from the same population. Quantitative data are available only for the Mexican swordfish drift gillnet fishery, which uses vessels, gear, and operational procedures similar to those in the U.S. drift gillnet fishery, although nets may be up to 4.5 km long (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The fleet increased from two vessels in 1986 to 31 vessels in 1993 (Holts and Sosa-Nishizaki 1998). The total number of sets in this fishery in 1992 can be estimated from data provided by these authors to be approximately 2,700, with an observed rate of marine mammal bycatch of 0.13 animals per set (10 marine mammals in 77 observed sets; Sosa-Nishizaki et al. 1993). This overall mortality rate is similar to that observed in California driftnet fisheries during 1990-95 (0.14 marine mammals per set; Julian and Beeson 1998), but species-specific information is not available for the Mexican fisheries. There are currently efforts underway to convert the Mexican swordfish driftnet fishery to a longline fishery (D. Holts, pers. comm.).

Ship Strikes

Ship strikes were implicated in the death of one minke whale in 1977 (J. Heyning and J. Cordaro, pers. comm.). The reported minke whale mortality due to ship strikes is zero for the period 1994-98. Additional mortality from ship strikes probably goes unreported because the whales do not strand or, if they do, they do not always have obvious signs of trauma.

STATUS OF STOCK

There were no known commercial whaling harvests of minke whales from Baja California to Washington. Minke whales are not listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act and are not considered "depleted" under the MMPA. The greatest uncertainty in their status is whether entanglement in commercial gillnets and ship strikes could have reduced this relatively small population. Because of this, the status of the west-coast stock should be considered "unknown". The annual mortality due to fisheries (0.0/yr) and ship strikes (0.0/yr) is less than the calculated PBR for this stock (4.4), so they are not considered a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. Fishery mortality is less than 10% of the PBR; therefore, total fishery mortality is approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. There is no information on trends in the abundance of this stock. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for baleen whales that may communicate using low-frequency sound.

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Revised 12/15/2000

ROUGH-TOOTHED DOLPHIN (*Steno bredanensis*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Rough-toothed dolphins are found throughout the world in tropical and warm-temperate waters (Miyazaki and Perrin 1994). They are present around all the main Hawaiian islands (Shallenberger 1981; Tomich 1986) and have been observed at least as far northwest as French Frigate Shoals (Nitta and Henderson 1993). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands are shown in Figure 1. Five strandings have been reported from Maui, Oahu, and the island of Hawaii (Nitta 1991). Nothing is known about stock structure for this species in the North Pacific. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands.

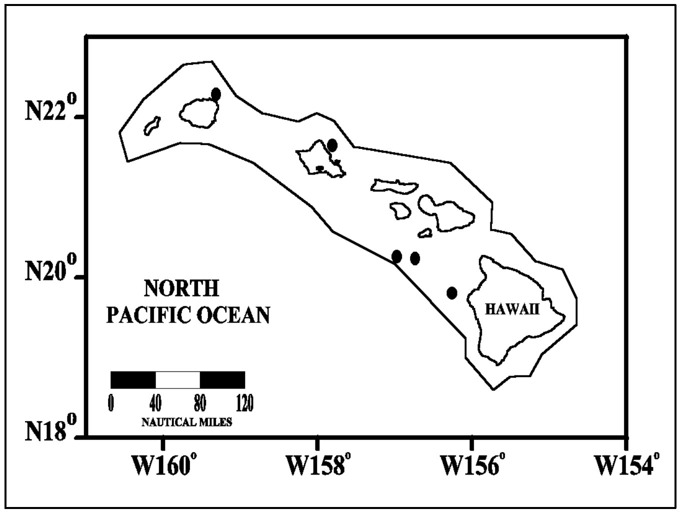

Figure 1. Rough-toothed dolphin sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

A population estimate for this species has been made in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 123 (CV=0.63) rough-toothed dolphins was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of rough-toothed dolphins within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 76 rough-toothed dolphins. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (76) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.8 rough-toothed dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available, as no mortality of this species has been documented in Hawaiian fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries, and some of these interactions involved rough-toothed dolphins (Nitta and Henderson 1993). None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). They are known to take bait and catch from Hawaiian sport and commercial fisheries operating near the main islands and in a portion of the northwestern islands (Shallenberger 1981; Schlais 1984; Nitta and Henderson 1993), and they have been specifically reported to interact with the day handline fishery for tuna (palu-ahi) and the troll fishery for billfish and tuna (Schlais 1984; Nitta and Henderson 1993). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins.

Other Removals

At least 22 rough-toothed dolphins were live-captured in Hawaiian waters between 1963 and 1976 (Shallenberger 1981).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of rough-toothed dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on rough-toothed dolphins in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality. However, there is no systematic monitoring of gillnet fisheries that may take this species, and the potential effects of interactions with the bottomfish fishery in the NWHI are not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for rough-toothed dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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RISSO'S DOLPHIN (*Grampus griseus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Risso's dolphins are found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide (Kruse et al. 1999). They appear to be rare in Hawaiian waters (Figure 1). Of three reported sightings of this species by Shallenberger (1981), only one was verified. There are four stranding records from the main islands (Nitta 1991). Balcomb (1987) referred to a sighting of a large herd off the Kona Coast in February 1985. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Risso's dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) Hawaiian waters (this report), and 2) waters off California, Oregon and Washington.

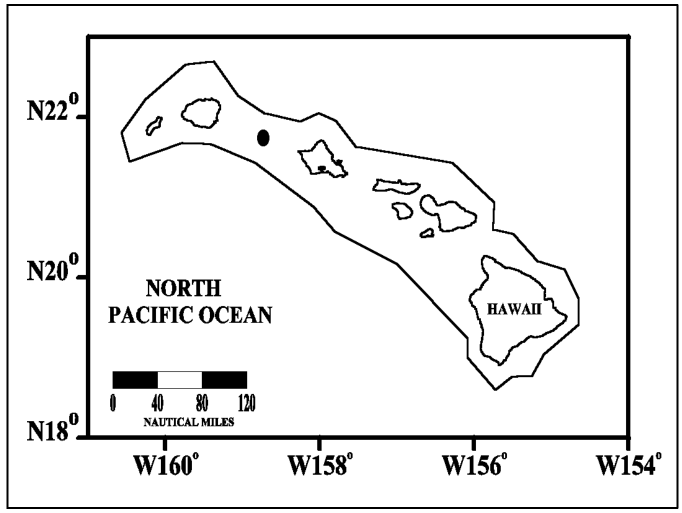

Figure 1. Sighting location for the single Risso's dolphin seen during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

Population estimates have been made off Japan (Miyashita 1993) and in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998 (Mobley et al. 2000). Only one sighting of a single Risso's dolphin was made, and therefore no meaningful abundance estimate could be calculated. Based on the locations of interactions with the Hawaiian longline fishery (Figure 2), it is likely that Risso's dolphins primarily occur in pelagic waters tens to hundreds of miles from the main Hawaiian islands and are only occasionally found nearshore.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate for Hawaiian animals.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this species at this time.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of Risso's dolphins in Hawaiian waters. However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), and some of these interactions involved Risso's dolphins in waters outside the U.S. EEZ. Four Risso's dolphins were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. This interaction rate extrapolates to a total 5-year estimate of 90 (95% CI = 27-213) Risso's dolphins, or an average of 18 per year (Kleiber 1999). Three of the observed Risso's dolphins were reported to have been hooked in the mouth or to have ingested the hook, and they were released with hook and line still attached. Following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), these three animals have been considered seriously injured (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality). The fourth animal was hooked in an unknown location and swam normally, but was released with 20m of trailing line and a light stick. Because a substantial length of line was still attached when the animal was released, this animal is likely to have sustained serious injury. Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in other parts of their body, and that they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line.

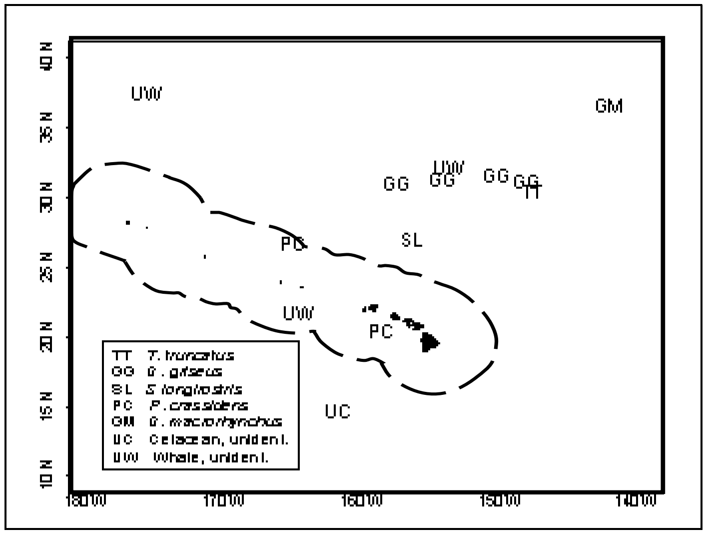

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); GG = Risso's dolphin.

Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether Risso's dolphins are involved.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Risso's dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on Risso's dolphins in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality within the U.S. EEZ and the species' apparent offshore distribution. The potential effect of injuries sustained by Risso's dolphins in the Hawaiian longline fishery in international waters is not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for Risso's dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

BOTTLENOSE DOLPHIN (*Tursiops truncatus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Bottlenose dolphins are widely distributed throughout the world in tropical and warm-temperate waters. The species is primarily coastal in much of its range, but there are populations in some offshore deepwater areas as well. Separate offshore and coastal forms have been identified along continental coasts in several areas (Ross and Cockcroft 1990; Van Waerebeek et al. 1990), and similar onshore-offshore forms may exist in Hawaiian waters.

Although only three strandings have been reported (Nitta 1991), bottlenose dolphins are common throughout the Hawaiian Islands, from the island of Hawaii to Kure Atoll (Shallenberger 1981). Recent sighting locations for systematic aerial surveys within about 25nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993-98 are shown in Figure 1. In the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, they are found primarily in relatively shallow inshore waters (Rice 1960). In the main Hawaiian Islands, they are found in both shallow inshore waters and deep channels between islands.

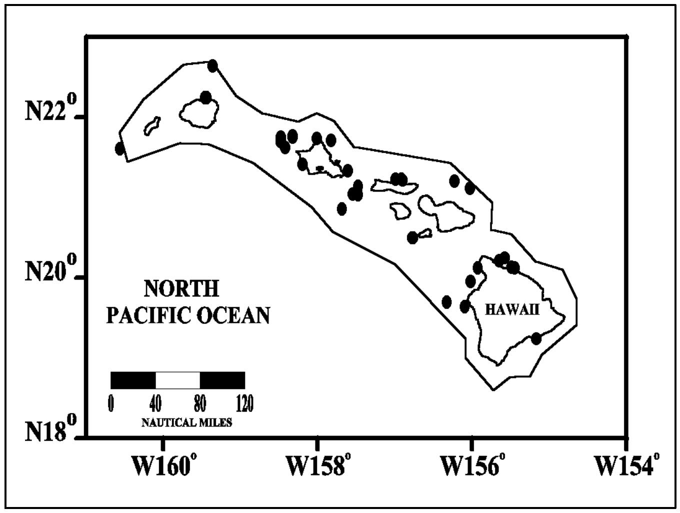

Figure 1. Bottlenose dolphin sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

In their analysis of sightings of bottlenose dolphins in the eastern tropical Pacific (ETP), Scott and Chivers (1990) noted that there was a large hiatus between the westernmost sightings and the Hawaiian Islands. These data suggest that the bottlenose dolphins in Hawaiian waters belong to a separate stock from those in the ETP. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, bottlenose dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into three stocks: 1) Hawaiian stock (this report), 2) California, Oregon and Washington offshore stock, and 3) California coastal stock.

POPULATION SIZE

Population estimates have been made in Japanese waters (Miyashita 1993) and the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 743 (CV=0.56) bottlenose dolphins was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of bottlenose dolphins within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 479 bottlenose dolphins. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate for this species in Hawaiian waters.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (479) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no estimated fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 4.8 bottlenose dolphins per year.

HUMAN CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Although some mortality of bottlenose dolphins has been observed in inshore gillnets, no estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available. The gear types used in Hawaiian fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

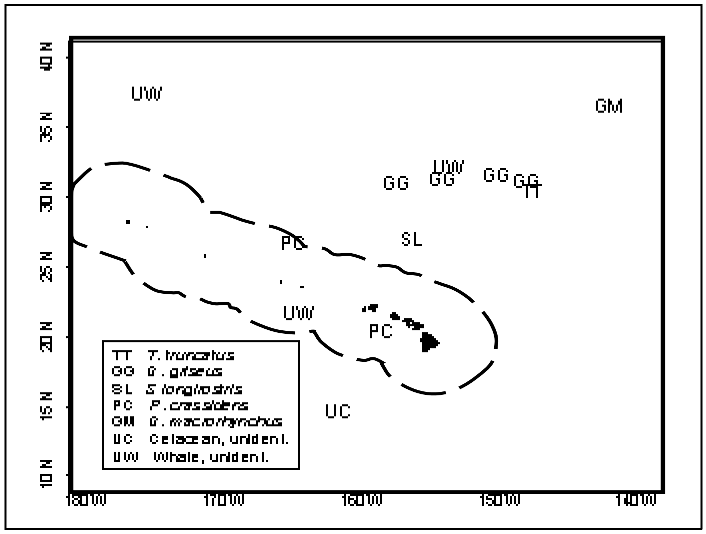

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); TT = bottlenose dolphin.

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries, and many of these interactions involved bottlenose dolphins (Nitta and Henderson 1993). One bottlenose dolphin was observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 in waters outside the U.S. EEZ (Figure 2), with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. This interaction rate extrapolates to a total 5-year estimate of 23 (95% CI = 1-108) bottlenose dolphins, or an average of 4.6 interactions per year (Kleiber 1999). The single observed bottlenose dolphin was reported to have ingested the hook. Following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), this animal has been considered seriously injured (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality). Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in the mouth or other part of their body, and that they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line. Bottlenose dolphins are one of the species commonly reported to take bait and catch from several Hawaiian sport and commercial fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993; Schlais 1984). Observations of bottlenose dolphins taking bait or catch have also been made in the day handline fishery (palu-ahi) for tuna, the handline fishery for mackerel scad, the troll fishery for billfish and tuna, and the inshore set gillnet fishery (Nitta and Henderson 1993). Nitta and Henderson (1993) indicated that bottlenose dolphins remove bait and catch from handlines used to catch bottomfish off the island of Hawaii and Kaula Island and on several banks of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing.

Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins. Beginning in the early 1970s the National Marine Fisheries Service received reports of fishermen shooting at bottlenose dolphins to deter them from taking fish catches (Nitta and Henderson 1993). Nitta and Henderson (1993) also reported that one bottlenose dolphin calf was removed from small-mesh set gillnet off Maui in 1991 and expressed surprise that bottlenose dolphins are "rarely reported entangled or raiding set gill nets in Hawaii," considering that they so often remove fish from fishing lines.

Other Removals

At least 36 bottlenose dolphins were live-captured in Hawaiian waters between 1963 and 1981 (Shallenberger 1981). The main capture area was around Oahu. One juvenile bottlenose dolphin was entangled in a mooring line and stranded dead along the coast of Maui in 1998 (H. Bernard, pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of bottlenose dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on bottlenose dolphins in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality within the U.S. EEZ. However, there is no systematic monitoring of gillnet fisheries that may take this species, and the potential effects of interactions with the Hawaiian longline fishery in international waters or the bottomfish fishery in the NWHI are not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for bottlenose dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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PANTROPICAL SPOTTED DOLPHIN (*Stenella attenuata*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

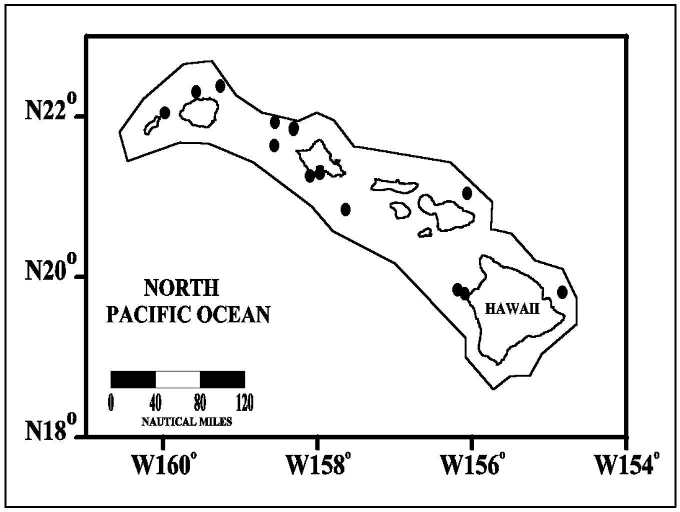

Figure 1. Pantropical spotted dolphin sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Pantropical spotted dolphins are primarily found in tropical and subtropical waters worldwide (Perrin and Hohn 1994). Much of what is known about the species in the North Pacific has been learned from specimens obtained in the large directed fishery in Japan and in the eastern tropical Pacific (ETP) tuna purse-seine fishery (Perrin and Hohn 1994). These dolphins are common and abundant throughout the Hawaiian archipelago, particularly in channels between islands, over offshore banks (e.g. Penguin Banks), and off the lee shores of the islands (see Shallenberger 1981). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands are shown in Figure 1. Nitta (1991) only documented three strandings of this species in Hawaii. Morphological differences and distribution patterns have been used to establish that the spotted dolphins around Hawaii belong to a stock that is distinct from those in the ETP (Perrin 1975; Dizon et al. 1994; Perrin et al. 1994b). Their possible affinities with other stocks elsewhere in the Pacific have not been investigated. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands. Spotted dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna purse-seine fisheries are managed separately under the MMPA.

POPULATION SIZE

Population estimates are available for Japanese waters (Miyashita 1993) and the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993). As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 2,928 (CV=0.45) pantropical spotted dolphins was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of pantropical spotted dolphins within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 2,040 pantropical spotted dolphins. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (2,040) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 20 pantropical spotted dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of pantropical spotted dolphins in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994a).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with pantropical spotted dolphins have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether pantropical spotted dolphins are involved.

Other Removals

At least 52 pantropical spotted dolphins were live-captured in Hawaii between 1963 and 1978 (Shallenberger 1981).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of pantropical spotted dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. There has been no documented human-caused mortality of this stock, and therefore they are not classified as a "strategic" stock under the MMPA. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for pantropical spotted dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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SPINNER DOLPHIN (*Stenella longirostris*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Spinner dolphins are found throughout the world in tropical and warm-temperate waters (Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994). They are common and abundant throughout the entire Hawaiian archipelago (Shallenberger 1981; Norris and Dohl 1980; Norris et al. 1994). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. There is some suggestion from an intensive study of spinner dolphins off the Kona Coast of Hawaii that the waters surrounding this island may have a large, relatively stable "resident" population (Norris et al. 1994).

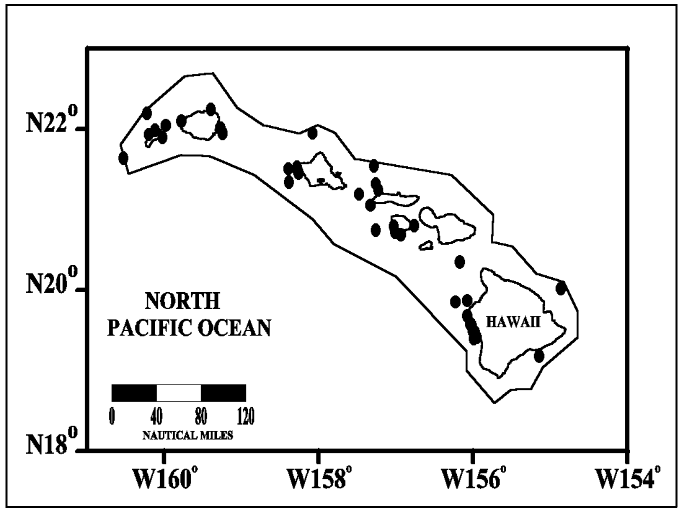

Figure 1. Spinner dolphin sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Hawaiian spinner dolphins belong to a stock that is separate from those involved in the tuna purse-seine fishery in the eastern tropical Pacific (Perrin 1975; Dizon et al. 1994). The Hawaiian form is referable to the subspecies *S. longirostris longirostris*, which occurs pantropically (Perrin 1990). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands. Spinner dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna purse-seine fisheries are managed separately under the MMPA.

POPULATION SIZE

Although spinner dolphins are clearly among the most abundant cetaceans in Hawaiian waters, previously available population estimates apply only to the west coast of Hawaii. Norris et al. (1994) photoidentified 192 individuals along the west coast of Hawaii and estimated 960 animals for this area in 1979-1980. Östman (1994) photoidentified 677 individual spinner dolphins in the same area from 1989 to 1992. Using the same estimation procedures as Norris et al. (1994), Östman (1994) estimated a population size of 2,334 for his study area along the Kona coast of Hawaii. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 3,184 (CV=0.37) spinner dolphins was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of spinner dolphins within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 2,355 spinner dolphins. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data on current population trend are available.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No information on current or maximum net productivity rate is currently available for the Hawaiian stock.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (2,355) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no estimated fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 24 spinner dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Although some mortality of spinner dolphins has been observed in inshore gillnets, no estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available. The gear types used in Hawaiian fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries, and there are records of spinner dolphins taken in inshore monofilament gillnets and net fragments in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). One spinner dolphin was observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 in waters outside the U.S. EEZ, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. This interaction rate extrapolates to a total 5-year estimate of 23 (95% CI = 1-108) spinner dolphins, or an average of 4.6 interactions per year (Kleiber 1999). The single observed spinner dolphin was reported to have been hooked in the fluke. Following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), this animal would not be considered seriously injured (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality). Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in the mouth or ingest the hook, and they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line. Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether spinner dolphins are involved.

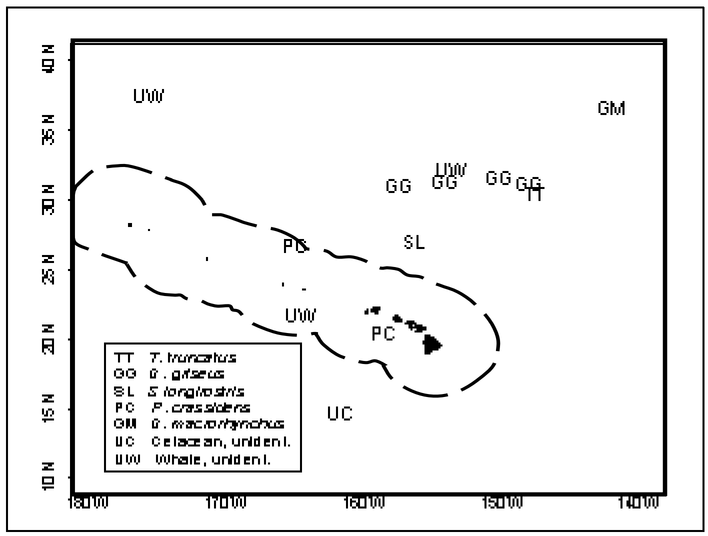

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); SL = spinner dolphin.

Other Removals

At least 85 spinner dolphins were live-captured in Hawaiian waters from 1962 to 1981 (Shallenberger 1981). The main capture area was around Oahu.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of spinner dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. A habitat issue of increasing concern is the potential effect of swim-with-dolphin programs and other tourism activities on spinner dolphins around the main Hawaiian Islands. Spinner dolphins are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. The Hawaiian stock is not considered a strategic stock under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA, because there are no estimates of mortality within the U.S. EEZ. However, there is no systematic monitoring of gillnet fisheries that may take this species, and the potential effect of interactions with the Hawaiian longline fishery in international waters is not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for spinner dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

STRIPED DOLPHIN (*Stenella coeruleoalba*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Striped dolphins are found in tropical to warm-temperate waters throughout the world (Perrin et al. 1994). There is an incongruity between the frequency of strandings and the infrequency of sightings of this species in Hawaii. Nitta (1991) found more stranding records of striped dolphins (13) than of any other species between 1936 and 1988, yet Shallenberger (1981) was aware of only two at-sea sightings, one near Niihau and one west of Oahu. A single sighting was made during recent systematic surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (Figure 1). The Sea Life Park collecting crew never encountered striped dolphins from the early 1960s through the late 1970s, during their live-capture operations (Shallenberger 1981).

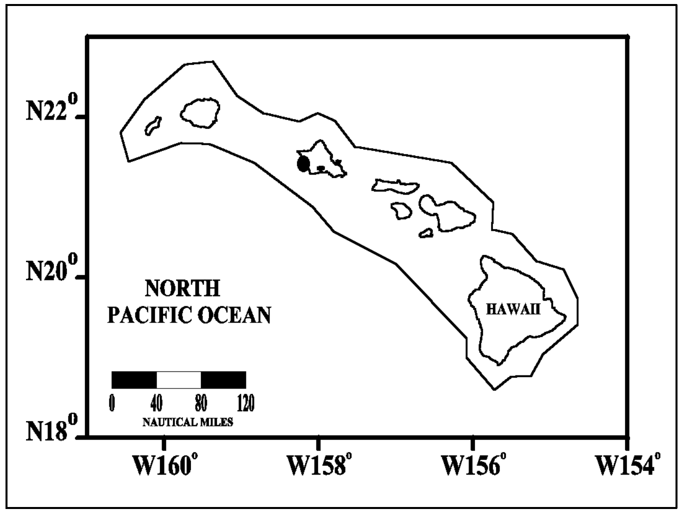

Figure 1. Location of the single sighting of striped dolphins during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Striped dolphins have been intensively exploited in the western North Pacific, where three migratory stocks are provisionally recognized (Kishiro and Kasuya 1993). In the eastern Pacific all striped dolphins are provisionally considered to belong to a single stock (Dizon et al. 1994). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, striped dolphins within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters off California, Oregon and Washington, and 2) waters around Hawaii (this report). Striped dolphins involved in eastern tropical Pacific tuna purse-seine fisheries are managed separately under the MMPA.

POPULATION SIZE

Population estimates are available for Japanese waters (Miyashita 1993) and the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether any of these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 114 (CV=1.19) striped dolphins was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of striped dolphins within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for a minimum population estimate. The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 52 striped dolphins. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (52) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.5 striped dolphins per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of striped dolphins in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and floatlines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with striped dolphins have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether striped dolphins are involved.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of striped dolphins in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on striped dolphins in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for striped dolphins is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

MELON-HEADED WHALE (*Peponocephala electra*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

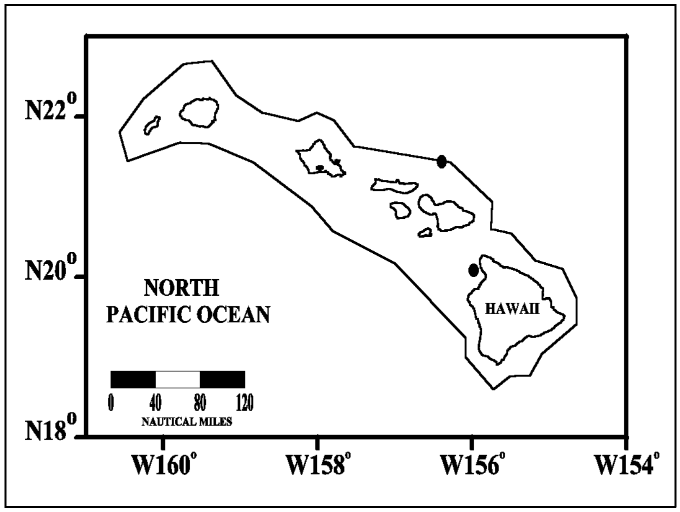

Figure 1. Melon-headed whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Melon-headed whales are found in tropical and warm-temperate waters throughout the world. The distribution of reported sightings suggests that the oceanic habitat of this species is primarily equatorial waters (Perryman et al. 1994). Small numbers have been taken in the eastern tropical Pacific, and they are occasionally killed in direct fisheries in Japan and elsewhere in the western Pacific. Large herds are seen regularly in Hawaiian waters, especially off the Waianae coast of Oahu, the north Kohala coast of Hawaii, and the leeward coast of Lanai (Shallenberger 1981). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. Little is known about this species elsewhere in its range, and most knowledge about its biology comes from mass strandings (Perryman et al. 1994). Ten strandings are known from Hawaii (Nishiwaki and Norris 1966; Shallenberger 1981; Nitta 1991). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands.

POPULATION SIZE

An estimate of melon-headed whales is available for the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether any of these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 154 (CV=0.88) melon-headed whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of melon-headed whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 81 melon-headed whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for making a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (81) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.8 melon-headed whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Melon-headed whales are not known to be taken directly or incidentally in Hawaiian waters and no mortality of this species has been documented in Hawaiian fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with melon-headed whales have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether melon-headed whales are involved.

Historical Mortality

Peale (1848) reported that 60 whales of this species were driven ashore by natives in Hilo Bay, Hawaii in 1841. At least three melon-headed whales were live-captured for public display between 1966 and 1978 (Shallenberger 1981).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of melon-headed whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on melon-headed whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for melon-headed whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

PYGMY KILLER WHALE (*Feresa attenuata*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Pygmy killer whales are found in tropical and subtropical waters throughout the world (Ross and Leatherwood 1994). They are poorly known in most parts of their range. Small numbers have been taken directly and incidentally in both the western and eastern Pacific. Most knowledge of this species is from stranded or live-captured specimens. Pryor et al. (1965) stated that pygmy killer whales have been observed several times off the lee shore of Oahu, and that "they seem to be regular residents of the Hawaiian area." Although all sightings up to that time had been off Oahu and the Big Island, Shallenberger (1981) stated that this species might be found elsewhere in Hawaii, as well. No pygmy killer whales were seen during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000; see Appendix 2 for detailed information on timing and location of effort), suggesting that they are uncommon in these nearshore regions. Nitta (1991) documented five strandings from Maui and the island of Hawaii. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands.

POPULATION SIZE

A population estimate has been made for this species in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but no data are available to estimate population size in any other area of the North Pacific. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998 (Mobley et al. 2000). No sightings of pygmy killer whales were made, and therefore no abundance estimate for nearshore Hawaiian waters is presently available. It is likely that pygmy killer whales occur primarily in pelagic waters greater than 25 nmi from the main Hawaiian islands.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this species at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of pygmy killer whales in Hawaiian waters. However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with pygmy killer whales have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether pygmy killer whales are involved.

Other Removals

Three specimens were live-captured by Sea Life Park between 1963 and 1971 (Pryor et al. 1965; Pryor 1975; Shallenberger 1981).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of pygmy killer whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. This species is not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on pygmy killer whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for pygmy killer whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

FALSE KILLER WHALE (*Pseudorca crassidens*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

False killer whales are found worldwide mainly in tropical and warm-temperate waters (Stacey et al. 1994). In the North Pacific, this species is well known from southern Japan, Hawaii, and the eastern tropical Pacific. It occurs around all the main Hawaiian Islands, but its presence around the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands has not yet been established (Nitta and Henderson 1993). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. There are only 4 stranding records from Hawaiian waters (Nitta 1991). Large numbers of false killer whales have been taken in direct fisheries in southern Japan, and small numbers have been taken incidental to fishing operations in the eastern tropical Pacific. Most knowledge about this species comes from outside Hawaiian waters (Stacey et al. 1994). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands.

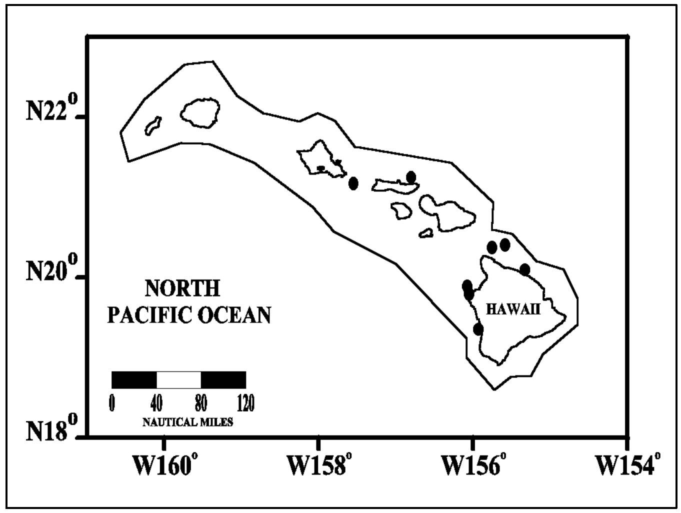

Figure 1. False killer whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

Population estimates for this species have been made from shipboard surveys in Japan (Miyashita 1993) and the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 121 (CV=0.47) false killer whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of false killer whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 83 false killer whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate for this species in Hawaiian waters.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (83) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.8 false killer whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994). Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries, and false killer whales have been identified in fishermen's logs as taking catches from pelagic longlines (Nitta and Henderson 1993). They have also been observed feeding on mahi mahi, *Coryphaena hippurus*, and yellowfin tuna, *Thunnus albacares*, and frequently steal large fish (up to 70 pounds) (Shallenberger 1981) from the trolling lines of both commercial and recreational fishermen (S. Kaiser, pers. comm.).

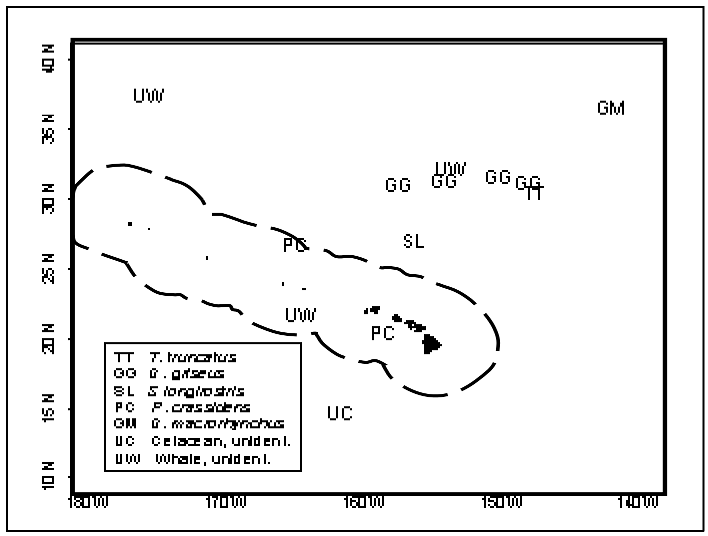

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); PC = false killer whale.

Two false killer whales were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 within the U.S. EEZ (Figure 2), with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. This interaction rate extrapolates to a total 5-year estimate of 45 (95% CI = 7-146) false killer whales, or an average of 9 interactions per year (Kleiber 1999). Both of the observed false killer whales were reported to have been hooked in the mouth or to have ingested the hook, and they were released with trailing gear. Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in other parts of their body, and that they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line. Following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), the two observed false killer whales have been considered seriously injured (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality), and, therefore, the interaction rate of 9 animals per year represents an estimate of mortality and serious injury for this stock.

Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether false killer whales are involved.

Other Removals

Since the early 1960's, at least 12 false killer whales have been live-captured by aquaria or the Navy (Pryor 1975; Shallenberger 1981; J. Thomas pers. comm.).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of false killer whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Because the rate of serious injury to false killer whales within the U.S. EEZ in the Hawaiian longline fishery (9 animals per year) exceeds the PBR (0.8), this stock is considered a strategic stock under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury cannot be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero, because it exceeds the PBR. However, the available abundance estimate, on which PBR is based, applies only to a portion of this species' range within the U.S. EEZ around Hawaii, and additional studies of abundance, distribution, and fishery-related mortality and injury of false killer whales in Hawaiian waters will be required to re-evaluate this species' status in the future.

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KILLER WHALE (*Orcinus orca*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Killer whales have been observed in all oceans and seas of the world (Leatherwood and Dahlheim 1978). Although reported from tropical and offshore waters (Heyning and Dahlheim 1988), killer whales prefer the colder waters of both hemispheres, with greatest abundances found within 800 km of major continents (Mitchell 1975). They are rare in Hawaiian waters. No killer whales were seen during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000; see Appendix 2 for detailed information on timing and location of effort), suggesting that they are uncommon in these nearshore regions. One stranding from the island of Hawaii was reported in 1950 (Richards 1952). Two sightings have been reported, one in January 1978 off the Waianae Coast of Oahu and another in December 1979 near Kauai (Shallenberger 1981). Except in the northeastern Pacific where "resident", "transient", and “offshore” stocks have been described for coastal waters of Alaska, British Columbia, and Washington to California (Bigg 1982; Leatherwood et al. 1990, Bigg et al. 1990, Ford et al. 1994), little is known about stock structure of killer whales in the North Pacific. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, five killer whale stocks are recognized within the Pacific U.S. EEZ 1) the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock - occurring from British Columbia through Alaska, 2) the Eastern North Pacific Southern Resident stock - occurring within the inland waters of Washington State and southern British Columbia, 3) the Eastern North Pacific Transient stock - occurring from Alaska through California, 4) the Eastern North Pacific Offshore stock - occurring from Southeast Alaska through California, and 5) the Hawaiian stock (this report). The Stock Assessment Reports for the Alaska Region contains the assessment of the Eastern North Pacific Northern Resident stock; all other killer whale stock assessments are included in this report.

POPULATION SIZE

Population sizes for killer whales in the coastal waters of British Columbia and Washington are known from photo-identification studies (Bigg et al. 1990). The population of killer whales in the eastern tropical Pacific has been estimated from shipboard sightings surveys (Wade and Gerrodette 1993). No data to estimate population size are available for the central Pacific. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998 (Mobley et al. 2000). No sightings of killer whales were made, and therefore no abundance estimate for Hawaiian waters is presently available.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available to provide a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current and maximum net productivity rate in Hawaiian waters.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this stock at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available for killer whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but killer whale interactions appear to be rare. In 1990, a solitary killer whale was reported to have removed the catch from a longline in Hawaii (Dollar 1991). None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999). Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether killer whales are involved.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of killer whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. This species is not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on killer whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the insignificance of reported fisheries related mortality. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for killer whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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Revised 12/15/2000

SHORT-FINNED PILOT WHALE (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

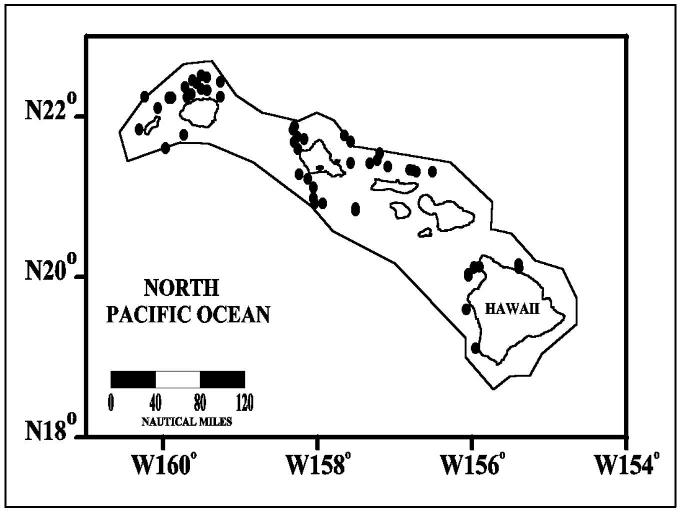

Figure 1. Short-finned pilot whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Short-finned pilot whales are found in all oceans, primarily in tropical and warm-temperate waters. They are commonly observed around the main Hawaiian Islands and are probably also present around the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (Shallenberger 1981). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. Several mass strandings have been reported from the main islands (Tomich 1986; Nitta 1991). In Japanese waters, two stocks have been identified based on pigmentation patterns and differences in the shape of the heads of adult males (Kasuya et al. 1988). The pilot whales in Hawaiian waters are similar to the Japanese "southern form." Stock structure of short-finned pilot whales has not been adequately studied in the North Pacific, except in Japanese waters. Preliminary photo-identification work with pilot whales in Hawaii indicated a high degree of site fidelity around the main island of Hawaii (Shane and McSweeney 1990). For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, short-finned pilot whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) Hawaiian waters (this report), and 2) waters off California, Oregon and Washington.

POPULATION SIZE

Estimates of short-finned pilot whale populations have been made off Japan (Miyashita 1993) and in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993), but it is not known whether any of these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An abundance estimate of 1,708 (CV=0.32) short-finned pilot whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of short-finned pilot whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 1,313 short-finned pilot whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and is therefore an underestimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (1,313) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with a known fishery mortality within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 13 short-finned pilot whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

Mortality of cetaceans has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

One short-finned pilot whale was observed killed outside the U.S. EEZ in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 (Figure 2), with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. This mortality rate extrapolates to a total 5-year estimate of 23 (95% CI = 1-108) short-finned pilot whales, or an average of 4.6 animals killed per year (Kleiber 1999). The single observed short-finned pilot whale was reported to have been entangled in the fishing line. Reports for other odontocetes indicate animals may also ingest the hook or become hooked in the mouth or other part of their body.

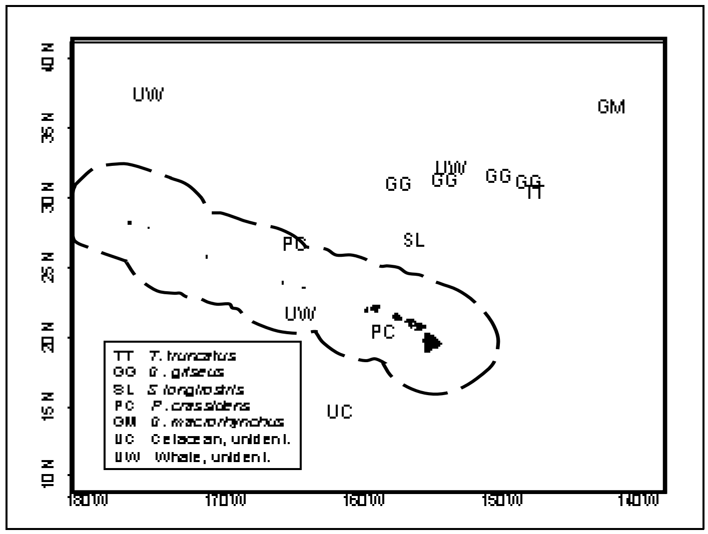

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); GM = short-finned pilot whale.

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no other interactions with short-finned pilot whales have been documented. Interaction rates between dolphins and the NWHI bottomfish fishery have been estimated based on studies conducted in 1990-1993, indicating that an average of 2.67 dolphin interactions, most likely involving bottlenose and rough-toothed dolphins, occurred for every 1000 fish brought on board (Kobayashi and Kawamoto 1995). Fishermen claim interactions with dolphins who steal bait and catch are increasing. It is not known whether these interactions result in serious injury or mortality of dolphins, nor whether short-finned pilot whales are involved.

Other Removals

Since 1963, at least 20 short-finned pilot whales have been live-captured from Hawaiian waters by Sea Life Park/Oceanic Foundation (Shallenberger 1981).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of short-finned pilot whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. No habitat issues are known to be of concern for this species. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on short-finned pilot whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA given the absence of reported fisheries related mortality within the U.S. EEZ. However, the potential effect of mortality in the Hawaiian longline fishery in international waters is not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for short-finned pilot whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate.

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BLAINVILLE'S BEAKED WHALE (*Mesoplodon densirostris*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

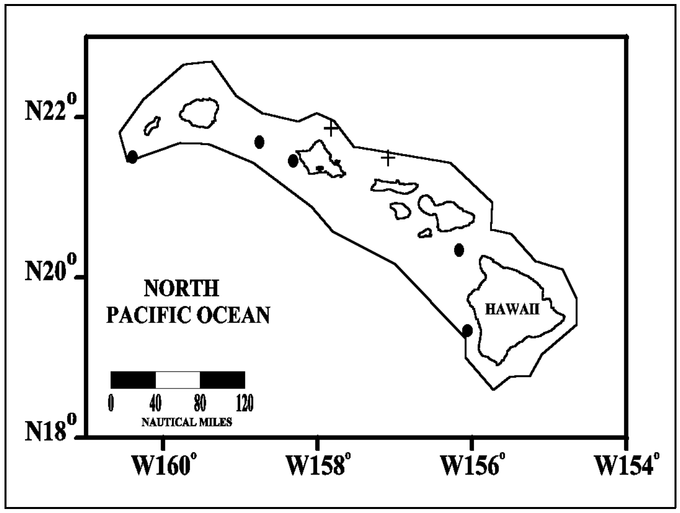

Figure 1. Blainville's beaked whale (●) and unidentified *Mesoplodon* (+) sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

Blainville's beaked whale has a cosmopolitan distribution in tropical and temperate waters, apparently the most extensive known distribution of any *Mesoplodon* species (Mead 1989). Two strandings were reported in 1961 from Midway Island (Galbreath 1963) and another in 1983 from Laysan Island (Nitta 1991). Sixteen sightings were reported from the main islands by Shallenberger (1981), who suggested that Blainville's beaked whales were present off the Waianae Coast of Oahu for prolonged periods annually. Balcomb (1987) speculated that this species is "more common in Hawaii than anywhere else in the world." Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. Although all identified Mesoplodon records from Hawaiian waters are of *M. densirostris*, several other species in the genus *Mesoplodon* are known from the North Pacific and may be recorded in Hawaiian waters in the future (see Mead 1989). There is no information on stock structure of Blainville's beaked whale. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, three *Mesoplodon* stocks are defined: 1) *M. densirostris* in Hawaiian waters (this report), 2) *M. stejnegeri* in Alaskan waters, and 3) all *Mesoplodon* species off California, Oregon and Washington.

POPULATION SIZE

As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. Seven sightings of Blainville's beaked whales were made. An abundance estimate of 68 (CV=0.60) Blainville's beaked whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of Blainville's beaked whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed. Furthermore, this species is known to spend a large proportion of time diving, causing additional downward bias in the abundance estimate.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 43 Blainville's beaked whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and does not include a large proportion of animals that were diving and therefore unavailable to be seen.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (43) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.4 Blainville's beaked whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of Blainville's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no takes of Blainville's beaked whales have been documented. However, three unidentified whales and one unidentified cetacean were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 (Figure2), with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. Observer descriptions and photographs of these interactions indicate that at least two of the unidentified whales may have been beaked whales, including one within the U.S. EEZ. The total interaction rate based on these two possible beaked whales extrapolates to a 5-year estimate of 45 (95% CI = 7-108), or an average of 9 interactions per year (Kleiber 1999). One of the two possible beaked whales was hooked in the fluke, and following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), this would not be considered a serious injury (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality). The other interaction, which took place within the U.S. EEZ, involved a possible beaked whale that was hooked but broke the line and swam away before the location of the hook could be ascertained. Therefore, no determination can be made regarding the severity of this second injury. Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in the mouth or ingest the hook, and that they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line. Insufficient information is available to evaluate whether some of these unidentified whales may have been Blainville's beaked whales.

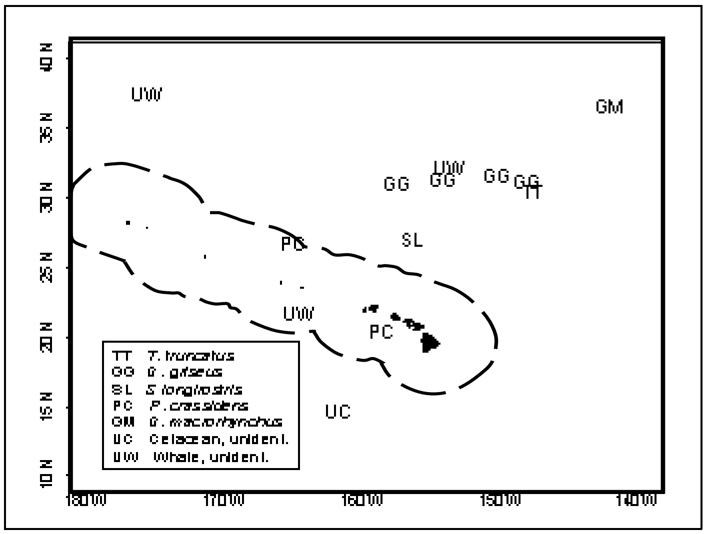

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); UW = unidentified whale; UC = unidentified cetacean. The two westernmost unidentified whales may have been Blainville's beaked whales.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Blainville's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on Blainville's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA because there has been no reported fisheries related mortality within the U.S. EEZ. However, the effect of potential interactions of unidentified beaked whales (which may have been Blainville's beaked whales) with the Hawaiian longline fishery in U.S. and international waters is not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for Blainville's beaked whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like Blainville's beaked whales that feed in the oceans' "sound channel".

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Revised 12/15/2000

CUVIER'S BEAKED WHALE (*Ziphius cavirostris*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Cuvier's beaked whales occur in all oceans and major seas (Heyning 1989). In Hawaii, strandings have been reported from Midway Islands, Pearl and Hermes Reef, Oahu, and Hawaii Islands (Shallenberger 1981; Galbreath 1963; Richards 1952; Nitta 1991). Sightings have been reported off Lanai and Maui (Shallenberger 1981). Recent sighting locations around the main Hawaiian Islands (Mobley et al. 2000) are shown in Figure 1. Nothing is known about stock structure for this species. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, Cuvier's beaked whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into three discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) Hawaiian waters (this report), 2) Alaskan waters, and 3) waters off California, Oregon and Washington.

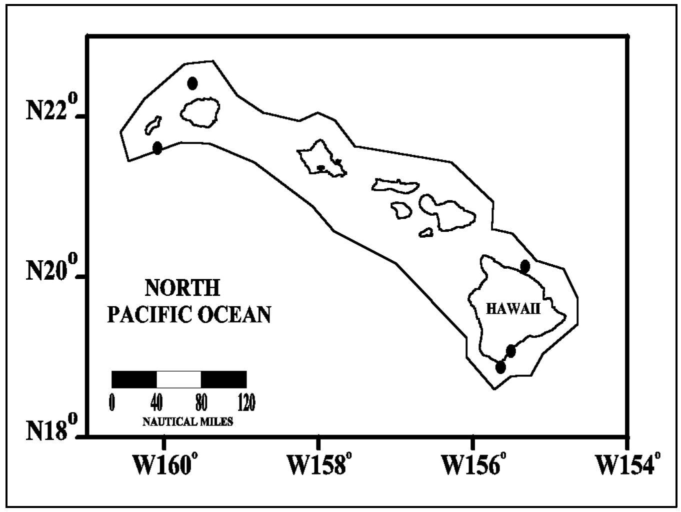

Figure 1. Cuvier's beaked whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

Wade and Gerrodette (1993) made an estimate for Cuvier's beaked whales in the eastern tropical Pacific, but it is not known whether any of these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. Seven sightings of Cuvier's beaked whales were made. An abundance estimate of 43 (CV=0.51) Cuvier's beaked whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of Cuvier's beaked whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed. Furthermore, this species is known to spend a large proportion of time diving, causing additional downward bias in the abundance estimate.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 29 Cuvier's beaked whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and does not include a large proportion of animals that were diving and therefore unavailable to be seen.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (29) <u>times</u> one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) <u>times</u> a recovery factor of 0.50 (for a species of unknown status with no known fishery mortality; Wade and Angliss 1997), resulting in a PBR of 0.3 Cuvier's beaked whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of Cuvier's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no takes of Cuvier's beaked whales have been documented. However, three unidentified whales and one unidentified cetacean were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998 (Figure 2), with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed. Observer descriptions and photographs of these interactions indicate that at least two of the unidentified whales may have been beaked whales, including one within the U.S. EEZ. The total interaction rate based on these two possible beaked whales extrapolates to a 5-year estimate of 45 (95% CI = 7-108), or an average of 9 interactions per year (Kleiber 1999). One of the two possible beaked whales was hooked in the fluke, and following the guidelines of a 1997 Serious Injury Workshop (Angliss and DeMaster 1998), this would not be considered a serious injury (defined under the MMPA as likely to result in mortality). The other interaction, which took place within the U.S. EEZ, involved a possible beaked whale that was hooked but broke the line and swam away before the location of the hook could be ascertained. Therefore, no determination can be made regarding the severity of this second injury. Reports for other odontocetes indicate they may also become hooked in the mouth or ingest the hook, and that they may occasionally become entangled in the fishing line. Insufficient information is available to evaluate whether some of these unidentified whales may have been Cuvier's beaked whales.

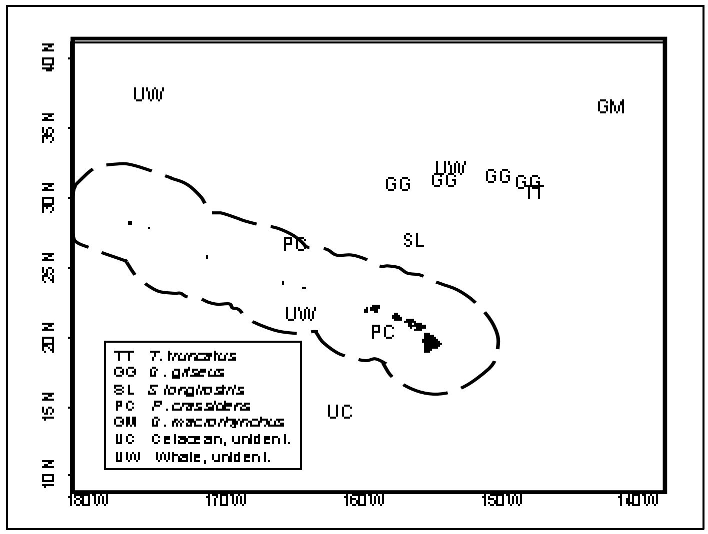

Figure 2. Locations of observed cetacean interactions in the Hawaiian longline fishery, 1994-98 (modified from Kleiber 1999). Dashed line is the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ); UW = unidentified whale; UC = unidentified cetacean. The two westernmost unidentified whales may have been Cuvier's beaked whales.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Cuvier's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on Cuvier's beaked whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the

MMPA because there has been no reported fisheries related mortality within the U.S. EEZ. However, the effect of potential interactions of unidentified beaked whales (which may have been Cuvier's beaked whales) with the Hawaiian longline fishery in U.S. and international waters is not known. Insufficient information is available to determine whether the total fishery mortality and serious injury for Cuvier's beaked whales is insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like Cuvier's beaked whales that feed in the oceans' "sound channel".

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Revised 12/15/2000

PYGMY SPERM WHALE (*Kogia breviceps*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Pygmy sperm whales are found throughout the world in tropical and warm-temperate waters (Caldwell and Caldwell 1989). Between the years 1949 and 1982, at least nine strandings of this species were reported in the Hawaiian Islands (Tomich 1986; Nitta 1991). Shallenberger (1981) reported three sightings off Oahu and Maui. Two sightings of pygmy or dwarf sperm whales were made between Hawaii and Maui during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (Figure 1; Mobley et al. 1999). A stranded calf was held for several days at Sea Life Park (Pryor 1975:94). Nothing is known about stock structure for this species. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, pygmy sperm whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) Hawaiian waters (this report), and 2) waters off California, Oregon and Washington.

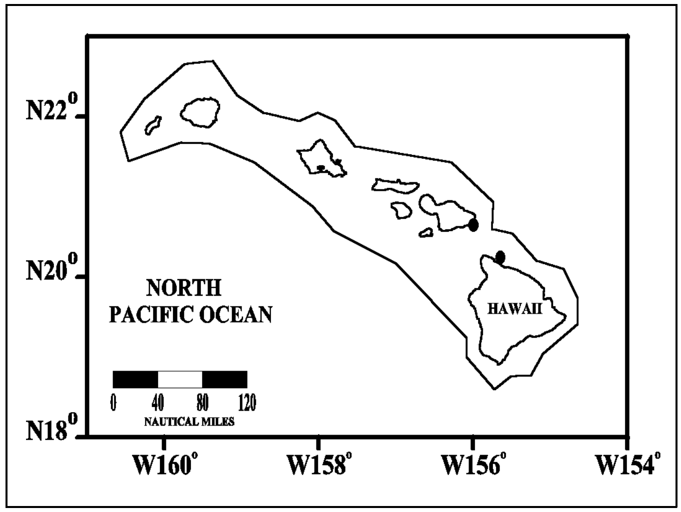

Figure 1. Pygmy or dwarf sperm whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

No data are available to estimate population size for this species in the central Pacific. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. Two sightings of five pygmy or dwarf sperm whales were made; however these sightings were excluded during recent abundance analyses (Mobley et al. 2000), because they were made during poor observation conditions. Therefore, no abundance estimate is available for pygmy sperm whales within Hawaiian waters.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available to provide a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this stock at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of pygmy sperm whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with pygmy sperm whales have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of pygmy sperm whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on pygmy sperm whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA because there has been no reported fisheries related mortality. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for pygmy sperm whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like pygmy sperm whales that feed in the oceans' "sound channel".

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Revised 12/15/2000

DWARF SPERM WHALE (*Kogia sima*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Dwarf sperm whales are found throughout the world in tropical to warm-temperate waters (Nagorsen 1985). One sighting in an unspecified locality, one stranding on Oahu (Tomich 1986), and one stranding on Lanai (Nitta 1991) constitute the only evidence that this species inhabits Hawaiian waters (Tomich 1986). Two sightings of pygmy or dwarf sperm whales were made between Hawaii and Maui during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (Figure 1; Mobley et al. 1999). The difficulty of detecting and identifying it at sea, as well as its confusion with the pygmy sperm whale, may partially explain the paucity of records. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, there is a single Pacific management stock of dwarf sperm whales including only animals found within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of the Hawaiian Islands. Rice (1998) recently argued that the species name *simus*, is incorrect and should be replaced by *sima*. This change is not taxonomic, but merely reflects rules of Latin usage.

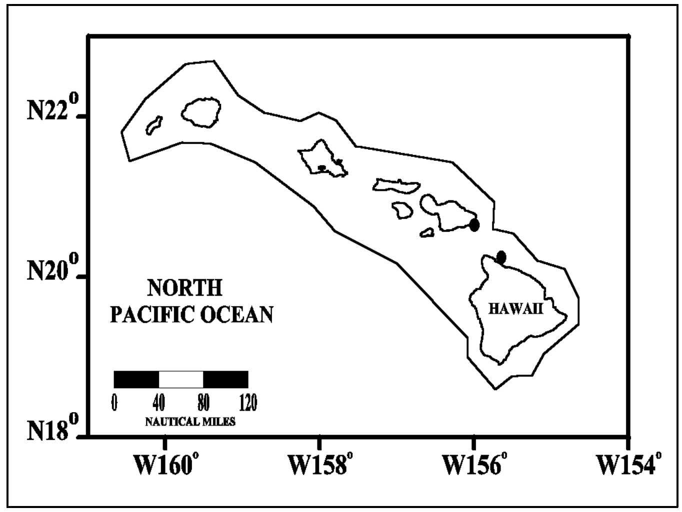

Figure 1. Pygmy or dwarf sperm whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

POPULATION SIZE

Wade and Gerrodette (1993) provided an estimate for the eastern tropical Pacific, but no data are available to estimate population size for this species in the central Pacific. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. Two sightings of five pygmy or dwarf sperm whales were made; however these sightings were excluded during recent abundance analyses (Mobley et al. 2000), because they were made during poor observation conditions. Therefore, no abundance estimate is available for dwarf sperm whales within Hawaiian waters.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this species at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of direct or incidental takes of dwarf sperm whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with cetaceans have been reported for all Hawaiian pelagic fisheries (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no interactions with dwarf sperm whales have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of dwarf sperm whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on dwarf sperm whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA because there has been no reported fisheries related mortality. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for dwarf sperm whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like dwarf sperm whales that feed in the oceans' "sound channel".

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SPERM WHALE (*Physeter macrocephalus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Sperm whales are widely distributed across the entire North Pacific and into the southern Bering Sea in summer but the majority are thought to be south of 40°N in winter (Rice 1974, 1989; Gosho et al. 1984; Miyashita et al. 1995). For management, the International Whaling Commission (IWC) had divided the North Pacific into two management regions (Donovan 1991) defined by a zig-zag line which starts at 150°W at the equator, is 160°W between 40-50°N, and ends up at 180°W north of 50°N; however, the IWC has not reviewed this stock boundary in many years (Donovan 1991). Summer/fall surveys in the eastern tropical Pacific (Wade and Gerrodette 1993) show that although sperm whales are widely distributed in the tropics, their relative abundance tapers off markedly westward towards the middle of the tropical Pacific (near the IWC stock boundary at 150°W) and tapers off northward towards the tip of Baja California. The Hawaiian Islands marked the center of a major nineteenth century whaling ground for sperm whales (Gilmore 1959; Townsend 1935). Since 1936, at least five strandings have been reported from Oahu, Kauai (Nitta 1991) and Kure Atoll (Woodward 1972). Sperm whales have also been sighted around several of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (Rice 1960), off the main island of Hawaii (Lee 1993; Mobley et al. 1999, see Figure 1), in the Kauai Channel and in the Alenuihaha Channel between Maui and the island of Hawaii (Shallenberger 1981). In addition, the sounds of sperm whales have been recorded throughout the year off Oahu (Thompson and Friedl 1982).

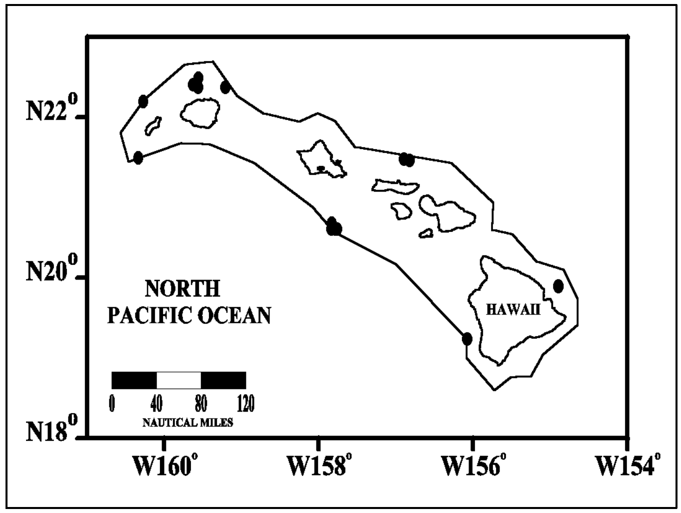

Figure 1. Sperm whale sighting locations during 1993-98 aerial surveys within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands (see Appendix 2 for details on timing and location of survey effort). Outer line indicates approximate boundary of survey area.

The stock identity of sperm whales in the North Pacific has been inferred from historical catch records (Bannister and Mitchell 1980) and from trends in CPUE and tag-recapture data (Ohsumi and Masaki 1977), but much uncertainty remains. A 1997 survey designed specifically to investigate stock structure and abundance of sperm whales in the northeastern temperate Pacific revealed no apparent hiatus in distribution between the U.S. EEZ off California and areas farther west, out to Hawaii (Barlow and Taylor 1998). Very preliminary genetic analyses revealed significant differences between sperm whales off the coast of California, Oregon and Washington and those sampled offshore to Hawaii (Mesnick et al., unpubl. data); analyses of additional genetic samples are ongoing at the NMFS, Southwest Fisheries Science Center. For the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports, sperm whales within the Pacific U.S. EEZ are divided into three discrete, non-contiguous areas: 1) waters around Hawaii (this report), 2) California, Oregon and Washington waters, and 3) Alaskan waters.

POPULATION SIZE

A large 1982 abundance estimate for the entire eastern North Pacific (Gosho et al. 1984) was based on a CPUE method which is no longer accepted as valid by the International Whaling Commission. Recently, a combined visual and acoustic line-transect survey conducted in the eastern temperate North Pacific in spring 1997 resulted in estimates of 24,000 (CV=0.46) sperm whales based on visual sightings, and 39,200 (CV=0.60) based acoustic detections and visual group size estimates (Barlow and Taylor 1998). In the eastern tropical Pacific, the abundance of sperm whales has been estimated as 22,700 (95% C.I.=14,800-34,600; Wade and Gerrodette 1993). However, it is not known whether any or all of these animals routinely enter the U.S. EEZ of Hawaii. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998. An average abundance estimate of 66 (CV=0.56) sperm whales was recently calculated from the combined survey data (Mobley et al. 2000). This abundance underestimates the total number of sperm whales within the U.S. EEZ off Hawaii, because areas around the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and beyond 25 nautical miles from the main islands were not surveyed. Furthermore, this species is known to spend a large proportion of time diving, causing additional downward bias in the abundance estimate.

Minimum Population Estimate

The log-normal 20th percentile of the combined 1993-98 abundance estimate is 43 sperm whales. As with the best abundance estimate above, this includes only areas within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands and does not include a large proportion of animals that were diving and therefore unavailable to be seen.

Current Population Trend

No data on current population trend are available.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data on current or maximum net productivity rate are available.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

The potential biological removal (PBR) level for this stock is calculated as the minimum population size (43) times one half the default maximum net growth rate for cetaceans (½ of 4%) times a recovery factor of 0.1 (the default value for an endangered species), resulting in a PBR of 0.4 sperm whales per year.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of recent direct or incidental takes of sperm whales in Hawaiian waters (Nitta and Henderson 1993). However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and floatlines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no takes of sperm whales have been documented. None were observed hooked in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

Historical Mortality

Between 1800 and 1909, about 60,842 sperm whales were estimated taken in the North Pacific (Best 1976). The reported take of North Pacific sperm whales by commercial whalers between 1947 and 1987 totaled 258,000 (C. Allison, pers. comm.). Factory ships operated as far south as 20°N (Ohsumi 1980). Ohsumi (1980) lists an additional 28,198 sperm whales taken mainly in coastal whaling operations from 1910 to 1946. Based on the massive under-reporting of Soviet catches, Brownell et al. (1998) estimate that about 89,000 whales were additionally taken by the Soviet pelagic whaling fleet between 1949 and 1979. The Japanese coastal operations apparently also under-reported catches by an unknown amount (Kasuya 1998). Thus a total of at least 436,000 sperm whales were taken between 1800 and the end of commercial whaling for this species in 1987. Of this grand total, an estimated 33,842 were taken by Soviet and Japanese pelagic whaling operations in the eastern North Pacific from the longitude of Hawaii to the U.S. West coast, between 1961 and 1976 (Allen 1980, IWC statistical Areas II and III), and 965 were reported taken in land-based U.S. West coast whaling operations between 1947 and 1971 (Ohsumi 1980). In addition, 13 sperm whales were taken by shore whaling stations in California between 1919 and 1926 (Clapham et al. 1997). There has been a prohibition on taking sperm whales in the North Pacific since 1988, but large-scale pelagic whaling stopped earlier, in 1980. Some of the whales taken during the whaling era were certainly from a population or populations that occur within Hawaiian waters.

STATUS OF STOCK

The only estimate of the status of North Pacific sperm whales in relation to carrying capacity (Gosho et al. 1984) is based on a CPUE method which is no longer accepted as valid. The status of sperm whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. Sperm whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the Hawaiian stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for sperm whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales, particularly for deep-diving whales like sperm whales that feed in the oceans' "sound channel".

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BLUE WHALE (*Balaenoptera musculus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Blue whales are extremely rare in Hawaii. The only published sighting record is that of Berzin and Rovnin (1966) north of the Hawaiian Islands. Additional evidence that blue whales occur in this area comes from acoustic recordings made off Oahu and Midway Islands (Northrop et al. 1971; Thompson and Friedl 1982; McDonald and Fox 1999). Although the exact positions of the whales producing the sounds could not be determined, at least some of them were within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone. The recordings made off Oahu showed bimodal peaks throughout the year, suggesting that the animals were migrating into the area in summer and winter.

The stock structure of blue whales in the North Pacific is uncertain (Mizroch et al. 1984; Reilly and Thayer 1990; Reeves et al. 1998). The International Whaling Commission (IWC) has formally considered only one management stock for blue whales in the North Pacific (Donovan 1991), but now this ocean is thought to include up to five populations (Reeves et al. 1998), with two occurring within the U.S. EEZ. One group of animals feeds in California waters in summer/fall (from June to November) and migrates south to productive areas off Mexico and as far south as the Costa Rica Dome (10° N) in winter/spring (Mate et al. 1999, Stafford et al. 1999). Rice (1974) hypothesized that blue whales from Baja California migrated far offshore to fed in the eastern Aleutians or Gulf of Alaska and returned to feed in California waters; however, he has more recently concluded that the California population is separate from the Gulf of Alaska population (Rice 1992). Length frequency analyses (Gilpatrick et al. 1996) and photo-identification studies (Calambokidis et al. 1995) support separate population status for blue whales feeding off California and those feeding in Alaskan waters. Whaling catch data indicate that whales feeding along the Aleutian Islands are probably part of a central Pacific stock (Reeves et al. 1998), which may migrate to offshore waters north of Hawaii in winter (Berzin and Rovnin 1966). Recently, however, blue whale feeding aggregations have not been found in Alaska despite several surveys (Leatherwood et al. 1982; Stewart et al. 1987; Forney and Brownell 1996). For management in U.S. Pacific waters outside the continental EEZ, the Hawaiian stock includes only those whales within the EEZ of the Hawaiian Islands. One other stock of North Pacific blue whales (off California and Mexico) is recognized in the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock Assessment Reports.

POPULATION SIZE

From ship line-transect surveys, Wade and Gerrodette (1993) estimated 1,400 blue whales for the eastern tropical Pacific. A weighted average estimate of 1,940 blue whales is available for California, Oregon and Washington, based on 1991-96 shipboard line-transect surveys (Barlow 1997) and photographic mark-recapture estimates (Calambokidis and Steiger 1994). No data are available to estimate population size for any other North Pacific blue whale population, including the putative central stock that apparently summered along the Aleutians and wintered north of Hawaii. A summer 1994 shipboard survey within the historical whaling grounds south of the Aleutian Islands yielded no blue whale sightings (Forney and Brownell 1996), nor did a total of twelve aerial surveys conducted in 1993-98 within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands as part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study (Mobley et al. 2000).

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available to provide a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this stock at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of recent direct or incidental takes of blue whales in Hawaiian waters. However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994). Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands, but no takes of blue whales have been documented (Nitta and Henderson 1993). None were observed hooked or entangled in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

Historical Mortality

At least 9,500 blue whales were taken by commercial whalers throughout the North Pacific between 1910 and 1965 (Ohsumi and Wada 1972). Some proportion of this total may have been from a population or populations that migrate seasonally into the Hawaiian EEZ. The species has been protected in the North Pacific by the IWC since 1966.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of blue whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. Blue whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the Hawaiian stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for blue whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for blue whales (Reeves et al. 1998).

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FIN WHALE (*Balaenoptera physalus*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Fin whales are found throughout all oceans and seas of the world from tropical to polar latitudes. They are rare in Hawaiian waters. Balcomb (1987) observed 8-12 fin whales in a multispecies feeding assemblage on 20 May 1966 approx. 250 mi. south of Honolulu. Additional sightings were reported north of Oahu in May 1976 and in the Kauai Channel in February 1979 (Shallenberger 1981). More recently, a single fin whale was observed north of Kauai in February 1994 (Mobley et al. 1996). A single stranding has been reported on Maui (Shallenberger 1981). Thompson and Friedl (1982; and see Northrop et al. 1968) suggested that fin whales migrate into Hawaiian waters mainly in fall and winter, based on acoustic recordings off Oahu and Midway Islands. Although the exact positions of the whales producing the sounds could not be determined, at least some of them were almost certainly within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone. More recently, McDonald and Fox (1999) reported an average of 0.027 calling fin whales per 1000^2 km (grouped by 8-hr periods) based on passive acoustic recordings within about 16 km of the north shore of Oahu.

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) recognized two stocks of fin whales in the North Pacific: the East China Sea and the rest of the North Pacific (Donovan 1991). Mizroch et al. (1984) cites evidence for additional fin whale subpopulations in the North Pacific. There is still insufficient information to accurately determine population structure, but from a conservation perspective it may be risky to assume panmixia in the entire North Pacific. In the North Atlantic, fin whales were locally depleted in some feeding areas by commercial whaling (Mizroch et al. 1984), in part because subpopulations were not recognized. The Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) stock assessment reports recognize three stocks of fin whales in the North Pacific: 1) the Hawaii stock (this report), 2) the California/Oregon/Washington stock, and 3) the Alaska stock.

POPULATION SIZE

No data are available to estimate population size. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993-98 (Mobley et al. 2000). Only one sighting of a single fin whale was made (Mobley et al. 1996), and therefore no meaningful abundance estimate could be calculated. Using passive acoustic detections from a hydrophone north of Oahu, MacDonald and Fox (1999) estimate an average density of 0.027 calling fin whales per 1000 km^2 within about 16 km from shore. However, the relationship between the number of whales present and the number of calls detected is not known, and therefore this acoustic method does not provide an estimate of absolute abundance for fin whales.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available to provide a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this stock at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of recent direct or incidental takes of fin whales in Hawaiian waters. However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no takes of fin whales have been documented. None were observed hooked or entangled in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

Historical Mortality

Large numbers of fin whales were taken by commercial whalers throughout the North Pacific from the early 20th century until the 1970s (Tønnessen and Johnsen 1982). Approximately 46,000 fin whales were taken from the North Pacific by commercial whalers between 1947 and 1987 (C. Allison, IWC, pers. comm.). Some of the whales taken may have been from a population or populations that migrate seasonally into the Hawaiian EEZ. The species has been protected in the North Pacific by the IWC since 1976.

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of fin whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. Fin whales are formally listed as "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), and consequently the Hawaiian stock is automatically considered as a "depleted" and "strategic" stock under the MMPA. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for fin whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales.

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BRYDE'S WHALE (*Balaenoptera edeni*): Hawaiian Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Bryde's whales occur in tropical and warm temperate waters throughout the world. Shallenberger (1981) reported a sighting of a Bryde's whale southeast of Nihoa in April 1977 (see DeLong and Brownell 1977; Leatherwood et al. 1982: Fig. 39c). Leatherwood et al. (1982) described the species as relatively abundant in summer and fall on the Mellish and Miluoki banks northeast of Hawaii and around Midway Islands, but the basis for this statement was not explained. Ohsumi and Masaki (1975) reported the tagging of "many" Bryde's whales between the Bonin and Hawaiian Islands in the winters of 1971 and 1972 (Ohsumi 1977). With presently available evidence, there is no biological basis for defining separate stocks of Bryde's whales in the central North Pacific. Bryde's whales also occasionally occur off southern California (Morejohn and Rice 1973). For the MMPA stock assessment reports, Bryde's whales within the Pacific U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone are divided into two areas: 1) Hawaiian waters (this report), and 2) the eastern tropical Pacific (east of 150°W and including the Gulf of California and waters off California).

POPULATION SIZE

Tillman (1978) concluded from Japanese and Soviet CPUE data that the stock size in the North Pacific pelagic whaling grounds, mostly to the west of the Hawaiian Islands, declined from approximately 22,500 in 1971 to 17,800 in 1977. An estimate of 13,000 (CV=0.202) Bryde's whales was made from vessel surveys in the eastern tropical Pacific between 1986 and 1990 (Wade and Gerrodette 1993). The area to which this estimate applies is mainly east and somewhat south of the Hawaiian Islands, and it is not known whether these animals are part of the same population that occurs around the Hawaiian Islands. As part of the Marine Mammal Research Program of the Acoustic Thermometry of Ocean Climate (ATOC) study, a total of twelve aerial surveys were conducted within about 25 nmi of the main Hawaiian Islands in 1993, 1995 and 1998 (Mobley et al. 2000). No sightings of Bryde's whales were made, and therefore no abundance estimate is available for Hawaiian waters.

Minimum Population Estimate

No data are available for a minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

No data are available on current population trend.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

No data are available on current or maximum net productivity rate.

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

No PBR can be calculated for this stock at this time.

HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Fishery Information

No estimate of annual human-caused mortality and serious injury is available as there are no reports of recent direct or incidental takes of Bryde's whales in Hawaiian waters. However, mortality of other cetacean species has been observed in Hawaiian fisheries, and the gear types used in these fisheries are responsible for marine mammal mortality and serious injury in other fisheries throughout U.S. waters. Gillnets are used in Hawaiian waters and appear to capture marine mammals wherever they are used, and float lines from lobster traps and longlines can be expected to occasionally entangle whales (Perrin et al. 1994).

Interactions with dolphins are reported for all pelagic fisheries, and humpback whales have been entangled in longlines off the Hawaiian Islands (Nitta and Henderson 1993), but no takes of Bryde's whales have been documented. None were observed hooked or entangled in the Hawaiian longline fishery between 1994 and 1998, with approximately 4.4% of all effort (measured as the number of hooks fished) observed (Kleiber 1999).

Historical Mortality

Small numbers of Bryde's whales were taken near the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands by Japanese and Soviet whaling fleets during the early 1970s (Ohsumi 1977). Pelagic whaling for Bryde's whales in the North Pacific ended after the 1979 season (IWC 1981), and coastal whaling for this species ended in the western Pacific in 1987 (IWC 1989).

STATUS OF STOCK

The status of Bryde's whales in Hawaiian waters relative to OSP is unknown, and there are insufficient data to evaluate trends in abundance. They are not listed as "threatened" or "endangered" under the Endangered Species Act (1973), nor as "depleted" under the MMPA. Although information on Bryde's whales in Hawaiian waters is limited, this stock would not be considered strategic under the 1994 amendments to the MMPA because there has been no reported fisheries related mortality. The total fishery mortality and serious injury for Bryde's whales is zero and therefore can be considered to be insignificant and approaching zero mortality and serious injury rate. The increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the world's oceans has been suggested to be a habitat concern for whales.

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