

# **Atlantic Shores Bight LLC**

Request for an Incidental Harassment Authorization to Allow the Non-Lethal Take of Marine Mammals Incidental to Site Characterization Surveys of the Atlantic Shores Lease Area (OCS-A 0541)

**Submitted to NOAA National Marine Fisheries Service April 2022** 

# **Table of Contents**

1.	Description of Specified Activity1						
	1.1	Acous	tic Thresholds and Regulatory Criteria	3			
	1.2	HRG S	Survey Activities	4			
2.	Dates	s, Durati	on, and Specified Geographic Region	6			
3.	Spec	ies and	Numbers of Marine Mammals	7			
4.	Affec	ted Spe	cies Status and Distribution	9			
	4.1	Tooth	ed Whales (Odontonceti)	10			
		4.1.1	Sperm Whale ( <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> ) – Endangered <b>Error! Bookmadefined.</b>	ark not			
		4.1.2	Long-Finned Pilot Whale (Globicephala melas) – Non-Strategic	10			
		4.1.3	Harbor Porpoise ( <i>Phocoena phocoena</i> ) – Non-Strategic	12			
		4.1.4	Bottlenose Dolphin ( <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> ) – Western North Atlantic Northern Migratory Coastal Stock – Strategic / Western North Atlantic Offshore Stock – Non-Strategic	13			
		4.1.5	Short-Beaked Common Dolphin ( <i>Delphinus delphis</i> ) – Non-Strategic				
		4.1.6	Atlantic White-Sided Dolphin (Lagenorhynchus acutus) – Non-Strategic	14			
		4.1.7	Atlantic Spotted Dolphin (Stenella frontalis) – Non-Strategic	15			
		4.1.8	Risso's Dolphin ( <i>Grampus griseus</i> ) – Non-Strategic	16			
	4.2	Baleei	n Whales (Mysticeti)	17			
		4.2.1	North Atlantic Right Whale (Eubalaena glacialis) – Endangered	17			
		4.2.2	Fin Whale (Balaenoptera physalus) – Endangered	20			
		4.2.3	Sei Whale (Balaenoptera borealis) – Endangered	22			
		4.2.4	Humpback Whale ( <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> ) – Non-Strategic for Gulf of Maine Stock/West Indies Distinct Population Segment	23			
		4.2.5	Minke Whale (Balaenoptera acutorostrata) – Non-Strategic	25			
	4.3	Earles	s Seals (Phocidae)	26			
		4.3.1	Harbor Seal ( <i>Phoca vitulina</i> ) – Non-Strategic	26			
		4.3.2	Gray Seal (Halichoerus grypus) – Non-Strategic	28			
5.	Туре	of Incid	ental Take Authorization Requested	29			
6.	Take	Estimat	es for Marine Mammals	29			
	6.1		for Estimating Numbers of Marine Mammals that Might be Taken by sment	30			
	6.2	Calcul	ation of Maximum ZOI	30			

	6.3 Estimate of Numbers of Marine Mammals that Might be Taken by Harassmo	ent 31
7.	Anticipated Impact of the Activity	34
8.	Anticipated Impacts on Subsistence Uses	35
9.	Anticipated Impacts on Habitat	35
10.	Anticipated Effects of Habitat Impacts on Marine Mammals	35
11.	Mitigation Measures to Protect Marine Mammals and Their Habitat	35
	11.1 Vessel Strike Avoidance Procedures	36
	11.2 Seasonal Operating Requirements	37
	11.3 Establishment of Exclusion (Clearance, Shutdown, and Harassment Zones	37
	11.4 Visual Monitoring Program	38
	11.5 Pre-Clearance of the Exclusion Zones	40
	11.6 Ramp-Up Procedures	41
	11.7 Shut-Down and Power-Down Procedures	41
12.	Mitigation Measures to Protect Subsistence Uses – Arctic Plan of Cooperation	42
13.	Monitoring and Reporting	42
	13.1 Monitoring	42
	13.2 Reporting	42
14.	Suggested Means of Coordination	45
15.	List of Preparers	45
16.	References	46

# **List of Tables**

Table 1-1	M-Weighted PTS Criteria and Functional Hearing Range for Maine Mammals (NOAA Fisheries 2016, 2018a)	3
Table 1-2	Representative Equipment Specifications with Operating Frequencies Below 180 kHz	5
Table 2-1	Estimated Duration of Survey Activities in Proposed HRG Survey Segments	6
Table 3-1	Marine Mammals Known to Occur in the Marine Waters of the New York Bight	7
Table 6-1	Maximum Distances to Level B 160 dB <sub>RMS90%</sub> Threshold by Equipment Type Operating Below 180 kHz	29
Table 6-2	HRG Survey Area Distances and Maximum ZOIs	31
Table 6-3	Average Group Size Used for Adjusting Takes	32
Table 6-4.	Total Maximum Average Seasonal Density Marine Mammal Density and Total Estimate Level B Harassment Take Numbers	
	List of Figures	
Figure 1-1	Proposed Survey Areas for the Atlantic Shores Offshore Wind Project	2
Figure 4-1	NARW Migration Corridor and Management Areas Near the Atlantic Shores Offshore Wind Project	20
	List of Appendices	
Appendix A	Manufacturer Specifications	
Appendix B	Distances to Acoustic Thresholds Corresponding to Level B Harassment for High Resolution Geophysical Sources	
Appendix C	Marine Mammal Seasonal Densities	

# **Acronyms and Abbreviations**

Atlantic Shores Atlantic Shores Bight, LLC

BOEM Bureau of Ocean Energy Management
CeTAP Cetacean and Turtles Assessment Program

C.F.R. Code of Federal Regulations

CPT cone penetration test

dB decibel

DMA Dynamic Management Area

ECR Export Cable Route
ESA Endangered Species Act

ft feet/foot

HFC high-frequency cetaceans
HRG high-resolution geophysical

Hz hertz

IHA Incidental Harassment Authorization

km kilometer

km² square kilometer km/h kilometer per hour

kHz kilohertz

knot nautical mile per hour LFC low-frequency cetaceans

m meter

MFC mid-frequency cetaceans

mi mile

μPa microPascal

MMPA Marine Mammal Protection Act

nm nautical mile

NARW North Atlantic Right Whale

NOAA (Fisheries) National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, (National Marine Fisheries

Service)

OCS Outer Continental Shelf
OPW Otariid pinnipeds in water
PPW Phocid pinnipeds in water

Project Atlantic Shores Offshore Wind Project

PSO Protected Species Observer
PTS permanent threshold shift
r maximum radial distance

RMS root mean square
SEL sound exposure level
SEL<sub>cum</sub> cumulative SEL

SL sound level

SMA Seasonal Management Area

ZOI zone of influence

# 1. Description of Specified Activity

Atlantic Shores Bight, LLC (Atlantic Shores), a 50/50 joint venture between EDF-RE Offshore Development, LLC and Shell New Energies US LLC, is seeking an Incidental Harassment Authorization (IHA) for a future offshore wind development project (Project) pursuant to section 101(a)(5)(D) of the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) (16 U.S. Code § 1371(a)(5)(D)) and 50 Code of Federal Regulations (C.F.R.) § 216.107. The IHA requests the incidental take of marine mammals by Level B harassment resulting from site characterization surveys, including high-resolution geophysical (HRG) sources operating at frequencies less than 180 kilohertz (kHz), off the coasts of New Jersey and New York and in the area of the Commercial Lease of Submerged Lands for Renewable Energy Development on the Outer Continental Shelf (OCS)-A 0541 (Lease Area). Site characterization surveys will take place in two areas including the Lease Area (also referred to as the Lease Survey Area for the purposes of this application) and an Export Cable Route (ECR) Survey Area, collectively referred to as the Survey Area and depicted on Figures 1-1 and 4-11. Atlantic Shores intends to conduct HRG and geotechnical survey campaigns within each of the identified survey areas over a period of up to 12 months. Survey activities are proposed to initiate no earlier than August 2022.

The regulations set forth in Section 101(a)(5) of the MMPA and 50 C.F.R. § 216 Subpart I allow for the incidental taking of marine mammals by a specific activity if the take by such activity is found to have a negligible impact on the species or stock(s) of marine mammals and will not result in an unmitigable adverse impact on the availability of the marine mammal species or stock(s) for certain subsistence uses. In order for the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service (NOAA Fisheries) to consider authorizing the taking by U.S. citizens of small numbers of marine mammals incidental to a specified activity (other than commercial fishing), or to make a finding that incidental take is unlikely to occur, a written request must be submitted to NOAA Fisheries' Office of Protected Resources. Such a request is detailed in the following sections.

Atlantic Shores proposes to conduct HRG and geotechnical surveys within the approximately 1,375,710-acre Survey Area. The Survey Area is located approximately 11 nautical miles (nm; 12 miles [mi]; 20 kilometers [km]) off the coast of New Jersey and New York and extends out to a maximum distance of approximately 40 nm (46 mi); 74 km). As depicted in Figure 1-1, the Survey Area generally spans from Sandy Hook Bay to Ocean City, New Jersey.

1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> No nearshore surveys are proposed as part of this application. Any potential nearshore activities were authorized under a separate IHA application issued in April 2022 for Atlantic Shores Offshore Wind.

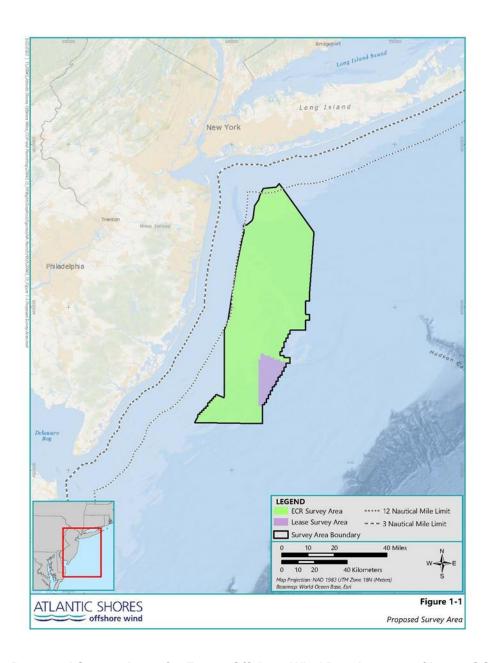


Figure 1-1 Proposed Survey Areas for Future Offshore Wind Development of Lease OCS-A-0541

The purpose of the HRG and geotechnical surveys is to:

- Support the site characterization, siting, and engineering design of offshore Project facilities including wind turbine generators, offshore substation(s), and submarine cables within the Lease Survey Area and ECR Survey Area; and
- Collect the data necessary to support Project review requirements associated with 30 C.F.R. § 585 and the National Environmental Policy Act.

NOAA Fisheries has indicated, through past IHA decisions that geotechnical surveys do not result in acoustic impacts to marine mammals. Based on these decisions, it is unlikely that the geotechnical surveys

to be conducted by Atlantic Shores (e.g., sample boreholes, deep cone penetration tests (CPTs), and shallow CPTs) will result in Level A or B harassment. Therefore, geotechnical survey activities are not discussed in further detail in this application request.

# 1.1 Acoustic Thresholds and Regulatory Criteria

NOAA Fisheries has advised that sound-producing survey equipment operating below 180 kHz has the potential to cause both Level A and/or Level B acoustic harassment to marine mammals (pers comm. Benjamin Laws, NOAA Fisheries 2021). Under the MMPA, Level A Harassment is statutorily defined as any act of pursuit, torment, or annoyance that has the potential to injure a marine mammal or marine mammal stock in the wild. Level B harassment is defined as any act of pursuit, torment, or annoyance that has the potential to disturb a marine mammal or marine mammal stock in the wild by causing disruption of behavioral patterns including, but not limited to, migration, breathing, nursing, breeding, feeding, or sheltering. The actionable sound pressure levels are not identified in the statute.

Under recent NOAA Fisheries (2018a) guidance, Level A harassment is said to occur as a result of exposure to high noise levels and the onset of permanent hearing sensitivity loss, known as a permanent threshold shift (PTS). NOAA Fisheries has defined PTS for five distinct marine mammal hearing groups: Low-frequency cetaceans (LFC) (i.e., baleen whales), Mid-frequency cetaceans (MFC) (i.e., dolphins, toothed whales, beaked whales, bottlenose whales), High-frequency cetaceans (HFC) (i.e., true porpoises, Kogia spp., river dolphins, *cephalorhynchid*, *Lagenorhynchus cruciger* and *L. australis*), Phocid pinnipeds in water (PPW) (i.e., true seals), and Otariid pinnipeds in water (OPW) (i.e., sea lions and fur seals). PTS levels for each of these hearing groups for both impulsive and non-impulsive noise are defined in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1 M-Weighted PTS Criteria and Functional Hearing Range for Maine Mammals (NOAA Fisheries 2016, 2018)

Functional Hearing Group	PTS Onset Impulsive	PTS Onset Non-Impulsive	Functional Hearing Range
LFC	219 dB <sub>peak</sub> and 183 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	199 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	7 Hz to 35 kHz
MFC	230 dB <sub>peak</sub> and 185 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	198 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	150 Hz to 160 kHz
HFC	202 dB <sub>peak</sub> and 155 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	173 dB SELcum	275 Hz to 160 kHz
PPW	218 dB <sub>peak</sub> and 185 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	201 dB SELcum	50 Hz to 86 kHz
OPW	232 dB <sub>peak</sub> and 203 dB SEL <sub>cum</sub>	219 dB SELcum	60 Hz to 39 kHz

Notes:

dB - decibel

dB<sub>peak</sub> - peak decibel

Hz – hertz

kHz - kilohertz

SEL - sound exposure level

SEL<sub>cum</sub> - cumulative SEL

NOAA Fisheries has defined the threshold level for Level B harassment at 120 dB<sub>RMS</sub> re 1 microPascal ( $\mu$ Pa) for continuous noise and 160 dB<sub>RMS</sub> re 1  $\mu$ Pa for impulsive and intermittent noise.

The following section provides specific information regarding the HRG survey activities proposed by Atlantic Shores and includes information on the types of activities and associated equipment to be deployed, how the equipment will interact with the surrounding physical and biological environment, and which activity may result in the potential taking of marine mammals per NOAA Fisheries' established thresholds for Level A and B harassment.

# 1.2 HRG Survey Activities

The HRG survey activities that have been proposed in each of the identified Survey Area will include the following:

- Depth sounding (multibeam depth sounder and single beam echosounder) to determine water depths and general bottom topography (currently estimated to range from approximately 16 feet (ft) (5 meters [m] to 131 ft [40 m] in depth);
- Magnetic intensity measurements (gradiometer) for detecting local variations in regional magnetic field from geological strata and potential ferrous objects on and below the bottom;
- Seafloor imaging (side scan sonar survey) for seabed sediment classification purposes, to identify
  natural and man-made acoustic targets resting on the bottom as well as any anomalous features;
- Shallow penetration sub-bottom profiler (pinger/chirp) to map the near surface stratigraphy (top 0 ft to 16 ft [0 m to 5 m] soils below seabed); and,
- Medium penetration sub-bottom profiler (chirps/parametric profilers/sparkers) to map deeper subsurface stratigraphy as needed (soils down to 246 ft [75 m] to 328 ft [100 m] below seabed). Based upon three years of previous survey experience (i.e., 2019 2021 surveys), Atlantic Shores anticipates that it will operate the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark and/or the GeoMarine Geo-Source to map deeper stratigraphy in the survey areas.
- Grab sampling to validate seabed classification using typical sample sizes between 0.1 m<sup>2</sup> and 0.2 m<sup>2</sup>.

The HRG survey equipment to be used in the identified Survey Area will be similar to the HRG survey equipment used to support previous Atlantic Shores surveys and other offshore wind development projects along the Atlantic Coast that have been previously approved by both NOAA Fisheries and BOEM. HRG survey activities such as grab sampling may result in bottom disturbance from activities; however, impacts would be temporary and localized and considered negligible given the scale of the activity. These negligible impacts are unlikely to affect marine mammal species, their habitat, or prey (see Sections 9 and 10).

The HRG survey activities will be supported by vessels of sufficient size to accomplish the survey goals in the Survey Area. Survey equipment will be deployed from multiple vessels during site characterization surveys. Up to three geophysical vessels could be operating at any one time across the Survey Area.

Atlantic Shores has evaluated a range of possible HRG survey equipment that would be necessary to support seabed assessments across the Survey Area during the specified timeframe associated with the proposed activities. This evaluation has been based on both the technical and regulatory requirements for project development as well as the type of survey equipment that has been recently deployed in support of offshore wind projects along the Atlantic Coast. The categories of representative HRG survey equipment with operating frequencies <180 kHz that are anticipated for use are presented in Table 1-2. This equipment

will either be mounted to or towed behind the survey vessel at a typical survey speed of approximately 3.5 knots (6.5 km) per hour.

Operational parameters presented in Table 1-2 were obtained from the following sources: Crocker and Fratantonio (2016); manufacturer specifications; personal communication with manufacturers; agency correspondence; and Atlantic Shores. The operational source level, frequency, and beamwidth were used in the NOAA Fisheries Level B spreadsheet tool for calculating the distance to the Level B threshold (see Section 6.0, Table 6-1). Manufacturer specifications are included in Appendix A.

Table 1-2 Representative Equipment Specifications with Operating Frequencies Below 180 kHz

HRG Survey Equipment (Sub- Bottom Profiler)	Representative Equipment Type	Operating Frequencies Ranges (kHz)	Operational Source Level (dB <sub>RMS</sub> )	Beamwidth Ranges (degree)	Typical Pulse Durations RMS <sub>90</sub> (millisec)	Pulse Repetition Rate (Hz)
Sporker	Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark 240	0.01 to 1.9 <sup>a</sup>	203ª	180	3.4ª	2
Sparker	Geo Marine Geo- Source	0.2 to 5 <sup>b</sup>	195 <sup>b</sup>	180	7.2 <sup>b</sup>	0.41
	Edgetech 2000-DSS	2 to 16 <sup>b</sup>	195°	24 <sup>d</sup>	6.3	10
	Edgetech 216	2 to 16	179 <sup>e</sup>	17, 20, or 24	10	10
	Edgetech 424	4 to 24 <sup>f</sup>	180 <sup>f</sup>	71 <sup>f</sup>	4	2
	Edgetech 512i	0.7 to 12 <sup>f</sup>	179 <sup>f</sup>	80 <sup>f</sup>	9	8
CHIRP	Pangeosubsea Sub- Bottom Imager™	4 to 12.5 <sup>d</sup>	190 <sup>d,g</sup>	120 <sup>d</sup>	4.5	44
	INNOMAR SES- 2000 Medium-100 Parametric <sup>h</sup>	85 to 115 <sup>d</sup>	241 <sup>i</sup>	2 <sup>d</sup>	2	40
	INNOMAR deep -36 Parametric h	30 to 42	245	1.5	0.15 to 5	40

#### Notes:

Previous Atlantic Shores survey experience with the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark indicates that the necessary electrical input of this sparker is approximately 500 - 600 J. Only in seafloor areas where very dense substrates are encountered would a higher level of electrical input be used, which has not been the

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}$  The operational source level for the Dura-Spark 240 is assigned based on the value closest to the field operational history of the Dura-Spark 240 [operating between 500 – 600 J] found in Table 10 in Crocker and Fratantonio (2016), which reports a 203 dB<sub>RMS</sub> for 500 J source setting and 400 tips. Because Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) did not provide other source levels for the Dura-Spark 240 near the known operational range, the SIG ELC 820 @750 J at 5m depth assuming an omnidirectional beam width was considered as a proxy or comparison to the Dura-Spark 240. The corresponding 203 dB<sub>RMS</sub> level is considered a realistic and conservative value that aligns with the history of operations of the Dura-Spark 240 over three years of survey by Atlantic Shores.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Operational information provided by Atlantic Shores. Geo Marine Survey System operating at 400J.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>Gene Andella (Edgetech), personal conversation with JASCO Applied Sciences, 2019-07-29.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Manufacturer specifications and/or correspondence with manufacturer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Considered EdgeTech Chirp as a proxy source for levels as the Chirp512i has similar operation settings as the Chirp 2000-DSS tow vehicle. See Table 18 in Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) for source levels for 100% power and 2-12 kHz.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>f</sup> Values from Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) for 100% power and comparable bandwidth.

g For frequency of 4 kHz

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>h</sup> Based on personal communication with Benjamin Laws, NOAA GARFO (2021), NOAA Fisheries does not expect take from these parametric sub-bottom profilers due to their lower frequencies and extremely narrow beamwidth. Therefore, these sources were not considered in calculating the maximum r value for the ZOI calculation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The specification sheet indicates a peak source level of 247 dB re 1 μPa m (Jens Wunderlich, Innomar, personal communication, 7-18-2019). The average difference between the peak SPL source levels for sub-bottom profilers measured by Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) was 6 dB. We therefore estimate the SPL source level is 241 dB re 1 μPa m.

case thus far. For the purposes of estimating Level B Harassment takes from sparker operation, Atlantic Shores consulted NOAA Fisheries staff, published IHAs, NOAA GARFO (2021) and Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) to identify a source level value that considers the use of the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark that is not overly conservative. Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) reports for the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark a source level of 203 dB<sub>RMS</sub> for 500 J electrical input using 400 tips. The SIG ELC 820 was selected as a comparison to the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark. As indicated in Table 1-2, the maximum reported [RMS] source level of 203 dB re  $1\mu$ Pa@1m for the SIG ELC 820 operating at 750 J at a depth of 5 meters provides another point of reference from the Crocker and Fratantonio (2016) report.

Some of the equipment expected to be operated during certain survey activities are not considered impactful to marine mammals and were not included in Table 1-2. These include single beam depth echosounders which are not believed to result in take of marine mammals; gradiometers which generate no acoustic output and do not pose risk of take to marine mammals; and side scan sonar and multibeam echosounders operated at frequencies above 180 kHz which are outside the general hearing range of most marine mammals (pers comm. Benjamin Laws, NOAA GARFO 2021; CSA Ocean Sciences Inc 2021; NOAA Fisheries 2018). Of the HRG survey equipment expected to be operated during the survey campaign, only the sparkers and non-impulsive, nonparametric sub-bottom profilers generate the sound with characteristics that have the potential to result in the non-lethal take of exposed marine mammals.

Due to the implementation of mitigation and monitoring measures, as detailed in Section 11, in combination with the behavior of marine mammal species (i.e., their transient nature and their ability to move away from the source of potential harassment), it is unlikely that these pieces of equipment will result in the Level A harassment of marine mammals. This conclusion has been supported by both BOEM and NOAA Fisheries through published literature and agency communications from past Atlantic Shores IHA applications. Given the discrete frequency bands and small area of sound propagation emitted from HRG equipment, BOEM has concluded that injury to marine mammals (i.e., Level A harassment) is not expected as sound diminishes rapidly from the equipment (BOEM, 2018). NOAA Fisheries has also confirmed that Level A harassment is not expected with the use of mitigation measures and advised Atlantic Shores not to calculate Level A take in IHA applications for HRG surveys (pers comm. Benjamin Laws, NOAA GARFO 2021). Therefore, Level A take calculations have not been performed and Level A take has not been requested for any marine mammal species. Atlantic Shores is only requesting authorization for the incidental take of small numbers of marine mammals within each of the Survey Area by Level B harassment. Estimates of Level B take are further detailed in Section 6.

# 2. Dates, Duration, and Specified Geographic Region

Atlantic Shores is proposing to conduct HRG surveys within the Survey Area, which consists of the Lease Survey Area and ECR Survey Area (see Figure 1-1). HRG surveys will begin August 2022. Survey activities may include up to 3 geophysical vessels operating simultaneously in different areas. The estimated duration of survey activities is provided in Table 2-1. This estimate accounts for weather downtime and assumes activities could occur at any time in a 24-hr day for a period of up to 12 months.

Table 2-1 Estimated Duration of Survey Activities in Proposed HRG Survey Segments

Survey Segment	Total Duration (Vessel Days)		
Lease Survey Area (OCS-A 0541)	180		
ECR Survey Area	180		

# 3. Species and Numbers of Marine Mammals

The Commercial Wind Lease Issuance and Site Assessment Activities on the Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf Offshore New York Revised Environmental Assessment (BOEM 2016) reports 31 species of marine mammals (whales, dolphins, porpoise, and seals) in the New York Bight that are protected by the MMPA, five of which are listed under the Endangered Species Act (ESA) and may be present, at least seasonally, in the Survey Area (see Table 3-1). The status and distribution of these species are discussed in detail in Section 4.

Table 3-1 Marine Mammals Known to Occur in the Marine Waters of the New York Bight

			c marine water	3 Of the New		
Common Name	Scientific Name	ESA and MMPA Status	Relative Occurrence in the Region	Estimated Population	Stock	Hearing Range
	1	oothed Whales	(Odontoceti)			
Atlantic white-sided dolphin	Lagenorhynchus acutus	N/A	Common	93,233	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Atlantic spotted dolphin	Stenella frontalis	N/A	Uncommon	39,921	W. North Atlantic	Mid
		N/A	Uncommon	62,851	W. North Atlantic, Offshore	Mid
Bottlenose dolphin	Tursiops truncatus	Strategic <sup>a</sup>	Common	6,639	W. North Atlantic, Northern Migratory Coastal	Mid
Pan-tropical spotted dolphin	Stenella attenuata	N/A	Rare	6,593	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Risso's dolphin	Grampus griseus	N/A	Common	35,215	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Short beaked common dolphin	Delphinus delphis	N/A	Common	172,974	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Striped dolphin	Stenella coeruleoalba	N/A	Rare <sup>b</sup>	67,036	W. North Atlantic	Mid
White-beaked dolphin	Lagenorhynchus albirostris	N/A	Rare	536,016	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Harbor porpoise	Phocoena phocoena	N/A	Common	95,543	Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy	High
Killer whale	Orcinus orca	N/A	Rare	Unknown	W. North Atlantic	Mid
False killer whale	Pseudorca crassidens	N/A	Rare	1,791	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Long-finned pilot whale	Globicephala melas	N/A	Common	39,215	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Short-finned pilot whale	Globicephala macrorhynchus	N/A	Rare	28,924	W. North Atlantic	Mid

Table 3-1 Marine Mammals Known to Occur in the Marine Waters of the New York Bight

	io maninalo rationi		o marmo trato.		· onk Digine	
Common Name	Scientific Name	ESA and MMPA Status	Relative Occurrence in the Region	Estimated Population	Stock	Hearing Range
Sperm whale	Physeter macrocephalus	Endangered	Uncommon <sup>c</sup>	4,349	North Atlantic	Mid
Pygmy sperm whale	Kogia breviceps	N/A	Rare <sup>b</sup>	7,750 <sup>e</sup>	W. North Atlantic	High
Dwarf sperm whale	Kogia sima	N/A	Rare	7,750 <sup>e</sup>	W. North Atlantic	High
Cuvier's beaked whale	Ziphius cavirostris	N/A	Rare	5,744	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Blainville's beaked whale	Mesoplodon densirostris	N/A	Rare	10,107 <sup>f</sup>	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Gervais' beaked whale	Mesoplodon europaeus	N/A	Rare	10,107 <sup>f</sup>	W. North Atlantic	Mid
True's beaked whale	Mesoplodon mirus	N/A	Rare	10,107 <sup>f</sup>	W. North Atlantic	Mid
Sowerby's beaked whale	Mesoplodon bidens	N/A	Rare	10,107 <sup>f</sup>	W. North Atlantic	Mid
		Baleen Whales	(Mysticeti)			
Minke whale	Balaenoptera acutorostrata	N/A	Regular	21,968	Canadian East Coast	Low
Blue whale	Balaenoptera musculus	Endangered	Rare	Unknown	W. North Atlantic	Low
Fin whale	Balaenoptera physalus	Endangered	Common	6,802	W. North Atlantic	Low
Humpback whale	Megaptera novaeangliae	N/A	Common	1,396	Gulf of Maine	Low
North Atlantic right whale	Eubalaena glacialis	Endangered	Regular	368	W. North Atlantic	Low
Sei whale	Balaenoptera borealis	Endangered	Uncommon d	6,292	Nova Scotia	Low
		Earless Seals (	(Phocidae)			l.
Gray seals	Halichoerus grypus	N/A	Regular	27,300	W. North Atlantic	-
Harbor seals	Phoca vitulina	N/A	Regular	61,336	W. North Atlantic	-
Hooded seals	Cystophora cristata	N/A	Rare	Unknown	W. North Atlantic	-
Harp seal	Phoca groenlandica	N/A	Rare	7.6 million	W. North Atlantic	-

Table 3-1 Marine Mammals Known to Occur in the Marine Waters of the New York Bight

Common Name Scie	ntific Name ESA and MMPA Status	Relative Occurrence in the Region	Estimated Population	Stock	Hearing Range
------------------	---------------------------------	---	----------------------	-------	------------------

#### Notes:

- a A strategic stock is defined as any marine mammal stock: 1) for which the level of direct human-caused mortality exceeds the potential biological removal level; 2) which is declining and likely to be listed as threatened under the ESA; or 3) which is listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or as depleted under the MMPA (http://www.ncseonline.org/nle/crsreports/biodiversity/biodv-11.cfm).
- b. The 2016 Revised Environmental Assessment for Commercial Wind Lease Issuance and Site Assessment Activities on the Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf Offshore New York, describes striped dolphin and pygmy sperm whale as common and uncommon, respectively, in the NY Bight. However, based on more recent marine mammal density modeling published by Roberts et.al (2020), these species are not expected to occur in the Survey Area.
- c. Short-finned pilot whale was identified as occurring year-round on the shelf break according to the *Commercial Wind Lease*Issuance and Site Assessment Activities on the Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf Offshore New York. Given that the Survey Area is not located on the shelf break, their occurrence in the area of the Survey Area is expected to be rare.
- d. Based on the Commercial Wind Lease Issuance and Site Assessment Activities on the Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf Offshore New York Revised Environmental Assessment, sperm and sei whales presence was identified as rare off the coast of New York. However based on density modeling published by Roberts et al. (2020), their presence is possible.
- e. This estimate may include both the dwarf and pygmy sperm whales.
- f. This estimate includes Gervais' and Blainville's beaked whales and undifferentiated *Mesoplodon* spp. beaked whales. Sources: Hayes et al. 2011; Hayes et al. 2018a, 2018b; Hayes et al. 2017; Waring et al. 2010, 2011, 2013, 2015; RI Ocean SAMP 2011; Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2009; NOAA Fisheries 2016, 2018; Pace 2021; BOEM 2016, Roberts et.al 2020

# 4. Affected Species Status and Distribution

The 31 marine mammal species identified in Table 3-1 are protected by the MMPA, and some are also listed under the ESA. The five ESA-listed marine mammal species that could occur in waters of the New York Bight are the sperm whale, North Atlantic right whale (NARW), fin whale, blue whale, and sei whale. The humpback whale, which may occur year-round, was delisted as an endangered species. These large whale species are generally migratory and typically do not spend extended periods of time in a localized area. The waters off the coast of New York are primarily used as areas where animals occur seasonally to feed, or as habitat during seasonal movements between the more northward feeding areas and southern hemisphere breeding grounds typically used by some of the large whale species (though some winter breeding areas exist further offshore vs. in the southerly latitudes) (BOEM 2016). Presence of mid-sized whale species and other large baleen whales in the Survey Area will vary with prey availability and other habitat factors. The North Atlantic right whale (NARW) has the greatest potential to occur within the Survey Area; however, sperm, fin, and humpback whales can also occur.

The following subsections provide additional information on the distribution, habitat use, abundance, and the existing threats to marine mammals with regular, common, and uncommon presence around the Survey Area. Species with regular, common, and uncommon presence around the Survey Area include the sperm whale, long-finned pilot whale, harbor porpoise, bottlenose dolphin, short-beaked common dolphin, Atlantic white-sided dolphin, Atlantic spotted dolphin, Risso's dolphin, NARW, fin whale, sei whale, humpback whale, minke whale, harbor seal, and gray seal. Of the 31 species included in Table 3-1, 15 species with the greatest potential of occurrence in the Survey Area were selected for further analysis and evaluated for potential take in this Application. The 15 species included in the take analysis are described below.

# 4.1 Toothed Whales (Odontonceti)

# 4.1.1 Sperm Whale (Physeter macrocephalus) – Endangered

Sperm whales are the largest of the toothed whales and characterized by their large, bulbous heads. Adults can achieve 15 tons (females) to 45 tons (males). They mainly reside in deep-water habitats on the OCS, along the shelf edge, and in mid-ocean regions (NOAA Fisheries 2010). However, this species has also been observed in relatively high numbers in shallow continental shelf areas off the coast of southern New England (Scott and Sadove 1997). Sperm whale vocalizations include directional clicks, from less than 100 Hz to 30 kHz with most of the clicks is in the 5 to 25 kHz range. Sperm whales use echolocation and produce repeated patterns of clicks or codas, which are used to attract females, compete for mates, display aggression, and maintain group cohesion (Wahlberg 2002). Foraging sperm whales make regularly spaced clicks interrupted by "creaks" and very rapid clicking for locating and capturing prey (Wahlberg 2002; Richardson et al. 1995).

## Distribution

Sperm whale migratory patterns are not well-defined, and no obvious migration patterns have been observed in certain tropical and temperate areas. However, general trends suggest that most populations move poleward during summer (Waring et al. 2015). Within U.S. Atlantic EEZ waters, sperm whales appear to exhibit seasonal movement patterns (CeTAP 1982, Scott and Sadove 1997). During winter, sperm whales are concentrated to the east and north of Cape Hatteras. This distribution shifts northward in spring, when sperm whales are most abundant in the central portion of the Mid-Atlantic Bight to the southern region of Georges Bank. In summer, this distribution continues to move northward, including the area east and north of Georges Bank and the continental shelf to the Mid-Atlantic region. In fall, sperm whales are most abundant on the continental shelf to the south of New England and remain abundant along the continental shelf edge in the Mid-Atlantic Bight.

According to the Ocean Wind Power Ecological Baseline Studies conducted for the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection (NJDEP) by Geo-Marine (2010) no sperm whale sightings were made; however, approximately nine individuals were observed offshore of New Jersey near the OCS during shipboard surveys in summer 2011 (Palka 2012). There is substantial information on sperm whale occurrence offshore of New Jersey, but they are exclusively near the OCS (CETAP 1982; Waring et al. 2007) and are unlikely to be present within the Survey Area. Due to the rare occurrence of sperm whales within New Jersey waters, the Endangered and Nongame Species Program (NJ ENSP) recommends that the species should be removed from the New Jersey list of species (Bowers-Altman and NJ Division of Fish and Wildlife 2009).

# Abundance

Though there is currently no reliable estimate of total sperm whale abundance in the entire western North Atlantic, the most recent and best available population estimate for the U.S. Atlantic EEZ is 4,349 (Hayes et al. 2021).

#### Status

Sperm whales are listed as endangered under the ESA and NJDEP, and the North Atlantic stock is considered strategic by NOAA Fisheries under the MMPA.

# 4.1.2 Long-Finned Pilot Whale (Globicephala melas) – Non-Strategic

Long-fin pilot whales have bulbous heads, are dark gray, brown, or black in color, and can reach approximately 24 ft (7.3 m) in length (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). These whales form large, relatively stable aggregations that appear to be maternally determined (American Cetacean Society 2022). Long-fin pilot whales feed primarily on squid but also eat small to medium-sized fish and octopus when available (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Occurrence of the long-finned pilot whale is considered common in the Survey Area.

Pilot whales are acoustic mid-frequency specialists with an estimated auditory bandwidth of 150 Hz to 160 kHz (Southall et al. 2007). Pilot whales echolocate and produce tonal calls. The primary tonal calls of the long-finned pilot whale range from 1 to 8 kHz with a mean duration of about one second. The calls can be varied with seven categories identified (level, falling, rising, up-down, down-up, waver, and multi-hump) and are likely associated with specific social activities (Vester et al. 2014).

#### Distribution

Within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ, long-finned pilot whales are categorized into Western North Atlantic stocks. In U.S. Atlantic waters, pilot whales are distributed principally along the continental shelf edge off the northeastern U.S. coast in winter and early spring (CETAP 1982, Payne and Heinemann 1993, Abend and Smith 1999, Hamazaki 2002). In late spring, pilot whales move onto Georges Bank, into the Gulf of Maine, and into more northern waters, where they remain through late fall (CeTAP 1982, Payne and Heinemann 1993). Long-finned pilot whales have occasionally been observed stranded as far south as South Carolina (Hayes et al. 2017). The latitudinal range of the species therefore remains uncertain. However, south of Cape Hatteras, most pilot whale sightings are expected to be short-finned pilot whales, while north of approximately 42° N, most pilot whale sightings are expected to be long-finned pilot whales (Hayes et al. 2019).

Long-finned pilot whales have been known to occur offshore of New Jersey (Abend and Smith 1999, Tyler 2008, Hayes et al. 2017). It is likely that the species can be found along the shelf break between New Jersey and Georges Bank, however, there is limited information on the spatial and temporal distribution of long-finned pilot whales near the Survey Area (Hayes et al. 2017). For instance, pilot whales were not detected during the Geo-Marine (2010) study. The limited information of pilot whale presence within the Survey Area is likely based on the habitat preference and overall distribution of pilot whales (Hayes et al. 2017). Further, the consensus from the NJ ENSP determined that pilot whales are primarily pelagic and have a rare presence in New Jersey waters (Bowers-Altman and NJ Division of Fish and Wildlife 2009).

#### Abundance

The best available estimate for long-finned pilot whale abundance is 39,215 whales as of surveys conducted through 2016 (Lawson and Gosselin 2018, Hayes et al. 2021). Estimates of population trend or net productivity rates have not been calculated for long-finned pilot whales as abundance estimates remain highly uncertain due to long survey intervals. From 2013 to 2017, total annual observed fishery-related mortality or serious injury was 21 whales (Hayes et al. 2020). In addition, to direct human-induced mortality, mass strandings of long-finned whales have occurred throughout their range. Between 2013 and 2017, 16 long-finned pilot whales were found stranded between Maine and Florida (Hayes et al. 2020).

#### Status

The long-finned pilot whale species is not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or the NJ ENSP, and the Western North Atlantic stock is not considered strategic under the MMPA.

# 4.1.3 Harbor Porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*) – Non-Strategic

The harbor porpoise is abundant throughout the coastal waters of the Northern hemisphere and the only porpoise species found in the Atlantic Ocean. This species is the smallest cetacean, with a blunt, short-beaked head, dark gray back, and white underside (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Harbor porpoises reach a maximum length of 6 ft (1.8 m) and feed on a wide variety of small fish and cephalopods (Reeves and Read 2003, Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010). Most harbor porpoise groups are small, usually between five and six individuals, although they aggregate into large groups for feeding or migration (Jefferson et al. 2008). Harbor porpoises are considered high-frequency cetaceans. The dominant component of harbor porpoise echolocation signals are narrowband, high-frequency clicks within 130 to 142 kHz (Villadsgaard et al. 2007).

#### Distribution

The harbor porpoise occupies both coastal and deep waters from off the coast of North Carolina to Greenland. They are commonly found in bays, estuaries, harbors, and fjords less than 656 ft (200 m) deep (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Hayes et al. (2019) report that harbor porpoises are generally concentrated along the continental shelf within the northern Gulf of Maine and southern Bay of Fundy region during summer (July to September). During fall (October to December) and spring (April to June), they are more widely dispersed from New Jersey to Maine. In winter (January to March), intermediate densities of harbor porpoises can be found in waters off New Jersey to North Carolina with lower densities found in waters off New York to New Brunswick, Canada (Hayes et al. 2019). There are four distinct populations of harbor porpoise in the western Atlantic: Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy, Gulf of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, and Greenland (Hayes et al. 2019). Harbor porpoises observed within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ are considered part of the Gulf of Maine/Bay of Fundy stock.

Harbor porpoises are a frequently sighted cetacean offshore of New Jersey (Geo-Marine 2010). During the Geo-Marine (2010) study, 51 harbor porpoise sightings were documented approximately 0.8 to 19.8 nm (1.5 to 36.6 km) from shore (mean = 10.5 nm/19.5 km). These sightings were primarily during winter months (February to March). It is therefore likely that this marine mammal will be present within the Survey Area.

#### Abundance

According to data collected in 2016 by Northeast Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC) and DFO, the best abundance estimate for harbor porpoises is 95,543 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). The total annual estimated human-caused mortality and serious injury is 217 harbor porpoises per year based on fisheries observer data (Hayes et al. 2020).

# **Status**

Harbor porpoises are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA.

# 4.1.4 Bottlenose Dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) –Western North Atlantic Offshore Stock – Non-Strategic

Bottlenose dolphins are one of the most well-known and widely distributed species of marine mammals. There are multiple genetically distinct bottlenose dolphin stocks present in the Mid-Atlantic including the Western North Atlantic Offshore stock and Northern Migratory Coastal stock (Mead and Potter 1995). Given the location of the Survey Area, only the Western North Atlantic Offshore Stock is expected to potentially occur in the Survey Area. Therefore, the Western North Atlantic Northern Migratory Coastal Stock will not be discussed in this application for IHA.

These dolphins reach 7 ft to 13 ft (2 m to 4 m) in length and are light gray to black in color (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Bottlenose dolphins are commonly found in groups of two to 15 individuals, though aggregations in the hundreds are occasionally observed (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). They are considered generalist feeders and consume a wide variety of organisms, including fish, squid, shrimp, and other crustaceans (Jefferson et al. 2008). Bottlenose dolphins are in the mid-frequency functional hearing group, with an estimated auditory bandwidth of 150 Hz to 160 kHz (Southall et al. 2007). Bottlenose dolphin vocalization frequencies range from 3.4 to 130 kHz (DoN 2008).

#### Distribution

The Western North Atlantic Offshore stock inhabits the outer continental slope and shelf edge regions from Georges Bank to the Florida Keys (Hayes et al. 2017). Sightings of this stock of bottlenose dolphin occur from Cape Hatteras to the eastern end of Georges Bank (Kenney 1990). Off the coast of New Jersey, bottlenose dolphins can occur throughout the year and were the most frequently detected species in an ecological baseline survey conducted in coastal New Jersey waters (Geo-Marine 2010, BOEM 2012). Seasonal movements north along the coast occur during the warmer months, are likely directed by the presence of prey (Hayes et al. 2018b). Targeted prey species vary by area, season, and stock; however, sciaenid fishes, such as Atlantic croaker, weakfish, and squid, are common (NOAA 2022a). The Northeast Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC) observed bottlenose dolphins during the AMAPPS surveys (NEFSC and SEFSC 2011a, 2011b, 2012, 2014a, 2014b, 2015, 2016, 2018, 2019).

Bottlenose dolphins were the most frequently observed species during the Geo-Marine (2010) study period. A total of 319 bottlenose dolphins with group sizes averaging at 15.3 animals were detected offshore of New Jersey (Geo-Marine 2010). Several other monitoring efforts recorded sightings of this species during geophysical surveys in the potential windfarm sites (including the Survey Area) southeast of Atlantic City (Geo-Marine 2009a, 2009b). Bottlenose dolphins have been present annually near and offshore of New Jersey; with greater sightings during spring and summer months (Geo-Marine 2010).

#### Abundance

The best available population estimate for the offshore stock is at 62,851 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). Current population estimates indicate there is no significant trend in abundance for the stock. Total annual human-caused mortality is unknown for the offshore stock and total annual fisheries mortality and serious injury is estimated as 28 individuals for the offshore stock (from 2013 to 2017) (Hayes et al. 2018b, 2020).

#### <u>Status</u>

The offshore stock of bottlenose dolphin is not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA (Hayes et al. 2018b).

#### 4.1.5 Short-Beaked Common Dolphin (Delphinus delphis) - Non-Strategic

Short-beaked common dolphins (Delphinus delphis) are one of the most widely distributed cetaceans and occur in temperate, tropical, and subtropical regions (Jefferson et al. 2008). Short-beaked common dolphins can reach 9 ft (2.7 m) in length and have a distinct color pattern with a white ventral patch, yellow or tan flank, and dark gray dorsal "cape" (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). This species feeds on schooling fish and squid found near the surface at night (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Short-beaked common dolphins are in the midfrequency functional hearing group. Their vocalizations range from 300 Hz to 44 kHz (Southall et al. 2007).

# Distribution

Short-beaked common dolphins within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ belong to the Western North Atlantic stock, generally occurring from Cape Hatteras to the Scotian Shelf (Hayes et al. 2018b). Short-beaked common dolphins are a highly seasonal, migratory species. Within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ, this species is distributed along the continental shelf and is associated with Gulf Stream features (CeTAP 1982, Selzer and Payne 1988, Hamazaki 2002, Hayes et al. 2019). Short-beaked common dolphins occur from Cape Hatteras northeast to Georges Bank (35° to 42°N) during mid-January to May and move as far north as the Scotian Shelf from mid-summer to fall (Selzer and Payne 1988). Migration onto the Scotian Shelf and continental shelf off Newfoundland occurs when water temperatures exceed 51.8°Fahrenheit (11°Celsius) (Sergeant et al. 1970, Gowans and Whitehead 1995). Breeding usually takes place between June and September, with females estimated to have a calving interval of two to three years (Hayes et al. 2019).

There have been numerous sightings of short-beaked common dolphins throughout the New Jersey coastline (Ulmer 1981, Hamazaki 2002). Generally, this species has been documented 20 nm (>37 km) near the shelf break within the months of February, May, and July, however, they have been sighted throughout the year (Geo-Marine 2010). Short-beaked common dolphins are most common at the surface and are regularly observed in large groups consisting of hundreds of animals (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Multiple strandings of the short-beaked common dolphins have occurred within the New Jersey coasts across multiple seasons (NOAA Fisheries 2022b). Geo-Marine (2010) recorded a total of 32 short-short beaked common dolphin sightings off the coast of New Jersey. The observed species were documented in waters ranging from 33 ft to 102 ft (10 m to 21 m) (Geo-Marine 2010). Approximately 26% of the shipboard sightings were calves during the Geo-Marine (2010) study.

# <u>Abundance</u>

The best abundance estimate for the western north Atlantic stock of common dolphins is 172,974 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). Average annual estimated human-caused mortality and serious injury between 2015 to 2019 was 390.49 animals (Hayes et al. 2021).

#### **Status**

Short-beaked common dolphins are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA.

#### 4.1.6 Atlantic White-Sided Dolphin (Lagenorhynchus acutus) – Non-Strategic

Atlantic white-sided dolphins are common in temperate waters of the western North Atlantic. They have a distinctive yellowish-tan patch near their fluke and white patches below the dorsal fin and ventral sides, on both sides of their long, slender bodies. These dolphins grow up to 9 ft (2.7 m) in length and weigh between

400 and 500 pounds as adults. Like other dolphins, Atlantic white-sided dolphins communicate vocally and non-vocally through signals. They produce burst-pulse sounds and echolocation clicks and whistles (Popper 1980).

#### Distribution

Atlantic white-sided dolphins observed off the U.S. Atlantic coast are part of the Western North Atlantic Stock (Hayes et al. 2019). This stock inhabits waters from central West Greenland to North Carolina (about 35°N), primarily in continental shelf waters to the 328 ft (100 m) depth contour (Doksæter et al. 2008). Sighting data indicate seasonal shifts in distribution (Northridge et al. 1997). From January to May, low numbers of Atlantic white-sided dolphins are found from Georges Bank to Jeffreys Ledge (off New Hampshire). From June through September, large numbers of Atlantic white-sided dolphins are found from Georges Bank to the lower Bay of Fundy. From October to December, they occur at intermediate densities from southern Georges Bank to the southern Gulf of Maine (Payne and Heinemann 1990). No critical habitat areas are designated for the Atlantic white-sided dolphin.

No Atlantic white-sided dolphins were observed in the Geo-Marine (2010) study. This suggests that Atlantic white-sided dolphins occur infrequently in the Survey Area and surrounding areas. The NJ ENSP noted that there is little information on the sightings of this species and that more information is needed to accurately assess the abundance of Atlantic white-sided dolphins within State waters (see CETAP 1982, Selzer and Payne 1988, Waring et al. 2007, Bowers-Altman and NJ Division of Fish and Wildlife 2009). A shallow water (~188 ft [36 m]) marine mammal survey off of New Jersey found no presence of Atlantic white-sided dolphin across each season (Kenney et al. 1985: p. 91), which further implies that it is unlikely for this species to be present within the Survey Area. Although regional surveys found very limited presence of this species near the Survey Area, data adapted from Roberts et al. (2016b; 2017; 2018) via the MDAT (Curtice et al. 2019) indicate abundance in this region increases in the spring.

#### Abundance

Roberts et al. (2016a, 2018) habitat-based density models provide an abundance estimate of 37,180 Atlantic white-sided dolphins within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ. There are insufficient data to determine seasonal abundance estimates of Atlantic white-sided dolphins off the U.S. Atlantic coast or their status within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ. The best available abundance estimate for the Western North Atlantic stock of Atlantic white-sided dolphins is 93,233 individuals, which is derived from data collected during a summer survey in 2011 (Hayes et al. 2021).

# **Status**

The Atlantic white-sided dolphin is not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or NJ ENSP, and the Western North Atlantic stock of Atlantic white-sided dolphins is not classified as strategic under the MMPA.

#### 4.1.7 Atlantic Spotted Dolphin (Stenella frontalis) - Non-Strategic

Atlantic spotted dolphins have a robust body with a curved, tall dorsal fin and moderately long beaks (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). This species can range in length from 5 to 7.5 feet long and weigh between 220 and 315 pounds (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). There are two species of spotted dolphin in the Atlantic Ocean, the Atlantic spotted dolphin (*Stenella frontalis*) and the pantropical spotted dolphin (*S. attenuata*) (Perrin et al. 1987). In addition, two forms of the Atlantic spotted dolphin exist: one that is large and heavily spotted and

usually inhabits the continental shelf, and one that is smaller in size with less spots (Fulling et al. 2003; Mullin and Fulling 2003, 2004; Viricel and Rosel 2014). The Atlantic spotted dolphin diet consists of a wide variety of fish and squid, as well as benthic invertebrates (Herzing 1997). Its hearing is in the mid-frequency range (Southall et al. 2007).

#### Distribution

The western north Atlantic stock of the Atlantic spotted dolphin can be found from southern New England to the Gulf of Mexico and Venezuela (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Though the waters off the coast of New Jersey are located within the distributional range of the Atlantic spotted dolphin, the species was not included in the Geo-marine (2010) study. The Atlantic spotted dolphin prefers tropical to warm temperate waters along the continental shelf 33 ft to 650 ft (10 m to 200 m) deep to slope waters greater than 1,640 ft (500 m) deep. It has been suggested that the species may move inshore seasonally during the spring, but data to support this theory are limited (Caldwell and Caldwell 1966; Fritts et al. 1983).

#### Abundance

The best population estimate for the Atlantic spotted dolphin is approximately 39,921 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). Population levels of the Atlantic spotted dolphin are influenced by fishery interactions (particularly long-line fisheries) and strandings (NOAA Fisheries 2022b). From 2013 to 2017, no fishery-related mortality or serious injury was reported, however 21 strandings were reported along the coastline from North Carolina to Florida (NOAA Fisheries 2022b).

#### <u>Status</u>

Atlantic spotted dolphin are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA.

#### 4.1.8 Risso's Dolphin (Grampus griseus) - Non-Strategic

Risso's dolphins occur worldwide in both tropical and temperate waters (Jefferson et al. 2008, Jefferson et al. 2014). This species of dolphin attains a body length of approximately 9 ft to 13 ft (2.6 m to 4 m) (NOAA Fisheries 2022a), a narrow tailstock, and a whitish or gray body. Risso's dolphins form groups ranging from 10 to 30 individuals (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). They feed primarily on squid as well as fish, such as anchovies, krill, and other cephalopods (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Risso's dolphins are in the mid-frequency functional hearing group, with an estimated auditory bandwidth of 150 Hz to 160 kHz (Southall et al. 2007). Vocalizations range from 400 Hz to 65 kHz (DoN 2008).

# **Distribution**

Risso's dolphins within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ are part of the Western North Atlantic stock. The Western North Atlantic stock of Risso's dolphins inhabits waters from Florida to eastern Newfoundland (Leatherwood et al. 1976, Baird and Stacey 1991). During spring, summer, and fall, Risso's dolphins are distributed along the continental shelf edge from Cape Hatteras northward to Georges Bank (CeTAP 1982, Payne et al. 1984). In winter, the distribution extends outward into oceanic waters (Payne et al. 1984) within the Mid-Atlantic Bight, however, little is known about movement and migration patterns and they are infrequently observed in shelf waters. The stock may contain multiple demographically independent populations that should themselves be considered stocks because the current stock spans multiple eco-regions (Spalding et al. 2007).

There is limited data regarding Risso's dolphins offshore of New Jersey. Increased strandings of this species were recorded from 2003 to 2004 on New York, New Jersey, and Delaware coasts (DiGiovanni et al. 2005). Other than strandings, this species has been primarily documented on the shelf break off of New Jersey (DiGiovanni et al. 2005). There were no Risso's dolphins documented during the Geo-Marine (2010) study. However, one Risso's dolphin observation was recorded during Atlantic Shores 2020 geophysical campaign in the vicinity of the Survey Area.

#### Abundance

The best abundance estimate for Risso's dolphins is 35,215 individuals, calculated from surveys conducted by Northeast Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC) and Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) (Hayes et al. 2021). Estimates of population trend or net productivity rates have not been calculated for Risso's dolphins. Annual average estimated human-caused mortality or serious injury from 2013 to 2017 was 54 dolphins, most of which was likely due to interactions with fisheries (Hayes et al. 2020).

#### <u>Status</u>

Risso's dolphins are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA.

# 4.2 Baleen Whales (Mysticeti)

# 4.2.1 North Atlantic Right Whale (Eubalaena glacialis) - Endangered

North Atlantic right whales (NARW) are among the most endangered of all marine mammal species in the Atlantic Ocean. The average adult NARW can grow to approximately 50 ft (15 m) in length, while calves are typically 14 ft (4 m) at birth (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Members of this species have stocky, black bodies with no dorsal fin, and bumpy, coarse patches of skin on their heads called callosities. NARWs feed mostly on zooplankton and copepods belonging to the *Calanus* and *Pseudocalanus* genera (Hayes et al. 2019). They are slow-moving grazers that feed on dense concentrations of prey at or below the water's surface, as well as at depth (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Female whales become sexually mature at about age ten and carry a single calf during a year-long gestation period every six to ten years. The life span of NARW is estimated at 70 years, based on the estimated age of found deceased right whales and other closely related species (NOAA Fisheries 2022a).

NARWs are low-frequency cetaceans that vocalize using several distinctive call types, most of which have peak acoustic energy below 500 Hz. Most vocalizations do not go above 4 kHz (Matthews et al. 2014). One typical right whale vocalization is the "up call": a short sweep that rises from roughly 50 to 440 Hz over a period of two seconds. These up calls are characteristic of the NARW and are used by research and monitoring programs to determine species presence. A characteristic "gunshot" call is believed to be produced by male NARWs. These pulses can have sound levels of 174 to 192 dB re 1  $\mu$ Pa with frequency range from 50 to 2,000 Hz (Parks et al. 2005, Parks and Tyack 2005). Other tonal calls range from 20 to 1,000 Hz and have sound levels between 137 and 162 dB re 1  $\mu$ Pa.

# **Distribution**

NARWs in U.S. waters belong to the Western Stock. This stock ranges primarily from calving grounds in coastal waters of the southeastern U.S. to feeding grounds in New England waters and the Canadian Bay of Fundy, Scotian Shelf, and Gulf of St. Lawrence (Hayes et al. 2019). Surveys indicate that there are seven

areas where NARWs congregate seasonally: the coastal waters of the southeastern U.S., the Great South Channel, Jordan Basin, Georges Basin along the northeastern edge of Georges Bank, Cape Cod and Massachusetts Bays, the Bay of Fundy, and the Roseway Basin on the Scotian Shelf (Hayes et al. 2018b). NOAA Fisheries has designated two critical habitat areas for the NARW under the ESA: The Gulf of Maine/Georges Bank region, and the southeast calving grounds from North Carolina to Florida. Two additional critical habitat areas in Canadian waters, Grand Manan Basin and Roseway Basin, were identified in Canada's final recovery strategy for the NARW (Brown et al. 2009). Davis et al. (2017) recently pooled together detections from a large number of passive acoustic devices and documented broad-scale use of much more of the Atlantic Seaboard than previously believed. Further, there has been an apparent shift in habitat use patterns (Davis et al. 2017), which includes an increased use of Cape Cod Bay (Mayo et al. 2018) and decreased use of the Great South Channel. Movements within and between habitats are extensive (Hayes et al. 2019), and there is a high interannual variability in NARW use of some habitats (Pendleton et al. 2009).

The NARW is a migratory species that travels from high-latitude feeding waters to low-latitude calving and breeding grounds, though this species has been observed feeding in winter in the Mid-Atlantic region and has been recorded off the coast of New Jersey in all months of the year (Whitt et al. 2013). Figure 4-1 illustrates the NARW migration corridor with respect to the Survey Area. NARWs are mainly present in the Survey Area in winter, with another smaller peak in spring, ranging elsewhere for their main feeding and breeding/calving activities (Geo-Marine 2010). NARW typically occupy coastal and shelf waters within 56 mi (90 km) of the shoreline; however, they have been observed as far as 87 mi (140 km) offshore. These whales undertake a seasonal migration from their northeast feeding grounds (generally spring, summer, and fall habitats) south along the eastern U.S. coast to their calving grounds in the waters of the southeastern U.S. (Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010). The Survey Area is located within the NARW migration Biologically Important Area (BIA). NARWs are usually observed in groups of less than 12 individuals, and most often as single individuals or pairs. Larger groups may be observed in feeding or breeding areas (Jefferson et al. 2008). Migrating NARWs have been detected acoustically in the New York Bight from February to May and then again in August through December (Biedron et al. 2009).

Historically, there have been several documented sightings of NARW off the coast of New Jersey and surrounding waters (CETAP 1982, Knowlton and Kraus 2001, Biedron et al. 2009). These waters are important migratory routes for NARW as this species travels between feeding areas and breeding/calving grounds off the southeastern U.S. (NOAA Fisheries 2022a).. Satellite-monitored radio tags on a NARW cow and calf documented the migratory route of this pair from the Bay of Fundy to New Jersey and back during a six-week period (Knowlton et al. 2002). A few NARW sightings were documented east of the south of the Lease Survey Area near the Delaware Bay in October, December, May, and July (Knowlton et al. 2002). Other visual recordings of NARW were found in New Jersey waters during the spring and fall seasons (CETAP 1982). An entanglement mortality event of a NARW was recorded off the coast of New Jersey in October (Knowlton et al. 2002). It is has been noted, however, that NARW sightings in several traditional feeding habitats has been declining, causing speculation that a shift in NARW habitat usage may be occurring (Pettis et al. 2017).

Geo-Marine (2010) observed NARWs offshore of New Jersey during all seasons; except for summer. Three sightings of this species were documented in November, December, and January (Geo-Marine 2010). NARWs exhibit notable seasonal variability, with maximum occurrence in winter (December to February) and minimum occurrence in spring and summer. These sightings were likely to be migrant movements towards breeding and calving grounds located north and south of the Lease Survey Area (Winn et al. 1986,

Cole et al. 2009). NARWs detected in the Geo-Marine (2010) study area off the coast of New Jersey were seen as single animals or pairs. These sightings occurred within water depths from 56 ft to 85 ft (17 m to 26 m) with distances from shore ranging from 10.7 nm to 17.2 nm (19.9 km to 31.9 km). A January 2009 sighting documented two adult males offshore of Barnegat Light in the northernmost portion of the Geo-Marine (2010) study area. In May 2008, a cow-calf pair were documented in waters (56 ft [17 m] isobath) southeast of Atlantic City (Geo-Marine 2010; M. Zani, New England Aquarium, pers. comm. 6 January 2020).

## Abundance

The population of the western Atlantic NARW stock has been in decline since 2011, with a minimum population estimate of 368 as of 2019 (Hayes et al. 2021). Population growth rates remain low (2.5%), as average calves born per year between 1990 to 2017 was 16 and ranged from one to thirty-nine per year. In more recent years, female production has fallen, likely a result of lower female survival rate. The most significant causes of anthropogenic mortality to NARW include incidental fishery entanglement, which takes six right whales per year, and vessel strikes, which take two whales per year (Hayes et al. 2021). To address potential for ship strike, NOAA Fisheries designated the nearshore waters of the mid-Atlantic Bight as the mid-Atlantic U.S. Seasonal Management Area (SMA) for NARW (see Figure 4-1). From 2013 to 2017, 28 records of mortality or serious injury involved entanglement or fishery interactions.

#### Status

The NARW was listed as a Federally endangered species in 1970 and remains critically endangered throughout its range. In addition to its endangered status, the high rate of annual human-related mortality classifies NARW as a strategic stock under the MMPA. An unusual mortality event (UME) was established for NARWs in June 2017. Thirty documented deaths and 8 seriously injured free-swimming whales have been document as of 2019 (NOAA Fisheries 2022c).

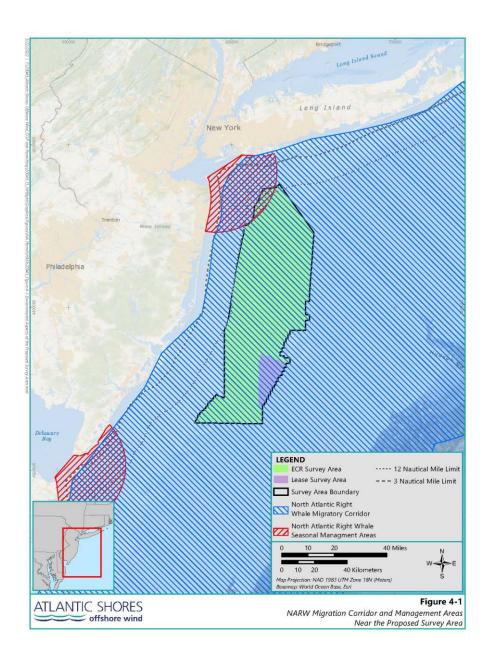


Figure 4-1 NARW Migration Corridor and Management Areas Near the Future Offshore Wind Development of Lease OCS-A-0541

# 4.2.2 Fin Whale (Balaenoptera physalus) - Endangered

Fin whales are the second largest species of baleen whale that occur in the northern hemisphere, with a maximum length of about 75 ft (22.8 m) (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). These whales have a sleek, streamlined body with a V-shaped head that makes them fast swimmers. Fin whales have a distinctive coloration pattern: the dorsal and lateral sides of their bodies are black or dark brownish-gray while the ventral surface is white. The lower jaw is dark on the left side and white on the right side. Fin whales feed on krill (*Euphausiacea*), small schooling fish (e.g., herring [*Clupea harengus*], capelin [*Mallotus villosus*], sand lance [*Ammodytidae* spp.]), and squid (*Teuthida* spp.) by lunging into schools of prey with their mouths

open (Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010). Fin whales are low-frequency cetaceans producing short duration down sweep calls between 15 and 30 hertz (Hz), typically termed "20-Hz pulses", as well as other signals up to 1 kilohertz (kHz) (Southall et al. 2019). The sound level (SL) of fin whale vocalizations can reach 186 decibels (dB) re 1  $\mu$ Pa, making them one of the most powerful biological sounds in the ocean (Charif et al. 2002).

#### Distribution

Fin whales found offshore U.S. Atlantic, Nova Scotia, and the southeastern coast of Newfoundland are believed to constitute a single stock under the present International Whaling Commission (IWC) management scheme (Donovan 1991), which has been named the Western North Atlantic stock. The current understanding of stock boundaries, however, remains uncertain (Hayes et al. 2019). The range of fin whales in the western North Atlantic extends from the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea to the southeastern coast of Newfoundland. Fin whales are common in waters of the U.S. Atlantic Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), principally from Cape Hatteras northward. There is evidence that fin whales are present year-round throughout much of the U.S. EEZ north of 35° N, but the density of individuals in any one area changes seasonally (NOAA Fisheries 2022a, Hayes et al. 2019). Fin whales are the most commonly observed large whales in continental shelf waters from the Mid-Atlantic coast of the U.S. to Nova Scotia (Sergeant 1977, Sutcliffe and Brodie 1977, CeTAP 1982, Hain et al. 1992), and were the most common baleen whale species detected in an ecological baseline survey conducted in coastal New Jersey waters, which surveyed an area that encompassed 97% of the New Jersey Wind Energy Area (Geo-Marine 2010, BOEM 2012). Fin whales are the dominant large cetacean species during all seasons from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia, having the largest standing stock, the largest food requirements, and, therefore, the largest influence on ecosystem processes of any baleen whale species (Hain et al. 1992, Kenney et al. 1997).

Fin whales have a high multi-seasonal relative abundance in U.S. Mid-Atlantic waters, and surrounding areas. During the Geo-Marine (2010) survey, most of the sightings were observed during winter and summer. Within the study area, group size ranged from one to four animals with a mean distance from shore of 20 km and a mean water depth of 21.5 m (Geo-Marine 2010). One calf was observed with an adult fin whale in the area (Geo-Marine 2010). There were mixed aggregations of feeding humpbacks during fin whale sightings, and with the presence of known prey species, it is possible that fin whales use this area to feed (Geo-Marine 2010). Acoustic data also indicate that this species is present in the area in all seasons (CETAP 1982). Fin whales were the most common marine mammal species detected acoustically during the study (Geo-Marine 2010).

While fin whales typically feed in the Gulf of Maine and the waters surrounding New England, their mating and calving (and general wintering) areas are largely unknown (Hain et al. 1992, Hayes et al. 2019). Acoustic detections of fin whale singers augment and confirm these visual sighting conclusions for males. Recordings from Massachusetts Bay, New York Bight, and deep-ocean areas have detected some level of fin whale singing from September through June (Watkins et al. 1987, Clark and Gagnon 2002, Morano et al. 2012). These acoustic observations from both coastal and deep-ocean regions support the conclusion that male fin whales are broadly distributed throughout the western North Atlantic for most of the year (Hayes et al. 2019). It is likely that fin whales occurring within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ undergo migrations into Canadian waters, open-ocean areas, and perhaps even subtropical or tropical regions; however, the popular notion that entire fin whale populations make distinct annual migrations like some other mysticetes

has questionable support (Hayes et al. 2019). Based on an analysis of neonate stranding data, Hain et al. (1992) suggest that calving occurs during October to January in latitudes of the U.S. Mid-Atlantic region.

Low-frequency vocalizing fin whale pulses were detected in the northern and eastern range of the study area where shelf waters are typically deeper (Geo-Marine 2010). Fin whales were acoustically detected on 281 days from March 2008 to October 2009 and documented in every month of acoustic recording indicating a lack of seasonal trends (Geo-Marine 2010). As the detection range for fin whale vocalizations is more than 108 nautical miles (nm) (200 km), detected signals may have originated from areas far outside of the study area; however, the acoustic presence suggest that this species can be found regularly along the New Jersey outer continental shelf (Geo-Marine 2010).

#### Abundance

The best available abundance estimate for the western North Atlantic fin whale stock in U.S. waters from NOAA Fisheries stock assessments is 6,802 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). Current and maximum net productivity rates and population trends are unknown for this stock due to relatively imprecise abundance estimates and variable survey design (Hayes et al. 2020). From 2013 to 2017, the minimum human-caused mortality rate was approximately two whales per year, caused by incidental fishery interactions and vessel collisions; however, this estimate is biased low due to haphazard detections of carcasses (Hayes et al. 2020). Potential biological removal (PBR) for fin whales was calculated based on the most recent SAR (Hayes et al. 2021), while the most recent density data from Roberts et al. (2018) were used to calculate the number of animals potentially exposed to threshold levels of sound.

## Status

The fin whale is Federally listed under the United States Endangered Species Act (ESA) as an endangered marine mammal and are designated as a strategic stock under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA) due to their endangered status under the ESA, uncertain human-caused mortality, and incomplete survey coverage of the stock's defined range.

# 4.2.3 Sei Whale (Balaenoptera borealis) - Endangered

Sei whales can reach lengths of about 39 ft to 59 ft (12 m to 18 m) (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). This species has a long, sleek body that is dark bluish-gray to black in color and pale underneath (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Their diet is comprised primarily of plankton including krill and copepods, schooling fish, and cephalopods. Sei whales generally travel in small groups (two to five individuals), but larger groups are observed on feeding grounds (NOAA Fisheries 2022a).

Sei whales, like all baleen whales, are categorized as low-frequency cetaceans. There are limited confirmed sei whale vocalizations; however, studies indicate that this species produces several, mainly low-frequency (less than 1,000 Hz) vocalizations. Calls attributed to sei whales include pulse trains up to 3 kHz, broadband "growl" and "whoosh" sounds between 100 and 600 Hz, tonal calls and upsweeps between 200 and 600 Hz, and down sweeps between 34 and 100 Hz (McDonald et al. 2005, Rankin and Barlow 2007, Baumgartner et al. 2008).

#### Distribution

The stock that occurs within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ is the Nova Scotia stock, which ranges along the continental shelf waters of the northeastern U.S. to Newfoundland (Hayes et al. 2017). Sei whales are

relatively widespread. Sighting data suggest sei whale distribution is largely centered in the waters of New England and eastern Canada (Roberts et al. 2016a, Hayes et al. 2017). There appears to be a strong seasonal component to sei whale distribution, and they are most abundant in adjacent waters near the continental shelf from winter to spring (Roberts et al. 2016a). This general offshore pattern of sei whale distribution is disrupted during episodic incursions into more shallow and inshore waters (Hayes et al. 2017). In years of reduced predation on copepods by other predators, and thus greater abundance of this prey source, sei whales are reported in more inshore locations, such as the Great South Channel (1987 and 1989) and Stellwagen Bank (1986) areas (Payne and Heinemann 1990, Waring et al. 2016). An influx of sei whales into the southern Gulf of Maine occurred in summer 1986 (Schilling et al. 1992). Such episodes, often punctuated by years or even decades of absence from an area, have been reported for sei whales from various places worldwide.

There has been little detection of sei whales within New Jersey and surrounding waters (Kenney et al. 1985, Geo-Marine 2010). According to the NJ ENSP, there have been no sightings of this species documented within State waters. On the shelf offshore of New Jersey, sei whales have been detected in spring. Approximately 200 sei whale vocalizations were detected in mid-September 2006 (Newhall et al. 2009); however, it is unlikely that the sei whale will be present farther nearshore inshore by the Survey Area.

#### Abundance

The best available abundance estimate for the Nova Scotia stock of sei whales from NOAA Fisheries stock assessments is 6,292 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). This estimate is considered an underestimate because the full known range of the stock was not surveyed, the estimate did not include availability-bias correction for submerged animals, and there was uncertainty regarding population structure (Hayes et al. 2017).

# <u>Status</u>

Sei whales are listed as endangered under the ESA and NJ ENSP and the Nova Scotia stock is considered strategic by NOAA Fisheries under the MMPA. The minimum population size is 3,098. The maximum productivity rate is 0.04, the default value for cetaceans. The recovery factor is 0.10 because the sei whale is listed as endangered under the ESA. PBR for the Nova Scotia stock of the sei whale is 0.5. For the period 2009 through 2014, the minimum annual rate of human-caused mortality and serious injury to sei whales was 0.8 (Hayes et al. 2017). No critical habitat areas are designated for the sei whale under the ESA. A BIA for feeding for sei whales occurs north of Survey Area in the Gulf of Maine from May through November (LaBrecque et al. 2015).

# 4.2.4 Humpback Whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) – Non-Strategic for Gulf of Maine Stock/West Indies Distinct Population Segment

Humpback whale body coloration is primarily dark gray, but individuals have a variable amount of white on their pectoral fins, belly, and flukes. These distinct coloration patterns are used by scientists to identify individuals. This baleen whale species feeds on small prey often found in large concentrations, including krill and fish such as herring and sand lance (Kenney and Vigness-Raposa 2010). Humpback whales use unique behaviors, including lunge feeding, bubble nets, bubble clouds, and flicking of their flukes and fins, to herd and capture prey (NOAA Fisheries 1991). Humpback whale females are larger than males and can reach lengths of up to 59 ft (18 m) (NOAA Fisheries 2022a) and reach sexual maturity between the ages four and ten with females producing a single calf every two to three years.

Humpback whales are low-frequency cetaceans but have one of the most varied vocal repertoires of the baleen whales. Male humpbacks will arrange vocalizations into a complex, repetitive sequence to produce a characteristic "song". Songs are variable but typically occupy frequency bands between 300 and 3,000 Hz and last upwards of 10 minutes. Songs are predominately produced while on breeding grounds; however, they have been recorded on feeding grounds throughout the year (Clark and Clapham 2004, Vu et al. 2012). Typical feeding calls are centered at 500 Hz with some other calls and songs reaching 20 kHz. Common humpback calls also contain series of grunts between 25 and 1,900 Hz as well as strong, low-frequency pulses (with sound levels up to 176 dB re 1 μPa) between 25 and 90 Hz (Clark and Clapham 2004, Vu et al. 2012).

#### Distribution

Humpback whales are a cosmopolitan species and widely distributed in the Western Atlantic. Most humpback whales that inhabit the waters within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ belong to the Gulf of Maine stock, formerly called the Western North Atlantic Stock. Humpback whales in the Gulf of Maine stock typically feed in the waters between the Gulf of Maine and Newfoundland during spring, summer, and fall, but they have been observed feeding in other areas, such as off the coast of New York (Sieswerda et al. 2015). Humpback whales from most feeding areas, including the Gulf of Maine, migrate to the West Indies (including the Antilles, Dominican Republic, Virgin Islands, and Puerto Rico) in winter, where they mate and calve their young (Katona and Beard 1990, Palsbøll et al. 1997). There have been several wintertime humpback sightings in coastal waters of the eastern U.S., including 46 sightings of humpbacks in the New York-New Jersey Harbor Estuary documented between 2011 and 2016 (Brown et al. 2017). However, not all humpback whales from the Gulf of Maine stock migrate to the West Indies every winter because significant numbers of animals are observed in mid- and high-latitude regions at this time (Swingle et al. 1993).

Humpback whales are known to occur regularly throughout the Mid-Atlantic Bight, including New Jersey waters (Geo-Marine 2010). The occurrence of this population is strongly seasonal with most observations occurring during the spring and fall, with a peak from April to June (Geo-Marine 2010, Curtice et al. 2019). There have also been documented strandings from the New Jersey coast (Barco et al. 2002). Geo-Marine (2010) observed humpback whales during all seasons including seven observations in the winter. Group size tended to be single animals or pairs with a mean distance from shore of 11.4 mi (18.4 km) and a mean depth of 67 ft (20.5 m) (Geo-Marine 2010). Acoustic data indicate that this species may be present within the surrounding areas year-round, with the highest rates of acoustic detections in adjacent waters in winter and spring (Kraus et al. 2016). Acoustic detections do not differentiate between individuals, so detections on multiple days could be the same or different individuals. Humpback whales have previously been observed feeding off the coast of New Jersey with juveniles exhibiting feeding behavior just south of the study area near the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay (Swingle et al. 2006). There was one instance of observed lunge-feeding on effort within the study area (Geo-Marine 2010). Additionally, a cow-calf pair was seen once north of the study area boundary suggesting that the nearshore waters off of New Jersey may provide important feeding and nursery habitats for humpback whales (Geo-Marine 2010).

#### Abundance

The Gulf of Maine humpback whale stock consists of approximately 1,396 whales and is characterized by a positive trend in abundance with a maximum annual production rate estimate of 6.5% (Barlow and Clapham 1997, Hayes et al. 2021). The most significant anthropogenic causes of mortality to humpback

whales remain incidental fishery entanglements, responsible for roughly eight whale mortalities, and vessel collisions, responsible for four mortalities both on average annually from 2013 to 2017 (Hayes et al. 2020).

#### Status

The humpback whale was listed under the ESA as endangered throughout its range until 2016 when NOAA Fisheries revised the listing and defined 14 distinct population segments (DPS) based on breeding populations. Under the final determination, the three DPSs that occur in U.S. waters are listed as threatened or endangered (81 FR 62259, September 8, 2016).

The Gulf of Maine stock is not considered depleted because it does not coincide with any ESA-listed DPS. The detected level of U.S. fishery-caused mortality and serious injury, derived from the available records, which is surely biased low, does not exceed the calculated PBR and, therefore, this is not a strategic stock (if the recovery factor is set at 0.5) (Hayes et al. 2019) under the MMPA. Humpback whales in the western North Atlantic have been experiencing a UME since January 2016 that appears to be related to a larger than usual number of vessel collisions (NOAA Fisheries 2022d). In total, 76 mortalities were documented through July 25, 2018, as part of this event (NOAA Fisheries 2022d). A biologically important area (BIA) for humpback whales for feeding from March to December has been designated in the Gulf of Maine, Stellwagen Bank, and the Great South Channel; all of which are north of the Survey Area (LaBrecque et al. 2015).

# 4.2.5 Minke Whale (Balaenoptera acutorostrata) - Non-Strategic

Minke whales are a small baleen whale species reaching 33 ft (10 m) in length (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). This species has a dark gray-to-black back and a white ventral surface (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Its diet is comprised primarily of crustaceans, schooling fish, and copepods. Minke whales generally travel in small groups (one to three individuals), but larger groups have been observed on feeding grounds (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Like other baleen whales, minke whales use low-frequency sounds to communicate with one another and to locate prey. They are believed to make mechanical sound calls and a variety of grunts, moans, and belches (Gedamke 2004).

#### Distribution

This species has a cosmopolitan distribution in temperate, tropical, and high latitude waters (Hayes et al. 2018b). Common and widely distributed within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ, these whales are the third most abundant great whale (any of the larger marine mammals of the order Cetacea) within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ (CeTAP 1982). Until better information is available, minke whales within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ are considered part of the Canadian East Coast stock, which inhabits the area from the western half of the Davis Strait (45°W) to the Gulf of Mexico. It is uncertain if separate sub-stocks exist within the Canadian East Coast stock. Like many of the other pelagic baleen whales, minke whales conduct seasonal migrations between high latitude summer feeding waters and low latitude winter breeding and calving grounds. Acoustic monitoring surveys indicate minke whales leave wintering grounds for their northern migrations from March through April and move south once again in mid-October through November (Risch et al. 2014).

Although primarily documented near the continental shelf offshore of New Jersey (Mead 1975, Potter 1979, Rowlett 1980, Potter 1984, Winn et al. 1985, DoN 2005), minke whales have been sighted nearshore at water depths of 36 ft (11 m) (Geo-Marine 2010). Acoustic recordings of minke whales have been detected north of the Lease Survey Area within the New York Bight during the fall (August to December) and winter

(February to May) (Biedron et al. 2009). A juvenile minke whale was sighted north of the Lease Survey Area near the New York Harbor in April, 2007 (Hamazaki 2002). The expected occurrence of minke whales near the Survey Area are likely due to the availability of prey species, such as capelin, herring, mackerel, and sand lance in this region (Kenney et al. 1985, Horwood 1989). Based on habitat information and predictive habitat models, Hamazaki (2002) determined that minke whales are likely to occur in nearshore waters off New Jersey.

Minke whales are most common off New Jersey in coastal waters in the spring and early summer as they move north to feeding ground in New England and fall as they migrate south (Geo-Marine 2010). Geo-Marine (2010) observed four minke whales near the Survey Area and surrounding waters during winter and spring. This species demonstrated a distinct seasonal habitat usage pattern that was consistent throughout the study. The two winter sightings were recorded in February, northeast of Barnegat Light whereas the two spring sightings were recorded in June, southeast of Sea Isle City. Minke whale sightings off the coast of New Jersey were within water depths of 36 ft to 79 ft (11 m to 24 m) and temperatures ranging from 5.4 to 11.5°C (47°F) (Geo-Marine 2010).

Minke whale recordings have resulted in some of the most variable and unique vocalizations of any marine mammal. Common calls for minke whales found in the North Atlantic include repetitive, low-frequency (100 to 500 Hz) pulse trains that may consist of either grunt-like pulses or thump-like pulses. The thumps are very short duration (50 to 70 milliseconds [ms]) with peak energy between 100 and 200 Hz. The grunts are slightly longer in duration (165 to 320 ms) with most energy between 80 and 140 Hz. In addition, minke whales will repeat a six-to-14-minute pattern of 40 to 60 second pulse trains over several hours (Risch et al. 2013). Minke whales produce a unique sound called the "boing", which consists of a short pulse at 1.3 kHz followed by an undulating tonal call around 1.4 kHz. This call was widely recorded but unidentified for many years and had scientists widely speculating as to its source (Rankin and Barlow 2005).

### <u>Abundance</u>

The best available abundance estimate for the Canadian East Coast minke whale stock is 21,968 individuals (Hayes et al. 2021). Current population trends and net productivity rates of minke whales in this region are currently unknown. The average annual minimum human-caused mortality is estimated to be eight whales per year, with seven deaths caused by entanglement in fishing gear and one death caused by vessel strikes between 2013 and 2017 (Hayes et al. 2020).

# Status

Minke whales are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or designated as a strategic stock under the MMPA.

# 4.3 Earless Seals (Phocidae)

# 4.3.1 Harbor Seal (Phoca vitulina) - Non-Strategic

Adult harbor seals are not sexually dimorphic and both males and females are light gray to dark brown in color and typically reach 4.9 ft (1.5 m) and 220 pounds in size with a 35-year lifespan (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Harbor seals forage in both shallow coastal waters and deeper offshore waters, diving to target prey within the water column or on the seafloor (Tollit et al. 1997). Primary food sources vary with seasonal

abundances of fish and crustaceans in the north and Mid-Atlantic coastal region, with the most numerous prey species including sandlance, silver hake, Atlantic Herring, and redfish (NOAA Fisheries 2022a).

Male harbor seals produce underwater vocalizations during mating season to attract females and defend territories. These calls are comprised of "growls" or "roars" with peak energy at 200 Hz (Sabinsky et al. 2017). Captive studies have shown that harbor seals have good (greater than 50%) sound detection thresholds between 0.1 and 80 kHz, with primary sound detection between 0.5 and 40 kHz (Kastelein et al. 2009).

#### Distribution

Harbor seals are found throughout coastal waters of the Atlantic Ocean and adjoining seas above 30° N and is the most abundant pinniped within the U.S. Atlantic EEZ (Hayes et al. 2019). Harbor seals are year-round inhabitants of the coastal waters of eastern Canada and Maine (Richardson and Rough 1993) and occur seasonally from southern New England to New Jersey coasts between September and late May (Schneider and Payne 1983, Barlas 1999, Schroeder 2000). The western North Atlantic stock may occupy southern waters of the Mid-Atlantic Bight during seasonal migrations from the Bay of Fundy in the late autumn and winter (NOAA Fisheries 2022b; Palka et al. 2017). In addition to coastal waters, harbor seals utilize terrestrial habitat as haul-out sites throughout the year, but primarily during the pupping and molting periods, which occur from late spring to late summer in the northern portion of their range.

There are three major haul-out sites along the New Jersey coast, located in Great Bay, Sandy Hook, and Barnegay Inlet (CWFNJ 2015). In the western North Atlantic, they are distributed from eastern Canada to southern New England and New York, and occasionally as far south as the Carolinas (Payne and Selzer 1989). A general southward movement from the Bay of Fundy to southern New England occurs in fall and early winter (Rosenfeld et al. 1988, Whitman and Payne 1990, Barlas 1999). A northward movement from southern New England to Maine and eastern Canada takes place prior to the pupping season, which occurs from mid-May through June along the Maine coast (Richardson 1976, Wilson 1978, Whitman and Payne 1990, Kenney 1994). Geo-Marine (2010) observed one harbor seal offshore of New Jersey during their survey effort.

#### Abundance

The best current abundance estimate for harbor seals is 61,336 individuals (CV = 0.08), estimated using aerial photographs from haul-out sites along the coast of Maine in 2012 (Waring et al. 2015, Hayes et al. 2021). Annual average estimated human-caused mortality and serious injury to harbor seals (from 2015 to 2019) is estimated to be 339 seals per year (Hayes et al. 2021), with death due to fisheries interactions accounting for most of the mortality events. Harbor seal mortality through bycatch is highest in the Northeast Sink Gillnet fishery between Boston, Massachusetts, and Maine. Increased abundance of seals in the northeast region has also been documented during aerial and boat surveys of overwintering haul-out sites from the Maine/New Hampshire border to eastern Long Island and New Jersey (Payne and Selzer 1989, Rough 1995, Barlas 1999, Hoover et al. 1999, Slocum et al. 1999, deHart 2002).

#### <u>Status</u>

The Western North Atlantic Stock of harbor seals is not considered strategic under the MMPA (Hayes et al. 2020).

# 4.3.2 Gray Seal (Halichoerus grypus) - Non-Strategic

Gray seals are large, reaching 7 ft to 10 ft (2 m to 3 m) in length, and have a silver-gray coat with scattered dark spots (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). These seals are generally gregarious and live in loose colonies while breeding (Jefferson et al. 2008). Though they spend most of their time in coastal waters, gray seals can dive to depths of 984 ft (300 m) and frequently forage on the OCS (Lesage and Hammill 2001, Jefferson et al. 2008). These opportunistic feeders primarily consume fish, crustaceans, squid, and octopus (Bonner 1971, Reeves 1992, Jefferson et al. 2008). They often co-occur with harbor seals because their habitat and feeding preferences overlap (NOAA Fisheries 2022a). Gray seals, as with all pinnipeds, are assigned to functional hearing groups based on the medium (air or water) through which they are detecting the sounds, for an estimated auditory bandwidth of 75 Hz to 75 kHz (Southall et al. 2007). Vocalizations range from 100 Hz to 3 kHz (DoN 2008).

#### Distribution

Gray seals are the second most common pinniped along the U.S. Atlantic coast (Jefferson et al. 2008). This species inhabits temperate and sub-arctic waters and lives on remote, exposed islands, shoals, and unstable sandbars (Jefferson et al. 2008). Gray seals range from Canada to New Jersey; however, stranding records as far south as Cape Hatteras (Gilbert et al. 2005) have been recorded. The eastern Canadian population of gray seals ranges from New Jersey to Labrador and is centered at Sable Island, Nova Scotia (Davies 1957, Mansfield 1966, Richardson and Rough 1993, Lesage and Hammill 2001). There are three breeding concentrations in eastern Canada: Sable Island, Gulf of St. Lawrence, and along the east coast of Nova Scotia (Lavigueur and Hammill 1993). In U.S. waters, gray seals primarily pup at four established colonies: Muskeget and Monomoy islands in Massachusetts, and Green and Seal Islands in Maine. Since 2010, pupping has also been observed at Noman's Island in Massachusetts and Wooden Ball and Matinicus Rock in Maine (Hayes et al. 2019). Although white-coated pups have stranded on eastern Long Island beaches in New York, no pupping colonies have been detected in that region. Following the breeding season, gray seals may spend several weeks ashore in late spring and early summer while undergoing a yearly molt.

The gray seal is primarily found in coastal waters and forages in OCS regions (Lesage and Hammill 2001). For this reason, studies such as the Geo-Marine (2010) did not observe gray seals offshore of New Jersey. However, the Marine Mammal Stranding Center (2020) documented 25 gray seal strandings in 2019. Other reported sightings of gray seal in waters off of New Jersey were found as bycatch in gillnets (Hatch and Orphanides 2017, Orphanides 2019). Gray seals are less likely than harbor seals to occur around the Survey Area (Hayes et al. 2019).

#### Abundance

The gray seal is found on both sides of the North Atlantic, with three major populations: Northeast Atlantic, Northwest Atlantic, and Baltic Sea (Haug et al. 2013). The Western North Atlantic stock is equivalent to the Northwest Atlantic population, and ranges from New Jersey to Labrador (Mansfield 1966, Scott et al. 1990, Katona et al. 1993, Lesage and Hammill 2001). In U.S. waters alone, Hayes et al. (2021) estimated an abundance of 27,300. PBR (1,458) for gray seals was calculated based on the most recent SAR (Hayes et al. 2021).

#### <u>Status</u>

Gray seals are not listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA or the NJDEP, and they are not considered strategic under the MMPA.

# 5. Type of Incidental Take Authorization Requested

Atlantic Shores is seeking an IHA for a future offshore wind development project (Project) pursuant to section 101(a)(5)(D) of the MMPA (16 U.S. Code § 1371(a)(5)(D)) and 50 C.F.R. § 216.107. Atlantic Shores is requesting authorization for incidental take by Level B harassment of small numbers of marine mammals resulting from the operation of HRG equipment within each of the identified survey areas. The request is based on the following:

- The projected HRG survey activities as described in Section 1;
- The projected survey schedule as described in Section 2;
- The evaluation of the "maximum" acoustic footprint associated with the range of potential soundproducing equipment available on the market that could be deployed within the Survey Area; and
- The mitigation and monitoring measures proposed in Section 11.

#### 6. Take Estimates for Marine Mammals

To determine the type of take that could result from the operation of the HRG survey equipment operating below 180 kHz throughout the survey period, Atlantic Shores followed the interim recommendations provided by NOAA Fisheries (2020) and the NOAA Fisheries HRG Level B Impact Distance Calculation spreadsheet (pers comm. Benjamin Laws, NOAA GARFO 2021) to estimate the maximum horizontal distance to the Level B marine mammal acoustic harassment threshold for impulsive noise (160 dB<sub>RMS90%</sub> re 1  $\mu$ Pa) based on equipment source specifications. Results of this assessment are provided in Table 6-1 and Appendix B.

Table 6-1 Maximum Distances to Level B 160 dB<sub>RMS90%</sub> Threshold by Equipment Type Operating Below 180 kHz

HRG Survey Equipment (Sub-Bottom Profiler)	Representative Equipment Type	Operating Frequencies Ranges (kHz)	Operational Source Level Ranges (dB <sub>RMS</sub> )	Beamwidth Ranges (degree)	Distance to Level B Threshold (m)
	Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark 240	0.01 – 1.9	203	180	141
Sparker	Geo Marine Survey System 2D SUHRS	0.2 to 5	195	180	56
	Edgetech 2000- DSS	2 to 16	195	24	56
	Edgetech 216	2 to 16	179	17, 20, or 24	9
CHIRP	Edgetech 424	4 to 24	180	71	10
Or in a	Edgetech 512i	0.7 to 12	179	80	9
	Pangeosubsea Sub-Bottom Imager™	4 to 12.5	190	120	32

As evidenced in Table 6-1, the maximum distance to the Level B harassment threshold is 463 ft (141 m) and results from use of the Applied Acoustics Dura-Spark sparker equipment. This distance was used as the "r" input in calculating the zone of influence (ZOI), which in turn is used to calculate estimated takes of marine mammals (see Section 6). It is unlikely that the sound source (sparker) resulting in the maximum possible impact as presented in Table 6-1 will be used over the entire duration of the 12-month survey

period in the identified Survey Area. As such, the assessment included herein is based on conservative assumptions and provides a cautious approach to predicting active survey operations and their potential impact on marine mammal species.

Atlantic Shores seeks authorization for potential take of small numbers of marine mammals by Level B harassment in the specified areas where the proposed activities will occur (Figure 1-1). Anticipated impacts to marine mammals from the proposed survey activities will be associated with noise propagation from the use of specific HRG survey equipment deployed to meet the goals of the survey campaigns conducted over the 12-month period. The following sections present Atlantic Shores' basis for estimating take and associated request for take related to planned HRG surveys.

# 6.1 Basis for Estimating Numbers of Marine Mammals that Might be Taken by Harassment

As stated in Section 1, Atlantic Shores proposes to conduct a range of HRG surveys over a 12-month period in the Survey Area (Figure 1-1). To provide flexibility in the design, selection, and execution of the survey campaign (including choice of equipment) and to maximize protection of marine mammals from survey activities, Atlantic Shores used the following conservative (i.e., maximum or upper-end) parameters to estimate the potential for take:

- Maximum number of days of survey that could occur over a 12-month period in each of the identified survey areas;
- Maximum distance each vessel could travel per 24-hour period in each of the identified survey areas;
- Maximum ensonified area (ZOI) from the equipment listed in Table 6-1; and
- Maximum average marine mammal densities for any given season that a survey could occur.

The following sections provide additional details on how each of these parameters have been applied to calculate the maximum ZOI associated with the planned survey activities in each survey area, along with estimates and associated requests for take.

#### 6.2 Calculation of Maximum ZOI

The ZOI is the maximum ensonified area around the sound source over a 24-hour period. The following formula for a mobile source was used to calculate the ZOI:

Mobile Source ZOI = (Distance/day x 2r)+  $\pi r^2$ 

Where:

Distance/day = the maximum distance a survey vessel could travel in a 24-hour period;

r = the maximum radial distance from a given sound source to the NOAA Level A or Level B harassment thresholds.

For the purpose of the Atlantic Shores HRG surveys, the total *distance/day* has been estimated to be approximately 34.2 mi (55.0 km) in the Survey Area (Table 6-2). This estimated distance per day has taken into consideration not only the line-kilometers per day achieved during Atlantic Shores' surveys to date, but also data inputs from previous offshore wind and oil and gas surveys performed by members of the Atlantic Shores Geoscience Teams.

To calculate a conservative ZOI, Atlantic Shores applied the maximum radial distance ("r") for any category and type of HRG survey equipment considered in its assessment to the mobile source ZOI calculation. Following the methods in the interim recommendations provided by NOAA Fisheries (2020) and the results from the NOAA Fisheries HRG Level B Impact Distance Calculation spreadsheet, the maximum calculated distance to the Level B harassment threshold for any category and type of HRG survey equipment that could be operated is the sparker at 462.6 ft (141 m; Table 6-2 and Appendix B). As such, the ZOI for the sparker was applied as the maximum assumption.

Results of the maximum mobile source ZOI calculations are provided in Table 6-2.

Table 6-2 HRG Survey Area Distances and Maximum ZOIs

Survey Area	Number of Active Survey Days	Survey distances per day (km)	Maximum Radial Distance (r) (m)	Calculated ZOI per day (km²)	Total Annual Ensonified Area (km²)
Lease Area	180	55	141	15 57	2,802.6
ECR Survey Area	180	55	141	15.57	2,802.6

It should be noted that the maximum ZOI calculation for mobile sources results in a conservative ZOI because:

- it uses the sparker, which produces the largest Level B ZOI, as the basis for the take estimates and assumes it is operational for 100% of the survey effort<sup>2</sup>,
- and, that this ZOI is a representation of the maximum extent of the ensonified area around a sound source over a 24-hour period.

# 6.3 Estimate of Numbers of Marine Mammals that Might be Taken by Harassment

Estimates of take are computed according to the following formula:

Estimated Take =  $D \times ZOI \times (d)$ .

Where:

D = average highest marine mammal species density (number per km<sup>2</sup>)

ZOI = maximum ensonified area (as calculated in Section 6.0 and summarized in Table 6-2)

d = number of survey days (as summarized in Table 6-2)

The data used as the basis for estimating species density "D" for the Survey Area were derived from data provided by Duke University's Marine Geospatial Ecology Lab and the Marine-life Data and Analysis Team. This dataset is a compilation of the best available marine mammal data (1992-2019) and was prepared in a collaboration between Duke University, Northeast Regional Planning Body, University of North Carolina Wilmington, the Virginia Aquarium and Marine Science Center, and NOAA (Roberts et al. 2016a; Curtice et al. 2018). To determine seasonal densities of marine mammal species in each of the survey areas, density data from Roberts et al. (2016b, 2017, 2018, 2020) were mapped within the boundary of each

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Though take estimates account for operation of the sparker during all survey campaigns, Atlantic Shores and their contractor reports that it is more likely that the sparker will only be used during 80% of survey campaigns. Thus, using the sparker to calculate take estimates for the entirety of surveying provides conservative take values.

survey area using geographic information systems (GIS). For each survey area, the densities, as reported by Roberts et al. (2016b, 2017, 2018, 2020), were averaged by season (spring [March - May], summer [June - August], fall [September - November], and winter [December - February]). To support the most conservative estimates of take over a 12-month period, Atlantic Shores applied the maximum average seasonal density values for each marine mammal species to the calculation. The seasonal densities by Survey Area are provided in Appendix C. Maximum average densities used to support the calculations of take are presented in bold. Table 6-4 provides a summary of total take inclusive of the entire Survey Area. It should be noted that calculations do not consider whether a single animal is exposed multiple times or whether each exposure is a different animal. Therefore, the numbers summarized in Table 6-4 are the maximum estimates for animals that may be harassed during the HRG surveys (i.e., Atlantic Shores assumes that each exposure event is a different animal).

For bottlenose dolphin densities, Roberts et al. (2016b, 2017, 2018) does not differentiate by individual stock. Therefore, densities and takes were only analyzed for the offshore stock. For pinnipeds, density data from Roberts et al (2016b, 2017, 2018), which was modeled for a guild of pinnipeds rather than on a species-specific level, was apportioned for gray and harbor seals based on total population size.

While Level B harassment take is unlikely due to the required mitigation measures (e.g., shutdown/power-down if an animal enters the Level B harassment isopleths), requested take estimates were adjusted for some species to account for typical group size. Table 6-3 provides the mean group size for Risso's dolphin, Atlantic spotted dolphin, and long-finned pilot whale. Increasing takes based on group size provides conservative take estimates by ensuring the number of takes authorized is at least equal to the average group size.

Table 6-3 Average Group Size Used for Adjusting Takes

Species	Average Group Size	Source
Risso's Dolphin	30	NOAA Fisheries 2022a, 2022e
Atlantic Spotted Dolphin	100	Jefferson et.al (2008), NOAA Fisheries 2022e
Long-finned Pilot Whale	20	NOAA Fisheries 2022a, 2022e

While Table 6-4 provides estimates of take over the entire survey schedule, not all HRG equipment will be in operation for the entire duration. Yet, to provide maximum operational flexibility, this analysis assumes that the sound source that could result in the largest Level B ZOI (sparker) would be used for the entire duration and in all locations. However, it should be noted that, based on past experience by Atlantic Shores, the sparker is estimated to be used only 80% of the time during the surveys. The remaining 20% of survey time will use other equipment that result in a smaller Level B ZOI. Because the equipment resulting in the maximum-case ZOI would not be used during all survey campaigns in each survey area, the calculated take represents a conservative number. In addition, as noted in Section 11.8, for delphinoid cetaceans, HRG survey equipment can continue operating if the individuals voluntarily approach the vessel (e.g., to bow ride) when the sound sources are at full operating power. Therefore, the determination of "voluntary" approach will effectively reduce the numbers and percent population affected for delphinoid cetaceans, below estimated values.

Table 6-4. Total Maximum Average Seasonal Density Marine Mammal Density and Total Estimated Level B Harassment Take Numbers

Species	Lease Area	Lease Area		ECR Survey Area		Total Estimated Takes	
	Maximum Seasonal Density <sup>a</sup> (No./100 km²)	Calculated Take (No.)	Maximum Seasonal Density <sup>a</sup> (No./100 km <sup>2</sup> )	Calculated Take (No.)	Adjusted Take Authorization (No.)	Percent of Population	
North Atlantic right whale	0.386	11	0.475	13	24	6.560	
Humpback whale	0.068	2	0.058	2	<b>8</b> <sup>d</sup>	0.573	
Fin whale	0.295	9	0.216	7	16	0.193	
Sei whale	0.012	0.3e	0.013	0.4e	2	0.032	
Minke whale	0.168	5	0.112	3	8	0.036	
Sperm whale	0.030	0.9e	0.042	2	3	0.069	
Long-finned pilot whale b	0.354	10	0.256	8	20 <sup>f</sup>	0.051	
Bottlenose dolphin (Offshore stock)	5.011	141	3.231	91	232	0.369	
Short beaked common dolphin	19.246	539	13.251	372	911	0.527	
Atlantic white-sided dolphin	2.213	62	1.611	46	108	0.116	
Atlantic spotted dolphin	0.062	2	0.036	1	100 <sup>f</sup>	0.250	
Risso's dolphin	0.089	3	0.038	2	30 <sup>f</sup>	0.084	
Harbor porpoise	6.657	187	6.059	170	357	0.373	
Harbor seal <sup>c</sup>	2.446	69	4.001	113	182	0.297	
Gray seal <sup>c</sup>	1.099	31	1.798	51	82	0.300	

#### Notes:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Cetacean density values from Duke University (Roberts et al. 2016b, 2017, 2018, 2020).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Pilot whale density models from Duke University (Roberts et al. 2016a, 2016b, 2017) represent pilot whales as a 'guild' rather than by species. However, since the Survey Area is only expected to contain long-finned pilot whales, it is assumed that pilot whale densities modeled by Roberts et al. (2016a, 2016b, 2017) in the Survey Area only reflect the presence of long-finned pilot whales. Therefore, densities for long-finned pilot whales were not apportioned based on population size.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Pinniped density models from Duke University (Roberts et al. 2016b, 2017, 2018) represent 'seals' as a guild rather than by species. In order to calculate density and take of gray and harbor seals, density of each species was apportioned based on total population size of each species.

d Per NOAA Fisheries recommendation according to recent findings that humpback whales were the most commonly sighted species in the New York Bight, the number of modeled exposures (4) is multiplied by an average whale size of 2 for a total of 8 estimated takes. (https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/17451000.2021.1967993)

e Where calculated takes for a species in a given survey area were less than 1 individual (i.e., sei and sperm whales), the number was rounded up to 1 take in each survey area to yield conservative take estimates.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>f</sup> The number of authorized takes (Level B harassment only) for these species has been increased from the calculated take to consider mean group size. Source for long-finned pilot whale estimate is NOAA's Species Directory (NOAA 2022a). Source for Atlantic spotted dolphin group size estimate is Jefferson et al. (2008). A previously issued IHA for Atlantic Shores for a survey area adjacent to the proposed Survey Area increased the number of takes to 100 Atlantic spotted dolphins. Therefore, Atlantic Shores will increase the take of Atlantic spotted dolphin to 100. Source for Risso's dolphin group size estimate is NOAA Species Directory (NOAA 2022a).

## 7. Anticipated Impact of the Activity

Marine mammals use sound, either by actively producing or passively listening to sounds, for basic life functions such as communication, navigation, foraging, detecting predators, and maintaining social networks. Toothed whales (odontocetes) are known to produce echolocation sounds to image their surroundings and find prey. Additionally, marine mammals passively listen to sounds to learn about their environment by gathering information from other marine mammal species, prey species, and physical phenomena such as wind, waves, rain, and seismic activity (Richardson et al. 1995).

Marine mammals exposed to anthropogenic sound may experience impacts ranging in severity from minor disturbance to non-auditory injury (Southall et al. 2007). The severity of any noise-induced effect on marine mammals depends on the characteristics of received sounds (i.e., received level, frequency band, duration, rise time, duty cycle), the distance the sound travels and the biological context within which it occurs (Ellison et al. 2012, Ellison et al. 2016, Ellison et al. 2018). Impacts most likely to occur from HRG surveys are masking of sound and behavioral disturbance (URI 2021a). Masking effects have the largest impacts on low-frequency communicating mammals like baleen whales (NOAA 2021a). NOAA Fisheries has indicated any effects of masking from sub-bottom profiler equipment on ESA-listed whales (e.g., NARW, fin whale, sei whale, humpback whale) will be insignificant given the directionality of signals for most HRG survey equipment and the mobile nature of marine mammals (NOAA GARFO 2021). Therefore, impacts to masking are not expected to cause population-level impacts. Behavioral disturbances are most likely to occur in the form of displacement. The distance to Level B threshold for proposed HRG equipment (otherwise known as the maximum ensonified area), presented in Table 6-1, is relatively small compared to available habitat of 15 marine mammal species expected to occur in the Survey Area (NOAA 2021a). If displacement of one or more individual marine mammals during HRG survey equipment operation occurs, it would likely be limited to the relatively small area exposed to noise from survey equipment. Most marine mammals avoid sound sources and some species are known for avoiding anthropogenic noise (harbor porpoise). Avoidance or aversion reactions are considered to be of low severity and with no lasting biological consequences (NOAA 2021a; Southall et al. 2007). Since NOAA Fisheries and NOAA Office of Protected Resources have identified impacts from masking and displacement to be insignificant, particularly to sensitive ESA-listed whale species, it can be reasonably assumed that if impacts occur, they would be negligible on a population-level.

Based on the acoustic outputs from surveying work (i.e., non-injurious, Level B harassment), as well as the distribution and density of marine mammals in the Survey Area, impacts to marine mammals are expected to be short-term and minimal. For all species, impacts resulting from sound exposure may affect individuals but have only very low to low risk of impact on marine mammal stocks or populations. The potential impact on the population will depend on the effect on the individual, the size of the species' population and the localized activity. Additionally, protective measures such as vessel strike avoidance procedures and visual monitoring of clearance and shutdown zones will be used to further avoid, minimize or mitigate potential effects. Detailed information regarding protection measures is provided in Section 11 of this Application.

To authorize the incidental take of marine mammals, NOAA Fisheries must determine that harassment resulting from proposed activities will have a negligible impact on marine mammal species or stocks. NOAA Fisheries defines negligible impact as "an impact resulting from a specified activity that cannot be reasonably expected to, and is not reasonably likely to, adversely affect the species or stocks [of marine mammals] through effects on annual rates of recruitment or survival" (50 C.F.R. § 216.103).

## 8. Anticipated Impacts on Subsistence Uses

There are no traditional subsistence hunting areas in the Survey Area.

## 9. Anticipated Impacts on Habitat

As summarized in Section 1.2, bottom disturbance associated with the HRG activities will be limited to grab samples to support the validation of seabed classifications obtained from the multibeam echosounder/side scan sonar data. This temporary and localized impact is considered negligible given the scale of the activity and is unlikely to affect marine mammal species, their habitat, or prey.

The temporary and localized impact of the ZOI associated with sound emitted from various HRG equipment in relation to the comparatively vast area of surrounding open ocean, would result in negligible effects to marine mammals. Impacts on prey species are expected to be limited to temporary avoidance of the area around HRG survey activities and short-term changes in behavior. Such impacts are not expected to result in population-level effects on prey species (BOEM 2012). Individuals disturbed by a survey would likely return to normal behavioral patterns after the survey has ceased or after the animal has left the Survey Area. Because of the limited immediate area of ensonification and duration of individual HRG surveys, few fish may be expected in most cases to be present within the survey areas (BOEM 2012).

Impacts on marine mammal habitat from survey activities described in this application are considered negligible.

## 10. Anticipated Effects of Habitat Impacts on Marine Mammals

No long-term impacts to marine mammal habitat are expected. Marine mammals use sound to navigate, communicate, avoid predators, and find food sources (URI 2021a). Alterations to the soundscape from survey activities could result in masking effects which can interfere with an animal's ability to perceive (i.e., detect, interpret, and/or discriminate) sounds (URI, 2021b). Though surveying could result in masking, impacts would be temporary and localized, limited to the vicinity of the survey activities. Such impacts are not expected to permanently degrade or reduce available habitat for marine mammals. Additionally, though the Survey Area is located within the NARW migratory corridor, the Survey Area occupies a relatively small portion (approximately 2%) of the migratory corridor area identified along the western Atlantic coastline. Due to the relatively small area that will be occupied by localized survey activities, it is expected that NARW will be able to avoid vessels and survey activities without disrupting their typical behavior.

## 11. Mitigation Measures to Protect Marine Mammals and Their Habitat

The mitigation and monitoring measures presented in this section represent Atlantic Shores' baseline commitment to ensure the protection of marine mammals during HRG survey activities. The mitigation procedures outlined in this section aligns with the minimum requirements set forth in Atlantic Shores' draft Renewable Energy Lease OCS-A 0541 and the NOAA Fisheries Greater Atlantic Regional Office (GARFO) programmatic consultation regarding geophysical and geotechnical surveys along the U.S. Atlantic coast in the three Atlantic Renewable Energy Regions (i.e., 2021 NOAA GARFO Biological Assessment).

Atlantic Shores has committed to following monitoring and mitigation procedures described in the following sections including vessel strike avoidance, seasonal operating requirements, visual monitoring of clearance and shutdown zones, pre-clearance and ramp-up procedures, and shutdown procedures. Additionally, Atlantic Shores will ensure proper spacing between survey vessels that could be operating in proximity to one another, in order to ensure sound sources do not overlap. Atlantic Shores will provide a Protected Species Mitigation and Monitoring Plan to NOAA Fisheries for review and approval prior to the mobilization of survey activities.

#### 11.1 Vessel Strike Avoidance Procedures

Atlantic Shores will implement vessel strike avoidance measures including, but are not limited to, the following, except under circumstances when complying with these requirements would put the safety of the vessel or crew at risk or when the vessel is restricted in its ability to maneuver:

- A Vessel Strike Avoidance Zone(s) will be maintained, as defined as 1,640 ft (500 m) or greater from any sighted ESA-listed whale species or other unidentified large marine mammal.
- All vessel operators and crew will maintain vigilant watch for all marine mammals, and slow down, stop their vessel, or alter course, as appropriate and regardless of vessel size, to avoid striking any marine mammals. Unless a required PSO is aboard and on duty, then a designated and trained vessel crew member on all vessels associated with survey activities (transiting [i.e., travelling between a port and survey site] or actively surveying) will be assigned as a lookout for marine mammals.
- Maintain Vessel Strike Avoidance Zone(s) around all surface vessels at all times in accordance with the following parameters, at a minimum:
  - o If a large whale is identified within 1,640 ft (500 m) of the forward path of any vessel, the vessel operator must steer a course away from the whale at 10 knots (18.5 km/hr) or less until the 1,640 ft (500 m) minimum separation distance has been established. Vessels may also shift to idle if feasible.
- If a large whale is sighted within 656 ft (200 m) of the forward path of a vessel, the vessel operator must reduce speed and shift the engine to neutral. Engines must not be engaged until the whale has moved outside of the vessel's path and beyond 1,640 ft (500 m). If stationary, the vessel must not engage engines until the large whale has moved beyond 1,640 ft (500 m). All survey vessels, regardless of size, will observe a 10 knot (less than 18.5 km per hour [km/h]) speed restriction in specific areas designated by NOAA Fisheries for the protection of NARWs from vessel strikes including seasonal management areas (SMAs), Right Whale Slow Zones, and dynamic management areas (DMAs), when in effect.
- All vessels greater than or equal to 65 ft (19.8 m) in overall length operating from November 1 through April 30 will operate at speeds of 10 knots or less while transiting to and from the Survey Area.
- All vessels, regardless of size, will reduce vessel speed to 10 knots or less when mother/calf pairs, pods, or large assemblages of cetaceans are observed near (within 330 ft [100 m]) of an underway vessel.
- All vessels will, to the maximum extent practicable, attempt to maintain a minimum separation distance of 164 ft (50 m) from all other marine mammals than ESA-listed and large whales, with an

- understanding that at times this may not be possible (e.g., for animals that approach the vessel).
- When marine mammals are sighted while a vessel is underway, the vessel will take action as
  necessary to avoid violating the relevant separation distance (e.g., attempt to remain parallel to the
  animal's course, avoid excessive speed or abrupt changes in direction until the animal has left the
  area). Engines will not be engaged until the animals are clear of the area. This will not apply to any
  vessel towing gear or any vessel that is navigationally constrained.

A survey vessel crew training program will be provided to NOAA Fisheries for review and approval prior to the start of surveys. All vessel crew members will be briefed in the identification of protected species that may occur in the survey area and in regulations and best practices for avoiding vessel collisions. Confirmation of the training and understanding of the requirements will be documented on a training course log sheet. Signing the log sheet will certify that the crew members understand and will comply with the necessary requirements throughout the survey event.

#### 11.2 Seasonal Operating Requirements

Throughout all survey operations, Atlantic Shores will monitor NOAA Fisheries NARW reporting systems for the presence of NARW. If NOAA Fisheries should establish Right Whale Slow Zones or DMA in the Survey Area, survey vessels will abide by established restrictions. While the proposed survey activities will occur outside of the established SMA located off Delaware Bay and the ports of New York/New Jersey, a portion of ECR Survey Area does overlap with the Migratory Route and Calving Grounds SMA located off Raritan Bay (i.e., Ports of New York/New Jersey). If surveys in the ECR Survey Area occur within this SMA between November 1 through April 30, Atlantic Shores will ensure compliance with the requisite speed restrictions.

#### 11.3 Maintenance of Shutdown Zones

Atlantic Shores will maintain shutdown zones below during site characterization survey activities using HRG sources in Table 6-1 operating at frequencies below 180 kHz.

- Shutdown Zones Protected Species Observers (PSOs) will establish and monitor marine mammal Shutdown Zones. Distances to Shutdown Zones will be from acoustic sources operating below 180 kHz, not the distance from the vessel. Shutdown Zones will be as follows:
  - 1,640 ft (500 m) Shutdown Zone for NARW for use of impulsive acoustic sources (e.g., sparkers) and non-impulsive, nonparametric sub-bottom profilers; and
  - 328 ft (100 m) Shutdown Zone for all other marine mammals for use of impulsive acoustic sources (e.g., sparkers), except for as noted in Section 11.8 for delphinids from the genera *Delphinus*, *Lagenorhynchus*, *Stenella*, or *Tursiops* that are visually detected as voluntarily approaching the vessel or towed equipment.

If shutdown is required, a PSO will notify the survey crew immediately. Vessel operators and crews will comply immediately with any call for shutdown. Shutdown will remain in effect until the minimum separation distances (detailed above) between the animal and noise source are re-established.

#### 11.4 Visual Monitoring Program

Visual monitoring from HRG survey vessels of the established monitoring zones will be performed by qualified, NOAA Fisheries—approved Protected Species Observers (PSOs). Qualifications for PSOs will include completion of an approved PSO training course and/or demonstrated experience in the role of independent PSO during an HRG survey. PSO resumes will be provided to NOAA Fisheries for review and approval prior to the start of survey activities. As they will not be using equipment that generate a sound source with the potential to cause Level B harassment take, geotechnical survey activities and vessels will not require PSOs.

Up to six Protected Species Observers (PSOs) will be on board each one of the three survey vessels (i.e., a total of up to 18 PSOs) that will be conducting 24-hour and daylight only survey operations. PSOs will undertake visual and acoustic watches, implement mitigation and conduct data collection and reporting. PSOs will be assigned to duties as follows:

### 24-Hour Operations Vessels:

- One PSO will be on watch at all times during transit.
- One PSO will be on watch at all times during daylight source operations.
- Two PSO will be on watch at all times during nighttime operations.

#### 12-Hour/Day-light only Operations Vessels:

- One PSO will be on watch at all times during transit.
- One PSO will be on watch at all times during daylight source operations.

These third-party PSOs will conduct marine mammal visual monitoring when specified acoustic sources (impulsive: sparkers; non-impulsive: non-parametric sub-bottom profilers) are operating below 180 kHz in accordance with the following:

- A minimum of one PSO must be on duty looking for listed species when noise-producing equipment operating below 180 kHz is deployed, or the survey vessel is actively transiting during daylight hours (i.e., from 30 minutes prior to sunrise and through 30 minutes following sunset). If an ESA-listed species are observed within the Clearance or Shutdown Zones, those occurrences will be documented. Two PSOs must be on duty during nighttime operations. A PSO schedule showing that the number of PSOs used is sufficient to effectively monitor the affected area for the project (e.g., surveys) and record the required data must be included.
- PSOs will be employed by a third-party observer provider and will have no tasks other than to conduct observational effort, collect data, and communicate with and instruct relevant vessel crew with regard to the presence of marine mammals and mitigation requirements (including brief alerts regarding maritime hazards). At least one PSO aboard each acoustic source vessel will have a minimum of 90 days at-sea experience working as a PSO during a geophysical survey, with no more than 18 months elapsed since the conclusion of the at-sea experience. This lead PSO will coordinate duty schedules and roles for the PSO team and serve as primary point of contact for the vessel operator. The responsibility of coordinating duty schedules and roles may instead be assigned to a shore-based, third-party monitoring coordinator. To the maximum extent practicable,

the lead PSO will devise the duty schedule such that experienced PSOs are on duty with those PSOs with appropriate training but who have not yet gained relevant experience.

- Non-third-party observers may be approved by NOAA Fisheries on a case-by-case basis for limited, specific duties in support of approved, independent PSOs on smaller vessels with limited crew capacity operating in nearshore waters.
- Visual monitoring will begin no less than 30 minutes prior to initiation of acoustic sources operating below 180 kHz and will continue until 30 minutes after use of these acoustic sources cease.
- PSOs will coordinate to ensure 360-degree visual coverage around the vessel from the most appropriate observation posts or vantage point(s).
- PSOs may be on watch for a maximum of four consecutive hours followed by a break of at least two hours between watches and may conduct a maximum of 12 hours of observation per 24-hour period.
- In cases where multiple vessels are surveying concurrently, any observations of marine mammals will be communicated to PSOs on all active survey vessels.
- PSOs will be equipped with binoculars and will have the ability to estimate distances to marine
  mammals located in proximity to the vessel and/or Shutdown Zones. Reticulated binoculars will be
  available to PSOs for use as appropriate based on conditions and visibility to support the siting and
  monitoring of marine species.
- Position data will be recorded using hand-held or vessel global positioning system (GPS) units for each sighting.
- Atlantic Shores will consult NOAA Fisheries NARW reporting system and Whale Alert throughout survey operations, when practicable, for notifications about the presence of NARWs, and the establishment of Right Whale Slow Zones and DMA. If NOAA Fisheries should establish a DMA in the Lease Area during the survey, the vessels will abide by speed restrictions in the DMA per the lease conditions.
- Visual PSOs will conduct observations in the following circumstances:
  - During good conditions (e.g., daylight hours; Beaufort sea state 3 or less), and no acoustic sources are operating below 180 kHz, for comparison of sighting rates and behavior with and without use of the specified acoustic sources and between acquisition periods (to the maximum extent practicable); and
  - During all daylight hours, when any acoustic sources are active.
- Night-vision equipment (i.e., night-vision goggles and/or infrared technology) will be available for use during nighttime monitoring. Two PSO will be always on watch during nighttime operations. The PSOs on duty will monitor for marine protected species using infrared LED pistol grip spotlight; and Morovision PVS-7 Gen 3 PINNACLE night vision goggles with a thermal acquisition clip-on system, so PSOs can focus observations in any direction.
- Any observations of marine mammals by crew members aboard any vessel associated with the survey will be relayed to the PSO team.
- In cases when clearance has begun in conditions with good visibility, including via the use of nightvision equipment, and the lead PSO has determined that the pre-start clearance zones (as

described in Section 11.6 of this IHA) are clear of marine mammals, survey operations may commence (i.e., no delay is required) despite brief periods of inclement weather and/or loss of daylight. In cases where Shutdown Zones cannot be adequately monitored for ESA-listed species (e.g., low visibility conditions), no equipment operating <180 kHz will be deployed until the Shutdown Zone can be reliably monitored.

• Data on all PSO observations will be recorded based on standard PSO collection requirements. PSOs will use standardized data forms, whether hard copy or electronic.

As part of the monitoring program, PSOs will record all sightings beyond the established Clearance and Shutdown Zones, as far as they can see. This will include dates and locations of survey efforts; time of observation, location and weather; details of the sightings (e.g., species, age classification [if known], numbers, behavior); and details of any observed behavioral disturbances or injury/mortality. In addition, prior to initiation of survey work, all crew members will undergo environmental training, a component of which will focus on the procedures for sighting and protection of marine mammals and sea turtles. A briefing will also be conducted between the survey supervisors and crews, the PSOs, and Atlantic Shores. The purpose of the briefing will be to establish responsibilities of each party, define the chains of command, discuss communication procedures, provide an overview of monitoring purposes, and review operational procedures.

#### 11.5 Clearance Zones

PSOs will conduct 30 minutes of clearance observation prior to the initiation of HRG survey operations using impulsive sources operating below 180 kHz. Clearance observations are not required during HRG survey operations using only non-impulsive sources (e.g., USBL and parametric sub-bottom profilers), unless non-parametric sub-bottom profilers are used (e.g., CHIRPs). If a marine mammal is observed entering or within the clearance zones during the pre-start clearance period, relevant acoustic sources will not be initiated until the marine mammal(s) is confirmed by visual observation to have exited the relevant zone, or, until an additional time period has elapsed with no further sighting of the animal (15 minutes for small odontocetes and seals and 30 minutes for all other species). The pre-start clearance requirement includes small delphinids that approach the vessel. If any ESA-listed species is observed within the Clearance Zone during the 30-minute pre-clearance period, the presence of that animal will be recorded, and the 30-minute clock must be paused. If the PSO confirms the animal has exited the zone and headed away from the survey vessel, the 30-minute clock that was paused may resume. The pre-clearance clock will reset to 30 minutes if the animal dives or visual contact is otherwise lost.

Clearance Zones are in effect when HRG surveys are operating impulsive sources operating below 180 kHz. HRG surveys using impulsive sources and non-impulsive, non-parametric sub-bottom profilers will not be initiated if:

- a NARW or other ESA-listed species is observed within a 1,640 ft (500 m) radius of impulsive acoustic sources (e.g., sparkers) and non-impulsive, nonparametric sub-bottom profilers during the pre-start clearance period; or
- any other marine mammals are observed within a 328 ft (100 m) radius of impulsive acoustic sources (e.g., sparkers) and non-impulsive, nonparametric sub-bottom profilers during the pre-start clearance period.

## 11.6 Ramp-Up Procedures

When technically feasible, acoustic sources operating below 180 kHz will be ramped up at the start or restart of survey activities. Ramp-up must begin with the power of the smallest acoustic equipment at its lowest practical power output. When technically feasible, the power will then be gradually turned up and other acoustic sources added in a way such that the source level would increase gradually. Ramp-up procedures are not required during HRG survey operations using only non-impulsive sources (e.g., USBL and parametric sub-bottom profilers) other than non-parametric sub-bottom profilers (e.g., CHIRPs).

Ramp-up activities will be delayed if a marine mammal(s) enters its respective Clearance Zone. Ramp-up will continue if the animal has been observed exiting its respective Clearance Zone or until an additional time period has elapsed with no further sighting (i.e., 15 minutes for small odontocetes and seals and 30 minutes for all other marine mammal species).

#### 11.7 Shutdown and Power-Down Procedures

If a marine mammal is observed within or entering the relevant Exclusion Zones as described under Section 11.3 of this IHA while acoustic sources operating below 180 kHz are in use, the acoustic sources will be immediately shut down (except for delphinids from the genera *Delphinus*, *Lagenorhynchus*, *Stenella*, or *Tursiops* as described in more detail below).

Any PSO on duty has the authority to call for shutdown of acoustic sources. When there is certainty regarding the need for mitigation action on the basis of visual detection, the relevant PSO(s) will call for such action immediately. When a shutdown is called for by a PSO, the shutdown will occur and any dispute resolved only following shutdown. Vessel operators will establish and maintain clear lines of communication directly between PSOs on duty and crew controlling the acoustic source(s) to ensure that shutdown commands are conveyed swiftly, while allowing PSOs to maintain watch.

Upon implementation of a shutdown, survey equipment will be reactivated when all marine mammals that triggered the shutdown have been confirmed by visual observation to have exited the relevant Exclusion Zone or an additional time period has elapsed with no further sighting of the animal that triggered the shutdown (15 minutes for small odontocetes (i.e., species comprising the family Phocoenidae and the species comprising the genera *Delphinus*, *Lagenorhynchus*, *Stenella* [*frontalis* only], or *Tursiops*), and seals; 30 minutes for all other marine mammals).

If acoustic sources operating below 180 kHz are shut down for less than 30 minutes for reasons other than marine mammal mitigation (e.g., due to mechanical or electronic failure), the equipment may be re-activated as soon as is practicable at full operational level if PSOs have maintained constant visual observation during the shutdown and no visual detections of marine mammals occurred within the applicable Exclusion Zone during that time. For a shutdown of 30 minutes or longer, or if visual observation was not continued diligently during the pause, pre-start clearance observation will be conducted, as previously described, unless visual observation was continued diligently during the entire pause with no further detections of any marine mammals.

If delphinids from the genera *Delphinus*, *Lagenorhynchus*, *Stenella* (*frontalis* only), or *Tursiops* are visually detected approaching the vessel or towed acoustic sources, shutdown is not required. If there is uncertainty regarding identification of a marine mammal species (i.e., whether the observed marine mammal(s) belongs to one of the delphinid genera for which shutdown is waived), PSOs will use best professional judgment in making the decision to call for a shutdown.

Shutdown of acoustic sources is required upon observation of either a species for which incidental take is not authorized or a species for which incidental take has been authorized but the authorized number of takes has been met, entering or within the zone defined for Level B harassment (i.e., within approximately 463 ft (141 m) of HRG survey equipment operating below 180 kHz listed in Table 6-1).

Shutdown is not required during HRG survey operations using only non-impulsive sources (e.g., USBL and parametric sub-bottom profilers) other than non-parametric sub-bottom profilers (e.g., CHIRPs). Preclearance and ramp-up, but not shutdown, are required when using non-impulsive, non-parametric subbottom profilers.

## 12. Mitigation Measures to Protect Subsistence Uses – Arctic Plan of Cooperation

Potential impacts to species or stocks of marine mammals will be limited to individuals of marine mammal species located in the Mid-Atlantic Bight of the United States and will not affect Arctic marine mammals. Given that the Project is not located in Arctic waters, the activities associated with Atlantic Shores' marine characterization surveys will not have an adverse effect on the availability of marine mammals for subsistence uses allowable under the MMPA.

## 13. Monitoring and Reporting

### 13.1 Monitoring

Visual monitoring protocols are described in Section 11.4.

## 13.2 Reporting

Atlantic Shores will provide the following communications or reports as necessary during survey activities:

- Within 90 days after survey demobilization, or 60 days prior to a requested date or issuance of any future IHAs for projects at the same location, whichever comes first, a final technical monitoring report will be submitted to BOEM and NOAA Fisheries (to renewable\_reporting@boem.gov and PR.ITP.MonitoringReports@noaa.gov). that fully documents the methods and monitoring protocols, summarizes the data recorded during monitoring, describes, assesses, and compares the effectiveness of monitoring and mitigation measures. Any recommendations made by NOAA Fisheries will be addressed in the final report prior to acceptance by NOAA Fisheries. PSO effort datasheets and sightings data and trackline data in Excel spreadsheet format will also be provided with the draft and final monitoring report.
- Data from all PSO observations must be recorded based on standard PSO collection and reporting requirements. PSOs must use standardized electronic data forms to record data. The following information must be reported electronically in a format approved by BOEM and NOAA Fisheries:

#### Visual Effort:

- a. Vessel name:
- b. Dates of departures and returns to port with port name;
- c. Lease number:
- d. PSO names and affiliations;
- e. PSO ID (if applicable);
- f. PSO location on vessel;
- g. Height of observation deck above water surface (in meters);

- h. Visual monitoring equipment used;
- Dates and times (Greenwich Mean Time) of survey on/off effort and times corresponding with PSO on/off effort;
- j. Vessel location (latitude/longitude, decimal degrees) when survey effort begins and ends; vessel location at beginning and end of visual PSO duty shifts; recorded at 30 second intervals if obtainable from data collection software, otherwise at practical regular interval;
- Vessel heading and speed at beginning and end of visual PSO duty shifts and upon any change;
- I. Water depth (if obtainable from data collection software) (in meters);
- m. Environmental conditions while on visual survey (at beginning and end of PSO shift and whenever conditions change significantly), including wind speed and direction, Beaufort scale, Beaufort wind force, swell height (in meters), swell angle, precipitation, cloud cover, sun glare, and overall visibility to the horizon:
- Factors that may be contributing to impaired observations during each PSO shift change or as needed as environmental conditions change (e.g., vessel traffic, equipment malfunctions):
- o. Survey activity information, such as type of survey equipment in operation, acoustic source power output while in operation, and any other notes of significance (i.e., preclearance survey, ramp-up, shutdown, end of operations, etc.);

## Visual Sighting (all Visual Effort fields plus):

- a. Watch status (sighting made by PSO on/off effort, opportunistic, crew, alternate vessel/platform);
- b. Vessel/survey activity at time of sighting;
- c. PSO/PSO ID who sighted the animal;
- d. Time of sighting;
- e. Initial detection method;
- f. Sightings cue;
- g. Vessel location at time of sighting (decimal degrees);
- h. Direction of vessel's travel (compass direction);
- i. Direction of animal's travel relative to the vessel;
- j. Identification of the animal (e.g., genus/species, lowest possible taxonomic level, or unidentified); also note the composition of the group if there is a mix of species;
- k. Species reliability;
- I. Radial distance:
- m. Distance method:
- n. Group size; Estimated number of animals (high/low/best);
- o. Estimated number of animals by cohort (adults, yearlings, juveniles, calves, group composition, etc.);
- Description (as many distinguishing features as possible of each individual seen, including length, shape, color, pattern, scars or markings, shape and size of dorsal fin, shape of head, and blow characteristics);
- Detailed behavior observations (e.g., number of blows, number of surfaces, breaching, spyhopping, diving, feeding, traveling; as explicit and detailed as possible; note any observed changes in behavior);
- r. Mitigation Action; Description of any actions implemented in response to the sighting (e.g., delays, shutdown, ramp-up, speed or course alteration, etc.) and time and location of the action.
- s. Behavioral observation to mitigation;
- t. Equipment operating during sighting;
- u. Source depth (in meters);
- v. Source frequency;
- w. Animal's closest point of approach and/or closest distance from the center point of the acoustic source;
- x. Time entered shutdown zone;
- y. Time exited shutdown zone;

- z. Time in shutdown zone;
- aa. Photos/Video
- If a NARW is observed at any time by PSOs or personnel on any project vessels, during surveys or during vessel transit, the sighting will be reported within two hours of occurrence when practicable and no later than 24 hours after occurrence to the NOAA Fisheries NARW Sighting Advisory System (866-755-6622) or the U.S. Coast Guard via channel 16. If an injured or dead NARW is discovered, Atlantic Shores will report the incident as quickly as possible to NOAA Fisheries by phone (866-755-6622).
- Sightings of any injured or dead listed species must be immediately reported, regardless of whether
  the injury or death is related to survey operations, to BOEM (renewable\_reporting@boem.gov),
  NOAA Fisheries (nmfs.gar.incidental.take@noaa.gov), and the appropriate regional NOAA
  stranding hotline (from Maine-Virginia report sightings to 866-755-6622, When reporting sightings
  of injured or dead listed species, the following information must be included:
  - a. Time, date, and location (latitude/longitude) of the first discovery (and updated location information if known and applicable);
  - b. Species identification (if known) or description of the animal(s) involved;
  - c. Condition of the animal(s) (including carcass condition if the animal is dead);
  - d. Observed behaviors of the animal(s), if alive;
  - e. If available, photographs or video footage of the animal(s); and
  - f. General circumstances under which the animal was discovered.
- In the event of a vessel strike of a protected species by any survey vessel, the project proponent
  must immediately report the incident to BOEM (renewable\_reporting@boem.gov) and NOAA
  Fisheries (nmfs.gar.incidental.take@noaa.gov) and for marine mammals to the NOAA stranding
  hotline: from Maine-Virginia, report to 866-755-6622. The report must include the following
  information:
  - a. Name, telephone, and email or the person providing the report;
  - b. The vessel name;
  - c. The Lease Number;
  - d. Time, date, and location (latitude/longitude) of the incident;
  - e. Species identification (if known) or description of the animal(s) involved;
  - f. Vessel's speed during and leading up to the incident;
  - g. Vessel's course/heading and what operations were being conducted (if applicable);
  - h. Status of all sound sources in use;
  - i. Description of avoidance measures/requirements that were in place at the time of the strike and what additional measures were taken, if any, to avoid strike;
  - j. Environmental conditions (wave height, wind speed, light, cloud cover, weather, water depth);

- k. Estimated size and length of animal that was struck;
- I. Description of the behavior of the species immediately preceding and following the strike:
- m. If available, description of the presence and behavior of any other protected species immediately preceding the strike;
- n. Disposition of the animal (e.g., dead, injured but alive, injured and moving, blood or tissue observed in the water, last sighted direction of travel, status unknown, disappeared); and
- o. To the extent practicable, photographs or video footage of the animal(s).

## 14. Suggested Means of Coordination

All marine mammal data collected by Atlantic Shores during marine characterization survey activities will be provided to NOAA Fisheries, BOEM, and other interested government agencies, and be made available upon request to educational institutions and environmental groups. These organizations could use the data collected during this period to study ways to reduce incidental taking and evaluate its effects.

All hydroacoustic data and resulting transmission loss rates collected during field verification of the safety and/or Exclusion Zones by Atlantic Shores during HRG surveys will be provided to NOAA Fisheries, BOEM, and other interested government agencies, and be made available upon request to educational institutions and environmental groups. These organizations could use the data collected during this period to study ways to reduce incidental taking from survey activities and evaluate its effects.

## 15. List of Preparers

#### **Jeff Nield**

**EDR** 

Senior Project Manager & New England Practice Leader

#### **Caitlin Pfeil**

**EDR** 

**Environmental Scientist** 

#### 16. References

- Abend, A.G. and T.D. Smith. 1999. Review of the distribution of the long-finned pilot whale (Globicephala melas) in the North Atlantic and Mediterranean. In: US Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, and Northeast Fisheries Science Center. Volume 117. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-117. 1-22 p. http://www.nefsc.noaa.gov/nefsc/publications/tm/tm117/tm117.pdf.
- American Cetacean Society. 2022. Pilot Whale. Available at: https://www.acsonline.org/pilot-whale. Accessed May 2022.
- Baird, R.W. and P.J. Stacey. 1991. Status of Risso's dolphin, Grampus griseus, in Canada. Canadian Field-Naturalist 105(2): 233-242
- Barco, S., W. McLellan, J. Allen, R. Asmutis-Silvia, R. Mallon-Day, E. Fougeres, D. Pabst, J. Robbins, R. Seton, et al. 2002. Population identity of humpback whales. Journal of Cetacean Research and Management 4: 135-141.
- Barlas, M.E. 1999. The distribution and abundance of harbor seals (Phoca vitulina concolor) and gray seals (Halichoerus grypus) in southern New England, winter 1998-summer 1999. PhD Thesis. Boston University.
- Barlow, J.P. and P.J. Clapham. 1997. A new birth-interval approach to estimating demographic parameters of humpback whales. Ecology 78(2): 535-546. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(1997)078[0535:ANBIAT]2.0.CO;2">https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(1997)078[0535:ANBIAT]2.0.CO;2</a>.
- Baumgartner, M.F., S.M. Van Parijs, F.W. Wenzel, C.J. Tremblay, H.C. Esch, and A.M. Warde. 2008. Low frequency vocalizations attributed to sei whales (Balaenoptera borealis). Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 124(2): 1339-1349. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2945155.
- Biedron, I., N. Mihnovets, A. Warde, J. Michalec, C.W. Clark, C. Diamond, B. Estabrook, B. Howard, C. McCarthy, et al. 2009. Determining the seasonal distribution of cetaceans in New York coastal waters using passive acoustic monitoring. Abstracts, Eighteenth Biennial Conference on the Biology of Marine Mammals. 12-16 Oct 2009, Quebec City, Canada. p. 34.
- BOEM (U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Ocean Energy Management). 2012. Effects of Noise on Fish, Fisheries, and Invertebrates in the U.S. Atlantic and Arctic from Energy Industry Sound-Generating Activities, Literature Synthesis.
- BOEM. 2016. Commercial Wind Lease Issuance and Site Assessment Activities on the Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf Offshore New York Revised Environmental Assessment. OCS EIS/EA BOEM 2016-070.
- BOEM. 2018. Geological and Geophysical Surveys. Available at: https://www.boem.gov/sites/default/files/about-boem/BOEM-Regions/Atlantic-Region/GandG-Overview.pdf.
- Bonner, W.N. 1971. Grey seal Halichoerus grypus fabricus. In Ridgway, S.H. and H.J. Harrison (eds.). Handbook of Marine Mammals. Academic Press, London.
- Bowers-Altman, J. and NJ Division of Fish and Wildlife. 2009. Species Status Review of Marine Mammals: Final Report. Report by the NJ Division of Fish and Wildlife, Endangered and Nongame Species Program. https://www.state.nj.us/dep/fgw/ensp/pdf/marine\_mammal\_status\_rprt.pdf.

- Brown, M.W., D. Fenton, K. Smedbol, C. Merriman, K. Robichaud-Leblanc, and J.D. Conway. 2009. Recovery Strategy for the North Atlantic Right Whale (Eubalaena glacialis) in Atlantic Canadian Waters [Final]. Species at Risk Act Recovery Strategy Series. Fisheries and Oceans Canada. 66 p.
- Brown, D.M., J. Robbins, P.L. Sieswerda, R. Schoelkopf, and E.C.M. Parsons. 2017. Humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) sightings in the New York-New Jersey harbor estuary. Marine Mammal Science 34(1): 250-257. https://doi.org/10.1111/mms.12450.
- Caldwell, D.K., and M.C. Caldwell. 1966. Observations on the distribution, coloration, behavior and audible sound production of the spotted dolphin, *Stenella plagiodon* (Cope). *Los Angeles County Museum Contribution to Science* 104: 1-28.
- CeTAP (Cetacean and Turtle Assessment Program). 1982. A characterization of marine mammals and turtles in the mid- and north Atlantic areas of the U.S. outer continental shelf. Cetacean and Turtle Assessment Program, University of Rhode Island. Final Report #AA551-CT8-48 to the Bureau of Land Management, Washington, DC, 538 pp.
- Charif, R.A., D.K. Mellinger, K.J. Dunsmore, K.M. Fristrup, and C.W. Clark. 2002. Estimated source levels on fin whale (Balaenoptera physalus) vocalizations: Adjustment for surface interference. Marine Mammal Science 18(1): 81-98. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.2002.tb01020.x.
- Clark, C.W. and G.C. Gagnon. 2002. Low-frequency vocal behaviors of baleen whales in the North Atlantic: Insights from IUSS detections, locations and tracking from 1992 to 1996. U.S. Navy Journal of Underwater Acoustics 52(3): 609-640.
- Cole, T., A. Glass, P.K. Hamilton, P. Duley, M. Niemeyer, C. Christman, R.M. Pace, III, and T. Frasier. 2009. Potential mating ground for North Atlantic right whales off the northeast USA. 18th Biennial Conference on the Biology of Marine Mammals, 12-16 Oct 2009, Quebec, Canada.
- Clark, C.W. and P.J. Clapham. 2004. Acoustic monitoring on a humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) feeding ground shows continual singing into late spring. The Royal Society of London. Volume 271(1543). pp. 1051-1058. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1691688/pdf/15293859.pdf.
- Crocker, S.E., and F.D. Fratantonio. 2016. Characteristics of Sounds Emitted During High-Resolution Marine Geophysical Surveys. Naval Undersea Warfare Center Division (Sponsored by BOEM & USGS).
- CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. 2021. Application for incidental harassment authorization for the non-lethal taking of marine mammals: site characterization surveys Lease OCS-A 0498. Submitted November 2020. Updated March 2021.
- Curtice C., J. Cleary, E. Shumchenia, and P.N. Halpin. 2018. Marine-life Data and Analysis Team (MDAT) technical report on the methods and development of marine-life data to support regional ocean planning and management. Prepared on behalf of the Marine-life Data and Analysis Team (MDAT). Accessed at: http://seamap.env.duke.edu/models/MDAT/MDAT-Technical-Report.pdf.
- Curtice, C., J. Cleary, E. Shumchenia, and P.N. Halpin. 2019. Marine-life Data and Analysis Team (MDAT) Technical Report on the Methods and Development of Marine-life Data to Support Regional Ocean planning and Management. Report for the Marine-life Data and Analysis Team (MDAT). <a href="http://seamap.env.duke.edu/models/MDAT/MDAT-Technical-Report.pdf">http://seamap.env.duke.edu/models/MDAT/MDAT-Technical-Report.pdf</a>.
- [CWFNJ] Conserve Wildlife Foundation of New Jersey. 2015. Harbor Seals in New Jersey <a href="https://www.arcgis.com/apps/MapJournal/index.html?appid=d2266f32c36449e0b9630453e56c3888&webmap=564588c5cff04fa990aab644400475f9">https://www.arcgis.com/apps/MapJournal/index.html?appid=d2266f32c36449e0b9630453e56c3888&webmap=564588c5cff04fa990aab644400475f9</a>.

- Davies, J.L. 1957. The Geography of the Gray Seal. Journal of Mammalogy 38(3): 297-310. https://doi.org/10.2307/1376229.
- Davis, G.E., M.F. Baumgartner, J.M. Bonnell, J. Bell, C. Berchok, J. Bort Thornton, S. Brault, G. Buchanan, R.A. Charif, D. Cholewiak, C.W. Clark, P. Corkeron, J. Delarue, K. Dudzinski, L. Hatch, J. Hildebrand, L. Hodge, H. Klinck, S. Kraus, B. Martin, D.K. Mellinger, H. Moors-Murphy, S. Nieukirk, D.P. Nowacek, S. Parks, A.J. Read, A.N. Rice, D. Risch, A. Širović, M. Soldevilla, K. Stafford, J.E. Stanistreet, E. Summers, S. Todd, A. Warde, and S.M. Van Parijs. 2017. Long-term passive acoustic recordings track the changing distribution of North Atlantic right whales (*Eubalaena glacialis*) from 2004 to 2014. *Scientific Reports* 7(1):13460. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-13359-3.
- deHart, P.A.P. 2002. The distribution and abundance of harbor seals (Phoca vitulina concolor) in the Woods Hole region. M.A. Thesis. Boston University. 88 p.
- DiGiovanni, R., K. Durham, J. Wocial, R.D.V.M. Pisciotta, R.D.V.M. Hanush, A. Chaillet, A. Sabrosky, and R. Scott. 2005. Post Release Monitoring of a male Risso's dolphin (Grampus griseus) rehabilitated and released in New York waters. Abstract from the 16th Biennial Conference on the Biology of Marine Mammals, San Diego, CA.
- Doksæter, L., E. Olsen, L. Nøttestad, and A. Fernö. 2008. Distribution and feeding ecology of dolphins along the Mid-Atlantic Ridge between Iceland and the Azores. Deep Sea Research Part II 55(1): 243-253. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2007.09.009.
- [DoN] Department of the Navy. 2005. Marine Resources Assessment for the Northeast Operating Areas: Atlantic City, Narragansett Bay, and Boston. Final Report. Contract Number N62470-02-D-9997, CTO 0018. Department of the Navy, US Fleet Forces Command, Norfolk, VA. Prepared by Geo-Marine, Inc., Newport News, VA. xvi + 535 pp.
- [DoN] Department of the Navy (US). 2008. Request for Regulations and Letters of Authorization for the Incidental Harassment of Marine Mammals Resulting from Navy Training Activities Conducted within the Northwest Training Range Complex. 323 p.
- Donovan, G.P. 1991. A review of IWC stock boundaries. Reports of the International Whaling Commission 13(Special Issue): 39-68.
- Edgetech. 2019. Personal communication with Gene Andella. Comments provided to JASCO Applied Sciences on July 29, 2019.
- Ellison, W.T., B.L. Southall, C.W. Clark, and A.S. Frankel. 2012. A New Context-Based Approach to Assess Marine Mammal Behavioral Responses to Anthropogenic Sounds. Conservation Biology 26(1): 21-28. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2011.01803.x.
- Ellison, W.T., R.G. Racca, C.W. Clark, B. Streever, A.S. Frankel, E. Fleishman, R.P. Angliss, J. Berger, D.R. Ketten, et al. 2016. Modeling the aggregated exposure and responses of bowhead whales Balaena mysticetus to multiple sources of anthropogenic underwater sound. Endangered Species Research 30: 95-108. https://doi.org/10.3354/esr00727.
- Ellison, W.T., B.L. Southall, A.S. Frankel, K. Vigness-Raposa, and C.W. Clark. 2018. An Acoustic Scene Perspective on Spatial, Temporal, and Spectral [short note]. Aquatic Mammals 44(3): 239-243. https://doi.org/10.1578/AM.44.3.2018.239.
- Fritts, T. H., A. B. Irvine, R. D. Jennings, L. A. Collum, W. Hoffman and M. A. McGehee. 1983. Turtles, birds, and mammals in the northern Gulf of Mexico and nearby Atlantic waters. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Division of Biological Services, Washington, D.C., FWS/OBS-82/65, 455 pp.

- Fulling, G. L., K.D. Mullin and C. W. Hubard. 2003. Abundance and distribution of cetaceans in outer continental shelf waters of the U.S. Gulf of Mexico. *Fishery Bulletin* 101: 923-932.
- Gedamke, J. 2004. Minke whale song, spacing, and acoustic communication on the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. PhD thesis, University of California, Santa Cruz.
- Geo-Marine. 2009a. Marine mammal monitoring during geophysical surveys in support of the construction of a meteorological data collection facility for the Bluewater Delaware Offshore Wind Park (MMS Lease Block 6325): October 2009. Final summary report by Geo-Marine for Bluewater Wind, LLC.
- Geo-Marine. 2009b. Marine mammal monitoring during geophysical surveys in support of the construction of a meteorological data collection facility for the Bluewater Delaware Offshore Wind Park (MMS Lease Block 6936): August 2009. Final summary report by Geo-Marine for Bluewater Wind, LLC.
- Geo-Marine. 2010. Ocean/Wind Power Ecological Baseline Studies: January 2008 December 2009. Final Report. Volume III: Marine Mammal and Sea Turtle Studies. Report by Geo-Marine, Inc. for the New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection, Office of Science. <a href="https://tethys.pnnl.gov/sites/default/files/publications/Ocean-Wind-Power-Baseline-Volume3.pdf">https://tethys.pnnl.gov/sites/default/files/publications/Ocean-Wind-Power-Baseline-Volume3.pdf</a>.
- Gowans, S. and H. Whitehead. 1995. Distribution and habitat partitioning by small odontocetes in the Gully, a submarine canyon on the Scotian Shelf. Canadian Journal of Zoology 73(9): 1599-1608. https://doi.org/10.1139/z95-190.
- Hain, J.H.W., M.J. Ratnaswamy, R.D. Kenney, and H.E. Winn. 1992. The fin whale, *Balaenoptera physalus*, in waters of the northeastern United States continental shelf. *Reports of the International Whaling Commission* 42:653B669.
- Hamazaki, T. 2002. Spatiotemporal prediction models of cetacean habitats in the mid-western North Atlantic Ocean (from Cape Hatteras, North Carolina, USA to Nova Scotia, Canada). Marine Mammal Science 18(4): 920-939. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.2002.tb01082.x.
- Hatch, J.M. and C.D. Orphanides. 2017. Estimates of cetacean and pinniped bycatch in the 2015 New England sink and mid-Atlantic Gillnet fisheries. Northeast Fish Sci Cent Ref Doc 17-18: 21.
- Haug, T., M. Hammill, and D. Olafsdóttir. 2013. Introduction. In Grey seals in the North Atlantic and the Baltic. Volume 6. NAMMCO Scientific Publications. pp. 7-12. https://doi.org/10.7557/3.2717.
- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds.). 2017. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2016. NOAA Technical Memorandum. Available at: https://www.nefsc.noaa.gov/publications/tm/tm241/tm241.pdf.
- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds.). 2018a. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2017. NOAA Technical Memorandum.
- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel. 2018b. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments—2017 (second edition). NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-245, Woods Hole, MA, USA. 371 p. https://www.nefsc.noaa.gov/publications/tm/tm245/.
- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel. 2019. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments—2018. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-258, Woods Hole, MA, USA. 298 p. https://doi.org/10.25923/9rrd-tx13.
- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel. 2020. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments—2019 (draft). NOAA Technical Memorandum, Woods Hole, MA, USA.

- Hayes, S.A., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, P.E. Rosel, and J. Turek. 2021. Draft U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments—2021. NOAA Technical Memorandum, Woods Hole, MA, USA.
- Herzing, D. L. 1997. The natural history of tree-ranging Atlantic spotted dolphins (*Stenella frontalis*): Age classes, color phases and female reproduction. *Marine Mammal Science* 13: 40-59.
- Hoover, K., S. Sadove, and P. Forestell. 1999. Trends of harbor seal, Phoca vitulina, abundance from aerial surveys in New York waters: 1985-1999 [abstract]. Proceedings of the 13th Biennial Conference on the Biology of Marine. 28 Nov to 3 Dec 1999, Wailea, HI.
- Horwood, J.W. 1989. Biology and exploitation of the minke whale. CRC press
- Innomar. 2019. Personal communication with Jens Wunderlich. Comments provided to JASCO Applied Sciences on July 18, 2019.
- Jefferson, T.A., M.A. Webber, and R.L. Pitman. 2008. *Marine Mammals of the World: A Comprehensive Guide to Their Identification*. Amsterdam: Elsevier. 573 pp. London, UK: Elsevier.
- Jefferson, T.A., C.R. Weir, R.C. Anderson, L.T. Ballance, R.D. Kenney, and J.J. Kiszka. 2014. Global distribution of Risso's dolphin Grampus griseus: A review and critical evaluation. Mammal Review 44(1): 56-68. https://doi.org/10.1111/mam.12008.
- Kastelein, R.A., P.J. Wensveen, L. Hoek, W.C. Verboom, and J.M. Terhune. 2009. Underwater detection of tonal signals between 0.125 and 100 kHz by harbor seals (Phoca vitulina). Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 125(2): 1222-1229. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.3050283.
- Katona, S.K. and J.A. Beard. 1990. Population size, migrations and feeding aggregations of the humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) in the western North Atlantic Ocean. Report of the International Whaling Commission 12(Special Issue): 295-306.
- Katona, S.K., V. Rough, and D.T. Richardson. 1993. A field guide to whales, porpoises, and seals from Cape Cod to Newfoundland. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, DC. 316 p
- Kenney, R.D. 1990. Bottlenose dolphins off the north-eastern United States. In Leatherwood, S. and R.R. Reeves (eds.). The Bottlenose Dolphin. Academic Press, San Diego, CA, USA.
- Kenney, M.K. 1994. Harbor seal population trends and habitat use in Maine. M.Sc. Thesis. University of Maine, Orono, ME. 55 p.
- Kenney, R.D., M.A.M. Hyman, and H.E. Winn. 1985. Calculation of standing stocks and energetic requirements of the cetaceans of the northeast United States Outer Continental Shelf. NOAA technical memorandum NMFS-F/NEC-41. <a href="https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/5641">https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/5641</a>.
- Kenney, R.D., G.P. Scott, T.J. Thompson, and H.E. Winn. 1997. Estimates of prey consumption and trophic impacts of cetaceans in the USA northeast continental shelf ecosystem. Journal of Northwest Atlantic Fishery Science 22: 155-171.
- Kenney, R.D., and K.J. Vigness-Raposa. 2009. Marine Mammals and Sea Turtles of Narragansett Bay, Block Island Sound, Rhode Island Sound, and Nearby Waters: An Analysis of Existing Data for the Rhode Island Ocean Special Area Management Plan. Technical Report, May 31, 2009.
- Kenney, R.D. and K.J. Vigness-Raposa. 2010. Marine mammals and sea turtles of Narragansett Bay, Block Island Sound, Rhode Island Sound, and nearby waters: An analysis of existing data for the Rhode Island Ocean Special Area Management Plan. (Chapter 10) In RICRMC (Rhode Island Coastal Resources Management Council) Ocean Special Area Management Plan (SAMP). Appendix A:

- Technical Reports for the Rhode Island Ocean Special Area Management Plan. Volume 2. pp. 705-1042. <a href="http://seagrant.gso.uri.edu/oceansamp/pdf/appendix/full\_volume2\_osamp\_4.26.13.pdf">http://seagrant.gso.uri.edu/oceansamp/pdf/appendix/full\_volume2\_osamp\_4.26.13.pdf</a>.
- Knowlton, A.R. and S.D. Kraus. 2001. Mortality and serious injury of northern right whales (Eubalaena glacialis) in the western North Atlantic Ocean. Journal of Cetacean Research and Management 2(Special Issue): 193-208.
- Knowlton, A.R., J. Beaudin Ring, B. Russell, and New England Aquarium. 2002. Right whale sightings and survey effort in the Mid Atlantic Region: Migratory corridor, time frame, and proximity to port entrances. Report for the NMFS Ship Strike Working Group. 25 p.
- Kraus, S.D., S. Leiter, K. Stone, B. Wikgren, C.A. Mayo, P. Hughes, R.D. Kenney, C.W. Clark, A.N. Rice, et al. 2016. Northeast Large Pelagic Survey Collaborative Aerial and Acoustic Surveys for Large Whales and Sea Turtles. US Department of the Interior, Bureau of Ocean Energy Management. OCS Study BOEM 2016-054, Sterling, Virginia. 117 + appendices p. <a href="https://www.boem.gov/RI-MA-Whales-Turtles">https://www.boem.gov/RI-MA-Whales-Turtles</a>.
- LaBrecque, E., C. Curtice, J. Harrison, S.M. Van Parijs, and P.N. Halpin. 2015. 2. Biologically Important Areas for cetaceans within U.S. waters East Coast region. Aquatic Mammals 41(1): 17-29. http://dx.doi.org/10.1578/AM.41.1.2015.1.
- Lavigueur, L. and M.O. Hammill. 1993. Distribution and seasonal movements of grey seals, Halichoerus grypus, born in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and eastern Nova Scotia shore. Canadian Field-Naturalist 107(3): 329-340.
- Lawson, J.W. and J.-F. Gosselin. 2018. Estimates of cetacean abundance from the 2016 NAISS aerial surveys of eastern Canadian waters, with a comparison to estimates from the 2007 TNASS. Document Number NAMMCO SC/25/AE/09. Report for the NAMMCO Secretariat. 40 p.
- Leatherwood, S., D.K. Caldwell, and H.E. Winn. 1976. Whales, dolphins, and porpoises of the western North Atlantic. A guide to their identification. NOAA Technical Report NMFS Circ. 396.
- Lesage, V. and M.O. Hammill. 2001. The status of the grey seal, Halichoerus grypus, in the Northwest Atlantic. Canadian Field-Naturalist 115(4): 653-662.
- Mansfield, A.W. 1966. The grey seal in eastern Canadian waters. Canadian Audubon Magazine 28: 161-166.
- Matthews, L.P., J.A. McCordic, and S.E. Parks. 2014. Remote acoustic monitoring of North Atlantic right whales (Eubalaena glacialis) reveals seasonal and diel variations in acoustic behavior. PLOS ONE 9(3). <a href="https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0091367">https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0091367</a>.
- Mayo, C.A., L. Ganley, C.A. Hudak, S. Brault, M.K. Marx, E. Burke, and M.W. Brown. 2018. Distribution, demography, and behavior of North Atlantic right whales (Eubalaena glacialis) in Cape Cod Bay, Massachusetts, 1998–2013. Marine Mammal Science 34(4): 979-996. https://doi.org/10.1111/mms.12511.
- McDonald, M.A., J.A. Hildebrand, S.M. Wiggins, D. Thiele, D. Glasgow, and S.E. Moore. 2005. Sei whale sounds recorded in the Antarctic. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 118(6): 3941-3945. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2130944">https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2130944</a>.
- Mead, J.G. 1975. Preliminary report on the former net fisheries for Tursiops truncatus in the western North Atlantic. Journal of the Fisheries Board of Canada 32(7): 1155-1162.

- Mead, J.G. and C.W. Potter. 1995. Recognizing two populations of the bottlenose dolphin (Tursiops truncatus) of the Atlantic coast of North America-morphologic and ecologic considerations. International Biological Research Institute Reports 5: 31-43.
- Morano, J.L., D.P. Salisbury, A.N. Rice, K.L. Conklin, K.L. Falk, and C.W. Clark. 2012. Seasonal changes in fin whale song in the western north Atlantic Ocean. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 132(2): 1207-1212. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4730890">https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4730890</a>.
- Mullin, K.D., and G.L. Fulling. 2003. Abundance and distribution of cetaceans in the southern U.S. Atlantic Ocean during summer 1998. *Fishery Bulletin* 101:603-613.
- Mullin, K.D., and G.L. Fulling. 2004. Abundance of cetaceans in the oceanic northern Gulf of Mexico. *Marine Mammal Science* 20(4):787-807.
- Newhall, A.E., Y.T. Lin, J.F. Lynch, and M.F. Baumgartner. 2009. Sei whale localization and vocalization frequency sweep rate estimation during the New Jersey Shallow Water 2006 experiment. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 125(4): 2738-2738. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4784544.
- New England Aquarium. Personal Communication with M Zani. January 6, 2020.
- Northeast Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC) and Southeast Fisheries Science Center (SEFSC). 2011a. 2010 Annual Report to the Inter-Agency Agreement M10PG00075/0001: A Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the western North Atlantic Ocean. https://nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/AMAPPS/docs/Final\_2010AnnualReportAMAPPS\_19Apr2011.pdf.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2011b. 2011 Annual Report to the Inter-Agency Agreement M10PG00075/0001: A Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the western North Atlantic Ocean. https://nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/AMAPPS/docs/NMFS\_AMAPPS\_2011\_annual\_report\_final\_BOEM.pdf.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2012. 2012 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic

  Ocean. https://nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/AMAPPS/docs/NMFS\_AMAPPS\_2012\_annual\_report\_FINAL.pdf.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2014a. 2013 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic

  Ocean. https://nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/AMAPPS/docs/NMFS\_AMAPPS\_2013\_annual\_report\_FINAL3.pdf.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2014b. 2014 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic

  Ocean. https://nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/AMAPPS/docs/NMFS\_AMAPPS\_2014\_annual\_report\_Final.pdf.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2015. 2015 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic Ocean AMAPPS II. https://doi.org/10.25923/kxrc-g028.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2016. 2016 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic Ocean AMAPPS II. https://doi.org/10.25923/gbap-g480.

- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2018. 2017 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic Ocean AMAPPS II. https://doi.org/10.25923/q4ae-aa65.
- NEFSC and SEFSC. 2019. 2018 Annual Report of a Comprehensive Assessment of Marine Mammal, Marine Turtle, and Seabird Abundance and Spatial Distribution in US Waters of the Western North Atlantic Ocean AMAPPS II. https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/22040.
- NOAA GARFO. 2021. Programmatic Consultation pursuant to section 7 of the Endangered Species Act (ESA) of 1973, concerning the effects of the certain site assessment and site characterization activities to be carried out to support the siting of offshore wind energy development projects off the U.S. Atlantic coast. Letter from Jennifer Anderson, Assistant Regional Administrator for Protected Resources, NOAA NMFS GARFO to James F. Bennett, Program Manager, Office of Renewable Energy Programs, U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Ocean Energy Management. Published June 29, 2021.
- NOAA Fisheries. 1991. Final Recovery Plan for the Humpback Whale (Megaptera novaeangliae). Report by the Humpback Whale Recovery Team for the National Marine Fisheries Service, Silver Spring, MD, USA. 105 p. <a href="https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/15993">https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/15993</a>.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2010. Final recovery plan for the sperm whale (Physeter macrocephalus). National Marine Fisheries Service, Silver Spring, MD, USA.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2016. Technical Guidance for Assessing the Effects of Anthropogenic Sound on Marine Mammal Hearing— Underwater Thresholds for Onset of Permanent and Temporary Threshold Shifts. Office of Protected Resources. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS OPR 55.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2018. Technical Guidance for Assessing the Effects of Anthropogenic Sound on Marine Mammal Hearing (Version 2.0) Underwater Thresholds for Onset of Permanent and Temporary Threshold Shifts. Office of Protected Resources. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS OPR 59.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2022a. Species Directory. Available at: <a href="https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/species-directory">https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/species-directory</a>. Accessed July 2021.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2022b. Marine Mammal Stock Assessment Reports by Species/Stock. Available at: <a href="https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-species-stock">https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-species-stock</a>. Accessed July 2021.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2022c. 2017-2021 North Atlantic Right Whale Unusual Mortality Event. Available at: <a href="https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2017-2021-north-atlantic-right-whale-unusual-mortality-event">https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2017-2021-north-atlantic-right-whale-unusual-mortality-event</a>. Accessed July 2021.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2022d. 2016 2021 Humpback Whale Unusual Mortality Event Along the Atlantic Coast. Available at: <a href="https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2016-2021-humpback-whale-unusual-mortality-event-along-atlantic-coast">https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2016-2021-humpback-whale-unusual-mortality-event-along-atlantic-coast</a>. Accessed July 2021.
- NOAA Fisheries. 2022e. Incidental Harassment Authorization Atlantic Shores. Issued April 18, 2022.

  Available at: <a href="https://media.fisheries.noaa.gov/2022-04/AtlanticShoresHRG">https://media.fisheries.noaa.gov/2022-04/AtlanticShoresHRG</a> 2022 IssuedIHA OPR1.pdf. Accessed May 2022.
- Northridge, S.P., M.L. Tasker, A. Webb, K. Camphuysen, and M. Leopold. 1997. White-beaked Lagenorhynchus albirostris and Atlantic white-sided dolphin L. acutus distributions in northwest European and US North Atlantic waters. Report of the International Whaling Commission 47: 797-805. <a href="https://archive.iwc.int/?r=52&k=4bf9610eaa">https://archive.iwc.int/?r=52&k=4bf9610eaa</a>.
- Orphanides, C.D. 2019. Estimates of cetacean and pinniped bycatch in the 2016 New England sink and mid-Atlantic Gillnet fisheries. Northeast Fish Sci Cent Ref Doc. 19-04: 12.

- Pace, R.M. 2021. Revisions and Further Evaluations of the Right Whale Abundance Model: Improvements for Hypothesis Testing. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-269.
- Palka, D.L. 2012. Cetacean abundance estimates in U.S. northwestern Atlantic Ocean waters from summer 2011 line transect survey. In: US Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Northeast Fisheries Science Center (ed.). US Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Northeast Fisheries Science Center. https://www.nefsc.noaa.gov/publications/crd/crd1229/crd1229.pdf
- Palka, D.L., S. Chavez-Rosales, E. Josephson, D.M. Cholewiak, H.L. Haas, L.P. Garrison, M. Jones, D. Sigourney, G.T. Waring, et al. 2017. Atlantic Marine Assessment Program for Protected Species: 2010-2014. US Department of the Interior, Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Atlantic OCS Region. OCS Study BOEM 2017-071, Washington, DC. 211 p. https://espis.boem.gov/final%20reports/5638.pdf.
- Palsbøll, P.J., J. Allen, M. Bérube´, P.J. Clapham, T.P. Feddersen, P.S. Hammond, R.R. Hudson, H. Jørgensen, S. Katona, et al. 1997. Genetic tagging of humpback whales. Nature 388(6644): 767-769. https://doi.org/10.1038/42005.
- Parks, S.E., P.K. Hamilton, S.D. Kraus, and P.L. Tyack. 2005. The gunshot sound produced by male North Atlantic right whales (Eubalaena glacialis) and its potential function in reproductive advertisement. Marine Mammal Science 21(3): 458-475. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.2005.tb01244.x.
- Parks, S.E. and P.L. Tyack. 2005. Sound production by North Atlantic right whales (Eubalaena glacialis) in surface active groups. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 117(5): 3297-3306. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.1882946.
- Payne, P.M., L.A. Selzer and A.R. Knowlton. 1984. Distribution and density of cetaceans, marine turtles and seabirds in the shelf waters of the northeast U.S., June 1980 Dec. 1983, based on shipboard observations. National Marine Fisheries Service, Woods Hole. NA81FAC00023: 245.
- Payne, P.M. and L.A. Selzer. 1989. The distribution, abundance, and selected prey of the harbor seal, Phoca vitulina concolor, in southern New England. Marine Mammal Science 5(2): 173-192. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.1989.tb00331.x.
- Payne, P.M. and D.W. Heinemann. 1990. A distributional assessment of cetaceans in the shelf and shelf edge waters of the northeastern United States based on aerial and shipboard surveys, 1978-1988. Report to National Marine Fisheries Science Center, Woods Hole, MA. 108 p.
- Payne, P.M., and D.W. Heinemann 1993. The distribution of pilot whales (*Globicephala* sp.) in shelf/shelf edge and slope waters of the northeastern United States, 1978-1988. Rep. Int. Whal. Comm. (Special Issue) 14: 51-68.
- Perrin, W.F., E.D. Mitchell, J.G. Mead, D.K. Caldwell, M.C. Caldwell, P.J.H. van Bree and W.H. Dawbin. 1987. Revision of the spotted dolphins, *Stenella* spp. *Marine Mammal Science* 3(2): 99-170.
- Pendleton, D.E., A.J. Pershing, M.W. Brown, C.A. Mayo, R.D. Kenney, N.R. Record, and T.V.N. Cole. 2009. Regional-scale mean copepod concentration indicates relative abundance of North Atlantic right whales. Marine Ecology Progress Series 378: 211-225. https://doi.org/10.3354/meps07832.
- Pettis, H.M., R.M. Pace, III, R.S. Schick, and P.K. Hamilton. 2017. North Atlantic Right Whale Consortium 2017 Annual Report Card. Report to the North Atlantic Right Whale Consortium. https://www.narwc.org/uploads/1/1/6/6/116623219/2017\_report\_cardfinal.pdf.

- Popper, A.N. 1980. Sound emission and detection by delphinids. Cetacean Behavior, (ed. L.M. Herman), pp. 1–52, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Potter, C.W. 1979. The marine fauna. Symposium on Endangered and Threatened Plants and Animals of Virginia. 19-20 May 1978, Blacksburg, VA, USA. pp. 595-602.
- Potter, C.W. 1984. Marine mammals of Maryland. In Norden, A.W., D.C. Forester, and G.H. Fenwick (eds.). Threatened and endangered plants and animals of Maryland. Maryland Natural Heritage Program Publication 84-1, Annapolis, MA, USA. pp. 442-453.
- Rankin, S. and J.P. Barlow. 2005. Source of the North Pacific "boing" sound attributed to minke whales. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 118(5): 3346-3351. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2046747.
- Rankin, S. and J.P. Barlow. 2007. Vocalizations of the sei whale Balaenoptera borealis off the Hawaiian Islands. Bioacoustics 16(2): 137-145. https://doi.org/10.1080/09524622.2007.9753572.
- Reeves, R.R. 1992. The Sierra Club handbook of seals and sirenians. Sierra Club Books, San Francisco, CA.
- Reeves, R.R., B.S. Stewart, P.J. Clapham, and J.A. Powell. 2002. *Guide to Marine Mammals of the World.* National Audubon Society.
- Reeves, R.R. and A.J. Read. 2003. Bottlenose dolphin, harbor porpoise, sperm whale and other toothed cetaceans. In Feldhamer, G.A., B.C. Thomspon, and J.A. Chapman (eds.). Wild Mammals of North America: Biology, Management and Conservation. 2nd edition. John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, MD. pp. 397-424.
- RI Ocean SAMP. 2011. Rhode Island Coastal Resources Management Council. Draft, May 4, 2010.
- Richardson, D.T. 1976. Assessment of harbor and gray seal populations in Maine 1974-1975. Final report for Marine Mammal Commission, Washington, DC.
- Richardson, D.T. and V. Rough. 1993. A field guide to whales, porpoises, and seals from Cape Cod to Newfoundland. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington.
- Richardson, W.J., C.R. Greene, Jr., C.I. Malme, and D.H. Thomson. 1995. Marine Mammals and Noise. Academic Press, San Diego, CA, USA. 576 p. https://doi.org/10.1016/C2009-0-02253-3.
- Risch, D., C.W. Clark, P.J. Dugan, M. Popescu, U. Siebert, and S.M. Van Parijs. 2013. Minke whale acoustic behavior and multi-year seasonal and diel vocalization patterns in Massachusetts Bay, USA. Marine Ecology Progress Series 489: 279-295. https://doi.org/10.3354/meps10426.
- Risch, D., M. Castellote, C.W. Clark, G.E. Davis, P.J. Dugan, L.E.W. Hodge, A. Kumar, K. Lucke, D.K. Mellinger, et al. 2014. Seasonal migrations of North Atlantic minke whales: Novel insights from large-scale passive acoustic monitoring networks. Movement Ecology 2(24). <a href="https://doi.org/10.1186/s40462-014-0024-3">https://doi.org/10.1186/s40462-014-0024-3</a>.
- Roberts, J.J., B.D. Best, L. Mannocci, E. Fujioka, P.N. Halpin, D.L. Palka, L.P. Garrison, K.D. Mullin, T.V.N. Cole, C.B. Khan, W.M. McLellan, D.A. Pabst, and G.G. Lockhart. 2016a. Habitat-based cetacean density models for the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico. Scientific Reports 6: 22615. doi: 10.1038/srep22615.
- Roberts, J.J., L. Mannocci, and P.N. Halpin. 2016b. Final Project Report: Marine Species Density Data Gap Assessments and Update for the AFTT Study Area, 2015-2016 (Base Year). Document version 1.0. Report prepared for Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Atlantic by the Duke University Marine Geospatial Ecology Lab, Durham, NC.

- Roberts, J.J., L. Mannocci, and P.N. Halpin. 2017. Final Project Report: Marine Species Density Data Gap Assessments and Update for the AFTT Study Area, 2016-2017 (Opt. Year 1). Document version 1.4. Report prepared for Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Atlantic by the Duke University Marine Geospatial Ecology Lab, Durham, NC.
- Roberts, J.J.,, L. Mannocci, R.S. Schick, and P.N. Halpin. 2018. Final Project Report: Marine Species Density Data Gap Assessments and Update for the AFTT Study Area, 2017-2018 (Opt. Year 2). Document version 1.2. Report prepared for Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Atlantic by the Duke University Marine Geospatial Ecology Lab, Durham, NC.
- Roberts, J.J., R.S. Schick, and P.N. Halpin. 2020. Marine Species Density Data Gap Assessments and Update for the AFTT Study Area, 2020 (Opt. Year 4). Document version 1.0. Report prepared for Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Atlantic by the Duke University Marine Geospatial Ecology Lab, Durham, NC.
- Rosenfeld, M., M. George, and J.M. Terhune. 1988. Evidence of autumnal harbour seal, Phoca vitulina, movement from Canada to the United States. Canadian Field-Naturalist 102(3): 527-529.
- Rough, V. 1995. Gray seals in Nantucket Sound, Massachusetts, winter and spring, 1994. Final report to the Marine Mammal Commission. 28 p. https://www.nefsc.noaa.gov/psb/docs/Rough 1995 Seals in Nantucket Sound, Massachusetts, winter an.pdf.
- Rowlett, R.A. 1980. Observations of marine birds and mammals in the northern Chesapeake Bight. Document Number FWS/OBS-80/04. Report by US Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington, DC, USA
- Sabinsky, P.F., O.N. Larsen, M. Wahlberg, and J. Tougaard. 2017. Temporal and spatial variation in harbor seal (Phoca vitulina L.) roar calls from southern Scandinavia. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 141(3): 1824–1834. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4977999.
- Schilling, M.R., I. Seipt, M.T. Weinrich, S.E. Frohock, A.E. Kuhlberg, and P.J. Clapham. 1992. Behavior of individually-identified sei whales Balaenoptera borealis during an episodic influx into the southern Gulf of Maine in 1986. Fisheries Bulletin 90(4): 749-755. https://spo.nmfs.noaa.gov/content/behavior-individually-identified-sei-whales-balaenoptera-borealis-during-episodic-influx
- Schneider, D.C. and P.M. Payne. 1983. Factors affecting haul-out of harbor seals at a site in southeastern Massachusetts. Journal of Mammalogy 64(3): 518-520. https://doi.org/10.2307/1380370.
- Schroeder, C.L. 2000. Population status and distribution of the harbor seal in Rhode Island waters. M.S. Thesis. University of Rhode Island, Narragansett, RI. 197 p.
- Scott, M.D., R.S. Wells, and A.B. Irvine. 1990. A long-term study of bottlenose dolphins on the west coast of Florida. (Chapter 11) In Leatherwood, S. and R.R. Reeves (eds.). The Bottlenose Dolphin. Volume 235. Academic Press, San Diego, CA, USA. pp. 235-244.
- Scott, T.M. and S.S. Sadove. 1997. Sperm whale, Physeter macrocephalus, sightings in the shallow shelf waters off Long Island, New York. Marine Mammal Science 13(2): 317-321. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.1997.tb00636.x.
- Selzer, L.A. and P.M. Payne. 1988. The distribution of white-sided (Lagenorhynchus acutus) and common dolphins (Delphinus delphis) vs. environmental features of the continental shelf of the northeastern United States. Marine Mammal Science 4(2): 141-153. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.1988.tb00194.x">https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.1988.tb00194.x</a>.
- Sergeant, D.E., A.W. Mansfield, and B. Beck. 1970. Inshore Records of Cetacea for Eastern Canada, 1949–68. Journal of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 27(11): 1903-1915. https://doi.org/10.1139/f70-216.

- Sergeant, D.E. 1977. Stocks of fin whales *Balaenoptera physalus* L. in the North Atlantic Ocean. Rep. int. Whal. Commn 27:460B473.
- Sieswerda, P.L., C.A. Spagnoli, and D.S. Rosenthal. 2015. Notes on a new feeding ground for humpback whales in the Western New York Bight. Southeast and Mid-Atlantic Marine Mammal Symposium. 27-29 Mar 2015, Virginia Beach, VI.
- Slocum, C.J., R. Schoelkopf, S. Tulevech, M. Stevens, S. Evert, and M. Moyer. 1999. Seal populations wintering in New Jersey (USA) have increased in abundance and diversity [abstract]. Proceedings of the 13th Biennial Conference on the Biology of Marine. 28 Nov to 3 Dec 1999, Wailea, HI.
- Southall, B.L., Bowles, A.E., Ellison, W.T., Finneran, J.J., Gentry, R.L., Greene Jr., C.R., Kastak, D., Ketten, D.R., Miller, J.H., Nachtigall, P.E., Richardson, W.J., Thomas, J.A, and P.L. Tyack. 2007. Marine Mammal Noise Exposure Criteria: Initial Scientific Recommendations. Aquatic Mammals, Volume 33, Number 4, ISSN 0167-5427. 521 pp.
- Southall, B.L., J.J. Finneran, C.J. Reichmuth, P.E. Nachtigall, D.R. Ketten, A.E. Bowles, W.T. Ellison, D.P. Nowacek, and P.L. Tyack. 2019. Marine Mammal Noise Exposure Criteria: Updated Scientific Recommendations for Residual Hearing Effects. Aquatic Mammals 45(2): 125-232. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1578/AM.45.2.2019.125">https://doi.org/10.1578/AM.45.2.2019.125</a>.
- Spalding, M.D., H.E. Fox, G.R. Allen, N. Davidson, Z.A. Ferdaña, M. Finlayson, B.S. Halpern, M.A. Jorge, A. Lombana, et al. 2007. Marine Ecoregions of the World: A Bioregionalization of Coastal and Shelf Areas. BioScience 57(7): 573-583. https://doi.org/10.1641/B570707.
- Stony Brook University. 2018. Marine mammal madness in the New York Bight. Available at: <a href="https://you.stonybrook.edu/thornelab/2018/09/25/marine-mammal-madness-in-the-new-york-bight/">https://you.stonybrook.edu/thornelab/2018/09/25/marine-mammal-madness-in-the-new-york-bight/</a>. Accessed May 2022.
- Sutcliffe M.H., and P.F. Brodie. 1977. Whale distributions in Nova Scotia waters. Fisheries and Marine Services Technical Report 722: 1-89.
- Swingle, W.M., S.G. Barco, T.D. Pitchford, W.A. McLellan, and D.A. Pabst. 1993. Appearance of juvenile humpback whales feeding in the nearshore waters of Virginia. *Marine Mammal Science* 9:309-315.
- Tollit, D.J., P.M. Thompson, and S.P.R. Greenstreet. 1997. Prey selection by harbour seals, Phoca vitulina, in relation to variations in prey abundance. Canadian Journal of Zoology 75(9): 1508-1518. https://doi.org/10.1139/z97-774.
- Tyler, D.E. 2008. Robust Statistics: Theory and Methods. Journal of the American Statistical Association 103(482): 888-889. https://doi.org/10.1198/jasa.2008.s239.
- Ulmer, F.A.J. 1981. New Jersey's dolphins and porpoises. New Jersey Audubon Society Occasional Paper 137.
- University of Rhode Island (URI). 2021a. How do Marine Animals Use Sound? South Kingston, RI: University of Rhode Island. Available at: <a href="https://dosits.org/animals/use-of-sound/how-do-marine-animals-use-sound/">https://dosits.org/animals/use-of-sound/how-do-marine-animals-use-sound/</a>.
- URI. 2021b. Masking in Mammals. South Kingston, RI: University of Rhode Island. Available at: <a href="https://dosits.org/animals/effects-of-sound/potential-effects-of-sound-on-marine-mammals/masking-in-mammals/">https://dosits.org/animals/effects-of-sound/potential-effects-of-sound-on-marine-mammals/masking-in-mammals/</a>.
- Vester, H., K. Hammerschmidt, M. Timme, and S. Hallerberg. 2014. Bag-of-calls analysis reveals group-specific vocal repertoire in long-finned pilot whales. Quantitative Methods.

- Villadsgaard, A., M. Wahlberg, and J. Tougaard. 2007. Echolocation signals of wild harbour porpoises, Phocoena phocoena. Journal of Experimental Biology 210: 56-64. http://jeb.biologists.org/content/jexbio/210/1/56.full.pdf.
- Viricel, A., and P.E. Rosel. 2014. Hierarchical population structure and habitat differences in a highly mobile marine species: the Atlantic spotted dolphin. *Molecular Ecology* 23: 5018–5035.
- Vu, E.T., D. Risch, C.W. Clark, S. Gaylord, L.T. Hatch, M.A. Thompson, D.N. Wiley, and S.M. Van Parijs. 2012. Humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) song occurs extensively on feeding grounds in the Northwest Atlantic Ocean. Aquatic Biology 14(2): 175-183. https://doi.org/10.3354/ab00390.
- Wahlberg, M. 2002. The acoustic behaviour of diving sperm whales observed with a hydrophone array. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, 281(1–2), 53–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-0981(02)00411-2
- Waring, G.T., E. Josephson, C.P. Fairfield, and K. Maze-Foley, eds., with contributions from: Dana Beldon, Timothy V. N. Cole, Lance P. Garrison, Keith D. Mullin, Christopher Orphanides, Richard M. Pace, Debra L. Palka, Marjorie C. Rossman, and Fredrick W. Wenzel. 2007. Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-201. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments – 2006.
- Waring GT, Josephson E, Maze-Foley K, and Rosel PE (eds.). 2010a. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments -- 2009. NOAA Tech Memo NMFS NE 213; 528 pp.
- Waring, G., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds). 2011. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2011, 332 pages. Available at: <a href="mailto:file:///C:/Users/cpfeil/Downloads/noaa\_4135\_DS1.pdf">file:///C:/Users/cpfeil/Downloads/noaa\_4135\_DS1.pdf</a>.
- Waring, G., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds). 2013. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2012, 419 pages. Available at: www.nmfs.noaa. gov/pr/sars/pdf/ao2012.pdf.
- Waring, G.T., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds.). 2015. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2014. NOAA Technical Memorandum. Available at: http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/pr/sars/pdf/atl2014\_final.pdf.
- Waring, G.T., E. Josephson, K. Maze-Foley, and P.E. Rosel (eds.). 2016. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2015. NOAA Technical Memorandum. Available at: <a href="http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/pr/sars/pdf/atlantic2015\_final.pdf">http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/pr/sars/pdf/atlantic2015\_final.pdf</a>.
- Watkins, W.A., P.L. Tyack, K.E. Moore, and J.E. Bird. 1987. The 20-Hz signals of finback whales (Balaenoptera physalus). Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 82(6): 1901–1912. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.395685.
- Whitman, A.A. and P.M. Payne. 1990. Age of harbour seals, Phoca vitulina concolor, wintering in southern New England. Canadian Field-Naturalist 104(4): 579-582.
- Whitt, A.D., K. Dudzinski, and J.R. Laliberté. 2013. North Atlantic right whale distribution and seasonal occurrence in nearshore waters off New Jersey, USA, and implications for management. Endangered Species Research 20(1): 59-69. https://doi.org/10.3354/esr00486.
- Wilson, S.C. 1978. Social Organization and Behavior of Harbor Seals, Phoca Vitulina Concolor, in Maine. Final Report to US Marine Mammal Commission in Fulfillment of Contract MM6AC013. 103 p.

- Winn, H.E., E.A. Scott, and R.D. Kenney. 1985. Aerial surveys for right whales in the Great South Channel, Spring 1984. Report by Graduate School of Oceanography, University of Rhode Island for the US Marine Mammal Commission.
- Winn, H.E., C.A. Price, and P.W. Sorensen. 1986. The distributional ecology of the right whale Eubalaena glacialis in the western North Atlantic. Report to the International Whaling Commission 10(Special Issue): 129-138.

# **Appendix A**

# **Manufacturer Specifications**

## **Appendix B**

Distances to Acoustic Thresholds Corresponding to Level B Harassment for High Resolution Geophysical Sources

# **Appendix C**

**Marine Mammal Seasonal Densities** 

Table C-1 Lease Area – Marine Mammal Seasonal Densities

Species	Winter Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)	Spring Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)	Summer Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km <sup>2</sup> )	Fall Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)
North Atlantic right whale	0.499	0.426	0.002	0.009
Humpback whale	0.076	0.027	0.011	0.024
Fin whale	0.058	0.100	0.100	0.094
Sei whale	0.001	0.004	0.000	0.001
Minke whale	0.019	0.055	0.016	0.012
Sperm whale	0.000	0.002	0.013	0.008
Long-finned pilot whale	0.036	0.036	0.036	0.036
Bottlenose dolphin (Offshore stock)	1.508	2.776	21.752	9.125
Short beaked common dolphin	3.120	1.156	1.622	2.636
Atlantic white-sided dolphin	0.197	0.487	0.151	0.200
Atlantic spotted dolphin	0.003	0.009	0.076	0.060
Risso's Dolphin	0.002	0.001	0.010	0.003
Harbor porpoise	2.904	2.132	0.018	0.683
Harbor seal	2.251	2.446	0.036	0.038
Gray Seal	1.011	1.099	0.016	0.017

Table C-2 ECR Survey Area – Marine Mammal Seasonal Densities

Species	Winter Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)	Spring Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)	Summer Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km²)	Fall Density <sup>a/</sup> (No./100 km <sup>2</sup> )
North Atlantic right whale	0.182	0.149	0.001	0.011
Humpback whale	0.082	0.031	0.011	0.046
Fin whale	0.057	0.080	0.063	0.078
Sei whale	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000
Minke whale	0.010	0.017	0.003	0.003
Sperm whale	0.001	0.004	0.003	0.005
Long-finned pilot whale	0.012	0.012	0.012	0.012
Bottlenose dolphin (Offshore stock)	1.565	3.291	21.675	7.773
Short beaked common dolphin	1.370	0.330	0.522	1.644
Atlantic white-sided dolphin	0.127	0.213	0.089	0.131
Atlantic spotted dolphin	0.001	0.002	0.059	0.022
Risso's Dolphin	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001
Harbor porpoise	7.357	1.965	0.059	1.488
Harbor seal	3.781	4.001	0.053	0.075
Gray Seal	1.699	1.798	0.024	0.034