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Atlantic spotted dolphin – *Stenella frontalis*

Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella frontalis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.7	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.7	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	1.9	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.5	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.3	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	1.0	
	Migration	3.6	2.3	
	Home Range	2.1	1.7	
	Stock Abundance	1.3	2.3	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.3	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.3	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Circulation	2.7	2.3	
	Sea level rise	2.6	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Atlantic spotted dolphin (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Stenella frontalis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (80% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.60) and Habitat Specificity (2.67)

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Atlantic spotted dolphin Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico have been observed feeding on clupeid fishes (order Clupeiformes; Fertl and Würsig 1995). They have also been observed feeding in the vicinity of shrimp trawlers (Fertl and Leatherwood 1997).

Prey and diet information for Atlantic spotted dolphins in the western North Atlantic was found only in the Bahamas, where Atlantic spotted dolphins have been well-studied since the 1980's. In the Bahamas, lizardfish (order Aulopiformes, family Synodontidae) constituted >30% of female Atlantic spotted dolphin diet during all reproductive states. Other major components of the diet included fish in the orders Beloniformes (halfbeaks [family Hemiramphidae], flyingfish [family Exocoetidae], needlefish [family Belonidae]), Anguilliformes (small eels [family Congridae]), Pleuronectiformes (flounders [family Bothidae]), Perciformes (jacks [family Carangidae], mackerel [family Scombridae], and tilefish [family Malacanthidae]), Labriformes (razorfish [family Labridae]), and Tetradontiformes (filefish [family Monacanthidae]) (Malinowski and Herzing 2015). Atlantic spotted dolphins have been observed chasing and catching flying fish (order Beloniformes) in the Bahamas (MacLeod et al. 2004).

Analysis of stomach contents of two Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Canary Islands showed the presence of cephalopods of the order Oegopsida (genera *Hisitiotheuthis* and *Enoplateuthis*) and crustaceans of the infraclass Cirripedia (Fernandez et al. 2009).

In Brazil, four studies combined for stomach content analysis of 26 individuals (Di Beneditto et al. 2001; Melo et al. 2010; Lopes et al. 2012). These studies listed a total of six cephalopod species and 18 fish species as prey items of Atlantic spotted dolphin. Melo et al. (2010) reported *Porichthys porosissimus* (order Batrachoidiformes) as the main fish species found in 10 stomachs of stranded dolphins. Di Beneditto et al. (2001) reported *Orthopristis ruber* (order Perciformes) as the main fish species found in six incidentally captured dolphins. Both studies reported the squid *Doryteuthis plei* (order Myopsida) was the most important cephalopod prey. Based on stomach content analysis of nine *S. frontalis* incidentally caught in fishing operations in southeastern Brazil, dolphins assessed preyed on at least eight different fish species of the order Perciformes (families Trichiuridae, Carangidae, Sparidae, Sciaenidae, and Scombridae), order Gadiformes (family Merluccidae), Order Clupeiformes (family Engraulidae), Order Anguilliformes (family Congridae), order Myopsida (family Loliginidae), order Sepiida (family Sepiolidae), order Octopoda (family Tremoctopodidae), and order Oegopsida (family Thysanoteuthidae), and order Decapoda (family Penaeidae; Lopes et al. 2012). Lopes et al. (2012) found *Trichiurus lepturus* was the most important fish species represented and *Doryteuthis plei* was the most represented cephalopod species.

Habitat Specificity

The larger coastal ecotype of Atlantic spotted dolphin inhabits the continental shelf and is usually found inside or near the 200m isobath, usually at least 8 to 20 km offshore (Perrin et al. 1987, 1994; Davis et al. 1998; Rice 1998; Herzing and Perrin 2018). The smaller island and offshore ecotype is known to occur in the Atlantic Ocean but not in the Gulf of Mexico (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004).

Atlantic spotted dolphins are often sighted beyond the shelf break in the Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico, and off the Atlantic U.S. coast (Mills and Rademacher 1996; Roden and Mullin 2000; Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin et al. 2004).

In the Gulf of Mexico, Atlantic spotted dolphins occur primarily in continental shelf waters 10-200m deep and slope waters <500m deep, though a difference is seen between the eastern and western Gulf of Mexico (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Griffin and Griffin (2003) noted a primary depth range of 20-50m in the eastern Gulf of Mexico. Mullin et al. (2004) found that Atlantic spotted dolphins were sighted in waters with a bottom depth typically <300 m. A single satellite-tagged Atlantic spotted dolphin released in the Gulf of Mexico was found to prefer shallow-water habitat (<30 m in depth; Davis et al. 1996).

Off Brazil, Atlantic spotted dolphins are seen in waters less than 1000m in depth (Moreno et al. 2005).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Atlantic spotted dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Herzing (1997) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin mean calving interval of 2.96 years ($SD = 1.224$) with a range of 1-5 years in Lower Bahama Bank.

In the Bahamas, Herzing (1997) estimated age at sexual maturation for females at 8 to 15 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 31 years based on values reported by Herzing (1997) and Perrin et al. (1994).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin generation length of 18.6 years at $r = 0.01$ and 18.3 years at $r = 0.0$ based on data from the Bahamas (Herzing 1997).

Reproductive Plasticity

Herzing (1997) reported peak calving periods in early spring and late fall for Atlantic spotted dolphin on Lower Bahama Bank.

Information regarding specific breeding locations and habitat was not found in the literature.

Malinowski and Herzing (2015) found that pregnant and lactating females had lower nutritional intake than non-reproductively active females in Lower Bahama Bank.

Migration

In the Gulf of Mexico, Griffin and Griffin (2004) reported higher densities of Atlantic spotted dolphin on the west Florida continental shelf during November through May compared to June through October. Griffin et al. (2005) suggested that Atlantic spotted dolphins more often feed over the continental shelf in winter than summer. High numbers of resighted individuals in Lower Bahama Bank in successive years suggest a stable resident population of Atlantic spotted dolphins (Herzing 1997).

Home Range

Information about Atlantic spotted dolphin home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Elsewhere, groups have shifted home ranges, such as in 2013 when half of the Little Bahama Bank Atlantic spotted dolphin community relocated 161 km south to Great Bahama Bank, which is home to a separate community of resident spotted dolphins (Herzing et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

The abundance is estimated at 21,506 individuals (CV=0.26) based on the combined estimate of abundance from 2017 continental shelf aerial surveys and 2017–2018 vessel surveys in oceanic waters (Garrison et al. 2020; Garrison et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022). Previously, the stock was estimated at 37,611 individuals (CV=0.28) based on the combined estimate of abundance for both the outer continental shelf (fall surveys, 2000–2001) and oceanic waters (spring and summer surveys, 2003–2004; Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Three point estimates of Atlantic spotted dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2009 (1,161; CV=1.021), 2017 (3,267; CV=0.52), and 2018 (8,178; CV=0.55). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and found significant differences between the 2009 and 2018 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico interact with pelagic longline and shrimp trawl fisheries (Hayes et al. 2022). During the period 2015–2019, an estimated 36 Atlantic spotted dolphins (CV=0.47) were killed by interactions with the shrimp otter trawl fishery in the Gulf of Mexico (when all unidentified marine mammal interactions with the fishery were assumed to be Atlantic spotted dolphins; Soldevilla et al. 2021). Atlantic spotted dolphins are known to strand within the Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2022; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

The Atlantic spotted dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015). Atlantic spotted dolphins have also been included in UMEs in 1999–2000 and 2005–2006 due to brevetoxin (Twiner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannucci et al. (2017).

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Atlantic spotted dolphin – *Stenella frontalis*

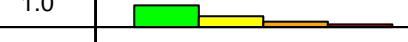
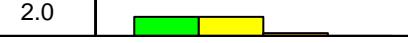
Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 70% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella frontalis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	2.4	1.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.5	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.3	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.7	1.0	
	Migration	3.4	2.0	
	Home Range	2.7	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.5	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.6	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.9	1.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.7	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.3	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.3	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.3	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.6	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.7	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.3	1.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.3	1.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.5	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.9	2.0	
	Circulation	2.9	1.0	
	Sea level rise	1.6	2.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Atlantic spotted dolphin (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Stenella frontalis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (51% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.53), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.40), Cumulative Stressors (2.93), Home Range (2.73), Species Abundance Trend (2.60), and Lifetime Reproductive Potential (2.53).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 70% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands Atlantic spotted dolphin stock includes individuals that are found in the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone surrounding Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Waring et al. 2012). It is considered a separate stock for management purposes, but no information exists to differentiate this stock from the western North Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico stocks (Waring et al. 2012).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Prey and diet information for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the western North Atlantic was found only in the Bahamas, where Atlantic spotted dolphin has been well-studied since the 1980's. In the Bahamas, lizardfish (order Aulopiformes, family Synodontidae) constituted >30% of female Atlantic spotted dolphin diet during all reproductive states. Other major components of the diet include fish in the orders Beloniformes (halfbeaks [family Hemiramphidae], flying fish [family Exocoetidae], needlefish [family Belonidae]), Anguilliformes (small eels [family Congridae]), Pleuronectiformes (flounders [family Bothidae]), Perciformes (jacks [family Carangidae], mackerel [family Scombridae], and tilefish [family Malacanthidae]), Labriformes (razorfish [family Labridae]), and Tetradontiformes (filefish [family Monacanthidae]; Malinowski and Herzing 2015). Atlantic spotted dolphins have been observed chasing and catching flying fish (order Beloniformes) in the Bahamas (MacLeod et al. 2004).

Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico have been observed feeding on clupeid fishes (order Clupeiformes; Fertl and Würsig 1995). They have also been observed feeding in the vicinity of shrimp trawlers (Fertl and Leatherwood 1997).

Stomach contents of three Atlantic spotted dolphins that stranded in Puerto Rico consisted of squid beaks from *Illex sp.* (Mignucci-Giannoni 1996). Atlantic spotted dolphins off Puerto Rico have been observed feeding on flying fish (Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2018).

Analysis of stomach contents of two Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Canary Islands showed the presence of cephalopods of the order Oegopsida (genera *Hisitiotheuthis* and *Enoplateuthis*) and crustaceans of the infraclass Cirripedia (Fernandez et al. 2009).

In Brazil, four studies provided stomach content analyses of 26 individuals (Di Benedutto et al. 2001; Melo et al. 2010; Lopes et al. 2012). These studies listed a total of six cephalopod species and 18 fish species as prey items of Atlantic spotted dolphins. Melo et al. (2010) reported *Porichthys porosissimus* (order Batrachoidiformes) as the main fish species found in 10 stomachs of stranded dolphins. Di Benedutto et al. (2001) reported *Orthopristis ruber* (order Perciformes) as the main fish species found in six incidentally captured dolphins. Both of these studies reported that the squid *Doryteuthis plei* (order Myopsida) was the primary cephalopod prey found. Based on stomach content analyses of nine Atlantic spotted dolphins incidentally caught in fishing operations in southeastern Brazil, the dolphins preyed on at least eight different fish species of the order Perciformes (families Trichiuridae, Carangidae, Sparidae, Sciaenidae, and Scombridae), order Gadiformes (family Merluccidae), order Clupeiformes (family Engraulidae), order Anguilliformes (family Congridae), order Myopsida (family Loliginidae), order Sepiida (family Sepiolidae), order Octopoda (family Tremoctopodidae), order Oegopsida (family Thysanoteuthidae), and order Decapoda (family Penaeidae; Lopes et al. 2012). Lopes et al. (2012) found that *Trichiurus lepturus* was the primary fish species represented, and *Doryteuthis plei* was the most represented cephalopod species.

Habitat Specificity

Atlantic spotted dolphins occupy both continental shelf and offshore habitats.

The larger coastal ecotype of Atlantic spotted dolphin inhabits the continental shelf and is usually found inside or near the 200m isobath, usually at least 8 to 20 km offshore (Perrin et al. 1987, 1994; Davis et al. 1998; Rice 1998; Herzing and Perrin 2018). The smaller island and offshore ecotype is known to occur in the Atlantic Ocean but not in the Gulf of Mexico (Perrin et al. 1987; Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Adams and Rosel 2006).

In the Gulf of Mexico, Atlantic spotted dolphins occur primarily in continental shelf waters 10-200m deep and slope waters <500m deep, though a difference is seen between the eastern and western Gulf of Mexico (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Griffin and Griffin (2003) noted a primary depth range of 20-50m in the eastern Gulf of Mexico. Mullin et al. (2004) found that Atlantic spotted dolphins were sighted in waters with a bottom depth typically <300 m. A single

satellite-tagged Atlantic spotted dolphin released in the Gulf of Mexico was found to prefer shallow-water habitat (<30 m in depth; Davis et al. 1996).

In the Caribbean, Atlantic spotted dolphins are mostly sighted along shelf areas of low sea floor relief or the shelf edge and rarely occur offshore (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2018).

Off Brazil, Atlantic spotted dolphins are seen in waters less than 1000m in depth (Moreno et al. 2005).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Atlantic spotted dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Herzing (1997) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin mean calving interval of 2.96 years ($SD = 1.224$) with a range of 1-5 years in Lower Bahama Bank.

In the Bahamas, Herzing (1997) estimated age at sexual maturation for females at 8 to 15 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 31 years based on values reported by Herzing (1997) and Perrin et al. (1994).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin generation length of 18.6 years at $r = 0.01$ and 18.3 years at $r = 0.0$ based on data from the Bahamas (Herzing 1997).

Reproductive Plasticity

Herzing (1997) reported peak calving periods in early spring and late fall for Atlantic spotted dolphins on Lower Bahama Bank.

Information regarding specific breeding locations and habitat was not found in the literature.

Malinowski and Herzing (2015) found that pregnant and lactating females had lower nutritional intake than non-reproductively active females in Lower Bahama Bank.

Migration

High numbers of resighted individuals in Lower Bahama Bank in successive years suggest a stable resident population of Atlantic spotted dolphins (Herzing 1997). In the Gulf of Mexico, Griffin and Griffin (2004) reported higher densities of Atlantic spotted dolphins on the west Florida continental shelf during November through May compared to June through October. Griffin et al. (2005) suggested that Atlantic spotted dolphins more often feed over the continental shelf in winter than summer.

Off Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, inshore-offshore seasonal movement is suspected. Atlantic spotted dolphin occurrence peaks in August and January and February (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998). There

may be a year-round occurrence of Atlantic spotted dolphins off Puerto Rico (Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2018).

Home Range

Information about Atlantic spotted dolphin home range in Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands waters was not found in the literature.

Elsewhere, groups have moved home ranges, such as in 2013 when half of the Little Bahama Bank Atlantic spotted dolphin community relocated 161 km south to Great Bahama Bank, which is home to a separate community of resident spotted dolphins (Herzing et al 2017).

Stock Abundance

The current abundance for the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock of Atlantic spotted dolphins is unknown. Several line-transect surveys have been conducted in this area; however, due to few sightings and limitations of the survey vessel, it has not been possible to estimate abundance from these surveys (Waring et al. 2012).

During January-March 1995, a line-transect survey was conducted in deep waters surrounding the Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico that sighted 6 sightings of Atlantic spotted dolphins in U.S. waters (Roden and Mullin 2000; Waring et al. 2012). During February-March 2000, a line-transect survey was conducted in the eastern and southern Caribbean Sea that sighted one Atlantic spotted dolphin (Swartz and Burks 2000; Waring et al. 2012). During February-March 2001, during a line-transect survey in the eastern Bahamas, eastern Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands, 10 Atlantic spotted dolphins were sighted in U.S. waters (Swartz et al. 2002; Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2012).

Cumulative Stressors

The Atlantic spotted dolphin has been taken and is still being taken in dolphin fisheries in the southern and eastern Caribbean (e.g., Caldwell et al. 1971; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Price 1985; Reeves 1988; Romero et al. 2001; Hoyt and Hvenegaard 2002; Mohammed et al. 2003; Vail 2005; World Council of Whalers 2008).

The Atlantic spotted dolphin may interact with gillnet and longline fisheries (Perrin et al. 1994). However, during the period 2001–2019, no fishing-related mortality or serious injury of Atlantic spotted dolphin was reported in Puerto Rico or the U.S. Virgin Islands waters (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b, 2021; Waring et al. 2012). This may represent an underestimation because there was no observer coverage within the Caribbean region for six of those years (Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012b, 2013, 2016).

Legacy impacts on Atlantic spotted dolphins from naval operations at Roosevelt Roads in Puerto Rico that ceased in 2004 are unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Coastal pollution may be an issue for the Atlantic spotted dolphin Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock. Parts of Vieques Island, Puerto Rico are listed on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Superfund National Priorities List due to unexploded ordnance and associated hazardous materials (Whitall et al. 2016; EPA 2018).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Atlantic spotted dolphins in Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Island waters are presented by Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Atlantic spotted dolphin – *Stenella frontalis*

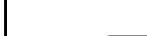
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella frontalis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.2	2.0	 
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.0	  
	Site Fidelity	2.0	2.0	 
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.9	2.7	 
	Generation Length	1.9	2.0	 
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.0	2.0	
	Migration	3.3	1.7	  
	Home Range	2.2	1.7	  
	Stock Abundance	1.0	3.0	 
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	1.3	 
	Cumulative Stressors	1.3	1.7	 
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.3	  
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.0	2.7	 
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.3	 
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.3	2.3	 
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.3	2.7	  
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.7	  
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	 
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	2.3	 
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	  
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.3	 
	Circulation	2.1	2.7	 
	Sea level rise	1.3	2.7	 
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Atlantic spotted dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Stenella frontalis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (49% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.53), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.33).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Atlantic spotted dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Prey and diet information for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the western North Atlantic was found only in the Bahamas, where Atlantic spotted dolphins have been well-studied since the 1980s. In the Bahamas, lizardfish (order Aulopiformes, family Synodontidae) constituted >30% of female Atlantic spotted dolphin diet during all reproductive states. Other major components of the diet included fish in the orders Beloniformes (halfbeaks [family Hemiramphidae], flyingfish [family Exocoetidae], needlefish [family Belonidae]), Anguilliformes (small eels [family Congridae]), Pleuronectiformes (flounders [family Bothidae]), Perciformes (jacks [family Carangidae], mackerel [family Scombridae], and tilefish [family Malacanthidae]), Labriformes (razorfish [family Labridae]), and Tetradontiformes (filefish [family Monacanthidae]; Malinowski and Herzing 2015). Atlantic spotted dolphins have been observed chasing and catching flying fish (order Beloniformes) in the Bahamas (MacLeod et al. 2004).

Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico have been observed feeding on clupeid fishes (order Clupeiformes; Fertl and Würsig 1995). They have also been observed feeding in the vicinity of shrimp trawlers (Fertl and Leatherwood 1997).

Analysis of stomach contents of two Atlantic spotted dolphins in the Canary Islands showed the presence of cephalopods of the order Oegopsida (genera *Hisitiotheuthis* and *Enoplateuthis*) and crustaceans of the infraclass Cirripedia (Fernandez et al. 2009).

In Brazil, four studies combined for stomach content analysis of 26 individuals (Di Beneditto et al. 2001; Melo et al. 2010; Lopes et al. 2012). These studies listed a total of six cephalopod species and 18 fish species as prey items of Atlantic spotted dolphins. Melo et al. (2010) reported *Porichthys porosissimus* (order Batrachoidiformes) as the main fish species found in 10 stomachs of stranded dolphins. Di Beneditto et al. (2001) reported *Orthopristis ruber* (order Perciformes) as the main fish species found in six incidentally captured dolphins. Both studies reported the squid *Doryteuthis plei* (order Myopsida) was the most important cephalopod prey. Based on stomach content analysis of nine Atlantic spotted dolphins incidentally caught in fishing operations in southeastern Brazil, dolphins assessed preyed on at least eight different fish species of the order Perciformes (families Trichiuridae, Carangidae, Sparidae, Sciaenidae, and Scombridae), order Gadiformes (family Merluccidae), Order Clupeiformes (family Engraulidae), Order Anguilliformes (family Congridae), order Myopsida (family Loliginidae), order Sepiida (family Sepiolidae), order Octopoda (family Tremoctopodidae), and order Oegopsida (family Thysanoteuthidae), and and order Decapoda (family Penaeidae; Lopes et al. 2012). Lopes et al. (2012) found *Trichiurus lepturus* was the most important fish species represented and *Doryteuthis plei* was the most represented cephalopod species.

Habitat Specificity

The larger coastal ecotype of Atlantic spotted dolphin inhabits waters over the continental shelf and is usually found inside the 200m isobath, usually at least 8 to 20 km offshore (Perrin et al. 1987, 1994; Davis et al. 1998; Rice 1998; Herzing and Perrin 2018). The smaller island and offshore ecotype is known to occur in the Atlantic Ocean but not in the Gulf of Mexico (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; (Viricel and Rosel 2014). Although the two ecotypes are currently considered a single stock, genetic and morphometric evidence suggests they are on distinct evolutionary trajectories and could be considered distinct subspecies (Viricel and Rosel 2014).

Atlantic spotted dolphins are often sighted beyond the shelf break in the Caribbean, and off the Atlantic U.S. coast (Mills and Rademacher 1996; Roden and Mullin 2000; Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin et al. 2004).

In the Gulf of Mexico, Atlantic spotted dolphin occurs primarily in continental shelf waters 10-200m deep and slope waters <500m deep, though a difference is seen between the eastern and western Gulf of Mexico (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Griffin and Griffin (2003) noted a primary depth range of 20-50m in the eastern Gulf of Mexico. Mullin et al. (2004) found that Atlantic spotted dolphins were sighted in waters with a bottom depth typically <300 m. A single satellite-tagged Atlantic spotted dolphin released in the Gulf of Mexico was found to prefer shallow-water habitat (<30 m in depth; Davis et al. 1996).

Off Brazil, Atlantic spotted dolphins are seen in waters less than 1000m in depth (Moreno et al. 2005).

The Atlantic spotted dolphin, which is endemic to the warm-temperate, subtropical, and tropical Atlantic Ocean, occurs in two forms which vary in size and degree of spotting (Perrin et al. 1987; Perrin 2001; Adams and Rosel 2006). First, there is a large, heavily spotted form which inhabits continental

shelf waters generally inside or near the 200m isobath in the western North Atlantic in the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean (e.g., Perrin et al. 1987; Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Viricel and Rosel 2014), and second, a smaller, less spotted island and offshore form which occurs in pelagic waters of the the Atlantic Ocean and Caribbean Sea (Perrin et al. 1987; Adams and Rosel 2006). Future study may result in the different forms being made distinct subspecies (Rice 1998).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Atlantic spotted dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Herzing (1997) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin mean calving interval of 2.96 years ($SD = 1.224$) with a range of 1-5 years in Lower Bahama Bank.

In the Bahamas, Herzing (1997) estimated age at sexual maturation for females at 8 to 15 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 31 years based on values reported by Herzing (1997) and Perrin et al. (1994).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic spotted dolphin generation length of 18.6 years at $r = 0.01$ and 18.3 years at $r = 0.0$ based on data from the Bahamas (Herzing 1997).

Reproductive Plasticity

Herzing (1997) reported peak calving periods in early spring and late fall for Atlantic spotted dolphins on Lower Bahama Bank.

Information regarding specific breeding locations and habitat was not found in the literature.

Malinowski and Herzing (2015) found that pregnant and lactating females had lower nutritional intake than non-reproductively active females in Lower Bahama Bank.

Migration

On Little Bahama Bank, sympatric communities of resident Atlantic spotted dolphins with stable size and social structure coexist with little immigration/emigration (Herzing 1997; Herzing et al. 2017). U.S. Navy assessments of Operating Areas suggested Atlantic spotted dolphins should be expected in the southern Navy Operating Areas in all seasons (DoN 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c), and in the Northeast Operating Areas during the spring, summer, and fall, with greatest occurrence occurring during the summer (DoN 2005).

Home Range

In the Bahamas, groups have moved home ranges, such as in 2013 when half of the Little Bahama Bank Atlantic spotted dolphin community relocated 161 km south to Great Bahama Bank, which is home to a separate community of resident Atlantic spotted dolphins (Herzing et al. 2017).

Information about Atlantic spotted dolphin home range in other areas was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

Garrison (2020) and Palka (2020) estimated Atlantic spotted dolphin abundance in the western North Atlantic at 39,921 individuals (CV=0.27) based on 2016 surveys.

Stock Abundance Trend

A statistically significant linear decrease was detected in Atlantic spotted dolphin abundance using a generalized linear model and data from 2016, 2011, and 2004 (Hayes et al. 2020). Atlantic spotted dolphin abundance in the western North Atlantic was estimated at 44,715 individuals (CV=0.43), based on summer 2011 surveys covering waters from central Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Waring et al. 2014). The best 2004 abundance estimate for Atlantic spotted dolphins in the western North Atlantic was 50,978 individuals (CV=0.42), based on two 2004 surveys, one from the northern U.S. Atlantic and one from the southern U.S. Atlantic. (Waring et al. 2006).

Cumulative Stressors

The Atlantic spotted dolphin in the western North Atlantic may interact with gillnet and longline fisheries (Perrin et al. 1994). However, in the 2015–2019 time period, no fishery-induced mortality was reported (Garrison and Stokes 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b, 2021). Atlantic spotted dolphins are known to strand along the Atlantic coast, with 21 individuals reported stranded between North Carolina and Florida during the period 2013–2017 (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database as cited by Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Atlantic white-sided dolphin – *Lagenorhynchus acutus*

Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Lagenorhynchus acutus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.7	3.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.1	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	1.7	1.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.9	2.7	
	Generation Length	1.7	1.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.3	
	Migration	2.4	2.7	
	Home Range	1.8	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.2	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.7	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	1.6	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.7	2.3	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.4	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.9	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.4	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.3	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Circulation	2.1	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.3	2.7	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Atlantic white-sided dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Lagenorhynchus acutus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (98% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored 3.0 or greater: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.33), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Atlantic white-sided dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2022). This stock may consist of three separate units in the Gulf of Maine, Gulf of St. Lawrence and Labrador Sea stocks (Palka et al. 1997).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Stomach-content analysis indicates white-sided dolphins in U.S. waters consume silver hake (*Merluccius bilinearis*), spoonarm octopus (*Bathypolypus bairdii*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*), gadid fishes (codfish and their relatives), sand lances, and several types of squid (Reeves et al. 1999; Craddock et al. 2009). Diet varies by season.

Habitat Specificity

White-sided dolphins are found in temperate and sub-polar waters of the North Atlantic, primarily in continental shelf waters to the 100-m depth contour (Hayes et al. 2022).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Atlantic white-sided dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic white-sided dolphin interbirth interval of 2.5 years, though some individuals may breed annually (Sergeant et al. 1980). Taylor et al. (2007) reported Atlantic white-sided dolphin age at first reproduction of 10 years and age at last reproduction of 27 and 32 (estimated) years based on information presented by Sergeant et al. (1980).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 15.5 years (at $r = 0.01$) and 15.8 years (at $r = 0.0$) based on information presented by Sergeant et al. (1980).

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving occurs from May to early August, with a peak in June and July (Weinrich et al. 2001; Hayes et al. 2022).

Migration

Seasonal shifts in distribution have been suggested, with low numbers observed in the region between Georges Bank and the Gulf of Maine from January to May, high numbers from June through September, and intermediate densities from October through December (Payne and Heinemann 1990; Northridge et al. 1997).

Home Range

Information regarding Atlantic white-sided dolphin home range was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

Palka (2020) estimated the abundance of the western North Atlantic stock at 93,233 individuals (CV= 0.61), based on summer 2016 surveys from central Virginia to Labrador. Previously, an estimate based on June–August 2011 survey data from central Virginia to the lower Bay of Fundy suggested the population was 48,819 individuals (CV= 0.61; Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock.

Cumulative Stressors

Atlantic white-sided dolphins interact with fisheries in the western North Atlantic. During the period 2013–2017, annual bycatch in the bottom trawl fishery was estimated at 21.36 individuals (CV = 0.21) in the Northeast and 1.93 (CV = 0.94) in the Mid-Atlantic (Lyssikatos et al. 2020). Total annual estimated average fishery-related mortality or serious injury to this stock during 2013–2017 was 26 individuals (CV=0.2; Hayes et al. 2020). During 2013–2017, 123 Atlantic white-sided dolphins stranded on the U.S. and Canadian Atlantic coasts (Hayes et al. 2020). Human interaction was indicated in 5 records during this period, with one classified as a fishery interaction. Mass strandings are common for this species

(Hayes et al. 2020). Based on strandings in Massachusetts between 2000 and 2006, more than two thirds of white-sided dolphins strandings were of unknown cause and 21% were disease-related (Bogomolni et al. 2010). Strandings also occur along Canadian shorelines (Ledwell and Huntington 2010, 2011, 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2014).

Density Models

Density model results for Atlantic white-sided dolphin in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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Blainville's beaked whale – *Mesoplodon densirostris*
 Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 37% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	1.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.1	1.7	
	Site Fidelity	3.1	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.7	0.7	
	Generation Length	2.3	1.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.7	0.7	
	Migration	2.9	2.0	
	Home Range	2.7	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.3	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	0.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	1.7	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.3	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	2.3	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.1	1.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	1.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.2	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.3	1.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.4	1.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	1.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.3	1.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	1.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.1	2.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	2.0	
	Circulation	2.2	1.3	
	Sea level rise	2.1	2.0	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Blainville's beaked whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Mesoplodon densirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (41% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Five exposure factors scored 3.0 or greater: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.53), Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.40), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.33), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.07), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Site Fidelity (3.13), Migration (2.93), Home Range (2.73), Lifetime Reproductive Potential (2.73), and Species Abundance Trend (2.53).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 37% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 18% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Blainville's beaked whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Stomach content analysis of stranded Blainville's beaked whales from multiple geographic locations suggests that Blainville's beaked whale diet consists mainly of cephalopods and fish (Ross 1979; Aguilar et al. 1982; Santos et al. 2007).

Habitat Specificity

Little is known about beaked whale habitat preferences, but Blainville's beaked whales occur in warmer southern waters (MacLeod 2000).

Beaked whale abundance is associated with the Gulf Stream and warm-core rings (Waring et al. 1992). In summer, the continental shelf break off the northeastern U.S. is primary habitat (Waring et al. 2001). Beaked whales south of Georges Bank were found in waters with a mean SST of 20.7° to 24.9°C and a bottom depth of 500 to 2,000 m (Waring et al. 2003). In the Gulf of Mexico, beaked whales are seen in waters with a bottom depth ranging from 420 to 3,487m (Ward et al. 2005). Blainville's beaked whales in the northern Bahamas are found along shelf waters of canyon walls and in deeper offshore waters,

with most time spent along these walls where bottom depths are <800 m (Claridge 2003; MacLeod et al. 2004; MacLeod and Zuur 2005; Claridge 2006).

World-wide, beaked whales normally inhabit continental slope and deep oceanic waters (>200 m) (Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; Pitman 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Ritter and Brederlau 1999; Gannier 2000; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson 2005; MacLeod and Zuur 2005; Claridge 2006) and only occasionally waters over the continental shelf (Pitman 2002). In many locations, occurrence patterns have been linked to physical features such as the continental slope, canyons, escarpments, and oceanic islands (Baird et al. 2004; MacLeod et al. 2004; MacLeod and D'Amico 2006).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Blainville's beaked whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated Blainville's beaked whale age at last reproduction of 40 years.

Generation Length

Information regarding Blainville's beaked whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Blainville's beaked whale mating habitat, location, and season was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding Blainville's beaked whale migration was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding Blainville's beaked whale home range was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate for undifferentiated *Mesoplodon spp.* beaked whales in the western North Atlantic is 10,107 individuals (CV=0.27), based on 2016 surveys (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). Previously, undifferentiated *Mesoplodon spp.* beaked whales in the western North Atlantic were estimated at 7,092 individuals (CV=0.54), based on 2011 surveys (Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock.

Cumulative Stressors

During the period 2013–2017, four Blainville's beaked whales were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast between Florida and Massachusetts (Hayes et al. 2020). Beaked whale strandings throughout their worldwide range have been associated with naval activities (Frantzis 1998; D'Amico et al. 2009; Filadelfo et al. 2009; Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Blainville's beaked whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017) and Mannucci et al. (2017). Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b) present density model results for unidentified beaked whales.

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Blue whale – *Balaenoptera musculus*

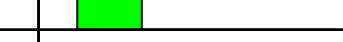
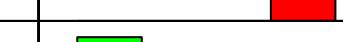
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Balaenoptera musculus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	3.7	3.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.7	
	Site Fidelity	2.6	1.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	1.7	
	Generation Length	3.1	1.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.8	1.7	
	Migration	1.4	2.0	
	Home Range	1.5	2.5	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.7	1.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.3	2.3	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.3	2.5	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.3	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.5	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.4	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	2.5	
	Circulation	2.3	2.2	
	Sea level rise	1.3	2.5	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Blue whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Balaenoptera musculus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (57% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.27).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Prey/Diet Specificity (3.73), Generation Time (3.13), and Species Abundance (3.00).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 81 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater 55 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The blue whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2020). Photo-identification studies suggest that blue whales from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and Greenland belong to the same stock, which is separate from blue whales sighted in the eastern North Atlantic (CETAP 1982; Wenzel et al. 1988; Sears and Calambokidis 2002; Sears and Larsen 2002; Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Blue whales in the North Atlantic consume almost exclusively krill (Hjort and Ruud 1929; Jonsgård 1955; Sergeant 1966; Sears et al. 1987; Christensen et al. 1992b). Blue whales may incidentally consume other prey species, such as fish and copepods (Kawamura 1980).

Habitat Specificity

Blue whales in the Atlantic are primarily found in deeper, offshore waters and are rare in shallower, shelf waters (Yocom and Leatherwood 1985; Wenzel et al. 1988). However, they associate with nearshore regions with strong tidal and current mixing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (Sears et al. 1990). Blue whales forage along edges of continental shelves and upwelling regions (Reilly and Thayer 1990; Schoenherr 1991). In the Gulf of St. Lawrence, blue whales were found in association with high salinity, cold surface temperature waters in areas with slow currents (Doniol-Valcroze 2008).

Site Fidelity

Blue whales travel frequently and do not tend to remain in the same area for more than a week or two, although nearly half of the Gulf of St. Lawrence population was resighted in subsequent years (Sears et al. 1990).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a blue whale interbirth interval of 2.5 years while Yochem and Leatherwood (1985) reported an interbirth interval of 2 years.

Female blue whales reach sexual maturity around 11 years of age (range 5 to 15 years; Mizroch et al. 1984; Yochem and Leatherwood 1985; Taylor et al. 2007). Age at last reproduction is estimated to be 65 years (Taylor et al. 2007).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 21.7 at $r=0.05$ and 30.8 at $r=0.0$ based on values reported by Lockyer (1984) and Mizroch et al. (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving occurs primarily during winter months (Yochem and Leatherwood 1985).

Migration

Blue whales occur in the Gulf of St. Lawrence in spring, summer, and fall and off southern Newfoundland in winter (Sears et al. 1990; Hayes et al. 2020).

Home Range

Blue whales have been detected and tracked acoustically in much of the North Atlantic, indicating the potential for long-distance movements (Clark 1995).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of blue whales in the Northwest Atlantic has not been established (Sears et al. 1987; Hammond et al. 1990; Sears et al. 1990; Sears and Calambokidis 2002; Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2009). A total of 402 blue whales were photo-identified in the St. Lawrence estuary and northwestern Gulf of St. Lawrence from 1980 to the summer of 2008, with 20 to 105 whales identified in this region each year (Ramp and Sears 2013). Mitchell (1974) estimated that the blue whale population in the western North Atlantic may number only in the low hundreds. In waters around Iceland, Pike et al. (2019) estimated 3000 blue whales (95% CI = 1377–6534) in 2015, though whales in those waters are believed to be from a different population than those in the western North Atlantic (Wenzel et al. 1988; Sears and Calambokidis 2002; Sears and Larsen 2002; Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been completed for this population. Elsewhere in the North Atlantic, the population off Iceland increased at 4.9% per year from 1969 to 1988 (Sigurjonsson and Gunnlaugsson 1990). Population estimates from the 1970s placed the blue whale population in the western North Atlantic in the low hundreds (Mitchell 1974). Pike et al. (2019) noted the increase in population in Icelandic waters continued through 2015.

Cumulative Stressors

Threats for North Atlantic blue whales include ship strikes, pollution, and entanglement in fishing gear although there are no recent confirmed records of mortality or serious injury to blue whales in the U.S. Atlantic EEZ (Hayes et al. 2020). Ice-related strandings and entraptments are known to occur off the coast of Newfoundland (Sears and Calambokidis 2002). Contaminants (e.g., PCBs, organochlorines) and increasing anthropogenic noise in the oceans also represent threats to blue whales in the western North Atlantic (Metcalfe et al. 2004; Sears and Perrin 2018).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for blue whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016). Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b) present blue whale sightings along survey track lines.

Further Reading

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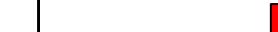
Clymene dolphin – *Stenella clymene*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella clymene</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	1.7	0.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.1	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	0.7	
	Migration	3.3	1.7	
	Home Range	1.5	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.5	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	0.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	1.7	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Clymene dolphin (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Stenella clymene

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (74% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.27) and Species Abundance Trend (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 81 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Clymene dolphin Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock includes individuals found in the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2021). However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Based on stomach content analysis of two individuals and one observation of feeding free-ranging dolphins, Clymene dolphins feed on small pelagic fish and squid (Perrin et al. 1981; Fertl et al. 1997).

Habitat Specificity

Clymene dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico are found in deeper waters off the continental shelf and primarily west of the Mississippi River (Mullin et al. 1994; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Clymene dolphins are mostly sighted in deep waters well beyond the edge of the continental shelf (Fertl et al. 2003). They often associate with the lower slope and deep water areas in regions of cyclonic or confluence circulation (Davis et al. 2002).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Clymene dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Clymene dolphin interbirth interval of 3.0 years based on values reported by Kasuya (1985) and Calzada et al. (1996). Taylor et al. (2007) reported Clymene dolphin age at first reproduction of 7 years and estimated age at last reproduction of 29 years. Jefferson et al. (1995) noted that pregnant females aged 15 and 16 years stranded in the northern Gulf of Mexico.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 14 years at $r = 0.02$ and 14.7 years at $r = 0.0$ using information from spinner dolphins (*Stenella longirostris*) as a proxy.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Clymene dolphin mating location, habitat, and season was not found in the literature.

Migration

Clymene dolphins were seen in the winter, spring and summer during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000) and no seasonality in occurrence is known for this species (DoN 2007).

Home Range

Although there are only a few records from Gulf of Mexico waters beyond U.S. boundaries (e.g., Jefferson and Schiro 1997), Clymene dolphins almost certainly occur throughout the oceanic Gulf of Mexico (Jefferson et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of northern Gulf of Mexico Clymene dolphins is estimated to be 513 individuals ($CV=1.03$), based on 2017 and 2018 summer surveys in which stock abundance was estimated at 1,026 ($CV=1.03$) for summer 2017, based on a single sighted group, and estimated at 0 for summer 2018, based on zero sightings by primary team observers (Garrison et al. 2020). A secondary team observer reported one sighting in summer 2018, but secondary team sightings are not used directly for these abundance estimates. Three groups were sighted during a winter 2018 survey (Rappucci et al. 2019), but this survey has not been utilized for abundance estimation as yet.

Previously, the population was estimated at 129 individuals ($CV=1.00$) from a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2012) and 6,575 individuals ($CV=0.36$) from 2003–2004 surveys (Mullin 2007). The 2009 and 2003–2004 estimates were revised based on the 2017 survey methodology resulting in abundance estimates of 10,900 ($CV=0.42$) from the 2003 survey, 13,257 ($CV=0.81$) from the 2004 survey, and 1,319 ($CV=0.78$) from the 2009 survey (Garrison et al. 2020).

Mullin and Fulling (2004) estimated 17,355 individuals ($CV=0.65$) in April-June 1996-2001. Hansen et al. (1995) estimated 5,571 individuals ($CV=0.37$) in April-June 1991-1994. Roberts et al. (2015, 2016)

estimated 11,000 individuals (CV=0.16) for all months during the period 1992–2009 using a density model.

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of Clymene dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys covering 2003–2018, however imprecise estimates and long intervals between surveys result in poor statistical power to detect a trend (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). The DWH NRDA Trustees estimated that 2% of the Clymene dolphin stock was killed and 3% of females sustained reproductive failure following the Deepwater Horizon event (DWH NRDA 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

The Clymene dolphin Gulf of Mexico stock may interact with longline fisheries. During the period 2014–2019, no fishing-related mortality or serious injury of Clymene dolphins was reported (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b, 2021; Maze Foley and Garrison 2021). During the period 2014–2018, 16 Clymene dolphins were reported stranded along the Gulf of Mexico coast (Hayes et al. 2021).

The Clymene dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Clymene dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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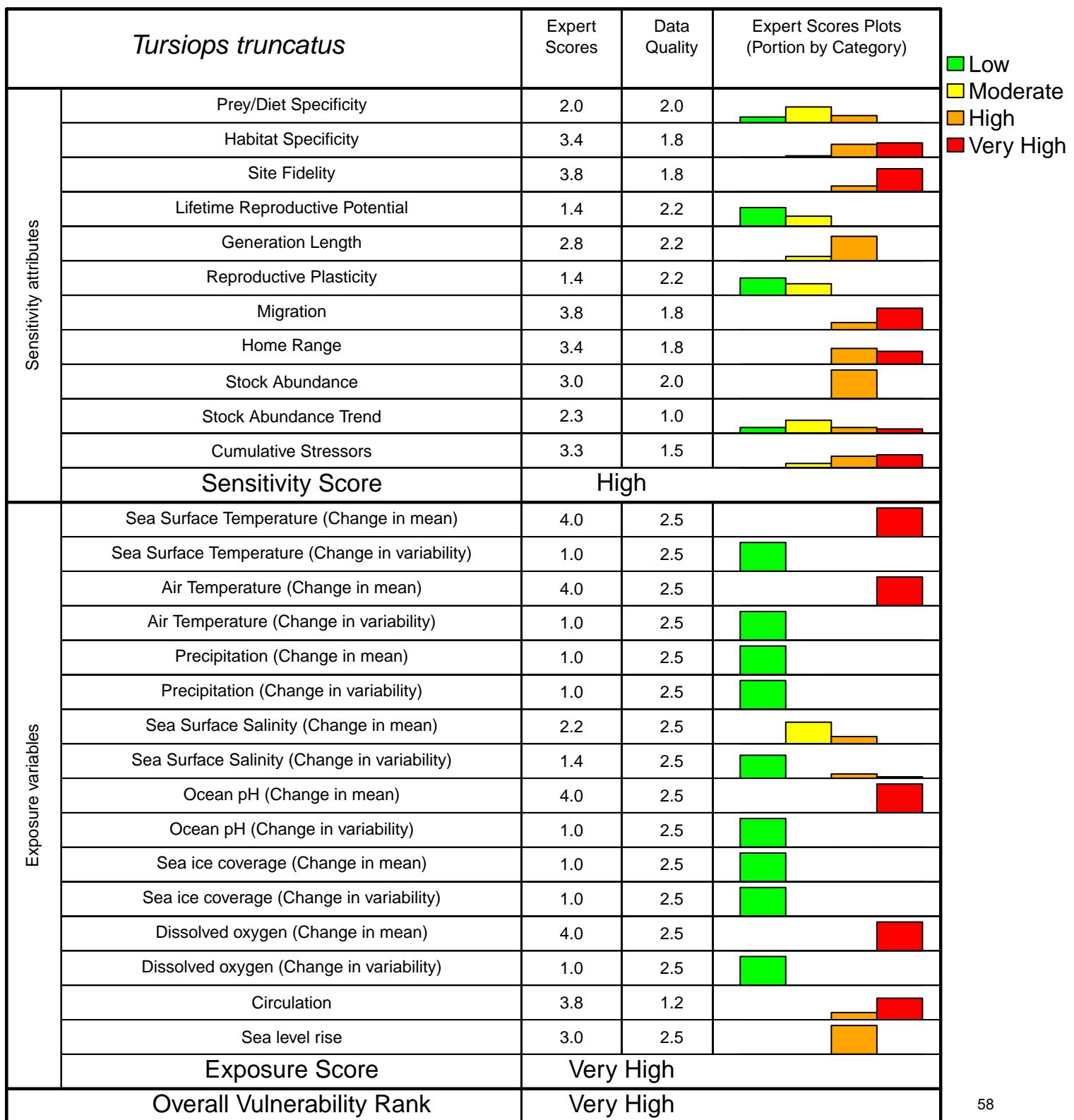
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Apalachee Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 74% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Apalachee Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.75).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Six sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Site Fidelity (3.80), Migration (3.75), Habitat Specificity (3.45), Home Range (3.45), Cumulative Stressors (3.30), and Species Abundance (3.00).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 74% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 45% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in Apalachee Bay in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, in inshore systems along the Florida Panhandle, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five stocks and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate of 491 individuals (CV=0.39) comes from 1993 (Blaylock and Hoggard 1994; Hayes et al. 2022). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning. Dolphins along the panhandle region of Florida have been frequent targets of harassment (Vail 2016).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in tissues of common bottlenose dolphins from the Florida Panhandle (Wilson et al. 2012; Balmer et al. 2019) and other Florida Gulf Coast waters (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been

detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Barataria Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.7	
	Habitat Specificity	3.8	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.8	3.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.7	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.0	
	Migration	3.9	3.0	
	Home Range	3.5	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.3	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	3.3	1.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.5	3.0	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.3	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	4.0	2.3	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Barataria Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Six sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.93), Habitat Specificity (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.80), Cumulative Stressors (3.53), Home Range (3.47), and Species Abundance Trend (3.33)

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Caminada Bay, Barataria Bay east to Bastian Bay, Bay Coquette, and Gulf coastal waters extending 1 km from the shoreline (Blaylock et al. 1994; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). Within Barataria Bay, common bottlenose dolphins are frequently found in areas of higher

salinity ($>\sim 11$ ppt) and tend to avoid areas of lower salinity ($<\sim 5$ ppt; Hornsby et al. 2017) and foraging habitat has been characterized by depth, distance from shore, and salinity (Miller and Baltz 2010).

Site Fidelity

Strong multi-year, year-round site fidelity has been demonstrated for this stock (Wells et al. 2017).

Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010, 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico include transient, seasonally migratory, and stable resident communities (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021), Texas (Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Maze and Würsig 1999; Shane 1990; Shane 2004; Weller 1998), and Florida (Balmer et al. 2008; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Scott et al. 1990; Tyson et al. 2011; Urian et al. 2009; Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2003; Wells et al. 1987; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997). Stable isotope data suggest little movement of this population between the estuary and the nearshore environment (Cloyd et al. 2021c). Satellite tag data suggest few long-range movements outside of the bay (Lane et al. 2015).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Cloyd et al. 2021a, 2021b).

Stock Abundance

The best available abundance estimate for this stock is 2,071 individuals (95% CI: 1,832–2,309; CV=0.06) based on vessel-based capture-recapture photo-ID surveys conducted from March and April 2019 (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2022). Previously, this stock abundance was estimated at 2,306 individuals (95% CI: 2,014–2,603; CV=0.09) based on vessel-based capture-recapture photo-ID surveys conducted from June 2010 to May 2014 (McDonald et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to determine population trends for most of the Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary common bottlenose dolphin stocks (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Barataria Bay were exposed to some of the highest levels of oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from Barataria Bay have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressen et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was also declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock are presented by Mullin et al. (2018).

Further Reading

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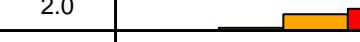
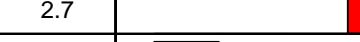
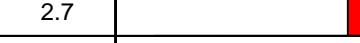
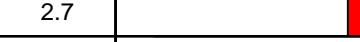
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Calcasieu Lake Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.6	1.7	
	Site Fidelity	3.5	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.7	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.3	2.0	
	Migration	3.9	1.7	
	Home Range	3.4	1.3	
	Stock Abundance	3.7	1.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	2.3	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Circulation	3.8	2.3	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.7	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Calcasieu Lake Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5:

Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Circulation (3.8).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.87), Species Abundance (3.67), Site Fidelity (3.47), Home Range (3.40), and Cumulative Stressors (3.20).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 81 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 55 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Calcasieu Lake, in Louisiana (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). Similar to Sabine Lake, the Calcasieu Lake estuary has been extensively modified with deep engineered channels to accommodate large vessels, which likely resulted in highly stratified salinity in the channels (Ward 1980).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Connor et al. 2000; Leatherwood 1977; Wells 2003; Wells and Scott 1999).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6-21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Urian et al. 1996; Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas , and (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urien et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells et al. 2017), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002).

Stock Abundance

Aerial surveys by Scott et al. (1989) estimated 0-6 individuals (CV=0.34) for this stock. These estimates likely represent an underestimation due to reduced detection probability compared to other platforms (e.g., see comparison of abundance estimates from aerial and small boat surveys for Sabine Lake, Ronje et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Calcasieu Lake may have been exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event

(UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from nearby Barataria Bay have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also affected by a 2007 UME in which 66 common bottlenose dolphins stranded in northeast Texas and west Louisiana due to an undetermined cause (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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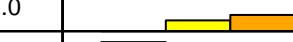
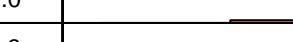
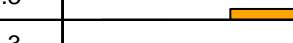
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Caloosahatchee River Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.0	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.5	1.7	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	2.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.9	2.0	
	Generation Length	3.1	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.1	2.0	
	Migration	3.9	2.0	
	Home Range	3.7	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	3.4	1.3	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	1.3	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.2	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Circulation	3.9	2.0	
	Sea level rise	3.9	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Caloosahatchee River Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Circulation (3.93), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea level rise (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.87)

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.93), Site Fidelity (3.93), and Home Range (3.73).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in the Caloosahatchee River along the Gulf of Mexico coast of Florida (Hayes et al. 2019).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Multi-year site fidelity in at least the mouth of the Caloosahatchee River has been demonstrated from photographic identification surveys of the region (Wells et al. 1997; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013). Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies from the Texas coast suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 41 years (Fernandez and Hohn 1998). Studies from the Mississippi coast suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 30 years (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urien et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002).

Stock Abundance

A best estimate of the abundance for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2019). The most recent survey, conducted by Scott et al. (1989) between 1983 and 1986, sighted 0 dolphins within the Caloosahatchee River.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2019).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Adimey et al. 2014; McHugh et al. 2021), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018).

Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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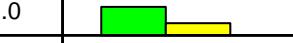
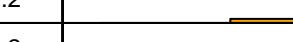
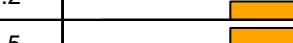
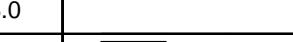
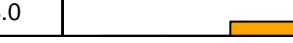
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Choctawhatchee Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.5	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	4.0	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.0	
	Migration	3.9	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.5	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.2	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	4.0	1.2	
	Sea level rise	3.6	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Choctawhatchee Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (3.95), and Sea level rise (3.65)

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.95), Migration (3.90), Habitat Specificity (3.55), and Home Range (3.55)

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Choctawhatchee Bay in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast. This stock is bounded by Point Washington and Jolly Bay in the east and Fort Walton Beach in the west (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009)

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6-21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urien et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Based on July-August 2007 surveys, the best available abundance estimate of the resident Choctawhatchee Bay Stock is 179 (CV=0.04) (Conn et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Choctawhatchee Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of

Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from the waters along the Florida panhandle have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in waters along the Florida panhandle (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twiner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

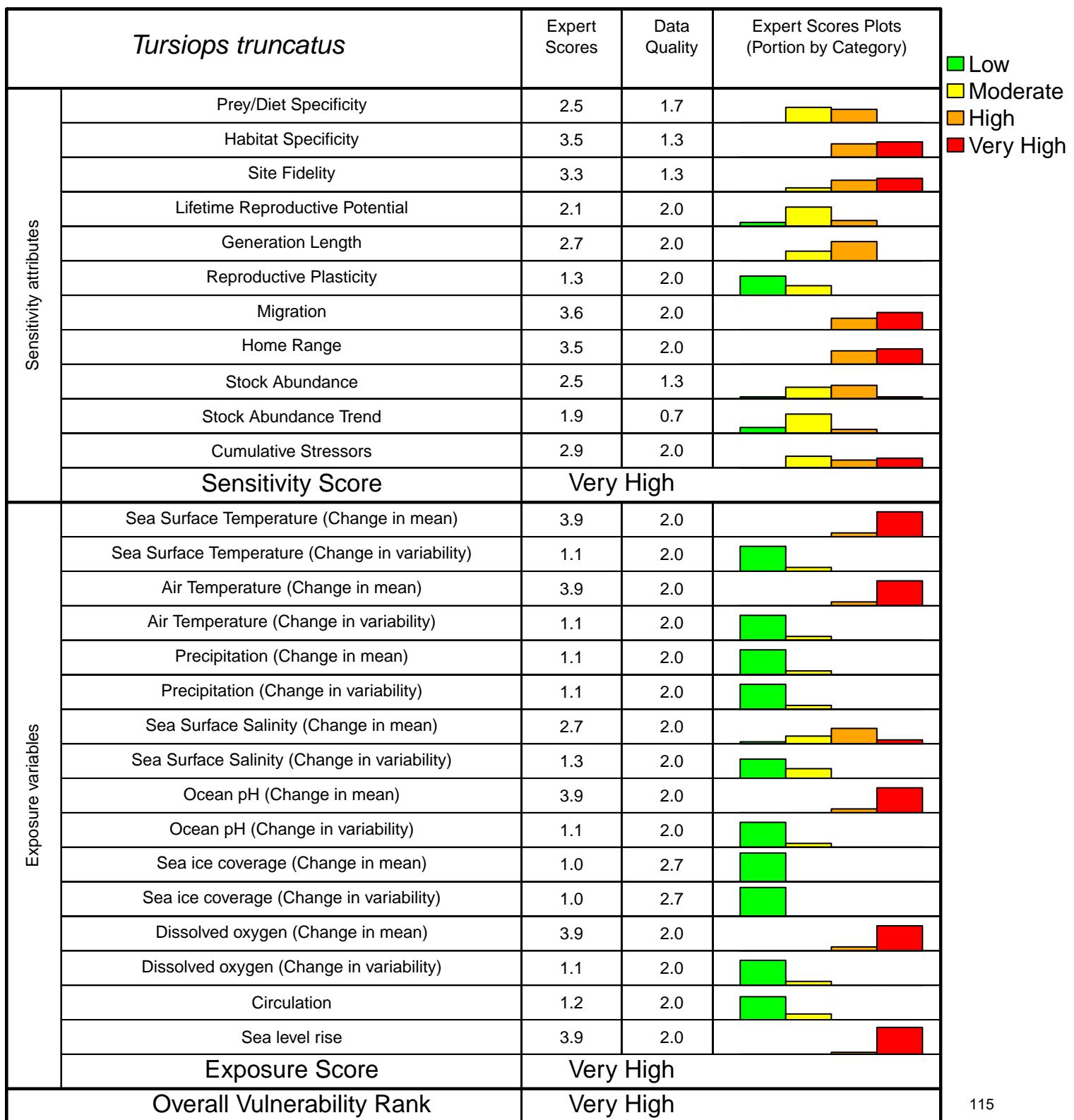
GoMx BSE/Chokoloskee Bay, Ten Thousand Islands, Gullivan Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Chokoloskee Bay, Ten Thousand Islands, Gullivan Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Sea level rise (3.93), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.87), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87)

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.60), Habitat Specificity (3.53), and Home Range (3.53)

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Chokoloskee Bay, Ten Thousand Islands, and Gullivan Bay in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6-21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urien et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate is not available for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; Damseaux et al. 2017; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in this stock (Damseaux et al. 2017) and elsewhere in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was at the southern end of the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

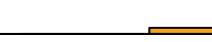
GoMx BSE/Copano Bay, Aransas Bay, San Antonio Bay, Redfish Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High █

Biological Sensitivity = Very High █

Climate Exposure = Very High █

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	2.8	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.4	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.5	
	Stock Abundance	2.8	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.9	1.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.8	2.8	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	3.8	2.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Copano Bay, Aransas Bay, San Antonio Bay, Redfish Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.85), Cumulative Stressors (3.75), and Home Range (3.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Copano Bay, Aransas Bay, San Antonio Bay, Redfish Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas have shown site fidelity (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004). Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce throughout their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are

recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) reported a best estimate of 55 individuals ($CV = 0.82$) for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Fire et al. 2011, 2020), recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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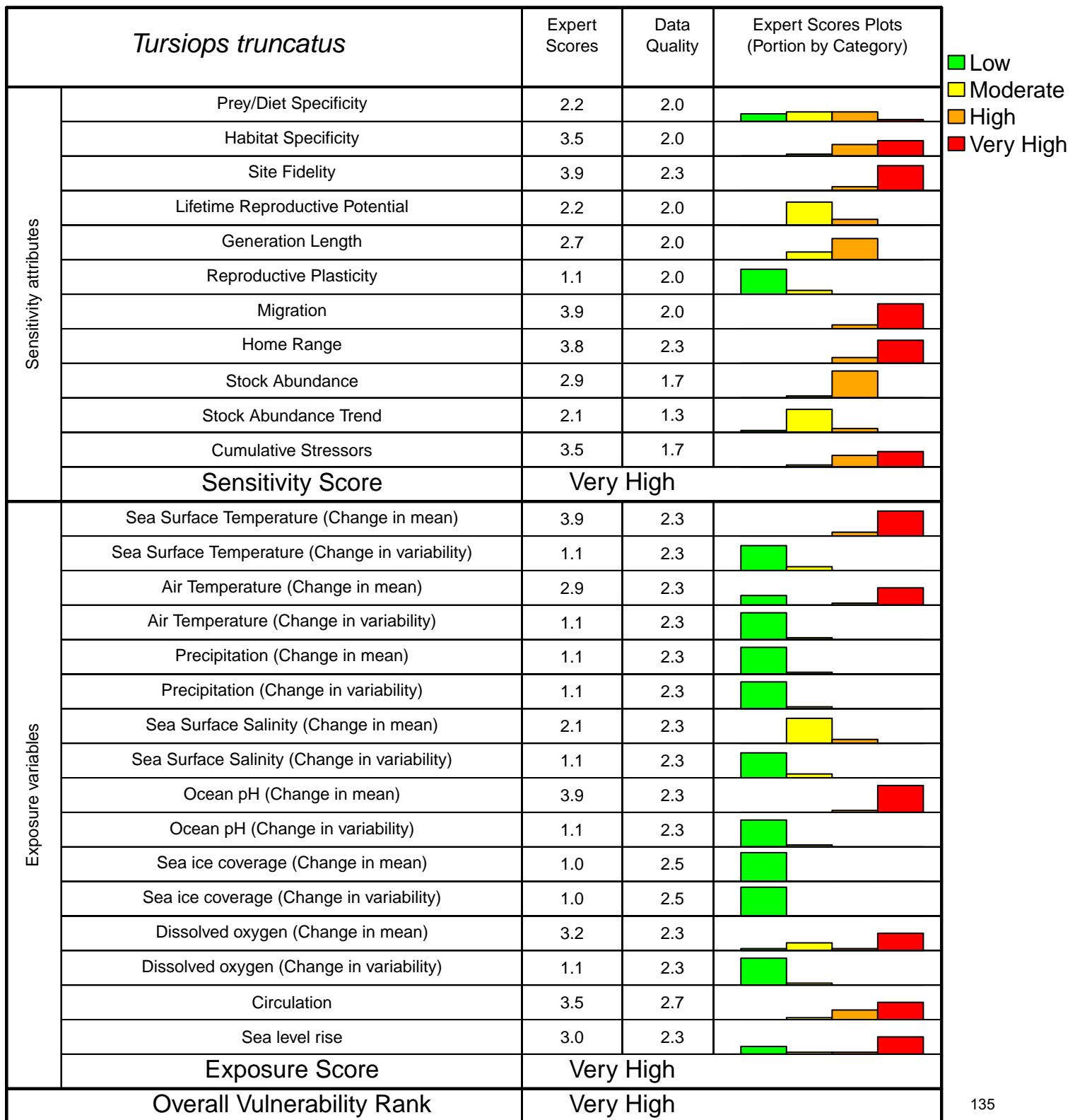
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Esterio Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Estero Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), and Circulation (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.87), Site Fidelity (3.87), and Home Range (3.80).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Estero Bay in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g. sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6-21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urien et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Adimey et al. 2014; McHugh et al. 2021), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus* GoMx

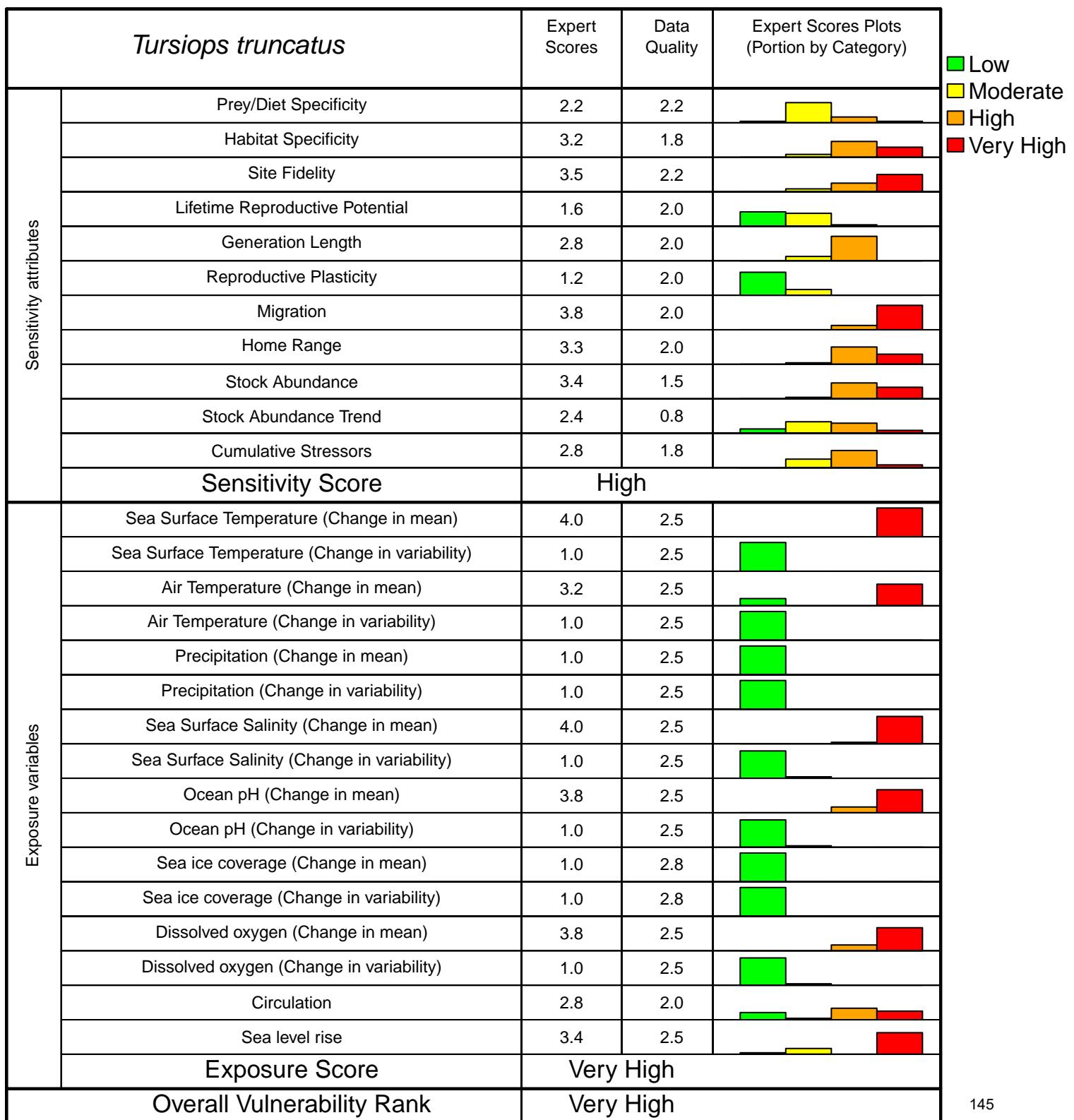
BSE - Southwest Marathon Key to Marquesas Keys

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Florida Keys - Southwest Marathon Key to Marquesas Keys Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.80), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.80).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.85), Site Fidelity (3.50), Species Abundance (3.35), Home Range (3.30), and Habitat Specificity (3.25).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in the Florida Keys from southwest Marathon Key to Marquesas Keys in the eastern Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017). On seagrass meadows off Key West, bottlenose dolphins create mud plumes to forage on fish, such as mullets (Lewis and Schroeder 2003).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Takeshita et al. 2021; Wells et al. 2017); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009)

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; Damseaux et al. 2017; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in this stock (Damseaux et al. 2017) and elsewhere in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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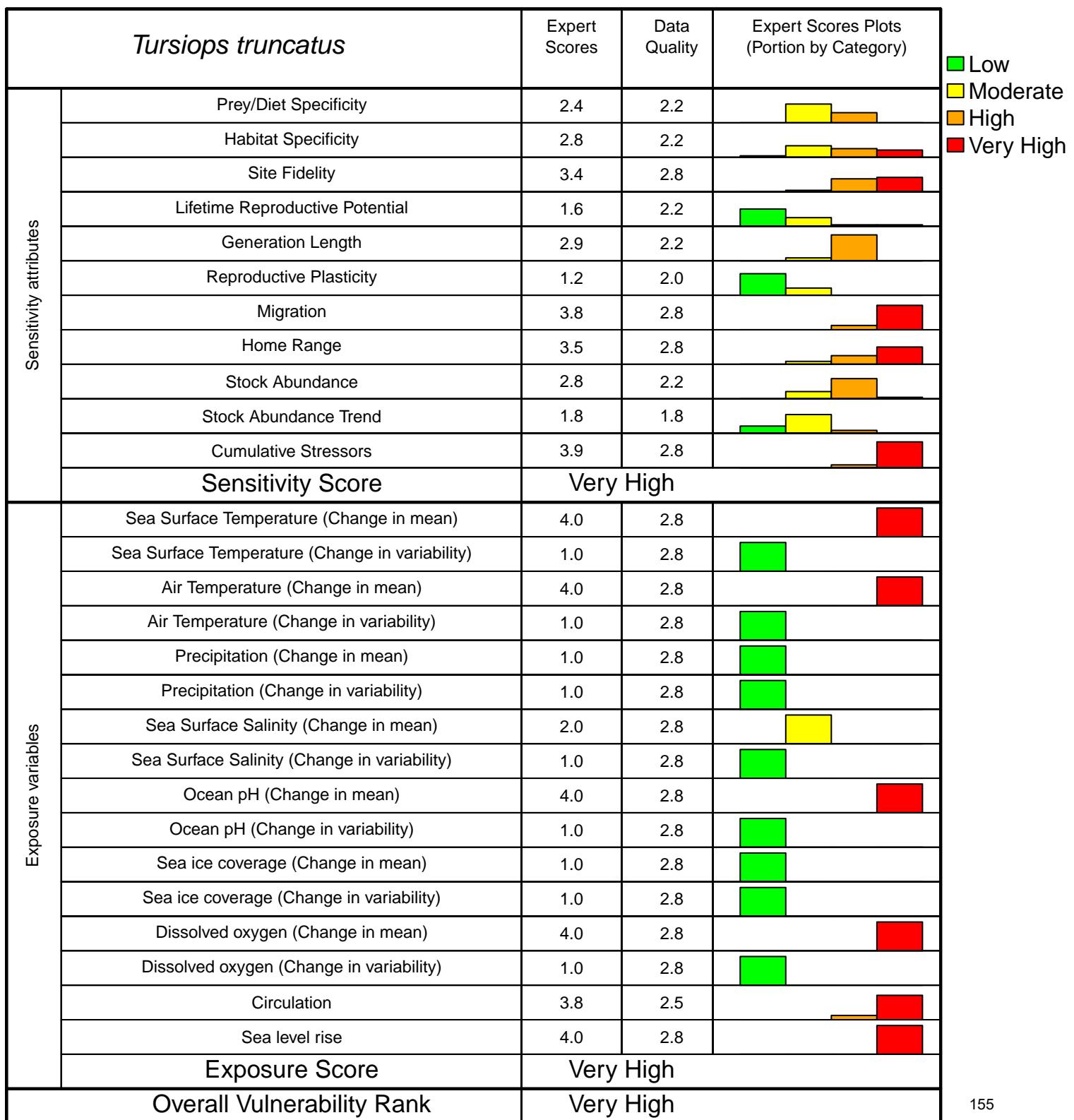
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Galveston Bay, East Bay, Trinity Bay

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



- Low
- Moderate
- High
- Very High

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Galveston Bay, East Bay, Trinity Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Cumulative Stressors (3.90), Migration (3.85), and Home Range (3.50).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Galveston Bay, East Bay, and Trinity Bay in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Preliminary estimates of prey consumption proportions for common bottlenose dolphins in the Galveston Bay estuary were determined through stable isotope analysis and Bayesian mixing models (McDaniel and Guillen 2020). In this study, examination of 36 remote biopsy samples obtained from free ranging dolphins in Galveston Bay between 2015-2017 indicated striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) and spotted seatrout (*Cynoscion nebulosus*) as primary prey sources. Additional contributions came from

white shrimp (*Litopenaeus setiferus*), hardhead catfish (*Ariopsis felis*) and likely fish with similar δ13C and δ15N values not included in the study. The authors suggested prey abundance may contribute to disparities in estimated contributions of prey sources between years (McDaniel and Guillen 2020). Barros and Odell (1990) examined the stomach contents of 76 stranded common bottlenose dolphins from Gulf of Mexico shores, 22 of which were from the shoreline of northeast Texas adjacent to the Galveston Bay systems. Those 22 samples were combined with 3 additional stomach content analyses from common bottlenose dolphin strandings recovered in the states of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama (1 sample each), and designated those states as Area 1 of their study. Using a combination of visual taxonomic identification (for undigested species) and species identification keys for fish otolith and cephalopod beaks, Barros and Odell (1990) reported the proportion of prey in Area 1 as fish (94.3%), cephalopods (5.2%), crustaceans (0.5%), and a single horseshoe crab. Only 32% of the stomach contents from Area 1 contained fish only, while fish/cephalopod and fish/cephalopod/shrimp were present in 36% and 32% respectively, of Area 1 stomach contents (Barros and Odell 1990). Overall, sciaenid fishes were the primary fish prey. However, the great diversity of species (over 300 different fish species found in eight stomachs from Area 1) and similarity of species to commercial fisheries bycatch suggested common bottlenose dolphins off Texas were supplementing their diet by depredating shrimp trawler bycatch or by taking fish directly out of the nets (presumably) during trawling operations (Barros and Odell 1990). Observations of common bottlenose dolphins feeding using both methods from Texas and Louisiana have been documented (Gunter 1938; Shane 1977; Gruber 1981; Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Fertl 1994a; Moreno 2005; Ronje et al. 2018).

While much research indicates sciaenid fishes are the primary prey fishes for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico (Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Dunshea et al. 2013; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021), other researchers (Gunter 1942; Shane 1990; Miller 1992) have suggested striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) may be a significant part of the bottlenose dolphin diet in Texas waters. Barros and Wells (1998) reviewed the importance of mullet in the diet of common bottlenose dolphins in Florida waters and suggested the species is important, yet ranks under soniferous fishes in their dietary profile.

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Galveston Bay system often concentrate in Bolivar Roads, an energetic tidal pass between Galveston Island and the Bolivar Peninsula (Moreno and Mathews 2018; Bräger et al. 1994; Jones III 1988; Maze and Würsig 1999; Ronje et al. 2020). Relatively high common bottlenose dolphin group density has also been observed in the Galveston Ship Channel (Fertl 1994a; Moreno and Mathews 2018; Piwetz 2019; Ronje et al. 2020). These bay sub-areas are likely mixing zones for transient dolphins from the Western Coastal stock (Hayes et al. 2022), as well as resident Galveston Bay dolphins, all utilizing the deep, prey-rich engineered channels where estuary and Gulf waters meet (Maze and Würsig 1999; Ronje et al. 2020). Seasonal distribution patterns are evident throughout portions of Texas in bays, inlets and nearshore waters. Seasonal changes in Galveston Bay population density may reflect a combination of intra-bay, inter-bay, or coastal movements. Studies of lower Galveston Bay near Bolivar Roads have documented seasonal increases in dolphin activity in spring and late summer through fall, with decreases in winter months (Fertl 1994b; Jones III 1988). Ronje et al. (2020) conducted spatially comprehensive winter and summer photo-ID mark-recapture surveys of the Galveston Bay system and estimated a greater abundance of dolphins were present in summer. Similar seasonal relative abundance increases in upper Galveston Bay have been documented during “warm”

months (May - October, water temperature typically $> 23^{\circ}\text{C}$) with fewer dolphins sighted in the upper Galveston Bay during “cold” months (November - April, water temperature typically $< 23^{\circ}\text{C}$; Fazioli et al. 2015; Mintzer and Fazioli 2021). Previous studies have not identified strong seasonal fluctuations in abundance in the adjacent West Bay stock (Maze and Würsig 1999); but a higher density of West Bay resident dolphins was observed in the Gulf waters near San Luis Pass during cold months, and in the bay during warm months (Irwin and Würsig 2004; Henderson and Würsig 2007). More recent studies estimated slightly higher abundance in the West Bay stock area delineated by the NMFS during winter (Litz et al. 2019; Ronje et al. 2020). Similarly, in the coastal bend region of Texas near the passes, an increase in abundance during winter months and corresponding decrease during the summer has been noted in several studies (Shane 1980; McHugh 1989; Gruber 1981). Seasonal changes in density throughout Texas estuaries have been attributed to a combination of north-south migration along the coast influenced by water temperature and more localized shifts in distribution influenced by prey movements in and out of the estuary during different times of the year (Weller 1998).

Systematic and spatially comprehensive surveys have been conducted in Trinity Bay and East Bay as well as opportunistic surveys; however, dolphin groups were generally observed only on the western margins of those areas (GDRP 2021 unpublished data; Ronje et al. 2020). The overall distribution of bottlenose dolphins in the Galveston Bay system appears to be positively correlated on a north-south axis, consistent with the general gradient of salinity and distance to coast (Moreno and Mathews 2018). Mintzer and Fazioli (2021) found that both salinity and temperature predicted dolphin movements in and out of upper Galveston Bay, with an exodus of dolphins occurring with low salinity levels, regardless of the time of year and water temperature.

Site Fidelity

Photographic identification studies of areas in lower Galveston Bay and nearshore Gulf waters surrounding and including the Bolivar Roads inlet and the Galveston ship channel, indicate long-term site fidelity for a core group of bottlenose dolphins in lower Galveston Bay and the Galveston Ship Channel, yet provide evidence this region of Galveston Bay may predominantly consist of an open bottlenose dolphin population due to the high number of identified individuals ($>1,000$) but relatively low number of presumed year-round residents (approximately 200; Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994b). Multi-year studies in Galveston Bay, excluding Bolivar Roads and the Galveston Ship Channel, indicate that a likely resident Galveston Bay population occurs throughout the upper and lower bay, utilizing deep channel habitats (primarily the Houston Ship Channel) in addition to open bay and nearshore habitats, with seasonal fluctuations in distribution (Fazioli et al. 2017; Fazioli and Mintzer 2020; Mintzer and Fazioli 2021; Mintzer et al. 2022). Photo-identification analyses were utilized to calculate site fidelity metrics for 442 distinct dolphins identified in upper Galveston Bay. These results were incorporated into a cluster analysis, indicating that 192 individuals (43%), demonstrated high site fidelity to upper Galveston Bay, either year-round or with a recurring seasonal pattern of residency (Mintzer et al. 2022); Remaining individuals were classified as transients ($n=141$, 32%) with only one sighting, or short-term users ($n=109$, 25%) likely to demonstrate site fidelity to Galveston Bay but lacking a specific preference for the upper portion, however, additional research is underway to evaluate how these individuals utilize other parts of the Bay (Fazioli et al. 2017; Mintzer and Fazioli 2021; Mintzer et al. 2022). Few spatially comprehensive studies have been conducted for the

Galveston Bay system and more research needs to be conducted to better determine the proportion and spatial range of enumerated individuals exhibiting site fidelity for this stock (Ronje et al. 2020).

Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay and Espiritu Santo Bay in Texas (Lynn and Würsig 2002), San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Irwin and Würsig 2004), Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Takeshita et al. 2021; Wells et al. 2017), Mississippi Sound (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) report generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving may occur year round, but strong seasonal peaks are evident. Neonatal stranding rates indicate the calving peak for Northern Texas is in March (Urian et al. 1996; Fernandez and Hohn 1998; Piwetz et al. 2022).

Migration

Photo-ID studies indicate some coastal and inter-bay dolphin movements occur among adjacent stock areas (Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Maze and Würsig 1999; Ronje et al. 2020). Maze and Würsig (1999) identified three individuals that were observed in both the Galveston Bay and adjacent West Bay stock areas, with one of those individuals remaining in West Bay for up to 9 months after its initial sighting in

Galveston Bay. Ronje et al. (2020) photo-identified 40 individuals in the Galveston Bay stock area that were also observed in adjacent stock and nearshore coastal waters (West Bay n=15, Sabine Lake n=25). Given the high proportion of distinct individuals not re-sighted in Galveston Bay during previous studies (Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Bräger 1993; Ronje et al. 2020), rates of emigration and immigration may be significant.

Home Range

Previous studies of Galveston Bay common bottlenose dolphins found low recapture rates of photo-identified individuals in Gulf of Mexico waters, and distinct dorsal fin recapture rates were higher inside the bay than in the Gulf (e.g., Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Beier 2001). However, non-consecutive seasonal site fidelity has been documented for certain individuals outside of the bay boundaries for Galveston Bay (Ronje et al. 2020). This may suggest the bay boundaries and potentially nearshore coastal waters are included in a home range consistent with topographic features; however, more information needs to be collected to delineate the home range of Galveston Bay resident dolphins.

Stock Abundance

Ronje et al. (2020) estimated abundance in Galveston Bay at 841.9 individuals (95% CI = 693.5–990.4) in the winter and 1,131.5 individuals (95% CI = 846.3–1,416.7) in the summer based on 2016 surveys. Previously, Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated abundance of this stock at 152 individuals (CV = 0.43).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to determine population trends for most of the Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary common bottlenose dolphin stocks (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

The Galveston Bay system presents a number of potential threats to bay inhabitants. Phillips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the Galveston Bay system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic. Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), unusually high freshwater inflow (Fazioli and Mintzer 2020), habitat loss, and climate change (Phillips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2007 UME in which 66 common bottlenose dolphins stranded in northeast Texas and west Louisiana due to an undetermined cause (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock for January and July 2016 are presented in Ronje et al. (2020). Additional sighting data for August 2013 – November 2022 are available from the Galveston Bay Dolphin Research Program (GDRP) and sighting maps focused on western upper Galveston Bay, 2016–2019, are presented in Mintzer and Fazioli (2021) and Mintzer et al. (2022).

Further Reading

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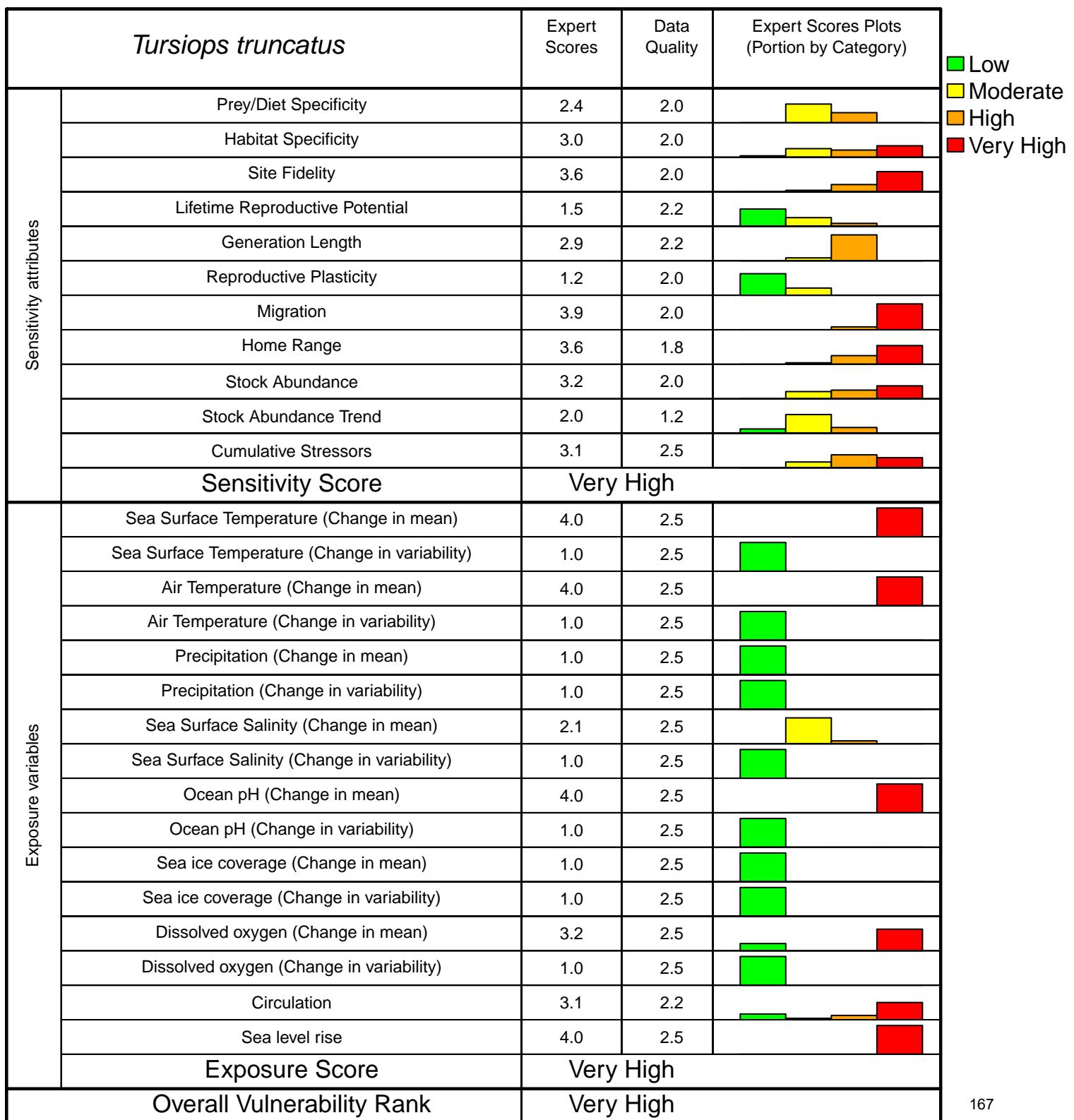
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Laguna Madre Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Laguna Madre Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.90), Site Fidelity (3.65), and Home Range (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in the Laguna Madre in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Individual bottlenose dolphins identified in Laguna Madre photo-identification surveys show some degree of site fidelity, however, effort is low and spatially concentrated and further research is needed in order to determine the number of individuals exhibiting year-round site fidelity for this stock. One case study (Texas Marine Mammal Stranding Network 2019, *unpublished data*) reported a dolphin calf that became injured in 2008, disentangled in 2009, and is regularly sighted in the lower Laguna Madre as recently as 2019, now with her own calf. Similar case studies exist for individual dolphins that have become stranded, released, and tagged in the Laguna Madre between 2003 and 2019. Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay and Espiritu Santo Bay in Texas (Lynn and Würsig 2002), San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Irwin and Würsig 2004), Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021), Mississippi Sound (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017). Few studies have focused on the Laguna Madre and little is known about the site-fidelity of dolphins using the Laguna Madre. The results of several structured seasonal photo-ID surveys (Texas Marine Mammal Stranding Network 2018-19, *unpublished data*) and opportunistic observations during a dolphin disentanglement effort (Ronje et al. 2018) in the southern Laguna Madre indicate dolphin groups use the lower Laguna Madre area, primarily deeper channels and passes including the Brownsville Ship Channel, the Gulf Intracoastal Waterway, and the Brazos Santiago Pass. Dolphins travel through the Gulf inlet (Brazos-Santiago Pass) during flood tides and follow shrimp trawlers into waters well into the Brownsville Ship Channel to the Brownsville Fishing Harbor. Anecdotal reports suggest common bottlenose dolphins may travel between the Brazos-Santiago Pass and Port Mansfield, approximately 60 km north (Ronje et al. 2018). Additional photo-ID surveys reaching farther north into the Laguna Madre are needed to better understand dolphin movements in this area.

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Boggard (1994) estimated abundance of this stock at 80 individuals (CV = 1.57). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Philips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the Laguna Madre system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic. Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), habitat loss, and climate change (Philips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock from July 2016 are presented in Ronje et al. (2018). Additional sighting data from December 2018 and August 2019 is available from the Texas Marine Mammal Stranding Network (TMMSN).

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

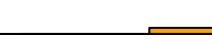
GoMx BSE/Matagorda Bay, Tres Palacios Bay, Lavaca Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	2.8	2.2	
	Site Fidelity	3.4	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.5	
	Stock Abundance	3.1	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	1.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.8	2.8	
Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	3.8	2.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Matagorda Bay, Tres Palacios Bay, Lavaca Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.85), Home Range (3.55), Site Fidelity (3.45), and Species Abundance (3.10).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Matagorda Bay, Tres Palacios Bay, Lavaca Bay, and smaller bays associated with Matagorda Bay in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Lynn and Würsig (2002) attached radio transmitters to dolphins near Port O'Connor, TX and recorded telemetry data that indicated dolphins have strong site fidelity to Matagorda Bay and Espiritu Santo Bay. Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks also show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Connor et al. 2000; Leatherwood 1977; Wells 2003; Wells and Scott 1999).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Urian et al. 1996; Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010, 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated this stock's abundance at 61 individuals (CV=0.45). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Phillips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the Matagorda Bay system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic.

Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), habitat loss, and climate change (Phillips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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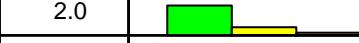
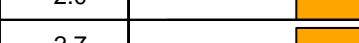
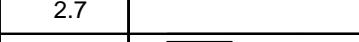
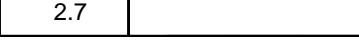
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Mississippi River Delta Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.7	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.7	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.5	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.2	2.3	
	Migration	3.9	2.0	
	Home Range	3.4	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.4	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.9	2.3	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Circulation	3.7	2.7	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.7	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Mississippi River Delta Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.67).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.87), Habitat Specificity (3.67), and Site Fidelity (3.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in the Mississippi River Delta in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Louisiana coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Hayes et al. (2022) reported this stock's abundance estimate at 1,446 individuals (CV = 0.19) based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2021). Hayes et al. (2019) reported this stock's abundance estimate at 332 individuals (CV = 0.93).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Mississippi River Delta were likely exposed to high levels of oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the

northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from nearby Barataria Bay have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressen et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

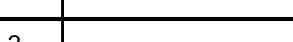
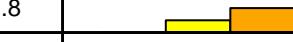
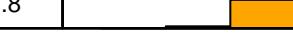
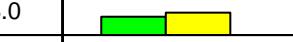
GoMx BSE/Mississippi Sound, Lake Borgne, Bay Boudreau Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	3.4	2.5	
	Site Fidelity	3.8	2.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.2	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.9	2.2	
	Migration	3.8	3.0	
	Home Range	3.2	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.2	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.8	1.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	2.8	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	3.8	2.5	
	Sea level rise	3.5	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Mississippi Sound, Lake Borgne, Bay Boudreau Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (3.80), and Sea level rise (3.50).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.75), Habitat Specificity (3.35), Cumulative Stressors (3.20), and Home Range (3.20).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Mississippi Sound, Lake Borgne, and Bay Boudreau in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama coasts. It includes the adjacent Gulf coastal waters extending 1 km from the barrier islands and passes that bound the bays (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Studies in Mississippi Sound have suggested dolphins show a preference for specific habitats, such as mainland coasts, channels, or barrier islands, and environmental conditions, such as temperature and salinity (Hubard et al. 2004; Pitchford et al. 2016a, 2016b; Mullin et al. 2017). A study using satellite-linked telemetry suggested two different patterns of ranging (one around the barrier islands, another in inshore waters with seasonal use of the mid-portion of Mississippi Sound), representing different habitat use (Mullin et al. 2017). Mississippi Sound is an open embayment with large passes between the barrier islands, including two dredged shipping channels (Hayes et al. 2022).

Site Fidelity

In general, photo-ID studies within Mississippi Sound have resulted in low re-sighting rates of dolphins, and many animals sighted only one time (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010). However, long-term site fidelity has been shown by resightings of animals originally freeze-branded in 1982–1983 that were still present during studies in the 1990s and early 2000s (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010). Hubard et al. (2004) suggested some animals displayed spatial and/or temporal site fidelity patterns. Year-round residents, seasonal residents, and transients were all reported by Mackey (2010).

Other common bottlenose dolphin Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urien et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest

female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some area (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

During photo-ID studies conducted during 2004–2007 within Mississippi Sound, Mackey (2010) identified 687 dolphins, of which the majority, 498 (73.5%) were classified as transients. A smaller number, 70 (10%), were classified as year-round residents, and 109 (16%) were classified as seasonal residents. Bay, sound, and estuary stocks appear to be genetically distinct from other BSE populations adjacent coastal populations, continental shelf, and oceanic populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Vollmer 2011).

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019) and Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), in addition to Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd

et al. 2021a, 2021b). A study using satellite-linked telemetry suggested two different patterns of ranging within Mississippi Sound: animals that ranged exclusively around the barrier islands, and those that ranged in inshore waters with seasonal use of the mid-portion of the sound (Mullin et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Garrison et al. (2021) estimated the abundance of this stock at 1,265 (CV=0.35) from winter 2018 aerial survey data. Previously, Mullin et al. (2017) estimated the abundance of this stock at 3,046 (95% CI: 2,702–3,293; CV=0.06) from January 2012 vessel-based capture-recapture photo-ID surveys.

Stock Abundance Trend

This stock was estimated to experience a 62% decline in population size due to the Deepwater Horizon oil spill (DWH MMIFT 2015; Schwacke et al. 2017). Using photo-identification data from 2011–June 2015, Samuelson et al. (2021) estimated the monthly population growth rate at 1.005 (95% CI: 0.998–1.013).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Mississippi Sound were exposed to high levels of oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from Mississippi Sound have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 1996 Mississippi UME that was suspected to have been caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps and spatial density models for this stock are presented by Pitchford et al. (2016a, 2016b).

Further Reading

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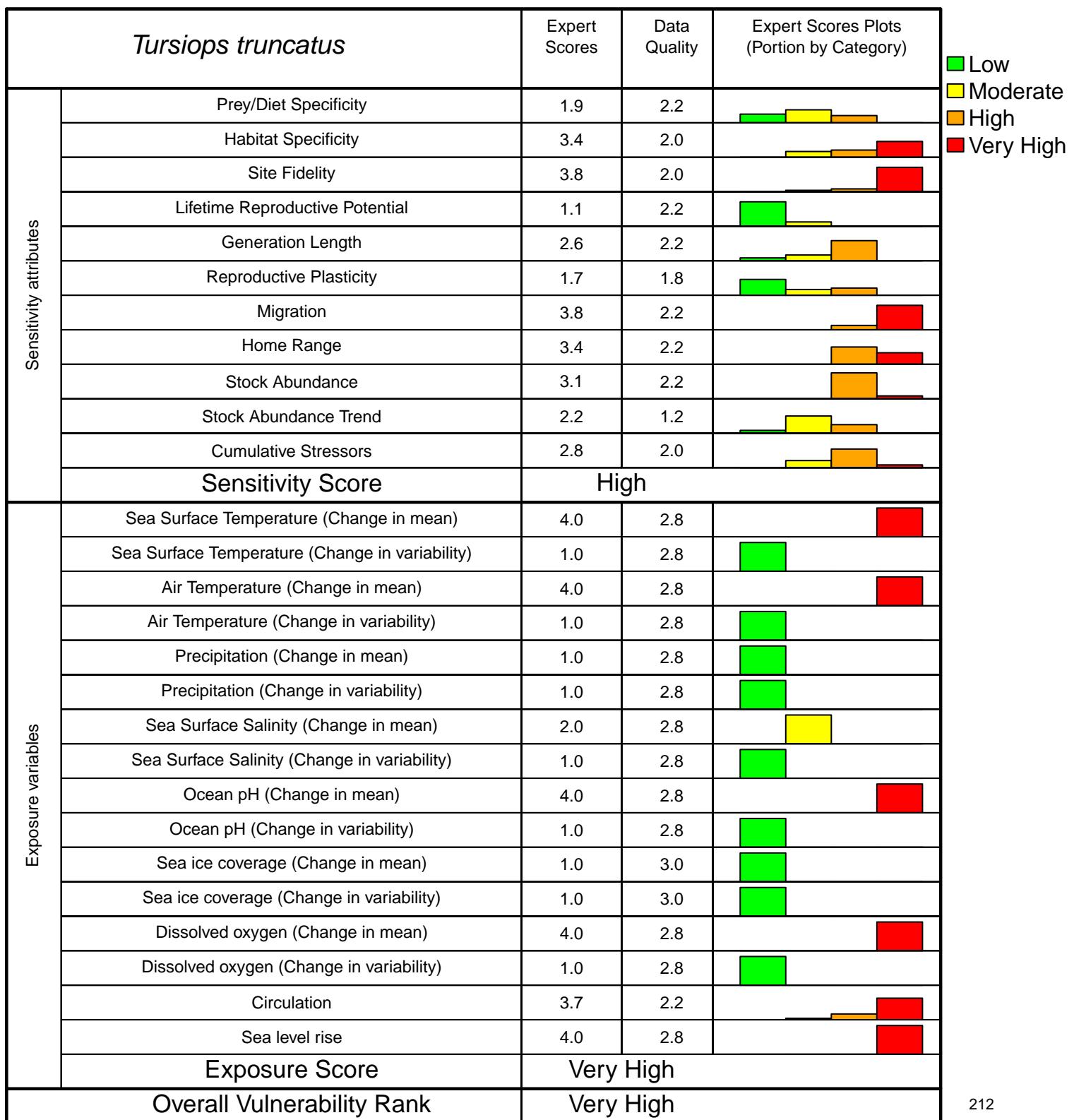
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Mobile Bay, Bonsecour Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Mobile Bay, Bonsecour Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Circulation (3.7).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.85), Site Fidelity (3.80), Home Range (3.40), Habitat Specificity (3.35), and Species Abundance (3.10).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Mobile Bay and Bonsecour Bay in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Alabama coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd et al. 2021a, 2021b).

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated this stock's abundance at 122 individuals (CV= 0.34). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Mobile Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of

Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from the northern Gulf of Mexico have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

GoMx BSE/Nueces Bay, Corpus Christi Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	2.8	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.4	2.2	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.5	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	1.8	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	1.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.5	2.8	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.8	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.2	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	3.2	2.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Nueces Bay, Corpus Christi Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.85), Cumulative Stressors (3.55), and Home Range (3.50).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Nueces Bay and Corpus Christi Bay in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay and Espiritu Santo Bay in Texas (Lynn and Würsig 2002), San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Irwin and Würsig 2004), Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021), Mississippi Sound (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), Tampa Bay (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009), and Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1997; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Connor et al. 2000; Leatherwood 1977; Wells 2003; Wells and Scott 1999).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Urian et al. 1996; Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are

recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells et al. 2017), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002).

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated this stock's abundance at 58 individuals (CV = 0.61). More recent estimates are unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Phillips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the Nueces Bay and Corpus Christi Bay system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic. Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), habitat loss, and climate change (Phillips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with

environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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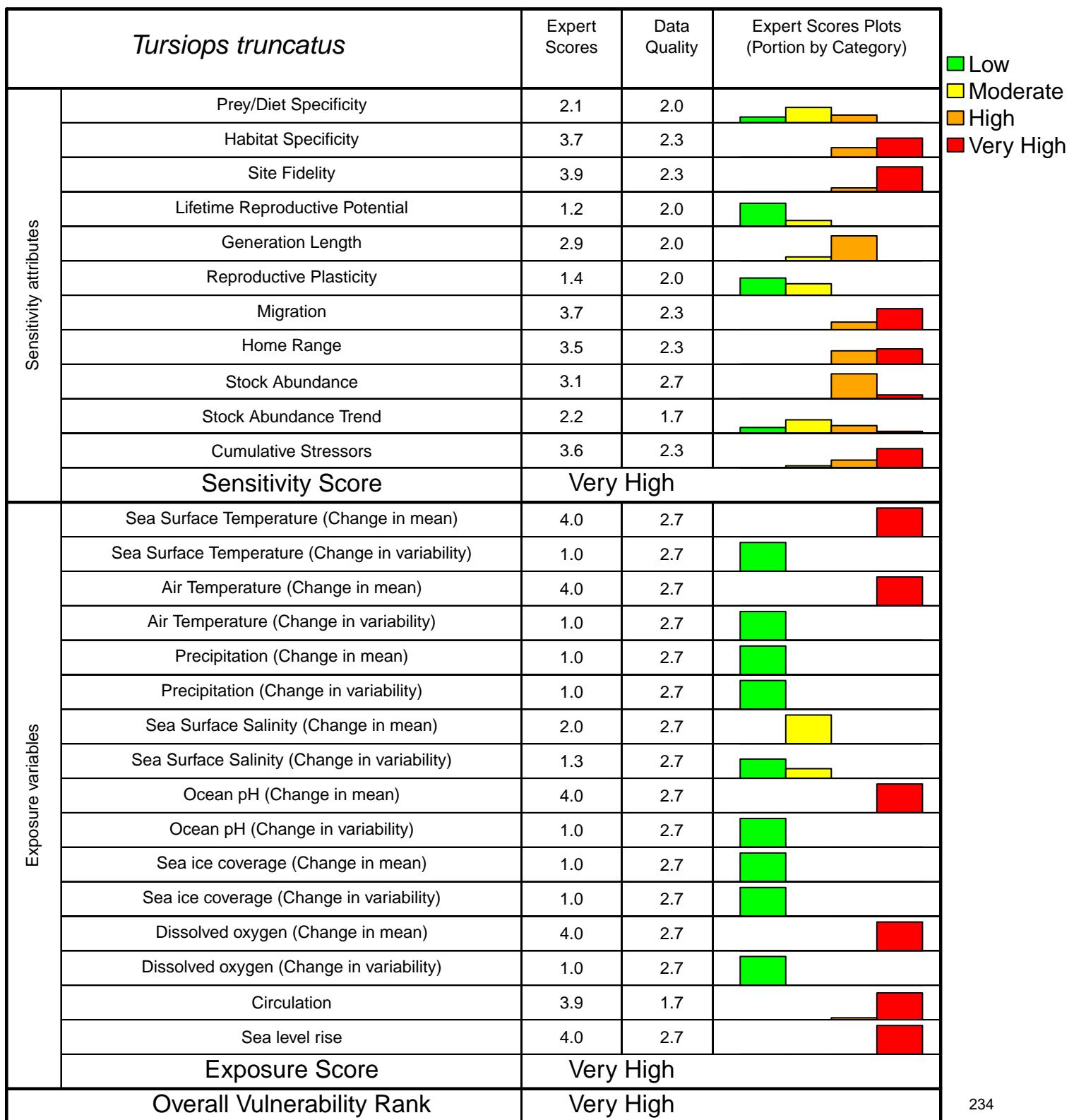
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Pensacola Bay, East Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Pensacola Bay, East Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.87), Migration (3.73), Habitat Specificity (3.67), Cumulative Stressors (3.60), and Home Range (3.53).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Pensacola Bay and East Bay in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Toms (2019) reported that 70% of dolphins sighted during a capture-mark-recapture photo-ID study carried out over a 2.5 year period (June 2013 - January 2016) were seen more than once in the study area. In that study, 43% of all dolphins identified were seen in just one season and 30% of these were seen only once. 26% of dolphins sighted were seen across two seasons, 20% across three seasons, and 12% were seen in all four seasons.

Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf

sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated this stock's abundance at 33 individuals (CV = 0.80). More recently, Toms (2019) completed a photo-ID mark-recapture analysis and estimated this stock's abundance to be between 222 (95% CI: 173–286; Spring 2015) and 309 (95% CI: 211–453; Winter 2013/2014) individuals; 43% of individuals were considered to be transients.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Pensacola Bay and East Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from the northern Gulf of Mexico have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twiner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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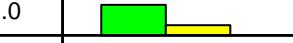
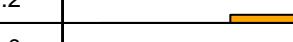
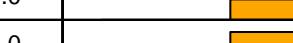
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Perdido Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.2	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	2.2	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.2	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	3.1	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	1.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.5	2.2	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	4.0	1.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Perdido Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.95).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.90), Migration (3.80), Habitat Specificity (3.70), Cumulative Stressors (3.55), and Home Range (3.50).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Perdido Bay in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Alabama and Florida coasts (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson 2004).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Perdido Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from the northern Gulf of Mexico have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in waters along the Florida panhandle (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twiner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

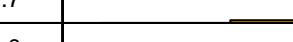
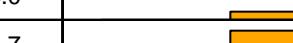
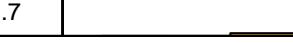
GoMx BSE/Pine Island Sound, Charlotte Harbor, Gasparilla Sound, Lemon Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.3	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	3.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.9	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.3	
	Migration	3.9	2.7	
	Home Range	3.8	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.9	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.7	2.3	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.7	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Circulation	3.9	3.0	
	Sea level rise	3.9	2.7	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Pine Island Sound, Charlotte Harbor, Gasparilla Sound, Lemon Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea level rise (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), and Circulation (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.93), Site Fidelity (3.93), Home Range (3.80), Cumulative Stressors (3.67), and Habitat Specificity (3.67).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Pine Island Sound, Charlotte Harbor, Gasparilla Sound, and Lemon Bay in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Strong multi-year, year-round site fidelity has been demonstrated for bottlenose dolphins in this region (Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1997; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013). Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urias et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd et al. 2021).

Stock Abundance

Bassos-Hull et al. (2013) estimated this stock's abundance at 826 individuals (CV = 0.09).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Adimey et al. 2014; McHugh et al. 2021), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Sabine Lake Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	2.5	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.4	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.5	
	Home Range	3.5	2.5	
	Stock Abundance	3.8	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	1.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	2.5	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	3.8	2.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Sabine Lake Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Migration (3.85), Species Abundance (3.75), and Home Range (3.50).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Sabine Lake in the northwest Gulf of Mexico along the Texas and Louisiana coasts (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The primary source of freshwater into Sabine Lake is the Neches and Sabine rivers, and their water flow is regulated by upstream hydroelectric dams that contribute to seasonal fluctuations in the surface salinity of the Sabine Lake area. The Sabine Lake estuary has been extensively modified with deep engineered channels to accommodate large vessels en route to Port Arthur and Beaumont, TX.

The engineered channels removed previous restrictions to Gulf tidal influx, and as a result the salinity in the channels is highly stratified (Ward 1980).

Site Fidelity

Preliminary data from photo-ID mark-recapture surveys suggests there may be common bottlenose dolphins with site-fidelity to Sabine Lake (Ronje et al. 2020a). Dolphins were also found to use the Gulf waters near the end of and adjacent to the Sabine Pass Channel, particularly during the winter season (Ronje et al. 2020b), possibly because Sabine Lake salinity is typically lowest in winter (Orlando et al. 1993). Few surveys have been conducted in Sabine Lake and more research needs to be conducted to better describe the site fidelity of common bottlenose dolphins to the Sabine Lake area. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay in Florida (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Ronje et al. (2020b) photo-identified 25 apparently transient individuals that were observed in both the Sabine Lake and Galveston Bay stock areas, a distance of approximately 90 km to the Gulf pass of each bay. Some individuals observed in Sabine Lake were also observed well into the Galveston Bay estuary, including upper Bay and the western side of Trinity Bay (Ronje et al. 2020b). It is not known if those individuals are transients or were seasonally migrating.

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017). Photo-identified individuals observed in both winter and summer seasons in Sabine Lake were found to range at the extreme north and south margins of the Sabine Lake estuary (including the Neches and Sabine Rivers at the north end), and anecdotal reports suggest dolphins range as far west as Beaumont, TX (Ronje et al. 2020b) but more data on individual site-fidelity needs to be collected to better assess the home range of resident individuals.

Stock Abundance

Ronje et al. (2020b) used photo-ID mark-recapture encounter histories to estimate abundance of this stock. By including all distinctive individuals observed in the bay or Gulf pass to the bay in ≥ 1 season plus individuals observed in coastal waters during both summer and winter seasons (but not observed in other survey areas), Ronje et al. (2020b) estimated the common bottlenose dolphin population of Sabine Lake to be 121.6 individuals (95% CI=73.0–170.3) in the winter and 162.2 individuals (95% CI=114.3–210.2) in the summer.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete a trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Phillips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the Sabine Lake system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic. Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), habitat loss, and climate change (Phillips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2007 UME in which 66 common bottlenose dolphins stranded in northeast Texas and west Louisiana due to an undetermined cause (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock are presented in Ronje et al. (2020b).

Further Reading

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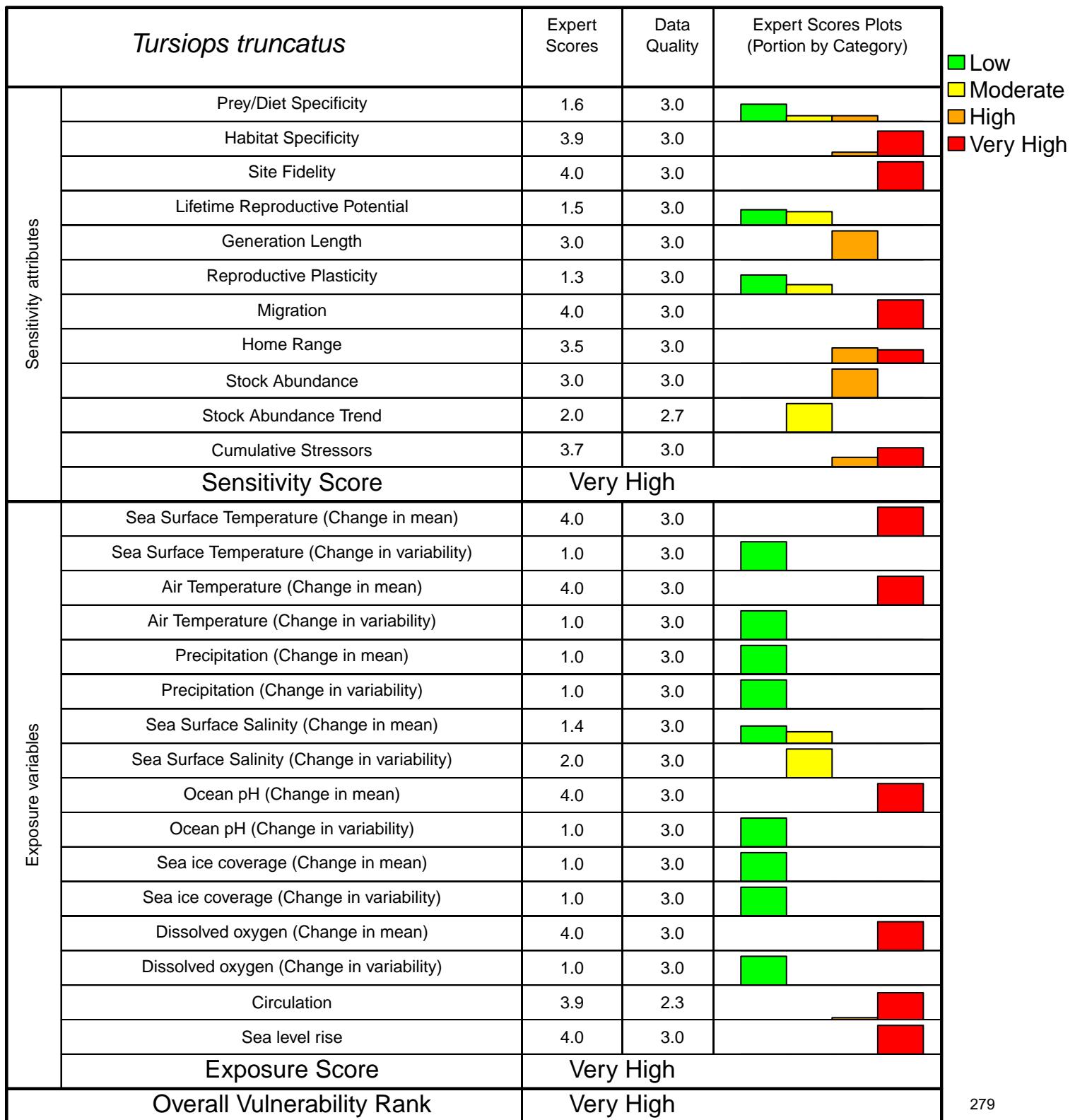
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus* GoMx
 BSE/Sarasota Bay, Little Sarasota Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Sarasota Bay, Little Sarasota Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (4.00), Site Fidelity (4.00), Habitat Specificity (3.87), and Cumulative Stressors (3.67).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 100% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Sarasota Bay and Little Sarasota Bay along the Gulf of Mexico coast of Florida (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021) and individuals of this stock have been found to have a flexible diet consisting primarily of fish (Cloyed et al. 2021a). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015a, 2015b) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Strong site fidelity was first defined for common bottlenose dolphins based on research initiated on this stock in 1970 (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 2014). The dolphins of this stock are year-round, multi-decadal, multi-generational residents of the inshore waters from southern Tampa Bay to Venice Inlet (Wells 2014).

Other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks also show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay and Espiritu Santo Bay in Texas (Lynn and Würsig 2002), San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Irwin and Würsig 2004), Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021), Mississippi Sound (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), Tampa Bay (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009), and Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1997; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Urian et al. 1996; Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Balmer et al. 2008; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Scott et al. 1990; Tyson et al. 2011; Urian et al. 2009; Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2003; Wells et al. 1987; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997), Texas (Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Maze and Würsig 1999; Shane 1990; Shane 2004; Weller 1998), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Cloyd et al. 2021b).

Stock Abundance

Tyson and Wells (2016) estimated this stock's abundance at 158 individuals (CV = 0.27).

Stock Abundance Trend

The bottlenose dolphins of Sarasota Bay have increased in abundance since an initial estimate of 102 dolphins (95% CI = 90–117) in 1976 (Irvine et al. 1981), and a subsequent estimate of 98 (95% CI = 89–108) in 1983 (Wells 1986), to the 2015 estimate of 158 dolphins (Tyson and Wells 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation (Wilkinson et al. 2017), harmful algal blooms (Fire et al. 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2021; McHugh et al. 2011; Twiner et al. 2011), recreational and commercial fishing gear (Powell and Wells 2011), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning (Christiansen et al. 2016). Common bottlenose dolphins in the Sarasota Bay, Little Sarasota Bay Stock interact with the stone crab trap/pot fisheries (86 FR 3028, January 14, 2021).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from Sarasota Bay have shown persistent organic

pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Sarasota Bay and Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022). Other compounds such as perfluoroalkyl phosphinic acids (PFPIAs), perfluoroalkyl carboxylates (PFCAs), perfluoroalkanesulfonates (PFSAs), and phthalates have been found in individuals of this stock (Houde et al. 2005, 2006; De Silva et al. 2016; Hart et al. 2018; Dziobak et al. 2021).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin and the 1991 Sarasota UME suspected to have been caused by biotoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

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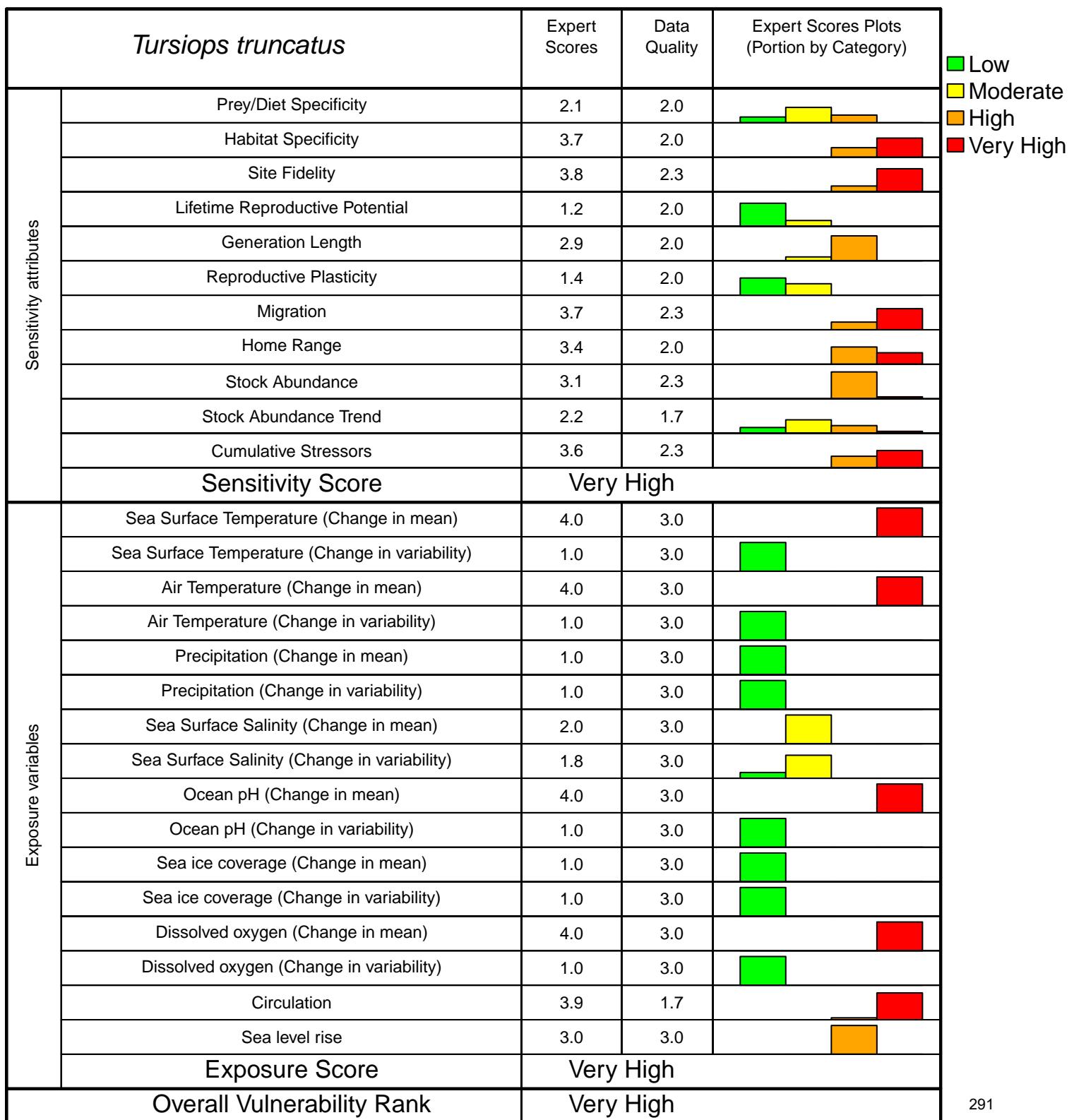
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/St. Andrew Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/St. Andrew Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.80), Migration (3.73), Habitat Specificity (3.67), and Cumulative Stressors (3.60).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in St. Andrew Bay in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Studies from St. Andrew Bay suggest common bottlenose dolphins in this stock show site fidelity (Bouveroux et al. 2014; Balmer et al. 2019a).

Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks also show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019a; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019a), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd et al. 2021). Balmer et al. (2019a) found few dolphins sighted in both St. Andrew Bay and along coastal waters, suggesting there may be minimal overlap between the St. Andrew Bay stock and the Northern Coastal stock.

Stock Abundance

Balmer et al. (2019) completed a photo-ID mark-recapture analysis between 2015 and 2016 and estimated this stock's abundance to be lowest in April 2016 (199 individuals; 95% CI 173–246), and highest in October 2016 (315 individuals; 95% CI 274–378). Previously, Blaylock and Hoggard (1994) estimated this stock's abundance at 124 individuals (CV = 0.57). Bouveroux et al. (2014) used robust design photo-ID mark-recapture models between March 2004 - July 2007 and found that seasonal abundance estimates ranged from 89 (CI 95% = 71–161) to 183 (CI 95% = 169–208) dolphins, even though 263 distinctive dolphins were identified during the study.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These

include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Twinner et al. 2012), recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in tissues of common bottlenose dolphins from St. Andrew Bay (Wilson et al. 2012; Balmer et al. 2019b) and other Florida Gulf Coast waters (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Common bottlenose dolphins in St. Andrew Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twinner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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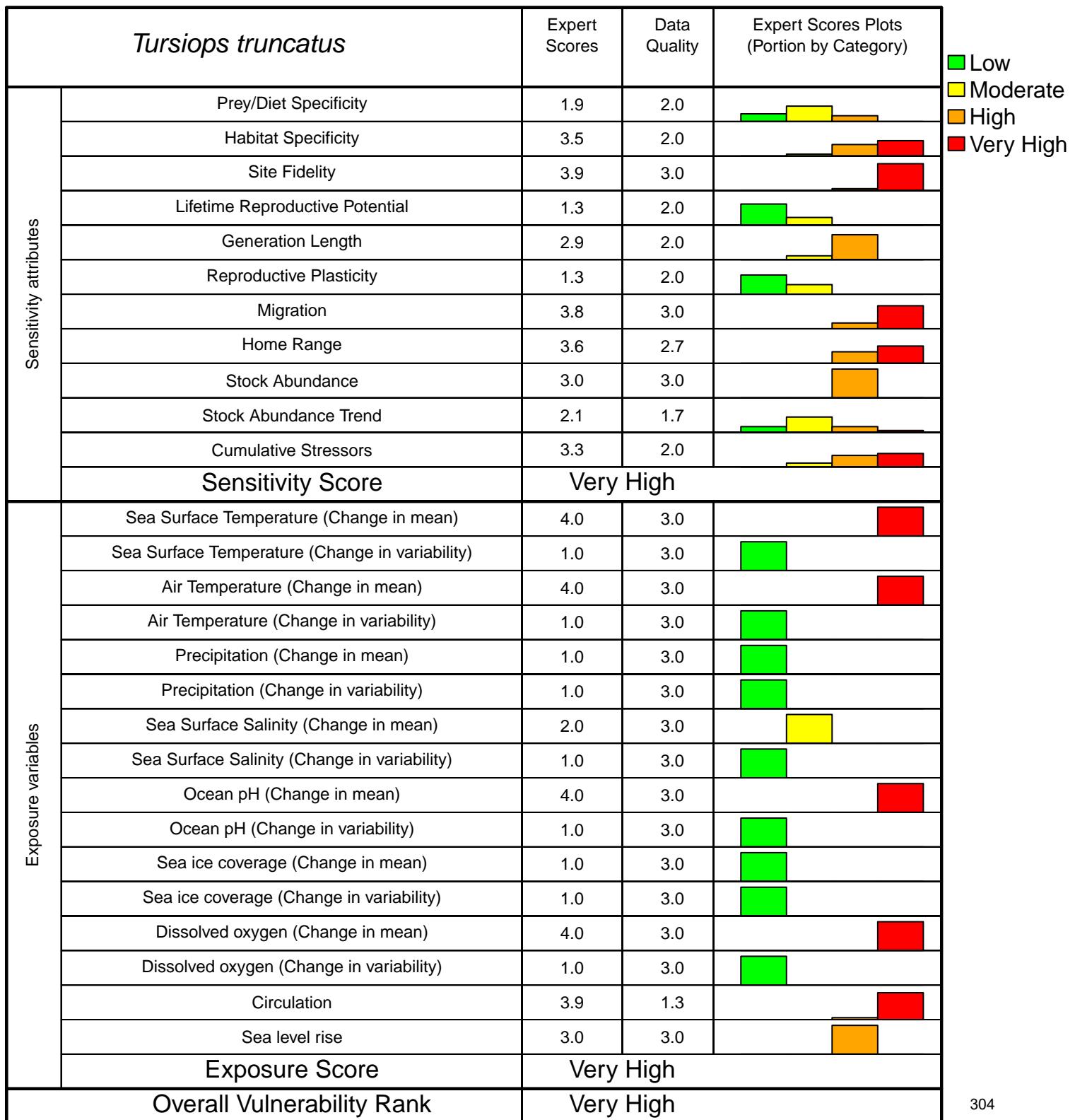
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/St. Joseph Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/St. Joseph Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.93), Migration (3.80), and Home Range (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in St. Joseph Bay, Crooked Island Sound and coastal waters out to 2 km from shore along St. Joseph Peninsula and Crooked Island in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Studies from St. Joseph Bay suggest common bottlenose dolphins in this stock show site fidelity (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018).

Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks also show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd et al. 2021).

Stock Abundance

Balmer et al. (2018) estimated the abundance of this stock at 142 individuals (95% CI: 92–190; CV=0.17), based on a February 2011 vessel-based capture-recapture photo-ID survey.

Stock Abundance Trend

There is no evidence of a trend in this stock's abundance based on estimates from February/March 2005, February 2006, and February 2011 (Balmer et al. 2018; Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Schwacke et al. 2010; Twiner et al. 2012), recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in tissues of common bottlenose dolphins from St. Joseph Bay (Yordy et al. 2010a; Wilson et al. 2012; Balmer et al. 2015) and other Florida Gulf Coast

waters (Yordy et al. 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Common bottlenose dolphins in St. Joseph Bay were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twinner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

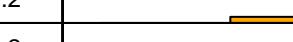
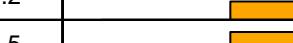
GoMx BSE/St. Joseph Sound, Clearwater Harbor Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.2	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.2	
	Site Fidelity	3.8	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.2	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.5	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	3.1	1.5	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	1.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.5	2.2	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.0	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Circulation	3.9	2.2	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.5	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/St. Joseph Sound, Clearwater Harbor Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Circulation (3.9).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.85), Site Fidelity (3.85), Habitat Specificity (3.70), Cumulative Stressors (3.55), and Home Range (3.55).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in St. Joseph Sound and Clearwater Harbor in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2019).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi/Louisiana (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2019).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2019).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (McHugh et al. 2021), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from Florida Gulf Coast waters have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

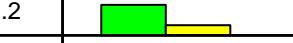
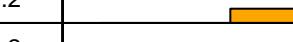
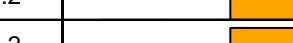
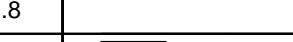
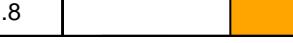
GoMx BSE/St. Vincent Sound, Apalachicola Bay, St. George Sound Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.6	2.2	
	Site Fidelity	3.8	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.2	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	2.2	
	Migration	3.6	2.2	
	Home Range	3.4	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.2	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	1.2	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.6	2.2	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.2	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Circulation	3.8	1.8	
	Sea level rise	3.0	2.8	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/St. Vincent Sound, Apalachicola Bay, St. George Sound Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (3.75), Habitat Specificity (3.65), Migration (3.65), and Cumulative Stressors (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in St. Vincent Sound, Apalachicola Bay, and St. George Sound in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Studies from St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay suggest common bottlenose dolphins in this stock show site fidelity (Tyson et al. 2011).

Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks also show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019a), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson 2004).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019a; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019a), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017). Stable isotope data suggests individuals in St. George Sound maintain a restricted home range (Wilson et al. 2013).

Stock Abundance

Tyson et al. (2011) found that two parapatric dolphin communities exist in the waters stretching from St. Vincent Sound to Alligator Harbor, with the eastern community (inhabiting St. George Sound and Alligator Harbor) supporting a more transient population than the western community (inhabiting St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay). Independent estimates of abundance were calculated using the Chapman modification of the Lincoln-Petersen method for June 2007 and for January and February 2008 for the eastern area (242 individuals [141–343], 395 individuals [273–516]) and for the western survey area (197 individuals [130–264], 111 individuals [71–150]), respectively. However, given these communities are still considered a single stock, their abundance estimate is considered the sum of the June 2007 estimates (439 individuals; CV=0.14; Tyson et al. 2011; Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Twinner et al. 2012), recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in tissues of common bottlenose dolphins from the Florida Panhandle (Wilson et al. 2012; Balmer et al. 2019b) and other Florida Gulf Coast waters (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Common bottlenose dolphins in this stock were possibly exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

UMEs have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of the Florida panhandle with biotoxins (e.g., brevetoxin from *Karenia brevis*) the suspected or confirmed cause (Twinner et al. 2012; Litz et al. 2014). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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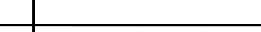
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Tampa Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.7	2.3	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	3.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.3	
	Migration	3.9	3.0	
	Home Range	3.7	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	1.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.7	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	3.9	2.7	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Tampa Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Migration (3.93), Site Fidelity (3.93), Habitat Specificity (3.73), Cumulative Stressors (3.67), and Home Range (3.67)

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Tampa Bay in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Bottlenose dolphins in Tampa Bay have been shown to demonstrate strong site fidelity (Wells et al. 1996; Urian et al. 2009). Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), and St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Cloyd et al. 2021).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (McHugh et al. 2021), vessel traffic (MacQueeney et al. 2022), pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from nearby Sarasota Bay have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in

Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

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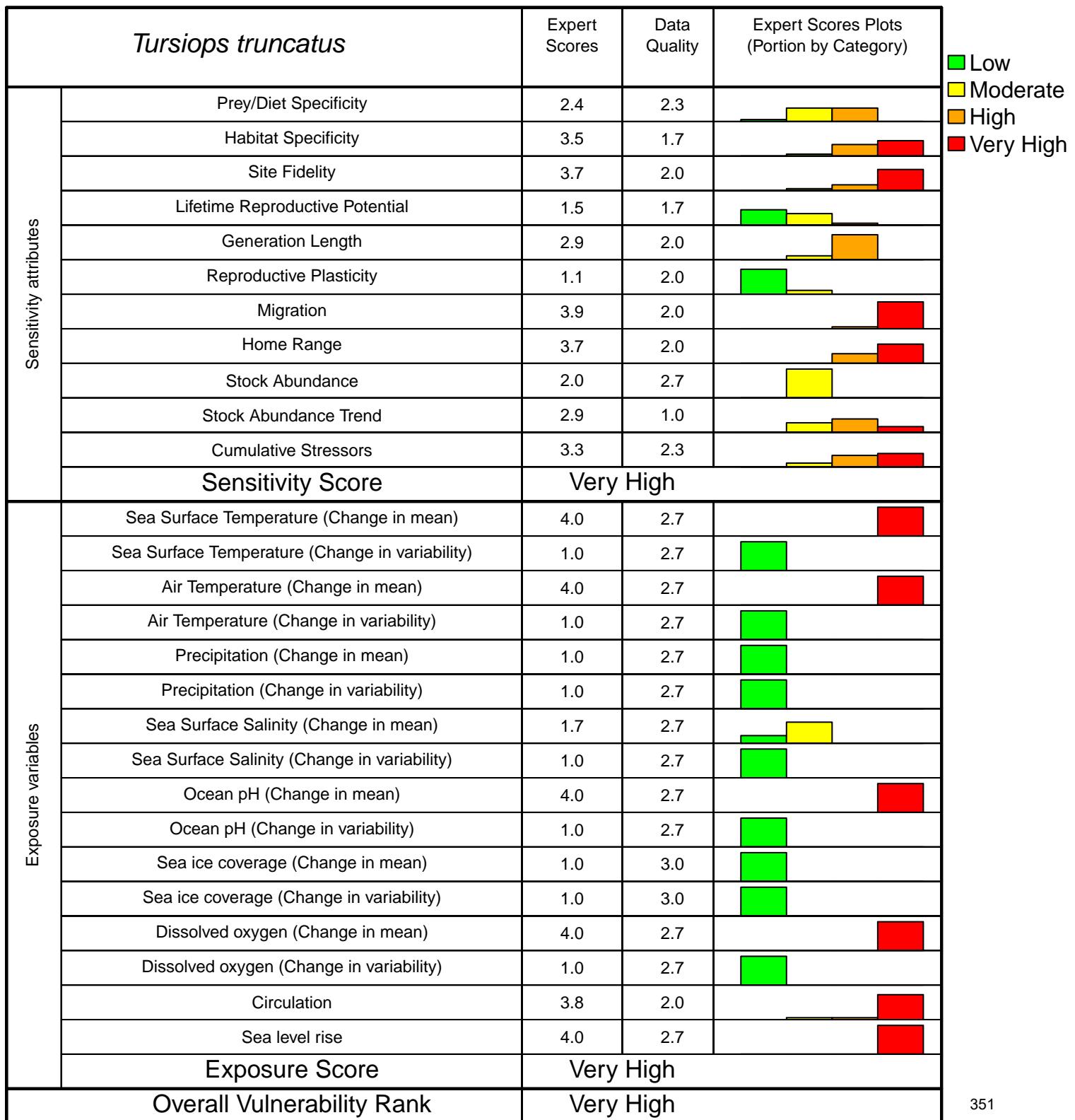
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Terrebonne Bay, Timbalier Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Terrebonne Bay, Timbalier Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.80).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.93), Home Range (3.67), and Site Fidelity (3.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in estuarine waters from Bay Junop to Bayou LaFourche, including Bay Junop, Caillou Lake, Lake Pelto, Terrebonne Bay, Lake Barre, Lake Felicity, Timbalier Bay, and Lake Raccourci, and adjacent waters out to 1 km from the barrier islands in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Louisiana coast (Hayes et al. 2019).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf

sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Litz et al. (2018) estimated this stock's abundance at 3,870 (CV=0.15; 95% CI: 2934–5210), based on June 2016 vessel-based capture-recapture photo-ID surveys.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2019).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in this stock were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021;

Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from nearby Barataria Bay have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock are presented by Mullin et al. (2018).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

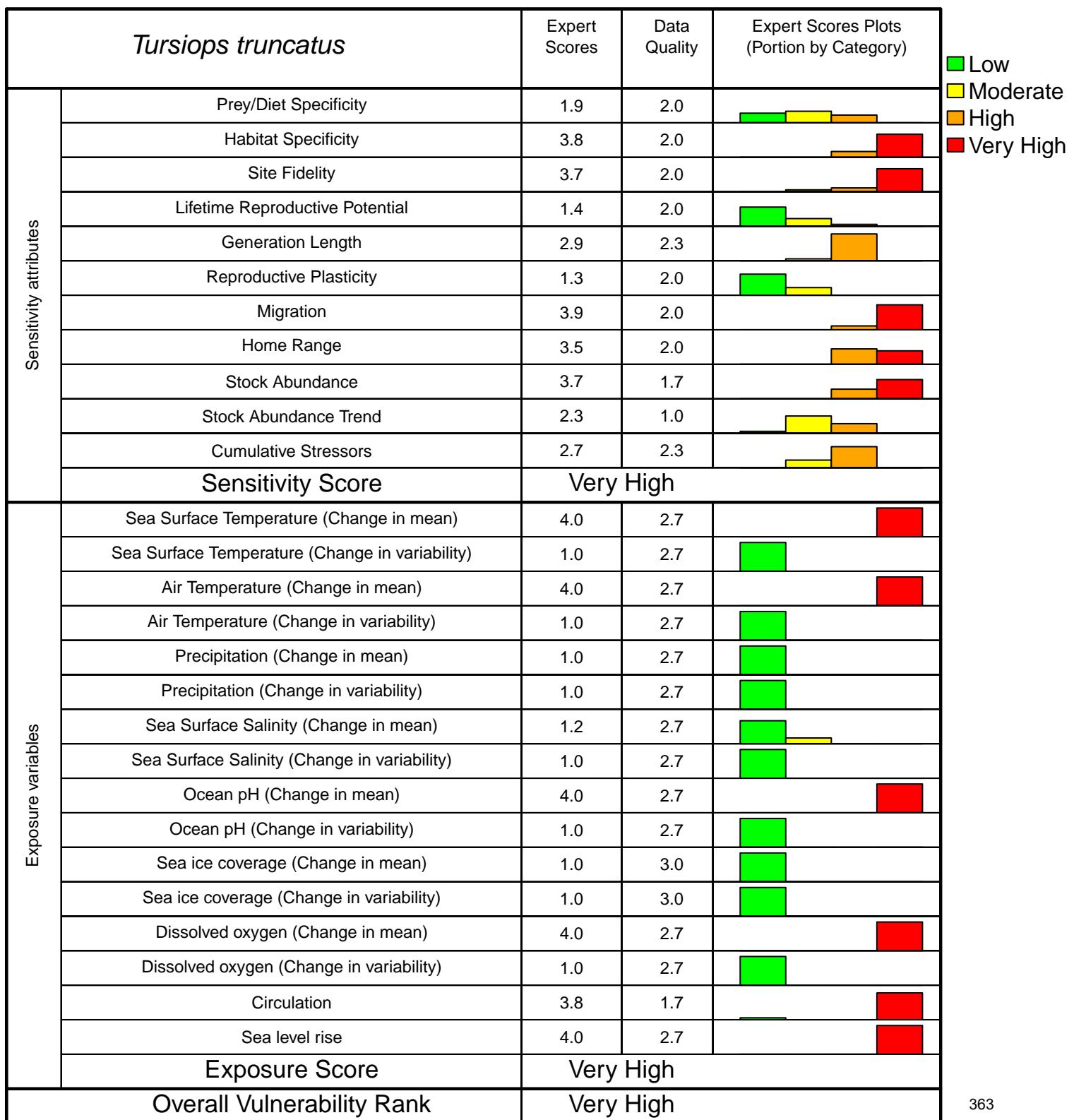
GoMx BSE/Vermilion Bay, West Cote Blanche Bay, Atchafalaya Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Vermilion Bay, West Cote Blanche Bay, Atchafalaya Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Circulation (3.8).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.87), Habitat Specificity (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.73), and Species Abundance (3.67).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Vermilion Bay, West Cote Blanche Bay, and Atchafalaya Bay in the northern Gulf of Mexico along the Louisiana coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are able to adapt to a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in this stock were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from nearby Barataria Bay have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples, though at concentrations lower than other southeastern U.S. sites (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2015; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Louisiana waters, but in lower concentrations than common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, but has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

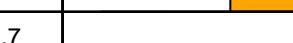
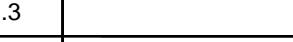
GoMx BSE/Waccasassa Bay, Withlacoochee Bay, Crystal Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 78% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.6	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.7	1.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.3	
	Migration	3.7	1.7	
	Home Range	3.4	1.7	
	Stock Abundance	3.1	1.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.8	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.3	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.3	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.5	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.8	2.3	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.3	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Circulation	3.7	1.7	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.3	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Waccasassa Bay, Withlacoochee Bay, Crystal Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.73).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Cumulative Stressors (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.73), Migration (3.67), and Habitat Specificity (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 78% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Waccasassa Bay, Withlacoochee Bay, and Crystal Bay in the northeast Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson et al. 2007).

Migration

The bay, sound, and estuary stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from Florida Gulf Coast waters have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also within the range of the 2005–2006 UME in central west Florida caused by brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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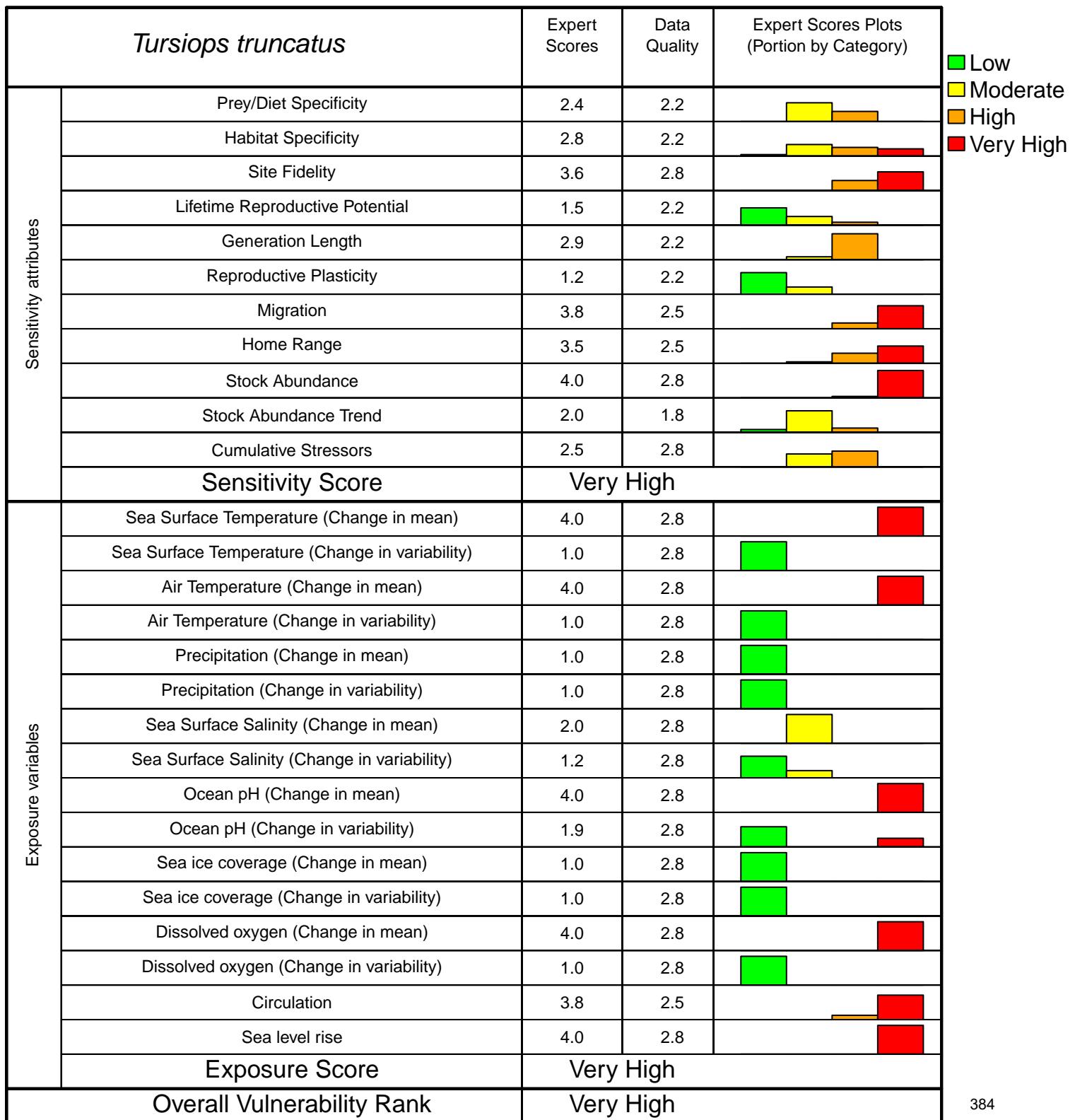
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/West Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/West Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Species Abundance (3.95), Migration (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.65), and Home Range (3.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in West Bay in the western Gulf of Mexico along the Texas coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for noise-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, FL, Rossman et al. (2015) found common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader group showing diet generalist.

Prey studies focusing on common bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) in the West Bay estuary were not found specifically pertaining to those waters. However, Barros and Odell (1990) examined the stomach contents of 76 stranded bottlenose dolphins from Gulf of Mexico shores, 22 of which were from the shoreline of northeast Texas adjacent to the Galveston Bay system just to the north of West Bay. Those 22 samples were combined with 3 additional stomach content analyses from common bottlenose dolphin strandings recovered in the states of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama (1 sample each), and designated those states as Area 1 of their study. Using a combination of visual taxonomic identification (for undigested species) and species identification keys for fish otolith and cephalopod beaks, Barros and Odell (1990) reported the proportion of prey in Area 1 as fish (94.3%), cephalopods (5.2%), crustaceans (0.5%), and a single horseshoe crab. Only 32% of the stomach contents from Area 1

contained fish only, while fish/cephalopod and fish/cephalopod/shrimp were present in 36% and 32% respectively, of Area 1 stomach contents (Barros and Odell 1990). Overall, sciaenid fishes were the primary fish prey. However, the great diversity of species (over 300 different fish species found in eight stomachs from Area 1) and similarity of species to commercial fisheries bycatch suggests bottlenose dolphins off Texas were supplementing their diet by depredating shrimp trawler bycatch or by taking fish directly out of the nets (presumably) during trawling operations (Barros and Odell 1990). Observations of common bottlenose dolphins feeding using both methods from Texas and Louisiana have been well documented (Gunter 1938; Shane 1977; Gruber 1981; Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Fertl 1994b; Moreno 2005).

While much research indicates sciaenid fishes are the primary prey fishes for bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico (Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Dunshea et al. 2013), other researchers (Gunter 1942; Shane 1990; Miller 1992) have suggested striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) may be a significant part of the bottlenose dolphin diet in Texas waters. Barros and Wells (1998) reviewed the importance of mullet in the diet of common bottlenose dolphins in Florida waters and suggested the species is important, yet ranks under soniferous fishes in their dietary profile.

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Maze and Würsig (1999) assessed photo-ID data collected from West Bay in years ranging from 1990 to 1996, and found ~20% of the individuals observed in 1995–1996 were also present in 1990. Irwin and Würsig (2004) further analyzed photo-ID data collected in West Bay from 1990–2001, and found evidence for strong site fidelity for West Bay individuals. Common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994a; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Photo-ID studies indicate coastal and inter-bay dolphin movements occur among adjacent stock areas on the north Texas coast (Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Maze and Würsig 1999; Ronje et al. 2020). Maze and Würsig (1999) identified 3 individuals that were observed in both the Galveston Bay and adjacent West Bay stock areas, with one of those individuals remaining in West Bay for up to 9 months after its initial sighting in Galveston Bay. Ronje et al. (2020) photo-identified 15 individuals in the West Bay stock area that were also observed in the adjacent Galveston Bay stock area. More information

needs to be collected to determine if any migratory patterns exist, but transient individuals are thought to frequent the San Luis Pass at the southeastern end of West Bay.

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017). Maze and Würsig (1999), Irwin and Würsig (2004), and Henderson and Würsig (2007) noted higher resident density in the Gulf during cold months and in West Bay during warm months. San Luis Pass (a natural sandy pass connecting West Bay to the Gulf of Mexico) is a relatively small part of West Bay, yet typically contains the highest dolphin density for the West Bay stock (Maze and Würsig 1999).

Stock Abundance

Litz et al. (2019) used photo-identification mark-recapture data to estimate West Bay abundance at 50.63 [unconditional SE 2.23] in the winter and 44.36 [unconditional SE 1.18] in the summer. Ronje et al. (2020) estimated the abundance of bottlenose dolphins in West Bay at 37.9 individuals (95% CI = 28.7–47.1) in the winter and 36.5 individuals (95% CI = 32.7–40.3) in the summer.

Stock Abundance Trend

The estimate of 36.5–37.9 individuals (Ronje et al. 2020) compares similarly with the Irwin and Würsig (2004) estimated abundance of 32 individuals (CV = 0.15) using data from the time period 1997–2001, suggesting the population is relatively stable. Previously, Maze and Würsig (1999) identified 71 individuals, 37 of which used both bay and GOM coastal waters, during the time period 1995–1996.

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Phillips and Rosel (2014) reviewed the cumulative stressors influencing the West Bay system. Potential health threats range from contagious disease (e.g., *Brucella*), harmful algal blooms (HABs; Fire et al. 2011, 2020), and anthropogenic activities: mining, crude oil exploration, transport, and refinement, commercial fisheries, agricultural runoff in the form of pesticide and fertilizer, heavy metals and other chemical contaminants, marine debris, shipping and dredging, noise, tourism and boat traffic. Natural events may also pose threats: hypoxia resulting from HABs, adverse weather (e.g., hurricane storm surge), habitat loss, and climate change (Phillips and Rosel 2014).

Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) have been declared for common bottlenose dolphins in waters of Texas with morbillivirus the confirmed cause in 1994, a suspected cause in 1992 along with environmental conditions, and an undetermined cause in 2008 (Litz et al. 2014). This stock was also

within the range of the 2007 UME in which 66 common bottlenose dolphins stranded in northeast Texas and west Louisiana due to an undetermined cause (Litz et al. 2014). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014)

Distribution and Sightings

Sighting maps for this stock from December 2014 and June 2015 are presented in Ronje et al. (2020).

Further Reading

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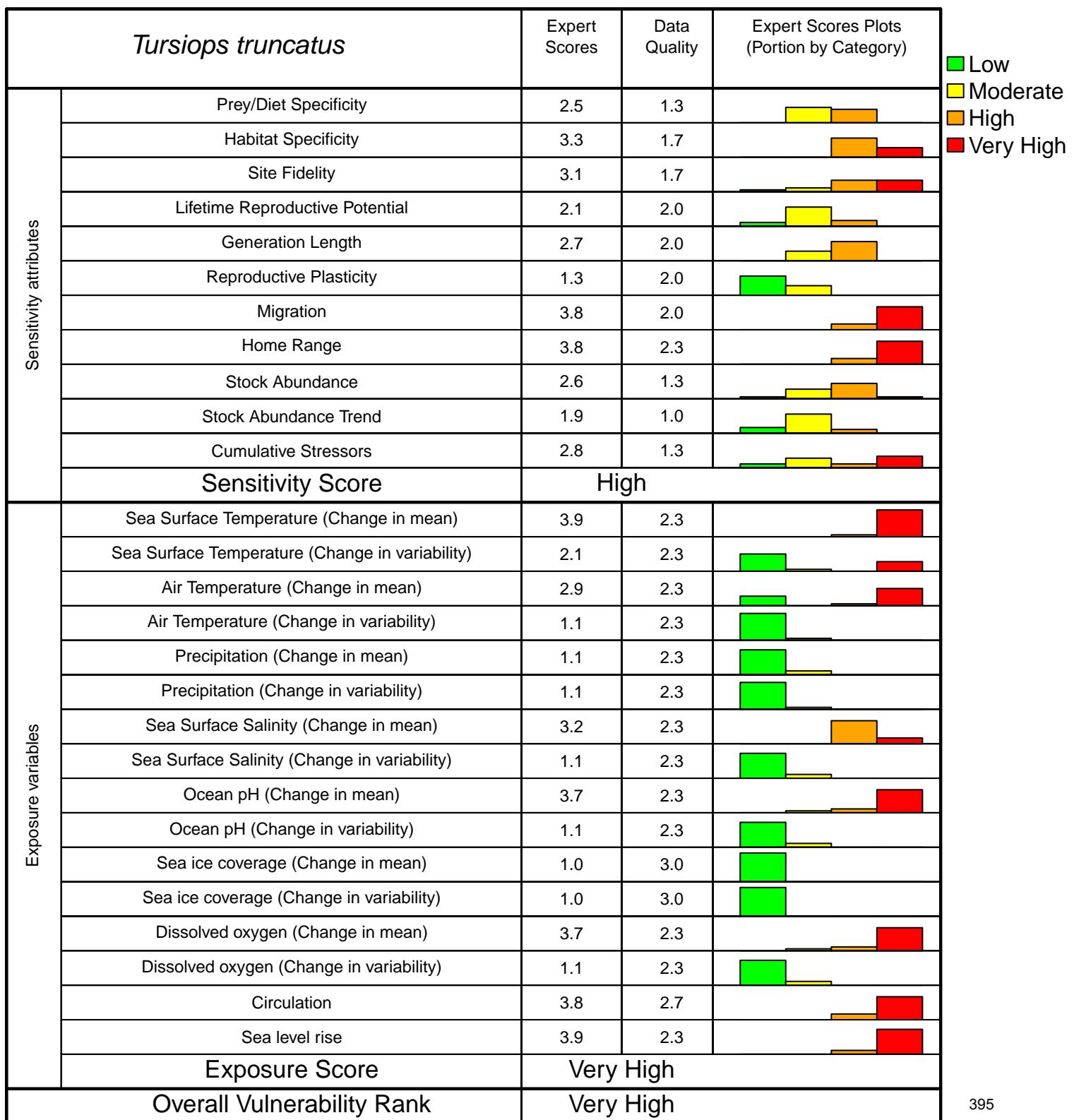
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 GoMx BSE/Whitewater Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 78% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (GoMx BSE/Whitewater Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea level rise (3.87), Circulation (3.80), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.73), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.73).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Home Range (3.80), Migration (3.80), Habitat Specificity (3.33), and Site Fidelity (3.13).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 78% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 45% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Whitewater Bay in the eastern Gulf of Mexico along the Florida coast (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017; Matich et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

Limited information is available on site fidelity for this stock. However, from August 2010 to June 2012, a total of 92 individuals were identified in Whitewater Bay (Sarabia et al. 2018), but recapture rates were not documented. In other regions, common bottlenose dolphins in other Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986a; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996b; Urien et al. 2009); Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); and Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

The BSE stocks in the Gulf of Mexico are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of a BSE stock area are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022). Molecular genetic data support that some BSE stocks are genetically distinct from one another, and furthermore are differentiated from adjacent coastal populations (e.g., Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). For example, Toms (2019) found fine-scale genetic population structure among five inshore systems in the Florida Panhandle and variable migration rates among populations.

Year-round residency has been reported for common bottlenose dolphins (Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Florida (Irvine and Wells 1972; Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells et al. 1987; Scott et al. 1990; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Wells et al. 1997; Wells 2003; Balmer et al. 2008; Urian et al. 2009; Tyson et al. 2011; Bassos-Hull et al. 2013; B. Balmer et al. 2018; Balmer et al. 2019; Toms 2019), Texas (Shane 1990; Bräger 1993; Bräger et al. 1994; Fertl 1994; Weller 1998; Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004; Shane 2004), and Louisiana/Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; McDonald et al. 2017; Mullin et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the Gulf of Mexico BSE stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Irvine et al. 1981; Wells 1986a; Wells 1986b; Wells 1991; Wells et al. 1996a; Wells et al. 1996b; Balmer et al. 2008; Wells 2014; Balmer et al. 2019), although some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002; Urian et al. 2009; Mullin et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from southwest Florida have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Balmer et al. 2015; Damseaux et al. 2017; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in this stock (Damseaux et al. 2017) and elsewhere in Florida Gulf Coast waters (McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Further Reading

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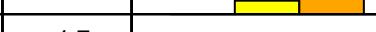
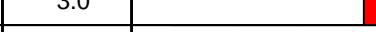
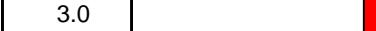
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Gulf of Mexico, Continental Shelf Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.3	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	2.3	2.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.7	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.3	1.7	
	Migration	2.8	2.3	
	Home Range	2.3	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	1.1	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.7	3.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.4	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.2	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	2.9	1.7	
	Sea level rise	2.7	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Gulf of Mexico, Continental Shelf Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (96% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.80), Cumulative Stressors (2.67), and Generation Time (2.67).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in waters from 20 to 200 m deep the northern Gulf of Mexico from the U.S.-Mexican border to the Florida Keys and adjacent Mexican and Cuban territorial waters (Hayes et al. 2022). The stock includes genetically distinct “coastal” and “offshore” ecotypes of bottlenose dolphins, but consists primarily of the coastal ecotype (Hoelzel et al. 1998; Vollmer and Rosel 2017).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2019), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996; Urián et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Data are insufficient to characterize migration patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. However, genetic data do support the presence of multiple differentiated populations of common bottlenose dolphins in coastal and offshore waters with very low levels of migration among them (Vollmer and Rosel 2017). Molecular genetic data further support that coastal populations are genetically differentiated from BSE populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). In waters of the West Florida Shelf, acoustic and visual sighting data suggest seasonal movement from deeper waters in the winter and spring into shallower waters during the summer and fall (Simard et al. 2015).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

This stock is estimated at 63,280 individuals (CV=0.10; Garrison et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022) based on summer 2017 and fall 2018 aerial surveys. Previously, this stock was estimated at 51,192 individuals (CV=0.10) based on seasonal abundance estimates from spring 2011, summer 2011, fall 2011 and winter 2012 aerial surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b). A UME was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

The northern Gulf of Mexico continental shelf common bottlenose dolphin stock potentially interacts with four commercial fisheries (shrimp trawl commercial fishery; shark bottom longline/hook-and-line; snapper-grouper and other reef fish; and commercial passenger fishing vessel/hook-and-line; Hayes et al. 2022).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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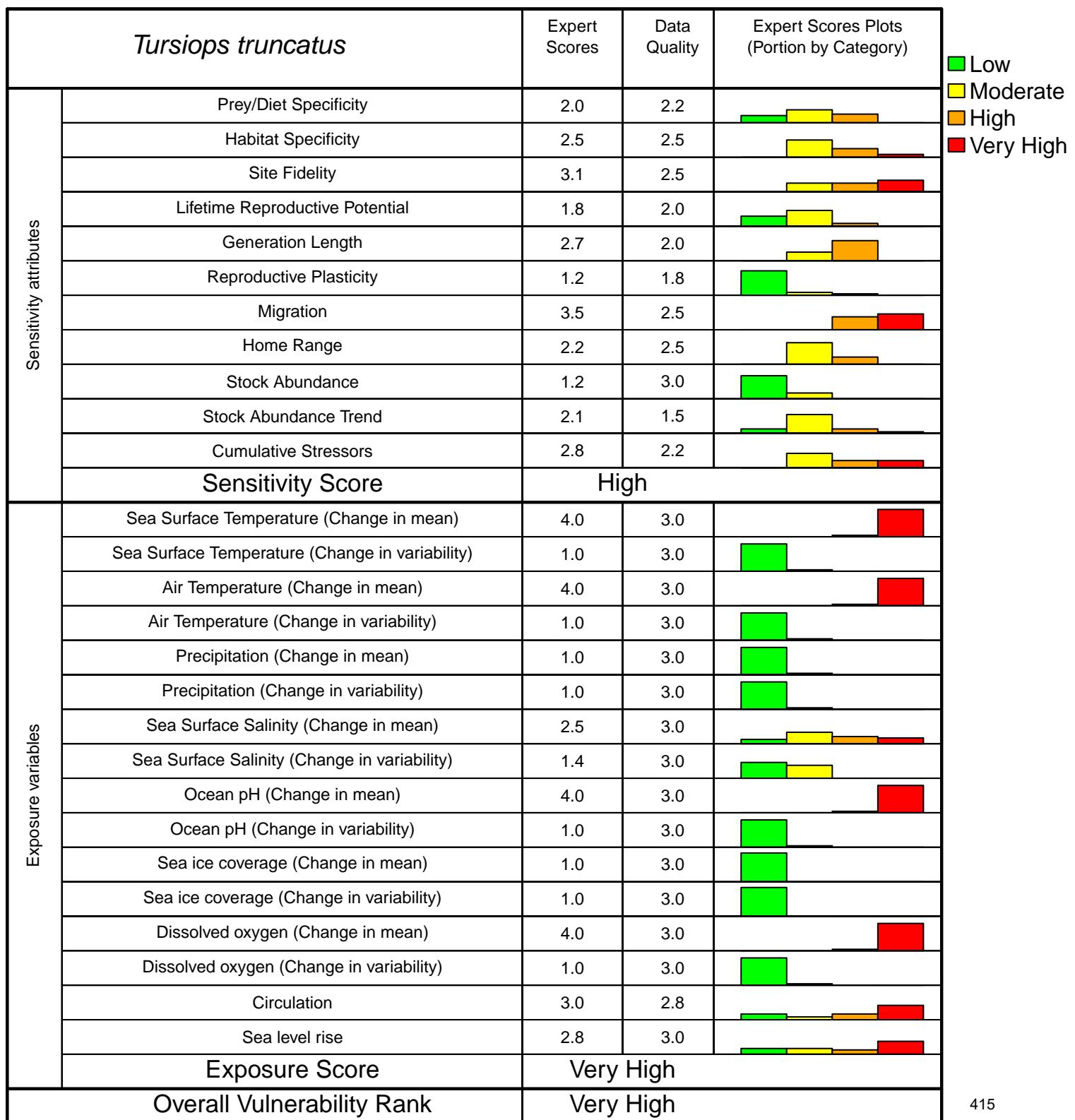
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Gulf of Mexico, Eastern Coastal Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Gulf of Mexico, Eastern Coastal Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (78% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.95), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.95).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.55) and Site Fidelity (3.10).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in coastal waters (defined as waters between the shore, barrier islands or presumed outer bay boundaries out to the 20-m isobath) in an area of the eastern Gulf of Mexico that extends from 84W longitude to Key West, Florida (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; B. Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Data are insufficient to characterize migration patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. However, genetic data do support the presence of multiple differentiated populations of common bottlenose dolphins in coastal and offshore waters with very low levels of migration among them (Vollmer and Rosel 2017). Molecular genetic data further support that coastal populations are genetically differentiated from BSE populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017). In waters of the West Florida Shelf, acoustic and visual sighting data suggest seasonal movement from deeper waters in the winter and spring into shallower waters during the summer and fall (Simard et al. 2015).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate available for this stock is 16,407 individuals (CV=0.17; Garrison et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022) based on summer 2017 and fall 2018 aerial surveys. Previously, this stock was estimated at 12,388 individuals (CV=0.13) based on seasonal abundance estimates from spring 2011, summer 2011, fall 2011 and winter 2012 aerial surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The Gulf of Mexico eastern coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock potentially interacts with eight commercial fisheries (Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico shrimp trawl; Gulf of Mexico gillnet; Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico stone crab trap/pot; Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico shark bottom longline/hook-and-line; Florida spiny lobster trap/pot; Gulf of Mexico blue crab trap/pot; Florida West Coast sardine purse seine; and commercial passenger fishing vessel/hook-and-line; Hayes et al. 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from Florida Gulf Coast waters have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c; Kucklick et al. 2011; J. Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2013; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

Five Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) in the Gulf of Mexico have overlapped with the eastern coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock. The causes of these UMEs have included morbillivirus and brevetoxin (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannucci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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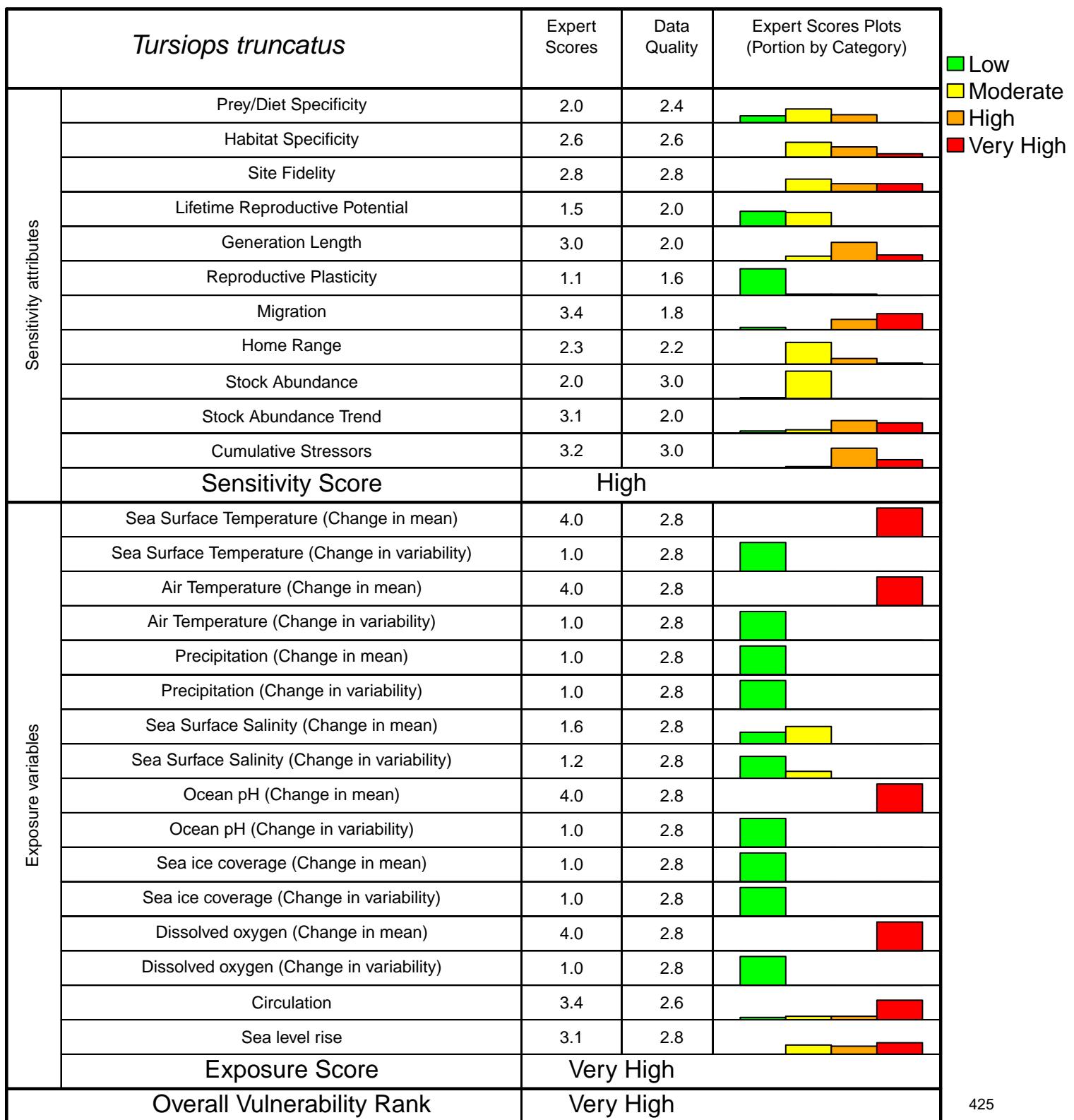
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Gulf of Mexico, Northern Coastal Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Gulf of Mexico, Northern Coastal Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.40), Cumulative Stressors (3.24), Species Abundance Trend (3.08), and Generation Time (3.04).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in coastal waters (defined as waters between the shore, barrier islands or presumed outer bay boundaries out to the 20-m isobath) in an area of the northern Gulf of Mexico that extends from 84W longitude to the Mississippi River Delta (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce throughout most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Data are insufficient to characterize migration patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. However, genetic data do support the presence of multiple differentiated populations of common bottlenose dolphins in coastal and offshore waters with very low levels of migration among them (Vollmer and Rosel 2017). Molecular genetic data further support that coastal populations are genetically differentiated from BSE populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate available for this stock is 11,543 individuals (CV=0.19; Garrison et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022) based on summer 2017, winter 2018, and fall 2018 aerial surveys. Previously, this stock was estimated at 7,185 individuals (CV=0.21) based on seasonal abundance estimates from spring 2011, summer 2011, fall 2011 and winter 2012 aerial surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The Gulf of Mexico northern coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock potentially interacts with six commercial fisheries (Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico shrimp trawl; Gulf of Mexico menhaden purse seine; Gulf of Mexico gillnet; Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico stone crab trap/pot; Gulf of Mexico blue crab trap/pot; and commercial passenger fishing vessel/hook-and-line; Hayes et al. 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from Gulf Coast waters along the Florida panhandle have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et

al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues in Florida Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An additional five UMEs in the Gulf of Mexico have overlapped with the northern coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock. The causes of these UMEs have included brevetoxin and dolphin morbillivirus (Litz et al. 2014). Although morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, it has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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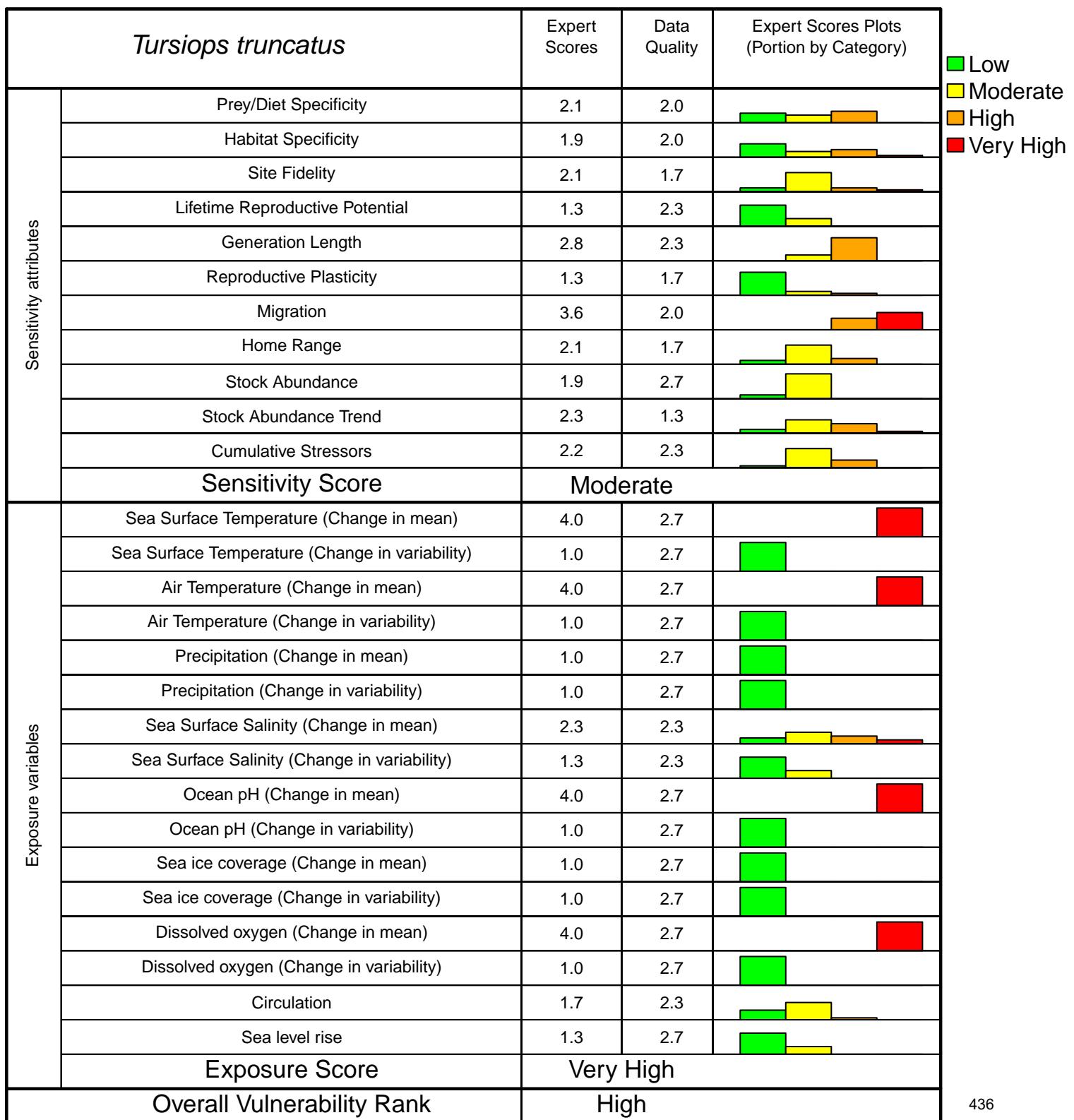
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Gulf of Mexico, Oceanic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Gulf of Mexico, Oceanic Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (96% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.60) and Generation Time (2.80).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in oceanic waters seaward from the 200-m isobath in the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone and adjacent offshore waters of the Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are able to adapt to a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce throughout their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Data are insufficient to characterize migration patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. However, genetic data do support the presence of multiple differentiated populations of common bottlenose dolphins in coastal and offshore waters with very low levels of migration among them (Vollmer and Rosel 2017). Molecular genetic data further support that coastal populations are genetically differentiated from bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of this stock is estimated to be 7,462 individuals (CV=0.31) based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the stock was estimated at 5,806 individuals (CV=0.39) based on 2009 oceanic surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of bottlenose dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (21,350; CV=0.47), 2004 (8,864; CV=0.50), 2009 (9,640; CV=0.66), 2017 (8,756; CV=0.41), and 2018 (5,833; CV=0.46). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in 1990 for the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Texas, with more than 300 common bottlenose dolphins stranding due to an undetermined cause, although morbillivirus and cold temperatures may have contributed (Litz et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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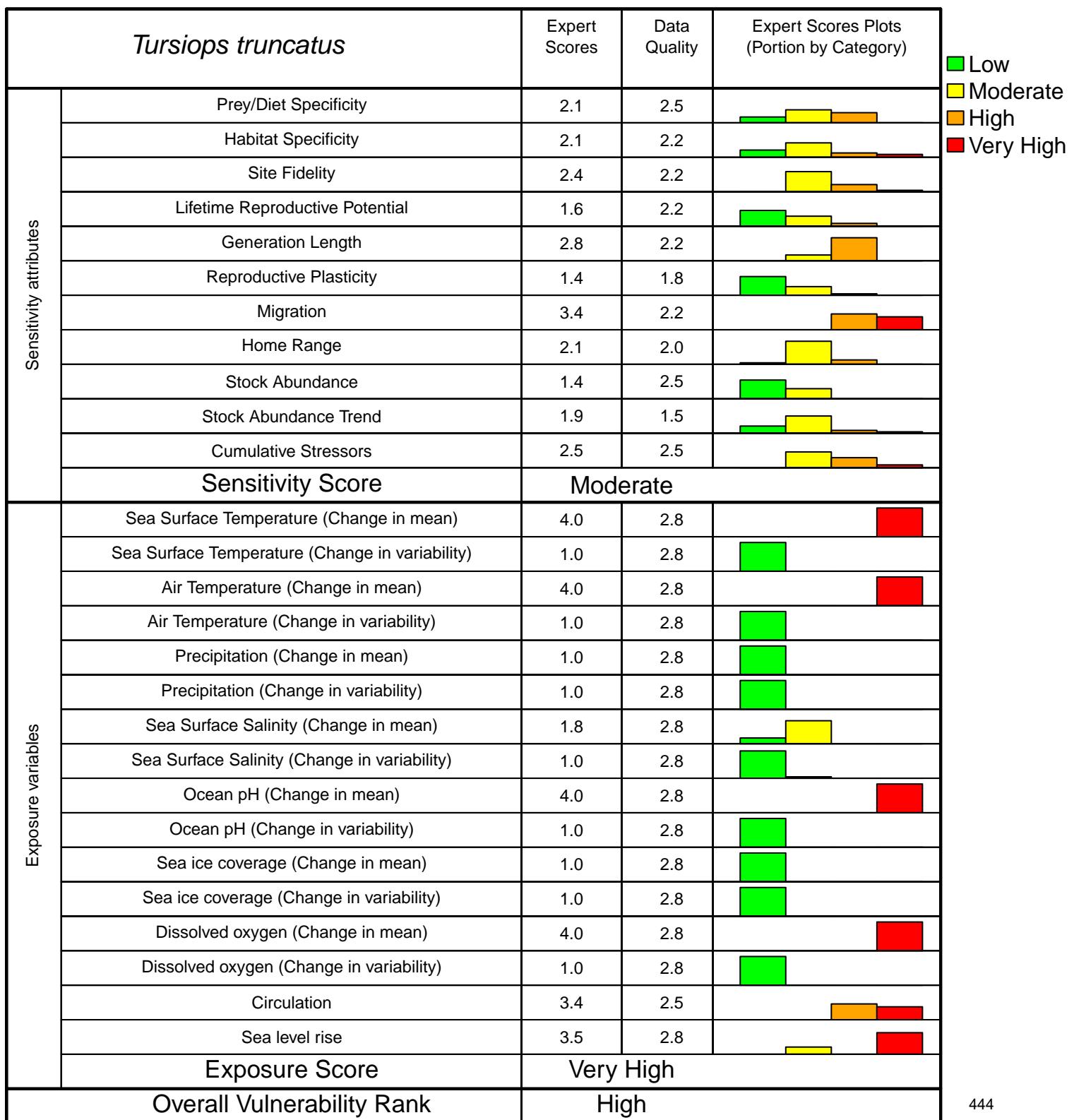
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Gulf of Mexico, Western Coastal Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Gulf of Mexico, Western Coastal Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (99% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea level rise (3.50).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.45), Generation Time (2.80), and Cumulative Stressors (2.55).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in coastal waters (defined as waters between the shore, barrier islands or presumed outer bay boundaries out to the 20-m isobath) in an area of the northwestern Gulf of Mexico that extends from the Mississippi River Delta to the Texas-Mexico border (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

In nearby Galveston Bay estuary, preliminary estimates of prey consumption proportions for bottlenose dolphins were determined through stable isotope analysis and Bayesian mixing models (McDaniel and Guillen 2020). In this study, examination of 36 remote biopsy samples obtained from free ranging dolphins in Galveston Bay between 2015-2017 indicate striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) and spotted seatrout (*Cynoscion nebulosus*) as primary prey sources. Additional contributions came from white

shrimp (*Litopenaeus setiferus*), hardhead catfish (*Ariopsis felis*) and likely fish with similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values not included in the study. The authors suggest prey abundance may contribute to disparities in estimated contributions of prey sources between years (McDaniel and Guillen 2020). Barros and Odell (1990) examined the stomach contents of 76 stranded bottlenose dolphins from Gulf of Mexico shores, 22 of which were from the shoreline of northeast Texas adjacent to the Galveston Bay systems. Those 22 samples were combined with 3 additional stomach content analyses from bottlenose dolphin strandings recovered in the states of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama (1 sample each), and designated those states as Area 1 of their study. Using a combination of visual taxonomic identification (for undigested species) and species identification keys for fish otolith and cephalopod beaks, Barros and Odell (1990) reported the proportion of prey in Area 1 as fish (94.3%), cephalopods (5.2%), crustaceans (0.5%), and a single horseshoe crab. Only 32% of the stomach contents from Area 1 contained fish only, while fish/cephalopod and fish/cephalopod/shrimp were present in 36% and 32% respectively, of Area 1 stomach contents (Barros and Odell 1990). Overall, sciaenid fishes were the primary fish prey. However, the great diversity of species (over 300 different fish species found in eight stomachs from Area 1) and similarity of species to commercial fisheries bycatch suggests bottlenose dolphins off Texas were supplementing their diet by depredating shrimp trawler bycatch or by taking fish directly out of the nets (presumably) during trawling operations (Barros and Odell 1990). Observations of bottlenose dolphins feeding using both methods from Texas and Louisiana have been well documented (Gunter 1938; Shane 1977; Gruber 1981; Henningsen and Würsig 1991; Fertl 1994; Moreno 2005).

While much research indicates sciaenid fishes are the primary prey fishes for bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico (Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Dunshea et al. 2013), other researchers (Gunter 1942; Shane 1990; Miller 1992) have suggested striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) may be a significant part of the bottlenose dolphin diet in Texas waters. Barros and Wells (1998) reviewed the importance of mullet in the diet of bottlenose dolphins in Florida waters and suggested the species is important, yet ranks under soniferous fishes in their dietary profile.

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are able to adapt to a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. However, common bottlenose dolphins in Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017; Takeshita et al. 2021); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996; Urian et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce throughout their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Data are insufficient to characterize migration patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. However, genetic data do support the presence of multiple differentiated populations of common bottlenose dolphins in coastal and offshore waters with very low levels of migration among them (Vollmer and Rosel 2017). Molecular genetic data further support that coastal populations are genetically differentiated from BSE populations (Sellas et al. 2005; Rosel et al. 2017).

Inter-bay movements of individuals thought to be part of coastal stocks have been reported for the north-central Gulf of Mexico (Balmer et al. 2016; Ronje et al. 2017) and similar movements of the Western Coastal Stock may coincide with seasonal changes in water temperature and prey density. Seasonal changes in density throughout Texas have also been attributed to a combination of north - south migration along the coast influenced by water temperature and more localized shifts in distribution influenced by prey movements in and out of the estuary during different times of the year (Weller 1998). Gruber (1981) observed an individual in Matagorda Bay previously identified in the Port Aransas area, 95 km to the southwest. Jones (1991) reported 2 dolphins that ranged between Gulf

inlets 500 - 600 km apart, and found 11 others traveled a distance < 300 km. Coastal movements have also been reported in north Texas between Galveston Bay and West Bay (Maze and Würsig 1999; Ronje et al. 2020) and between Galveston Bay and Sabine Lake (Ronje et al. 2020). Lynn and Würsig (2002) reviewed Texas dolphin movement patterns and hypothesized that while small localized communities of Texas dolphins that exhibit high site fidelity to individual bays may be highly susceptible to anthropogenic threats, these populations may have the ability to recover due to the presence of transients and migratory individuals traveling between bays. The authors stressed the unknown aspect of genetic mixing in these communities and the need for additional research. Sellas et al. (2005) concluded little interbreeding occurs between coastal and estuarine populations in their study on the Florida coast; however, more research needs to be conducted to determine the migratory habits of the Western Coastal Stock.

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate available for this stock is 20,759 individuals (CV=0.13; Garrison et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022) based on summer 2017 and fall 2018 aerial surveys. Previously, this stock was estimated at 20,161 individuals (CV=0.17) based on seasonal abundance estimates from spring 2011, summer 2011, fall 2011 and winter 2012 aerial surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Phillips and Rosel 2014; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico were exposed to oil and dispersants following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term reproductive and chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Michel et al. 2013; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016; Lane et al. 2015; Aichinger Dias et al. 2017; De Guise et al. 2017, 2021; Kellar et al. 2017; Smith et al. 2017; Schwacke et al. 2017). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015a, 2015b).

The Gulf of Mexico western coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock potentially interacts with five commercial fisheries (Southeastern U.S. Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico shrimp trawl; Gulf of Mexico menhaden purse seine; Gulf of Mexico gillnet; Gulf of Mexico blue crab trap/pot; and commercial passenger fishing vessel/hook-and-line; Hayes et al. 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Gulf of Mexico coast include waters adjacent to areas of high human population, some of which are highly industrialized, and areas of heavy agricultural impact. Studies of common bottlenose dolphin tissues from western Gulf Coast waters have shown persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in blubber and blood samples (Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2018). Similarly, mercury has been detected in common bottlenose dolphin tissues from western Gulf Coast waters (Bryan et al. 2007; Woshner et al. 2008; McCormack et al. 2020a, 2020b, 2022).

An additional five UMEs in the Gulf of Mexico have overlapped with the western coastal common bottlenose dolphin stock. The suspected causes of these UMEs have included environmental conditions, brevetoxin, and dolphin morbillivirus (Litz et al. 2014). Although morbillivirus morbillivirus has been detected in populations of the northern Gulf of Mexico, it has not been attributed to large scale die-offs since 1993–1994 (Lipscomb et al. 1996; Litz et al. 2014; Van Bressem et al. 2014; Fauquier et al. 2017).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannucci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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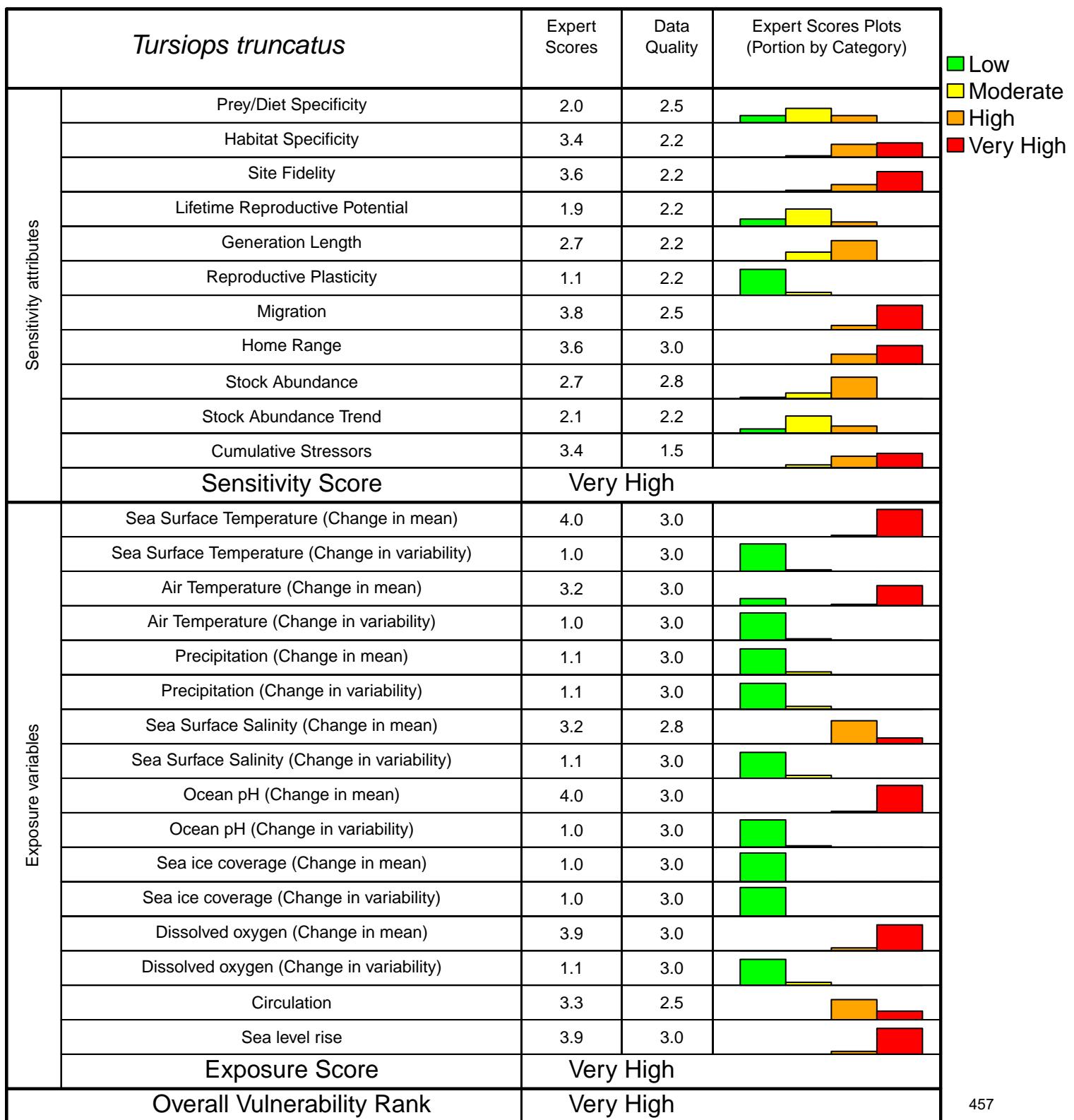
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Biscayne Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Biscayne Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.90), and Sea level rise (3.90).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.85), Home Range (3.65), and Site Fidelity (3.65).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in Biscayne Bay in the western North Atlantic along the coast of Miami, Florida from Haulover Inlet in the north and Card Sound bridge in the south (Waring et al. 2014).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

The NMFS Southeast Fisheries Science Center has been conducting photo-ID surveys of the common bottlenose dolphin Biscayne Bay Stock since 1990 and suggests 80% of the individuals in the stock are long-term residents (Litz 2007). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2014), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Waring et al. 2016), Georgia (Pulster and Maruya 2008; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (Waring et al. 2014; LaBrecque et al. 2015). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Durden et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016), though some remain entirely in estuarine waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a).

Home Range

The home range of individuals varies within the Biscayne Bay study area, which is bounded by Haulover Inlet to the north and Barnes Sound the south (Litz 2007). Some individuals are seen throughout the bay whereas others have smaller home ranges within the study area. It is suspected that some individuals may use areas outside these boundaries (Waring et al. 2014).

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Waring et al. 2014; LaBrecque et al. 2015). In Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary stocks, some individuals show preference for small areas within the stock boundaries (Lynn and Würsig 2002).

Stock Abundance

Odell (1979) assumed one group of 13 individuals occupied Biscayne Bay. Photo-id surveys have identified 229 unique individuals from 1990 through 2007, with 157 unique individuals identified during surveys conducted between 2003 and 2007, however it is not understood if these were resident individuals or transient individuals from other stocks (Waring et al. 2014).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2014).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning. In 2018, a dead dolphin stranded in Biscayne Bay with ingested monofilament line which likely contributed to its cause of death. Also in 2018, a dead dolphin stranded in Biscayne Bay with wounds consistent with a vessel strike (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, accessed 18 November 2021).

The Biscayne Bay common bottlenose dolphin stock may interact with crab or lobster pots fisheries or hook and line fisheries, however observer coverage is lacking (Waring et al. 2014). More recently, 2 live dolphins were reported entangled in pot gear in 2020. One was confirmed to be entangled in a commercial blue crab pot and one in an unknown pot/trap. Both were released alive (NOAA National

Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, accessed 18 November 2021).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with the northern, more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011).

Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions (Waring et al. 2014; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

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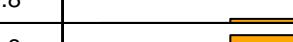
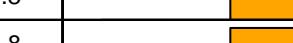
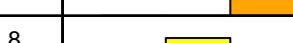
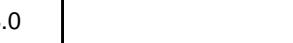
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Central Georgia Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.8	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	2.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.0	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.2	
	Migration	3.9	2.8	
	Home Range	3.1	2.8	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.8	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.8	2.5	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.9	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.3	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Circulation	4.0	1.7	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Central Georgia Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.90), Site Fidelity (3.90), and Habitat Specificity (3.75).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Central Georgia Estuarine System (CGES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in the estuarine and nearshore ($\leq 1\text{ km}$ from shore) coastal waters of the western North Atlantic along the Georgia coast from the northern extent of Ossabaw Sound in the north to the Altamaha River in the south (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the CGES stock is characterized by extensive estuarine tidal marsh systems that include the Altamaha River (Waring et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in central and southern Georgia show strong site fidelity (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Waring et al. 2016), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzioli et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the

spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016).

Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Durden et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016), though some remain entirely in estuarine waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the SGES Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Balmer et al. (2013) estimated an average abundance of 192 individuals ($CV=0.04$), based on winter surveys from 2008 and 2009 from approximately half of the entire range of the CGES.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

The Central Georgia Estuarine Stock common bottlenose dolphin stock interacts with the blue crab trap/pot fishery, however levels of serious injury and mortality are unknown due to a lack of observer coverage (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2014; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). During the period 2009–2013, 24 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the CGES, with two individuals presenting interactions with crab trap/pot gear (Waring et al.

2014; Seguel et al. 2020). The cause of death for six of the other stranded individuals was likely high concentrations of persistent organic pollutants (POPs; Seguel et al. 2020).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) have been found in Sapelo Island waters within the boundaries of this stock, though at lower concentrations than nearby Brunswick, GA (Wirth et al. 2014).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016).

Balmer et al. (2018) found coastal dolphins in southern Georgia had a significantly higher prevalence of positive dolphin morbillivirus (DMV) antibody titers (0.67; N = 2/3) than sound and estuary dolphins (0.13; N = 2/16), suggesting the coastal stock may have experienced greater exposure to DMV as compared to the sound and estuary stocks, which may be vulnerable to DMV infection in the future.

Further Reading

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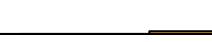
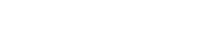
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Charleston Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.3	3.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	4.0	3.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.0	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.7	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.2	2.3	
	Migration	3.9	3.0	
	Home Range	3.1	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	2.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.1	2.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.1	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	4.0	1.7	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Charleston Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (4.00), Migration (3.93), and Habitat Specificity (3.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Charleston Estuarine System (CES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in the estuarine and nearshore ($\leq 1\text{km}$ from shore) coastal waters of the western North Atlantic along the South Carolina coast from Price Inlet in the north to the North Edisto River in the south. It includes waters in the Intracoastal Waterway (ICW), Charleston Harbor, the main channels and creeks of the Ashley, Cooper, Wando, Stono and North Edisto Rivers (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017). Stable isotope data suggests differences in common

bottlenose dolphin forage composition among estuaries along the South Carolina coast and between estuaries and the nearshore coastal populations (Olin et al. 2012)

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the CES stock is characterized by estuarine tidal marsh systems, river channels, tidal creeks, and open water habitat (Waring et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in the CES Stock show evidence of site fidelity (Speakman et al. 2006). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Waring et al. 2016), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzioli et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female common bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female common bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings.

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (Waring et al. 2016; LaBrecque et al. 2015). Taylor et al. (2016) found seasonal abundance and temporary emigration patterns in the CES, with low abundance in winter, and peak abundance in summer.

Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Durden et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016), though some remain entirely in estuarine waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a).

Home Range

The home ranges of individual common bottlenose dolphins within the CES generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Gubbins 2002a, 2002b, 2002c; Zolman 2002; Gubbins et al. 2003; Speakman et al. 2006; Laska et al. 2011).

Stock Abundance

Speakman et al. (2010) estimated this stock's abundance at 289 individuals ($CV=0.03$) based on seasonal (January, April, July, October) surveys during 2004–2006. However, this estimate did not cover the entire range of the stock, and may represent an undercount (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the CES stock interact with the blue crab trap/pot fishery, however levels of serious injury and mortality are unknown due to a lack of observer coverage (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of

human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2016; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016). A UME for bottlenose dolphins was declared in winter and spring of 2011 in South Carolina, during which common bottlenose dolphins stranded at a rate nearly three times the historical average, with evidence suggesting an unusually cold winter and decreased prey abundance contributed to the UME (Waring et al. 2016).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. Common bottlenose dolphins in the CES have been found with elevated levels of POPs (Hansen et al. 2004), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE; Fair et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011; Adams et al. 2014), perfluoroalkyl compounds (PFCs; Adams et al. 2008), and per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS; Fair et al. 2012; Fair et al. 2013; De Silva et al. 2016; Lynch et al. 2019). In South Carolina, urban areas showed greater numbers of strandings than areas with primarily agricultural input (McFee and Burdett 2007). Adams et al. (2008) found dolphins in the CES that spent most of their time in urbanized and industrial areas had significantly higher plasma PFC concentrations than dolphins that spent most of their time in less developed areas. These findings are consistent with a study from Biscayne Bay, Florida, that showed elevated POP concentrations in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with less polluted areas, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007). Common bottlenose dolphins stranded along the South Carolina coast have been found with ingested microplastics (Battaglia et al. 2020). Individuals of this stock have been found with mercury in blood and skin samples, though at lower concentrations relative to individuals in the Indian River Lagoon in Florida (Schaefer et al. 2011).

Common bottlenose dolphins in the CES have tested negative for titers to both dolphin morbillivirus and porpoise morbillivirus, indicating that these dolphins have not been exposed to morbillivirus in recent years and may therefore be susceptible to future infection (Rowles et al. 2011; Bossart et al. 2010; Bossart et al. 2017).

Common bottlenose dolphins stranded in the CES and other regions of South Carolina show a high prevalence of the gram-negative facultative intracellular bacterium *Brucella ceti* found in the tissues of brain, lung, and other tissues (McFee et al. 2020). Nearly 32% of dolphins tested positive for *B. ceti* over the six year study period, coinciding with the calving period.

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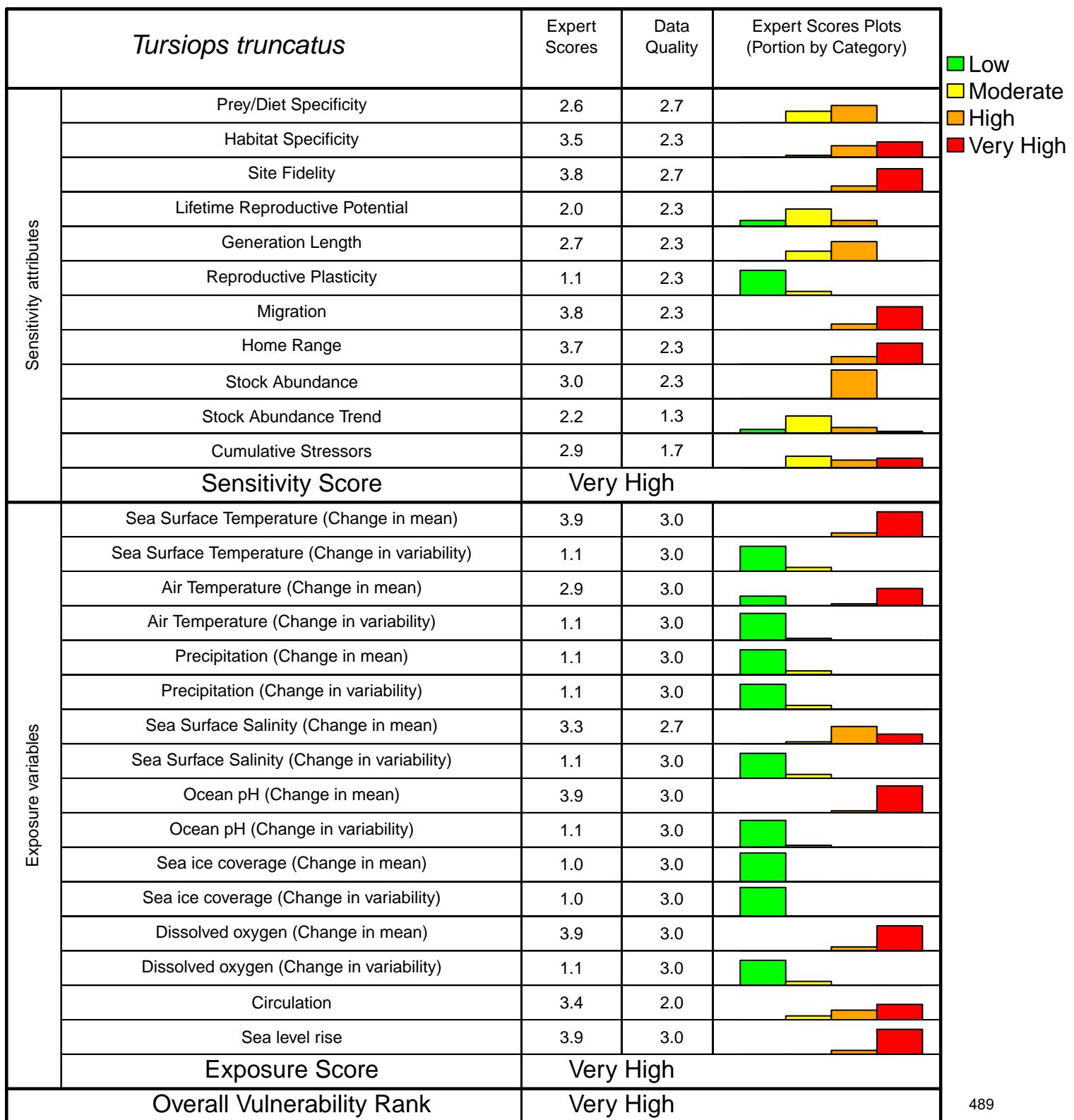
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Florida Bay Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Florida Bay Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Sea level rise (3.87), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.80), and Home Range (3.73).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Florida Bay Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in Florida Bay and within the Gulf of Mexico-side portion of the Florida Keys National Marine Sanctuary (FKNMS) southwest to Marathon, Florida (Waring et al. 2014).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017). Bottlenose dolphins in Florida Bay use three main foraging tactics, which vary across multiple habitats. However, individuals tend to specialize and only use one foraging tactic (Torres and Read 2009; Engleby and Powell 2019).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the Florida Bay Stock includes interconnected basins, grassy mud banks, mangrove islands, and shallow open water habitat, with runoff from the Everglades a primary input of freshwater (Fourqurean and Robblee 1999).

Site Fidelity

Torres (2007) found high individual site fidelity for common bottlenose dolphins in Florida Bay during summers (June–August) from 2002 to 2005. From August 2010 to June 2012, dedicated surveys were also carried out in the Florida coastal Everglades, including the northern portion of Florida Bay to investigate the occurrence, relative abundance, and behavior of bottlenose dolphins and suggested the need for additional research on site fidelity in Florida Bay due to low levels or resighting (Sarabia et al. 2018). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2014), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Waring et al. 2016), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). A mid-summer calving peak (July through August) has been reported for bottlenose dolphins off Puerto Rico (Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (Waring et al. 2014; LaBrecque et al. 2015).

Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Durden et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016), though some remain entirely in estuarine waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (Waring et al. 2014; LaBrecque et al. 2015). Surveys conducted by the Dolphin Ecology Project since 1999 suggest the presence of common bottlenose dolphins throughout Florida Bay (Engleby et al. 2002). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the SGES Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Torres (2007) identified 437 individuals from a summer-months photo-id catalog. Both of these studies may not differentiate between resident and non-resident individuals (Waring et al. 2014).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2014).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in Florida Bay interact with the hook and line fishery (Waring et al. 2014). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions (Waring et al. 2014; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). For example, during the period 2007–2011, five common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the boundaries of Florida Bay, with one individual presenting evidence of a propeller scar (Waring et al. 2014).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In nearby Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). However, studies have shown POP levels in Florida Bay dolphins to be among the lowest of all sampled in the southeast U.S. (Fair et al. 2003; Schwacke et al. 2004; Damseaux et al. 2017). In contrast, mercury has been detected in this stock at high concentrations relative to other stocks in the southeast United States (Damseaux et al. 2017).

The Florida Everglades that bound the northern edge of Florida Bay have been subjected to engineered flood control and water diversion that affect freshwater flow into Florida Bay and resulting changes in salinity and cascading effects on biota and habitat (Rudnick et al. 2005).

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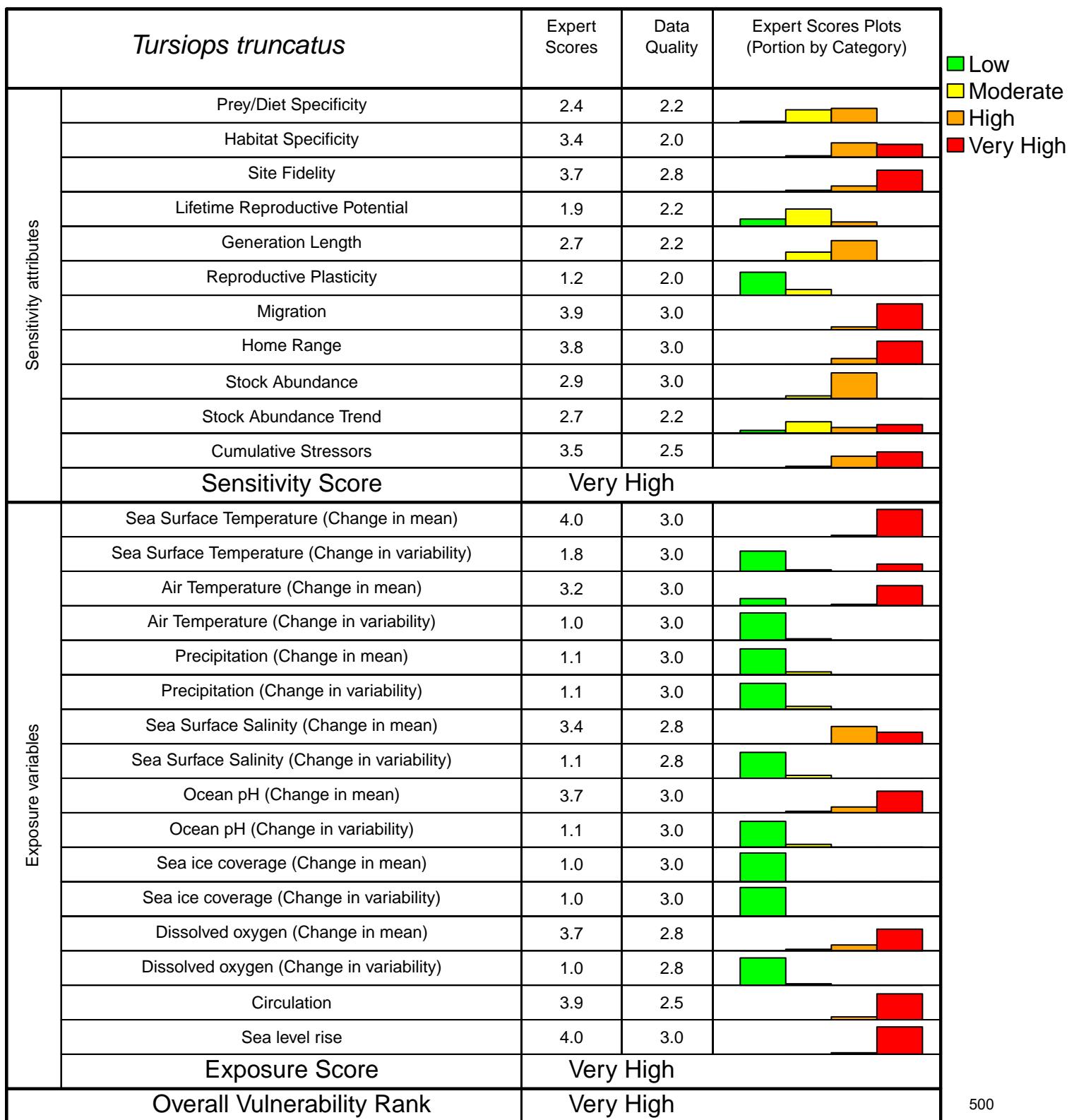
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Sea level rise (3.95), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.95), Circulation (3.90), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.70), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.70).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Migration (3.90), Home Range (3.80), Site Fidelity (3.70), and Cumulative Stressors (3.50).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System (IRLES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins in estuarine waters of Florida from Ponce de Leon Inlet in the north to Jupiter Inlet in the south, including the Intracoastal Waterway, Mosquito Lagoon, Indian River, Banana River and the St. Lucie Estuary (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the IRLES stock is characterized by estuarine tidal marsh systems (Waring et al. 2016). Greller et al. (2020) found salinity and dissolved oxygen to be key factors in common bottlenose dolphin habitat use in the IRLES.

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in the IRLES show strong site fidelity (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b, 2020). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000; Torres 2007; Sarabia et al. 2018), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), and South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Waring et al. 2016).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). A mid-summer calving peak (July through August) has been reported for bottlenose dolphins off Puerto Rico

(Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). In the IRLES, Durden et al. (2011) suggested movement of common bottlenose dolphins between the estuary and nearshore coastal waters, which was later supported by satellite tag data (Hartel et al. 2020). However, other studies suggest minimal movement between the estuary and nearshore coastal waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a, 2011; Durden et al. 2019).

Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016), though studies may underestimate the size of the home range if the survey area is not sufficiently large (Nekolny et al. 2017). Two radio-tracked rehabilitated dolphins in the IRLES remained within the IRLES until their deaths (100 days and 7 days post-tagging; Mazzoil et al. 2008b). Stable isotope analysis has suggested subpopulations within the IRLES based on home range (Browning et al. 2014).

Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Mazzoil et al. (2008a) identified 615 individuals during 2002–2005 photo-ID studies. Aerial surveys conducted from summer 2002 through spring 2004 provided estimates ranging from 362 (CV=0.29) for summer 2003 to 1316 (CV=0.24; Durden et al. 2011). Overall mean abundance during the summer 2002 through spring 2004 period was estimated at 662 individuals (CV=0.09; Durden et al. 2011). Durden et al. (2017) estimated the population at 1,032 individuals (95% CI: 809–1,255) using 2005–2011 aerial

survey data. Durden et al. (2021) estimated the population at 1,032 individuals (95% CI: 969–1,098) using 2016 and 2017 boat-based survey data.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Fire et al. 2015, 2020), recreational and commercial fishing gear (Stolen et al. 2013; Marks et al. 2020), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the IRLES stock interact with the blue crab trap/pot, stone crab trap/pot, and hook and line fisheries (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2016; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). For example, Stolen et al. (2007) reported that 834 total dolphins stranded in the IRLES during the period 1977–2005, with more strandings in spring and summer. During the period 2009–2013, 227 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the IRLES, with 30 individuals presenting interactions with fishing gear (Waring et al. 2016).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016). During 2013, the IRLES Stock experienced a separate UME attributed to ecological factors (NMFS 2022). The IRLES Stock also experienced UMEs in 2001 and 2008, with toxins and infections contributing as possible causes (Fire et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). Dolphin morbillivirus has been detected in individuals from this stock during and outside of UMEs (Bossart et al. 2010, 2011, 2017, 2019).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). In the IRLES, bottlenose dolphin tissues have shown high persistent POP concentrations (Hansen et al. 2004; Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008; Fair et al. 2010; Stavros et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017; Lynch et al. 2019), as well as high levels of lead, mercury, and selenium (Schaefer et al. 2011, 2015; Stavros et al. 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-

Karjian et al. 2020) that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates. The IRLES stock has also been found to have high concentrations of per- and poly-fluoroalkyl substances (PFAS; Fair et al. 2012).

Human feeding of dolphins has been observed in the IRLES, with possible implications for increased interactions with fishing gear (Waring et al. 2016). Vessel strikes and altered behavior due to anthropogenic sound are additional threats to dolphins in IRLES (Bechdel et al. 2009).

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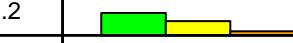
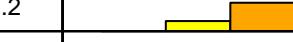
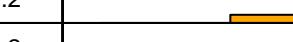
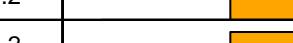
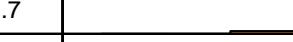
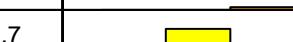
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Jacksonville Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.0	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.5	1.8	
	Site Fidelity	3.5	2.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	2.0	
	Migration	3.8	2.2	
	Home Range	3.3	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	2.9	2.2	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.2	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.7	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.7	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.6	2.7	
	Circulation	3.1	2.3	
	Sea level rise	3.9	2.7	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Jacksonville Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea level rise (3.93), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Migration (3.80), Habitat Specificity (3.55), and Site Fidelity (3.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Jacksonville Estuarine System (JES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in estuarine waters of Florida from the Florida/Georgia border at Cumberland Sound in the north to Jacksonville Beach in the south, including St. Mary's, Amelia, Nassau, Fort George, and St. Johns Rivers (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the JES stock is characterized by estuarine tidal marshes and shallow riverine systems with sand, mud or oyster bed substrate (Waring et al. 2016). One river, the St. Johns River, is deep with swift currents (Caldwell 2001). Individuals within this stock have shown variable patterns of preference for different types of habitat, with individuals in the northern areas of the range showing greater preference and individuals in the southern areas showing less preference (Caldwell 2016a, 2016b).

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in the JES comprise several groups with differing site fidelity: one group showed year-round site fidelity, one showed summer site fidelity, and one group showed no long-term site fidelity (Caldwell 2001, 2016a). A separate study also found subgroups with high levels of fidelity to distinct areas of the estuary (Mazzoil et al. 2020). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000; Torres 2007; Sarabia et al. 2018), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), and South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Waring et al. 2016).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). A mid-summer calving peak (July through August) has been reported for bottlenose dolphins off Puerto Rico (Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). In the JES, Caldwell (2001) identified one group of dolphins with year-round residency, and two groups that showed movement into and out of the JES.

Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016), though studies may underestimate the size of the home range if the survey area is not sufficiently large (Nekolny et al. 2017). In the nearby Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System (IRLES), two radio-tracked rehabilitated dolphins remained within the IRLES until their deaths (100 days and 7 days post-tagging; Mazzoil et al. 2008b). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Caldwell (2001) identified 122 dolphins that were resighted at least 10 times in the JES from 1994 to 1997. Gubbins et al. (2003) estimated the abundance in the JES at 412 individuals ($CV=0.06$), however did not distinguish between resident and non-resident (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Brown et al. 2018, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the JES stock interact with the blue crab trap/pot, stone crab trap/pot, and hook and line fisheries (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2016; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). For example, during the period 2009–2013, 71 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the JES, with 18 individuals presenting human interactions such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (Waring et al. 2016).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016). In 2010, 23 individuals in the St. Johns River were involved in a UME of undetermined cause (Waring et al. 2016; NMFS 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). The JES Stock inhabits a highly urbanized and industrialized area. No published contaminant studies were found for the JES Stock.

Further Reading

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

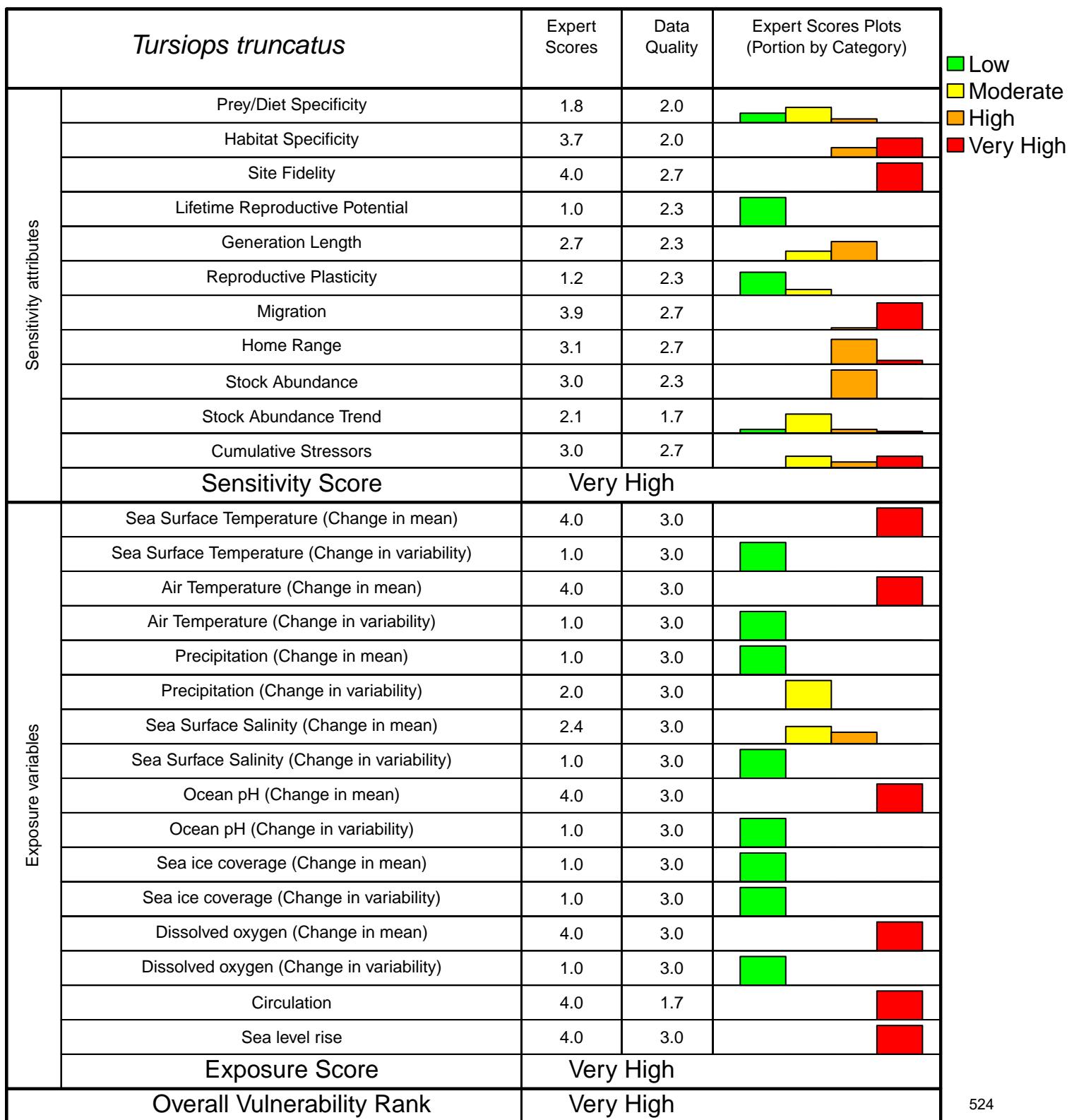
Northern Georgia/ Southern South Carolina Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Northern Georgia/Southern South Carolina Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Circulation (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (4.00), Migration (3.93), and Habitat Specificity (3.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Northern Georgia/Southern South Carolina Estuarine System (NGSSCES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in estuarine waters and nearshore waters (out to 1km) of Georgia and South Carolina from the southern extent of the North Edisto River in the north to the northern extent of Ossabaw Sound in the south, including St. Helena, Port Royal, Calibogue and Wassaw Sounds (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017). Individuals of this stock have been observed strand-feeding

for mullet (*Mugil* sp.) and menhaden (*Brevoortia tyrannus*; Gisburne and Connor 2015). Stable isotope data suggests differences in common bottlenose dolphin forage composition among estuaries along the South Carolina coast and between estuaries and the nearshore coastal populations (Olin et al. 2012).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the NGSSCES Stock is characterized by extensive tidal marshes, shallow estuaries, and riverine input (Savannah, Coosawhatchie, Combahee Rivers; Waring et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Waring et al. 2016), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings.

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016).

Gubbins et al. (2003) reported seasonal variation in dolphin abundance near Hilton Head, with peaks in abundance during May and July. Taylor et al. (2016) found stronger interannual variation in abundance compared to seasonal variation in abundance in the area around St. Catherine's. Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Durden et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016), though some remain entirely in estuarine waters (Mazzoil et al. 2008a).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). Gubbins (2002a, 2002b, 2002c) identified both resident and transient individuals in the area around Hilton Head. Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Based on photo-ID data from 1994 to 1998, 234 individually identified dolphins were observed (Gubbins et al. 2003), which included 52 year-round residents and an unspecified number of seasonal residents and transients.

Gubbins et al. (2003) estimated the abundance of common bottlenose dolphins in the area around Hilton Head to be 525 individuals ($CV=0.16$) based on mark-recapture analyses; however, this estimate did not differentiate between resident and transient dolphins and did not include the entire range occupied by the NGSSCES Stock.

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the NGSSCES stock interact with the blue crab trap/pot and hook and line fisheries (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2016; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). During the period 2009–2013, 105 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the NGSSCES, with 18 individuals presenting human interactions such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (Waring et al. 2016; Seguel et al. 2020). The cause of death for six of the other stranded individuals was likely high concentrations of persistent organic pollutants (POPs; Seguel et al. 2020).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016). A UME for bottlenose dolphins was declared in winter and spring of 2011 in South Carolina, during which common bottlenose dolphins stranded at a rate nearly three times the historical average, with evidence suggesting an unusually cold winter and decreased prey abundance contributed to the UME (Waring et al. 2016).

Common bottlenose dolphins stranded in South Carolina show a high prevalence of the gram-negative facultative intracellular bacterium *Brucella ceti* found in the tissues of brain, lung, and other tissues (McFee et al. 2020). Nearly 32% of dolphins tested positive for *B. ceti* over the six year study period, coinciding with the calving period.

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). The NGSSCES Stock inhabits a highly urbanized and industrialized area that includes the large population centers of Savannah, Georgia, and Hilton Head, South Carolina. Analyses of contaminants have found elevated PCB concentrations in dolphins in the Turtle/Brunswick River Estuary relative to dolphins in the Savannah area (Pulster and Maryua 2008; Pulster et al. 2009). Common bottlenose dolphins stranded along the South Carolina coast have been found with ingested microplastics (Battaglia et al. 2020).

Human feeding of dolphins has been observed in the NGSSCES, with possible implications for increased interactions with fishing gear and behavioral adaptation (Powell and Wells 2011; Wu 2013; Kovacs and Cox 2014; Perrtree et al. 2014; Hazelkorn et al. 2016). Vessel strikes, habitat degradation, and altered behavior due to boating activity are additional threats to dolphins in NGSSCES (Richardson et al. 1995; Ketten 1998; Gubbins 2002b, 2003; Mattson et al. 2005).

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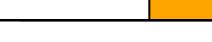
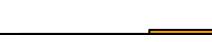
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Northern North Carolina Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	2.5	
	Habitat Specificity	3.4	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.9	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.5	
	Generation Length	3.0	2.5	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.5	
	Migration	3.9	2.5	
	Home Range	3.7	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	3.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.1	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.3	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.4	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Circulation	3.8	2.5	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.5	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Northern North Carolina Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea level rise (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Circulation (3.8).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes score greater than 3.5: Migration (3.9), Site Fidelity (3.9), and Home Range (3.7).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Northern North Carolina Estuarine System (NNCES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in waters of the Pamlico Sound estuarine system and nearshore coastal waters (out to 1km) of North Carolina from Beaufort north to southern Virginia and the lower Chesapeake Bay (Hayes et al. 2021). During colder water months, many animals move out of the estuaries and occupy coastal waters (≤ 3 km from shore) between the New River and Oregon Inlet, North Carolina.

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the NCES Stock is characterized by tidal marshes, estuarine waters, and shallow open water (Hayes et al. 2021).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Hayes et al. 2021), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Hayes et al. 2021), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida coast (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000). The site fidelity shown in other estuarine stocks suggests this stock may also show site fidelity.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a

diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings in the Charleston Estuarine System Stock peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2021).

Some of the NNCES Stock moves out of Pamlico Sound during colder water months to occupy coastal waters (< 3km from shore) between the New River and Cape Hatteras (Goodman Hall et al. 2013; Hayes et al. 2021). Individuals of the NNCES Stock that are found in Chesapeake Bay show a similar seasonal pattern with a peak in sightings during the summer (Rodriguez et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2021). Individuals of this stock are known to move as far north as Virginia Beach and Chesapeake Bay, as far south as New River, North Carolina and into the coastal waters off of Cape Hatteras (Hayes et al. 2021; also see Hansen and Wells 1996; Cortese 2000; NMFS 2001; Read et al. 2003; Goodman Hall et al. 2013). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

The best available abundance estimate for the NNCES stock is 823 individuals ($CV=0.06$) based on photo-ID mark-recapture surveys in summer 2013 (Gorgone et al. 2014). The survey did not cover the entire stock's range (i.e., coastal waters), thus, the estimate may be negatively biased.

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock (Hayes et al. 2021), however Gorgone et al. (2014) noted that the 2013 abundance estimate was similar to estimates using different methods from 2006 (Urian et al. 2013) and 2000 (Read et al. 2003).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Goodman Hall et al. 2013; Byrd et al. 2014; Byrd and Hohn 2017), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the NNCES Stock interact with several commercial fisheries. These include gillnet, long haul seine, haul/beach seine, pound net, roe mullet stop net, blue crab trap/pot, and hook and line fisheries. The minimum total mean annual human-caused mortality and serious injury for fisheries and other human causes ranged between 7.2 and 30.0 dolphins annually during 2014–2018 (Hayes et al. 2021). During 2014–2018, 480 common bottlenose dolphins stranded that could be considered part of the NNCES, with 66 individuals presenting evidence of human interactions such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (Hayes et al. 2021; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1600 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Hayes et al. 2021). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Hayes et al. 2021). In 2009, 40 individuals in Virginia were involved in a UME of undetermined cause (NMFS 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). The NNCES Stock inhabits an area that receives runoff from agricultural, industrial, and urban sources. Analyses of common bottlenose dolphins around the Beaufort, NC area have found elevated levels of POPs (Schwacke et al. 2002; Hansen et al. 2004). Individuals from this stock have been found to have detectable concentrations of lead, mercury, and selenium, though at lower levels than the Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System in Florida (Page-Karjian et al. 2020).

Further Reading

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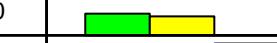
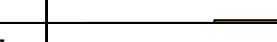
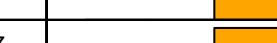
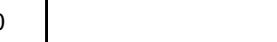
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Northern South Carolina Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.7	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	4.0	2.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.0	
	Generation Length	3.0	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.7	2.0	
	Migration	3.9	2.7	
	Home Range	3.3	2.7	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.7	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	4.0	2.0	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Northern South Carolina Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Seven exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Circulation (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.73).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (4.00), Migration (3.93), and Habitat Specificity (3.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater 91 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Northern South Carolina Estuarine System (NSCES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in estuarine waters and nearshore waters (out to 1km) of South Carolina from the southern extent of the Murrells Inlet in the north to Price Inlet in the south (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the NSCES Stock is characterized by tidal salt marshes, estuarine waters, and shallow open water with mudflats and oyster reefs (Waring et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. Sloan (2006) observed twelve year-round residents of the NSCES Stock in Cape Romain National Wildlife Refuge that showed long-term site fidelity. Brusa (2012) identified 84 individuals displaying short-term site fidelity and 11 individuals displaying long-term site fidelity in North Inlet and Winyah Bay. Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in South Carolina (Speakman et al. 2006; Waring et al. 2016), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf

sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings.

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016).

Dunn et al. (2014) suggested seasonal migrations of common bottlenose dolphins in the NSCES Stock, with different assemblages in the summer and winter.

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). In a photo ID study in North Inlet and Winyah Bay, Brusa (2012) identified 3 dolphins that were sighted only in North Inlet, 38 dolphins sighted only in Winyah Bay only, and 41 dolphins sighted in both, suggesting that part of the population maintains a constrained range while another segment of the population ventures farther. Brusa (2012) estimated mean home range of 32.79 ± 13.02 km² during the warm season and 4.73 ± 3.51 km² during the cold season.

Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Sloan (2006) identified 121 unique individuals in Cape Romain National Wildlife Refuge. Brusa et al. (2016) estimated 117 individuals (95% CI 92 to 142) during the warm season and 74 individuals (95% CI 48 to 100) during the cold season in North Inlet and Winyah Bay. Previously, Brusa (2012) identified 103 unique individuals during the warm season and 37 unique individuals during the cold season in North Inlet and Winyah Bay. However, all three of these estimates did not differentiate between resident and transient dolphins and did not include the entire range occupied by the NSCES Stock.

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These

include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the NSCES stock interact with the inshore gillnet and blue crab trap/pot fisheries (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Waring et al. 2016; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). During the period 2009–2013, 11 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the NSCES, with one individual presenting interactions with fishing gear (Waring et al. 2016).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016; NMFS 2022). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016). An UME for bottlenose dolphins was declared in winter and spring of 2011 in South Carolina, during which common bottlenose dolphins stranded at a rate nearly three times the historical average, with evidence suggesting an unusually cold winter and decreased prey abundance contributed to the UME (Waring et al. 2016; NMFS 2022).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). In South Carolina, urban areas showed greater numbers of strandings than areas with primarily agricultural input (McFee and Burdett 2007). Common bottlenose dolphins in the nearby Charleston Estuarine System have been found with elevated levels of POPs (Hansen et al. 2004), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE; Fair et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011; Adams et al. 2014), perfluoroalkyl compounds (PFCs; Adams et al. 2008). Adams et al. (2008) found dolphins in the Charleston Estuarine System that spent most of their time in urbanized and industrial areas had significantly higher plasma PFC concentrations than dolphins that spent most of their time in less developed areas. Common bottlenose dolphins stranded along the South Carolina coast have been found with ingested microplastics (Battaglia et al. 2020).

Common bottlenose dolphins stranded in South Carolina show a high prevalence of the gram-negative facultative intracellular bacterium *Brucella ceti* found in the tissues of brain, lung, and other tissues (McFee et al. 2020). Nearly 32% of dolphins tested positive for *B. ceti* over the six year study period, coinciding with the calving period.

Further Reading

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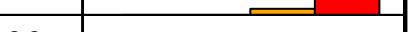
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 59% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.3	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.4	1.8	
	Site Fidelity	2.5	1.5	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.8	1.5	
	Migration	3.5	1.2	
	Home Range	2.7	1.8	
	Stock Abundance	2.6	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.3	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.8	2.2	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	2.2	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	2.2	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.2	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.6	2.2	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.2	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.6	2.2	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.4	2.2	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.8	2.2	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.6	2.2	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	1.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	1.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.6	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.4	2.2	
	Circulation	2.4	1.5	
	Sea level rise	2.2	1.8	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (83% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.85), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.75), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.65), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.65).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Migration (3.55), Generation Time (2.90), Home Range (2.70), Species Abundance (2.65), and Site Fidelity (2.50).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 59% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 36% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in the waters of Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands and adjacent offshore waters. This stock is considered separate from the Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico stocks for management purposes (Waring et al. 2012).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017). Few records of common bottlenose diet exist for Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, though two records describe mortality due to ingestion of prey: an agujon (*Tylosurus acus*) that punctured the pleural cavity (Carrasquillo-Casado et al. 2002) and a black margate (*Anisotremus surinamensis*) that became lodged in the esophagus (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 2009).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The common bottlenose dolphin is found in nearshore shelf waters of Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Erdman 1970; Erdman et al. 1973; Taruski and Winn 1976; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2020). Common bottlenose dolphins are known to use inshore waters such as mangrove channels (Erdman 1970) and also have been sighted in offshore waters and near the self-edge (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2020). Mignucci-Giannoni (1998) noted a high occurrence of common bottlenose dolphins found associated with areas of low sea floor relief. Off the southwest coast of Puerto Rico, Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. (2020) found common bottlenose dolphins most frequently with sea grass beds, sandy bottom, and reefs, while few common bottlenose dolphins were found associated with silty-clay substrate.

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2012) in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Waring et al. 2016), Georgia (Pulster and Maruya 2008; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005; Mazzoil et al. 2008a; Mazzoil et al. 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000). Common bottlenose dolphins in Gulf of Mexico bay, sound, and estuary (BSE) stocks show site fidelity (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022), such as in Matagorda Bay, Espiritu Santo Bay, and San Luis Pass in Texas (Maze and Würsig 1999; Lynn and Würsig 2002; Irwin and Würsig 2004); Barataria Bay in Louisiana (Miller 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2017); Mississippi Sound in Mississippi (Hubard et al. 2004; Mackey 2010; Mullin et al. 2017); Charlotte Harbor and Pine Island Sound (Bassos-Hull et al. 2013), Sarasota Bay (Wells 1986; Wells 1991; Wells 2014), St. Andrew Bay (Balmer et al. 2019), St. Joseph Bay (Balmer et al. 2008; Balmer et al. 2018), St. Vincent Sound and Apalachicola Bay (Tyson et al. 2011), and Tampa Bay in Florida (Wells et al. 1996; Urias et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003).

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). A mid-summer calving peak (July through August) has been reported for bottlenose dolphins off Puerto Rico (Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001). Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Off Puerto Rico, bottlenose dolphins are common throughout the year (Mignucci-Giannoni 1989, 1998) with a peak occurrence during the fall (Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001). Seasonal inshore-offshore movements are suspected (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998).

Home Range

Bottlenose dolphins are common throughout the Caribbean (Waring et al. 2012). This species has been reported off Cuba (van Waerebeek et al. 2006; Whitt et al. 2011), Dominican Republic (Whaley et al. 2006; Parsons et al. 2010), Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands (Erdman et al. 1973; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001), Guadeloupe, St. Lucia and Barbados (Yoshida et al. 2010), Martinique (Jérémie et al. 2006), the eastern Caribbean (Guadeloupe to St. Vincent and the Grenadines; Caldwell et al. 1971; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Yoshida et al. 2010), Trinidad (van Bree 1975), Venezuela (Romero et al. 2001; Romero et al. 2002; Oviedo et al. 2005), Leeward Netherlands Antilles (Debrot et al. 1998), Colombia (Romero et al. 2001; Pardo and Palacios 2006; Frajia et al. 2009; Pardo et al. 2009), Panama (Pardo et al. 2009), and Belize (Jefferson and Lynn 1994; Grigg and Markowitz 1997; Campbell et al. 2002; Kerr et al. 2005).

Because bottlenose dolphins are widely distributed throughout the Caribbean Sea, bottlenose dolphins of the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock are likely trans-boundary with waters near adjacent Caribbean islands (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate of 314 individuals was based on surveys conducted off southwest Puerto Rico between April 1999 and January 2002 (Rodríguez-Ferrer 2001).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2012).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Although no longer present in U.S. waters, common bottlenose dolphin fisheries continue to exist elsewhere in the Caribbean (e.g., Caldwell et al. 1971; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Price 1985; Reeves 1988; Romero et al. 2001; Hoyt and Hvenegaard 2002; Mohammed et al. 2003; Vail 2005; World Council of Whalers 2008) and also in Venezuela (Romero et al. 2001). Live-capture fisheries for use in captivity exist or have existed recently in the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Cuba, and Honduras (van Waerebeek et al. 2006; Espinosa and Orta 2007; Parsons et al. 2010; Waring et al. 2012).

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock interact with pelagic longline fisheries (e.g., pelagic swordfish, tunas, billfish) and trap/pot fisheries (spiny lobster and mixed-species; Waring et al. 2012). Although no mortality or serious injury was reported during the period 2001-2015, this may represent an underestimation due to a lack of observer coverage in some years and some fisheries (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010; 2012a; 2012b; 2013; 2014; 2016; 2017)

Legacy impacts on common bottlenose dolphins from naval operations at Roosevelt Roads in Puerto Rico that ceased in 2004 are unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Coastal pollution may be an issue for the common bottlenose dolphin Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock. Parts of Vieques Island, Puerto Rico are listed on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Superfund National Priorities List due to unexploded ordnance and associated hazardous materials (Whitall et al. 2016; EPA 2018).

Distribution

Modeled distribution of the common bottlenose dolphin in southwestern Puerto Rico is presented by Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. (2020).

Further Reading

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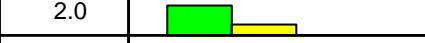
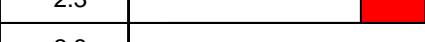
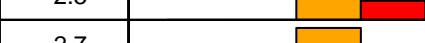
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Southern Georgia Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.4	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	4.0	2.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.9	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.1	2.3	
	Migration	4.0	2.3	
	Home Range	3.5	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.7	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Circulation	3.9	2.0	
	Sea level rise	4.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Southern Georgia Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Six exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Circulation (3.93).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Migration (4.00), Site Fidelity (4.00), Home Range (3.47), Habitat Specificity (3.40), and Species Abundance (3.00).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Southern Georgia Estuarine System Stock (SGES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in estuarine waters of Georgia from the Altamaha River in the north to the Florida/Georgia border at Cumberland Sound in the south (Waring et al. 2016).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the SGES Stock is characterized by extensive tidal marshes and shallow riverine systems (Waring et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

Common bottlenose dolphins in the SGES Stock show evidence of site fidelity (Balmer et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Waring et al. 2016), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Waring et al. 2016), central Georgia (Kucklick et al. 2011), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding

data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Waring et al. 2016). Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are known to spend warm months in estuarine waters then move to nearshore waters during cool months (Gubbins et al. 2003; Waring et al. 2014; Waring et al. 2016).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (reviewed in LaBrecque et al. 2015). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2013). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the SGES Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Balmer et al. (2013) estimated the abundance of a portion of the SGES stock at 194 individuals ($CV=0.05$) based on winter 2008 and winter 2009 surveys. However, this estimate did not cover the entire range of the stock, and may represent an undercount (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Waring et al. 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the SGES Stock interact with the blue crab trap/pot fishery (Waring et al. 2016). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database). For example, During the period 2009–2013, 31 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the SGES, with no individuals presenting clear indications of human interactions such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited by

Waring et al. 2016; Seguel et al. 2020). The cause of death for six other stranded individuals was likely high concentrations of persistent organic pollutants (POPs; Seguel et al. 2020).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). The SGES Stock inhabits a highly industrialized area that includes four Environmental Protection Agency declared Superfund sites (EPA 2021). Analyses of contaminants have found elevated polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) concentrations in dolphins in the Turtle/Brunswick River Estuary relative to dolphins in other areas (Pulster and Maryua 2008; Sanger et al. 2008; Pulster et al. 2009; Kucklick et al. 2011; Schwacke et al. 2012). Human feeding of dolphins has been observed in the SGES, with possible implications for increased interactions with fishing gear and behavioral adaptation (Kovacs and Cox 2014; Perrtree et al. 2014; Wu 2013).

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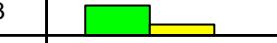
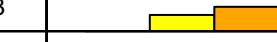
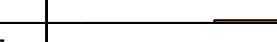
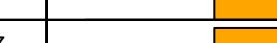
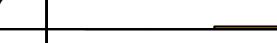
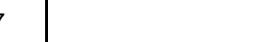
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Southern North Carolina Estuarine System Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.3	
	Habitat Specificity	3.6	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	4.0	2.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.6	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.3	
	Migration	3.9	2.7	
	Home Range	3.4	2.7	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	2.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.9	3.0	
Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	2.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Circulation	3.9	2.3	
	Sea level rise	4.0	2.7	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Southern North Carolina Estuarine System Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Seven exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea level rise (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.93), and Circulation (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Site Fidelity (4.00), Migration (3.93), and Habitat Specificity (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 100 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Southern North Carolina Estuarine System (SNCES) Stock includes common bottlenose dolphins found in estuarine and nearshore coastal waters (≤ 3 km from shore) between the Little River Inlet estuary and the New River, North Carolina (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). The area inhabited by the SNCES Stock is characterized by tidal marshes, estuarine waters, and shallow open water (Hayes et al. 2021).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock. Other estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic have shown site fidelity (Hayes et al. 2021), such as in South Carolina (Sloan 2006; Speakman et al. 2006; Hayes et al. 2021), central and southern Georgia (Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Balmer et al. 2013), northern Florida (Caldwell 2001), central Florida (Odell and Asper 1990; Mazzoil et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b), and southern Florida (Litz 2007; Torres 2007; McClellan et al. 2000).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings in the Charleston Estuarine System Stock peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014).

Migration

The estuarine stocks in the western North Atlantic are thought to primarily comprise stable resident communities. However, transient or seasonal movements of some individuals into and out of stock areas are recorded in some areas (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2021).

Members of the SNCES Stock do not undertake large-scale migratory movements but do display seasonal movements, expanding their range slightly north to include parts of Core Sound and southern Pamlico Sound during warm months (Hayes et al. 2021).

Home Range

The home ranges of individuals within the western North Atlantic estuarine stocks are considered to generally include the areas within the stock boundaries and brief excursions beyond the stock boundaries (LaBrecque et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2021). Members of the SNCES Stock show relatively constrained ranges based on photo-ID, tag telemetry and genetic data (Hansen and Wells 1996; Hayes et al. 2018). Studies have shown dolphin populations with constrained ranges in Georgia (Brunswick and Sapelo; Balmer et al. 2013); South Carolina (Silva et al. 2019), and North Carolina (Urian et al. 2014). Balmer et al. (2018), using satellite telemetry data, identified that dolphins considered to be members of the South Georgia Estuarine System Stock had different movement patterns with some individuals remaining entirely within the estuarine waters, while other animals use the larger estuarine waters, sounds, and to some degree coastal waters.

Stock Abundance

Urian et al. (2014) estimated the abundance for the SNCES Stock at 188 individuals ($CV=0.19$, 95% confidence interval=118-257) based on 2006 photo-ID mark-recapture surveys. However, the current population size of the SNCES Stock is considered unknown because the surveys are more than eight years old.

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock (Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, Read et al. (2003) estimated the abundance of the SNCES Stock at 141 individuals ($CV=0.15$, 95% confidence interval=112-200) based on a 2000 photo-ID mark-recapture survey of inshore waters. However, this survey did not include coastal waters and should be considered negatively biased.

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Byrd and Hohn 2010, 2017; Byrd et al. 2014), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the SNCES Stock interact with several commercial fisheries, including gillnet, long haul seine, roe mullet stop net, blue crab trap/pot, and hook and line fisheries. The minimum total mean annual human-caused mortality and serious injury for fisheries and other human

causes was 0.4 individuals per year during 2014–2018 (Hayes et al. 2021). During 2014–2018, 53 common bottlenose dolphins stranded within the SNCES Stock. No evidence of human interaction, such as fishing gear and vessel interactions, could be detected for 30 of these animals and it could not be determined if there was evidence of human interaction for 18 animals (Maze-Foley et al. 2019).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1600 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Hayes et al. 2021; NMFS 2022). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Hayes et al. 2021).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010a; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas. In Biscayne Bay, Florida, elevated POP concentrations were observed in individuals associated with more polluted areas compared to individuals associated with the less polluted areas of Biscayne Bay, suggesting that exposure to pollutants may be highly variable based on geography (Litz et al. 2007; Kucklick et al. 2011). The SNCES Stock inhabits an area that receives runoff from agricultural, industrial, and urban sources. Analyses of common bottlenose dolphins along the North Carolina coast have found elevated levels of POPs, including polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs; Schwacke et al. 2002; Hansen et al. 2004; Yordy et al. 2010a, 2010b). Individuals from this stock have been found to have detectable concentrations of lead, mercury, and selenium, though at lower levels than the Indian River Lagoon Estuarine System in Florida (Page-Karjian et al. 2020).

Further Reading

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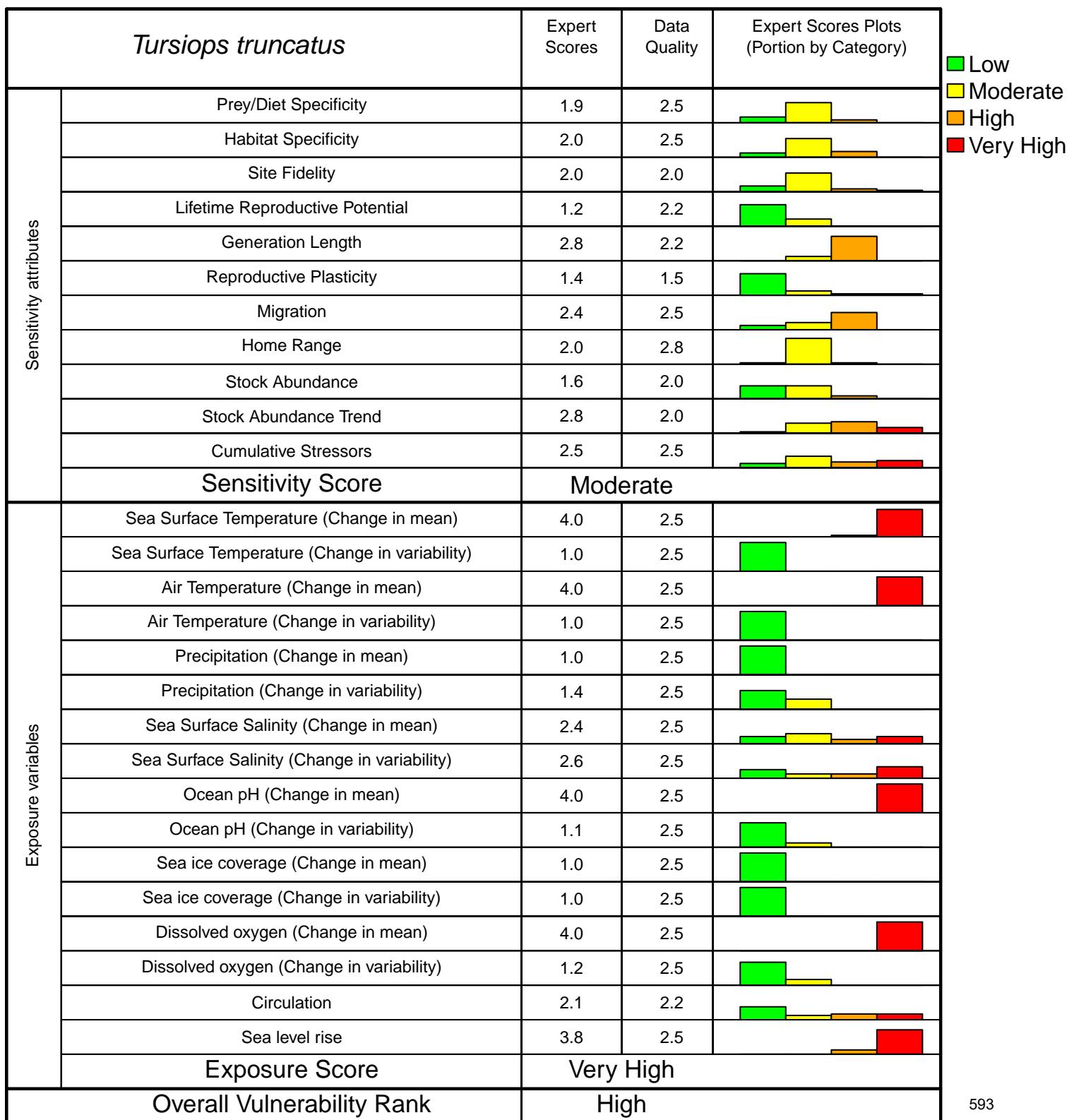
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Western North Atlantic migratory stocks

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Western North Atlantic, Northern and Southern Migratory Coastal Stocks)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (98% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.95), and Sea level rise (3.85).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (2.85), Species Abundance Trend (2.75), Cumulative Stressors (2.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock group includes the western North Atlantic common bottlenose dolphin Northern Migratory Coastal Stock and Southern Migratory Coastal Stock.

The Northern Migratory Coastal Stock overlaps the least with other stocks during the warm water months (July and August) and is best defined during this time period when the animals occupy waters from the shoreline to approximately the 20-m isobath between Assateague, Virginia and Long Island, New York. The offshore boundary of the Northern Migratory Stock is the 20-m isobath in the summer north of Cape Hatteras, North Carolina and the 200-m isobath in the winter between Cape Hatteras and Cape Lookout, North Carolina (Hayes et al. 2021).

The Southern Migratory Coastal Stock are poorly understood and thought to migrate seasonally along the Atlantic coast between North Carolina and northern Florida. The offshore boundary of the Southern Migratory Stock is the 20-m isobath north of Cape Hatteras and the 200-m isobath south of Cape Hatteras (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010;

Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018). Sea surface temperature and chlorophyll a have been correlated with common bottlenose dolphin passive acoustic monitoring detections in the coastal waters of Maryland (Bailey et al. 2021). In coastal waters off of New Jersey, two clusters of common bottlenose dolphin have been identified that differ in depth and distance from shore (Toth et al. 2012).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

During winter months, the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock moves from waters as far north as New Jersey south to waters near Cape Lookout, North Carolina (Kenney 1990; Read et al. 2003; Torres et al. 2005). During January and February, the Southern Migratory Coastal Stock migrates south from waters of southern Virginia and north central North Carolina to waters south of Cape Fear, North Carolina, and as far south as northern Florida (Barco et al. 1999).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for these migratory stocks. Tracking studies have shown common bottlenose dolphins can travel distances greater than 2000 km (Wells et al. 1999). Estrada and Hohn (2003) observed migrating bottlenose dolphins along the East Coast of the United States travel a mean distance of 32.7 km/day while non-migrating dolphins traveled a mean distance of 24.5 km/day. Klatsky et al. (2007) found dolphins off Bermuda traveled a mean distance of 28.3 km/day.

Stock Abundance

The best available abundance estimate for the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock of common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic is 6,639 (CV=0.41; Garrison et al. 2017). This estimate was derived from aerial surveys conducted during the summer of 2016 covering coastal and shelf waters from Assateague, Virginia, to Sandy Hook, New Jersey.

The best available abundance estimate for the Southern Migratory Coastal Stock of common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic is 3,751 (CV=0.60; Garrison et al. 2017). This estimate was derived from aerial surveys conducted during the summer of 2016 covering coastal and shelf waters from Florida to New Jersey.

Stock Abundance Trend

Although there was no statistically significant difference in abundance for this stock between the 2010–2011 and 2016 surveys, a statistically significant decline in population size of all common bottlenose dolphins in coastal waters from New Jersey to Florida between 2010–2011 and 2016 was detected (Garrison et al. 2017), concurrent with a large UME in the area; however, there is limited power to evaluate trends given uncertainty in stock distribution, lack of precision in abundance estimates, and a limited number of surveys (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear (Barco et al. 2010; Hall et al. 2013; Byrd et al. 2014; Wirth and Warren 2019; Epple et al. 2020), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock interact with several commercial fisheries. These include gillnet, pound net, menhaden purse seine, blue crab trap/pot, haul/beach seine, and hook and line fisheries. The minimum total mean annual human-caused mortality and serious injury for fisheries and other human causes ranged between 12.2 and 21.5 individuals per year during 2014–2018 (Hayes et al. 2021). During 2014–2018, 692 common bottlenose dolphins stranded that were assigned to the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock, with 80 of these strandings showing evidence of human interaction such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (Hayes et al. 2021; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Southern Migratory Coastal Stock interact with several commercial fisheries, including gillnet, pound net, blue crab trap/pot, roe mullet stop net, menhaden purse seine, haul/beach seine, shrimp trawl, and hook and line fisheries. The minimum total mean annual human-caused mortality and serious injury for fisheries and other human causes ranged between 0 and 18.3 individuals per year during 2014–2018 (Hayes et al. 2021). During 2014–2018, 565 common bottlenose dolphins stranded that were assigned to the Southern Migratory Coastal Stock, with 59 of these strandings showing evidence of human interaction such as fishing gear and vessel interactions (Hayes et al. 2021; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1600 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Hayes et al. 2021). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Hayes et al. 2021). Almost 350 strandings were recovered from New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland. The majority of these likely came from the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock. It is unknown how many dolphins from the Southern Migratory Coastal Stocks died during the event (Hayes et al. 2021).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008, 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas.

Storm events have been shown to affect common bottlenose dolphin distribution and foraging (Fandel et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021).

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Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*

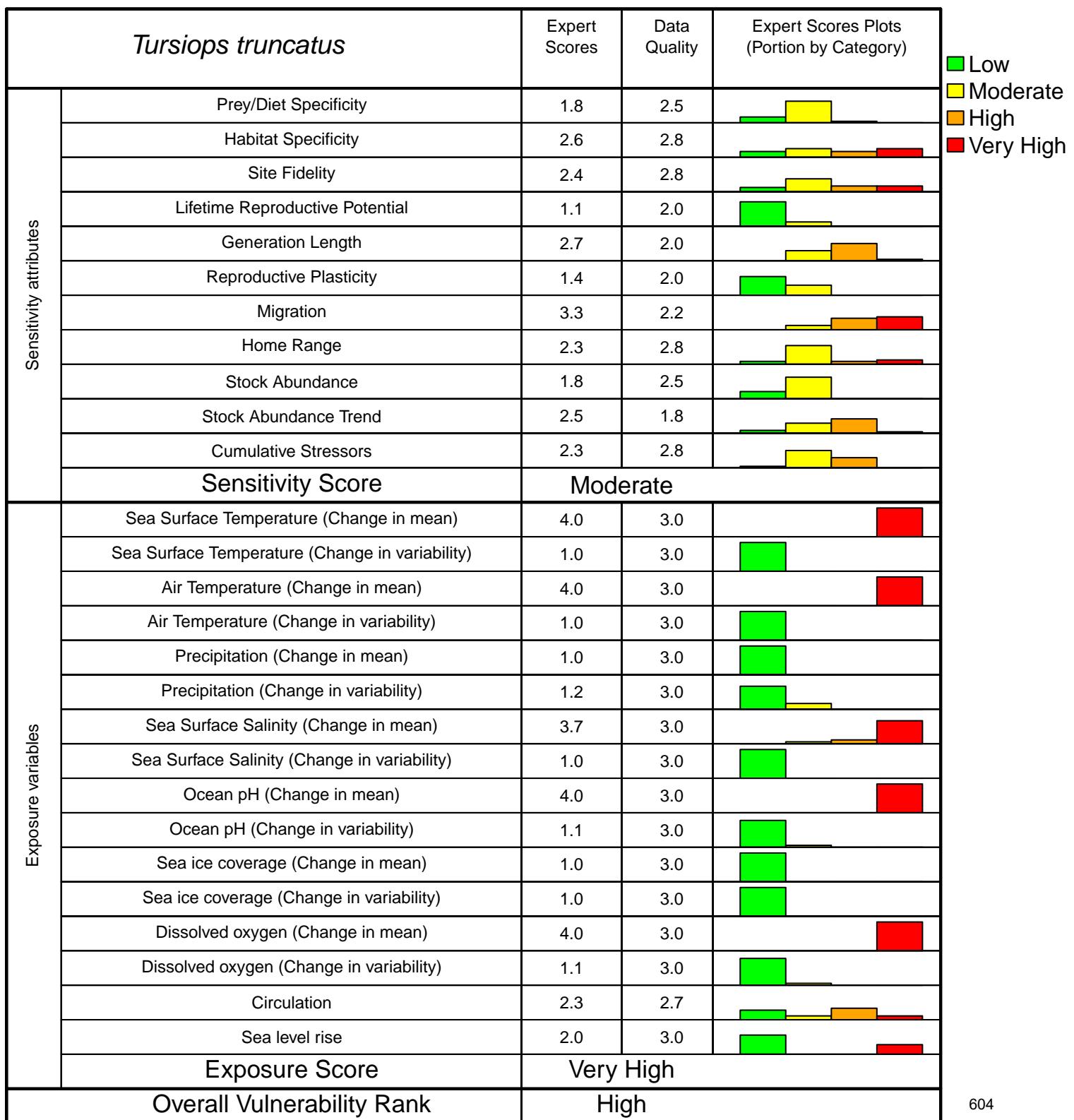
Western North Atlantic non-migratory coastal stocks

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



Common bottlenose dolphin (Western North Atlantic: South Carolina-Georgia, Northern Florida, and Central Florida Coastal Stocks)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (91% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.73).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Migration (3.30), Generation Time (2.70), Habitat Specificity (2.60), and Species Abundance Trend (2.50).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock group includes the western North Atlantic common bottlenose dolphin South Carolina/Georgia Coastal Stock, Northern Florida Coastal Stock, and Central Florida Coastal Stock. This group includes dolphins of the coastal morphotype inhabiting coastal waters from the shoreline to approximately the 200m isobath from the Little River Inlet, South Carolina (33.8°N), south to the western end of Vaca Key (24.7°N, 81.1°W; Hayes et al. 2018).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

This stock group is considered non-migratory.

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of the South Carolina/Georgia Coastal Stock of common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic was estimated at 6,027 individuals (CV=0.34); for the Northern Florida Coastal Stock is 877 individuals (CV=0.49); and for the Central Florida Coastal Stock is 1,218 individuals (CV=0.35) based on summer 2016 aerial surveys over coastal and shelf waters from Florida to New Jersey (Hayes et al. 2018).

Stock Abundance Trend

Analysis of trends in abundance suggest a possible decline in the South Carolina/Georgia Coastal Stock abundance between 2002–2004 and 2016; a probable decline in Northern Florida Coastal Stock abundance between 2010–2011, and 2016; and a possible decline in Central Florida Coastal Stock abundance between 2010–2011, and 2016; however, the ability to detect trends is limited by uncertainty in stock distribution, lack of precision in abundance estimates, and gaps in surveys (Hayes et al. 2018).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms (Fire et al. 2015; Davis et al. 2019), recreational and commercial fishing gear (Kroetz et al. 2020), vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the South Carolina/Georgia Coastal Stock, Northern Florida Coastal Stock, and Central Florida Coastal Stock interact with several commercial fisheries, including the Southeastern U.S. Atlantic Shark Gillnet, Southeast Atlantic Gillnet, blue crab trap/pot, shrimp trawl, cannonball jellyfish trawl, Florida spiny lobster trap/pot, and hook and line fisheries (Hayes et al. 2018). Individuals of this stock have been reported stranded, with some strandings showing evidence of human interactions, and other strandings occurring during Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs; Hayes et al. 2018; also see NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database).

A UME was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1600 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Morris et al. 2015; Balmer et al. 2018; Hayes et al. 2018; NMFS 2022). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Hayes et al. 2018).

The nearshore and estuarine habitats along the Atlantic seaboard are adjacent to areas of high human population and some are highly industrialized. Studies of bottlenose dolphin tissues from estuaries in the southeast U.S. have shown persistent organic pollutant (POP; Schwacke et al. 2002, 2012; Hansen et al. 2004; Litz et al. 2007; Pulster et al. 2009; Fair et al. 2010; Yordy et al. 2010; Balmer et al. 2011; Kucklick et al. 2011; Reif et al. 2017) and heavy metal (Durden et al. 2007; Stavros et al. 2007, 2008,

2011; Titcomb et al. 2017; Reif et al. 2017; Page-Karjian et al. 2020) concentrations that may result in adverse effects on health or reproductive rates, particularly in urbanized, developed, and agricultural areas.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021).

Further Reading

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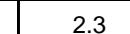
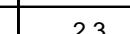
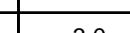
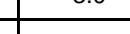
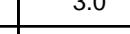
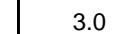
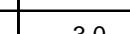
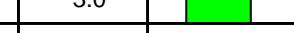
Common bottlenose dolphin – *Tursiops truncatus*
 Western North Atlantic, offshore Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.7	
	Habitat Specificity	1.8	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	1.0	2.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.4	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.5	1.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.3	
	Migration	1.7	2.7	
	Home Range	2.1	2.7	
	Stock Abundance	1.3	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.9	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	1.6	2.7	
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.8	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.0	2.3	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.2	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.3	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.3	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Circulation	1.3	2.7	
	Sea level rise	1.1	3.0	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Common bottlenose dolphin (Western North Atlantic, Offshore Stock)

Tursiops truncatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (92% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.80), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.33), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.00), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.50: Generation Time (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

This stock includes common bottlenose dolphins of the oceanic morphotype, generally found seaward from the 25 m isobath in the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters of the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, common bottlenose dolphins consume a large variety of fish and/or squid (Barros and Odell 1990; Mead and Potter 1990; Wells and Scott 2018). Common bottlenose dolphins seem to show a consistent preference for sound-producing fishes (e.g., sciaenids, toadfish; Berens McCabe et al. 2010; Bowen-Stevens et al. 2021). Estuarine stocks along the southeast U.S. Atlantic coast have been reported to consume a variety of prey, with preference for sciaenids (Gannon and Waples 2004; Pate and McFee 2012). Pate and McFee (2012) identified 42 prey species from 24 families in a study of stranded dolphins along the South Carolina coast. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, Rossman et al. (2015) found some individual common bottlenose dolphins to show diet specialization despite the broader study group showing a generalist diet. Specialization can be influenced by locally abundant prey species (Shane et al. 1986; Vollmer and Rosel 2013) or can result from resource partitioning amongst sympatric populations (e.g., Torres and Read 2009; Wilson et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Common bottlenose dolphins are found in a variety of marine and estuarine habitats (Wells and Scott 2018).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported the interbirth interval of common bottlenose dolphins as 3.80 years, though other studies have shown it to be closer to three years (Leatherwood 1977; Wells and Scott 1999; Connor et al. 2000; Wells 2003). Thayer (2008) estimated mean interbirth interval of 2.9 years in North Carolina.

Generally, females reach sexual maturity before males, with females reaching sexual maturity at 5–13 years (Sergeant et al. 1973; Perrin and Reilly 1984; Wells et al. 1987; Mead and Potter 1990; Mann et al. 2000; Wells 2000; Wells and Scott 2018).

Females reproduce through most of their adult lives (Leatherwood 1977; Hohn et al. 1989; Wells and Scott 1999; Wells 2000; Wells 2003), but may produce fewer calves after they reach 30 years of age (Wells 2000). Sarasota Bay common bottlenose dolphins can give birth when they are as young as 6 years of age, and can continue until they are 48 years old (Wells and Scott 2018). Reproductive lifespan would therefore be up to 42 years based on long-term observation studies (Wells 2014; Wells and Scott 2018).

Longitudinal studies from Sarasota Bay, Florida have found that female bottlenose dolphins can live up to 67 years (Wells and Scott 2018). Studies based on growth layer groups in teeth suggest female bottlenose dolphins can live to 41 years along the Texas coast (Fernandez and Hohn 1998) and to 30 years along the Mississippi coast (Mattson et al. 2006).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported common bottlenose dolphin generation length of 20.6–21.1 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Common bottlenose dolphin calving is generally diffusely seasonal, with one or more peaks, although births have been reported from all seasons (Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018). Calf sightings in South Carolina peak in spring and early summer and again in early autumn (McFee et al. 2014). In North Carolina, Thayer et al. (2003) observed a strong birth peak in spring based on stranding data and a diffuse birth peak from late spring to early fall based on sightings. Calf sightings peak in the spring and summer months in Florida (Wells et al. 1987), Mississippi/Louisiana (Miller et al. 2010; Miller et al. 2013), and Texas (McHugh 1989; Henderson and Würsig 2007).

Migration

Studies relating to the migratory patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock were not found in the literature. The nearby coastal migratory stocks display seasonal north-south movements. During winter months, the Northern Migratory Coastal Stock moves from waters as far north as New Jersey to waters near Cape Hatteras (Kenney 1990; Read et al. 2003; Torres et al. 2005). During January and February, the Southern Migratory Coastal Stock migrates south from waters of southern Virginia and north central North Carolina to waters south of Cape Fear, North Carolina, and as far south as coastal Florida (Barco et al. 1999).

Home Range

Data are insufficient to characterize home range patterns (or the lack thereof) for this stock. Tracking studies have shown common bottlenose dolphins can travel distances greater than 2000km (Wells et al. 1999). Estrada and Hohn (2003) observed migrating bottlenose dolphins along the East Coast of the United States travel a mean distance of 32.7 km/day while non-migrating dolphins traveled a mean distance of 24.5 km/day. Klatsky et al. (2007) found dolphins off Bermuda traveled a mean distance of 28.3 km/day.

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate for this stock is 62,851 individuals ($CV=0.23$) based on summer 2016 surveys (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

An analysis of population estimates from 2004 (54,739; $CV=0.24$), 2011 (77,532; $CV=0.40$), and 2016 (62,851; $CV=0.23$) did not indicate a statistically significant trend in abundance (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Common bottlenose dolphins face a wide range of individual and cumulative natural and anthropogenic threats (see reviews by Vollmer and Rosel 2013; Wells and Scott 2018; and Wells et al. 2019). These include such threats as shark predation, harmful algal blooms, recreational and commercial fishing gear, vessel traffic, pollution, habitat alteration, and provisioning.

Common bottlenose dolphins in the Western North Atlantic Offshore Stock interact with the bottom trawl fishery, with mean annual human-caused mortality and serious injury of 10.42 ($CV=0.62$) dolphins in the Northeast and 12.08 ($CV=0.39$) dolphins in the Mid-Atlantic during the period 2014–2018 (Lyssikatos et al. 2020).

An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared in the summer of 2013 for the mid-Atlantic coast from New York to Brevard County, Florida, with more than 1500 common bottlenose dolphins stranding as a result of morbillivirus (Waring et al. 2016; NMFS 2022). Strandings were more prevalent along oceanic shores than in estuaries, suggesting that coastal stocks were more impacted by the UME than estuarine stocks (Waring et al. 2016).

Storm events have been shown to affect common bottlenose dolphin distribution and foraging (Fandel et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for common bottlenose dolphins in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021).

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Common dolphin – *Delphinus delphis delphis*

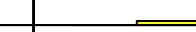
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Delphinus delphis delphis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.5	2.8	 
	Habitat Specificity	1.8	3.0	 
	Site Fidelity	1.8	1.8	 
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	2.5	 
	Generation Length	1.8	1.8	 
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	1.8	 
	Migration	2.4	2.8	 
	Home Range	1.8	3.0	 
	Stock Abundance	1.1	3.0	 
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.0	0.8	 
	Cumulative Stressors	1.8	2.5	 
	Sensitivity Score	Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	 
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.2	3.0	 
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.1	2.5	 
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.5	 
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	 
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	 
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.4	2.5	 
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.1	2.5	 
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	 
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	3.0	 
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.1	2.5	 
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	 
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	2.5	3.0	 
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	3.0	 
	Circulation	2.0	2.2	 
	Sea level rise	1.4	2.2	 
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Common dolphin, short-beaked (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Delphinus delphis delphis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (98% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.50), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.35), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.15).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5.

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 85 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The short-beaked common dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Common dolphins consume a variety of epipelagic and mesopelagic fishes and squids associated with the deep scattering layer and are known to adapt their diet based on prey abundance (Young and Cockcroft 1994; Evans 1994; Ohizumi et al. 1998; Goold 2000; De Pierrepont et al. 2005; Pusineri et al. 2007). In the western North Atlantic, long-finned squid (*Loligo pealei*) and Atlantic mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*) are frequent prey species while herring, whiting (*Micromesistius poutassou*), pilchard, and anchovy are also part of the diet (Waring et al. 1990; Overholtz and Waring 1991; Lahaye et al. 2005).

Habitat Specificity

In the western North Atlantic, short-beaked common dolphins are found in continental shelf waters, over prominent underwater topography, and in association with Gulf Stream features (Hui 1979; CETAP 1982; Selzer and Payne 1988; Waring et al. 1992; Evans 1994; Hamazaki 2002; Doksaeter et al. 2008; Waring et al. 2008).

Site Fidelity

Short-beaked common dolphins are generally considered to have low site fidelity; however a study from the coast of Portugal suggested some degree of site fidelity (Ball et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Calving intervals of 1-3 years have been reported for this species (Jefferson et al. 2015). Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 2.10 years based on values reported by Danil and Chivers (2007).

Reported sexual maturity ages vary greatly across populations (Jefferson et al. 2015). For short-beaked common dolphins in the western North Atlantic, Westgate and Read (2007) reported 8.3 and 9.5 years as the age of female and male sexual maturity, respectively.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a generation length of 14.1 years at $r = 0.02$ and 14.8 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Perrin and Reilly (1984), Ferrero and Walker (1995), and Danil and Chivers (2007).

Reproductive Plasticity

In the western North Atlantic, mating occurs primarily during July and August and gestation is estimated at 11-12 months (Westgate and Read 2007). Calving peaks during mid-summer (Westgate and Read 2007).

Migration

Although short-beaked common dolphins can be found from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia year-round (CETAP 1982), they do exhibit seasonal movements. From mid-January to May, they are most common Cape Hatteras to Georges Bank. They are known to move onto Georges Bank, Gulf of Maine, and the Scotian Shelf from mid-summer to autumn (Sergeant et al. 1970; Hain et al. 1981; CETAP 1982; Payne et al. 1984; Selzer and Payne 1988; Gowans and Whitehead 1995).

Home Range

In the western North Atlantic, short-beaked common dolphins are known to range from Newfoundland to Florida. They are more common in temperate, cooler waters of the northwestern Atlantic (Gaskin 1992; Waring and Palka 2002; Jefferson et al. 2009; Perrin 2018) and are not currently thought to occur south of South Carolina with any regularity (Jefferson et al. 2009).

Stock Abundance

Recent abundance estimates have been generated for portions of this stock based on 2016 surveys: 48,723 (CV=0.48) for the Newfoundland/Labrador portion, 43,124 (CV=0.28) for the Bay of Fundy/Scotian Shelf/Gulf of St. Lawrence portion, and 80,227 (CV=0.31) and 900 (CV=0.57) for U.S. waters of the western North Atlantic (Lawson and Gosselin 2018; Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). The entire

stock estimate is 172,974 individuals (CV=0.21) and the minimum population estimate for this stock is 145,216 (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock.

Cumulative Stressors

Short-beaked common dolphins interact with the Northeast sink gillnet, Mid-Atlantic gillnet, Northeast bottom trawl, Mid-Atlantic bottom trawl, and pelagic longline fisheries. During 2014–2018, total annual estimated average fishery-related mortality or serious injury to this stock was 399 individuals (CV=0.05), and 499 strandings were reported along the U.S. Atlantic coast (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b; Lyssikatos et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2022).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for sho dolphin in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Cuvier's beaked whale – *Ziphius cavirostris*

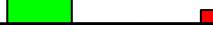
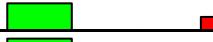
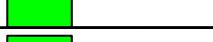
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 70% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.6	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.4	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	2.7	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	3.2	1.3	
	Generation Length	2.7	1.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.0	1.0	
	Migration	3.1	1.7	
	Home Range	2.7	1.7	
	Stock Abundance	2.9	1.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.7	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.9	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	2.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.3	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.6	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.6	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.6	2.7	
	Circulation	2.7	2.0	
	Sea level rise	1.0	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Cuvier's beaked whale (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Ziphius cavirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (63% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.60), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Lifetime Reproductive Potential (3.20) and Migration (3.13).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 70% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 27% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Cuvier's beaked whale Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of Gulf of Mexico and adjacent offshore and Mexican waters (Hayes et al. 2021). This stock is considered separately from the Puerto Rico/U.S. Virgin Islands and western North Atlantic stocks.

Prey/Diet Specificity

West et al. (2017) compiled Cuvier's beaked whale diet information from 18 studies, which included 45 stomach analyses. World-wide, the most important cephalopod families in the diet are Cranchiidae, Gonatidae, Histiotethidae, Octopoteuthidae, Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Pholidoteuthidae, and Mastigoteuthidae, all within the order Oegopsida (West et al. 2017). Cranchiidae is common prey in all locations (West et al. 2017). Histiotethidae and Cranchiidae are the most common prey in the North Atlantic (West et al. 2017).

Stomach content data for Cuvier's beaked whales in the Gulf of Mexico is limited to a single stranding, which contained remains of the squid *Loligo peali* and unidentified cephalopods (Fertl et al. 1997).

Habitat Specificity

Generally, little is known about beaked whale habitat preferences due to their elusive nature (Barlow et al. 2006). Beaked whales are typically found in continental slope and oceanic waters deeper than 200 m

(Ritter and Brederlau 1999; Gannier 2000; Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; Pitman 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson 2005; MacLeod and Zuur 2005; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006). Beaked whales are only occasionally reported in waters over the continental shelf (Pitman 2002). Cuvier's beaked whales have been found associated with physical features such as the continental slope, canyons, escarpments, and oceanic islands (Waring et al. 2001; Baird et al. 2004; MacLeod et al. 2004; MacLeod and D'Amico 2006).

In the Gulf of Mexico, beaked whales are found in waters with a bottom depth ranging from 420m to 3,487m (Ward et al. 2005) while few beaked whales are sighted on the continental shelf (e.g., Fritts et al. 1983; Esher et al. 1992). Habitat characterization modeling predicted areas greater than 1000m in bottom depth as potential beaked whale habitat (Ward et al. 2005). The probability of beaked whale presence is greatest along the continental slope (Ward et al. 2005). Habitat-based density models predicted concentrations of beaked whales (and sperm whales) near off-shelf submarine canyons at the mouth of the Mississippi River and the central northern Gulf, and along the continental slope (Roberts et al. 2016a). Off the U.S. East Coast, the models predicted highest densities along the continental slope, in and around submarine canyons, and near seamounts, particularly in cold, productive waters, consistent with their reported habitats (Roberts et al. 2016a).

Based on data collected during GulfCet I, Davis et al. (1998) reported that beaked whales were found in areas of steep SST gradients, and suggested that beaked whales (and other deep-diving cetaceans in the Gulf) may be foraging along thermal fronts associated with eddy systems.

Würsig (2017) [adapted from Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006] reported that Cuvier's beaked whales were encountered during on-effort surveys by NMFS in the Northern Oceanic Gulf during the period from 1991–2001 at a mean depth of 1884m (range 1179m-3221m depth) and mean water temperature of 26.01 degrees C (range 24.3-28.3 degrees C).

Martinez et al. (2010) reported sighting Cuvier's beaked whales within or near the Deepwater Horizon site between 28 April – 31 July, 2010. Martinez et al. (2010) also reported sighting beaked whales in the southeastern Gulf of Mexico near the Dry Tortugas.

Site Fidelity

Site fidelity information for the Gulf of Mexico is not available, though there are known hotspots such as Mississippi Canyon (e.g., Hildebrand et al. 2015). Site fidelity has been reported for Cuvier's beaked whales in the Ligurian Sea (Ballardini et al. 2005), Hawaii (McSweeney et al. 2007), and Canary Islands (Aguilar de Soto and Hammond 2014).

From passive acoustic monitoring data, beaked whales (Cuvier's and Gervais') showed a significant higher detection rate in the Dry Tortugas site (13.4 animals/1000km²) when compared to the Mississippi and Green canyons sites (2.6 animals/1,000 km² and 1.8 animals/1,000 km², respectively; Table 9 in Hildebrand et al. 2012).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) did not include interbirth intervals for Ziphiids. Interbirth intervals for other odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 2-4.7 years (Taylor et al. 2007). In Hawaii, one photo-identified female had a calving interval greater than 6 years (Baird

2018). In the Canary Islands, Aguilar de Soto and Hammond (2014) estimated calving interval to be approximately 4 years using photo-ID of two females associated with calves.

Taylor et al. (2007) reported age of last reproduction for Cuvier's beaked whale as 46 and for Mesoplodont species as ranging between 21-44, with most around 40. While Ziphiid age of first reproduction is not reported, odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 7-14 years (Taylor et al. 2007). Other studies suggest a maximum age of females at 30 years and males at 36 years, based on growth layer groups that may be annual layers (Mitchell 1975; Mead 1984; Houston 1990; Baird 2018).

Research on related Blainville's beaked whales in the Bahamas suggests males and females reach sexual maturity at age nine and maximum age is greater than 23 years (Claridge 2013).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) did not report Ziphiid generation length, but other odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 11-27 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Cuvier's beaked whale reproductive seasonality, location, and habitat in the northern Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Migration

During a 3-year monitoring period following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, Cuvier's beaked whales were present only seasonally in the western Gulf of Mexico (Green Canyon and Mississippi Canyon), with periods of low density during the summer and higher density in the winter, while a high density was maintained at an eastern Gulf of Mexico site (Dry Tortugas; Hildebrand et al. 2015).

Home Range

Information regarding Cuvier's beaked whale site fidelity in the northern Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

Garrison et al. (2020) estimated Cuvier's beaked whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico at 18 (CV=0.75) and unidentified Ziiphidae in the northern Gulf of Mexico at 181 individuals (CV=0.31) based on 2018 surveys. Previously, Waring et al. (2013) estimated Cuvier's beaked whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico at 74 (CV=1.04) and unidentified Ziiphidae in the northern Gulf of Mexico at 74 (CV=1.04), based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey covering waters from the 200m isobath to the seaward extent of the U.S. EEZ, and not including the southern Gulf of Mexico.

Earlier estimates include a 1991-1994 survey, a 1996-2001 survey, and a 2003-2004 survey (Waring et al. 2009). From the 2003-2004 survey, the best estimate of Cuvier's beaked whales was 65 (CV=0.67), however Cuvier's beaked whales may also be in the estimate of unidentified Ziphiidae, which was 337 (CV=0.40; Mullin 2007). From the 1996-2001 survey 1996 to 2001, the best estimate of Cuvier's beaked

whales was 95 (CV=0.47), while the estimate for unidentified Ziphiidae was 146 (CV=0.46; Mullin and Fulling 2004).

Survey Period	Area	Cuvier's beaked whale		Unidentified Ziphiidae		Reference
		NBest	CV	NBest	CV	
1991-1994	GOM Oceanic waters	30	0.50	117	0.38	Hansen et al. 1995
1996-2001	GOM Oceanic waters	95	0.47	146	0.46	Mullin and Fulling 2004
2003-2004	GOM Oceanic waters	65	0.67	337	0.40	Mullin 2007
2009	GOM Oceanic waters	74	1.04	74	1.04	Waring et al. 2013
2018	GOM Oceanic waters	18	0.75	181	0.31	Garrison et al. 2020

Stock Abundance Trend

Despite four point estimates of Cuvier's beaked whale abundance from 1991 through 2009, temporal trends remain difficult to discern without an analysis of all the survey data to understand the potential effects of covariates on the estimates (Waring et al. 2013).

Cumulative Stressors

Cuvier's beaked whale in the northern Gulf of Mexico may interact with longline fisheries. Hayes et al. (2021) reported no fishing-related mortality of a Cuvier's beaked whale during 2014–2018 (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). An interaction with the pelagic longline fishery resulted in 1 unidentified beaked whale released alive with no serious injury after an entanglement in 2007 (Fairfield and Garrison 2008). The stock has the potential to interact with commercial and recreational fisheries in the Gulf of Mexico through entanglement in or ingestion of fishing gear, declining prey stocks, and vessel strikes (MMC 2015).

One Cuvier's beaked whale stranded with no indication of human interaction in Texas in October 2004 and two unidentified beaked whales mass stranded in Florida in December 1999 (Waring et al. 2009).

Impacts on beaked whales associated with naval activities (e.g., sonar) include skin lesions (Jepson et al. 2003; Fernández et al. 2005; Jepson et al. 2016) and mass strandings (Simmonds and Lopez-Jurado 1991; Frantzis 1998).

The oil, dispersant and burn residue compounds from the Deepwater Horizon (DWH) incident present persistent ecological concerns along coastal areas from western Louisiana to the Florida Panhandle (NOAA 2011). Aichinger Dias et al. (2017) documented occurrences of Cuvier's beaked whales swimming in or near petroleum products, or with oil adhered to their bodies, which may result in a number of adverse effects (Geraci 1990). Seismic exploration, explosive platform removal, vessel and air traffic, and oil spills are threats to marine mammals associated with oil and gas exploration (MMC 2015). Vessel

strikes, oil spills and other hazardous material discharges, marine debris, and noise are threats to marine mammals associated with shipping (MMC 2015). The deep-diving nature of beaked whales that makes sighting them difficult during surveys may limit their exposure to vessel strikes.

Cuvier's beaked whale predators include tiger sharks, white sharks, and cookiecutter sharks (Pérez-Zayas et al. 2002; Cárdenas Hinojosa et al. 2015; Baird 2018).

Other relevant information

In his review of global climate change, range changes and potential implications for the conservation of marine cetaceans, MacLeod (2009) categorized the Cuvier's beaked whale as a warmer water-limited (WWL) species and speculated that as a WWL species, the range of Cuvier's beaked whale is likely to expand polewards in all oceans.

Learmonth et al. (2006) in their table for potential effects of climate change on species range had a question mark for Cuvier's bw and how they would be affected.

Studies of deep-water currents and their potential role in increasing deep-water productivity as well as other proximal factors need to be considered for deepwater species in the Gulf, as well as the dynamic nature of the warm- and cold-core rings.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Cuvier's beaked whale in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Cuvier's beaked whale – *Ziphius cavirostris*

Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 59% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.5	1.8	
	Habitat Specificity	1.9	2.2	
	Site Fidelity	2.4	1.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.2	1.5	
	Generation Length	2.4	1.8	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.9	0.8	
	Migration	3.5	1.2	
	Home Range	2.4	1.8	
	Stock Abundance	2.6	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.4	0.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	1.8	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.2	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.4	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.4	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.4	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Circulation	2.1	1.2	
	Sea level rise	1.4	2.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Cuvier's beaked whale (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Ziphius cavirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (64% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.65), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.60), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.50), Species Abundance (2.65), and Prey/Diet Specificity (2.55).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 59% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 9% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The Cuvier's beaked whale Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone of Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands as well as adjacent Caribbean and Atlantic waters (Waring et al. 2012). This stock is considered separately from the Gulf of Mexico and western North Atlantic stocks.

Prey/Diet Specificity

West et al. (2017) compiled Cuvier's beaked whale diet information from 45 stomach analyses. Worldwide, the most important cephalopod families in the diet are Cranchiidae, Gonatidae, Histiotuthidae, Octopoteuthidae, Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Pholidoteuthidae, and Mastigoteuthidae, which are all within the order Oegopsida (West et al. 2017). Cranchiidae is common prey in all locations, and Histiotuthidae and Cranchiidae are the most common prey in the North Atlantic (West et al. 2017).

Diet information from the Caribbean is limited. One stomach analysis from Curacao contained the remains of unidentified cephalopods (77% by weight) and the crustacean *Gnathophausia ingens* (23% by weight; Debrot and Barros 1994). *Gnathophausia* sp. was found in the stomach contents of four Cuvier's beaked whales that stranded in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands (Mignucci-Giannoni 1996).

Habitat Specificity

Cuvier's beaked whales are generally found in waters with a bottom depth greater than 200 m and are frequently recorded at bottom depths greater than 1,000 m (e.g., Ritter and Brederlau 1999; Gannier 2000; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson et al. 2006; Claridge 2006). This species is often found associated with physical features such as the continental slope, canyons, escarpments, and oceanic islands (Baird et al. 2004; MacLeod et al. 2004; MacLeod and D'Amico 2006).

Site Fidelity

Site fidelity has been reported for Cuvier's beaked whales in the Ligurian Sea (Ballardini et al. 2005); around the Hawaiian Islands (McSweeney et al. 2007), near San Clemente Island, California (Falcone et al. 2009); and off the Canary Islands (Aguilar de Soto and Hammond 2014).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) did not include interbirth intervals for Ziphiids. Interbirth intervals for other odontocetes (not including phocoenidae or highly matrilineal species) range between 2-4.7 years (Taylor et al. 2007). In Hawaii, one photo-identified female had a calving interval of over 6 years (Baird 2018). In the Canary Islands, Aguilar de Soto and Hammond (2014) estimated a calving interval of approximately 4 years using photo-identification data from two females associated with calves.

Cuvier's beaked whales reach sexual maturity at approximately 6.2 m in length (Jefferson et al. 2015). While Ziphiid age of first reproduction is not reported, odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 7-14 years (Taylor et al. 2007). Taylor et al. (2007) reported the age of last reproduction for Cuvier's beaked whales as 46 years and for mesoplodon species as ranging between 21–44 years with most around 40 years. Other studies suggest a maximum age of females at 30 years and males at 36 years (Mitchell 1975; Mead 1984; Houston 1990; Baird 2018).

Research on Blainville's beaked whales in the Bahamas suggests that males and females reach sexual maturity at 9 years, and maximum age is greater than 23 years (Claridge 2013).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) did not report Ziphiid generation length, but other odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 11–27 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Peaks in calving are not known for this species (Jefferson et al. 2015).

Migration

No migratory information was found in the literature for Cuvier's beaked whales in the Caribbean.

Home Range

Cuvier's beaked whales are documented throughout the Caribbean (e.g., Caldwell et al. 1971a, 1971b; van Bree 1975; Debrot and Barros 1994; Debrot et al. 1998; Gordon et al. 1998; Romero et al. 2001;

Jérémie et al. 2006; MacLeod et al. 2006; Rinaldi et al. 2006; Whitt et al. 2011). Sightings and strandings of this species have been documented off Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands (Mignucci-Giannoni 1996, 1998; Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1999).

Because of their wide distribution throughout the Caribbean Sea, Cuvier's beaked whales of the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock are likely trans-boundary with waters near adjacent Caribbean islands at a minimum, and are not likely to occur exclusively within the bounds of the U.S. EEZ (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock of Cuvier's beaked whales is unavailable due to few sightings during surveys (Waring et al. 2012). Surveys in 1995 (Roden and Mullin 2000) and 2000 (Swartz and Burks 2000) reported no Cuvier's beaked whale sightings in U.S. waters although three Cuvier's beaked whales were sighted south of Martinique (Swartz and Burks 2000). A 2001 survey resulted in one sighting of three Cuvier's beaked whales in U.S. waters north of Puerto Rico and two additional sightings of unidentified beaked whales in U.S. waters (Swartz et al. 2002). This species has been observed off Ramey in Aguadilla, near Isla de Caja de Muertos, south of Bahía de Guánica, in the vicinity of La Parguera, and between St. Thomas and St. Croix (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock due to insufficient data (Waring et al. 2012).

Cumulative Stressors

At the present time, no whaling or dolphin fishery occurs in the U.S. Virgin Islands or Puerto Rico; however, this is not the case throughout the Caribbean. As summarized in Waring et al. (2012), local whalers conduct small-scale whaling (artisanal) in the eastern Caribbean nations of St. Lucia, Dominica, and St. Vincent and the Grenadines (e.g., Rathjen and Sullivan 1970; Caldwell et al. 1971a; Adams 1975; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Price 1985; Reeves 1988; Hoyt and Hvenegaard 2002; Romero et al. 2002; Mohammed et al. 2003; World Council of Whalers 2008; Waring et al. 2012). While not the target of a standard hunt, on occasion artisanal whalers in the Lesser Antillean islands will kill Cuvier's beaked whales (Reeves et al. 2003; Waring et al. 2012). Cuvier's beaked whales have been taken in the St. Vincent fishery (Caldwell et al. 1971a; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975), but catches of small whale or dolphin fisheries have very limited monitoring (Price 1985; Waring et al. 2012).

The Cuvier's beaked whale stock may interact with longline fisheries (Waring et al. 2012). However, during the period 2001–2015, no fishing-related mortality or serious injury was reported in Puerto Rico or the U.S. Virgin Islands waters (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010; 2012a; 2012b; 2013; 2014; 2016; 2017). This may represent an underestimation because there was no observer coverage within the Caribbean region for six of those years (Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010; 2012b; 2013; 2016).

Cuvier's beaked whales commonly strand in waters of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, as well as other areas of the northeastern Caribbean (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1999; Pérez-Zayas et al. 2002). However, during the period 2005–2017, no Cuvier's beaked whales were reported stranded in Puerto Rico or the U.S. Virgin Islands (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data).

Impacts on beaked whales associated with naval activities (e.g., sonar) include skin lesions (Jepson et al. 2003; Fernández et al. 2005) and mass strandings (Simmonds and Lopez-Jurado 1991), Frantzis 1998). Legacy impacts on Cuvier's beaked whales from naval operations at Roosevelt Roads in Puerto Rico that ceased in 2004 are unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Coastal pollution may be an issue for the Cuvier's beaked whale Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock. Parts of Vieques Island, Puerto Rico are listed on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Superfund National Priorities List due to unexploded ordnance and associated hazardous materials (Whitall et al. 2016; EPA 2018).

Cuvier's beaked whale predators include tiger sharks, white sharks, and cookiecutter sharks (Pérez-Zayas et al. 2002; Cárdenas Hinojosa et al. 2015; Baird 2018).

Other relevant information

In his review of global climate change, range changes and potential implications for the conservation of marine cetaceans, MacLeod (2009) categorized the Cuvier's beaked whale as a warmer water-limited (WWL) species and speculated that as a WWL species, the range of Cuvier's beaked whale is likely to expand polewards in all oceans.

Learmonth et al. (2006) in their table for potential effects of climate change on species range had a question mark for Cuvier's beaked whales and how they would be affected.

Studies of deep-water currents and their potential role in increasing deep-water productivity as well as other proximal factors need to be considered for deepwater species in the Gulf of Mexico, as well as the dynamic nature of the warm- and cold-core rings.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Cuvier's beaked whale in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Mannocci et al. (2017).

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Cuvier's beaked whale – *Ziphius cavirostris*

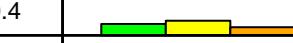
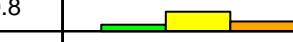
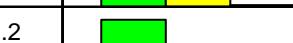
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate ■

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate ■

Climate Exposure = High ■

Data Quality = 41% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.3	1.4	
	Habitat Specificity	2.2	1.4	
	Site Fidelity	2.8	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.2	0.4	
	Generation Length	2.3	0.8	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.0	0.4	
	Migration	2.8	1.4	
	Home Range	2.3	1.2	
	Stock Abundance	2.1	1.8	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	0.6	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	1.6	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.2	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.4	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.6	2.2	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	1.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	1.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.0	1.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	1.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.1	2.2	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.4	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.0	
	Circulation	2.2	1.6	
	Sea level rise	1.5	2.2	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Cuvier's beaked whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Ziphius cavirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (64% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.52), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.40).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.84), Site Fidelity (2.76), and Species Abundance Trend (2.52).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 41% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The Cuvier's beaked whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020). This stock is considered separately from the Gulf of Mexico and Puerto Rico/U.S. Virgin Islands stocks.

Prey/Diet Specificity

West et al. (2017) compiled Cuvier's beaked whale diet information from 18 studies, which included 45 stomach analyses. World-wide, the most important cephalopod families in the diet are Cranchiidae, Gonatidae, Histiotethidae, Octopoteuthidae, Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Pholidoteuthidae, and Mastigoteuthidae, all within the order Oegopsida (West et al. 2017). Cranchiidae is common prey in all locations (West et al. 2017). Histiotethidae and Cranchiidae are the most common prey in the North Atlantic (West et al. 2017). Results of stomach and fecal analysis show that dietary components from Bahamian Cuvier's beaked whales are consistent with those from stomach content studies from elsewhere in the Atlantic (Hickmott 2005).

Habitat Specificity

Generally, little is known about beaked whale habitat preferences due to their elusive nature (Barlow et al. 2006). Beaked whales are typically found in continental slope and oceanic waters deeper than 200 m (Ritter and Brederlau 1999; Gannier 2000; Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004;

Ferguson 2005; MacLeod and Zuur 2005; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006). Beaked whales are only occasionally reported in waters over the continental shelf (Pitman 2002). Cuvier's beaked whales have been found associated with physical features such as the continental slope, canyons, escarpments, and oceanic islands (Baird et al. 2004; MacLeod et al. 2004; MacLeod and D'Amico 2006).

Beaked whales off the eastern U.S. are often found near the Gulf Stream and associated warm-core rings (Waring et al. 1992). Beaked whales south of Georges Bank were located in waters with a mean SST of 20.7° to 24.9°C and a bottom depth of 500 to 2,000 m (Waring et al. 2003).

Site Fidelity

Site fidelity has been reported for Cuvier's beaked whales in waters off Cape Hatteras, NC (Forney et al. 2017), the Ligurian Sea (Ballardini et al. 2005), Hawaii (McSweeney et al. 2007), and Canary Islands (Aguilar de Soto and Hammond 2014).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) did not include interbirth intervals for ziphids. Interbirth intervals for other odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 2-4.7 years (Taylor et al. 2007). In Hawaii, one photo-identified female had a calving interval of over 6 years (Baird 2018). In the Canary Islands, Aguilar de Soto and Hammond (2014) estimated calving interval of approximately 4 years using photo ID of two females associated with calves.

Taylor et al. (2007) reported age of last reproduction for Cuvier's beaked whale as 46 and for Mesoplodont species as ranging between 21-44, with most around 40. While Ziphiid age of first reproduction is not reported, odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 7-14 years (Taylor et al. 2007). Other studies suggest a maximum age of females at 30 years and males at 36 years, based on growth layer groups that may be annual layers (Mitchell 1975; Mead 1984; Houston 1990; Baird 2018).

Research on related Blainville's beaked whales in the Bahamas suggests males and females reach sexual maturity at age nine and maximum age is greater than 23 years (Claridge 2013).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) did not report Ziphiid generation length, but other odontocetes (not including phocoenids or highly matrilineal species) range between 11-27 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Cuvier's beaked whale reproductive seasonality, location, and habitat in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

No migratory information was found in the literature for Cuvier's beaked whales in the western North Atlantic, although most sightings occur in late spring or summer (Waring et al. 2014) and there is

evidence that Cuvier's beaked whales are present year-round off Cape Hatteras based on aerial surveys (McLellan et al. 2018) and acoustic detections (Stanistreet et al. 2017). During a three-year monitoring period following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, Cuvier's beaked whales were present only seasonally in the western Gulf of Mexico (Green Canyon and Mississippi Canyon), with periods of low density during the summer and higher density in the winter, while Cuvier's beaked whales maintained a high density at an eastern Gulf of Mexico site (Dry Tortugas; Hildebrand et al. 2015).

Home Range

In a satellite tagging study to examine Cuvier's beaked whale diving behavior, Shearer et al. (2019) found individuals tagged off the coast of Cape Hatteras, NC, generally remained within the offshore waters south of Virginia and north of Cape Hatteras.

Stock Abundance

Cuvier's beaked whales are difficult to identify and distinguish from other beaked whales. Estimated abundance of Cuvier's beaked whales is typically negatively biased when sightings of beaked whales which could be positively identified to species were used.

The most recent NOAA Fisheries Stock Assessment Report (Hayes et al. 2020) estimated Cuvier's beaked whales in the Western North Atlantic at 5,744 (CV=0.36), based on 2016 shipboard and aerial surveys from Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020).

Earlier estimates from 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2011 surveys estimated the abundance of undifferentiated beaked whales rather than Cuvier's beaked whales specifically. The 2002 aerial survey resulted in an abundance estimate of 822 (CV=0.81) undifferentiated beaked whales (Palka 2006). The 2004 survey north of Maryland resulted in an abundance estimate of 2,839 (CV=0.78) undifferentiated beaked whales. The 2004 shipboard survey between Florida and Maryland resulted in an abundance estimate of 674 (CV =0.36) undifferentiated beaked whales. The 2006 aerial survey from the southern edge of Georges Bank to the upper Bay of Fundy and to the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence resulted in an abundance estimate of 922 (CV=1.47) undifferentiated beaked whales Waring et al. (2014).

Waring et al. (2014) noted that estimates are not dive-time correct and are therefore likely negatively biased.

Survey Period	Area	Cuvier's beaked whale		Unidentified Ziphiidae		Reference
		NBest	CV	NBest	CV	
2002	S. Gulf of Maine to Maine			822	0.81	Palka 2006
2004	Maryland to Bay of Fundy			2839	0.78	Palka 2006
2004	Florida to Maryland			674	0.36	

2004	Florida to Bay of Fundy (COMBINED)			3513	0.63	
2006	S. Gulf of Maine to upper Bay of Fundy to Gulf of St. Lawrence			922	1.47	Waring et al. 2014
2011	North Carolina to lower Bay of Fundy	4,962	0.37			Palka 2012
2016	Florida to Bay of Fundy (COMBINED)	5,744	0.36			Garrison 2020; Palka 2020

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock due to imprecise abundance estimates (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Seven Cuvier's beaked whales stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast between 2013 and 2017, with one showing evidence of human interaction (Hayes et al. 2020). Impacts on beaked whales associated with naval activities (e.g., sonar) include skin lesions and mass strandings (Simmonds and Lopez-Jurado 1991; Frantzis 1998; Jepson et al. 2003; Fernández et al. 2005; Bernaldo de Quiros et al. 2019). In March 2000, 14 beaked whales live-stranded in the Bahamas; 6 beaked whales (5 Cuvier's and 1 Blainville's) died and necropsies performed on 5 of the whales showed evidence of tissue trauma associated with an acoustic or impulse injury (Evans and England 2001; Balcomb and Claridge 2001; Cox et al. 2006).

Other relevant information

In his review of global climate change, range changes and potential implications for the conservation of marine cetaceans, MacLeod (2009) categorized the Cuvier's beaked whale as a warmer water-limited (WWL) species and speculated that as a WWL species, the range of Cuvier's beaked whale is likely to expand polewards in all oceans.

Learmonth et al. (2006) in their table for potential effects of climate change on species range had a question mark for Cuvier's beaked whale and how they would be affected.

Studies of deep-water currents and their potential role in increasing deep-water productivity as well as other proximal factors need to be considered for deepwater species in the Gulf, as well as the dynamic nature of the warm- and cold-core rings.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Cuvier's beaked whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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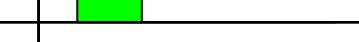
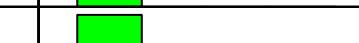
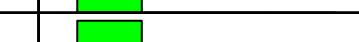
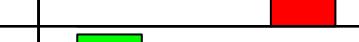
False killer whale – *Pseudorca crassidens*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 59% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.2	1.7	
	Habitat Specificity	1.6	1.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.1	0.7	
	Generation Length	2.6	0.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.3	0.7	
	Migration	2.8	1.3	
	Home Range	1.7	1.3	
	Stock Abundance	2.7	1.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.3	1.3	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.2	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.3	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Circulation	1.5	2.0	
	Sea level rise	2.0	2.7	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

False killer whale (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Pseudorca crassidens

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (93% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.80), Species Abundance (2.67), and Generation Time (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 59% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The false killer whale Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico and adjacent offshore and Mexican waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

False killer whales' diet consists primarily of cephalopods and fish (Stacey et al. 1994; Odell and McClune 1999).

Habitat Specificity

False killer whales are found primarily in oceanic and offshore areas, but have been known to approach shore (Baird et al. 1989; Rudolph et al. 1997; Gannier 2002; Baird 2018). False killer whales are found in oceanic waters in the northern Gulf of Mexico (Davis and Fargion 1996; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding false killer whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Kasuya (1986) reported an inter-birth interval of 6.9 years in Japan. Ferreira (2008) calculated inter-birth interval from annual pregnancy rate and reported an interval of 8.8 years and 4.5 years in Japan and South Africa, respectively.

Leatherwood et al. (1989) reported age at sexual maturation of 8 to 14 years. Ferreira et al. (2014) estimated that females in populations in Japan and South Africa reach sexual maturity at 8–10.5 years. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 41 years (estimated). False killer whales are among the few species in which senescence has been recorded, with ovulation ceased in 50% of whales over 45 years, and whales over 55 years old being classified as post-reproductive (Photopoulou et al. 2017). These values suggest a reproductive lifespan of 27–37 years.

Generation Length

Oleson et al. (2010) estimated a generation length for false killer whales of 25 years, based on short-finned pilot whales.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding false killer whale reproductive seasonality, location, and habitat in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Migration

False killer whales were only seen in the northern Gulf of Mexico during the spring and summer surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000; Mullin and Fulling 2004), although the Navy expects no seasonal differences in their occurrence patterns within their operating areas (DoN 2007).

Home Range

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, false killer whales are mostly seen in the deep waters seaward of the shelf break but are occasionally found over shelf waters (Davis and Fargion 1996; Jefferson and Schiro 1997; Mullin and Fulling 2004). The species is assumed to occur in other regions of the Gulf of Mexico beyond U.S. waters (Jefferson and Schiro 1997; Ortega Ortiz 2002; Jefferson et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate for false killer whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico is 494 individuals (CV=0.79), based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the stock abundance was estimated to be 777 individuals (CV=0.56) based on data pooled from 2003 and 2004 surveys (Mullin 2007). For 1996 to 2001 the estimate was 1038 individuals (CV=0.71; Mullin and Fulling 2004). For 1991 to 1994, the estimate was 381 individuals (CV=0.62; Hansen et al. 1995).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of false killer whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (1,293; CV=0.64), 2004 (0), 2009 (0), 2017 (1,069; CV=0.97), and 2018 (162; CV=0.74). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and found significant differences between the 2003 and 2018 estimates and the 2017 and 2018 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). The DWH NRDA Trustees estimated that for the northern Gulf of Mexico stock of false killer whales, 18% of the population was exposed to oil, 6% was killed, 8% of females sustained reproductive failure, and 7% of the population sustained adverse health effects (Table 4.9-12 of DWH NRDA 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

The false killer whale may interact with longline fisheries in the northern Gulf of Mexico, however no fishing-related mortality or serious injury of a false killer whale was reported during 2014–2018 (Hayes et al. 2021). A mass stranding of 99 false killer whales occurred in Florida in 2017.

The oil, dispersant and burn residue compounds from the Deepwater Horizon (DWH) incident present persistent ecological concerns along coastal areas from western Louisiana to the Florida Panhandle (NOAA 2011; DWH MMIQT 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for false killer whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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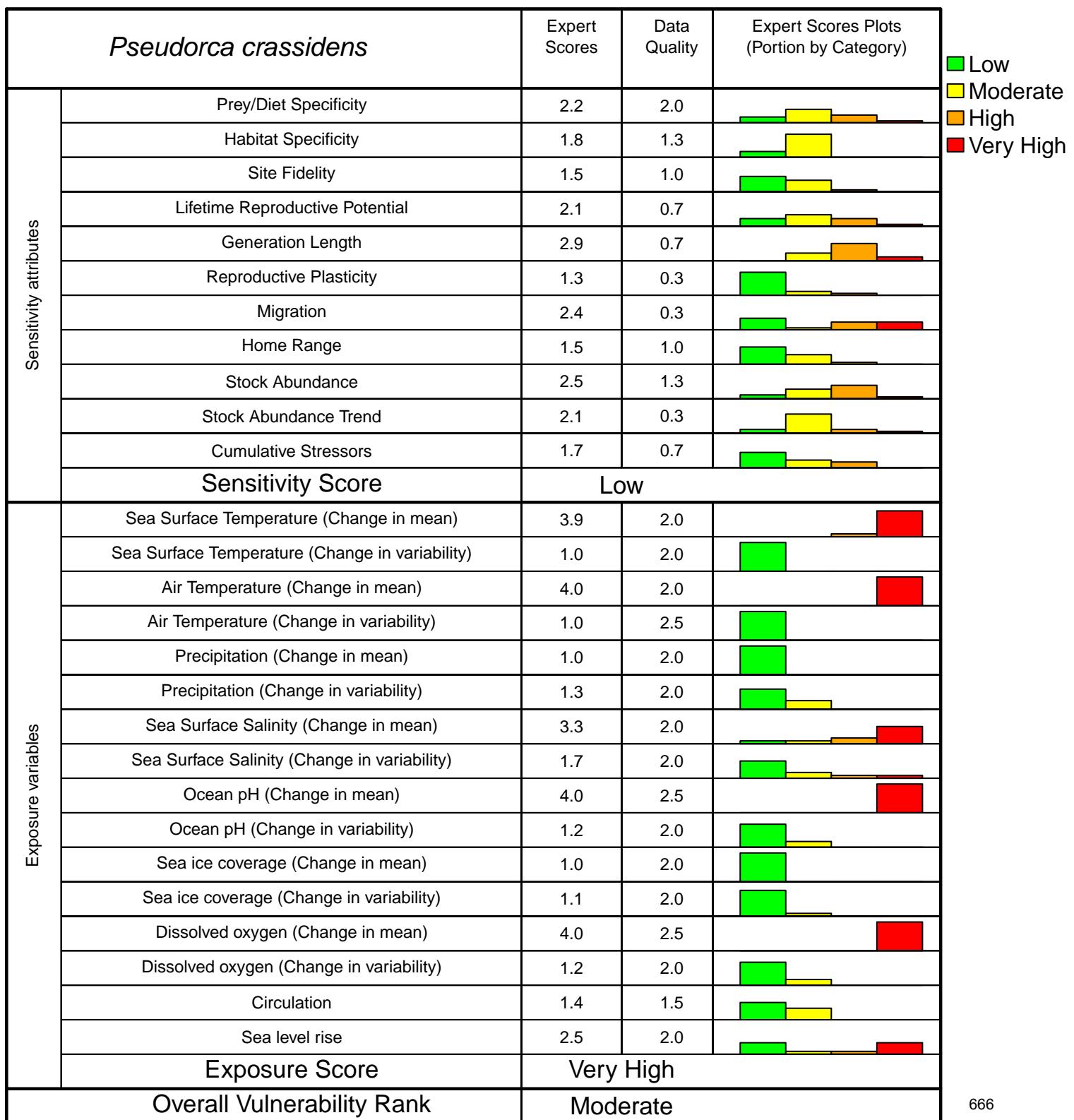
False killer whale – *Pseudorca crassidens*
 Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 59% of scores ≥ 2



False killer whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Pseudorca crassidens

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (30% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.9).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (2.87).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 59% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 9% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The false killer whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

False killer whales' diet consists primarily of cephalopods and fish (Stacey et al. 1994; Odell and McClune 1999).

Habitat Specificity

False killer whales are found primarily in oceanic and offshore areas, but have been known to approach shore (Baird et al. 1989; Rudolph et al. 1997; Gannier 2002; Baird 2018). False killer whales have been sighted in U.S. Atlantic waters from southern Florida to Maine (Schmidly 1981).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding false killer whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Kasuya (1986) reported an inter-birth interval of 6.9 years in Japan. Ferreira (2008) calculated inter-birth interval from annual pregnancy rate and reported an interval of 8.8 years and 4.5 years in Japan and South Africa, respectively.

Leatherwood et al. (1989) reported age at sexual maturation of 8 to 14 years. Ferreira et al. (2014) estimated that females in populations in Japan and South Africa reach sexual maturity at 8–10.5 years. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 41 years (estimated). False killer whales are among the few species in which senescence has been recorded, with ovulation ceased in 50% of whales over 45 years, and whales over 55 years old being classified as post-reproductive (Photopoulou et al. 2017). These values suggest a reproductive lifespan of 27–37 years.

Generation Length

Oleson et al. (2010) estimated a generation length for false killer whales of 25 years, based on short-finned pilot whales.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding false killer whale reproductive seasonality, location, and habitat in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding false killer whale migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding false killer whale home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate for western North Atlantic false killer whales is 1,791 individuals ($CV=0.56$), based on summer 2016 surveys from Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). Summer 2011 surveys covering waters from central Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy estimated the population at 442 individuals ($CV=1.06$; Waring et al. 2015).

Stock Abundance Trend

There are insufficient data to determine population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

The false killer whale stock in the western North Atlantic may interact with pelagic longline fisheries, however no fishery-related mortality or serious injury was reported during 2013–2017 (Hayes et al.

2020). One false killer whale stranding was reported in the U.S. Atlantic Ocean during 2013–2017 (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for false killer whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Fin whale – *Balaenoptera physalus*

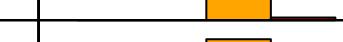
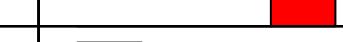
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Balaenoptera physalus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.6	2.8	
	Habitat Specificity	1.5	2.5	
	Site Fidelity	2.8	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.1	2.0	
	Generation Length	3.1	1.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.9	1.3	
	Migration	1.3	2.3	
	Home Range	1.7	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	2.0	2.5	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	2.7	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.9	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.9	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.8	2.9	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.9	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.2	2.9	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.9	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.1	2.9	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	2.9	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.9	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.2	2.9	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.6	2.9	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.9	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.9	
	Circulation	2.7	2.5	
	Sea level rise	1.8	2.9	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Fin whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Balaenoptera physalus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (47% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.75).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (3.07), Reproductive Plasticity (2.93), and Site Fidelity (2.80).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The western North Atlantic stock of fin whales includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Donovan 1991; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

The fin whale diet includes a wide variety of small, schooling prey (e.g., herring [*Clupea harengus*], capelin [*Mallotus villosus*], sand lance [*Ammodytes spp.*]), squid, krill, and copepods (see review in Kenney et al. 1985; NMFS 2010). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet of 80% large zooplankton, 5% small squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, 5% mesopelagic fishes, and 5% miscellaneous fishes, however those results are biased by krill-dominated diets in the Southern Ocean and high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere.

Habitat Specificity

Fin whales in the western North Atlantic forage in shallow areas of high relief (Kenney and Winn 1986; Hain et al. 1992; Waring et al. 1992; Woodley and Gaskin 1996). Fin whales have been found associated with features that aggregate prey, such as warm core rings and thermal fronts (Waring et al. 1992; Clark and Gagnon 2004; Johnston et al. 2005; Doniol-Valcroze et al. 2007).

Site Fidelity

Females of this population show evidence of site fidelity (Seipt et al. 1990; Clapham and Seipt 1991; Agler et al. 1993).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Calving intervals in northeastern U.S. waters range from 2 to 6 years (Agler et al. 1990) while Taylor et al. (2007) reported interbirth interval of 2.24 years for the species in general.

Female fin whales in the North Atlantic mature at 8 to 11 years of age (Boyd et al. 1999) while Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 10 years for the species in general. Taylor et al. (2007) estimated age at last reproduction to be 62 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 19.6 years at $r=0.04$ and 25.9 years at $r=0.0$ for the species in general.

Reproductive Plasticity

Hain et al. (1992) suggested that calving takes place during October to January in the latitudes of the U.S. mid-Atlantic. Calving, mating, and wintering locations remain mostly unknown (Aguilar 2018; Hayes et al. 2022).

Migration

Fin whales that are found in U.S. Atlantic EEZ waters likely migrate into Canadian waters, open-ocean areas, and subtropical or tropical regions (Hayes et al. 2022). Passive acoustic monitoring suggests fin whales move southward in the fall and northward in spring (Clark 1995). However, a portion of the population is found within U.S. waters throughout the year, suggesting the population does not undergo distinct annual migrations like other mysticetes in the region (CETAP 1982; Hain et al. 1992; Edwards et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2022).

Home Range

Fin whales are common in waters of the U. S. Atlantic EEZ, principally from Cape Hatteras northward (CETAP 1982; Hain et al. 1992). In a recent globally-scaled review of sightings data, Edwards et al. (2015) found evidence to confirm the presence of fin whales in every season throughout much of the US EEZ north of 35°N. Clark (1995) suggested a substantial deep-ocean distribution of fin whales.

Stock Abundance

The western North Atlantic fin whale stock abundance is estimated at 7,418 individuals ($CV=0.25$) based on the sum of the estimates from the 2016 NOAA shipboard and aerial surveys and the 2016 Canadian Northwest Atlantic International Sightings Survey (Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock due to poor statistical power to detect a trend (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to fin whales in the western North Atlantic include ship strikes, pollution, and entanglement in fishing gear (Hayes et al. 2022). During the period 2014–2018, a minimum annual rate of 1.55 western North Atlantic fin whales suffered serious injury or mortality from incidental fishery interactions and a minimum annual rate of 0.8 fin whales suffered serious injury or mortality from vessel collisions (Henry et al. 2021).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for fin whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Fraser's dolphin – *Lagenodelphis hosei*

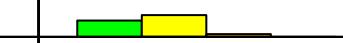
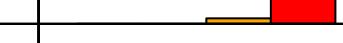
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 78% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.7	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.6	2.0	
	Site Fidelity	1.7	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.1	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.2	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.7	1.7	
	Migration	2.8	1.3	
	Home Range	1.7	1.3	
	Stock Abundance	3.3	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	3.0	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.0	1.7	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.8	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.8	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Circulation	2.1	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.1	2.0	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Fraser's dolphin (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Lagenodelphis hosei

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (56% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.40), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.40), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Species Abundance (3.27) and Species Abundance Trend (3.00).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 78% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 45% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The Fraser's dolphin Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Fraser's dolphins are generally known to feed on mesopelagic fishes, mesopelagic cephalopods, and shrimps (Robison and Craddock 1983; Jefferson and Leatherwood 1994; Perrin et al. 1994; Dos Santos and Haimovici 2001; Dolar et al. 2003). In the Sulu Sea near the Phillipines, mesopelagic myctophids (55% by volume), mesopelagic cephalopods (30% by volume), and crustaceans (15% by volume) comprised the diet of Fraser's dolphins (Dolar et al. 2003). Watkins et al. (1994) reported on Fraser's dolphins feeding cooperatively on 'rainbow runner' (*Elagatis bipinnulatus*) off Dominica in the southeast Caribbean. Squid beaks and shrimp were found in stomach contents of a Fraser's dolphin that stranded in Puerto Rico (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1999).

Habitat Specificity

Fraser's dolphin is typically oceanic, except in places where deep water is found near shore (Ballance and Pitman 1998; Dolar et al. 2006; Jefferson et al. 2015; Louella and Dolar 2018). This species is often associated with upwelling-modified waters in the Eastern Tropical Pacific (Au and Perryman 1985).

Stable isotope analyses support that this species is predominantly oceanic (Botta et al. 2012; Bisi et al. 2013; Kiszka et al. 2011).

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, Fraser's dolphins are sighted in oceanic waters deeper than 200m (Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Fraser's dolphins are sighted over the abyssal plain in the southern Gulf of Mexico (Leatherwood et al. 1993)

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Fraser's dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Fraser's dolphins have an interbirth interval of 2.00 years based on values reported by Amano et al. (1996).

Jefferson and Leatherwood (1994) reported age at sexual maturation for both sexes to occur around 7 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 8 years. Amano et al. (1996) reported females to reach sexual maturity at 5-8 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at last reproduction of 18 years (observed) to 33 years (estimated), while Amano et al. (1996) reported an individual to be up to 17.5 years old captured in Japan, and Siciliano et al. (2007) reported an individual to be up to 19 years old in Brazil. These values result in a reproductive lifespan ranging from 10-28 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated generation length of 11.0 years at $r = 0.01$ and 11.1 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Amano et al. (1996).

Reproductive Plasticity

Little information regarding Fraser's dolphin reproduction is presented in the literature. Of the information available, there is no strong evidence of calving seasonality (DoN 2007).

Migration

Fraser's dolphins have been observed in the northern Gulf of Mexico year-round (Leatherwood et al. 1993; Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Fraser's dolphins are found in the deep waters of the U.S. Gulf of Mexico and are assumed to occur throughout the oceanic Gulf of Mexico (Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Jefferson et al. 2008; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020).

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate for the Northern Gulf of Mexico Fraser's dolphin stock is 213 individuals ($CV=1.03$), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 726 individuals ($CV=0.70$), based on pooled data from 1996 through 2001 (Mullin and

Fulling 2004). For 1991 to 1994, the estimate was 127 (CV=0.90; Hansen et al. 1995). No Fraser's dolphins were encountered during summer 2003 and spring 2004 surveys (Mullin 2007), or during a summer 2009 survey (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to determine the population trends for this species (Hayes et al. 2021). The Deepwater Horizon (DWH) Natural Resource Damage Assessment (NRDA) Trustees did not estimate impacts to the northern Gulf of Mexico stock of Fraser's dolphins due to lack of data (DWH NRDA 2016).

Cumulative Stressors

Fraser's dolphin may interact with longline fisheries in the Gulf of Mexico. No fishing-related mortalities of Fraser's dolphin were reported during the 2014–2018 period (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b).

Five Fraser's dolphins were reported stranded during a mass stranding event in Florida during 2017 (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The oil, dispersant and burn residue compounds from the DWH incident present persistent ecological concerns along coastal areas from western Louisiana to the Florida Panhandle (NOAA 2011; Litz et al. 2014; DWH MMICQT 2015).

Other relevant information

Gomes-Pereira et al. (2013) characterized Fraser's dolphins as potential bio-indicators of climate change based on sightings made in temperate waters of the Azores (Aug 2008) and the Madeira Archipelago (Aug 2010) during a period of increased seawater temperature in the region.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Fraser's dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Fraser's dolphin – *Lagenodelphis hosei*

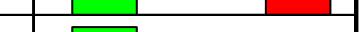
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Moderate 

Data Quality = 26% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.7	
	Habitat Specificity	2.0	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.7	1.0	
	Generation Length	2.1	1.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	0.3	
	Migration	2.0	0.0	
	Home Range	1.7	1.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.7	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.9	0.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.5	0.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	2.9	2.5	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.5	1.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	1.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	1.5	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.2	1.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	1.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.1	1.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	2.5	1.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	1.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	1.0	1.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	1.5	
	Circulation	1.4	1.5	
	Sea level rise	1.2	2.5	
	Exposure Score	Moderate		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Fraser's dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Lagenodelphis hosei

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (94% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Moderate. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.9), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.5), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (2.5).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5.

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 26% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 18% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Fraser's dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Fraser's dolphins are generally known to feed on mesopelagic fishes, mesopelagic cephalopods, and shrimps (Robison and Craddock 1983; Jefferson and Leatherwood 1994; Perrin et al. 1994; Dos Santos and Haimovici 2001; Dolar et al. 2003). Pauly et al. (1998) reported the diet composition of Fraser's dolphins consisting of 5% benthic invertebrates, 30% small squids, 5% large squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, 35% mesopelagic fishes, and 20% miscellaneous fishes. In the Sulu Sea near the Phillipines, mesopelagic myctophids (55% by volume), mesopelagic cephalopods (30% by volume), and crustaceans (15% by volume) comprised the diet of Fraser's dolphins (Dolar et al. 2003). Watkins et al. (1994) reported on Fraser's dolphins feeding cooperatively on 'rainbow runner' (*Elagatis bipinnulatus*) off Dominica in the southeast Caribbean. Squid beaks and shrimp were found in stomach contents of a Fraser's dolphin that stranded in Puerto Rico (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1999).

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Fraser's dolphin is typically oceanic, except in places where deep water is found near shore (Ballance and Pitman 1998; Dolar et al. 2006; Jefferson et al. 2015; Louella and Dolar 2018). This species is often associated with upwelling-modified waters in the Eastern Tropical Pacific (Au and Perryman 1985).

Stable isotope analyses suggest that this species is predominantly oceanic (Botta et al. 2012; Bisi et al. 2013; Kiszka et al. 2011).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Fraser's dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Fraser's dolphins have an interbirth interval of 2.00 years based on values reported by Amano et al. (1996).

Jefferson and Leatherwood (1994) reported age at sexual maturation for both sexes to occur around 7 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 8 years. Amano et al. (1996) reported females to reach sexual maturity at 5-8 years of age. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at last reproduction of 18 years (observed) to 33 years (estimated), while Amano et al. (1996) reported an individual to be up to 17.5 years old captured in Japan, and Siciliano et al. (2007) reported an individual to be up to 19 years old in Brazil. These values result in a reproductive lifespan ranging from 10-28 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated generation length of 11.0 years at $r = 0.01$ and 11.1 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Amano et al. (1996).

Reproductive Plasticity

Little information regarding Fraser's dolphin reproduction is presented in the literature. Of the information available, there is no strong evidence of calving seasonality (DoN 2008)

Migration

No stock-specific migratory information was in the published literature. In the Gulf of Mexico, Fraser's dolphins have been observed year-round (Leatherwood et al. 1993; Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

No stock-specific migratory information was in the published literature. In the Gulf of Mexico, Fraser's dolphin are found in deep waters (Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006) and are assumed to occur throughout the oceanic Gulf of Mexico (Jefferson et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

Abundance has not been estimated for the Western North Atlantic Fraser's dolphin stock due to a lack of sightings during surveys (Hayes et al. 2020). The only information regarding abundance comes from a 1999 sighting of a group of an estimated 250 Fraser's dolphins in waters 3300 m deep off Cape Hatteras, North Carolina (NMFS 1999).

Stock Abundance Trend

There are insufficient data to determine the population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Fraser's dolphin may interact with longline fisheries; however, there were no reports of fishery-related mortality or serious injury to Fraser's dolphins in the western North Atlantic during 2013–2017 (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, no Fraser's dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast (Hayes et al. 2020).

Other relevant information

Gomes-Pereira et al. (2013) characterized Fraser's dolphins as potential bio-indicators of climate change based on sightings made in temperate waters of the Azores (Aug 2008) and the Madeira Archipelago (Aug 2010) during a period of increased seawater temperature in the region.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Fraser's dolphin in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Gervais beaked whale – *Mesoplodon europaeus*

Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 26% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Mesoplodon europaeus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	1.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.0	1.5	
	Site Fidelity	2.9	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.7	0.2	
	Generation Length	2.3	0.8	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.8	0.5	
	Migration	3.0	1.0	
	Home Range	2.5	1.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.4	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	0.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	1.5	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	2.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.2	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.2	1.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	1.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.4	1.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.2	1.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	1.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.5	1.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	1.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.2	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	1.8	
	Circulation	2.0	1.5	
	Sea level rise	1.6	2.2	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Gervais beaked whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Mesoplodon europaeus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (52% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Five exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.50), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.25), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25), and Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.20).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Migration (3.05), Site Fidelity (2.90), Lifetime Reproductive Potential (2.70), Home Range (2.55), and Species Abundance Trend (2.50).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 26% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Gervais' beaked whale western North Atlantic stock group includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Information regarding prey comes primarily from stranded animals. Those animals were found to consume meso-pelagic squids (e.g., histiocteuthids, cranchiids, chiroteuthids, octopoteuthids), fish such as viperfish (*Chauliodus* sp.), gempylids (*Nesiarchus* sp.), and mysids (Debrot and Barros 1992; Santos et al. 2007; Fernández et al. 2009).

Habitat Specificity

Gervais' beaked whales occur in warmer southern waters of the North Atlantic (MacLeod 2000).

Beaked whales are found along the continental shelf break off the northeastern U.S. and with the Gulf Stream and the associated warm-core rings off the eastern U.S. (Waring et al. 1992; Waring et al. 2001). A survey off George's Bank found beaked whales in waters with a mean SST of 20.7° to 24.9°C and a bottom depth of 500 to 2,000 m (Waring et al. 2003). World-wide, beaked whales are found in continental slope and oceanic waters deeper than 200 m (Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; Pitman 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding Gervais beaked whale reproductive interval in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) estimated age at last reproduction of 42 years.

Generation Length

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale generation length in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale reproductive season, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Satellite track data and photo identification studies were not found for this stock of Gervais' beaked whales, though they are believed to be principally oceanic and, based on strandings, range from Cape Cod to Florida, into the Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico (Leatherwood et al. 1976; Mead 1989; MacLeod et al. 2006; Jefferson et al. 2008; McLellan et al. 2018; Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance

Abundance estimates for Gervais' beaked whales off the eastern U.S. and Canadian Atlantic coast are unavailable due to difficulty differentiating beaked whales during surveys. The best abundance estimate for *Mesoplodon spp.* beaked whales is 10,107 individuals (CV=0.27), based on 2016 survey estimates (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020; Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

The 2013-2017 total average estimated annual mortality of Gervais' beaked whales in observed fisheries in the U.S. Atlantic EEZ is zero (Hayes et al. 2020).

During the period 2007–2011, 21 Gervais' beaked whales stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast, with none of these animals showing signs of human interaction (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for beaked whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017a), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Gray seal – *Halichoerus grypus grypus*

Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Halichoerus grypus grypus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.6	2.8	
	Habitat Specificity	2.8	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	2.8	3.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	3.0	
	Generation Length	1.0	3.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.9	3.0	
	Migration	2.5	3.0	
	Home Range	2.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.3	2.2	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.5	2.5	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	2.8	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.6	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.4	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	2.0	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.5	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.8	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.2	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.2	
	Circulation	2.2	2.5	
	Sea level rise	3.0	2.5	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Gray seal (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Halichoerus grypus grypus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (88% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.05), and Sea level rise (3.05).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Site Fidelity (2.85), Habitat Specificity (2.75), Cumulative Stressors (2.55), and Migration (2.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 100 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The gray seal western North Atlantic stock includes individuals found in waters off the U.S. and Canadian coasts in the western North Atlantic (Bonner 1981; Boskovic et al. 1996; Lesage and Hammill 2001; Klimova et al. 2014; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Gray seals are known to target prey in the orders Pleuronectiformes, Gadiformes, Trachiniformes, and Rajiformes. In the western North Atlantic, a large proportion of their diet is sand eels or sand lance (Ammodytidae), which can make up over 70% of the diet (Flanders et al. 2020). Other prey include herring (*Clupea harengus*), whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*), cod (*Gadus morhua*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), saithe (*Pollachius virens*), and flatfish (plaice and flounder; Bonner 1981; D. Thompson et al. 1991; P.M. Thompson et al. 1991; Lesage and Hammill 2001; Hall and Russell 2018). Gray seals at Muskeget Island, Massachusetts consumed windowpane flounder (*Scophthalmus aquosus*), silver hake (*Merluccius bilinearis*), sand lance (*Ammodytes* sp.), skates (Rajidae), and gadids (Rough 1995). Elsewhere in the North Atlantic, gray seals feed on a variety of fish species and cephalopods (Hammond et al. 1994).

Foraging strategies vary with sex and season, and animals generally fast during the pupping and molting periods (Breed et al. 2006, 2009, 2011; Russell et al. 2015). At Anticosti Island, (Quebec, Canada), gray seals in August and September feed primarily on cod, herring and mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*; Bowen et al. 1993). On the Scotian Shelf, gray seals feed essentially on sand lance during January to March (Bowen et al. 1993; Bowen and Harrison 1994).

Habitat Specificity

Gray seals are generally coastal and are often found within continental shelf waters while foraging (Lesage and Hammill 2001). Gray seals require terrestrial habitat (e.g. rock shore, beaches) or ice to haul out (Hall and Russell 2018). Haul out site suitability may be affected by ocean conditions, weather conditions, topography, bathymetry, and human presence (Reeves et al. 1992; Katona et al. 1993; Barlas 1999; Sjöberg and Ball 2000; Wood et al. 2020). Gray seals haul out for pupping and breeding from December to February at various sites throughout Maine and Massachusetts, Nova Scotia, Sable Island, and Gulf of St Lawrence (den Heyer et al. 2020) and in April and May to molt (Rough 1995).

Site Fidelity

Gray seals show a high degree of site fidelity and generally return to their natal site to breed (D. Thompson et al. 1991; McConnell et al. 1992; Sjöberg and Ball 2000). Return visits may come within meters of previous pupping sites (Pomeroy et al. 1994). However, gray seals also recruit into non-natal colonies (Wood et al. 2011; Wood et al. 2020) and some populations use alternative haul-out sites (Goulet et al. 2001).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Female gray seals typically reproduce every year, meaning the reproductive interval is around 1 year. (Hammill et al. 2014.)

Female gray seals reach sexual maturity around 4 or 5 years, with a mean age of first birth of 5.6 years (Hammill and Gosselin 1995; Hammill et al. 2014). Females can live to around 40 years (Mellish et al. 1999), allowing a reproductive lifespan of greater than 30 years.

Generation Length

Gray seal generation length is estimated at 14 years (Magera et al. 2013).

Reproductive Plasticity

In the western North Atlantic population, gray seals primarily pup from early December to late January at nine established colonies in U.S. waters and at colonies in eastern Canada (Sable Island, Gulf of St. Lawrence, coast of Nova Scotia; Wood et al. 2020; den Heyer et al. 2020). These colonies are found on remote beaches and uninhabited islands.

Females give birth to a single pup on land or on shifting pack ice (Lesage and Hammill 2001). Gray seals breed from January to February generally after the pups are born (Barlas 1999). Breeding adult gray seals of both sexes fast during pupping.

Migration

After breeding, gray seals disperse widely and remain offshore until they molt in the spring (Rough 1995; Lesage and Hammill 2001). After they molt, there is a second dispersal.

Home Range

Gray seals in the Baltic Sea were found to spend 75% of their time within 50km of the haulout site (Sjöberg and Ball 2000). In the United Kingdom, gray seals generally remain within 40 km of a haulout site during foraging trips (McConnell et al. 1999).

Stock Abundance

The gray seal population in U.S. waters during the pupping season in 2021 was estimated to be 27,911 (Wood et al. 2022) while the total Canadian gray seal population in 2021 was estimated to be 366,400 (95% CI=317,800 to 409,400; DFO 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

In the U.S., the mean rate of increase in the number of pups born differs across the pupping colonies over various time periods. The estimated mean rate of increase in the minimum number of pups born was 20.9% on Muskeget Island from 1988–2021, 19.0% on Monomoy Island from 2009–2021, 11.5% on Seal Island from 2000–2021, and 44.1% on Nomans Island from 2011–2021 (Wood et al. 2022).

Based on the most recent assessment of herds in Canada, the population increased at a rate of 1.5% per year between 2016 and 2021 (DFO 2022). .

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to gray seals in the western North Atlantic include fisheries interactions, vessel strikes, direct take, pollution, storms, disease, and predation (Katona et al. 1993; Bowen et al. 2003; Bowen 2016; Hayes et al. 2022).

Gray seals in the western North Atlantic interact with gillnet, seine, and trawl fisheries (Precoda and Orphanides 2022; Lyssikatos and Chavez-Rosales 2022; Josephson et al. 2019; Hayes et al. 2022). During the time period 2014–2018, annual average human-caused mortality or serious injury was 4,729 individuals, based on catch data from Canada and Greenland (which includes subsistence catch, and licensed removals of nuisance animals), reports from U.S. fisheries observers, and strandings (Hayes et al. 2021).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for a combined guild phocid seals (primarily gray seals and harbor seals [*Phoca vitulina*]) in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018).

Further Reading

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Harbor porpoise – *Phocoena phocoena phocoena*

Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low

Biological Sensitivity = Low

Climate Exposure = Moderate

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Phocoena phocoena phocoena</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.6	
	Habitat Specificity	2.2	2.8	
	Site Fidelity	2.3	2.4	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	3.0	
	Generation Length	1.4	2.4	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	2.4	
	Migration	2.1	2.8	
	Home Range	1.8	2.6	
	Stock Abundance	1.4	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	2.2	
	Sensitivity Score	Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.1	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.9	2.2	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.6	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.3	2.4	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.4	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.6	2.4	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.0	2.4	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	2.7	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.6	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.2	2.6	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.6	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.9	1.8	
	Circulation	2.2	2.4	
	Sea level rise	1.8	2.8	
	Exposure Score	Moderate		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Harbor porpoise (Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy Stock)

Phocoena phocoena phocoena

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (96% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Moderate. Four exposure factors scored greater than 2.5: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.12), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (2.96), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (2.68), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.56).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5.

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The harbor porpoise Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy stock includes individuals that are found in the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy (Gaskin 1984, 1992; Hayes et al. 2022). This stock is considered separately from the harbor porpoise stocks in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, and Greenland.

Prey/Diet Specificity

In the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy, harbor porpoise diet consists of small clupeoid and gadid fish such as Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*) and silver hake (*Merluccius bilinearis*; Recchia and Read 1989; Gaskin 1992; Gannon et al. 1998; Read 1999), while south of New England harbor porpoise diet diversifies and includes a longfin squid (*Doryteuthis (Amerigo) pealeii*) as a primary prey item (Orphanides et al. 2020). Diet varies by age, sex, and season (Smith and Read 1992; Read and Hohn 1995; Gannon et al. 1998; Orphanides et al. 2020).

Habitat Specificity

Harbor porpoises in the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy are typically found in continental shelf waters but have been recorded in offshore waters (Palka 1995; Read et al. 1996; Read 1999; Westgate et al. 1998; Jefferson et al. 2008). They are generally found in cooler waters and often associated with oceanographic features such as fronts (Watts and Gaskin 1985; Gaskin 1992; Skov et al. 2003)

Site Fidelity

Information regarding harbor porpoise site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 1.00 year, which is supported by findings from Read and Hohn (1995).

Taylor et al. (2007) reported harbor porpoise age at first reproduction of 5 years and age at last reproduction of 24 years (observed) to 27 years (estimated). In the Gulf of Maine, female harbor porpoises reach sexual maturity at three years of age and few individuals live beyond 10 years of age, with the oldest known individuals living to 17 years (Read 1990a; Read and Gaskin 1990; Read and Hohn 1995).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated harbor porpoise generation length at 8.3 years ($r=0.11$) and 11.9 year ($r=0$).

Reproductive Plasticity

Harbor porpoises in the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy calf and mate in late spring and early summer, with a peak in calving in May (Fisher and Harrison 1970; Gaskin and Blair 1977; Gaskin et al. 1984; Read 1990b; Read and Hohn 1995). Specific mating location and habitat are not reported in the literature.

Migration

Bycatch records and sighting data suggest an onshore-offshore migration with the stock moving to a more offshore distribution during the winter and spring and a more nearshore distribution during summer and fall (CETAP 1982; Kraus et al. 1983; Palka 1995; IWC 1996; Read et al. 1996; Read 1999; Palka 2000; Westgate et al. 1998). Members of the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy stock may also move south to mid-Atlantic waters during the winter where they mix with individuals from other stocks (Westgate et al. 1998; Rosel et al. 1999; Wingfield et al. 2017).

Home Range

A harbor porpoise that was rehabilitated, satellite tagged, and released off the coast of Maine followed the continental slope south to near Cape Hatteras over the course of 63 days (Schofield et al. 2008). Movements of satellite tagged harbor porpoises in the Bay of Fundy and Gulf of Maine showed a high degree of variation that included restricted movement over the course of days or weeks and longer distance excursions to points elsewhere within the Bay of Fundy and Gulf of Maine (Read and Westgate 1997).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy harbor porpoise stock is estimated to be 95,543 individuals (CV=0.3), based on 2016 survey data from central Virginia to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Bay of Fundy, and Scotian Shelf (Palka 2020; Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Insufficient data exist to calculate a stock abundance trend (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Harbor porpoises in the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy stock interact with gillnet and trawl fisheries. During the time period 2014–2018, annual average human-caused mortality or serious injury was 150 individuals (CV=0.14), based on bycatch data from U.S. fisheries observers in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic (Lyssikatos et al. 2021; Orphanides 2021; Hayes et al. 2021). During the same period, 229 harbor porpoises were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast and 86 along the Canadian coast of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, and New Brunswick (Ledwell and Huntington 2014, 2015, 2017, 2018, as cited by Hayes et al. 2021).

Other stressors include pollution (Hall et al. 2006), vessel traffic (Oakley et al. 2017; Terhune 2015), anthropogenic noise (Lucke et al. 2009), and offshore wind development (Carstensen et al. 2006; Brandt et al. 2011; Teilmann and Carstensen 2012; Dähne et al. 2013; Benjamins et al. 2017; Hayes et al. 2022).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for harbor porpoises in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Harbor seal – *Phoca vitulina*
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Moderate 

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2



Harbor seal (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Phoca vitulina

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (89% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Moderate. Five exposure factors scored greater than 2.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25), Sea level rise (2.95), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.85), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (2.80), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.70).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Site Fidelity (2.90), Habitat Specificity (2.85), and Cumulative Stressors (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The harbor seal western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters off the U.S. and Canadian coasts in the western North Atlantic (Temte et al. 1991; Andersen and Olsen 2010; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Harbor seals consume a wide variety of prey and adapt feeding patterns based on prey availability (Payne and Selzer 1989; Baird 2001; Bjørge 2002). In the western North Atlantic, harbor seal diet consists of fish, cephalopods, and crustaceans (Bigg 1981; Payne and Selzer 1989; Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010; Waring et al. 2010). Fish species in the harbor seal diet include sand lance (*Ammodytes* spp.), Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*), cod (*Gadus morhua*), hake (Phycidae and Merlucciidae), mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), smelts (*Osmerus mordax*), shad (*Alosa* spp.), capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), and winter flounder (*Pseudopleuronectes americanus*; Boulva and McLaren 1979; Bowen et al. 1996; Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010; Toth et al. 2018).

Habitat Specificity

Harbor seals in the western North Atlantic use rocky outcroppings, intertidal ledges, and sandy banks as haulout habitat (Kenney 1994; Gilbert and Guldager 1998; Schroeder 2000). Tidal stage affects the availability and use of these rocky habitats (Kovacs et al. 1990; Gilbert and Guldager 1998).

Site Fidelity

Individual harbor seals are known to return to specific haulout sites within seasons and in successive years (Pauli and Terhune 1987; Goodman 1998; Guldager 2001; Harris et al. 2003; Andersen and Olsen 2010).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Harbor seals generally produce one pup each year (Teilmann and Galatius 2018).

Female harbor seal age of first reproduction is 3–4 years (Bigg 1981; Teilmann and Galatius 2018) and age at last reproduction is around 35 years (Härkönen and Heide-Jørgensen 1990).

Generation Length

Information regarding harbor seal generation length in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

The harbor seal western North Atlantic stock pups mostly in Maine and eastern Canada from mid-May through June (Richardson 1976; Wilson 1978; Whitman and Payne 1990; Temte et al. 1991; Gjertz and Borset 1992; Katona et al. 1993; DeHart 2002; Waring et al. 2006b).

Harbor seals generally pup on land, with few records of pupping in shallow water, while mating generally occurs in the water shortly after pups wean (Cassini 1999; Teilmann and Galatius 2018).

Gestation and nursing constitute large energy expenditures on the part of female harbor seals (Bowen et al. 1992; Walker and Bowen 1993). Nursing continues for 24–31 days following parturition (Muelbert and Bowen 1993; Thompson et al. 1994b).

Migration

Harbor seals in the western North Atlantic follow a general migration cycle of southward movement during fall and early winter followed by northward movement to Maine and eastern Canada during the spring prior to pupping season (Richardson 1976; Wilson 1978; Rosenfeld et al. 1988; Whitman and Payne 1990; Kenney 1994; Barlas 1999; Schroeder 2000; Jacobs and Terhune 2000; Waring et al. 2006a).

Movement of a small proportion of the stock extends to mid-Atlantic waters (Whitman and Payne 1990; Katona et al. 1993; Gilbert et al. 2005; Waring et al. 2006b).

Home Range

Telemetry and tagging studies suggest that harbor seals spend much of their time within ~50km of haulout sites (Thompson et al. 1989; Thompson and Miller 1990; Harkonen and Harding 2001; Bjørge et al. 2002; Dietz et al. 2003; Tougaard et al. 2006). Movement varies based on age, with juveniles undergoing long-distance dispersal (Thompson et al. 1994a; Lesage et al. 2004).

Stock Abundance

The harbor seal western North Atlantic stock is estimated at 61,336 individuals (CV=0.08; Sigourney et al. 2021). Previously, the stock abundance was estimated at 75,834 individuals (CV=0.15), based on 2012 survey data (Waring et al. 2015).

Stock Abundance Trend

Trend analysis indicated a positive abundance trend from 2001 to 2004 followed by a stable or negative trend from 2005 to 2018 (Sigourney et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022). Pace et al. (2019) noted a decline in harbor seal counts in southeastern Massachusetts since 2009. Johnston et al. (2015) noted a decline in bycaught and stranded harbor seals since the early 2000s.

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to harbor seals in the western North Atlantic include fisheries interactions, vessel strikes, direct take, pollution, storms, disease, and predation (Katona et al. 1993; Jacobs and Terhune 2000; Stobo and Lucas 2000; Bowen et al. 2003; Anthony et al. 2012; Häkkinen et al., 2006; Andersen et al. 2014; Hayes et al. 2021).

Harbor seals in the western North Atlantic interact with groundfish gillnets, salmon gillnets, cod traps, trawl fisheries, purse seines, and herring weirs (Hayes et al. 2021). During the time period 2014–2018, annual average human-caused mortality or serious injury was 365 individuals, based on reports from U.S. fisheries observers and strandings (Hayes et al. 2021). During the period 2014–2018, 2,156 harbor seals were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast (Hayes et al. 2021). Harbor seals are part of a subsistence harvest in northern Canada (DFO 2011). Nuisance permits allow for direct shooting, which results in an unknown number of mortalities (Jacobs and Terhune 2000; Baird 2001).

Harbor seals have been the subject of several Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) including 2003-2004 in northern Gulf of Maine waters due to an undetermined cause (MMC 2006); 2006 in the Gulf of Maine due to infectious disease; 2011-2012 in Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts due to infectious disease; 2018-2019 from Virginia to Maine due to infectious disease (NMFS 2021), and most recently in 2022 in Maine due to infectious disease.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for a combined guild phocid seals (primarily gray seals [*Halichoerus grypus*] and harbor seals) in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018).

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Harp seal – *Pagophilus groenlandicus*

Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Pagophilus groenlandicus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.5	2.6	
	Habitat Specificity	3.4	2.8	
	Site Fidelity	2.8	2.4	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.4	2.8	
	Generation Length	1.4	2.6	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.8	2.8	
	Migration	1.5	3.0	
	Home Range	1.8	3.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.5	2.2	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.5	2.2	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.8	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.4	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.4	2.6	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.2	2.2	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	2.2	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	2.7	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	2.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.4	2.4	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.4	
	Circulation	2.7	2.2	
	Sea level rise	2.9	2.4	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Harp seal (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Pagophilus groenlandicus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (80% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.36), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.36), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.16).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5:Habitat Specificity (3.44), Reproductive Plasticity (2.80), Site Fidelity (2.76), and Cumulative Stressors (2.52).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 100% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The harp seal western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that pup off the coast of eastern Canada, generally along the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; Bonner 1990; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Harp seal diet varies with age, season, location, and across years (Lavigne 2018). Harp seal diet primarily consists of smaller fish such as capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), arctic cod (*Boreogadus saida*), and polar cod (*Arctogadus glacialis*), though stomach content analysis has identified more than 67 species of fish and more than 70 species of invertebrates (Lawson et al. 1995; Lawson and Stenson 1997; Wallace and Lawson 1997; Lindstrøm et al. 1998; Stenson 2012). In the northern Gulf of St. Lawrence, harp seals were found to feed on most trophic levels (Morissette et al. 2006).

Habitat Specificity

Harp seals are found with drifting pack ice, which they use to haul out for breeding and molting (Ronald and Healey 1981; Lydersen and Kovacs 1993; Moulton et al. 2000). Harp seals maintain holes in the ice to allow foraging in nearby waters (Ronald and Healey 1981). Foraging often occurs in waters less than 90m depth, but harp seals are known to dive to depths greater than 500m (Lydersen and Kovacs 1993; Folkow et al. 2004). In the northwest Atlantic, declines in sea ice condition have resulted in extensive pup mortalities.

Site Fidelity

Information regarding harp seal site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Annual pregnancy rates are highly variable, ranging from 0.204 to 0.86, suggesting an interbirth interval ranging from 1-5 years (Buren et al. 2014; Stenson and Hammill 2014).

Mean age at sexual maturity of harp seal females has been variable between years. In 2001, mean age at sexual maturity was estimated at 5.3 years (Sjare and Stenson 2010). Harp seals may live to around 30 years (Garde et al. 2010).

Generation Length

Information regarding harp seal generation length in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Harp seal pupping occurs on pack ice in February and March, with mating following 2-3 weeks later (Ronald and Healey 1981; Lydersen and Kovacs 1993). Harp seals are “ice-obligates” and high rates of pup mortality have been observed in years with poor sea ice conditions (Stenson and Hammill 2014; Hammill et al. 2015). Mating generally occurs in the water (Ronald and Dougan 1982; Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; Lavigne 2018). The western North Atlantic stock has two breeding herds, one called the “Front” herd that breeds off the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador, and a second called the “Gulf” herd that breeds near the Magdalen Islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (Sergeant 1965; Lavigne and Kovacs 1988).

Migration

Harp seals undergo an annual migration, arriving in breeding grounds off the east coast of Newfoundland-Labrador and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence in early winter, moving north to molt around April, then continuing north to feeding grounds in May before leaving in September to return to breeding grounds (Sergeant 1965; Ronald and Dougan 1982; Stenson and Sjare 1997; Bowen and Siniff 1999).

Home Range

Harp seals are highly mobile, making extensive movements over continental shelf waters and conducting an annual migration of more than 4,000km (Bowen and Siniff 1999).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of harp seals in the western North Atlantic is 7.6 million individuals (95% CI: 6.5 – 8.8 million), based on 2017 surveys (DFO 2020; Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Previous abundance estimates placed the population at 5.5 million individuals (95% CI= 4.5-6.4 million; Healey and Stenson 2000) in 2000, 5.9 million individuals (95% CI=4.6 - 7.2 million; DFO 2005) in 2004, 6.5 million (95% CI=5.7 to 7.3 million;) in 2008, 6.9 million individuals (95% CI=6.0 to 7.7 million; DFO 2010) in 2009, 8.6 – 9.6 million individuals (95% CI=7.8 to 10.8 million; DFO 2011) in 2010, 7.1 million individuals (95% CI 5.9-8.3 million; Hammill et al. 2012) in 2012, and 7.4 million individuals (95% CI = 6,426,000–8,354,000; DFO 2014; ICES 2014) in 2014. Differences in methodology confound direct comparisons between years.

Cumulative Stressors

Harp seals in the western North Atlantic are harvested in eastern Canada and also interact with the lumpfish and sink gillnet fisheries (Hatch and Orphanides 2014, 2015, 2016; ICES 2016; Orphanides 2019, 2020; Hayes et al. 2020; Stenson and Upward 2020; Stenson et al. 2020). During the time period 2013–2017, annual average human-caused mortality or serious injury was 232,355 individuals, based on catch data from Canada and Greenland, reports from U.S. fisheries observers, and strandings (DFO 2014; ICES 2016; Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, 194 harp seals were reported stranded (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

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Hooded seal – *Cystophora cristata*

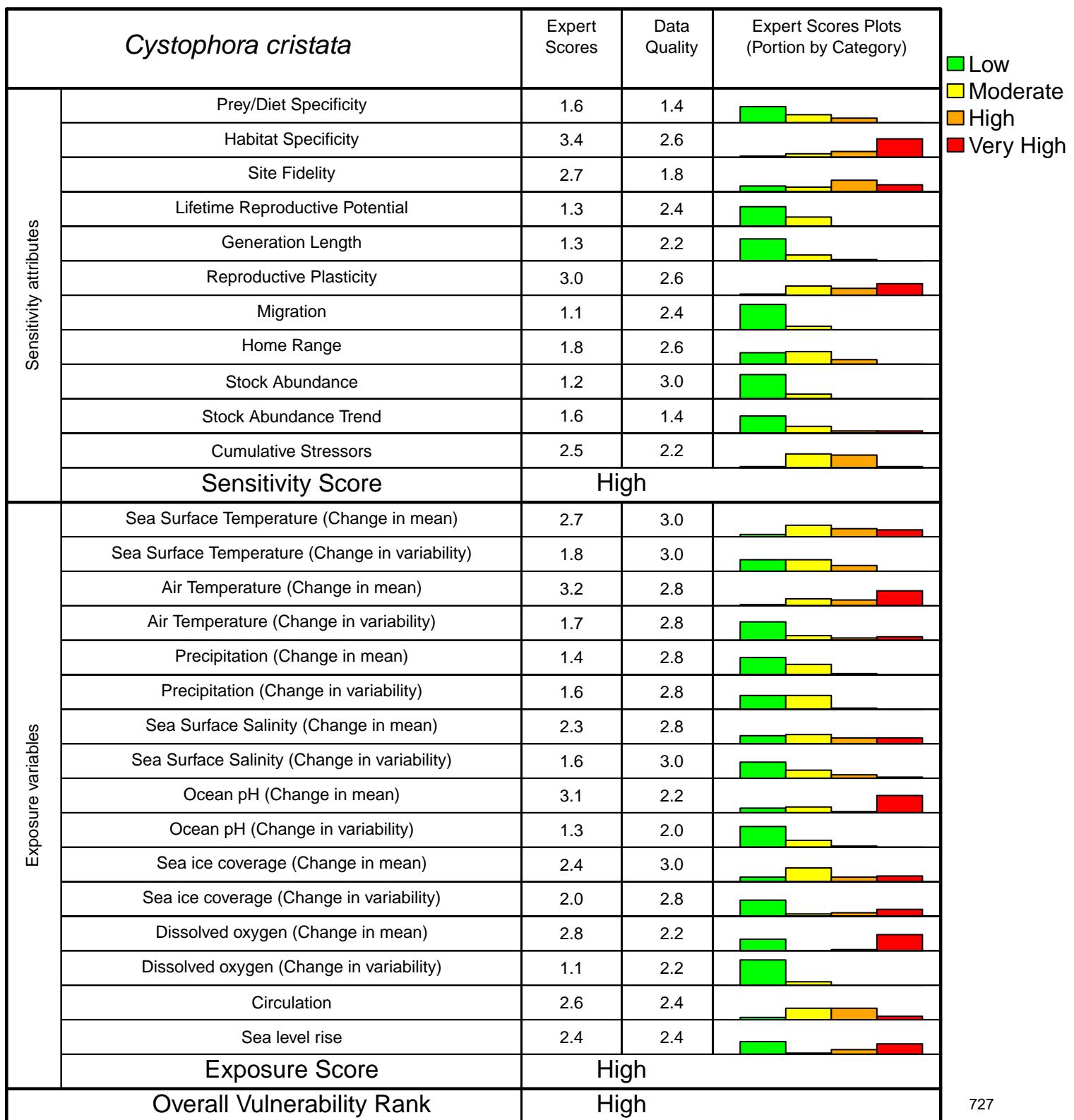
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2



Hooded seal (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Cystophora cristata

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (40% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Two exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.20) and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.08).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Habitat Specificity (3.44) and Reproductive Plasticity (3.00).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The hooded seal western North Atlantic stock is the same as ICES Northwest Atlantic stock, which includes individuals that whelp off the coast of eastern Canada, generally along the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and in the Davis Strait (Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; Stenson et al. 1996; Hayes et al. 2019).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Common prey items include Greenland halibut (*Reinhardtius hippoglossoides*), redfish species (*Sebastes spp.*), squid , herring (*Clupea harengus*), capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), sand eels (*Hyperoplus lanceolatus*), Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), and Arctic cod (*Boreogadus saida*; Kovacs and Lavigne 1986; Ross 1993; Hauksson and Bogason 1997; Hammill and Stenson 2000; Haug et al. 2004; Haug et al. 2007). Diet varies by sex, age, season, and region (Bajzak et al. 2009; Tucker et al. 2009).

Habitat Specificity

Hooded seals spend much of the year on or around sea ice (Kovacs 2018). Hooded seals occur in deeper water and are found farther offshore than harp seals (Sergeant 1976; Campbell 1987; Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; Stenson and Kavanagh 1993; Stenson et al. 1996). In the Northwest Atlantic, males forage in areas associated with complex seabed relief and females forage in shelf waters (Andersen et al. 2013). Hooded seals frequently dive to depths of 100-600m and are known to dive to depths greater than 1,000m (Folkow and Blix 1999; Bajzak et al. 2009).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding hooded seal site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Pregnancy rates of hooded seals in the western North Atlantic suggest a reproductive interval of 1-2 years (Frie et al. 2012).

Estimates of age at first reproduction have varied over time, with the most recent estimate (1989–1995) for the Northwest Atlantic stock at 6.1 years (Frie et al. 2012). Hooded seals are known to live to greater than 30 years of age (Frie et al. 2012).

Generation Length

Information regarding hooded seal generation length in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

The western North Atlantic hooded seal stock pups and whelps off the coast of eastern Canada, with primary whelping areas along the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and in the Davis Strait (Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; Stenson et al. 1996). Breeding generally occurs in March, lasting 2–3 weeks (Bowen et al. 1985; Kovacs 2018).

Migration

Hooded seals migrate from whelping grounds following breeding in March to disperse along the edge of the pack ice to the Denmark Strait to moult in June and July (King 1983; Lavigne and Kovacs 1988; ICES 1995; Folkow et al. 1996; Stenson and Sjare 1996; Stenson et al. 1996; Andersen et al. 2009; Bajzak et al. 2009; Kovacs 2018).

Home Range

Satellite tagging efforts in the Gulf of St. Lawrence suggest large home ranges that include much of the Gulf of St. Lawrence prior to migration (Bajzak et al. 2009). Hooded seals have been found along the U.S. Atlantic Coast and as far south as Puerto Rico (McAlpine et al. 1999; Harris et al. 2001; Mignucci-Giannoni and Odell 2001; Harris and Gupta 2006). Hooded seals that stranded in the U.S. were satellite tagged and released then traveled to the eastern edge of the Scotian Shelf, Gulf of St. Lawrence, and as far as the southeast tip of Greenland (WHALENET <http://whale.wheelock.edu>).

Stock Abundance

The best estimate for hooded seals in the western North Atlantic is 592,100 individuals (SE=94,800; 95% C.I.= 404,400-779,800), based on 2005 pup production estimates from all three western North Atlantic whelping areas (Hammill and Stenson 2006).

Stock Abundance Trend

Stenson et al. (1996) estimated pup production increased at 5% per year during the period 1984–1990, but acknowledged stable or declining pup production may also be possible.

A previous abundance estimate of 400,000–450,000 hooded individuals was based on an estimate of pup production from a 1990 survey (Hammill et al. 1992). Pup production estimates in 2000 were similar to pup population estimates in 1990 (ICES 2001).

Cumulative Stressors

Hooded seals in the western North Atlantic are harvested in eastern Canada and also interact with gillnet fisheries (ICES 2006; Hayes et al. 2019). During the time period 2012–2016, annual average human-caused mortality or serious injury was 1,680 individuals, based on catch data from Canada and Greenland, reports from U.S. fisheries observers, and strandings (ICES 2006; Hayes et al. 2019).

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Humpback whale – *Megaptera novaeangliae*

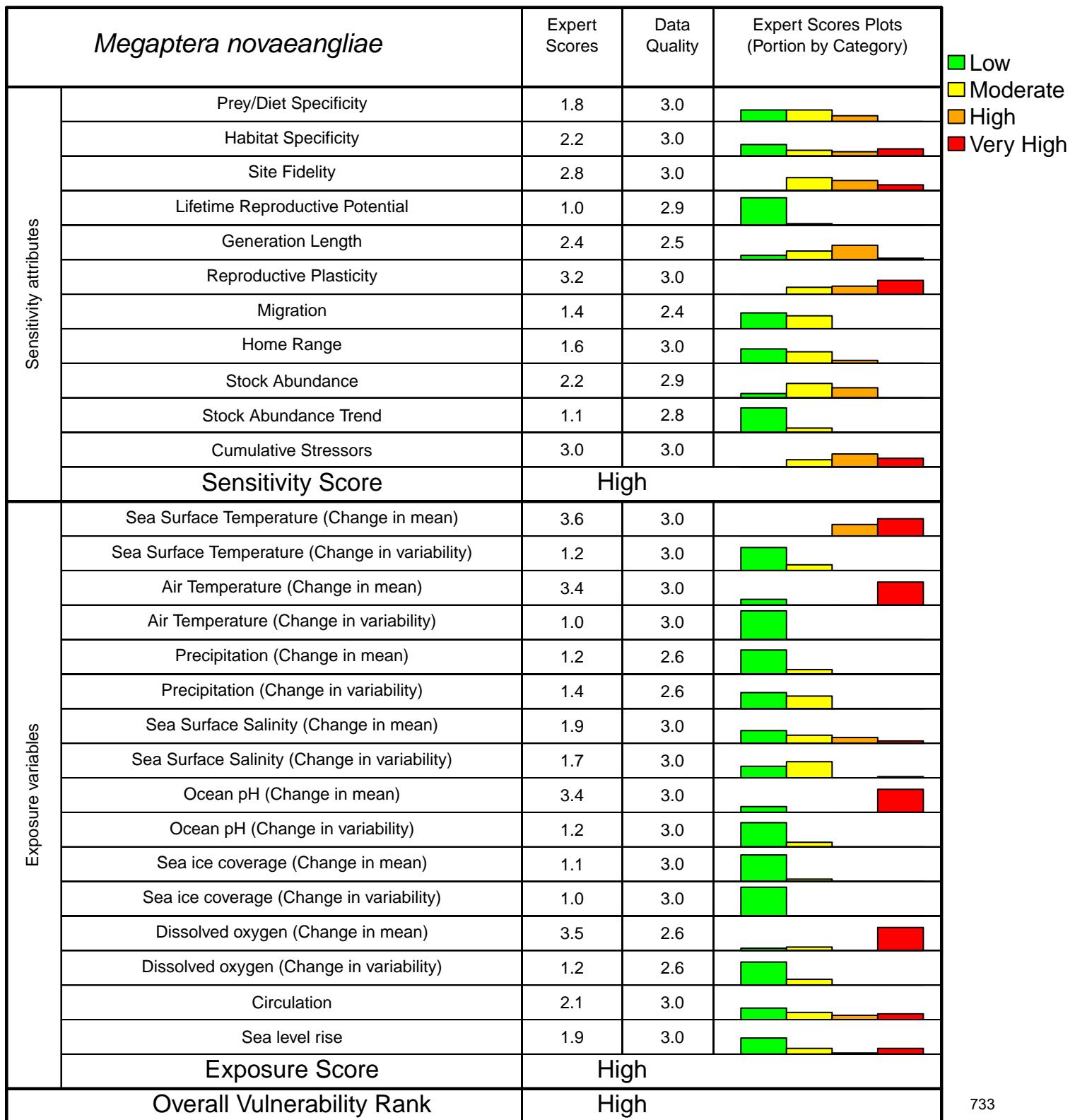
Gulf of Maine Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2



Humpback whale (Gulf of Maine Stock)

Megaptera novaeangliae

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (53% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.52), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.40).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Reproductive Plasticity (3.24) and Cumulative Stressors (3.05).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The humpback whale Gulf of Maine stock includes individuals that feed in Gulf of Maine and adjacent waters (Waring et al. 2000; Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Humpback whales in Gulf of Maine waters feed generally on fish — herring (*Clupea harengus*), sand lance (*Ammodytes* spp.), mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), and other small fishes — and euphausiids (Kenney and Winn 1986; Payne et al. 1986; Payne et al. 1990; Hain et al. 1995; Kenney et al. 1996; Paquet et al. 1997).

Habitat Specificity

Humpback whales in the Gulf of Maine feed in shallow coastal waters associated with ledges and high relief (Payne et al. 1986, 1990; Hamazaki 2002). Elsewhere it has been demonstrated that they also use oceanographic features such as thermal fronts (Doniol-Valcroze et al. 2007). In a worldwide analysis, Rasmussen (2012) found that humpback wintering grounds were found in warm waters of 21.1°–28.38°C. The West Indies wintering grounds were found to average 26.11°C (SD=0.27) during February, the month of peak calving occurrence (Winn et al. 1975; Whitehead and Moore 1982; Rasmussen 2012).

Site Fidelity

Humpback whales show maternally-directed site fidelity to feeding grounds in the western North Atlantic (Martin et al. 1984; Clapham and Mayo 1987b).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

The average calving interval is in the range of two to three years (Clapham and Mayo 1990; Barlow and Clapham 1997; Robbins 2007). Consecutive year calving can occur (Clapham and Mayo 1987b; Weinrich et al. 1993; Robbins 2007).

Females of this stock can produce their first calf as early as age 5 (Clapham and Mayo 1987a; Clapham 1992, Robbins 2007) but the average is closer to 9 years (Robbins 2007). In 2021, the oldest reproducing female was known to be at least 44 years old (Center for Coastal Studies, unpublished data).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated the generation length of 14.5 years at $r=0.05$ and 21.5 years at $r=0.0$ and assuming a female reproductive span from age 6–55 years.

Reproductive Plasticity

Humpback whale breeding grounds are generally characterized by warm, shallow, low-relief ocean bottom in sheltered areas (Ersts and Rosenbaum 2003; Sanders et al. 2005; Rasmussen et al. 2007; Rasmussen 2012). Individuals of the Gulf of Maine stock mate and calve with other North Atlantic humpback whales in the West Indies during winter time (Katona and Beard 1990; Palsbøll et al. 1997; Stevick et al. 2003a). Although humpback whales can be found throughout the Antillean arc during the winter time, the majority of the population occurs within Dominican Republic waters from January through March (Winn et al. 1975; Levenson and Leapley 1978; Balcomb and Nichols 1982; Whitehead and Moore 1982; Price 1985; Mattila and Clapham 1989; Mattila et al. 1989, 1994). A portion of the North Atlantic population may overwinter in an as-yet-unidentified location (IWC 2002; Punt et al. 2006; Smith and Pike 2009).

Migration

Humpback whales in the Gulf of Maine feeding stock undergo long-distance migration between the breeding grounds in the West Indies and the feeding grounds in the Gulf of Maine (Katona and Beard 1990; Palsbøll et al. 1997; Smith et al. 1999; Stevick et al. 2003a). Some individuals may not complete the migration every year, because some individuals are sighted within the Gulf of Maine and other mid- and high-latitude waters during the winter (CETAP 1982; Clapham et al. 1993; Swingle et al. 1993; Robbins 2007).

Home Range

Humpback whales are known to cover distances of several hundred kilometers while foraging (Stevick et al. 2016) and breeding in addition to long-distance migration in the North Atlantic (e.g., Kennedy et al. 2014) and in other regions (e.g., Zerbini et al. 2006; Lagerquist et al. 2008; Hauser et al. 2010; Rosenbaum et al. 2014)

Stock Abundance

Hayes et al. (2020) considered the best abundance estimate for stock assessment purposes to be 1,396 individuals (95% credible intervals 1363–1429) in 2016 based on the results of a state-space model using photo-identification data (Robbins and Pace 2018). Although other types of estimates were available, the mark-recapture approach produced a long series of high precision estimates suitable for detecting population trends (Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Robbins and Pace (2018) suggested the stock abundance increased at 2.8% per year during the period 2000–2016. Clapham et al. (2003) estimated the humpback whale Gulf of Maine rate of increase at 0–4% per year during the period 1992–2000. Barlow and Clapham (1997) estimated the humpback whale Gulf of Maine rate of increase at 6.5% (SE=0.012) per year during the period 1979–1991.

Other estimates of population trend that included, but were not exclusive to, the Gulf of Maine feeding stock include an estimated average trend of 3.1% per year (SE=0.005) for the entire North Atlantic population during the period 1979–1993 (Stevick et al. 2003b) and an estimated average trend of 3.1% per year (SE=0.005) for the West Indies breeding population that includes the Gulf of Maine feeding stock during the period 1979–1993 (Stevick et al. 2003b).

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to the humpback whale Gulf of Maine feeding stock include fisheries interactions (e.g., pot and gillnet gear entanglements) and vessel strikes (Robbins 2010, 2011, 2012; Van der Hoop et al. 2013; Hill et al. 2017).

During the time period 2013–2017, minimum annual average human-caused mortality and serious injury was 12.15 individuals, which includes fisheries interactions (7.75 individuals per year) and vessel strikes (4.4 individuals per year; Henry et al. 2020).

There have been several humpback whale Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) in the western North Atlantic, including during late 1987–early 1988 due to saxitoxin poisoning (Geraci et al. 1989), and additional events from undetermined causes in 1990, 2003, 2005 and 2006. The latest UME started in 2016 and is ongoing (NMFS 2021).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for humpback whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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Killer whale – *Orcinus orca*

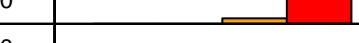
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Orcinus orca</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.1	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.1	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.3	1.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.5	2.3	
	Generation Length	3.0	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	2.0	
	Migration	2.6	1.0	
	Home Range	1.3	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	2.9	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.3	1.3	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.2	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.2	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Circulation	1.9	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.1	2.3	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Killer whale (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Orcinus orca

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (63% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.20), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.20).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Generation Time (3.00), Species Abundance (2.87), and Migration (2.60).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 85 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The killer whale Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Killer whale diets vary regionally and may consist of prey including fish, cephalopods, seabirds, sea turtles, and other marine mammals (Katona et al. 1988; Jefferson et al. 1991; Fertl et al. 1996; Ford 2018). Killer whales in the Gulf of Mexico were observed preying on a pantropical spotted dolphin (Pitman et al. 2003) and may prey on other marine mammal species (Whitt et al. 2015). They may also prey on large fish such as tuna which are common in the Gulf of Mexico.

Habitat Specificity

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, killer whales are found primarily in oceanic waters (O'Sullivan and Mullin 1997) and are rarely reported in shelf waters (Katona et al. 1988). Garrison and Aichinger Dias (2020) report that the main area of occurrence is in the central Gulf off the Mississippi River Delta.

Site Fidelity

During GoMMAPPS Summer 2017 survey, there was a photo match for killer whale to previous sighting in 2001 (Rappucci and Garrison 2019). Previous studies have found individuals resighted over a 5-year period, and one individual resighted over 10 years (O'Sullivan and Mullin 1997)

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated killer whale interbirth interval of 5.02 years based on data reported by Perrin and Reilly (1984) and Christensen (1984).

Taylor et al. (2007) reported killer whale age at first reproduction of 14 years and age at last reproduction of 41 years (observed) and 48 years (estimated) based on data reported by Olesiuk et al. (1990).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 24.0 years at $r = 0.02$ and 25.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding killer whale reproductive seasonality, habitat, and/or location in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Migration

Killer whales were observed in the northern Gulf of Mexico only during summer months of GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000). Vessel surveys and opportunistic sightings suggest killer whales are present in the northern Gulf of Mexico during summer and fall (O'Sullivan and Mullin 1997; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006).

Home Range

In the Gulf of Mexico, individuals have been resighted over 1,100km (O'Sullivan and Mullin 1997).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of killer whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico is estimated to be 267 individuals ($CV=0.75$), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previous abundance estimates of killer whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico include 1991–1994 (277 individuals; $CV=0.42$; Hansen et al. 1995); 1996–2001 (133 individuals; $CV=0.49$; Mullin and Fulling 2004); 2003–2004 (49 individuals; $CV=0.77$; Mullin 2007); and 2009 (28 individuals; $CV=1.02$; Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of killer whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (0), 2004 (198; $CV=1.002$), 2009 (52; $CV=0.97$), 2017 (86; $CV=0.87$), and 2018 (450; $CV=0.88$). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no

significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, imprecise estimates make comparisons between years difficult (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Killer whales in the Gulf of Mexico interact with longline fisheries. During the time period 2014–2018, annual average fishery-related mortality or serious injury was zero (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the time period 2014–2018, no killer whales were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (Hayes et al. 2021).

The killer whale stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for killer whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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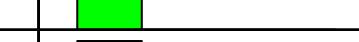
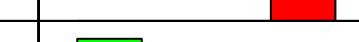
Killer whale – *Orcinus orca*
 Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 70% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Orcinus orca</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.0	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.6	1.6	
	Site Fidelity	2.3	1.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.1	2.0	
	Generation Length	3.0	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	1.4	
	Migration	2.7	1.4	
	Home Range	1.7	1.8	
	Stock Abundance	2.7	0.4	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.2	0.4	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.0	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.3	2.4	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.4	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.4	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.6	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.4	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.4	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.5	2.4	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.4	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.6	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.2	2.4	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.6	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.6	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	2.4	
	Circulation	2.5	1.6	
	Sea level rise	1.2	2.2	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Killer whale (Western North Atlantic)

Orcinus orca

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (57% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.52).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (3.00), Migration (2.72), and Species Abundance (2.72).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 70% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 36% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The killer whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Waring et al. 2014). Killer whales are considered uncommon in U.S. and Canadian waters in the western North Atlantic (Katona et al. 1988; Mitchell and Reeves 1988).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Killer whale diets vary regionally and may consist of prey including fish, cephalopods, seabirds, sea turtles, and other marine mammals such as dolphins and minke whales (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata*; Katona et al. 1988; Jefferson et al. 1991; Fertl et al. 1996; Ford 2018). In the eastern North Atlantic, killer whales are known to consume a variety of fish including herring (*Clupea harengus*), salmon (*Salmo spp.*), mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), cod (*Gadus morhua*), squid, seals, and bottlenose whales (*Hyperoodon ampullatus*; Jonsgård 1968; Jonsgård and Lyshoel 1970; Christensen 1978, 1982, 1988; Øien 1988; Bloch and Lockyer 1988; Evans 1988; Sigurjonsson et al. 1988).

Habitat Specificity

In the western North Atlantic, killer whales are found most frequently along the shelf break and in oceanic waters (Katona et al. 1988; Mitchell and Reeves 1988). Nearshore sightings are more common

off Newfoundland and southern Labrador than other areas of the western North Atlantic (Lawson and Stevens 2013).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding killer whale site fidelity in the western North Atlantic is limited. Some killer whales off Newfoundland and southern Labrador appear to return to the same general coastal location over multiple years, indicating some level of inter-annual site fidelity (Lawson and Stevens 2013). Elsewhere in the North Atlantic, killer whales show high inter-annual site fidelity (Bisther and Vongraven 1995; Similä et al. 1996; Foote et al. 2010).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated killer whale interbirth interval of 5.02 years based on data reported by Perrin and Reilly (1984) and Christensen (1984).

Taylor et al. (2007) reported killer whale age at first reproduction of 14 years and age at last reproduction of 41 years (observed) and 48 years (estimated) based on data reported by Olesiuk et al. (1990).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported killer whale generation length of 24.0 years at $r = 0.02$ and 25.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding killer whale reproductive seasonality, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Killer whale sightings in eastern Canada show some seasonality, with more frequent sightings between June and September, although this observation may be due to seasonal differences in effort (Lawson and Stevens 2013). A general progression of sightings off Newfoundland and southern Labrador from south to north in the spring and early summer has been observed and may be linked to annual sea ice recession (Lawson and Stevens 2013).

Home Range

Information regarding killer whale home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature. The range of the stock extends from the Arctic ice edge to the West Indies. In the Gulf of Mexico, individuals have been resighted over 1,100 km (O'Sullivan and Mullin 1997). Killer whales off eastern Canada are highly mobile and appear to exhibit transient-type movement and residency patterns (Lawson and Stevens 2013).

Stock Abundance

The total number of killer whales off the eastern U.S. coast is unknown (Waring et al. 2014).

Stock Abundance Trend

Insufficient data exist to calculate a stock abundance trend (Waring et al. 2014).

Cumulative Stressors

Killer whales in the western North Atlantic interact with gillnet fisheries, with one recorded instance of a killer whale caught in the New England multispecies sink gillnet fishery released alive in 1994 (Waring et al. 2014). In eastern Canada, annual mortality averages 0.5 individuals per year (Lawson and Stevens 2013). Other likely stressors to the population include anthropogenic noise, contaminants, and pollution.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for killer whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, b).

Further Reading

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Kogia sp. – *Kogia sima*; *Kogia breviceps*

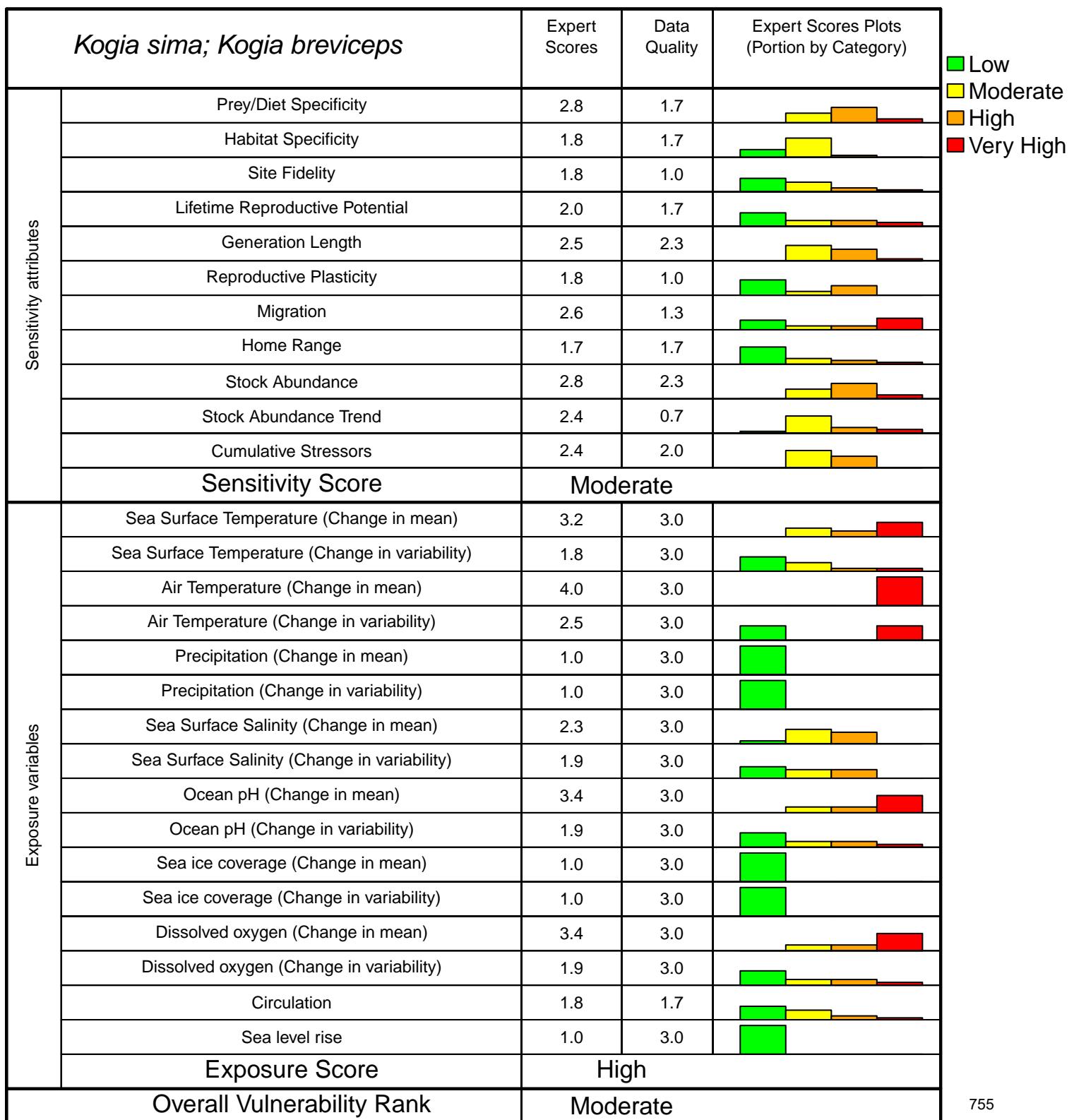
Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 67% of scores ≥ 2



Kogia sp. (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock Group)

Kogia sima; *Kogia breviceps*

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (66% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.4), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.4), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.2).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Prey/Diet Specificity (2.80), Species Abundance (2.80), Migration (2.60), and Generation Time (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 67% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 27% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The *Kogia* sp. northern Gulf of Mexico stock group includes pygmy and dwarf sperm whales that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock group is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Kogia sp. diet consists primarily of cephalopods and also includes deep-sea fishes and shrimps (Raun et al. 1970; Caldwell and Caldwell 1989; McAlpine et al. 1997; Barros et al. 1998; Willis and Baird 1998). In the Gulf of Mexico, Raun et al. (1970) reported finding squid and shrimp in stomach contents of a pygmy sperm whale stranded on the Texas coast. Delgado-Estrella et al. (1998) reported finding squid beaks and shrimp in the stomach of a dwarf sperm whale and squid ink in a pygmy sperm whale found stranded in Veracruz on the Mexican coastline of the Gulf of Mexico. Along the U.S. mid-Atlantic coast, pygmy and dwarf sperm whales consume similar prey from similar habitats (Staudinger et al. 2014).

Habitat Specificity

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, *Kogia* sp. are found primarily in oceanic waters (Mullin et al. 1991; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Schick et al. 2011; Merkens 2013; Ramírez-León et al. 2020) and in frontal regions along the shelf break (Baumgartner et al. 2001). *Kogia* sp. can be found along the edges of warm-core rings (Davis et al. 2002). One tagged individual in the western North

Atlantic was found to associate with the Gulf Stream and moved in waters deeper than the shelf break (Scott et al. 2001).

Pygmy sperm whales are more frequently found in deeper waters, while dwarf sperm whales are more frequently found in shallower waters (Willis and Baird 1998; Barros et al. 1998; Rice 1998; Wang et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding *Kogia* sp. site fidelity in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported interbirth interval of 2.00 years for both pygmy and dwarf sperm whales based on data reported by Plön (2004).

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated pygmy sperm whale age at first reproduction of 6 years and age at last reproduction of 23 years (observed) and 36 years (estimated) and dwarf sperm whale age at first reproduction of 6 years and age at last reproduction of 22 years (observed) and 32 years (estimated) based on data reported by Plön (2004). Studies from South Africa (Plön 2004) and South Carolina (Smar 2006) have suggested that both species reach sexual maturity around 4 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported pygmy sperm whale generation length of 10.8 years at $r = 0.04$ and 12.1 years at $r = 0.0$. Taylor et al. (2007) reported dwarf sperm whale generation length of 10.6 years at $r = 0.04$ and 11.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding *Kogia* sp. reproductive season, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Kogia sp. were observed in the northern Gulf of Mexico in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000). Merkens (2013) suggested a seasonal north-south or east-west movement in the northern Gulf of Mexico based on acoustic monitoring. Hildebrand et al. (2019) found season differences in density at two of three sites in the northern Gulf of Mexico, though the influence of the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill on that seasonality is unclear.

Home Range

Information regarding *Kogia* sp. home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of *Kogia* sp. in the northern Gulf of Mexico is estimated to be 336 individuals (CV=0.35), based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). This estimate is likely an underestimate due to omitting trackline detection probability correction, difficulty seeing *Kogia* sp. at sea, deep diving nature, and avoidance behavior (Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the abundance of *Kogia* sp. was estimated to be 186 (CV=1.04) based on a 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of *Kogia* sp. abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (441; CV=0.42), 2004 (38; CV=0.71), 2009 (276; CV=0.59), 2017 (293; CV=0.59), and 2018 (360; CV=0.42). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and found significant differences between the 2003 and 2004 estimates, 2004 and 2017 estimates, and 2004 and 2018 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Kogia sp. in the Gulf of Mexico interact with longline fisheries. During the time period 2014–2018, annual average fishery-related mortality or serious injury was zero (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the time period 2014–2018, 9 dwarf sperm whales, 19 pygmy sperm whales, and 10 unspecified *Kogia* sp. were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

Plastic pollution poses a threat to *Kogia* sp. in the Gulf of Mexico, as stranded individuals have been found with ingested plastic (Stamper et al. 2006; Claro et al. 2019).

Kogia sp. stocks were likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). However densities of *Kogia* sp. in the area near the spill were low during and immediately following the event, suggesting the stocks may have avoided the area (Merkens 2013; Hildebrand et al. 2019). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for *Kogia* sp. in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Hildebrand et al. (2012), Roberts et al. (2015, 2016), and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Kogia sp. – *Kogia sima*; *Kogia breviceps*

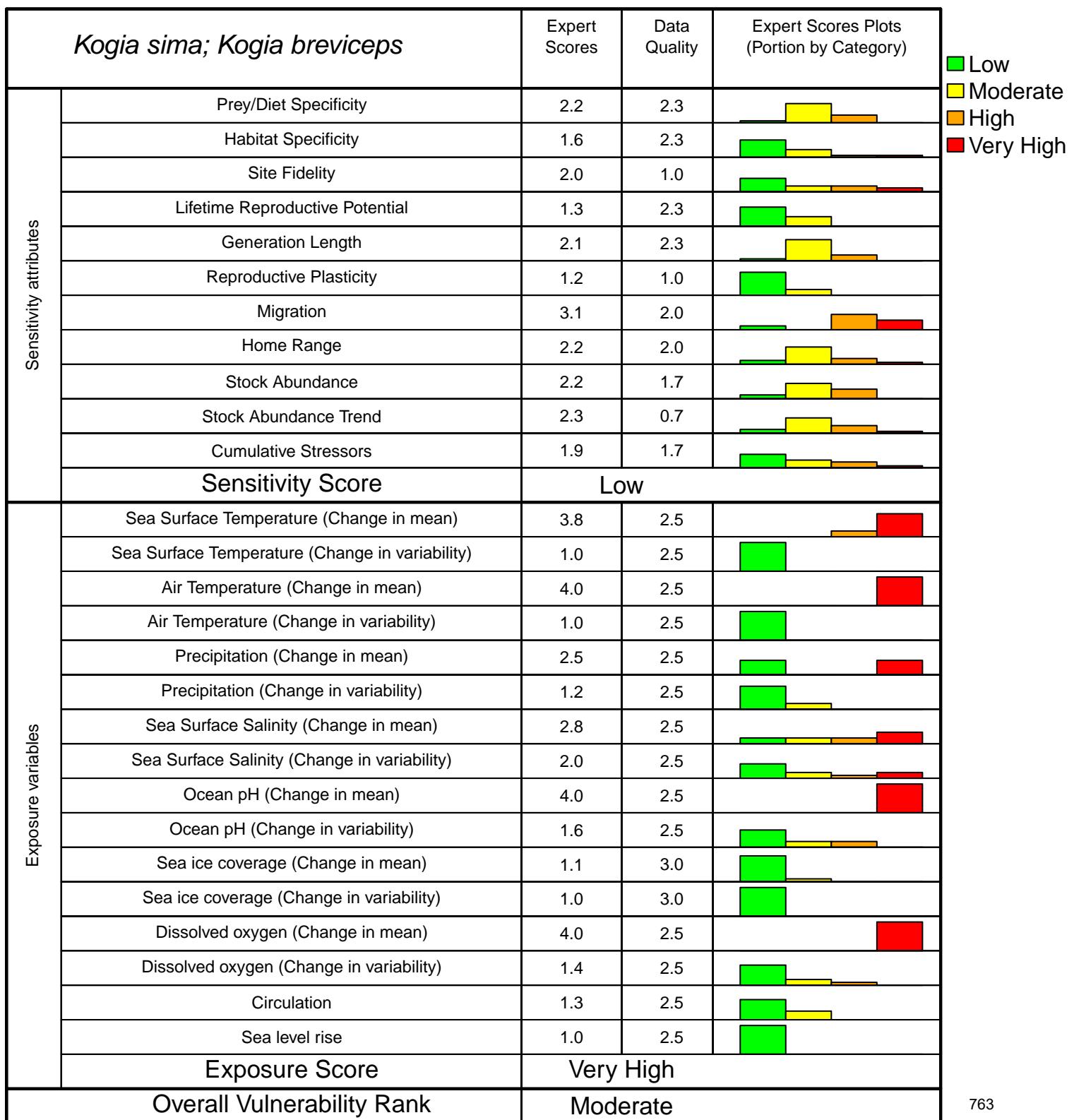
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2



Kogia sp. (Western North Atlantic Stock Group)

Kogia sima; Kogia breviceps

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (75% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.8).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.07).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The *Kogia sp.* western North Atlantic stock group includes pygmy and dwarf sperm whales that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Kogia sp. diet consists primarily of cephalopods and also includes deep-sea fishes and shrimps (Raun et al. 1970; Caldwell and Caldwell 1989; McAlpine 1997; Barros et al. 1998; Willis and Baird 1998). Along the U.S. mid-Atlantic coast, pygmy and dwarf sperm whales consume similar prey from similar habitats (Staudinger et al. 2014). In the Gulf of Mexico, Raun et al. (1970) reported finding squid and shrimp in stomach contents of a pygmy sperm whale stranded on the Texas coast. Delgado-Estrella et al. (1998) reported finding squid beaks and shrimp in the stomach of a dwarf sperm whale and squid ink in a pygmy sperm whale found stranded in Veracruz on the Mexican coastline of the Gulf of Mexico.

Habitat Specificity

Kogia sp. in the western North Atlantic are found in oceanic and continental shelf waters (Rice 1998; Wang et al. 2002; Mullin and Fulling 2003; MacLeod et al. 2004; Roberts et al. 2016a). One tagged individual, *K. breviceps*, in the western North Atlantic was found to associate with the Gulf Stream and moved in waters deeper than the shelf break (Scott et al. 2001).

Pygmy sperm whales are more frequently found in deeper waters, while dwarf sperm whales are more frequently found in shallower waters (Willis and Baird 1998; Barros et al. 1998; Rice 1998; Wang et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding *Kogia sp.* site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported interbirth interval of 2.00 years for both pygmy and dwarf sperm whales based on data reported by Plön (2004).

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated pygmy sperm whale age at first reproduction of 6 years and age at last reproduction of 23 years (observed) and 36 years (estimated) and dwarf sperm whale age at first reproduction of 6 years and age at last reproduction of 22 years (observed) and 32 years (estimated) based on data reported by Plön (2004). Studies from South Africa (Plön 2004) and South Carolina (Smar 2006) have suggested that both species reach sexual maturity around 4 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported pygmy sperm whale generation length of 10.8 years at $r = 0.04$ and 12.1 years at $r = 0.0$. Taylor et al. (2007) reported dwarf sperm whale generation length of 10.6 years at $r = 0.04$ and 11.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding *Kogia sp.* reproductive season, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Montey (2015) reported a possible seasonal offshore-inshore migration seasonally likely for calving purposes and based on stable isotope teeth data and on high incidence of mother/calf pair, and adult male strandings for pygmy sperm whales.

Home Range

Information regarding *Kogia sp.* home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of *Kogia sp.* in the western North Atlantic is estimated to be 7,750 individuals ($CV=0.38$), based on summer 2016 surveys from central Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). This estimate is likely negatively biased due to probability of detection on the trackline, long dive times, and avoidance behavior (Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Previous abundance estimates of *Kogia* sp. in the western North Atlantic were from summer 1998 surveys (536; CV=0.45); summer 2004 surveys (395; CV=0.4); and summer 2011 surveys (3,785; CV=0.47; Palka 2012; Garrison 2016). A generalized linear model did indicate a statistically significant trend in abundance, and methodological differences between the estimates further complicate trend assessment (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Kogia sp. in the western North Atlantic interact with longline fisheries. During the time period 2013–2017, annual average fishery-related mortality or serious injury was zero (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, 46 dwarf sperm whales, 120 pygmy sperm whales, and 12 unspecified *Kogia* sp. reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast and Puerto Rico (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Plastic pollution poses a threat to *Kogia* sp. in the western North Atlantic, as stranded individuals have been found with ingested plastic (Stamper et al 2006; Claro et al. 2019). Pollution (Bryan et al. 2012; Staudinger et al. 2014; Reed et al. 2015; Hall et al. 2018), harmful algal blooms (Fire et al. 2009), and anthropogenic sound (Gomez et al. 2016) also present threats to *Kogia* sp. in the western North Atlantic.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for *Kogia* sp. in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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Melon-headed whale – *Peponocephala electra*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Peponocephala electra</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.3	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.6	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	2.3	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.2	1.7	
	Generation Length	2.7	1.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	1.0	
	Migration	2.7	1.3	
	Home Range	1.6	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	1.9	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	2.0	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.5	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.9	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.5	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.5	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.5	2.7	
	Circulation	1.5	2.0	
	Sea level rise	2.1	2.7	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Melon-headed whale (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Pepinocephala electra

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (54% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.47), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.47), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.47).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (2.73) and Migration (2.67).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The melon-headed whale Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021). As noted by Ramírez-León et al. (2020), there is, in particular, a lack of survey effort in deep, Mexican waters of the Gulf.

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 35% small squids, 35% large squids, 10% small pelagic fishes, 10% mesopelagic fishes, and 10% miscellaneous fishes. Bossart et al. (2007) found squid beaks in the stomachs of five stranded melon-headed whales from a mass stranding on the Atlantic Coast of Florida. In the Caribbean, a stranded individual's stomach had a few squid beaks and fish scales (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1998). In the eastern North Atlantic, stomach contents of two individuals contained cephalopods and fish remains (Spitz et al. 2011). In Hawaii, prey consisted of 50 different prey species of cephalopods and fish, with cephalopods appearing in all stomachs examined and comprising 75% of prey by mass (West et al. 2018). From tagging data in The Bahamas, foraging dive activity in this species appears to be exclusively confined to nighttime periods, indicating that energetically advantageous prey may be too deep during daylight periods and only become accessible as these prey migrated upward at night (Joyce et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Melon-headed whales are most often sighted in the northern Gulf of Mexico in waters deeper than 800 m and west of Mobile Bay, Alabama (Mullin et al. 1994; Davis and Fargion 1996; Davis et al. 2000, Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Garrison and Aichinger Dias (2020) concluded that with the available data, melon-headed whale sightings are mostly seen in the western waters of the Gulf along the 1,000-m isobath. Melon-headed whales are typically found offshore but may be found in deep waters near the coast (Perryman and Danil 2018), where steep topography is close to shore, such as oceanic islands. In waters around Hawaii, melon-headed whales are found associated with offshore eddy systems; satellite-tagged individuals were shown to move offshore to occupy the edges of cold core cyclonic eddies and the centers of warm core anticyclonic eddies where prey could be concentrated (Woodworth et al. 2012). Individuals tagged in The Bahamas ranged widely over habitats with a variety of bathymetric depths, including habitats substantially deeper than their observed dive depth ranges (Joyce et al. 2017).

Site Fidelity

Based on tagging and stable isotope data from biopsy sampling, there are indications that melon-headed whales in the Bahamas may exhibit some small degree of short-term (2-3 months) foraging site fidelity (Claridge et al. 2015). Photo-identification results from the same project in the Bahamas support the idea of a seasonal open population with an occupation range that extends beyond AUTEC (Vieira 2017). Nonetheless, resighting data demonstrates a regular use of the area in the spring/summer period (Vieira 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Based on resightings of a single reproductively active female in Hawaii, melon-headed whales have an estimated interbirth interval of 3 years (Aschettino 2010). In Japan, females seem to give birth every 3-4 years (Amano et al. 2014). Miyazaki et al. (1998) reported an annual ovulation rate of 0.28 in melon-headed whales off Japan, which would suggest an interbirth interval of 3.6 years (Aschettino 2010). Amano et al. (2014) reported annual ovulation rate of 0.28 and 0.36 in two populations of stranded melon-headed whales.

Female melon-headed whales reach sexual maturity at about 11.5 years while males reach sexual maturity at 16.5 years (Jefferson and Barros 1997; Miyazaki et al. 1998). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 13 years and age at last reproduction of 34 years (estimated) based on data from Jefferson and Barros (1997).

Generation Length

Information regarding melon-headed whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding melon-headed whale breeding season, habitat, and/or location in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature. Amano et al. (2014) estimated the calving season for melon-headed whales off Japan to be from spring through summer.

Migration

Melon-headed whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico do not show seasonality (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Information regarding melon-headed whale home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of melon-headed whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico is estimated to be 1,749 individuals (CV=0.68; Garrison et al. 2020), based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys. Previously, the stock abundance was estimated to be 2,235 individuals (CV=0.75) based on a 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of melon-headed whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (1,502; CV=0.96), 2004 (7,351; CV=0.87), 2009 (4,188; CV=0.76), 2017 (2,694; CV=0.76), and 2018 (454; CV=0.89). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and found significant differences between the 2004 and 2018 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, poor precision and long survey intervals confound trend detection for this stock (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Melon-headed whales in the Gulf of Mexico interact with longline fisheries. No fishing-related melon-headed whale mortalities were reported in the Gulf of Mexico during the period 2014–2018 (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b).

Twelve melon-headed whales were reported stranded in the Gulf of Mexico during the period 2014–2018 (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021), though none were determined to be the result of human interactions.

The melon-headed whale stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Elsewhere, melon-headed whales have shown evidence of sensitivity to sound, such as demonstrating pre-stranding behavior in Hawaii coincident with military training (Southall et al. 2006; Brownell et al. 2009) and a mass stranding in Madagascar coincident with nearby echosounder use (Southall et al. 2013). However, melon-headed whales did not avoid areas in The Bahamas associated with frequent sonar use (Vieira 2017).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for melon-headed whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

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Melon-headed whale – *Peponocephala electra*

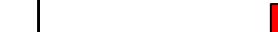
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 0% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Peponocephala electra</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	1.3	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	1.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.8	0.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	1.3	
	Generation Length	3.0	0.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	0.7	
	Migration	2.6	0.3	
	Home Range	2.1	0.3	
	Stock Abundance	2.0	1.3	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	0.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	1.7	0.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	1.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	1.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	1.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	1.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	1.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.4	1.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	3.5	1.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.4	1.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	1.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.2	1.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	1.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	1.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	1.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	1.0	
	Circulation	2.6	1.5	
	Sea level rise	1.0	1.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Melon-headed whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Pepinocephala electra

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (60% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Five exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Sea Surface Salinity (Standard anomaly) (3.5).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (3.00) and Migration (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 0% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The melon-headed whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Canadian and offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 35% small squids, 35% large squids, 10% small pelagic fishes, 10% mesopelagic fishes, and 10% miscellaneous fishes. Bossart et al. (2007) found squid beaks in the stomachs of five stranded melon-headed whales from a mass stranding on the Atlantic Coast of Florida. In the Caribbean, a stranded individual's stomach had a few squid beaks and fish scales (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1998). In the eastern North Atlantic, stomach contents of two individuals contained cephalopods and fish remains (Spitz et al. 2011). In Hawaii, prey consisted of 50 different prey species of cephalopods and fish, with cephalopods appearing in all stomachs examined and comprising 75% of prey by mass (West et al. 2018). From tagging data in The Bahamas, foraging dive activity in this species appears to be exclusively confined to nighttime periods, indicating that energetically advantageous prey may be too deep during daylight periods and only become accessible as these prey migrated upward at night (Joyce et al. 2017).

Habitat Specificity

Melon-headed whales are typically found offshore but may be found in deep waters near the coast (Perryman and Danil 2018). Along the Atlantic coast of the United States, melon-headed whales are found south of Maryland (Perryman et al. 1994; Jefferson and Barros 1997). Individuals tagged in The Bahamas ranged widely over habitats with a variety of bathymetric depths, including habitats substantially deeper than their observed dive depth ranges (Joyce et al. 2017).

Melon-headed whales are most often sighted in the northern Gulf of Mexico in waters deeper than 800m and west of Mobile Bay, Alabama (Mullin et al. 1994; Davis and Fargion 1996; Davis et al. 2000; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). In waters around Hawaii, melon-headed whales are found associated with offshore eddy systems (Woodworth et al. 2012).

Site Fidelity

Based on tagging and stable isotope data from biopsy sampling, there are indications that melon-headed whales in the Bahamas may exhibit some small degree of short-term (2-3 months) foraging site fidelity (Claridge et al. 2015). Photo-identification results from the same project in the Bahamas support the idea of a seasonal open population with an occupation range that extends beyond AUTEC (Vieira 2017). Nonetheless, resighting data demonstrates a regular use of the area in the spring/summer period (Vieira 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Based on resightings of a single reproductively active female in Hawaii, melon-headed whales have an estimated interbirth interval of 3 years (Aschettino 2010). Miyazaki et al. (1998) reported an annual ovulation rate of 0.28 in melon-headed whales off Japan, which would suggest an interbirth interval of 3.6 years (Aschettino 2010). Amano et al. (2014) reported annual ovulation rate of 0.28 and 0.36 in two populations of stranded melon-headed whales.

Female melon-headed whales reach sexual maturity at about 11.5 years while males reach sexual maturity at 16.5 years (Jefferson and Barros 1997; Miyazaki et al. 1998). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 13 years and age at last reproduction of 34 years (estimated) based on data from Jefferson and Barros (1997).

Generation Length

Information regarding melon-headed whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding melon-headed whale breeding season, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature. Amano et al. (2014) estimated the calving season for melon-headed whales off Japan to be from spring through summer.

Migration

Information regarding melon-headed whale migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding melon-headed whale home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

Melon-headed whales are rarely seen in surveys in U.S. or Canadian Atlantic waters. Groups of melon-headed whales were sighted during vessel surveys in deep waters off of Cape Hatteras, North Carolina in 1999 (20 individuals; NMFS 1999) and 2002 (80 individuals; NMFS 2002).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to conduct an analysis trend (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Melon-headed whales in the western North Atlantic may interact with longline fisheries. During the time period 2013–2017, melon-headed whale fishery-induced mortality was zero (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, three melon-headed whales were reported stranded in Florida (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for melon-headed whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Mesoplodont group – *Mesoplodon densirostris*; *Mesoplodon europaeus*

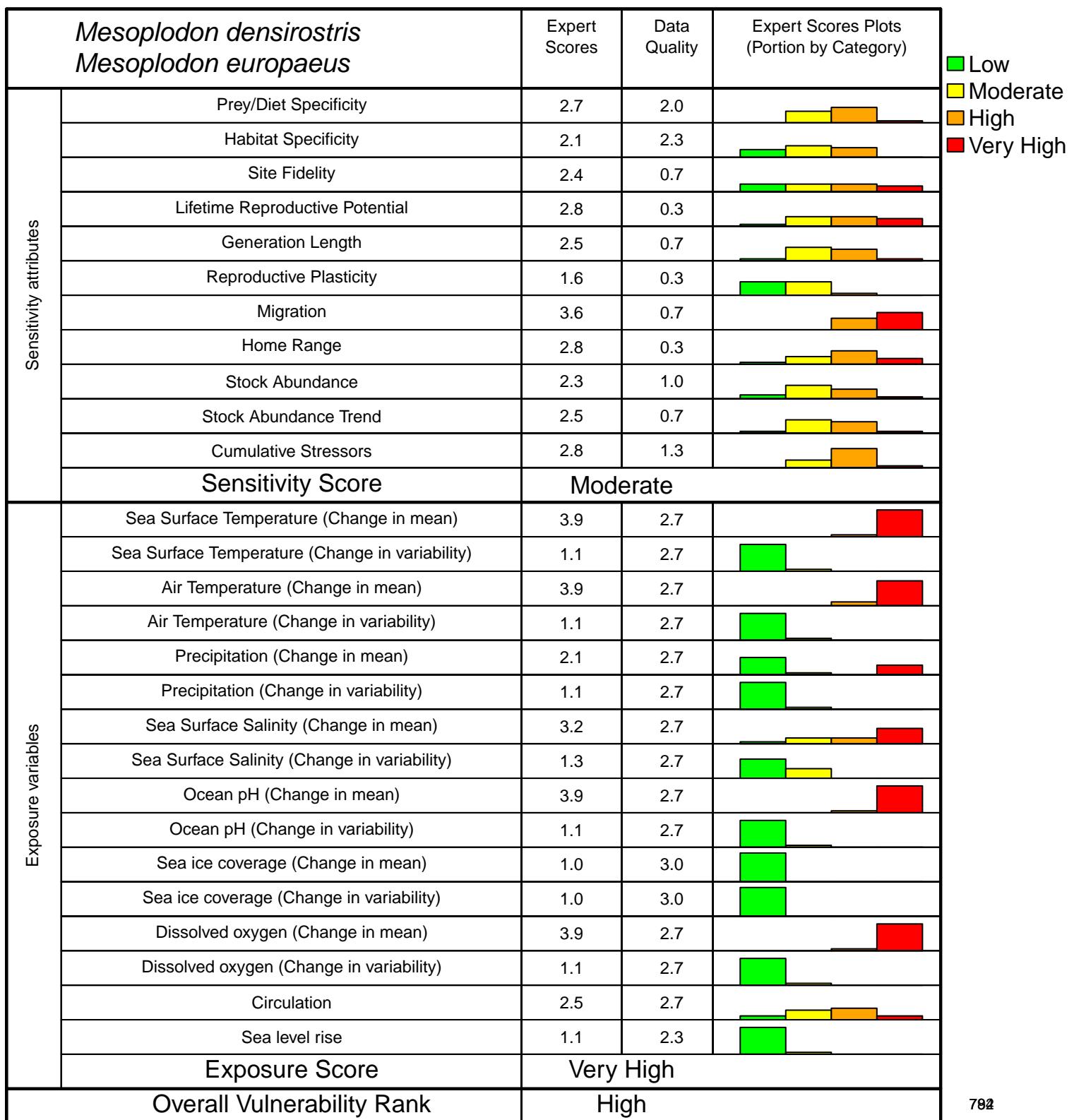
Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock Group

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 67% of scores ≥ 2



Mesoplodont group (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock Group)

Mesoplodon densirostris; Mesoplodon europaeus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (49% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.60), Cumulative Stressors (2.80), Home Range (2.80), Lifetime Reproductive Potential (2.80), and Prey/Diet Specificity (2.67).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 67% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 18% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The mesoplodont stock group in the Gulf of Mexico includes Gervais' beaked whales and Blainville's beaked whales found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock group is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021). Cuvier's beaked whales in the Gulf of Mexico are considered in this assessment as a separate, stand-alone stock.

Prey/Diet Specificity

Generally, beaked whale diets consist of mesopelagic fishes, squids, and benthic invertebrates (Heyning 1989; Heyning and Mead 1996; Gannon et al. 1998; Santos et al. 2001; MacLeod et al. 2003; Baird et al. 2005). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level Blainville's beaked whale diet composition of 20% small squids, 30% large squids, 30% mesopelagic fishes, and 20% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

Generally, beaked whales are found along the continental slope and in deep oceanic waters (Ritter and Brederlau 1999; Gannier 2000; Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; Claridge 2003; MacLeod et al. 2003; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ferguson 2005; MacLeod and Zuur 2005; Claridge 2006; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Pitman 2018). Beaked whales are often found associated with bathymetric features (Claridge 2006; MacLeod and D'Amico 2006).

Ward et al. (2005) found beaked whales in waters with a bottom depth ranging from 420 to 3,487 m. In the North Atlantic, Blainville's beaked whale and Gervais' beaked whale occur in warmer southern waters (MacLeod 2000).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) reported Blainville's beaked whale age at last reproduction of 40 years (estimated) and Gervais' beaked whale age at last reproduction of 42 years (estimated).

Generation Length

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Beaked whales occur year-round in northern Gulf of Mexico waters and were seen in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Information regarding Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance estimate for Gervais' beaked whales and Blainville's beaked whales in northern Gulf of Mexico waters is 98 individuals ($CV=0.46$), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). This estimate is negatively biased due to long dive times (Hayes et al. 2021). Unidentified ziphiid abundance for the same time period was estimated to be 181 individuals ($CV=0.31$; Hayes et al. 2021). A previous estimate of 149 individual mesoplodonts ($CV=0.91$) was based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete a trend analysis for Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale in the Gulf of Mexico (Hayes et al. 2021). However, comparisons of revised abundance estimates for all ziphiids found significant differences between 2003 and 2004 estimates and between 2004 and 2018 estimates (Garrison et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Beaked whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico interact with the pelagic longline fishery (Fairfield and Garrison 2008). During the period 2014–2018, there was zero estimated annual fishing-related mortality (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the period 2014–2018, four Gervais' beaked whales and one Blainville's beaked whale were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited by Hayes et al. 2021).

The Gervais' beaked whale and Blainville's beaked whale stocks were likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Beaked whale strandings throughout their worldwide range have been associated with naval activities (Simmonds and Lopez-Jurado 1991; Frantzis 1998; D'Amico et al. 2009; Filadelfo et al. 2009; Bernaldo de Quiros et al. 2019).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for beaked whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

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Minke whale – *Balaenoptera acutorostrata acutorostrata*

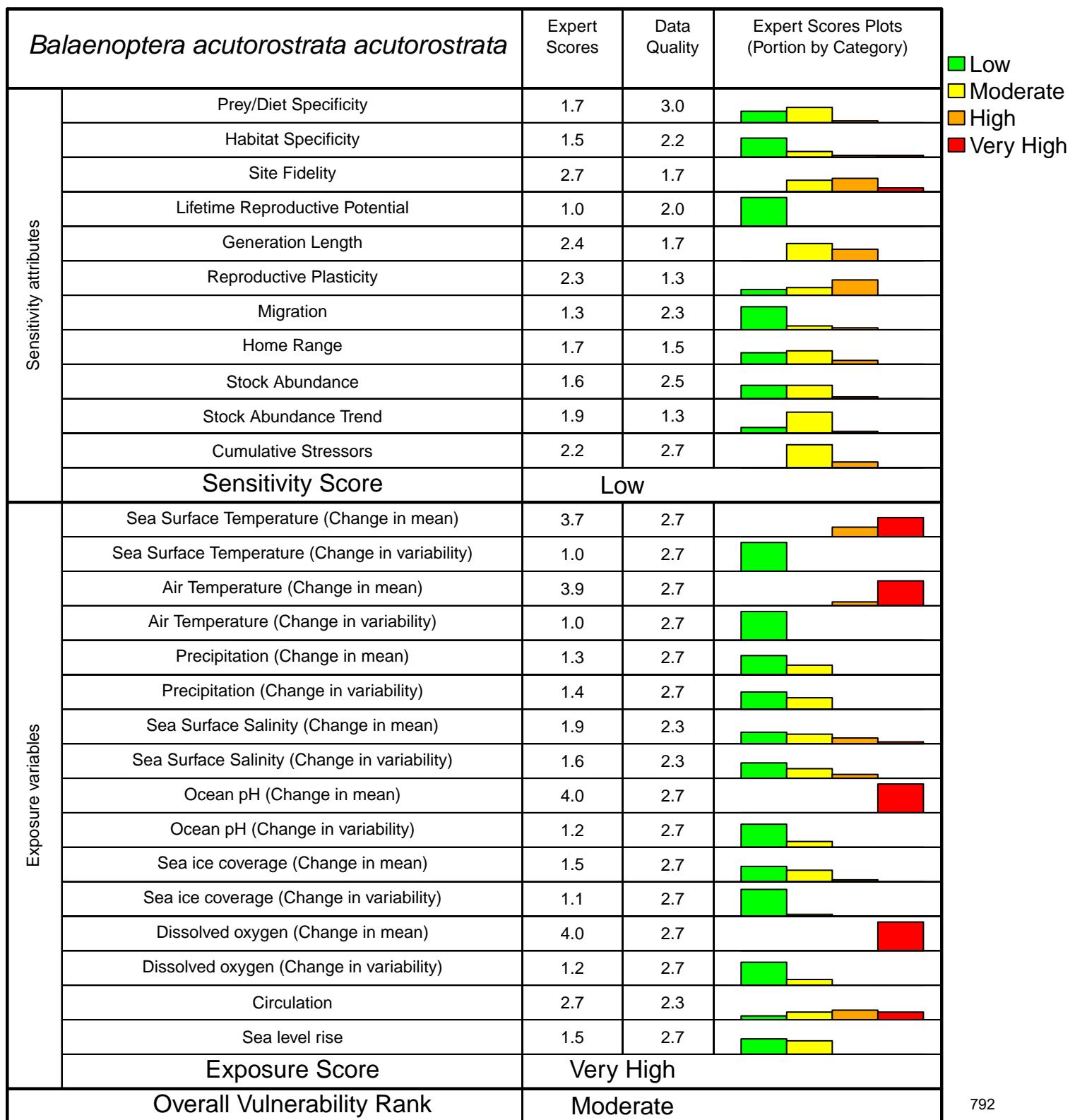
Canadian East Coast Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2



Minke whale (Canadian East Coast Stock)

Balaenoptera acutorostrata acutorostrata

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (65% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.67).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Site Fidelity (2.73)

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

Minke whales of the Canadian East Coast Stock (which includes those off the eastern coast of the United States) inhabit the area from the western half of the Davis Strait (45°W) to the Gulf of Mexico (Donovan 1991; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

In the North Atlantic, minke whales consume capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), herring (*Clupea harengus*), sand lance (*Ammodytes* spp.), salmon (*Salmo salar*), cod (*Gadus morhua*), coal fish (*Pollachius virens*), whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*), wolffish (*Anarhichas lupus*), dogfish (*Squalus acanthias*), pollock (*Pollachius pollachius*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), euphausiids, and copepods (Stewart and Leatherwood 1985; Kenney et al. 1985; Horwood 1990).

Habitat Specificity

Minke whales are found in waters over the continental shelf (Mitchell and Kozicki 1975; Ivashin and Votrogov 1981; Murphy 1995; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Calambokidis et al. 2004), though there is evidence that they also occupy deeper waters (Slipper et al. 1964; Horwood 1990; Mitchell 1991).

Minke whales in the western North Atlantic are associated with habitat that supports and aggregates prey, such as underwater sand dunes and tidal currents (Naud et al. 2003; Johnston et al. 2005)

Site Fidelity

Bartha et al. (2011) found minke whales in Nova Scotia waters to show short-term site fidelity, but only 35% of identified whales were resighted in subsequent years, suggesting only a portion of the population exhibits long-term site fidelity. Lopes et al. (2017) reported similar levels of resighting in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 1.00 years. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 8 years and age at last reproduction of 51 years (estimated). Females may reach sexual maturity as early as 6 years of age (Perrin et al. 2018).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 13.0 years at $r=0.09$ and 22.1 years at $r=0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Mating likely occurs in winter or early spring (Stewart and Leatherwood 1985) and calving likely occurs October to March (Hayes et al. 2017).

Migration

Minke whales are relatively widespread on the continental shelf off New England in spring through fall (CETAP 1982; Risch et al. 2013; Risch et al. 2014) and in deep-ocean waters during fall through spring (Clark and Gagnon 2002). Minke whales are also found in the western North Atlantic from Bermuda to the West Indies during the winter months (Mitchell 1991; Mellinger et al. 2000).

Home Range

Minke whales were found broadly distributed in shelf waters during spring and summer surveys (CETAP 1982).

Stock Abundance

Hayes et al. (2022) considered the best abundance estimate for stock assessment purposes to be 21,968 individuals ($CV=0.31$), based on 2016 shipboard and aerial surveys from central Virginia to Labrador (Lawson and Gosselin 2018; Palka 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Insufficient data exist to calculate a stock abundance trend (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Minke whales of the Canadian East Coast stock interact with gillnet fisheries. During the time period 2014–2018, average annual minimum detected fisheries-related mortality and serious injury was 10.55

minke whales per year (Hayes et al. 2022; Henry et al. 2021). Ship strike is another threat to minke whales in this region, with an average of 1.2 minke whales per year struck in U.S. and Canadian waters during the time period 2014–2018 (Henry et al. 2021). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared for this stock that included 57 minke whales stranding along the U.S. Atlantic Coast from January 2017 to December 2018 (Hayes et al. 2022).

Minke whales in the Canadian East Coast stock were historically hunted until 1972, and minke whale stocks continue to be part of a subsistence hunt in the waters of Greenland, and are commercially hunted in Iceland and Norway (IWC 1992; IWC 2018; Hayes et al. 2022).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for minke whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2016c, 2017) and Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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North Atlantic right whale – *Eubalaena glacialis*

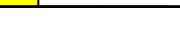
Western Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = Very High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 100% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Eubalaena glacialis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	3.9	3.0	
	Habitat Specificity	3.3	3.0	
	Site Fidelity	3.6	2.9	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.5	3.0	
	Generation Length	2.8	2.1	
	Reproductive Plasticity	3.0	3.0	
	Migration	1.6	2.5	
	Home Range	1.8	2.9	
	Stock Abundance	3.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	3.4	3.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.8	3.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.8	2.9	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.9	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.9	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.9	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.2	2.9	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	2.9	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.9	2.9	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.9	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.9	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	2.9	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.2	2.9	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.9	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.9	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.9	
	Circulation	3.3	2.9	
	Sea level rise	1.8	2.9	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

North Atlantic right whale (Western Atlantic Stock)

Eubalaena glacialis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.80).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Prey/Diet Specificity (3.90), Cumulative Stressors (3.85), and Site Fidelity (3.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 100% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 100% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The North Atlantic right whale Western Atlantic Stock (NARW) includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

The NARW diet consists primarily of late-stage juveniles and adults of copepods in the genera *Calanus* and *Pseudocalanus* (Nemoto 1970; Cummings 1985; Kenney et al. 1985; Mayo and Marx 1990; Beardsley et al. 1996; Mayo et al. 2001; Baumgartner et al. 2003, 2007; Pendleton et al. 2009; Meyer-Gutbrod et al. 2015). NARWs are also known to occasionally feed on other smaller copepods, krill, pteropods, or the planktonic larval stages of barnacles and other crustaceans (Kenney 2018).

Habitat Specificity

Two critical habitats for North Atlantic right whales are designated in U.S. waters: a calving area extending from just south of Cape Canaveral, Florida to Cape Fear, North Carolina, and a foraging area encompassing the U.S. portion of the Gulf of Maine (NMFS 2016). Feeding areas in the Bay of Fundy and Roseway Basin in Canadian waters are designated as critical habitats by Canadian authorities (Fisheries and Oceans Canada 2014).

The winter calving grounds are characterized by cooler, shallow nearshore waters inshore of a mid-shelf front (Kraus et al. 1993; Ward 1999; Keller et al. 2006).

Feeding areas are in nearshore and shelf waters, where some combination of bottom topography, water column structure and stratification, and currents acts to physically aggregate zooplankton into extremely dense concentrations (Kenney et al. 1986, 1995; Wishner et al. 1988; Murison and Gaskin 1989; Kenney and Wishner 1995; Macaulay et al. 1995; Beardsley et al. 1996; Mate et al. 1997; Mate and Baumgartner 2001; Baumgartner et al. 2003, 2007; Baumgartner and Mate 2005). There are probably also offshore feeding grounds, in locations not yet known, based on historical whaling records and on the fact that some known whales are often missing from the known habitats for months or years at a time (Kenney 2018).

Site Fidelity

NARWs have historically aggregated seasonally in seven areas: 1) the coastal waters of the southeastern United States; 2) the Great South Channel; 3) Jordan Basin; 4) Georges Basin along the northeastern edge of Georges Bank; 5) Cape Cod and Massachusetts Bays; 6) the Bay of Fundy; and 7) the Roseway Basin on the Scotian Shelf (Watkins and Schevill 1982; Winn et al. 1986; Kenney et al. 1995; Brown et al. 2001; Hlista et al. 2009; Pendleton et al. 2009; Cole et al. 2013, 2016; Khan et al. 2016, 2018). Since 2013, NARWs have been increasingly present in the Gulf of St. Lawrence from late spring through early fall (Cole et al. 2016; Khan et al. 2016, 2018), and over the last decade occurrence of NARWs south of Massachusetts and Rhode Island has been increasing, as well as expanding temporally from mainly winter-spring to year-round (Leiter et al. 2017; Stone et al. 2017; Quintana-Rizzo et al. 2021; O'Brien et al. 2022).

Despite seasonal aggregation, there is high interannual variability in right whale use of some habitats (Pendleton et al. 2009) and whales may abandon feeding grounds during periods of low prey abundance (Kenney 2001; Patrician and Kenney 2010). Use of seasonal habitat is further divided by sex and reproductive state, with nursing mothers showing preference for different feeding grounds and likely passing that preference on to their offspring (Schaeff et al. 1993; Malik et al. 1999; Brown et al. 2001; Frasier et al. 2007).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Mean calving interval is reported from 3 to 4 years, although interannual variability is high (Knowlton et al. 1994; Hamilton et al. 1998; Kraus et al. 2001, 2007; Taylor et al. 2007; Pettis et al. 2021).

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated *Eubalaena glacialis* age at last reproduction of 57 years. NARW average age at first reproduction is reported in the range of 9 to 10 years (Kraus et al. 2001; Taylor et al. 2007). The youngest mature female in the western North Atlantic was 4 at maturity and 5 at first calving (Knowlton et al. 1994). The oldest known NARW was estimated to be over 70 years old based on sighting data (Kraus and Rolland 2007). Corkeron et al. (2018) estimated that half of male NARWs are dead by age 35, and half of females by age 20, in comparison to estimates of 46–69 years for southern right whales.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) report generation length of 23.3 years at $r=0.05$ and 35.7 years at $r=0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving grounds are in shallow coastal regions or bays in the western North Atlantic near Georgia and northeastern Florida (Winn et al. 1986; Kraus et al. 1993; Kraus and Rolland 2007) and as far north as North Carolina (Good 2008). Right whales show a clear preference for waters in a relatively narrow depth and temperature range — 13–19 m and 13–16°C (Keller et al. 2006). Calving season runs December through March (Kraus et al. 1993, 2001; Kraus and Rolland 2007; Hamilton and Cooper 2010). The central Gulf of Maine and Roseway Basin on the southwestern Scotian Shelf are possible mating areas, at least in some years (Mussoline et al. 2012; Cole et al. 2013; Brillant et al. 2015; Bort et al. 2015).

Migration

The NARW population migrates primarily from calving grounds in coastal waters of the southeastern United States to feeding grounds in New England waters and the Canadian Bay of Fundy, Scotian Shelf, and Gulf of St. Lawrence (Winn et al. 1986; Hamilton and Mayo 1990; Gaskin 1991; Kenney 2001; Kraus et al. 1993; Nichols et al. 2008), although not all individuals complete this migration (Whitt et al. 2013).

Home Range

Although much of the population is found within the migratory range from Florida to New England and the Canadian Maritimes, NARWs have undertaken long-distance movements to locations as far north as Newfoundland, the Labrador Basin, southeast of Greenland, Iceland, Norway, the British Isles, France, the Azores, Madeira, and the Canaries (Knowlton et al. 1992; Mate et al. 1997; IWC 2001; Jacobsen et al. 2004; Kenney et al. in press). NARWs have also been observed, particularly by passive acoustic monitoring, to occur in any season and at nearly any location within the overall range (Whitt et al. 2013; Davis et al. 2017; Hayes et al. 2022).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of the Western Atlantic stock of NARWs has been monitored since the stock assessment process was instituted in 1995 using the catalog of identified individuals (<https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-region>). The 2007 SAR was the first to assess the minimum abundance using the Minimum Number Alive (MNA) method, which calculates the sum of the known whales seen in a given year plus any others that were seen both before and after that year. After about 2010, changes in distribution patterns reduced resighting probabilities and made the MNA method less useful and reliable. Pace et al. (2017) developed a new method using Bayesian state-space modeling, still based on the photoID catalog. That method is now being used in both the stock assessments and the annual North Atlantic Right Whale Consortium “report cards” (e.g., Pettis et al. 2021). Pace et al. (2017) reported the peak abundance of 482 in 2010, followed by a decline to 458 in 2015. The NOAA Fisheries 2021 SAR reported an abundance estimate of 368 individuals (95% CI = 356–378) as of November 2019.

(Hayes et al. 2022). In October 2022, the North Atlantic Right Whale Consortium announced a revised 2020 abundance estimate (348 +/-5) and released a 2021 abundance estimate (340 +/-7; NEAQ 2022).

Stock Abundance Trend

Knowlton et al. (1994) estimated that the NARW population grew at 2.5% during 1986–1992. A model by Caswell et al. (1999) suggested that population growth reversed to a decline of the same magnitude during the 1990s, but that decline was of short duration. Subsequent analyses by Pace et al. (2017), Corkeron et al. (2018), and in the stock assessments show growth at about 2.8% from 1990 to 2011 but a statistically significant decline since then. The decline is due to both an increase in mortality, especially from entanglement, and a decline in reproduction (Corkeron et al. 2018; Pettis et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to NARW are summarized in five-year status reviews (NMFS 2017), annual report cards (e.g., Pettis et al. 2021; see www.narwc.org for previous and future years), and annual stock assessment reports (e.g., Hayes et al. 2022; see <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-species-stock> for previous and future years). These threats include vessel strikes (van der Hoop et al. 2012, 2015; Wiley et al. 2016; Henry et al. 2021), and entanglement in fishing gear (Knowlton et al. 2012; van der Hoop et al. 2017) as primary sources of mortality and serious injury, with contaminants, disease, habitat modification, and noise pollution as some examples of additional concerns (Nowacek et al. 2007; Weilgart 2007; Rolland et al. 2012; Rice et al. 2014).

NARWs had an estimated annual human-caused mortality and serious injury (detected and cryptic/undetected) of 27.4 whales during the period 2014–2018 (Pace et al. 2021; Hayes et al. 2022). During that period, fishery entanglement accounted for 6.85 detected mortalities and serious injuries per year and vessel strikes accounted for 1.3 detected mortalities and serious injuries per year. Since 2017, an Unusual Mortality Event (UME) has been declared for NARW that includes 92 documented dead, serious injury, or morbidity (sublethal injuries/illness) whales in the U.S. and Canada (<https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2017-2021-north-atlantic-right-whale-unusual-mortality-event>).

Other Relevant Information

Several studies have examined NARW within the context of climate change. Studies have found that climate-driven changes in oceanographic conditions alter the distribution and abundance of NARW prey and affect NARW foraging patterns (Meyer-Gutbrod and Greene 2014; Runge et al. 2015; Meyer-Gutbrod et al. 2015, 2021; Davis et al. 2017; Grieve et al. 2017; Record et al. 2019; Sorochan et al. 2019; Brennan et al. 2021; Gavrilchuk et al. 2021). Several projections of NARW future distribution have been based on projected *Calanus* spp. distribution (Pendleton et al. 2012; Daoust et al. 2017; Meyer-Gutbrod et al. 2018; Ross et al. 2021), while other studies have projected NARW abundance based on future environmental conditions (Meyer-Gutbrod and Greene 2018). Areas used by NARW have experienced a high degree of environmental change in recent years and are projected to continue to experience significant change (Saba et al. 2016; Pershing et al. 2021).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for NARW in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2020, 2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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Northern bottlenose whale – *Hyperoodon ampullatus*

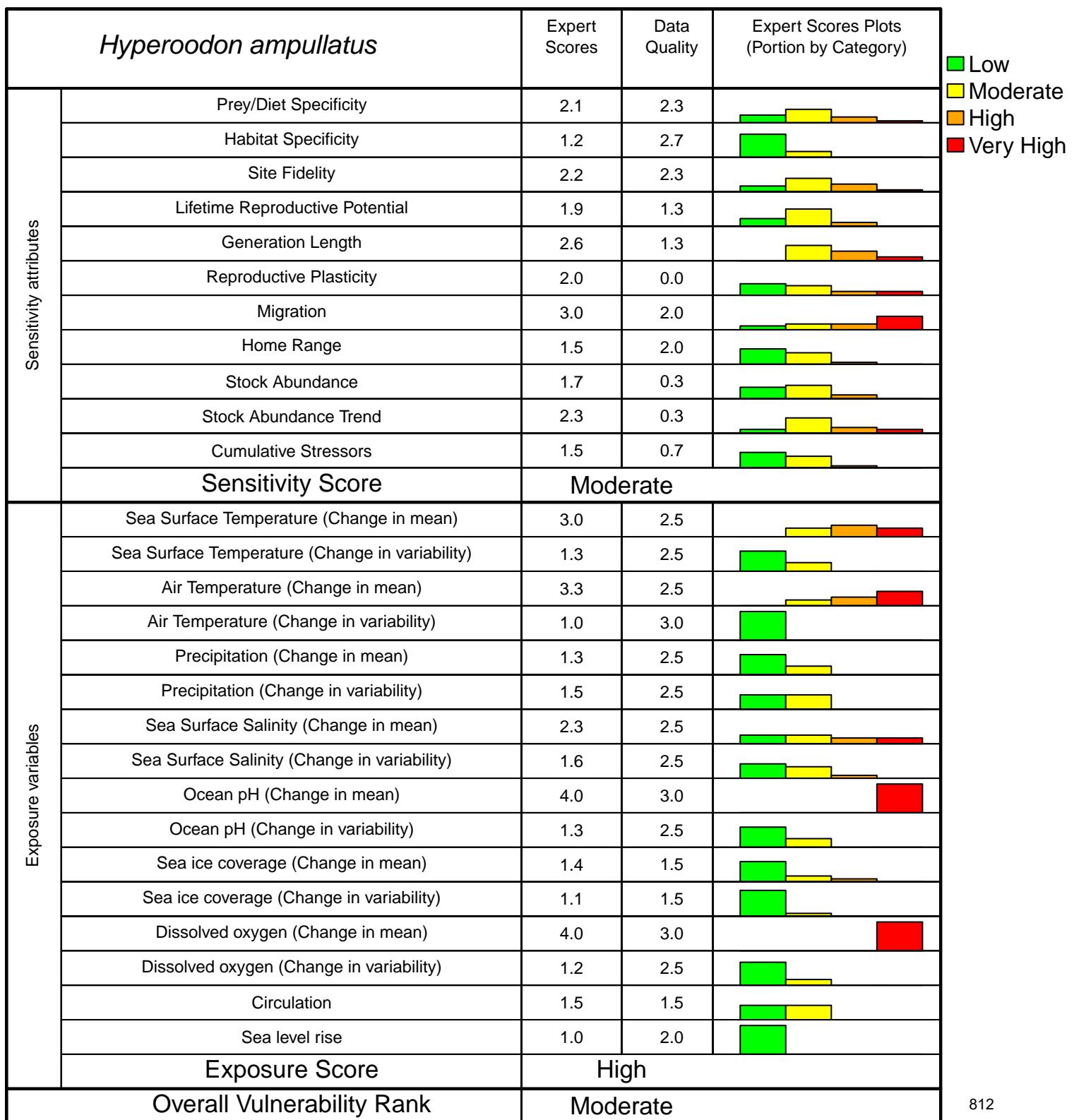
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 67% of scores ≥ 2



Northern bottlenose whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Hyperoodon ampullatus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (59% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High: Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.3), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.0).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.00) and Generation Time (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 67% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 45% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The northern bottlenose whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in U.S. waters and adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Waring et al. 2015).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Bottlenose whales feed primarily on squid of the genus *Gonatus* (Hooker et al. 2001). Fish (including herring and redfish) and benthic invertebrates such as starfish and sea cucumbers are occasionally consumed (Gowans 2009). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 15% benthic invertebrates, 35% small squids, 35% large squids, 5% mesopelagic fishes, and 10% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

Northern bottlenose whales are found in cold temperate waters of the North Atlantic, almost always in waters deeper than 500 m (Mead 1989; Wimmer and Whitehead 2004; Whitehead and Hooker 2012). They often associate with submarine canyons, continental shelf edges, and other areas of high relief (Gowans 2009).

Site Fidelity

Northern bottlenose whales congregate in two locations in the western North Atlantic; a large undersea canyon called "The Gully" and adjacent canyons just east of Sable Island, Nova Scotia, and Davis Strait

off northern Labrador (Reeves et al. 1993; Gowans et al. 2000; Hooker et al. 2002). Northern bottlenose whales in the Gully exhibit high site fidelity, with individuals remaining in the area for days to months at a time and frequently returning across seasons and years (Gowans et al. 2000; Wimmer and Whitehead 2004).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Recent work by Feyrer et al. (2020) suggests a reproductive interval of at least 4 years. Benjaminsen and Christensen (1979) reported a reproductive interval of 2 years. Northern bottlenose whales reach sexual maturation at 7–11 years for males and 11 years for females (Benjaminsen and Christensen 1979). The oldest known individual was caught during whaling at 37 years age (Gowans 2009). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 14 years and age at last reproduction of 27 years (observed) and 48 years (estimated) based on values reported by Mead (1984).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated generation length of 17.8 years at $r = 0.00$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding northern bottlenose whale reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

One sub-population (individuals found at the Gully) is known to consist of year-round residents (Gowans et al. 2000; Hooker et al. 2002; Stanistreet et al. 2017).

Home Range

Individuals of resident populations are known to make excursions from 100km to 1000km away from the geographic features they are usually associated with (Wimmer and Whitehead 2004; Gowans 2009).

Stock Abundance

Studies at the entrance to the Gully from 1988 to 1995 identified 237 individuals and estimated the local population size at about 230 animals (95% C.I. 160-360) (Whitehead et al. 1997). Wimmer and Whitehead (2004) identified individuals moving between several Scotian Shelf canyons more than 100 km from the Gully. Whitehead and Wimmer (2005) estimated a population of 163 animals (95% confidence interval 119-214), with no statistically significant population trend. O'Brien and Whitehead (2013) applied mark-recapture techniques to estimate the current population size of northern bottlenose whales on the Scotian Shelf as 143 animals (95% CI: 95 to 156 animals).

Stock Abundance Trend

O'Brien and Whitehead (2013) reported a stable abundance trend for the Scotian Shelf population.

Cumulative Stressors

Primary threats to northern bottlenose whales include entanglement in fishing gear, anthropogenic noise, and contaminants (DFO 2016). Strandings in the U.S occur but are rare (Waring et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for northern bottlenose whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b).

Further Reading

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Pantropical spotted dolphin – *Stenella attenuata*

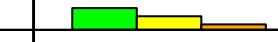
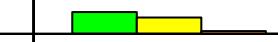
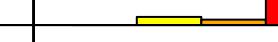
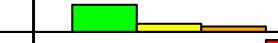
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella attenuata</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.6	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.4	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.4	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.5	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.0	
	Migration	2.1	1.7	
	Home Range	1.5	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.2	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.5	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.1	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.1	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.1	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.6	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.6	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.6	3.0	
	Circulation	1.6	2.7	
	Sea level rise	1.0	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Pantropical spotted dolphin (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Stenella attenuata

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (60% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.60), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Species Abundance Trend (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 73% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The pantropical spotted dolphin Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pantropical spotted dolphins consume a wide variety of prey that includes epipelagic fish, squid, and crustaceans (Perrin and Hohn 1994). Studies in the Eastern Tropical Pacific and Hawaii suggest that pantropical spotted dolphins feed primarily at night on epipelagic species and species associated with the deep scattering layer (Robertson and Chivers 1997; Scott and Cattanach 1998; Baird et al. 2001).

Habitat Specificity

Pantropical spotted dolphins are found in oceanic waters of the northern Gulf of Mexico (Davis et al. 1998; Baumgartner et al. 2001; Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 2003; Mullin et al. 2004; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Moreno et al. 2005; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Pantropical spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico do not show preference for any individual specific habitat features (Baumgartner et al. 2001). Garrison and Aichinger Dias (2020) reported an overall uniform distribution in the Gulf of Mexico, slightly concentrated south of Mobile Bay and along the Florida Escarpment.

Site Fidelity

Information regarding pantropical spotted dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 3 years, age at first reproduction of 13 years, and age at last reproduction of 45 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Myrick et al. (1986) and Perrin and Hohn (1994).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 22.7 years at $r = 0.00$ and 23.1 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Perrin and Hohn (1994).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding pantropical spotted dolphin reproductive behavior (reproductive season, location, and habitat) in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature. Pantropical spotted dolphins in the eastern tropical Pacific show one calving peak in spring and one calving peak in fall (Perrin and Hohn 1994).

Migration

Pantropical spotted dolphins occur year-round in northern Gulf of Mexico waters and were seen in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000). Frasier et al. (2015) found Stenellid densities increased in summer and decreased in winter at four study sites in the northern Gulf of Mexico.

Home Range

Information regarding pantropical spotted dolphin home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature. In other regions, pantropical spotted dolphins can travel up to 100km per day and cover great distances in seasonal migrations (Perrin 2001).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of northern Gulf of Mexico pantropical spotted dolphins is estimated to be 37,195 individuals ($CV=0.24$), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone from Texas to Florida (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the stock was estimated at 50,880 individuals ($CV=0.27$) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of pantropical spotted dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (72,901; $CV=0.20$), 2004 (78,878; $CV=0.41$), 2009 (84,047; $CV=0.36$), 2017 (27,362; $CV=0.27$), and 2018 (58,725; $CV=0.41$). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and found significant differences between the 2003 and 2017 estimates and

between the 2009 and 2017 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, methodological differences make trend analysis difficult to interpret (Hayes et al. 2021). Using passive acoustic monitoring, Frasier et al. (2015) found a significant increase in Stenellid densities at two of four study sites in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2013. No change in density was observed at the other two sites.

Cumulative Stressors

The pantropical spotted dolphin may interact with longline fisheries in the Gulf of Mexico. However, during the period 2014–2018, there was an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of zero individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). During the period 2014–2018, five pantropical spotted dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The pantropical spotted dolphin stock was exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; DWH MMQT 2015; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015). A population model suggested 1,203 pantropical spotted dolphins died during the period 2014–2018 due to exposure to the Deepwater Horizon spill (Hayes et al. 2021).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for pantropical spotted dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Pilot whale, long-finned – *Globicephala melas*

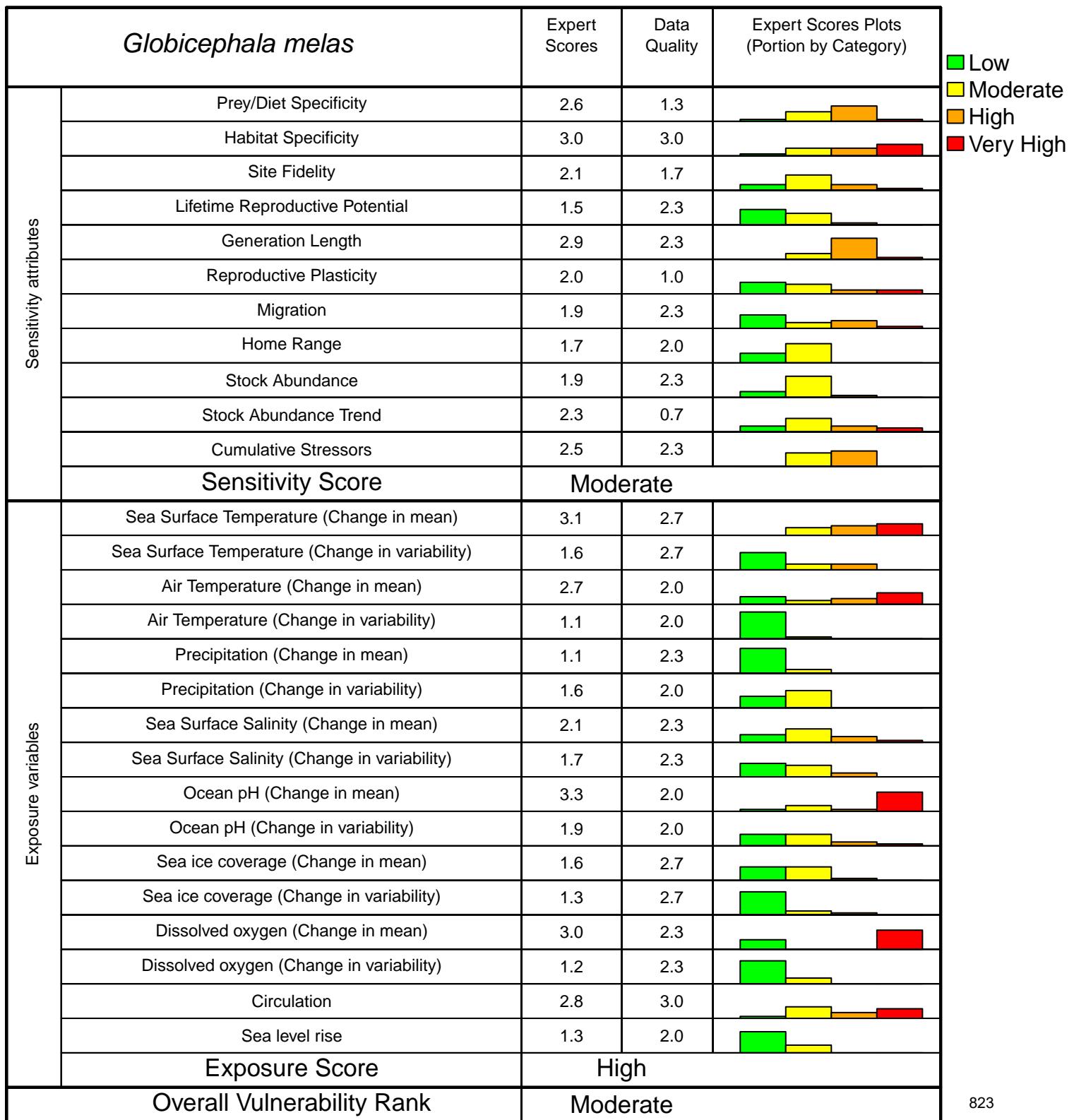
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2



Pilot whale, long-finned (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Globicephala melas

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (87% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.33), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.13), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Habitat Specificity (3.00), Generation Time (2.87), Prey/Diet Specificity (2.60), and Cumulative Stressors (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater, 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The long-finned pilot whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (ICES 1993; Bloch and Lastein 1993; Siemann 1994; Fullard et al. 2000; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Long-finned pilot whales in the western North Atlantic have a diet that consisting primarily of Atlantic mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*) and long-finned squid (*Loligo pealei*), with Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*), silver hake (*Merluccius bilinearis*), short-finned squid (Ommastrephidae) also represented in their diet (Overholtz and Waring 1991; Abend and Smith 1997; Gannon et al. 1997a, 1997b).

Habitat Specificity

Pilot whales are found with the Gulf Stream wall and thermal fronts along the continental shelf edge as well as areas of high relief or submerged banks (Waring et al. 1992). Long-finned pilot whales are found in cooler waters (<22°C), generally north of 42 degrees latitude (Hayes et al. 2020).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding long-finned pilot whale site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 3.30 years based on data from Sergeant (1962).

Age at first reproduction is estimated at 8-12 years (Perrin and Reilly 1984; Bloch and Lastein 1993; Taylor et al. 2007; Olson 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at last reproduction of 40 years (observed) to 43 years (estimated), though females are known to live more than 60 years (Olson 2018).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 21.1 years at $r = 0.04$ and 24.0 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding long-finned pilot whale breeding season, habitat, and/or location in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Pilot whales are found along the continental shelf edge off the northeastern U.S. coast in winter and early spring (CETAP 1982; Abend 1993; Payne and Heinemann 1993; Abend and Smith 1999; Hamazaki 2002) and move to Georges Bank, Gulf of Maine, and waters farther north from late spring through late autumn (CETAP 1982; Payne and Heinemann 1993).

Home Range

An individual pilot whale is known to have traveled more than 7500km in just over 3 months (Mate 1989).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of long-finned pilot whales in the western North Atlantic is estimated to be 39,215 individuals (CV=0.30; Lawson and Gosselin 2018; Garrison 2020; Palka 2020; Hayes et al. 2022), based on surveys from Florida to Labrador during summer 2016. The 2016 estimate is greater than the 2011 estimate (11,865 individuals; CV=0.57; Palka 2012) that only included Virginia to the Lower Bay of Fundy and did not correct for availability bias.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Pilot whales interact with bottom trawls, mid-water trawls, gillnet fisheries, and long-line fisheries. Total annual observed average fishery-related mortality or serious injury during 2013–2017 was 21 (CV=0.22) (Garrison and Rosel 2017; Hayes et al. 2020; Lyssikatos et al. 2020).

Pilot whales are known to mass strand throughout the range of this stock (Hayes et al. 2020). During 2013–2017, 16 long-finned pilot whales stranded along the U.S. Atlantic Coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and chlorinated pesticides (DDT, DDE, dieldrin, etc.) have been found in pilot whale blubber (Taruski et al. 1975; Muir et al. 1988; Dam and Bloch 2000; Weisbrod et al. 2000) in the North Atlantic. Toxic metals have been found in long-finned pilot whales in the Faroe Island drive fishery (Nielsen et al. 2000).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for pilot whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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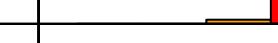
Pilot whale, short-finned – *Globicephala macrorhynchus*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.3	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.9	2.5	
	Site Fidelity	1.6	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.8	2.2	
	Generation Length	2.7	2.2	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.4	1.5	
	Migration	2.3	1.5	
	Home Range	1.8	2.2	
	Stock Abundance	2.0	2.8	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.5	1.8	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.4	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.8	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.4	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.6	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.6	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.6	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	2.2	2.8	
	Circulation	1.6	2.2	
	Sea level rise	1.8	2.2	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Pilot whale, short-finned (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Globicephala macrorhynchus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (62% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.90), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.65), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.65), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.55).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Generation Time (2.70) and Cumulative Stressors (2.50).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The short-finned whale Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Although no records of short-finned pilot whale diet in the Gulf of Mexico were found in the literature, studies from the western North Atlantic indicate short-finned pilot whale diet primarily consists of squid such as jewel squid (*Histioteuthis reversa*) and common arm squid (*Brachiocteuthis riisei*), with a smaller component consisting of fish such as Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), Bean's bigscale (*Scopelogadus beanii*), and Greenland turbot (*Reinhardtius hippoglossoides*; Waring et al. 1990; Bernard and Reilly 1999; Mintzer et al. 2008). Bowers (2006) found no diel patterns in foraging rates or depth on DTAG or SLTDR records from short-finned pilot whales tagged off Cape Hatteras, North Carolina. Pilot whale size classes segregate their foraging habitat by diving to different depths.

Habitat Specificity

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, short-finned pilot whales are primarily found in waters along the continental slope (500m-1000m depth) west of 89°W (Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding short-finned pilot whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Bernard and Reilly (1999) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 4.6 to 5.7 years while Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 6.90 years based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Short-finned females become sexually mature at 9 years and live past 60 years, although reproductive senescence may limit the upper age limit for reproduction to around 36 years (Kasuya and Marsh 1984; Marsh and Kasuya 1984; Olson 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale age at first reproduction of 11 years and age at last reproduction of 40 years (observed) and 43 years (estimated) based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale generation length of 22.7 years at $r = 0.01$ and 23.5 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding short-finned pilot whale breeding season, habitat, and location was not found in the literature.

Migration

This species is not known to migrate, though long-distance movements are known (e.g., Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020). Short-finned pilot whales are present in the northern Gulf of Mexico in all seasons (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Information regarding individual short-finned pilot whale home range was not found in the literature. However, tagging studies have shown short-finned pilot whales are capable of traveling great distances, moving between the Gulf of Mexico, western North Atlantic, and Caribbean waters (Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of Gulf of Mexico short-finned pilot whales is estimated to be 1,321 individuals ($CV=0.43$) based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 2,415 individuals ($CV=0.66$) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Garrison et al. (2020) also revised estimates of short-finned pilot whale abundance from 2003 (2,740 individuals; CV=0.52), 2004 (587 individuals; CV=0.88), and 2009 (4,788 individuals; CV=0.74) and found no significant differences between survey years.

Five point estimates of short-finned pilot whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (2,740; CV=0.52), 2004 (587; CV=0.88), 2009 (4,788; CV=0.74), 2017 (1,274; CV=0.54), and 2018 (1,402; CV=0.71). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, high-frequency acoustic recording package (HARP) data collected following the Deepwater Horizon spill showed a significant increase in short-finned pilot whale density at one site, a small decrease in pilot whale density at a second site, and no change at a third site over a 3 year period (Frasier 2015).

Cumulative Stressors

The short-finned pilot whale stock in the northern Gulf of Mexico interacts with the pelagic longline fishery and suffered an estimated 0.4 serious injuries or mortalities per year during the period 2014–2018 (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b; Hayes et al. 2021). During the same period, 93 short-finned pilot whales were reported stranded in the Gulf of Mexico, with five mass stranding events in Florida (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The short-finned pilot whale stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for short-finned pilot whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

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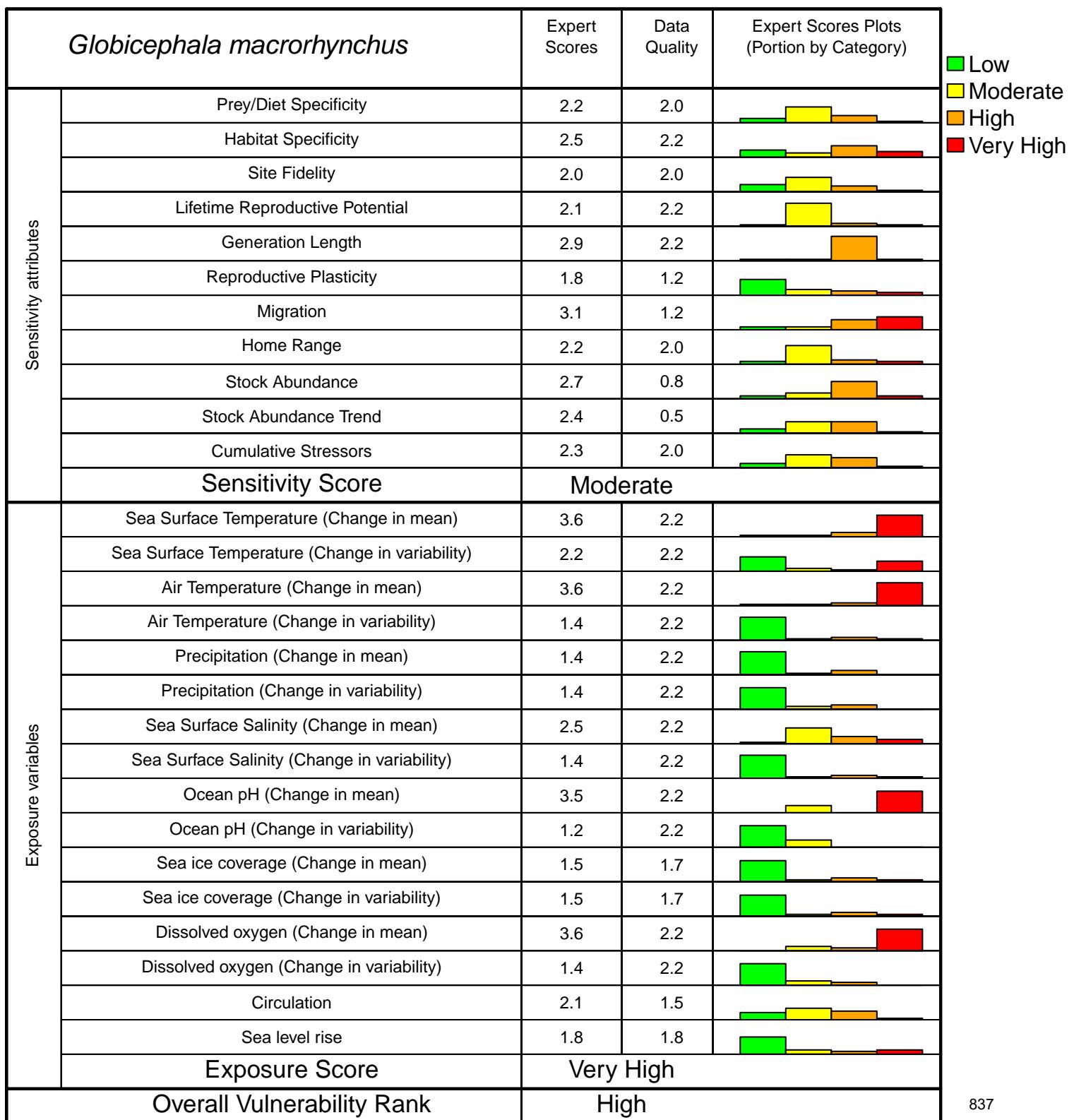
Pilot whale, short-finned – *Globicephala macrorhynchus*
 Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 70% of scores ≥ 2



Pilot whale, short-finned (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Globicephala macrorhynchus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (60% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.65), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.50).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Four sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Migration (3.15), Generation Length(2.90), Stock Abundance (2.70), and Habitat Specificity (2.55).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 70% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands short-finned pilot whale stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone surrounding Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, and in adjacent Caribbean waters (Waring et al. 2012). It is considered a separate stock for management purposes, but no information exists to differentiate this stock from the western North Atlantic and northern Gulf of Mexico stocks (Waring et al. 2012).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Although no records of short-finned pilot whale diet in U.S. Caribbean waters were found in the literature, studies from the western North Atlantic indicate short-finned pilot whale diet primarily consists of squid such as jewel squid (*Histioteuthis reversa*) and common arm squid (*Brachioteuthis riisei*), with a smaller component consisting of fish such as Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and Greenland turbot (*Reinhardtius hippoglossoides*; Bernard and Reilly 1999; Mintzer et al. 2008; Waring et al. 1990). Bowers (2006) found no diel patterns in foraging rates or depth on DTAG or SLTDR records from short-finned pilot whales tagged off Cape Hatteras, North Carolina. Pilot whale size classes segregate their foraging habitat by diving to different depths.

Habitat Specificity

Generally, short-finned pilot whales are found in waters along the continental slope (500m-1000m depth; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). In the

waters of Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, sightings suggest short-finned pilot whales use both continental shelf and oceanic waters (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Roden and Mullin 2000; Swartz and Burks 2000; Swartz et al. 2002).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding short-finned pilot whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Bernard and Reilly (1999) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 4.6 to 5.7 years while Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 6.90 years based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Short-finned females become sexually mature at 9 years and live past 60 years, although reproductive senescence may limit the upper age limit for reproduction to around 36 years (Kasuya and Marsh 1984; Marsh and Kasuya 1984; Olson 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale age at first reproduction of 11 years and age at last reproduction of 40 years (observed) and 43 years (estimated) based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale generation length of 22.7 years at $r = 0.01$ and 23.5 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding the short-finned pilot whale breeding season, habitat, and location was not found in the literature.

Migration

This species is not known to migrate, though long-distance movements are known (e.g., Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020). Short-finned pilot whales are present in Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands waters year-round (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998).

Home Range

Information regarding individual short-finned pilot whale home range was not found in the literature. However, tagging studies have shown short-finned pilot whales are capable of traveling great distances, moving between the Gulf of Mexico, western North Atlantic, and Caribbean waters (Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020). Short-finned pilot whales occur throughout the Caribbean, though movement between areas requires further study (Caldwell and Erdman 1963; Erdman 1970; Erdman et al. 1973; Taruski and Winn 1976; Mattila and Clapham 1989; Mattila et al. 1994; Gordon et al. 1998; Jérémie et al. 2006; Yoshida et al. 2010; Debrot et al. 1998; Romero et al. 2001; Casinos and Bou 1980; Pardo and Palacios 2006; Caldwell et al. 1970).

Stock Abundance

The current abundance for the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock of short-finned pilot whales is unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2012).

Cumulative Stressors

The short-finned pilot whale has been taken and is still being taken through small-scale whaling in the eastern Caribbean (e.g., Rathjen and Sullivan 1970; Caldwell et al. 1971; Adams 1975; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Price 1985; Reeves 1988; Hoyt and Hvenegaard 2002; Romero et al. 2002; Mohammed et al. 2003; Vail 2005; World Council of Whalers 2008).

The short-finned pilot whale stock may interact with longline fisheries (Waring et al. 2012). However, during the period 2001–2015, no fishing-related mortality or serious injury of short-finned pilot whale was reported in Puerto Rico or the U.S. Virgin Islands waters (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017). This may represent an underestimation because there was no observer coverage within the Caribbean region for six of those years (Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012b, 2013, 2016).

Legacy impacts on short-finned pilot whales from naval operations at Roosevelt Roads in Puerto Rico that ceased in 2004 are unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Coastal pollution may be an issue for the short-finned pilot whale Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock. Parts of Vieques Island, Puerto Rico are listed on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Superfund National Priorities List due to unexploded ordnance and associated hazardous materials (Whitall et al. 2016; EPA 2018).

Short-finned pilot whales have been reported as one of the most commonly stranded species in Puerto Rico and the U.S. and British Virgin Islands (Mignucci-Giannoni et al. 1999).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for pilot whales in the waters around Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands are presented by Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Pilot whale, short-finned – *Globicephala macrorhynchus*

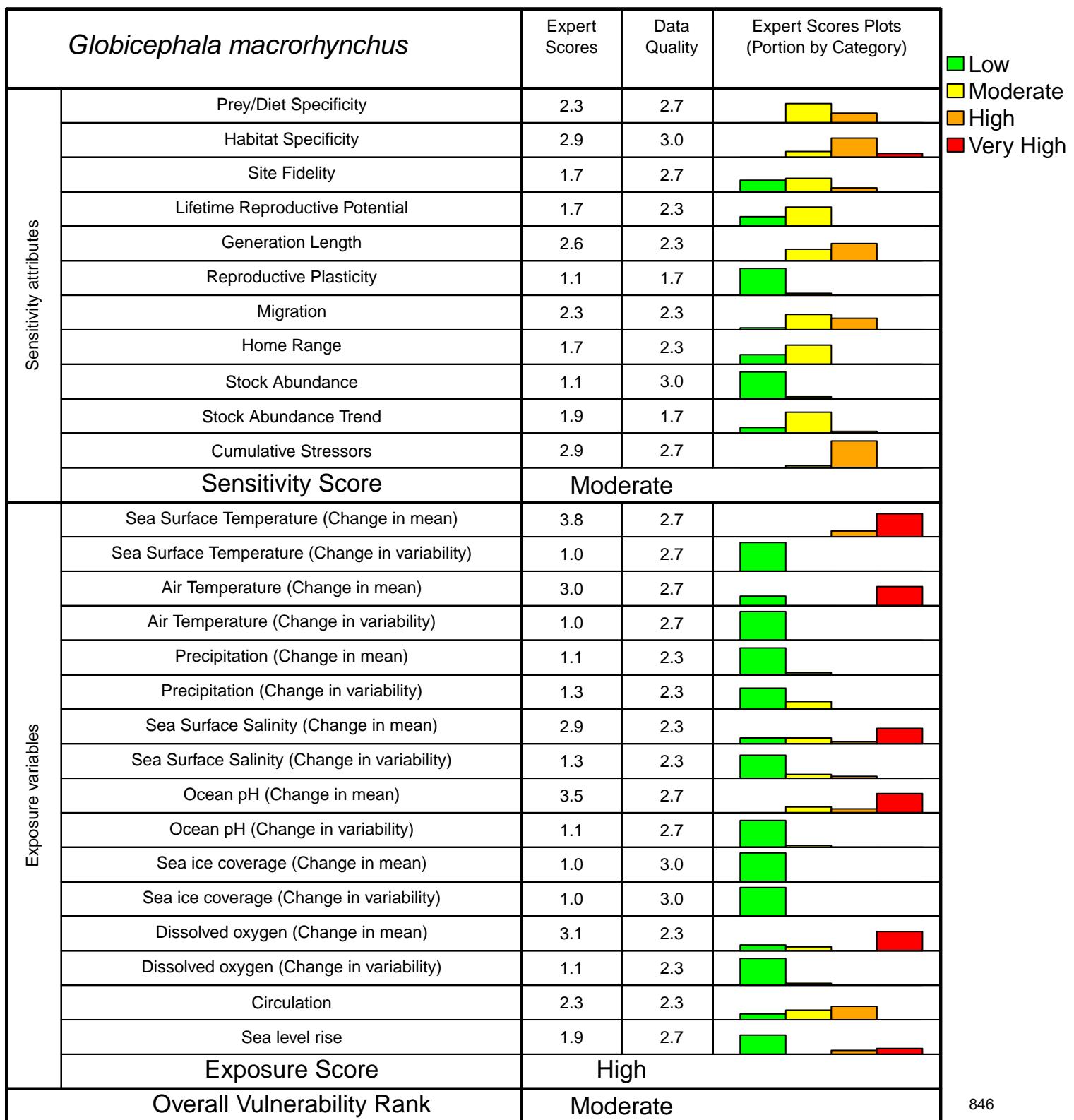
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Pilot whale, short-finned (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Globicephala macrorhynchus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (76% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.80), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.47), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.13), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Cumulative Stressors (2.93), Habitat Specificity (2.93), and Generation Length (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The short-finned pilot whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Studies from the western North Atlantic indicate short-finned pilot whale diet primarily consists of squid such as jewel squid (*Histioteuthis reversa*) and common arm squid (*Brachiocteuthis riisei*), with a smaller component consisting of fish such as Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and Greenland turbot (*Reinhardtius hippoglossoides*; Bernard and Reilly 1999; Mintzer et al. 2008; Waring et al. 1990). Bowers (2006) found no diel patterns in foraging rates or depth on DTAG or SLTDR records from short-finned pilot whales tagged off Cape Hatteras, North Carolina. Pilot whale size classes segregate their foraging habitat by diving to different depths.

Habitat Specificity

Generally, short-finned pilot whales are found in waters along the continental slope (500m-1000m depth; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). In the waters of the western North Atlantic, short-finned pilot whales are found associated with waters >25°C and in deeper waters near the Gulf Stream (Garrison and Rosel 2017). Short-finned pilot whales in the

western North Atlantic are also found in waters over the continental shelf and along the continental shelf break (CETAP 1982; Payne and Heinemann 1993).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding short-finned pilot whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Bernard and Reilly (1999) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 4.6 to 5.7 years while Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale interbirth interval of 6.90 years based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Short-finned females become sexually mature at 9 years and live past 60 years, although reproductive senescence may limit the upper age limit for reproduction to around 36 years (Kasuya and Marsh 1984; Marsh and Kasuya 1984; Olson 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale age at first reproduction of 11 years and age at last reproduction of 40 years (observed) and 43 years (estimated) based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported short-finned pilot whale generation length of 22.7 years at $r = 0.01$ and 23.5 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values from Kasuya and Marsh (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding short-finned pilot whale breeding season, habitat, and location was not found in the literature.

Migration

This species is not known to migrate, though long-distance movements are known (e.g., Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020).

Home Range

Information regarding individual short-finned pilot whale home range was not found in the literature. However, tagging studies have shown short-finned pilot whales are capable of traveling great distances, moving between the Gulf of Mexico, western North Atlantic, and Caribbean waters (Wells et al. 2013; Tyson Moore et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance

The best available estimate for short-finned pilot whales in the western North Atlantic 28,924 individuals ($CV=0.24$) based on summer 2016 surveys (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020; Hayes et al. 2022). The previous best available estimate was 21,515 individuals ($CV=0.37$; Palka 2012; Garrison 2016) based on summer 2011 surveys covering waters from central Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy.

Stock Abundance Trend

No significant trend was detected between 2004, 2011, and 2016 abundance estimates (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

The short-finned pilot whale western North Atlantic stock interacts with pelagic longline fisheries and a hook and line fishery. During the time period 2013–2017, fishery-induced mortality was 160 short-finned pilot whales (CV=0.12; Garrison and Stokes 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020; Maze-Foley and Garrison 2016). During the same period, 14 short-finned pilot whales were reported stranded between Massachusetts and Florida (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), chlorinated pesticides (e.g., DDT), and high levels of toxic metals have been found in pilot whales, although the population effect is unknown (Taruski et al. 1975; Muir et al. 1988; Weisbrod et al. 2000; Nielsen et al. 2000; Dam and Bloch 2000).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for pilot whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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Pygmy killer whale – *Feresa attenuata*

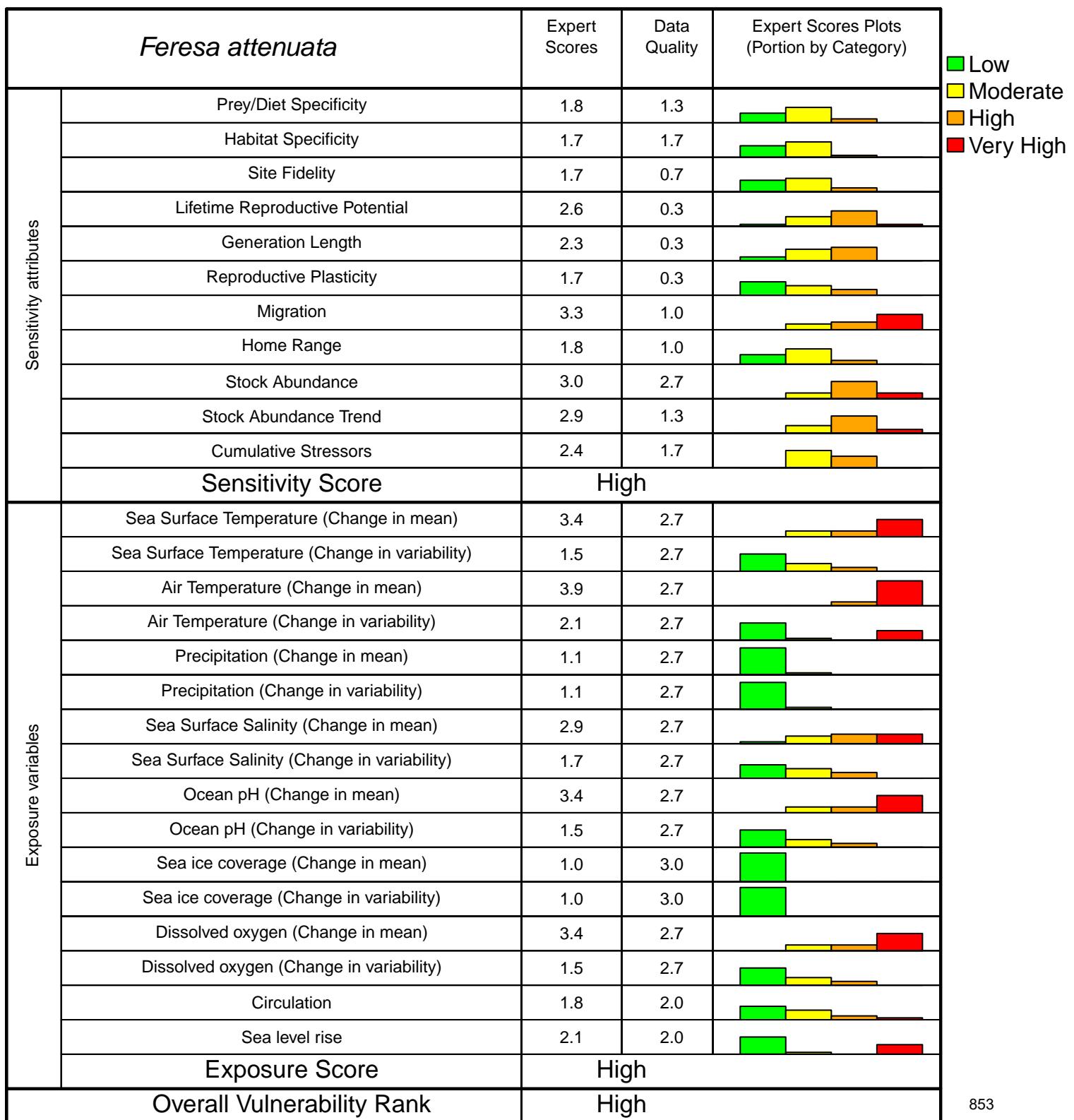
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 63% of scores ≥ 2



Pygmy killer whale (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Feresa attenuata

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (58% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Two exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87) and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.40).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Migration (3.33) and Species Abundance (3.00).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 63% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 9% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The pygmy killer whale Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pygmy killer whale diet consists of fish and cephalopods, and occasionally other dolphins (Perryman and Foster 1980; Ross and Leatherwood 1994; Elorriaga-Verplancken et al. 2016). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 30% small squids, 20% large squids, 10% small pelagic fishes, 20% miscellaneous fishes, and 20% high vertebrates.

Habitat Specificity

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, pygmy killer whales are found in oceanic waters (Davis and Fargion 1996; Davis et al. 2000; Würsig et al. 2000; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020). Garrison and Aichinger Dias (2020) reported an overall uniform distribution in the Gulf of Mexico, with a main area of occurrence slightly towards central-east.

Site Fidelity

Information regarding pygmy killer whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding pygmy killer whale reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) reported pygmy killer whale age at last reproduction of 32 years (estimated).

Generation Length

Information regarding pygmy killer whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding pygmy killer whale reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Pygmy killer whales occur year-round in northern Gulf of Mexico waters and were seen in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000; Würsig et al. 2000).

Home Range

Information regarding pygmy killer whale home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of northern Gulf of Mexico pygmy killer whales is estimated to be 613 individuals (CV=1.15), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 152 individuals (CV=1.02) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of pygmy killer whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (501; CV=0.74), 2004 (490; CV=0.87), 2009 (359; CV=0.96), 2017 (1,227; CV=1.149), and 2018 (0). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

During the period 2014–2018, there was zero estimated annual fishing-related mortality (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the period 2014–2018, seven pygmy killer whales were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The pygmy killer whale stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Anthropogenic noise may be an additional stressor for pygmy killer whales, as evidenced by an unusual stranding event associated with naval exercises near Taiwan in 2004 and 2005 (Wang and Yang 2006).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for pygmy killer whale in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b).

Further Reading

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Pygmy killer whale – *Feresa attenuata*

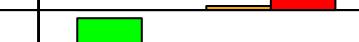
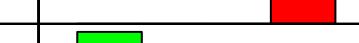
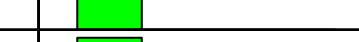
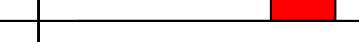
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 0% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Feresa attenuata</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	0.7	
	Habitat Specificity	1.9	0.7	
	Site Fidelity	2.1	0.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.3	0.3	
	Generation Length	2.7	0.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.7	0.3	
	Migration	2.6	0.0	
	Home Range	1.9	0.7	
	Stock Abundance	2.1	0.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	1.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	0.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	0.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	0.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	0.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	0.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.5	0.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	0.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.4	0.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	0.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	0.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	0.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	0.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	0.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.6	0.0	
	Circulation	1.0	0.5	
	Sea level rise	2.4	0.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Pygmy killer whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Feresa attenuata

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (77% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.0), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.0), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.9)

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (2.73) and Migration (2.60).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 0% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The pygmy killer whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pygmy killer whale diet consists of fish and cephalopods, and occasionally other dolphins (Perryman and Foster 1980; Ross and Leatherwood 1994; Elorriaga-Verplancken et al. 2016). Pauly et al. (1998) reported diet composition of 30% small squids, 20% large squids, 10% small pelagic fishes, 20% miscellaneous fishes, and 20% high vertebrates.

Habitat Specificity

In the northern Gulf of Mexico, pygmy killer whales are found in oceanic waters (Davis and Fargion 1996; Davis et al. 2000; Würsig et al. 2000; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding pygmy killer whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding pygmy killer whale reproductive interval was not found in the literature.

Taylor et al. (2007) reported pygmy killer whale age at last reproduction of 32 years (estimated).

Generation Length

Information regarding pygmy killer whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding pygmy killer whale reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding pygmy killer whale migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding pygmy killer whale home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate is not available for pygmy killer whales in the western North Atlantic because it was rarely seen in any surveys (Hayes et al. 2020). The species was most recently sighted during a 1992 survey, in which six pygmy killer whales were sighted in deep waters off of Cape Hatteras, North Carolina (Hansen et al. 1994).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Pygmy killer whales in the western North Atlantic had an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of zero during the period 2013–2017 (Garrison and Stokes 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020). During the same period, 3 pygmy killer whales reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast in Virginia (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited by Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density models were not found for this stock.

Further Reading

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Rice's whale – *Balaenoptera ricei*

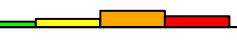
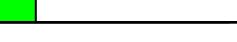
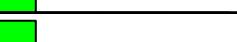
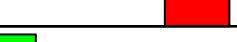
Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High 

Biological Sensitivity = Very High 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 63% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Balaenoptera ricei</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	3.0	1.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.6	1.7	
	Site Fidelity	3.7	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.3	1.7	
	Generation Length	2.3	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.8	0.3	
	Migration	3.8	1.7	
	Home Range	3.7	2.7	
	Stock Abundance	4.0	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	3.6	1.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	3.7	1.7	
	Sensitivity Score	Very High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.7	1.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.1	1.3	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Circulation	2.4	1.3	
	Sea level rise	1.3	2.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High		

Rice's whale (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Balaenoptera ricei

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Very High (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Very High. Six sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.5: Species Abundance (4.00), Migration (3.80), Cumulative Stressors (3.73), Home Range (3.73), Site Fidelity (3.67), and Species Abundance Trend (3.60).

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Very High

Phenology Response: Very High

Data Quality: 63% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 36% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Rice's whale northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico (Rosel and Wilcox 2014; Hayes et al. 2021; Rosel et al. 2021). This stock was previously identified as the Bryde's whale (*Balaenoptera edeni brydei*) northern Gulf of Mexico Stock but was designated as a separate species in 2021 (Rosel et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Rice's whales are thought to feed on schooling fish, and possibly krill, based on studies of the closely related Bryde's whale (Nemoto and Kawamura 1977; Siciliano et al. 2004; Anderson 2005; Kato and Perrin 2018).

Habitat Specificity

In the Gulf of Mexico, Rice's whales are found near the shelf break near De Soto Canyon and the Florida Escarpment, generally between 100 and 400 m depth (Mullin et al. 1994; Davis and Fargion 1996; Jefferson and Schiro 1997; Davis et al. 1998; Davis et al. 2000; LaBrecque et al. 2015; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020). Recently, Rice's whales have been found to occur in similar water depths in the northwestern Gulf along the shelf break offshore of Louisiana (Soldevilla et al. 2022).

Site Fidelity

One satellite-tagged Rice's whale showed strong site fidelity throughout a 33-day tag transmission (Soldevilla et al. 2017). The vast majority of sightings occur within the Biologically Important Area (BIA) bounded by the 100 m and 300 m isobaths in the northeastern Gulf of Mexico from De Soto Canyon to northwest of Tampa Bay, Florida (LaBrecque et al. 2015).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Reproductive information for the Rice's whale was not identified in the literature. However, information from the closely related Bryde's whale, Eden's whale (*Balaenoptera edeni*), and Omura's whale (*Balaenoptera omurai*) was found. Bryde's whales have a two-year reproductive cycle (Kato and Perrin 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 2.5 years for Bryde's whales, Eden's whales, and Omura's whales. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 9 years for Bryde's whales, Eden's whales, and Omura's whales and estimated oldest age at reproduction as 54, 53, and 54 years, respectively, for Bryde's whales, Eden's whales, and Omura's whales, suggesting a reproductive lifespan of 44-45 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) estimated generation length of 18.0 to 18.4 years for the related Bryde's whales based on values reported by Lockyer (1984), the International Whaling Commission (IWC 1997), and Best (1977).

Reproductive Plasticity

Reproductive information for the Rice's whale was not identified in the literature. The related Bryde's whale does not have a well-defined breeding season in most areas.

Migration

Rice's whales exhibit year-round occurrence in the area around De Soto Canyon and part of the Florida Escarpment (Würsig et al. 2000). Rice's whales have been sporadically detected in the western Gulf of Mexico using long-term acoustic monitoring, but there is no obvious migratory pattern or seasonality to the detections (Soldevilla et al. 2022).

Home Range

A satellite-tagged Rice's whale spent the majority of time during a 33 day tag transmission in a 1084 km² area (Soldevilla et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance

Rice's whales abundance in US waters of the Gulf of Mexico is estimated to be 51 individuals (CV=0.50) from 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the stock was estimated at 33 individuals (CV=1.07) from a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Hayes et al. 2018).

Stock Abundance Trend

A trend analysis has not been conducted for this stock. Five point estimates of Rice's whale abundance have been made based on data from line-transect surveys covering 1991–2018. The estimates vary by a maximum factor of nearly three, but the precision of the estimates is poor (Hayes et al. 2018; Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to Rice's whales include habitat destruction, degradation, and modification; oil spills; vessel strikes; and anthropogenic noise (Rosel and Wilcox 2014; Rosel et al. 2016). Rice's whales suffered no reported fishery-related mortality and serious injury during the period 2011–2015 (Hayes et al. 2018), although trawl and longline fisheries operate within the BIA. Three Rice's whales were reported stranded in the Gulf of Mexico during 2009–2013; one due to ship strike (Hayes et al. 2018) and two due to unknown causes. The Rice's whale has likely been exposed to oil and dispersants from the Deepwater Horizon event (DWH MMIQT 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

A review of sightings is presented by Rosel et al. (2021) and a record of acoustic detections is presented by Soldevilla et al. (2022).

Further Reading

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Risso's dolphin – *Grampus griseus*

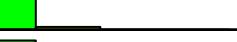
Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Grampus griseus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.9	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	2.4	2.7	
	Site Fidelity	2.4	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.8	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.3	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	2.1	2.0	
	Migration	3.4	2.7	
	Home Range	2.1	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	1.9	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.4	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.6	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.3	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	2.3	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.3	2.3	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.9	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Circulation	1.7	1.7	
	Sea level rise	2.1	2.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Risso's dolphin (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Grampus griseus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (73% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.93), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.93), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.40), Prey/Diet Specificity (2.87), and Cumulative Stressors (2.60).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Risso's dolphin Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pauly et al. (1998) reported global species-level diet composition of 5% benthic invertebrates, 50% small squids, 35% large squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, and 5% miscellaneous fishes. Risso's dolphin diet predominantly consisted of squid in waters off South Africa (Cockcroft et al. 1993) and in the Mediterranean Sea (Blanco et al. 2006).

Habitat Specificity

Risso's dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico are found in oceanic waters and concentrated in waters over the continental slope (Baumgartner 1997; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Jefferson et al. 2014). In the western North Atlantic, Risso's dolphin are found along the continental shelf edge and in deeper oceanic waters, and associated with bathymetric features, Gulf Stream warm-core rings, and the Gulf Stream north wall (Leatherwood et al. 1976; CETAP 1982; Payne et al. 1984; Baird and Stacey 1991; Green et al. 1992; Waring et al. 1992; Baumgartner 1997; Davis et al. 1998; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Kruse et al. 1999; Hamazaki 2002). Risso's dolphin presence in the Pacific has been correlated with SST (Soldevilla et al. 2011; Baumann-Pickering et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

Studies of Risso's dolphin site fidelity in the northern Gulf of Mexico were not found in the literature. However, Risso's dolphins have been found to display seasonal and/or long-term site fidelity elsewhere, such as in waters off Wales (de Boer et al. 2013), in the northwestern Mediterranean (David and DiMéglio 1999; Casacci and Gannier 2000), and in the Azores (Hartman et al. 2015).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Risso's dolphin interbirth interval of 2.4 years based on values reported by Kruse et al. (1999). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 11 years and the oldest reproductive female at 37 years based on values reported by Kruse et al. (1999). Hartman et al. (2016) estimated individuals may live more than 45 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Risso's dolphin generation length of 18.6 years at $r=0.02$ and 19.6 years at $r=0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Risso's dolphin calving appears to peak in the summer in the North Atlantic (Jefferson et al. 1993). Information about breeding location and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Risso's dolphins occur year-round in northern Gulf of Mexico waters and were seen in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

In the Gulf of Mexico, a female Risso's dolphin released after stranding and rehabilitation was tracked throughout the northern Gulf of Mexico to waters as far as Texas, Louisiana, and Bahia de Campeche, Mexico, before returning to southwest Florida (Wells et al. 2008). A rehabilitated adult male Risso's dolphin stranded and released in the Gulf of Mexico off Florida was tracked to waters off Delaware (Wells et al. 2009).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of Risso's dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico is estimated to be 1,974 individuals ($CV=0.46$) based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 2,442 individuals ($CV=0.57$) based on summer 2009 surveys (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of Risso's dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (4,471; $CV=0.47$), 2004 (4,641; $CV=0.86$), 2009 (7,788; $CV=0.67$), 2017 (2,998; $CV=0.52$), and 2018 (632; $CV=0.60$). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and

found statistically significant differences between the 2003 and 2018 estimates and between the 2009 and 2018 estimates (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, the ability to detect a trend is confounded by poor precision and long survey intervals (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Risso's dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico interact with the pelagic longline fishery. During the period 2014–2018, annual fishing-related mortality was estimated to be zero (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the same period, five Risso's dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The Risso's dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Risso's dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017). Sighting records are presented by Jefferson et al. (2014).

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Risso's dolphin – *Grampus griseus*

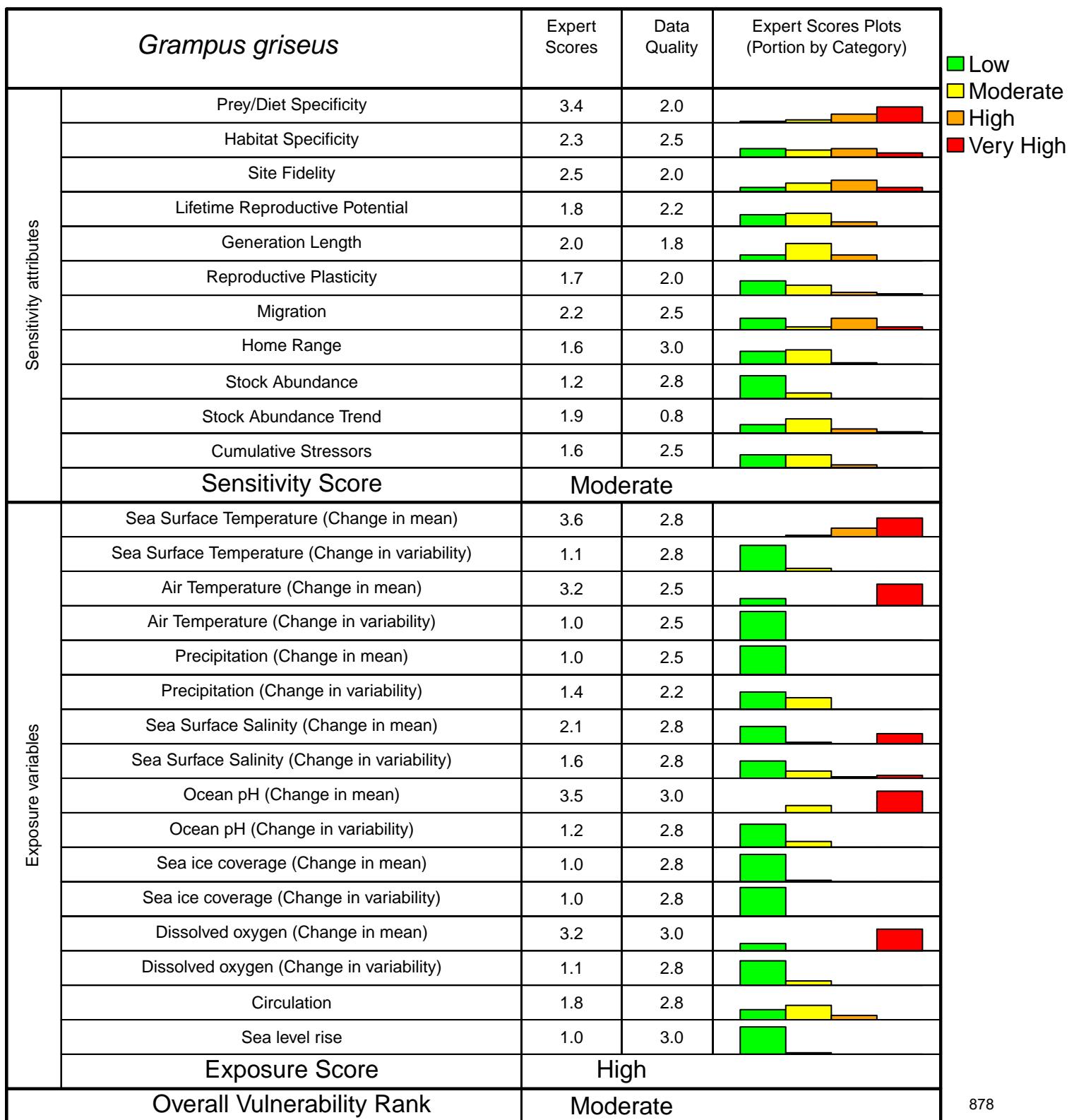
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Risso's dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Grampus griseus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (63% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.50), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.25), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Prey/Diet Specificity (3.35) and Site Fidelity (2.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Descriptions

The Risso's dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pauly et al. (1998) reported global species-level diet composition of 5% benthic invertebrates, 50% small squids, 35% large squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, and 5% miscellaneous fishes. Risso's dolphin diet predominantly consisted of squid in waters off South Africa (Cockroft et al. 1993) and in the Mediterranean Sea (Blanco et al. 2006).

Habitat Specificity

Risso's dolphin in the western North Atlantic are found along the continental shelf edge and in deeper oceanic waters, and associated with bathymetric features, Gulf Stream warm-core rings, and the Gulf Stream north wall (Leatherwood et al. 1976; CETAP 1982; Payne et al. 1984; Baird and Stacey 1991; Green et al. 1992; Waring et al. 1992; Baumgartner 1997; Davis et al. 1998; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Kruse et al. 1999; Hamazaki 2002). Risso's dolphin presence in the Pacific has been correlated with SST (Soldevilla et al. 2011; Baumann-Pickering et al. 2016).

Site Fidelity

Studies of Risso's dolphin site fidelity in the western North Atlantic were not found in the literature. However, Risso's dolphins have been found to display seasonal and/or long-term site fidelity elsewhere, such as in waters off Wales (de Boer et al. 2013), in the northwestern Mediterranean (David and DiMéglio 1999; Casacci and Gannier 2000), and in the Azores (Hartman et al. 2015).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Risso's dolphin interbirth interval of 2.4 years based on values reported by Kruse et al. (1999). Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 11 years and the oldest reproductive female at 37 years based on values reported by Kruse et al. (1999). Hartman et al. (2016) estimated individuals may live more than 45 years.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Risso's dolphin generation length of 18.6 years at $r=0.02$ and 19.6 years at $r=0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Risso's dolphin calving appears to peak in the summer in the North Atlantic (Jefferson et al. 1993). Information about breeding location and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

In the western North Atlantic, Risso's dolphin distribution includes waters from Cape Hatteras to Georges Bank during spring, summer, and autumn and shifts to the mid-Atlantic Bight and oceanic waters in the winter (CETAP 1982; Payne et al. 1984).

Home Range

A rehabilitated adult male Risso's dolphin stranded and released in the Gulf of Mexico off Florida was tracked to waters off Delaware (Wells et al. 2009).

In the Gulf of Mexico, a female Risso's dolphin released after stranding and rehabilitation was tracked throughout the northern Gulf of Mexico to waters as far as Texas, Louisiana, and Bahia de Campeche, Mexico, before returning to southwest Florida (Wells et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The Risso's dolphin in the western North Atlantic is estimated at 35,215 individuals (CV=0.19; Garrison 2020; Palka 2020; Hayes et al. 2022) based on summer 2016 surveys. Previously, the stock abundance estimate was 18,250 individuals (CV = 0.46), based on 2011 surveys (Hayes et al. 2017).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Risso's dolphins in the western North Atlantic may interact with longline, trawl, and gillnet fisheries. During the period 2013–2017, there was an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of 53.9 individuals (Garrison and Stokes 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020; Hatch and Orphanides 2015, 2016; Orphanides 2019, 2020; Lyssikatos et al. 2020). During the same period, 38 Risso's dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Risso's dolphin in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Rough-toothed dolphin – *Steno bredanensis*
 Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Steno bredanensis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	2.0	  
	Habitat Specificity	1.6	2.3	 
	Site Fidelity	1.3	1.7	 
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	1.3	 
	Generation Length	2.2	1.3	 
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	1.3	 
	Migration	2.4	2.0	  
	Home Range	1.6	2.3	 
	Stock Abundance	2.3	2.3	 
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.7	1.7	  
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	2.0	 
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	2.0	3.0	 
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	2.7	  
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.7	  
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Circulation	1.8	3.0	  
	Sea level rise	1.1	3.0	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Rough-toothed dolphin (Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Steno bredanensis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (60% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (4.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Species Abundance Trend (2.73).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 55% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The rough-toothed dolphin Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Rough-toothed dolphin diet consists of cephalopods and fish (Miyazaki and Perrin 1994; Reeves et al. 1999; Würsig et al. 2000; Pitman and Stinchcomb 2002; Gannier and West 2005).

Habitat Specificity

Rough-toothed dolphins are found in oceanic waters and, occasionally, in continental shelf waters (Davis et al. 1998; Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Mullin et al. 2004; Gannier and West 2005; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Leatherwood and Reeves 1983; Miyazaki and Perrin 1994; West et al. 2011). Individuals tagged in the Gulf of Mexico after a mass stranding event used waters with an average depth of 195m and an average SST of 25°C (Wells et al. 1999).

Site Fidelity

Three individuals tagged in the Gulf of Mexico after a mass stranding event remained in the northeastern Gulf of Mexico throughout the duration of transmission (4-112 days; Wells et al. 1999).

Rough-toothed dolphins have shown high site fidelity in the waters of the Canary Islands (Mayr and Ritter 2005), Honduras (Kuczaj and Yeater 2007), Brazil (Lodi et al. 2012), and Hawaii (Baird et al. 2008).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 10 years and age at last reproduction of 32 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Miyazaki (1980) and Miyazaki and Perrin (1994). Mead et al. (2001) reported female rough-toothed dolphin age at sexual maturity between four and six years.

Generation Length

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Rough-toothed dolphins are found in the northern Gulf of Mexico during all seasons (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Three individuals satellite-tagged in the Gulf of Mexico after a mass stranding event remained in the northeastern Gulf of Mexico throughout the duration of transmission (4-112 days; Wells et al. 1999). In the western North Atlantic, satellite-tagging studies following a mass stranding event showed individuals travel along the Gulf Stream off Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina (Wells and Gannon 2005). Other studies have shown individuals moved from the Florida Keys to Cuba and as far as the Lesser Antilles (Wells et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The most recent estimate for the Northern Gulf of Mexico rough-toothed dolphin stock is 3,509 individuals (CV=0.67; Garrison et al. 2020), based on a revision of an abundance estimate from 2009 surveys (624 individuals; CV=0.99; Garrison 2016). No rough-toothed dolphins were sighted during 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Garrison et al. (2020) also revised estimates of rough-toothed dolphin abundance from 2003 (9,253 individuals; CV=0.78), and found no significant differences between the 2003 and 2009 estimates. Trend analysis for this stock is confounded by poor precision, long survey intervals, and difficulty of detection during surveys (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Rough-toothed dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico may interact with longline and hook and line fisheries. During the period 2014–2018, there was an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of 1.0 individuals (CV=1.0; Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b; Hayes et al. 2021). During the same period, six strandings were reported along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

Pollution is a potential source of injury or mortality, particularly along the urbanized U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast. Elevated concentrations of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) have been found in the blubber of rough-toothed dolphins (Struntz et al. 2004). Marine debris may also pose a threat to rough-toothed dolphins (de Meirelles and Barros 2007).

The rough-toothed dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for rough-toothed dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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Rough-toothed dolphin – *Steno bredanensis*

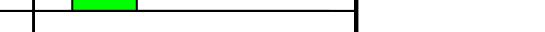
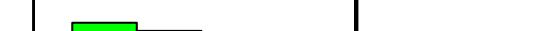
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Moderate 

Data Quality = 52% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Steno bredanensis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.9	1.7	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.7	0.7	
	Generation Length	2.4	0.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	1.0	
	Migration	2.2	0.3	
	Home Range	1.5	1.7	
	Stock Abundance	1.9	1.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	0.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	1.9	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	2.5	2.5	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.5	1.5	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	1.5	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	1.5	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.2	1.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.2	2.5	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.2	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	2.7	2.5	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.5	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	2.7	2.5	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.4	2.5	
	Circulation	1.5	2.5	
	Sea level rise	1.0	2.5	
	Exposure Score	Moderate		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Rough-toothed dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Steno bredanensis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (94% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Moderate. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 2.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (2.7), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (2.7), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.5), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (2.5).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5.

Distributional Response: Very High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 52% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 18% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The rough-toothed dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2019).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Rough-toothed dolphin diet consists of cephalopods and fish (Miyazaki and Perrin 1994; Reeves et al. 1999; Würsig et al. 2000; Pitman and Stinchcomb 2002; Gannier and West 2005).

Habitat Specificity

Rough-toothed dolphins are found in oceanic waters and, occasionally, in continental shelf waters (CETAP 1982; Gannier and West 2005; West et al. 2011). Individuals tagged in the western North Atlantic after a mass stranding event used both shallow and deep waters and also associated with the Gulf Stream (Manire and Wells 2005; Wells and Gannon 2005; Wells et al. 2008). These tagged individuals transited waters ranging from 17° to 31°C, (Manire and Wells 2005; Wells and Gannon 2005; Wells et al. 2008).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin site fidelity in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature. Three individuals tagged in the Gulf of Mexico after a mass stranding event remained in the northeastern Gulf of Mexico throughout the duration of transmission (4-112 days; Wells et al. 1999).

Rough-toothed dolphins have shown high site fidelity in the waters of the Canary Islands (Mayr and Ritter 2005), Honduras (Kuczaj and Yeater 2007), Brazil (Lodi et al. 2012), and Hawaii (Baird et al. 2008).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at first reproduction of 10 years and age at last reproduction of 32 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Miyazaki (1980) and Miyazaki and Perrin (1994). Mead et al. (2001) reported female rough-toothed dolphin age at sexual maturity between four and six years.

Generation Length

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin reproductive season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding rough-toothed dolphin migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

In the western North Atlantic, satellite-tagging studies following a mass stranding event showed individuals travel along the Gulf Stream off Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina (Wells and Gannon 2005). Other studies have shown individuals moved from the Florida Keys to Cuba and as far as the Lesser Antilles (Wells et al. 2008). In the Gulf of Mexico, three individuals satellite-tagged after a mass stranding event remained in the northeastern Gulf of Mexico throughout the duration of transmission (4-112 days; Wells et al. 1999).

Stock Abundance

The best abundance estimate for the western North Atlantic rough-toothed dolphin is 136 individuals (CV=1.00; Hayes et al. 2019), based on summer 2011 and summer 2016 surveys in the waters from central Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Palka 2012; Garrison 2016). The estimate is based on a single sighting during the 2011 survey (Garrison 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2019).

Cumulative Stressors

Rough-toothed dolphins in the western North Atlantic had an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of zero during the period 2012–2016 (Hayes et al. 2019). During the same period, no strandings were reported along the U.S. Atlantic coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2019).

Pollution is a potential source of injury or mortality, particularly along the urbanized U.S. Atlantic coast. Although no studies of the effect of pollutants has been conducted for rough-toothed dolphins in the western North Atlantic, a study from the Gulf of Mexico has shown elevated concentrations of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) in the blubber of rough-toothed dolphins (Struntz et al. 2004). Marine debris may also pose a threat to rough-toothed dolphins (de Meirelles and Barros 2007).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for rough-toothed dolphins in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018).

Further Reading

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Sei whale – *Balaenoptera borealis*

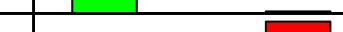
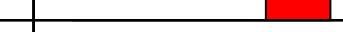
Nova Scotia Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 74% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Balaenoptera borealis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	3.0	3.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.9	2.1	
	Site Fidelity	3.0	1.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.2	1.8	
	Generation Length	2.5	1.8	
	Reproductive Plasticity	3.0	0.8	
	Migration	1.5	1.8	
	Home Range	1.8	1.6	
	Stock Abundance	2.8	2.1	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.1	0.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.4	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.7	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.8	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.2	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	2.0	
	Circulation	2.5	2.7	
	Sea level rise	1.8	3.0	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Sei whale (Nova Scotia Stock)

Balaenoptera borealis

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (51% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.65), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.50).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Five sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Prey/Diet Specificity (3.00), Reproductive Plasticity (2.95), Site Fidelity (2.95), Species Abundance (2.80), and Generation Time (2.55).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: High

Data Quality: 74% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 36% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The sei whale Nova Scotia stock is defined by the International Whaling Commission (IWC) and is bounded by the U.S. east coast to Cape Breton, Nova Scotia to the west, longitude 42°W to the east, and Newfoundland and a line at 46°N between 54°30'W and 42°W to the north (IWC 1978; Donovan 1991; Hayes et al. 2022).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Sei whales in the Northwest Atlantic feed primarily on euphausiids and copepods (Mitchell 1975; Watkins and Schevill 1979; Kenney et al. 1985; Horwood 1987; Schilling et al. 1992; Flinn et al. 2002; Baumgartner and Fratantoni 2008; Baumgartner et al. 2011). Sei whales are capable of using both engulfment and skimming feeding strategies (Prieto et al. 2012). They are known to occasionally consume fish and other prey such as amphipods, decapods, and cephalopods (Budylenko 1978; Horwood 1987; Sigurjónsson and Víkingsson 1997).

Habitat Specificity

During the spring and summer feeding season, sei whales can be found along Georges Bank (CETAP 1982; Palka et al. 2021a, 2021b), in the deeper waters characteristic of the continental shelf edge region (Hain et al. 1985), and off Nova Scotia close to the 2,000-m depth contour (Mitchell 1975). Near-shore influxes have been documented in the Stellwagen Bank National Marine Sanctuary region and adjacent

waters of Massachusetts in some years (Schilling et al. 1992). Sei whales often associate with steep bathymetric relief, such as the continental shelf break, canyons, or basins situated between banks and ledges (Kenney and Winn 1987; Schilling et al. 1992; Gregr and Trites 2001; Best and Lockyer 2002).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding sei whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported sei whale interbirth interval of 1.20 years, age at first reproduction of 8 years, and age at last reproduction of 51 years (estimated) based on values reported by Mizroch et al. (1984) and Best and Lockyer (2002).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported sei whale generation length of 13.7 years at $r=0.08$ and 22.1 years at $r=0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding sei whale breeding season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

Sei whales are hypothesized to move from spring feeding grounds (on or near Georges Bank and the Gulf of Maine) to the Scotian Shelf in June and July, eastward to Newfoundland and the Grand Banks in late summer, return to the Scotian Shelf in fall, and spend winters offshore and to the south (Mitchell 1975; Mitchell and Chapman 1977; Davis et al. 2020).

Home Range

Sei whales were found in shelf and shelf edge waters during spring and summer surveys (CETAP 1982). Satellite tagging studies with individuals in the Labrador Sea have shown sei whales in the North Atlantic have the capability to travel thousands of kilometers (Olsen et al. 2009; Prieto et al. 2014).

Stock Abundance

The average spring 2010–2013 sei whales Nova Scotia stock abundance estimate of 6,292 individuals ($CV=1.015$) is considered the best available (Hayes et al. 2022). This estimate includes the largest proportion of the stock range of the available surveys and has been corrected for sampling bias.

Stock Abundance Trend

Insufficient data exist to calculate a stock abundance trend (Hayes et al. 2022).

Cumulative Stressors

Threats to sei whales in the western North Atlantic include vessel strikes, fisheries interactions (e.g., gear entanglement), and anthropogenic noise. During the period 2014–2018, sei whales suffered an

annual fishery-related mortality and serious injury rate of 0.4 whales per year (Hayes et al. 2022). During the same period, mortality and serious injury to sei whales from vessel strikes occurred at a rate of 0.8 whales per year (Hayes et al. 2022).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for sei whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2016c, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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Sowerby's beaked whale – *Mesoplodon bidens*

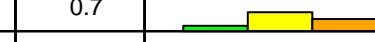
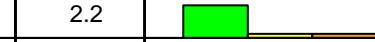
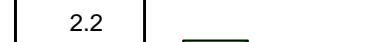
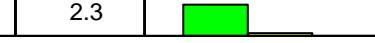
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 37% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Mesoplodon bidens</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.4	1.3	
	Habitat Specificity	2.0	1.5	
	Site Fidelity	2.6	0.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.4	0.7	
	Generation Length	2.4	0.7	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.9	0.3	
	Migration	2.6	0.7	
	Home Range	2.3	0.8	
	Stock Abundance	2.3	1.3	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.5	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	1.5	
Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.2	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.3	2.2	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.5	1.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.2	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	1.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.1	1.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.3	1.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.7	2.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.5	1.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.2	2.2	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.5	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	2.0	
	Circulation	2.0	1.7	
	Sea level rise	1.6	2.3	
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Sowerby's beaked whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Mesoplodon bidens

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (36% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.67), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.50), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.50).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.63) and Site Fidelity (2.63).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 37% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Sowerby's beaked whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Mesopelagic and benthopelagic fish species constitute a significant portion of the Sowerby's beaked whale diet across the North Atlantic (Dix et al. 1986; Santos et al. 1994; Santos et al. 1995; Macleod et al. 2003; Pereira et al. 2011; Spitz et al. 2011; Wenzel et al. 2013). Stomach content analysis of eight Sowerby's beaked whales incidentally caught in the swordfish pelagic drift gillnet fishery in the western North Atlantic showed a diet consisting primarily of mesopelagic and benthopelagic fish in the families Moridae (37.9% of prey), Myctophidae (22.9%), Macrouridae (11.2%), and Phycidae (7.2%; Wenzel et al. 2013). Based on stomach content analysis of stranded Sowerby's beaked whales in the Azores, their diet consisted primarily of mesopelagic fishes (Pereira et al. 2011). Similar results were found with stranded Sowerby's beaked whales in the Bay of Biscay, though crabs (*Polybius* spp.) also represented about a third of the diet (Spitz et al. 2011).

Habitat Specificity

Sowerby's beaked whale tends to have a more northern distribution compared to other beaked whales (MacLeod 2000). Beaked whales off the eastern U.S. are found along the Gulf Stream and its associated warm-core rings, and the continental shelf break (Waring et al. 1992; Waring et al. 2001). Beaked whales south of Georges Bank were found in waters with a mean SST of 20.7° to 24.9°C and 500 to 2,000m depth (Waring et al. 2003).

Beaked whales in general inhabit continental slope and deep oceanic waters (>200 m) (Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ward et al. 2005; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Pitman 2018).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding individual Sowerby's beaked whale site fidelity was not found in the literature; however, passive acoustic monitoring has shown that Sowerby's beaked whales inhabit the Gully off Nova Scotia year-round (Stanistreet et al. 2017).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding Sowerby's beaked whale reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) reported age at last reproduction of 41 years.

Generation Length

Information regarding Sowerby's beaked whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding Sowerby's beaked whale breeding season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

No information specifically describing Sowerby's beaked whale migratory behavior was found in the literature; however, passive acoustic monitoring has shown that Sowerby's beaked whales inhabit the Gully off Nova Scotia year-round (Stanistreet et al. 2017).

Home Range

Information regarding individual Sowerby's beaked whale home range was not found in the literature. Beaked whales in general inhabit continental slope and deep oceanic waters (Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ward et al. 2005; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Stanistreet et al. 2017; Pitman 2018).

Stock Abundance

Sowerby's beaked whale abundance has not been estimated due to difficulty differentiating beaked whales to the species level in shipboard and aerial surveys. The abundance of *Mesoplodon sp.* beaked

whales in the western North Atlantic is estimated to be 10,107 individuals (CV=0.27) based on 2016 surveys (Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020). However, Whitehead (2013) noted an increase in Sowerby's beaked whale sightings in Scotian Shelf waters between 1988 and 2011.

Cumulative Stressors

Sowerby's beaked whales in the western North Atlantic had an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of zero during the period 2013–2017 (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, three Sowerby's beaked whales stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Beaked whales generally are considered sensitive to anthropogenic noise, with multiple events worldwide resulting in injury, mortality, or mass stranding (D'Amico et al. 2009; Filadelfo et al. 2009; Frantzis 1998).

Distribution and Sightings

Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b) modeled the density of Sowerby's beaked whales. Density model results for all beaked whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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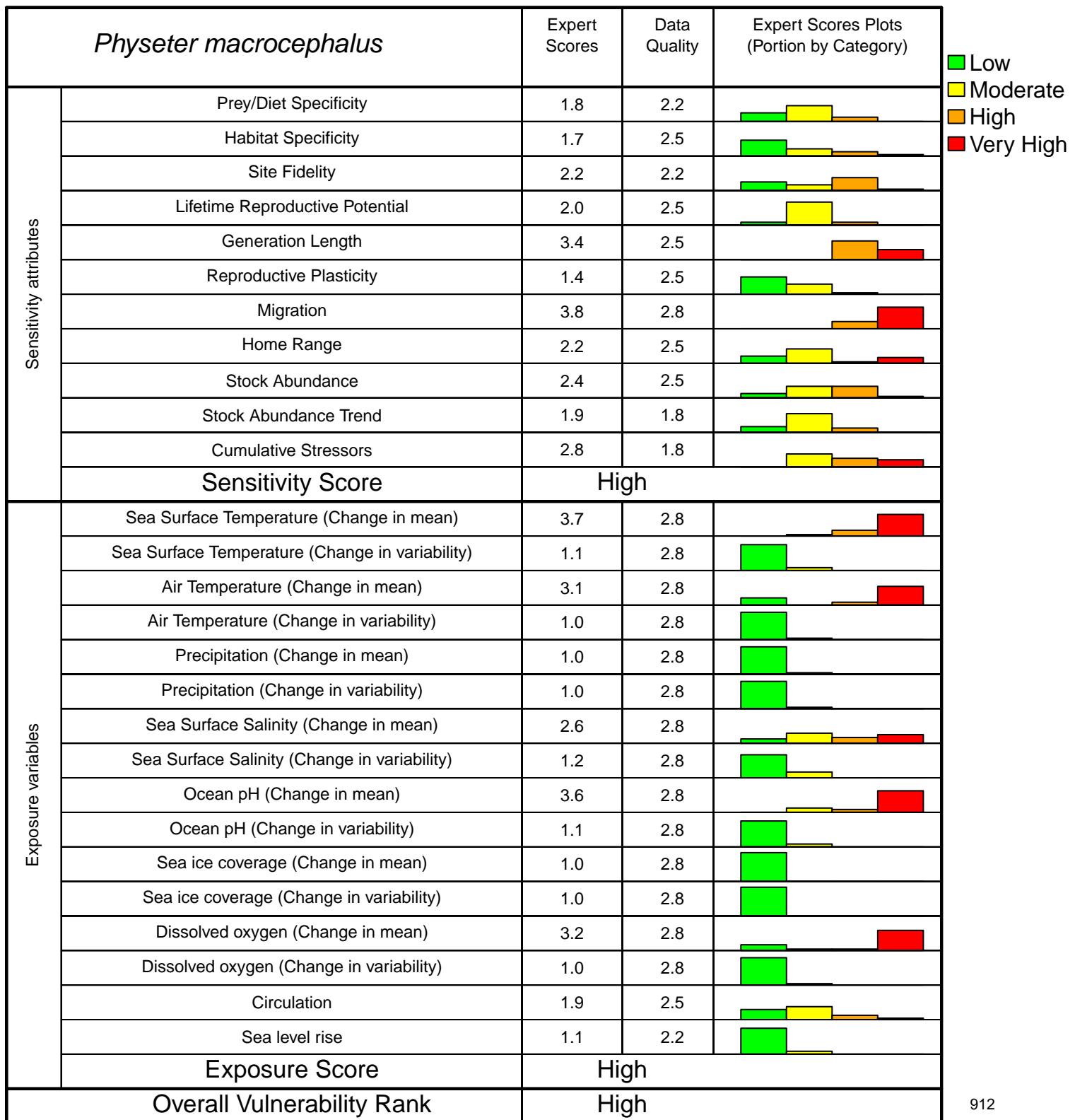
Sperm whale – *Physeter macrocephalus*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2



Sperm whale (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Physeter macrocephalus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (75% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.70), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.60), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25), and Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.15).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.75) and Generation Time (3.35).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 82% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The sperm whale Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Sperm whales consume diverse prey, such as large squid and other cephalopods (Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Gonatidae, Pholidoteuthidae, Octopoteuthidae, Histioteuthidae, and Cranchiidae), demersal fish, and benthic invertebrates (Fiscus and Rice 1974; Kawakami 1980; Clarke 1987; Rice 1989; Clarke 1996).

Habitat Specificity

Generally, sperm whales show a strong preference for deep waters associated with the continental shelf break, the continental slope, and deeper waters (Hain et al. 1985; Rice 1989; Whitehead 2003).

Sperm whales in the Gulf of Mexico show a strong preference for the waters near the continental slope, canyons, and offshore in deeper waters, or near cyclonic (cold-core) eddies (Biggs et al. 2000; Davis et al. 2000; Davis et al. 2002; Biggs et al. 2005; Jochens et al. 2006).

Site Fidelity

Based on photo-identification of sperm whale flukes and acoustic analyses, some sperm whales are likely resident to the Gulf of Mexico (Weller et al. 2000; Jochens et al. 2006). Jochens et al. (2006) noted that some individuals remain within the Mississippi River Delta and Mississippi Canyon for several months.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Estimates of interbirth interval range from 4 to 7 years (Best et al. 1984; Taylor et al. 2007; Chiquet et al. 2013).

Females reach sexual maturity at about age 9 (Best et al. 1984). Taylor et al. (2007) reported sperm whale age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 59 years (observed) and 51 years (estimated). Sperm whale reproductive rates decline with age (Whitehead 2018).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) report generation length of 26.5 years at $r=0.03$ and 31.9 years at $r=0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Mating behavior is observed from winter through summer, with calving during spring through fall (Best 1984). Sperm whale calves continue suckling for several years (Whitehead 2018).

The Mississippi River Delta region appears to be an important calving and nursery area for sperm whales (Townsend 1935; Collum and Fritts 1985; Mullin et al. 1994; Weller et al. 2000; Würsig et al. 2000; Baumgartner et al. 2001; Davis et al. 2002; Mullin et al. 2004; Jochens et al. 2006).

Migration

Sperm whales are present in the northern Gulf of Mexico in all seasons (Mullin et al. 1994; Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000; Mullin et al. 2004), with another consistent aggregation in the southeastern Gulf of Mexico (Mullin and Fulling 2004). No discernable seasonal migrations were made by satellite-tagged sperm whales in the northern Gulf, but Gulf-wide movements along the northern Gulf slope were observed (Hayes et al. 2021). A seasonal variation in occurrence has been noted, though it may be an artifact of survey effort (DoN 2007):

- Winter: patchy occurrence, with all sighting records located in deep water
- Spring: most spatially-extensive occurrence throughout the Gulf of Mexico
- Summer: occurrence in the deepest Gulf waters west of the De Soto Canyon
- Fall: patchy occurrence in waters seaward of the shelf break

Home Range

Sperm whales occur throughout the oceanic Gulf of Mexico (Jefferson and Schiro 1997; Ortega Ortiz 2002; Jefferson et al. 2008). Satellite tag tracks show sperm whales exhibit a range of movement patterns within the Gulf (Waring et al. 2015). Based on photo-identification of sperm whale flukes and acoustic analyses, some sperm whales are likely resident in the Gulf of Mexico (Weller et al. 2000;

Jochens et al. 2006). Females generally travel up to 2000 km but have been recorded up to 4000 km (Whitehead et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The northern Gulf of Mexico sperm whale abundance is estimated to be 1,180 individuals ($CV=0.22$) based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020; Hayes et al. 2021). Previously, the abundance was estimated to be 763 individuals ($CV=0.38$) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2016).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of sperm whale abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (2,542 individuals; $CV=0.34$), 2004 (1,686 individuals; $CV=0.41$), 2009 (2,096 individuals; $CV=0.55$), 2017 (1,078 individuals; $CV=0.29$), and 2018 (1,307 individuals; $CV=0.33$). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Sperm whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico may interact with longline fisheries. Fishery-related mortality and serious injury for sperm whales in the northern Gulf of Mexico was 0.2 individuals ($CV=1.00$) during the period 2014–2018 (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). Seven sperm whale strandings were reported in the northern Gulf of Mexico during the period 2014–2018 (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The sperm whale stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME) was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico beginning 1 February 2010 that included 5 sperm whales that stranded prior to, during, and after the Deepwater Horizon oil spill (Litz et al. 2014). Ship strikes are another source of human-caused mortality, however no mortalities have been reported in recent years for the Northern Gulf of Mexico stock.

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for sperm whales in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Sperm whale – *Physeter macrocephalus*

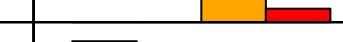
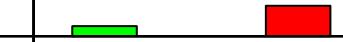
North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 96% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.6	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.5	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	2.0	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.1	2.3	
	Generation Length	3.3	2.3	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.3	
	Migration	3.1	2.3	
	Home Range	1.4	2.3	
	Stock Abundance	1.6	2.7	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	2.0	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.1	1.7	
	Sensitivity Score	High		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	2.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.9	2.8	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.0	2.8	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.2	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.9	2.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.1	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.5	2.8	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.2	2.8	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.2	2.8	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	2.8	
	Circulation	1.4	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.2	2.5	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

Sperm whale (North Atlantic Stock)

Physeter macrocephalus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (81% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.55), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.25).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Generation Time (3.33) and Migration (3.13).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 96% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 91% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The North Atlantic sperm whale stock includes individuals found in the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone from Florida to Maine and waters further offshore. Low genetic diversity is seen between the northwest and northeast Atlantic (Lyrholm and Gyllensten 1998; Lyrholm et al. 1999; Englehardt et al. 2009) and genetic studies suggest differentiation between the North Atlantic stock and the Gulf of Mexico stock (Englehardt et al. 2009). The North Atlantic stock is considered separate from the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock for management purposes (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Sperm whales consume diverse prey, such as large squid and other cephalopods (Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Gonatidae, Pholidoteuthidae, Octopoteuthidae, Histiopteuthidae, and Cranchiidae), demersal fish, and benthic invertebrates (Fiscus and Rice 1974; Kawakami 1980; Clarke 1987; Rice 1989; Clarke 1996).

Habitat Specificity

Generally, sperm whales show a strong preference for deep waters associated with the continental shelf break, the continental slope, and deeper waters (Hain et al. 1985; Rice 1989; Whitehead 2003).

Off the eastern U.S., sperm whales are found along the continental shelf edge, over the continental slope, and into mid-ocean regions where there are pronounced horizontal temperature gradients such

as the Gulf Stream edge and warm-core rings (Schmidly 1981; Waring et al. 1993; Jaquet et al. 1996; Griffin 1999; Waring et al. 2001). Waring et al. (2003) found sperm whales south of Georges Bank associated with waters characterized by sea surface temperatures of 23.2 to 24.9°C and depths of 325–2,300 m. However, in waters off New England and the Scotian Shelf, sperm whales have been reported in shallower waters (CETAP 1982; Whitehead et al. 1992; Scott and Sadove 1997).

Site Fidelity

Little differentiation of mtDNA samples within ocean basins but significant differentiation between basins suggests sperm whales exhibit site fidelity at the basin-scale (Lyrholm and Gyllensten 1998; Lyrholm et al. 1999; Englehaupt et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Estimates of interbirth interval range from 4 to 7 years (Best et al. 1984; Taylor et al. 2007; Chiquet et al. 2013).

Females reach sexual maturity at about age 9 (Best et al. 1984). Taylor et al. (2007) reported sperm whale age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 59 years (observed) and 51 years (estimated). Sperm whale reproductive rates decline with age (Whitehead 2018).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 26.5 years at $r=0.03$ and 31.9 years at $r=0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Mating behavior is observed from winter through summer, with calving during spring through fall (Best et al. 1984). Sperm whales continue suckling for several years (Whitehead 2018).

Migration

Sperm whale migrations appear to be a general seasonal north-south migration in mid-latitudes, with poleward summer movement (Whitehead 2003). Equatorial and some temperate areas show no clear seasonal migration (Whitehead 2003). In the North Atlantic, adult males migrate as far as polar regions to feed and move among female social groups to breed (Whitehead 2002; Englehaupt et al. 2009).

Sperm whales in the U.S. Atlantic EEZ waters show a distinct seasonal cycle (CETAP 1982):

- Winter: east and northeast of Cape Hatteras
- Spring: east of Delaware and Virginia; widespread throughout the central portion of the mid-Atlantic bight and the southern portion of Georges Bank
- Summer: similar distribution as spring, but includes east and north of Georges Bank, into the Northeast Channel region, and the continental shelf south of New England
- Fall: continental shelf south of New England and in the mid-Atlantic bight

Geographic distribution and migration appear linked to social structure (Best 1979; Whitehead et al. 1992; Christal et al. 1998). Females and juveniles generally are found in tropical and subtropical waters,

and males more wide-ranging and occurring in higher latitudes (Reeves and Whitehead 1997; Whitehead 2002).

Home Range

The distribution of the sperm whale in the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone includes the continental shelf edge, the continental slope, and mid-ocean regions (Waring et al. 2013). Sperm whales are capable of traveling long distances, with males traveling as far poleward as pack ice (Rice 1989; Rice 1998). Females generally travel up to 2000 km but have been recorded up to 4000 km (Whitehead et al. 2008). In the North Atlantic, one male traveled from Nova Scotia to Spain (Mitchell 1975) and others from the Azores to northern Denmark and Norway (Reeves and Whitehead 1997; Steiner et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance

Using data from 2016 surveys, the abundance of sperm whales in U.S. waters from Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy was estimated at 4,349 individuals ($CV=0.28$; Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). Estimates based on 2011 surveys placed the stock abundance at 2,288 individuals ($CV=0.28$), but did not correct for dive-time and likely represented an underestimate of actual abundance (Palka 2012; Waring et al. 2013). U.S. waters include only a small proportion of the total population range; Rice (1989) summarized information available at the time to estimate the abundance of sperm whales in the North Atlantic at 190,000 individuals.

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to determine an abundance trend for the North Atlantic stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Sperm whales in the North Atlantic are recorded interacting with the Canadian Labrador halibut longline fishery (two mortalities 2007–2011) and the monkfish fishery (one entanglement in 2011; Ledwell and Huntington 2012; Waring et al. 2013). Ship strikes are another source of human-caused mortality (Reeves and Whitehead 1997; Carrillo and Ritter 2010).

During the period 2013–2017, 12 sperm whales were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast and none of the U.S. strandings were classified as human interactions (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020). Sperm whale mass strandings have been reported in several regions (Rice et al. 1986; Kompanje and Reumer 1995; Evans et al. 2002; Fujiwara et al. 2007; Pierce et al. 2007; Mazzariol et al. 2011) with possible causes including topography, changes in geomagnetic field, solar cycles, ship strikes, global changes in water temperature and prey distribution, and pollution (Kirschvink et al. 1986; Brabyn and Frew 1994; Holsbeek et al. 1999; Mazzariol et al. 2011).

Historically, whaling impacted sperm whale populations throughout the North Atlantic (Mitchell and Kozicki 1984).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for sperm whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

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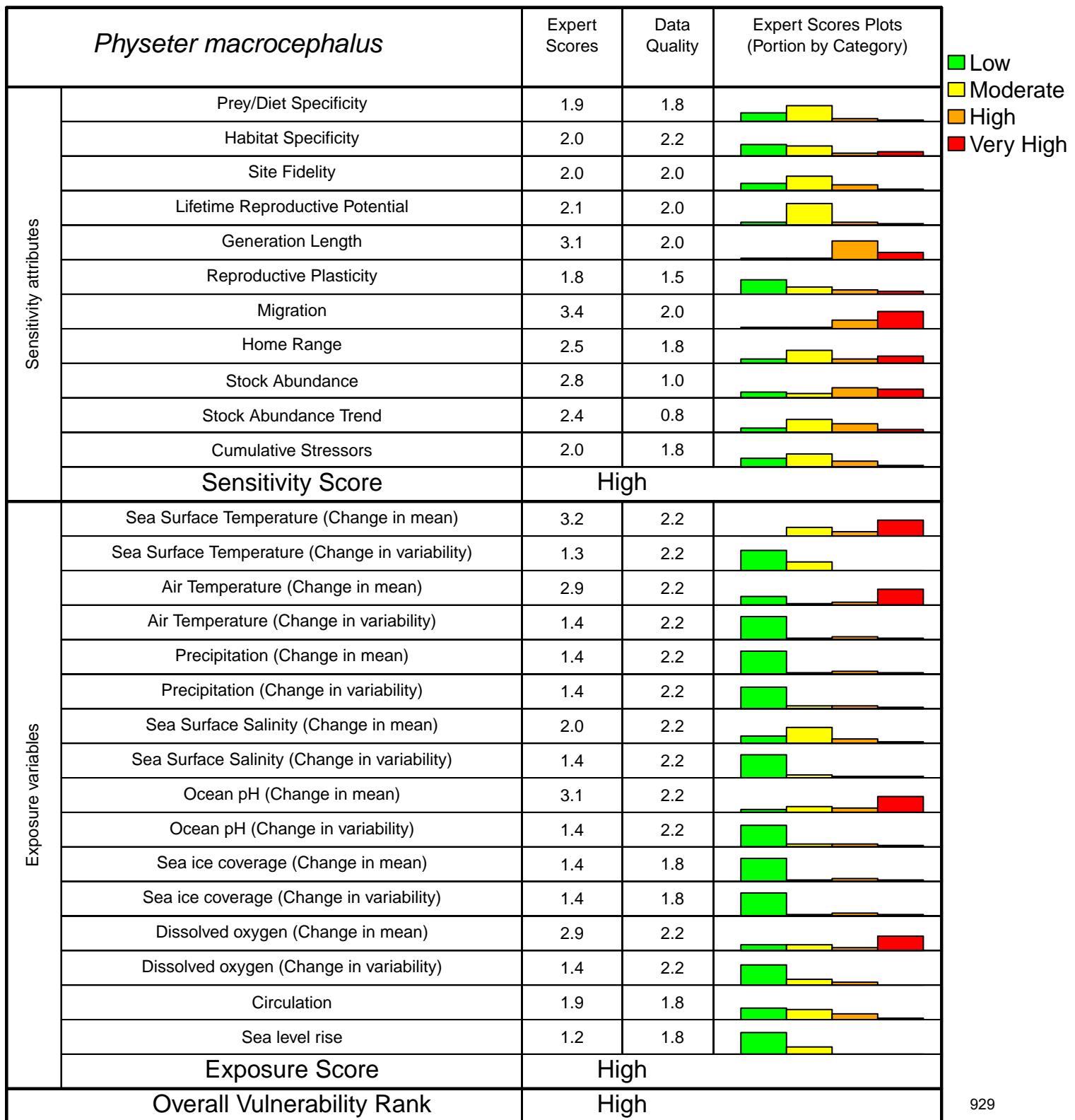
Sperm Whale – *Physeter macrocephalus*
 Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = High 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 63% of scores ≥ 2



Sperm Whale (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Physeter macrocephalus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (74% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Two exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.25) and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.15).

Biological Sensitivity: High. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 3.0: Migration (3.45) and Generation Time (3.10).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 63% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 45% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands sperm whale stock includes individuals found in the U.S waters around Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands and surrounding Caribbean waters (Waring et al. 2010).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Sperm whales consume diverse prey, such as large squid and other cephalopods (Ommastrephidae, Onychoteuthidae, Gonatidae, Pholidoteuthidae, Octopoteuthidae, Histiotuteuthidae, and Cranchiidae), demersal fish, and benthic invertebrates (Fiscus and Rice 1974; Kawakami 1980; Clarke 1987; Rice 1989; Clarke 1996).

Habitat Specificity

Generally, sperm whales show a strong preference for deep waters associated with the continental shelf break, the continental slope, and deeper waters (Hain et al. 1985; Rice 1989; Whitehead 2003).

Off the eastern U.S., sperm whales are found in on the continental shelf edge, over the continental slope, and into mid-ocean regions where there are pronounced horizontal temperature gradients such as the Gulf Stream edge and warm-core rings (Schmidly 1981; Waring et al. 1993; Jaquet et al. 1996; Griffin 1999; Waring et al. 2001). Sperm whales are believed to inhabit continental slope and oceanic waters in the waters surrounding Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Roden and Mullin 2000; Swartz and Burks 2000; Swartz et al. 2002).

Site Fidelity

Little differentiation of mtDNA samples within ocean basins but significant differentiation between basins suggests sperm whales exhibit site fidelity at the basin-scale (Lyrholm and Gyllensten 1998; Lyrholm et al. 1999; Englehardt et al. 2009).

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Estimates of interbirth interval range from 4 to 7 years (Best et al. 1984; Taylor et al. 2007; Chiquet et al. 2013).

Females reach sexual maturity at about age 9 (Best et al. 1984) and their reproductive rate declines with age (Whitehead 2018). Taylor et al. (2007) reported sperm whale age at first reproduction of 12 years and age at last reproduction of 59 years (observed) and 51 years (estimated).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 26.5 years at $r = 0.03$ and 31.9 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Mating behavior is observed from winter through summer, with calving during spring through fall (Best et al. 1984). Sperm whales continue suckling for several years (Whitehead 2018).

Migration

Sperm whales occur in waters of Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands and British Virgin Islands from late fall through winter and early spring but are rare from April to September (Erdman 1970; Erdman et al. 1973; Taruski and Winn 1976; Mignucci-Giannoni 1988). However, movement between the adjacent areas of the Caribbean Sea, Gulf of Mexico, and Atlantic may be uncommon (Gero et al. 2007).

Home Range

Sperm whales of the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock are likely trans-boundary with waters near adjacent Caribbean islands (Gero et al. 2007; Waring et al. 2010). Female home ranges generally span 2000 km but have been recorded up to 4000km (Whitehead et al. 2008).

Stock Abundance

The current abundance for the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock of sperm whales is unknown. Several line-transect surveys have been conducted in this area, however, due to few sightings and limitations of the survey vessel, it has not been possible to estimate abundance from these surveys (Waring et al. 2010).

During January–March 1995, a line-transect survey designed to cover a wide range of water depths surrounding the Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico was conducted, primarily in waters >200m deep, that sighted eight sperm whales, six of which were in or near U.S. waters (Roden and Mullin 2000; Waring et al. 2010). During February–March 2000, a line-transect survey in the eastern and southern Caribbean Sea sighted eight of sperm whales in and near U.S. waters (Swartz and Burks 2000; Waring et al. 2010).

During February-March 2001, a line-transect survey in the eastern Bahamas, eastern Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands was conducted and sighted five sperm whales in and near U.S. waters (Swartz et al. 2002; Waring et al. 2010).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for the Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands stock (Waring et al. 2010).

Cumulative Stressors

Although no fishing-related mortality or serious injury of a sperm whale was reported during the period 2001-2015 in the waters of Puerto Rico or the U.S. Virgin Islands (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017), the Atlantic Ocean, Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico large pelagics longline fishery represents a potential fishery interaction. Lack of observer coverage within the Caribbean may contribute to an undercounting of interactions (Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010, 2012b, 2013, 2016).

Two sperm whales were found stranded in U.S. waters of the Caribbean Sea during the period 2004–2008 with no evidence of human interactions (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited by Waring et al. 2010). Ship strikes are another source of human-caused mortality, with one documented mortality due to a vessel strike in 2001 (Jensen and Silber 2003). Coastal pollution may be an issue for the Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands sperm whale stock due to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency listing portions of Vieques Island on the Superfund National Priorities List (EPA 2018).

Historically, whaling in the Caribbean Sea affected sperm whales in the waters surrounding Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Price 1985; Reeves et al. 2001).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for sperm whales in Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands waters are presented by Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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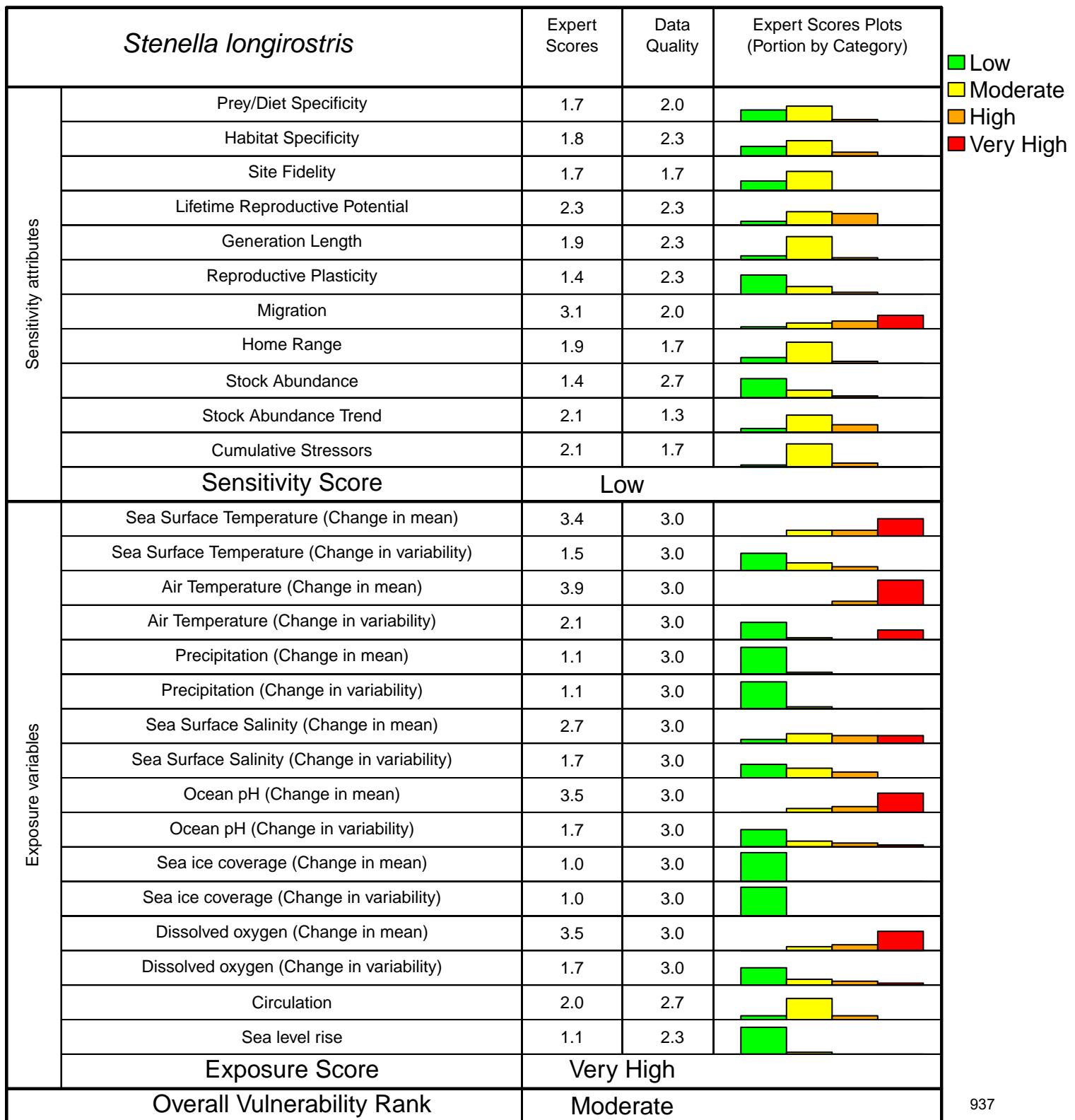
Spinner dolphin – *Stenella longirostris*
 Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2



Spinner dolphin (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Stenella longirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (50% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.53), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.13).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The spinner dolphin Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Spinner dolphins feed primarily on small mesopelagic fishes, squids, and sergestid shrimps, following both vertical and horizontal diel prey migrations (Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994; Benoit-Bird et al. 2001; Benoit-Bird and Au 2003; Benoit-Bird and Au 2004). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 20% small squids, 20% large squids, 40% mesopelagic fishes, and 20% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

Spinner dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico occur in oceanic and continental slope waters, generally east of the Mississippi River Delta along the Florida Escarpment (Davis et al. 1998; Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006; Schick et al. 2011; Waring et al. 2013; Garrison and Aichinger Dias 2020).

Worldwide, the majority of spinner dolphin sightings occur in continental shelf waters (Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998), though sightings occasionally occur in waters deeper than 800m (Jefferson and Lynn 1994; Swartz and Burks 2000; Swartz et al. 2002; Yoshida et al. 2010). Coastal

populations are usually associated with island archipelagos (Norris and Dohl 1980; Poole 1995). Oceanic populations are often found associated with a shallow thermocline (Au and Perryman 1985; Reilly 1990; Reeves et al. 1999). Moreno et al. (2005) reported that in the Southwest Atlantic, spinner dolphins were found in waters over the outer continental shelf and beyond the continental slope in waters from 170 to 2,700 m deep, with an average SST ranging from 22 to 27.5°C.

Site Fidelity

Information regarding spinner dolphin site fidelity in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 3.00 years based on values reported by Perrin and Gilpatrick (1994). Taylor et al. (2007) reported spinner dolphin age at first reproduction of 7 years and age at last reproduction of 26 years (observed) and 30 years (estimated) based on values reported by Miyazaki (1984). Sexual maturity occurs at an age of 4 to 7 years for females and 7 to 10 years for males (Jefferson et al. 2015).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) report generation length of 13.3 years at $r = 0.01$ and 13.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving peaks range from late spring to fall (Jefferson et al. 1993). An analysis of a mass stranding in west Florida suggested calving dates in mid-June and mid-May (Mead et al. 1980).

Migration

Spinner dolphins are seen in all seasons in the northern Gulf of Mexico (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000; Mullin and Fulling 2004). During winter and spring, they occur seaward of the shelf break including waters over the continental slope, primarily east of the Mississippi River, although also in the Mississippi Canyon region (DoN 2007). During summer and fall, spinner dolphins may occur in the deeper waters of the north-central Gulf from the Mississippi Canyon to the Florida Panhandle (DoN 2007).

Home Range

Information regarding spinner dolphin home range in the Gulf of Mexico was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of northern Gulf of Mexico spinner dolphins is estimated to be 2,991 individuals ($CV=0.54$) based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 11,441 individuals ($CV=0.83$) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2013).

Stock Abundance Trend

Five point estimates of spinner dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (5,160; CV=0.55), 2004 (24,535; CV=0.58), 2009 (19,678; CV=0.53), 2017 (5,982; CV=0.54), and 2018 (0). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). The ability to detect an abundance trend for this stock is confounded by poor precision and long survey intervals (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Spinner dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico interact with the pelagic longline fishery. During the period 2014–2018, annual fishing-related mortality was estimated to be zero (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the same period, 13 spinner dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The spinner dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins but also including 12 spinner dolphin strandings, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for spinner dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

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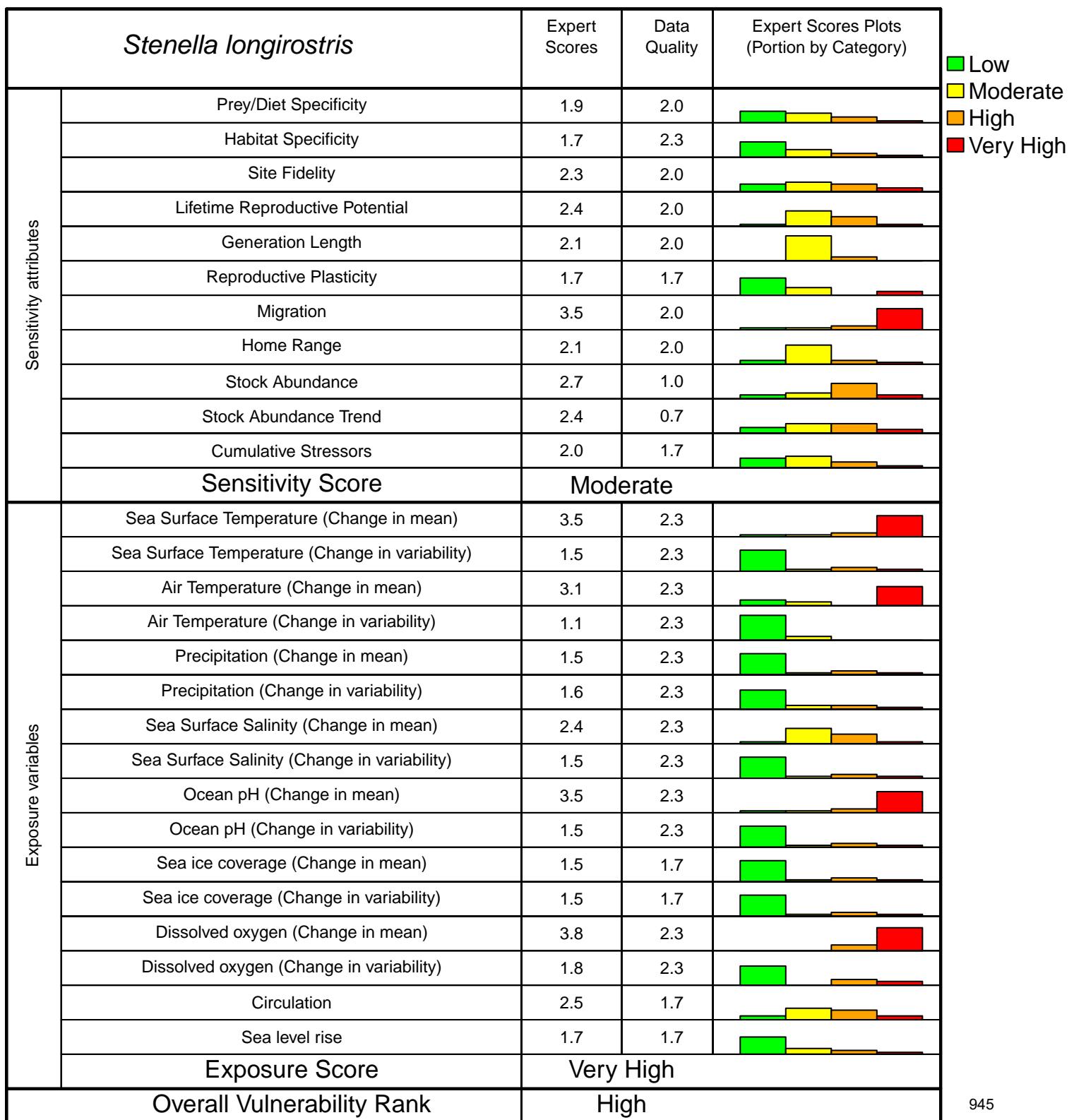
Spinner dolphin – *Stenella longirostris*
 Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 70% of scores ≥ 2



Spinner dolphin (Puerto Rico and US Virgin Islands Stock)

Stenella longirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (39% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.80), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.53), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.53) and Species Abundance (2.67).

Distributional Response: Moderate

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 70% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands spinner dolphin stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone surrounding Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, and in adjacent Caribbean waters (Waring et al. 2012). This stock is considered separate from the western North Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico stocks for management purposes (Waring et al. 2012).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Spinner dolphins feed primarily on small mesopelagic fishes, squids, and sergestid shrimps and are known to follow both vertical and horizontal diel prey migrations in some regions (Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994; Benoit-Bird et al. 2001; Benoit-Bird and Au 2003; Benoit-Bird and Au 2004). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 20% small squids, 20% large squids, 40% mesopelagic fishes, 20% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

Spinner dolphins occur in coastal and oceanic waters. Off Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, spinner dolphins occur offshore but are more often sighted in continental shelf waters (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2018). In the Gulf of Mexico and off the eastern U.S., spinner dolphins are generally distributed in offshore waters (CETAP 1982; Davis et al. 1998; Waring et al. 1992).

Site Fidelity

No specific site fidelity information was found for this stock.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported an interbirth interval of 3.00 years based on values reported by Perrin and Gilpatrick (1994). Taylor et al. (2007) reported spinner dolphin age at first reproduction of 7 years and age at last reproduction of 26 years (observed) and 30 years (estimated) based on values reported by Miyazaki (1984). Sexual maturity occurs at an age of 4 to 7 years for females and 7 to 10 years for males (Jefferson et al. 2015).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported a generation length of 13.3 years at $r = 0.01$ and 13.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving peaks range from late spring to fall (Jefferson et al. 2015). An analysis of a mass stranding in west Florida suggested calving dates in mid-June and mid-May (Mead et al. 1980).

Migration

Off Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, spinner dolphins occur year round and seasonal inshore-offshore movement is suspected (Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Rodriguez-Ferrer et al. 2018).

Home Range

Spinner dolphins have been reported for various locations in the Caribbean, such as Bequia, the Grenadines, Tobago, St. Vincent, Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Guadeloupe, Dominica, Curacao, and Martinique (Caldwell et al. 1971; Mignucci-Giannoni 1989; Perrin et al. 1981; Jefferson and Lynn 1994; Mignucci-Giannoni 1998; Jérémie 2005; Rinaldi et al. 2006; Whitt et al. 2011).

Stock Abundance

An abundance estimate for this stock is unavailable due to few sightings during surveys (Swartz et al. 2002; Waring et al. 2012).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to determine the population trends for this stock (Waring et al. 2012).

Cumulative Stressors

Spinner dolphins in the waters off Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands interact with pelagic longline fisheries. However, annual fishing-related mortality is unknown due to low levels of observer coverage (Garrison 2003; Garrison and Richards 2004; Garrison 2005; Fairfield Walsh and Garrison 2006; Fairfield-Walsh and Garrison 2007; Fairfield and Garrison 2008; Garrison et al. 2009; Garrison and Stokes 2010).

Although no longer present in U.S. waters, dolphin fisheries continue to exist elsewhere in the Caribbean (e.g., Caldwell et al. 1971; Caldwell and Caldwell 1975; Price 1985; Reeves 1988; Romero et al. 2001; Hoyt and Hvenegaard 2002; Mohammed et al. 2003; Vail 2005; World Council of Whalers 2008) and also in Venezuela (Romero et al. 2001). Live-capture fisheries for use in captivity exist or have existed recently in the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Cuba, and Honduras (van Waerebeek et al. 2006; Espinosa and Orta 2007; Parsons et al. 2010; Waring et al. 2012).

Legacy impacts on spinner dolphins from naval operations at Roosevelt Roads in Puerto Rico that ceased in 2004 are unknown (Waring et al. 2012).

Coastal pollution may be an issue for the common bottlenose dolphin Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands stock. Parts of Vieques Island, Puerto Rico are listed on the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Superfund National Priorities List due to unexploded ordnance and associated hazardous materials (Whitall et al. 2016; EPA 2018).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for spinner dolphins in Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands waters are presented by Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Stenella sp. – *Stenella* sp.

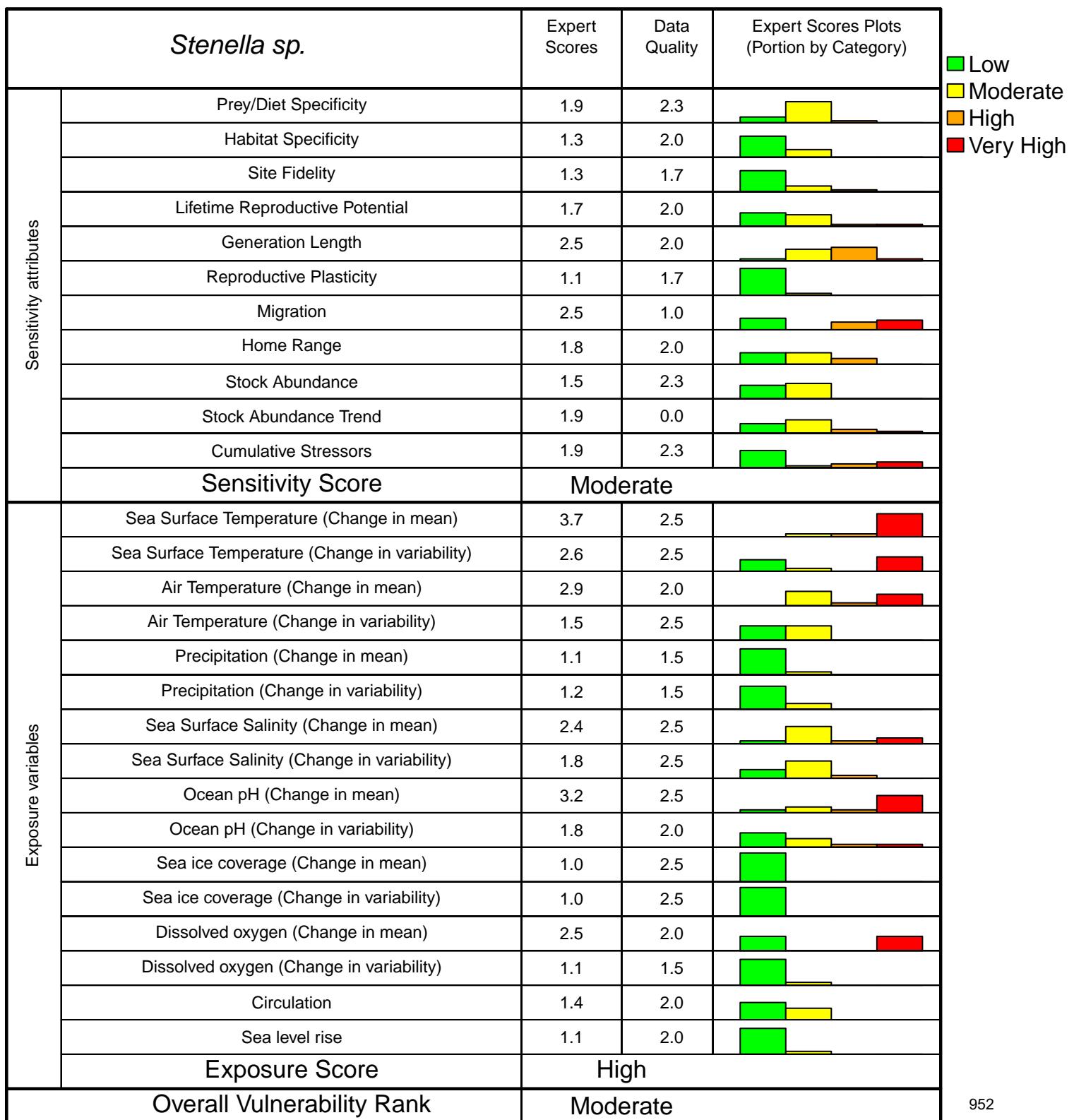
Western North Atlantic Stock Group

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 74% of scores ≥ 2



***Stenella* sp. (Western North Atlantic Stock Group)**

Stenella clymene; *Stenella attenuata*; *Stenella longirostris*

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (34% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Two exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.7) and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.2).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Two sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Generation Time (2.53) and Migration (2.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 74% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The *Stenella* sp. group in the Western North Atlantic includes Clymene dolphins (*Stenella clymene*), pantropical spotted dolphins (*Stenella attenuata*), and spinner dolphins (*Stenella longirostris*) that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020). Atlantic spotted dolphins (*Stenella frontalis*) and striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*) in the western North Atlantic are considered separately in this assessment.

Prey/Diet Specificity

Based on stomach content analysis of two individuals and one observation of feeding free-ranging dolphins, Clymene dolphins feed on small pelagic fish and squid (Perrin et al. 1981; Fertl et al. 1997).

Pantropical spotted dolphins consume a wide variety of prey that includes epipelagic fish, squid, and crustaceans (Perrin and Hohn 1994). Pauly et al. (1998) report diet composition of 30% small squids, 20% large squids, 10% small pelagic fishes, and 40% miscellaneous fishes. Studies in the Eastern Tropical Pacific and Hawaii suggest that pantropical spotted dolphins feed primarily at night on epipelagic species and species associated with the deep scattering layer (Robertson and Chivers 1997; Scott and Cattanach 1998; Baird et al. 2001).

Spinner dolphins feed primarily on small mesopelagic fishes, squids, and sergestid shrimps, following both vertical and horizontal diel prey migrations (Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994; Benoit-Bird et al. 2001; Benoit-Bird and Au 2003; Benoit-Bird and Au 2004). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet

composition of 20% small squids, 20% large squids, 40% mesopelagic fishes, and 20% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

Stenella sp. in the western North Atlantic are most frequently found in deep offshore waters (Schmidly 1981; CETAP 1982; Waring et al. 1992; Perrin and Gilpatrick 1994; Fertl et al. 2003).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding *Stenella* sp. site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Clymene dolphin, pantropical spotted dolphin, and spinner dolphin interbirth interval of 3.00 years based on values reported by Kasuya (1985), Perrin and Gilpatrick (1994), Myrick et al. (1986), Perrin and Hohn (1994), and Calzada et al. (1996).

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Clymene dolphin age at first reproduction of 7 years; pantropical spotted dolphin age at first reproduction of 13 years and age at last reproduction of 45 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Myrick et al. (1986) and Perrin and Hohn (1994); and spinner dolphin age at first reproduction of 7 years and age at last reproduction of 26 years (observed) and 30 years (estimated) based on values reported by Miyazaki (1984).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported Clymene dolphin generation length of 14.0 years at $r = 0.02$ and 14.7 years at $r = 0.0$; pantropical spotted dolphin generation length of 22.7 years at $r < 0.005$ and 23.1 years at $r = 0.0$; and spinner dolphin generation length of 13.3 years at $r = 0.01$ and 13.7 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

Calving peaks in range from late spring to fall (Jefferson et al. 2015). Information regarding *Stenella* sp. breeding habitat and location for the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Migration

Information regarding *Stenella* sp. migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding *Stenella* sp. home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of western North Atlantic Clymene dolphins is estimated to be 4,237 individuals (CV=1.03), Pantropical spotted dolphins is estimated to be 6,593 individuals (CV=0.52), and spinner dolphins is estimated to be 4,102 individuals (CV=0.99), based on 2017 and 2018 surveys (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). Previously, the stock group was estimated at 11,441 individuals (CV=0.83) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2013).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to determine the abundance trend for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Stenella sp. in the western North Atlantic may interact with longline fisheries. During the period 2013–2017, annual fishery-related mortality was estimated to be zero; however, this may be an underestimate due to low observer coverage (Garrison and Stokes 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020; Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, one Clymene dolphin, five pantropical spotted dolphins, and two spinner dolphins were reported stranded along the U.S. Atlantic Coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for *Stenella* sp. in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015a, 2015b, 2015c, 2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b). Additional sighting data are presented by Palka et al. (2021c).

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Striped dolphin – *Stenella coeruleoalba*

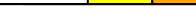
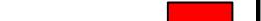
Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 78% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.5	2.3	  
	Habitat Specificity	1.5	2.3	  
	Site Fidelity	1.7	1.3	  
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.5	2.7	  
	Generation Length	2.4	2.7	  
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	1.7	  
	Migration	2.8	1.3	   
	Home Range	1.7	1.3	  
	Stock Abundance	2.1	3.0	  
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	1.7	  
	Cumulative Stressors	2.0	1.7	  
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	   
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	3.0	   
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.9	3.0	  
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	2.1	3.0	 
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	3.0	 
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	 
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.7	3.0	   
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	   
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	   
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	  
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	3.0	 
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	 
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	   
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	  
	Circulation	1.9	2.7	   
	Sea level rise	1.1	2.3	 
Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate		

Striped dolphin (Northern Gulf of Mexico Stock)

Stenella coeruleoalba

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Moderate (50% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.5: Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.87), Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.53), and Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.53).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.80).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 78 % of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 45 % of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The striped dolphin Northern Gulf of Mexico stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the Gulf of Mexico. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar Mexican and Cuban Gulf of Mexico waters (Hayes et al. 2021).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Striped dolphin prey includes mid-water fishes and squids (Archer 2018). Pauly et al. (1998) reported striped dolphin diet composition of 5% benthic invertebrates, 20% small squids, 15% large squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, 30% mesopelagic fishes, and 25% miscellaneous fishes. In the Bay of Biscay, Spitz et al. (2006) reported stranded dolphin stomach contents consisted primarily of fish (91% of diet by number and 61% by mass) and included species from oceanic, neritic, and coastal environments.

Habitat Specificity

Striped dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico are found in oceanic waters beyond the continental shelf (Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006). Striped dolphins have been found associated with convergence zones and upwelling (Au and Perryman 1985). Garrison and Aichinger Dias (2020) reported an overall uniform distribution of striped dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico, with a slight concentration south of Mobile Bay, in waters over the lower slope (>1000 m depth) and abyssal plain.

Site Fidelity

Information regarding striped dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported striped dolphin interbirth interval of 3.38 years based on values reported by Kasuya (1972). Taylor et al. (2007) reported striped dolphin age at first reproduction of 11 years and age at last reproduction of 49 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Kasuya (1972) and Miyazaki (1984). However, Archer and Perrin (1999) estimated females become sexually mature between 5 and 13 years of age.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 21.8 years at $r = 0.01$ and 22.5 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Kasuya (1972) and Miyazaki (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding specific breeding locations and habitat was not found in the literature. Perrin et al. (1994) found two calving peaks (one in summer and one in winter) in waters off Japan.

Migration

Information regarding striped dolphin migration was not found in the literature; however, striped dolphins were observed in the northern Gulf of Mexico in all seasons during GulfCet aerial surveys between 1992 and 1998 (Hansen et al. 1996; Mullin and Hoggard 2000).

Home Range

Striped dolphins in the Gulf of Mexico are typically found in oceanic waters (Mullin and Fulling 2004; Maze-Foley and Mullin 2006).

Stock Abundance

The abundance of northern Gulf of Mexico striped dolphins is estimated to be 1,817 individuals ($CV=0.56$), based on 2017 and 2018 oceanic surveys (Garrison et al. 2020). Previously, the stock was estimated at 1,849 individuals ($CV=0.77$) based on a summer 2009 oceanic survey (Waring et al. 2013).

Stock Abundance Trend

Four point estimates of striped dolphin abundance have been made based on data from surveys in 2003 (5,494; $CV=0.43$), 2004 (10,764; $CV=0.51$), 2009 (3,060; $CV=0.73$), and 2018 (3,633; $CV=0.56$). Pairwise comparisons of the log-transformed means were conducted between years, and there were no significant differences between survey years (see Garrison et al. 2020 and Hayes et al. 2021). However, the ability to detect a trend in this stock's abundance is confounded by poor precision and long survey intervals (Hayes et al. 2021).

Cumulative Stressors

Striped dolphins in the northern Gulf of Mexico may interact with longline fisheries. In the 2014–2018 time period, fishery-induced mortality was zero (Garrison and Stokes 2016, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b). During the same period, one striped dolphin was reported stranded in Florida (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database unpublished data, as cited in Hayes et al. 2021).

The striped dolphin stock was likely exposed to oil and dispersants resulting from the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, which may result in long term chronic health effects (NOAA 2011; Helm et al. 2015; DWH NRDA 2016). An Unusual Mortality Event (UME), involving primarily bottlenose dolphins, was declared for cetaceans in the northern Gulf of Mexico from 2010 to 2014, with the Deepwater Horizon oil spill as the primary underlying cause (Litz et al. 2014; Schwacke et al. 2014; Venn-Watson et al. 2015).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016) and Mannocci et al. (2017).

Further Reading

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Striped dolphin – *Stenella coeruleoalba*

Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 85% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.0	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.5	1.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	1.6	2.3	
	Generation Length	2.2	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.5	2.0	
	Migration	2.1	1.7	
	Home Range	1.4	1.7	
	Stock Abundance	1.3	3.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	1.8	1.3	
	Cumulative Stressors	1.4	2.3	
Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.3	2.7	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.5	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	2.9	2.7	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.2	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	1.8	2.7	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	2.7	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	3.5	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.2	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.0	2.7	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.1	2.7	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	3.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.2	2.7	
	Circulation	1.7	2.3	
	Sea level rise	1.0	2.3	
Exposure Score		High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

Striped dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Stenella coeruleoalba

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (99% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Three exposure factors scored greater than or equal to 3.0: Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (3.47), Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.27), and Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (3.00).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. No sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5.

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Moderate

Data Quality: 85% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The striped dolphin western North Atlantic stock includes individuals found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar adjacent offshore, Canadian, and Caribbean waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Striped dolphin prey includes mid-water fishes and squids (Archer 2018). Pauly et al. (1998) reported striped dolphin diet composition of 5% benthic invertebrates, 20% small squids, 15% large squids, 5% small pelagic fishes, 30% mesopelagic fishes, and 25% miscellaneous fishes. In the Bay of Biscay, Spitz et al. (2006) reported stranded dolphin stomach contents consisted primarily of fish (91% of diet by number and 61% by mass) and included species from oceanic, neritic, and coastal environments.

Habitat Specificity

Striped dolphins in the Western North Atlantic are found most often in waters offshore of the continental shelf edge (Leatherwood et al. 1976; Schmidly 1981; CETAP 1982; Perrin et al. 1994; Mullin and Fulling 2003). Striped dolphins have been found associated with the Gulf Stream and warm-core rings (Waring et al. 1992), often in waters between 20° and 27° C and deeper than 900m (Palka 1997). Striped dolphins have been observed in the deeper and warmer waters of the Gully off the eastern Nova Scotia shelf (Gowans and Whitehead 1995; Baird et al. 1997).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding striped dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported striped dolphin interbirth interval of 3.38 years based on values reported by Kasuya (1972). Taylor et al. (2007) reported striped dolphin age at first reproduction of 11 years and age at last reproduction of 49 years (observed) and 33 years (estimated) based on values reported by Kasuya (1972) and Miyazaki (1984). However, Archer and Perrin (1999) estimated females become sexually mature between 5 and 13 years of age.

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported generation length of 21.8 years at $r = 0.01$ and 22.5 years at $r = 0.0$ based on values reported by Kasuya (1972) and Miyazaki (1984).

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding specific breeding locations and habitat was not found in the literature. Perrin et al. (1994) found two calving peaks (one in summer and one in winter) in waters off Japan.

Migration

Information regarding striped dolphin migration was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Striped dolphins in the Western North Atlantic are typically found in oceanic waters (Leatherwood et al. 1976; Schmidly 1981; CETAP 1982; Perrin et al. 1994; Mullin and Fulling 2003).

Stock Abundance

The most recent abundance estimate for this stock is 67,036 individuals ($CV=0.29$), based on 2016 surveys from Florida to the lower Bay of Fundy (Garrison 2020; Palka 2020). Previously, the best abundance estimate of 54,807 individuals ($CV=0.3$) was derived from 2011 survey estimates (Waring et al. 2014).

Stock Abundance Trend

Insufficient data exist to calculate a stock abundance trend (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

Striped dolphins in the western North Atlantic may interact with gillnet and longline fisheries (Perrin et al. 1994). However, in the 2007-2011 time period, fishery-induced mortality was zero (Waring et al. 2014). During the same period, 19 Atlantic spotted dolphins were reported stranded between New York

and Florida, one of which had documented signs of human interactions with propeller wounds (Waring et al. 2014).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for Atlantic spotted dolphin in the Gulf of Mexico are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018), Mannocci et al. (2017), Chavez-Rosales et al. (2019), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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True's beaked whale – *Mesoplodon mirus*

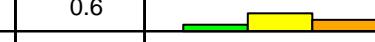
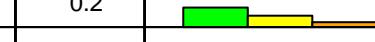
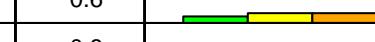
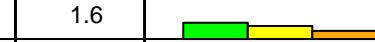
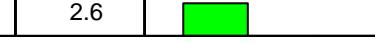
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High 

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate 

Climate Exposure = Very High 

Data Quality = 44% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Mesoplodon mirus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	2.5	1.4	
	Habitat Specificity	2.0	1.6	
	Site Fidelity	2.6	0.8	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.5	0.4	
	Generation Length	2.4	0.6	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.9	0.2	
	Migration	2.8	0.6	
	Home Range	2.6	0.8	
	Stock Abundance	2.4	1.2	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.8	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.2	1.6	
	Sensitivity Score	Moderate		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.6	1.8	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	4.0	2.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	2.2	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.1	2.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.6	2.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.6	1.8	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	2.1	1.6	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	2.2	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.1	2.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	2.2	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.4	2.0	
	Circulation	2.0	1.6	
	Sea level rise	1.6	2.6	
	Exposure Score	Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High		

True's beaked whale (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Mesoplodon mirus

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: High (96% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: Very High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.5: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.96), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.60).

Biological Sensitivity: Moderate. Three sensitivity attributes scored greater than 2.5: Migration (2.80), Site Fidelity (2.64), and Home Range (2.60).

Distributional Response: Low

Abundance Response: Moderate

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 44% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 0% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

True's beaked whale western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that reside in or visit waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic and adjacent offshore waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition estimates of 50% small squids and 50% large squids.

Habitat Specificity

Beaked whales off the eastern U.S. are found along the Gulf Stream and its associated warm-core rings, and the continental shelf break (Waring et al. 1992; Tove 1995; Waring et al. 2001; Hamazaki 2002; Palka 2006). Beaked whales south of Georges Bank were found in waters with a mean SST of 20.7° to 24.9°C and 500 to 2,000m depth (Waring et al. 2003). Beaked whales in general inhabit continental slope and deep oceanic waters (>200 m; Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ward et al. 2005; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Pitman 2018).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding True's beaked whale site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Information regarding True's beaked whale reproductive interval was not found in the literature. Taylor et al. (2007) estimated age at last reproduction of 42 years.

Generation Length

Information regarding True's beaked whale generation length was not found in the literature.

Reproductive Plasticity

Information regarding True's beaked whale breeding season, location, and habitat was not found in the literature.

Migration

No information specifically describing True's beaked whale migratory behavior was found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding individual True's beaked whale home range was not found in the literature. Beaked whales in general inhabit continental slope and deep oceanic waters (>200 m; Waring et al. 2001; Cañadas et al. 2002; MacLeod et al. 2004; Ward et al. 2005; Ferguson et al. 2006; MacLeod and Mitchell 2006; Pitman 2018).

Stock Abundance

True's beaked whale abundance has not been estimated due to difficulty differentiating beaked whales to the species level in shipboard and aerial surveys. The abundance of *Mesoplodon* sp. beaked whales in the western North Atlantic is estimated to be 10,107 individuals (CV=0.27) based on 2016 surveys (Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

The data are insufficient to evaluate population trends for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

True's beaked whales in the western North Atlantic had an estimated annual fishing-related mortality of 0.2 during the period 2013–2017 (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, six True's beaked whales stranded along the U.S. Atlantic coast (NOAA National Marine Mammal Health and Stranding Response Database, as cited in Hayes et al. 2020).

Beaked whales generally are considered sensitive to anthropogenic noise, with multiple events worldwide resulting in injury, mortality, or mass stranding (D'Amico et al. 2009; Filadelfo et al. 2009; Frantzis 1998).

Distribution and Sightings

Density model results for beaked whales in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017), Mannocci et al. (2017), and Palka et al. (2021a, 2021b).

Further Reading

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White-beaked dolphin – *Lagenorhynchus albirostris*

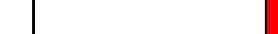
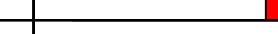
Western North Atlantic Stock

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Low 

Biological Sensitivity = Low 

Climate Exposure = High 

Data Quality = 81% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Lagenorhynchus albirostris</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)
Sensitivity attributes	Prey/Diet Specificity	1.8	2.0	
	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.3	
	Site Fidelity	1.9	1.7	
	Lifetime Reproductive Potential	2.0	2.0	
	Generation Length	2.1	2.0	
	Reproductive Plasticity	1.6	1.0	
	Migration	3.5	1.0	
	Home Range	1.8	2.0	
	Stock Abundance	1.9	2.0	
	Stock Abundance Trend	2.3	0.7	
	Cumulative Stressors	2.1	2.0	
	Sensitivity Score	Low		
Exposure variables	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in mean)	3.3	3.0	
	Sea Surface Temperature (Change in variability)	1.1	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in mean)	3.4	3.0	
	Air Temperature (Change in variability)	1.0	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in mean)	1.3	3.0	
	Precipitation (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in mean)	2.0	3.0	
	Sea Surface Salinity (Change in variability)	1.7	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Ocean pH (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in mean)	1.3	2.3	
	Sea ice coverage (Change in variability)	1.0	2.3	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in mean)	4.0	3.0	
	Dissolved oxygen (Change in variability)	1.3	3.0	
	Circulation	2.2	1.7	
	Sea level rise	1.5	2.0	
	Exposure Score	High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Low		

White-beaked dolphin (Western North Atlantic Stock)

Lagenorhynchus albirostris

CVA Results Summary

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: Low (40% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: High. Four exposure factors scored greater than 3.0: Dissolved oxygen (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Ocean pH (Standard anomaly) (4.00), Air Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.40), and Sea Surface Temperature (Standard anomaly) (3.27).

Biological Sensitivity: Low. Only one sensitivity attribute scored greater than 2.5: Migration (3.53).

Distributional Response: High

Abundance Response: Low

Phenology Response: Low

Data Quality: 81% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. 64% of sensitivity attribute data quality scores were 2 or higher.

Background Information

Stock Description

The white-beaked dolphin Western North Atlantic stock includes individuals that are found in waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone in the western North Atlantic. However, this stock is likely transboundary and the stock area probably includes similar adjacent offshore and Canadian waters (Hayes et al. 2020).

Prey/Diet Specificity

White-beaked dolphins in the eastern North Atlantic are known to prey on cod and other gadid fish as well as cephalopods (Jansen et al. 2010; Kinze et al. 1997; Kinze 2018; Santos et al. 1994). Pauly et al. (1998) reported species-level diet composition of 5% benthic invertebrates, 15% small squids, 5% large squids, 15% small pelagic fishes, and 60% miscellaneous fishes.

Habitat Specificity

White-beaked dolphins are commonly found in shelf waters ranging from 150 to 1000 m in depth and temperatures ranging from 5°C to 15°C. The species is found near physical features such as fronts and up-welling (Kinze 2018). In the western North Atlantic, white-beaked dolphins are found in coastal Canadian waters, while sparse sightings in U.S. waters are concentrated around the Gulf of Maine and Cape Cod (CETAP 1982; Reeves et al. 1999).

Site Fidelity

Information regarding white-beaked dolphin site fidelity was not found in the literature.

Lifetime Reproductive Potential

Taylor et al. (2007) reported white-beaked dolphin interbirth interval of 2.50 years. Female white-beaked dolphins reach sexual maturity at a mean age of 8.7 years (Galatius et al. 2012) and the oldest known female lived to 34 years age (Kinze 2018).

Generation Length

Taylor et al. (2007) reported white-beaked dolphin generation length of 17.2 years at $r = 0.02$ and 18.1 years at $r = 0.0$.

Reproductive Plasticity

The white-beaked dolphin mating season occurs in July and August (Kinze 2018).

Migration

Information regarding white-beaked dolphin migratory behavior in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Home Range

Information regarding white-beaked dolphin home range in the western North Atlantic was not found in the literature.

Stock Abundance

The abundance of the white-beaked dolphin in the western North Atlantic is estimated to be 536,016 individuals ($CV=0.31$), based on 2016 survey data from Canadian waters from the U.S. border to Labrador (Lawson and Gosselin 2018; Hayes et al. 2020).

Stock Abundance Trend

Data are insufficient to complete an abundance trend analysis for this stock (Hayes et al. 2020).

Cumulative Stressors

White-beaked dolphins interact with the cod trap and Canadian groundfish gillnet fisheries (Alling and Whitehead 1987; Read 1994; Hai et al. 1996). During the period 2013–2017, estimated annual fishing-related mortality was zero (Hayes et al. 2020). During the same period, 92 strandings were reported along the U.S. and Canadian Atlantic coasts (Hayes et al. 2020).

White-beaked dolphins may become entrapped in sea ice off the coast of Newfoundland (Lien et al. 2001).

Distribution

Density model results for white-beaked dolphins in the western North Atlantic are presented by Roberts et al. (2015, 2016).

Further Reading

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