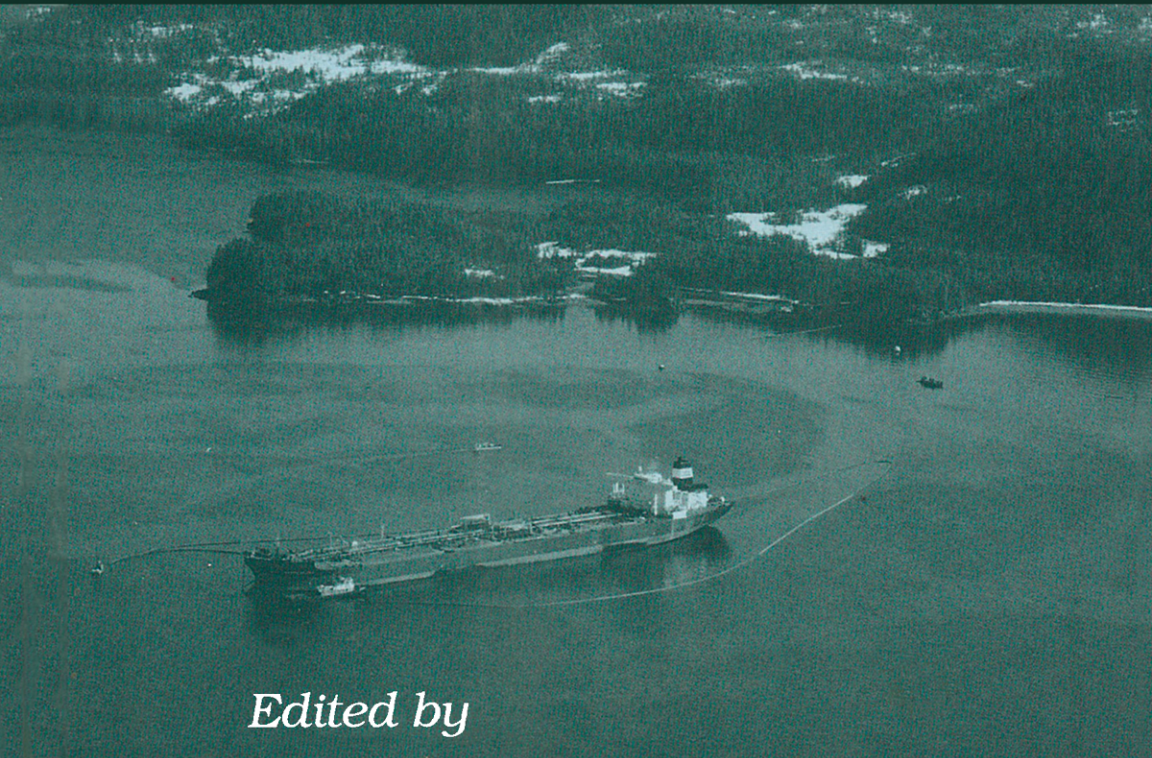




Marine Mammals
and the
Exxon Valdez



Edited by

Thomas R. Loughlin



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The T/V *Exxon Valdez* hard aground on Bligh Reef, Prince William Sound, Alaska. The ship hit the reef at 2404 on Good Friday, 24 March 1989, resulting in the largest oil spill in U.S. history. The photograph was taken by Dr. S. Zimmerman, National Marine Fisheries Service, Juneau, Alaska, on Easter Sunday, 26 March when the weather was calm. Later that day a storm hit causing the spilled oil to be driven southwest away from the ship and onto the shores of western Prince William Sound and into the Gulf of Alaska. The *Exxon Baton Rouge* is tied alongside to transfer the remaining oil.

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Thomas R. Loughlin

National Marine Mammal Laboratory
Alaska Fisheries Science Center
National Marine Fisheries Service
Seattle, Washington

Sponsored by

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Front cover photographs: (Top) A harbor seal and its pup that were classified as "oiled" at Applegate Rocks, Prince William Sound, 8 June 1989. Note the dark coloration of the pelage behind the neck of the adult and on the flank of the pup (see Figure 12-2, by Lowry *et al.*). *(Bottom)* The T/V *Exxon Valdez* at anchor near Naked Island awaiting repairs after running aground on Bligh Reef on 24 March 1989. Photograph by John Hyde, Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Juneau, Alaska.

This book is printed on acid-free paper. ∞

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Contents

Contributors	ix
Foreword	xiii
Preface	xvii
Acknowledgments	xix

Chapter 1

Overview of the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill, 1989–1992 1

Byron F. Morris and Thomas R. Loughlin

Chapter 2

Response Activities 23

Steven T. Zimmerman, Carol S. Gorbics, and Lloyd F. Lowry

Chapter 3

An Overview of Sea Otter Studies 47

Brenda E. Ballachey, James L. Bodkin, and Anthony R. DeGange

Chapter 4

Boat-Based Population Surveys of Sea Otters in

Prince William Sound 61

Douglas M. Burn

Chapter 5

An Intersection Model for Estimating Sea Otter Mortality along the Kenai Peninsula 81

James L. Bodkin and Mark S. Udevitz

*Chapter 6***Impacts on Distribution, Abundance, and Productivity of Harbor Seals 97**

Kathryn J. Frost, Lloyd F. Lowry, Elizabeth H. Sinclair, Jay Ver Hoef, and Dennis C. McAllister

*Chapter 7***Impacts on Steller Sea Lions 119**

Donald G. Calkins, Earl Becker, Terry R. Spraker, and Thomas R. Loughlin

*Chapter 8***Status of Killer Whales in Prince William Sound, 1985–1992 141**

Craig O. Matkin, Graeme M. Ellis, Marilyn E. Dahlheim, and Judy Zeh

*Chapter 9***Assessment of Injuries to Prince William Sound Killer Whales 163**

Marilyn E. Dahlheim and Craig O. Matkin

*Chapter 10***Impacts on Humpback Whales in Prince William Sound 173**

Olga von Ziegesar, Elizabeth Miller, and Marilyn E. Dahlheim

*Chapter 11***Sea Otter Foraging Behavior and Hydrocarbon Levels in Prey 193**

Angela M. Doroff and James L. Bodkin

*Chapter 12***Observations of Oiling of Harbor Seals in Prince William Sound 209**

Lloyd F. Lowry, Kathryn J. Frost, and Kenneth W. Pitcher

*Chapter 13***Health Evaluation, Rehabilitation, and Release of Oiled Harbor Seal Pups 227**

Terrie M. Williams, George A. Antonelis, and Jennifer Balke

*Chapter 14***Effects of Masking Noise on Detection Thresholds of Killer Whales 243**

David E. Bain and Marilyn E. Dahlheim

*Chapter 15***Cetaceans in Oil 257**

James T. Harvey and Marilyn E. Dahlheim

*Chapter 16***Pathology of Sea Otters 265**

Thomas P. Lipscomb, Richard K. Harris, Alan H. Rebar, Brenda E. Ballachey, and Romona J. Haebler

*Chapter 17***Gross Necropsy and Histopathological Lesions Found in Harbor Seals 281**

Terry R. Spraker, Lloyd F. Lowry, and Kathryn J. Frost

*Chapter 18***Hydrocarbon Residues in Sea Otter Tissues 313**

Daniel M. Mulcahy and Brenda E. Ballachey

*Chapter 19***Petroleum Hydrocarbons in Tissues of Harbor Seals from Prince William Sound and the Gulf of Alaska 331**

Kathryn J. Frost, Carol-Ann Manen, and Terry L. Wade

*Chapter 20***Tissue Hydrocarbon Levels and the Number of Cetaceans Found Dead after the Spill 359**

Thomas R. Loughlin

*Chapter 21***Summary and Conclusions 371**

David J. St. Aubin and Joseph R. Geraci

*Appendix I***Sample Collection, Storage, and Documentation 377**

Thomas R. Loughlin and Elizabeth H. Sinclair

*Appendix II***Oil Tanker Accidents 383**

Subject Index 385

Contributors

Numbers in parentheses indicate the pages on which the authors' contributions begin.

- George A. Antonelis** (227), National Marine Mammal Laboratory, Alaska Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, Seattle, Washington 98115
- David E. Bain** (243), Marine World Foundation, Vallejo, California 94589
- Jennifer Balke** (227), Denman Island, British Columbia, Canada V0R 1T0
- Brenda E. Ballachey** (47, 265, 313), Alaska Fish and Wildlife Research Center, National Biological Survey, Anchorage, Alaska 99503
- Earl Becker** (119), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Anchorage, Alaska 99502
- James L. Bodkin** (47, 81, 193), Alaska Fish and Wildlife Research Center, National Biological Survey, Anchorage, Alaska 99503
- Douglas M. Burn** (81), Marine Mammals Management, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Anchorage, Alaska 99508
- Donald G. Calkins** (119), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Anchorage, Alaska 99502
- Marilyn E. Dahlheim** (141, 163, 173, 243, 257), National Marine Mammal Laboratory, Alaska Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, Seattle, Washington 98115
- Anthony R. DeGange** (47, 61), Marine Mammals Management, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Anchorage, Alaska 99508
- Angela M. Doroff** (193), Marine Mammals Management, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Anchorage, Alaska 99508
- Graeme M. Ellis** (141), Pacific Biological Station, Nanaimo, British Columbia, Canada V9R 5K6
- Kathryn J. Frost** (97, 209, 281, 331), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Fairbanks, Alaska 99701
- Joseph R. Geraci** (371), Department of Pathology, Ontario Veterinary College, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada N1G 2W1

- Carol S. Gorbics** (23), Marine Mammals Management, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Anchorage, Alaska 99508
- Romona J. Haebler** (265), Environmental Protection Agency, Narragansett, Rhode Island 02882
- Richard K. Harris** (265), Department of Veterinary Pathology, Armed Forces Institute of Pathology, Washington, D.C. 20306
- James T. Harvey** (257), Moss Landing Marine Laboratories, Moss Landing, California 95039
- Thomas P. Lipscomb** (265), Department of Veterinary Pathology, Armed Forces Institute of Pathology, Washington, D.C. 20306
- Thomas R. Loughlin** (1, 119, 359, 377), National Marine Mammal Laboratory, Alaska Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, Seattle, Washington 98115
- Lloyd F. Lowry** (23, 97, 209, 281), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Fairbanks, Alaska 99701
- Carol-Ann Manen** (331), National Ocean Service, Ocean Assessments Division, Rockville, Maryland 20852
- Craig O. Matkin** (141, 163), North Gulf Oceanic Society, Homer, Alaska 99603
- Dennis C. McAllister** (97), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Anchorage, Alaska 99502
- Elizabeth Miller** (173), Wildlife and Visual Enterprises, Seattle, Washington 98116
- Byron F. Morris** (1), National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Region, Juneau, Alaska 99802
- Daniel M. Mulcahy** (313), BioVet Services, Anchorage, Alaska 99524
- Kenneth W. Pitcher** (209), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Anchorage, Alaska 99502
- Alan H. Rebar** (265), School of Veterinary Medicine, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47909
- Elizabeth H. Sinclair** (97, 377), National Marine Mammal Laboratory, Alaska Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, Seattle, Washington 98115
- Terry R. Spraker** (119, 281), Department of Pathology, College of Veterinary Medicine, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523
- David J. St. Aubin** (371), Mystic Life Aquarium, Mystic, Connecticut 06355
- Mark S. Udevitz** (81), Alaska Fish and Wildlife Research Center, National Biological Survey, Anchorage, Alaska 99503
- Jay Ver Hoef** (97), Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Fairbanks, Alaska 99701

Terry L. Wade (331), Geochemical and Environmental Research Group, Texas A & M University, College Station, Texas 77845

Terrie M. Williams (227), Office of Naval Research, Arlington, Virginia 22271

Judy Zeh (141), Statistics Department, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195

Steven T. Zimmerman (23), National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Region, Juneau, Alaska 99802

Olga von Ziegesar (173), North Gulf Oceanic Society, Homer, Alaska 99603

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Foreword

The grounding of the *Exxon Valdez* resulted in the largest oil spill in United States history. Approximately 11 million gallons of crude oil spilled from the ship and was then transported by winds and currents throughout much of western Prince William Sound and into the Gulf of Alaska and lower Cook Inlet. More than 1100 km of coastline was oiled, including parts of Chugach National Forest; Kodiak, Alaska Maritime, and Alaska Peninsula/Becharof National Wildlife Refuges; Kenai Fjords National Park; Katmai National Park and Preserve; and Aniakchak National Monument and Preserve. Detectable amounts of oil were transported to shorelines nearly 900 km from the spill site.

The contributors to this book played major roles in the design and execution of programs to assess and mitigate the impacts of the spill on marine mammals. The nature and results of those programs are described herein, including data and analyses that indicate clear and sometimes surprising impacts on some species, yet no or uncertain impacts on others. While these studies advanced our knowledge of the impacts of oil on marine mammals, much remains unknown.

For example, little was learned about the indirect effects of the spill (including containment and clean-up operations) through perturbation of the food chain. The effects of attraction to, or repulsion from, noise generated by containment and clean-up operations on species or specific age/sex classes were equivocal. The effects of contact with oil on cetaceans (particularly killer whales) could not be determined.

Except in the case of sea otters, the possible effects of the spill on long-term survival and productivity remain unknown. Even the overall biological significance of the damage caused by the oil spill in terms of the numbers of marine mammals directly or indirectly impacted was not well documented.

Even though all the related questions were not answered, the studies provided much new and important information. In fact, probably more was learned about the possible effects and ways to minimize and mitigate the effects of oil on marine mammals from the studies described in this book than from all previous studies of the effects of oil on marine mammals.

We learned that sea otters can be killed by breathing fumes from evaporating oil, as well as by heat loss when oil compromises the insulating capacity of the

animal's fur. It was shown that a single large oil spill could affect an area greater than the sea otter range in California, thus confirming that the small sea otter population in California could be jeopardized by a tanker accident. It was documented that humpback whales, gray whales, killer whales, Dall's porpoise, and harbor porpoise will not necessarily avoid swimming in spilled oil.

That so much was learned was due largely to three factors: (1) the expertise and dedication of those who planned and carried out the work; (2) the studies were initiated soon after the spill occurred and were not severely limited by funding or logistic constraints; and (3) the early establishment of an independent peer review process to help identify the most critical research needs and how those needs could best be met.

That more was not learned may be due principally to the lack of an adequate contingency plan developed and implemented prior to the event. This problem was compounded by: (1) limited information on the seasonal distribution and movement patterns, abundance, and vital rates of the affected species and populations prior to the spill; (2) constraints on communications imposed by lawyers seeking to build and to defend against claims for damages caused by the spill; and (3) reluctance or difficulty getting authority to capture or sacrifice live animals to look for evidence of exposure to and impacts from the spilled oil.

Sea otters were the most abundant marine mammal in the spill area and the species for which both immediate and long-term effects were best documented. Efforts were initiated within days of the spill to capture and rehabilitate oiled otters. Two rehabilitation centers were established and a total of 343 otters were taken to and held at those centers for cleaning and treatment. Eighteen pups were born while their mothers were being held. Of the 361 otters handled, 123 died in captivity, 196 were cleaned, treated, and eventually released back to the wild, and 37 were judged unlikely to survive if released and sent to public display facilities. Radio transmitters were surgically implanted in 45 of the adult sea otters returned to the wild. At least 12, and possibly as many as 21, of these animals died within 8 months following release, suggesting that the rescue and rehabilitation program was not very effective.

An estimated 3500–5500 otters from a total population of about 30,000 in Prince William Sound and the Gulf of Alaska may have died as a direct result of the oil spill. Oiling and ingestion of oil-contaminated shellfish may have affected reproduction and had a variety of long-term sublethal effects as well. While some population and habitat assessment studies are continuing, the duration and adequacy of these studies is uncertain.

Effects on harbor seals and Steller sea lions were even more difficult to determine because, unlike sea otters, they usually sink when dead, making accurate direct mortality estimates impossible. Furthermore, harbor seal and Steller sea lion populations in Prince William Sound and adjacent areas had been declining prior to the spill, confounding proximal versus ongoing effects.

Many harbor seals were heavily oiled, and at least 302 in Prince William Sound died after they were oiled. Heavily oiled seals behaved abnormally. They did not, for example, try to escape into the water when approached. Four types of lesions characteristic of hydrocarbon toxicity were found in the brains of heavily oiled seals. These lesions occurred principally in the thalamus and may explain the abnormal behavior.

Oil did not appear to persist on sea lions, as it did on harbor seals. Likewise, there were no indications of significant oil-caused sea lion mortality, although it could have been masked by the continuing population decline.

Five cetacean species — humpback, gray, and killer whales, and Dall's and harbor porpoises — were observed swimming in and near areas affected by the spill. However, fewer individuals were sighted than expected from prespill observation data, suggesting that many cetaceans may have left or avoided spill areas. When present in the spill area, cetaceans did not appear to behave abnormally or to obviously avoid contact with oil.

The cetacean studies provided circumstantial evidence that at least 14 killer whales may have died, directly or indirectly, as a result of the spill. One previously studied resident killer whale pod, which had 36 members in September 1988, was missing seven members when photographed on 31 March 1989. An additional six members were lost between September 1989 and June 1990; one more was lost in 1991. However, this same group of animals has been observed taking sablefish from longlines in Prince William Sound and, in 1985 and 1986, six whales were lost from the pod, possibly as a result of shooting by fishermen. Since no carcasses have been recovered there is no way to ascertain whether either shooting or the oil spill were responsible.

Aerial surveys were conducted in June 1989 to search for cetaceans that might have died due to contact with oil, and washed up on beaches. Over six thousand miles of coastline were surveyed and 37 carcasses were located. Of these, 26 were gray whales, 5 were harbor porpoises, 2 were minke whales, 1 was a fin whale, and 3 were unidentified. Only 7 animals — 3 gray whales, 3 harbor porpoises, and 1 minke whale — had not decomposed beyond use for detection of hydrocarbon contamination. Two of these animals had hydrocarbon residues in their blubber, but the levels were low and provided no evidence of impact.

This book clearly provides much new and useful information concerning the actual and potential effects of oil spills on marine mammals. However, its greatest value may be that it illustrates that damage caused by events like the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill cannot be assessed and mitigated effectively and economically without prior planning and preparation. The scientists who designed and carried out the studies described in this book no doubt learned much from the experience. Those who are responsible for planning and preparing for future oil spills should take advantage of this hard-earned expertise by asking these scientists: (1) what they view as the remaining critical uncertainties concerning the possible direct and

indirect effects of spilled oil and related containment and clean-up activities on marine mammals; and (2) what could be done to resolve these uncertainties and to be better prepared to assess, minimize, and mitigate damages to marine mammals and their habitat when oil spills occur in the future.

Robert J. Hofman
Marine Mammal Commission
Washington, D.C. 20009

Preface

When the 300-m supertanker *Exxon Valdez* grounded on Bligh Reef in Prince William Sound, Alaska, on 24 March 1989, approximately 258,000 barrels (11 million gallons) of crude oil were spilled onto the water. Federal, state, and non-government scientists were on the scene within 24 hours to determine the trajectory of the spilled oil and its possible impact on wildlife. The chapters included here represent the combined efforts of these scientists to assess the impacts of the spill on marine mammals within and adjacent to Prince William Sound.

Activity during the aftermath of the spill was divided into response and natural resource damage assessment (NRDA). The response activities included monitoring the spill, cleanup, mitigation measures (such as identifying priority areas for deployment of protection booms), and rehabilitation of oiled wildlife. The NRDA program assessed injury to wildlife from 1989 to 1992 and included studies on marine and terrestrial mammals, birds, fish and shellfish, and coastal habitat. Both response activities and NRDA studies on marine mammals are included in this book and represent multidisciplinary topics covering population biology, behavior, pathology, and toxicology.

The work presented here is unique because it was initiated as a result of an accident. Thus, many activities were guided by the needs of legal council, which did not always involve the rigors of scientific methodology [e.g., Baffin Island Oil Spill project, summarized in *Arctic* **40** (Suppl 1), 1987]. All of these studies were conducted by dedicated individuals who frequently labored under difficult circumstances but never compromised the quality of their work during this time of environmental crisis.

In some cases the marine mammal studies show a clear cause-and-effect relationship between exposure to the spilled oil and the death of some marine mammals. However, in most situations the results were equivocal and a cause-and-effect relationship could not be demonstrated.

I proposed to Academic Press that these studies be consolidated into a single volume to facilitate access of results to the scientific community and to state and federal agencies charged with the responsibility of conserving and protecting ma-

rine mammals. It is my hope that this volume will be useful to marine scientists when (not if) the next spill occurs and that our efforts to understand the effects of the *Exxon Valdez* oil spill on marine mammals will help those responding to similar events.

T. R. Loughlin

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