

1    **3.8    Wildlife**

2    This affected environment section includes descriptions of the marine wildlife and benthic invertebrate  
3    resources important in predicting impacts that could occur as a result of the Proposed Action or  
4    alternatives. This section focuses primarily on the seabird and marine mammal species that are known  
5    or thought to be directly or indirectly impacted by commercial fisheries, but also provides a succinct  
6    overview of all wildlife resources that might be encountered by any Puget Sound commercial and sport  
7    fishery. Important information gaps are identified.

8    **3.8.1   Marine Habitats**

9    The diversity and distribution of marine wildlife in Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de Fuca are  
10   strongly influenced by the distribution of marine habitats, and nearshore terrestrial habitats that provide  
11   substrate for resting or breeding. These habitat types in Puget Sound have been variously classified  
12   depending on the intended use of the system. Buchanan et al. (2001) developed a classification more  
13   reflective of the distribution and composition of marine organisms. Buchanan et al. (2001) recognizes  
14   *estuarine habitat* as tidal flats and river mouths like Padilla Bay and mouth of the Nooksack River.  
15   *Nearshore marine habitats* include the marine areas of Puget Sound between high tide and the end of  
16   the photic zone (66 feet depth), and *inland marine deeper water* as waters greater than 66 feet deep.  
17   Further, Buchanan et al. (2001) classified the deeper water of the Strait of Juan de Fuca west of a line  
18   from the mouth of the Elwha River north to Race Rocks on the southeastern tip of Vancouver Island  
19   (see Figure 3.3.14) as *marine shelf* due to the influence of oceanic currents on the western half of the  
20   strait. While Buchanan et al. (2001) are not the only scientists to develop a habitat classification system  
21   (e.g., Dethier 1990), this classification system was developed specifically for determining habitat  
22   relationships of wildlife inhabiting Oregon and Washington (Johnson and O’Neill 2001); therefore, it is  
23   the system followed in this assessment.

24   The inland marine deeper water habitat comprises nearly 2 million acres in Puget Sound and the Strait  
25   of Juan de Fuca. At least 63 species of marine birds and marine mammals are known to frequent this  
26   habitat zone, although 40 percent are found only during the winter (Johnson and O’Neill 2001). The  
27   seabirds most closely associated with this habitat include white-winged/black scoters,  
28   Bonaparte’s/Heermann’s/Thayer’s/glaucous-winged/glaucous gulls, pigeon guillemots, common  
29   murrelets, rhinoceros auklets, tufted puffins, marbled/ancient murrelets, Brandt’s/double-crested/pelagic  
30   cormorants, western/Clark’s grebes, and Pacific/common/red-throated loons (Table 3.8-1), most of  
31   which reach their highest abundance during the winter months (Angell and Balcomb 1982; and  
32   Nysewander et al. 2001a; Table 3.8-2) when most commercial salmon fishing has concluded. This zone

1 also provides foraging habitat for seven species of marine mammals: harbor seal, California sea lion,  
2 Steller sea lion, harbor porpoise, Dall’s porpoise, minke whale, and killer whale (Johnson and O’Neill  
3 2001; Table 3.8-1).

4 The marine shelf habitat of the western half of the Strait of Juan de Fuca generally supports the same  
5 marine mammals found in inland marine deeper water. The proximity of these waters to the open ocean  
6 allows the intrusion of more open ocean species such as humpback whales and Pacific white-sided  
7 dolphins (Table 3.8-1). The seabirds most commonly found in this habitat type within the strait include  
8 Pacific loon, western/Clark’s grebe, northern fulmar, sooty/short-tailed shearwater, red-necked/red  
9 phalarope, Thayer’s/western/glaucous-winged/Sabine’s gull, black-legged kittiwake, common/Arctic  
10 tern, common murre, Cassin’s/rhinoceros auklet, and tufted puffin (Nysewander et al. 2001a; Table  
11 3.8-1).

12 The marine nearshore habitat comprises nearly the entire shoreline of Puget Sound, Hood Canal, San  
13 Juan Islands, Strait of Juan de Fuca, and Strait of Georgia. About 75 species of marine birds are  
14 associated with this habitat, including nearly all the same species found in deeper water habitat.  
15 Important additions to the avian assemblage in this habitat include red-necked grebes, brown pelicans,  
16 surf scoters, red-breasted mergansers, mew/herring gulls, and Caspian/common terns (Table 3.8-1).  
17 The marine mammals most commonly associated with this habitat type are sea lions, harbor seal, and  
18 harbor porpoise. Resident gray whales and wintering sea otters can be found at the western end of the  
19 Strait of Juan de Fuca.

1 Table 3.8-1. Presence and association of marine birds and mammals with the marine habitats of  
 2 Puget Sound.

Species	Bays and Estuaries	Inland Marine Deeper Waters	Marine Nearshore	Marine Shelf
<b>Loons</b>				
Red-throated Loon	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Pacific Loon	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Common Loon	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
<b>Grebes</b>				
Horned Grebe	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Red-necked Grebe	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Eared Grebe	◆□	□	◆□	□
Western/Clarke's Grebe	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
<b>Fulmars and Shearwaters</b>				
Northern Fulmar	□	□	□	◆□
Sooty Shearwater	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Short-tailed Shearwater	□	◆□	◆□	◆□
<b>Pelicans</b>				
Brown Pelican	◆□	□	◆□	□
<b>Cormorants</b>				
Double-crested Cormorant	◆□	◆□	◆□	□
Brandt's Cormorant	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Pelagic Cormorant	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
	□	□	□	□
<b>Geese</b>				
Snow Goose	◆□	□	□	□
<b>Dabbling Ducks</b>				
Northern Pintail	◆□	□	◆□	□
American Wigeon	◆□	◆□	◆□	□
<b>Sea Ducks</b>				
Greater Scaup	◆□	◆□	◆□	□
Lesser Scaup	◆□	□	□	□
Harlequin Duck	◆□	□	◆□	□
Long-tailed Duck	◆□	◆□	◆□	□
Black Scoter	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Surf Scoter	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
White-winged Scoter	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Common Goldeneye	◆□	□	◆□	□
Barrow's Goldeneye	◆□	□	◆□	□
Bufflehead	◆□	□	◆□	□

1 Table 3.8-1. Presence and association of marine birds and mammals with the marine habitats of  
 2 Puget Sound (continued).

Species	Bays and Estuaries	Inland Marine Deeper Waters	Marine Nearshore	Marine Shelf
<b>Mergansers</b>				
Red-breasted Merganser	◆	□	◆□	□
<b>Osprey</b>				
Osprey	◆□	□	◆□	□
<b>Eagles</b>				
Bald Eagle	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
<b>Oystercatcher</b>				
Black Oystercatcher	◆□	□	□	□
<b>Phalaropes</b>				
Red-necked Phalarope	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Red Phalarope	□	□	◆□	◆□
<b>Gulls</b>				
Bonaparte's Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Heermann's Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Mew Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Ring-billed Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
California Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Herring Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Thayer's Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Western Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Glaucous-winged Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Glaucous Gull	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Sabine's Gull			◆	◆
Black-legged Kittiwake			◆	◆
<b>Terns</b>				
Caspian Tern	◆□	□	◆□	□
Elegant Tern	◆□	□	◆□	◆□
Common Tern	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Arctic Tern	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
<b>Alcids</b>				
Common Murre	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Pigeon Guillemot	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Marbled Murrelet	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Ancient Murrelet	□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Cassin's Auklet	□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Rhinoceros Auklet	◆□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Tufted Puffin	□	◆□	◆□	◆□

1 Table 3.8-1. Presence and association of marine birds and mammals with the marine habitats of  
 2 Puget Sound (continued).

Species	Bays and Estuaries	Inland Marine Deeper Waters	Marine Nearshore	Marine Shelf
<b>Marine Mammals</b>				
<b>Pinnipeds</b>				
Steller Sea Lion		♦	◆	◆
California Sea Lion	♦	♦	◆	♦
Harbor Seal	◆	◆	◆	◆
Northern Elephant Seal		♦	♦	◆
<b>Otter</b>				
Sea Otter	□	□	◆□	♦□
<b>Baleen Whales</b>				
Minke Whale	□	◆□	□	♦□
Gray Whale	◆□	♦□	◆□	◆□
Fin Whale	□	□	□	◆□
Humpback Whale	□	□	□	◆□
<b>Toothed Whales and Dolphins</b>				
Killer Whale	♦□	◆□	♦□	◆□
Pacific White-sided Dolphin	□	□	□	◆□
Short-finned Pilot Whale	□	□	□	◆□
Risso's Dolphin	□	□	□	♦□
Harbor Porpoise	♦□	◆□	◆□	◆□
Dall's Porpoise		◆	♦	◆

3 Source: Johnson and O'Neill 2001□

4 Present ♦      Generally Associated ◆      Closely Associated ◆

1 Table 3.8-2. Seasonal abundance of birds and marine mammals in Puget Sound.

	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.
<b>Marine Birds</b>												
Loons	•				•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	•
Grebes	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	•	•
Shearwaters	•	•	•	•	•							•
Fulmars					•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Pelicans	•	•	•									•
Cormorants	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	•	•	•
Hérons	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Geese	•				•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
Dabbling Ducks	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Bay Ducks					•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Sea Ducks	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
Mergansers	•			•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Osprey	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Eagles	•	•	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Oystercatcher	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Phalaropes	•	•	•	•	•	•	•					•
Gulls	•	•	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•
Terns	•	•	•	•	•	◆	•	•			•	•
Alcids	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	•	•	•	•	◆
<b>Marine Mammals</b>												
Harbor Seal	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
Elephant Seal	◆			•	•	•						◆
Sea Lions	•						◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
Minke Whale	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	•	•	•	•	•	◆
Gray Whale	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Harbor Porpoise	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
Dall's Porpoise	•	•	◆	◆	◆	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Killer Whale	•	•	◆	◆	◆	◆	•	•	•	•	•	•

2 Sources: Angell and Balcomb 1982; and Nysewander et al. 2001a.

3 Occasional • Common ◆ Very Common ◆ Abundant ◆

1 Based solely on the importance of estuarine tidal flats to wintering and migrating waterfowl and  
2 shorebirds, this habitat ranks as one of the richest and most diverse in the state of Washington. Some of  
3 the most prominent species include the double-crested cormorant, great blue heron, American wigeon,  
4 northern pintail, snow goose, sanderling, western sandpiper, several species of gulls, osprey, and bald  
5 eagle (Table 3.8-1). Harbor seals commonly forage in the tidal channels.

### 6 **3.8.2 Marine Birds**

7 The breeding seabird population in the United States' waters of Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de  
8 Fuca comprises about 38,000 pairs. More than 90 percent of these birds are rhinoceros auklets,  
9 glaucous-winged gulls (or intergrades with western gulls), and pigeon guillemots. The only other  
10 breeding seabirds are double-crested and pelagic cormorants, marbled murrelets, and a very few tufted  
11 puffins (Speich and Wahl 1989). These birds, plus variable numbers of non-breeding common murrets  
12 and Brandt's cormorants, comprise the summer (June-August) seabird community (Table 3.8-2).

13 The winter marine bird community is dramatically larger with the influx of tens of thousands of scaups,  
14 dabbling ducks, western grebes, common murrets, scoters, and loons (Table 3.8-2). Manuwal et al.  
15 (1979) and Wahl et al. (1981) estimated that 200,000 common murrets alone migrated into  
16 Washington's inland waters in September 1978, although those numbers may be considerably less  
17 today (Nysewander et al. 2001a).

#### 18 **3.8.2.1 Rhinoceros Auklet**

19 Rhinoceros auklets are one of the few seabirds that breed within the inland waters of Washington.  
20 Speich and Wahl (1989) estimated that approximately 34,000 of these birds nest annually at Protection  
21 Island, and about 2,500 nest on nearby Smith Island in the eastern end of the Strait of Juan de Fuca (see  
22 Figure 3.3-14 in Subsection 3.3 of this Environmental Impact Statement). Survey efforts by  
23 Nysewander et al. (2001a) (based on summer aerial surveys) suggest the summer population of  
24 rhinoceros auklets has gradually declined since Speich and Wahl's 1978 to 1982 colony surveys.  
25 During the summer (July), rhinoceros auklets are generally confined to deeper water regions of the  
26 northern two-thirds of greater Puget Sound (mainly Marine Catch Areas 6, 7, and 9; Figure 3.3-1),  
27 within 30 to 50 miles of the Protection Island and Smith Island breeding colonies. Rhinoceros auklets  
28 are especially abundant near offshore banks and tide-rips where they forage mainly on Pacific  
29 sandlance and Pacific herring (Leschner 1976). Pierce et al. (1996) found that 92 percent of the 2,383  
30 rhinoceros auklets recorded during August 1994 surveys in the San Juan Islands were located more

1 than 2,000 feet from the nearest shoreline. Localized densities of 381 birds per square mile have been  
2 recorded (WDFW 2002).

3 By winter, most rhinoceros auklets have migrated out of greater Puget Sound, likely to Washington's  
4 outer coast (Angell and Balcomb 1982). Some, however, overwinter in south Puget Sound (Paulson  
5 1980).

6 Rhinoceros auklets have been incidentally entangled in purse seine nets during the Puget Sound coho  
7 fishery (Anderson 1993), and in gillnets in the Puget Sound sockeye/pink salmon fishery (Wolf et al.  
8 1995; Thompson et al. 1998; and Melvin et al. 1999). The 1994 non-treaty sockeye gillnet fishery  
9 entangled an estimated 787 rhinoceros auklets in Marine Catch Areas 7 and 7A (Wolfe et al. 1995).  
10 Thompson et al. (1998) determined that 79 percent of the rhinoceros auklets confirmed killed in the  
11 1993 and 1994 sockeye and chum fisheries in Marine Catch Areas 7, 7A, 10, 11, and 12 were hatch-  
12 year (i.e., born that year; 63%) or subadult (i.e., non-breeding; 16%) birds, likely originating from the  
13 Protection Island and Smith Island colonies. The large percentage of hatch-year birds probably reflects  
14 the high number of these young birds on the water at the peak of the sockeye fishery (Wilson and  
15 Manuwal 1986; and Thompson et al. 1998).

#### 16 **3.8.2.2 Common Murre**

17 Common murres do not nest within Washington's inland waters, although a few non-breeders can be  
18 found in the summer (WDFW 2002). They are, however, the predominant winter alcid in the greater  
19 Puget Sound area, with tens of thousands of birds originating from the Oregon and Washington outer  
20 coasts. Manuwal et al. (1979) and Wahl et al. (1981) estimated that 200,000 birds entered the Strait of  
21 Juan de Fuca in September 1978. Most of these birds, however, were gone by November, likely  
22 moving north through the Strait of Georgia (although about 80,000 remained through the winter).  
23 Hamel and Parrish (2001) radio-tracked Tatoosh Island murres and found them to move inland to the  
24 eastern end of the Strait of Juan de Fuca where, presumably, food resources are more predictable and  
25 waters more calm than the outer coast. Surveys conducted by Wahl et al. (1981) in 1978–1979  
26 indicated that the most important winter habitat for murres occurs throughout the Strait of Juan de  
27 Fuca, through Rosario Strait, to the Strait of Georgia (Marine Catch Areas 4, 5, 6, and 7; Figure 3.3-  
28 14). Aerial surveys conducted between 1992 and 1999 (Nysewander et al. 2001a) found similar results  
29 for wintering common murres with the exceptional note of high murre concentration on the British  
30 Columbia side of the Strait of Juan de Fuca near Victoria, and relatively high densities in Admiralty  
31 Inlet (northern Marine Catch Area 9).

1 Common murre populations in the Pacific Northwest have been greatly impacted by several events  
2 over the past few decades (Carter et al. 2001). Breeding activity was greatly reduced from colony  
3 abandonment during the El Nino events of 1982–1983, 1987–1988, and 1992–1993. Further, major oil  
4 spills in 1988 (*NESTUCCA*) and 1991 (*TENYO MARU*) collectively killed between 34,000 and 50,000  
5 murre. Military activity, aircraft overflights, and entanglement in gillnet fisheries have also been  
6 implicated in common murre population declines within Washington State (Carter et al. 2001). Annual  
7 declines of 32.9 percent were reported between 1979 and 1986, and 13.3 percent between 1979 and  
8 1995. The Washington breeding population, estimated at 53,000 in 1979 (Carter et al. 2001), was  
9 reduced to an estimated 13,600 by 1995 (*TENYO MARU* Oil Spill Natural Resources Trustees 2000)  
10 with the steepest decline coinciding with the 1982–1983 El Nino coupled with military activity and  
11 fishing boat disturbance documented in 1984 and 1985 (Speich et al. 1987; and Carter et al. 2001).

12 Nysewander et al. (2001a) found higher densities of common murre in the deeper water regions of  
13 greater Puget Sound, which is not surprising given the ability of these birds to dive to depths of nearly  
14 600 feet (Piatt and Nettleship 1985). Similarly, Pierce et al. (1996) found 95 percent of 5,889 common  
15 murre sighted in Marine Catch Area 7 were more than 2,000 feet from shore. Because of their deep-  
16 diving capability, common murre are able to exploit a variety of prey. Nevertheless, schooling baitfish  
17 such as Pacific herring, Pacific sand lance, northern anchovy, Pacific whiting, smelt, and market squid  
18 universally dominate their diet (Manuwal and Carter 2001). Wilson and Thompson (1998) found  
19 murre in the San Juan Islands to have fed largely on Pacific herring, Pacific sand lance, salmon smolts,  
20 and Pacific tomcod.

21 Gillnet-associated deaths have been identified as a chronic mortality factor for common murre in  
22 Washington (Carter et al. 2001). The 1994 non-treaty sockeye gillnet fishery entangled an estimated  
23 2,700 common murre in Marine Catch Areas 7 and 7A (Wolfe et al. 1995). Thompson et al. (1998)  
24 determined that 63 percent of the common murre confirmed killed in the 1993 and 1994 sockeye and  
25 chum fisheries in Marine Catch Areas 7, 7A, 10, 11, and 12 were adults (which may reflect a large  
26 number of failed or non-breeding adults within the marine catch areas at the peak of the sockeye  
27 fishery). It is likely that many, if not most, of the murre killed in Puget Sound gillnet fisheries  
28 originate not from the lightly populated (13,600 in 1995; *TENYO MARU* Oil Spill Natural Resources  
29 Trustees 2000) and later-breeding Washington colonies, but from the much larger (breeding population  
30 averaging about 700,000 birds during the 1990s; personal communication with Roy Lowe, U.S. Fish  
31 and Wildlife Service, Refuge Biologist, February 25, 2003) and earlier (one month) nesting  
32 Oregon colonies. The hatch-year chicks killed in the 1993 and 1994 sockeye fisheries likely originated

1 from Oregon, as much the fishery occurred prior to the fledging of chicks at the Washington colonies  
2 (Thompson et al. 1998).

### 3 **3.8.2.3 Pigeon Guillemot**

4 The pigeon guillemots are perhaps the most widespread nesting seabirds in Puget Sound and the Strait  
5 of Juan de Fuca. They are especially prevalent along the Washington shoreline of the Strait of Juan de  
6 Fuca from Crescent Bay east to Admiralty Inlet (Marine Catch Area 6), within the San Juan Islands  
7 (Marine Catch Area 7), and in the South Puget Sound region (Marine Catch Area 13; see Figure 3.3-7).  
8 They are conspicuously absent west of Crescent Bay, Hood Canal, and Puget Sound's scattered  
9 estuarine and beach areas. Speich and Wahl (1989) estimated the breeding population to be about 3,600  
10 at 121 breeding locations. Since that time, Evenson et al. (2001) have identified more than 300 new  
11 breeding locations. These sites, along with the original 121, support nearly 15,000 guillemots based on  
12 surveys conducted in 2000 (Evenson et al. 2001). It is unclear whether the difference in population  
13 estimates between Speich and Wahl (1989) and Evenson et al. (2001) reflects a population increase or  
14 simply an increase in survey effort, although Evenson et al.'s results suggest they may have  
15 concentrated more effort on the smaller-sized colonies (62% of the colonies surveyed in 2000  
16 supported less than or equal to 25 birds) perhaps missed by Speich and Wahl (1989).

17 Pigeon guillemots generally forage along the shallow nearshore zone for epibenthic fish such as  
18 gunnels, blennies, pricklebacks, and sculpins (Drent 1965, Koelink 1972). Ewins (1993) compiled  
19 dietary information from 11 different studies and found salmonids to be completely absent. Pigeon  
20 guillemots are cavity-nesters and generally nest in rock rubble, but will use driftwood piles, bird and  
21 mammal burrows, and artificial structures such as wharves, bridges, navigation aids, drainage pipes,  
22 and even spent shell casings (Speich and Wahl 1989). When cavities are in short supply, they will  
23 excavate their own burrows in loose earth or sandy banks (Speich and Wahl 1989; and Vermeer et al.  
24 1993). They generally nest within small "colonies" or isolated pairs, although there are several colonies  
25 in Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de Fuca that support more than 50 pairs (Evenson et al. 2001).

26 Pigeon guillemots have been incidentally captured in coho purse seine fisheries off Kingston-Edmonds  
27 (Anderson 1993). However, entanglement of guillemots in the Marine Catch Area 7/7A sockeye  
28 salmon gillnet fisheries is apparently rare compared to rhinoceros auklets and common murrelets (Pierce  
29 et al. 1996; and Melvin et al. 1997, 1999). Only one pigeon guillemot was one captured during 642  
30 observed net sets during the 1996 test sockeye gillnet fishery (Melvin et al. 1999).

1 **3.8.2.4 Gulls and Terns**

2 Seventeen species of gulls and terns at least occasionally inhabit greater Puget Sound, but only four  
3 species – glaucous-winged and western gull, and Caspian and arctic tern – nest here (Speich and Wahl  
4 1989). Speich and Wahl (1989) estimated the greater Puget Sound breeding population of glaucous-  
5 winged gulls to be 20,000 with more than 11,000 on Protection Island (located in Marine Catch Area 6)  
6 alone (Figure 3.3-14). These gulls nest in a variety of situations throughout greater Puget Sound, from  
7 large colonies to isolated pairs using both natural and man-made substrates. The presence of western  
8 gull breeding populations in Washington inland waters is somewhat confusing. Speich and Wahl  
9 (1989) did not identify western gull breeding colonies *per se* in greater Puget Sound, but they did refer  
10 to Hoffman et al.'s (1978) contention that they hybridize with glaucous-winged gulls in the inland  
11 waters of Washington State. Angell and Balcomb (1982) did state that a small population of western  
12 gulls nests among the glaucous-winged gulls on Protection Island, and Nysewander et al (2001a) noted  
13 some western/glaucous-winged intergrade gulls during their surveys. A small colony of arctic terns  
14 have nested at Jetty Island off Everett (Angell and Balcomb 1982), and approximately 1,000 Caspian  
15 terns nested on the ASARCO slag piles along the Commencement Bay shoreline in 2000 (personal  
16 communication with Christopher Thompson, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Research  
17 Biologist, February 26, 2003; Figures 3.3-1 and 3.3-7).

18 The Nysewander et al. (2001a) surveys found gulls and terns to comprise by far the largest component  
19 (73%) of the summer marine bird population. Besides glaucous-winged gulls, this summer population  
20 is supplemented with a sizable population of Heermann's gulls and smaller numbers of non-breeding  
21 Bonaparte's, California, ringed-billed, and mew gulls (Angell and Balcomb 1982). Heermann's gulls  
22 breed in Mexico during the winter months and spend their off-season in more northern climes (Angell  
23 and Balcomb 1982).

24 The winter gull and tern population is comprised largely of resident glaucous-winged gulls and  
25 wintering Thayer's, mew, and Bonaparte's gulls. California and ring-billed gulls, and common terns  
26 are common spring and fall migrants (Angell and Balcomb 1982). Most gulls exhibit a more nearshore  
27 life history strategy reflecting their inability to dive to more than marginal depths. Nysewander et al.  
28 (2001a) found gull distributions to be quite variable, but to average more than a dozen times higher in  
29 nearshore habitat than offshore. Nevertheless, large flocks of glaucous-winged and Heermann's gulls  
30 are commonly seen feeding on surfacing herring in deeper channel waters. Nysewander et al. (2001b)  
31 estimated that the gull densities between surveys conducted in 1978 and 1979 (Wahl et al. 1981) and  
32 their surveys conducted between 1992 and 1999 (Nysewander et al. 2001a) had declined 43 percent.

1 However, Carter et al. (2002) stated that breeding glaucous-winged gull numbers are either stable or  
2 increasing.

3 Gulls and terns are apparently not susceptible to net entanglement from Puget Sound commercial  
4 fisheries based on the results from studies in Puget Sound (Anderson 1993; Melvin and Conquest 1996;  
5 Pierce et al. 1996; and Melvin et al. 1997). They are, however, occasionally hooked in the sport  
6 fisheries (Noviello 1999). However, during Noviello’s (1999) study to determine rates of bird and  
7 marine mammal encounters in the Puget Sound sport fisheries (Marine Catch Areas 4, 5, 8, and 10),  
8 only 4 bird captures were recorded in 1,090 apparent “hook-ups” – all immature gulls. All were  
9 released apparently unharmed.

#### 10 **3.8.2.5 Grebes, Loons, and Cormorants**

11 Four species of grebes – western, Clark’s, red-necked, and horned – winter in greater Puget Sound,  
12 with western grebes comprising about 85 percent of all grebes (Nysewander et al. 2001a). Together, the  
13 four grebe species comprise about 4 percent of all wintering marine birds (Nysewander et al. 2001a).  
14 Western grebes generally rest in large flocks in deep waters, then scatter at night to feed on schooling  
15 baitfish (Clowater 1998). They are most common in the protected inlet and bay waters of Puget Sound,  
16 and tend to avoid the open waters of the straits. Angell and Balcomb (1982) showed grebes arriving in  
17 the Puget Sound area in November and peaking December to February (Table 3.8-2). Morgan (1987)  
18 and Clowater (1998), however, found western grebe populations in the Strait of Georgia to reach high  
19 numbers in October, and then gradually build to a peak in March. Courtney et al. (1997) surveyed  
20 various locations of Puget Sound in Fall 1996. Both found western grebes to be one of the more  
21 common marine birds, comprising more than 20 percent of all marine bird sightings. Consequently,  
22 considerable numbers of western grebes can be found in Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de Fuca  
23 coincident with the fall chum fishery. Between surveys conducted 1978 to 1979 (Wahl et al. 1981), and  
24 1992 to 1999 (Nysewander et al. 2001a), these birds have apparently experienced severe (95%)  
25 population declines in the greater Puget Sound (Nysewander et al. 2001b).

26 Three species of loons winter in Washington inland marine waters. The most common, the red-throated  
27 loon, occurs in several habitats, but generally prefers nearshore waters where they forage along tidal  
28 fronts. In contrast, the Pacific loon feeds in the deeper offshore inland marine waters, primarily on  
29 herring. Common loons are intermediary, using both nearshore and offshore habitats. Loons are  
30 primarily a winter resident in Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de Fuca with large numbers first  
31 arriving in October (Angell and Balcomb 1982; and Morgan 1987). Collectively, the greater Puget  
32 Sound population of loons has declined 79 percent since 1978–79 (Nysewander et al. 2001b).

1 Cormorants are year-around residents of greater Puget Sound. Only two, the double-crested and pelagic  
2 cormorants, nest within the marine inland waters of Washington, although non-breeding Brandt's  
3 cormorants (an outer coast nester) contribute significantly to the summer greater Puget Sound  
4 population (Nysewander et al. 2001a). Speich and Wahl (1989) stated that about 1,100 double-crested  
5 cormorants nest in the inland waters, most of them in three colonies at the south end of Rosario Strait  
6 (Marine Catch Area 7/7A; Figure 3.3-1). Approximately twice as many pelagic cormorants nest in  
7 greater Puget Sound, most at the Protection Island and Smith Island colonies at the east end of the  
8 Strait of Juan de Fuca (Marine Catch Area 6). Nysewander et al. (2001a) found double-crested and  
9 pelagic cormorants to occur mainly in nearshore waters close to drying perches (their feathers are not  
10 waterproof), but Brandt's cormorants were commonly found in deeper offshore waters in winter.  
11 Nysewander et al. (2001b) found little change in overall wintering cormorant populations in  
12 Washington inland marine waters between 1992 and 1999. They found a significant 53 percent decline  
13 since 1978–79, 62 percent among double-crested cormorants alone. Chatwin et al. (2002) saw similar  
14 declines in breeding populations of pelagic and double-crested cormorants in the nearby Strait of  
15 Georgia, attributing these declines to variable herring populations, and harassment by bald eagles and  
16 recreational boaters.

17 Although common in nearshore waters in the summer (Angell and Balcomb 1982; Table 3.8-2),  
18 especially in Marine Catch Area 7, cormorants have not been recorded as a bycatch in the Puget Sound  
19 salmon driftnet fishery, although they have been recorded as entangled in fishing nets elsewhere  
20 (Terres 1991). Large numbers of grebes and loons occur in Puget Sound, Hood Canal, and the Strait of  
21 Juan de Fuca coincident with the fall chum fishery, yet information on these birds as a bycatch of this  
22 fishery is lacking. It is unknown whether this is due to low susceptibility to entanglement on the part of  
23 the birds (western grebes forage at night when gillnet fishing has ceased), or a lack of interaction  
24 studies during October and November.

### 25 **3.8.2.6 Sea Ducks**

26 Thousands of sea ducks (including diving ducks that use marine waters) winter each year in the inland  
27 waters of Washington. The most common of these are the scoters, buffleheads, goldeneyes, scaups,  
28 long-tailed ducks, and harlequin ducks (Nysewander et al. 2001a). Scoters alone comprise nearly half  
29 of all sea ducks during the winter and migration periods (Nysewander et al. 2001a). Most are either surf  
30 or white-winged scoters; black scoters comprise less than 10 percent of all sea ducks. Overall, scoters  
31 have declined 57 percent since 1978–79, with nearly all of this decline occurring in South Puget Sound  
32 (Nysewander et al. 2001b). Buffleheads comprised 23 percent of the sea ducks recorded between 1991

1 and 1999 (Nysewander et al. 2001a), and goldeneyes about 17 percent. Both have declined about 20  
2 percent since 1978–79. Common goldeneyes were found to be more common than Barrow’s  
3 goldeneyes except at certain bay locations. Scaups made up 8 percent of the sea ducks recorded during  
4 surveys by Nysewander et al. (2001a), with greater scaups comprising the overwhelming majority of  
5 the two species (the other the lesser scaup). Both scaup species have declined significantly since  
6 1978–79 (72%; Nysewander et al 2001b). Puget Sound represents the southern end of the long-tailed  
7 duck’s winter range. Long-tailed ducks comprise about 1 to 2 percent of the winter sea duck  
8 population, and are largely found in the eastern end of the Strait of Juan de Fuca and around the San  
9 Juan Islands (Marine Catch Areas 6 and 7; Nysewander et al. 2000). Although they do not occur in  
10 great numbers within the inland marine waters of Washington, the few sea ducks that do winter here  
11 have declined 92 percent (Nysewander et al. 2001b).

12 Declines in the sea duck species described above may represent a movement northward into the  
13 Canadian Strait of Georgia (where sea duck surveys have not been conducted in recent years), rather  
14 than major population declines. However, surveys conducted at other sea duck wintering locations do  
15 suggest a universal decline in this group. Only the harlequin ducks, which occur in low numbers during  
16 winter, have significantly increased (189%) in Puget Sound between the late 1970s and the 1990s  
17 (Nysewander et al. 2001b). But even these birds have fallen off considerably since peaking in 1996 at a  
18 little over a 1,000 individuals (Nysewander et al. 2001a).

19 Buffleheads, goldeneyes, and scaup feed largely on blue mussels, snails, and small crabs, although  
20 scaup also supplement their diet with sea lettuce and seasonally forage on herring spawn (Vermeer and  
21 Ydenberg 1987). Scoters and long-tailed ducks feed chiefly on small clams and snails, with some  
22 crustaceans and herring eggs when available (Vermeer and Ydenberg 1987). Harlequin duck diets in  
23 marine waters are much more diversified. Vermeer (1983) found snails, limpets, small fish, fish eggs,  
24 crabs, chitons, algae, and clams all of relative importance.

25 Sea ducks do not appear as bycatch in the Puget Sound gillnet fisheries, probably because they do not  
26 begin arriving in the Puget Sound area until November (Angell and Balcomb 1982; and Morgan 1987),  
27 when the annual salmon fishery has nearly concluded.

### 28 **3.8.3 Marine Mammals**

29 The inland marine waters of Washington support a diverse group of marine mammals. Year-around  
30 residents include harbor seals, minke whales, harbor porpoise, Dall’s porpoise, and killer whales. All  
31 these animals occur primarily in north Puget Sound, the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and around the San Juan

1 Islands (Marine Catch Areas 4B, 5, 6, 7, and 9; Figures 3.3-1 and 3.3-14), except harbor seals, which  
2 are well distributed throughout Puget Sound. Regular winter visitors include California and Steller sea  
3 lions. Groups of male sea otters winter in the western end of the Strait of Juan de Fuca between Neah  
4 Bay and Port Angeles. More infrequent visitors include humpback and gray whales and elephant seals,  
5 although the latter may become a more important regional member, including possibly breeding on  
6 islands in the Strait of Juan de Fuca in the future as its west coast population continues to expand  
7 (Jeffries et al. 2000). Oceanic species that occasionally enter the Straits of Juan de Fuca include Pacific  
8 white-sided and Risso's dolphins. Short-finned pilot whales also used to visit the area in the past  
9 (Angell and Balcomb 1982, Green et al. 1992), and on at least one occasion a group of false killer  
10 whales reached Puget Sound (Baird et al. 1989). Virtually all the marine mammals forage in subtidal  
11 and deeper waters, especially the tidal channels. However, harbor seals and sea lions will also forage  
12 intertidally, and resident minke whales and wintering sea otters occur relatively close to shore.

### 13 **3.8.3.1 Harbor Seal**

14 Harbor seals are year-around residents and the most common marine mammal inhabiting the inland  
15 waters of Washington. Unlike many other marine wildlife species, harbor seals have experienced an  
16 average annual population growth of 6 to 8 percent during the 1980s and 1990s. An inland waters  
17 population estimated in 1978 at 2,600 by Everitt et al. (1979) had grown to more than 14,000 by 1999  
18 (Jefferies et al. 2001). Food habit studies have shown that the significance of salmon in the diets of  
19 Puget Sound harbor seals depends on location and season. Besides salmon, harbor seals prey on  
20 herring, Pacific whiting, anchovy, tomcod, flounder, sticklebacks, and eelpouts (Scheffer and Sperry  
21 1931; Scheffer and Slipp 1944; Keyes 1968; Calambokidis et al. 1978; Lance et al. 2001; and London  
22 et al. 2002). A recent study at Gedney Island (near Everett; Figure 3.3-1) showed that these Puget  
23 Sound harbor seals were preying almost exclusively on Pacific whiting and Pacific herring (National  
24 Marine Fisheries Service 1997). Similarly, London et al. (2002) found Pacific whiting and Pacific  
25 herring to dominate the diet of harbor seals in Hood Canal. Regardless, London et al. (2002) concluded  
26 that harbor seals do have the capability to negatively impact recovering salmon runs where escapement  
27 is small (e.g., Hood Canal chum salmon), and London et al. (2002) did identify salmon remains in 24.5  
28 percent of 608 scat samples collected in Hood Canal.

29 Harbor seals can dive to 295 feet and remain underwater for 20 minutes (Angell and Balcomb 1982),  
30 but prefer to haul out on rocky shores, docks, log booms, buoys, and other structures. For this reason,  
31 they are distributed across both nearshore and deeper water habitat zones.

1 As with harbor seals elsewhere in the world (Northridge 1991; Lennart et al. 1994), Puget Sound  
2 harbor seals have been entangled in driftnets. In Puget Sound, Pierce et al. (1996) estimated that 15  
3 harbor seals were entangled in the Marine Catch Area 7A gillnet fishery in 1994, based on an observed  
4 capture of two live (and released) and one dead seal during a study of that fishery.

### 5 **3.8.3.2 California Sea Lion**

6 California sea lions breed at island rookeries off southern California, the west coast of Baja California,  
7 and in the Gulf of California. A post-exploitation (mainly for meat and oil) population of about 1,000  
8 animals breeding in California in the 1920s (Cass 1985) had increased to between 161,000 and 181,000  
9 by 1994 (Barlow et al. 1995). After the breeding season, males migrate north to Oregon, Washington,  
10 and British Columbia. Annual populations peak off the Washington coast during March and May at  
11 numbers between 3,000 and 5,000 (Gearin et al. 2001). The percentage of California sea lions using  
12 inland marine waters of Washington has varied considerably. Systematic counts of Puget Sound  
13 California sea lions began in 1979, but intensified after the 1985 to 1986 season amid concerns of  
14 impacts these pinnipeds were having on steelhead stocks passing through the Hiram Chittendon Locks  
15 in Seattle (Pfeifer 1987; and Pfeifer et al. 1989). More than 1,000 animals were recorded in Puget  
16 Sound during 1986 (1,031), and 1995 (1,234), while counts between 1998 and 2001 ranged between  
17 177 and 323 (Gearin et al. 2001). However, these smaller Puget Sound counts have corresponded with  
18 higher counts on the outer coast, suggesting a change in use away from inland waters (Gearin et al.  
19 2001). Haulout sites include North Waadah Island in the Strait of Juan de Fuca, Everett Harbor in north  
20 Puget Sound, and Eagle Island, Edmonds Scuba Float, Commencement Bay, Shilshoe Bay, and 22  
21 channel buoys in south Puget Sound (Jefferies et al. 2000).

22 Although California sea lions often feed in the deeper inland waters of Washington, and commonly  
23 dive to extreme depths in oceanic waters, they are more closely associated with nearshore  
24 environments. Important prey in Washington include Pacific whiting, herring, squid, spiny dogfish,  
25 gadids, and salmonids (Everitt et al. 1981; and Gearin et al. 1986, 1988). Scat samples from near  
26 Everett and at Shilshoe Bay show that Pacific whiting and herring dominate their diet (Gearin et al.  
27 2001). While only 6 percent of the scats collected near Everett contained salmonids, 25 percent did  
28 from the Shilshoe Bay sample. However, Shilshoe Bay is located at the entrance to the Lake  
29 Washington Ship Canal where the Hiram Chittendon Locks concentrate migrating winter-run steelhead,  
30 which these sea lions heavily exploit.

31 California sea lions are clearly susceptible to gillnet mortality outside Washington. The California set-  
32 gillnet fishery for halibut and angel sharks is estimated to have killed about 1,000 California sea lions

1 annually between 1994 and 1998, based on an observed mortality of more than 100 animals (NMFS  
2 2000). However, while monitoring the 1994 Puget Sound sockeye gillnet fishery in Marine Catch  
3 Areas 7 and 7A, Pierce et al. (1996) noted little interaction with California sea lions, and no  
4 entanglements. For the most part, California sea lions do not arrive in Puget Sound until after most  
5 salmon fisheries are complete. Two fisheries that are still open when the California sea lions arrive, and  
6 with which the sea lions interact include the late season river chum salmon and the winter run steelhead  
7 fisheries. Although sea lion entanglement in gillnets has not been reported, a small number of these  
8 animals are legally harvested by tribal fishermen (usually to protect fisheries and fishing gear) under  
9 subsistence regulations pursuant to tribal treaties (personal communication with Will Beattie,  
10 Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission, December 19, 2003).

### 11 **3.8.3.3 Gray Whale**

12 Nearly the entire Eastern North Pacific stock of gray whale, recently estimated at 26,635 individuals  
13 (Hobbs and Rugh 1999), passes twice annually along Washington's outer coast, in transit between  
14 Mexican breeding lagoons and Alaskan summer feeding grounds. Calambokidis described four patterns  
15 of gray whale use in Washington (personal communication with John Calambokidis, Cascadia  
16 Research, Senior Research Biologist, December 16, 2002). The first is the regular migrating herd that  
17 passes quickly through Washington outer coast waters. The second involves a group of about 250  
18 whales that have taken up residency between northern California and southeastern Alaska. Although  
19 these whales move around considerably within this range, they do not partake in the annual migration  
20 to Alaska. A few of these whales can be found in the Strait of Juan de Fuca as far east as Protection  
21 Island, but most typically spend their time in Neah Bay (Figure 3.3-14). The third group is composed of  
22 what are thought to be migration stragglers, such as sick whales that do not complete the migration and  
23 find themselves exhausted and emaciated in south and central Puget Sound. These whales, generally 1  
24 to 12 annually, suffer high mortality rates. The fourth group is comprised of about a half-dozen  
25 identified whales that annually (since 1991) spend March to May in the shallow, mud-bottomed areas  
26 of Saratoga Passage, Port Susan, Port Gardner, and Everett (Marine Catch Area 8; Figure 3.3-1), where  
27 they feed on dense populations of ghost shrimp.

28 Gray whales have been entangled in a variety of fishing gear (Hill and DeMaster 1999) including  
29 gillnets (Gearin et al. 1994; and Cameron and Forney 1999). Single gray whales were killed in the  
30 Makah set-gillnet fishery (Marine Catch Area 4) in 1990 and 1995, and a third was entangled but  
31 released unharmed in 1996 (personal communication with Patrick Gearin, NOAA-National Marine  
32 Mammal Laboratory, Research Biologist, December 30, 2002). Healthy gray whales are most likely to

1 be encountered in Marine Catch Areas 4 and 8, but not Area 7 where most gillnet fishing in Puget  
2 Sound presently occurs.

### 3 **3.8.3.4 Killer Whale**

4 Killer whales in the Pacific Northwest are classified in two distinct forms: resident and transient. The  
5 resident form is further divided into three population segments: northern, southern, and offshore. It is  
6 the southern residents, composed of three pods (J, K, and L) that frequent the San Juan Islands and  
7 enter Puget Sound on a semi-regular basis. The southern residents, like the other resident forms, feed  
8 almost exclusively on fish, especially salmon (Ford et al. 1998). These killer whale populations were  
9 exploited in the 1960s and early 1970s by the marine display trade. From a low of 67 in 1973, this  
10 population grew to 97 individuals in 1996. However, the number of animals in these groups declined  
11 dramatically to only 78 by 2001. Attributing the decline to increased vessel traffic (including whale  
12 watching), declining salmon populations, and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) contamination (Ross et  
13 al. 2000; and Taylor 2001), several groups petitioned in 2001 for listing the southern resident group as  
14 an entity (threatened or endangered) under the Endangered Species Act (ESA). In 2002, NMFS did not  
15 find that a listing was justifiable, but did designate the population as “depleted” under the Marine  
16 Mammal Protection Act, citing recent declines that may be attributed to pollution, prey reduction, and  
17 disturbance.

18 The transient form of killer whales is morphologically and behaviorally different from resident whales.  
19 In general, transients travel in smaller groups (usually less than 6), are less vocal, range from northern  
20 California to southeastern Alaska, and prey mostly on marine mammals (Bigg et al. 1987; and Ford et  
21 al. 1998). Harbor seals and harbor porpoise apparently constitute most of their diet in coastal and inland  
22 waters of the Pacific Northwest (Ford et al. 1998). The number of transients in 1995 was estimated at  
23 179 whales.

24 Although mortalities have occurred with fishery interactions in Alaska (Small and DeMaster 1995),  
25 there are no recent reports (e.g., Anderson et al. 1993; Melvin and Conquest 1996; Pierce et al. 1996;  
26 and Melvin et al. 1997, 1999) that suggest Puget Sound gillnet fisheries pose an entanglement threat to  
27 killer whales.

### 28 **3.8.3.5 Harbor Porpoise and Dall’s Porpoise**

29 The distribution of harbor porpoise in the inland marine waters of Washington is dramatically different  
30 compared to what it once was. Today, harbor porpoise are rarely observed in southern Puget Sound  
31 where they were once considered common (Scheffer and Slipp 1948). Pollutants, vessel traffic,

1 fisheries, and other factors (including competition with an increasing population of Dall’s porpoise) are  
2 thought to have contributed to this change in distribution (Osmek et al. 1995, 1996). In contrast, harbor  
3 porpoise population densities in the Strait of Juan de Fuca and the San Juan Islands appear to have  
4 remained stable. The most recent estimate for this region is 3,509 animals, about two-thirds found in  
5 the Strait of Juan de Fuca (Calambokidis et al. 1997; and Laake 1997a,b).

6 Inland water harbor porpoise inhabit nearshore and offshore waters (Pierce et al. 1996), where they  
7 feed largely on schooling fishes, such as herring, and cephalopods such as squid and octopus (Wilke  
8 and Kenyon 1952; and Angell and Balcomb 1982). Salmon do not appear to be an important  
9 component of their diet. Harbor porpoise are, however, encountered in Washington gillnet fisheries. In  
10 1988, at least 102 harbor porpoise were killed in the outer coast Marine Catch Area 4 and 4A gillnet  
11 fishery (Figure 3.3-14), and another 52 were taken between 1989 and 1992 (Osmek et al. 1996). Only  
12 two porpoise were taken in Marine Catch Areas 4B and 5 between 1988 and 1993, and two were  
13 entangled (one released) in the 1994 sockeye gillnet season in Marine Catch Area 7 (Osmek et al. 1996;  
14 and Pierce et al. 1996). Melvin et al. (1999) report that two harbor porpoise were captured (fate  
15 unknown) in a 1996 test sockeye fishery in Marine Catch Area 7.

16 Dall’s porpoise are commonly found in the Strait of Juan de Fuca and through Admiralty Inlet (Marine  
17 Catch Areas 4B, 5, 6, 7, and 9), but rarely extend farther south into Puget Sound than Possession Bar  
18 (Marine Catch Area 9), or north into the Strait of Georgia (Marine Catch Area 7A; see Figure 1.1-1)  
19 (Angell and Balcomb 1982). Nysewander et al.’s (2001a) observations suggest that movements of  
20 Dall’s porpoise into South Puget Sound is most likely to occur during winter.

21 During 1994 boat surveys in Marine Catch Area 7, Pierce et al. (1996) observed 18 Dall’s porpoise, all  
22 in Haro Strait (Figure 3.3-1). Seventeen (94%) of these were greater than one mile offshore (averaging  
23 more than 3 miles), indicating their preference for deep-water habitats. Morejohn (1979) described  
24 their diet as predominately deep-water schooling fish and squid. Although diet information from inland  
25 waters is limited (Scheffer and Slipp 1948), Dall’s porpoise inhabiting the Strait of Juan de Fuca likely  
26 feed on Pacific whiting, Pacific herring, and squid. Although animals from the  
27 California/Oregon/Washington stock are often captured in oceanic drift gillnet and trawl fisheries  
28 (Perez and Loughlin 1991; and Cameron and Forney 1999), there is little evidence of interaction with  
29 inland water salmon gillnet fisheries. The only report is of three Dall’s porpoise incidentally taken in a  
30 1996 test sockeye fishery in Marine Catch Area 7 (Melvin et al. 1999).

1 **3.8.3.6 Sea Otter**

2 In 1969 and 1970, 59 sea otters were translocated from Alaska to the Washington outer coast (Bowly  
3 et al. 1988; and Jameson and Jeffries 2001). This population grew to an estimated 555 individuals in  
4 2001 (Jameson and Jeffries 2001). Virtually the entire sea otter population inhabits the nearshore zone  
5 of the outer coast, although a large group of males has been observed since 1995 wintering along the  
6 south shore of the Strait of Juan de Fuca, 20 to 30 miles east of Tatoosh Island, in the vicinity of Sekiu  
7 and Pillar Point, respectively (Jameson and Jeffries 2000). A single otter was observed near Pillar Point  
8 (Marine Catch Area 5) in summer 2000 (Jameson and Jeffries 2000), and confirmed sightings of  
9 wandering single otters were recorded near Olympia and Tacoma (Marine Catch Areas 11 and 13; see  
10 Figure 3.3-7) in summer 2001 (Jameson and Jeffries 2001).

11 Sea otters have been entangled in gillnet fisheries outside Washington, but encounters within Puget  
12 Sound are rare. Wendell et al. (1985) estimated that net entanglement killed an average of 80 sea otters  
13 per year off California in the 1970s and 1980s. Lennart et al. (1994) estimated that the set-net gillnet  
14 fishery for Pacific angel shark and California halibut killed 33 sea otters during the second half of  
15 1990. Currently, non-treaty gillnet fishing is prohibited within the sea otter range in Washington. One  
16 otter was taken in the outer coast Marine Catch Area 4 gillnet fishery in 1989 (Figure 3.3-14)(Kajimura  
17 1990).

18 **3.8.4 Benthic Invertebrates**

19 Kozloff (1996) described the intertidal and subtidal communities found in the marine waters of  
20 Washington. His habitat divisions relevant to the inland waters of Washington include the intertidal and  
21 subtidal zones with rocky, sandy, or muddy sand substrates, and salt marsh. All are discussed below.

22 The rocky shores of greater Puget Sound support a diversity of marine invertebrates with a community  
23 composition that changes quickly with water depth. Marine invertebrates that occur in the upper  
24 reaches of the rocky intertidal zone include periwinkle snails, limpets, shore crabs, and barnacles.  
25 These invertebrates are able to withstand long periods exposed to open air and corresponding changes  
26 in temperature. As the water deepens, Nucella snails, hermit crabs, blue mussels, goose barnacles,  
27 Pisaster sea stars, and chitons dominate the intertidal community. The lower limit of the intertidal is  
28 also occupied sea anemones, sea urchins, northern abalone, and scallops. The rocky subtidal includes  
29 sea stars, anemones, urchins, abalone, and scallops, but also species unable to withstand periods of air  
30 exposure, such as octopus, broken-back shrimp, and sea slugs.

1 Marine invertebrates that typically inhabit the sandy intertidal zone include sand dollars, crangon  
2 shrimp, basket whelks, and burrowing sea cucumbers. Moon snails are also common in this zone,  
3 preying on a variety of clams including bent-nosed, sand, tellina, and heart cockles. Intertidal zones  
4 with muddy sand substrates support an even more diverse clam population including gaper, geoduck,  
5 littleneck, Manila, bent-nosed, butter, soft-shelled, and heart cockle. Ghost shrimp supplant the crangon  
6 shrimp. Burrowing shore crabs extend their distribution from this habitat up into the salt marshes.  
7 Invertebrates characterizing the deeper water subtidal zone of both these habitats include brittle stars,  
8 mediaster sea stars, sea pens, and Dungeness, red, and helmet crabs.

9 None of the major Puget Sound/Strait of Juan de Fuca marine salmon fishing types (drift and set-  
10 gillnet, seine, troll, or sport) occur on the sea floor in a manner that would significantly disturb benthic  
11 invertebrate communities. The one exception is beach seine fisheries in Hood Canal and South Puget  
12 Sound, where nets are cast out and dragged back in to the beach. However, these fisheries are small in  
13 size, limited to the nearshore shallow zone, and occur in beach areas without potential snagging rocks  
14 (where few invertebrates live on the seafloor surface). Thus, the impact of beach seine fisheries on  
15 marine invertebrates is probably insignificant.

### 16 **3.8.5 Threatened and Endangered Species**

17 The National Marine Fisheries Service is consulting with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and with  
18 itself on the effects of the Proposed Action or alternatives on these listed species. NMFS is  
19 incorporating these evaluations into the NEPA process in order to coordinate the environmental review  
20 processes as required by NEPA (40 CFR Part 1502.25). The biological evaluations and biological  
21 opinion are included in Appendix H.

#### 22 **3.8.5.1 Marbled Murrelet**

23 The marbled murrelet was listed as threatened under the Endangered Species Act in 1992 after decades  
24 of population decline. Ralph et al. (1995) identified several possible causes for this decline, including  
25 loss of forest nesting habitat due to logging, mortality from gillnets and oil spills, and high predation  
26 rates. Marbled murrelets forage in nearshore marine waters and nest in inland old-growth and mature  
27 conifer forests (Hamer and Nelson 1995). Booth (1991) concluded that 82 to 87 percent of this forest  
28 that existed in 1840 has now been eliminated. Speich et al. (1992) estimated the Washington marbled  
29 murrelet population at 5,000 individuals, with 2,600 of these birds occurring in the Strait of Juan de  
30 Fuca, San Juan Island, and Puget Sound waters. Beissinger (1995), Beissinger and Nur (1997), and  
31 Nysewander et al. (2001b) have concluded that the marbled murrelet population has declined  
32 significantly since that time.

1 Thompson (1997) conducted surveys for marbled murrelets along the Strait of Juan de Fuca (Marine  
2 Catch Areas 4 and 5) in 1996 and 1997, and found about 20 to 50 birds between Neah Bay and Pillar  
3 Point, and a large aggregation of 500 to 1,000 between Pillar Point and Port Angeles (Figure 3.3-14).  
4 The highest densities of birds were found 656 feet offshore. The San Juan Islands and Rosario Straits  
5 area (Marine Catch Areas 7 and 7A) has the highest concentrations of marbled murrelets in greater  
6 Puget Sound. On August 15, 1995, Ralph et al. (1996) observed between 404 and 467 murrelets during  
7 systematic boat surveys of the islands. Burrows Bay (east of the San Juan Islands in Marine Catch  
8 Area 7) apparently supports significant numbers (100 to 200) of murrelets from August to October  
9 (Courtney et al. 1997; Stein and Nysewander 1999; and Raphael et al. 2000). Courtney et al. (1997)  
10 surveyed Admiralty Inlet and Hood Canal south to Quatsop Point and found numbers of marbled  
11 murrelets varying between 205 and 476. Surveys conducted in waters east of Whidbey Island (Skagit  
12 Bay, Saratoga Passage, and Everett Bay) – Marine Catch Area 8 – by Courtney et al. (1997) showed a  
13 decline from more than 250 birds in 1995 to about 125 in 1996. South Puget Sound has been surveyed  
14 by Courtney et al. (1997), Raphael et al. (2000), and Nysewander et al. (2001a), none of whom found  
15 murrelets in any abundance.

16 Because marbled murrelets have been incidentally caught in the Puget Sound salmon gillnet fisheries  
17 (Pierce et al. 1994, Erstad et al. 1994; Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission 1994; Lummi Nation  
18 1994; and Gearin et al. 1994), Pierce et al. (1996) monitored the 1994 Puget Sound sockeye gillnet  
19 fishery (Marine Catch Areas 7 and 7A) to quantify the impact to murrelets. After observing more than  
20 2,200 gillnet sets (7% of the total sets), and recording only one marbled murrelet entanglement, the  
21 authors estimated that the fishery may have killed approximately 15 murrelets. Melvin et al. (1997)  
22 recorded one murrelet entanglement in 642 sets (at Burrows Bay) of modified test gillnets designed to  
23 reduce seabird mortality.

#### 24 **3.8.5.2 California Brown Pelican**

25 The California brown pelican is a colonial nester in Mexico and southern California that wanders north  
26 as far as British Columbia during the non-breeding period. The population segment that nests in  
27 California represents about 10 percent of the total population, and nesting colonies are currently  
28 confined to a few locations in the Channel and Santa Barbara Islands. These colonies suffered dramatic  
29 declines in the 1960s from the effects of chlorinated hydrocarbons (DDT, DDE). Eggshell thinning  
30 from these pesticide derivatives resulted in dramatic nesting failures to such an extent that the 1969 and  
31 1970 nesting seasons were virtually shut down (Anderson et al. 1975; Anderson and Gress 1983; and  
32 Carter et al. 1992). Consequently, the California population of brown pelican was federally listed as

1 endangered in 1970. The population was further impacted in the mid-1970s by crashes in stocks of  
2 their principal prey, northern anchovy. Since that time, the brown pelican population has recovered  
3 dramatically with the West Anacapa Island (Channel Islands) colony supporting 4,000 to 6,000 nesting  
4 attempts annually, and the nearby Santa Barbara Island colony supporting 400 to 700 nesting attempts.

5 Since recovery, brown pelicans have become more prevalent along the Washington coast, especially  
6 during the fall. By 1991, more than 7,000 brown pelicans were observed using the Washington coast,  
7 mostly in the vicinity of the Columbia River and Grays Harbor (Jaques 1994). Angell and Balcomb  
8 (1982) stated that brown pelicans make only rare appearances in Puget Sound. Brown pelicans feed  
9 primarily on schooling baitfish, especially anchovy, and are not known to interact with salmon  
10 fisheries.

### 11 **3.8.5.3 Bald Eagle**

12 The bald eagle was listed as threatened under the Endangered Species Act in 1978 after decades of  
13 persecution (despite the Bald Eagle Protection Act of 1940), nest failure due to chlorinated  
14 hydrocarbon (DDT) contamination, loss of prey due to declining salmon runs, and habitat loss due to  
15 logging and human development. The summer population of bald eagles prior to European settlement  
16 of Washington was estimated at about 6,500 birds (Stinson et al. 2001). By 1980, this population had  
17 declined to only 105 pairs (103 in western Washington). Increased protection and recent recovery  
18 efforts since then have resulted in a dramatic increase in the state's breeding population. In 1998, the  
19 number of occupied nests had increased to 664 (active pairs), and the number of nesting territories to  
20 817. These populations are continuing to grow toward a predicted carrying capacity of 733 active pairs  
21 (Stinson et al. 2001). One of the more dramatic population increases occurred in the San Juan Islands  
22 where five nesting territories in 1962 had grown to 102 by 1998 (Stinson et al. 2001). Collectively, the  
23 12 counties encompassing Washington's inland marine waters currently support 76 percent (617) of the  
24 state's bald eagle nesting territories. Overall, the Washington nesting population exhibits the high  
25 productivity expected of a growing population. One exception, however, is the Hood Canal nesting  
26 population, which, despite increasing from three to 33 pairs between 1980 and 1998, has consistently  
27 exhibited low reproductive success (Mahaffy et al. 2001). Studies of this population were initiated in  
28 the late 1990s (Mahaffy et al. 2001) after high levels of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and other  
29 contaminants were found, but the results were inconclusive. (PCBs were used in a variety of industrial  
30 and electrical applications, including as hydraulic fluid. Hydraulic fluid leaks and spills from shipyards  
31 and industrial-complex machinery are likely sources of Puget Sound PCB contamination.)

1 Between 1982 and 1989, approximately 1,000 to 3,000 bald eagles wintered annually in Washington,  
2 80 percent coming from Alaskan and Canadian breeding areas. While the majority of these birds  
3 concentrate on major salmon rivers (especially the Skagit, Nooksack, and Columbia Rivers), the Puget  
4 Sound shorelines annually support 400 to 600 of these birds (Taylor 1989).

5 Watson and Pierce (1998) concluded that coastal eagles preyed more on birds, while inland (river)  
6 eagles foraged more on fish. Differences in surface behavior of fish and abundance of waterfowl and  
7 seabirds may account for these differences. However, Retfalvi (1970) found rockfish and lingcod  
8 important in the diets of San Juan Island bald eagles, and diet studies by Knight et al. (1990) and  
9 Watson and Pierce (1998) did show that both groups of bald eagles prey on a wide variety of fish and  
10 birds (perhaps a close reflection of what is available). Common bird prey included glaucous-winged  
11 gulls, scoters, grebes, and cormorants, while common fish prey included flounders, herring, Pacific  
12 whiting, plainfin midshipman, dogfish shark, and sculpins (Retfalvi 1970; Knight et al. 1990; and  
13 Watson and Pierce 1998). Salmonids were also present in the diet of bald eagles, but do not contribute  
14 as greatly to the marine diet as they do to the diet of bald eagles foraging along inland rivers and  
15 reservoirs (especially during fall and winter salmon runs).

16 Bald eagles do not interact with the Washington salmon gillnet fisheries, and coastal breeding birds are  
17 probably not impacted by harvest because they rarely feed on salmon at this time of the year (Watson  
18 and Pierce 1998). However, fall and winter spawning salmon are a critical food source for winter bald  
19 eagles, especially along the major spawning rivers of western Washington.

#### 20 **3.8.5.4 Steller Sea Lion**

21 The Steller sea lion was listed as threatened under the Endangered Species Act in 1990, after a decade  
22 of 12 percent annual population declines in the Aleutian Islands and Gulf of Alaska (NMFS 2001a).  
23 However, the eastern population segment that ranges from southeastern Alaska to California, has  
24 remained stable or increased slightly (NMFS 2001a,b). There is no indication that Steller sea lions  
25 breed in Washington, but each year a few hundred overwinter in the inland waters (Everitt et al. 1979),  
26 likely originating from rookeries in Oregon and British Columbia (NMFS 2001b). A known haulout is  
27 located on Sucia Island immediately north of Orcas Island within the San Juan Islands (Marine Catch  
28 Area 7; Figure 3.3-1) (Angell and Balcomb 1982).

29 Steller sea lions use both nearshore and deeper (greater than 60 feet) waters. Diet studies in Oregon  
30 showed a preference for Pacific whiting and lampreys, although Pacific herring, eulachon, anchovy,  
31 sculpin, and salmon, were also important (Beach et al. 1985; Reimer and Brown 1996). Steller sea lions

1 are caught incidentally in fisheries. Perez and Loughlin (1990) estimated that 20,000 of these animals  
2 were incidentally caught in the Alaska trawl fisheries between 1966 and 1988. Matkin and Fay (1980)  
3 calculated that more than 300 were shot while interfering with the 1978 Copper River gillnet fishery.  
4 Stellar sea lions have been occasionally taken in gillnets and trawls off Oregon and Washington  
5 (NMFS 1992), but there are no reports of incidental captures in Washington inland waters.

#### 6 **3.8.5.5 Humpback Whale/Fin Whale**

7 Humpback whales occur seasonally off the Washington coast, inhabiting continental shelf and shelf-  
8 edge waters (Green et al. 1992; and Calambokidis et al. 2000, 2001). They rarely enter Washington  
9 inland marine waters, although they were once so common that a whaling station was established at  
10 Victoria, British Columbia (Schmitt et al. 1980). Today, just a very few humpback whales annually  
11 frequent the Canadian side of the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and about every other year, humpbacks stray  
12 into Puget Sound (personal communication with John Calambokidis, Cascadia Research, Senior  
13 Research Biologist, December 16, 2002). Humpback whales use of greater Puget Sound is likely too  
14 infrequent to interact with the salmon gillnet fisheries.

15 There are no recently confirmed sightings of fin whales in the inland marine waters of Washington,  
16 although they have been reported in the Strait of Georgia. However, in the past few years, three large  
17 ships have docked in Puget Sound (Cherry Point, Everett, and Port of Seattle) with struck fin whales  
18 still adhering to their bows (personal communication with John Calambokidis, Cascadia Research,  
19 Senior Research Biologist, December 16, 2002). It is suspected that one of the whales was part of the  
20 Strait of Georgia group, and another was struck in the western Strait of Juan de Fuca. However, there  
21 are no reports of encounters with fin whales in Puget Sound salmon fisheries.

#### 22 **3.8.5.6 Pacific Leatherback Turtle**

23 Pacific leatherback turtles were listed as endangered throughout their range under the jurisdiction of the  
24 Endangered Species Act after experiencing precipitous declines in their nesting populations (NMFS  
25 and USFWS 1998). Although they do not nest in U.S. Pacific waters, Pacific leatherback turtles do  
26 inhabit the shelf and offshore Pacific Ocean waters of the United States, including Washington  
27 (Bowlby et al. 1994), during the summer months. Their entanglement with fishing gear has been well-  
28 documented in other areas (NMFS and USFWS 1998). However, leatherback turtle use of the inland  
29 waters of Washington is accidental at best; therefore, this species is unlikely to interact with Puget  
30 Sound salmon fisheries.

