

ATTACHMENT A
To the Written Evidence of
Raincoast Conservation Foundation

Population Viability Analyses
for
Southern Resident Killer Whales

Prepared for Raincoast Conservation Foundation
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Summary of key conclusions from the 2015 report submitted previously as evidence to NEB

In 2015, we submitted a report in which we presented the results of a population viability analysis (PVA) of the risk associated with aspects of the proposed Trans Mountain Expansion Project (Project) on the endangered Southern Resident Killer Whales (“Southern Residents”) (Lacy et al., 2015). A PVA is a risk management tool, which models the risk to a population over time. In this case, the model was used to estimate the increased risk to the Southern Residents from three threats associated with the marine shipping component of the Project: an oil spill, increased acoustic and physical disturbance from ships, and ship strikes. The report also examined the possible effects of decreased Chinook salmon prey base that might result from climate change or human activities, and evaluated those impacts in comparison to the more immediate threats of the proposed Project and as the environmental context within which the impacts of the Project are likely to occur. We present here a brief synopsis of the findings of the 2015 report and present the findings of subsequent work conducted in 2017 (Lacy et al. 2017) and again in 2018.

Summary of 2015 PVA report

Based on status quo conditions, the Southern Resident population was projected to remain about at its current size or continue a very slow decline (estimated at a mean annual decline of 0.2%). We projected a 9% chance of quasi-extinction, where the population falls below 30 whales and is no longer viable. Sensitivity tests, in which alternative values for model inputs were examined, showed that the prediction of no population growth or slow decline was robust within plausible ranges of demographic rates. Thus, under status quo conditions the population cannot be expected to recover from its current endangered status.

Any additional negative pressures would cause decline, further threaten the persistence of the population, and make recovery more difficult to achieve through positive action. Reducing the abundance of Chinook salmon was projected to have a substantial negative impact on the Southern Residents population. Conversely, increasing Chinook abundance can lead to relatively robust population growth (up to 1.9% with 20% more prey) and protection from extinction or serious decline.

Our analyses showed that the Project will intensify existing threats, accelerating the rate of decline in the Southern Residents and possibly leading to a complete extinction. The impact of oil spills on long-term population growth could be consequential. The probability of the population dropping to quasi-extinction (i.e. below 30 whales) due to an oil spill is substantial, with a possibility of complete extinction within 100 years due to the potential of catastrophic decimation of the population to a small and unrecoverable number from which it could not recover. The modeled impact of noise and physical disturbance accompanying increased or added vessel traffic associated with the Project resulted in accelerated population decline, smaller mean population size, and increased probability of complete and quasi extinction. The cumulative impact of oil spills, increased noise, and incidental human caused deaths resulted in a population decline of more than 1% per year, resulting, in the next 100 years, in: a mean final population size of only 33 animals; a 8.6% probability of complete extinction of the Southern Residents; and more than 50% probability that the final population would be less than 30 animals and, therefore, probably on a course toward nearly inevitable extinction.

Citation: Lacy, R.C., K.C. Balcomb III, L.J.N. Brent, D.P. Croft, C.W. Clark, and P.C. Paquet. 2015. Report on Population Viability Analysis model investigations of threats to the Southern Resident Killer Whale

population from Trans Mountain Expansion Project. Attachment E, Ecojustice – Written Evidence of Raincoast Conservation Foundation (A70286), National Energy Board (Canada). 120 pp. Available at <http://docs.neb-one.gc.ca/fetch.asp?language=E&ID=A4L9G2>.

Note that two references that document impacts of disturbance on killer whales were omitted from the prior submission to NEB. For completeness, these references are provided here:

Bain, D. 2002. A model linking energetic effects of whale watching to killer whale (*Orcinus orca*) population dynamics. University of Washington, Friday Harbour, WA 98250.

Williams, R., D. Lusseau, and P. S. Hammond. 2006. Estimating relative energetic costs of human disturbance to killer whales (*Orcinus orca*). *Biological Conservation* 133:301-311.

Summary of conclusions from PVA projections conducted subsequent to the 2015 report and published in 2017

Subsequent to the report submitted to the NEB in 2015, we added several more experts to our team and extended the above analyses. We considered additional scenarios that included a model of no anthropogenic threats (no noise disturbance, no PCB contaminants, no oil spill or ship strikes from shipping activities, and no change from the long-term mean prey abundance), and two scenarios that considered effects of the Project in conjunction with projected declines in prey abundance. We also projected the benefits that would arise from improvements in Chinook abundance, noise disturbance, and PCB contaminants, and estimated what level of improvements to these threats would be required to achieve a USA recovery target of sustained 2.3% growth over 28 years.

These analyses of threats and potential mitigation actions were published in the highly respected, peer-reviewed journal *Scientific Reports*, October 2017 (Lacy et al. 2017) (Appendix A). A brief synopsis of those findings is presented here as context for the further analyses to be described below.

The published analyses confirmed that the Southern Resident population is fragile, with no growth projected under current conditions, and decline expected if new or increased threats are imposed. “Lower increase” and “Higher increase” scenarios that modelled increased threats expected with the Project in conjunction with expected declines in Chinook abundance projected Southern Resident population declines (1% and 2%) that bracketed the projections from the Cumulative effects scenario of the PVA submitted previously to NEB. Similarly, the probability of the population falling below 30 animals (quasi-extinction) in the new development scenarios (31% and 70%) bracketed the 54% quasi-extinction probability that had been estimated for Project impacts.

A scenario that removed all anthropogenic threats confirmed that in the absence of such threats, and with prey at the mean levels observed in recent decades, the population would respond with about 2% mean annual growth and have little chance of serious decline or extinction. Analyses that examined the recovery expected with plausible reductions in threats and improvements in the habitat showed that prey limitation was the most important factor affecting population growth in the models. However, to meet recovery targets through prey management alone, Chinook abundance would have to be sustained near the highest levels since the 1970s. The most optimistic mitigation of noise and contaminants would make the difference between a declining and increasing population, but would be insufficient to reach recovery targets. As one example of a multi-pronged approach that could achieve recovery, reducing acoustic disturbance by 50% combined with increasing Chinook by 15% was

projected to allow the population to reach 2.3% growth. The actions that would be required to achieve recovery will need to be greater if the Project or other development activities add to the existing threats that have prevented recovery to date.

Citation: Lacy, R.C., R. Williams, E. Ashe, K.C. Balcomb III, L.J.N. Brent, C.W. Clark, D.P. Croft, D.A. Giles, M. MacDuffee, and P.C. Paquet. 2017. Evaluating anthropogenic threats to endangered killer whales to inform effective recovery plans. *Scientific Reports* 7:14119. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-14471-0.

Updated Population Viability Analyses 2018

The evidence submitted previously to NEB in 2015 and the published 2017 PVA described above were based on demographic data accumulated from 1976 through 2014. Subsequently, the SRKW population has continued to be monitored, and demographic data are now available up through October 2018 (Table 1). It is worthwhile to re-examine the population trajectories predicted by the PVA because:

- The additional almost 4 more years of data can improve our estimates of average demographic rates and variability in rates.
- The recent decline (from 78 to 74 killer whales from the beginning of 2015 through to today) should be investigated to determine if the poor demographic trend of the past few years is within the range of annual fluctuations projected by the prior models, or instead indicates that the population has entered into a new phase of demographic decline.
- Regardless of whether the recent patterns signal a new trend or just some unlucky years within the long-term pattern, with the expanded data set based on more years of monitoring, the conclusions about current viability, impacts of threats, and prospects for recovery with new management actions should be revisited to see if prior conclusions are still deemed valid.

Table 1. Population age and sex structure from 1980 to October 2018 in five year intervals for Southern Resident Killer Whales. Data source: Fisheries and Oceans Canada – Cetacean Research Program (unpublished)

YEAR	Total	Reproductive Females (>10 years)	Adult Males (>10 years)	Post Reproductive Females (>42 years)	Juveniles (<10 years)
2018	Total: 74 J Pod 22 K Pod 18 L Pod 34	Total: 27 (36%) J Pod 10 K Pod 6 L Pod 11	Total: 23 (31%) J Pod 4 K Pod 8 L Pod 11	Total: 5 (7%) J Pod 1 K Pod 1 L Pod 3	Total: 6F, 13F (26%) J Pod 2F, 5M K Pod 1F, 2M L Pod 3F, 6M
2017	Total: 76 J Pod 23 K Pod 18 L Pod 35	Total: 27 (36%) J Pod 10 K Pod 6 L Pod 11	Total: 24 (32%) J Pod 4 K Pod 8 L Pod 12	Total: 5 (6%) J Pod 1 K Pod 1 L Pod 3	Total: 7F, 13M (26%) J Pod 3F, 5M K Pod 1F, 2M L Pod 3F, 6M
2015	Total: 80 J Pod 27 K Pod 19 L Pod 34	Total: 30 (37%) J Pod 12 K Pod 6 L Pod 12	Total: 23 (29%) J Pod 5 K Pod 8 L Pod 10	Total: 5 (6%) J Pod 1 K Pod 2 L Pod 2	Total: 8F, 14M (27%) J Pod 4F, 5M K Pod 1F, 2M L Pod 3F, 7M
2010	Total: 84 J Pod 26 K Pod 19 L Pod 39	Total: 30 (36%) J Pod 10 K Pod 7 L Pod 13	Total: 17 (20%) J Pod 4 K Pod 3 L Pod 10	Total: 9 (11%) J Pod 2 K Pod 1 L Pod 6	Total: 9F, 19M (33%) J Pod 5F, 5M K Pod 2F, 6M L Pod 2F, 8M
2005	Total: 88 J Pod 24 K Pod 20 L Pod 44	Total: 32 (36%) J Pod 8 () K Pod 9 L Pod 15	Total: 20 (24%) J Pod 4 K Pod 3 L Pod 13	Total: 11 (12%) J Pod 2 K Pod 2 L Pod 7	Total: 9F, 13M (27%) J Pod 6F, 4M K Pod 1F, 5M L Pod 2F, 6M
2000	Total: 77 J Pod 19 K Pod 16 L Pod 42	Total: 28 (36%) J Pod 6 K Pod 7 L Pod 15	Total: 11 (14%) J Pod 1 K Pod 1 L Pod 9	Total: 12 (16%) J Pod 2 K Pod 2 L Pod 8	Total: 11F, 15M (34%) J Pod 5F, 5M K Pod 2F, 3M L Pod 4F, 7M
1995	Total: 92 J Pod 20 K Pod 18 L Pod 54	Total: 34 (37%) J Pod 10 K Pod 8 L Pod 16	Total: 14 (15%) J Pod 3 K Pod 1 L Pod 10	Total: 12 (13%) J Pod 2 K Pod 3 L Pod 7	Total: 15F, 18M (36%) J Pod 2F, 3M K Pod 4F, 3M L Pod 9F, 12M
1990	Total: 87 J Pod 18 K Pod 16 L Pod 53	Total: 33 (38%) J Pod 9 K Pod 8 L Pod 16	Total: 17 (19%) J Pod 4 K Pod 3 L Pod 10	Total: 11 (13%) J Pod 2 K Pod 1 L Pod 8	Total: 12F, 7M (30%) J Pod 2F, 1M K Pod 3F, 1M L Pod 7F, 5M, 7?
1985	Total: 74 J Pod 17 K Pod 14 L Pod 43	Total: 31 (42%) J Pod 7 K Pod 7 L Pod 17	Total: 16 (22%) J Pod 3 K Pod 3 L Pod 10	Total: 9 (12%) J Pod 2 K Pod 2 L Pod 5	Total: 8F, 8F (24%) J Pod 4F, 1M K Pod 2F, 0M L Pod 4F, 7M

1980	Total: 79 J Pod 18 K Pod 16 L Pod 45	Total: 25 (32%) J Pod 5 K Pod 5 L Pod 15	Total: 13 (16%) J Pod 3 K Pod 4 L Pod 6	Total: 11 (14%) J Pod 3 K Pod 3 L Pod 5	Total: 18F, 12M (38%) J Pod 5F, 2M K Pod 3F, 1M L Pod 10, 9M
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The updated analyses incorporating the data from the past four years confirmed that the population is fragile and perhaps in a slow decline, with no ability to withstand additional threats and an inability to recover unless current conditions are improved. The decline of the past four years is not outside of the bounds of uncertainty from the projections that were made previously, but the recent lack of successful reproduction could be an indication that conditions have deteriorated. With the revised estimates of demographic rates, we now estimate that the Project would cause 1.6% to 2.3% annual decline, about 0.5% per year faster than estimated using the older data. The likelihood of the population falling below a functional extinction threshold of 30 killer whales is now estimated to be greater than was projected before.

Methods

Following the same statistical methods that were used previously with the 1976-2014 dataset, but now with additional data from 2015 through late 2018, fecundity (probability of producing a calf in a given year) was calculated for young mature females (ages 10-30y; 0.1183) and older mature females (ages 31-45y; 0.0747). Annual mortality rates were calculated for calves (up through 1 y of age; 20.81%), subadults (1 to 9 y; 2.44%), young mature females (ages 10 to 30y; 0.97%), older mature females (ages 31 to 45y; 2.35%), post-reproductive females (46 to 90y; 7.75%), young mature males (10 to 21y; 3.03%), and older males (22 to 90y; 8.85%). We applied these updated estimates of demographic rates to the Baseline and Cumulative effects models in the Lacy et al. (2015) evaluation of Project impacts, and to the primary models of the SRKW population that were examined in the Lacy et al. (2017) publication. Given that the adjustments to demographic rates were small, we have not repeated all the sensitivity tests on each model input parameter, as was done in the earlier PVA.

Recent evidence suggests that inbreeding might be becoming common in the small SRKW population, but the demographic consequences of that inbreeding are not yet clear (Ford et al. 2018). In our models, we assumed that parent-offspring mating would be avoided, but that paternal half-siblings could mate. Sensitivity tests indicated that the effect of varying severity of inbreeding depression had relatively small impact on population projections, perhaps because we assumed that very close inbreeding was avoided. If inbreeding becomes more frequent than assumed in the PVA, then population declines could be exacerbated increasingly as the number of breeders continues to decline.

The revised population model was started with the population structure (age and sex distribution and, when known, the parentage of individuals) of the current (November 2018) population of 74 SRKWs. In tests of impacts of existing or potential threats, and of possible management actions to achieve recovery, we initially applied the same functional relationships as used before to describe the demographic effects of prey abundance, noise disturbance, PCB contamination, oil spills, and ship strikes. See Lacy et al. (2015; 2017) for details of the PVA model structure and parameter values.

The strength of the relationships between prey abundance and demographic rates (both fecundity and survival) are uncertain, because the Chinook salmon stocks that are most critical for the SRKWs are

uncertain, estimates of prey abundance are imprecise, and the observed correlations between salmon indices and SRKW demography might reflect dependency of both on some other factors rather than only a causal relationship between prey and demography. We therefore examined also population projections that assumed 50% increase in the slopes¹ of the prey-demography relationships, and projections that assumed 50% lower slopes. In these scenarios, intercepts of the mathematical relationship were adjusted so that the demographic rates remained unchanged when the index of prey abundance was 1 (i.e., the long-term mean prey abundance).

Results

Our updated “Baseline” population model, representing our estimate of the population dynamics under current conditions, projects a mean population growth of $r = -0.006$, or 0.6% decline per year, with variation across years of $SD(r) = 0.047$. This compares to projections of mean $r = -0.002$ (0.2% decline per year), $SD(r) = 0.042$ in the earlier analysis (Lacy et al. 2015 2017). The lower revised estimate results from the poor reproduction and calf survival over the last three years. Note that if the reduced fecundity and calf survival of the past few years represents a new norm for the population, rather than three poor years that should be averaged into a longer term trend of mostly better reproductive success, then the projections for the future population growth will be considerably worse than what we present here.

The observed population decline of 4 whales since 2014 has averaged 1.3% per year ($r = -0.013$, $SD = 0.062$). Thus, the population has declined at a faster rate than the mean projected in the PVAs, but the observed rate is well within the range of annual fluctuations that was predicted. For example, the population model based on data through 2014 (Lacy et al. 2017) projected a 30% probability that the population would decline by 4 or more whales by the end of 2018.

Although the overall recent population decline is within the range that can occur with the estimated demographic rates, the lack of successful reproduction in the past 3 years (2016-2018) is atypical and cause for concern. Two births occurred in that time but neither calf survived. Since 1976, only once before has there been a sequence of three years (1981-1983) in which only 2 births occurred. There has been no equivalent period, however, where complete reproductive failure was documented (i.e. no new and surviving progeny). The mean number of offspring expected over the past 3 years, given the number of mature females in the population, is 9.

We compared projected population growth from the earlier studies to the same models with the updated estimates of demographic rates (Table 2). Across the scenarios that were examined, the revised demographic rates led to about 0.5% slower population growth (or 0.5% faster decline in the cases of negative growth). This is a relatively small effect on a year-to-year basis, and the effect would not be detectable statistically in just a few years of data. However, when projected over 100 years it results in notable increases in the probability of complete extinction of the population and in the probability of

¹ In mathematics, the slope or gradient of a line is a number that describes both the direction (plus or minus) and the steepness of the line that describes the relationship between two variables. Thus, slope is the 'steepness' of a line which shows the rate of positive or negative change of a variable as a consequence of the change in a causal variable. If the slope is 50% greater, then a given increment in the causal factor (e.g., prey abundance) will cause 50% more change in the consequences. A 50% lesser slope means that the same change in the causal factor will cause half as much change in the responding variable.

declining below a population size of 30 (approximately the size of a single pod, a plausible definition of function extinction of the population).

Table 2: Measures of viability of the SRKW population over 100 years under scenarios of minimal anthropogenic threats, current threats, two levels of increased threats due to development, and a model of the cumulative direct impacts of the Project. Projections using data through 2018 (upper values in each pair of results, in bold) are compared to projections using data through 2014 (lower values in each pair). Top four scenarios compare current projections to those reported in Lacy et al. 2017. Last scenario compares current projection for the Cumulative effects scenario reported for the Project in Lacy et al. 2015.

	Threats modelled					Population projections		
Scenario	Chinook trend	Noise	PCB (ppm/y)	Oil spill (big; small)	Ship strikes ²	Population growth (r)	Probability extinct	Probability final N < 30
No anthropogenic threats	constant	0	0	0	0	0.015 0.019	0 0	0 0
Current threats	constant	85%	2	0	0	-0.006 -0.001	1% 0	25% 5%
Low increase	-25% in 100y	92.5%	2	0.21%; 1.08%	1 per 10y	-0.014 -0.008	13% 5%	67% 31%
Higher increase	-50% in 100y	100%	2	0.42%; 2.16%	2 per 10y	-0.023 -0.017	43% 25%	90% 70%
Cumulative Project impacts	constant	100%	2	0.21%; 1.08%	1 per 10y	-0.016 -0.012	17% 9%	76% 54%

Figure 1 below compares the mean trajectory of the updated baseline scenario (solid line) to the trajectory predicted in the prior analyses (dashed line), presented as mean projected population sizes (black lines) and standard deviations (grey lines) around those projections representing the uncertainty

²Since the 2015 submission, Southern Resident killer whale J34 (Double Stuff) died of blunt force trauma in 2016. Although collisions between whales and vessels are relatively rare, when they do occur they can cause significant injury or death (Ford et al. 2000). A science based review of the effectiveness of recovery measures for Southern Resident Killer Whales conducted in 2017 identified vessel strikes as an emerging threat to Southern Resident population that was not recognized previously (DFO 2017, Fisheries and Oceans 2018).

in the future sizes. The starting population size in 2018 for the updated projections is approximately 1 standard deviation (SD) below the mean projection made from the conditions in 2014. Thus, we do not have reason to reject the earlier baseline model as inconsistent with subsequent data, although our best estimate based on the extended data set is more pessimistic.

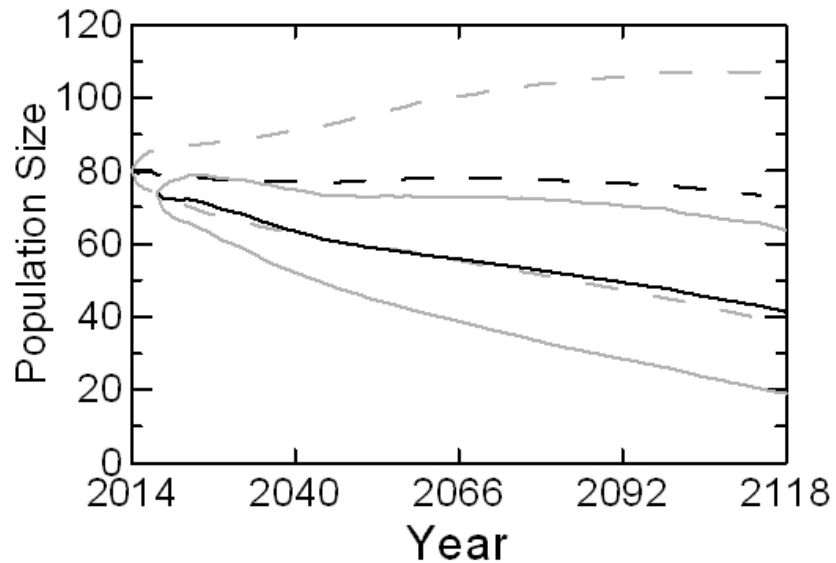


Figure 1. The distribution of simulated trajectories with mean (black) and ± 1 SD (grey) of the population size for SRKWs projected for 100 years. Dashed lines are from model using data through 2014 (from Lacy et al. 2017). Solid lines are from the updated model using data through 2018.

Figure 2 below compares the previous to the revised projections for population growth with reductions in the threats that have been identified as priority concerns in the recovery plans. With the lower projected current population growth, more reduction in threats (or alternative offsetting recovery actions) will be needed to achieve recovery goals. For example, with the updated demographic data, we no longer predict that even a 30% increase in prey abundance would achieve the 2.3% sustained growth that is a goal of the US recovery plan for the SRKW population.

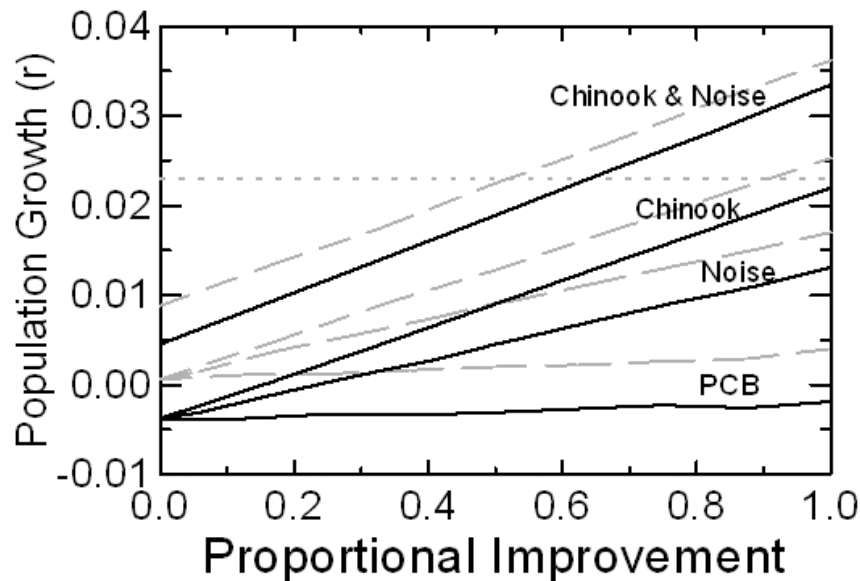


Figure 2. Mean population growth for SRKW achieved by mitigation of anthropogenic threats. Threat reductions are scaled on the x-axis from no reduction to the maximum reductions tested: Chinook abundance increased up to 1.3x the long-term mean; noise disturbance during feeding was reduced from 85% to 0; and PCBs were reduced from accumulation rates of 2 ppm / y to 0. The top lines shows growth rates under a combination of varying levels of improved Chinook abundance plus mitigation of noise to half the current level. Grey dashed lines are from model using data through 2014 (from Lacy et al. 2017). Solid lines are from updated model using data through 2018. Grey dotted line indicates a 2.3% growth rate that is a recovery goal in the US Recovery Plan.

As was shown in the prior analyses, recovering the SRKW population to the target level of population growth with reductions in any one threat will be difficult. Figure 2 illustrates one combination of actions that might achieve the desired recovery: With the updated model, we now predict that if noise disturbance is reduced by half, an increase in prey abundance of about 20% (as opposed to the 15% that was estimated in the prior model) would result in recovery with the targeted growth rate. Other combinations of recovery actions might be as or even more effective. Clearly, however, if the baseline conditions are currently worse than estimated from the past 4 decades of monitoring, or if they become worse due to ongoing and increasing anthropogenic activities (as in Table 1), then the extent of improvements necessary to recover the population will be greater than illustrated by the examples in Figure 2.

The results from models that examined population projections under assumptions of higher or lower slopes to the functional relationships between prey abundance and demographic rates are shown in Table 2 below. If anthropogenic threats could be removed, then a stronger relationship between prey and demography leads to greater population growth, and a weaker relationship leads to lower growth. This occurs in the model not because of the abundance of prey (which is kept at an index of 1.0 in these “No threats” scenarios), but rather because under an assumption of no noise disturbance the prey are more accessible to the killer whales. (The impact of noise is modeled via only its effect on feeding rates, as other possible impacts of noise have not been quantified.) Under the Current Threats scenarios, the slopes of the relationships of prey to demography have no impact on our projections (with the small differences in results being due to random fluctuations in population growth), because neither the prey abundance nor the noise levels are changed from the average values under which the demographic

rates were estimated. If threats are increased (including modeling fewer prey and more noise), then an increase in the slopes of the prey—demography relationships leads to lower growth (i.e., faster decline), and greater probability of the population declining below 30 animals or even to extinction. The change in results is very small for the scenarios with low increases in threats, and not very large when higher increases in threats are modeled. Thus, across the range of plausible relationships between prey and demographic rates, the conclusion is robust that additional damage from the Project or other developments would significantly harm the prospects for SRKW persistence and recovery.

If the relationship between prey abundance and SRKW demography is stronger or weaker than has been estimated, then any declines in prey could cause the population to decline faster or slower, respectively, compared with the PVA projections. Conversely, a stronger relationship would allow for more rapid population recovery if the prey abundance can be raised to levels above the mean of recent years. When we tested 50% lower or 50% higher slopes for describing the relationships between prey abundance and demography, the effects on population projections under scenarios of increased threats were changed by relatively small amounts (Table 2). This indicates that these projections of decline under scenarios of increased threats resulting from the Project are not highly sensitive to strength of the prey-demography relationships included in the model. However, in models of improved prey abundance, the strength of the relationships had a potentially large effect on the population growth rate that could be achieved if prey abundance were increased (Figure 3). In other words, abundance and availability of prey has a much stronger influence on growth of the population than on decline of the population. Similarly, greater improvements in population growth would be observed if the prey-demography links were stronger than has been estimated and if noise was reduced, because the effect would be to increase access to prey by the killer whales.

Table 2: Measures of viability of the SRKW population over 100 years under scenarios of minimal anthropogenic threats, current threats, two levels of increased threats due to development, and a model of the cumulative direct impacts of the Project, under different assumptions about the strength of the relationships between prey abundance and demographic rates. Comparison made among the estimated relationships between prey abundance and demographic rates (middle line of projections for each set), 50% greater slopes for the relationships (upper value in each set), and 50% lower slopes (third value in each set).

Scenario	Threats modelled					Population projections		
	Chinook trend	Noise	PCB (ppm/y)	Oil spill (big; small)	Ship strikes	Population growth (r)	Probability extinct	Probability final N < 30
No anthropogenic threats	constant	0	0	0	0	0.023	0	0
						0.015	0	0
						0.006	0	0
Current threats	constant	85%	2	0	0	-0.006	1%	26%
						-0.006	1%	25%
						-0.006	1%	25%

Low increase	-25% in 100y	92.5%	2	0.21%; 1.08%	1 per 10y	-0.015 -0.014 -0.013	12% 13% 11%	69% 67% 61%
Higher increase	-50% in 100y	100%	2	0.42%; 2.16%	2 per 10y	-0.025 -0.023 -0.021	47% 43% 35%	94% 90% 85%
Cumulative Project impacts	constant	100%	2	0.21%; 1.08%	1 per 10y	-0.018 -0.016 -0.014	19% 17% 12%	82% 76% 67%

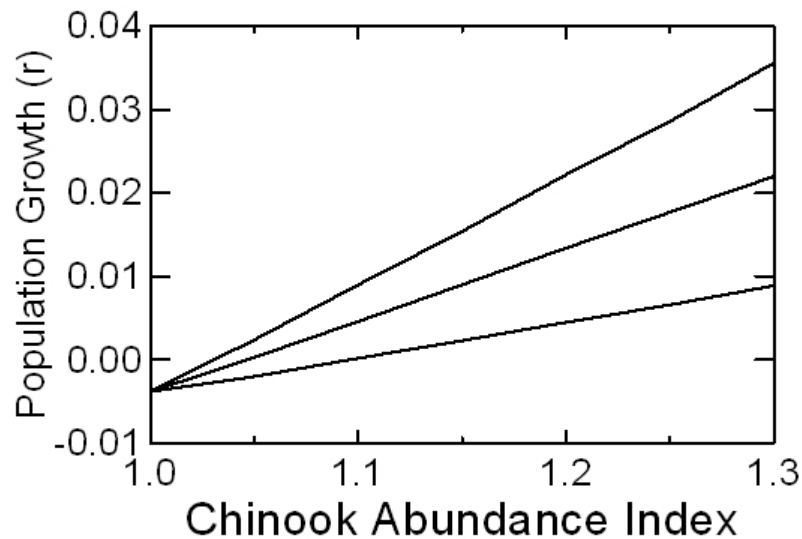


Figure 3. Mean population growth for SRKW achieved by increased Chinook prey abundance. Chinook abundance increased up to 1.3x the long-term mean. Middle line from projections with prey-demography relationships as estimated in prior models; top line from projections with the slope of the relationship increased 1.5x; bottom line from projections with the slope of the relationship decreased 0.5x.

Conclusions

Since the earlier analyses that were completed on data accumulated from 1976-2014, the SRKWs have experienced poorer reproduction and calf survival than the average over the past four decades of monitoring. This resulted in a decline to 74 killer whales in the population.

The observed recent decline is within the range that was projected in the prior models as possible annual variation – given the uncertainty in population processes (Figure 1). Thus, the most recent data do not give us any reason to reject the conclusions of the earlier analyses. However, continued refinement as more data become available, with constant monitoring for deteriorating or improving trends, would allow progressively more confidence in the model projections.

Although the recent decline might have been due simply to the random fluctuations in demographic events that occurs in wildlife populations, without any additional external cause, several aspects of the recent events could be cause for greater concern. Reproduction, for example, has been very low for the past three years, with no breeding in two of the three pods. In addition, the number of breeding age females has decreased by 6 since 2014, because recruitment of new mature females has not kept up with the loss of breeding potential as aging females become post-reproductive. Finally, in just 4 years, the mean age of the SRKWs that are not yet post-reproductive has increased from 19.3 to 20.3 years.

The projection based on currently available data is now that the population is, on average, in a slow decline, rather than the approximately stable population that was projected before the last four years of data were available (Table 1). The faster declines that are projected under various scenarios of Project impacts and Chinook declines are now expected to be worse than previously estimated, with the mean annual decline of 1.4% to 2.3% per year. These updated results indicate even greater urgency for actions that reverse existing threats, and avoid or fully mitigate any additional ones.

Our viability assessments clearly show that Southern Resident killer whales are already severely compromised as a result of living in an appreciably altered ecosystem where they are exposed to chronic disturbances and diminution of the life requisites upon which their survival depends (i.e. intact social systems, sufficient food, secure habitat, silent environment, and unimpeded movements). The number of boats on the water in the Salish Sea has increased dramatically in recent years and expected to continue to increase (DFO 2018). This escalation in traffic is disruptive to Killer Whales because more vessels are passing through their habitat and potentially disturbing how whales move through their environment. This is most evident when whales are interrupted from their normal activities in order to avoid a collision. Consequently, the Southern Residents are unable to effectively contend with the additional vessel traffic and related disturbances that would most likely result from the proposed Project.

As we have shown, the Southern Residents are imperiled and likely unsustainable without restoration of their primary prey of Chinook salmon, protection from noise and disturbance associated with current and expanding vessel traffic, and reduction of persistent pollutants that already compromise the immunity and reproductive capacity of the Southern Resident Killer whales. Reproductive failure (i.e. failure to produce viable offspring) and routine starvation of whales are manifestations of these

cumulative human caused disturbances. Attempting to recover this already impaired population while subjecting it to additional harm from the proposed Project is destined to hasten the decline of this iconic and unique population of killer whales.

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Evaluating anthropogenic threats to endangered killer whales to inform effective recovery plans

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Understanding cumulative effects of multiple threats is key to guiding effective management to conserve endangered species. The critically endangered, Southern Resident killer whale population of the northeastern Pacific Ocean provides a data-rich case to explore anthropogenic threats on population viability. Primary threats include: limitation of preferred prey, Chinook salmon; anthropogenic noise and disturbance, which reduce foraging efficiency; and high levels of stored contaminants, including PCBs. We constructed a population viability analysis to explore possible demographic trajectories and the relative importance of anthropogenic stressors. The population is fragile, with no growth projected under current conditions, and decline expected if new or increased threats are imposed. Improvements in fecundity and calf survival are needed to reach a conservation objective of 2.3% annual population growth. Prey limitation is the most important factor affecting population growth. However, to meet recovery targets through prey management alone, Chinook abundance would have to be sustained near the highest levels since the 1970s. The most optimistic mitigation of noise and contaminants would make the difference between a declining and increasing population, but would be insufficient to reach recovery targets. Reducing acoustic disturbance by 50% combined with increasing Chinook by 15% would allow the population to reach 2.3% growth.

Conservation science is tasked with quantifying the relative importance of multiple anthropogenic threats to species, both to determine if cumulative impacts exceed sustainable levels and to guide effective recovery plans^{1–4}. However, cumulative human impacts are often poorly understood and inadequately addressed in conservation and management⁵. Fundamental research is still needed to integrate information on qualitatively different stressors into comprehensive models that reveal the cumulative impacts on measures of population growth, stability, and resilience⁶. Such work is needed, in part, because threats vary widely in their amenity to mitigation. When regulators require users to forego economic opportunities, it is important to have confidence that management actions will achieve the desired effect⁷. One way to accomplish this is to conduct “population viability analyses” (PVA) that use models of population dynamics to evaluate the relative importance of multiple anthropogenic stressors, singly and in combination, so that conservation can be directed toward efforts most likely to promote species recovery⁸. PVA can be a powerful tool for informing management and conservation decisions. However, the detailed population models used in PVA depend on: availability of estimates for demographic rates (both fecundity and survival and the variability in such rates); confidence that observed past rates are predictors of ongoing demography, or that trends can be foreseen; data for quantifying effects of threats on demographic rates; and a population model that adequately captures the key demographic, social, genetic, and environmental processes that drive the dynamics of the population of concern. Nevertheless, even when data on certain aspects of the population or its threats are not available, we can use PVA models to explore possible outcomes across a plausible range of values, and thereby identify which factors might be important and the target of additional research.

The Southern Resident killer whale (*Orcinus orca*, SRKW) population in the northeastern Pacific Ocean is one of the most critically endangered populations of marine mammals in the USA⁹ and Canada¹⁰. The USA and

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Set	Scenario	Parameters varied	Population growth (r)
Baseline	Baseline	Rates as observed 1976–2015	−0.002
	Sensitivity Tests	See Supplementary Information (S.I.)	See S.I.
Individual Threats	Current	Chinook = 1.0; Noise = 85%; PCB = 2 ppm/y	−0.001
	Chinook	0.6 to 1.3 × baseline	−0.038 to +0.025
	Noise	0 to 100% of time	+0.017 to −0.004
	PCB	0 to 5 ppm/y	+0.003 to −0.008
Cumulative Threats	No Anthropogenic Threats	baseline Chinook; no noise, no PCB; no oil spills; no ship strikes	+0.019
	Low Development	25% decline in Chinook; 92.5% noise; low frequency oil spills and ship strikes (see Table 2)	−0.008
	High Development	50% decline in Chinook; 100% noise; higher frequency oil spills and ship strikes (see Table 2)	−0.017
Demographic Management	Fecundity	1 to 1.5 × baseline	+0.016
	Adult Mortality	1 to 0.5 × baseline	+0.009
	Calf Mortality	1 to 0.5 × baseline	+0.004
Threat Management	Chinook	1 to 1.3 × baseline	+0.025
	Noise	85% to 0%	+0.017
	PCB	2 to 0 ppm/y	+0.004
	Chinook & Noise	1 to 1.3 × Chinook; 42.5% Noise	+0.036

Table 1. Models of viability of the SRKW population for assessing current viability, sensitivity to anthropogenic threats, and responses to management. Population growth rates are mean r for Baseline, ranges for tests of Individual Threats, means for Cumulative Threat scenarios, and maxima for ranges tested in Demographic Management and Threat Management scenarios.

Canada have listed this transboundary population as Endangered, citing three primary risk factors: lack of the whales' preferred prey, Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*); chronic and acute underwater noise and physical disturbance (e.g., from ferries, commercial ships, whale-watching boats, fishing boats, and recreational traffic); and high levels of contaminants, including polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)^{10,11}. A recent Status Review¹² highlighted also the potential risk to this small, localized population from catastrophic events such as an oil spill. Governments and non-governmental organizations are currently seeking effective conservation measures for this high-profile population. Fortunately, the biological and environmental data available for SRKWs are rich by the standards of any marine mammal population. Long-term annual censuses, with continuous monitoring since 1976, coupled with the specialized diet, have allowed inference of quantitative relationships between prey and various metrics of fecundity and survival^{13,14}. Thus, the prerequisites for a robust PVA suitable for guiding conservation are met.

PVA uses demographic models to assess risk to wildlife populations and evaluate the likely efficacy of protection measures, recovery targets, and restoration options^{15,16}. We used the Vortex PVA model to examine the dynamics of SRKWs. Vortex^{17–19} is a flexible, individual-based simulation that is freely available. Vortex has been used to set recovery goals and guide actions for many threatened species, including the Mexican wolf (*Canis lupus baileyi*)²⁰, Florida panther (*Puma concolor coryi*)²¹, and Florida manatee (*Trichechus manatus latirostris*)²². Several recent PVAs on the SRKWs have shown how variability in demography²³ or inter annual variability in Chinook salmon abundance^{12,24,25} could affect the population. We extend those approaches to consider also the sub-lethal effects of contaminants and acoustic disturbance, and the cumulative impacts of threats and interactions among them.

We first parameterized a Baseline model with demographic rates observed over 1976 through 2014, and tested the sensitivity of population growth to each demographic parameter. We then constructed one model that quantifies the population consequences of all three anthropogenic threats to SRKWs identified in Canadian¹⁰ and USA¹¹ recovery plans. We compared the relative importance of each threat by projecting the population growth across the possible range of each threat. Finally, we used the PVA to explore the degree to which threats would have to be mitigated, alone or in combination, to reach a quantitative USA recovery target of sustained 2.3% growth over 28 years¹¹.

Results

Five sets of population models and the scenarios examined in each are listed in Table 1. The Baseline model projects mean population growth over the next 100 years of $r = -0.002$, with variation across years of $SD = 0.045$ (Fig. 1). These projections match very closely to the rate of $r = 0.002$, with $SD = 0.042$, observed over 1976 to 2014. The marginally lower growth in the model can be accounted for by future accumulation of low levels of inbreeding. After 100 years, the projected mean inbreeding coefficient is 0.067, about the same as results from mating between first-cousins. When inbreeding depression was eliminated from the Baseline model, the projected growth was $r = 0.002$, with $SD = 0.043$ – nearly identical growth and variation in growth to the trend in recent decades, and thereby confirming that the model replicates accurately the recent dynamics of the population.

Sensitivity tests of the influence of each demographic rate in the baseline PVA (Supplementary Information) show that, across the ranges of values tested, variation in fecundity (defined for the model as the mean proportion of adult females giving birth per year) accounts for most (77%) of the uncertainty in population growth rate.

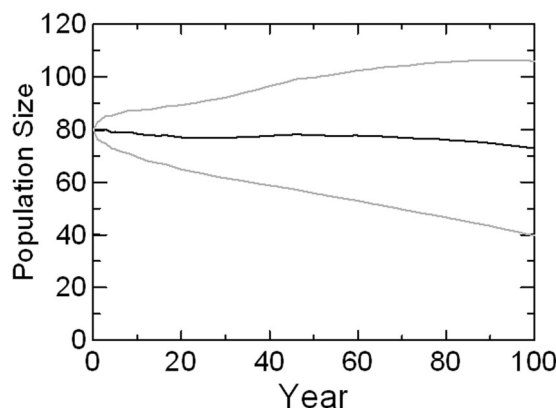


Figure 1. The distribution of 10,000 simulated trajectories with means and SD of the population size for northeastern Pacific Ocean SRKWs projected for 100 years, based on demographic rates observed from 1976 through 2014, applied to a starting population as it existed in 2015.

Scenario	Threats modelled					Population projection		
	Chinook trend	Noise	PCB (ppm/y)	Oil spill (big; small)	Ship strikes	Population growth (r)	Probability extinct	Probability final N < 30
No anthropogenic threats	constant	0	0	0	0	0.019	0	0
Current threats	constant	85%	2	0	0	−0.001	0	5%
Low increase	−25% in 100 y	92.5%	2	0.21%; 1.08%	1 per 10 y	−0.008	5%	31%
Higher increase	−50% in 100 y	100%	2	0.42%; 2.16%	2 per 10 y	−0.017	25%	70%

Table 2. Measures of viability of the SRKW population over 100 years under scenarios of minimal anthropogenic threats, current threats, and two levels of increased threats due to development. See text for explanation of threats modelled.

Annual adult mortality has some influence on the population trajectories (6%), but because mortality is already close to 0, there is comparatively less opportunity to improve the value of this parameter. Calf (first year) and juvenile (1 y to 10 y) mortality each accounted for about 3% of variation in population growth. Individual variation in reproductive success and temporal fluctuations (EV) in demographic rates had almost no effect on long-term population growth, as would be expected for a very long-lived species in which short-term fluctuations average out over time. Therefore, although our estimates of annual variation in rates are uncertain, refining the estimates would not change any conclusions about the effects of threats on the viability of the population. Given the small population size, inbreeding depression might cause sufficient adverse impact on population viability (6% of the total variance explained) such that it should not be ignored in assessments of long-term population viability. The impact of inbreeding was exacerbated slightly when we did not include avoidance of very close inbreeding (Supplemental Information).

Individual Threats. The set of models that includes estimates for the threats identified in the recovery plans – Chinook prey availability, noise and disturbance, and contaminants – was calibrated so that in the Current Threats scenario the demographic rates at existing threat levels reflect the mean demographic rates observed from 1976 through 2014. Thus, the Current Threats scenario mirrored the simpler Baseline scenario, except that rounding error in estimating effects of threats led to very slight deviation from the Baseline. The levels of these threats were then varied across broad ranges of values to determine which threat would have the greatest impact on population growth. Over the ranges tested, the effects of Chinook prey abundance on fecundity and survival had a greater effect on the population growth rate than did the other two factors (Fig. 2). Noise disturbance acts through decreased feeding efficiency in our model, but has a lesser effect than prey abundance because the maximum impact of boat noise 100% of the time would be to reduce foraging by about 20%. PCB accumulation rates that we tested result in mean levels in adult females of 0 to 132 ppm. Across this range, calf mortality is predicted to rise from about 7% to 50% (see Methods), and this impact shifts population growth from slightly positive to negative.

Cumulative Threats. Threats may interact, such that cumulative effects differ from those projected based on the summation of individual impacts. Full exploration of all of the possible interactions among the threats to the SRKW is not warranted at this time because individual threats are not yet well quantified. As more data on the above threats and other threats are acquired, management authorities can use the PVA framework to examine specific interactions of interest or full statistical analysis of all possible interactions²⁶. To illustrate how cumulative threats can be assessed within the PVA model, we examined combinations of threat levels that represent the cumulative impacts of multiple threats for a few sample scenarios. We compared the Current Threats to a

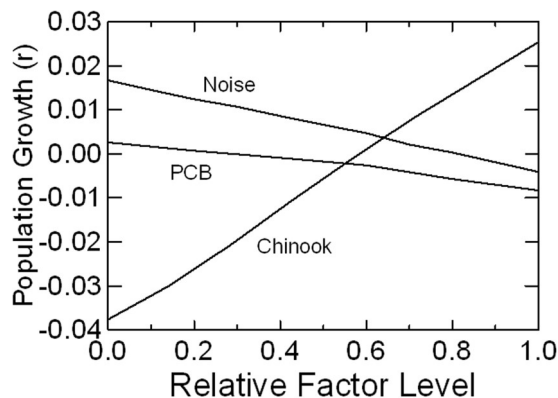


Figure 2. Effect of Chinook prey abundance (index varied from 0.60 to 1.30), noise and disturbance (boats present from 0% to 100% of time), and PCB contaminants (accumulation rate from 0 to 5 ppm/y) on mean population growth, while holding the other two factors at their baseline levels (1.0 prey index, 85% noise, and 2 ppm/y PCB accumulation). The x-axis is standardized to the range tested for each variable.

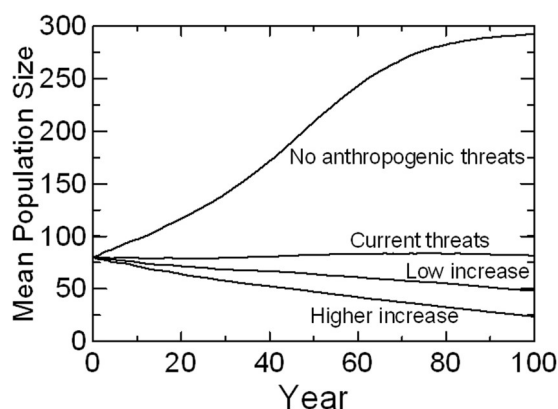


Figure 3. Mean projected SRKW population sizes for scenarios with (from top to bottom): no anthropogenic noise or contaminants; current Chinook abundance, noise, and PCBs; reduced Chinook, increased noise, and additional threats of oil spills and ship strikes as estimated for low level impacts of future industrial development; and these increased and additional threats with higher level impacts of development.

scenario with no anthropogenic threats and to scenarios with an increase in current threats and the addition of new threats. Figure 3 compares the population trajectory for the Current Threats with a scenario in which noise and PCB contamination were set to 0, and with two scenarios that describe levels of threat that could occur with proposed further industrial development and climate change. Table 2 shows the mean growth rates, probabilities of decline below 30 animals, and probabilities of extinction within 100 years under these scenarios.

The population could show robust growth if all anthropogenic threats were removed, but has no growth under current threat levels (Fig. 3). The combination of increased and additional threats expected under planned further industrial development in the habitat of the SRKW would cause population decline.

Demographic Management. The potential benefits of improvements in the primary demographic rates were examined in a set of Demographic Management scenarios. The demographic analyses indicate that reaching the SRKW recovery target of 2.3% growth is impossible by improving any single rate by a plausible amount, although increased fecundity would have the greatest positive influence on population growth (Fig. 4). To reach the recovery target, sustained mitigation of threats will be necessary to promote both increased fecundity and reduced mortality.

Threat Management. Improvements in demographic rates would need to be achieved by management actions that reduce threats or otherwise enhance the environment for SRKW. We therefore examined how population growth would respond to reductions in the levels of current threats. To achieve the recovery goal by increasing Chinook abundance alone would require a return to nearly the highest rates of Chinook abundance observed since 1979 (Fig. 5). If eliminating acoustic disturbance while maintaining current levels of Chinook abundance were possible, annual population growth could reach 1.7%. Removal of PCBs from the habitat would result in marginally positive (0.3%) growth, but the effect is much smaller than the impact of reduced noise and disturbance or increased Chinook abundance. Complete removal of both acoustic disturbance and PCBs is predicted to result in 1.9% growth. Therefore, reaching the recovery target without increasing Chinook salmon

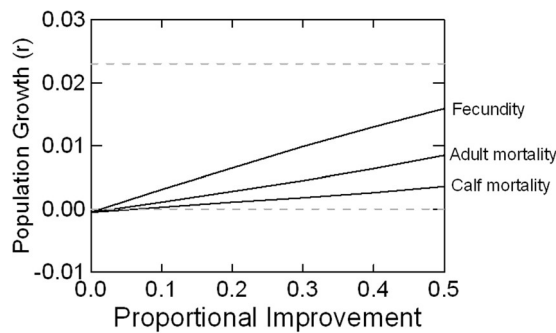


Figure 4. Mean population growth for SRKW achieved by improvements in demographic rates. Fecundity was increased from baseline to 1.5x baseline; mortality rates were decreased from baseline to 0.5x baseline. Dashed lines indicate a stated recovery target (2.3% growth) and $r=0$.

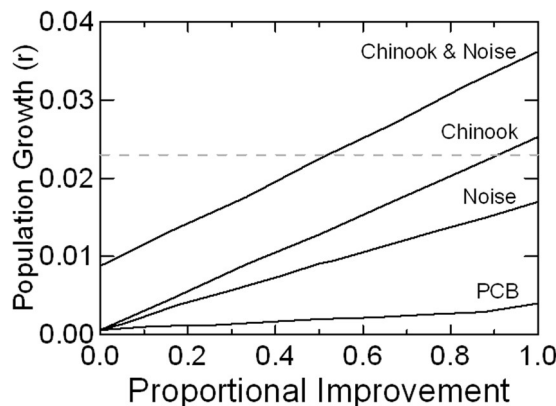


Figure 5. Mean population growth for SRKW achieved by mitigation of anthropogenic threats. Threat reductions are scaled on the x-axis from no reduction to the maximum reductions tested: Chinook abundance increased up to 1.3x the long-term mean; noise disturbance during feeding was reduced from 85% to 0; and PCBs were reduced from accumulation rates of 2 ppm/y to 0. The top line shows growth rates under a combination of varying levels of improved Chinook abundance plus mitigation of noise to half the current level.

numbers is likely impossible. Reducing acoustic disturbance by 50% and simultaneously increasing Chinook by more than 1.15x would allow the population to reach the 2.3% growth target. Other combinations of mitigation should be explored by management authorities as conservation options are identified.

Discussion

The SRKW population has experienced almost no population growth during the past four decades, and it declined in the last two decades. Intensive monitoring of the population since 1976 provides the information for construction of a detailed PVA model that closely replicates the observed population dynamics, and thereby provides a basis for projections under scenarios of increased anthropogenic threats or, conversely, increased mitigation actions. Models projecting population changes based on average demographic rates and fluctuations in those rates project that under the *status quo* the population will most likely remain near its current size. However, our use of baseline demographic rates averaged across 38 years of monitoring might give an overly optimistic projection for the SRKW if rates have deteriorated in recent years. A population projection based on demographic rates observed through 2011 projected a 1% annual mean growth²⁵, but a recent Status Review¹² projects a decline of 0.65% per year if demographic rates (such as recently lower fecundity) remain as they have been during 2011–2016. If ongoing monitoring indicates that these are not just short-term fluctuations in rates, then assessments of current viability, vulnerability to new or increased threats, and measures needed to achieve recovery will need to be revised.

When examined over ranges that encompass plausible improvements, the demographic parameter that presents the better opportunity for a large benefit to population growth is fecundity, rather than mortality. This finding is similar to a study of two bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops aduncus*) populations off Australia, which found that variability in reproduction was more important than variability in mortality in driving differences between the populations²⁷. There is simply more potential for improving reproduction than for improving adult survival when survival is already close to 1. Even complete elimination of adult mortality in the SRKW (not a biological possibility) would result in a population growth rate of 1.8%, still below the recovery goal of 2.3% growth. Although recovery cannot be achieved solely by improving adult survival, any decline in adult survival caused by new or exacerbated threats could have serious consequences for the population.

The PVA was useful for exploring scenarios representing the three main anthropogenic threats – prey limitation, acoustic and physical disturbance, and PCBs – that might worsen with increased development, or could be mitigated through management. Across the ranges of threat levels that we examined, reduction of the prey base was the single factor projected to have the largest effect on depressing population size and possibly leading to extinction, although either higher levels of noise and disturbance or higher levels of PCB contamination are sufficient to push the population from slow positive growth into decline. If additional threats from proposed and approved shipping developments (such as catastrophic and chronic oil spills, ship strikes, and increased vessel noise) combine with the predicted decline of Chinook due to climate change²⁸, then the population could decline by as much as 1.7% annually, have a 70% probability of declining to fewer than 30 animals, and have a 25% chance of complete extirpation within 100 years.

Mitigating multiple anthropogenic threats sufficiently to reach the recovery target will be difficult. The PVA is a useful way for managers to identify priorities for future research, and to focus conversations with ocean users and other special interests about the most pragmatic ways to promote recovery of endangered species. Those discussions must be integrated with considerations of feasibility, cost, societal impact, and timeframe for effective implementation. If a threat cannot be mitigated in a timescale relevant to conservation, or if costs are so high that they are prohibitive, thinking of those intractable problems as “fixed costs” in a cumulative impact management framework⁴ might be useful. For example, our model results show that eliminating PCBs would provide less benefit to SRKW than improving salmon returns or reducing anthropogenic noise and disturbance. This is fortuitous because imagining a way to eliminate PCBs that are persistent in the ecosystem is problematic²⁹, even though levels in tissues of SRKW have been slowly declining in recent decades³⁰. Identifying fixed costs that are difficult or impossible to mitigate allows a practical discussion about how to rank recovery actions among the anthropogenic factors that can be managed.

Of the three threats we considered, across wide but plausible ranges of each, salmon abundance is the greatest factor affecting SRKW population dynamics. Previously reported correlations of demographic rates with Chinook abundance^{13,14,24} were used to parameterize our model, and Wasser *et al.*³¹ recently offered insights into a mechanism that could cause the effect on fecundity: hormone levels indicate that SRKW experience nutritional stress related to periods of lower abundance of Chinook prey and that this stress results in fewer successful pregnancies. Our PVA model estimated that SRKW recovery cannot be achieved without reaching the highest levels of salmon abundance observed since 1979, which was 30% higher Chinook salmon abundance than the long-term average between 1979 and 2008. This model result allows managers to focus discussions on whether achieving such a high sustained level of salmon abundance is attainable, and if so, how to achieve it. For example, removal of a hydroelectric dam on the Elwha River in the state of Washington is expected to increase spawning habitat for all five wild Pacific salmon species in the Salish Sea, but discussions about dam removal began in the 1960s³² and the cost was in the hundreds of millions of US dollars. Restoration of spawning and rearing habitat could improve growth and survival of wild, juvenile salmon, but this takes political will, time, and money³³. Improvement of marine survival of juvenile salmon might be possible by better management of net-pen salmon aquaculture sites that host and amplify viruses and parasites that have the potential to reduce survival of wild salmon^{34,35}. Reducing Chinook harvest could provide an interim and strategic opportunity to rebuild depressed wild Chinook salmon runs and increase the number of Chinook available to whales in terminal areas like the Salish Sea³⁶. Harvest reductions without longer term rebuilding plans might be an incomplete measure in places where Chinook harvests are already low due to abundance concerns or other constraints³⁷.

The SRKW population could be adversely affected by any new threats and further intensified impacts of the anthropogenic threats that we did assess. For example, pollutants other than PCBs might affect the population, and PCBs are known to have adverse effects beyond just reduced infant survival – such as reduced immune function³⁸. However, other than calf survival, sufficient data are not yet available on the impacts of PCBs on demographic rates to allow incorporation of those threats in the population model. Moreover, threats to the population likely interact, perhaps in non-linear ways. For example, cetaceans that are food-limited might mobilize more lipids, and this will change the accumulated loads and harmful effects of PCBs and other organic pollutants. Similarly, reduction in foraging success because of boat noise might be of little consequence if prey is abundant, but could be critical if killer whales have difficulty procuring enough prey. If we can obtain data on additional threats and the interactions among threats, such effects could be included in the PVA models. At present, given that only estimates of approximate average effects of some threats are included in the model, inclusion of higher level interactions is premature.

While acknowledging that we examined only the identified primary threats to the SRKW and that we cannot yet fully assess possible complex interactions among those threats, an important finding from our PVA is that reaching the recovery target will likely require mitigation of multiple threats. For example, the PVA projects that a 50% noise reduction plus a 15% increase in Chinook would allow the population to reach the 2.3% growth target. Noise is a particularly attractive issue to address in a management context, because it is amenable to several possible mitigation scenarios^{39,40}. With respect to noise from commercial shipping, preliminary calculations suggest that the distribution of source levels of individual ships follows a power law, implying that quieting the noisiest ships will reduce overall noise levels by a disproportionate amount⁴¹. Identifying the noisiest ships operating in SRKW critical habitat⁴² and creating incentives to reduce their noise outputs through speed restrictions and maintenance might generate considerable reductions in noise levels. The International Maritime Organization and the International Whaling Commission have urged nations to reduce the contribution of shipping to ocean ambient noise, with some countries adopting a pledge to reduce anthropogenic noise levels by 50% in the next decade⁴³. However, from the perspective of a foraging killer whale that emits high-frequency (18–32 kHz) echolocation clicks to detect and capture salmon, high-frequency noise from small, outboard vessels that follow whales might cause a greater reduction in a killer whale's foraging success than low-frequency (<1 kHz) background noise from commercial shipping⁴⁴.

Clearly, even without new or increased external threats, the SRKW population has no scope to withstand additional pressures. The current situation for SRKWs gives little cause for optimism. This is likely to worsen, given the energy-related project proposals already approved for the region⁴⁵, which will increase broadband ocean noise levels and the risk of ship strikes and oil spills⁴⁶. Our models of the additional threats expected with a proposed increase in oil shipping show that these threats will push a fragile population into steady decline. Obviously, countering such additional threats sufficiently to achieve SRKW population recovery would require even more aggressive mitigation actions than if there were no such increasing threats to the population.

The case study we present offers an unusual opportunity to examine multiple anthropogenic threats in a wild-life population that is extremely data-rich by the standard of any marine ecology study⁵. One threat (the impact of prey abundance through the prey-demography link) has been well studied for decades. Another (acoustic disturbance) is relatively well appreciated in that there are documented relationships between higher noise level and reduction in foraging success. However, a conceptual step is required to convert the reduction in foraging to a reduction in prey acquisition. Full consideration of noise impacts would need to include complex interactions among reduced foraging time, reduced detection space, and reductions in prey availability. The third kind of threat (population consequences of PCBs and other persistent pollutants) relies on very few data points to calibrate the effect of the PCBs only on whale calf survival, which underestimates the total population consequences of contaminants in two ways. Lack of concentration-response studies on compounds other than PCBs hinders our ability to model population consequences of PBDEs or other contaminants. Similarly, existing studies do not allow us to predict effects of contaminants on pregnancy rate or adult mortality. This spectrum of data-rich to data-poor steps in predicting population consequences of multiple stressors is ubiquitous in conservation and ecological studies^{2,47}. The funding to fill knowledge gaps with empirical data may be lacking, or in the case of critically endangered species, time to wait for science to fill data gaps may be insufficient⁴⁸. Some authors use expert elicitation^{49,50} to fill data gaps. Expert opinion or examination of hypothetical, but plausible scenarios should be used to augment rather than replace the available data.

The case study presented here illustrates the use of PVA as a method to inform difficult conservation decisions, by simulating across plausible ranges of uncertainty. For example, sensitivity analyses revealed that some factors (e.g., individual variability in breeding success) have no effect, and such knowledge gaps should not be a barrier to management action. Given our inability to manage some insidious threats, such as persistent organic pollutants that are already in the environment, it is reassuring that the model predicts that this stressor has the smallest adverse impact on the population, at least via the pathway of reduced calf survival. The PVA can focus priority research on questions that make a practical difference. Studies of foraging efficiency under varying levels of anthropogenic disturbance are needed only because the population is prey-limited. If doubling Chinook salmon numbers were possible, and returning them to levels seen in the 1920s⁵¹, consideration of other anthropogenic impacts on the whales' foraging efficiency might not be necessary. Alas, this is not a realistic scenario, and the model therefore points to the importance of including both improvement in prey abundance and reduction in noise as the more effective mitigation pathway.

Unfortunately, focus on only the immediate, tractable threats is all too common in conservation. For example, conservation of grizzly bears (*Ursus arctos horribilis*) in the continental United States focuses on roads and development activities, but the primary concern is that the species has been absent from most of its range since the 1800s⁵². Similarly, the current small size of the SRKW population was not caused by lack of salmon. The whales' depleted status is due in large part to the legacy of an unsustainable live-capture fishery for display in aquariums⁵³. Salmon, noise, and contaminants are important factors that can prevent recovery. Many policies, including the US National Environmental Policy Act, require regulators to consider the effect of a proposed activity "which results from the incremental impact of the action when added to other past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future actions regardless of what agency (Federal or non-Federal) or person undertakes such other actions (40 CFR § 1508.7)." Allocating impacts among multiple ocean user sectors may be difficult, but in the case study we present, the population is sufficiently imperilled that it has little or no scope for tolerating additional stressors.

Methods

The SRKW population is closed to immigration and emigration, every individual in the population is known, and the population has been censused annually for decades¹¹. Individuals were identified by their unique fin shapes, saddle patches, and the presence of any nicks or scratches, and sexed using distinctive pigmentation patterns around the genital slits. Male and female offspring remain within the natal, matrilineal unit, although mating occurs within and between these pods. The term "resident" refers to their residency in inshore waters of southern British Columbia (Canada) and Washington state (USA) in the summer months, when they feed almost exclusively on Chinook salmon^{13,14,54,55}. Given that there is no dispersal from the population⁵⁶, mortality was recorded if an individual's matriline was observed in the population within a year but the individual did not appear.

We used values of demographic parameters calculated from the census data to build the population model in the Vortex PVA program^{17,18}. We included temporal variation in demographic rates ("environmental variation"), based on inter-annual variability in parameters observed since 1976, and we included individual variation in age of maturity and probability of reproductive success. The Vortex simulation model of possible future population trajectories includes demographic stochasticity (binomial variation in individual fates); random assignment of sex and a bi-sexual mating system, resulting in fluctuations in sex ratio and mate availability that can affect small populations; and projections of loss of genetic diversity, allowing for inclusion of inbreeding depression. We quantified population growth as the mean exponential rate of increase ($r = \ln[N_{t+1}/N_t]$).

Modelling was conducted in stages. First, a "Baseline" model was developed to represent the population trajectories if demographic rates remain the same as have been observed in recent decades. We confirmed this Baseline model by comparing simulated dynamics with recent population trends. Secondly, we conducted sensitivity tests on uncertain demographic rates in the model to determine which parameters had large effects on the projected

population growth. Thirdly, we used a set of models of Individual Threats that tested ranges of values for the primary threats identified in the recovery plans to determine which would have the greatest effects on population projections. Fourthly, we examined Cumulative Threats scenarios to project the fate of the population if further industrial development increases existing threats and adds new ones. A set of Demographic Management scenarios was then examined to determine the population growth that could be achieved by improvements in demographic rates. Finally, we explored Threat Management scenarios to assess the plausibility of reaching sustained annual population growth of 2.3% given various options for increasing salmon abundance, reducing ocean noise levels, or reducing contaminant levels. The following section describes key parameter estimates used in the model. More detailed description of the modelling methods is presented in Supplementary Information. The input files for the Vortex project are available at <http://www.vortex10.org/SRKW.zip> and from the Dryad Digital Repository at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.46vq7>.

Baseline PVA. We started the simulations with the ages, sexes, and pod membership of the killer whales living in 2015. We specified the mother of each animal, where known (for 76 of 80 living animals)⁵⁷. Based on previous genetic data on paternity⁵⁸, we specified in the simulation that females would not mate with their father, a son, or a maternal half-sibling. What effect lower levels of inbreeding or the inevitable accumulated inbreeding in a closed population will have on any cetacean is unknown. We modelled inbreeding depression as being caused by recessive lethal alleles, with 6.29 “lethal equivalents” (the negative of the slope of log(recruitment) against the inbreeding coefficient), the mean combined effect of inbreeding on fecundity and first-year survival in a survey of impacts on wild species⁵⁹.

Demographic rates were calculated from individual animal histories compiled by the Center for Whale Research⁵⁷, using data collected from 1976 through 2014. The time series begins when the population was depleted by live-captures for display in aquariums⁶⁰. The time series therefore includes periods of moderate population growth (1976 to 1993), subsequent decline, and approximate stability. Demographic rates were estimated for the age-class groupings used in recent models^{24,61}, except that we set an upper limit for female breeding at 45 y rather than 50 y, because no females in the population have been documented to produce calves at older ages. Thus, we calculated survival and (for adult females) fecundity rates for calves (first year), juveniles (defined as from 1 y through 9 y of age), young mature females (10–30 y), older reproductive females (31–45 y), post-reproductive females (46 y and older), young mature males (10–21 y), and older males (22 y and older). Killer whales can survive many years after reproductive senescence, but estimating maximum longevity is difficult in such a long-lived species⁶². We set an upper limit of age to 90 y in our models, although only about 2% of females would be expected to reach this age, and only about 2% of males (with higher mortality) would be expected to exceed 50 y. Females stop breeding long before the maximum age, so the long-term population growth would not be affected by the upper age limit unless post-reproductive females benefit the pod in ways other than through their own reproduction.

Mortality for each age-sex class was averaged across the 39 years of data to obtain mean annual rates. We did not try to partition observed mortality into presumed causes of death. The use of these historic data for our Baseline model makes the implicit assumption that the frequency of deaths due to the various causes remains the same as has been observed across recent decades. The variation in mortality observed across years has two components: 1) environmental variation (fluctuations in the probability of survival), and 2) demographic stochasticity (binomial variation in individual fates). To determine how much of the observed variation was due to environmental variation, the variance due to demographic stochasticity can be calculated from the expectation for a binomial process, and then subtracted from the total variation across years. Calculated annual mortality rates (and environmental variation) ranged from a low of 0.97% (SD = 0) for young adult females to 17.48% (SD = 17.96) for calves. Although the lack of evidence for annual variation in the mortality adult females beyond that expected from random sampling of a constant probability might seem optimistic, for long-lived species a low level of annual variation in rates would have negligible effect on long-term population trajectories. We confirmed through sensitivity tests (Supplementary Information) that the environmental variation entered into the population model has no effect on our results.

The breeding system is polygamous, with some males able to obtain multiple mates, females mating with different males over their lifetimes, and mating between and within pods. Males become sexually mature (actively breeding, which may occur several years after they are physiologically capable of breeding) from 12 to 18 y of age. Thus, in the model, each male was assigned an age of sexual maturity by randomly selecting a value from 12 to 18. Variance in reproductive success among individual females and males will cause genetic diversity to be depleted faster and inbreeding to accumulate faster than would occur if mating was assumed random. Information is available on male mating success⁵¹, and we incorporated variation in male and female reproductive success in the model (Supplementary Information). Our models project an effective population size that is 37% of the total size, close to an estimate obtained from genetic data⁵⁸.

Breeding rates, expressed as the proportion of the females of an age class that produce a calf each year, were calculated from annual census data. Rates ranged from 0% for post-reproductive females (age >45 y), to 7.88% (SD = 4.15) for older adult females (age 31–45 y), to 12.04% (SD = 3.54) for young adult females (age 10–30 y).

The upper limit on population size was set to 300, so that carrying capacity (K) would not restrict future population growth except under the best conditions tested. In the projections of current or expected conditions, the SRKW populations never reached this limiting size, and rarely exceeded 150 animals in any of the independent iterations of each simulation. Population recovery was assessed by the mean growth rate each year calculated before any carrying capacity truncation. Thus, the growth rate reflects the demographic potential and is not affected by the limit on population size in the model.

The SRKW population was projected for 100 years. For the initial exploration of parameter uncertainty, the simulation was repeated in 10,000 independent iterations to obtain high precision in mean and variance estimations. For comparisons among alternative management scenarios, less iteration is needed to obtain the relative influence of input values, and tests were run with 1,000 iterations. Sensitivity tests were conducted by varying each basic demographic rate (life table values for fecundity and mortality) over a range of $\pm 10\%$ around the baseline value. For several model variables that describe other aspects of the population dynamics and are also very uncertain, a wider range of values was tested (see Supplementary Information).

Individual Threats. We explored the effects of three threats identified in the recovery strategies. For each of prey abundance, noise disturbance, and PCB contaminants, we scaled impacts such that the estimated current level of the threat resulted in the mean demographic rates reported over recent decades. Effects of prey limitation were modelled using published relationships linking inter-annual variability in Chinook salmon to inter-annual variability in calf and adult mortality⁶³ and fecundity^{13,61}. A prey index was calculated by dividing the total salmon abundance in each year by its average abundance over the 1979–2008 period⁶³. The relationship of mortality to prey abundance was modelled with a multiplier of baseline mortality that is a linear function scaled to 1 when salmon abundance was at the mean observed level over period of observation: $\text{MortalityFactor} = 3.0412 - 2.0412 * \text{PreyIndex}$. The relationship of birth rate to prey was modelled with logistic functions, with the intercept scaled to yield the observed birth rates for young females (12.04%) and older females (7.88%) when $\text{PreyIndex} = 1$. For relationships of form $\text{BirthRate} = \exp(A + B * \text{PreyIndex}) / [1 + \exp(A + B * \text{PreyIndex})]$, the function parameters were $A = -3.0$ and $B = 1.0$ for young females, and $A = -3.46$ and $B = 1.0$ for older females. (See Supplementary Information for more details on these relationships.) To explore the impacts of prey abundance across a range of plausible values, we varied the prey index from approximately the lowest level (0.60) reported since 1978 to approximately the highest level (1.30).

Effects of noise on demography were modelled using the approach outlined in previous analyses of loss of acoustic communication space^{4,64}. We used summertime observations to estimate the proportion of time boats were present (during daylight hours) while the whales were foraging and the reduction in foraging expected with that amount of acoustic disturbance. We calibrated the model of noise impacts so that the mean Baseline demographic rates are obtained at the reported level of disturbance. We then simulated the relative change in foraging time and consequently demographic rates across the spectrum from no noise impact at all, to the upper limit expected if boat disturbance increased from current, already high, levels to 100% of time. We do not have data on the amount of acoustic disturbance in the winter feeding areas, but the modelling based on observed summertime disturbance provides a means to project a range of population consequences if changes in disturbance overall mirror those that are possible in the summertime habitat. Land-based observations have shown that SRKWs reduce their time spent feeding in the presence of boats by 25%⁶⁵. Vessels are present 85% of the daytime, and SRKWs are foraging in the presence of vessels an estimated 78% of that time. Thus, for the 85% current (baseline) exposure to vessels, feeding is expected to be reduced by 16.6% ($= 85\% \times 78\% \times 25\%$) due to disturbance by boats. To translate the reduction in feeding into its demographic consequences, we multiplied the prey index by a factor of $(1 - 0.195 * \text{Noise}) / (1 - 0.166)$ to obtain the proportional availability of prey. This proportion is thus 1 in the current, baseline conditions ($\text{Noise} = 0.85$), 0.965 when vessels are always present ($\text{Noise} = 1.00$), and 1.20 assuming no disturbance from vessels. The noise-modified index of prey availability was then used to determine the consequent mortality and fecundity rates. We recognize that anthropogenic noise can also have less direct effects on wildlife, including disruption of social behaviours and even impeding responsiveness to other sensory modalities⁶⁶.

Our model of accumulation, depuration, and impact on calf survival of PCBs was based on the approach described by Hall *et al.*^{67,68} with modifications in rates for SRKW⁶⁹. Calves obtain their initial load of contaminants from their dams through gestation and lactation, and females producing calves thereby depurate an estimated 77% of their contaminants⁶⁷. Otherwise, males and non-breeding females accumulate PCBs in the blubber of at a rate that we varied from 0 to 5 ppm/y in our tests. Few data are available on PCBs in the SRKW population with which to calibrate the model of PCB bioaccumulation, and the levels of PCBs reported in SRKW might have been dropping slowly in recent years. Reported levels in adult female SRKW range from 55 ± 19 ppm sampled in 1993–1996, 37 ± 42 ppm sampled in 2004–2007, and 30 ± 31 ppm sampled in 2008–2013³⁰. Our population model generates a mean 28, 55, and 81 ppm PCBs in adult females when bioaccumulation rate is 1, 2, and 3 ppm/y, respectively. Effects of maternal PCB load on calf mortality were modelled using a logistic response function ($\text{survival} = \exp(2.65 - 0.02 * \text{PCB}) / [1 + \exp(2.65 - 0.02 * \text{PCB})]$), fitted to the two observed data points for SRKW ($\text{survival} = 0.8252$) and the nearby northern resident killer whales ($\text{survival} = 0.9218$)²⁴, with the mean PCB levels (55.4 ppm and 9.3 ppm, respectively)⁷⁰ reported from the time period in the middle of the span over which mortality rates were calculated. If we use the more recent, lower estimates of PCB loads in SRKW to estimate the impacts, our response function would have a steeper slope. There are not yet sufficient data on effects of PCBs on other demographic rates to allow inclusion of any other effects of PCBs (or other contaminants) in our PVA model.

Cumulative Threats. We modelled two scenarios to represent the cumulative impacts of possible increases in threats, based in part on a recent environmental impact assessment submitted to Canada National Energy Board⁴⁵ evaluating effects of a proposed oil pipeline and associated tanker traffic. For the purposes of this PVA, projected increases in anthropogenic threats are not meant to mimic any one industrial development, but rather a general process of industrialization reflecting the number of port expansions, pipeline proposals, and liquefied natural gas terminal proposals pending for the BC coast⁴. For a low level scenario, we used the catastrophe option in Vortex to add the possibility of large ($> 16,500 \text{ m}^3$) and smaller ($> 8,250 \text{ m}^3$) oil spills. The frequencies of a big spill (0.21% chance per year) and a smaller spill (1.08%) were based on an industry projection of the likelihood of

such spills caused by proposed increase in tanker traffic⁷¹. Based on the percent overlap of oil coverage and critical habitat, we estimate that if a large oil spill were to occur, about 50% of the SRKWs would be killed due to direct exposure to the oil. We estimate that 12.5% of the SRKWs would be killed by exposure to oil from a smaller spill. For a scenario with higher level impacts of development, we doubled the frequency of oil spills.

These energy development scenarios also included an increase in vessel noise and disturbance of feeding, with the current vessel presence of 85% of time increased to 92.5% in the low level scenario and to 100% in the high level scenario. We also included a probability of additional deaths of killer whales due to ship strikes, with one death per decade in the low level and two deaths per decade in the high level scenario. Although some persistent organic pollutants might increase under increased industrial activity in the SRKW habitat, PCBs have been phased out of production and are in decline in at least some fish species in low-development basins⁷². Lacking data on likely long-term trends in the contaminant loads of SRKW prey, we did not include any change in such pollutants in these scenarios.

Climate change is projected to cause a decline in Chinook abundance²⁸, and we modelled this possibility with a projected 25% (low scenario) or 50% (high scenario) decrease in Chinook over the next 100 years.

Demographic Management and Threat Management scenarios. We used the PVA to simulate how much improvement in demographic parameters or how much reduction in anthropogenic threats, singly or in combination, would be required to reach a stated recovery objective of sustained annual population growth of 2.3% for 28 years¹¹. In calculating the growth for these models, we started the tally 20 years into the simulation to avoid short-term demographic fluctuations as the age structure adjusts to new demographic rates, and growth was tallied over the subsequent 28 years. For the set of Demographic Management scenarios, we assessed the relationship between improved demography and population growth. Birth rate was incremented by 1.1x, 1.2x, 1.3x, 1.4x, and 1.5x, whereas calf mortality and adult mortality were decreased by 0.9x, 0.8x, 0.7x, 0.6x, and 0.5x. Next, in Threat Management scenarios, we modelled the effects of reduced threats, with the consequences resulting from the functional relationships to demography. We increased salmon abundance (up to the highest level of the Chinook index observed between 1979 and 2008, namely 1.3 times the long-term average). We simulated the improved demography if acoustic disturbance were reduced or eliminated. We considered the population consequences of improved calf survival resulting from reduction of PCBs, testing rates of future accumulation in SRKW from the estimated current 2 ppm/y to down to 0 ppm/y. Finally, we tested scenarios that both reduced acoustic disturbance by half and increased salmon abundance up to 1.3x.

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Author Contributions

P.P. coordinated the project. K.C.B. and D.A.G. provide the core census and demographic database. R.W., E.A., L.J.N.B., C.W.C., D.P.C., P.P., and M.M. provided data on threats. R.C.L. built the population model and conducted the simulations. R.W., R.C.L. and P.P. led the writing. All authors contributed to and reviewed the manuscript.

Additional Information

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Education

B.A., summa cum laude, Biology, Wesleyan University 1977

Secondary school teaching certification for general science and biology

M.A., Biology, Wesleyan University 1977

Thesis: Evolutionary strategies for temperature regulation in *Mus musculus*: A quantitative genetic approach

Ph.D., Evolutionary Biology (minors: Genetics, Ecology), Cornell University, August 1982

Thesis: Population biology of mycophagous Drosophilidae in the eastern U.S.

Positions Held

1985 to present	Senior Conservation Scientist, Chicago Zoological Society
2003 to 2011	Chairman, IUCN Species Survival Commission (SSC) Conservation Breeding Specialist Group
1992 to 1993	Chairman, Dept. of Conservation Biology, Chicago Zoological Society
1982 to 1985	Assistant Professor of Biology, Franklin & Marshall College

Academic Appointments/Graduate Advisory Committees/Postdoctoral Advisees

1985 to present	Chicago Zoological Society, Department of Conservation Biology (Supervised 5 post-doctoral research associates.)
1991 to present	University of Chicago, Lecturer, Committee on Evolutionary Biology (Served on PhD advisory committees for 8 students.)
1999 to present	University of Illinois, Chicago, Adjunct Professor, Department of Biology (Served on PhD advisory committees for 4 students.)
various	External committee member for graduate students at University of Illinois-Urbana, Univ of Maryland, Univ of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Macquarie Univ, Univ of New South Wales, Monash Univ, South Dakota State Univ, Univ Missouri-St Louis, Univ Montana, Purdue Univ, Otago Univ

Current Research Interests

Interaction among genetic, demographic, and environmental causes of extinction
Modeling the dynamics of linked systems affecting wildlife – including population biology, epidemiology, wildlife harvest, habitat fragmentation, and changes in human populations
Genetic management of captive populations

Inbreeding and outbreeding depression

Teaching Experience

Franklin and Marshall College

Genetics, Vertebrate Biology, Biosocial and Environmental Problems

University of Chicago

Conservation Biology graduate seminar

Chicago Zoological Society

Lectures on evolution and conservation

Professional schools of the American Zoo and Aquarium Association

Population Management (demography and genetics sections)

Advanced Training Program in the Conservation of Biodiversity

Program coordination, lectures, and mentor for biologists from tropical countries

Escola Superior de Conservação Ambiental e Sustentabilidade (ESCAS, Brazil)

Introduction to Conservation Decision-making

Numerous other workshops on genetic analysis and population management taught to wildlife biologists, zoo managers, and conservation biologists

Professional Societies

Association of Zoos and Aquariums

American Genetic Association

Society for Conservation Biology

Society for the Study of Evolution

Professional Service

Journal advisory boards: Zoo Biology, Conservation Genetics, International Zoo Yearbook

Species Conservation Strategic Planning Task Force, chair (2005-2008), IUCN SSC

Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, IUCN SSC (Chair, 2003-2011)

Recent activities include advising US Fish and Wildlife Service, state wildlife agencies, wildlife agencies of other nations (Australia, Canada, Spain, Brazil, Kenya, Indonesia, Malaysia, India, Chile, Ecuador, South Africa) and international conservation organizations on the management of Florida panther, whooping crane, Sumatran rhinoceros, lion tamarins, lion-tailed macaque, black rhinoceros, Iberian lynx, Humboldt penguin, African penguin, grizzly bear, lowland tapir, and many other species.

Member of IUCN SSC Conservation Genetics Specialist Group

Member of AZA Small Population Management Advisory Group

Advisor to AZA Field Conservation Committee

Conservation Fellow, St Louis Zoo WildCare Institute

Honors and Grants

Peirce Award for Excellence in the Sciences, Wesleyan University, 1977

Phi Beta Kappa, 1976

Sigma Xi, 1978

Predoctoral Fellowship. NSF, 1977 - 1980.

Doctoral Dissertation - Research in Population Biology. NSF, 1979 - 1981, \$4845.

Faculty research grants. Franklin & Marshall College, 1982 - 1985.

Studies of inbreeding depression in *Peromyscus* mice. Institute of Museum Services (IMS), 1985 - 1987, \$22,775.

Electrophoretic analysis of zoo populations. IMS, 1986 - 1988, \$24,995.

Studies of outbreeding depression in *Peromyscus* mice. IMS, 1987 - 1989, \$25,000.

Electrophoretic analyses of endangered species. IMS, 1988 - 1990, \$25,000.

Outstanding Service Awards, American Zoo and Aquarium Association, 1988, 1989, 2001, 2011

Chromosomal analysis of endangered species. IMS, 1989 - 1991, \$101,347.

Predictability of inbreeding depression in insular and mainland populations. NSF, 1991-1994, \$182,683.

Population Management 2000 software development. AZA Conservation Endowment Fund, 1999, \$20,540.

Biocomplexity: Models and meta-networks for interdisciplinary research in biodiversity risk assessment. NSF, 2000-2002, \$98,000 (with P Nyhus, F Westley, P Miller, and G Ness)

An experimental test of the effects of breeding strategies used in AZA conservation programs. AZA Conservation Endowment Fund, 2001, \$42,926.

Experimental tests of the effects of captive breeding of wildlife. IMLS, 2002-2005, \$75,000.

Pedigree reconstruction to sustain populations. IMLS, 2005-2007, \$200,293 (with J. Dubach)

Meta-models as an approach to understanding biocomplexity. Private donor to Chicago Zoological Society, 2006-2010, \$100,000.

President's Award, Chicago Zoological Society, 2007.

IUCN Species Survival Commission Chair's Citation of Excellence Award, 2008.

Linking behavioral types and animal "job performance" with population management in zoos.

2009 IMLS National Leadership Planning Grant, \$22,535 (with J. Watters and D. Powell)

Incorporating mate choice into breeding recommendations. 2009 IMLS National Leadership Planning Grant, \$48,997 (with C. Asa and K. Traylor-Holzer)

RCN: Using metamodels to enable transdisciplinary research for the study of dynamic biological systems under global change. NSF, 2012-2017, \$490,905 (with H R Akcakaya, Stony Brook University).

George Rabb Award for Conservation Innovation, IUCN Species Survival Commission, 2012

Ulysses S Seal Award for Innovation in Conservation, IUCN Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, 2012

LCP NRDA Dolphin Assessment, sub-contract with Industrial Economics on contract from NOAA. 2014-2015. \$118,000 (co-PI with R. Wells).

Building capacity in population modeling for species conservation. Chicago Board of Trade Endangered Species Fund, 2014, \$3,000

Assessing conservation strategies for the Panamanian Golden frog. Chicago Board of Trade

Endangered Species Fund, 2014, \$4,250
Species Conservation Toolkit Initiative, a partnership to design, develop, disseminate, and support software for species risk assessments and conservation planning. Funding from 15 institutions, 2015-2018, \$500,000.
Impact of allowing mate choice on reproductive success and animal welfare. Association of Zoos & Aquariums, 2016-2017, \$11,280 (with L. Miller, T. Snyder, C. Asa, and C. Kozlowski).

Presentations and international workshop participation in 2014

Course on Vortex 10 software, Chicago Zoological Society (instructor)
North American Congress on Conservation Biology, Missoula, MT. Presented paper on “How to consider genetic depletion and rescue within Population Viability Analyses”
Workshop on “PVA to Policy”, Longyearbyen, Norway. Presentation on “Linking models for integrated analysis of populations facing multiple, interacting threats”.
Symposium on “Assessing vulnerability of flora and fauna in polar areas”, Tromsø, Norway. Presented paper on “Linking PVA models to explore the impacts of declining polar ice on interconnected species in the arctic ecosystem”.
Workshop on “Molecular genetics for species management in zoos and aquaria”, Antwerp, Belgium. Presentation on “Some challenges in the use of molecular genetics in population management”
Workshop on “Adaptive management for species conservation along the captive-wild spectrum”, Melbourne, Australia.
Workshop on “Integrating models of animal social systems within PVA”, Blacksburg, VA.
CBSG Strategic Committee, New Delhi, India
CBSG Annual Meeting, New Delhi, India

Presentations and international workshop participation in 2015

Workshop on computer modeling of disease risk in amphibians, Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Panama (organizer and instructor)
Workshop on the use of epidemiological models for wildlife conservation, Auckland, New Zealand (organizer and instructor).
Workshop on the use of metamodels for species conservation assessments and planning, Sydney, Australia (organizer and instructor).
CBSG Strategic Committee, Al Ain, UAE
CBSG Annual Meeting, Al Ain, UAE
Presented paper and led session on “Species Conservation Toolkit Initiative”, Association of Zoos and Aquariums (AZA).
Working session, Small Population Management Advisory Group, AZA.
Workshop on the design on ZIMS (Zoological Information Management System) R3, Minneapolis.
Workshop on the effects of plague on the dynamics of prairie dogs and black-footed ferrets, National Black-footed Ferret Conservation Center.

Training on Outbreak model of infectious disease, Chicago Zoological Society (organizer and instructor).

Training on MetaModel Manager software for integrated conservation assessments, Chicago Zoological Society (organizer and instructor).

Presentations and international workshop participation in 2016

Invited presentation on “The what, why, who, where, and when of sustainabilities”, Joint TAG Chairs Meeting, World Association of Zoos and Aquariums.

Led workshop on “Computer simulations aren’t just for games!” King Scholars Program, Brookfield Zoo.

Led workshop on “Integrating molecular genetic data into pedigree analyses”, Chicago Zoological Society.

Invited presentation on “Using Population Viability Analysis to explore impacts of noise on cetaceans”, Scientific Committee, International Whaling Commission, Bled, Slovenia.

Workshop on assessing injury to bottlenose dolphins due to PCB contamination of an estuarine system, NOAA and Georgia Dept of Natural Resources, Atlanta, Georgia.

Invited plenary presentation on “Considering human impacts – if not yet the humans – in species risk assessments”, IUCN SSC Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, Puebla, Mexico.

Led workshop on “MetaModels for interacting species (multi-species PVAs and conservation planning)”, IUCN SSC Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, Puebla, Mexico.

Dept of Fisheries and Oceans Canada, presentation on “Predicting responses of St. Lawrence beluga to environmental change and anthropogenic threats to orient effective recovery actions”.

University of Maine – Machias, invited talk on “Building tools for wildlife conservation”.

Presentations and international workshop participation in 2017

Tools for managing island populations. Presented to New Zealand Department of Conservation.

One Plan Approach: Working together for species conservation. Presented at Latin America Zoo Association (ALZPA) annual conference. Havana, Cuba.

Training in advanced techniques for population modeling with Vortex. Presented at AZA Reproductive Management Center, St Louis, MO.

Overview of Species Conservation Toolkit Initiative. IUCN SSC Conservation Planning Specialist Group annual meeting, Berlin, Germany.

Outbreak software for modeling infectious disease. Presented at Disease Risk Assessment Workshop. IUCN Conservation Planning Specialist Group, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

Presentations and international workshop participation in 2017

Training in advanced techniques for population modeling with Vortex. Seattle, WA.

Publications (most are available for downloading from www.vortex10.org/lacypubs.html)

Lacy, R.C., C.B. Lynch and G.R. Lynch. 1978. Developmental and adult acclimation effects of ambient temperature on temperature regulation of mice selected for high and low levels of nest-building. *Journal of Comparative Physiology B* 123:185-192.

- Lacy, R.C. 1978. Dynamics of t-alleles in *Mus musculus* populations: Review and speculation. *The Biologist* 60:41-67.
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- Lacy, R.C. and C.B. Lynch. 1979. Quantitative genetic analysis of temperature regulation in *Mus musculus*. I. Partitioning of variance. *Genetics* 91:743-753.
- Lacy, R.C. 1980. The evolution of eusociality in termites: A haplodiploid analogy? *American Naturalist* 116:449-451.
- Lacy, R.C. 1981. Taxonomic and distributional notes on some fungus-feeding North American *Drosophila* (Diptera, Drosophilidae). *Entomological News* 92:59-63.
- Lacy, R.C. 1982. Niche breadth and abundance as determinants of genetic variation in populations of mycophagous drosophilid flies (Diptera:Drosophilidae). *Evolution* 36:1265-1275.
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- Lacy, R.C. and P.W. Sherman. 1983. Kin recognition by phenotype matching. *American Naturalist* 121:489-512.
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- Lacy, R.C. 1984. Predictability, toxicity, and trophic niche breadth in fungus-feeding Drosophilidae (Diptera). *Ecological Entomology* 9:43-54.
- Lacy, R.C. 1984. The evolution of termite eusociality: Reply to Leinaas. *American Naturalist* 123:876-878.
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- Lacy, R.C. 1988. Genetic variability in captive stocks: Assessing past loss, present status, and future outlook. AAZPA 1988 Annual Proceedings 113-121.
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- Maguire, L.A. and R.C. Lacy. 1990. Allocating scarce resources for conservation of endangered subspecies: Partitioning zoo space for tigers. Conservation Biology 4:157-166.
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- Seal, U.S., R.C. Lacy, K. Medley, R. Seal, and T.J. Foose. 1991. Tana River Primate Reserve Conservation Assessment Workshop Report. IUCN SSC Captive Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, Minnesota.
- Mirande, C., R. Lacy, and U. Seal. 1991. Whooping crane (*Grus americana*) conservation viability assessment workshop report. IUCN SSC Captive Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, Minnesota.
- Foose, T.J., R.C. Lacy, R. Brett, and U.S. Seal. 1991. Kenya black rhinoceros metapopulation workshop report. IUCN SSC Captive Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, Minnesota.
- Lacy, R.C. 1992. The effects of inbreeding on isolated populations: Are minimum viable population sizes predictable? Pages 277-296 in P.L. Fiedler and S.K. Jain (eds.), *Conservation Biology: The Theory and Practice of Nature Conservation, Preservation and Management*. Chapman and Hall, New York.
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- Seal, U.S., R.C. Lacy, et al. 1992. Genetic management strategies and population viability of the Florida panther (*Felis concolor coryi*). Report to the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. IUCN SSC Captive Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, Minnesota.
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- Ellis, S., C. Kuehler, R. Lacy, K. Hughes, and U. Seal. 1992. Hawai`ian forest birds conservation assessment and management plan. IUCN SSC Captive Breeding Specialist Group, Apple Valley, Minnesota.
- Lacy, R.C. 1993. Impacts of inbreeding in natural and captive populations of vertebrates: Implications for conservation. *Perspectives in Biology and Medicine* 36:480-496.
- Lacy, R.C. 1993. VORTEX: A computer simulation model for Population Viability Analysis. *Wildlife Research* 20:45-65.
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- Ballou, J.D., R.C. Lacy, K. Traylor-Holzer, K. Bauman, J.A. Ivy, P. Siminski, and C. Asa. Strategies for establishing and using genome resource banks in endangered species conservation. (submitted)
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- Ashe, E., R. Williams, F. Cipriano, C.W. Clark, C. Erbe, A. Hall, P. Hammond, R.C. Lacy, R. Reeves, B. Taylor, and N. Vollmer. Avoiding the data-gap trap: predicting sensitivity of abundant species to anthropogenic threats before declines can be detected. (submitted)

Software developed and distributed for professional use

PMx: Software for demographic and genetic analysis and management of populations. (Developed jointly with J. Ballou and J.P. Pollak). Used to guide management of captive populations of more than 1000 species globally.

Vortex: Simulation of interacting genetic, demographic, and environmental causes of extinction in small, isolated populations interconnected by occasional migration. Used by conservation and wildlife biologists to assist in the analysis and management of wild populations of 100s of species in more than 70 countries.

Vortex Adaptive Manager. Software for guiding adaptive management of wildlife populations.

Outbreak: Epidemiological simulation for modeling infectious disease. (Developed with J.P. Pollak, P.S. Miller, et al.)

MetaModel Manager: Flexible modeling platform for linking simulation models representing diverse processes (such as species interactions, habitat change, climate change, disease, and social systems) to provide more holistic risk assessments for wildlife populations. (Developed with J.P. Pollak.)

MMMacro: A dll library providing a macro script interpreter for use within system models. (MMMacroEntry provides a stand-alone program for writing and testing macro scripts.)

- Curriculum Vitae -
Short Form
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Date of Birth: 06 December 1948
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Education

1966 - 1970 B.A., Philosophy, University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara, California.
1967 - 1968 Undergraduate, Zoology, University of California, Berkeley, California.
1970 - 1970 Graduate Philosophy, Oxford University, Oxford, England.
1970 - 1971 Post Bacc., Biology, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.
1971 - 1972 Graduate Studies, Wildlife Management, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon.
1972 - 1974 B.S., Zoology (Wildlife Biology), Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.
Thesis topic: Distribution and movements of coyotes along the lower Colorado River, Arizona.
1976 - 1981 M.S., Biology (Ethology), Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.
Thesis topic: Temporal and phenomenological aspects of social behavior in captive wolves.
1982 - 1988 Ph.D., Zoology, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta. Dissertation topic: Behavioural ecology of sympatric wolves and coyotes in Riding Mountain National Park, Manitoba.
1989-1990 Postdoc, Yale University, New Haven, CT

Academic Appointments

1988/89 Assistant Professor, Department of Biology, Brandon University, Brandon, Manitoba
1989-2012 Adjunct Professor, Department of Biology, Brandon University, Brandon, Manitoba
1995-2006 Faculty Associate, Faculty of Graduate Studies, Guelph University, Guelph, Ontario
1994-2012 Adjunct Associate Professor, Faculty of Environmental Design, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta
1997-2001 Adjunct Professor, Department of Biology, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta
1997-2001 Adjunct Professor, Department of Zoology, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta
2003-2012 Adjunct Professor, Dept. of Environment and Geography, University of

	Manitoba, Winnipeg
2003-	Honorary Research Associate, Department of Biology, University of New Brunswick, Fredericton
2006-2009	Adjunct Professor, Department of Veterinary Pathology, Western College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Saskatchewan
2012-	Adjunct Professor, Department of Geography, University of Victoria, Victoria, BC

Other Appointments

2000-2008	Senior Scientist, Conservation Biology Institute, U.S.A.
1995-2009	Research Fellow, World Wildlife Fund – Canada
2000-present	Senior Scientist, Raincoast Conservation Society, Canada
2005-present	Research Fellow, Rewilding Institute, U.S.A.
2005-2016	Society for Conservation Biology – International Policy Committee
2007-2009	Wildlife Society Canada – Policy Committee
2000-2014	International Union for Conservation of Nature Breeding Specialist Group
2015	International Union for Conservation of Nature Wolf Specialist Group
2017	International Union for Conservation of Nature WCPA Connectivity Conservation Specialist Group

Certification

1972 1977	Instructor, Outward Bound Schools; Kayaking, Snow, Ice and Rock Climbing, Mountaineering
1982	"Animal damage control in coastal forests of the Pacific Northwest." Cooperative Extension, U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service, Department of Interior.
1984	"Biotelemetry, methods and applications." Telonics Inc., Mesa, Arizona in conjunction with Lethbridge Community College, Lethbridge, Alberta.
1987	Instructor's Certification "Safety in bear country", Departments of Natural Resources, N.W.T. and Manitoba.
1988	"Wildlife Immobilization", Canadian Parks Service, Environment Canada

Professional Societies

1974-2014	The Wildlife Society, Washington D.C.
1974-2014	The American Society of Mammalogists, Kansas City, Missouri
1984-1989	The Wildlife Society of Canada
1984-2014	Canadian Field Naturalists
1985-1999	Canadian Society of Zoologists
1989-present	Society for Conservation Biology
1992-2004	New York Academy of Science
1994-present	American Association for the Advancement of Science
2003-present	American Institute of Biological Sciences

Committees and Boards

1986-1991	Riding Mountain Biosphere Reserve, Chairman, Manitoba
1989-2009	Central Canadian Rockies Wolf Project, Board of Directors, Canmore, AB
1991-1999	Board of Scientific Advisors, Canid Research Facility, Dalhousie University, Nova Scotia
1992-2008	Coordinator for World Wildlife Fund (Canada) Carnivore Conservation Program
1992-	Board of Directors, German Wolf Society, Cologne, Germany
1993-1999	Banff National Park Elk Advisory Committee, Banff National Park, Alberta
1993-1999	Scientific Advisor, European Wolf Federation, Liege, Belgium
1993-1999	Director of Gray Wolf Research, Tatra Mountains National Park Wolf Ecology Project, Tatra, Slovakia
1993-1999	Director of Gray Wolf Research, Slovakian Wolf Ecology Project, Slovakia
1994-1998	Advisory Board of the Environmental Research Center, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB.
1993-2001	Predator/Prey Study Steering Committee and Director of Research, Pukaskwa National Park, Pukaskwa, Ontario
1993-2005	East Slopes Steering Committee for Grizzly Bear Research in Central Canadian Rocky Mountains
1995-2000	Grizzly Bear Scientific Advisory Committee to Minister of Environment, British Columbia Provincial Grizzly Bear Strategy
1995-2000	Scientific Steering Committee, World Wild Fund for Nature - International, Pan-European Carnivore Conservation Strategy
1994-1999	Town of Canmore Wildlife Corridor Committee, Canmore Alberta.
1996	Columbia Basin Science Review Panel, U.S. Forest Service

- 1995 Tongas National Forest, Alaska - Scientific Review Committee. U.S. Forest Service
- 1997-2008 Northwest Territories, Ecology of Wolves in the Central Arctic, N.W.T., Research Associate, Yellowknife, Northwest Territories.
- 1997 Nez Pearce Wolf Recovery Scientific Advisory Committee, Idaho
- 1997-2003 Board of Directors and Founding Member, Conservation Biology Institute, Corvallis, Oregon.
- 1997 U.S. Forest Service Lynx Research Advisory Committee, Missoula, Mt.
- 1995-1997 Riding Mountain National Park Management Plan Science Advisory Committee, Riding Mountain National Park, Manitoba.
- 1998-2006 Animal Care Committee, American Society of Mammalogists
- 1999-2005 U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service, Red Wolf Reintroduction Advisory Committee
- 1996-2014 Parks and Wilderness Specialist Group; International Union for Conservation of Nature
- 2000-2014 Conservation Breeding Specialist Group, International Union for Conservation of Nature Species Specialists, Member and Strategic Associate
- 2002-2009 Board of Directors, Defenders of Wildlife Canada
- 2003-2007 Board of Directors, Wildlands League, USA
- 2004-2008 Chair, Science Advisory Committee, Infectious Wildlife Disease National Strategy, Canada
- 2004-present Chair, National Science Advisory Committee, for Wildlife Tuberculosis, Riding Mountain, Manitoba
- 2008-2015 Board of Directors, Society for Conservation biology
- 2012-present Woodland Caribou Technical Committee, Province of Saskatchewan
- 2014 Canid Specialist Group, International Union for Conservation of Nature Species Specialists, Member and Strategic Associate
- 2017-03-21 Connectivity Conservation Specialist Group, International Union for Conservation of Nature, Member

Periodicals and Reports

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- Paquet, P.C. and Alexander, S.M. 2018. Habitat loss: changing how animals think? Pages 4-14 *In* Andrew Butterworth, editor. Animal welfare in a changing world. 2018. CABI Wallingford, Oxfordshire, UK; Boston, MA. LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2017059470>

Peer reviewing

I review ≥ 10 submissions per year, including those made to the following Journals: Biology Letters, Oikos, Oecologia, Animal Conservation, Aquatic Biology, Journal of Applied Ecology, Functional Ecology, Animal Behaviour, Marine Ecology Progress Series, Conservation Biology, Journal of Mammalogy, Behavioral Ecology, Biological Conservation, Rangifer, Northeastern Naturalist, Wildlife Biology.

Areas of Expertise

- Environmental Ethics
- Large Carnivores
- Predator Prey Relationships
- Population Ecology & Wildlife Disease
- Population Dynamics of Large Mammals
- Habitat Analysis
- Computer Modelling
- Telemetry
- Remote Sensing Techniques
- GIS applications
- Live Capture and Immobilization of Carnivores

Additional Interests and Skills

- Photography
- Auto Mechanics
- Mountaineering
- Carpentry

Misty MacDuffee, C.V.

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**Introduction**

I am a conservation biologist with a focus on fisheries ecology in salmon ecosystems. For the past 15 years I have undertaken various types of field, laboratory, technical and conservation assessments in the salmon-bearing watersheds of the BC coast. I have a particular interest in the role of salmon as critical food sources for wildlife and incorporating their nutritional and energetic needs into salmon management decisions. I am also interested in historic stock assessment and run reconstructions in salmon watersheds. The application of my work is to implement ecosystem considerations in fisheries management. This often requires my engagement with management, dialogue and stakeholder forums that affect fisheries and wildlife policy and management.

Education

Bachelor of Science

2002-2006 Biology, University of Victoria, Victoria, British Columbia,

1982-1985 Environmental Science and Environment Studies, Trent University, Peterborough, Ontario

Work History

2005- current Conservation Biologist, Raincoast Conservation Foundation (RCF)

Program Focus: Sustainable fisheries and conservation of salmon ecosystems

- Salmonid inventories and status assessments
- Juvenile salmon field assessments of presence/absence, habitat indicators and use
- Fish community assessments in river, estuarine and marine ecosystems
- documentation/characterization of grizzlies diets and salmon use by grizzlies
- Examining the role of salmon nutrients to sockeye nursery lake production
- Use of paleolimnological tools to understand past trends and drivers (nutrients, climate, harvest) in sockeye abundance, productivity and population dynamics.
- Examination of stock recruitment models as appropriate management tools to meet objectives under Canada's Wild Salmon Policy.

2014- Present Naturalist and Guide, Maple Leaf Adventures

- Guiding and interpreting wildlife and natural history on BC's south, central and north coast with focus on toothed and baleen whales, birds, grizzlies and salmon

August 2010 - November 2010 Team Leader: Salmon enumeration/creek walker. Mainland Enhancement Salmonid Society, subcontract to Fisheries and Oceans Canada

- In-stream (live) enumeration and carcass counts of salmon species in 15 streams and rivers of the Broughton Archipelago
- Determining and assessing juvenile salmon presence and distribution
- Collection of tissues for molecular genetic analysis
- Stream and watershed reviews and recommendations for improved habitat conservation

Fall 2008. Salmon enumeration and creek walker. Sub contract to Simon Fraser University.

- In-stream (live) enumeration and carcass counts of salmon species in a dozen streams and rivers within Fisheries Management Area 7 on BC central coast.

Summers 2004-2006. Platform Observer and crew, Marine Mammal At- Sea Surveys, RCF

- Observation and identification of cetaceans and pinnipeds (whales, dolphins, seals, sea lions) from boat-based line transect surveys throughout the Queen Charlotte Basin.

1996 - 2002 Salmon Ecologist & Community Advisor, Institute of Ocean Sciences & University of Victoria

- Restoration elements of degraded freshwater and marine salmonid habitats including stream, watershed, hydrologic, near shore and foreshore assessments,
- salmonid assessments and stock assessment,
- habitat prescriptions and recommendations to governments and community agencies on improving freshwater and marine aquatic conditions for salmonids and other organisms.

Field Skills

- 20 years experience operating small boats and zodiacs on the BC coast,
- SVOP certification and Marine Radio Operators license
- Marine Emergency Duties MED A1, A2 and A3 certification
- Red Cross Advanced Marine First Aid and Advanced Wilderness First Aid
- PADI open water diver certification
- Assistant bear-viewing guide certification with Commercial Bear Viewing Association
- Class 5 drivers license and extensive experience driving trucks and trailers
- have lead my own field research programs and crewed for others
- have sampled, collected, assessed and inventoried abiotic and biotic features of remote coastal regions
- can work safely and independently with wildlife and have been responsible for safety of others

Scientific Published Papers

Chalifour, L., D.C. Scott, **M. MacDuffee**, J.C. Iacarella, T.G. Martin and J.K. Baum. 2019. Habitat selectivity by juvenile salmon, resident and migratory species underscores the importance of estuarine habitat mosaics. *In review*

Gayeski, Nick, **Misty MacDuffee**, and Jack A. Stanford. 2018. Criteria for a Good Catch: A Conceptual Framework to Guide Sourcing of Sustainable Salmon Fisheries. *Facets*. 3: 300–314. <https://doi.org/10.1139/facets-2016-0078>

Kehoe, L.J., J.Lund, L. Chalifour, J.M. Casey, B. Connors, N. Cryer, M.C. Drever, C. Levings, **M. MacDuffee**, H. McGregor, D.C. Scott, R.G. Vennesland, C.E. Wilkinson, P. Zevit, J.K. Baum and T.G. Martin. *in review*. Prioritizing conservation action in a highly contested socio-ecological system.

Lacy, Robert C., R. Williams, E. Ashe, K.C. Balcomb III, L.J. N. Brent, C.W. Clark, D.P. Croft, D.A. Giles, **M. MacDuffee** and P.C. Paquet. 2017. Evaluating anthropogenic threats to endangered killer whales to inform effective recovery plans. *Scientific Reports*. 7, Article number: 14119 doi:10.1038/s41598-017-14471-0

Michael H.H. Price, K.K. English, A.G. Rosenberger, **M. MacDuffee**, and J.D. Reynolds. 2017. Canada's Wild Salmon Policy: an assessment of conservation progress in British Columbia. *Can J. Fish & Aquatic Sci.* <https://doi.org/10.1139/cjfas-2017-0127>

Jarvela Rosenberger, A.L., **M. MacDuffee**, A.G. J. Rosenberger and Peter S. Ross. 2017. Oil Spills and Marine Mammals in British Columbia, Canada: Development and Application of a Risk-Based Conceptual Framework. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 73: 131. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00244-017-0408-7>

Darimont, C.T., K. Artelle, H. Bryan, C. Genovali, **M. MacDuffee**, and P.C. Paquet. 2013. Brown bears, salmon, people: Traveling upstream to a sustainable future. Chapter 14 in *Bear Necessities: Rescue, Rehab, Sanctuary and Advocacy*. Lisa Kemmerer ed. Brill Press. Boston

Christensen, J.R., M.B. Yunker, **M. MacDuffee** and P.S. Ross. 2013. Plant consumption by grizzly bears reduces biomagnification of salmon-derived PCBs, PBDEs, and organochlorine pesticides. *Env.Tox. Chem.* 02/2013

Levi T., C.T. Darimont, **M. MacDuffee**, M. Mangel, P. Paquet, C.C Wilmers. 2012. Using Grizzly Bears to Assess Harvest-Ecosystem Tradeoffs in Salmon Fisheries. *PLoS Biol* 10(4)

Darimont, C.T., Bryan, H.M., Carlson, S.M., Hocking, M.D., **MacDuffee, M.**, Paquet, P.C., Price, M.H.H., Reimchen, T.E., Reynolds, J.D., and Wilmers, C.C. 2010. Salmon for terrestrial protected areas. *Conservation Letters*. 3(6): 379–389

MacDuffee, M. and E. MacIsaac (eds). 2009. Applications of paleolimnology to sockeye salmon nursery lakes and ecosystems in the Pacific Northwest and Alaska: Proceedings of a workshop at the Institute of Ocean Sciences, October 2008. *Can. Tech. Rep. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* No. 2847

Price, M.H., C.T. Darimont, N.F. Temple and **M. MacDuffee**. 2008. Ghost Runs: Management and status assessment of Pacific salmon returning to British Columbia's central and north coasts. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* Vol 65, No 12, pp. 2712-2718(7)

Christensen, J.R., **MacDuffee, M.**, Yunker, M.B., and Ross, P.S. 2007. Hibernation associated changes in persistent organic pollutants (POP) levels and patterns in British Columbia grizzly bears. *Environ.Sci.Technol.* 41: 1834 - 1840;

Christensen, J.R., **MacDuffee, M.**, MacDonald, R.W., Whitticar, M. and Ross, P.S. 2005. Persistent Organic Pollutants in British Columbia's Grizzly Bears: Consequence of Divergent Diet. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 39: 6952-6960

Expert Reports for Legal Proceedings

December 2011. Written evidence of Misty MacDuffee on the marine risks and impacts to British Columbia's wild salmon. Submitted to Canada's CEAA-NEB Joint Review Panel in the matter of Enbridge's Northern Gateway Environmental and Socio-economic Assessment.

May 2015. Written evidence of Kate Logan, Dave Scott and Misty MacDuffee on Potential Effects on Fraser River Salmon from an oil spill by the Trans Mountain Expansion Project. Submitted to National Energy Board in the matter of Trans Mountain ULC Environmental Assessment.

July 2013. Written evidence of Misty MacDuffee on the conservation status of British Columbia's south coast salmon populations. Submitted to the federal court in the matter of Morton vs. Fisheries and Oceans Canada and Marine Harvest.

Past Positions and Committees

2009 - current Marine Conservation Caucus representative to Fisheries & Oceans Canada's Integrated Harvest Planning Committee (IHPC) for salmon fisheries

2012 – current Marine Conservation Caucus representative to Fisheries & Oceans Canada Technical Working Group to the Southern BC Chinook Strategic Planning Initiative

2018 – current Marine Conservation Caucus representative to Fisheries & Oceans Canada Southern Resident killer whale Prey Working Group

2018 – current Member of Fisheries & Oceans Canada's Southern Resident killer whale Stakeholder Working Group

2008 - current Raincoast Conservation Foundation representative to BC's Marine Conservation Caucus

2007- 2012 Committee member, Rivers Inlet Recovery Team/ Rivers-Smith Salmonid Ecosystem Society

2009 - 2011, Chair, Board of Directors, Gulf Islands Alliance

2011- 2017, Director, Gulf Islands Alliance

1999 - 2006 Chair, Board of Directors, Raincoast Conservation Foundation