Revised 12/30/2021

BOWHEAD WHALE (*Balaena mysticetus*): Western Arctic Stock

STOCK DEFINITION AND GEOGRAPHIC RANGE

Western Arctic bowhead whales are distributed in seasonally ice-covered waters of the Arctic and near-Arctic, generally north of 60°N and south of 75°N in the western Arctic Basin (Braham 1984, Moore and Reeves 1993). For management purposes, four stocks of bowhead whales are recognized worldwide by the International Whaling Commission (IWC 2010). Small stocks, comprising only a few hundred individuals, occur in the Sea of Okhotsk and the offshore waters of Spitsbergen (Zeh et al. 1993, Shelden and Rugh 1995, Wiig et al. 2009, Shpak et al. 2014, Boertmann et al. 2015). Bowhead whales occur in western Greenland (Hudson Bay and Foxe Basin) and eastern Canada (Baffin Bay and Davis Strait), and evidence suggests that these should be considered one stock based on genetics (Postma et al. 2006, Bachmann et al. 2010, Heide-Jørgensen et al. 2010, Wiig et al. 2010), aerial surveys (Cosens et al. 2006), and tagging data (Dueck et al. 2006; Heide-Jørgensen et al. 2006; IWC 2010, 2011). This stock, previously thought to include only a few hundred animals, may number over a thousand (Heide-Jørgensen et al. 2006, Wiig et al. 2011), and perhaps over 6,000 (IWC 2008, Doniol-Valcroze et al. 2015, Frasier et al. 2015). The only stock found within U.S. waters is the Western Arctic stock (Fig. 1), also known as the Bering-Chukchi-Beaufort stock (Rugh et al. 2003) or Bering Sea stock (Burns et al. 1993). The IWC Scientific Committee concluded, in several reviews of the extensive genetic and satellite telemetry data, that the weight-of-evidence is most consistent with one bowhead whale stock that migrates throughout waters of northern and western Alaska and northeastern Russia (IWC 2008, 2018).

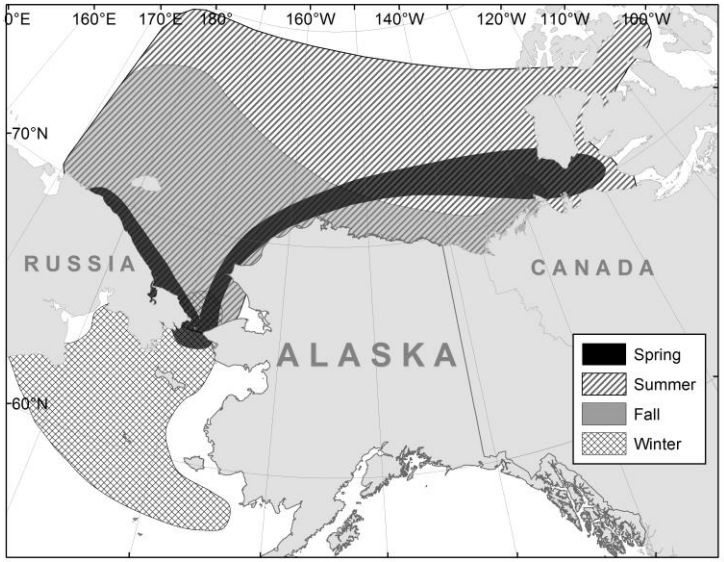

Figure 1. Annual range of the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales by season from satellite tracking data, 2006-2017 (map based on Quakenbush et al. (2018): Fig. 2).

The majority of the Western Arctic stock migrates annually from wintering areas in the northern Bering and southern Chukchi seas (December to April), through the Chukchi Sea and Beaufort Sea in the spring (April through May), to the eastern Beaufort Sea (Fig. 1) where they spend much of the late spring and summer (May through September). During late summer and autumn (September through December), this stock migrates back to the Chukchi Sea and then to the Bering Sea (Fig. 1) to overwinter (Braham et al. 1980; Moore and Reeves 1993; Quakenbush et al. 2010a, 2018; Citta et al. 2015). During winter and spring, bowhead whales are closely associated with sea ice (Moore and Reeves 1993, Quakenbush et al. 2010a, Citta et al. 2015, Druckenmiller et al. 2018). The bowhead whale spring migration follows fractures in the sea ice along the coast to Point Barrow, generally in the shear zone between the shorefast ice and the mobile pack ice, then continues offshore on a direct path to the Cape Bathurst polynya (Citta et al. 2015). In most years, during summer, a large proportion of the population is in the relatively ice-free waters of Amundsen Gulf in the eastern Beaufort Sea (Citta et al. 2015), an area often exposed to industrial activity related to petroleum exploration (e.g., Richardson et al. 1987, Davies 1997). However, summer aerial surveys conducted in the western Beaufort Sea during July and August of 2012-2017 have had relatively high sighting rates of bowhead whales, including cows with calves and feeding animals (Clarke et al. 2018a, 2018b), suggesting interannual variability in bowhead whale summer distribution. Additionally, data from a satellite-tagging study conducted between 2006 and 2018 indicated that, although most tagged whales began to leave the Canadian Beaufort Sea in September, the timing of their westward migration across the Beaufort Sea was highly variable; furthermore, all tagged whales observed in summer and fall in Beaufort and Chukchi waters near Point Barrow were known to have returned from Canada (Quakenbush and Citta 2019). Timing of the onset of the westward migration across the Beaufort Sea is associated with oceanographic conditions in the eastern Beaufort Sea (Citta et al. 2018,

Clarke et al. 2018b). During the autumn migration, bowhead whales generally inhabit shelf waters across the Beaufort Sea (Citta et al. 2015). The autumn migration across the Chukchi Sea is more dispersed (Clarke et al. 2016); here, bowhead whales generally prefer cold, saline waters that are mostly of Bering Sea origin (Citta et al. 2018). During winter in the Bering Sea, bowhead whales often use areas covered by nearly 100% sea ice, even when polynyas are available (Quakenbush et al. 2010a, Citta et al. 2015).

Evidence from stomach contents and habitat associations suggests that Western Arctic bowhead whales feed on concentrations of zooplankton throughout their range. Likely or confirmed feeding areas include Amundsen Gulf and the eastern Beaufort Sea; the central and western Beaufort Sea; the Chukchi shelf break, especially Herald Valley and the Central Channel; and the coast of Chukotka between Wrangel Island and Bering Strait (Lowry et al. 2004; Ashjian et al. 2010; Clarke and Ferguson 2010; Quakenbush et al. 2010a, 2010b; Okkonen et al. 2011; Fish et al. 2013; Citta et al. 2015, 2018; Clarke et al. 2017; Harwood et al. 2017; Olnes et al. 2020). Citta et al. (2015) identified six core use areas for Western Arctic bowhead whales based on bowhead whale satellite telemetry, oceanography, sea ice, and winds. During spring in the Cape Bathurst polyna, whales are found in water <75 m deep where calanoid copepods ascend after diapause. In summer and into fall, bowhead whales inhabit shelf waters in the Beaufort Sea, including the Tuktoyaktuk shelf and areas farther west, where episodic wind-driven upwelling and high river discharge results in high densities of zooplankton (Citta et al. 2015, Harwood et al. 2017, Okkonen et al. 2018, Clarke et al. 2018b). During summer and fall, Western Arctic bowhead whales may congregate on the shallow shelf east of Point Barrow, where variable wind dynamics promote large aggregations of zooplankton onto the shelf (Ashjian et al. 2010, Okkonen et al. 2011, Citta et al. 2015). In winter, dive behavior suggests that bowhead whales feed in shelf waters of the Bering Sea, from Bering Strait south through Anadyr Strait, and near the seafloor in the Gulf of Anadyr (Citta et al. 2012, 2015). Of four bowhead whales harvested in November (two in 2012) and December (two in 2010) near St. Lawrence Island, in the northern Bering Sea, three had been feeding (Sheffield and George 2013). Results from mercury and stable isotope analysis are consistent with year-round foraging and seasonal migration of bowhead whales (Pomerleau et al. 2018).

Clarke et al. (2015) identified nine important areas for bowhead whales in the U.S. Arctic based on aerial survey data and satellite telemetry. Four are reproductive areas where the majority of bowhead whales identified as calves were observed each season. Three are feeding areas located in the western Beaufort Sea. In most years, the krill trap area (Ashjian et al. 2010) from Smith Bay to Point Barrow is the most consistent feeding area for bowhead whales from August to October (Clarke et al. 2015). In other areas of the western Beaufort Sea, bowhead whales may feed in ephemeral prey patches on the continental shelf, out to approximately the 50 m isobath, in September and October. These ephemeral foraging areas are also evident in satellite telemetry data (Quakenbush and Citta 2019, Olnes et al. 2020).

This stock assessment report assesses the abundance and Native subsistence harvest of Western Arctic bowhead whales throughout the stock's entire geographic range. Human-caused mortality and serious injury, other than Native subsistence harvest, is estimated for the portion of the range within U.S. waters (i.e., the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone) because relevant data are generally not available for the broader range of the stock. However, some pot gear entanglements and rope scars first detected in U.S. waters may have been caused by Russian pot fisheries (Citta et al. 2014).

POPULATION SIZE

All stocks of bowhead whales were severely depleted during intense commercial whaling, starting in the early 16th century near Labrador, Canada (Ross 1993), and spreading to the Bering Sea in the mid-19th century (Braham 1984, Bockstoce and Burns 1993, Bockstoce et al. 2007). Woodby and Botkin (1993) summarized previous efforts to estimate bowhead whale population size prior to the onset of commercial whaling. They reported a minimum worldwide population estimate of 50,000, with 10,400 to 23,000 in the Western Arctic stock (dropping to less than 3,000 at the end of commercial whaling). Brandon and Wade (2006) used Bayesian model averaging to estimate that the Western Arctic stock consisted of 10,960 bowhead whales (9,190 to 13,950; 5th and 95th percentiles, respectively) in 1848 at the start of commercial whaling.

The recently adopted Aboriginal Whaling Scheme (IWC 2018) requires that abundance estimates be conducted every 10 years as input into the Strike Limit Algorithm (SLA) that the IWC approved for estimating a safe strike limit for aboriginal subsistence hunting. Ice-based visual and acoustic counts have been conducted since 1978 (Krogman et al. 1989; Table 1). These counts have been corrected for whales missed due to distance offshore since the mid-1980s, using acoustic methods described in (Clark et al. 1994). Correction factors were estimated for whales missed during a watch (due to visibility, number of observers, and offshore distance) and when no watch was in effect (through interpolations from sampled periods) (Zeh et al. 1993, Givens et al. 2016). The spring ice-based estimates of abundance have not been corrected for a small portion of the population that may not migrate past Point Barrow during the period when counts are made. According to Melnikov and Zeh (2007), 470 bowhead whales (95% CI: 332-665) likely migrated to Chukotka instead of Barrow in spring 2000 and 2001.

Table 1. Summary of abundance estimates for the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales. The historical estimates were made by back-projecting using a simple recruitment model. All other estimates were developed by corrected ice-based census counts. Historical estimates are from Woodby and Botkin (1993); 1978-2001 estimates are from George et al. (2004) and Zeh and Punt (2005). The 2011 estimate is reported in Givens et al. (2016).

Year	Abundance range or estimate (CV)	Year	Abundance estimate (CV)
Historical	10,400-23,000	1985	5,762 (0.253)
End of commercial whaling	1,000-3,000	1986	8,917 (0.215)
1978	4,765 (0.305)	1987	5,298 (0.327)
1980	3,885 (0.343)	1988	6,928 (0.120)
1981	4,467 (0.273)	1993	8,167 (0.017)
1982	7,395 (0.281)	2001	10,545 (0.128)
1983	6,573 (0.345)	2011	16,820 (0.052)

Bowhead whales were identified from aerial photographs taken in 1985 and 1986, and again in 2003 and 2004, and the results were used in a sight-resight analysis (Table 2). These population estimates and their associated error are comparable to the estimates obtained from the combined ice-based visual and acoustic counts (Raftery and Zeh 1998, Schweder et al. 2009, Koski et al. 2010). An aerial photographic survey was conducted near Point Barrow concurrently with the ice-based spring census in 2011, which, in addition to an abundance estimate based on sight-resight data, also provided a revised survival estimate for the population (Givens et al. 2018) (Table 2). However, because the 2011 ice-based estimate had a lower coefficient of variation (CV), the

Table 2. Summary of abundance estimates for the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales from aerial sight-resight surveys. Estimates are reported in da Silva et al. 2000, 2007 (1986 estimate), Koski et al. 2010 (2004 estimate), and Givens et al. 2018 (2011 estimate). LB = lower bound of 95% confidence interval.

Year	Abundance range or estimate (CV)	Survival estimate (LB)
1986	4,719 - 7,331	0.985 (0.958)
2004	12,631 (0.2442)	
2011	27,133 (0.217)	0.996 (0.976)

IWC Scientific Committee considered this estimate the most appropriate for management and use in the SLA (IWC 2018). This estimate is more than 8 years old and is outdated for use in stock assessments; however, because this population is increasing, this is still considered a valid minimum population estimate (NMFS 2016).

Minimum Population Estimate

The minimum population estimate (N_{MIN}) for the Western Arctic stock is calculated from Equation 1 from the potential biological removal (PBR) guidelines (NMFS 2016): $N_{MIN} = N/\exp(0.842\times[\ln(1+[CV(N)]^2)]^{½})$. Using the 2011 population estimate (N) from the ice-based survey of 16,820 and its associated CV(N) of 0.052 (Table 1), N_{MIN} for this stock of bowhead whales is 16,100 whales. The 2016 guidelines for preparing Stock Assessment Reports (NMFS 2016) recommend that N_{MIN} be considered unknown if the abundance estimate is more than 8 years old, unless there is compelling evidence that the stock has not declined since the last estimate. Because this population is increasing, this is still considered a valid minimum population estimate.

Current Population Trend

Based on concurrent passive acoustic and ice-based visual surveys, Givens et al. (2016) reported that the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales increased at a rate of 3.7% (95% CI = 2.9-4.6%) from 1978 to 2011, during which time abundance tripled from approximately 5,000 to approximately 16,820 whales (Givens et al. 2016) (Fig. 2). Schweder et al. (2009) estimated the yearly growth rate to be 3.2% (95% CI = 0.5-4.8%) between 1984 and 2003 using a sight-resight analysis of aerial photographs.

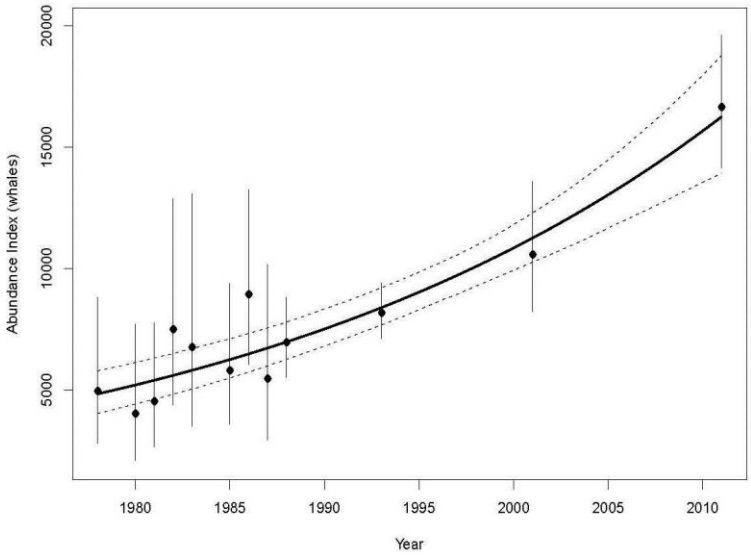

Figure 2. Abundance estimates (points with confidence interval lines) and trend (black line with confidence range) for the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales, 1978-2011 (Givens et al. 2013), as computed from ice-based counts and acoustic data collected during bowhead whale spring migrations past Point Barrow, Alaska.

CURRENT AND MAXIMUM NET PRODUCTIVITY RATES

The current estimate for the rate of increase for the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales (3.7%: 95% CI = 2.9-4.6%) should not be used as an estimate of the maximum net productivity rate (R_{MAX}) because the population is currently being harvested and the population has been estimated to be at a substantial fraction of its carrying capacity (Brandon and Wade 2006); therefore, this stock may not be growing at its maximum rate. Thus, the cetacean maximum theoretical net productivity rate of 4% will be used for the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales (NMFS 2016).

POTENTIAL BIOLOGICAL REMOVAL

PBR is defined as the product of the minimum population estimate, one-half the maximum theoretical net productivity rate, and a recovery factor: $PBR = N_{MIN} \times 0.5R_{MAX} \times F_R$. The recovery factor ($F_R$) for this stock has been set at 0.5 rather than the default value of 0.1 for endangered species because population levels are increasing in the presence of a known take (NMFS 2016). Thus, PBR is 161 whales (16,100 × 0.02 × 0.5). The calculation of a PBR level for the Western Arctic bowhead whale stock is required by the MMPA even though the subsistence harvest quota is established under the authority of the IWC based on an extensively tested SLA (IWC 2003). The quota is based on subsistence need or the ability of the bowhead whale population to sustain a harvest, whichever is smaller. The IWC bowhead whale quota takes precedence over the PBR estimate for the purpose of managing the Alaska Native subsistence harvest from this stock. In 2018, the IWC revised the bowhead whale subsistence quota (IWC 2018 Schedule amendment). Under the revisions, the total block quota for 2019 to 2025 is 392 whales, with no more than 67 strikes per year, except that any unused portion of a strike quota from the three prior quota blocks can be carried forward and added to the strike quotas of subsequent years, provided that no more than 50% of the annual strike limit is added to the strike quota for any one year (IWC 2018 Schedule amendment, section 13(b)1). A

bilateral agreement between the United States and the Russian Federation ensures that the total quota of bowhead whales struck will not exceed the limits set by the IWC. Under this bilateral arrangement, the Chukotka Natives in Russia may use no more than seven strikes and Alaska Natives may use no more than 93 strikes per year.

ANNUAL HUMAN-CAUSED MORTALITY AND SERIOUS INJURY

Information for each human-caused mortality, serious injury, and non-serious injury reported for NMFS-managed Alaska marine mammals between 2015 and 2019 is listed, by marine mammal stock, in Freed et al. (2021); however, only the mortality and serious injury data are included in the Stock Assessment Reports. The minimum estimated mean annual level of human-caused mortality and serious injury for Western Arctic bowhead whales between 2015 and 2019 is 52 whales: 0.2 in U.S. commercial fisheries, 0.6 in unknown (commercial, recreational, or subsistence) fisheries, 50 in subsistence takes by Natives of Alaska (51 whales (landed plus struck and lost mortality) minus 0.6 whales seriously injured in fisheries interactions prior to harvest), and 0.8 in subsistence takes by Natives of Russia (number landed; struck and lost not reported). Potential threats most likely to result in direct human-caused mortality or serious injury of individuals in this stock include entanglement in fishing gear and ship strikes due to increased vessel traffic (from increased commercial shipping in the Chukchi and Beaufort seas).

Fisheries Information

Information for federally-managed and state-managed U.S. commercial fisheries in Alaska waters is available in Appendix 3 of the Alaska Stock Assessment Reports (observer coverage) and in the NMFS List of Fisheries (LOF) and the fact sheets linked to fishery names in the LOF (observer coverage and reported incidental takes of marine mammals: https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-protection-act-list-fisheries, accessed December 2021).

Based on historical reports and the stock's geographic range, pot fishery gear is the only documented source of fisheries-caused bowhead whale mortality and serious injury. Given the minimal range overlap of bowhead whales and active pot fisheries, the levels of these interactions may be low; however, the levels are unknown even for observed fisheries. While some finfish pot and crab pot fisheries have onboard observers, the observers are unlikely to observe interactions unless an animal is anchored in gear. In most cases, large whale interactions occur while the pots are left untended to fish or "soak" and the whale swims away with gear attached. Because an observer generally cannot determine if a missing pot was lost due to whale entanglement, mortality and serious injury events are seldom reported in these fisheries. Therefore, the potential for fisheries-caused mortality and serious injury may be greater than is reflected in existing observer data. Additionally, bowhead whales may become entangled in derelict pot gear and such interactions would also not be reflected in observer data. A northward shift of fish stocks and fisheries due to climate change (Morley et al. 2018) will also increase the risk of bowhead whale interactions with fishing gear.

There are no observer program records of bowhead whale mortality or serious injury incidental to U.S. commercial fisheries in Alaska; however, there have been reports of bowhead whale mortality and serious injury due to entanglement in fishing gear (Table 3). Because no U.S. commercial fisheries occur in the Beaufort or Chukchi seas, bowhead whale mortality or injury that can be associated with U.S. commercial fisheries is currently attributed to interactions with fisheries in the Bering Sea. Citta et al. (2014) found that the distribution of satellite-tagged bowhead whales in the Bering Sea spatially, but not temporally, overlapped areas where commercial pot fisheries occurred and noted the potential risk of entanglement in lost gear. George et al. (2017) analyzed scarring data for bowhead whales harvested between 1990 and 2012 to estimate the frequency of line entanglement. Approximately 12.2% of the harvested whales examined for signs of entanglement (59/485) had scar patterns that were identified as definite entanglement injuries (29 whales with possible entanglement scars were excluded). Most of the entanglement scars occurred on the peduncle, and entanglement scars were rare on smaller subadult and juvenile whales (body length <10 m), possibly because young whales are less likely to survive entanglements and have had fewer years during which to acquire entanglement scars (George et al. 2017). The authors suspected the entanglement scars were largely the result of interactions with commercial pot gear (including derelict gear) in the Bering Sea. A review of the photo-identification catalogue from 1985 to 2011 found the probability of scarring due to entanglement was about 2.2% per year (95% CI: 1.1-3.3%), with 12.4% of living bowhead whales photographed in 2011 showing evidence of entanglement (George et al. 2019).

Between 2015 and 2019, there were four reports of bowhead whale mortality or serious injury caused by interactions with fishing gear (Table 3). In July 2015, a dead adult female bowhead whale drifting near Saint Lawrence Island in the Bering Strait was entangled in commercial crab fishing gear (Sheffield and Savoonga Whaling Captains Association 2015, Suydam et al. 2016, Freed et al. 2021), resulting in a mean annual mortality and serious injury rate of 0.2 whales in commercial fisheries between 2015 and 2019 (Table 3). Three of the

bowhead whales taken in the Alaska Native subsistence hunt in 2017 were seriously injured prior to harvest due to entanglement in pot gear suspected (but not confirmed) to be from Bering Sea commercial pot fisheries (Rolland et al. 2019, Freed et al. 2021), resulting in a mean annual mortality and serious injury rate of 0.6 bowhead whales in unknown (commercial, recreational, or subsistence) fisheries between 2015 and 2019 (Table 3). Because these three whales are also included in the Alaska Native subsistence harvest for 2017 (Table 4), the mean annual mortality and serious injury rate for these three events (0.6 whales) will be subtracted from the mean annual subsistence harvest for 2015-2019 to prevent double counting.

Thus, the minimum estimated average annual mortality and serious injury rate in U.S. commercial fisheries between 2015 and 2019 is 0.2 bowhead whales and the rate in unknown (commercial, recreational, or subsistence) fisheries is 0.6 (Table 3; Freed et al. 2021), although, the actual rates are currently unknown. These mortality and serious injury estimates result from actual counts of verified human-caused deaths and serious injuries and are minimums because not all entangled animals are found, reported, or have the cause of death determined.

Table 3. Summary of mortality and serious injury of Western Arctic bowhead whales, by year and type, reported between 2015 and 2019 (NMFS Alaska Region marine mammal stranding network, Sheffield and Savoonga Whaling Captains Association 2015, Suydam et al. 2016, Rolland et al. 2019, Freed et al. 2021).

Cause of injury	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Mean annual mortality
Entangled in commercial Bering Sea/Aleutian Is. crab pot gear	1	0	0	0	0	0.2
Entangled in Bering Sea/Aleutian Is. pot gear*	0	0	3	0	0	0.6
Total in commercial fisheries						0.2
*Total in unknown (commercial, recreational, or subsistence) fisheries						0.6

Alaska Native Subsistence/Harvest Information

NMFS signed an agreement with the Alaska Eskimo Whaling Commission (in 1998, as last amended in 2019) to protect the bowhead whale and the Eskimo culture. This co-management agreement promotes full and equal participation by Alaska Natives in decisions affecting the subsistence management of marine mammals (to the maximum extent allowed by law) as a tool for conserving marine mammal populations in Alaska (https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/alaska/marine-mammal-protection/co-management-marine-mammals-alaska, accessed December 2021).

Alaska Natives have been taking bowhead whales for subsistence purposes for at least 2,000 years (Marquette and Bockstoce 1980, Stoker and Krupnik 1993). Subsistence takes have been regulated by a quota system under the authority of the IWC since 1977. Alaska Native subsistence hunters, primarily from 11 Alaska communities, take approximately 0.1-0.5% of the Western Arctic bowhead whale stock per annum (Philo et al. 1993, Suydam et al. 2011). Under this quota, the number of bowhead whales landed by Alaska Natives between 1974 and 2019 ranged from 8 to 55 whales per year (Suydam and George 2012; Suydam et al. 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020; George and Suydam 2014). The maximum number of strikes per year is set by a quota which is determined by subsistence needs and bowhead whale abundance and trend estimates (Stoker and Krupnik 1993) (see the Potential Biological Removal section). Suydam and George (2012) summarized Alaska subsistence harvests of bowhead whales from 1974 to 2011 and reported a total of 1,149 whales landed by hunters from 12 villages, with Utqiaġvik (formerly Barrow) landing the most whales (n = 590) and Shaktoolik landing only one. Alaska Natives landed 213 bowhead whales between 2015 and 2019 and 42 of the 56 whales that were struck and lost were determined to have died or had a poor chance of survival, resulting in an average annual take of 51 whales (Table 4); however, because a mean annual 0.6 whales were determined to have been seriously injured in fishery interactions prior to harvest, the total subsistence harvest by Alaska Natives between 2015 and 2019 is 50 whales. Unlike the NMFS process for determining serious injuries (described in NMFS 2012), the estimates of struck and lost mortality in the subsistence harvest are based on the Whaling Captains' assessment of the likelihood of survival (see criteria described in Suydam et al. 1995). The number of whales landed at each village varies greatly from year to year, as success is influenced by village size and ice and weather conditions. The efficiency of the hunt (the percent of whales struck that are retrieved) has increased since the implementation of the bowhead whale quota in 1978. In 1978, the efficiency was about 50%. In 2019, 30 of 36 whales struck were landed, resulting in an efficiency of 83% and the mean efficiency for 2009 to 2018 was 77% (Suydam et al. 2020).

Canadian and Russian Natives also take whales from this stock. No catches of Western Arctic bowhead whales were reported by Canadian hunters between 2015 and 2019; however, two bowhead whales were landed in Russia in 2016 (Ilyashenko and Zharikov 2017), one in 2017 (Zharikov 2018), none in 2018 (Zharikov et al. 2019), and one in 2019 (Zharikov et al. 2020), resulting in an average annual take of 0.8 (landed) whales by Russian Natives between 2015 and 2019.

The total average annual subsistence take from 2015 to 2019 is 51 bowhead whales: 50 whales by Alaska Natives (51 landed plus struck and lost mortality (Table 4) minus 0.6 seriously injured in fisheries interactions prior to harvest (Table 3)) and 0.8 whales by Russian Natives (landed; struck and lost not reported).

Table 4. Summary of the Alaska Native subsistence harvest of Western Arctic bowhead whales between 2015 and 2019.

Year	Landed	Struck and lost	Struck and lost mortality	Total (landed + struck and lost mortality)
2015[a]	39	10	6	45
2016[b]	47	12	12	59
2017[c]	50	7	5	55
2018[d]	47	21	17	64
2019[e]	30	6	2	32
Mean annual number taken (landed + struck and lost mortality)				51

[a]Suydam et al. (2016); [b]Suydam et al. (2017); [c]Suydam et al. (2018); [d]Suydam et al. (2019); [e]Suydam et al. (2020).

Other Mortality

Pelagic commercial whaling for bowhead whales was conducted from 1849 to 1914 in the Bering, Chukchi, and Beaufort seas (Bockstoce et al. 2007). During the first two decades of the fishery (1850-1870), over 60% of the estimated pre-whaling population was killed, and effort remained high into the 20th century (Braham 1984). Woodby and Botkin (1993) estimated that the pelagic whaling industry harvested 18,684 whales from this stock. From 1848 to 1919, shore-based whaling operations (including landings as well as struck and lost estimates from the U.S., Canada, and Russia) took an additional 1,527 whales (Woodby and Botkin 1993). An unknown percentage of the whales taken by the shore-based operations were harvested for subsistence purposes. Historical harvest estimates likely underestimate the actual harvest as a result of under-reporting of the Soviet catches (Yablokov 1994) and incomplete reporting of struck and lost whales.

Transient killer whales are known to prey on bowhead whales. In a study of marks on bowhead whales taken in the subsistence harvest between spring 1976 and fall 1992, 4.1% to 7.9% had scars indicating that they had survived attacks by killer whales (George et al. 1994). Of 377 complete records for killer whale scars collected from 1990 to 2012, 29 whales (7.9%) had scarring "rake marks" consistent with killer whale injuries and another 10 had possible injuries (George et al. 2017). A higher rate of killer whale rake mark scars occurred from 2002 to 2012 than in the previous decade. George et al. (2017) noted this may be due to better reporting and/or sampling bias, an increase in killer whale population size, an increase in occurrence of killer whales at high latitudes (Clarke et al. 2013), or a longer open water period offering more opportunities to attack bowhead whales. The Aerial Surveys of Arctic Marine Mammals (ASAMM) project photo-documented bowhead whale carcasses that had injuries consistent

with killer whale predation in 2010 (one carcass), 2012 (two), 2013 (three), 2015 (three), 2016 (four), 2017 (one), 2018 (four), and 2019 (six) (Willoughby et al. 2020a, 2020b).

With increasing ship traffic in the Chukchi and Beaufort seas, ship strikes may pose a greater risk to bowhead whales. Currently, ship-strike injuries on bowhead whales in Alaska are thought to be uncommon (George et al. 2017, 2019). Only 10 whales harvested between 1990 and 2012 (approximately 2% of the records examined) showed clear evidence of scarring from ship propellers (George et al. 2017), while only seven whales from the photo-identification catalogue from 1985 to 2011 (1% of the sample) had evidence of ship-inflicted scars (George et al. 2019). One carcass observed in 2019 during the ASAMM surveys had blubber sections with straight wound edges and was likely struck by a vessel (Willoughby et al. 2020b).

STATUS OF STOCK

Based on currently available data, the minimum estimated mean annual mortality and serious injury rate incidental to U.S. commercial fisheries (0.2 whales) is not known to exceed 10% of the PBR (10% of PBR = 16) and, therefore, can be considered insignificant and approaching a zero mortality and serious injury rate. The minimum estimated mean annual level of human-caused mortality and serious injury (52 whales) is not known to exceed the PBR (161) nor the IWC annual maximum strike limit (67 + up to 33 previously unused strikes). The Western Arctic bowhead whale stock has been increasing; the estimate of 16,820 whales from 2011 is between 31% and 168% of the pre-exploitation abundance of 10,000 to 55,000 whales estimated by Brandon and Wade (2004, 2006). However, the stock is classified as strategic because the bowhead whale is listed as endangered under the U.S. Endangered Species Act and is, therefore, also designated as depleted under the MMPA.

There are key uncertainties in the assessment of the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales. The current abundance estimate is calculated using data from 2011; however, the N_{MIN} is still considered a valid minimum population estimate because the population is increasing (NMFS 2016). Although there are few records of bowhead whales being killed or seriously injured incidental to commercial fishing, about 12.2% of harvested bowhead whales examined for scarring (59/485 records) had scars indicating line entanglement wounds (George et al. 2017) and the southern range of the population overlaps with commercial pot fisheries (Citta et al. 2014). The stock may be particularly sensitive to anthropogenic sound; under some circumstances, the stock changes either distribution or calling behavior in response to levels of anthropogenic sounds that are slightly above ambient (Blackwell et al. 2015). The reduction in sea ice may lead to increased predation of bowhead whales by killer whales.

HABITAT CONCERNS

Vessel traffic in arctic waters is increasing, largely due to an increase in commercial shipping facilitated by the lack of sea ice (Smith and Stephenson 2013, Reeves et al. 2014, Hauser et al. 2018, CMTS 2019, George et al. 2020). This increase in vessel traffic could result in an increased number of vessel collisions with bowhead whales (Huntington et al. 2015). Oil and gas development in the Beaufort Sea imposes risks of various forms of pollution, including oil spills, in bowhead whale habitat, and the technology for effectively recovering spilled oil in icy conditions is lacking (Wilkinson et al. 2017).

Also of concern is noise produced by seismic surveys and vessel traffic resulting from shipping and offshore energy exploration, development, and production operations (Blackwell and Thode 2021). Evidence indicates that bowhead whales are sensitive to noise from offshore drilling platforms and seismic survey operations (Richardson and Malme 1993, Richardson 1995, Davies 1997, Robertson et al. 2013, Blackwell et al. 2017). Bowhead whales often avoid sound sources associated with active drilling (Schick and Urban 2000) and seismic operations (Miller et al. 1999). Exposure to seismic operations resulted in subtle changes to dive, surfacing, and respiration behaviors (Robertson et al. 2013). Source levels, time of year, and whale behavior (migrating, feeding, etc.) all affect the extent of displacement or changes in behavior (e.g., Richardson et al. 1986, 1999; Ljungblad et al. 1988; Miller et al. 2005; Harris et al. 2007; MMS 2008; Funk et al. 2010) and impacts on bowhead calling rates (Greene et al. 1998; Blackwell et al. 2013, 2015).

Global climate model projections for the next 50 to 100 years consistently show pronounced warming over the Arctic, accelerated sea-ice loss, and continued permafrost degradation (USGS 2011, IPCC 2013, Jeffries et al. 2015). Within the Arctic, some of the largest changes are projected to occur in the Bering, Beaufort, and Chukchi seas (Chapman and Walsh 2007, Walsh 2008). Ice-associated animals, including the bowhead whale, may be sensitive to changes in arctic weather, sea surface temperatures, sea-ice extent, and the concomitant effect on prey availability (Moore et al. 2019). Based on an analysis of various life-history features, Laidre et al. (2008) concluded that, on a worldwide basis, bowhead whales were likely to be moderately sensitive to climate change. Using statistical models, Chambault et al. (2018) found that bowhead whales in Baffin Bay, Greenland, targeted a narrow range of temperatures (-0.5 to 2°C) and may be exposed to thermal stress as a result of warming temperatures.

However, the Western Arctic stock of bowhead whales commonly feeds in waters ranging from 4° to 6°C near Tuktoyaktuk (Citta et al. 2021); a bowhead was sighted in the relatively warm waters of the Gulf of Maine during summer 2012, 2014, and 2017 (Accardo et al. 2018); and bowheads in the Sea of Okhotsk are found in waters with sea surface temperatures up to 16.5°C (Shpak and Paramonov 2018). Therefore, it is possible that bowhead whales' selection of cooler waters in some regions could be primarily due to prey availability as opposed to thermal stress. Additionally, landed Western Arctic bowhead whales had better body condition during years of light ice cover (George et al. 2006). In addition, a positive correlation between body condition of Western Arctic bowhead whales and summer sea-ice loss has been observed over the last 2.5 decades in the Pacific Arctic (George et al. 2015). Ice-free areas along the shelf break are thought to create increased upwelling and likely more feeding opportunities for foraging whales. The movement and foraging behavior of bowhead whales is becoming more variable as feeding areas are altered in response to retreating sea ice. Additionally, Hannay et al. (2013) found that a large fraction of bowhead whale acoustic detections in the northeast Chukchi Sea occurred just in advance of the progression of sea ice formation during the fall migration, suggesting that an increase in ice-free days may lead to a delayed migration out of the Chukchi Sea during fall. Sheffield and George (2013) presented evidence that the occurrence of fish has become more prevalent in the diets of Western Arctic bowhead whales near Utqiaġvik in the autumn. However, there are insufficient data to make reliable projections about whether arctic climate change will result in negative (thermal stress, habitat loss) or positive (prey abundance) effects on this population.

Ocean acidification, driven primarily by the production of carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions into the atmosphere, is also a concern due to potential effects on prey. Because their primary prey are small crustaceans (especially calanoid copepods, euphausiids, gammarid and hyperid amphipods, and mysids that have exoskeletons composed of chitin and calcium carbonate), bowhead whale survival and recruitment may be impacted by increased ocean acidification (Lowry et al. 2004). The nature and timing of impacts to bowhead whales from ocean acidification are extremely uncertain and will depend partially on the whales' ability to switch to alternate prey species. Ecosystem responses may have very long lags as they propagate through trophic webs.

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