Appendix E

Marine Mammal Density Report

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E MARINE MAMMAL DENSITY AND DEPTH DISTRIBUTION

E.1 BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW

Marine mammal species occurring in the Gulf of Alaska (GOA) and the GOA Temporary Maritime Activities Area (TMAA) include baleen whales (mysticetes), toothed whales (odontocetes), and seals and sea lions (commonly referred to as pinnipeds). Baleen and toothed whales, collectively known as cetaceans, spend their entire lives in the water and spend most of the time (>90% for most species) entirely submerged below the surface. When at the surface, cetacean bodies are almost entirely below the water's surface, with only the blowhole exposed to allow breathing. This makes cetaceans difficult to locate visually and also exposes them to underwater noise, both natural and anthropogenic, essentially 100% of the time because their ears are nearly always below the water's surface. Seals and sea lions (pinnipeds) spend significant amounts of time out of the water during breeding, molting and hauling out periods. In the water, pinnipeds spend varying amounts of time underwater, as some species regularly undertake long, deep dives (e.g., elephant seals) and others are known to rest at the surface in large groups for long amounts of time (e.g., California sea lions). When not actively diving, pinnipeds at the surface often orient their bodies vertically in the water column and often hold their heads above the water surface. Consequently, pinnipeds may not be exposed to underwater sounds to the same extent as cetaceans.

For the purposes of this analysis, we have adopted a conservative approach to underwater noise and marine mammals:

- Cetaceans – assume 100% of time is spent underwater and therefore exposed to noise
- Pinnipeds – adjust densities to account for time periods spent at breeding areas, haulouts, etc.; but for those animals in the water, assume 100% of time is spent underwater and therefore exposed to noise.

E.1.1 Density

Mysticetes regularly occurring in the GOA include fin, minke, humpback and gray whales; blue and North Pacific right whales have been sighted in the GOA, but are considered rare and are included here only for discussion purposes because both are endangered species. Odontocetes regularly occurring include sperm whale, Cuvier's and Baird's beaked whales, killer whale, Pacific white-sided dolphin and Dall's porpoise. Belugas are occasionally sighted in the GOA, but most sightings are in coastal areas and their occurrence in the region is extremely low. Pinnipeds regularly occurring include Steller's sea lion, northern fur seal and northern elephant seal. California sea lion range extends as far north as the Pribilof Islands in the Bering Sea but their occurrence is likely rare.

Recent survey data for marine mammals in the GOA is limited. Most survey efforts are localized and extremely near shore. There is evidence of occurrence of several species based on acoustic studies, but these do not provide measurements of abundance. Best available density data were incorporated from several different sources which are described below and summarized in Table 1.

Fin and Humpback Whales

The Gulf of Alaska Line-Transect Survey (GOALS) was conducted in April 2009 (Rone et al., 2009) in the TMAA. Line-transect visual data and acoustic data were collected over a 10-day period, which resulted in sightings of several odontocete and mysticete species. Densities were derived for fin and humpback whales for inshore and offshore strata (Table 9 in Rone et al., 2009). Densities from each stratum were weighted by the percentage of stratum area compared to the TMAA: inshore stratum was 33% of the total area and offshore stratum was 67% of the total area.

Killer Whale

Vessel surveys were conducted in nearshore areas (within 85 km) of the TMAA in 2001-2003 (Zerbini et al., 2006), between Resurrection Bay on the Kenai Peninsula to Amchitka Island in the Aleutians. Densities were calculated for fin, humpback and killer whales; only those for killer whales are included here (Table 1) because more recent densities for fin and humpback whales are available from Rone et al. (2009). Killer whale densities are from "Block 1" in Zerbini et al. (2006).

Minke, Sperm and Beaked Whales, Pacific White-sided Dolphin and Dall's Porpoise

Waite (2003) conducted vessel surveys for cetaceans near Kenai Peninsula, within Prince William Sound and around Kodiak Island, during acoustic-trawl surveys for pollock in summer 2003. Surveys extended offshore to the 1000 m contour and therefore overlapped with some of the TMAA. Waite (2003) did not calculate densities, but did provide some of the elements necessary for calculating density.

Barlow (2003) provided the following equation for calculating density:

$$\text{Density/km}^2 = \frac{(n)\ (s)\ (f_0)}{(2L)\ (g_0)}$$

Where (n) = number of animal group sightings on effort

(s) = mean group size

f(0) = sighting probability density at zero perpendicular distance (influenced by species detectability and sighting cues such as body size, blows and number of animals in a group)

(L) = transect length completed (km)

g(0) = probability of seeing a group directly on trackline (influenced by perception bias and availability bias)

Three values, n, s, and L, were provided by Waite (2003). Values for f(0) and g(0) were not provided, and were instead assigned based on values from the literature for other vessel survey efforts in the North Pacific (Table 2). Using values calculated from other vessel survey efforts is acceptable in this situation because the correction factors were calculated from vessel surveys that were conducted similarly to the GOA effort. Specifically, factors such as number of observers (three), height of the flying bridge from the water's surface (12 m), ship's speed (11 kts), number of "Bigeyes" binoculars used (two), and acceptable sea state conditions (up to B05) during the GOA survey effort were all comparable to those used during NMFS survey efforts along the west coast of the US, in Hawaii and in the eastern tropical Pacific (see Table 2). Values for f(0) and g(0) are very similar per species between efforts, therefore the most conservative value was adopted for each species and applied to the density calculation.

Table 3 illustrates how the data from Waite (2003) were used to calculate densities using correction factors from Table 2. There are no variances attached to any of the resulting density values, so overall confidence in these values is unknown. Densities based on only one or two sightings generally have fairly high variance.

Gray whales

Gray whale density was calculated from data obtained from a feeding study near Kodiak Island (Moore et al. (2007).

Steller Sea Lion, Northern Fur Seal and Northern Elephant Seal

Pinniped at-sea density is not often available because pinniped abundance is obtained via shore counts of animals at known rookeries and haulouts. Therefore, densities of pinnipeds were derived quite differently from those of cetaceans. Several parameters were identified from the literature, including area of stock occurrence, number of animals (which may vary seasonally) and season, and those parameters were then used to calculate density. Once density per “pinniped season” was determined, those values were prorated to fit the warm water (June-October) and cold water (November-May) seasons. Determining density in this manner is risky as the parameters used usually contain error (e.g., geographic range is not exactly known and needs to be estimated, abundance estimates usually have large variances) and, as is true of all density estimates, it assumes that animals are always distributed evenly within an area which is likely never true. However, this remains one of the few means available to determine at-sea density for pinnipeds.

The Marine Resource Assessment for the Gulf of Alaska Operating Area (Department of the Navy, 2006), listed six mysticetes, twelve odontocetes, and five pinnipeds as occurring or possibly occurring in the GOA region (Department of the Navy, 2006; Table 3-1). However, several of the species listed are rare and do not regularly occur. Brief species summaries are included for all marine mammals whose distribution extends to the GOA, even if rarely seen, and additional information on all species can be found in the Marine Resources Assessment referenced above.

Table E-1. Marine mammals in the Gulf of Alaska; densities and season(s) included for species regularly seen.

Common Name	Scientific Name	Status	Density/km2 within TMAA	Season	Source
MYSTICETES					
Blue whale	*Balaenoptera musculus*	Endangered	-		
Fin whale	*B. physalus*	Endangered	0.010	Year round	Rone et al. (2009)
Sei whale	*B. borealis*	Endangered	-		
Minke whale	*B. acutorostrata*		0.0006	Year round	Waite (2003)
Humpback whale	*Megaptera novaeangliae*	Endangered	0.0019	Apr-Dec	Rone et al. (2009)
			-	Jan-Mar	Reeves et al. (2002)
North Pacific right whale	*Eubalaena japonica*	Endangered	-		
Gray whale	*Eschrichtius robustus*		0.0003	Year round	Moore et al. (2007)
ODONTOCETES					
Sperm whale	*Physeter catodon*	Endangered	0.0003	Year round	Waite (2003); Mellinger et al. (2004a)
Cuvier's beaked whale	*Ziphius cavirostris*		0.0022	Year round	Waite (2003)
Baird's beaked whale	*Berardius bairdii*		0.0005	Year round	Waite (2003)
Stejneger's beaked whale	*Mesoplodon stejnegeri*		-		
Killer whale	*Orcinus orca*		0.0100	Year round	Zerbini et al. (2007)
Beluga	*Delphinapterus leucas*		-		
Pacific white-sided dolphin	*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*		0.0208	Year round	Waite (2003)
Northern right whale dolphin	*Lissodelphis borealis*		-		
Risso's dolphin	*Grampus griseus*		-		
False killer whale	*Pseudorca crassidens*		-		
Short-finned pilot whale	*Globicephala macrorhynchus*		-		
Dall's porpoise	*Phocoenoides dalli*		0.1892	Year round	Waite (2003)
Harbor porpoise	*Phocoena phocoena*		-		
PINNIPEDS					
Steller's sea lion	*Eumetopias jubatus*	Endangered/ Threatened	0.0098	Year round	Angliss and Allen (2009); Bonnell and Bowlby (1992)
California sea lion	*Zalophus californianus*		-		
Harbor seal	*Phoca vitulina*		-		
Northern fur seal	*Callorhinus ursinus*		0.1180	June-October	Carretta et al., 2009
Northern elephant seal	*Mirounga angustirostris*		0.0022	June-October	Carretta et al., 2009

Table E-2. Comparison of f(0) and g(0) values, for species being considered from Waite (2003) from survey efforts outside of the TMAA.

Reference	Barlow (2003)		Ferguson and Barlow (2001)		Forney (2007)		Barlow and Forney (2007)		Barlow (2006)		Wade and Gerrodette (1993)
Species	f_0	g_0	f_0	g_0	f_0	g_0	f_0	g_0	f_0	g_0	f_0
Minke whale	**0.567**	**0.84**	0.362	0.84	0.38	0.856	0.46	0.856			
Sperm whale	0.217	**0.87**	**0.462**	0.87	0.36	0.87	0.34	0.87	0.27	0.87	0.14
Baird's beaked whale	0.354	**0.96**	0.215	0.96	0.37	0.96	**0.52**	0.96			
Cuvier's beaked whale	**0.567**	**0.23**	0.362	0.23	0.39	0.23	0.37	0.23	0.61	0.23	0.58
Pacific white-sided dolphin	**0.809**	1	0.519	1	0.4	**0.97**	0.45	0.97			
Dall's porpoise	**1.221**	**0.79**	0.855	0.79	0.74	0.822	0.91	0.822			
Survey region	US West Coast		US West Coast		US West Coast		US West Coast		Hawaii		Eastern Tropical Pacific
Number of observers	3		3		3		3		3		3
Speed of vessel (kts)	9-10		9-10		9-10		9-10		9-10		9-10
Height of flying bridge (m)	10.5		10.5		10.5 and 15.2		10.5 and 15.2		10.5		10.5
Big Eyes binoculars	two pair		two pair		two pair		two pair		two pair		two pair
Sea conditions	up to B05		up to B05		up to B05		up to B05		up to B05		up to B05

Conservative values for each species are bolded

Table E-3. Densities calculated from data presented in Waite (2003) using f(0) and g(0) values from Table 2.

Species	n = animal groups on effort[a]	s = mean group size[a]	L = transect length (km^2)[a]	f_0 = perpendicular sighting distance[b]	g_0 = probability of seeing group directly on trackline[b]	Density/km^2 = (n) (s) (f_0) / (2L) (g_0)[c]
Minke whale	3	1.3	2242	0.567	0.84	0.0006
Sperm whale	2	1.2	2242	0.462	0.87	0.0003
Baird's beaked whale	1	4	2242	0.52	0.96	0.0005
Cuvier's beaked whale	1	4	2242	0.567	0.23	0.0022
Pacific white-sided dolphin	2	56	2242	0.809	0.97	0.0208
Dall's porpoise	196	2.8	2242	1.221	0.79	0.1892

[a] from Waite (2003), [b] Values for f0 and g0 taken from Table 12, [c] Calculation taken from Barlow (2003).
There is no variance associated with these density calculations so there is no way to indicate the confidence in the value. Densities from sperm, Pacific white-sided, Baird's and Cuvier's beaked whales are quite weak as they are based on only 1-2 sightings.

E.1.2 Depth Distribution

There are limited depth distribution data for most marine mammals. This is especially true for cetaceans, as they must be tagged at-sea and by using a tag that either must be implanted in the skin/blubber in some manner or adhere to the skin. There is slightly more data for some pinnipeds, as they can be tagged while on shore during breeding or molting seasons and the tags can be glued to the pelage rather than implanted. There are a few different methodologies/ techniques that can be used to determine depth distribution percentages, but by far the most widely used technique currently is the time-depth recorder. These instruments are attached to the animal for a fairly short period of time (several hours to a few days) via a suction cup or glue, and then retrieved immediately after detachment or when the animal returns to the beach. Depth information can also be collected via satellite tags, sonic tags, digital tags, and, for sperm whales, via acoustic tracking of sounds produced by the animal itself.

There are somewhat suitable depth distribution data for a few marine mammal species. Sample sizes are usually extremely small, nearly always fewer than 10 animals total and often only one or two animals. Depth distribution information can also be interpreted from other dive and/or preferred prey characteristics, and from methods including behavioral observations, stomach content analysis and habitat preference analysis. Depth distributions for species for which no data are available were extrapolated from similar species.

Depth distribution information for marine mammal species with regular occurrence and for which densities are available is provided in Table 4. More detailed summary depth information for species in the GOA for which densities are available is included as Table 6.

E.1.3 DENSITY AND DEPTH DISTRIBUTION COMBINED

Density is nearly always reported for an area, e.g., animals/km^2. Analyses of survey results using Distance Sampling techniques include correction factors for animals at the surface but not seen as well as animals below the surface and not seen. Therefore, although the area (e.g., km^2) appears to represent only the surface of the water (two-dimensional), density actually implicitly includes animals anywhere within the water column under that surface area. Density assumes that animals are uniformly distributed within the prescribed area, even though this is likely rarely true. Marine mammals are usually clumped in areas of greater importance, for example, areas of high productivity, lower predation, safe calving, etc. Density can occasionally be calculated for smaller areas that are used regularly by marine mammals, but more often than not, there are insufficient data to calculate density for small areas. Therefore, assuming an even distribution within the prescribed area remains the norm.

The ever-expanding database of marine mammal behavioral and physiological parameters obtained through tagging and other technologies has demonstrated that marine mammals use the water column in various ways, with some species capable of regular deep dives (>800 m) and others regularly diving to <200 m, regardless of the bottom depth. Therefore, assuming that all species are evenly distributed within the water column does not accurately reflect behavior and can present a distorted view of marine mammal distribution in any region.

By combining marine mammal density with depth distribution information, a more accurate three-dimensional density estimate is possible. These 3-D estimates allow more accurate modeling of potential marine mammal exposures from specific noise sources.

This document is organized into taxonomic categories: Mysticetes, Odontocetes and the pseudo-taxonomic category Pinnipeds. Nomenclature was adopted from the Integrated Taxonomic Information System (www.itis.gov). Distribution and density summaries are followed by discussions of depth distribution for those species that have regular occurrence. Density and depth info are **bolded** in text.

Table E-4. Summary of marine mammal depth distributions for the TMAA

Common Name	Scientific Name	Depth Distribution	Reference
MYSTICETES - Baleen whales			
Fin whale	*B. physalus*	44% at <50m, 23% at 50-225m, 33% at >225m	Goldbogen et al. (2006)
Minke whale	*B. acutorostrata*	53% at <20m, 47% at 21-65m	Blix and Folkow (1995)
Humpback whale	*Megaptera novaeangliae*	37% at <4m, 25% at 4-20m, 7% at 21-35m,4% at 36-50m, 6% at 51-100m, 7% at 101-150m, 8% at 151-200m, 6% at 201-300m, <1% at >300m	Dietz et al. (2002)
Gray whale	*Eschrichtius robustus*	40% at <4 m, 38% at 4-30 m, 22% at >30 m	Malcolm et al. (1995/96); Malcolm and Duffus (2000)
ODONTOCETES - Toothed whales			
Sperm whale	*Physeter catodon*	31% at <10 m, 8% at 10-200 m, 9% at 201-400 m, 9% at 401-600 m, 9% at 601-800 m and 34% at >800 m	Amano and Yoshioka (2003)
Cuvier's beaked whale	*Ziphius cavirostris*	27% at <2 m, 29% at 2-220 m, 4% at 221-400 m, 4% at 401-600 m, 4% at 601-800 m, 5% at 801-1070 m and 27% at >1070 m	Tyack et al. (2006)
Baird's beaked whale	*Berardius bairdii*	34% at 0-40 m, 39% at 41-800 m, 27% at >800 m	extrapolated from northern bottlenose whale (Hooker and Baird, 1999)
Killer whale	*Orcinus orca*	96% at 0-30 m, 4% at >30 m	Baird et al. (2003)
Pacific white-sided dolphin	*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*	Daytime: 100% at 0-65 m; Nighttime: 100% at 0-130 m	extrapolated from other *Lagenorhynchus* (Mate et al., 1994; Benoit-Bird et al., 2004)
Dall's porpoise	*Phocoenoides dalli*	39% at <1 m, 8% at 1-10 m, 45% at 11-40 m, and 8% at >40 m	Hanson and Baird (1998)
PINNIPEDS			
Northern fur seal	*Callorhinus ursinus*	Daytime: 74% at <2 m; 26% at 2-260 m; Nighttime: 74% at <2 m; 26% at 2-75 m	Ponganis et al. (1992); Kooyman and Goebel (1986); Sterling and Ream (2004); Gentry et al. (1986)
Steller sea lion	*Eumetopias jubatus*	60% at 0-10 m, 22% at 11-20 m, 12% at 21-50 m, 5% at 51-100 m and 1% at >100 m	Merrick and Loughlin (1997)
Northern elephant seal	*Mirounga angustirostris*	9% at <2 m, 11% at 2-100 m, 11% at 101-200 m, 11% at 201-300 m, 11% at 301-400 m, 11% at 401-500 m and 36% at >500 m	Asaga et al. (1994)

E.2 MYSTICETES

E.2.1 Blue whale, *Balaenoptera musculus*

Blue whales were previously sighted and caught throughout the GOA, but are rarely seen in the post-whaling era; two blue whales seen in 2004 during a NMFS humpback whale study and approximately 150 nm southeast of Prince William Sound are the first documented sightings of blue whales in several decades. There may be two to five stocks of blue whale in the north Pacific (Angliss and Allen, 2009).

The Eastern North Pacific population, which winters as far south as the eastern tropical Pacific, has been sighted off Oregon and Washington although sightings are rare and there is no abundance estimate (Angliss and Allen, 2009). Blue whale calls attributed to this stock as well as the Northwestern stock were recorded in the Gulf of Alaska (Stafford, 2003) via hydrophones located offshore of the TMAA. Both call types were recorded seasonally, with peak occurrence from August-November. Blue whales are likely present in low numbers in the GOA; **there is no density estimate available (Table 1)**.

E.2.2 Fin whale, *Balaenoptera physalus*

Fin whales were extensively hunted in coastal waters of Alaska as they congregated at feeding areas in the spring and summer (Mizroch et al., 2009). There has been little effort in the GOA since the cessation of whaling activities to assess abundance of large whale stocks. Fin whale calls have been recorded year-round in the GOA, but are most prevalent from August-February (Moore et al., 1998; 2006). Zerbini et al. (2006) sighted fin whales south of the Kenai Peninsula, and calculated a density of 0.008/km^2 (see Table 4, Block 1 in Zerbini et al., 2006). Waite (2003) recorded 55 fin whale sightings on effort, with several occurring within the TMAA (see Figure 2 in Waite, 2003). Rone et al. (2009) recorded 24 sightings of 64 fin whales during a 10-day cruise in the TMAA in April 2009. Density for the inshore stratum was estimated as 0.012/km^2, while density in the offshore stratum was estimated as 0.009/km^2 (Table 9, Rone et al., 2009). **Combined density for the TMAA was 0.010/km^2, which is applicable to the entire region year round (Table 1).**

Fin whales feed on planktonic crustaceans, including *Thysanoessa* sp and *Calanus* sp, as well as schooling fish including herring, capelin and mackerel (Aguilar, 2002). Depth distribution data from the Ligurian Sea in the Mediterranean are the most complete (Panigada et al., 2003; Panigada et al., 2006), and showed differences between day and night diving; daytime dives were shallower (<100m) and night dives were deeper (>400m), likely taking advantage of nocturnal prey migrations into shallower depths; this data may be atypical of fin whales elsewhere in areas where they do not feed on vertically-migrating prey. Traveling dives in the Ligurian Sea were generally shorter and shallower (mean = 9.8 m, maximum = 20 m) than feeding dives (mean = 181m, maximum = 474 m) (Jahoda et al., 1999). Goldbogen et al. (2006) studied fin whales in southern California and found that ~56% of total time was spent diving, with the other 44% near surface (<50m); dives were to >225 m and were characterized by rapid gliding ascent, foraging lunges near the bottom of dive, and rapid ascent with flukes. Dives are somewhat V-shaped although the bottom of the V is wide. **Therefore, % of time at depth levels is estimated as 44% at <50m, 23% at 50-225 m (covering the ascent and descent times) and 33% at >225 m.**

E.2.3 Sei whale, *Balaenoptera borealis*

Sei whales occur in all oceans from subtropical to sub-arctic waters, and can be found on the shelf as well as in oceanic waters (Reeves et al., 2002). They are known to occur in the GOA and as far north as the Bering Sea in the north Pacific. However, their distribution is poorly understood. The only stock estimate for U.S. waters is for the eastern north Pacific stock offshore California, Oregon and Washington (Carretta et al., 2009); abundance in Alaskan waters is unknown and they were not been sighted during recent surveys (Waite, 2003; Rone et al., 2009). Sei whales are likely present in low numbers in the GOA; **there is no density estimate available (Table 1)**.

E.2.4 Minke whale, *Balaenoptera acutorostrata*

Minke whales are the smallest of all mysticete whales. They are widely distributed in the north Atlantic and Pacific, and appear to undergo migration between warmer waters in winter and colder waters in summer. Minke whales can be found in near shore shallow waters and have been detected acoustically in offshore deep waters. There is no current abundance estimate for the Alaska stock of minke whales (Angliss and Allen, 2009). Zerbini et al. (2006) sighted minke whales near Kodiak Island (and a single sighting nearshore off the Kenai Peninsula), and calculated a density of 0.006/km^2 (see Table 4, Block 3 in Zerbini et al., 2006). Waite (2003) recorded three minke sightings on effort, all southeast of the Kenai

Peninsula (see Figure 2 in Waite, 2003). Rone et al. (2009) sighted three minke whales in April 2009, all of which were in the Nearshore stratum, but no density was calculated. **Density calculated from Waite (2003) data yielded a density of 0.0006/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** Although this is lower than density calculated by Zerbini et al. (2006), it is likely more representative of minke whale abundance in the region as the Waite (2003) surveys were farther offshore.

Minke whales feed on small schooling fish and krill, and are the smallest of all balaenopterid species which may affect their ability to dive. Hoelzel et al. (1989) observed minke whales feeding off the San Juan Islands of Puget Sound, Washington, where 80% of the feeding occurred over depths of 20-100m and two types of feeding were observed near surface, lunge feeding and bird association. The only depth distribution data for this species were reported from a study on daily energy expenditure conducted off northern Norway and Svalbard (Blix and Folkow, 1995). The limited depth information available (from Figure 2 in Blix and Folkow, 1995) was representative of a 75-min diving sequence where the whale was apparently searching for capelin, then foraging, then searching for another school of capelin. Search dives were mostly to ~20 m, while foraging dives were to 65 m. **Based on this very limited depth information, rough estimates for % of time at depth are as follows: 53% at <20 m and 47% at 21-65 m.**

E.2.5 Humpback whale, *Megaptera novaeangliae*

Humpback whales are found in all oceans, in both coastal and continental waters as well as near seamounts and in deep water during migration (Reeves et al., 2002). Some populations have been extensively studied (e.g., Hawaii, Alaska, Caribbean), and details about migratory timing, feeding and breeding areas are fairly well known (e.g., Calambokidis et al., 2008). Humpbacks are highly migratory, feeding in summer at mid and high latitudes and calving and breeding in winter in tropical or subtropical waters. Humpbacks feeding in the TMAA in summer appear to winter in Hawaiian and Mexican waters (Calambokidis et al., 2008). Humpbacks are present in Alaskan waters during summer and fall, although there may be a few stragglers that remain year round. Waite (2003) recorded 41 humpback whale sightings on effort, with several occurring near shore around the Kenai Peninsula (see Figure 2 in Waite, 2003). Rone et al. (2009) recorded 11 sightings of 20 individuals during a 10-day cruise in the TMAA in April 2009. Density for the inshore stratum was estimated as 0.004/km^2, while density in the offshore stratum was estimated as 0.0005/km^2 (Table 9, Rone et al., 2009). **Combined density for the TMAA was 0.0019/km^2, which is applicable to the entire region year round (Table 1).** Calambokidis et al. (2008) estimated 3,000-5,000 humpbacks in the entire GOA, an area much larger than the TMAA.

Humpback whales feed on pelagic schooling euphausiids and small fish including capelin, herring and mackerel (Clapham, 2002). Like other large mysticetes, they are a “lunge feeder” taking advantage of dense prey patches and engulfing as much food as possible in a single gulp. They also blow nets, or curtains, of bubbles around or below prey patches to concentrate the prey in one area, then lunge with open mouths through the middle. Dives appear to be closely correlated with the depths of prey patches, which vary from location to location. In the north Pacific, most dives were of fairly short duration (<4 min) with the deepest dive to 148 m (southeast Alaska; Dolphin, 1987), while whales observed feeding on Stellwagen Bank in the North Atlantic dove to <40 m (Hain et al., 1995). Hamilton et al. (1997) tracked one possibly feeding whale near Bermuda to 240 m depth. Depth distribution data collected at a feeding area in Greenland resulted in the following estimation of depth distribution: **37% of time at <4 m, 25% of time at 4-20 m, 7% of time at 21-35m, 4% of time at 36-50 m, 6% of time at 51-100 m, 7% of time at 101-150 m, 8% of time at 151-200 m, 6% of time at 201-300 m, and <1% at >300 m** (Dietz et al., 2002).

E.2.6 North Pacific right whale, *Eubalaena japonica*

North Pacific right whales were heavily hunted near Kodiak Island from the mid-1800s through the early 1900s. Despite international protection, the species has not recovered and remains one of the rarest of all cetaceans. There have been only two verified sightings of right whales in the GOA since the 1970s, with one occurring very near Kodiak Island (Shelden et al., 2005). Regular sightings of right whales do occur in the southeastern Bering Sea in summer, where up to 13 individual whales have been identified based on photos and biopsy dart data, but their winter habitat remains unknown. Acoustic monitoring for right whales was carried out via autonomous hydrophones in 2000-2001 near Kodiak Island, and right whale calls were recorded in August and early September (Moore et al., 2006; Mellinger et al., 2004b). Right whales are likely present in extremely low numbers in the GOA; **there is no density estimate available (Table 1).**

E.2.7 Gray whale, *Eschrichtius robustus*

The current stock estimate for the eastern north Pacific stock of gray whales is 18,813 (Angliss and Allen, 2009). Gray whales undertake a well-documented migration from winter calving lagoons in Baja California to summer feeding areas in the Bering and Chukchi seas (Swartz et al., 2006). Their migration route is primarily near shore in shallow water, although gray whales have been documented swimming offshore near the Channel Islands in the Southern California Bight. In addition to the Bering and Chukchi sea feeding areas, gray whales are known to feed opportunistically at several locations along the migratory route. Two such areas are near Ugak Bay, Kodiak Island, and along the outer coast of southeast Alaska where 30-50 gray whales have been sighted feeding year round (Moore et al., 2007). Gray whales would not be found in most of the TMAA but likely do cross the northernmost section (estimated at 2,400 km^2 via ArcMap and representing 2.75% of the total TMAA; 2,400 km^2/87,250 km^2 as measured in ArcMap) migrating to and from both local and distant feeding grounds. Rone et al. (2009) recorded three sightings of eight gray whales (see Figure 3 in Rone), which were located nearshore at Kodiak Island to the west of the TMAA and in the westernmost section of the TMAA on the continental shelf. The number of gray whales within the TMAA at any given time is likely quite small as it is probably at the deeper limit of their occurrence. Therefore, the lower estimate of Kodiak Island feeding gray whales from Moore et al. (2007) was used to estimate density. **Density was estimated at 0.0125/km^2 (30 gray whales/2,400 km^2) year round, and is applicable only for the farthest north area of the TMAA (2.75 % of area, see Figure 1) for an overall density for the TMAA of 0.0003/km^2 (Table 1).**

Gray whales migrate from breeding and calving grounds in Baja California to primary feeding grounds in the Bering and Chukchi Seas between Alaska and Russia. Behavior, including diving depth and frequency, can vary greatly between geographic regions. Gray whales feed on the bottom, mainly on benthic amphipods that are filtered from the sediment (Reeves et al., 2002), so dive depth is dependent on depth at location for foraging whales. There have been several studies of gray whale movement within the Baja lagoons (Harvey and Mate, 1984; Mate and Harvey, 1984), but these are likely not applicable to gray whales elsewhere. Mate and Urban Ramirez (2003) noted that 30 of 36 locations for a migratory gray whale with a satellite tag were in water <100m deep, with the deeper water locations all in the southern California Bight within the Channel Islands. There has been only one study of a gray whale dive profile, and all information was collected from a single animal that was foraging off the west coast of Vancouver Island (Malcolm and Duffus, 2000; Malcolm et al.,1995/96). They noted that the majority of time was spent near the surface on interventilation dives (<3 m depth) and near the bottom (extremely nearshore in a protected bay with mean dive depth of 18 m, range 14-22 m depth). There was very little time spent in the water column between surface and bottom. Foraging depth on summer feeding grounds is generally between 50-60 m (Jones and Swartz, 2002). Based on this very limited information, **the following is a rough estimate of depth distribution for gray whales: 40% of time at <4 m (surface and interventilation dives), 38% of time at 3-30 m (active migration), 22% of time at >30 m (foraging).**

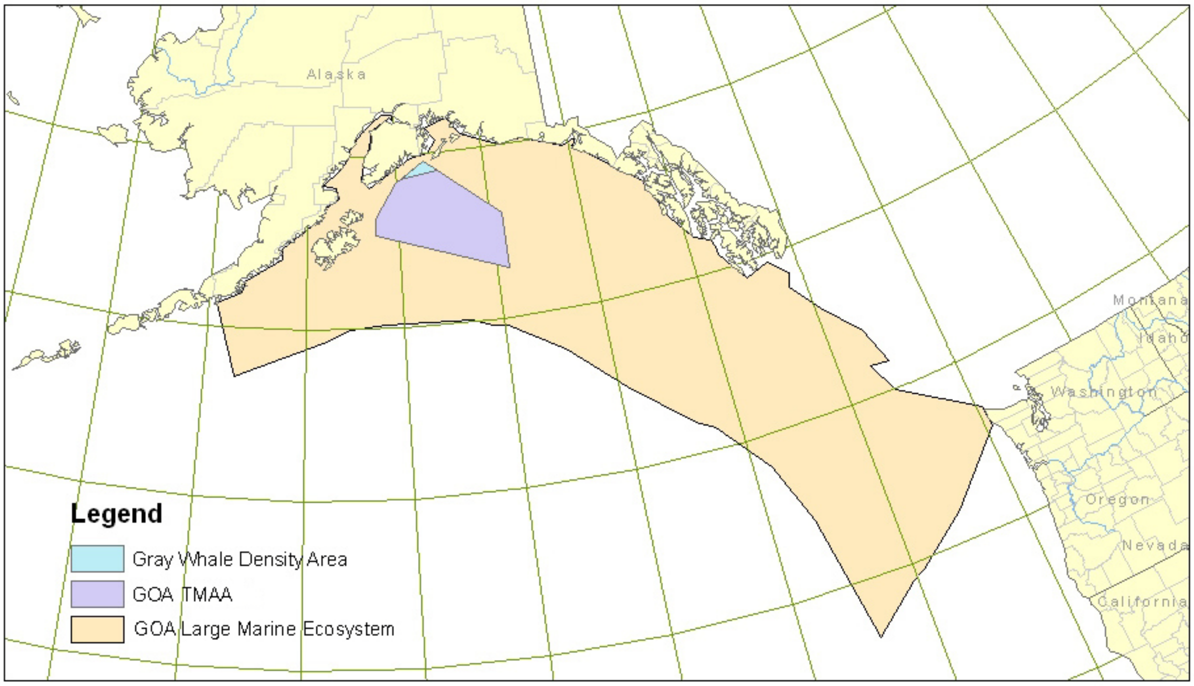

Figure E-1. TMAA, GOA Large Marine Ecosystem and Gray Whale Density Area.

E.3 ODONTOCETES

E.3.1 Sperm whale, *Physeter catodon*

Sperm whales are well known from the GOA region. Sperm whales are most often found in deep water, near submarine canyons, and along the edges of banks and over continental slopes (Reeves et al., 2002). Acoustic evidence collected via autonomous recorders suggests that sperm whales are present in the offshore regions of the GOA year round (see Figure 2 in Mellinger et al., 2004a). Rone et al. (2009; Figure 8) recorded sperm whales acoustically in both the inshore and offshore strata of the TMAA in April 2009; no sperm whales were detected visually. Waite (2003) recorded two on-effort sightings of sperm whales; both within the TMAA (see Figure 2 in Waite, 2003). **Data from vessel surveys conducted by Waite (2003) yielded a density of 0.0003/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** Density was based on only two sightings, so confidence in the value is low, but it is the only density that exists at this time for the region.

Unlike other cetaceans, there is a preponderance of dive information for this species, most likely because it is the deepest diver of all cetacean species so generates a lot of interest. Sperm whales feed on large and medium-sized squid, octopus, rays and sharks, on or near the ocean floor (Whitehead, 2002; Clarke, 1986). Some evidence suggests that they do not always dive to the bottom of the sea floor (likely if food is elsewhere in the water column), but that they do generally feed at the bottom of the dive. Davis et al. (2007) report that dive-depths (100-500 m) of sperm whales in the Gulf of California overlapped with depth distributions (200-400 m) of jumbo squid, based on data from satellite-linked dive recorders placed on both species, particularly during daytime hours. Their research also showed that sperm whales foraged throughout a 24-hour period, and that they rarely dove to the sea floor bottom (>1000 m). The most consistent sperm whale dive type is U-shaped, during which the whale makes a rapid descent to the bottom of the dive, forages at various velocities while at depth (likely while chasing prey) and then ascends rapidly to the surface. There is some evidence that male sperm whales, feeding at higher latitudes during summer months, may forage at several depths including <200 m, and utilize different strategies depending on position in the water column (Teloni et al., 2007). Perhaps the best source for depth distribution data comes from Amano and Yoshioka (2003), who attached a tag to a female sperm whale near Japan in an area where water depth was 1000-1500m. Based on values in Table 1 (in Amano and Yoskioka, 2003) for dives with active bottom periods, the total dive sequence was 45.9 min (mean surface time plus dive duration). Mean post-dive surface time divided by total time (8.5/45.9) plus time at surface between deep dive sequences yields a percentage of time at the surface (<10 m) of 31%. Mean bottom time divided by total time (17.5/45.9) and adjusted to include the percentage of time at the surface between dives, yields a percentage of time at the bottom of the dive (in this case >800 m as the mean maximum depth was 840 m) of 34%. Total time in the water column descending or ascending results from the duration of dive minus bottom time (37.4-17.5) or ~20 minutes. Assuming a fairly equal descent and ascent rate (as shown in Table 1 in Amano and Yoshioka) and a fairly consistent descent/ascent rate over depth, we assume 10 minutes each for descent and ascent and equal amounts of time in each depth gradient in either direction. Therefore, 0-200 m = 2.5 minutes one direction (which correlates well with the descent/ascent rates provided) and therefore 5 minutes for both directions. The same is applied to 201-400 m, 401-600 m and 601-800 m. **Therefore, the depth distribution for sperm whales based on information in the Amano paper is: 31% in <10 m, 8% in 10-200 m, 9% in 201-400 m, 9% in 401-600 m, 9% in 601-800 m and 34% in >800 m.** The percentages derived above from data in Amano and Yoshioka (2003) are in fairly close agreement with those derived from Table 1 in Watwood et al. (2006) for sperm whales in the Ligurian Sea, Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico.

E.3.2 Cuvier's beaked whale, *Ziphius cavirostris*

Cuvier's beaked whale has the widest distribution of all beaked whales, and occurs in all oceans. It is most often found in deep offshore waters, and appear to prefer slope waters with steep depth gradients. There are no reliable population estimates for this species in Alaskan waters (Angliss and Allen, 2009). **Data from vessel surveys conducted by Waite (2003) yielded a density of 0.0022/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** Density was based on a single sighting, so confidence in the value is low, but it is the only density available for this region.

Cuvier's feed on mesopelagic or deep water benthic organisms, particularly squid (Heyning, 2002). Stomach content analyses indicate that they take advantage of a larger range of prey species than do other deep divers (e.g., Santos et al., 2001; Blanco and Raga, 2000). Cuvier's, like other beaked whales, are likely suction feeders based on the relative lack of teeth and enlarged hyoid bone and tongue muscles. Foraging dive patterns appear to be U-shaped, although inter-ventilation dives are shallower and have a parabolic shape (Baird et al., 2006a). Depth distribution studies in Hawaii (Baird et al., 2005a; Baird et al., 2006a) found that Cuvier's undertook three or four different types of dives, including intermediate (to depths of 292-568 m), deep (>1000 m) and short-inter-ventilation (within 2-3 m of surface); this study was of a single animal. Studies in the Ligurian Sea indicated that Cuvier's beaked whales dived to >1000 m and usually started "clicking" (actively searching for prey) around 475 m (Johnson et al., 2004; Soto et al., 2006). Clicking continued at depths and ceased once ascent to the surface began, indicating active foraging at depth. In both locations, Cuvier's spent more time in deeper water than did Blainville's beaked whale, although maximum dive depths were similar. There was no significant difference between day and night diving indicating that preferred prey likely does not undergo vertical migrations.

Dive information for Cuvier's was collected in the Ligurian Sea (Mediterranean) via DTAGs on a total of seven animals (Tyack et al., 2006) and, despite the geographic difference and the author's cautions about the limits of the data set, the Ligurian Sea dataset represents a more complete snapshot than that from Hawaii (Baird et al., 2006a). Cuvier's conducted two types of dives – U-shaped deep foraging dives (DFD) and shallow duration dives. Dive cycle commenced at the start of a DFD and ended at the start of the next DFD, and included shallow duration dives made in between DFD.

Mean length of dive cycle = 121.4 min (mean DFD plus mean Inter-deep dive interval)

Number of DFD recorded = 28

Mean DFD depth = 1070 m (range 689-1888 m)

Mean length DFD = 58.0 min

Mean Vocal phase duration = 32.8 min

Mean inter-deep dive interval = 63.4 min

Mean shallow duration dive = 221 m (range 22-425 m)

Mean # shallow duration dives per cycle = 2 (range 0-7)

Mean length of shallow duration dives = 15.2 min

Total time at surface (0-2 m) was calculated by subtracting the mean length of DFD and two shallow duration dives from the total dive cycle (121.4 - 58.0 – 30.4 = 33 min). Total time at deepest depth was taken from the Vocal phase duration time, as echolocation clicks generally commenced when animals were deepest, and was 32.8 min. The amount of time spent descending and ascending on DFDs was calculated by subtracting the mean Vocal phase duration time from the mean total DFD (58.0 - 32.8 = 25.2 min) and then dividing by five (# of 200 m depth categories between surface and 1070 m) which equals ~five min per 200 m. The five-minute value was applied to each 200 m depth category from 400-1070 m; for the 2-220 m category, the mean length of shallow duration dives was added to the time for descent/ascent (30.4 + 5 = 35.4 min). **Therefore, the depth distribution for Cuvier's beaked whales based on best available information from Tyack et al. (2006) is: 27% at <2 m, 29% at 2-220 m, 4% at 221-400 m, 4% at 401-600 m, 4% at 601-800 m, 5% at 801-1070 m and 27% in >1070 m.**

E.3.3 Baird's beaked whale, *Berardius bairdii*

Baird's beaked whales, like most beaked whales, are a deep water species that inhabits the north Pacific. They generally occur close to shore only in areas with a narrow continental shelf. There is no reliable population estimate for this species in Alaskan waters (Angliss and Allen, 2009). **Data from vessel surveys conducted by Waite (2003) yielded a density of 0.0005/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** Density was based on a single sighting, so confidence in the value is low, but it is the only density available for this region.

There are no depth distribution data for this species. Studies conducted on the diet of Baird's from stomach content analysis reveal some insight into feeding patterns. Samples collected off the Pacific coast of Honshu, Japan, revealed a preference primarily for benthopelagic fish (87%) and cephalopods (13%), while samples collected in the southern Sea of Okhotsk were primarily cephalopods (Walker et al., 2002). Other stomach samples collected from same geographic regions indicated demersal fish were the most commonly identified prey, and that Baird's were feeding at the bottommost depths of at least 1000 m (Ohizumi et al., 2003). The overall dive behavior of this beaked whale is not known (e.g., shape of dive, interventilation dives, etc). In lieu of other information, the depth distribution for northern bottlenose whales, *Hyperoodon ampullatus,* will be extrapolated to Baird's. There has been one study on northern bottlenose whales, which provides some guidance as to depth distribution (Hooker and Baird, 1999). Most (62-70%, average = 66%) of the time was spent diving (deeper than 40 m), and most dives were somewhat V-shaped. Both shallow dives (<400 m) and deep dives (>800 m) were recorded, and whales spent 24-30% (therefore, average of 27%) of dives at 85% maximum depth indicating they feed near the bottom. Using these data points, we **estimate 34% of time at 0-40 m, 39% at 41-800 m, 27% at >800 m for *H. ampullatus* and extrapolate this to *B. berardius*.**

E.3.4 Stejneger's beaked whale, *Mesoplodon stejnegeri*

Stejneger's beaked whale is known from the north Pacific only, ranging in subarctic and cool temperate waters. It is likely the only mesoplodont whale to be found in the GOA, as other *Mesoplodon* species do not range that far north. There is no abundance estimate for this species, as it is rarely seen at-sea and is most often recorded via stranding events (Angliss and Allen, 2009). Stejneger's beaked whales are likely present in low numbers in the GOA; **there is no density estimate available (Table 1)**.

E.3.5 Killer whale, *Orcinus orca*

There are two stocks of killer whales in the north Pacific whose ranges overlap in the GOA, but who differ in feeding preferences, acoustics and genetics. The Alaska Resident stock feeds primarily on fish, ranges from southeast Alaska to the Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea, and has a minimum population estimate of 1,123 based on photo ID (Angliss and Allen, 2009). The Gulf of Alaska, Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea Transient stock feeds primarily on other marine mammals and ranges farther offshore in the GOA than the resident stock, as well as to the Aleutian Islands and Bering Sea. The minimum estimate based on photo ID for that population is 314. Vessel surveys for killer whales were conducted in July and August from 2001-2003 near Steller sea lion haulouts from the Kenai Peninsula to Amchitka Pass in the Aleutian Islands (Zerbini et al., 2007). The surveys did not venture far from shore but do provide density estimates for transient and resident stocks. **Survey blocks closest to the TMAA (blocks 2-5) had an average density of 0.010/km^2 resident killer whales (IGS density which the authors indicate is more appropriate for resident killer whales), which is applicable to the entire region year round (Table 3).** Killer whales were seen and heard during a vessel cruise in the TMAA in April 2009 (Rone et al., 2009; Figures 4 and 8), but density was not calculated.

Diving studies on killer whales have been undertaken mainly on "resident" (fish-eating) killer whales in the Puget Sound and may not be applicable across all populations of killer whales. Diving is usually related to foraging, and mammal-eating killer whales may display different dive patterns. Killer whales in one study (Baird et al., 2005b) dove as deep as 264 m, and males dove more frequently and more often to depths >100 m than females, with fewer deep dives at night. Using best available data from Baird et al. (2003), it would appear that **killer whales spend ~4% of time at depths >30 m and 96% of time at depths <30 m**. Dives to deeper depths were often characterized by velocity bursts which may be associated with foraging or social activities.

E.3.6 Beluga, *Delphinapterus leucas*

A genetically and geographically discrete population of belugas exists in Cook Inlet. Scattered sightings of belugas in the northern GOA have been recorded since the mid-1970s, and these animals may be part of the Cook Inlet stock (Laidre et al., 2000) or may be part of a group of belugas that appear to be resident to Yakutat Bay (O'Corry-Crowe et al., 2006). An in-depth review of 13 dedicated cetacean surveys in the GOA found that all northern GOA sightings were coastal and none were reported in offshore areas. **No density is available (Table 1).**

E.3.7 Pacific white-sided dolphin, *Lagenorhychus obliquidens*

Pacific white-sided dolphins range throughout the north Pacific in cold temperate waters. Movements between inshore/offshore and north/south are not well understood. The north Pacific stock of this species, which ranges from British Columbia across the north Pacific and including the GOA, is currently estimated to have a minimum abundance of 26,880 based on data collected from 1987-90 (Angliss and Allen, 2009). **Data from vessel surveys conducted by Waite (2003) yielded a density of 0.0208/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** This density was based on just two sightings so confidence in this value is low, but it is the only density available for this region. Rone et al. (2009) collected one sighting of 60 Pacific white-sided dolphins during the April 2009 cruise; the sighting was outside of the TMAA, south of Kodiak Island (See Figure 4 in Rone).

Pacific white-sided dolphins are generalist feeders (von Waerebeek and Wursig, 2002). Studies on diving by this species have not been undertaken. Satellite tag studies of a rehabilitated related species (*Lagenorhynchus acutus*) in the Gulf of Maine indicated that nearly all time was spent in waters <100 m total depth with largely directed movement (Mate et al., 1994). Another related species, *Lagenorhynchus obscurus*, was observed feeding in two circumstances; at night to 130 m depth to take advantage of the deep scattering layer closer to the surface and during the day in shallower depths (<65 m) where they fed on schooling fish (Benoit-Bird et al., 2004). **In lieu of the lack of other data available for this Pacific lags, the following are very rough estimates of time at depth: daytime - 100% at 0-65 M; night time – 100% at 0-130 m.**

E.3.8 Northern right whale dolphin, *Lissodelphis borealis*

The northern right whale dolphin occurs in a band across the north Pacific, generally between 34˚ and 47˚N (Reeves et al., 2002). They are primarily an open ocean species, and rarely come near shore. Their presence in the GOA is unknown but, based on the lack of sightings of this gregarious species, is likely rare; **there is no density for this species (Table 1)**.

E.3.9 Risso's dolphin, *Grampus griseus*

This species is known from tropical and warm temperate oceans, primarily in waters with surface temperatures between 50 and 82˚F (Reeves et al., 2002). Their pres ence in the GOA is likely extremely rare and extralimital; **there is no density for this species (Table 1).**

E.3.10 False killer whale, *Pseudorca crassidens*

False killer whales are found from tropical to warm temperate waters, with well known populations near Japan and in the eastern tropical Pacific. They were not seen along the Pacific US coast during surveys conducted from 1986-2001 (Ferguson and Barlow, 2003; Barlow, 2003) nor in 2005 (Forney, 2007), although they have occasionally been sighted as far north as British Columbia (Reeves et al., 2002). Their presence in the GOA is likely extremely rare and extralimital; **there is no density for this species (Table 1).**

E.3.11 Short-finned pilot whale, *Globicephala macrorhynchus*

This species is known from tropical and warm temperate waters and, in the northeast Pacific, its distribution likely extends as far north as Vancouver Island (Reeves et al., 2002). Pilot whales were not seen during vessel surveys conducted offshore Washington and Oregon in 1996 or 2001 (Barlow, 2003) and there was only one sighting during surveys conducted in 2005 (Forney, 2007). Their presence in the GOA is likely extremely rare and extralimital; **there is no density for this species (Table 1).**

E.3.12 Dall's porpoise, *Phocoenoides dalli*

Dall's porpoises are endemic to the north Pacific, ranging north of ~32˚N into the Bering Sea. It is generally found in deep, cool waters but is also common in coastal areas. The Alaska stock is currently estimated at 83,400 animals (Angliss and Allen, 2009). Waite (2003) sighted Dall's porpoise frequently throughout their study area, including several sightings south of the Kenai Peninsula and therefore within the TMAA. **Data from vessel surveys conducted by Waite (2003) yielded a density of 0.1892/km^2 (Table 1), which is applicable to the entire region year round.** Rone et al. (2009; Figure 4) recorded 10 sightings of 59 Dall's porpoise in both the inshore and offshore strata, but density was not calculated.

Dall's porpoise feed on a wide variety of schooling fish, including herring and anchovies, mesopelagic fish including deep-sea smelts, and squids (a, 2002). One study of this species includes dive information for a single animal (Hanson and Baird, 1998). The authors concluded that the animal responded to the TDR tag for the initial eight minutes it was in place. Therefore, using data only from dives 7-17 (after the abnormally deep high velocity dive) in Table 2 of Hanson and Baird (1998), total time of the sequence was 26.5 min (from start of dive 7 to end of dive 17). Total time at the surface was 10.27 min (time between dives minus the dive durations). Dives within 10 m totaled 2.11 min, dives to >60 m totaled 0.4 min, and dives with bottom time between 41 and 60 m totaled 1.83 min. The remaining time can be assumed to be spent diving between 11 and 40 m. **Based on this information, the depth distribution can be estimated as 39% at <1 m, 8% at 1-10 m, 45% at 11-40 m, and 8% at >40 m.**

E.3.13 Harbor porpoise, *Phocoena phocoena*

Harbor porpoise are found in coastal regions of northern temperate and subarctic waters (Reeves et al., 2002). To determine abundance of harbor porpoises in southern Alaska, Dahlheim et al. (2000) conducted aerial surveys from 1991-1993 only within 30 km of shore, based on data from Dohl et al. (1983) that indicated that harbor porpoise off California were almost exclusively within 0.25 nm of shore. Sightings around Kodiak Island were clustered in near shore bays on the north side of the island, with only two sightings up to 30 km offshore (see Figures 2 and 4 in Dahlheim et al., 2000). Harbor porpoise are generally not found in water deeper than 100 m, and decline linearly as depth increases (Carretta et al., 2001; Barlow, 1988; Angliss and Allen, 2009). A survey conducted in the GOA in June 2003 yielded a single sighting of two individuals (Waite, 2003). The vessel survey conducted in April 2009 yielded 30 sightings of 89 harbor porpoise, most of which were outside of the TMAA (Rone et al., 2009; Figure 4). The coastal distribution and limitation to shallower depths make it likely that harbor porpoises would not be within the TMAA; **there is no density for this species (Table 1)**.

E.4 PINNIPEDS

E.4.1 Steller's sea lion, *Eumetopias jubatus*

The range of the Steller's sea lion (SSL) crosses the north Pacific from Japan to northern California. This species does not undergo extensive migrations but will disperse widely during the non-breeding season. There are two US stocks, which are delineated based on location of rookeries. The Western US stock, listed as Endangered, encompasses SSL using rookeries west of 144°W, and the Eastern US stock, listed as Threatened, include SSL whose rookeries are east of 144°W. SSL from both stocks likely use the TMAA. Most SSL remain fairly close to rookeries and haulouts throughout the year, with adult females with pups averaging 17 km trip length in summer and 130 km trip length in winter; however foraging trips extended to >500 km offshore (Loughlin, 2002; Merrick and Loughlin, 1997) which encompasses the entire TMAA. Foraging trips are interspersed with time spent at haulouts throughout the year, and different age and sex classes molt at different times from late summer through early winter. Consequently, at any particular time during the year, at least some portion of the population will be at-sea. Call et al. (2007) found that the duration of at-sea and on-shore cycles of juvenile SSL differed between regions. In the Aleutian Islands and GOA, juvenile SSL departed at dusk and returned to haul out just prior to sunrise, while juvenile SSL in southeast Alaska departed throughout the day. Time of day departures and length of time at-sea are likely related to foraging opportunities and the distance/depth required for juveniles to travel finding food.

Pinniped at-sea density is not generally calculated because they are counted much more easily while on shore. Therefore, to determine densities of SSL in the TMAA, two sets of parameters need to be identified – the specific area and the number of animals. The area of the TMAA (measured in ArcMap) is ~87,250 km^2 (Figure 1). This represents 6.25% of the entire GOA Large Marine Ecosystem (LME) as defined by NOAA (www.lme.noaa.gov), and measured via ArcMap (~1,396,800 km^2, not including inland passages). The GOA LME extends from the Alaska Peninsula in the west to the British Columbia-Washington border in the east. To determine the number of SSL in the GOA LME, the most recent counts of adult, juvenile and pup SSL at rookeries in the GOA (pups = 4,518, non-pups = 13,892; data from 2004-2005), southeast Alaska (n=20,793, data from 2005) and British Columbia (n=15,402, data from 2002) were combined for a total of 54,605 SSL (Angliss and Allen, 2009). These are considered minimum counts, as they were not corrected for animals not counted because they were at sea. Bonnell and Bowlby (1992) estimated that 25% of the SSL sea lion population was feeding at sea at any given time. Therefore, 13,651

SSL (54,605 * 0.25) would be expected feeding at-sea in the GOA LME. To estimate the number within the TMAA, the number of SSL in the entire GOA (13,651) was multiplied by the percent area of the TMAA compared to the GOA LME (0.0625) for a total of 853 SSL. **Density was then calculated as 853 SSL/87,250 km^2, or 0.0098/km^2, which is applicable to the entire region year round (Table 1).**

Acoustic modeling was calculated for two seasons, warm (June-October) and cold (November-May) water. Pinniped densities were therefore averaged to these two seasons by summing monthly densities and dividing by the number of months in each season (Table 5). For Steller sea lions the warm and cold water densities are the same, as densities are expected to remain consistent throughout the year.

Steller sea lions feed on fishes and invertebrates, including walleye pollock, Pacific cod, mackerel, octopus, squid and herring (Loughlin, 2002). Ongoing studies of SSL diving behavior have been conducted by NMFS in Alaska and Washington as part of an overall effort to determine why sea lion populations have been steadily declining (Merrick and Loughlin, 1997; Loughlin et al., 2003). Tagging studies often focus on different age classes (weanling, young of year, adult female). Steller sea lion prey changes depending on the season, with some prey moving farther offshore in winter, which affects maximum depth. Females dived the longest and deepest, with young of the year and weanlings having lesser values for both categories (Call et al., 2007; Loughlin et al., 2003). Adult males generally disperse farthest (commonly 120 km but as far as 500 km) from haulouts (Raum-Suryan et al., 2004). Loughlin et al. (2003) recorded maximum dive depth of 328 m, although most dives were shallower. Some SSL appear to take advantage of vertically migrating prey, leaving haulouts at dusk and returning at dawn (Call et al., 2007) but other SSL appear to feed throughout daylight hours as well. Because all age classes may be in the water at any given time, the depth distribution was estimated from the proportion of dives per depth range for all age classes (Merrick and Loughlin, 1997; Figures 4 and 2, respectively). **Based on this information, the depth distribution can be roughly estimated at 60% at 0-10 m, 22% at 11-20 m, 12% at 21-50 m, 5% at 51-100 m and 1% at >100 m.**

Table E-5. Averaging of Stellers sea lion, Northern fur seal, and Northern elephant seal densities to fit warm (June-October) and cold (November-May) water seasons.

Species	**Stellers sea lion**	**Northern fur seal**	**Northern elephant seal**
Month	**Density**		
June	0.0098	0.1059	0.0000
July	0.0098	0.0000	0.0000
August	0.0098	0.0000	0.0000
September	0.0098	0.0072	0.0055
October	0.0098	0.4768	0.0055
Average Warm Season	**0.0098**	**0.1180**	**0.0022**
November	0.0098	0.4768	0.0055
December	0.0098	0.4768	0.0000
January	0.0098	0.0072	0.0000
February	0.0098	0.0072	0.0000
March	0.0098	0.0072	0.0055
April	0.0098	0.0072	0.0055
May	0.0098	0.1059	0.0000
Average Cold Season	**0.0098**	**0.1555**	**0.0024**

E.4.2 Northern fur seal, *Callorhinus ursinus*

The northern fur seal is endemic to the north Pacific. Breeding sites are located in the Pribilof Islands (up to 70% of the world population) and Bogoslof Island in the Bering Sea, Kuril and Commander Islands in the northwest Pacific, and San Miguel Island in the southern California Bight. Abundance of the Eastern Pacific Stock has been decreasing at the Pribilof Islands since the 1940s although increasing on Bogoslof Island. The stock is currently estimated to number 665,550 (Angliss and Allen, 2009). The San Miguel Island Stock is much smaller, estimated at 9,424 (Carretta et al., 2009); this stock is believed to remain predominantly offshore California year round.

Males are present in the rookeries from around mid-May until August; females are present in the rookeries from mid-June to late-October. Nearly all fur seals from the Pribilof Island rookeries are foraging at sea from fall through late spring. Females and young males migrate through the Gulf of Alaska and feed primarily off the coasts of British Columbia, Washington, Oregon and California before migrating north to the rookeries (Ream et al., 2005). Immature males and females may remain in southern foraging areas year round until they are old enough to mate (National Marine Fisheries Service, 2006). Adult males migrate only as far as the Gulf of Alaska or to the west off the Kuril Islands. Therefore, adult males (September-April), adult females (October-December; May-June) and all non-adult fur seals (October-December) can potentially be found in the TMAA depending on the time of year.

Counts conducted in 2004 of males at Pribilof Island rookeries yielded a total 9,978 (Table 2 in National Marine Fisheries Service, 2006). Assuming an even distribution of fur seals throughout the GOA, and using a similar method as for other pinnipeds, the number of male fur seals was multiplied by the percent area of the TMAA compared to the GOA LME (0.0625) for a total of 624 fur seals. **Density was then calculated as 624 fur seals/87,250 km^2, or 0.0072/km^2, which is applicable for the entire region in September and January through April.** Because some northern fur seal adult males feed near the Kuril Islands, this density is likely an over-estimate.

To determine density for migration time periods when adult female, adult male and non-adult fur seals would be present in the TMAA while enroute to feeding areas (October-December), the total number of fur seals in the eastern Pacific stock (665,550) was multiplied by the percent area of the TMAA compared to the GOA LME (0.0625) for a total of 41,597 fur seals. **Density was then calculated as 41,597 fur seals/87,250 km^2, or 0.4768/km^2. This density is applicable for the entire TMAA for October-December.** Because this number includes pups of the year and first year mortality due to predation and other factors is very high, the density is very likely an over-estimate.

To account for migration time periods when adult females would be migrating north thru the TMAA enroute to the rookeries (May-June), the number of pups born (2006 Pribilof Islands and Bogoslof Island count= 147,900; Angliss and Allen, 2009) was used to estimate the number of adult females (assuming all adult females birthed a pup). Assuming an even distribution of fur seal females as they migrate through the GOA, the number of female fur seals was multiplied by the percent area of the TMAA compared to the GOA LME (0.0625) for a total of 9,244 fur seals**. Density was then calculated as 9,244 fur seals/87,250 km^2, or 0.1059/km^2. This density is applicable for the entire** TMAA **for May-June.**

In most years, northern fur seals would not be expected in the GOA in July and August, because adults would still be in the rookeries and non-adults would be foraging farther south, so density would be zero.

Acoustic modeling was calculated for two seasons, warm (June-October) and cold (November-May) water. Northern fur seal densities were therefore averaged to these two seasons by summing monthly densities and dividing by the number of months in each season (Table 5). **The warm water density for northern fur seals was 0.1180/km^2 and the cold water density was 0.1555/km^2 (see Table 1), which are applicable to the entire area.**

Northern fur seals feed on small fish and squid in deep water and along the shelf break; deep dives occur on the shelf and feeding probably occurs near the bottom (Gentry, 2002). There have been a few studies of this species' diving habits during feeding and migrating, although there is no information on dive depth distribution. Ponganis et al. (1992) identified two types of northern fur seal dives, shallow (<75 m) and deep (>75 m). Kooyman and Goebel (1986) found that the mean dive depth for seven tagged females was 68 m (range 32-150 m) and the mean maximum depth was 168 m (range 86-207). Sterling and Ream (2004) reported that the mean dive depth for 19 juvenile males was 17.5 m, with a maximum depth attained of 175 m. Diving was deeper in the daytime than during nighttime, perhaps reflecting the different distribution of prey (especially juvenile pollock), and also differed between inner-shelf, mid-shelf, outer-shelf and off-shelf locations. Deeper diving in the Sterling and Ream study tended to occur on-shelf, with shallower diving off-shelf. Diving patterns during migration tended to be shallower, with diving occurring mainly at night (indicating some feeding on vertically migrating prey) and most time during the day in the upper 5 m of the water column (Baker, 2007). **Based on these very limited depth data, the following are very rough order estimates of time at depth: daytime: 74% at <2 m; 26% at 2-260 m; nighttime: 74% at <2 m; 26% at 2-75 m.**

E.4.3 California sea lion, *Zalophus californianus*

California sea lions breed in the Channel Islands in the southern California Bight and south into Baja California. Males will migrate after the breeding season north to near shore waters of Washington, Oregon and British Columbia (some immature males will remain in northern feeding areas year round). Females generally do not migrate as far north as males. California sea lions have been documented at several locations in Alaska (Maniscalco et al., 2004), including southeast Alaska, Kenai Peninsula and as far north and west at St. Paul Island in the Bering Sea. There were a total of 52 animals documented between 1963 and 2003, and they were observed during all seasons of the year. Their presence in the GOA Exercise Area is likely extremely low both due to the extralimital nature of the occurrence and the species preference for near shore habitat. **No density estimate is available (Table 1).**

E.4.4 Northern elephant seal, *Mirounga angustirostris*

The California stock of elephant seals breeds at rookeries located along the California coast. The most recent population estimate (2005) was 124,000 animals, and was based primarily on pup counts and correction factors (Carretta et al., 2009). Only male elephant seals migrate as far north as the GOA during foraging trips, information known from extensive satellite tagging studies (LeBoeuf et al., 1986, 1993, 2000). Adult males are present at the California rookeries from December through February for mating, and again from May to August during molting. The number of males in the population is particularly difficult to estimate because all adult males are generally not present at the rookery at any one time.

Counts of males at rookeries in the Channel Islands and some central California sites in 2005 yielded 3,815 males and juveniles for which sex could not be determined. Some rookeries were not included in this estimate, including a rapidly growing rookery at Piedras Blancas, which in 2007 had an estimated population of 16,000 animals of all age and sex classes (www.elephantseal.org). The California elephant seal population has also been steadily increasing over time (Carretta et al., 2009). To account for males at rookeries not counted and an increase in the population since 2005, the number of males and juveniles reported in the 2009 stock assessment report (3,815) was doubled to 7,630. Using similar methods as described for Steller's, the number of male elephant seals (7,630) was multiplied by percent area of the TMAA compared to the GOA LME (0.0625) for a total of 477 elephant seals. **Density was then calculated as 475 seals/87,250 km^2, or 0.0055/km^2, which is applicable for the entire TMAA for March-April and September-November.** Because all elephant seal adult males are not at-sea at the same time, the density is probably an over-estimate.

As with northern fur seals, elephant seal densities were averaged to warm (June-October) and cold (November-May) water seasons to provide data suitable for acoustic modeling. To do so, monthly densities were summer and divided by the number of months in each season (Table 5). **The warm water density for elephant seals was 0.0022/km^2 and the cold water density was 0.0023/km^2 (see Table 1, which is applicable to the entire area.**

Elephant seals feed on deep-water squid and fish, and likely spend about 80% of their annual cycle at sea feeding (Hindell, 2002). There has been a disproportionate amount of research done in the diving capabilities of northern elephant seals. Breeding and molting beaches are all located in California and Baja California, and elephant seals are relatively easy to tag (compared to cetaceans) when they are hauled out on the beach; the tag package can be retrieved when the animal returns to shore rather than relying on finding it in the ocean. They are deep divers, and have been tracked to depths >1000 m, although mean depths are usually around 400-600 m. Elephant seals have more than one dive type, termed Types A-E, including rounded and squared-off U-shape, V-shape and others. Particular dive types appear to be used mainly during transit (Types A and B), "processing" of food (Type C), and foraging (Types D and E; Crocker et al., 1994). Asaga et al. (1994) collected dive information on three female seals and provided summary statistics for three dive types. Davis et al. (2001) recorded the diving behavior of a seal returning to the beach, and demonstrated transit depths averaging 186 m with range of depth from 8 m to 430 m. LeBoeuf et al. (1986; 1988), Stewart and DeLong (1993) and LeBoeuf (1994) provided histograms of dives per depth range for tagged females. LeBoeuf et al. (2000; 1988) and LeBoeuf (1994) provided details on foraging trips for males and females offshore California, including information on percentage of time at surface. Hassrick et al. (2007) noted that larger animals (adult males) exhibited longer bottom times and that surface swimming was not noted in the sixteen elephant seals that they tagged. Hindell (2002) noted that traveling likely takes place at depths >200m.

Even with this abundance of information, the numerous types of dives and lack of clear-cut depth distribution data means that the percentage of time at depth needs to be estimated. The closest information provided is from Asaga et al. (1994), which was used here. Note that this information is representative of type D foraging dives of female only. This is the type of dive that would be likely of an elephant seal at-sea. Summary stats from Table 17.3 (Asaga et al., 1994) were used; the data were collected from females only but will be applied to both sexes and all age classes due to lack of other concise data. Mean dive duration and mean surface intervals were added together to come up with total dive cycle in minutes. Amount of time to traverse from surface to bottom and bottom to surface was calculated by subtracting bottom time (given) from dive duration. Values for total cycle, surface interval, bottom time and descent/ascent were then averaged for all three females. Roundtrip surface to bottom and back averaged 12.9 minutes. Assuming a mean rate of descent/ascent over 527 m (average mean dive depth for all three females combined), the average rate per 100 m was 2.4 min. **Based on these averaged numbers, the following are estimates of time at depth: 9% at <2 m, 11% at 2-100 m, 11% at 101-200 m, 11% at 201-300 m, 11% at 301-400 m, 11% at 401-500 m and 36% at >500 m.**

E.4.5 Harbor seal, *Phoca vitulina*

Harbor seals are distributed throughout coastal areas of the North Pacific. Their distribution is largely tied to suitable beaches for hauling out, pupping and molting, and areas offering good foraging and protection from predators such as killer whales. Most harbor seals are non-migratory. Satellite-tracking studies of movements of adults and pups near Kodiak Island and elsewhere in the GOA indicate that mean distance between haul out and at-sea foraging was 10-25 km for juveniles and 5-10 km for adults (e.g., Lowry et al., 2001; Rehberg and Small, 2001), and nearly all locations were in water <200 m deep, with an apparent preference for depths 20-100 m (Frost et al., 2001). The coastal distribution and limitation to shallower depths make it likely that harbor seals would not be within the TMAA; **there is no density for this species (Table 1).**

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Table E-6. Summary of Marine Mammal Depth and Diving Information for Species Found in the TMAA

NOTE: some species that are not endemic to GOA are included in this appendix because data on their depth and diving preferences were extrapolated to GOA species.

	GENERAL INFORMATION			DEPTH SPECIFIC INFORMATION					
Common Name	**Food Preference**	**Depth or Oceanic Preference**	**References**	**Behavioral State**	**Geographic Region**	**Depth Information**	**Depth Distribution**	**Sample Size/ Time of Year/Method**	**References**
MYSTICETES - Baleen whales									
Fin whale	Planktonic crustaceans, including *Thyanoessa* sp and *Calanus* sp, as well as scholling fishes such as capelin (*Mallotus*), herring (*Clupea*) and mackerel (*Scomber*)	Pelagic with some occurrence over continental shelf areas, including in island wake areas of Bay of Fundy	Aguilar (2002); Croll et al. (2001); Acevado et al. (2002): Notarbartolo-di-Sciara et al. (2003); Bannister (2002); Johnston et al. (2005); Watkins and Schevill (1979)	Feeding at depth	Northeast Pacific (Mexico, California)	Mean depth 98 +- 33 m; mean dive time 6.3+- 1.5 min		Fifteen whales/ April-October/Time-depth-recorder	Croll et al. (2001)
Fin whale				Non-feeding	Northeast Pacific (Mexico, California)	Mean depth 59 +-30 m; mean dive time 4.2 +- 1.7 min; most dives to ~ 30 m with occasional deeper V-shaped dives to >90 m		Fifteen whales/ April-October/Time-depth-recorder	Croll et al. (2001)
Fin whale				Feeding	Mediterranean (Ligurian Sea)	Shallow dives (mean 26-33 m, with all <100m) until late afternoon; then dives in excess of 400 m (perhaps to 540 m); in one case a whale showed deep diving in midday; deeper dives probably were to feed on specific prey (*Meganyctiphanes norvegica*) that undergo diel vertical migration		Three whales/ Summer/ Velocity-time-depth-recorder	Panigada et al. (1999); Panigada et al. (2003); Panigada et al. (2006)
Fin whale				Traveling	Mediterranean (Ligurian Sea)	Shallow dives (mean 9.8 +- 5.3 m, with max 20 m) , shorter dive times and slower swimming speed indicate travel mode; deep dives (mean 181.3 +- 195.4 m, max 474 m), longer dive times and faster swimming speeds indicate feeding mode		One whale/ Summer/ Velocity-time-depth-recorder	Jahoda et al. (1999)
Fin whale				Feeding	Northeast Pacific (Southern California Bight)	Mean dive depth 248+-18 m; total dive duration mean 7.0+-1.0 min with mean descent of 1.7+-0.4 min and mean ascet of 1.4+-0.3 min; 60% (i.e., 7.0 min) of total time spent diving with 40% (i.e., 4.7 min) total time spent near sea surface (<50m)	44% in 0-49m (includes surface time plus descent and ascent to 49 m); 23% in 50-225 m (includes descent and ascent times taken from Table 1 minus time spent descending and ascending through 0-49 m); 33% at >225 m (total dive duration minus surface, descent and ascent times)	Seven whales/ August/ Bioacoustic probe	Goldbogen et al. (2006)
Fin whale				Feeding	Northeast Pacific (Southern California Bight)	Distribution of foraging dives mirrored distribution of krill in water collumn, with peaks at 75 and 200-250 m.		Two whales/ September-October/ Time-depth-recorder	Croll et al. (2001)

	GENERAL INFORMATION			DEPTH SPECIFIC INFORMATION					
Common Name	**Food Preference**	**Depth or Oceanic Preference**	**References**	**Behavioral State**	**Geographic Region**	**Depth Information**	**Depth Distribution**	**Sample Size/ Time of Year/Method**	**References**
Minke whale	Regionally dependent; can include euphausiids, copepods, small fish and squids; Japanese anchovy preferred in western North Pacific, capelin and krill in the Barents Sea; armhook squids in North Pacific	Coastal, inshore and offshore; known to concentrate in areas of highest prey density, including during flood tides	Perrin and Brownell (2002); Jefferson et al. (1993); Murase et al. (2007); Bannister (2002); Lindstrom and Haug (2001); Johnston et al. (2005); Hoelzel et al. (1989); Haug et al. (2002); Haug et al. (1995); Haug et al. (1996); Konishi and Tamura (2007); Clarke (1986)	Feeding, Searching	North Atlantic (Norway)	Searching for capelin at less than 20 m, then lunge-feeding at depths from 15 to 55 m, then searching again at shallower depths	Based on time series in Figure 2, 47% of time was spent foraging from 21-55 m; 53% of time was spent searching for food from 0-20 m	One whale/ August/ Dive-depth-transmitters	Blix and Folkow (1995)
Minke whale				Feeding	North Pacific (San Juan Islands)	80% of feeding occurred over depths of 20-100m; two types of feeding observed both near surface - lunge feeding and bird association		23 whales/ June-September/ behavioral observations	Hoelzel et al. (1989)
Humpback whale	Pelagic schooling euphausiids and small fish including capelin, herring, mackerel, croaker, spot, and weakfish	Coastal, inshore, near islands and reefs, migration through pelagic waters	Clapham (2002); Hain et al. (1995); Laerm et al. (1997); Bannister (2002); Watkins and Schevill (1979)	Feeding	North Atlantic (Stellwagen Bank)	Depths <40 m		Several whales/ August/ Visual Observations	Hain et al. (1995)
Humpback whale				Feeding (possible)	Tropical Atlantic (Bermuda)	Dives to 240 m		One whale/ April/ VHF tag	Hamilton et al. (1997)
Humpback whale				Feeding (in breeding area)	Tropical Atlantic (Samana Bay - winter breeding area)	Not provided; lunge feeding with bubblenet		One whale/ January/ Visual observations	Baraff et al. (1991)
Humpback whale				Breeding	North Pacific (Hawaii)	Depths in excess of 170 m recorded; some depths to bottom, others to mid- or surface waters; dive duration was not necessarily related to dive depth; whales resting in morning with peak in aerial displays at noon	40% in 0-10 m, 27% in 11-20 m, 12% in 21-30 m, 4% in 31-40 m, 3% in 41-50 m, 2% in 51-60 m, 2% in 61-70 m, 2% in 71-80 m, 2% in 81-90 m, 2% in 91-100 m, 3% in >100 m (from Table 3)	Ten Males/ February-April/ Time-depth-recorder	Baird et al. (2000); Helweg and Herman (1994)
Humpback whale				Feeding	Northeast Atlantic (Greenland)	Dive data was catalogued for time spent in upper 8 m as well as maximum dive depth; diving did not extend to the bottom (~1000 m) with most time in upper 4 m of depth with few dives in excess of 400 m	37% of time in <4 m, 25% of time in 4-20 m, 7% of time in 21-35m, 4% of time in 36-50 m, 6% of time in 51-100 m, 7% of time in 101-150 m, 8% of time in 151-200 m, 6% of time in 201-300 m, and <1% in >300 m	Four whales/ June-July/ Satellite transmitters	Dietz et al. (2002)
Humpback whale				Feeding	North Pacific (Southeast Alaska)	Dives were short (<4 min) and shallow (<60 m); deepest dive to 148m; percent of time at surface increased with increased dive depth and with dives exceeding 60 m; dives related to position of prey patches		Several whales/ July-September/ Passive sonar	Dolphin (1987); Dolphin (1988)

	GENERAL INFORMATION			DEPTH SPECIFIC INFORMATION					
Common Name	**Food Preference**	**Depth or Oceanic Preference**	**References**	**Behavioral State**	**Geographic Region**	**Depth Information**	**Depth Distribution**	**Sample Size/ Time of Year/Method**	**References**
Gray whale	Amphipods, including *Ampelisca* sp, and other organisms living in the sea floor; also occasionally surface skim and engulfing; dependent on location; euphausiids along frontal systems may also be important	Continental shelf, 4-120 m depth	Dunham and Duffus (2002); Jones and Swartz (2002); Bannister (2002); Yazvenko et al. (2007); Bluhm et al. (2007)	Migrating	Northeast Pacific (coastal Baja California to northern California)	30 of 36 locations in depths <100m deep (mean 39 m); consistent speed indicating directed movement		One whale/ February/ Satellite tag	Mate and Urban Ramirez (2003)
Gray whale				Feeding	Bering and Chukchi Seas	Depths at feeding locations from 5-51 m depth		Several whales/ July-November/ Aerial surveys and benthic sampling	Clarke et al. (1989); Clarke and Moore (2002); Moore et al. (2003)
Gray whale				Feeding	Northeast Pacific (Kodiak Island)	Feeding on cumacean invertebrates		Several whales/ Year-round/ Aerial surveys	Moore et al. (2007)
Gray whale				Feeding	Northeast Pacific (Vancouver Island)	Majority of time was spent near the surface on interventilation dives (<3 m depth) and near the bottom (extremely nearshore in a protected bay with mean dive depth of 18 m, range 14-22 m depth; little time spent in the water column between surface and bottom.	40% of time at <4 m (surface and interventilation dives), 38% of time at 3-18 m (active migration), 22% of time at >18 m (foraging).	One whale/ August/ Time-depth recorder	Malcolm et al. (1995/96); Malcolm and Duffus (2000)
ODONTOCETES - Toothed whales									
Sperm whale	Squids and other cephalopods, demersal and mesopelagic fish; varies according to region	Deep waters, areas of upwelling	Whitehead (2002); Roberts (2003); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	Mediterranean Sea	Overall dive cycle duration mean = 54.78 min, with 9.14 min (17% of time) at the surface between dives; no measurement of depth of dive		16 whales/ July-August/ visual observations and click recordings	Drouot et al. (2004)
Sperm whale				Feeding	South Pacific (Kaikoura, New Zealand)	83% of time spent underwater; no change in abundance between summer and winter but prey likely changed between seasons		>100 whales/ Year-round/ visual observations	Jacquet et al. (2000)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Equatorial Pacific (Galapagos)	Fecal sampling indicated four species of cephalopods predominated diet, but is likely biased against very small and very large cephalopods; samples showed variation over time and place		Several whales/ January-June/ fecal sampling	Smith and Whitehead (2000)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Equatorial Pacific (Galapagos)	Dives were not to ocean floor (2000-4000 m) but were to mean 382 m in one year and mean of 314 in another year; no diurnal patterns noted; general pattern was 10 min at surface followed by dive of 40 min; clicks (indicating feeding) started usually after descent to few hundred meters		Several whales/ January-June/ acoustic sampling	Papastavrou et al. (1989)
Sperm whale				Feeding	North Pacific (Baja California)	Deep dives (>100m) accounted for 26% of all dives; average depth 418 +- 216 m; most (91%) deep dives were to 100-500 m; deepest dives were 1250-1500m; average dive duration was 27 min; average surface time was 8.0; whale dives closely correlated with depth of squid (200-400 m) during day; nighttime squid were shallower but whales still dove to same depths	74% in <100 m; 24% in 100-500 m; 2% in >500m	Five whales/ October-November/ Satellite-linked dive recorder	Davis et al. (2007)

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Sperm whale				Resting/ socializing	North Pacific (Baja California)	Most dives (74%) shallow (8-100 m) and short duration; likely resting and/or socializing		Five whales/ October-November/ Satellite-linked dive recorder	Davis et al. (2007)
Sperm whale				Feeding	North Atlantic (Norway)	Maximum dive depths near sea floor and beyond scattering layer		Unknown # male whales/ July/ hydrophone array	Wahlberg (2002)
Sperm whale				Feeding	North Pacific (Southeast Alaska)	Maximum dive depth if 340 m when fishing activity was absent; max dive depth during fishing activity was 105 m		Two whales/ May/ acoustic monitoring	Tiemann et al. (2006)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Northwest Atlantic (Georges Bank)	Dives somewhat more U-shaped than observed elsewhere; animals made both shallow and deep dives; average of 27% of time at surface; deepest dive of 1186 m while deepest depths in area were 1500-3000 m so foraging was mid-water column; surface interval averaged 7.1 min		Nine Whales/ July 2003/ DTAG	Palka and Johnson (2007)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Northwest Atlantic (Georges Bank)	37% of total time was spent near surface (0-10m); foraging dive statistics provided in Table 1 and used to calculate percentages of time in depth categories, adjusted for total time at surface	48% in <10 m; 3% in 10-100 m; 7% in 101-300 m; 7% in 301-500 m; 4% in 501-636 m; 31% in >636 m	Six females or immatures/ September-October/ DTAG	Watwood et al. (2006)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Mediterranean Sea	20% of total time was spent near surface (0-10m); foraging dive statistics provided in Table 1 and used to calculate percentages of time in depth categories, adjusted for total time at surface	35% in <10 m; 4% in 10-100 m; 9% in 101-300 m; 9% in 301-500 m; 5% in 501-623 m; 38% in >636 m	Eleven females or immatures/ July/ DTAG	Watwood et al. (2006)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Gulf of Mexico	28% of total time was spent near surface (0-10m); foraging dive statistics provided in Table 1 and used to calculate percentages of time in depth categories, adjusted for total time at surface	41% in <10 m; 4% in 10-100 m; 8% in 101-300 m; 7% in 301-468 m; 40% >468 m	20 females or immatures/ June-September/ DTAG	Watwood et al. (2006)
Sperm whale				Feeding/ Resting	North Pacific (Japan)	Dives to 400-1200 m; active bursts in velocity at bottom of dive suggesting search-and-pursue strategy for feeding; 14% of total time was spent at surface not feeding or diving at all, with 86% of time spent actively feeding; used numbers from Table 1 to determine percentages of time in each depth category during feeding then adjusted by total time at surface	31% in <10 m (surface time); 8% in 10-200 m; 9% in 201-400 m; 9% in 401-600 m; 9% in 601-800m; 34% in >800 m	One female/ June/ Time-depth-recorder	Amano and Yoshioka (2003)
Sperm whale				Feeding	North Pacific (Japan)	Diel differences in diving in one location offshore Japan, with deeper dives (mean 853 m) and faster swimming during the day than at night (mean 469 m); other location along Japan's coast showed no difference between day and night dives; most time (74%) spent on dives exceeding 200 m; surface periods of 2.9 h at least once per day; max depth recorded 1304 m		Ten whales/ May-June, October/ depth data loggers and VHF radio transmitters	Aoki et al. (2007)

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Sperm whale				Feeding/ Resting	North Atlantic (Caribbean)	Whales within 5 km of shore during day but moved offshore at night; calves remained mostly at surface with one or more adults; night time tracking more difficult due to increased biological noise from scattering layer; both whales spent long periods of time (>2hr) at surface during diving periods		Two whales/ October/ Acoustic transponder	Watkins et al. (1993)
Sperm whale					North Atlantic (Caribbean)	Dives did not approach bottom of ocean (usually >200 m shallower than bottom depth); day dives deeper than night dives but not significantly; 63% of total time in deep dives with 37% of time near surface or shallow dives (within 100 m of surface)		One whale/ April/ Time-depth tag	Watkins et al. (2002)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Northern Pacific (Hawaii)	Cephalopods of several genera recovered		Two animals/ unknown/ stomach contents	Clarke and Young (1998)
Sperm whale				Occurrence	Mediterranean Sea (Alborian Sea south of Spain)	Preferred waters >700m		Vessel transects	Canadas et al. (2002)
Sperm whale				Feeding	Arctic Ocean (Norway)	Dives from 14-1860 m with median of 175 m; clicking (searching for prey) began at 14-218 m and stopped at 1-1114 m, and whale spent 91% of overall dives emitting clicks; shallower dives were apparently to target more sparse prey while deep dives led to frequent prey capture attempts and were likely within denser food layers		Four adult males/ July/ DTAG	Teloni et al. (2007)
Cuvier's beaked whale	Meso-pelagic or deep water benthic organisms, particularly squid (Cephalapoda: Teuthoidea); may have larger range of prey species than other deep divers; likely suction feeders based on lack of teeth and enlarged hyoid bone and tongue muscles	Offshore, deep waters of continental slope (200-2000 m) or deeper	Heyning (2002); Santos et al. (2001); Blanco and Raga (2000); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	Northeast Pacific (Hawaii)	Max dive depth = 1450 m; identified at least three dive categories including inter-ventilation (<4 m, parabolic shape), long duration (>1000m, U-shaped but with inflections in bottom depth), and intermediate duration (292-568 m, U-shaped); dive cycle usually included one long duration per 2 hours; one dive interval at surface of >65 min; mean depth at taggin was 2131 m so feeding occurred at mid-depths; no difference between day and night diving		Two whales/September-November/Time-depth recorders	Baird et al. (2006a); Baird et al. (2005a)
Cuvier's beaked whale				Feeding	Mediterranean (Ligurian Sea)	Two types of dive, U-shaped deep foraging dives (>500 m, mean 1070 m) and shallower non-foraging dives (<500 m, mean 221 m); depth distribution taken from information in Table 2	27% in <2 m (surface); 29% in 2-220 m; 4% in 221-400 m; 4% in 401-600 m; 4% in 601-800 m; 5% in 801-1070; 27% in >1070 m	Seven whales/ June/ DTAGs	Tyack et al. (2006)
Cuvier's beaked whale				Feeding	Mediterranean (Ligurian Sea)	Deep dives broken into three phases: silent descent, vocal-foraging and silent ascent; vocalizations not detected <200m depth; detected when whales were as deep as 1267 m; vocalizations ceased when whale started ascending from dive; clicks ultrasonic with no significant energy below 20 kHz		Two whales/ September/ DTAGs	Johnson et al. (2004); Soto et al. (2006)

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Baird's beaked whale	Benthic fishes and cephalopods, also pelagic fish including mackerel and sardine; primarily squid off northern coast of Hokkaido and deep sea fish off Pacific coast of Japan	Deep waters over continental slope	Kasuya (2002); Kasuya (1986); Walker et al. (2002); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	Northwest Atlantic (Japan)	Whales caught at depths of ~1000 m; stomach contents included prey species normally found from 1100-1300 m; likely feeding at or near bottom		Several whales/ August-September/ Stomach contents	Ohizumi et al. (2003)
Northern bottlenose whale	Squid of genus *Gonatus* and *Taonius* and occasionally fish and benthic invertebrates	Deep waters >500 m; can dive to >1400 m	Gowans (2002); Kasuya (2002); Clarke and Kristensen (1980); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	Northeast Atlantic (Nova Scotia "Gully")	Most (62-70%, average = 66%) of the time was spent diving (deeper than 40 m); most dives somewhat V-shaped; shallow dives (<400 m) and deep dives (>800 m); whales spent 24-30% (therefore, average of 27%) of dives at 85% maximum depth indicating they feed near the bottom; deepest dive 1453 m; depth distribution taken from info in Table 1	34% at 0-40 m, 39% at 41-800 m, 27% at >800 m	Two whales/ June-August/ Time-depth recorders	Hooker and Baird (1999)
Killer whale	Diet includes fish (salmon, herring, cod, tuna) and cephalopods, as well as other marine mammals (pinnipeds, dolphins, mustelids, whales) and sea birds; most populations show marked dietary specialization	Widely distributed but more commonly seen in coastal temperate waters of high productivity	Ford (2002); Estes et al. (1998); Ford et al. (1998); Saulitis et al. (2000); Baird et al. (2006b)	Feeding	North Pacific (Puget Sound)	Resident-type (fish-eater) whales; maximum dive depth recorded 264 m with maximum depth in study area of 330 m; population appeared to use primarily near-surface waters most likely because prey was available there; some difference between day and night patterns and between males and femalesl depth distribution info from Table 5 in Baird et al. (2003)	96% at 0-30 m; 4% at >30 m	Eight whales/ Summer-fall/ Time-depth recorders	Baird et al. (2005b); Baird et al. (2003)
Killer whale				Feeding	Southwest Atlantic (Brazil)	Small to medium-sized cephalopods, both offshore and coastal		Unknown animals/ unknown/ stomach contents	Santos and Haimovici (2001)
Killer whale				Feeding	North Pacific	Offshore type whales, likely fish eaters based on behavioral observations and stomach content analysis		Several/ Year round/ Observations and stomach contents	Dahlheim et al. (2008)
Pacific white-sided dolphin	Lanternfish, anchovies, hake and squid; also herring, salmon, cod, shrimp and capelin	Mostly pelagic and temperate; may syncrhonize movements with anchovy and other prey	van Waerebeek and Wursig (2002); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	Northeast Pacific (British Columbia inland waters)	Prey collected included herring, capelin, Pacific sardine and possibly eulachon		Unknown/ year round/ dipnet collection of prey	Morton (2000)
Atlantic white-sided dolphin	Herring, small mackerel, gadid fishes, smelts, hake, sand lances, squid; likely change from season to season	Continental shelf and slope from deep oceanic areas to occasionally coastal waters	Cipriano (2002); Clarke (1986)		North Atlantic (Gulf of Maine)	Most (89%) of time spent submerged; most (76%) dives were <1 min duration and none were for longer that 4 minute duration		One animal/ February/ satellite-monitored radio tag	Mate et al. (1994)
Atlantic white-sided dolphin				Feeding	North Atlantic (Ireland)	Most frequent prey were mackerel and silvery pout		Four animals/ year round/ stomach contents	Berrow and Rogan (1996)
White-beaked dolphin	Mesopelagic fish, especially cod, whiting and other gadids, and squid		Kinze (2002); Clarke (1986)	Feeding	North Atlantic (Ireland)	Stomach contained Gadoid fish and scad remains		One animal/ year round/ stomach contents	Berrow and Rogan (1996)
Dall's porpoise	Small schooling and mesopelagic fish and cephalopods	Deep offshore as well as deeper near shore waters; diurnal as well as nocturnal feeders to take advantage of prey availability	Jefferson (2002), Amano et al. (1998); Clarke (1986)	Travelling	North Pacific (Puget Sound)	Feasibility study to determine if Dall's could be successfully tagged with suction cup tag; depth distribution info from Table 2 and excludes initial dive data when animal responded to tag event	39% at <1 m, 8% at 1-10 m, 45% at 11-40 m and 8% at >40 m	One animal/ August/ time-depth recorder	Hanson and Baird (1998)

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PINNIPEDS									
Northern fur seal	Small fish and squid in deep water and along the shelf break; Pacific herring, squid and walleye pollock dominated in the Gulf of Alaska, British Columbia, Washington and Oregon; northern anchovy and squid primary in Oregon, Washington and California	Deep dives occur on the shelf and feeding probably occurs near the bottom	Gentry (2002); Ream et al. (2005)			Maximum dive depth 256 m		Two females/ July/ time-depth recorders	Ponganis et al. (1992)
Northern fur seal				Feeding	North Pacific (Bering Sea)	Mean dive depth 68 m (range 32-150 m); mean maximum depth 168 m (range 86-207 m); two types of dives, shallow (<75 m; mean = 30 m; occur at night) and deep (>75 m; mean = 130 m; occur during day and night); total activity budget during feeding trips was 57% active at surface, 26% diving and 17% resting; depth distribution info from Gentry and others	Daytime: 74% at <2 m, 24% at 2-260 m; night time: 74% at <2 m, 24% at 2-75 m	Seven females/ July/ time-depth recorders	Gentry et al. (1986)
Northern fur seal				Feeding	North Pacific (Bering Sea)	Mean dive depth of 17.5 m, with a maximum depth of 175 m; diving deeper in the daytime than during nighttime, perhaps reflecting the different distribution of prey (especially juvenile pollock) that undertake night time vertical migrations, and also differed between inner-shelf, mid-shelf, outer-shelf and off-shelf locations; deeper diving tended to occur on-shelf, with shallower diving off-shelf.		19 juvenile males/ July-September/ satellite transmitters	Sterling and Ream (2004)
Northern fur seal				Feeding	North Pacific (Bering Sea to California)	Higher dive rates during night time hours compared with daytime; variation in mean dive depth between migratory travelling and destination area (eastern North Pacific coast) where mean dive depth was <25 m; night time mean dive depths were greater during full moon than during new moon		Three females/ November-May/ satellite transmitters	Ream et al. (2005)
Northern fur seal				Feeding	North Pacific (Bering Sea)	Activity budgets of lactating females of 44% locomoting, 23% diving and 33% resting at the surface		Four females/ August/ platform terminal transmitters	Insley et al. (2008)
Northern fur seal				Migrating	North Pacific (Bering Sea to Gulf of Alaska)	Diving behavior consistent regardless of habitat (pelagic or continental shelf); diving largely at night and in evening and morning with little diving during day suggesting feeding on vertically migrating prey	71% at <2 m, 14% at 2-5 m, 5% at 6-10 m, 6% at 11-25 m and 3% at 26-50 m	20 post-weaning pups/ November-May/ satellite-linked time-depth recorders	Baker (2007)

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Steller sea lion	Fish, including walleye pollock, Pacific herring, sand lance, salmon, flounder, rockfish and cephalopods	Diets and feeding patterns change with seasons; population levels are related to prey with increasing populations correlated with diverse diets and decreasing populations correlated with diets of primarily one prey item; females feed mostly at night during breeding season; feeding occurs throughout the day during non-breeding season	Trites et al. (2007); Loughlin (2002); Merrick et al. (1994)	Feeding	North Pacific (southeast Alaska)	Characterized by relatively brief trips to sea that represent about on-half of total time, and by fairly frequent, short and shallow dives that occur mostly at night. Maximum depth recorded was 424 m; mean depth was 26.4 m, and 49% of all dives were <10 m.		13 females/ May-June, January/ satellite-linked time-depth recorders	Swain (1996)
Steller sea lion				Feeding	North Pacific (Gulf of Alaska)	Adult females forage close to land in summer (<20 km) and make brief trips (<2 days) and shallow dives (<30 m); in winter, divers are longer in distance (up to 300 km), time (up to several months) and deeper (>250 m), Average dive depth of 36.5 and 42.9 m		Two females/ unknown/ satellite-linked time-depth recorder	Merrick et al. (1994)
Steller sea lion					North Pacific (Gulf of Alaska)	Adult females capable of foraging throughout GOA and Bering Sea, while young-of-year have smaller ranges and shallower dives; females in winter dove deepest (median 24 m, maximum >250 m, while young-of-year were shallowest (median 9 m, max 72 m); depth distribution taken from Figure 4 and represent averaging of all age/season classes	60% at 0-10 m, 22% at 11-20 m, 12% at 21-50 m, 5% at 51-100 m and 1% at >100 m.	15 animals/ June-July, November-March/ satellite-linked time-depth recorders and VHF transmitters	Merrick and Loughlin (1997)
Steller sea lion					North Pacific (Gulf of Alaska)	Young of year dove for shorter periods and shallower depths than yearlings; maximum dive depth was 288 m; long-range transits began at >10 months of age; depth distribution taken from Figure 2	78% in 0-10 m, 13% in 11-20 m, 7% in 21-50 m, and 2% in > 51 m	18 animals/ October-June/ satellite-linked time-depth recorders	Loughlin et al. (2003)
Steller sea lion					North Pacific (Washington)	Maximum dive depth was 328 m; depth distribution taken from Figure 2	28% in 0-10 m, 30% in 11-20 m, 18% in 21-50 m, 14% in 51-100 m and 10% in >100 m	Seven animals/ October-June/ satellite-linked time-depth recorders	Loughlin et al. (2003)
Steller sea lion					North Pacific (Gulf of Alaska)	Juveniles from western Alaska rookeries left on foraging trips at dusk and returned at dawn (taking advantage of polluck that vertically migrates and hauling out during the day), while juveniles from eastern Alaska rookeries left on foraging trips throughout the day and night, likely feeding on prey other than vertical migrants		129 animals/ August-November, January-May/ satellite dive recorders	Call et al. 2007)
Steller sea lion					North Pacific (Gulf of Alaska)	Round trip distance and duration of pups and juveniles increased with age, trip distance was greater for western rookeries than for eastern rookeries, trip duration was greater for females than males; 90% of trips were <=15 km from haul-outs; dispersals >500 km were undertaken only by males although dispersals of >120 km were common.		103 animals/ year round/ satellite dive recorders	Raum-Suryan et al. (2004)

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Northern elephant seal	Feed on deep-water squid and fish, and likely spend about 80% of their annual cycle at sea feeding; feed in meso-pelagic zone on vertically migrating squid	Deeper waters (>1000 m); males farther north than females	Hindell (2002); Stewart and DeLong (1993; 1995); LeBoeuf et al. (1988); Asaga et al. (1994); LeBoeuf (1994)	Feeding	North Pacific	Dive continuously for 8-10 months/year; dispersion and migratory patterns related to oceanographic features and areas of biological productivity; primarily squid eaters; males travel farther than females; females submerged 91% and males submerged 88% of time at sea; dive continuously; average depth for females was 479 m (post-moult) and 518 m (post-breeding) and for males 364 m (post-breeding) and 366 m (post-moult)		36 adults (both sexes)/ February-August/ dive and location recorders	Stewart and Delong (1993)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	seals use same foraging areas during post-breeding and post-moulting periods; sexes are segregated geographically		36 adults (both sexes)/ January-February; May; July/ geographic location time depth recorders	Stewart and DeLong (1995)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	little time at depths <200 m or >800 m; post-breeding migration is directed northward and quick until feeding areas are obtained; dives in transit are shallower than those on foraging grounds		14 adults (both sexes)/ February-July/ geographic location time depth recorders	Stewart and DeLong (1994)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Sea surface temperature appears to influence female forage area choice; foraging occurred in near shore areas of Gulf of Alaska, offshore Gulf of Alaska, near shore off Washington and Oregon and offshore between 40 and 50 N		12 adult females/ year round/ time depth recorders	Simmins et al. (2007)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Post-lactation monitoring; 86% of time at-sea spent submerged; maximum dive of 894 m, but dives >700 m were rare; modal dive depths between 350 and 650 m; continuous deep diving while at-sea; night dives were more numerous, shallower and of shorter duration; most dives types D (deep and u-shaped)		Seven adult females/ February-March/ time-depth recorders	LeBoeuf et al. (1988)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Mean depth of dive 333 m; maximum dive 630 m; 6% of all dives <200 m		One adult female/ February/ time-depth recorder	LeBoeuf et al. (1986)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Differences in foraging locations and behavior between males and females; females exhibited pelagic diving with varying dive depths depending on prey location in deep scattering layer; males exhibited pelagic diving as well as flat-bottom benthic dives near continental margins; males migrated to northern Gulf of Alaska and eastern Aleutians with females distributed west to 150 W between 44 and 52 N		32 adults (both sexes)/ March-July/ radio-telemetry	LeBoeuf et al. (1993)
Northern elephant seal				Transiting	North Pacific	90% of time submerged; mean depth 289 m; directed swimming even while submerged used prolonged gliding during dive descents which reduces cost of transport and can increase the duration of the dive		One adult female/ April/ video and satellite telemetry	Davis et al. (2001)

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Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Type D (foraging) dives account for 75-80% of all dives; type A (transit dives) rarely occurred in series; type C dives were shallowest; depth distribution information from table 17.3, type D dives which are foraging dives as they are the most common	9% at <2 m, 11% at 2-100 m, 11% at 101-200 m, 11% at 201-300 m, 11% at 301-400 m, 11% at 401-500 m and 36% at >500 m.	Two adult females/ February-May/ time-depth recorders	Asaga et al. (1994)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Transit dives in males cover large horizontal distances and are shallower than pelagic dive depths; transit dives in females and juveniles are both for transiting and search for prey patches; foraging dives have steeper angles than transit dives in females, but angles are not noticeably different in juveniles; swim speeds were similar across age and sex		16 animals (various ages)/ April-May/ time-depth recorders and platform terminal transmitters	Hassrick et al. (2007)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding	North Pacific	Males feed primarily from coastal Oregon to western Aleutian Islands, along continental margin and feed primarily on benthic organisms, migration is direct to forage areas across Pacific; females have wider foraging area from 38-60 N and from the coast to 172 E, and forage on pelagic prey in the water column, migration is more variable to take advantage of prey patches		47 adults (both sexes)/ March-June, September-December/ time-depth swim speed recorders	LeBoeuf et al. (2000)
Northern elephant seal				Feeding, Transiting	North Pacific	Different types of dives serve three general functions: type AB dives are transit dives (covering great horizontal distance and with shallow ascent and descent angles); type C dives are "processing" dives for internal processes such as digestions (slower swimming speed and short horizontal distance; type DE dives are foraging (both chasing prey pelagically and benthic foraging)		unknown	Crocker et al. (1994)