

Annual Stock Assessment and Fishery Evaluation Report for U.S. Pacific Island Pelagic Fisheries Ecosystem Plan 2022



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GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND LIST OF ACRONYMS

| Term | Definition |
|------------------|---|
| Alia | Samoan fishing catamaran, about 30 ft. long, constructed of aluminum or wood with fiberglass. Used for various fisheries including trolling, longline, and bottomfish fishing. |
| American Samoa | A U.S. territory in the South Pacific Ocean, southeast of Samoa. |
| Bycatch | Fish harvested in a fishery that are not sold or kept for personal use, including economic discards and regulatory discards, except in a recreational fishery catch and release fishery management program. |
| Commercial | Commercial fishing, where the catch is intended to be sold, bartered, or traded. |
| CNMI | A U.S. territory in the Marianas Archipelago. North of and adjacent to Guam. |
| Council | The Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council, one of eight regional fishery management councils established by Congress in 1976. Under the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act, it has authority over fisheries seaward of state/territorial waters of Hawaii and the U.S. Pacific Islands. |
| Guam | A U.S. territory in the Marianas Archipelago. South of and adjacent to the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas Islands. |
| Hawaii | U.S. state. See MHI, NWHI. Composed of the islands, atolls, and reefs of the Hawaiian Archipelago from Hawaii to Kure Atoll, except the Midway Islands. Capitol - Honolulu. |
| Ika-Shibi | Hawaiian term for night tuna handline fishing method. Fishing for tuna using baited handlines at night with a nightlight and chumming to attract squid and tuna. |
| Incidental Catch | Fish caught that are retained in whole or part, though not necessarily the targeted species. Examples include monchong, opah, and sharks. |
| Interaction | Catch of protected species, which is required to be released. Examples: sea turtles, marine mammals, seabirds. |
| Logbook | Journal kept by fishing vessels for each fishing trip; records catch data, including bycatch and incidental catch. Required in the federally regulated longline and crustacean fisheries in the Hawaiian EEZ. |
| Longline | Fishing method utilizing a main line that exceeds 1 nm in length, is suspended horizontally in the water column either anchored, floating, or attached to a vessel, and from which branch or dropper lines with hooks are attached; except that, within the protected species zone, longline gear means a type of fishing gear consisting of a main line of any length that is suspended horizontally in the water column either anchored, floating, or attached to a vessel, and from which branch or dropper lines with hooks are attached. |
| Longliner | Fishing vessel specifically adapted to use the longline fishing method. |
| Palu-Ahi | Hawaiian term for day tuna handline fishing. Fishing for tuna using baited handlines and chumming with cut bait in a chum bag or wrapped around a stone. Also, drop-stone, make-dog, etc. |

| Term | Definition |
|-------------------|--|
| Pelagic | The pelagic habitat is the upper layer of the water column from the surface to the thermocline. The pelagic zone is separated into several subzones depending on water depth: epipelagic - ocean surface to 200 meters depth; mesopelagic – 200 to 1,000 meters depth; bathypelagic – 1,000 to 4,000 meters depth; and abyssopelagic – 4,000 to 6,000 meters depth. The pelagic species include all commercially targeted highly migratory species such as tuna, billfish, and some incidental-catch species such as sharks, as well as coastal pelagic species such as akule and opelu. |
| Pole-and-Line | Fishing for tuna using poles and fixed leaders with barbless lures and chumming with live baitfish. Poles can be operated manually or mechanically. Also, fishing vessels called baitboats or aku-boats (Hawaii). |
| PRIA | A group of U.S. island territories in the Central Pacific Ocean. |
| Protected Species | Refers to species which are protected by federal legislation such as the Endangered Species Act, Marine Mammal Protection Act, and Migratory Bird Treaty Act. Examples: Black-footed and Laysan albatrosses, sea turtles, dolphins. |
| Purse Seine | Fishing for tuna by surrounding schools of fish with a large net and trapping them by closing the bottom of the net. |
| Recreational | Recreational fishing for sport or pleasure, where the catch is not sold, bartered, or traded. Also, non-commercial. |
| Secretary | When capitalized and used in reference to fisheries within the U.S. EEZs, it refers to the U. S. Secretary of Commerce. |
| Small Pelagics | Species such as akule (big-eye scad - <i>Selar</i> spp.) And opelu (mackerel scad - <i>Decapterus</i> spp). These fish occur mainly in shallow inshore waters but may also be found in deeper offshore waters. Classified as ecosystem component species in the FEP and not part of the PMUS. |
| Trolling | Fishing by towing lines with lures or live-bait from a moving vessel. |

| Acronym | Meaning |
|-------------------|--|
| ACE | Accumulated Cyclone Energy |
| ACL | Annual Catch Limit |
| AS | American Samoa. Includes the islands of Tutuila, Manua, Rose and Swains Atolls |
| ASG | American Samoa Government |
| AVHRR | Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer |
| B | Biomass |
| B _{FLAG} | Warning Reference Point. Set equal to B _{MSY} |
| B _{MSY} | Biomass at MSY |
| BET | Bigeye Tuna |
| BiOp | Biological Opinion |
| BOEM | Bureau of Ocean Energy Management |
| BSIA | Best Scientific Information Available |
| C | Recent Average Catch |
| CFEAI | Commercial Fishing Economic Assessment Index |
| CFR | Code of Federal Regulations |
| CML | Commercial Marine License data |
| CNMI | Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. Also, Northern Mariana Islands, Northern Marianas, and NMI. Includes the islands of Saipan, Tinian, Rota, and many others in the Marianas Archipelago |
| CO ₂ | Carbon Dioxide |
| CMM | Conservation and Management Measures |
| CPC | Climate Prediction Center, NOAA |
| CPDF | Catch-Per-Day-Fished |
| CPI | Consumer price index |
| CPUE | Catch-Per-Unit-Effort. A standard fisheries index usually expressed as numbers of fish caught per unit of gear per unit of time, e.g., number of fish per hook per line-hour or number of fish per 1,000 hooks |
| CV | Coefficient of Variation |
| DAR | Division of Aquatic Resources, State of Hawaii |
| DAWR | Division of Aquatic and Wildlife Resources, Guam |
| DEIS | Draft Environmental Impact Statement |
| DFW | Division of Fish and Wildlife, Northern Mariana Islands |
| DIC | Dissolved Inorganic Carbon |
| DMWR | Department of Marine and Wildlife Resources, American Samoa |
| DOD | Department of Defense |
| DOJ | Department of Justice |
| DPS | Distinct Population Segment |
| DWFN | Distant Water Fishing Nation |
| E-A | Euro-American |

| Acronym | Meaning |
|------------------|---|
| EEZ | Exclusive Economic Zone, refers to waters of a nation, recognized internationally under the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea as extending 200 nautical miles from shore. Within the U.S., the EEZ is typically between three and 200 nautical miles from shore |
| EF | Expansion Factor |
| EFH | Essential Fish Habitat |
| EIS | Environmental Impact Statement |
| ELAPS | Effort Limit Area for Purse Seine |
| ENSO | El Niño-Southern Oscillation Index |
| EO | Executive Order |
| EPO | East Pacific Ocean |
| ESA | Endangered Species Act. An Act of Congress passed in 1966 that establishes a federal program to protect species of animals whose survival is threatened by habitat destruction, overutilization, disease, etc. |
| ESD | Equivalent Spherical Diameter |
| ESRL | Earth System Research Laboratory, NOAA |
| F | Fishing Mortality |
| F _{MSY} | Fishing Mortality at MSY |
| FAD | Fish Aggregating Device; a raft or buoy, drifting or anchored to the sea floor, and under which, pelagic fish will concentrate |
| FDM | Farallon de Medinilla, CNMI |
| FEP | Fisheries Ecosystem Plan |
| FMP | Fishery Management Plan |
| FR | Federal Register |
| FWS | Fish and Wildlife Service |
| GAC | Global Area Coverage |
| GAM | General Additive Models |
| GOES | Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites |
| GFCA | Guam Fishermen's Cooperative Association |
| GODAS | Global Ocean Data Assimilation System |
| GRT | Gross Registered Tonnes |
| HAPC | Habitat Areas of Particular Concern |
| HDAR | Hawaii Division of Aquatic Resources. Also, DAR |
| HLF | Hawaii Longline Fishery |
| HMRFS | Hawaii Marine Recreational Fishing Survey |
| HOT | Hawaii Ocean Time Series |
| HP | Horsepower |
| HSTT | Hawaii-Southern California Training and Testing |
| IATTC | Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission |
| IFA | Interjurisdictional Fisheries Act |
| IFP | International Fisheries Program |

| Acronym | Meaning |
|----------------|--|
| ISC | International Scientific Committee |
| ITS | Incidental Take Statement |
| K-A | Korean-American |
| LAA | Likely to adversely affect |
| LOC | Letter of Concurrence |
| LOF | List of Fisheries |
| LRP | Limit Reference Point |
| LVPA | Large Vessel Protected Area |
| M | Natural Mortality |
| M&SI | Mortality and Serious Injury |
| MSA | Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act |
| ME | McCracken Estimates |
| MEI | Multivariate ENSO Index |
| MFMT | Maximum Fishing Mortality Threshold |
| MHI | Main Hawaiian Islands |
| MITT | Mariana Islands Training and Testing |
| MMA | Marine Managed Area |
| MMPA | Marine Mammal Protection Act |
| MODIS | Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer |
| MOU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| MPA | Marine Protected Area |
| MPCC | Marine Planning and Climate Change |
| MPCCC | Marine Planning and Climate Change Committee |
| MRFSS | Marine Recreational Fishing Statistical Survey |
| MSST | Minimum Stock Size Threshold |
| MSY | Maximum Sustainable Yield |
| MUS | Management Unit Species |
| MW | Megawatt |
| NA | Not applicable |
| NCADAC | National Climate Assessment and Development Advisory Committee |
| NCDC | National Climatic Data Center |
| NCEI | National Centers for Environmental Information, NOAA |
| NCRMP | National Coral Reef Monitoring Program |
| NELHA | Natural Energy Laboratory of Hawaii Authority |
| NEPA | National Environmental Policy Act |
| NESDIS | National Environmental Satellite, Data, and Information Service |
| NLAA | Not likely to adversely affect |
| NMFS | National Marine Fisheries Service, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Department of Commerce. Also, NOAA Fisheries |
| NMSAS | National Marine Sanctuary of American Samoa |
| NOAA | National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce |

| Acronym | Meaning |
|-------------------|--|
| NOI | Notice of Intent |
| NS2 | National Standard 2 |
| NS8 | National Standard 8 |
| NWHI | Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. All islands in the Hawaiian Archipelago, other than the Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) |
| NWR | National Wildlife Refuge |
| OC-CCI | Ocean Color Climate Change Initiative |
| OEIS | Overseas Environmental Impact Statement |
| OFF-SPC | Oceanic Fisheries Program of the Secretariat of the Pacific Community |
| OFL | Overfishing Limit |
| OLE | Office of Law Enforcement, NOAA |
| ONI | Oceanic Niño Index |
| OTEC | Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion |
| OY | Optimum Yield |
| PBF | Pacific Bluefin Tuna |
| PBR | Potential Biological Removal |
| PDO | Pacific Decadal Oscillation |
| PICTs | Pacific Island Countries and Territories |
| PIFSC | Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center |
| PIRO | Pacific Islands Regional Office, National Marine Fisheries Service. Also, NMFS PIRO |
| PMUS | Pacific Pelagic Management Unit Species. Species managed under the Pelagic FEP |
| POES | Polar Operational Environmental Satellites |
| PPGFA | Pago Pago Game Fishing Association |
| ppm | Parts per Million |
| PPT | Pelagic Fishery Ecosystem Plan Team |
| PRIA | Pacific Remote Island Areas |
| RFMA | Regional Fishery Management Agreements |
| RFMO | Regional Fishery Management Organization |
| RIMPAC | Rim of the Pacific |
| RPB | Regional Planning Body |
| ROD | Record of Decision |
| SA | Spawning Abundance |
| SA _{MSY} | Spawning Abundance at MSY |
| SAFE | Stock Assessment and Fishery Evaluation |
| SAR | Stock Assessment Report |
| SB | Spawning Biomass |
| SB _{MSY} | Spawning Biomass at MSY |
| SC | Standing Committee of the Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission |
| SDC | Status Determination Criteria |

| Acronym | Meaning |
|--------------------|--|
| SEIS | Supplemental Environmental Impact Statement |
| SEZ | Southern Exclusion Zone, Hawaii |
| SFA | Saipan Fishermen's Association |
| SFD | Sustainable Fisheries Division, NMFS PIRO |
| SFM | Shortfin Mako shark |
| SHARKWG | Shark Working Group, ISC |
| SPC | Secretariat of the Pacific Community. A technical assistance organization comprising the independent island states of the tropical Pacific Ocean, dependent territories and the metropolitan countries of Australia, New Zealand, USA, and France; now Pacific Community |
| SPR | Spawning Potential Ratio. A term for a method to measure the effects of fishing pressure on a stock by expressing the spawning potential of the fished biomass as a percentage of the unfished virgin spawning biomass. Stocks are deemed to be overfished when the $SPR < 20\%$. |
| SSB | Spawning Stock Biomass |
| SSB _{MSY} | Spawning Stock Biomass at MSY |
| SSC | Scientific and Statistical Committee, an advisory body to the Council comprising experts in fisheries, marine biology, oceanography, etc. |
| SST | Sea Surface Temperature |
| STD | Standard Deviation |
| STF | Subtropical Front |
| SWAC | Seawater Air Conditioning |
| SWG | Spatial Working Group |
| SWO | Swordfish |
| TA | Total Alkalinity |
| TRP | Target Reference Point |
| TZCF | Transition Zone Chlorophyll Front |
| US | United States |
| USAF | United States Air Force |
| USACE | United States Army Corps of Engineers |
| USFWS | United States Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of Interior |
| V-A | Vietnamese-American |
| WCNPO | Western and Central North Pacific Ocean |
| WCP-CA | Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission Convention Area |
| WCPFC | Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission |
| WCPO | Western and Central Pacific Ocean |
| WETS | Wave Energy Test Site |
| WPacFIN | Western Pacific Fishery Information Network, NMFS |
| WPRFMC | Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council |
| WPUE | Weight per Unit Effort |
| WSEP | Weapon Systems Evaluation Program |
| XBT | Expendable Bathythermographs |

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council (WPRFMC; the Council) manages the pelagic resources specified in the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act of 1976 (MSA) and that occur in the United States (U.S.) Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) around American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI), Guam, Hawaii, and the U.S. possessions in the Western Pacific Region (Johnston Atoll, Kingman Reef and Palmyra, Jarvis, Howland, Baker, Midway, and Wake Islands) known as the Pacific Remote Island Area (PRIA). The Council developed and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) implemented the Fishery Management Plan (FMP) for Pelagic Fisheries of the Western Pacific Region in 1987, which has since been replaced by the Fishery Ecosystem Plan (FEP) implemented in 2010. Since this time, the Council has generated an annual report that provides fishery performance data, including but not limited to landings, value of the fishery, and catch rates, for each of the areas the Council manages.

In July 2013, NMFS issued a final rule (78 FR 43066, July 19, 2013) that revised National Standard 2 (NS2) guidelines and clarified the content and purpose of the Stock Assessment and Fishery Evaluation (SAFE) report to manage fisheries using of the best scientific information available (BSIA) (see Title 50 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] Part 600.315). In 2015, the Council, in partnership with NMFS Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC), local fishery resource management agencies, and the NMFS Pacific Islands Regional Office (PIRO), agreed to revise and expand the contents of future annual reports to include the range of ecosystem elements, including protected species interactions, oceanographic parameters, essential fish habitat (EFH) review, and marine planning activities. SAFE reports provide regional fishery management councils and NMFS with information for determining the annual catch limits (ACLs) for each stock in the fishery, documenting significant trends or changes in the resource, marine ecosystems, and fishery over time, implementing required EFH provisions, and assessing the relative success of existing relevant state and federal fishery management programs. The annual SAFE report is intended to serve as a source document for developing the FEPs, amendments, and other analytical documents needed for management decisions.

Table ES-1 was developed from a review of NS2 guidelines and the 2013 revisions under the Final Rule for Provisions on Scientific Information for NS2 (78 FR 43066).

Table ES-1. Fulfillment of National Standard 2 requirements within the 2021 annual SAFE report for the U.S. Pacific Island Pelagic Fisheries Ecosystem Plan

| Requirement | Data Needs | Citation for Additional Guidance | Section |
|--|--|----------------------------------|-----------------|
| Description of the Status Determination Criteria (SDC) | Maximum fishing mortality threshold (MFMT), OFL, and minimum stock size threshold (MSST) | 600.310(e)(2) | 2.6.5.1 |
| Information on Overfishing Level (OFL) | Data collection, estimation methods, and consideration of uncertainty | 600.310(f)(2) | 2.6.6 |
| Information determining Annual Catch Limits (ACLs) | Needed for each stock to document significant trends or changes in the resource or marine ecosystem | 600.310(f)(5) | 2.6.6 |
| Information on Optimum Yield (OY) | The harvest level for a species that achieves the greatest overall benefits, including economic, social, and biological considerations | 600.310 | NA ¹ |
| Information on Acceptable Biological Catch | Most recent stock assessment | 600.310(c) 600.310(f)(2) | 2.6.7 |
| | | | |
| Fishing mortality | Sources of fishing mortality (both landed and discarded), including commercial and recreational catch and bycatch in other fisheries | 600.310(i) | Ch. 2 |
| Bycatch by fishery | Including target and non-target species | | Ch. 2 |
| | | | |
| Rebuilding overfished stocks | Best Scientific Information Available ² on biological condition of stocks | | NA |
| Condition of ecosystems | BSIA to assess success of FEP | | 3.5 + Ch. 4 |
| Condition of EFH | Report on review of available information; full review every five years | 600.815(a)(10) | 3.6 |
| Socioeconomic conditions of fishery | BSIA to assess success of FEP | | 3.3 |
| Socioeconomic conditions of fishing communities | BSIA to assess success of FEP | | 3.3 |
| Socioeconomic conditions of processing industry | BSIA to assess success of FEP | | NA |
| Safety at sea by fishery | BSIA to assess success of FEP | | NA |
| Information/data gaps | Explanation of data gaps and emphasis on future scientific work to address gaps | | NA |

NA = 'Not Applicable'

¹ A numeric OY is not currently used to manage pelagic fisheries in the Pacific Islands Region.

² The National Standard 2 Guidelines define BSIA as: "Relevance, inclusiveness, objectivity, transparency, timeliness, verification, validation, and peer review of fishery management information as appropriate. The revised NS2 guidelines do not prescribe a static definition of BSIA because science is a dynamic process involving continuous improvements." (78 FR 43067).

SUMMARY OF SAFE STOCK ASSESSMENT REQUIREMENTS

Many of the fish managed under the Pacific Island Pelagic Fisheries Ecosystem Plan (Pelagic FEP) are also managed under the international agreements governing the Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC) and/or the Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission (IATTC), to which the U.S. is a party. Both the WCPFC and IATTC have adopted criteria for ‘overfishing’ and ‘overfished’ designations for certain species that differ from those under the Pelagic FEP. For the purposes of stock status determinations, NMFS will determine stock status of pelagic management unit species (MUS) using the Status Determination Criteria (SDC) described in the Pelagic FEP.

For all pelagic MUS (PMUS) the Council adopted a maximum sustainable yield (MSY) control rule (see Section 2.6.5). The Council has also adopted a warning reference point, B_{FLAG} , set equal to B_{MSY} to provide a trigger for consideration of management action before a stock’s biomass reaches the minimum stock size threshold (MSST). A stock is approaching an overfished condition when there is more than a 50 percent chance that the biomass will decline below the MSST within two years.

For pelagic species in the Pacific Island Region, most stock assessments are conducted by several international organizations. In the eastern Pacific Ocean (EPO), IATTC staff conduct stock assessments for Eastern Pacific Ocean bigeye, yellowfin, striped marlin, and swordfish.

In the western and central Pacific Ocean (WCPO), the Secretariat of the Pacific Community Oceanic Fisheries Program (SPC) conducts stock assessments on tropical tunas, as well as for South Pacific albacore, southwest Pacific swordfish, and striped marlin. In the North Pacific Ocean, the International Scientific Committee for Tuna and Tuna-like Species in the North Pacific Ocean (ISC) conducts similar stock assessments.

In 2022, stock assessments were completed for Western and Central Pacific Ocean skipjack tuna (Castillo-Jordan et al. 2022), Pacific bluefin tuna, (ISC 2022a), and North Pacific blue shark (ISC 2022b). Details of these stock assessments can be found in Section 2.6.7. This section also provides an overview of stock status in relation to overfishing and overfished reference points for species managed under this Pelagic FEP.

Figure ES-1 provides the current stock status for all species in the Pelagic FEP for which stock assessments have been completed.

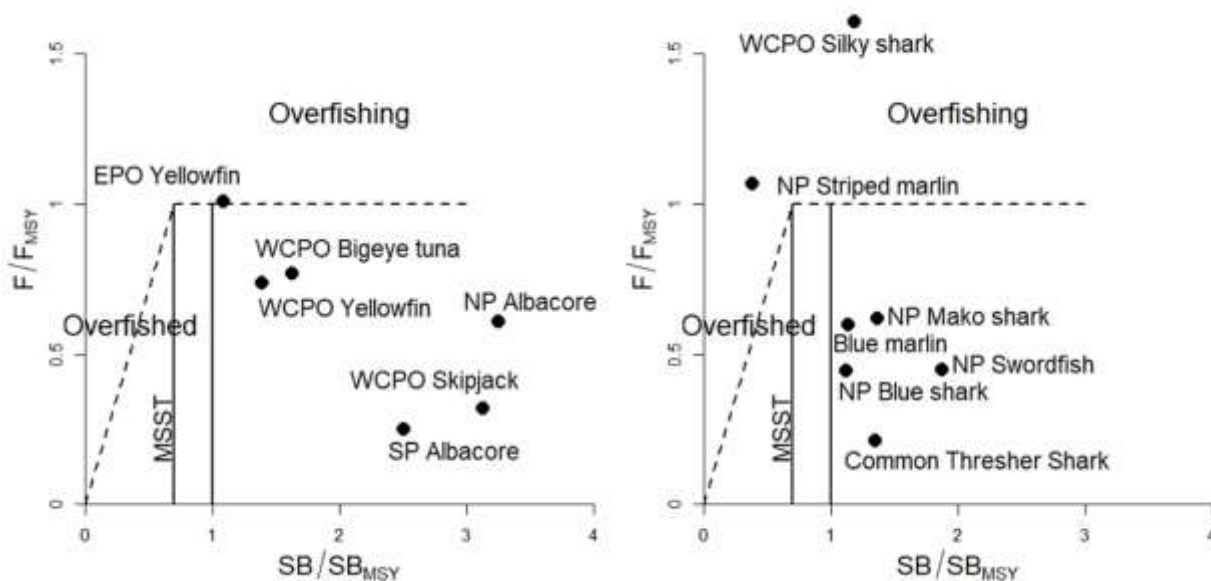


Figure ES-1. Specification of fishing mortality and biomass reference points in the Pelagic FEP and current stock status in the WCPO and EPO. Pacific Ocean bluefin tuna is not illustrated, but the recent stock assessment indicated overfishing is occurring and the stock is overfished

SUMMARY OF FISHERY DATA IN THE PACIFIC ISLAND REGION

Table ES-2. Summary of the total pelagic landings during 2022 in the Western Pacific and the percentage change between 2021 and 2022

| Species | American Samoa | | CNMI | | Guam | | Hawaii | |
|--------------------|------------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------|
| | Landings (lb) | % Change | Landings (lb) | % Change | Landings (lb) | % Change | Landings (lb) | % Change |
| Swordfish | 5,669 | -8.1 | - | - | 0 | - | 2,047,820 | 35.0 |
| Blue marlin | 104,196 | 37.1 | 0*** | -100.0 | 8,700 | -71.9 | 1,239,436 | 12.6 |
| Striped marlin | 3,990 | -41.4 | - | - | 0 | - | 644,924 | 13.0 |
| Other billfish* | 3,858 | 0.3 | 3,449 | - | 1,046 | - | 322,324 | -5.0 |
| Mahimahi | 12,826 | 447.9 | 58,049 | 91.8 | 94,491 | 202.5 | 775,422 | 3.4 |
| Wahoo | 25,826 | -28.6 | 20,646 | 286.4 | 57,003 | 152.6 | 667,081 | -43.2 |
| Opah (moonfish) | 938 | -38.7 | - | - | - | - | 526,449 | -37.7 |
| Sharks (whole wt.) | 0 | - | 0 | - | 0 | - | 9,873 | -41.8 |
| Albacore | 2,365,584 | 28.4 | - | - | 0 | - | 456,745 | -14.4 |
| Bigeye tuna | 41,818 | -36.4 | - | - | 0 | - | 14,688,062 | -8.9 |
| Bluefin tuna | 0 | -100.0 | - | - | - | - | 3,290 | 58.3 |
| Skipjack tuna | 88,708 | -31.3 | 132,152 | -57.0 | 419,431 | -37.0 | 460,050 | -6.9 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 326,319 | -31.3 | 14,224 | -45.6 | 34,050 | -63.3 | 7,124,349 | 2.2 |
| Other pelagics** | 1,828 | -39.8 | 8,920 | -45.0 | 15,116 | 0.4 | 600,087 | 3.1 |
| Total | 2,981,560 | 12.6 | 237,440 | -38.9 | 629,837 | -26.6 | 29,565,913 | -4.7 |

Note: Total pelagic landings are based on commercial reports and/or creel surveys; % change based on 2020 landings relative to 2022 landings.

*Other billfish include black marlin, spearfish, and sailfish.

**Other pelagics include kawakawa, unknown tunas, pelagic fishes (dogtooth tuna, rainbow runner, barracudas), oilfish, and pomfret. Of these, only oilfish and pomfret are PMUS. While other tables in Chapter 2 excluded or separated out non-MUS, data could not accurately provide individual landings data for these species presented in this total landings table.

*** Tracking of marlin catches by pelagic fisheries in the CNMI is undergoing review to ensure that marlin species are properly identified for the purposes of monitoring fishery performance and reporting it in this annual SAFE report.

AMERICAN SAMOA

Pago Pago Harbor on the island of Tutuila is a regional base for the transshipment and processing of tuna taken by domestic fleets from other South Pacific nations, the distant-water longline fleets, and purse seine fleets. As the NMFS Pacific Island Region does not directly manage these fisheries, data on the purse seine and non-U.S. vessel landings are not included in this report.

Participation. The largest fishery in American Samoa directly managed as part of this FEP is the American Samoa longline fishery. The majority of these vessels are greater than 50 feet (ft), are required to fish beyond 50 nautical miles (nm) from shore, and sell the majority of their catch, primarily albacore, to the Pago Pago canneries. In 2022, there were 11 active longline vessels, all large (> 60 feet). Smaller longline vessels called *alias* (i.e., locally built, twin-hulled vessels about 30 ft long, powered by 40 horsepower gasoline outboard engines) can fish within 50 nm from shore, but due to the low participation in recent years, these data are confidential and can be reported only in combination with the large vessel fishery. Trolling is the next largest fishery with nine boats that landed pelagic species in 2022. Non-commercial pelagic fisheries in American Samoa are less common.

Landings. The estimated annual pelagic landings have varied widely, from 2.0 to over 6.1 million lb since 2013. The total estimated 2022 landings were approximately 3.0 million lb, which represents an increase from 2021 but a continuation of the decline from 6.1 million lb in 2013 (Figure 4). Pelagic landings consist mainly of five tuna species including albacore, yellowfin, skipjack, mackerel, and bigeye, which made up over 95% of the total estimated landings when combined with other tuna species. Albacore made up 84% of the tuna species total estimated landings. Wahoo, blue marlin, swordfish, and mahimahi made up most of the non-tuna species landings.

Bycatch. There was no recorded bycatch for the troll fishery in 2022 (Table 14). In the longline fishery, around 0.7% of the tuna catch was released. Skipjack and yellowfin were the most released bycatch tuna species at 0.5 and 3.4%, respectively. Conversely, sharks, oilfish and pomfret had the highest release numbers of non-tunas, with nearly 100% of each species released (Table 6). In total, only 3.8% of all pelagic species caught by the longline fishery were released. Fish are released for various reasons including quality, handling and storage difficulties, and marketing problems.

Effort. There are currently 20 vessels known to be fishing in the waters of American Samoa according to federal logbooks collected. The 11 longline vessels that fished in 2022 deployed 1,219 sets (Table 5). The troll fishery conducted only 50 trips that landed pelagic species. Troll trips decreased by over 50%.

Catch Rate. The total pelagic catch rate by all longline vessels increased by 4.5 fish per 1,000 hooks in 2022 from the previous year. Non-tuna pelagic species had a consistent catch rate of 1.2 fish per 1,000 hooks. The longline catch rates for tuna species have fluctuated during the past decade ranging from 13.4 to nearly 21 fish per 1,000 hooks. Albacore catch rates increased this year by 5.4 to 14.6 fish per 1,000 hooks. The average catch per troll hour for all pelagic species decreased in 2022 to 22 lb/hour from 33 lb/hour in 2021.

Revenues. In 2022, the total longline fleet revenue (estimated landed value) was \$3.19 million, and albacore composed a majority of the total landed value. Other main species included

yellowfin tuna, bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, and wahoo. The overall average fish price was \$1.07 per pound in 2022. Albacore had an estimated price of \$1.50 per pound, representing a decrease of \$0.10 from 2021.

Protected Species Interactions. Protected species interactions are monitored in the American Samoa longline fishery with mandatory observer coverage targeting approximately 20% of all trips, however, coverage for 2020 was at 2.13% and for 2021 was at 4.65% due to impacts from the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2022, observer coverage was about 8% and data were no longer confidential. However, there were still very few protected species interactions observed.

CNMI

The CNMI's pelagic fisheries occur primarily from the island of Farallon de Medinilla south to the Island of Rota.

Participation. The number of fishers involved in CNMI's pelagic fishery has decreased since 2001, when there were 113 reporting commercial pelagic landings. In 2022, 92 fishers reported landing pelagic species, representing an increase of nearly 11% from the 83 fishers in 2021.

Landings. Skipjack tuna is the principal species landed, comprising nearly 56% of the total estimated pelagic landings in 2022 based on expanded creel survey data. Skipjack estimated landings decreased by 57% in 2022 to 132,152 lb, while total estimated landings also decreased by nearly 39% to 237,440 lb. Landings of mahimahi and wahoo ranked second and third by weight of pelagic species landings in 2022, respectively, at 58,049 lb and 20,646 lb. The amount of yellowfin tuna landed in 2022 decreased substantially from 2021 levels by over to 14,224 lb.

Effort. In 2022, the number of trips catching pelagic species from commercial receipt invoices decreased 16% from 2021 to 1,789 trips. However, the number of estimated trips from expanded creel survey data was relatively consistent at 2,973 trips. Total estimated trolling hours similarly decreased in 2022 by 17% to 14,427 hours. Average trip length has remained steady over the last decade, maintaining between 4.9 and 5.6 hours per trip and slightly decreasing in 2021 to 4.9, tied for the decadal low.

Catch Rate. In 2022, trolling catch rates decreased from 22.0 lb per trolling hour to 15.9 lb per trolling hour, a decrease compared to the 10-year average (21.7 lb/hr). The skipjack catch rate decreased to 9.2 lb per hour fished. This catch rate is 6.2 lb less than the 10-year average (15.4 lb/hr). Yellowfin catch rate decreased from 1.5 in 2021 to 1.0 lb per hour. The mahi mahi catch rate increased to 3.9 lb/hr in 2022, which is 0.1 lb/hr greater than the 10-year average.

Bycatch. Bycatch is not a significant issue in the CNMI, as fishermen retain their catch regardless of species, size, or condition. Based on creel survey interviews, only two fish were caught as bycatch in the trolling fisheries in 2020 leading up to 2022, both mahimahi.

Revenue. The total value of the pelagic fishery in 2022 was \$721,579.40, which represented a 6.55% increase from the previous year (\$677,239). The average price for all pelagic species was \$3.08 in 2022, an increase of \$0.66 from 2021.

Protected Species Interactions. There have not been any reported or observed interactions with protected species in the CNMI pelagic fisheries.

GUAM

Guam's pelagic fishery consists of small, primarily recreational, trolling boats that fish within the local waters of Guam's EEZ or the adjacent EEZ of the Northern Mariana Islands.

Participation. The number of boats involved in Guam's pelagic fishery gradually increased from 193 in 1983 to a high of 546 in 2021. There were 449 boats involved in Guam's pelagic fishery in 2022, a decrease of 17.7% from the all time high of 2021. The majority of the fishing boats are less than 10 m (33 ft) in length and are usually owner-operated by fishermen who earn a living outside of fishing. Most fishermen sell a portion of their catch, and it is difficult to make a distinction between recreational, subsistence, and commercial fishers. A small but economically significant segment (~5%) of the pelagic group is made up of marina-berthed charter boats that are operated primarily by full-time captains and crews. Data and graphs for non-charters, charters, and bycatch are represented in this report.

Landings. The estimated annual pelagic landings varies widely in the 42-year time series, ranging between 383,000 and 958,000 lb. The average total catch has shown a slowly increasing trend over the reporting period. The 2022 total expanded pelagic landings were 629,837 lb, a decrease of 26.7% when compared with the catch from 2021. Tuna PMUS decreased 40.2%, while non-tuna PMUS increased 87.1%. Landings consisted primarily of five major species: mahimahi, wahoo, bonito or skipjack tuna, yellowfin tuna, and Pacific blue marlin, with skipjack comprising over 66.5% of total landings. Other minor species caught include rainbow runner, barracudas, and pomfrets. Sharks were also caught during 2022, with sharks noted in specific fishermen interviews conducted in 2022 regarding shark encounters (see bycatch below). However, these species were not encountered during offshore creel surveys and were not available for expansion for this year's report. Sharks are often discarded as bycatch. In addition to the above pelagic species, approximately half a dozen other species were landed incidentally this year.

There are wide year-to-year fluctuations in the estimated landings of the five major pelagic species. Landings for two of the five common species increased in 2022 from the previous year's levels. Skipjack decreased 37%, and yellowfin decreased by 63.3%. Wahoo catch increased 252%, mahimahi catch increased by 302%, and blue marlin decreased by 72%.

Effort. In 2022, the number of trolling trips decreased by 7.7% from 2021 levels to 9,895, and hours spent trolling similarly decreased by 14.3%.

In early 2010, the U.S. military began exercises in an area south and southeast of Guam designated W-517. W-517 is a special use airspace (approximately 14,000 nm²) that overlays deep open ocean approximately 50 miles south-southwest of Guam. Exercises in W-517 generally involve live fire and/or pyrotechnics. When W-517 is in use, a notice to mariners is issued, and vessels attempting to use the area are advised to be cautious of objects in the water and other small vessels. This discourages access to virtually all banks south of Guam, including Galvez, Santa Rosa, White Tuna, and other popular fishing areas. From 1982-2015, DAWR surveys recorded more than 2,930 trolling and bottom fishing trips to these southern banks, an average of more than 83 trips per year. The number of notices to mariners in 2021 was 80, equaling 80 closure days, down from 168 closure days in 2020. This impacted the number of fishing days south of Guam.

The small-boat bottomfish and trolling fishery in Guam relies on boat ramp access and FADs.

Recent activities to support the Guam fishery follow.

Catch Rate. Trolling catch rates (lb per hour fished) showed an decrease from 2021. Total CPUE decreased 14.6%. The two tuna species showed an decrease in CPUE from 2021 to 2022. Marlin showed in CPUE from 2021 to 2022. Mahi and wahoo CPUE increased from 2021 to 2022. The fluctuations in CPUE are possibly due to variability in the year-to-year abundance and availability of the stocks.

Bycatch. There is low bycatch in the charter fishery. In 2022, interview data indicated there was again a low bycatch rate; there were 72 fish reported as bycatch in 5,342 tallied fish caught, for a 1.34% rate. Bycatch occasionally occurs in the troll fishery including sharks, shark-bitten and undersized fish.

In 2022, fishers were asked if they experienced a shark interaction. There was a total of 802 interviews for boat-based fishing in 2022, with 95 of these inappropriate for determining shark interaction. Of the remaining 707 interviews, 267 reported interactions with sharks and 440 reported no interactions with sharks for a 37.7% positive rate for interviews where fishers were asked about shark interactions.

Revenues. Commercial data for Guam pelagic fisheries are non-disclosed due to confidentiality rules that prevent data derived from fewer than three sources to be reported. Because there were fewer than three vendors that reported sales of pelagic fish on Guam in 2020, 2021, and 2022, the data are not able to be presented in this report.

A majority of troll fishermen do not rely on the catch or selling of fish as their primary source of income. Previously, Guam law required the Government of Guam to provide locally caught fish to food services in government agencies, such as the Department of Education and Department of Corrections. In 2002, the Government of Guam began implementing cost-saving measures, including privatization of food services. The requirement that locally-caught fish be used for food services, while still a part of private contracts, is not being enforced. This has allowed private contractors to import cheaper foreign fish and reduced the sales of vendors selling locally caught fish. This represented a substantial portion of sales of locally caught pelagic fish. The decrease in commercial sales seen following 2002 may be, in part, due to this change.

Protected Species Interactions. There have not been any reported or observed interactions with protected species in the Guam pelagic fisheries.

HAWAII

Compared to the other regions, Hawaii has a diverse fishery sector which includes shallow- and deep-set longline, Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) troll and handline, offshore handline, and the aku boat (pole and line) fisheries. The Hawaii longline fishery is by far the most important economically, accounting for nearly 90% of estimated ex-vessel value of the total commercial fish landings in the State. The MHI troll was the second largest fishery in Hawaii with 5.5% of the total value, followed by MHI handline, aku boat, offshore handline fisheries, and other gear types comprising the remainder. The pandemic had a large effect on participation, catch, and revenue in 2020 as the lockdown for public health safety to contain the spread of COVID-19 negatively impacted fishery-related businesses, but trends indicative of recovery may have been observed during 2021.

Participation. A total of 3,201 fishermen were licensed in 2022, including 1,873 (59%) who indicated that their primary fishing method and gear were intended to catch pelagic fish. This is a 1% increase in fishing licenses from the previous year. Most licenses that indicated pelagic fishing as their primary method were issued to longline fishermen (52%) and trollers (31%). The remainder was issued to ika-shibi and palu-ahi (handline) (17%).

Landings. Hawaii commercial fisheries caught and landed 29.6 million pounds of pelagic species in 2022, a decrease of 5% from the previous year. Although each fishery targets or intends to catch a particular pelagic species, a variety of other species were also caught. The deep-set longline fishery targeted bigeye and yellowfin tuna. This was the largest of all pelagic fisheries and its total catch comprised 82% (24.2 million pounds) of all pelagic fisheries. The shallow-set longline fishery targeted swordfish and its catch was 1.9 million pounds, or 6% of the total catch. The MHI troll fishery targeted tunas, marlins and other PMUS caught 1.8 million pounds or 6% of the total. The MHI handline fishery targeted yellowfin tuna while the offshore handline fishery targeted bigeye tuna. The MHI handline fishery accounted for 940,000 pounds (4% of the total). The offshore handline fishery was responsible for 454,000 pounds or less than 2% of the total catch.

The largest component of the pelagic catch was tunas, which comprised 77% of the total in 2022. Bigeye tuna alone accounted for 65% of the tunas and 50% of all the pelagic catch. Billfish catch made up 14% of the total catch in 2022. Swordfish was the largest of these, at 48% of the billfish and 7% of the total catch. Catches of other PMUS represented 9% of the total catch in 2022 with ono being the largest component at 30% of the other PMUS and 3% of the total catch.

Bycatch. A total of 104,013 fish were released by the deep-set longline fishery in 2022. PMUS sharks accounted for 86% of the deep-set longline bycatch. There is almost no market demand for sharks in Hawai'i. Of all shark species combined, 99.9% of the deep-set longline shark catch was released. Conversely, bycatch rate for the deep-set longline fishery was only 4% for targeted and incidentally caught pelagic species in 2022. A total of 7,554 fish were released by the shallow-set longline fishery in 2022. PMUS sharks accounted for 95% of the shallow-set longline bycatch. Of all shark species combined, 99.9% of the shallow-set longline shark catch was released. Conversely, bycatch rate for the shallow-set longline fishery was 3% for targeted and incidentally caught pelagic species in 2022. Since shallow-set longline trips are often longer than deep-set trips, the shallow-set sector conserves space for swordfish, which they target, and foregoes keeping other pelagic species due to their short shelf life.

Effort. There were 147 active Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline vessels in 2022, the same as the previous year. The number of deep-set trips was 1,531 along with 21,299 sets made in 2022. The number of hooks set by the deep-set longline fishery was 63.3 million hooks in 2022. The Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery operates mainly in the first half of the year. In 2022, 22 vessels completed 69 trips and made 857 sets, which was 5 vessels, 12 trips and 154 more sets than the previous year. The number of hooks set by this fishery also rose to 1.1 million in 2022, an increase over the record low observed in 2019. The number of days fished by MHI troll fishers has been trending lower from its peak in 2013, with 1,166 fishers logging 15,420 days fished around the MHI in 2022. There were 427 MHI handline fishers that fished 3,726 days in 2022, a slight increase from the lowest number of fishers and an improvement from the record low days fished in 2020. The offshore handline fishery only had 6 fishers and 188 days fished in 2022.

The deep-set longline fishery targets bigeye tuna and this species had higher nominal CPUE (2.7 fish per 1,000 hooks) compared to yellowfin tuna (1.3) but bigeye tuna has been on a downward trend from 2015 while yellowfin tuna CPUE has been higher than average for the past 6 years. Albacore CPUE was much lower at 0.2 in 2022. Blue marlin and striped marlin were incidental catches by the deep-set fishery were both at or at 0.3 fish per 1,000 hooks over the ten-year period. In contrast blue shark bycatch species with all fish logged as released yet its CPUE is third only to bigeye and yellowfin at 1.5 fish per 1,000 hooks. The Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery targets swordfish and had a CPUE of 8.9 fish, in 2022, up from a record low of 7.1 fish in 2021. Blue shark, a bycatch species for this fishery too, had a CPUE of 5.9 fish, same as the previous year. The MHI troll fishery CPUE for yellowfin tuna and blue marlin were both on a gradual upward trend. MHI troll CPUE for skipjack tuna, mahimahi and ono CPUE varied with no clear trend. MHI handline CPUE for yellowfin showed a strong, consistent upward pattern from 2019. Albacore and bigeye tuna CPUE were not only much lower than yellowfin tuna but below their respective long-term CPUEs. Bigeye tuna CPUE for the offshore handline fishery reached a record CPUE in 2022. Yellowfin tuna CPUE in this fishery was often a magnitude lower and variable over the past ten years.

Fish Size. With the exception of bigeye tuna, ono and moonfish the average weight for the remaining pelagic species were below their respective long-term average weight in the deep-set longline fishery. Bigeye tuna caught in the deep-set fishery was 83 pounds in 2022, 3 pounds above the long-term average. All billfish species caught by this fishery were below their 10-year average weight while other PMUS species were close to long-term mean weights. The mean size of swordfish was 130 pounds in 2022, much lower from the 10-year average weight. The pattern of average weight for tunas, billfish and other PMUS in by the shallow-set longline fishery was similar to fish size in the deep-set longline fishery. Swordfish caught by the shallow-set longline fishery was 169 pounds, below the 10-year average weight. In general, the average weight of most fish caught by the shallow-set longline fishery is higher than fish caught by the deep-set longline fishery. In general, the average weight for fish caught by the troll and handline fisheries was above their long-term averages. However, the average weight of blue marlin, swordfish and mahimahi were lower in 2022.

Revenue. The total revenue from Hawai'i's pelagic fisheries was \$129.8 million in 2022. This was a decrease of 2% from the previous year. The strong revenue in 2022 is again attributed to the continued recovery from the COVID pandemic. Bigeye tuna and yellowfin tuna represented 57% and 22% of the total pelagic revenue, respectively in 2022. The deep-set longline revenue

was \$106.4 million in 2022. This fishery represented 82% of the total revenue for pelagic fish in Hawai'i. The shallow-set longline fishery almost doubled to \$9.7 million and accounted for 7% of the revenue in 2022. Most of the increase in shallow-set revenue is from more vessels landing in Hawaii instead of off-loading in California. The MHI troll revenue was \$7.0 million or 5% of the total in 2022. The MHI handline fishery increased to \$4.1 million (3%). The offshore handline fishery was \$1.5 million in 2022 and exhibited the largest increase of the small boat fisheries.

Protected Species Interactions. Protected species interactions are monitored in the Hawaii-based longline fishery with mandatory observer coverage at 100% for shallow-set vessels and a target of a minimum of 20% for deep-set vessels; however, observer coverage in the deep-set longline fishery in 2020 and 2021 was 15.25% and 17.84%, respectively, due to impacts related to pandemic restrictions. In the shallow-set longline fishery, annual monitoring of turtle interactions now occurs via trip limits. In 2022, one trip reached leatherback limit (2 interactions) and returned to port; no trips reached loggerhead limit (5). Additionally, the Pelagic Plan Team recommended forming a working group to initiate a detailed review of fishery performance under the trip limits and prepare a report for the May 2024 Plan Team meeting. Further, in the shallow-set fishery, trends of interactions with the black-footed albatross has been increasing over time. An analysis of oceanographic factors and fishery distribution has been identified as a need to better understand this trend, and the tori line study is currently underway to improve mitigation measures for the fishery. In the deep-set longline fishery, olive ridley and black-footed albatross interactions have decreased over the last two to three years after four to five years of higher interaction values. Prior analyses showed that higher interactions were likely driven by oceanographic factors. Additionally, the Pelagic Plan Team formed a working group to consider incorporating reporting requirements derived from the recent Biological Opinion for the fishery in future iterations of the annual SAFE report.

OCEANIC AND CLIMATE INDICATORS

In an effort to improve ecosystem-based fishery management, the Council is utilizing a conceptual model that allows for the application of data from specific climate change indicators that may affect marine systems and ultimately the productivity or catchability of managed stocks. While the indicators that the Council monitors may change as the Council continues to improve ecosystem-based management, this 2021 report provides information on the following list of climate and oceanic indicators being tracked:

- Atmospheric Concentration of Carbon Dioxide (CO₂)
- Oceanic pH (at Station ALOHA)
- Oceanic Niño Index (ONI)
- Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO)
- Tropical Cyclones
- Sea Surface Temperature
- Temperature at 200 – 300 m Depth
- Ocean Color (Chlorophyll-*a* concentration)
- North Pacific Subtropical Front (STF)/Transition Zone Chlorophyll Front (TZCF)
- Estimated Median Phytoplankton Size
- Fish Community Size Structure
- Bigeye Tuna Weight-Per-Unit-Effort
- Bigeye Tuna Recruitment Index
- Bigeye Tuna Catch Rate Forecast

Section 3.5.2 provides a description of each of these indicators, a 2021 snapshot of the current conditions accompanied by time series data, and a rationale for how these data may progress ecosystem-based fishery management.

ESSENTIAL FISH HABITAT

NS2 requires that the Council review and revise EFH provisions periodically and to report on this review as part of the annual SAFE report process, with a complete review conducted as recommended by the Secretary at least once every five years. No pelagic EFH reviews were completed in 2022. Non-fishing and cumulative impact components were reviewed from 2016 through 2017 (Minton 2017), and a habitat review for crustaceans in Guam and Hawaii was completed in 2019. The Council expects to amend the EFH for Hawaii precious corals in 2022.

MARINE PLANNING

In 2016, the Council approved a new FEP objective to “consider the implications of spatial management arrangements in Council decision-making”. To monitor implementation of this objective, the 2021 annual SAFE report includes the Council’s spatially-based fishing restrictions (or marine managed areas, MMAs), the goals associated with them, and the most recent evaluation. In addition, to meet EFH and National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) mandates, this annual SAFE report monitors activities of interest to the Council that may contribute to cumulative impact. This includes observing fishing and non-fishing activities and facilities, including aquaculture operations, alternative energy facilities, and military training and testing activities.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Fishery Management Plan (FMP) for Pelagic Fisheries of the Western Pacific Region was implemented by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) on March 23, 1987. The Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council (WPRFMC; the Council) developed the FMP to manage the pelagic resources under the authority of the Magnuson Fishery Conservation and Management Act of 1976 (MSA) and that occur in the United States (U.S.) Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) around American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI), Guam, Hawaii, and the U.S. possessions in the Western Pacific Region (i.e., Johnston Atoll, Kingman Reef, Palmyra Atoll, and Jarvis, Howland, Baker, Midway, and Wake Islands). In 2010, the Council and NMFS implemented the Fishery Ecosystem Plan (FEP) for the U.S. Pacific Island Pelagic Fisheries (Pelagic FEP), which includes management measures and strives to integrate vital ecosystem elements important to decision-making, including social, cultural, and economic dimensions, protected species, habitat considerations, climate change effects, and the implications to fisheries from various spatial uses of the marine environment.

For more information regarding the FEP's objectives, past amendments, and other information, refer to the Pelagic FEP found on Council [website](#) and regulations at [50 CFR 665](#).

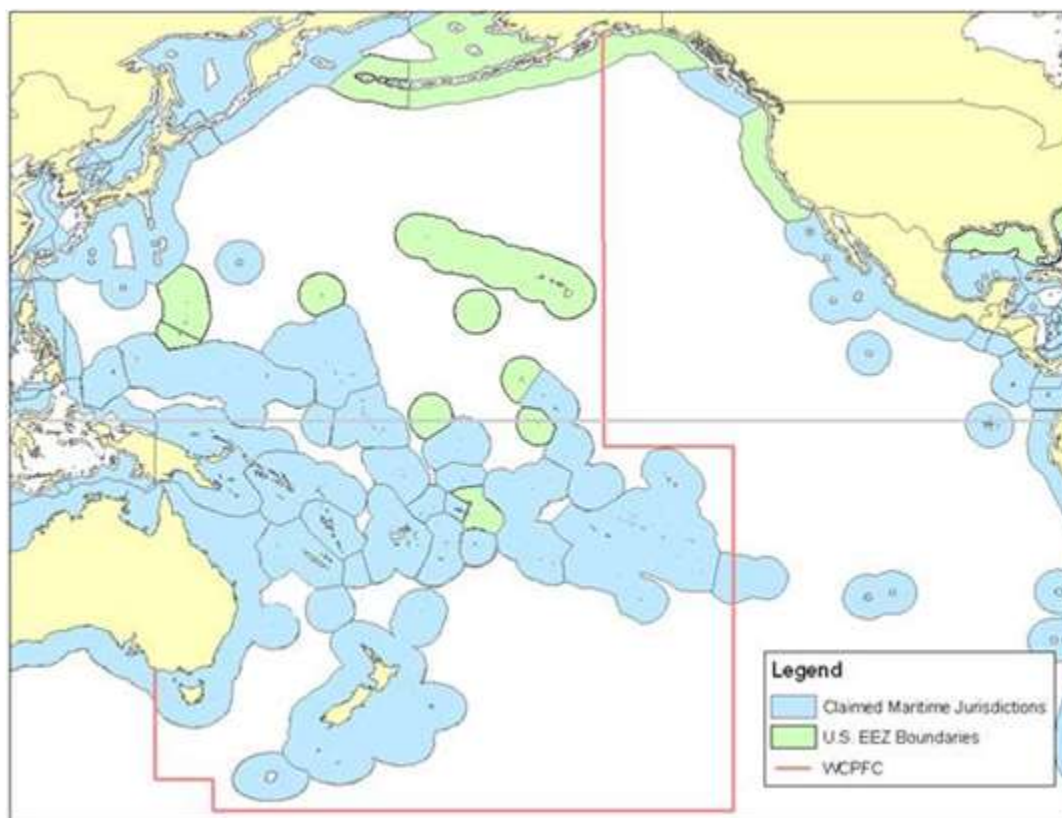


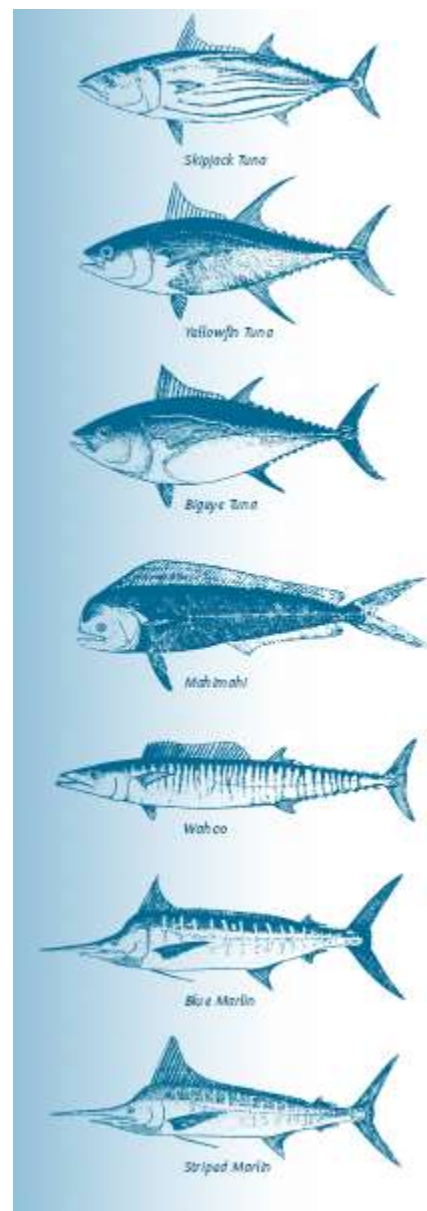
Figure 1. Map of the Western Pacific region

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE SAFE REPORT

Following the Pelagic FEP requirements, the Council has been generating annual reports that assist the Council and NMFS in assessing the status of the stocks, fisheries, and effectiveness of the management regime. In July 2013, NMFS issued a final rule (78 FR 43066) that revised National Standard 2 (NS2) guidelines to manage fisheries using of the best scientific information available (BSIA) and clarify the content and purpose of the Stock Assessment and Fishery Evaluation (SAFE) Report. In 2015, the Council, in partnership with NMFS Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC), local fishery resource management agencies, and the NMFS Pacific Islands Regional Office (PIRO), agreed to revise and expand the contents of future annual reports to include the range of ecosystem elements described above. This year marks the seventh iteration of the SAFE report that combines the requirements of reporting for the FEP with those required under NS2 guidelines.

1.2 PELAGIC MUS LIST

The management unit species (MUS) managed under the Pelagic FEP include large pelagic species such as tunas (tribe Thunnini), billfishes (Istiophoridae and Xiphiidae), and other harvested species with distribution straddling domestic and international waters. The MUS excludes some scombrids found predominantly near land, such as little bonitos (tribe Sardini, e.g., dogtooth tuna, *Gymnosarda unicolor*). Although they are sometimes caught by the FEP-managed fisheries and reported herein, the MUS also exclude all jacks (Carangidae, e.g., rainbow runner, *Elagatis bipinnulata*), all barracudas (Sphyraenidae), all sharks except the following nine species: pelagic thresher shark (*Alopias pelagicus*), bigeye thresher shark (*Alopias superciliosus*), common thresher shark (*Alopias vulpinus*), silky shark (*Carcharhinus falciformis*), oceanic whitetip shark, (*Carcharhinus longimanus*), blue shark (*Prionace glauca*), shortfin mako shark (*Isurus oxyrinchus*), longfin mako shark (*Isurus paucus*), salmon shark (*Lamna ditropis*), and squid (class Cephalopoda) except those listed in Table 1. Although caught frequently, most shark MUS are discarded alive and with fins attached in U.S. fisheries managed under the FEP. Shark finning is illegal in U.S. fisheries.



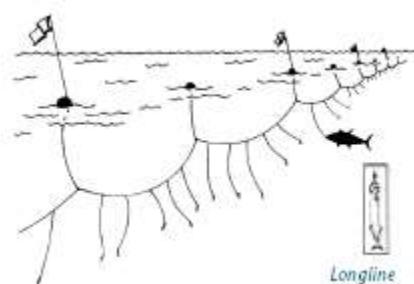
PELAGIC SAFE REPORT
INTRODUCTION

Table 1. Names of U.S. Pacific Island pelagic management unit species

| English Common Name | Scientific Name | Samoan or AS local | Hawaiian or HI local | Chamorroan or Guam local | S. Carolinian or CNMI local | N. Carolinian or CNMI local |
|--------------------------|---|---------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Mahimahi (dolphinfishes) | <i>Coryphaena</i> spp. | Masimasi | Mahimahi | Botague | Sopor | Habwur |
| Wahoo | <i>Acanthocybium solandri</i> | Paala | Ono | Toson | Ngaal | Ngaal |
| Indo-Pacific blue marlin | <i>Makaira mazara</i> | Sa'ula | A'u, Kajiki | Batto' | Taghalaar | Taghalaar |
| Black marlin | <i>Makaira indica</i> | | | | | |
| Striped marlin | <i>Tetrapturus audax</i> | | Nairagi | | | |
| Shortbill spearfish | <i>Tetrapturus angustirostris</i> | Sa'ula | Hebi | Spearfish | | |
| Swordfish | <i>Xiphias gladius</i> | Sa'ula malie | A'u kū, Broadbill, Shutome | Swordfish | Taghalaar | Taghalaar |
| Sailfish | <i>Istiophorus platypterus</i> | Sa'ula | A'u lepe | Guihan layak | Taghalaar | Taghalaar |
| Pelagic thresher shark | <i>Alopias pelagicus</i> | Malie | Mano | Halu'u | Paaw | Paaw |
| Bigeye thresher shark | <i>Alopias superciliosus</i> | | | | | |
| Common thresher shark | <i>Alopias vulpinus</i> | | | | | |
| Silky shark | <i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> | | | | | |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> | | | | | |
| Blue shark | <i>Prionace glauca</i> | | | | | |
| Shortfin mako shark | <i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> | | | | | |
| Longfin mako shark | <i>Isurus paucus</i> | | | | | |
| Salmon shark | <i>Lamna ditropis</i> | | | | | |
| Albacore | <i>Thunnus alalunga</i> | Apakoa | 'Ahi palaha, Tombo | Albacore | Angaraap | Hangaraap |
| Bigeye tuna | <i>Thunnus obesus</i> | Asiasi, To'uo | 'Ahi po'onui, Mabachi | Bigeye tuna | Toghu, Sangir | Toghu, Sangir |
| Yellowfin tuna | <i>Thunnus albacares</i> | Asiasi, To'uo | 'Ahi shibi | 'Ahi, Shibi | Yellowfin tuna | Toghu |
| Northern bluefin tuna | <i>Thunnus thynnus</i> | | Maguro | | | |
| Skipjack tuna | <i>Katsuwonus pelamis</i> | Atu, Faolua, Ga'oga | Aku | Bunita | Angaraap | Hangaraap |
| Kawakawa | <i>Euthynnus affinis</i> | Atualo, Kavalau | Kawakawa | Kawakawa | Asilay | Hailuway |
| Moonfish | <i>Lampris</i> spp | Koko | Opah | | Ligehriher | Ligehriher |
| Oilfish family | Gempylidae | Palu talatala | Walu, Escolar | | Tekinipek | Tekinipek |
| Pomfret | Family Bramidae | Manifi moana | Monchong | | | |
| Other tuna relatives | <i>Auxis</i> spp, <i>Scomber</i> spp; <i>Allothunus</i> spp | (various) | Ke'o ke'o, saba (various) | (various) | (various) | (various) |
| Neon flying squid | <i>Ommastrephes bartamii</i> | | Squid, ika | | | |
| Diamondback squid | <i>Thysanoteuthis rhombus</i> | | Squid, ika | | | |
| Purple flying squid | <i>Sthenoteuthis ovalaniensis</i> | | Squid, ika | | | |

1.3 SUMMARY OF PELAGIC FISHERIES AND GEAR TYPES MANAGED UNDER THE FEP

U.S. pelagic fisheries in the Western Pacific Region are, with the exception of purse seining, primarily variations of hook-and-line fishing. These include longlining, trolling, handlining, and pole-and-line fishing. The U.S. purse-seine fishery is managed under an international convention and is therefore not discussed in this report. In addition, while the U.S. fleet of albacore trollers, based at West Coast ports, occasionally operates in the Western Pacific, this fishery is not directly managed by the Council, and is also not described in this report.

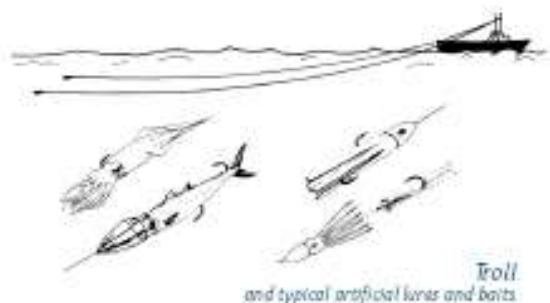


U.S. longline vessels in the Western Pacific Region are based primarily in Hawaii and American Samoa, although Hawaii-based vessels targeting swordfish and bigeye tuna have also fished seasonally out of California. The Hawaii fishery, with 147 active vessels, targets a range of species, with vessels setting shallow longlines to catch swordfish or fishing deep to maximize catches of bigeye tuna. Catches by the Hawaii fleet also include yellowfin tuna, mahimahi, wahoo, blue and striped marlins, opah (moonfish) and monchong (pomfret).

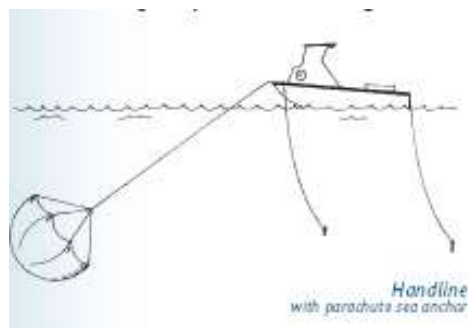
The Hawaii fishery does not freeze its catch, which is sold to the fresh fish and sashimi markets in Hawaii, Japan, and the U.S. mainland.

The American Samoa longline fleet fishes almost exclusively for albacore, which is landed at the cannery in American Samoa. Pelagic landings consist primarily of four tuna species: albacore, yellowfin, bigeye, and skipjack. The pelagic species wahoo, blue marlin, and mahimahi comprise most of the non-tuna landings.

Trolling and, to lesser extent, handline fishing for pelagic species are the largest commercial fisheries in terms of participation, although they catch a relatively modest volume of fish annually compared to longline and purse seine gears. Troll and handline catches are dominated by yellowfin tuna in Hawaii, skipjack tuna in Guam and the CNMI, and skipjack and yellowfin tuna in American Samoa. Other commonly caught troll catches include mahimahi, wahoo, and blue marlin. Most of the troll and handline landings are made by Hawaii vessels.



Troll fishing for pelagic species is the most common recreational (i.e., non-commercial) fishery in the islands of the Western Pacific region. The definition of recreational fishing, however, continues to be problematic in a region where many fishermen who are fishing primarily for recreation may sell their fish to cover their expenses.



The Western and Central Pacific Ocean (WCPO) supports the world's largest tuna fishery, with around with at a total tuna catch of over 3.3 million mt of fish annually. Most of the catch is taken by fleets of longliners and purse seiners from countries such as Japan, Taiwan, United States (including the U.S. purse seine fleet), Korea and China; however, around a third of purse seine vessels operating in the WCPO are flagged to Pacific Island countries and these fleets are growing. Small scale

artisanal longlining is also conducted in Pacific Island countries like Samoa.

Fishing has been a way of life for millennia across the Pacific Island Region. Each of the archipelagos within this region have a rich and fascinating history, where fishing maintains a critical part in the cultural identity and health of the people. Today, fishing is both a modern enterprise, sustaining an important industry and providing fresh seafood to all of the region's inhabitants, as well as an important pastime that maintains connections to the surrounding environment.

1.3.1 AMERICAN SAMOA

The islands of American Samoa are an area of modest productivity relative to areas to the north and west. The region is traversed by two main currents: the southern branch of the westward-flowing South Equatorial Current from June to October and the eastward-flowing South Equatorial Counter Current from November to April. Surface temperatures vary between 27° and 29° C and are highest from January to April. The upper limit of the thermocline in ocean areas is relatively shallow (27° C isotherm at 100 m depth, approximately 328 ft) but the thermocline itself is diffuse (lower boundary at 300 m depth, approximately 984 ft).

1.3.1.1 TRADITIONAL AND HISTORICAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

The pelagic fishery in American Samoa is and has been an important component of the American Samoan domestic economy. American Samoan dependence on fishing undoubtedly goes back as far as the peopled history of the islands of the Samoan archipelago, about 3,500 years ago. Many aspects of the culture have changed in contemporary times, but American Samoans have retained a traditional social system that continues to strongly influence and depend upon the culture of fishing. Centered around an extended family ('*aiga*) and allegiance to a hierarchy of chiefs (*matai*), this system is rooted in the economics and politics of communally-held village land. It has effectively resisted Euro-American colonial influence and has contributed to a contemporary cultural resiliency unique in the Pacific Island Region.

American Samoa is a landing and canning port for the U.S. purse seine fishery for skipjack and yellowfin tuna, with the largest catch of all U.S. pelagic fisheries in the region. The U.S. longline fishery for South Pacific albacore is conducted primarily in the American Samoa EEZ and comprises the second-largest of the U.S. longline fisheries in the FEP (after Hawaii). The ecosystem based fishery management approach to regulation under the MSA has focused on the socioeconomics of allocating catch and access to EEZ areas by fleet sectors and creating domestic regulations to monitor and mitigate longline fishery impacts to sea turtles and other protected species. American Samoa is a participating U.S. territory in the Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC), which status exempts it from certain WCPFC measures

so as not to restrict responsible fishery development. The Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC) establishes conservation and management measures that NMFS implements under its authorities, including the MSA.

Prior to the mid-1990s, the pelagic fishery was largely a troll fishery. Horizontal longlining was introduced to the territory by Western Samoan fishermen in 1995. Local fishers have found longlining worthwhile as they land more with less effort and use less gasoline for trips. Initially the vessels used for longlining were “alias”, locally built, twin-hulled (wood with fiberglass or aluminum) vessels about 30 ft. long, powered by 40 horsepower gasoline outboard engines. Larger monohull vessels capable of longer multi-day trips began joining the longline fleet soon after the alias. The number of alias participating in the fishery decreased to below three by 1995 and due to confidentiality requirements cannot be directly reported. Landings from these vessels are added to the total landings. The number of commercial troll vessels has also declined.

Vessels longer than 50 ft are restricted from fishing within 50 nm of Tutuila, Manu‘a, Swains Island and Rose Atoll (see Section 3.6 for details). Albacore is the primary species caught longlining, with the bulk of the longline catch sold to the Pago Pago canneries. Remaining catch is sold to stores, restaurants, and local residents or donated for customary trade or traditional functions. Pago Pago Harbor on the island of Tutuila is a regional base for the transshipment and processing of tuna taken by domestic fleets from other South Pacific nations, distant-water longline fleets, and purse seine fleets. Purse seine vessels land skipjack, yellowfin and other tunas, and a small portion of albacore.

1.3.1.2 CURRENT PELAGIC FISHERIES

The small-scale longline fishery is nearly defunct. Most participants in the small-scale domestic longline fishery were indigenous American Samoans with vessels under 50 ft in length, of which the remaining vessels are *alia* boats under 40 ft in length. The motivation for American Samoa’s commercial fishermen to shift from troll or handline gear to longline gear in the mid-1990s was the fishing success of 28-foot alia catamarans that engaged in longline fishing in the EEZ around Independent Samoa. Following this example, the fishermen in American Samoa deployed a short monofilament longline, with an average of 350 hooks per set, from a hand-powered reel. An estimated 90 percent of the crews working in the American Samoa small-scale alia longline fleet were from Independent Samoa. Like the conventional monohull longline fishery (see below) the predominant catch from the small-scale fishery has been albacore, which is marketed to the local tuna canneries.

American Samoa’s domestic longline fishery expanded rapidly in 2001. Much of the growth was due to the entry of monohull vessels larger than 50 ft in length. The number of permitted longline vessels in this sector increased from seven in 2000 to 38 by 2003. Of these, five permits for vessels between 50.1 ft – 70 ft, and five permits for vessels larger than 70 ft were believed to be held by indigenous American Samoans as of March 21, 2002. Economic barriers have prevented more substantial indigenous participation in the large-scale sector of the longline fishery. The lack of capital appears to be the primary constraint to substantial indigenous participation in this sector. In 2021, there were 11 active longline vessels, identical to 2020. Poor economic conditions have plagued the large vessel fleet for several years and coupled with impacts from the COVID-19 pandemic, the lowest effort and catch was observed in 2020 since the start of the fishery. Both effort and catch slightly rebounded in 2021.

While the smallest (≤ 40 ft) vessels average 350 hooks per set, vessels over 50 ft can set five to six times more hooks and have a greater fishing ranges and capacity for storing fish (from eight to 40 mt on a larger vessel as compared to less than two mt on a small-scale vessel). Larger vessels are also outfitted with hydraulically-powered reels to set and haul mainline, as well as modern electronic equipment for navigation, communications and fish finding. Most are presently being operated to freeze albacore onboard, rather than to land chilled fish.

From October 1985 to the present, catch and effort data in American Samoa troll and handline fisheries have been collected through a creel survey that includes subsistence and recreational fishing, as well as commercial fishing. However, differentiating commercial fishing from non-commercial activity has been difficult, and there have been recent focuses on non-target longline catches that are sold to the local community instead of the cannery.

Recreational fishing underwent a renaissance in American Samoa with the establishment of the Pago Pago Game Fishing Association (PPGFA), founded in 2003 by a group of recreational anglers. The motivation to form the PPGFA was the desire to host regular fishing competitions. Recreational fishing vessels range from 10 ft single engine dinghies to 35 ft twin diesel engine cabin cruisers. The PPGFA has annually hosted international tournaments over the past 15 years, including the Steinlager I'a Lapo'a Game Fishing Tournament (a qualifying event for the International Game Fish Association's Offshore World Championship in Cabo San Lucas, Mexico). The recreational vessels use anchored fish aggregating devices (FADs) extensively, and, during tournaments, venture to the various outer banks which include the South Bank (35 miles south), North East Bank (35 miles northeast), South East bank (37 miles southeast), 2% bank (29 miles east-southeast), and East Bank (24 miles east).

There was no full-time regular charter fishery in American Samoa similar to those in Hawaii or Guam prior to 2015, however, Pago Pago Marine Charters began operating a full-time charter fishery since then.

Estimates of the volume and value of recreational fishing in American Samoa are not precise. A volume approximation of boat based recreational fishing is generated in this annual report based on the annual sampling of catches, conducted by the American Samoa Department of Marine and Wildlife Resources (DMWR) and provided to NMFS PIFSC Fisheries Research and Monitoring Division (FRMD). While boat-based recreational catches were as high as over 46,000 lb in the 2000s, total non-commercial catch was estimated to be over 97,000 lb in 2019. It is likely that non-commercial fishing data in recent years have been affected by impacts associated with the COVID-19 pandemic.

While no permits have been issued to date, non-commercial fishing and recreational charter fishing is permitted within the Rose Atoll Marine National Monument. These permits are available only to community residents of American Samoa or charter businesses established legally under the laws of American Samoa.

1.3.2 COMMONWEALTH OF THE NORTHERN MARIANAS ISLANDS

Generally, the major surface current affecting the Mariana Archipelago is the North Equatorial Current, which flows westward through the archipelago, however, the Subtropical Counter Current affects the Northern Islands and generally flows in an easterly direction. Depending on the season, sea surface temperatures near the Northern Mariana Islands vary between 80.9° – 84.9° Fahrenheit. The mixed layer extends to between depths of 300 – 400 ft.

1.3.2.1 TRADITIONAL AND HISTORICAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

Fishery resources have played a central role in shaping the social, cultural, and economic fabric of the CNMI. The aboriginal peoples indigenous to these islands relied on seafood as their principal source of protein and developed exceptional fishing skills. Later immigrants to the islands from East and Southeast Asia also possessed a strong fishing tradition. Under the MSA, the CNMI is defined as a fishing community.

1.3.2.2 CURRENT PELAGIC FISHERIES

The CNMI's pelagic fisheries occur mainly from the island of Farallon de Medinilla (FDM) south to the island of Rota. Trolling is the primary fishing method utilized in the pelagic fishery. The pelagic fishing fleet consists mostly of vessels less than 24 ft in length, which usually have a limited 20-mile travel radius from Saipan. There were an estimated 2,973 trolling trips in 2022, representing a decrease of over 3% from 2021.

The primary target and most marketable species for the pelagic fleet is skipjack tuna (approximately 56% of 2022 landings). Schools of skipjack tuna have historically been common in nearshore waters, providing an opportunity to catch numerous fish with a minimum of travel time and fuel costs. Skipjack is readily consumed by the local populace and restaurants, primarily as sashimi. Yellowfin tuna and mahimahi are also easily marketable, but seasonal, species. During their seasonal runs, these fish are usually found close to shore and provide easy targets for the local fishermen. In addition to the economic advantages of being nearshore and their relative ease of capture, these species are widely accepted by all ethnic groups, which has kept market demand fairly high.

In late 2007, Crystal Seas became the first established longline fishing company in the CNMI to begin its operation out of the island of Rota. However, by 2009, Crystal Seas had become Pacific Seafood and relocated its operation to Saipan. In 2011, there were four licensed longline fishing vessels stationed in the CNMI, but these vessels found it difficult to market their catch and did not perform well. By 2014, there were no active longliners in the CNMI, although a few of the original vessels were experimenting with other types of fishing with limited success.

1.3.3 GUAM

1.3.3.1 TRADITIONAL AND HISTORICAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

Fishing in Guam continues to be important not only in terms of contributing to the subsistence needs of the Chamorro people, but also in terms of preserving their history and identity. Fishing assists in perpetuating traditional knowledge of marine resources and maritime heritage of the Chamorro culture.

1.3.3.2 CURRENT PELAGIC FISHERIES

Pelagic fishing vessels based in Guam are classified into two general groups: (1) distant-water purse seiners and longliners that fish outside Guam's EEZ and transship through the island; and (2) small, primarily recreational, trolling boats that are either towed to boat launch sites or berthed in marinas and fish only within local waters within Guam's EEZ or on some occasions in the adjacent EEZ of the Northern Mariana Islands. This annual report primarily covers the local, Guam-based, small-boat pelagic fishery.

Landings from Guam fisheries primarily consist of five major species: mahimahi (*Coryphaena hippurus*), wahoo (*Acanthocybium solandri*), skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*), yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), and Pacific blue marlin (*Makaira mazara*). Other minor pelagic species caught include rainbow runner (*Elagatis bipinnulatus*), great barracuda (*Sphyrna barracuda*), kawakawa (*Euthynnus affinis*), dogtooth tuna (*Gymnosarda unicolor*), double-lined mackerel (*Grammatorcynus bilineatus*), oilfish (*Ruvettus pretiosus*), and three less common species of barracuda.

The number of boats involved in Guam's pelagic or open ocean fishery has gradually increased from about 200 vessels in 1982. There were 449 boats active in Guam's domestic pelagic fishery in 2022. A majority of the fishing boats are less than 10 m (33 ft) in length and are usually owner-operated by fishermen who earn a living outside of fishing. Most fishermen sell a portion of their catch, and it is difficult to make a distinction between recreational, subsistence, and commercial fishers. A small, but significant, segment of Guam's pelagic fishery is made up of marina-berthed charter boats that are operated primarily by full-time captains and crews.

1.3.4 HAWAII

The archipelago's position in the Pacific Ocean lies within the clockwise rotating North Pacific Subtropical Gyre, extending from the northern portion of the North Equatorial Current into the region south of the Subtropical High, where the water moves eastward in the North Pacific Current. At the pass between the Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) and the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (NWHI), there is often a westward flow from the region of Kauai along the lee side of the lower NWHI. This flow, the North Hawaiian Ridge Current, is extremely variable and can also be absent at times. The analysis of 10 years of shipboard acoustic Doppler current profiler data collected by the NOAA Ship *Townsend Cromwell* shows mean flow through the ridge between Oahu and Nihoa, and extending to a depth of 200 m.

Embedded in the mean east-to-west flow are an abundance of mesoscale eddies created from a mixture of wind, current, and sea floor interactions. The eddies, which can rotate either clockwise or counterclockwise, have important biological impacts. For example, eddies create vertical fluxes, with regions of divergence (i.e., upwelling) where the thermocline shoals and deep nutrients are pumped into surface waters enhancing phytoplankton production, and also regions of convergence (i.e., downwelling) where the thermocline deepens. Sea surface temperatures around the Hawaiian Archipelago experience seasonal variability, but generally vary between 18° - 28° C (64° - 82° F) with colder waters occurring more often in the NWHI.

A significant source of inter-annual physical and biological variation around Hawaii are El Niño and La Niña events. During an El Niño, the normal easterly trade winds weaken, resulting in a weakening of the westward equatorial surface current and a deepening of the thermocline in the central and eastern equatorial Pacific. Water in the central and eastern equatorial Pacific becomes warmer and more vertically stratified with a substantial drop in surface chlorophyll.

Physical and biological oceanographic changes have also been observed on decadal time scales. These low frequency changes, termed regime shifts, can impact the entire ocean ecosystem. Recent regime shifts in the North Pacific have occurred in 1976 and 1989, with both physical and biological (including fishery) impacts. In the late 1980s, an ecosystem shift from high carrying capacity to low carrying capacity occurred in the NWHI. The shift was associated with the weakening of the Aleutian Low Pressure System (North Pacific) and the Subtropical Counter

Current. The ecosystem effects of this shift were observed in lower nutrient and productivity levels and decreased abundance of numerous species in the NWHI including the spiny lobster, the Hawaiian monk seal, various reef fish, the red-footed booby, and the red-tailed tropic bird.

1.3.4.1 TRADITIONAL AND HISTORICAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

In old Hawaii, fishing in nearshore waters (from the shoreline to the edges of the reefs and where there happens to be no reef, to a distance of nearly a mile from the beach) was regulated by the chiefs and closed seasons were determined by the life history of specific organisms. Areas known as nurseries were not used for fishing. This understanding of natural forces has been captured in the Hawaiian moon calendar, which incorporates the tides and seasons to explain the cycles of scarcity and abundance and provide guidance on what activities should occur at what times of the year. Deep sea fishing (beyond the reefs) was available and open to everyone and conducted based on annual/seasonal weather conditions. Those who fished in the deep ocean sought out these fishing grounds and kept them secret (Kahaulelio 2006). Fish caught in the deep sea included skipjack (aku), dolphinfish (mahimahi), billfish (a‘u), tuna (ahi), and other pelagics.

1.3.4.2 CURRENT PELAGIC FISHERIES

Hawaii’s pelagic fisheries, which include longlining, MHI troll and handline, offshore handline, and the aku boat (pole and line) fisheries, are the State’s largest and most valuable fishery sector. The target species are tunas and billfish, but a variety of other species are also important. Collectively, these pelagic fisheries harvested approximately 30.4 million lb of commercial landings with a total ex-vessel value of \$80.2 million in 2020. The deep-set longline fishery was the largest of all commercial pelagic fisheries in Hawaii and represented 89% of the total commercial pelagic catch and ex-vessel revenue. The MHI troll was the second largest fishery in Hawaii and accounted for 5% of the catch and revenue. The shallow-set longline, MHI handline, aku boat, offshore handline fisheries, and other gear types made up the remainder.

The largest component of the pelagic catch was tunas, which comprised 77% of the total in 2022. Bigeye tuna alone accounted for 65% of the tunas and 50% of all the pelagic catch. Billfish catch made up 14% of the total catch in 2022. Swordfish was the largest of these, at 48% of the billfish and 7% of the total catch. Catches of other PMUS represented 9% of the total catch in 2022 with ono being the largest component at 30% of the other PMUS and 3% of the total catch.

The Hawaii longline fishery is by far the most important economically, with the deep-set fishery sector accounting for about 82% percent of the estimated ex-vessel value of the total commercial fish landings in the State in 2022. In 2017, it is estimated that the commercial fishing and seafood industries in Hawaii generated \$900.6 million in sales, \$262 million in income, and \$402.2 million in value-added impacts while supporting 9,827 full- and part-time jobs (NMFS 2021a). In 2018, these industries supported 8,086 full- and part-time jobs and generated \$776.2 million in sales, \$233.4 million in income, and \$343.6 million in value-added impacts (NMFS 2021b). More recently, in 2019, 7,693 jobs were supported by the industries, which generated \$786 million in sales, \$229.5 million in income, and \$340.9 million in value-added impacts (NMFS 2022).

Recreational fisheries are also extremely important in the State of Hawaii economically, socially, and culturally. The total estimated pelagic recreational fisheries production in 2020 was nearly 14.5 million lb. The number of small vessels in Hawaii declined to approximately 11,000 in 2018 since a peak of over 16,000 vessels in 2008. Boat-based anglers took 632,088 fishing trips in

2019, with only 7,744 designated charter vessel trips. Although unsold or not entering the typical commercial channels for fish sales, the total estimated value of the recreational catch was approximately \$20 million in 2018 based on an average of \$3.00/lb provided by PIFSC FRMD.

1.3.5 PACIFIC REMOTE ISLAND AREA

Baker Island lies within the westward flowing South Equatorial Current. Baker Island also experiences an eastward flowing Equatorial Undercurrent that causes upwelling of nutrient and plankton rich waters on the west side of the island (Brainard et al. 2005). Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Baker Island are often near 30° C. Although the depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Baker Island is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 100 m.

Howland Island lies within the margins of the eastward flowing North Equatorial Counter Current and the margins of the westward flowing South Equatorial Current. Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Baker Island are often near 30° C. Although the depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Howland Island is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 70 m – 90 m.

Jarvis Island lies within the South Equatorial Current which runs in a westerly direction. Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Jarvis Island are often 28°- 30° C. Although depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Jarvis Island is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 80 m.

Palmyra Atoll and Kingman Reef lie in the North Equatorial Counter-current, which flow in a west to east direction. Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Palmyra Atoll are often 27°- 30° C. Although the depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Kingman Reef is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 80 m.

Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Johnston Atoll are often 27°- 30° C. Although the depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Johnston Atoll is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 80 m.

Sea surface temperatures of pelagic EEZ waters around Wake Island are often 27°- 30° C. Although the depth of the mixed layer in the pelagic waters around Wake Atoll is seasonally variable, the average mixed layer depth is around 80 m.

1.3.5.1 TRADITIONAL AND HISTORICAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

As many tropical pelagic species (e.g., skipjack tuna) are highly migratory, the fishing fleets targeting them often travel great distances. Although the EEZ waters around Johnston Atoll and Palmyra Atoll are over 750 nm and 1000 nm (respectively) away from Honolulu, the Hawaii longline fleet does seasonally fish in those areas. For example, the EEZ around Palmyra is visited by Hawaii-based longline vessels targeting yellowfin tuna, whereas at Johnston Atoll, albacore is often caught in greater numbers than yellowfin or bigeye tuna. Similarly, the U.S. purse seine fleet also targets pelagic species (primarily skipjack tuna) in the EEZs around some Pacific Remote Island Area (PRIA), specifically, the equatorial areas of Howland, Baker, and Jarvis Islands. The combined amount of fish harvested from these areas from the U.S. purse seine on average is less than five percent of their total annual harvest.

1.3.5.2 CURRENT PELAGIC FISHERIES

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) prohibits fishing within the Howland Island, Jarvis Island, and Baker Island National Wildlife Refuge boundaries. Currently, Jarvis Island, Howland Island, and Baker Island are uninhabited. The USFWS manages Johnston Atoll as a National Wildlife Refuge but does allow some recreational fishing within the Refuge boundary.

1.4 ADMINISTRATIVE AND REGULATORY ACTIONS

This section describes NMFS management actions for the pelagic fisheries in the Pacific Islands Region over the course of 2022.

On March 24, 2022, NMFS issued an experimental fishing permit (EFP) to the Hawaii Longline Association (HLA) to evaluate the risk of seabird interactions in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery when setting fishing gear one hour before and one hour after local sunset and using tori lines instead of blue-dyed bait and strategic offal discharge as seabird mitigation measures (87 FR 15383). The intent of the EFP is to conduct a preliminary evaluation of alternative methods of discouraging seabird interactions while providing operational flexibility during setting in the shallow-set longline fishery. The permit is valid until September 24, 2023, or for a maximum of 80 fishing sets, whichever occurs first, unless revoked, suspended, or modified.

On April 13, 2022, NMFS issued temporary specifications to extend the effective date of Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC) intersessional decisions related to the COVID-19 pandemic on purse seine observer coverage and at-sea transshipment observers (87 FR 21812).

On April 28, 2022, NMFS published a final rule (87 FR 25153) to prohibit the use of wire leaders in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery and require the removal of fishing gear from any oceanic whitetip shark caught in the region's domestic longline fisheries. The rule is intended to increase post-hooking survival of oceanic whitetip sharks. The rule became effective on May 31, 2022.

On August 29, 2022, NMFS announced a valid specified fishing agreement between American Samoa and the HLA (87 FR 52704). The agreement allocated up to 1,500 metric tons (t) of American Samoa's 2022 bigeye tuna limit to U.S. longline fishing vessels identified in the agreement. The agreement supports the long-term sustainability of fishery resources of the U.S. Pacific Islands and fisheries development in American Samoa. The specified agreement was valid as of July 20, 2022. The start date for attributing 2022 bigeye tuna catch to American Samoa under the agreement was August 25, 2022.

On December 7, 2022, NMFS announced a valid specified fishing agreement between the CNMI and the HLA (87 FR 74991). The agreement allocated up to 1,500 metric tons of the CNMI's 2022 bigeye tuna limit to U.S. longline fishing vessels identified in the agreement. The agreement supports the long-term sustainability of fishery resources of the U.S. Pacific Islands and fisheries development in the CNMI. The specified agreement was valid as of July 20, 2022. The start date for attributing 2022 bigeye tuna catch to the CNMI under the agreement was November 21, 2022.

1.5 TOTAL PELAGIC LANDINGS IN THE WESTERN PACIFIC REGION FOR ALL FISHERIES

A summary of the 2022 total pelagic landings in the Western Pacific and the change between 2021 and 2022 are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Total pelagic landings (lb) in the Western Pacific Region in 2022 and percent change from the previous year

| Species | American Samoa | | | CNMI | | | Guam | | | Hawaii | | |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| | 2021 lb | 2022 lb | % Change | 2021 lb | 2022 lb | % Change | 2021 lb | 2022 lb | % Change | 2021 lb | 2022 lb | % Change |
| Swordfish | 6,169 | 5,669 | -8.1 | - | - | - | 0 | 0 | - | 1,516,976 | 2,047,820 | 35.0 |
| Blue marlin | 76,001 | 104,196 | 37.1 | 3,020 | 0 | -100.0 | 30,967 | 8,700 | -71.9 | 1,100,716 | 1,239,436 | 12.6 |
| Striped marlin | 6,811 | 3,990 | -41.4 | - | - | - | 0 | 0 | - | 570,807 | 644,924 | 13.0 |
| Other billfish* | 3,847 | 3,858 | 0.3 | 0 | 3,449 | - | 0 | 1,046 | - | 339,428 | 322,324 | -5.0 |
| Mahimahi | 2,341 | 12,826 | 447.9 | 30,264 | 58,049 | 91.8 | 31,235 | 94,491 | 202.5 | 750,266 | 775,422 | 3.4 |
| Wahoo | 36,184 | 25,826 | -28.6 | 5,343 | 20,646 | 286.4 | 22,567 | 57,003 | 152.6 | 1,173,932 | 667,081 | -43.2 |
| Opah (moonfish) | 1,531 | 938 | -38.7 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 844,990 | 526,449 | -37.7 |
| Sharks (whole wt.) | 0 | 0 | - | 0 | 0 | - | 0 | 0 | - | 16,973 | 9,873 | -41.8 |
| Albacore | 1,842,039 | 2,365,584 | 28.4 | - | - | - | 0 | 0 | - | 533,800 | 456,745 | -14.4 |
| Bigeye tuna | 65,789 | 41,818 | -36.4 | - | - | - | 0 | 0 | - | 16,129,069 | 14,688,062 | -8.9 |
| Bluefin tuna | 238 | 0 | -100.0 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2,079 | 3,290 | 58.3 |
| Skipjack tuna | 129,118 | 88,708 | -31.3 | 307,492 | 132,152 | -57.0 | 665,717 | 419,431 | -37.0 | 494,100 | 460,050 | -6.9 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 475,028 | 326,319 | -31.3 | 26,144 | 14,224 | -45.6 | 92,834 | 34,050 | -63.3 | 6,970,137 | 7,124,349 | 2.2 |
| Other pelagics** | 3,035 | 1,828 | -39.8 | 16,229 | 8,920 | -45.0 | 15,052 | 15,116 | 0.4 | 581,864 | 600,087 | 3.1 |
| Total | 2,648,131 | 2,981,560 | 12.6 | 388,492 | 237,440 | -38.9 | 858,372 | 629,837 | -26.6 | 31,025,137 | 29,565,913 | -4.7 |

Note: Total Pelagic Landings based on commercial reports and/or creel surveys. % change based on 2021 landings relative to 2022 landings. Hawaii data reflect commercial reports only.

*Other billfish include black marlin, spearfish, and sailfish.

**Other pelagics include: kawakawa, unknown tunas, pelagic fishes (dogtooth tuna, rainbow runner, barracudas), oilfish, and pomfret. Of these, only kawakawa, unknown tunas, oilfish and pomfret are Pelagic MUS. While other tables in Chapter 2 excluded or separated out non-MUS, data could not accurately provide individual landings data for these species presented in this total landings table.

1.6 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

At its May 2023 meeting, the Pelagic Plan Team:

1. Recommended the FDCRC to discuss and recommend increasing staff capacity and retention for the territorial fishery agencies.
2. Recommended PIFSC to look at the effect of protected species (prioritizing loggerhead sea turtles and leatherback sea turtles) population trends on predicted interactions and impacts of climate/environmental drivers.
3. Recommended that the Council form a working group including Pelagic Plan Team members T. Todd Jones, Rob Ahrens, Lynn Russell, Melissa Snover, Russell Ito, and Council staff, to initiate a detailed review of fishery performance under the loggerhead and leatherback turtle trip interaction limits in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery including data since implementation of the trip limits in September 2020 through the 2022-2023 fishing season. The working group should take into account loggerhead and leatherback turtle interaction patterns as they relate to oceanographic factors, potential effect of population trends on interaction trends, and industry feedback received at the November 2022 EBFM Spatial Decision Making Workshop. The working group should provide a report to the Pelagic Plan Team at the May 2024 meeting.
4. Recommended that PIFSC SEES continue to pursue funding to conduct cost-earnings surveys at their regular five-year intervals to better inform socioeconomic data summaries.
5. Recommended the Action Team to prioritize analyzing regulations for multi-year longline bigeye tuna catch and allocations to have a single unified agreement between U.S. vessels and Territories, noting the complexities of tracking attributions of fishing vessels to territorial allocations and RFMO requirements of charter arrangements being singular.
6. Recommended that the Council request NOAA, in its evaluation of the Pacific Remote Island Area sanctuary designation, to evaluate the holistic impacts of prohibiting tuna fishing 50 to 200 nm of the island areas and that resuming sustainable fishing be made an objective in the designation.
7. Endorsed Pelagic Research Plan Priorities to be:
 - Improving knowledge on life history, stock structure, distributions, and connectivity of pelagic management unit species throughout Pacific
 - Understanding causality of fishery performance for Western Pacific Region pelagic fisheries, including incidentally caught species
 - Effects of spatial closures and large-scale marine protected areas on fisheries, island communities, and population dynamics on target and non-target species
 - Mitigation of depredation and development of deterrents to reduce depredation in U.S. Pacific Island fisheries.
 - Advancing ecosystem-based fisheries management
 - Impact of pelagic fisheries on sustaining community resiliency; and recommends Council staff to deliver a draft plan to the June 2023 SSC and Council.

2 DATA MODULES

2.1 AMERICAN SAMOA

2.1.1 DATA SOURCES

This report contains the most recently available information on American Samoa's pelagic fisheries, as compiled from data generated by the Department of Marine and Wildlife Resources (DMWR) through a program established in conjunction with the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC) and supported in part through funding from the Interjurisdictional Fisheries Act (IFA). Purse seine and non-U.S. vessel landings are not included in this module but are discussed in general in the International module (see Section 2.6).

Prior to 1985, only commercial landings were monitored. From October 1985 to the present, data have been collected through the Tutuila and Manu'a creel survey program to include subsistence, recreational, as well as commercial fishing. Surveyors have noted that fishermen may not accurately report the number of fish released at sea, although the troll fishery in American Samoa has not been known to release fish. However, the Pago Pago Gamefishing Association, a recreational troll fishery, catches and releases blue marlin.

In September 1990, a commercial purchase system (i.e., receipt book) was instituted requiring all businesses that buy fish commercially in American Samoa, with an exception for the canneries, to submit a copy of their purchase receipts to the DMWR. In January 1996, NMFS implemented a federal longline logbook system. All longline fishermen are required to obtain a federal permit and to submit logs containing detailed data on each of their sets and the resulting catch, including the number of hooks set and number of fish released as bycatch. Confidentiality requirements prohibit providing a breakdown of the catch or effort from alia and monohull longline vessels in recent years. Changes to the data collection and analysis methodology have occurred periodically and are described in previous annual reports. No changes to the data collection or analysis were made in 2020, except that the number of vendors participating in the commercial purchase system decreased.

Participation (i.e., number of boats) is determined through both logbook entries and creel interviews. Effort (i.e., number of trips, hooks) is determined by direct reporting for longline trips, but is indirectly calculated for trolling trips, based on total pounds landed (reported), and average hourly catch rate and duration for trip (from creel interviews). Since 2009 (the year of the tsunami), only the longline logbook database has been useful in determining the number of active boats. Prior to that, DMWR's boat-based creel survey data were also used to assess whether or not longline vessels were active to include information from alia longline vessels that did not frequent the canneries and exclude alias that exclusively conducted bottomfish fishing and/or trolling.

DMWR implemented a fuel subsidy program from 2015 to 2018 that required DMWR to meet fishers at a designated time and location for mandatory surveys in order to receive fuel subsidies. This extended the creel survey schedule and detracted from the random sampling design at other times of the day. The fuel was dispensed to vessel owners, including those who rent their vessels to fishermen. The new program caused changes in fishing behavior that may have impacted catch estimates. Generally, more fuel was used and there were longer and more frequent trips,

but otherwise, catch per unit effort (CPUE) and species composition were not affected. There was an increase in the number of trolling trips and trip length that may have affected the relative amount of pelagic species in the catch.

Average weight (pounds) per fish is calculated directly from creel-weighted fish sampled over the year. In the past, cannery fish weight was determined based on a length to weight conversion from cannery sampling data, since longline boats have been landing their catches gilled and gutted since 1999. However, the cannery sampling program was discontinued in 2015, so those average weight data are no longer available. There is no cannery sampling data available since 2016. Therefore, PIFSC used proxies to estimate the weight and value of fish landings for the longline fishery in American Samoa.

For estimated weights, the current summaries are based on the best available average weight data for 2020, which is from DMWR's creel surveys. It should be noted that the weight of fish from the small boats is somewhat smaller than fish caught on the larger oceangoing vessels, contributing to a somewhat lower weight estimate for the fishery. Over the course of 2016, the Pacific Island Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC) Fisheries Research and Monitoring Division's (FRMD) International Fisheries Program (IFP) began estimating the average weight of fish kept for the longline fishery from observer data. This alternative source provides trip-level average weights for vessels with observers. These weights will be more representative of the longline fishery, but they will not be available for trips that do not carry observers. The protocol for handling unobserved trips is being developed by IFP, which will provide the data for this report in future years, but the information is not yet available. The information will be provided in the Regional Fishery Management Organization (RFMO) report for US Pacific longline fisheries.

Another item lost with the discontinuation of the longline cannery sampling program by the Pacific Island Regional Office (PIRO) in Pago Pago was data on the proportion of longline fish (by species) sold to the cannery versus local market and village/take home (given, not sold). While the cannery buys a much higher volume of fish, their prices are low. The lesser amount of fish sold to the markets and local restaurants garners a higher price. Another portion of the catch is given away or taken home. In the absence of a cannery sampling program in 2016, PIFSC had to apply a number of estimates. For the top five cannery species (albacore, skipjack, yellowfin and big eye tuna and wahoo) the assumption of 100% sold to the cannery was applied. For other species also previously sampled at the cannery, for which a large percentage are not sold, proxy values from previous years were applied. The net result of using lower average weights (from creel surveys) and lower percentages sold to the market (or sold period) is likely to be responsible in part for a decrease in estimated weight and value of the catch sold.

Total landings data cover all fish caught and brought back to shore, whether it enters the commercial market or not. Commercial landings cover the portion of the total landings that was sold both to the canneries and other smaller local business. The difference between total landings and commercial landings is assumed to be the recreational/subsistence component of the fishery.

This module was prepared by DMWR and PIFSC Fisheries Research and Monitoring Division (FRMD) and was reviewed by the Pelagic Plan Team (PPT), Scientific and Statistical Committee (SSC), and the Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council (WPRFMC; the Council).

2.1.2 SUMMARY OF AMERICAN SAMOAN PELAGIC FISHERY

Landings. The estimated annual pelagic landings have varied from 2.0 to 6.1 million lb between 2013 and 2022. The 2022 landings were approximately 2.98 million pounds, which is slightly up from 2.6 million lb in 2021. There also has been a steady increase since 2020 (Figure 4). Pelagic landings consist mainly of four tuna species (albacore, yellowfin, skipjack, and bigeye), which, when combined with other tuna species, made up 95% of the total landings. Albacore made up 84% of the tuna species in 2022. Blue marlin, wahoo and mahimahi make up most of the non-tuna species landing.

Longline Effort. There were 11 vessels known to be fishing in the waters of American Samoa in 2022, one less than in 2021 and the same number in 2020 according to the PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division permit program. The vessel size classes have been changed from four to two: small (< 40 feet) and large vessels (> 60 feet). There were 11 active large vessels and no active small vessels in 2022. There have been zero active small longline vessels since 2020. The 11 vessels that fished in 2022 made 42 trips (averaging 3.8 trips/vessel), deployed 1,219 sets, (110 sets/vessel) using 2.6 million hooks and 0 lightsticks (Table 5). All other fishing effort indicators indicate a declining longline fishery: the number of boats were the same in 2022 and 2021 but still low; the number hooks set increased from 2021 but still an all-time low; the number of sets; and the number of longline sets decreased from 2021 and is an all-time low. All fishing effort indicators also indicate a declining trolling fishery. The number of boats which was 9 in 2022 increased from 5 in 2021 on a long-term decline since 2014. The number of troll trips precipitously declined from 100 in 2021 to 50 in 2022 and the lowest since 2013. There were 205 effective trolling hours in 2022 which is the lowest since 2013. A certain degree of the decline in 2022 can be attributed to the fisheries impact of COVID-19 social restrictions.

Longline CPUE. The total pelagic catch rate by all longline vessels increased by 4.5 fish/1,000 hooks in 2022 to 19.1 fish/1,000 hooks, an increase of 34% and below average CPUE of 20 fish/1,000 hooks reported since 2006. The tuna catch rate by longliners also increased by 4.5 fish/1,000 hooks in 2021 to 17.9 fish/1,000 hooks and the highest catch rate since 2013 (17.9 fish/1,000 hooks in 2015 and 2022). The catch rate for albacore increased by 5.4 fish/1,000 hooks in 2022 to 14.6 fish/1,000 hooks. This is the highest catch rate since 2013, slightly lower than in 2012 and 2009 (4.8 fish/1,000 hooks) but still lower than the highest records of 18.4 fish/1,000 hooks in 2006 and 2007.

Lb-Per-Hour Trolling. Trolling catch rates decreased in 2022 (22 lb/hr) from 2021 (33 lb/hr) that had been previously increasing since 2017 (16 lb/hr; Figure 19). Trolling catch rates have fluctuated with peak in 2016 (45 lb/hr). The catch rates for skipjack decreased to 18.16 lb/hr in 2022 from 25.39 lb/hr in 2021 but still on an increasing trend since 2017 (4 lb/hr). The catch rates for yellowfin precipitously declined to 0.09 lb/hr in 2022 from 6.10 lb/hr in 2021 and on a decreasing trend since 2016 (17.8 lb/hr) (Figure 20).

Fish Size. Since the last year of available data from the cannery sampling program was 2015 average weight-per-fish are no longer presented in this report. Average albacore weight ranged from 38 to 40 lb from 2010 to 2015. However, the boat-based creel surveys recorded a size range of 35 to 38 lb from 2013 to 2020. Yellowfin and bigeye tuna weight per fish

from the cannery sampling program seemed to decline from 2011 to 2015, at 57 to 39 lb and 54 to 38 lb, respectively.

Revenues. In 2022, the total longline fleet revenue (estimated landed value) was \$3.19 million, and albacore composed a majority of the total landed value. Other main species included yellowfin tuna, bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, and wahoo. The overall average fish price was \$1.07 per pound in 2022. Albacore had an adjusted price of \$1.50 per pound, representing a decrease of \$0.10 from 2021. See the Socioeconomics (Section 3.3) module for additional data on American Samoa pelagic fisheries.

Bycatch. There was no recorded bycatch for the troll fishery in 2022 (Table 14). In the longline fishery, around 0.7% of the tuna catch was released. Skipjack and yellowfin were the most released bycatch tuna species at 0.5 and 3.4%, respectively. Conversely, sharks, oilfish and pomfret had the highest release numbers of non-tunas, with nearly 100% of each species released (Table 6). In total, only 3.8% of all pelagic species caught by the longline fishery were released. Fish are released for various reasons including quality, handling and storage difficulties, and marketing problems.

2.1.3 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

There were no Plan Team recommendations relevant to the American Samoa data module of the annual SAFE report.

2.1.4 OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPATION - ALL FISHERIES

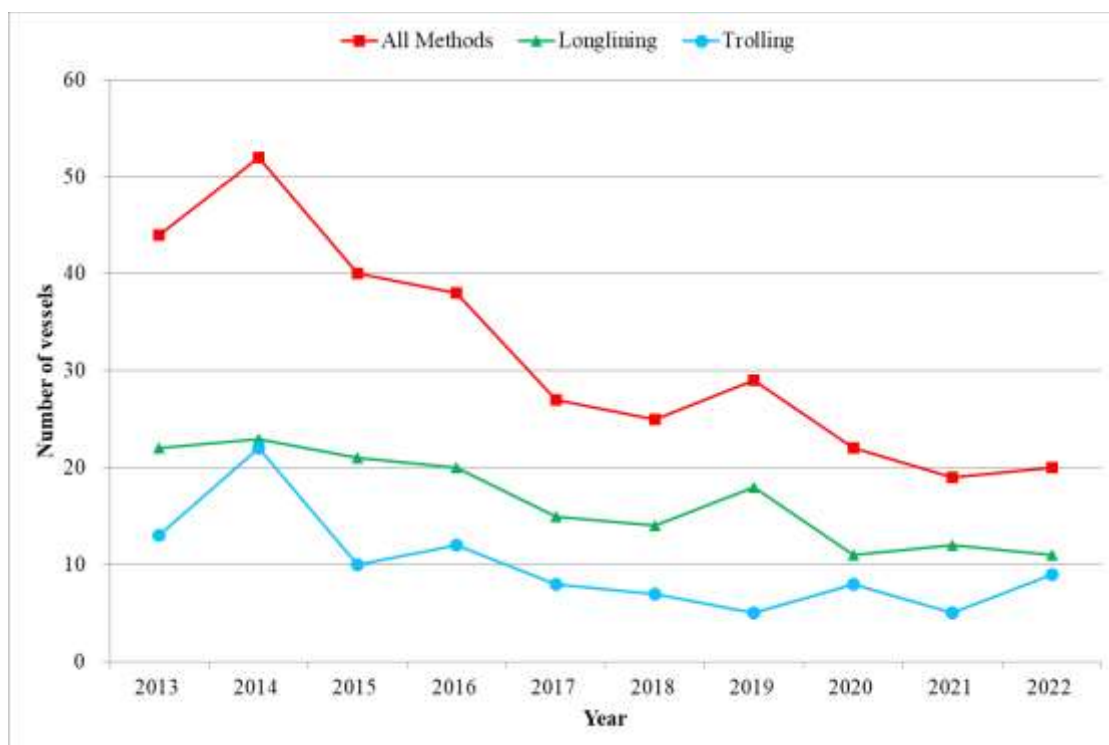


Figure 2. Number of boats landing any pelagic species in American Samoa by longlining, trolling, and all methods

Supporting data shown in Table A-2.

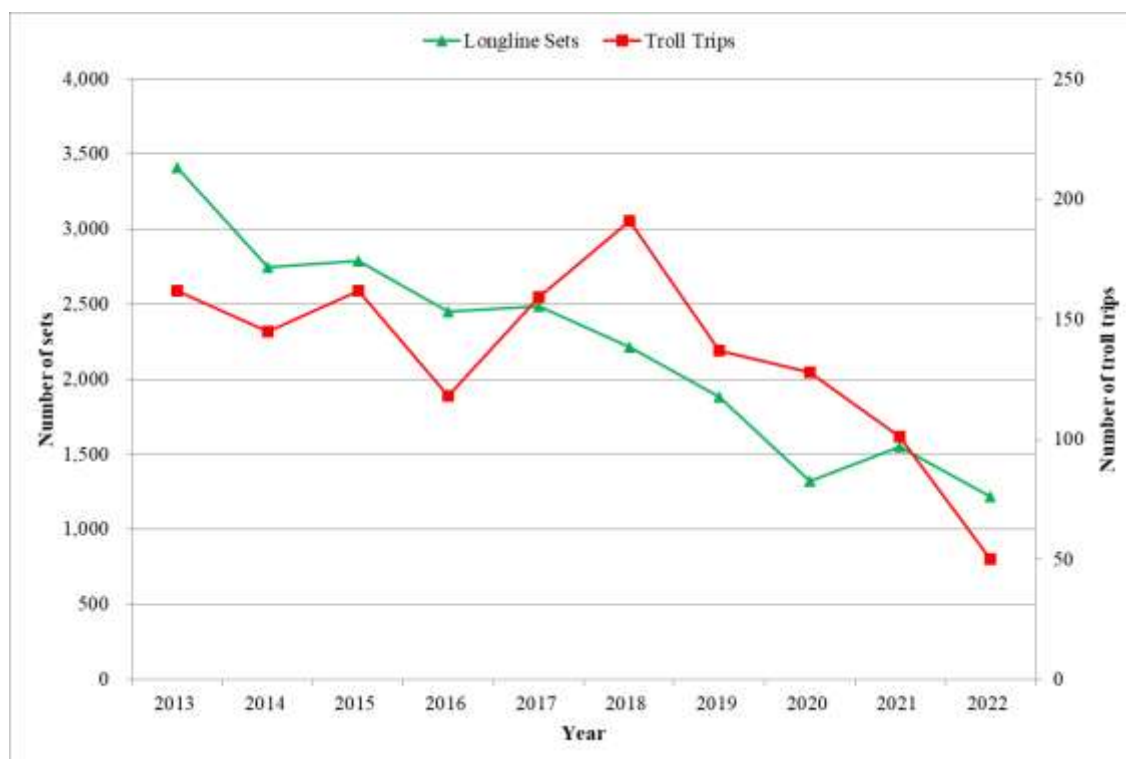


Figure 3. Number of fishing trips and sets for pelagic species in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-3.

2.1.5 OVERVIEW OF LANDINGS – ALL FISHERIES

Table 3. Estimated total landings (lb) of pelagic species in American Samoa by gear in 2022

| Species | Longline Pounds | Troll Pounds | Other Pounds | Total Pounds |
|--------------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 84,974 | 3,734 | 0 | 88,708 |
| Albacore tuna | 2,365,584 | 0 | 0 | 2,365,584 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 326,301 | 19 | 0 | 326,319 |
| Kawakawa | 0 | 16 | 0 | 16 |
| Bigeye tuna | 41,818 | 0 | 0 | 41,818 |
| Bluefin tuna | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tunas (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 2,818,677 | 3,769 | 0 | 2,822,445 |
| Mahimahi | 12,247 | 578 | 0 | 12,826 |
| Black marlin | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue marlin | 104,196 | 0 | 0 | 104,196 |
| Striped marlin | 3,990 | 0 | 0 | 3,990 |
| Wahoo | 25,826 | 0 | 0 | 25,826 |
| Swordfish | 5,669 | 0 | 0 | 5,669 |
| Sailfish | 1,418 | 48 | 0 | 1,466 |

| Species | Longline Pounds | Troll Pounds | Other Pounds | Total Pounds |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Spearfish | 2,392 | 0 | 0 | 2,392 |
| Moonfish | 938 | 0 | 0 | 938 |
| Oilfish | 303 | 0 | 0 | 303 |
| Pomfret | 431 | 0 | 0 | 431 |
| Pelagic thresher shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Thresher shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark (unknown pelagic) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Snake mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Bigeye thresher shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Silky shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White tip oceanic shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shortfin mako shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Longfin mako shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Billfishes (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 157,410 | 626 | 0 | 158,037 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Double-lined mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Long-jawed mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Barracudas | 918 | 0 | 0 | 918 |
| Great barracuda | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Small barracudas | 0 | 63 | 0 | 63 |
| Rainbow runner | 0 | 6 | 0 | 6 |
| Dogtooth tuna | 0 | 79 | 12 | 91 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 918 | 148 | 12 | 1,078 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 2,977,005 | 4,543 | 12 | 2,981,560 |

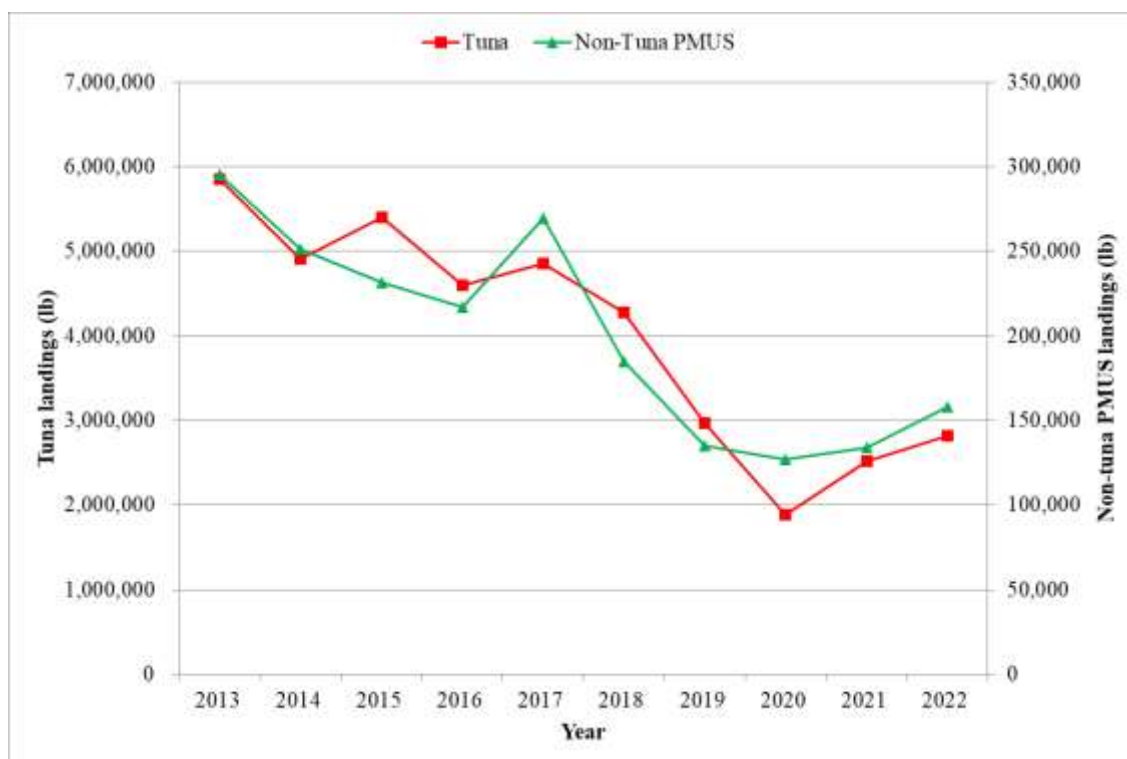


Figure 4. Total estimated landings of tuna and non-tuna PMUS in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-4.

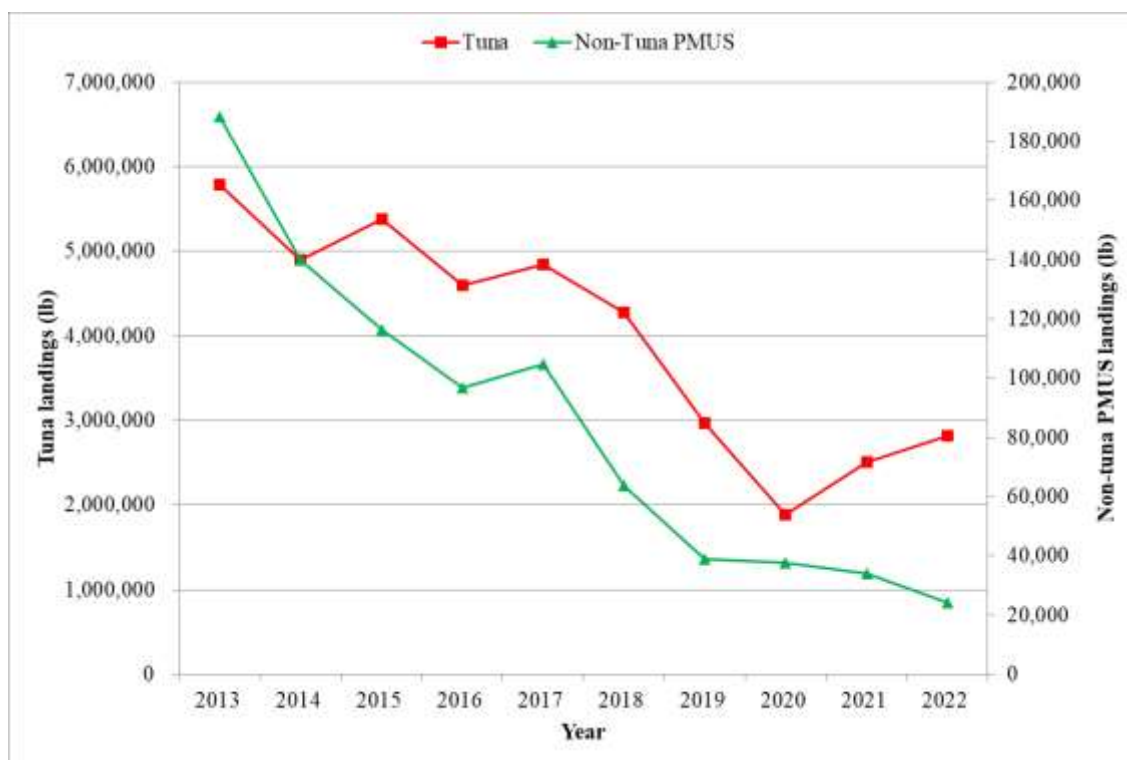


Figure 5. Commercial landings of tuna and non-tuna PMUS in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-5.

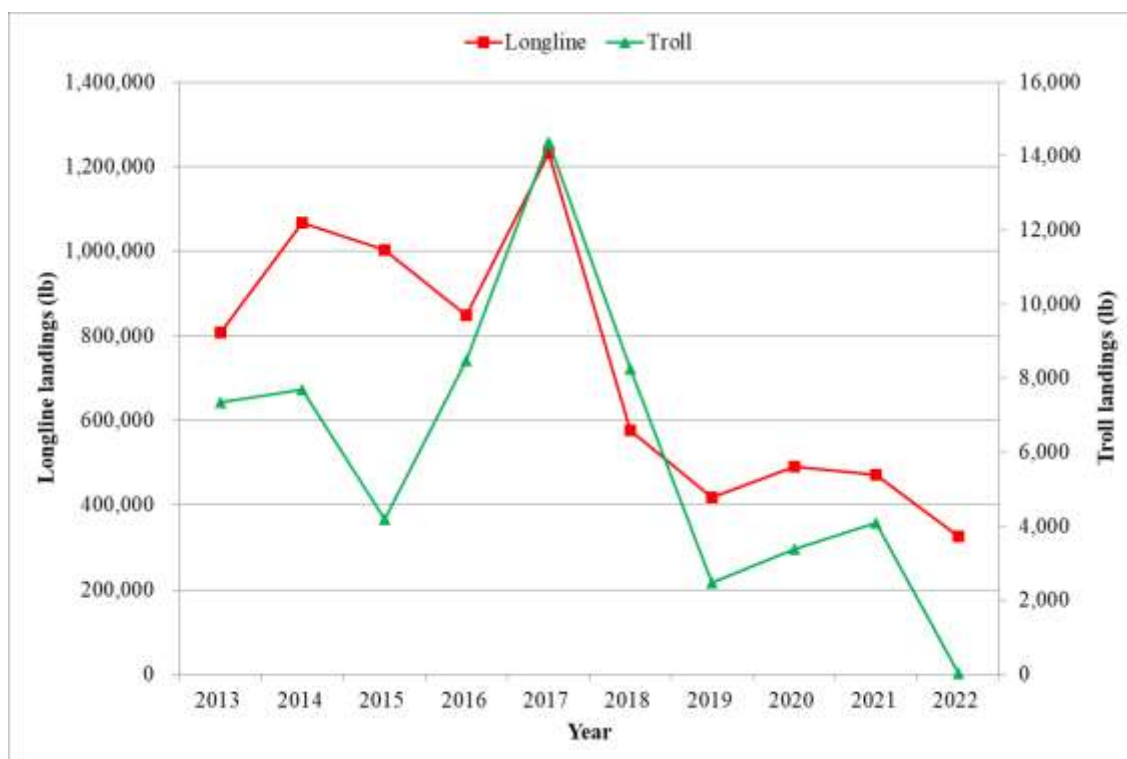


Figure 6. Total estimated landings of yellowfin tuna in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-6.

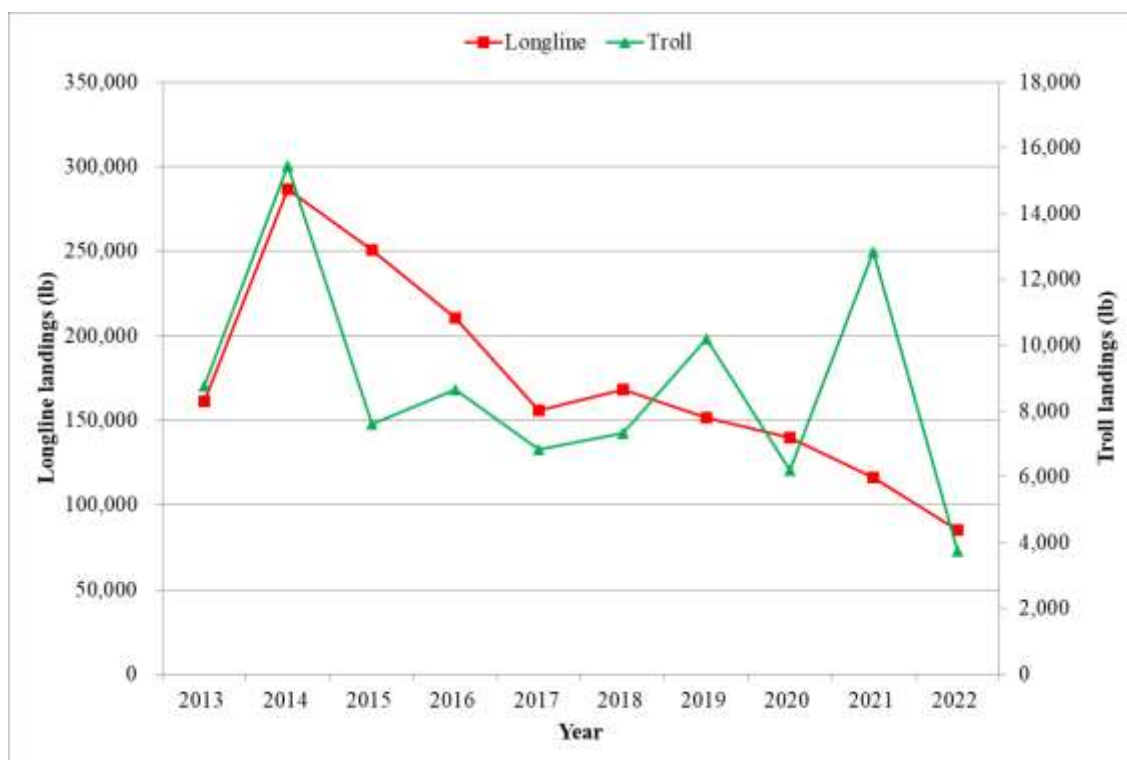


Figure 7. Total estimated landings of skipjack tuna in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-7.

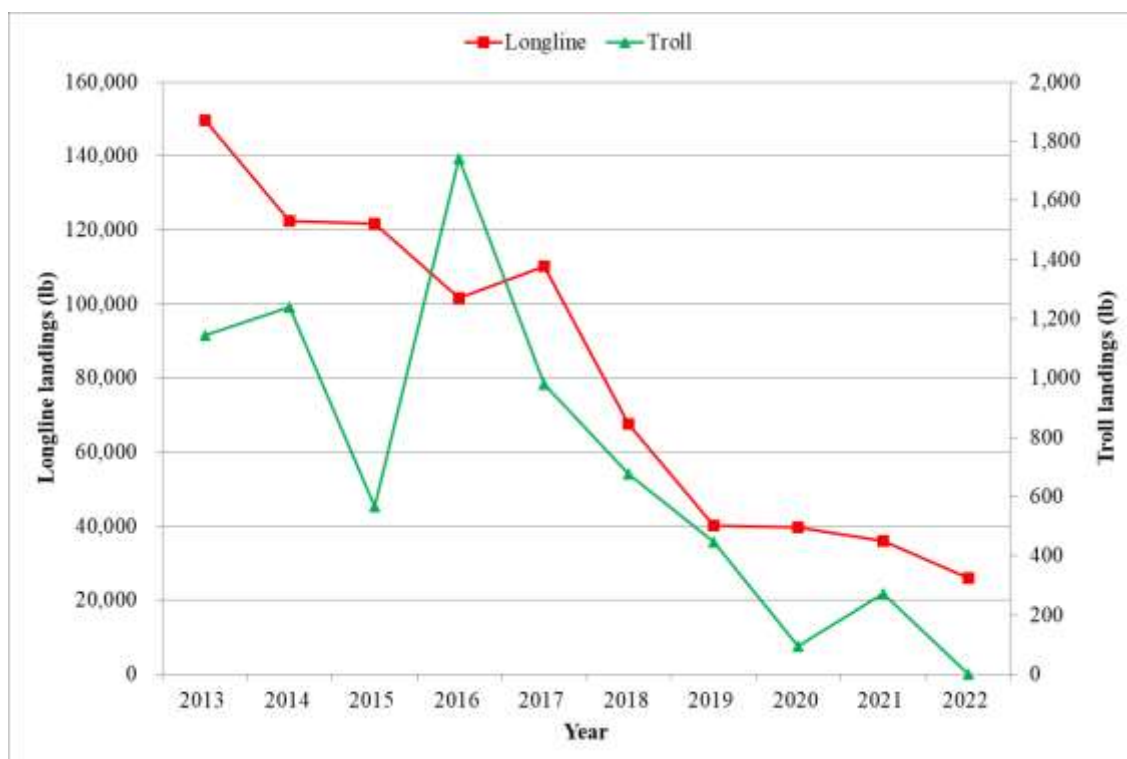


Figure 8. Total estimated landings of wahoo in American Samoa

Note: An unrepresentative amount of wahoo was caught by trolling one day in 2016. Supporting data shown in Table A-8.

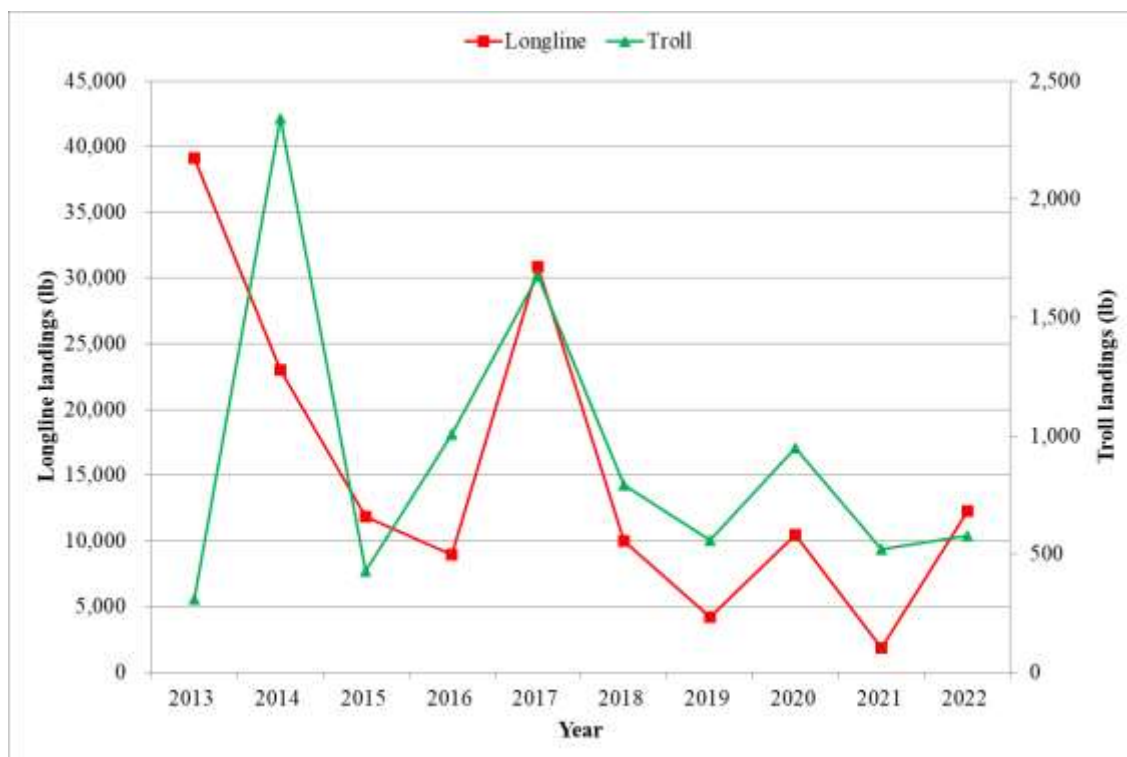


Figure 9. Total estimated landings of mahimahi in American Samoa

Supporting data shown in Table A-9.

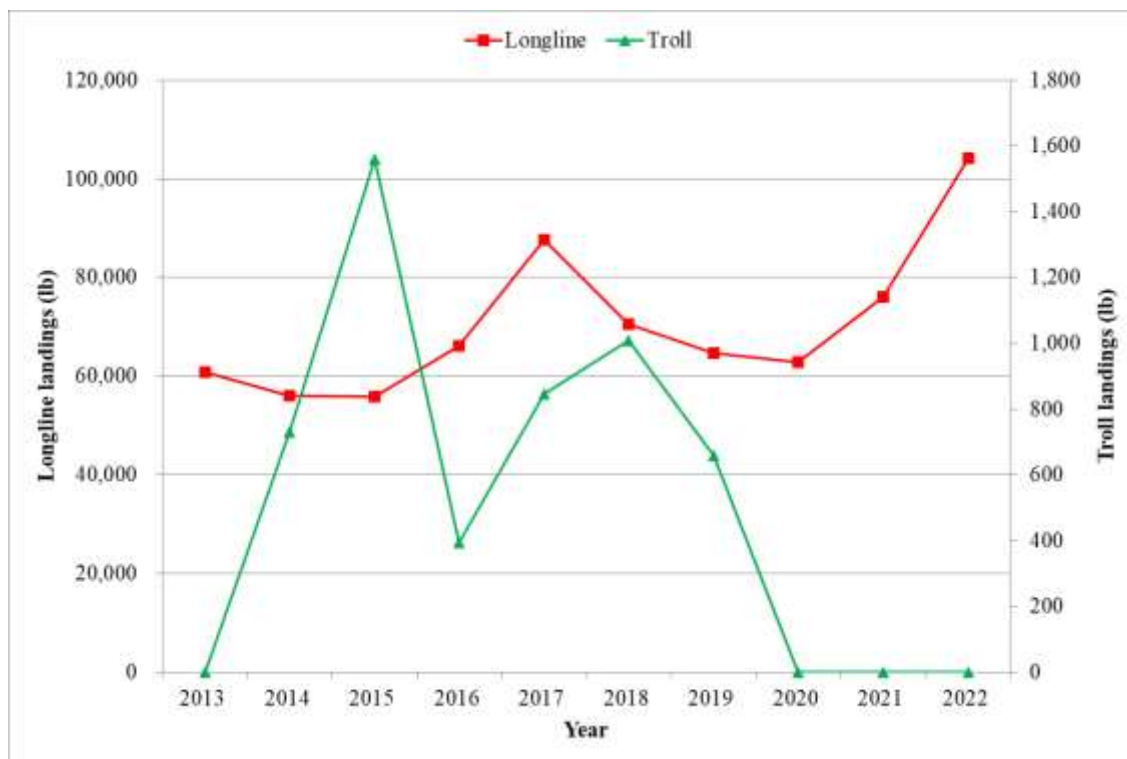


Figure 10. Total estimated landings of blue marlin in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-10.

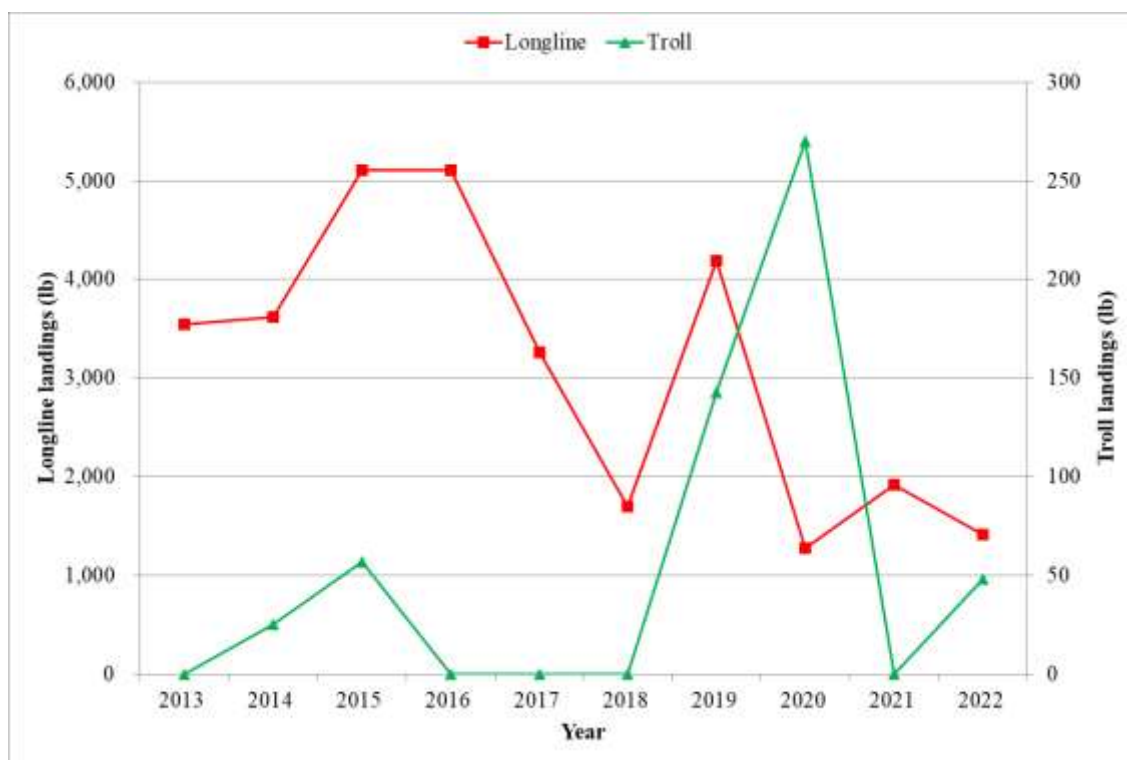


Figure 11. Total estimated landings of sailfish in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-11.

2.1.6 AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE PARTICIPATION, EFFORT, LANDINGS, BYCATCH, AND CPUE

Table 4. Number of permitted and active longline fishing vessels by size class in American Samoa

| Year | Small Vessel Permits | Small Vessel Active | Large Vessel Permits | Large Vessel Active |
|------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| 2013 | 10 | 1 | 37 | 21 |
| 2014 | 18 | 2 | 44 | 21 |
| 2015 | 12 | 3 | 46 | 18 |
| 2016 | 11 | 2 | 39 | 18 |
| 2017 | 10 | 1 | 38 | 14 |
| 2018 | 13 | 1 | 43 | 13 |
| 2019 | 8 | 3 | 42 | 15 |
| 2020 | 7 | 1 | 40 | 10 |
| 2021 | 5 | 0 | 39 | 11 |
| 2022 | 5 | 0 | 39 | 11 |

Notes: These data are used for Figure 12 that follows. The “small” size class includes alia vessels, whereas the “large” size class typically includes larger monohull vessels fishing in the Southern Pacific Ocean. Dual-permitted vessels are included. These designations shifted from Classes A through D to Small and Large due to Amendment 9 to the Pelagic FEP (86 FR 55743, October 7, 2021) that reduced the original four size classes to the two presented here.

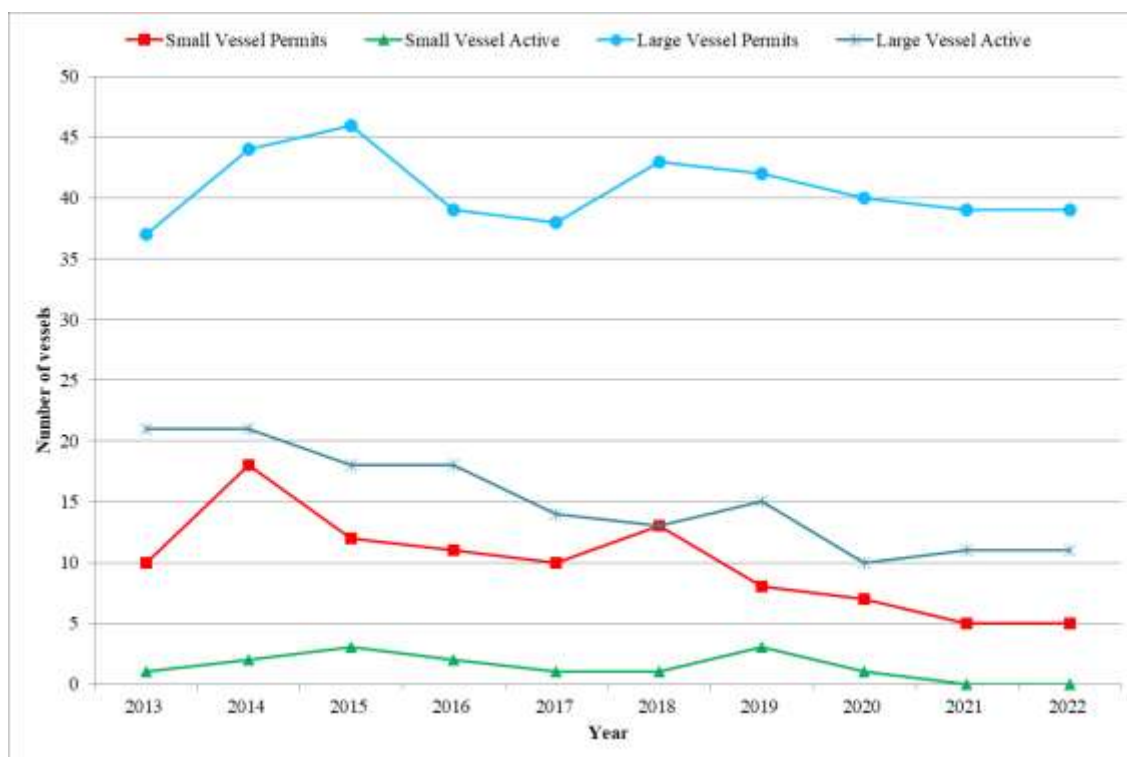


Figure 12. Number of active longline fishing vessels in American Samoa by size classes: Small (0-50 ft) and Large (> 51 ft)

Table 5. Longline effort by American Samoa vessels during 2022

| Effort Type | All Vessels |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| Boats | 11 |
| Trips | 42 |
| Sets | 1,219 |
| Hooks (Thousands) | 3,613 |
| Lightsticks | 0 |

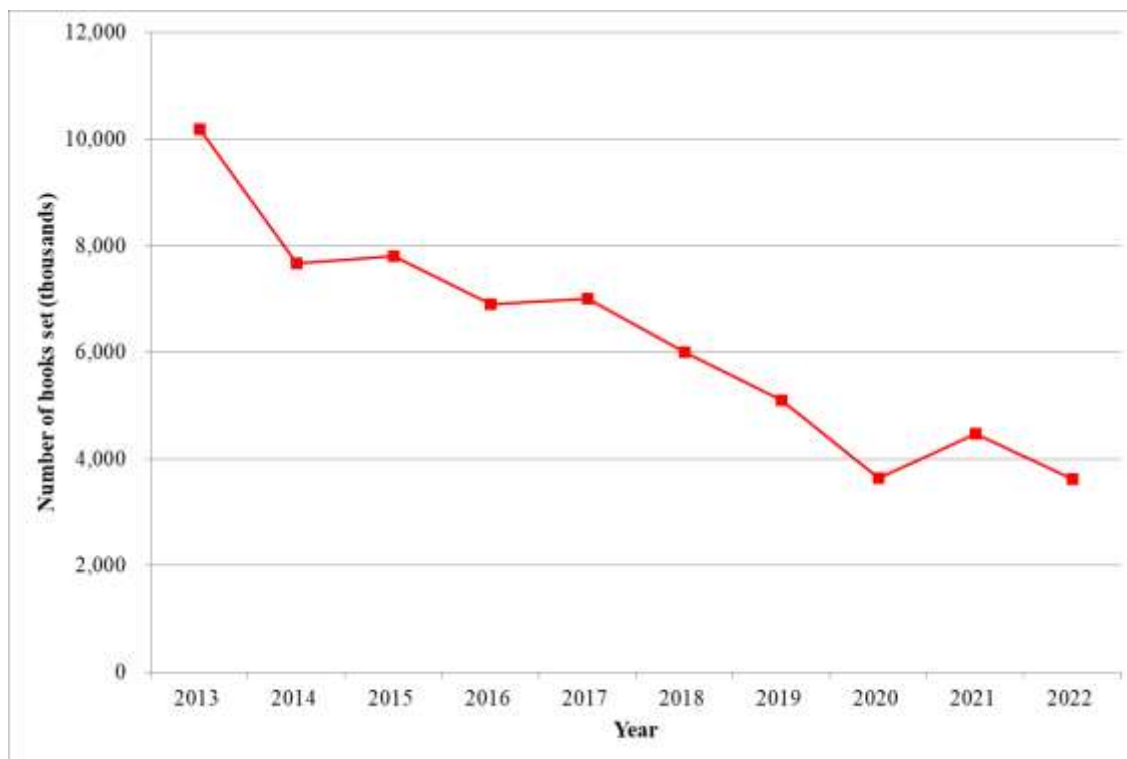


Figure 13. Number of longline hooks set from federal logbook data in American Samoa Supporting data shown in Table A-12.

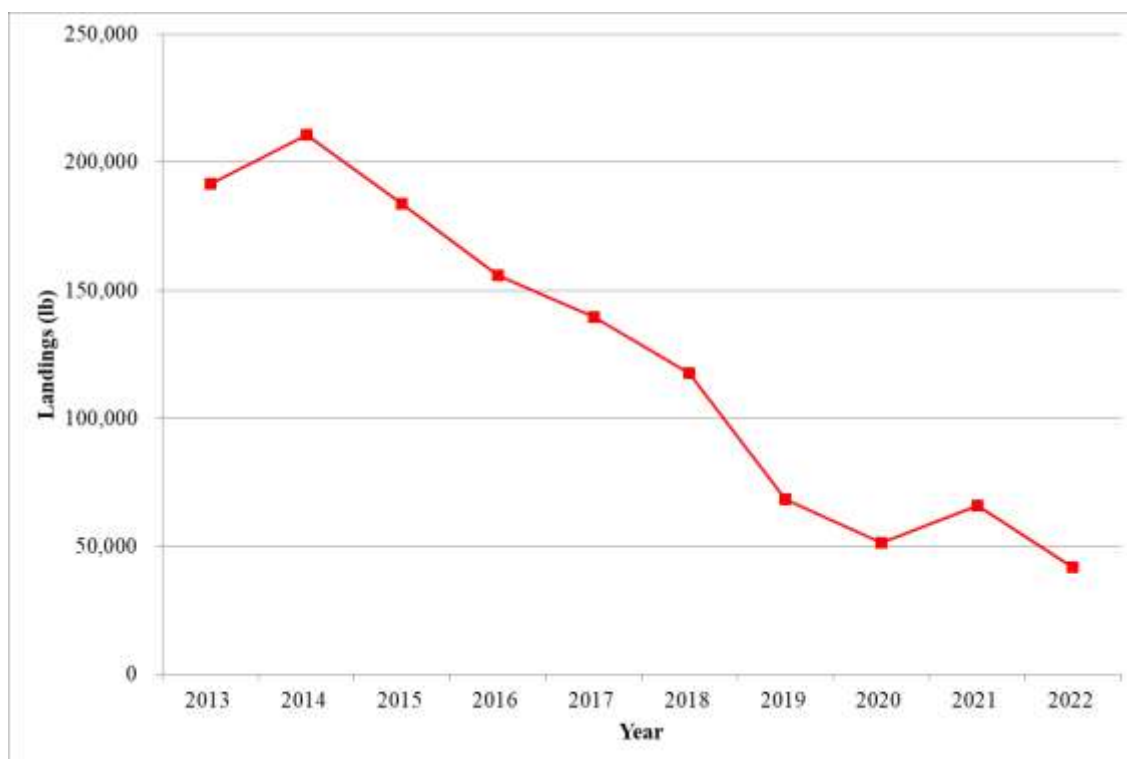


Figure 14. Total estimated landings of bigeye by longlining in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-13.

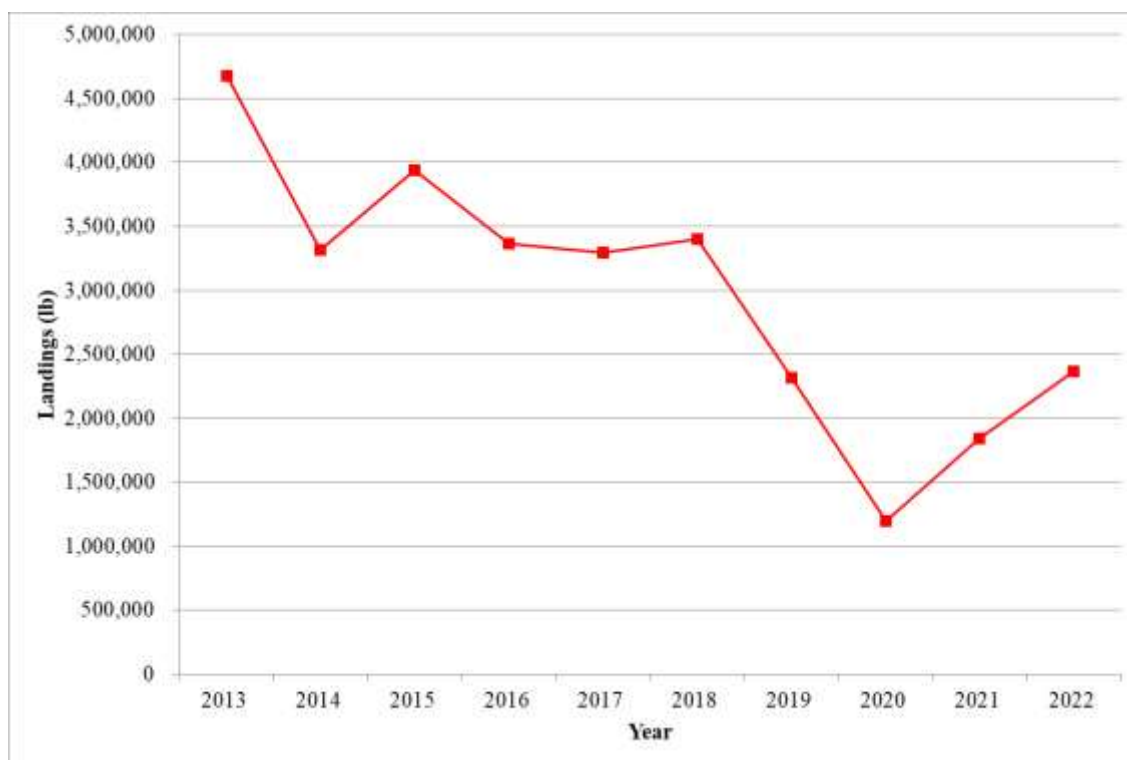


Figure 15. Total estimated landings of albacore by longlining in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-14.

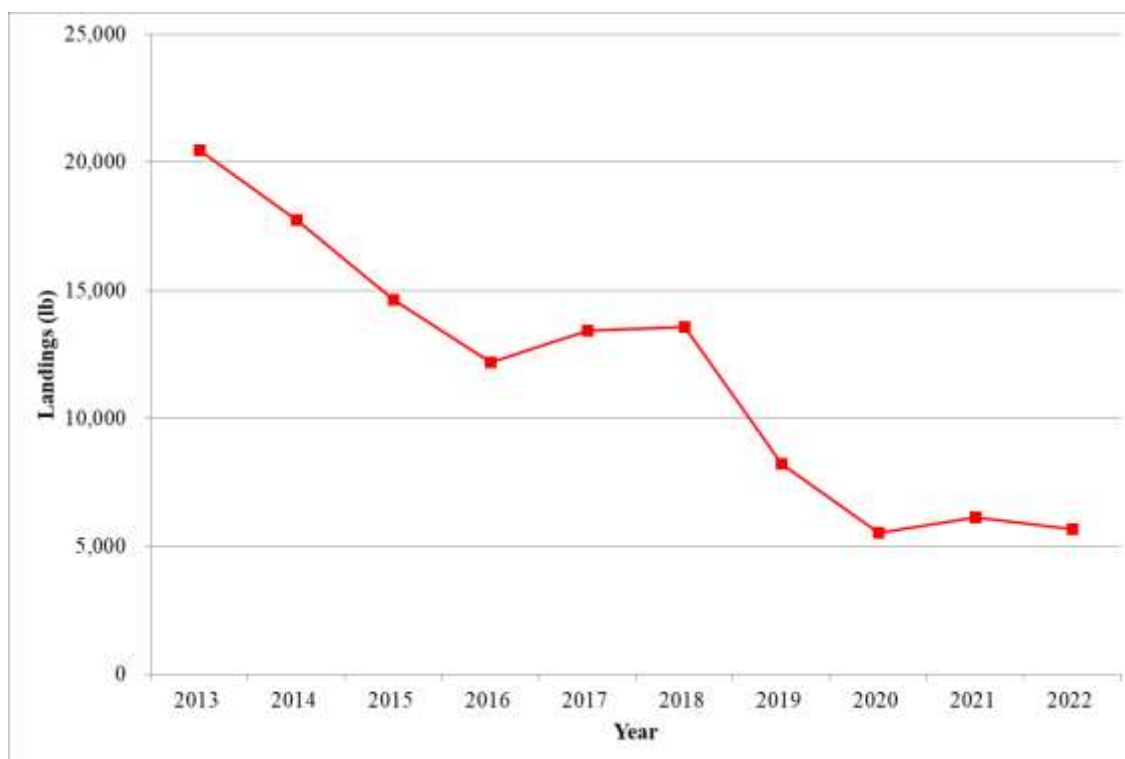


Figure 16. Total estimated landings of swordfish by longlining in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-15.

Table 6. Number of fish kept, released, and percent released for all American Samoa longline vessels from federal logbook data in 2022

| Species | Number Kept | Number Released | Total Caught | Percent Released |
|--------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 5,071 | 28 | 5,099 | 0.5 |
| Albacore tuna | 52,691 | 183 | 52,874 | 0.3 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 5,622 | 198 | 5,820 | 3.4 |
| Kawakawa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Bigeye tuna | 914 | 58 | 972 | 6.0 |
| Bluefin tuna | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Tunas (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 64,298 | 467 | 64,765 | 0.7 |
| Mahimahi | 579 | 12 | 591 | 2.0 |
| Black marlin | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Blue marlin | 803 | 29 | 832 | 3.5 |
| Striped marlin | 58 | 1 | 59 | 1.7 |
| Wahoo | 1,015 | 13 | 1,028 | 1.3 |
| Swordfish | 51 | 36 | 87 | 41.4 |
| Sailfish | 20 | 4 | 24 | 16.7 |

| Species | Number Kept | Number Released | Total Caught | Percent Released |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Spearfish | 52 | 13 | 65 | 20.0 |
| Moonfish | 19 | 2 | 21 | 9.5 |
| Oilfish | 16 | 438 | 454 | 96.5 |
| Pomfret | 49 | 313 | 362 | 86.5 |
| Pelagic thresher shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Thresher shark | 0 | 81 | 81 | 100.0 |
| Shark (unknown pelagic) | 0 | 2 | 2 | 100.0 |
| Snake mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Bigeye thresher shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Silky shark | 0 | 309 | 309 | 100.0 |
| White tip oceanic shark | 0 | 74 | 74 | 100.0 |
| Blue shark | 0 | 800 | 800 | 100.0 |
| Shortfin mako shark | 0 | 50 | 50 | 100.0 |
| Longfin mako shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Billfishes (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 2,662 | 2,177 | 4,839 | 45.0 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Double-lined mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Long-jawed Mackerel | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Barracudas | 78 | 1 | 79 | 1.3 |
| Great barracuda | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Small barracudas | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Rainbow runner | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Dogtooth tuna | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 78 | 1 | 79 | 1.3 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 67,038 | 2,645 | 69,683 | 3.8 |

Table 7. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish for the top 10 bycatch species from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the American Samoa longline fishery. The top 10 species comprised 79.26% of total bycatch in 2021.

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|---------------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| Pelagic Stingray | 19,459 | 16,306 | 8,156 | 11,908 | 8,395 | 8,259 |
| Escolar | 7,756 | 7,773 | 5,567 | 5,094 | 5,540 | 5,517 |
| Longfin Escolar | 8,820 | 9,652 | 5,605 | 6,609 | 5,037 | 4,788 |
| Longnose Lancetfish | 6,228 | 5,881 | 5,482 | 4,991 | 4,063 | 3,913 |
| Blue Shark | 4,490 | 4,224 | 3,359 | 2,681 | 2,958 | 2,721 |
| Slender Mola | 1,327 | 2,595 | 1,648 | 193 | 2,210 | 2,074 |
| Snake Mackerel | 1,049 | 1,026 | 1,183 | 1,689 | 1,568 | 1,502 |
| Skipjack Tuna | 781 | 830 | 867 | 1,196 | 1,510 | 1,366 |
| Yellowfin Tuna | 1,873 | 1,702 | 1,345 | 1,180 | 1,476 | 1,363 |
| Unidentified Tuna | 1,340 | 1,595 | 1,326 | 824 | 1,473 | 1,313 |

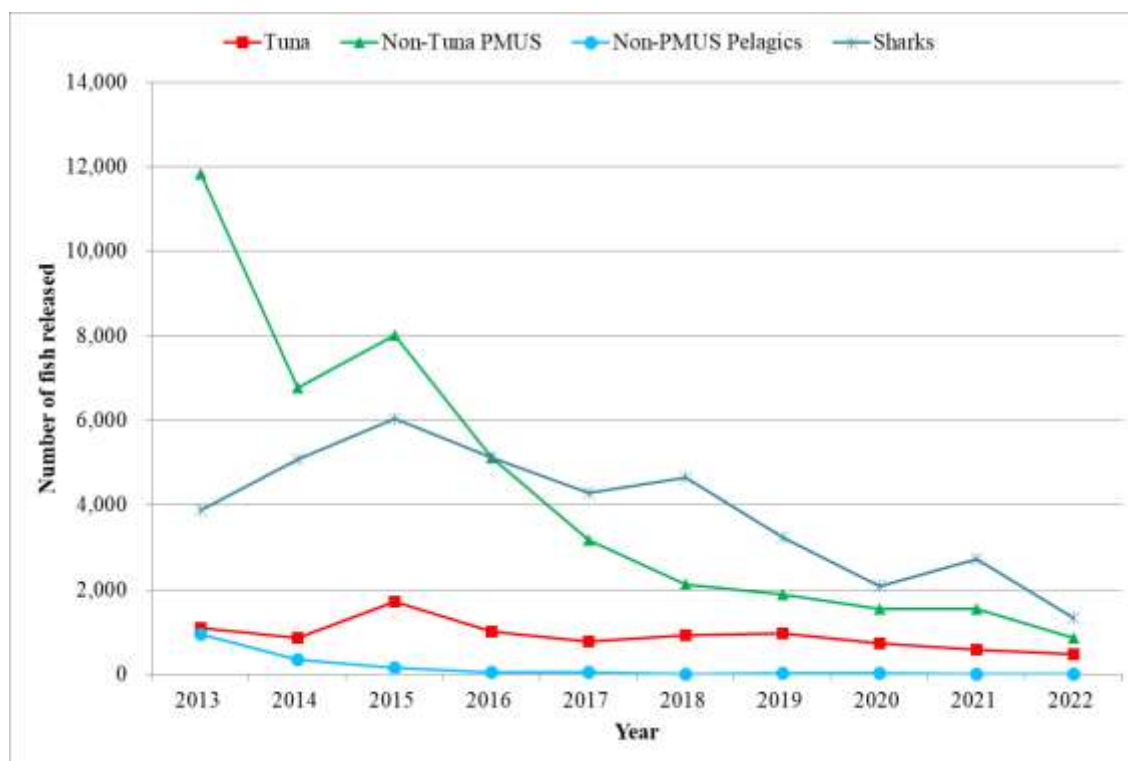


Figure 17. Number of fish released by longline vessels in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-16.

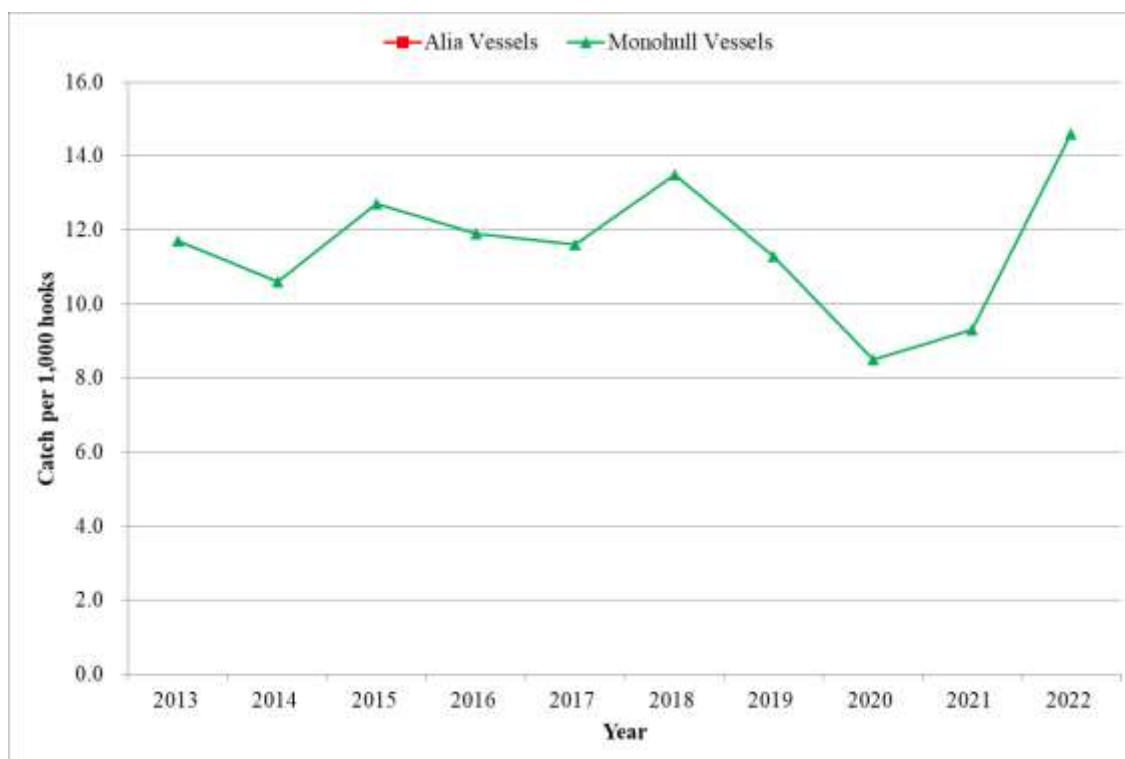


Figure 18. Albacore catch per 1,000 hooks by monohull vessels from longline logbook data in American Samoa

Note: Fewer than three alia reported, so alia are not included. Supporting data shown in Table A-17.

Table 8. Catch per 1,000 hooks for alia vessels in American Samoa from 1996 to 1998

| Species | Alia 1996 | Alia 1997 | Alia 1998 |
|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 0.1 | 1.2 | 3.7 |
| Albacore tuna | 40.6 | 32.8 | 26.6 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 6.5 | 2.7 | 2.2 |
| Bigeye tuna | 1.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 48.5 | 37.0 | 32.8 |
| Mahimahi | 2.3 | 2.2 | 1.7 |
| Blue marlin | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 |
| Wahoo | 0.8 | 0.9 | 2.2 |
| Swordfish | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Sailfish | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.6 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 52.7 | 41.3 | 37.6 |

Table 9. Catch per 1,000 hooks for two types of longline vessels in American Samoa from 1999 to 2002

| Species | Alia 1999 | Monohull 1999 | Alia 2000 | Monohull 2000 | Alia 2001 | Monohull 2001 | Alia 2002 | Monohull 2002 |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 5.0 | 4.5 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 3.1 | 2.1 | 6.0 | 4.9 |
| Albacore tuna | 18.8 | 14.8 | 19.8 | 28.0 | 27.3 | 32.9 | 17.2 | 25.8 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 6.7 | 2.1 | 6.2 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 1.4 | 7.1 | 1.3 |
| Bigeye tuna | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.9 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 31.2 | 21.9 | 28.4 | 33.8 | 34.3 | 37.4 | 30.9 | 32.9 |
| Mahimahi | 2.2 | 0.3 | 1.7 | 0.4 | 3.4 | 0.5 | 4.0 | 0.6 |
| Black marlin | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Blue marlin | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Striped marlin | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Wahoo | 2.1 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 2.7 | 1.0 |
| Swordfish | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Sailfish | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Spearfish | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Moonfish | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Oilfish | 0.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.5 |
| Pomfret | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 5.1 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 2.5 | 5.6 | 1.8 | 7.3 | 2.6 |
| Barracudas | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.4 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 36.6 | 25.2 | 32.1 | 36.3 | 39.9 | 39.2 | 38.2 | 35.9 |

Table 10. Catch per 1,000 hooks for two types of longline vessels in American Samoa from 2003 to 2005

| Species | Alia 2003 | Monohull 2003 | Alia 2004 | Monohull 2004 | Alia 2005 | Monohull 2005 |
|--------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 4.7 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 3.9 | 1.0 | 2.7 |
| Albacore tuna | 17.3 | 16.4 | 13.7 | 12.9 | 10.3 | 17.4 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 5.9 | 2.0 | 8.8 | 3.2 | 7.0 | 2.6 |
| Bigeye tuna | 1.6 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 29.5 | 22.4 | 26.3 | 21.3 | 19.3 | 23.6 |
| Mahimahi | 2.2 | 0.4 | 2.1 | 0.2 | 2.0 | 0.3 |
| Blue marlin | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |

| Species | Alia 2003 | Monohull 2003 | Alia 2004 | Monohull 2004 | Alia 2005 | Monohull 2005 |
|---------------------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|
| Striped marlin | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Wahoo | 1.8 | 1.1 | 3.0 | 1.6 | 2.3 | 1.4 |
| Swordfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Sailfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Spearfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Moonfish | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Oilfish | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.3 |
| Pomfret | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 5.0 | 2.4 | 5.5 | 3.1 | 4.9 | 2.5 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 34.7 | 25.0 | 31.8 | 24.5 | 24.2 | 26.2 |

Table 11. Catch per 1,000 hooks for all types of longline vessels in American Samoa from 2006 to 2011

| Species | All Vessels 2006 | All Vessels 2007 | All Vessels 2008 | All Vessels 2009 | All Vessels 2010 | All Vessels 2011 |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 3.2 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.5 |
| Albacore tuna | 18.4 | 18.4 | 14.2 | 14.8 | 17.4 | 12.1 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 2.0 |
| Bigeye tuna | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 24.1 | 23.5 | 18.1 | 18.8 | 22.4 | 17.3 |
| Mahimahi | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Blue marlin | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| Wahoo | 1.5 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| Swordfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Sailfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Spearfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Oilfish | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.6 |
| Pomfret | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 2.9 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.4 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 27.0 | 25.7 | 20.1 | 21.3 | 25.0 | 19.7 |

Table 12. Catch per 1,000 hooks for all types of longline vessels from 2013 to 2017

| Species | All Vessels 2012 | All Vessels 2013 | All Vessels 2014 | All Vessels 2015 | All Vessels 2016 | All Vessels 2017 |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 4.3 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.5 |
| Albacore tuna | 14.8 | 11.7 | 10.6 | 12.7 | 11.9 | 11.5 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.6 |
| Bigeye tuna | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 20.9 | 15.1 | 16.3 | 17.9 | 17.0 | 17.0 |
| Mahimahi | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Blue marlin | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Wahoo | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| Spearfish | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Moonfish | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Oilfish | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| Pomfret | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Thresher shark | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Silky shark | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| White tip oceanic shark | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Blue shark | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| Shortfin mako shark | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.1 |
| Pelagic fishes (unknown) | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| OTHER PELAGICS TOTAL | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 23.5 | 17.4 | 18.7 | 20.6 | 19.4 | 19.1 |

Table 13. Catch/1,000 hooks for all types of longline vessels in American Samoa from 2018 to 2022

| Species | All Vessels 2018 | All Vessels 2019 | All Vessels 2020 | All Vessels 2021 | All Vessels 2022 |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Skipjack tuna | 1.8 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 1.5 | 1.4 |
| Albacore tuna | 13.5 | 11.6 | 8.5 | 9.2 | 14.6 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 1.6 |
| Bigeye tuna | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| TUNAS TOTAL | 17.4 | 16.2 | 14.1 | 13.4 | 17.9 |
| Mahimahi | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.2 |
| Blue marlin | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Wahoo | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 |

| Species | All Vessels 2018 | All Vessels 2019 | All Vessels 2020 | All Vessels 2021 | All Vessels 2022 |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Oilfish | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Pomfret | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Thresher shark | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Silky shark | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| White tip oceanic shark | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Blue shark | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS TOTAL | 1.8 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 19.2 | 17.5 | 15.7 | 14.6 | 19.1 |

2.1.7 AMERICAN SAMOA TROLLING BYCATCH AND CPUE

Data for participation, effort, landings, and revenue are found in previous sections of this chapter. Statistics summarizing bycatch for American Samoa trolling are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. American Samoa trolling bycatch summary (released fish)

| Year | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| 2013 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,896 | 1,896 | F |
| 2014 | 0 | 0.0 | 2,789 | 2,789 | F |
| 2015 | 0 | 0.0 | 616 | 616 | F |
| 2016 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,374 | 1,374 | F |
| 2017 | 0 | 0.0 | 915 | 915 | F |
| 2018 | 0 | 0.0 | 743 | 743 | F |
| 2019 | 0 | 0.0 | 640 | 640 | F |
| 2020 | 0 | 0.0 | 465 | 465 | F |
| 2021 | 0 | 0.0 | 601 | 601 | F |
| 2022 | 0 | 0.0 | 132 | 132 | F |

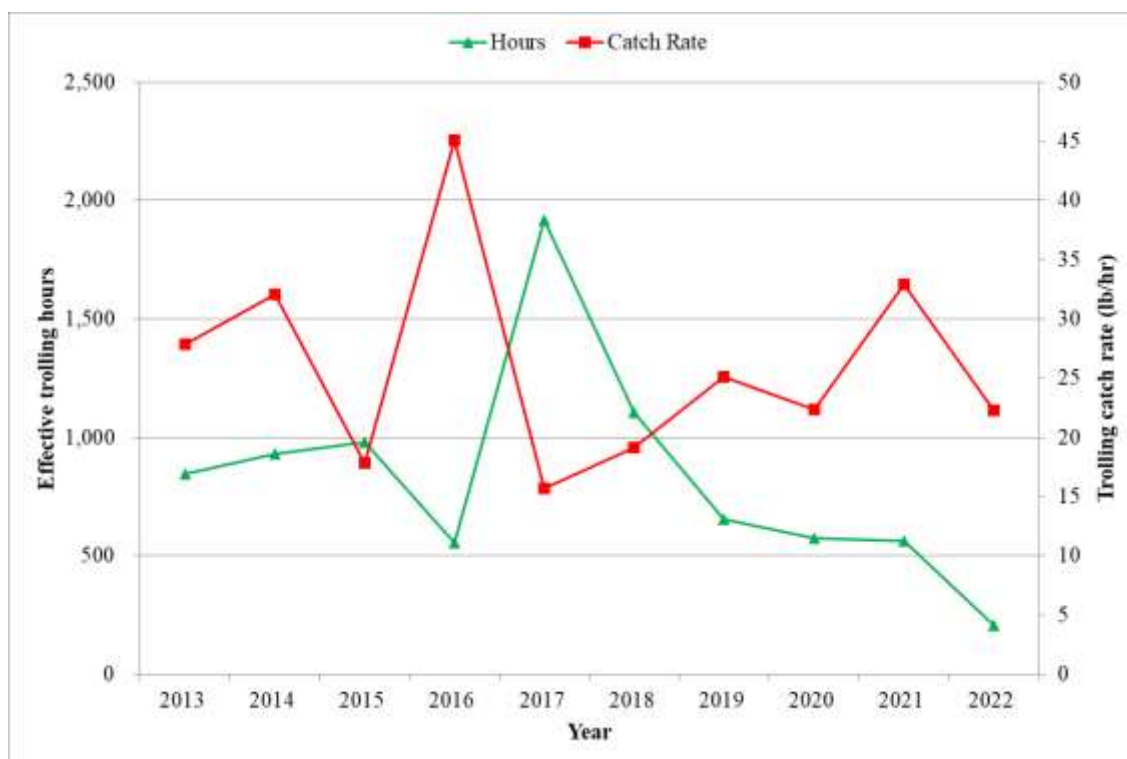


Figure 19. Catch-per-hour for trolling and number of trolling hours in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-18.

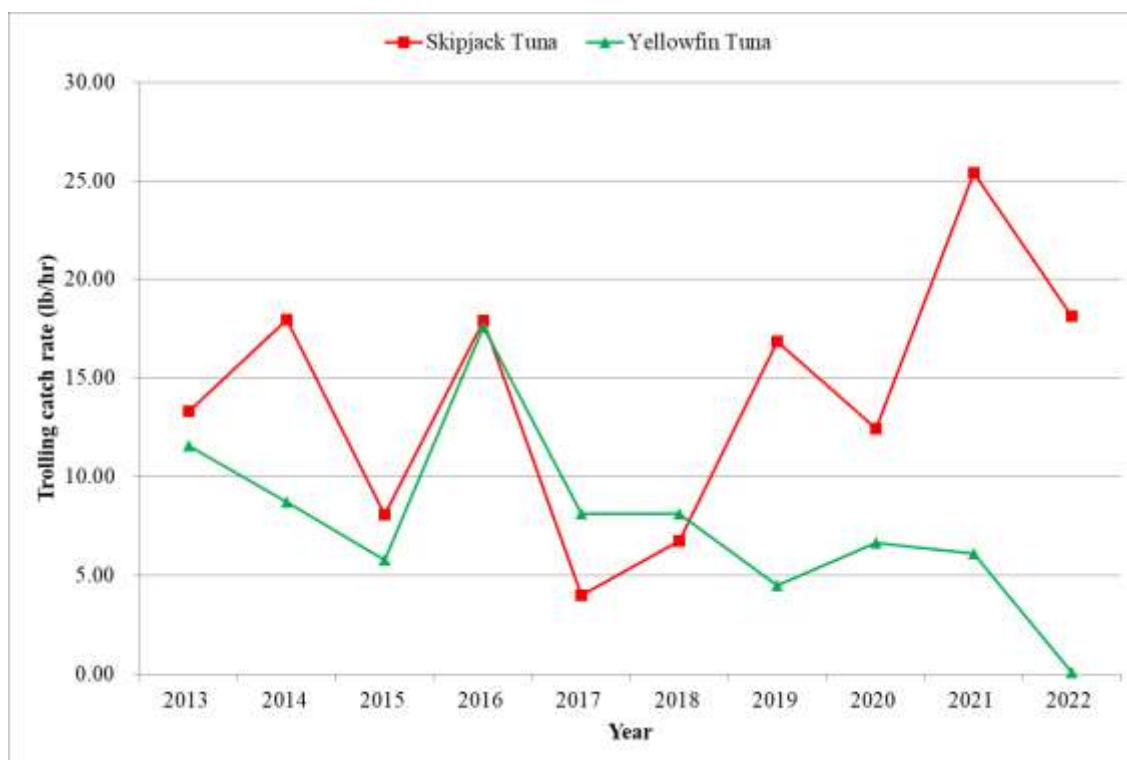


Figure 20. Trolling CPUE for skipjack and yellowfin tuna in American Samoa
Supporting data shown in Table A-19.

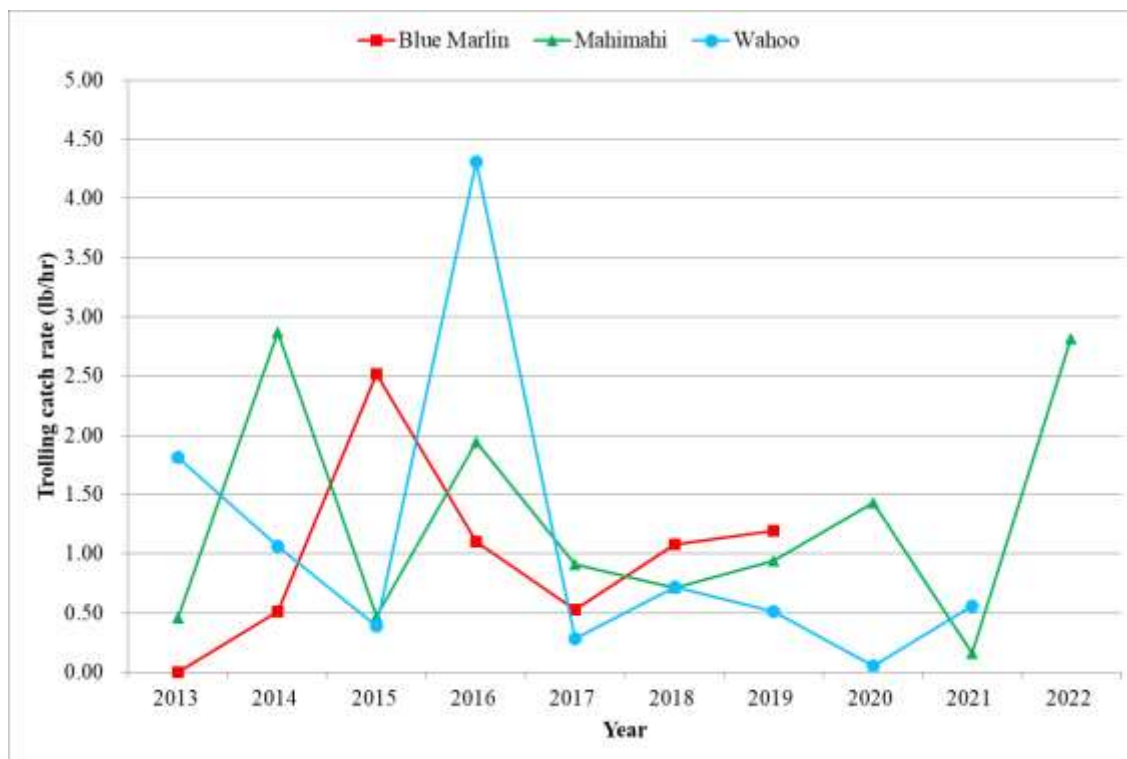


Figure 21. Trolling CPUE for blue marlin, mahimahi, and wahoo in American Samoa. Supporting data shown in Table A-20.

2.2 COMMONWEALTH OF THE NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS

2.2.1 DATA SOURCES

This fishery is characterized by the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI) Department of Lands and Natural Resources, Division of Fish and Wildlife (DFW), using data from its commercial receipt invoice database and the boat-based creel survey. The commercial purchase data collection system is dependent upon first-level purchasers of local fresh fish to accurately record all fish purchases by species categories on specially designed invoices. DFW staff routinely distributes and collects invoice books from participating local fish purchasers on Saipan. This is a mandatory data collection program that includes purchasers at fish markets, stores, restaurants, and hotels, as well as roadside vendors ("fish-mobiles").

Currently, DFW's commercial purchase data collection system and the boat-based creel survey are documenting landings only on the island of Saipan. Although the Saipan commercial purchase data collection system has been in operation since the mid-1970s, only data collected since 1983 are considered accurate enough to be used. It is believed that the commercial purchase data includes about 50-60% of commercial landings for pelagic species on Saipan, based on the following estimates. In addition to unreported fish sales by official vendors (10-20%), there is also a subsistence fishery on Saipan, which profits by selling a small portion of the catch to cover fishing expenses. Some fishermen sell their catch by going door to door. This commercial catch comprises about 30% of unreported commercial landings, since it is not sold to fish purchasers participating in the invoice book program. Combined with the 10-20% of data from official commercial fish purchasers (fish markets/restaurants/hotel) that DFW is unable to capture for a variety of reasons (e.g., no forms returned, vendors missed, nonparticipation), an estimated 40-50% of total commercial sales may not be included in the commercial purchase data reported for Saipan.

In addition to commercial purchase data, the boat-based creel survey has been continuously implemented since April 2000. Creel data only analyzes fishing activity on the island of Saipan, as there are no boat-based creel survey programs for Tinian or Rota, presently.

One of DFW's goals is to expand the data collection program to the islands of Tinian and Rota; however, securing long term funding is challenging. Pilot boat-based creel surveys were conducted on Tinian and Rota, though these data are incomplete and not included in this report. These creel survey efforts were mainly focused on shore-based fisheries. The Rota pilot study with over a year and a half of data collection did not collect enough pelagic data to warrant analysis in the project report.

The Saipan creel survey targets both charter and non-charter vessels. DFW staff conducted 51 survey days in 2022 (see Table A-21). DFW staff recorded 107 boat log trips and 84 interviews in 2022. A decrease in surveys and interviews in 2022 was due to fueling issues that caused temporary suspension in boat-based creel surveys from mid-October to late November. Charter trips were not captured in 2022 due to the interrupted tourism market by the global pandemic, inflation, and staffing shortage. In January, there were only four key staff; one Data Officer and three technicians (2 under WPacFIN and 1 under WSFR). From February to mid-July, an additional technician was recruited as a temporary hire. In August, an employee had resigned, leaving the section with three key staff, of which only two had

absolute advantage in work output. In October, the Division hired one additional employee under WPacFIN. Charter surveys were resumed in April 2023.

A 365-day annual expansion is run for each calendar year of DFW boat-based creel survey data to produce catch and effort estimates for the pelagic fishery, while avoiding over-estimating landings due to seasonal runs of pelagic species. This report does not include any data from longline vessels.

Percent species composition is calculated by weight for the sampled catch (raw interview data) for each method and applied to the pounds landed to produce catch estimates by species for the expansion period. CPUE data are calculated from the total annual landings of each fishery divided by the total number of hours spent fishing (gear in use), or by trip assuming that a trip is one day in length. Bycatch data are not expanded to the level of estimated annual trips and are reported as a direct summary of raw interview data. Some tables include landings of non-PMUS that may not be included in other tables in this report. This artifact of the reporting method results in a slight difference in the total landings and other values within a single table and between tables in this section.

2.2.2 SUMMARY OF CNMI PELAGIC FISHERIES

The number of interviews conducted for the creel surveys increased in 2021 compared to 2020. Landings and effort data are adjusted for the creel data, while no adjustment was made for the commercial receipt data. As such, the landings and effort creel data are more accurate estimates than the commercial receipt data.

Landings. Skipjack tuna is the principal species landed, comprising 55.6% of the entire pelagic landings in 2022 based on creel survey data. Skipjack commercial landings decreased from 238,068 lb in 2021 to 172,079.6 lb in 2022.

Landings of mahimahi and yellowfin tuna ranked second and third by weight of commercial landings during 2022. There were 11,217.3 lb of yellowfin commercial landings in 2022. Commercial data reported 33,112.5 lb of mahimahi. Mahimahi commercial landings continued to decrease since 2013 with 2016 at its lowest. Skipjack tuna are easily caught in nearshore waters throughout the year. Based on creel survey data for 2022, mahimahi landings were the most abundant between January through March, as well as in December.

Effort. The number of boats involved in CNMI's pelagic fishery has been steadily decreasing from 2001, when there were 113 fishermen reporting commercial pelagic landings, to 2015 when there were 12. In 2022, there was an increase of fishermen who were landing pelagic species based on commercial receipt invoices (92). In 2022, there was a decrease in fishing vessels and fishing trips. The number of trips, based on both the commercial data receipts and the creel survey, have been variable since the late 1990s. Based on the creel surveys, there was a slight decrease in the number of trolling trips and trolling hours for non-charter pelagic fishing, from 3,072 trips in 2021 to 2,973 trips in 2022. Additionally, trolling hours per trip decreased from 5.7 hours in 2021 to 4.9 hours in 2022. Charter fishing has resumed since the COVID-19 pandemic, but the exact date of when it started is still unknown. Charter surveys re-initiated in April 2023.

Boat Ramps. There are several boat ramps in the CNMI, most of which are found on Saipan. The main boat ramp used for the largest boats transported via trailer is located at the Smiling

Cove Marina on Saipan. A convenience and transient dock are available for fishermen as well as slips that can be rented for long term boat storage. There are small boat ramps further north on Saipan in Tanapag and Lower Base. The Tanapag boat ramp is frequently used for small fishing and recreational vessels. The Lower Base boat ramp is used by 20-30 ft commercial tourism operators during the day, but at night is a common launching point for subsistence fishermen with small (8-12 ft) vessels. In Garapan, Fishing Base has a small boat ramp that is used by tourism operators, recreational boaters, subsistence fishermen, and commercial fishermen. In the south, the boat ramp at Sugar Dock was used by commercial fishermen, tourism operators, recreational boaters, and subsistence fishermen but due to the dock's collapse in 2014, the ramp hasn't been used often. Furthermore, Sugar Dock was once a port of interest for creel surveys but due to its lack of activity, DFW Data Section switched it out with DFW Ramp (August 2022). Sugar Dock is frequently covered in sand by beach erosion from further north in the lagoon and must be dredged periodically. Once in a while, people still use Sugar Dock as a loading or unloading site for transporting goods from other islands.

Weather. Weather conditions in 2022 roughly followed traditional seasonal patterns. There were no typhoons recorded in 2022. Based on information collected by the National Weather Service Forecast Office in Tiyan, Guam, the CNMI experienced near average amounts of precipitation (68.6 inches annually) and at least 10 high surf advisories in 2022.

Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs). No FAD systems were deployed in 2022. Currently there are no active FADs around Saipan and Rota, with only one still active near Tinian (GG). FAD deployments have been delayed since 2022 due to vessel deficiencies. A FAD off of Rota was active for 2022, but broke away this past January 2023.

CPUE. In 2022, trolling catch rates decreased from 22.0 lb per trolling hour to 15.9 lb per trolling hour, a decrease compared to the 10-year average (21.7 lb/hr). The skipjack catch rate decreased to 9.2 lb per hour fished. This catch rate is 6.2 lb less than the 10-year average (15.4 lb/hr). Yellowfin catch rate decreased from 1.5 in 2021 to 1.0 lb per hour. The mahi mahi catch rate increased to 3.9 lb/hr in 2022, which is 0.1 lb/hr greater than the 10-year average.

Revenue. The total value of the pelagic fishery in 2022 was \$721,579.40, which represented a 6.55% increase from the previous year (\$677,239). The average price for all pelagic species was \$3.08 in 2022, an increase of \$0.66 from 2021.

Bycatch. Bycatch is not a significant issue in the CNMI, as fishermen retain their catch regardless of species, size, or condition. Based on creel survey interviews, only two fish were caught as bycatch in the trolling fisheries in 2020 leading up to 2022.

2.2.3 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

There were no Plan Team recommendations relevant to the CNMI data module of the annual SAFE report.

2.2.4 OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPATION AND EFFORT

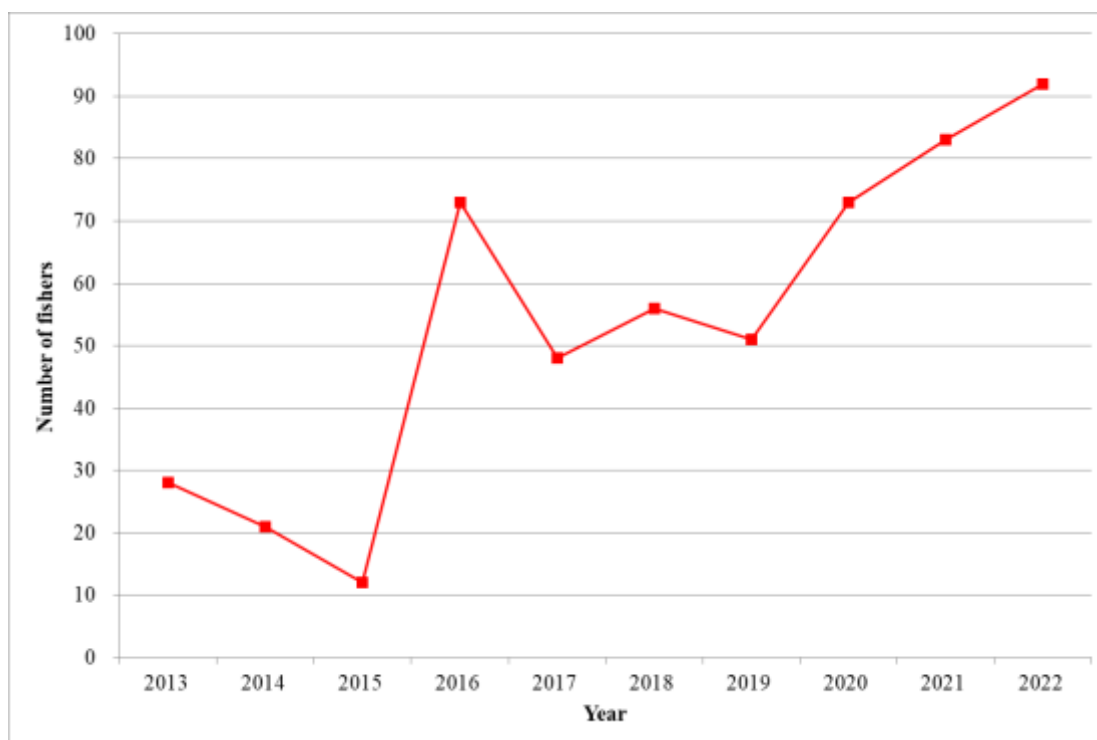


Figure 22. Number of fishers with commercial pelagic landings in the CNMI
Due to reporting methods, this number includes duplicate counts. Supporting data shown in Table A-22.

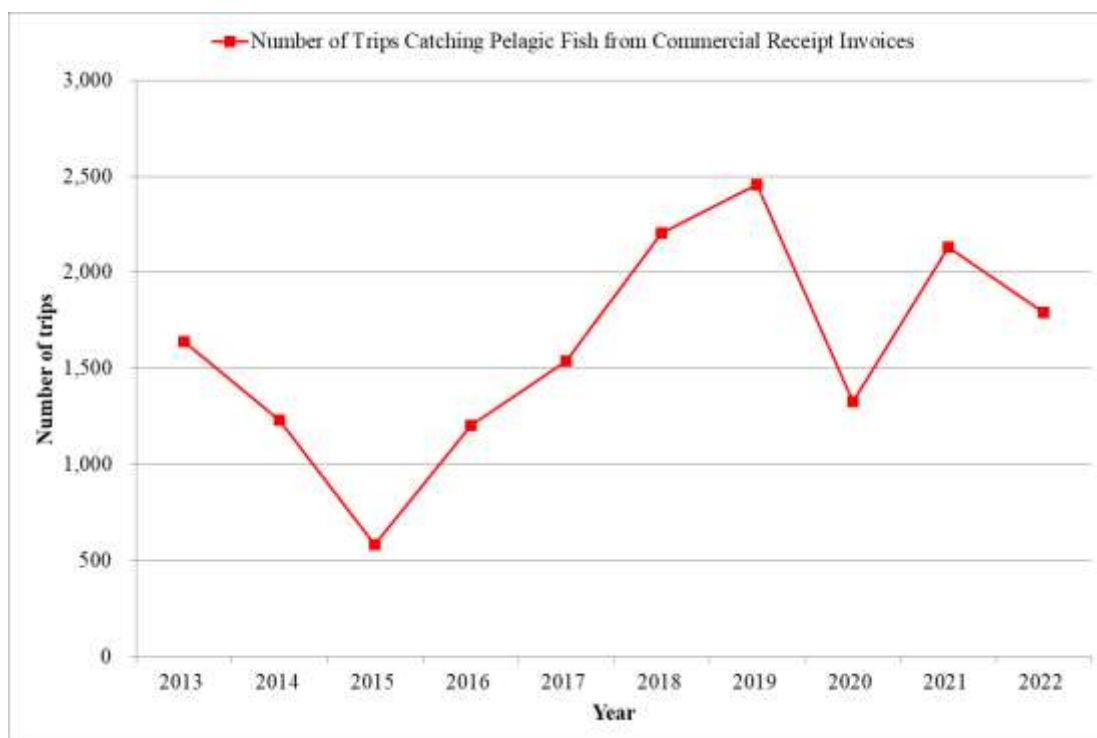


Figure 23. Number of trips with commercial pelagic landings in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-23.



Figure 24. Estimated number of trolling trips from boat-based creel surveys in the CNMI Supporting data shown in Table A-24.

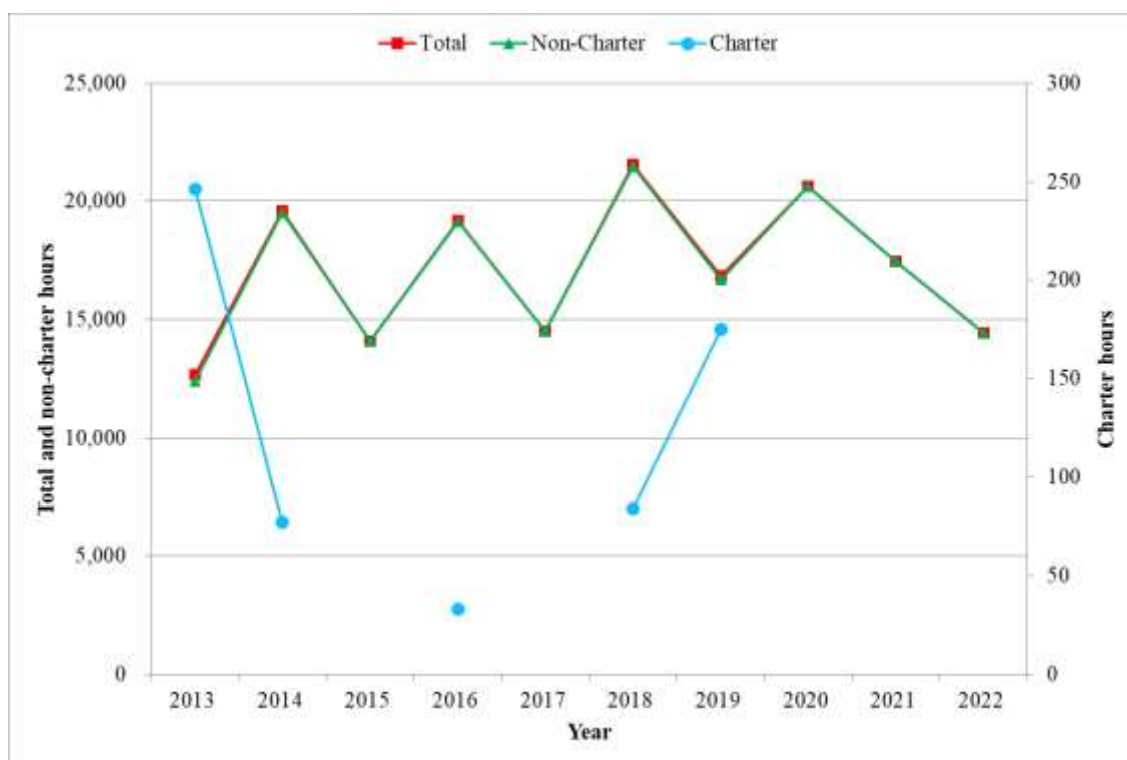


Figure 25. Estimated number of trolling hours from boat-based creel surveys in the CNMI Supporting data shown in Table A-25.



Figure 26. Estimated average troll trip length from boat-based creel surveys in the CNMI Supporting data shown in Table A-26.

2.2.5 OVERVIEW OF LANDINGS

Table 15. Pelagic species composition of boat-based creel survey total estimated catch (lb) in the CNMI in 2022

| Species | Total Landings | Non-Charter | Charter |
|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------|
| Skipjack Tuna | 132,152 | 132,152 | 0 |
| Yellowfin Tuna | 14,224 | 14,224 | 0 |
| Saba (Kawakawa) | 2,607 | 2,607 | 0 |
| Tunas (Misc.) | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tunas Total | 148,983 | 148,983 | 0 |
| Mahimahi | 58,049 | 58,049 | 0 |
| Wahoo | 20,646 | 20,646 | 0 |
| Blue Marlin | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sailfish | 3,449 | 3,449 | 0 |
| Spearfish | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sharks | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sickle Pomfret | 169 | 169 | 0 |
| Non-Tuna PMUS Total | 82,313 | 82,313 | 0 |
| Dogtooth Tuna | 3,986 | 3,986 | 0 |

| Species | Total Landings | Non-Charter | Charter |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------|
| Rainbow Runner | 629 | 629 | 0 |
| Barracuda | 1,529 | 1,529 | 0 |
| Troll Fish (Misc.) | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other Pelagics Total | 6,144 | 6,144 | 0 |
| Total Pelagics | 237,440 | 237,440 | 0 |

Note: Total pelagic landings may be greater than the sum of the individual species due to an artifact in reporting process, where the difference accounts for non-PMUS reported as part of the creel surveys.

Table 16. Commercial pelagic landings (lb), revenue (\$), and average price (\$) in the CNMI in 2022

| Species | Pounds | Value | Average Price |
|---|------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Skipjack Tuna | 172,079.6 | 520,514.8 | 3.02 |
| Yellowfin Tuna | 11,217.3 | 39,480.4 | 3.52 |
| Saba (Kawakawa) | 2,411.3 | 7,126.0 | 2.96 |
| Tunas (Misc.) | 310.0 | 820.0 | 2.65 |
| Tunas Total and Average Price | 186,018.2 | 567,941.2 | 3.05 |
| Mahimahi | 33,112.5 | 104,921.3 | 3.17 |
| Wahoo | 7,356.4 | 23,884.6 | 3.25 |
| Blue Marlin | 1,638.4 | 5,020.8 | 3.06 |
| Sailfish | 96.9 | 242.2 | 2.50 |
| Sickle Pomfret | 577.7 | 1,875.9 | 3.25 |
| Non-Tuna PMUS Total and Average Price | 42,781.7 | 135,944.7 | 3.18 |
| Dogtooth Tuna | 3,701.8 | 12,036.0 | 3.25 |
| Rainbow Runner | 1,319.3 | 4,892.5 | 3.71 |
| Barracuda | 97.5 | 243.8 | 2.50 |
| Troll Fish (misc.) | 173.8 | 521.3 | 3.00 |
| Other Pelagics Total and Average Price | 5,292.3 | 17,693.5 | 3.34 |
| Pelagics Total and Average Price | 234,092.3 | 721,579.4 | 3.08 |

Note: Total pelagic landings may be greater than the sum of the individual species due to an artifact in reporting process, where the difference accounts for non-PMUS reported as part of the creel survey.

Table 17. Bycatch summary for pelagic fisheries in the CNMI

| Year | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| 2013 | 0 | 0.0 | 3,418 | 3,418 | F |
| 2014 | 0 | 0.0 | 2,413 | 2,413 | F |
| 2015 | 0 | 0.0 | 2,573 | 2,573 | F |
| 2016 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,667 | 1,667 | F |

| Year | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| 2017 | 0 | 0.0 | 2,214 | 2,214 | F |
| 2018 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,761 | 1,761 | F |
| 2019 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,270 | 1,270 | F |
| 2020 | 2* | 0.1 | 1,929 | 1,931 | F |
| 2021 | 0 | 0.0 | 2,600 | 2,600 | F |
| 2022 | 0 | 0.0 | 1,021 | 1,021 | F |
| 2013 | 0 | 0.0 | 33 | 33 | T |
| 2014 | 0 | 0.0 | 15 | 15 | T |
| 2015 | 0 | 0.0 | 17 | 17 | T |
| 2016 | 0 | 0.0 | 59 | 59 | T |
| 2017 | 0 | 0.0 | 4 | 4 | T |
| 2018 | 0 | 0.0 | 67 | 67 | T |
| 2019 | 0 | 0.0 | 74 | 74 | T |
| 2020 | 0 | 0.0 | 112 | 112 | T |

* Both individuals released were mahimahi.

Note: Bycatch information is calculated from raw interview creel survey data and represents the percent of fish caught or percent of interviews with bycatch.

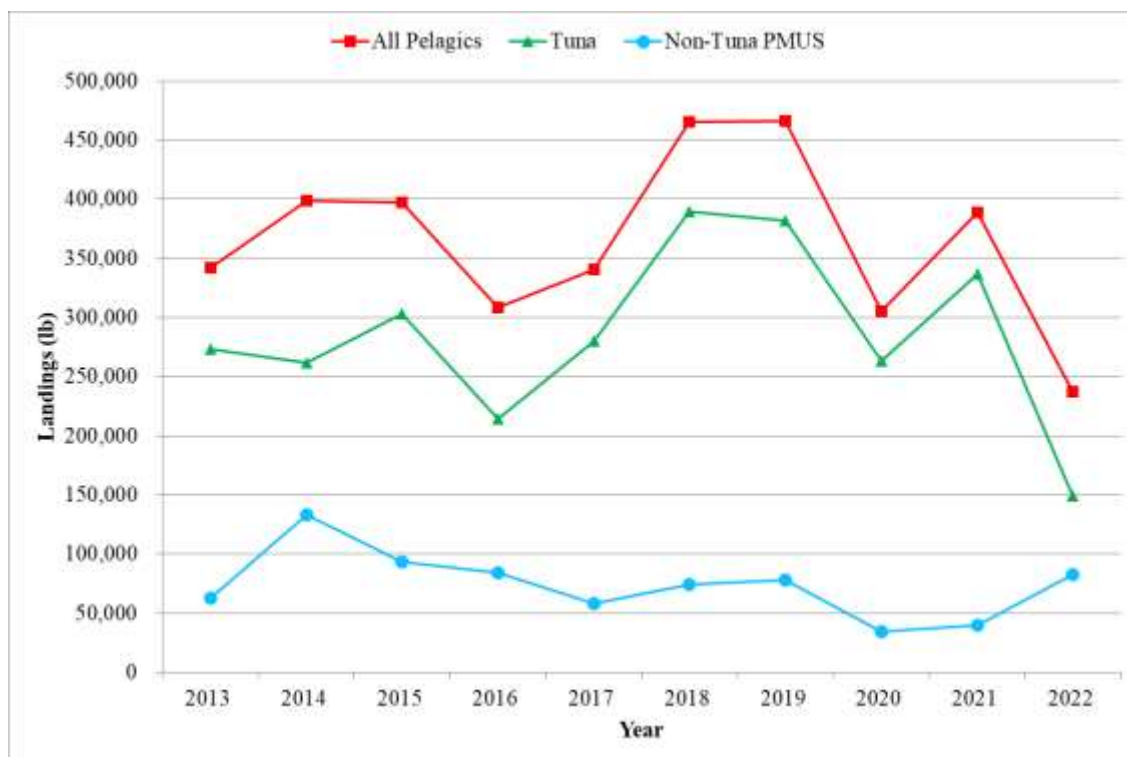


Figure 27. Total estimated catch for all pelagics, tuna PMUS, and non-tuna PMUS from boat-based creel surveys in the CNMI

Supporting data shown in Table A-27.



Figure 28. Total estimated catch for all pelagics in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-28.



Figure 29. Total estimated catch for tuna PMUS in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-29.



Figure 30. Total estimated catch for non-tuna PMUS in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-30.



Figure 31. Total estimated catch for skipjack tuna in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-31.



Figure 32. Total estimated catch for yellowfin tuna in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-32.



Figure 33. Total estimated catch for mahimahi in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-33.

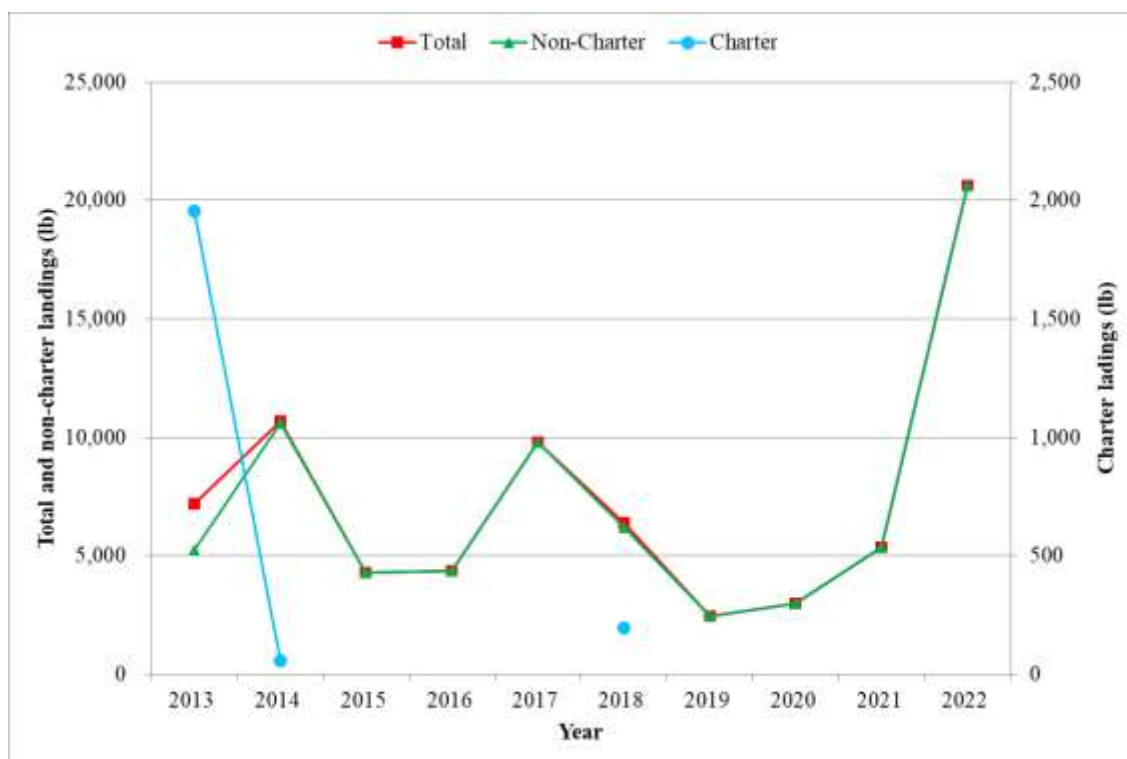


Figure 34. Total estimated catch for wahoo in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-34.



Figure 35. Total estimated catch for blue marlin in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-35.

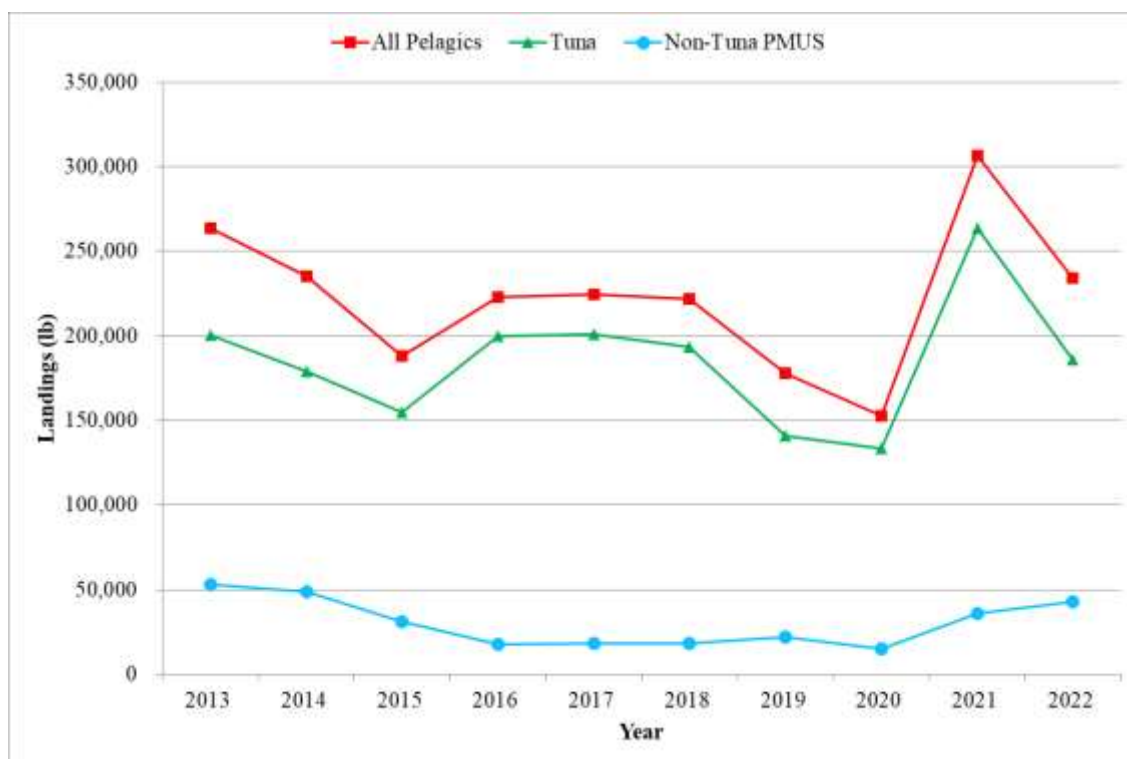


Figure 36. Commercial purchase landings for all pelagics, tuna PMUS, and non-tuna PMUS in the CNMI

Supporting data shown in Table A-36.

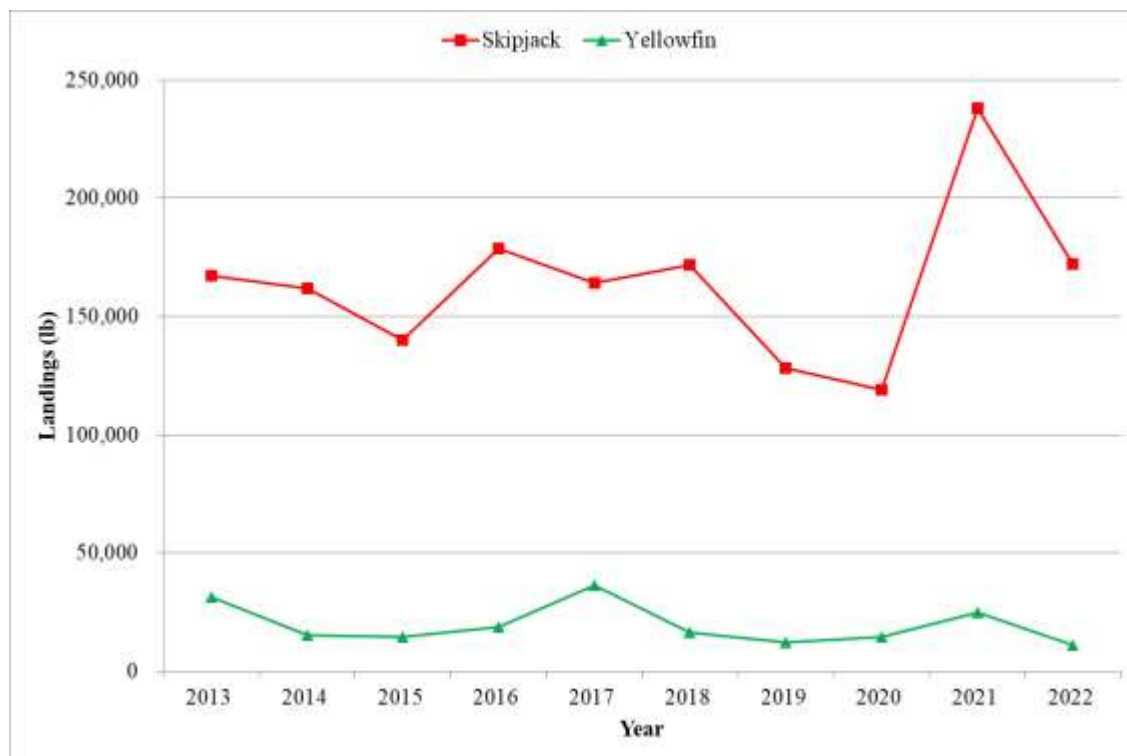


Figure 37. Commercial purchase landings for skipjack and yellowfin tunas in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-37.

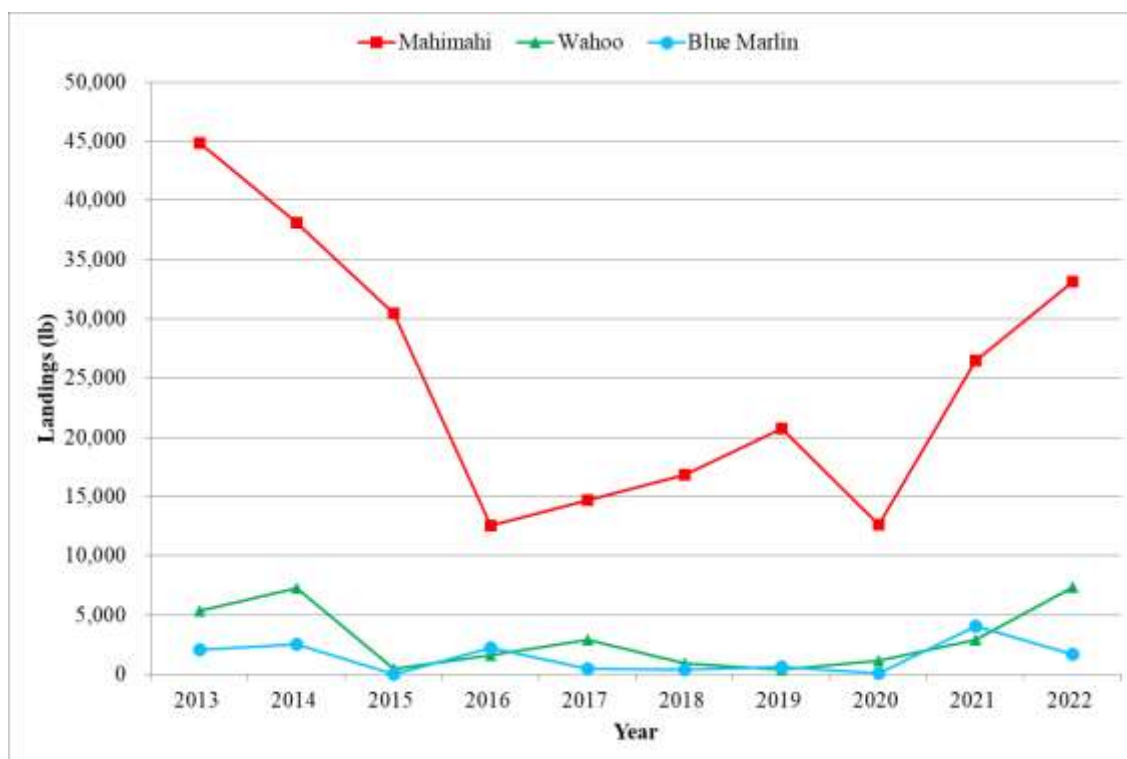


Figure 38. Commercial purchase landings for mahimahi, wahoo, and blue marlin in the CNMI

Supporting data shown in Table A-38.

2.2.6 OVERVIEW OF CATCH PER UNIT EFFORT - ALL FISHERIES

This section provides catch rates for the five main species landed by trolling. “Pounds per hour trolled” is determined from creel survey interviews and includes charter and non-charter sectors, while “pounds per trip” is determined from commercial invoice receipts.

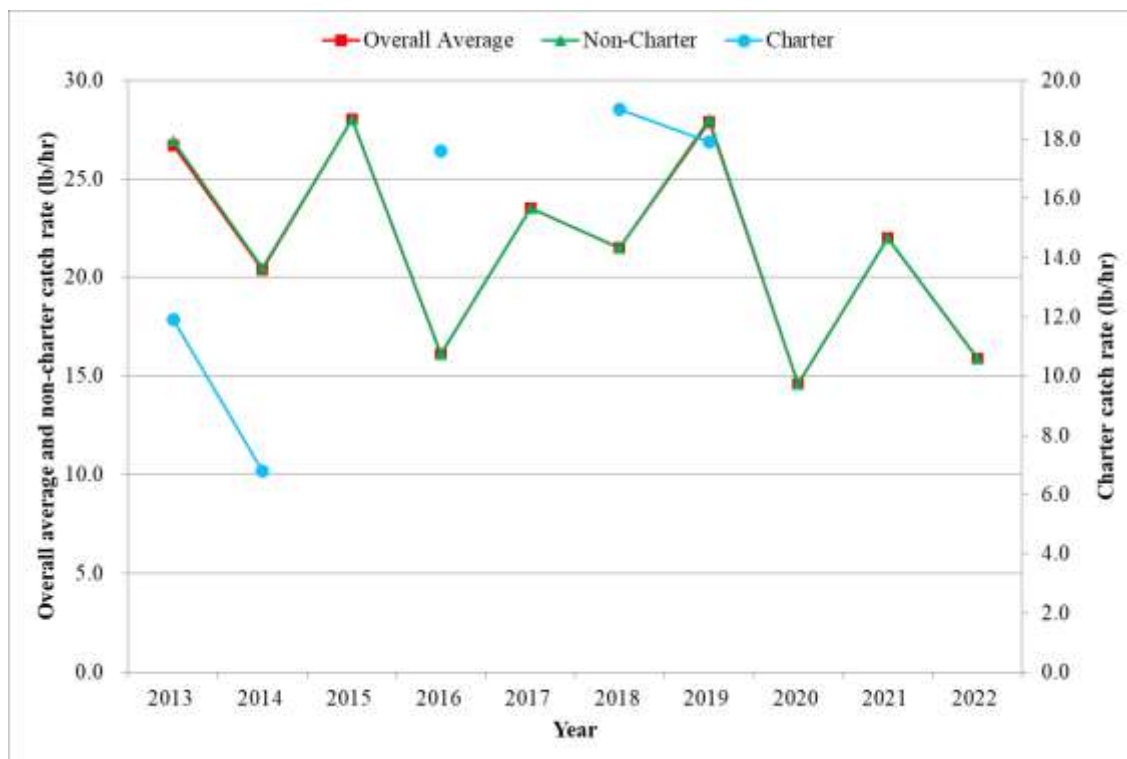


Figure 39. Estimated total trolling catch rates (lb/hr) in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-39.

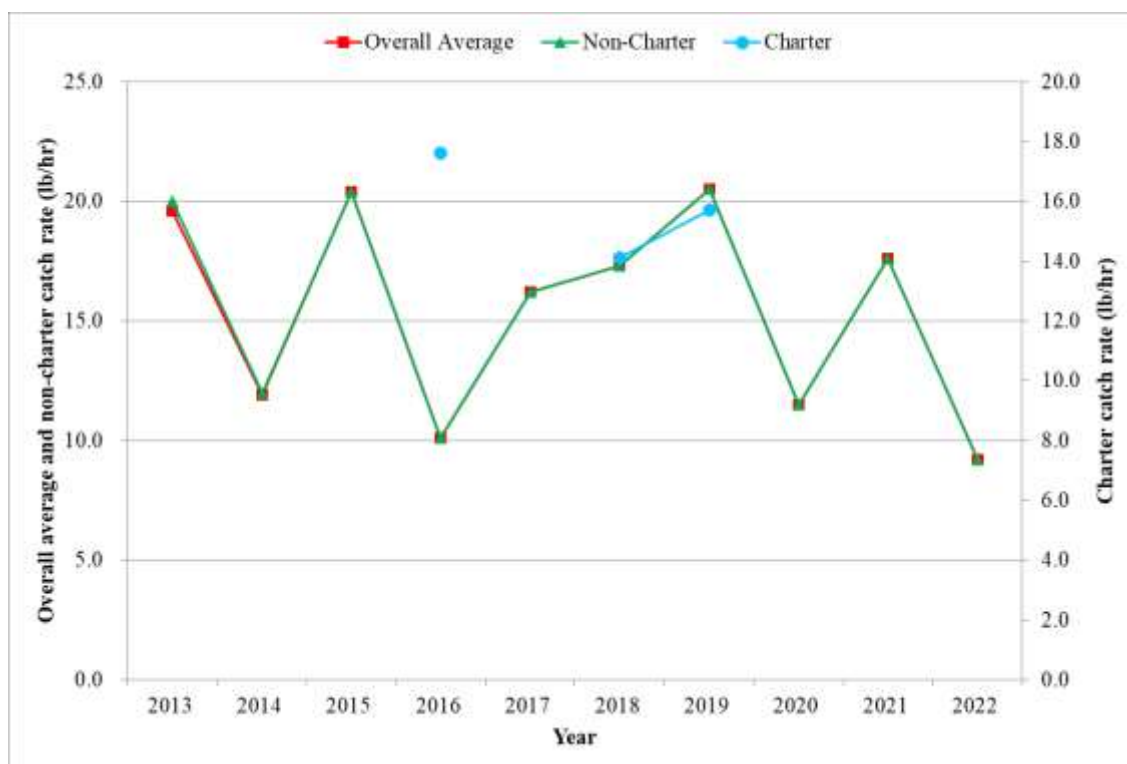


Figure 40. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for skipjack tuna in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-40.

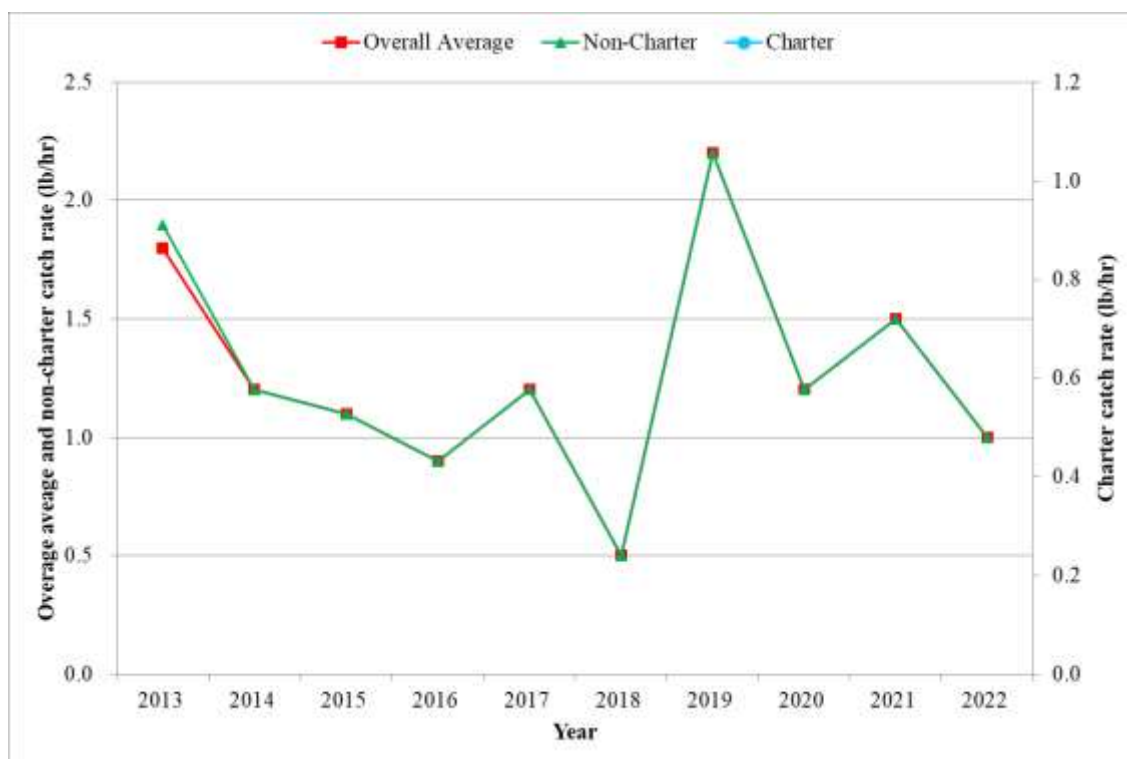


Figure 41. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for yellowfin tuna in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-41.

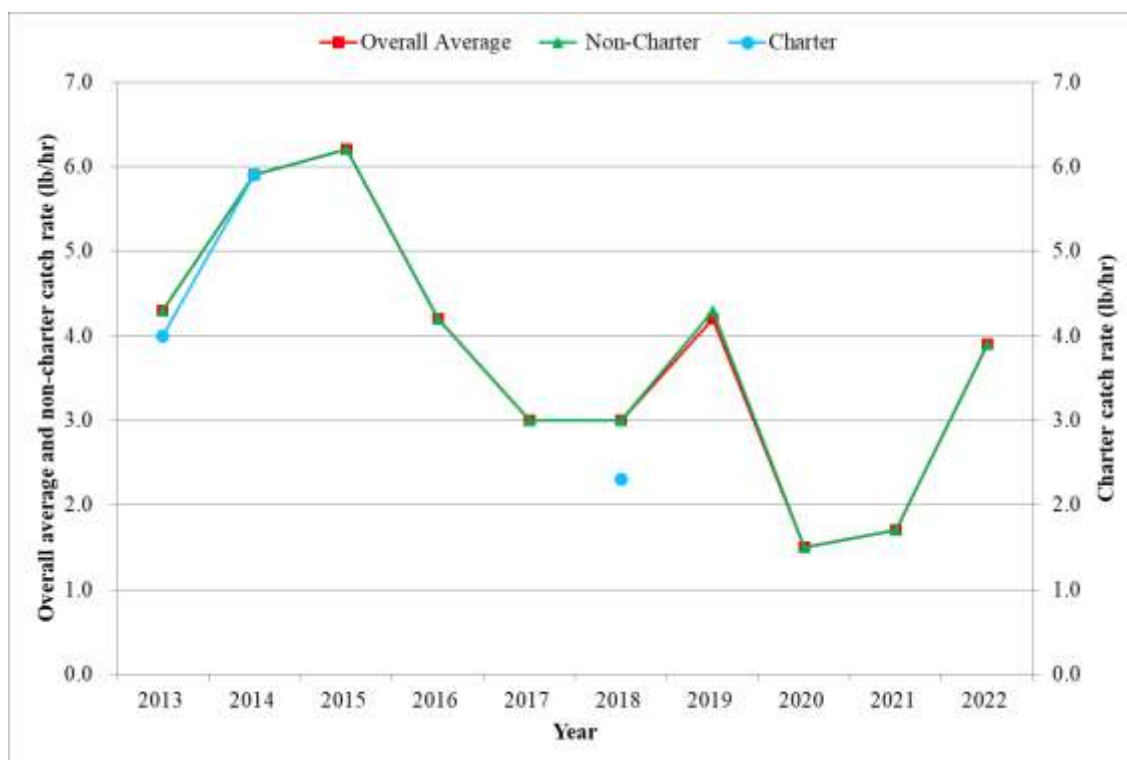


Figure 42. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for mahimahi in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-42.

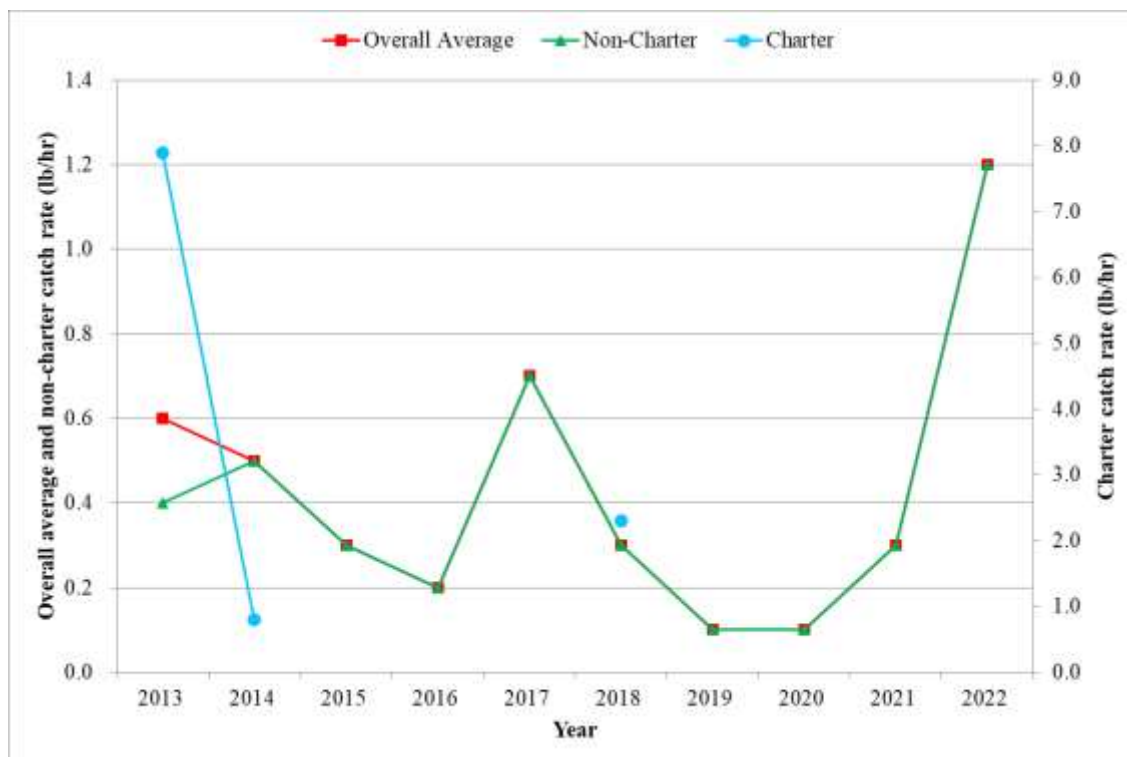


Figure 43. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for wahoo in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-43.

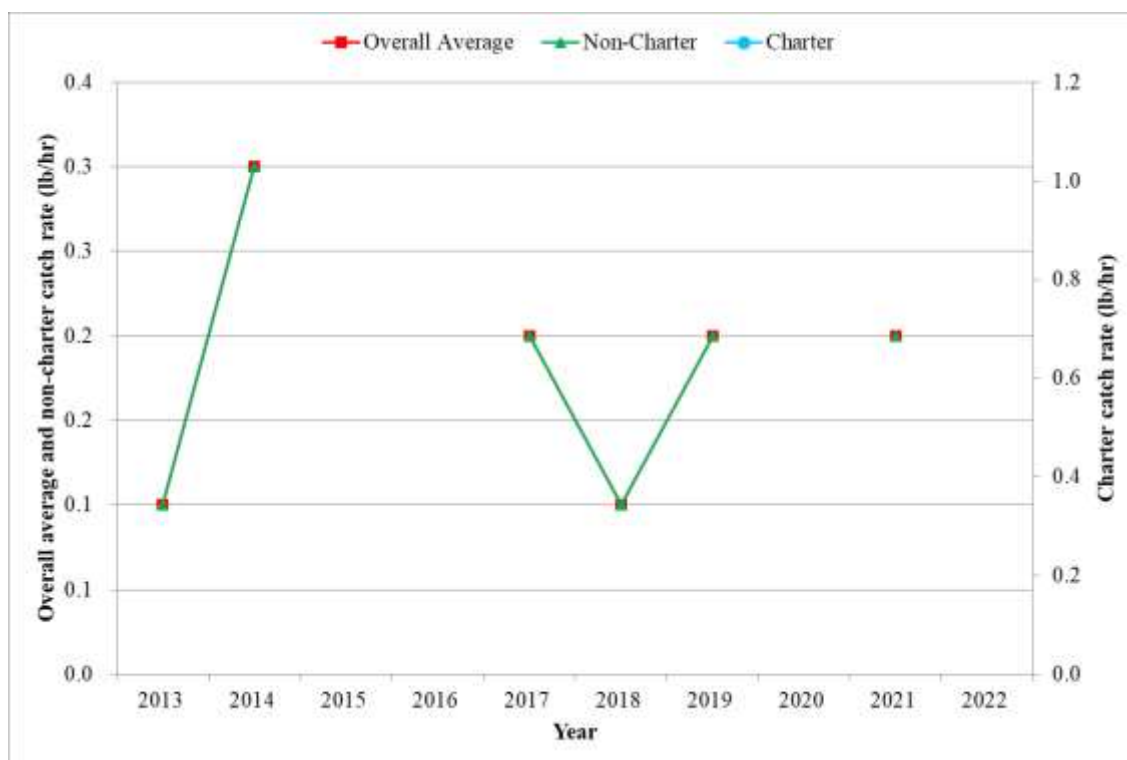


Figure 44. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for blue marlin in the CNMI
Supporting data shown in Table A-44.

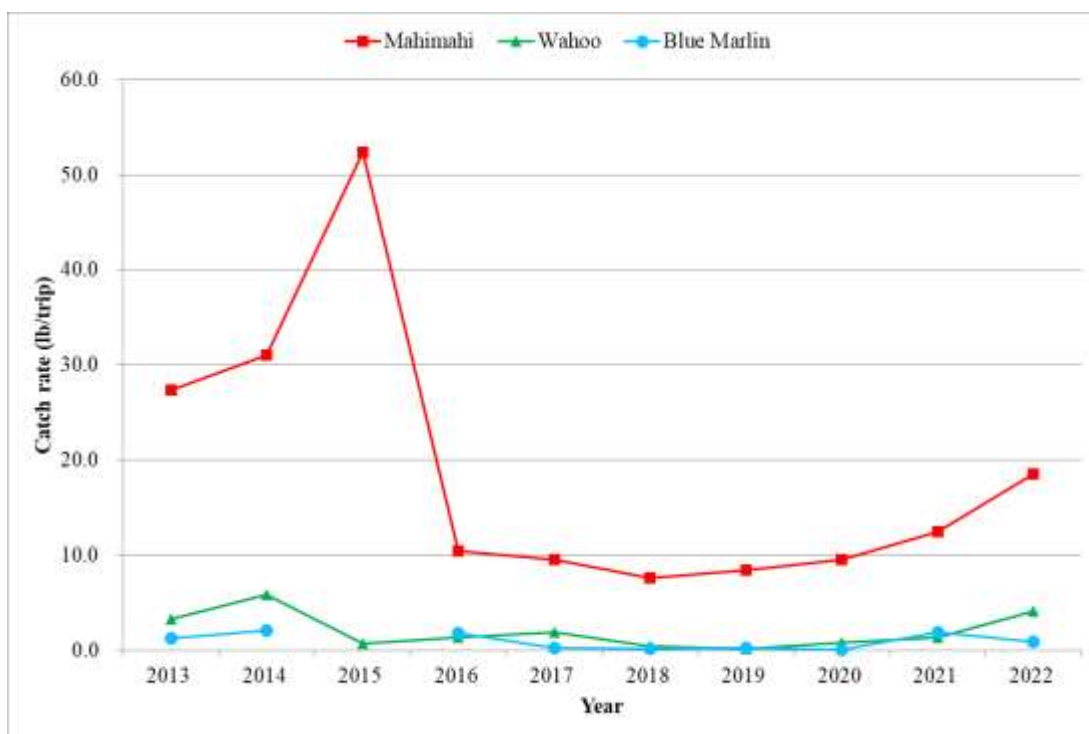


Figure 45. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/trip) for mahimahi, wahoo, and blue marlin in the CNMI

Supporting data shown in Table A-45.

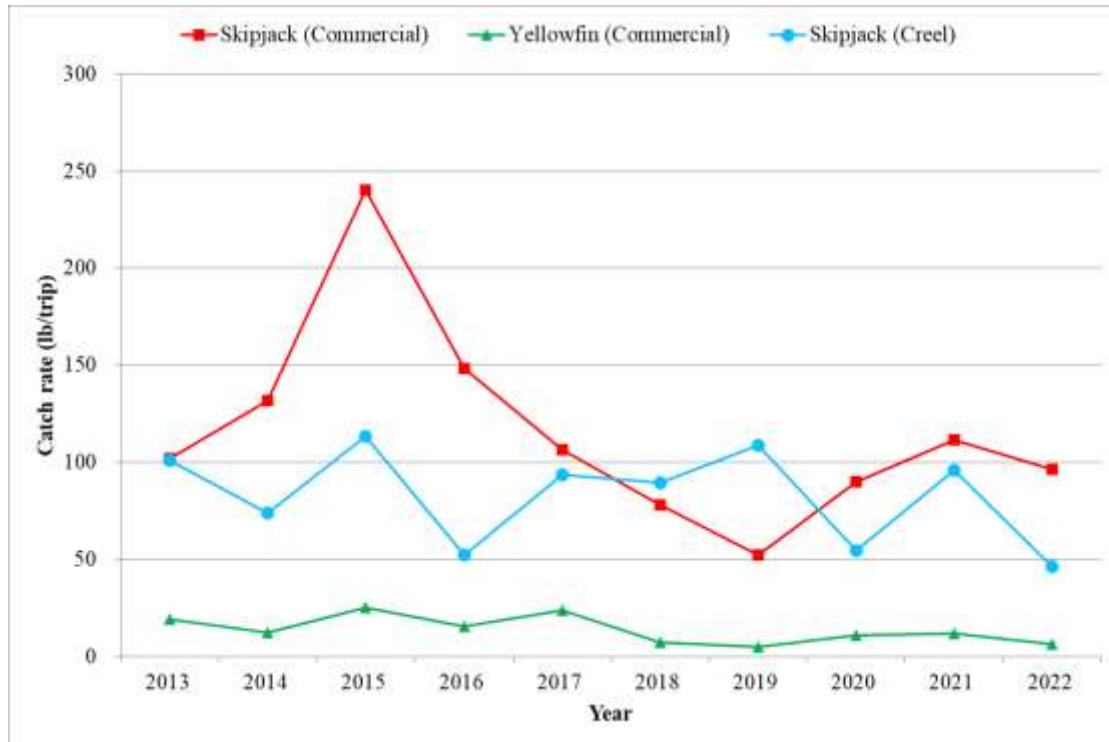


Figure 46. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/trip) for skipjack and yellowfin tuna in the CNMI

Supporting data shown in Table A-46.

2.3 GUAM

2.3.1 DATA SOURCES

This report contains the most recently available information on Guam's pelagic fisheries, as compiled from data generated by the Division of Aquatic and Wildlife Resources (DAWR) through a program established in conjunction with PIFSC and the WPRFMC. Data are gathered through the offshore creel survey data program. In the past 10 years, DAWR staff have logged between 90 and 97 survey days annually (see Table A-47). The number of trips logged in boat logs has varied from 498 to 1,147 during that period, with the number of interviews slightly greater than half of that year's total trips. In 2021, DAWR completed 93 of 96 scheduled survey days, documented 10,700 trips and conducted 676 interviews. Participation, total landings, effort, CPUE, and bycatch are generated from the creel survey. Using the DAWR computerized data expansion system files (with the assistance of NMFS to avoid over-estimating seasonal pelagic species), a 365-day quarterly expansion of survey data is run for each calendar year to produce catch and effort estimates for the pelagic fishery. Commercial landings, revenue, and price per pound data are obtained from the PIFSC-sponsored commercial landings system through the commercial receipt book. Transshipment landings data are obtained from the Bureau of Statistics and Plans. All transshipment through Guam ceased as of December 31, 2020.

DAWR has added three biologists in the past 12 months, which should help address chronic manpower shortages of the past. DAWR staff biologists continue to oversee several projects simultaneously, while providing on-going training to ensure the high quality of data being collected by all staff. All fisheries staff are trained to identify the most commonly caught fish to the species level. New staff are mentored by biologists and senior technicians in the field before conducting creel surveys on their own.

Total commercial landings are estimated by summing the weight fields in the commercial landings database from the principal fish wholesalers in Guam and then multiplying by an estimated percent coverage expansion factor. The annual expansion factor (described above) is subjectively created based on the available information in a given year including: an analysis of the "disposition of catch" data available from the DAWR offshore creel survey, an evaluation of the fishermen in the fishery and their entry/exit patterns, general "dock side" knowledge of the fishery and the status of the marketing conditions and structure, the overall number of records in the database, and a certain measure of best guesses.

2.3.2 SUMMARY OF GUAM PELAGIC FISHERIES

Landings. The estimated annual pelagic landings varies widely in the 42-year time series, ranging between 383,000 and 958,000 lb. The average total catch has shown a slowly increasing trend over the reporting period. The 2022 total expanded pelagic landings were 629,837 lb, a decrease of 26.7% when compared with the catch from 2021. Tuna PMUS decreased 40.2%, while non-tuna PMUS increased 87.1%. Landings consisted primarily of five major species: mahimahi, wahoo, bonita or skipjack tuna, yellowfin tuna, and Pacific blue marlin, with skipjack comprising over 66.5% of total landings. Other minor species caught include rainbow runner, barracudas, and pomfrets. Sharks were also caught during 2022, with sharks noted in specific fishermen interviews conducted in 2022 regarding shark

encounters (see bycatch below). However, these species were not encountered during offshore creel surveys and were not available for expansion for this year's report. Sharks are often discarded as bycatch. In addition to the above pelagic species, approximately half a dozen other species were landed incidentally this year.

There are wide year-to-year fluctuations in the estimated landings of the five major pelagic species. Landings for two of the five common species increased in 2022 from the previous year's levels. Skipjack decreased 37%, and yellowfin decreased by 63.3%. Wahoo catch increased 252%, mahimahi catch increased by 302%, and blue marlin decreased by 72%.

Effort. The number of boats involved in Guam's pelagic fishery gradually increased from 193 in 1983 to a high of 546 in 2021. There were 449 boats involved in Guam's pelagic fishery in 2022, a decrease of 17.7% from the all time high of 2021. The majority of the fishing boats are less than 10 m (33 ft) in length and are usually owner-operated by fishermen who earn a living outside of fishing. Most fishermen sell a portion of their catch, and it is difficult to make a distinction between recreational, subsistence, and commercial fishers. A small but economically significant segment (~5%) of the pelagic group is made up of marina-berthed charter boats that are operated primarily by full-time captains and crews. Data and graphs for non-charters, charters, and bycatch are represented in this report.

In early 2010, the U.S. military began exercises in an area south and southeast of Guam designated W-517. W-517 is a special use airspace (approximately 14,000 nm²) that overlays deep open ocean approximately 50 miles south-southwest of Guam. Exercises in W-517 generally involve live fire and/or pyrotechnics. When W-517 is in use, a notice to mariners is issued, and vessels attempting to use the area are advised to be cautious of objects in the water and other small vessels. This discourages access to virtually all banks south of Guam, including Galvez, Santa Rosa, White Tuna, and other popular fishing areas. From 1995 to 2009, DAWR surveys recorded an annual average of 13.5 weekday trips to the south, and 31 weekend trips to the south, for a total of 44.5 trips per year. Since 2010, DAWR surveys have recorded an annual average of 6.7 weekday trips to the south, and 19.8 weekend trips to the south, for an average of 26.5 trips per year, a decrease of 40.5% per year. As the majority of NTMs for W-517 cover weekdays, the decrease in weekday trips is greater, 50.4%.

The small-boat bottomfish and trolling fishery in Guam relies on boat ramp access and FADs. Recent activities to support the Guam fishery follow.

On Guam, the makeshift ramp at Ylig Bay was eliminated in 2010. Widening of the main road on the southeast coast of Guam will cause removal of the ramp. In December 2006, a new launch ramp and facility was opened in Acfayan Bay, located in the village on Inarajan on the southeast coast of Guam. Monitoring of this ramp for pelagic fishing activity began at the start of 2007. In early 2007, this facility was damaged by heavy surf and has yet to be repaired. Monitoring of this ramp is currently on hold until the ramp is repaired. The current financial situation in Guam makes it unlikely this ramp will be repaired in the near future. DAWR staff are meeting with landowners and Department of Public Works officials to develop a new boat launching facility in Talofof Bay on the east side of Guam, and land ownership may determine final placement.

CPUE. Trolling catch rates (lb per hour fished) showed a decrease from 2021. Total CPUE decreased 14.6%. The two tuna species showed a decrease in CPUE from 2021 to 2022. Marlin showed in CPUE from 2021 to 2022. Mahi and wahoo CPUE increased from 2021 to

2022. The fluctuations in CPUE are possibly due to variability in the year-to-year abundance and availability of the stocks.

Revenues. Commercial data for Guam pelagic fisheries are non-disclosed due to confidentiality rules that prevent data derived from fewer than three sources to be reported. Because there were fewer than three vendors that reported sales of pelagic fish on Guam in 2020, 2021, and 2022, the data are not able to be presented in this report.

A majority of troll fishermen do not rely on the catch or selling of fish as their primary source of income. Previously, Guam law required the Government of Guam to provide locally caught fish to food services in government agencies, such as Department of Education and Department of Corrections. In 2002, the Government of Guam began implementing cost-saving measures, including privatization of food services. The requirement that locally-caught fish be used for food services, while still a part of private contracts, is not being enforced. This has allowed private contractors to import cheaper foreign fish and reduced the sales of vendors selling locally caught fish. This represented a substantial portion of sales of locally caught pelagic fish. The decrease in commercial sales seen following 2002 may be, in part, due to this change.

Bycatch. There is low bycatch in the charter fishery. In 2022, interview data indicated there was again a low bycatch rate; there were 72 fish reported as bycatch in 5,342 tallied fish caught, for a 1.34% rate. Bycatch occasionally occurs in the troll fishery including sharks, shark-bitten and undersized fish.

In 2022, fishers were asked if they experienced a shark interaction. There was a total of 802 interviews for boat-based fishing in 2022, with 95 of these inappropriate for determining shark interaction. Of the remaining 707 interviews, 267 reported interactions with sharks and 440 reported no interactions with sharks for a 37.7% positive rate for interviews where fishers were asked about shark interactions.

2.3.3 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

There were no Plan Team recommendations relevant to the Guam data module of the annual SAFE report.

2.3.4 OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPATION

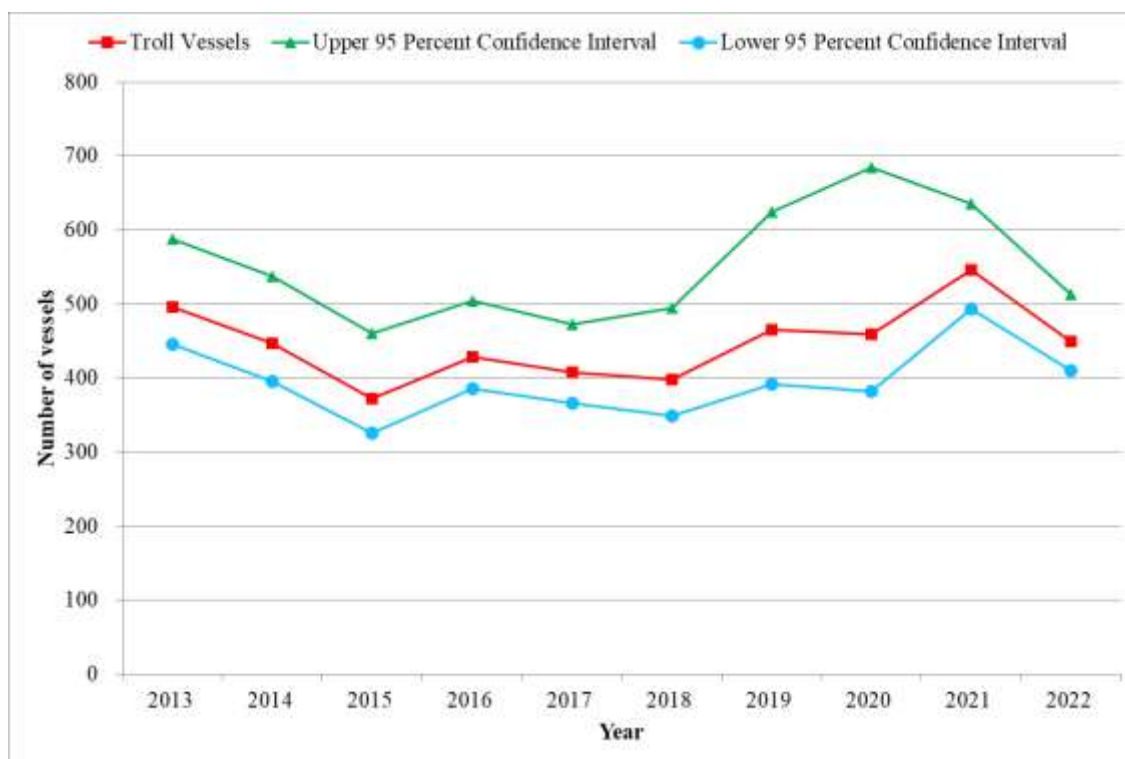


Figure 47. Total estimated number of vessels in Guam pelagic fisheries
Supporting data shown in Table A-48.

2.3.5 OVERVIEW OF TOTAL AND REPORTED COMMERCIAL LANDINGS

Table 18. Total estimated, non-charter, and charter landings (lb) for Guam in 2022

| Species | Total Landings | Non-Charter | Charter |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| Skipjack Tuna | 419,431 | 414,935 | 4,496 |
| Yellowfin Tuna | 34,050 | 33,909 | 141 |
| Kawakawa | 395 | 395 | 0 |
| Albacore | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Bigeye Tuna | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other Tuna PMUS | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TUNAS Total | 453,876 | 449,239 | 4,637 |
| Mahimahi | 94,491 | 86,651 | 7,840 |
| Wahoo | 57,003 | 55,434 | 1,569 |
| Blue Marlin | 8,700 | 6,818 | 1,882 |
| Black Marlin | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Striped Marlin | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sailfish | 1,046 | 682 | 364 |

| Species | Total Landings | Non-Charter | Charter |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| Shortbill Spearfish | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Swordfish | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Oceanic Sharks | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfrets | 4,428 | 4,428 | 0 |
| Oilfish | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| NON-TUNA PMUS Total | 165,668 | 154,013 | 11,655 |
| Dogtooth Tuna | 1,476 | 1,442 | 34 |
| Rainbow Runner | 3,073 | 2,702 | 371 |
| Barracudas | 5,687 | 4,985 | 702 |
| Double-lined Mackerel | 57 | 57 | 0 |
| Misc. Troll Fish | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| OTHER PELAGICS Total | 10,293 | 9,186 | 1,107 |
| TOTAL PELAGICS | 629,837 | 612,438 | 17,399 |

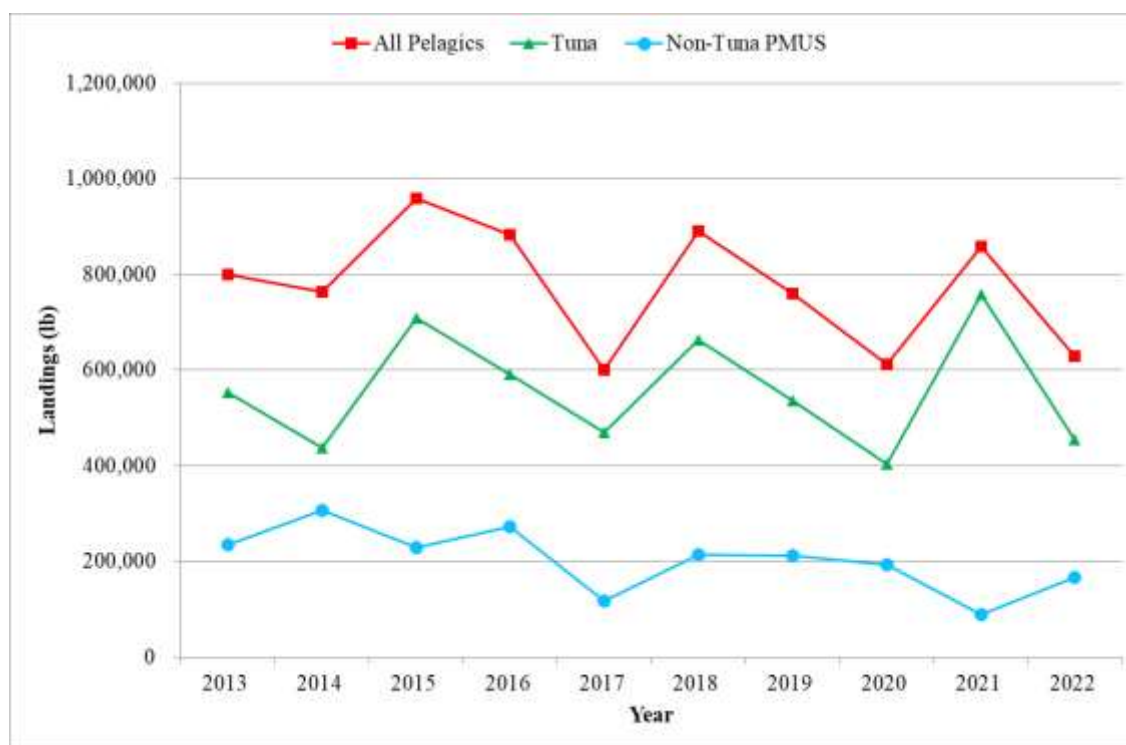


Figure 48. Total estimated landings for all pelagics, tuna PMUS, and non-tuna PMUS from boat-based creel surveys in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-49.

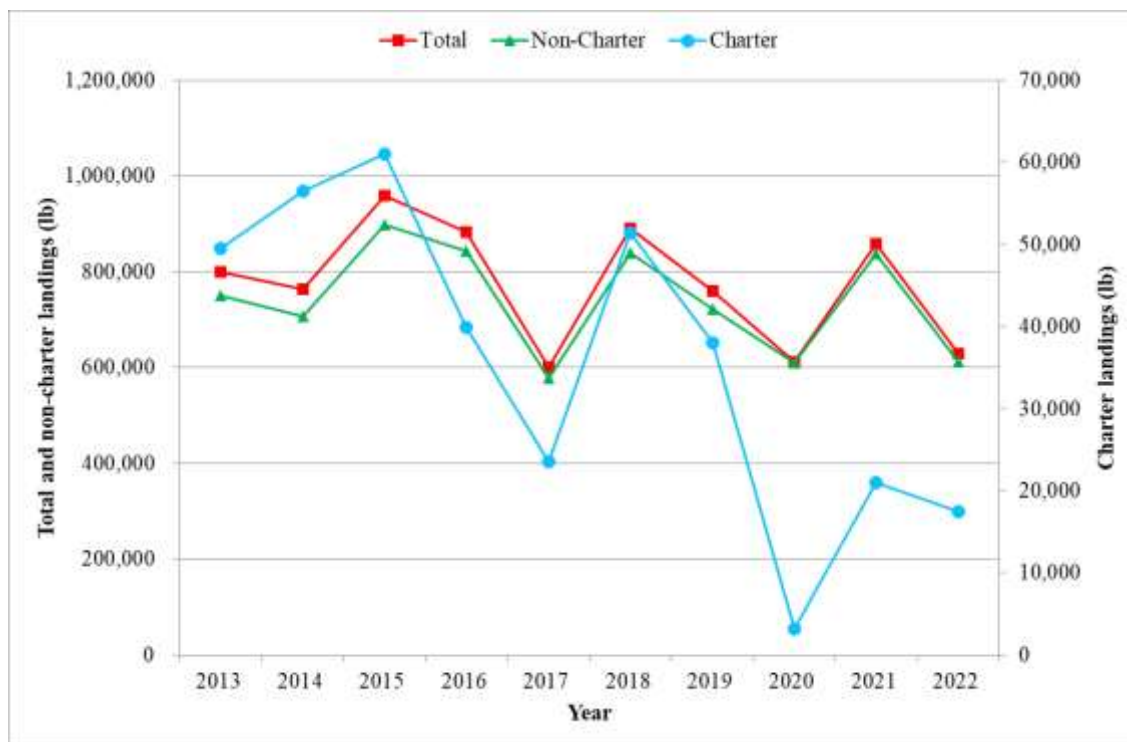


Figure 49. Total estimated landings for all pelagics in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-50.

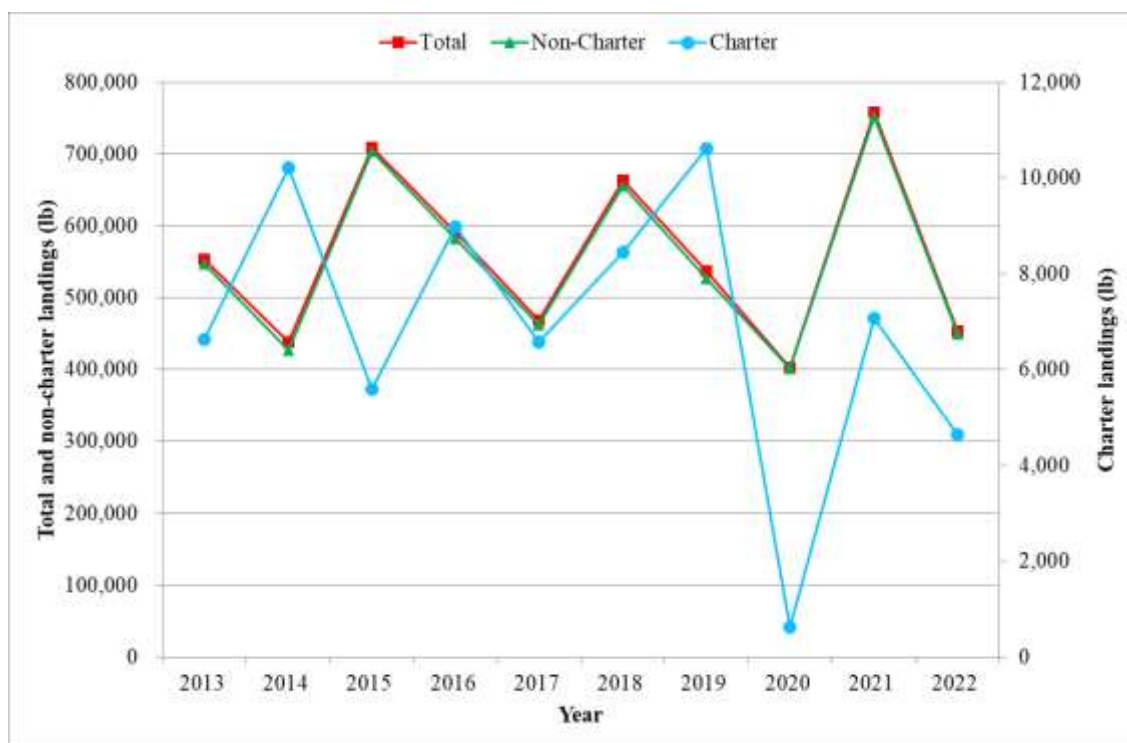


Figure 50. Total estimated landings for tuna PMUS in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-51.

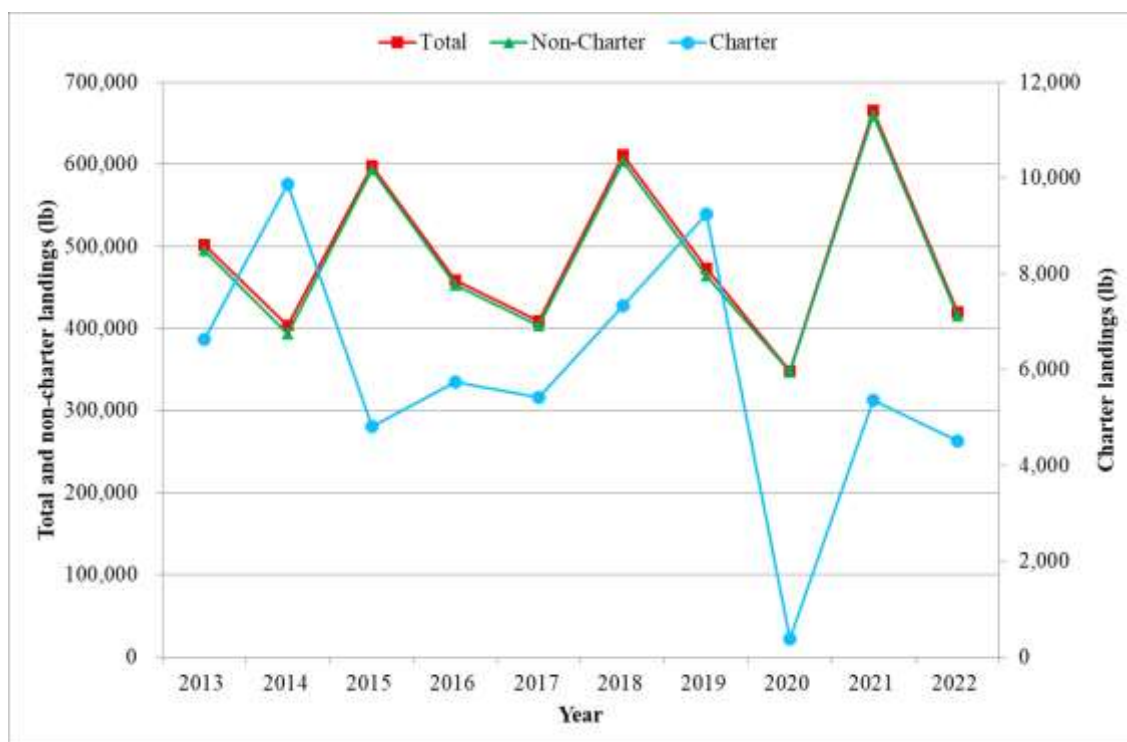


Figure 51. Total estimated landings for skipjack tuna in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-52.



Figure 52. Total estimated landings for yellowfin tuna in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-53.

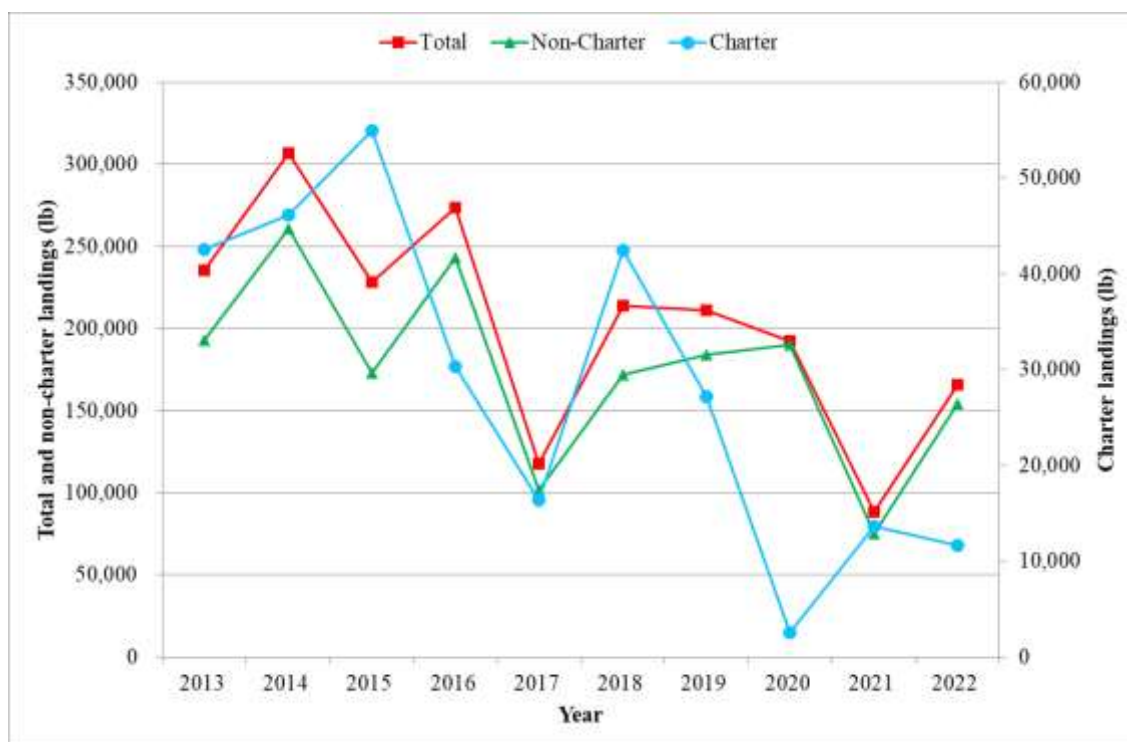


Figure 53. Total estimated landings for non-tuna PMUS in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-54.



Figure 54. Total estimated landings for mahimahi in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-55.



Figure 55. Total estimated landings for wahoo in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-56.



Figure 56. Total estimated landings for blue marlin in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-57.

Table 19. Bycatch summary for pelagic trolling fisheries in Guam

| Year | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| 2013 | 28 | 0.4 | 6,731 | 6,759 | F |
| 2014 | 21 | 0.4 | 5,320 | 5,341 | F |
| 2015 | 0 | 0.0 | 6,807 | 6,807 | F |
| 2016 | 0 | 0.0 | 8,867 | 8,867 | F |
| 2017 | 0 | 0.0 | 6,369 | 6,369 | F |
| 2018 | 2 | 0.0 | 7,987 | 7,989 | F |
| 2019 | 150 | 2.0 | 7,334 | 7,484 | F |
| 2020 | 4 | 0.1 | 3,218 | 3,222 | F |
| 2021 | 14 | 0.2 | 7,785 | 7,799 | F |
| 2022 | 72 | 1.2 | 5,769 | 5,841 | F |
| 2013 | 0 | 0.0 | 258 | 258 | T |
| 2014 | 0 | 0.0 | 496 | 496 | T |
| 2015 | 0 | 0.0 | 444 | 444 | T |
| 2016 | 6 | 1.6 | 369 | 375 | T |
| 2017 | 0 | 0.0 | 231 | 231 | T |
| 2018 | 0 | 0.0 | 284 | 284 | T |
| 2019 | 0 | 0.0 | 315 | 315 | T |
| 2020 | 0 | 0.0 | 40 | 40 | T |
| 2021 | 0 | 0.0 | 174 | 174 | T |
| 2022 | 0 | 0.0 | 130 | 130 | T |

Table 20. Bycatch species summary for pelagic trolling fisheries in Guam

| Year | Species | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| 2013 | Rainbow Runner | 1 | 3.0 | 32 | 33 | F |
| 2013 | Skipjack Tuna | 21 | 0.4 | 5,474 | 5,495 | F |
| 2013 | Yellowfin Tuna | 6 | 1.6 | 373 | 379 | F |
| 2014 | Barracudas | 1 | 2.6 | 38 | 39 | F |
| 2014 | Skipjack Tuna | 19 | 0.5 | 3,914 | 3,933 | F |
| 2014 | Yellowfin Tuna | 1 | 0.4 | 271 | 272 | F |
| 2018 | Wahoo | 1 | 0.2 | 568 | 569 | F |
| 2018 | Yellowfin Tuna | 1 | 0.3 | 343 | 344 | F |
| 2019 | Skipjack Tuna | 148 | 2.5 | 5,862 | 6,010 | F |
| 2019 | Yellowfin Tuna | 2 | 0.4 | 531 | 533 | F |
| 2020 | Mahimahi | 4 | 1.9 | 204 | 208 | F |
| 2021 | Skipjack Tuna | 10 | 0.2 | 6,724 | 6,734 | F |
| 2021 | Yellowfin Tuna | 4 | 0.5 | 775 | 779 | F |

| Year | Species | Number Release | Percent Release | Number Kept | Number Caught | Charter |
|------|-------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| 2022 | Blue Marlin | 1 | 11.1 | 8 | 9 | F |
| 2022 | Mahimahi | 6 | 2.9 | 200 | 206 | F |

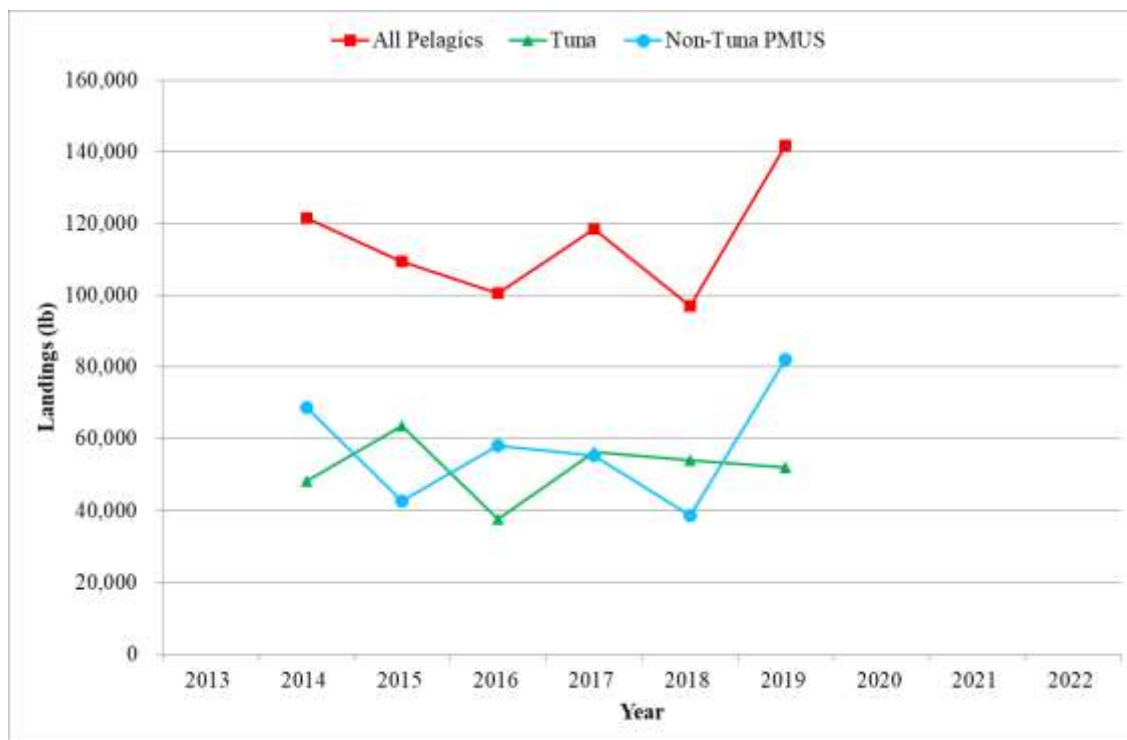


Figure 57. Commercial purchase landings for all pelagics, tuna PMUS, and non-tuna PMUS in Guam

Supporting data shown in Table A-58.

2.3.6 OVERVIEW OF EFFORT AND CPUE

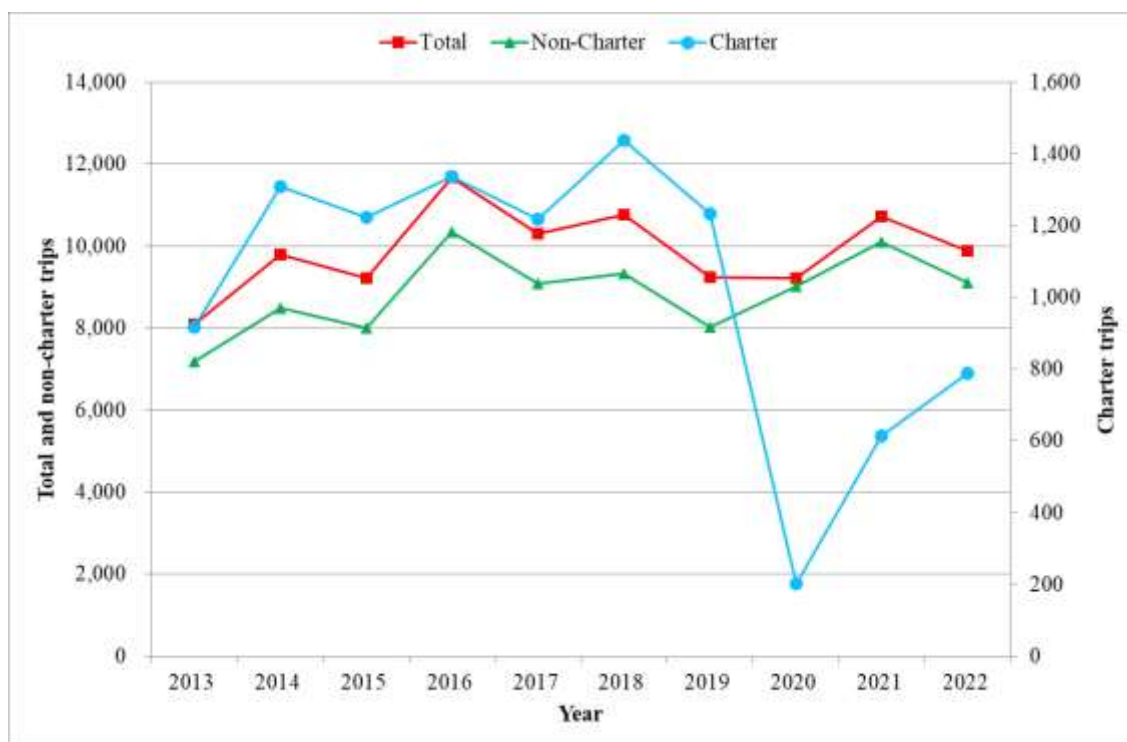


Figure 58. Estimated number of trolling trips from boat-based creel surveys in Guam Supporting data shown in Table A-59.

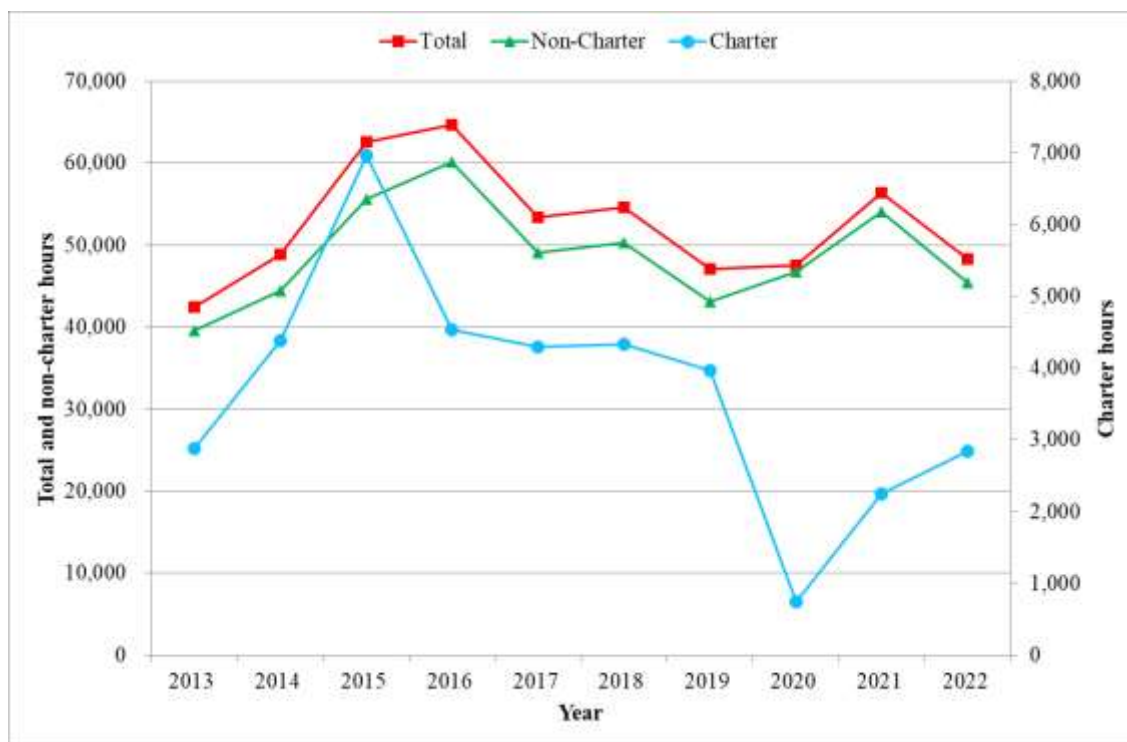


Figure 59. Estimated number of trolling hours from boat-based creel surveys in Guam Supporting data shown in Table A-60.



Figure 60. Estimated fishing trip length (hr/trip) from boat-based creel surveys in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-61.

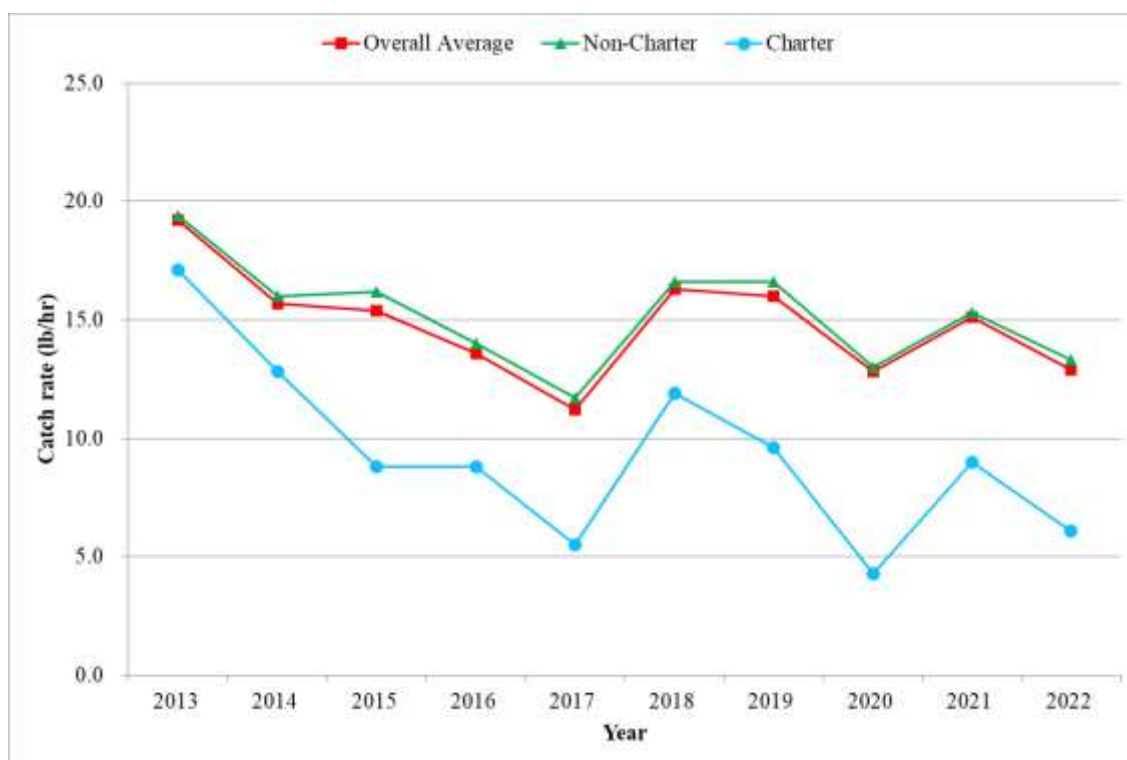


Figure 61. Estimated total trolling catch rates (lb/hr) in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-62.

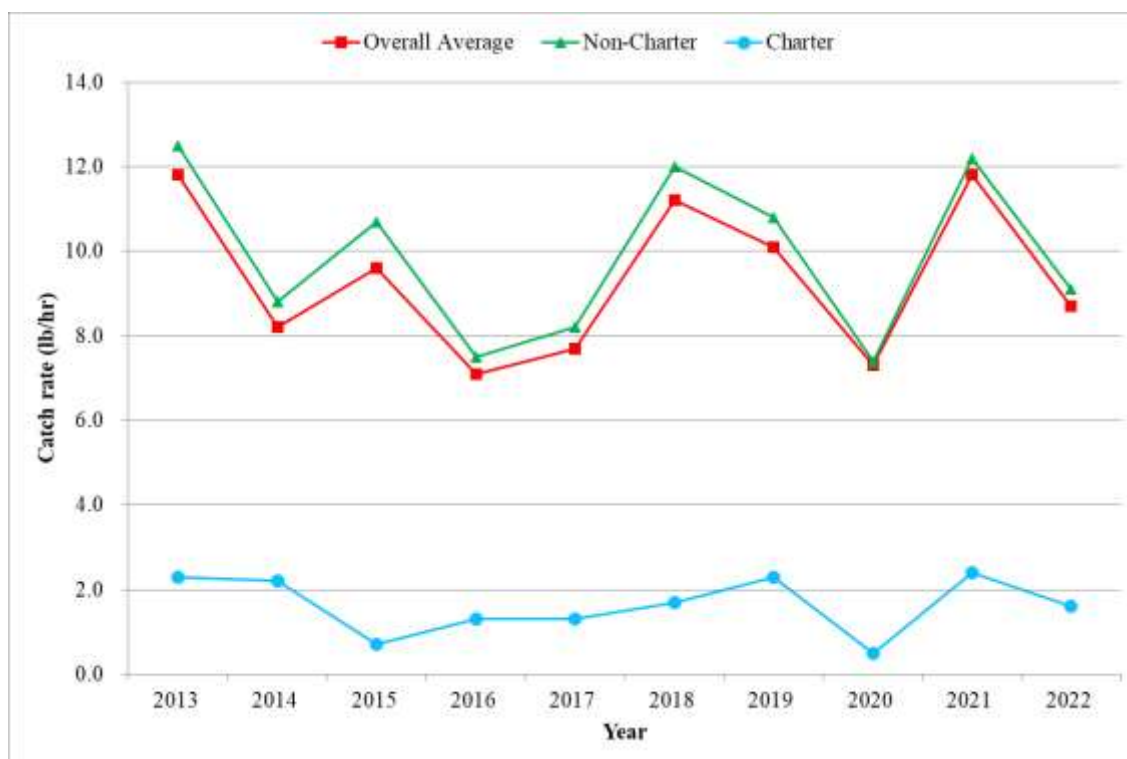


Figure 62. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for skipjack tuna in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-63.

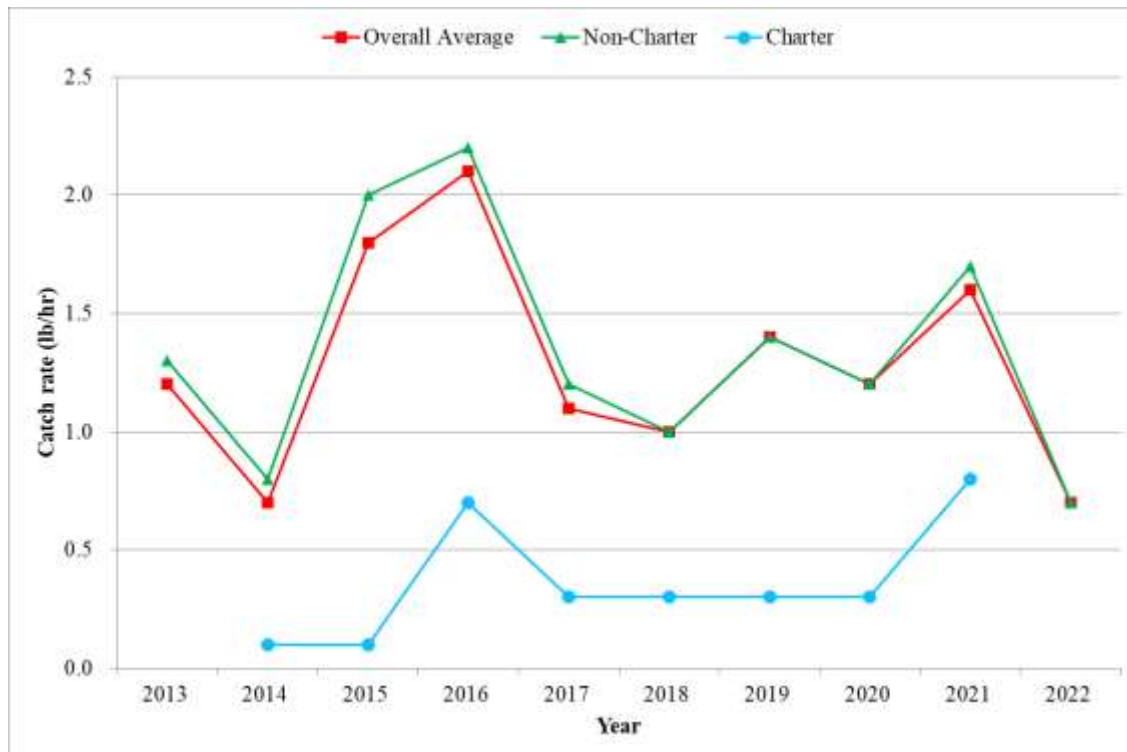


Figure 63. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for yellowfin tuna in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-64.

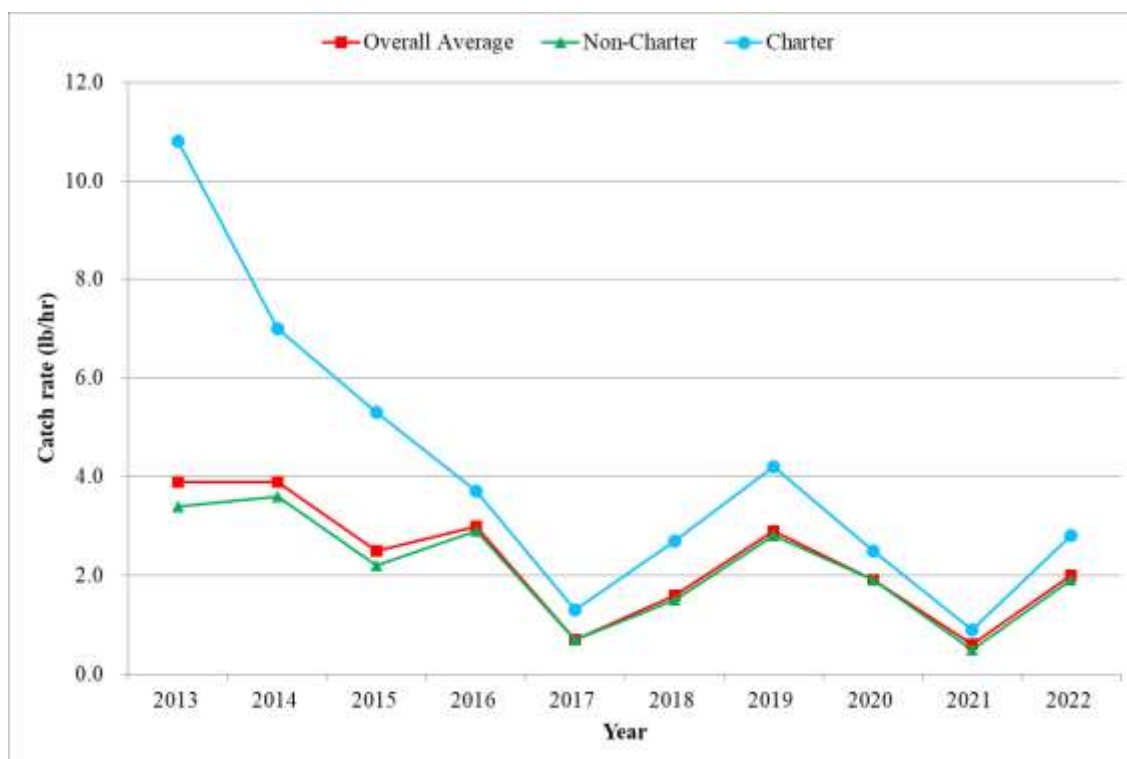


Figure 64. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for mahimahi in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-65.

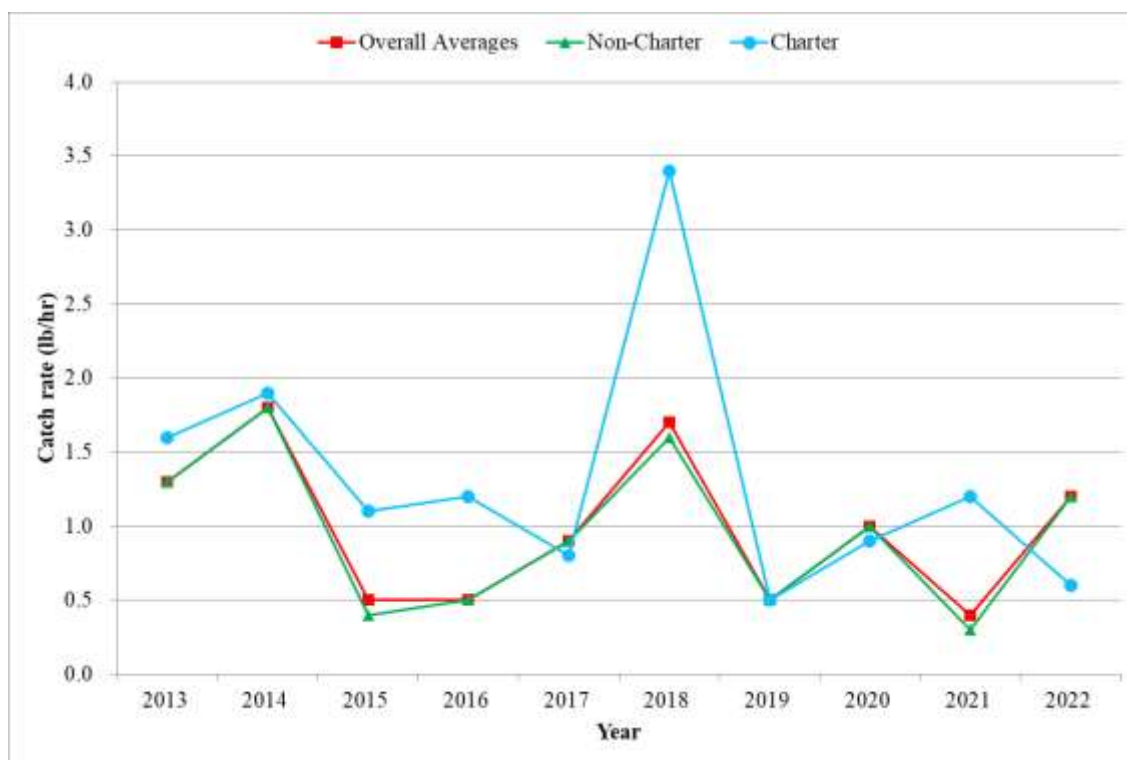


Figure 65. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for wahoo in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-66.

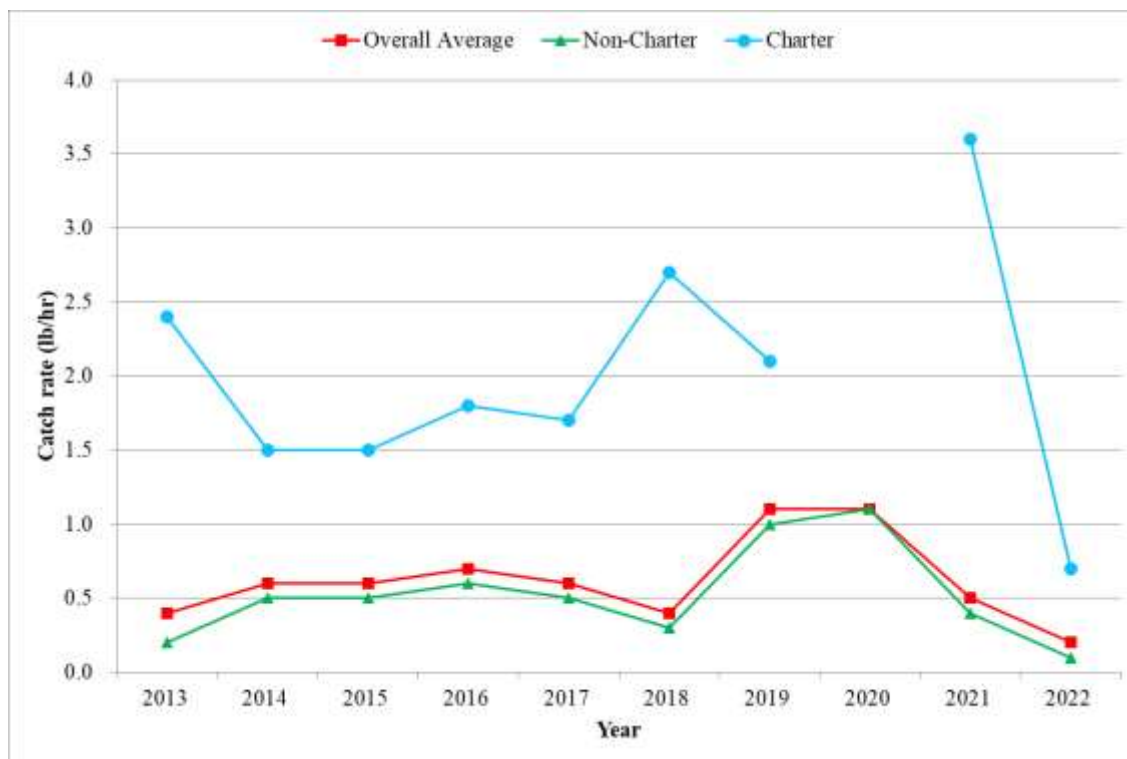


Figure 66. Estimated trolling catch rates (lb/hr) for blue marlin in Guam
Supporting data shown in Table A-67.

2.4 HAWAII

2.4.1 DATA SOURCES

This report contains the most recently available information on Hawaii's commercial pelagic fisheries, as compiled from four data sources: The State of Hawaii's Division of Aquatic Resources (HDAR) Commercial Marine License data (CML), Commercial Fishing Report data (Fishing Report), HDAR Commercial Marine Dealer's Report data (Dealer), and NMFS, Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center's (PIFSC) longline logbook data.

Any fisherman who takes marine species for commercial purposes is required by HDAR to have a CML and submit a monthly catch report. An exception to this rule is that should a fishing trip occur on a boat, only one person per vessel is required to submit a catch report. This person is usually, but not necessarily, the captain. Crew members do not ordinarily submit catch reports. HDAR asks fishermen to identify their primary fishing gear or method on the CML at time of licensing. This does not preclude fishermen from using other gears or methods. Data sources and estimation procedures are described below.

The Hawaii-permitted Longline Fishery: The federal longline logbook system was implemented in December 1990 and it is the main source of the data used to determine longline vessel activity, effort, fish catches and catch-per-unit-effort (CPUE). Logbook data have detailed operational information and catch in number of fish. Longline vessel operators are required to declare whether they will be making a deep-set or shallow-set trip prior to their departure. A deep-set is defined as a set with 15 or more hooks between floats as opposed to a shallow-set that is characterized by setting less than 15 hooks between floats.

Number of fish caught by Hawaii-permitted longline fishery is a sum of the number of fish kept and released whereas the calculation of weight for longline catch only includes the number of fish kept. Another important data set is the HDAR Commercial Dealer data. Dealer data dates back to 1990 with electronic submission beginning in mid-1999. Revenue, average weight and average price are derived from the Dealer data.

The logbook and Dealer data were used to calculate the weight of longline catch. Longline purchases in the Dealer data was identified and separated out by matching longline trips based on a specific vessel name and its return to port date in the logbook data with the corresponding vessel name and purchase date(s) in the Dealer data. The general procedure of estimating longline catch for each species was done by first calculating an average weight by dividing the longline Dealer data "LBS BOUGHT" by the "NO. BOUGHT". This average weight was multiplied by the total number kept from the longline logbook data to estimate the total weight of catch kept. Revenue was the simple sum of "AMOUNT PAID" from the Dealer data based on longline trips which were matched with logbook data. Swordfish are processed at sea and landed headed and gutted. Tunas and mahimahi that weighed more than 20 lb and marlins greater than 40 lb must be gilled and gutted prior to sale. A conversion factor is applied to processed fish to estimate whole weight. Average weight statistics were calculated separately for the deep-set and shallow-set longline fisheries. Each species needed a minimum of 20 samples within a month of each RFMO area, i.e., WCPO or EPO, in order to calculate a mean weight. If this criterion was not met, the time strata was increased to a quarter, year or multi-year period until there were enough samples to calculate a mean weight. Some species which were landed in low numbers needed to be aggregated to a multi-

year period. Consequently, their respective annual mean weights are the same from year to year or repeat over time. Additional caveats to interpretation of logbook catch include billfish misidentifications that can bias some billfish species catch (Walsh et al. 2005). The PIFSC Stock Assessment Program works to correct billfish catch (Sculley 2021), however challenges integrating corrected billfish catch into the annual SAFE report preclude their inclusion.

Catch and effort summaries in this Module were based on RFMO standards and business rules. Longline catch and efforts statistics in this Module consists of U.S. longline fisheries in the North Pacific Ocean, attributions from CNMI, Guam and American Samoa in the North Pacific Ocean. Longline vessels operating from California were also included in this report to satisfy RFMO data reporting and NOAA confidentiality standards. Most of these vessels had Hawaii limited-entry permits. The only exception to summaries using RFMO standards was catch and effort statistics using boundaries within or outside of U.S. EEZs. Since there were substantial differences in operational characteristics and catch between the deep-set longline fishery targeting tunas and the shallow-set longline fishery targeting swordfish, separate summaries were provided for each longline fishery.

Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) Troll Fishery: Catch and effort by the MHI troll fishery was defined as using a combination of pelagic species, gear and area codes from the HDAR Fishing Report data. The HDAR codes for the MHI troll fishery includes summaries of PMUS caught by Miscellaneous Trolling Methods (gear code 6), Lure Trolling (61), Bait Trolling (62), Stick Trolling (63), Casting, Light Tackle, Spinners or Whipping (10) and Hybrid Methods (97) in HDAR statistical areas 100 through 642. These are areas that begin from the shoreline out to 20 minute squares around the islands of Hawaii, Maui, Kaho’olawe, Lana’i, Moloka’i, O’ahu, Kaua’i and Ni’ihau.

MHI Handline Fishery: The MHI handline fishery includes PMUS caught by Deep Sea or Bottom Handline Methods (HDAR gear code 3), Inshore Handline or Cowrie Shell (Tako) Methods (4), Kaka line (5), Ika-Shibi (8), Palu-Ahi, Drop Stone or Make Dog Methods (9), Drifting Pelagic Handline Methods (35) and Floatline Methods (91) in HDAR statistical areas 100 to 642 except areas 175, 176, and 181.

Offshore Handline Fishery: The offshore handline fishery includes PMUS caught by Ika-Shibi (HDAR gear code 8), Palu-Ahi, Drop Stone or Make Dog Methods (9), Drifting Pelagic Handline Methods (35), Miscellaneous Trolling Methods (6), Lure Trolling (61), and Hybrid Methods (97) in Areas 15217 (NOAA Weather Buoy W4), 15717 (NOAA Weather Buoy W2), 15815, 15818 (Cross Seamount), 16019 (NOAA Weather Buoy W3), 16223 (NOAA Weather Buoy W1), 175, 176, 181, 804, 807, 816, 817, 825, 839, 842, 892, 893, 894, 898, 900, 901, 15416, 15417, 15423, 15523, 15718, 15918, 15819, and 16221. This fishery also includes pelagic species caught by Deep Sea or Bottom Handline Methods (3) in Area 16223.

Other Gear: This category represents pelagic species caught by methods or in areas other than those methods mentioned above. Catch and revenue from this category is primarily composed of PMUS caught by the aku boat fishery, fishers trolling in areas outside of the MHI (the distant water albacore troll fishery) or PMUS caught close to shore by diving, spearfishing, squidding, or netting inside of the MHI.

Calculations: Pelagic catch by the MHI troll, MHI handline, offshore handline, and other gear were calculated by summing “LBS LANDED” from the HDAR Fishing Report data based on the gear and area codes used to define each gear type. The percent of catch for each pelagic species was calculated from the “LBS LANDED” by the MHI troll, MHI handline offshore handline and other gear and used to estimate the “LBS SOLD” and revenue of each fishery.

Catch in the HDAR Dealer data, referred to as “LBS BOUGHT”, by each fishery was not clearly differentiated however, “LBS BOUGHT” by the longline and aku boat fisheries were identified by CML numbers and/or vessel names and kept separate from the “non-longline & non-aku boat” Dealer data. This remaining “LBS BOUGHT” along with the “AMOUNT PAID” from Dealer data for the “non-longline and non-aku boat” fisheries was used to calculate average weight, revenue and average price for the MHI troll, MHI handline, offshore handline fisheries and other gear category. “LBS BOUGHT” from this Dealer data was summed on a species specific basis. The percent of catch calculated from the HDAR Fishing Report “LBS LANDED” for each species and by each fishery was used in conjunction with total “LBS BOUGHT” from the HDAR Dealer data to apportion “LBS BOUGHT” and “AMOUNT PAID” or revenue accordingly to each respective fishery. This process was repeated on a monthly basis to account for the seasonality of catch and variability of activity for each fishery. Revenue and average price are inflation-adjusted by the Honolulu Consumer Price Index (CPI).

2.4.2 SUMMARY OF HAWAII PELAGIC FISHERIES

The following is a summary of effort, catch, CPUE, size of fish, revenue and bycatch for the main pelagic fisheries (deep-set and shallow-set longline, MHI troll, MHI handline, and offshore handline). With COVID-19 restrictions lifted, the business environment improving and number of visitors reaching pre-pandemic levels, fisheries have also appeared to have recovered in 2022. Total catch was lower than the long-term average but ex-revenue was above average in 2022. With La Nina last year there were only 10 hurricanes in the Pacific Ocean, most which dissipated in the eastern Pacific Ocean, four which developed into major hurricanes and one which came close to Hawaii. The Pacific Missile Range Facility (PMRF) issued 10 Notice of Hazardous Operation in 2022, each which cover a period of time and area boundaries which could possibly affect fishing area for longline vessels.

Participation. A total of 3,201 fishermen were licensed in 2022, including 1,873 (59%) who indicated that their primary fishing method and gear were intended to catch pelagic fish. This is a 1% increase in fishing licenses from the previous year. Most licenses that indicated pelagic fishing as their primary method were issued to longline fishermen (52%) and trollers (31%). The remainder was issued to ika-shibi and palu-ahi (handline) (17%).

Catch. Hawaii commercial fisheries caught and landed 29.6 million pounds of pelagic species in 2022, a decrease of 5% from the previous year. Although each fishery targets or intends to catch a particular pelagic species, a variety of other species were also caught. The deep-set longline fishery targeted bigeye and yellowfin tuna. This was the largest of all pelagic fisheries and its total catch comprised 82% (24.2 million pounds) of all pelagic fisheries. The shallow-set longline fishery targeted swordfish and its catch was 1.9 million pounds, or 6% of the total catch. The MHI troll fishery targeted tunas, marlins and other

PMUS caught 1.8 million pounds or 6% of the total. The MHI handline fishery targeted yellowfin tuna while the offshore handline fishery targeted bigeye tuna. The MHI handline fishery accounted for 940,000 pounds (4% of the total). The offshore handline fishery was responsible for 454,000 pounds or less than 2% of the total catch.

The largest component of the pelagic catch was tunas, which comprised 77% of the total in 2022. Bigeye tuna alone accounted for 65% of the tunas and 50% of all the pelagic catch. Billfish catch made up 14% of the total catch in 2022. Swordfish was the largest of these, at 48% of the billfish and 7% of the total catch. Catches of other PMUS represented 9% of the total catch in 2022 with ono being the largest component at 30% of the other PMUS and 3% of the total catch.

Effort. There were 147 active Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline vessels in 2022, the same as the previous year. The number of deep-set trips was 1,531 along with 21,299 sets made in 2022. The number of hooks set by the deep-set longline fishery was 63.3 million hooks in 2022. The Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery operates mainly in the first half of the year. In 2022, 22 vessels completed 69 trips and made 857 sets, which was 5 vessels, 12 trips and 154 more sets than the previous year. The number of hooks set by this fishery also rose to 1.1 million in 2022, an increase over the record low observed in 2019. The number of days fished by MHI troll fishers has been trending lower from its peak in 2013, with 1,166 fishers logging 15,420 days fished around the MHI in 2022. There were 427 MHI handline fishers that fished 3,726 days in 2022, a slight increase from the lowest number of fishers and an improvement from the record low days fished in 2020. The offshore handline fishery only had 6 fishers and 188 days fished in 2022.

CPUE. The deep-set longline fishery targets bigeye tuna and this species had higher nominal CPUE (2.7 fish per 1,000 hooks) compared to yellowfin tuna (1.3) but bigeye tuna has been on a downward trend from 2015 while yellowfin tuna CPUE has been higher than average for the past 6 years. Albacore CPUE was much lower at 0.2 in 2022. Blue marlin and striped marlin were incidental catches by the deep-set fishery were both at or at 0.3 fish per 1,000 hooks over the ten-year period. In contrast blue shark bycatch species with all fish logged as released yet its CPUE is third only to bigeye and yellowfin at 1.5 fish per 1,000 hooks. The Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery targets swordfish and had a CPUE of 8.9 fish, in 2022, up from a record low of 7.1 fish in 2021. Blue shark, a bycatch species for this fishery too, had a CPUE of 5.9 fish, same as the previous year. The MHI troll fishery CPUE for yellowfin tuna and blue marlin were both on a gradual upward trend. MHI troll CPUE for skipjack tuna, mahimahi and ono CPUE varied with no clear trend. MHI handline CPUE for yellowfin showed a strong, consistent upward pattern from 2019. Albacore and bigeye tuna CPUE were not only much lower than yellowfin tuna but below their respective long-term CPUEs. Bigeye tuna CPUE for the offshore handline fishery reached a record CPUE in 2022. Yellowfin tuna CPUE in this fishery was often a magnitude lower and variable over the past ten years.

Fish Size. With the exception of bigeye tuna, ono and moonfish the average weight for the remaining pelagic species were below their respective long-term average weight in the deep-set longline fishery. Bigeye tuna caught in the deep-set fishery was 83 pounds in 2022, 3 pounds above the long-term average. All billfish species caught by this fishery were below their 10-year average weight while other PMUS species were close to long-term mean weights. The mean size of swordfish was 130 pounds in 2022, much lower from the 10-year

average weight. The pattern of average weight for tunas, billfish and other PMUS in by the shallow-set longline fishery was similar to fish size in the deep-set longline fishery. Swordfish caught by the shallow-set longline fishery was 169 pounds, below the 10-year average weight. In general, the average weight of most fish caught by the shallow-set longline fishery is higher than fish caught by the deep-set longline fishery. In general, the average weight for fish caught by the troll and handline fisheries was above their long-term averages. However, the average weight of blue marlin, swordfish and mahimahi were lower in 2022.

Revenue. The total revenue from Hawai'i's pelagic fisheries was \$129.8 million in 2022. This was a decrease of 2% from the previous year. The strong revenue in 2022 is again attributed to the continued recovery from the COVID pandemic. Bigeye tuna and yellowfin tuna represented 57% and 22% of the total pelagic revenue, respectively in 2022. The deep-set longline revenue was \$106.4 million in 2022. This fishery represented 82% of the total revenue for pelagic fish in Hawai'i. The shallow-set longline fishery almost doubled to \$9.7 million and accounted for 7% of the revenue in 2022. Most of the increase in shallow-set revenue is from more vessels landing in Hawaii instead of off-loading in California. The MHI troll revenue was \$7.0 million or 5% of the total in 2022. The MHI handline fishery increased to \$4.1 million (3%). The offshore handline fishery was \$1.5 million in 2022 and exhibited the largest increase of the small boat fisheries.

Bycatch. A total of 104,013 fish were released by the deep-set longline fishery in 2022. PMUS sharks accounted for 86% of the deep-set longline bycatch. There is almost no market demand for sharks in Hawai'i. Of all shark species combined, 99.9% of the deep-set longline shark catch was released. Conversely, bycatch rate for the deep-set longline fishery was only 4% for targeted and incidentally caught pelagic species in 2022. A total of 7,554 fish were released by the shallow-set longline fishery in 2022. PMUS sharks accounted for 95% of the shallow-set longline bycatch. Of all shark species combined, 99.9% of the shallow-set longline shark catch was released. Conversely, bycatch rate for the shallow-set longline fishery was 3% for targeted and incidentally caught pelagic species in 2022. Since shallow-set longline trips are often longer than deep-set trips, the shallow-set sector conserves space for swordfish, which they target, and foregoes keeping other pelagic species due to their short shelf life.

2.4.3 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

While there were no recommendations by the Pelagic Plan Team specific to the Hawaii module of the annual SAFE report, there were several relevant work items:

- Hawaii DAR to work with the PIFSC Fisheries Research and Monitoring Division (FRMD) to assume responsibility for Hawaii pelagic small boat fishery data summaries presented in the annual SAFE report and at the Pelagic Plan Team meeting.
- PIFSC FRMD to work with Hawaii DAR on data issues regarding inconsistencies between catch reports and dealer reports to ensure that these deficiencies do not perpetuate further errors downstream.
- Council staff to work with the established Plan Team working group to incorporate the new bycatch summaries for Hawai'i's pelagic small boat fisheries into the annual SAFE report.

2.4.4 OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPATION – ALL FISHERIES

Table 21. Number of HDAR Commercial Marine Licenses

| Primary Fishing Method | Number of licenses | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | 2021 | 2022 |
| Trolling | 607 | 574 |
| Longline | 928 | 957 |
| Ika Shibi & Palu Ahi | 329 | 334 |
| Aku Boat (Pole and Line) | 7 | 8 |
| Total Pelagic | 1,871 | 1,873 |
| Total All Methods | 3,265 | 3,201 |

2.4.5 OVERVIEW OF LANDINGS AND ECONOMIC DATA

Table 22. Hawaii commercial pelagic catch, revenue, and price by species

| Species | 2021 | | | 2022 | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Ex-vessel revenue (\$1,000) | Average price (\$/lb) | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Ex-vessel revenue (\$1,000) | Average price (\$/lb) |
| Tuna PMUS | | | | | | |
| Albacore | 534 | \$664 | \$1.71 | 457 | \$650 | \$2.07 |
| Bigeye tuna | 16,129 | \$79,365 | \$5.23 | 14,688 | \$73,645 | \$5.09 |
| Bluefin tuna | 2 | \$22 | \$6.56 | 3 | \$36 | \$7.51 |
| Skipjack tuna | 494 | \$596 | \$2.12 | 460 | \$861 | \$2.85 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 6,970 | \$29,132 | \$4.38 | 7,124 | \$28,197 | \$4.24 |
| Other tunas | 5 | \$36 | \$4.43 | 3 | \$5 | \$3.70 |
| Tuna PMUS subtotal | 24,134 | \$109,814 | \$4.88 | 22,736 | \$103,394 | \$4.76 |
| Billfish PMUS | | | | | | |
| Swordfish | 1,517 | \$6,282 | \$4.26 | 2,048 | \$10,337 | \$4.87 |
| Blue marlin | 1,101 | \$2,356 | \$2.64 | 1,239 | \$2,356 | \$2.70 |
| Spearfish (hebi) | 304 | \$588 | \$1.85 | 296 | \$638 | \$2.15 |
| Striped marlin | 571 | \$1,799 | \$2.70 | 645 | \$2,313 | \$2.86 |
| Other marlins | 35 | \$80 | \$2.65 | 27 | \$76 | \$2.35 |
| Billfish PMUS subtotal | 3,528 | \$11,105 | \$3.28 | 4,255 | \$15,720 | \$3.80 |
| Other PMUS | | | | | | |
| Mahimahi | 750 | \$3,438 | \$4.73 | 775 | \$3,164 | \$4.28 |
| Ono (wahoo) | 1,174 | \$4,262 | \$3.73 | 667 | \$3,135 | \$4.69 |
| Opah (moonfish) | 845 | \$1,913 | \$4.18 | 526 | \$1,683 | \$5.18 |
| Oilfish | 162 | \$186 | \$1.17 | 164 | \$200 | \$1.14 |
| Pomfrets (monchong) | 409 | \$2,356 | \$5.22 | 429 | \$2,542 | \$5.40 |
| PMUS Sharks | 17 | \$0 | \$0.00 | 10 | \$0 | \$0.00 |
| Other PMUS subtotal | 3,357 | \$12,156 | \$4.14 | 2,572 | \$10,723 | \$4.51 |
| Other pelagics | 6 | \$8 | \$1.72 | 4 | \$5 | \$1.44 |
| Total pelagics | 31,025 | \$133,084 | \$4.62 | 29,566 | \$129,842 | \$4.60 |

Table 23. Hawaii commercial pelagic catch, revenue, and price by fishery

| Fishery | 2021 | | | 2022 | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Ex-vessel revenue (\$1,000) | Average price (\$/lb) | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Ex-vessel revenue (\$1,000) | Average price (\$/lb) |
| Deep-set longline | 26,808 | \$116,306 | \$4.68 | 24,229 | \$106,362 | \$4.66 |
| Shallow-set longline | 1,264 | \$5,120 | \$4.16 | 1,873 | \$9,679 | \$4.75 |
| MHI trolling | 1,829 | \$7,055 | \$4.51 | 1,762 | \$7,040 | \$4.46 |
| MHI handline | 685 | \$3,017 | \$4.48 | 940 | \$4,109 | \$4.43 |
| Offshore handline | 257 | \$887 | \$2.99 | 454 | \$1,494 | \$2.86 |
| Other gear | 180 | \$700 | \$3.66 | 309 | \$1,157 | \$3.48 |
| Total | 31,025 | \$133,084 | \$4.62 | 29,566 | \$129,842 | \$4.60 |

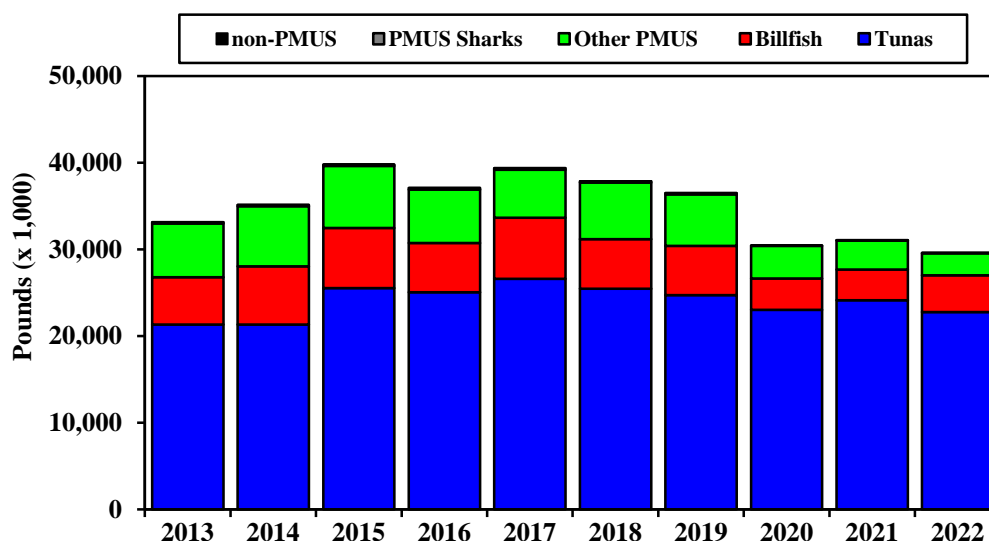


Figure 67. Hawaii commercial tuna, billfish, other PMUS and PMUS shark catch
Supporting data shown in Table A-68.

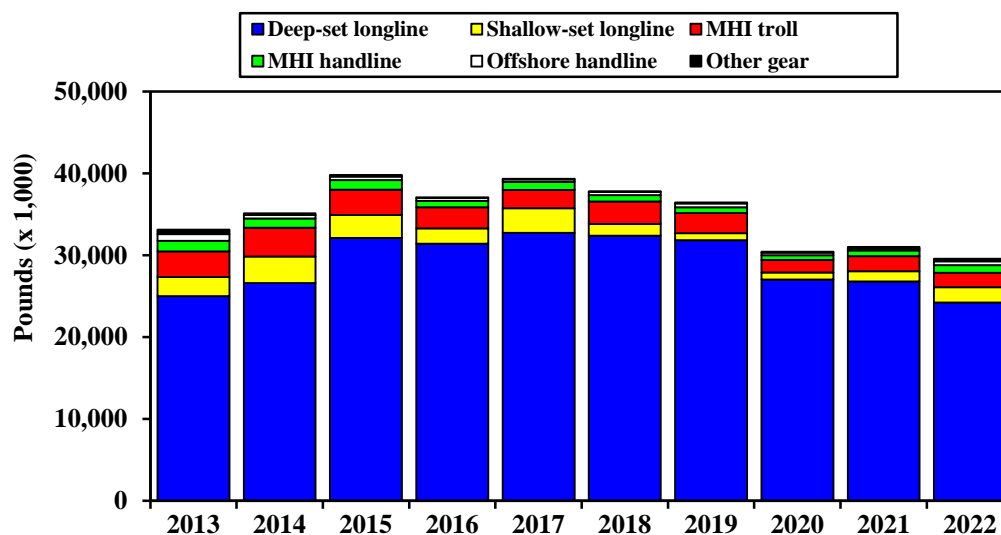


Figure 68. Total commercial pelagic catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-69.

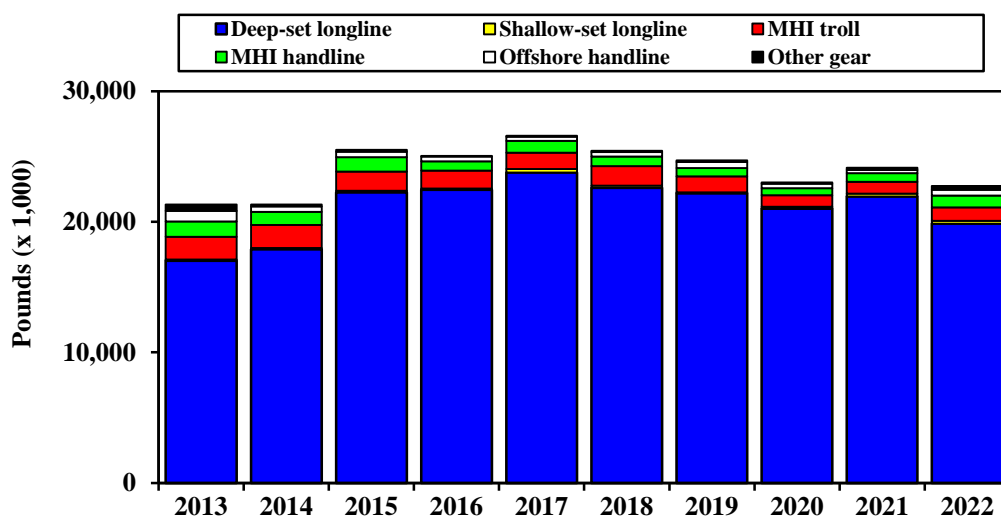


Figure 69. Hawaii commercial tuna catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-70.

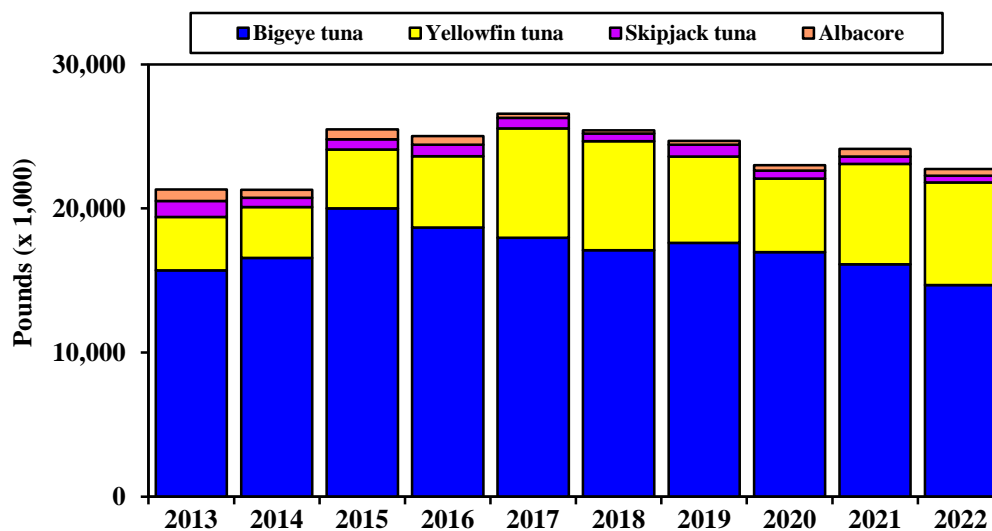


Figure 70. Species composition of tuna catch

Supporting data shown in Table A-71.

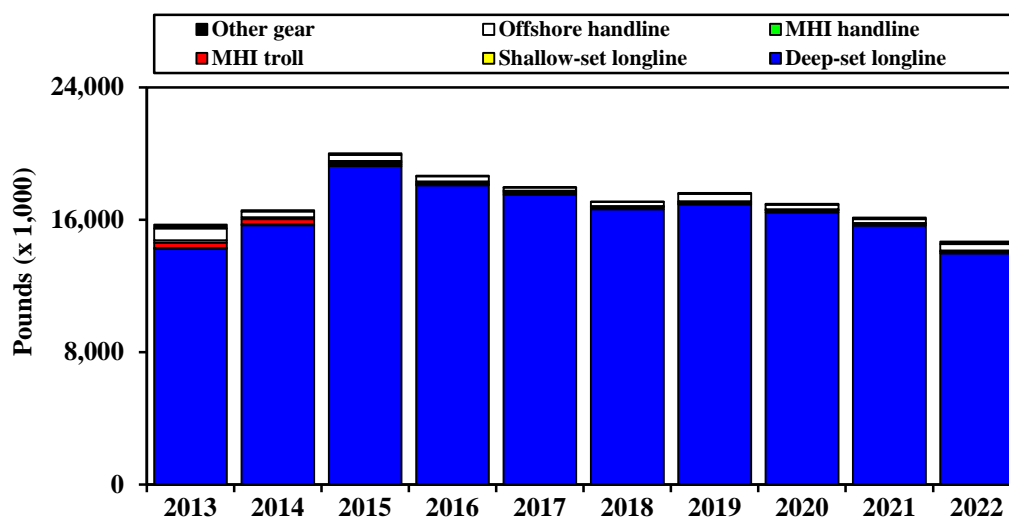


Figure 71. Hawaii bigeye tuna catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-72.

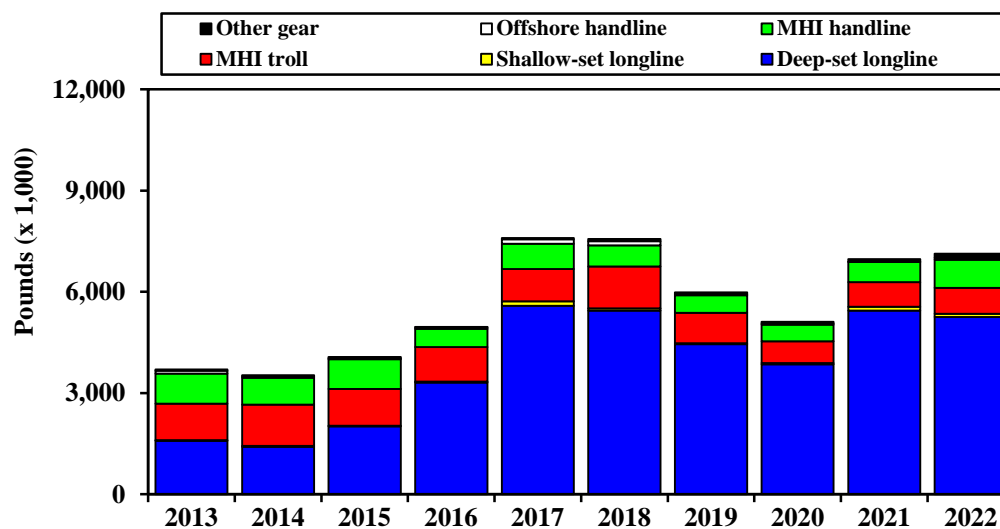


Figure 72. Hawaii yellowfin tuna catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-73.

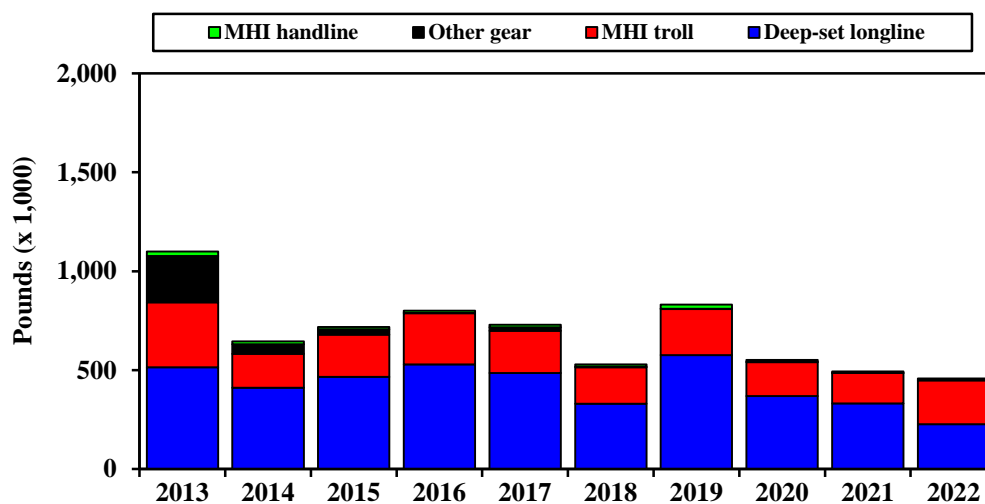


Figure 73. Hawaii skipjack tuna catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-74.

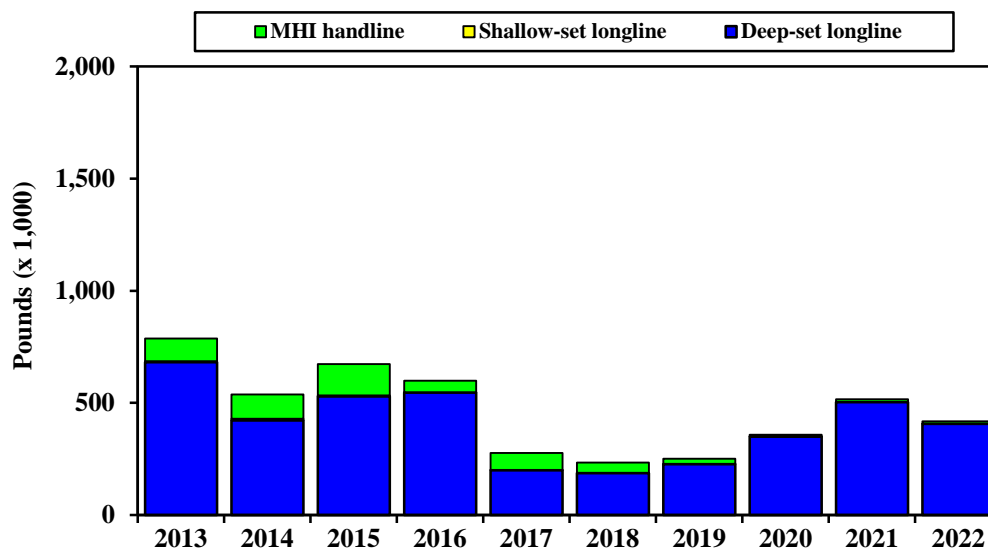


Figure 74. Hawaii albacore catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-75.

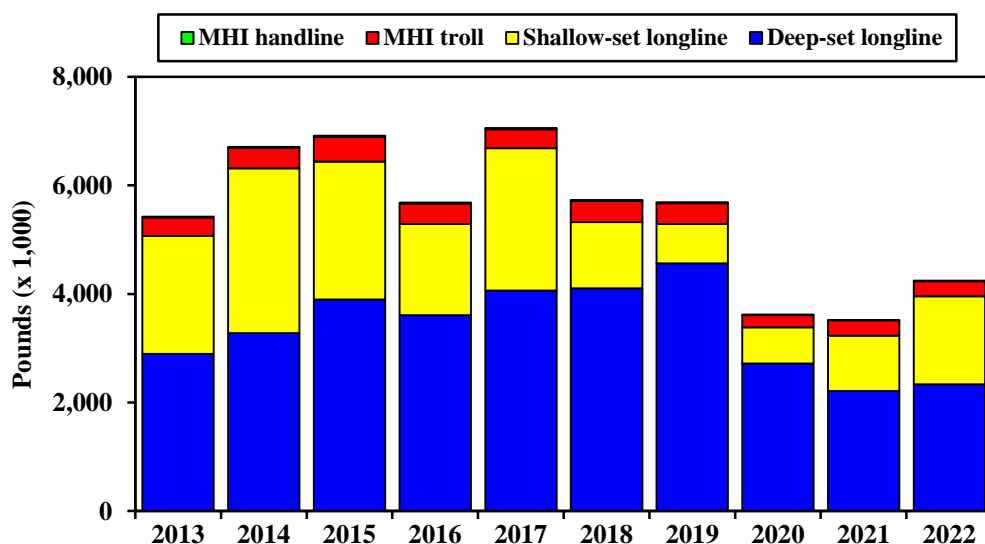


Figure 75. Hawaii commercial billfish catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-76.

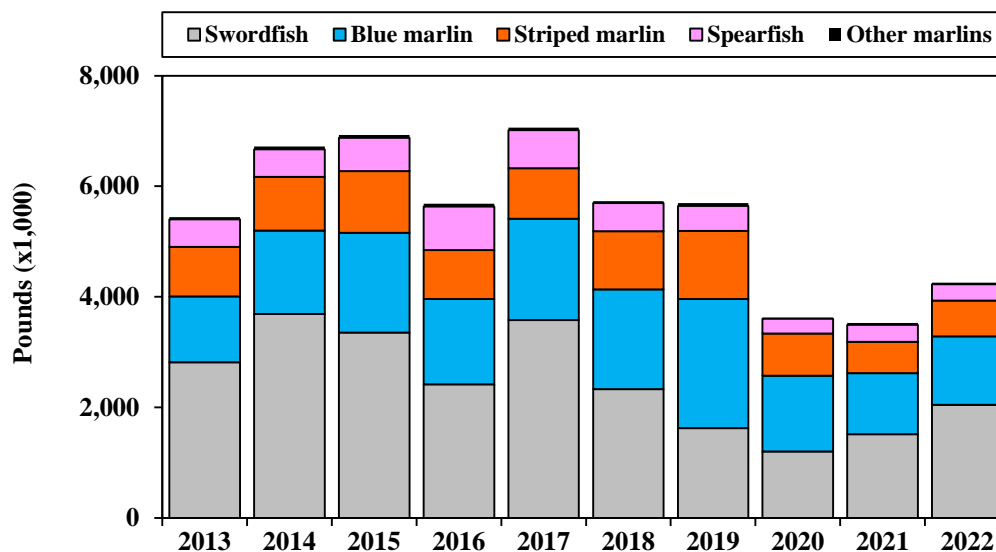


Figure 76. Species composition of billfish catch

Supporting data shown in Table A-77.

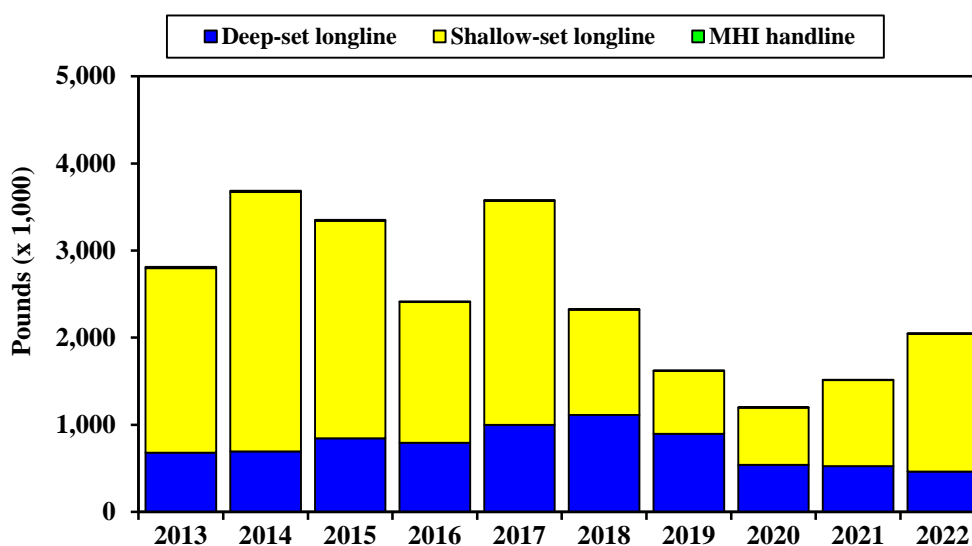


Figure 77. Hawaii swordfish catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-78.

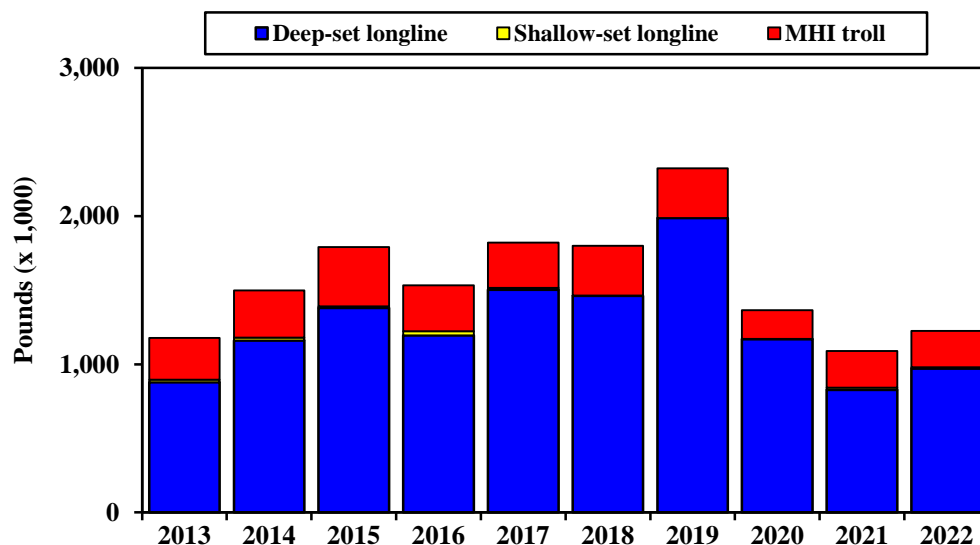


Figure 78. Hawaii blue marlin catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-79.

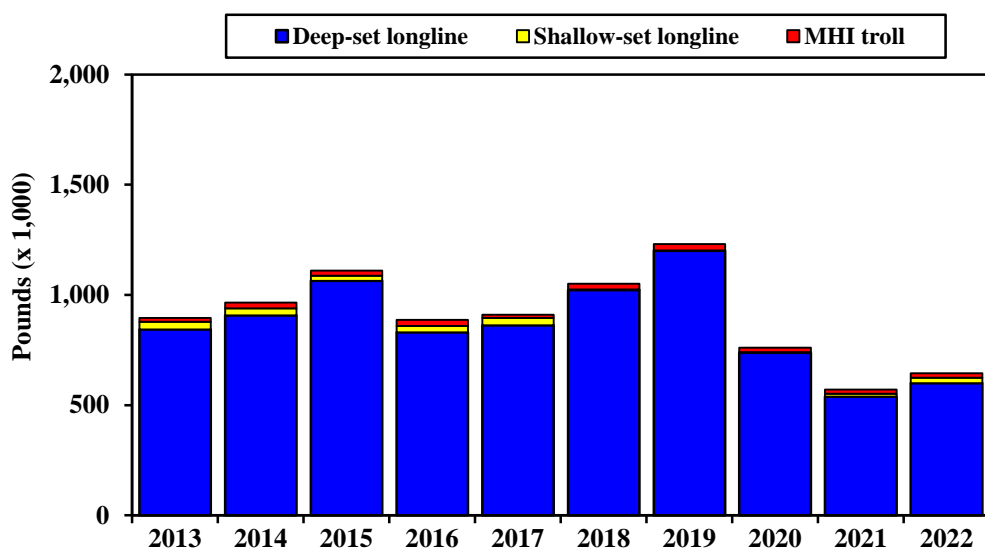


Figure 79. Hawaii striped marlin catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-80.

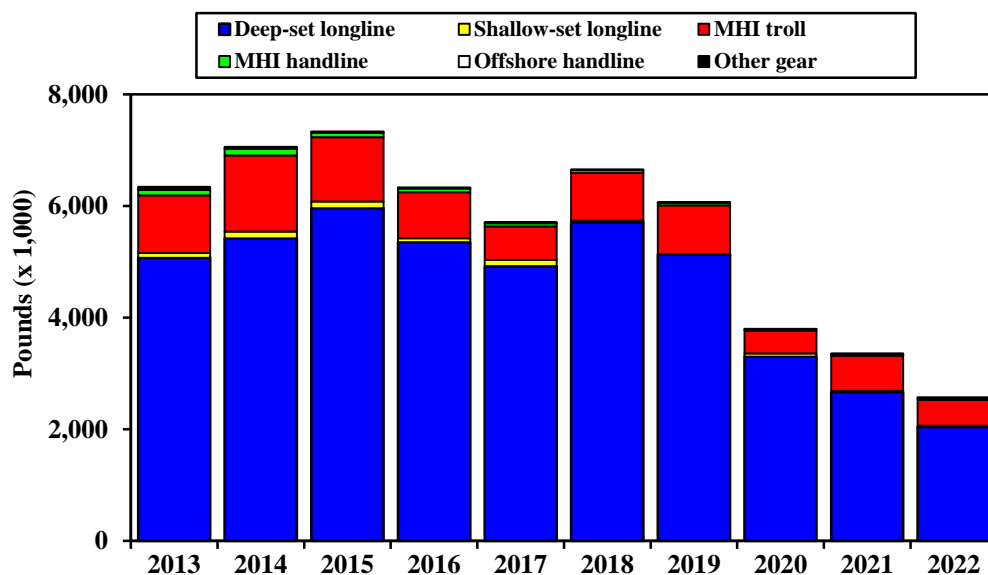


Figure 80. Hawaii commercial catch of other PMUS by gear type
Supporting data shown in Table A-81.

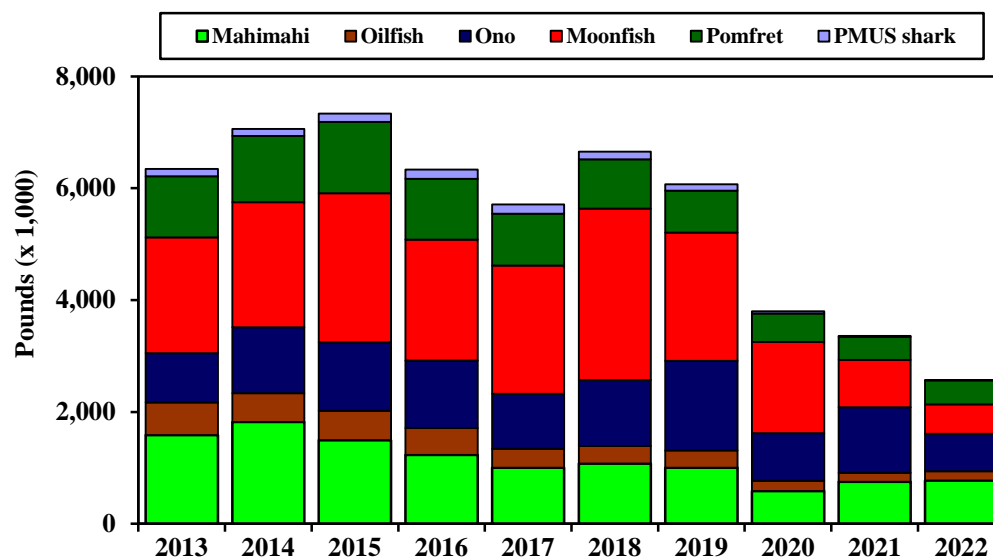


Figure 81. Species composition of other PMUS catch
Supporting data shown in Table A-82.

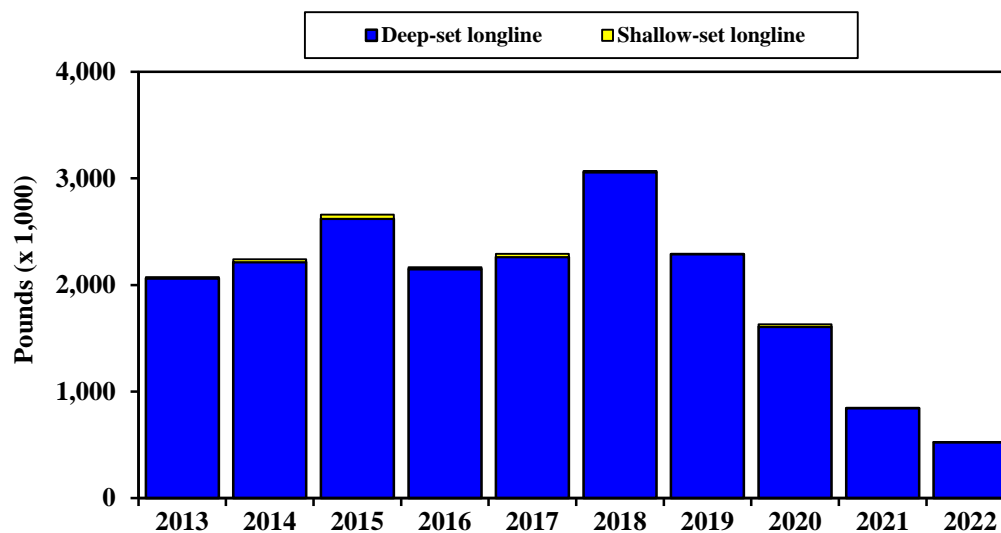


Figure 82. Hawaii moonfish catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-83.

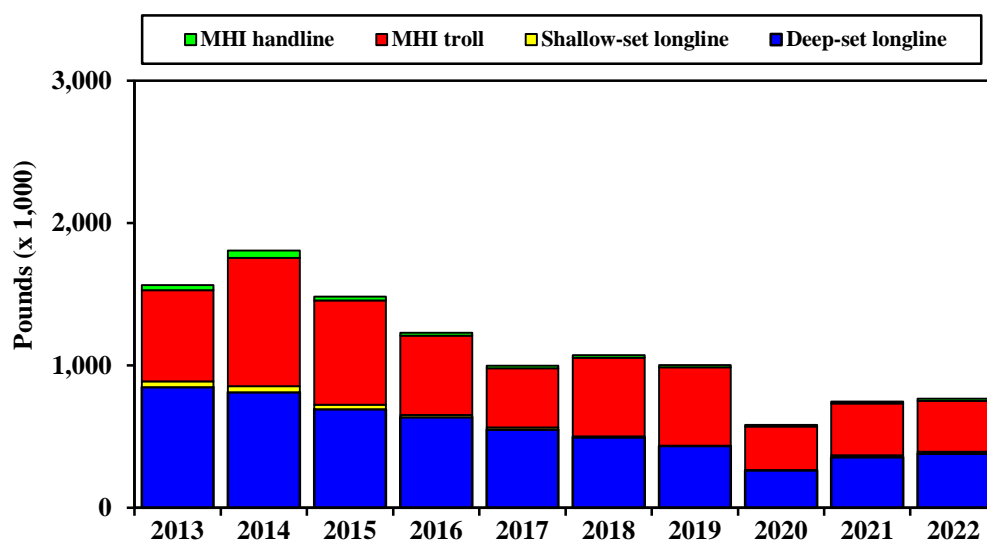


Figure 83. Hawaii mahimahi catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-84.

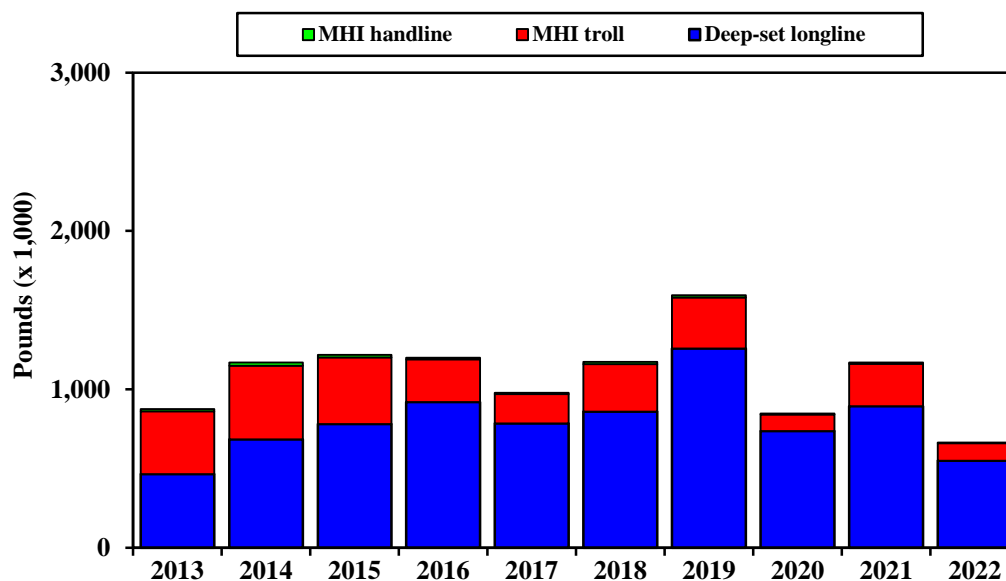


Figure 84. Hawaii ono (wahoo) catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-85.

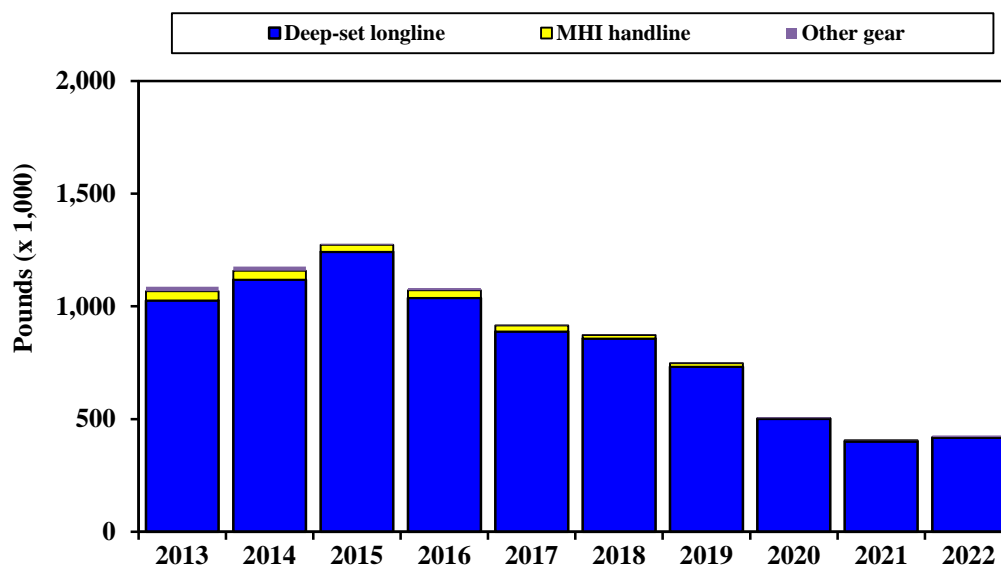


Figure 85. Hawaii pomfret catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-86.

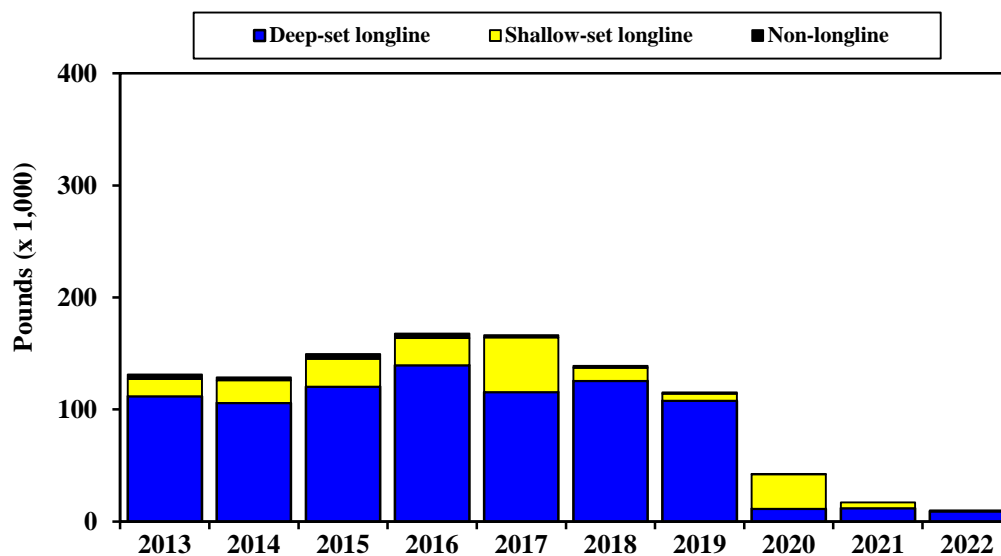


Figure 86. Hawaii PMUS shark catch by gear type

Supporting data shown in Table A-87.

2.4.6 HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY EFFORT, LANDINGS, REVENUE, AND CPUE

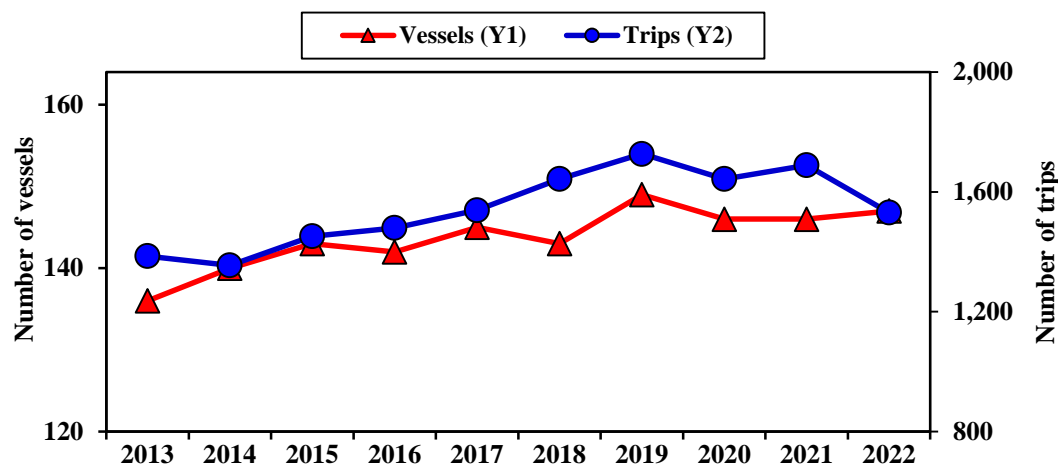


Figure 87. Number of Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline vessels and trips
Supporting data shown in Table A-88.

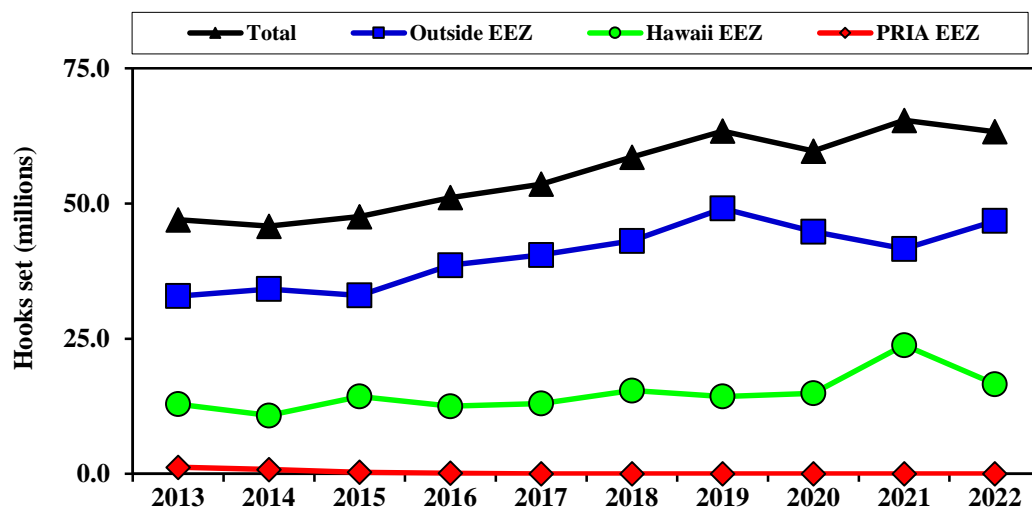


Figure 88. Number of hooks set by the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-89.

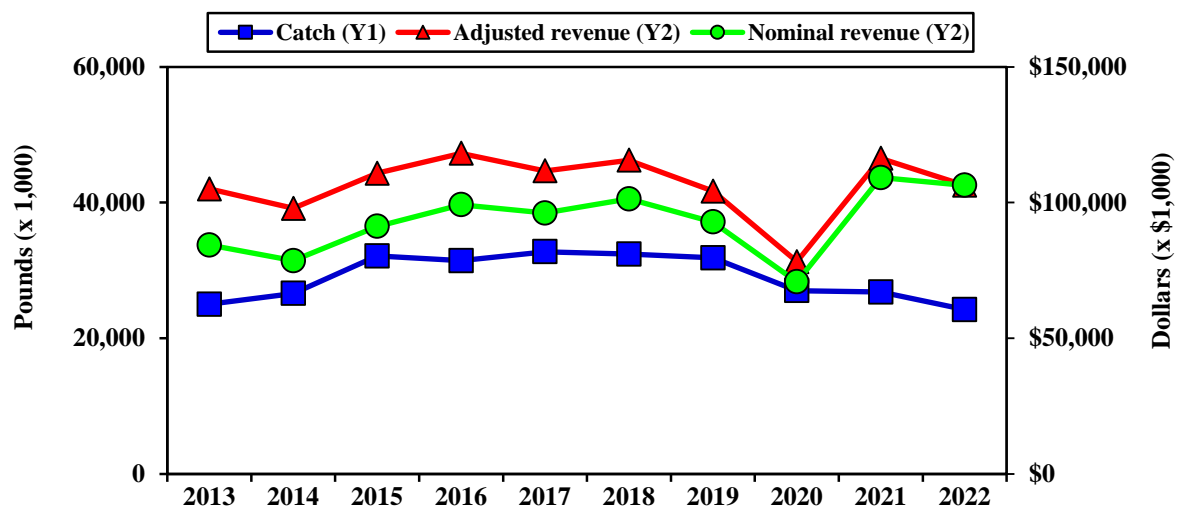


Figure 89. Catch and revenue for the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-90.

Table 24. Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline catch (number of fish) by area

| Year | Tunas | | | Billfish | | | | Other PMUS | | | | PMUS sharks |
|------------------|-------------|----------------|----------|-----------|-------------|----------------|-----------|------------|-------------|----------|----------|-------------|
| | Bigeye tuna | Yellowfin tuna | Albacore | Swordfish | Blue marlin | Striped marlin | Spearfish | Mahimahi | Ono (Wahoo) | Moonfish | Pomfrets | |
| Hawaii+PRIAs EEZ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 49,139 | 7,702 | 3,461 | 922 | 1,177 | 5,644 | 5,439 | 16,726 | 2,912 | 2,963 | 11,051 | 20,770 |
| 2014 | 43,441 | 5,199 | 1,764 | 866 | 1,036 | 5,020 | 4,248 | 8,899 | 4,090 | 2,172 | 10,921 | 20,533 |
| 2015 | 60,987 | 11,842 | 3,089 | 1,324 | 2,561 | 5,945 | 7,087 | 15,360 | 6,388 | 2,754 | 21,960 | 25,395 |
| 2016 | 44,704 | 13,438 | 1,656 | 1,233 | 1,773 | 3,881 | 7,189 | 9,092 | 5,722 | 2,323 | 15,746 | 23,520 |
| 2017 | 52,275 | 24,333 | 277 | 822 | 2,296 | 4,311 | 5,507 | 8,843 | 5,126 | 1,794 | 12,699 | 27,666 |
| 2018 | 46,397 | 19,626 | 292 | 1,619 | 2,916 | 5,387 | 5,034 | 10,219 | 7,205 | 2,637 | 13,077 | 26,592 |
| 2019 | 39,571 | 12,176 | 167 | 1,126 | 3,859 | 5,735 | 3,747 | 6,073 | 8,203 | 2,142 | 13,209 | 30,233 |
| 2020 | 41,830 | 13,801 | 75 | 761 | 2,387 | 3,178 | 2,603 | 4,691 | 5,243 | 1,234 | 9,548 | 30,443 |
| 2021 | 58,682 | 26,606 | 516 | 1,267 | 2,522 | 4,087 | 5,066 | 6,449 | 11,004 | 777 | 9,486 | 37,446 |
| 2022 | 35,328 | 20,446 | 650 | 761 | 1,725 | 3,284 | 3,472 | 5,751 | 3,783 | 478 | 6,006 | 22,328 |
| Outside EEZ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 140,016 | 10,590 | 9,836 | 3,230 | 2,563 | 6,715 | 8,954 | 59,109 | 10,654 | 20,386 | 64,966 | 34,093 |
| 2014 | 170,261 | 11,406 | 6,756 | 3,604 | 4,475 | 9,558 | 11,348 | 61,365 | 18,296 | 23,564 | 69,311 | 51,058 |
| 2015 | 167,550 | 15,745 | 7,072 | 4,048 | 4,868 | 7,155 | 10,707 | 44,946 | 18,337 | 26,593 | 75,363 | 59,757 |
| 2016 | 175,867 | 32,820 | 8,197 | 3,870 | 4,444 | 7,700 | 16,828 | 39,397 | 24,440 | 22,029 | 65,864 | 65,377 |
| 2017 | 172,039 | 55,283 | 3,831 | 4,751 | 5,720 | 8,705 | 15,161 | 37,297 | 20,279 | 22,999 | 55,005 | 71,282 |
| 2018 | 172,662 | 42,106 | 3,363 | 4,492 | 4,642 | 10,340 | 10,443 | 33,912 | 24,090 | 30,548 | 42,870 | 76,087 |
| 2019 | 181,754 | 49,999 | 4,177 | 3,775 | 9,066 | 14,734 | 12,548 | 31,700 | 36,311 | 22,844 | 39,891 | 95,520 |
| 2020 | 165,302 | 40,594 | 8,461 | 3,102 | 5,790 | 9,600 | 7,372 | 17,258 | 19,118 | 15,372 | 26,529 | 87,844 |
| 2021 | 128,269 | 54,688 | 12,031 | 2,846 | 3,725 | 5,559 | 6,505 | 23,376 | 21,740 | 7,564 | 24,637 | 76,551 |
| 2022 | 136,096 | 63,519 | 10,888 | 2,865 | 5,384 | 7,848 | 7,559 | 29,990 | 13,717 | 4,476 | 25,675 | 66,728 |
| All areas | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 193,603 | 19,234 | 14,733 | 4,264 | 3,941 | 12,530 | 14,875 | 76,801 | 14,349 | 23,465 | 78,485 | 56,827 |
| 2014 | 217,823 | 17,226 | 8,962 | 4,580 | 5,695 | 14,804 | 15,838 | 70,730 | 23,136 | 25,783 | 82,066 | 72,871 |
| 2015 | 229,943 | 27,684 | 10,207 | 5,397 | 7,515 | 13,121 | 17,853 | 60,380 | 24,899 | 29,349 | 97,455 | 86,116 |
| 2016 | 221,149 | 46,470 | 9,853 | 5,118 | 6,261 | 11,588 | 24,027 | 48,494 | 30,217 | 24,352 | 81,690 | 89,091 |
| 2017 | 224,391 | 79,620 | 4,108 | 5,576 | 8,018 | 13,019 | 20,668 | 46,146 | 25,426 | 24,794 | 67,736 | 98,986 |
| 2018 | 219,072 | 61,758 | 3,655 | 6,114 | 7,560 | 15,727 | 15,477 | 44,138 | 31,303 | 33,185 | 55,949 | 102,799 |
| 2019 | 221,344 | 62,177 | 4,344 | 4,901 | 12,926 | 20,469 | 16,296 | 37,779 | 44,546 | 24,986 | 53,102 | 125,811 |
| 2020 | 207,132 | 54,395 | 8,536 | 3,863 | 8,177 | 12,778 | 9,975 | 21,949 | 24,361 | 16,606 | 36,077 | 118,287 |
| 2021 | 186,963 | 81,301 | 12,547 | 4,113 | 6,247 | 9,646 | 11,573 | 29,825 | 32,750 | 8,341 | 34,125 | 114,058 |
| 2022 | 171,447 | 83,969 | 11,538 | 3,629 | 7,109 | 11,133 | 11,031 | 35,752 | 17,501 | 4,955 | 31,683 | 89,062 |

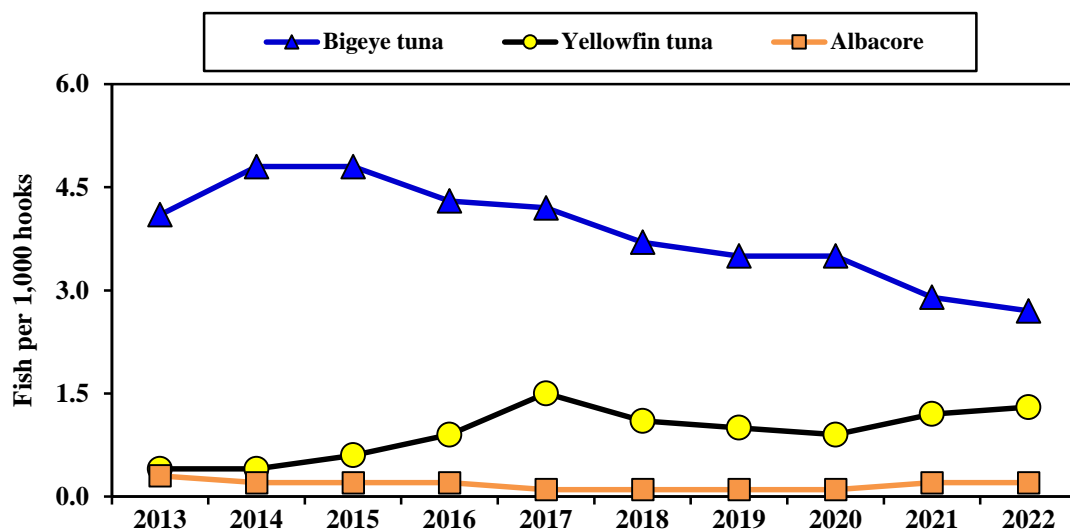


Figure 90. Tuna CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-91.

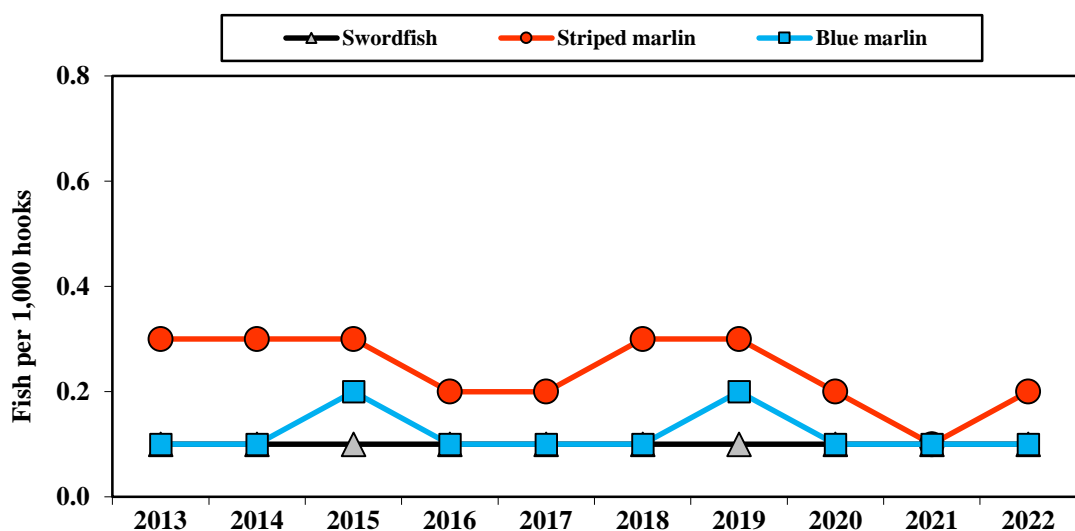


Figure 91. Billfish CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-92.

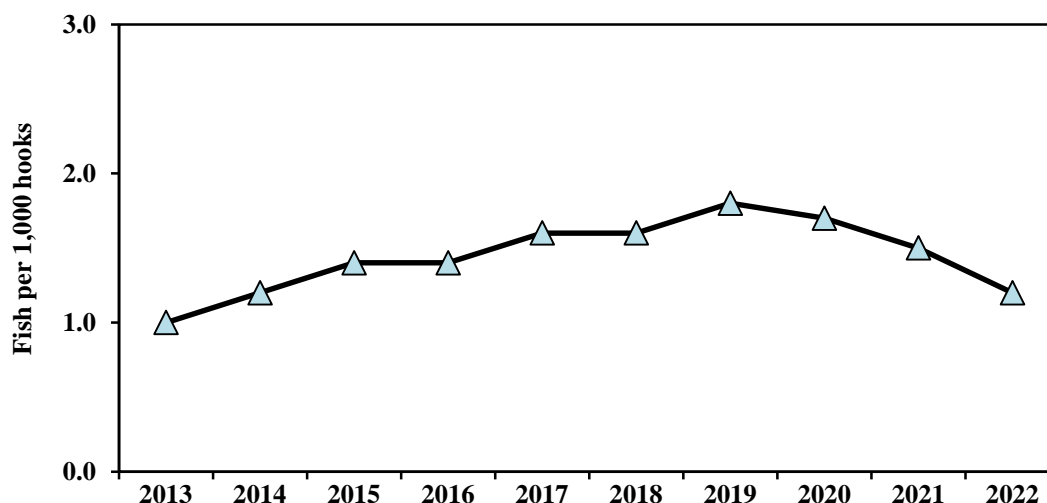


Figure 92. Blue shark CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-93.

Table 25. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish for the top 10 bycatch species from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The top 10 species comprised 92.3% of total bycatch in 2021.

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | Average | SD |
|------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|----------|
| Lancetfish, Longnose | 229,791 | 230,048 | 309,551 | 275,802 | 288,339 | 217,244 | 258,462.5 | 37,766.9 |
| Shark, Blue | 102,250 | 123,166 | 119,306 | 134,067 | 139,284 | 124,209 | 123,713.7 | 12,886.3 |
| Snake Mackerel | 110,655 | 120,432 | 79,308 | 49,481 | 43,862 | 67,877 | 78,602.5 | 31,456.5 |
| Escolar | 37,860 | 35,052 | 44,873 | 47,973 | 50,556 | 53,089 | 44,900.5 | 7,142.0 |
| Shark, Bigeye Thresher | 11,639 | 9,551 | 6,519 | 10,399 | 9,754 | 13,313 | 10,195.8 | 2,279.1 |
| Tuna, Bigeye | 20,723 | 20,800 | 24,053 | 19,481 | 20,596 | 12,360 | 19,668.8 | 3,896.8 |
| Tuna, Yellowfin | 5,615 | 9,455 | 5,201 | 7,434 | 6,138 | 10,804 | 7,441.2 | 2,254.6 |
| Pomfret, Dagger | 6,464 | 7,443 | 8,188 | 8,929 | 5,667 | 9,450 | 7,690.2 | 1,451.7 |
| Stingray, Pelagic | 6,958 | 6,608 | 7,234 | 10,949 | 9,357 | 8,526 | 8,272.0 | 1,672.2 |
| Tuna, Unidentified | 5,731 | 6,337 | 5,164 | 6,855 | 4,097 | 5,052 | 5,539.3 | 986.2 |

Table 26. Released catch, retained catch, and total catch for the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery in 2022

| | Deep-set longline fishery | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Released catch | Percent released | Retained catch | Total Catch |
| Tuna | | | | |
| Albacore | 647 | 5.6 | 10,891 | 11,538 |
| Bigeye tuna | 2,563 | 1.5 | 168,884 | 171,447 |
| Bluefin tuna | 1 | 9.1 | 10 | 11 |
| Skipjack tuna | 160 | 1.3 | 12,426 | 12,586 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 1,842 | 2.2 | 82,127 | 83,969 |
| Other tunas | 0 | - | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna PMUS Subtotal | 5,213 | 1.9 | 274,338 | 279,551 |
| Billfish | | | | |
| Swordfish | 73 | 2.0 | 3,556 | 3,629 |
| Blue marlin | 41 | 0.6 | 7,068 | 7,109 |
| Striped marlin | 157 | 1.4 | 10,976 | 11,133 |
| Shortbill spearfish | 243 | 2.2 | 10,788 | 11,031 |
| Other billfishes | 9 | 2.0 | 444 | 453 |
| Billfish PMUS Subtotal | 523 | 1.6 | 32,832 | 33,355 |
| Other PMUS | | | | |
| Mahimahi | 558 | 1.6 | 35,194 | 35,752 |
| Wahoo | 95 | 0.5 | 17,406 | 17,501 |
| Moonfish | 4 | 0.1 | 4,951 | 4,955 |
| Oilfish | 1,827 | 18.9 | 7,837 | 9,664 |
| Pomfret | 405 | 1.3 | 31,278 | 31,683 |
| Other PMUS Subtotal | 2,889 | 2.9 | 96,666 | 99,555 |
| Non-PMUS fish | 6,130 | 97.6 | 151 | 6,281 |
| Total non-shark | 14,755 | 3.5 | 403,987 | 418,742 |
| PMUS Sharks | | | | |
| Blue shark | 78,643 | 100.0 | 0 | 78,643 |
| Mako sharks | 1,568 | 98.8 | 19 | 1,587 |
| Thresher sharks | 8,184 | 99.6 | 31 | 8,215 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 384 | 100.0 | 0 | 384 |
| Silky shark | 233 | 100.0 | 0 | 233 |
| Shark PMUS Subtotal | 89,012 | 99.9 | 50 | 89,062 |
| Non-PMUS sharks | 246 | 99.6 | 1 | 247 |
| Grand Total | 104,013 | 20.5 | 404,038 | 508,051 |

Table 27. Average weight (lb) of the catch by the Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery

| Hawaii-permitted deep-set longline fishery | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------|-----------|----------|----------|---------|-----------|--------|--------|-----------|----------|--------|------------------|----------|----------|---------|------|--------|----------|
| Tunas | | | | | | Billfish | | | | | | Other PMUS | | | | | Sharks | |
| | Bigeye | Yellowfin | | Skipjack | Bluefin | Striped | | Blue | | | Black | Ono | | | | | Mako | Thresher |
| YEAR | tuna | tuna | Albacore | tuna | Tuna | Swordfish | marlin | marlin | Spearfish | Sailfish | marlin | Mahimahi (Wahoo) | Moonfish | Pomfrets | Oilfish | | shark | shark |
| 2013 | 75 | 84 | 47 | 16 | 240 | 184 | 68 | 225 | 31 | 62 | 180 | 11 | 33 | 89 | 13 | 18 | 196 | 173 |
| 2014 | 73 | 84 | 50 | 17 | - | 158 | 62 | 205 | 30 | 58 | 258 | 12 | 30 | 89 | 14 | 17 | 201 | 214 |
| 2015 | 85 | 74 | 52 | 18 | 240 | 165 | 81 | 185 | 33 | 59 | 219 | 12 | 31 | 91 | 13 | 18 | 195 | 219 |
| 2016 | 83 | 73 | 55 | 17 | 254 | 165 | 73 | 196 | 31 | 51 | 242 | 13 | 31 | 88 | 13 | 19 | 179 | 183 |
| 2017 | 79 | 72 | 49 | 19 | 254 | 190 | 67 | 188 | 32 | 63 | 286 | 12 | 31 | 92 | 13 | 20 | 181 | 200 |
| 2018 | 78 | 89 | 52 | 19 | 277 | 189 | 66 | 197 | 32 | 64 | 185 | 11 | 28 | 93 | 15 | 22 | 182 | 184 |
| 2019 | 78 | 74 | 53 | 18 | 269 | 189 | 60 | 156 | 28 | 29 | 182 | 12 | 28 | 92 | 14 | 22 | 190 | 190 |
| 2020 | 81 | 71 | 41 | 18 | 246 | 145 | 58 | 144 | 26 | 36 | 247 | 12 | 30 | 99 | 14 | 23 | 184 | 183 |
| 2021 | 84 | 69 | 39 | 19 | 233 | 129 | 56 | 134 | 26 | 42 | 149 | 12 | 27 | 102 | 12 | 21 | 184 | 183 |
| 2022 | 83 | 64 | 37 | 18 | 245 | 130 | 55 | 137 | 26 | 46 | 133 | 11 | 32 | 106 | 13 | 20 | 184 | 183 |
| Average | 79.9 | 75.4 | 47.5 | 17.9 | 250.9 | 164.4 | 64.6 | 176.7 | 29.5 | 51.0 | 208.1 | 11.8 | 30.1 | 94.1 | 13.4 | 20.0 | 187.6 | 191.2 |
| SD | 4.0 | 7.8 | 6.3 | 1.0 | 14.3 | 23.8 | 8.1 | 31.6 | 2.8 | 12.3 | 50.0 | 0.6 | 1.9 | 6.1 | 0.8 | 2.0 | 7.4 | 15.0 |

2.4.7 HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY EFFORT, LANDINGS, REVENUE, AND CPUE

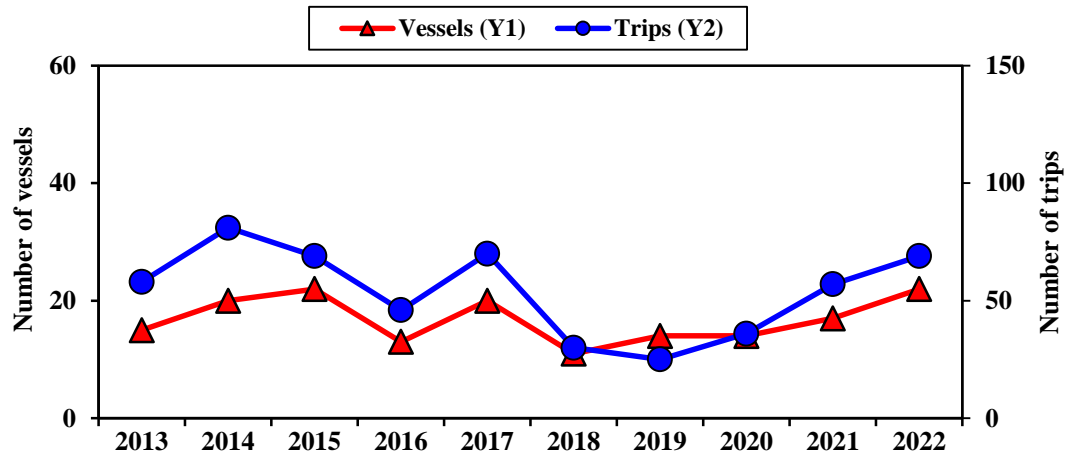


Figure 93. Number of Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline vessels and trips
Supporting data shown in Table A-94.

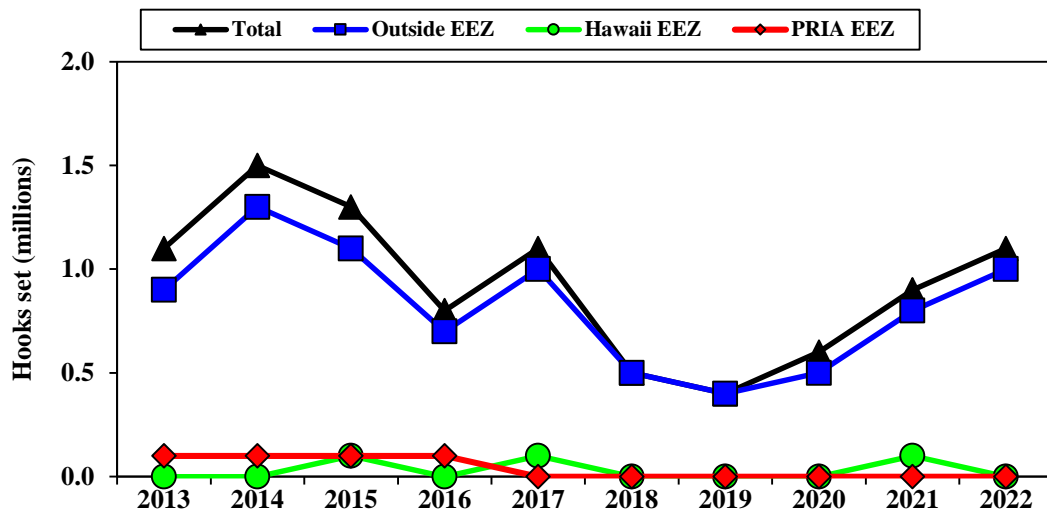


Figure 94. Number of hooks set by the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-95.

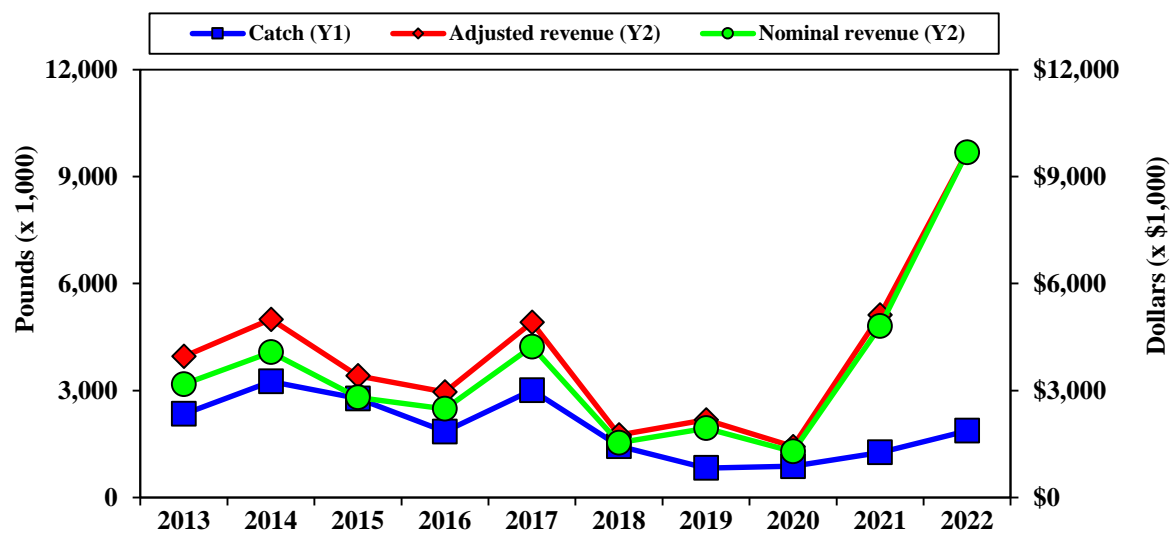


Figure 95. Catch and revenue for the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-96.

Table 28. Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline catch (number of fish) by area

| Year | Tunas | | | Billfish | | | | Other PMUS | | | | PMUS sharks |
|-----------------|-------------|----------------|----------|-----------|-------------|----------------|-----------|------------|-------------|----------|----------|-------------|
| | Bigeye tuna | Yellowfin tuna | Albacore | Swordfish | Blue marlin | Striped marlin | Spearfish | Mahimahi | Ono (Wahoo) | Moonfish | Pomfrets | |
| Hawaii+PRIA EEZ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 93 | 76 | 5 | 1,507 | 43 | 298 | 32 | 1,679 | 8 | 0 | 3 | 819 |
| 2014 | 27 | 57 | 1 | 1,689 | 54 | 137 | 37 | 968 | 19 | 0 | 4 | 1,280 |
| 2015 | 40 | 36 | 1 | 2,001 | 23 | 111 | 40 | 804 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 1,537 |
| 2016 | 20 | 47 | 5 | 1,157 | 68 | 104 | 45 | 69 | 19 | 0 | 2 | 1,142 |
| 2017 | 12 | 31 | 1 | 779 | 32 | 88 | 38 | 38 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 580 |
| 2018 | 12 | 11 | 0 | 58 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 22 |
| 2019 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2020 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2021 | 100 | 94 | 0 | 424 | 41 | 69 | 65 | 34 | 23 | 4 | 36 | 482 |
| 2022 | 7 | 51 | 0 | 185 | 13 | 33 | 10 | 13 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 247 |
| Outside EEZ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 359 | 126 | 556 | 9,222 | 20 | 92 | 84 | 1,995 | 22 | 241 | 129 | 5,442 |
| 2014 | 810 | 124 | 662 | 13,646 | 21 | 231 | 134 | 3,321 | 25 | 515 | 228 | 10,173 |
| 2015 | 1,305 | 103 | 305 | 12,988 | 26 | 155 | 66 | 1,822 | 11 | 645 | 121 | 12,489 |
| 2016 | 921 | 254 | 54 | 8,573 | 27 | 225 | 115 | 1,065 | 20 | 271 | 16 | 10,737 |
| 2017 | 1,518 | 1,522 | 286 | 13,141 | 26 | 323 | 122 | 1,263 | 64 | 431 | 37 | 10,268 |
| 2018 | 1,279 | 767 | 137 | 6,052 | 4 | 61 | 44 | 627 | 25 | 172 | 24 | 2,887 |
| 2019 | 874 | 331 | 81 | 3,435 | 0 | 12 | 18 | 247 | 3 | 31 | 5 | 3,195 |
| 2020 | 1,099 | 456 | 356 | 4,374 | 7 | 23 | 24 | 229 | 9 | 300 | 12 | 6,605 |
| 2021 | 873 | 1,067 | 626 | 6,074 | 50 | 123 | 38 | 1,218 | 38 | 20 | 1 | 5,733 |
| 2022 | 947 | 1,016 | 1,395 | 9,426 | 36 | 355 | 52 | 1,488 | 32 | 28 | 6 | 6,896 |
| All areas | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2013 | 452 | 202 | 561 | 10,729 | 63 | 390 | 116 | 3,674 | 30 | 241 | 132 | 6,261 |
| 2014 | 837 | 181 | 664 | 15,449 | 75 | 368 | 171 | 4,289 | 44 | 535 | 233 | 11,632 |
| 2015 | 1,345 | 139 | 306 | 14,989 | 49 | 266 | 106 | 2,626 | 16 | 645 | 124 | 14,026 |
| 2016 | 941 | 301 | 59 | 9,730 | 95 | 329 | 160 | 1,134 | 39 | 271 | 18 | 11,879 |
| 2017 | 1,530 | 1,553 | 287 | 13,928 | 58 | 411 | 160 | 1,301 | 74 | 431 | 39 | 10,852 |
| 2018 | 1,291 | 778 | 137 | 6,110 | 5 | 62 | 44 | 639 | 26 | 172 | 24 | 2,909 |
| 2019 | 874 | 331 | 81 | 3,435 | 0 | 12 | 18 | 247 | 3 | 31 | 5 | 3,195 |
| 2020 | 1,114 | 497 | 356 | 4,594 | 23 | 30 | 26 | 241 | 12 | 302 | 12 | 7,012 |
| 2021 | 973 | 1,161 | 626 | 6,498 | 91 | 192 | 103 | 1,252 | 61 | 24 | 37 | 6,215 |
| 2022 | 954 | 1,067 | 1,395 | 9,611 | 49 | 388 | 62 | 1,501 | 35 | 29 | 6 | 7,143 |

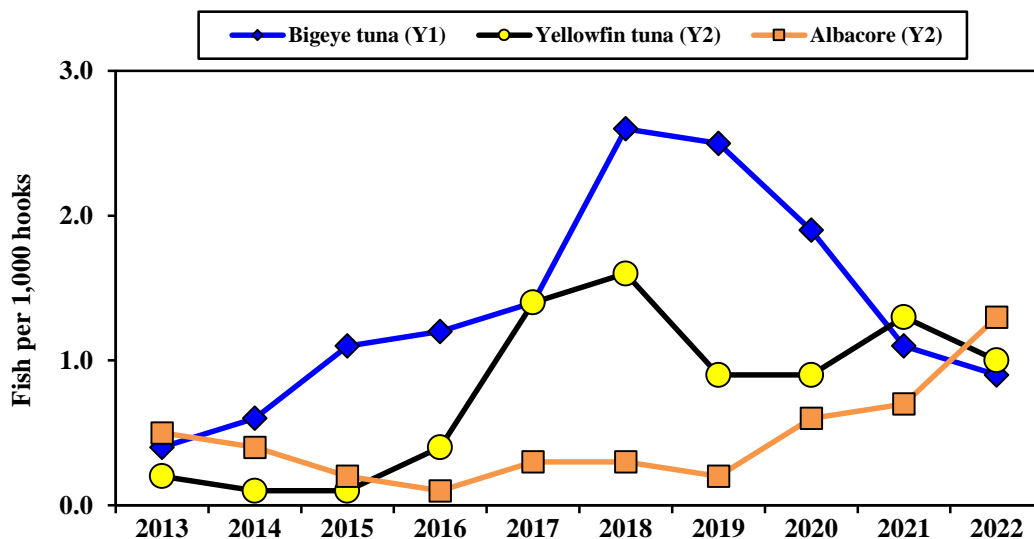


Figure 96. Tuna CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-97.

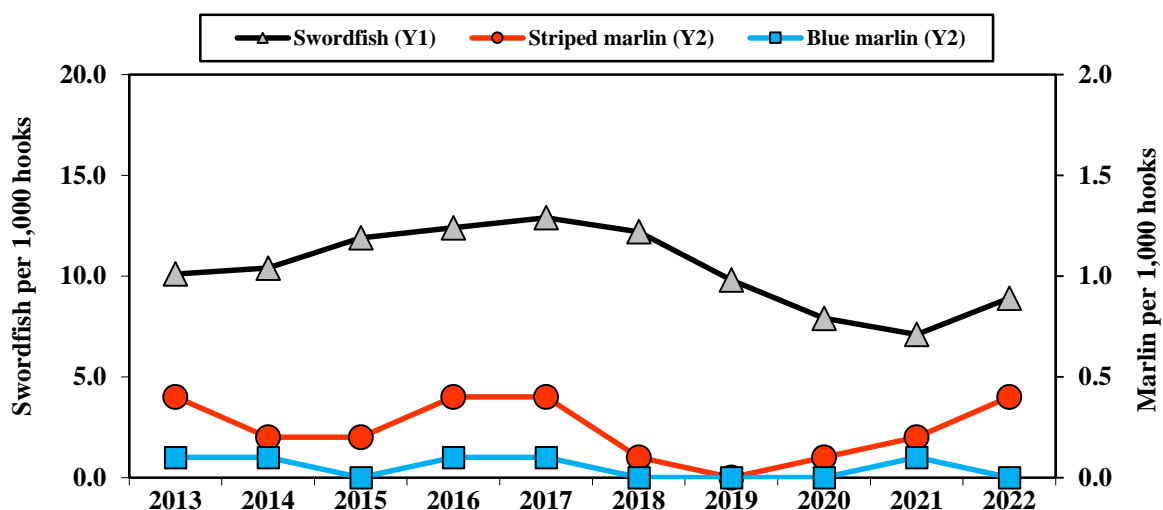


Figure 97. Billfish CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-98.

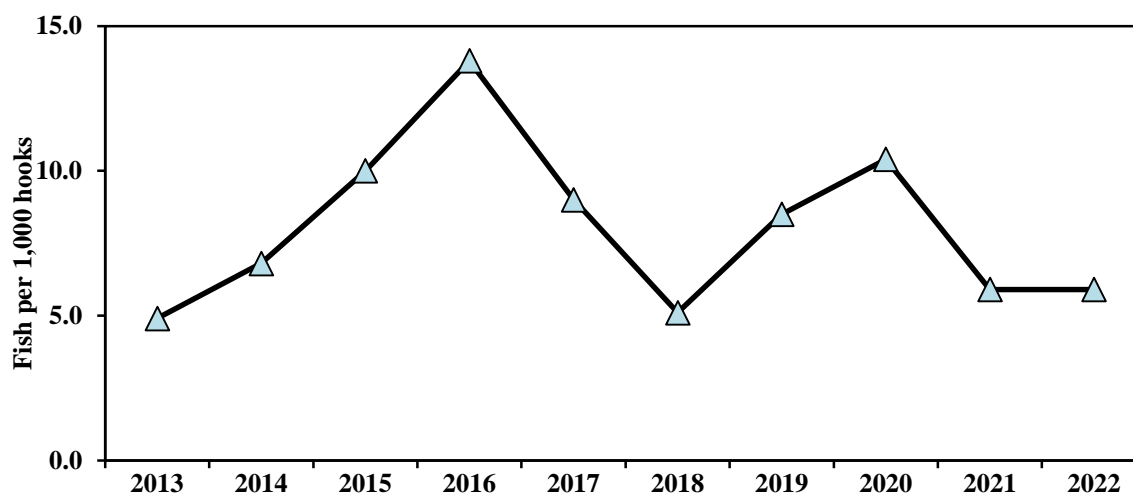


Figure 98. Blue shark CPUE for the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-99.

Table 29. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish for the top 10 bycatch species from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery. The top 10 species comprised 95.5% of total bycatch in 2021.

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | Average | S.D. |
|----------------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| Shark, Blue | 11,853 | 10,102 | 4,115 | 4,225 | 6,949 | 6,446 | 7,281.7 | 3,131.5 |
| Lancetfish, Longnose | 1,784 | 2,728 | 1,211 | 1,232 | 1,268 | 2,480 | 1,783.8 | 674.5 |
| Shark, Shortfin Mako | 968 | 1,085 | 537 | 298 | 1,151 | 808 | 807.8 | 332.7 |
| Escolar | 459 | 765 | 150 | 122 | 152 | 521 | 361.5 | 262.2 |
| Swordfish | 1,049 | 1,419 | 735 | 254 | 251 | 499 | 701.2 | 465.0 |
| Oilfish | 171 | 327 | 114 | 57 | 248 | 219 | 189.3 | 96.7 |
| Stingray, Pelagic | 245 | 284 | 440 | 82 | 328 | 171 | 258.3 | 124.4 |
| Snake Mackerel | 315 | 638 | 62 | 16 | 31 | 98 | 193.3 | 243.6 |
| Tuna, Bigeye | 121 | 278 | 153 | 55 | 77 | 79 | 127.2 | 81.9 |
| Dolphinfish | 83 | 107 | 34 | 18 | 20 | 75 | 56.2 | 37.2 |

Table 30. Released catch, retained catch, and total catch for the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery in 2022

| | Shallow-set longline fishery | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------|
| | Released catch | Percent released | Retained catch | Total Catch |
| Tuna | | | | |
| Albacore | 19 | 1.4 | 1,376 | 1,395 |
| Bigeye tuna | 7 | 0.7 | 947 | 954 |
| Bluefin tuna | 0 | 0.0 | 4 | 4 |
| Skipjack tuna | 0 | 0.0 | 31 | 31 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 12 | 1.1 | 1,055 | 1,067 |
| Other tunas | 0 | - | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna PMUS Subtotal | 38 | 1.1 | 3,413 | 3,451 |
| Billfish | | | | |
| Swordfish | 262 | 2.7 | 9,349 | 9,611 |
| Blue marlin | 0 | 0.0 | 49 | 49 |
| Striped marlin | 3 | 0.8 | 385 | 388 |
| Shortbill spearfish | 0 | 0.0 | 62 | 62 |
| Other billfishes | 1 | 8.3 | 11 | 12 |
| Billfish PMUS Subtotal | 266 | 2.6 | 9,856 | 10,122 |
| Other PMUS | | | | |
| Mahimahi | 3 | 0.2 | 1,498 | 1,501 |
| Wahoo | 0 | 0.0 | 35 | 35 |
| Moonfish | 2 | 6.9 | 27 | 29 |
| Oilfish | 96 | 42.3 | 131 | 227 |
| Pomfret | 2 | 33.3 | 4 | 6 |
| Other PMUS Subtotal | 103 | 5.7 | 1,695 | 1,798 |
| Non-PMUS fish | 3 | 23.1 | 10 | 13 |
| Total non-shark | 410 | 2.7 | 14,974 | 15,384 |
| PMUS Sharks | | | | |
| Blue shark | 6,355 | 100.0 | 0 | 6,355 |
| Mako sharks | 709 | 99.4 | 4 | 713 |
| Thresher sharks | 44 | 100.0 | 0 | 44 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 26 | 100.0 | 0 | 26 |
| Silky shark | 5 | 100.0 | 0 | 5 |
| Shark PMUS Subtotal | 7,139 | 99.9 | 4 | 7,143 |
| Non-PMUS sharks | 5 | 100.0 | 0 | 5 |
| Grand Total | 7,554 | 33.5 | 14,978 | 22,532 |

Table 31. Average weight (lb) of the catch by the Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fisheries

| Hawaii-permitted shallow-set longline fishery | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------|-----------|----------|----------|---------|-----------|---------|--------|-----------|----------|--------|------------|---------|----------|----------|---------|----------|-------|
| Tunas | | | | | | Billfish | | | | | | Other PMUS | | | | | Sharks | |
| | Bigeye | Yellowfin | | Skipjack | Bluefin | | Striped | Blue | | | Black | Ono | | | | Mako | Thresher | |
| Year | tuna | tuna | Albacore | tuna | Tuna | Swordfish | marlin | marlin | Spearfish | Sailfish | marlin | Mahimahi | (Wahoo) | Moonfish | Pomfrets | Oilfish | shark | shark |
| 2013 | 107 | 111 | 27 | 17 | 187 | 216 | 92 | 281 | 34 | - | - | 12 | 42 | 82 | 15 | 23 | 177 | - |
| 2014 | 87 | 131 | 24 | 14 | 268 | 212 | 91 | 278 | 36 | 51 | - | 12 | 42 | 71 | 16 | 24 | 202 | 243 |
| 2015 | 79 | 120 | 22 | 16 | - | 184 | 97 | 292 | 37 | 51 | - | 12 | 39 | 76 | 13 | 22 | 150 | 243 |
| 2016 | 86 | 103 | 34 | 16 | - | 179 | 97 | 304 | 39 | 51 | - | 14 | 33 | 83 | 13 | 21 | 215 | 243 |
| 2017 | 98 | 94 | 35 | 18 | 187 | 200 | 102 | 259 | 39 | 51 | - | 12 | 36 | 83 | 14 | 20 | 179 | 243 |
| 2018 | 89 | 98 | 36 | 15 | 187 | 214 | 94 | 412 | 36 | - | - | 10 | 39 | 84 | 14 | 25 | 184 | 243 |
| 2019 | 72 | 92 | 35 | 17 | - | 217 | 126 | - | 35 | 51 | - | 9 | 39 | 83 | 16 | 22 | 165 | - |
| 2020 | 90 | 76 | 28 | 18 | 187 | 148 | 89 | 160 | 34 | - | - | 12 | 36 | 83 | 17 | 19 | 175 | 243 |
| 2021 | 95 | 101 | 34 | 19 | 225 | 160 | 76 | 177 | 25 | 51 | - | 10 | 32 | 84 | 17 | 20 | 175 | 243 |
| 2022 | 106 | 92 | 28 | 18 | 210 | 169 | 65 | 182 | 26 | 42 | - | 9 | 35 | 80 | 12 | 29 | 175 | - |
| Average | 90.9 | 101.8 | 30.3 | 16.8 | 207.3 | 189.9 | 92.9 | 260.6 | 34.1 | 49.7 | --- | 11.2 | 37.3 | 80.9 | 14.7 | 22.5 | 179.7 | 243.0 |
| SD | 11.0 | 15.6 | 5.1 | 1.5 | 30.7 | 25.4 | 16.0 | 78.9 | 4.9 | 3.4 | --- | 1.6 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 1.8 | 3.0 | 18.1 | 0.0 |

2.4.8 MHI TROLL FISHERY EFFORT, LANDINGS, REVENUE, AND CPUE

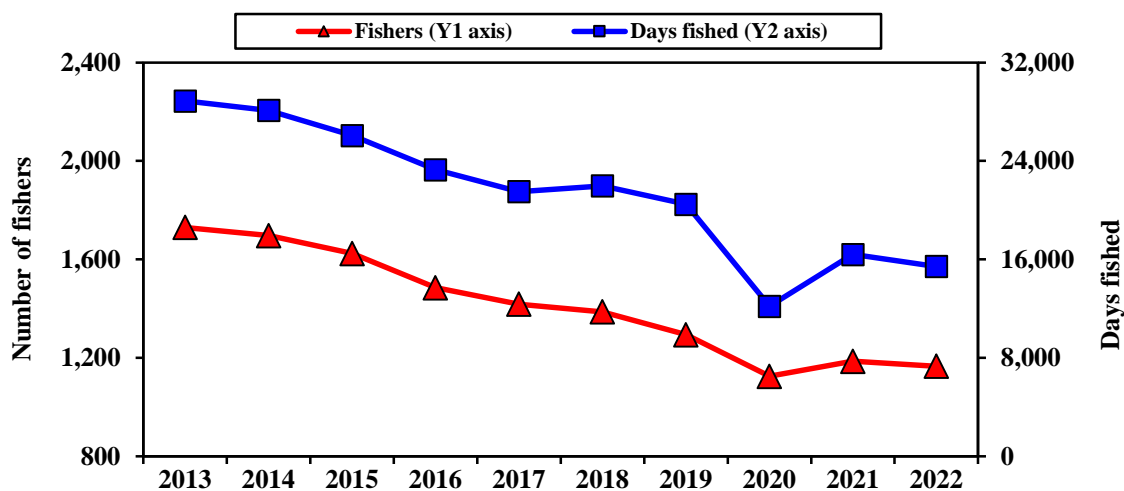


Figure 99. Number of MHI troll fishers and days fished

Supporting data shown in Table A-100.

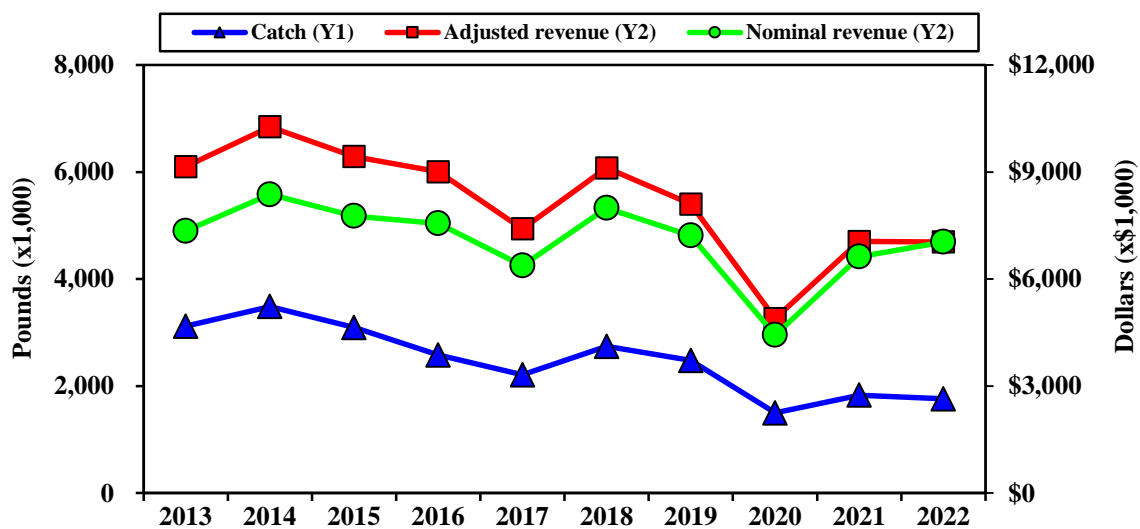


Figure 100. Catch and revenue for the MHI troll fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-101.

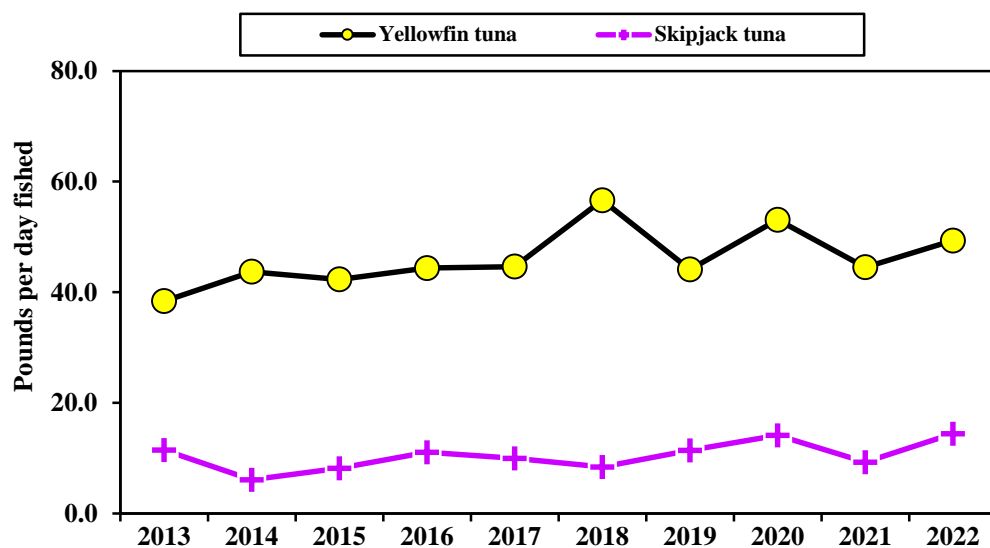


Figure 101. Tuna CPUE for the MHI troll fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-102.

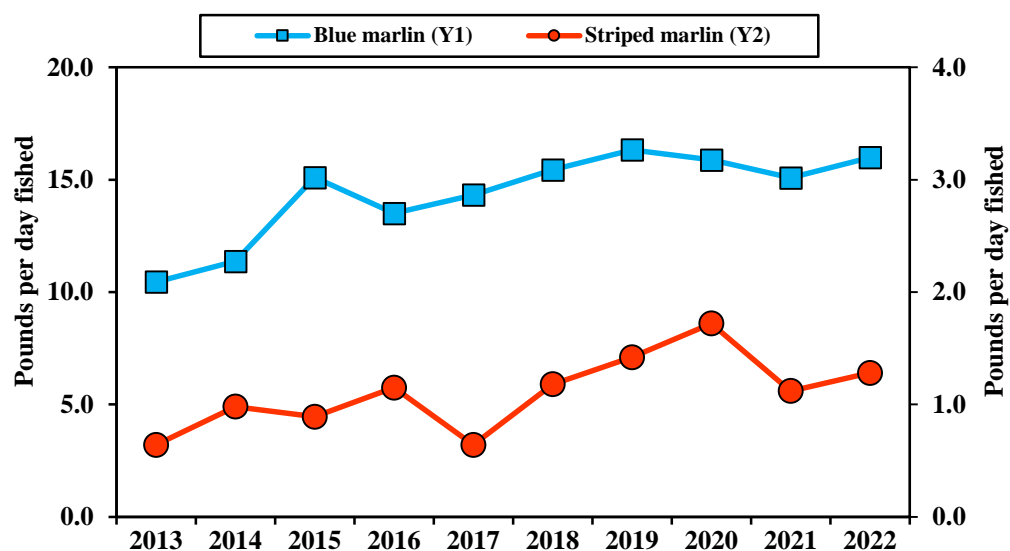


Figure 102. Marlin CPUE for the MHI troll fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-103.

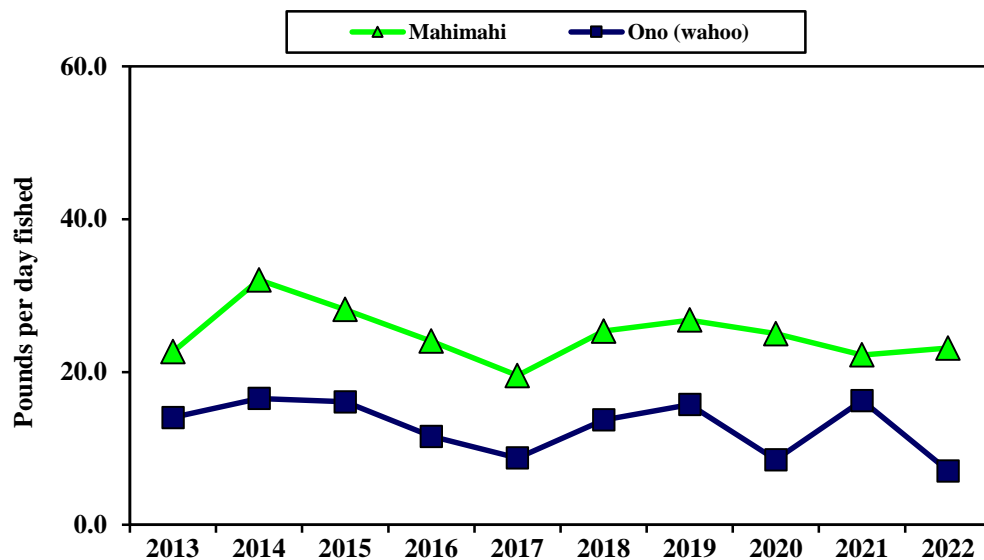


Figure 103. Mahimahi and Ono CPUE for the MHI troll fishery
Supporting data shown in Table A-104.

2.4.9 MHI HANDLINE FISHERY EFFORT, LANDINGS, REVENUE, AND CPUE

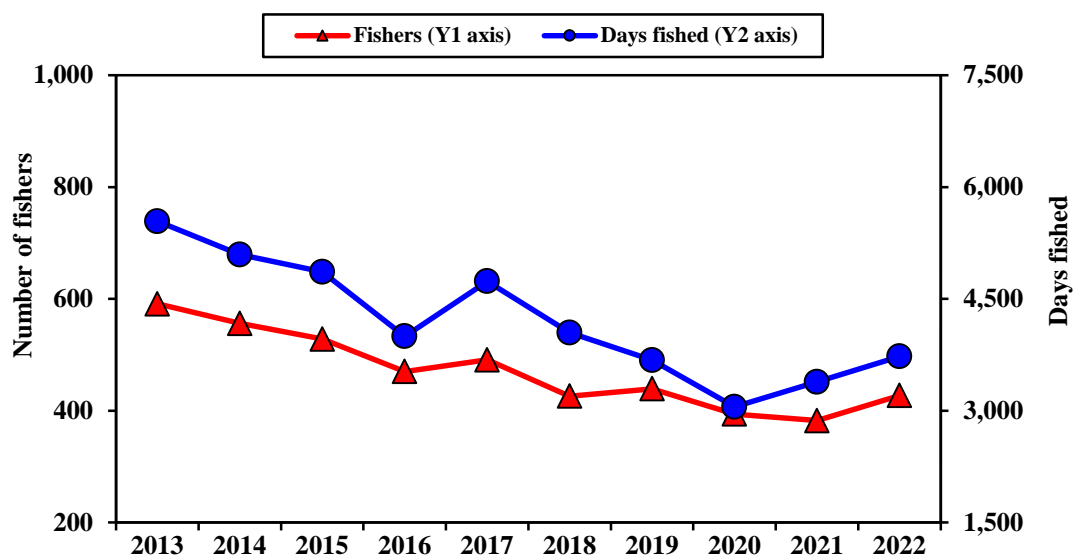


Figure 104. Number of MHI handline fishers and days fished
Supporting data shown in Table A-105.

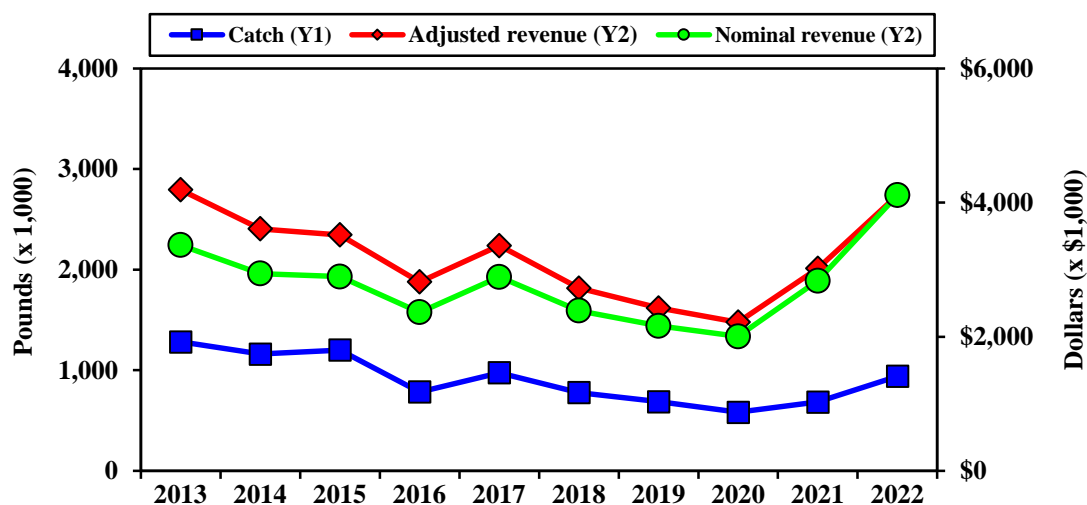


Figure 105. Catch and revenue for the MHI handline fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-106.

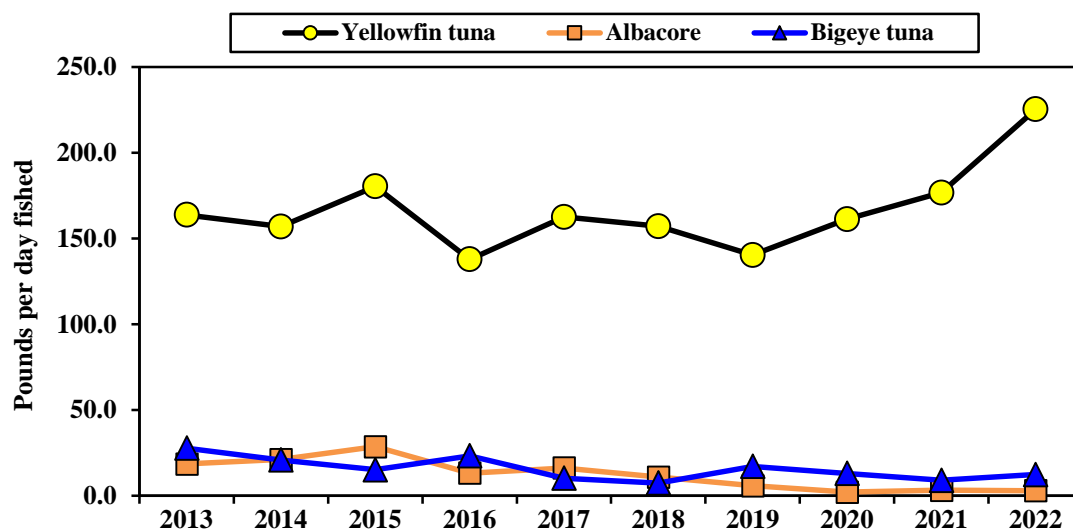


Figure 106. Tuna CPUE for the MHI handline fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-107.

2.4.10 OFFSHORE HANDLINE FISHERY EFFORT, LANDINGS, REVENUE, AND CPUE

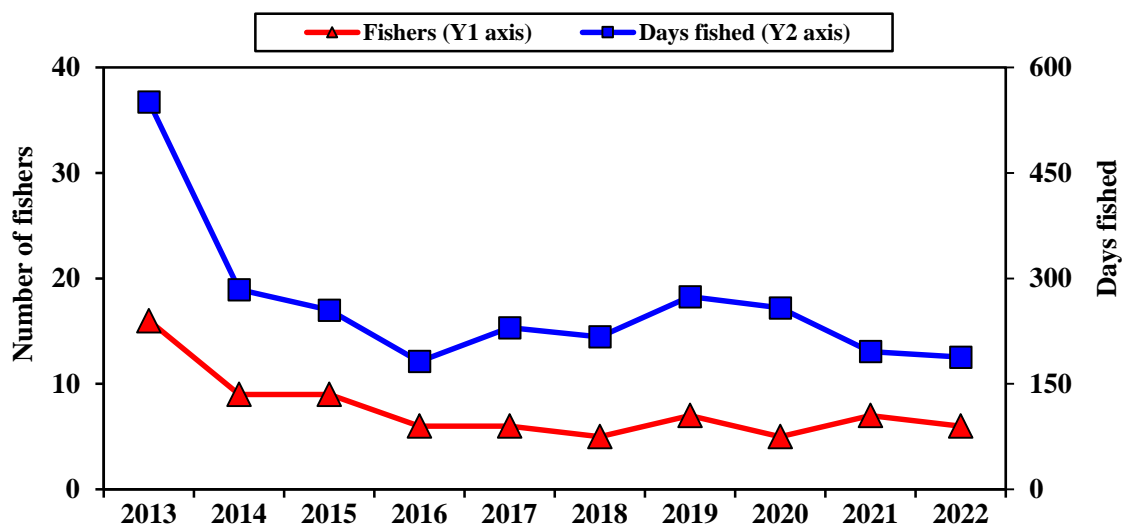


Figure 107. Number of offshore handline fishers and days fished

Supporting data shown in Table A-108.

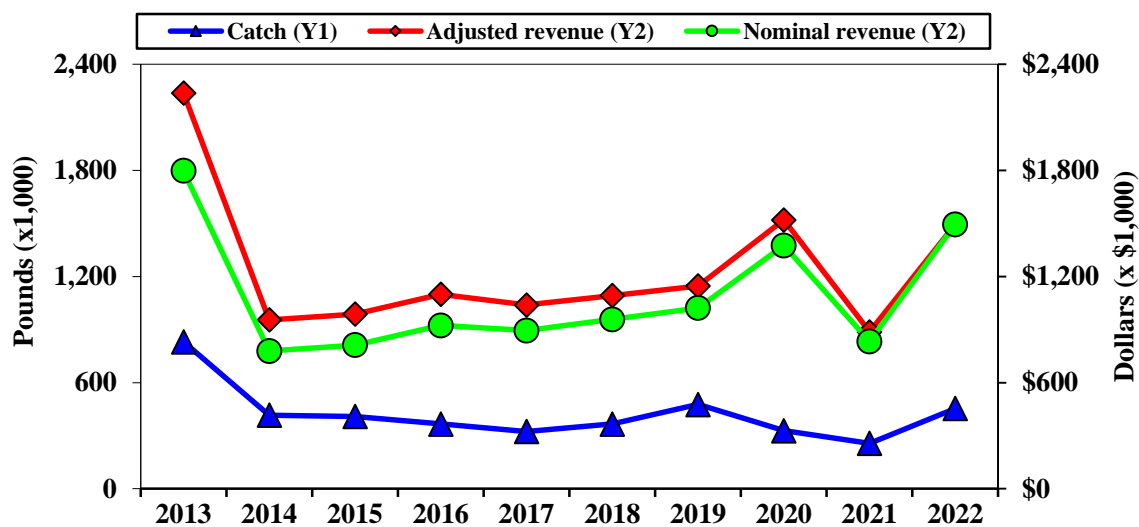


Figure 108. Catch and revenue for the offshore tuna handline fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-109.

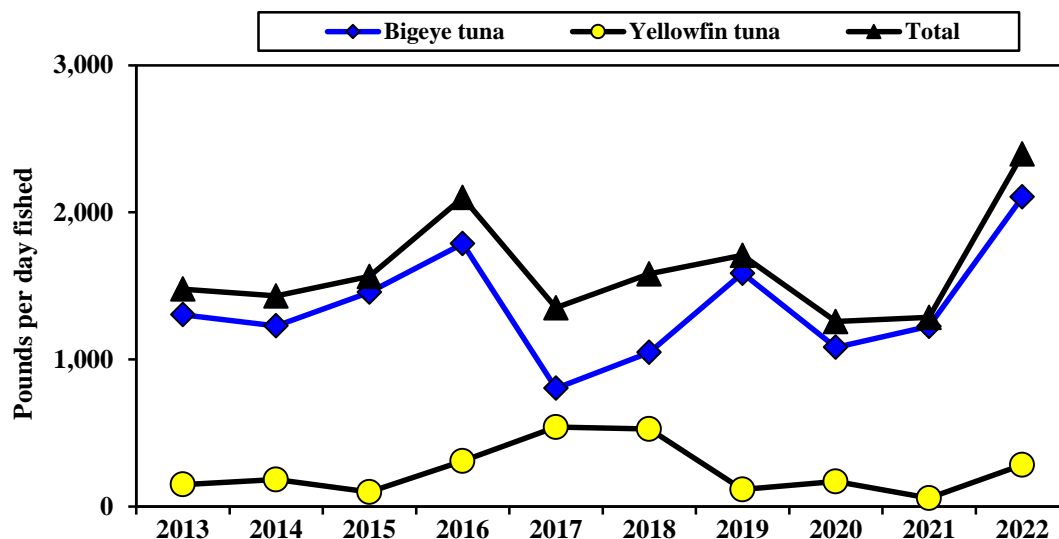


Figure 109. Tuna CPUE for the offshore tuna handline fishery

Supporting data shown in Table A-110.

Table 32. Average weight (lb) of the catch by the Hawaii troll and handline fisheries

| Year | Tunas | | | | Billfish | | | Other PMUS | |
|---------|----------|-------------|---------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|-----------|------------|-------------|
| | Albacore | Bigeye tuna | Skipjack tuna | Yellowfin tuna | Blue marlin | Striped marlin | Swordfish | Mahimahi | Ono (wahoo) |
| 2013 | 46.1 | 23.9 | 8.6 | 35.2 | 257.3 | 64.7 | 101.2 | 12.3 | 23.9 |
| 2014 | 43.8 | 24.1 | 6.7 | 34.5 | 245.4 | 49.5 | 118.9 | 12.3 | 22.0 |
| 2015 | 44.1 | 21.5 | 8.1 | 33.9 | 170.5 | 72.9 | 96.4 | 13.2 | 21.7 |
| 2016 | 47.7 | 20.9 | 8.4 | 33.7 | 145.1 | 63.1 | 117.0 | 12.0 | 23.0 |
| 2017 | 53.0 | 24.1 | 9.1 | 42.9 | 175.1 | 73.7 | 121.4 | 11.0 | 23.1 |
| 2018 | 52.5 | 25.4 | 7.9 | 45.2 | 193.2 | 66.6 | 110.6 | 11.8 | 20.5 |
| 2019 | 54.5 | 22.8 | 8.9 | 33.0 | 150.8 | 62.2 | 129.8 | 12.7 | 21.0 |
| 2020 | 55.3 | 25.9 | 11.8 | 39.8 | 124.5 | 46.3 | 159.3 | 12.3 | 21.8 |
| 2021 | 58.2 | 26.1 | 10.1 | 31.7 | 151.0 | 79.2 | 107.9 | 12.7 | 22.1 |
| 2022 | 57.4 | 29.7 | 11.4 | 49.0 | 164.1 | 66.9 | 103.1 | 11.8 | 24.4 |
| Average | 51.2 | 24.4 | 9.1 | 37.9 | 177.7 | 64.5 | 116.6 | 12.2 | 22.3 |
| SD | 5.4 | 2.5 | 1.6 | 5.9 | 43.1 | 10.2 | 18.1 | 0.6 | 1.2 |

2.4.11 PELAGIC SMALL BOAT FISHERY BYCATCH SUMMARIES

CML holders are required to report all fishing activity regardless of whether the marine life is ultimately kept. Bycatch is reported at the species or species group level along with count (pieces), gear, reporting grid number and other trip details. Fishers are not required to report bycatch in weight.

2.4.11.1 FISHERY DEFINITIONS

Fishery definitions included in Section 2.4.1 were created to account for all landings of pelagic species. Because pelagic species are occasionally caught incidentally or misreported in fisheries that do not target them directly, fishery definitions were intentionally kept broad, e.g., the deep-sea handline, a gear used primarily to target bottomfish, was included in the MHI pelagic handline fishery definition to account for pelagic species incidentally caught by the gear and/or catch of species like pomfrets which the gear is occasionally used to target. When accounting for bycatch this presents an issue as the typically non-pelagic fisheries included in these definitions tend to have relatively high bycatch that is otherwise non-pelagic and may mischaracterize bycatch in pelagic fisheries. Fishery definitions as they pertain to bycatch have been modified to herein to remove such non-pelagic fisheries and therefore differ from those used to define catch. Specifically, the gear “Casting, Light Tackle, Spinners or Whipping” was removed from MHI Troll Fishery definition and “Deep Sea or

2.4.11.2 BYCATCH SUMMARIES

Over 50% of the reported bycatch for the MHI troll fishery in 2022 was comprised of blue marlin and yellowfin tuna (Reported bycatch for the MHI handline fishery is led by its two primary targets: yellowfin and bigeye tuna (Table 34). Again, both species have a three-pound minimum size for commercial sale imposed by the State of Hawaii that results in releases of undersized fish. Other top bycatch species for this fishery are reflective of common pelagic catch and other species such as jacks and bottomfish that are occasionally caught incidentally. Several species, namely palani, 'ōpelu, and akule likely appear pelagic handline catch due to misreporting of gear, potentially on mixed-gear trips. The majority of the data in Table 34 is withheld due to confidentiality rules, specifically that less than three CML holders reported catch of the species in a given year. Though bycatch in this pelagic fishery relative to overall catch is thought to be low, underreporting is almost certainly occurring.

Bycatch for other pelagic fisheries including the offshore handline and offshore troll fisheries are not reported here due to the data confidentiality rules. Both of these fisheries are extremely small in terms of participation compared with the MHI trolling and handline fisheries. Bycatch data for the offshore troll and handline fisheries will be presented in future reports as confidentiality rules allow.

Table 33). High releases of blue marlin and other billfish are due in part to charter fishing operations in which all captains and crews involved are required to hold CMLs. Sport fishing charter trips, especially those fishing the waters off West Hawai‘i Island, often fish for billfish as a primary target though a large number are released. The State of Hawaii has a three-pound minimum size limit on the commercial sale of ahi (yellowfin and bigeye tuna). High releases of yellowfin tuna, an otherwise commercially valuable and sought after food

fish, may be due to undersized fish being discarded. Other top bycatch species for the MHI troll fishery are characteristic of this fishery and include both typically high-value species such as mahimahi, aku, and ono that may be released because they are not at a marketable size as well as other species such kāhala, kākū, and miscellaneous sharks that have low market value. Small inshore species such as menpachi, 'āweoweo, and halālū were likely misreported while on a mixed-gear trip, e.g., trolling and inshore handline. Though bycatch QA/QC methodologies are being introduced, DAR currently does not scrutinize bycatch data to the same degree of catch data resulting in such species being included.

Reported bycatch for the MHI handline fishery is led by its two primary targets: yellowfin and bigeye tuna (Table 34). Again, both species have a three-pound minimum size for commercial sale imposed by the State of Hawaii that results in releases of undersized fish. Other top bycatch species for this fishery are reflective of common pelagic catch and other species such as jacks and bottomfish that are occasionally caught incidentally. Several species, namely palani, 'ōpelu, and akule likely appear pelagic handline catch due to misreporting of gear, potentially on mixed-gear trips. The majority of the data in Table 34 is withheld due to confidentiality rules, specifically that less than three CML holders reported catch of the species in a given year. Though bycatch in this pelagic fishery relative to overall catch is thought to be low, underreporting is almost certainly occurring.

Bycatch for other pelagic fisheries including the offshore handline and offshore troll fisheries are not reported here due to the data confidentiality rules. Both of these fisheries are extremely small in terms of participation compared with the MHI trolling and handline fisheries. Bycatch data for the offshore troll and handline fisheries will be presented in future reports as confidentiality rules allow.

Table 33. Total reported commercial bycatch (number of individuals) from the MHI troll fishery for fishing years 2013-2022

| Species | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2017 | 2016 | 2015 | 2014 | 2013 |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| <i>Makaira mazara</i> or <i>Makaira nigricans</i> ; Blue Marlin | 518 | 497 | 386 | 1167 | 949 | 651 | 681 | 1269 | 797 | 598 |
| <i>Thunnus albacares</i> ; Yellowfin Tuna | 332 | 586 | 615 | 780 | 551 | 497 | 835 | 1240 | 1593 | 899 |
| <i>Katsuwonus pelamis</i> ; Aku | 248 | 224 | 187 | 124 | 151 | 193 | 417 | 411 | 711 | 652 |
| <i>Coryphaena hippurus</i> ; Mahimahi | 155 | 146 | 197 | 213 | 216 | 282 | 248 | 427 | 623 | 530 |
| <i>Seriola dumerili</i> ; Kāhala | 91 | 87 | 53 | 94 | 100 | 92 | 59 | | | |
| <i>Kajikia audax</i> ; Striped Marlin | 48 | 21 | 38 | 101 | 54 | | 64 | 75 | 149 | 66 |
| <i>Sphyrna barracuda</i> ; Kākū | 36 | | 26 | 37 | | | | 58 | | |
| <i>Euthynnus affinis</i> ; Kawakawa | 30 | | | | | | | 202 | 437 | |
| <i>Tetrapturus angustirostris</i> ; Shortbill Spearfish | 30 | 30 | | 77 | 146 | 181 | 280 | 180 | 159 | 227 |
| Selachii (infraclass); Shark (Misc.) | 29 | 21 | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Acanthocybium solandri</i> ; Ono | | 49 | 20 | 56 | 66 | 60 | | | 51 | 92 |
| <i>Thunnus obesus</i> ; Bigeye Tuna | | 28 | 36 | 110 | | | 148 | 170 | 394 | 314 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|------|------|------|----|----|------|
| <i>Caranx ignobilis</i> ; White Pāpio/Ulua | | | 27 | | | | 59 | 55 | | |
| <i>Myripristis</i> spp.; Menpachi | | | | | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | | | n.d. |
| <i>Heteropriacanthus cruentatus</i> ; 'Āweoweo | | | | | n.d. | n.d. | | | | n.d. |
| <i>Selar crumenophthalmus</i> (juvenile); Halalū | | | | | | n.d. | | | | |
| <i>Caranx melampygus</i> ; 'Ōmilu | | | | | | | | | 47 | |
| Percent of all Bycatch | 96 | 97 | 95 | 94 | 66 | 57 | 87 | 96 | 97 | 87 |

Note: n.d. = non-disclosed due to data confidentiality rules; the species presented in this table represent the ten species most frequently released in each year over the past ten years.

Table 34. Total reported commercial bycatch (number of individuals) from the MHI handline fishery for fishing years 2013-2022

| Species | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2017 | 2016 | 2015 | 2014 | 2013 |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| <i>Thunnus albacares</i> ; Yellowfin Tuna | 148 | 246 | 118 | 183 | 261 | 168 | 283 | 434 | 476 | 519 |
| <i>Thunnus obesus</i> ; Bigeye Tuna | n.d. | 13 | n.d. | 46 | n.d. | 92 | 34 | 40 | 63 | 120 |
| <i>Katsuwonus pelamis</i> ; Aku | 31 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 13 | 20 | 44 | 58 | 42 |
| <i>Elagatis bipinnulata</i> ; Kamanu | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 26 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| <i>Coryphaena hippurus</i> ; Mahimahi | 12 | n.d. | n.d. | 44 | 13 | 23 | n.d. | n.d. | 47 | n.d. |
| Belonidae (family); 'Aha | n.d. | n.d. | | | n.d. | | | | | |
| Selachii (infraclass); Shark (Misc.) | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | | | n.d. | | | | |
| <i>Seriola dumerili</i> ; Kāhala | n.d. | | 12 | n.d. | 20 | | 7 | n.d. | | |
| <i>Acanthurus dussumieri</i> ; Palani | n.d. | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Caranx ignobilis</i> ; White Pāpio/Ulua | n.d. | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Acanthocybium solandri</i> ; Ono | | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 21 | n.d. | 28 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| <i>Sphyraena barracuda</i> ; Kākū | | n.d. | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Alopias vulpinus</i> ; Thresher Shark | | n.d. | | | | | | | 4 | |
| <i>Pristipomoides filamentosus</i> ; 'Opakapaka | | | n.d. | | | | | | | |
| <i>Decapterus macarellus</i> ; 'Ōpelu | | | n.d. | | | | | | | |
| <i>Euthynnus affinis</i> ; Kawakawa | | | | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | |
| <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> or <i>Triaenodon obesus</i> | | | | n.d. | | | | 5 | | 5 |
| Balistidae (family); Humuhumu | | | | n.d. | | | | | | n.d. |
| <i>Caranx melampygus</i> ; 'Ōmilu | | | | | n.d. | | | | | |
| <i>Thunnus alalunga</i> ; Tombo | | | | | | 15 | | | n.d. | |
| <i>Prionace glauca</i> ; Blue Shark | | | | | | n.d. | | | | |
| <i>Selar crumenophthalmus</i> ; Akule | | | | | | | n.d. | n.d. | | |

| Species | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2017 | 2016 | 2015 | 2014 | 2013 |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Carangidae (family); Pāpio, Ulua (Misc.) | | | | | | | n.d. | | | |
| <i>Xiphias gladius</i> ; Broadbill Swordfish | | | | | | | | | n.d. | |
| <i>Gempylus serpens</i> ; Hāuliuli | | | | | | | | | | n.d. |
| <i>Caranx sexfasciatus</i> ; Sasa | | | | | | | | | | n.d. |
| <i>Percent of all Bycatch</i> | 68 | 66 | 65 | 59 | 65 | 78 | 88 | 75 | 88 | 84 |

Note: n.d. = non-disclosed due to data confidentiality rules; the species presented in this table represent the ten species most frequently released in each year over the past ten years.

2.5 NON-COMMERCIAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

2.5.1 OVERVIEW OF NON-COMMERCIAL PELAGIC FISHERIES

Fishing, either for subsistence, sustenance, or recreation continues to be an important activity throughout the Western Pacific region in its four major populated island areas: Hawaii, American Samoa, Guam, and the CNMI. These non-commercial fisheries are important in island communities that depend on fish and other marine organisms as one of its few local sources of protein. This section was not updated in the 2021 or 2022 report in preparation of a revised section in the 2023 annual SAFE report, consistent with recommendations by the Council's Pelagic Plan Team.

In Hawaii, non-commercial shoreline fishing was more popular than boat-based fishing up to and after World War 2. Boat-based fishing during this period referred primarily to fishing from traditional canoes (Glazier 1999). All fishing was greatly constrained during World War 2 through time and area restrictions, which effectively stopped commercial fishing and confined non-commercial fishing to inshore areas (Brock 1947). Following World War 2, the advent of better fishing equipment, new small boat hulls, and marine inboard and outboard engines led to a growth in small vessel-based non-commercial fishing.

A major period of expansion of small vessel non-commercial fishing occurred between the late 1950s and early 1970s through the introduction of fiberglass technology to Hawaii and the further refinement of marine inboard and outboard engines. By the early 1960s there were an estimated 5,300 small boats in the State being used for non-commercial fishing. By the 1980s, the number of non-commercial craft had risen to almost 13,000 vessels, and this number increased further to about 15,000 vessels in the 1990s. There are many fishing clubs in Hawaii, and a variety of different recreational fishing tournaments organized by both clubs and independent tournament organizers. Hawaii also hosts between 150 and 200 boat-based fishing tournaments, about 30 of which are considered major international competitions. This level of interest in recreational fishing is sufficient to support local fishing magazines, *Hawaii Fishing News* and *Lawai'a*, with articles about local recreational fishing, as well as several recreational fishing television programs.

Elsewhere in the Western Pacific region, non-commercial fishing is less structured. In Guam, fishing clubs have been founded along ethnic lines by Japanese and Korean residents. These clubs had memberships of 10 to 15 people along with their families. Four such clubs were founded in Guam over the past 20 years, but none lasted for more than a 2 to 3 years (Gerry Davis, NMFS PIRO, pers. comm.). There was also a Guam Boating Association, comprised of mostly fishermen, with several hundred members. This organization functioned as a fishing club for about 10 years before disbanding. Some school groups and the boy scouts have formed fishing clubs focused on rod and reel fishing, and there is still one spearfishing club (Marianas Underwater Fishing Federation) that is active. There are also some limited fishing tournaments in Guam, including a fishing derby for children organized by the DAWR.

Every summer in Guam, the fishing community gathers to partake in several fishing derbies and the *Gupot Y Peskadot* (i.e., Fishermen's Festival). This includes several fishing

competitions such as the Kid's Fishing Derby, In-Shore Tournament (rod and reel), Spearfishing Challenge and Guam Marianas International Fishing Derby (trolling).

There are a few fishing clubs in the Northern Mariana Islands. The Saipan Fishermen's Association (SFA) has been in existence since 1985 and is the sponsor of the annual Saipan International Fishing Tournament usually held in August or September. The SFA also developed a "Tasi to Table" Youth Fishing Club, which provides fishing experiences and training to high school students. One spearfishing club, the Marianas Apnea Spearfishing Club, was founded in 2007 and continues to instill traditional cultural fishing skills among the people of the CNMI to encourage sustainable fishing.

Levine and Allen (2009) provided an overview of fisheries in American Samoa, including subsistence and recreational fisheries. Citing a survey conducted in American Samoa by Kilarski et al. (2006), Levine and Allen (2009) noted that approximately half of the respondents stated that they fished for recreation, with 71 percent of these individuals fishing once a week or less. Fishermen also fished infrequently for cultural purposes, although cultural, subsistence, and recreational fishing categories were difficult to discern as one fishing outing could be motivated by any combination of the three reasons.

Boat-based recreational fishing in American Samoa has been influenced primarily by fishing clubs and fishing tournaments. Tournament fishing for pelagic species began in American Samoa in the 1970s, and between 1974 and 1998, a total of 64 fishing tournaments were held (Tulafono 2001). Most of the boats that participated were *alia* catamarans and small skiffs. Catches from tournaments were often sold, as most of the entrants were local small-scale commercial fishermen. In 1996, three days of tournament fishing contributed about one percent of the total domestic landings. Typically, seven to 14 local boats carrying a total of 55 to 70 fishermen participated in each tournament, which were held two to five times per year (Craig et al. 1993).

Most tournament participants operated 28-foot *alia* vessels, the same vessels that engage in the small-scale longline fishery. With more emphasis on commercial longline fishing since 1996, interest in the tournaments waned (Tulafono 2001) and pelagic fishing effort shifted markedly from trolling to longlining. Catch-and-release recreational fishing is virtually non-existent in American Samoa. Landing fish to meet cultural obligations is of such high importance such that releasing fish would generally be considered a failure to meet these responsibilities (Tulafono 2001). Nevertheless, some pelagic fishermen who fish for subsistence release fish that are in excess of their subsistence needs.

Most of the non-commercial boat-based fishing is done by the Pago Pago Game Fishing Association (PPGFA), which was founded in 2003 to host regular fishing competitions. The PPGFA has annually hosted international tournaments with fishermen from neighboring Samoa and Cook Islands attending. The non-commercial vessels extensively use anchored FADs, and venture to the various outer banks such as the South Bank (35 miles), North East Bank (40 miles NE), South East bank (37 miles SE), Two Percent Bank (40 miles), and East Bank (24 miles East) during tournaments. The PPGFA plays host to the Steinlager *I'a Lapo'a* Game Fishing Tournament, which is a qualifying event for the International Game Fish Association's Offshore World Championship. There is no full-time regular charter fishery in American Samoa similar to those in Hawaii, CNMI, or Guam. However, Pago Pago Marine Charters does include fishing charters among the services it offers.

There is also some non-commercial fishing activity within portions of the PRIA, namely at Midway, Wake Island, and Palmyra Atoll. There are no resident populations at Howland Island, Baker Island, Johnston Atoll, or Jarvis Island, and fishing activity at these locations is likely minimal. There was a tourist facility at Midway until 2002, which operated a charter boat fishery targeting primarily pelagic fish. The company operated five vessels for charter fishing, consisting of three 22 to 26 foot catamarans for lagoon and nearshore fishing operations and two 38 foot sportfishing vessels used for blue water trolling. In addition, there were approximately seven small vessels maintained and used by Midway residents for non-commercial fishing. Of these seven, three vessels engaged primarily in offshore trolling for PMUS including yellowfin tuna, wahoo, and marlin. All vessels fishing at Midway were required to file a float plan prior to a fishing trip and complete the “Midway Sports Fishing Boat Trip Log” upon completion of each trip. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service was responsible for compiling these catch data.

At Palmyra Atoll, an island privately owned by The Nature Conservancy, small boats are operated within the lagoon for trolling. There are several craft used for non-commercial fishing at the military base on Wake Island, including two landing craft and two small vessels.

2.5.2 NON-COMMERCIAL CATCH AND EFFORT

Estimates of non-commercial catch are summarized and provided in Table 33. Data on total catch and trips are reported in each island area’s respective module and non-commercial catch and trips were either calculated by subtracting the commercial catch or by utilizing data from NMFS PIFSC on the boat-based creel survey estimates for commercial versus non-commercial portions of landings.

Both Hawaii and American Samoa have large total pelagic catch due to the inclusion of longline landings, which results in non-commercial catch being proportionally minor for American Samoa. Additionally, non-commercial catch estimates for American Samoa were anomalously low in 2020, possibly due to the COVID-19 pandemic impacting survey sampling. Conversely, non-commercial catch for Hawaii in 2020 was relatively high while total pelagic catch was slightly lower than normal due to the impacts of COVID-19 on commercial pelagic fisheries. In comparison, CNMI and Guam both have a higher percentage of non-commercial fishing than American Samoa. This difference between island areas is to be expected, as both Hawaii and American Samoa have larger markets to which they can supply fish (i.e., hotels, restaurants, exports, and the cannery).

Table 33. Summary of estimated non-commercial landings by island area in 2020

| Island Area | Total Pelagic Catch (lb) | Total Trips | Non-Commercial Catch (lb) | Non-Commercial Fishing Trips | Non-Commercial % of Total Catch |
|----------------|--------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| American Samoa | 1,892,277 | 221 | 32 | 6 | > 0.01% |
| CNMI | 689,136 | 9,481 | 23,862 | 3,747 | 3.46% |
| Guam | 614,633 | 9,200 | 69,899 | 6,089 | 11.37% |
| Hawaii | 30,399,157 | 760,174 | 14,537,548 | 743,859 | 47.8% |

Source: NMFS PIFSC, WPacFIN, State of Hawaii DAR and HMRFS, MRIP.

Charter fishing data are provided in each of the island areas' respective modules and are summarized in Table 34. Data for Hawaii is provided by the State of Hawaii Commercial Marine License reporting system. There is no charter data from American Samoa available. For species-specific charter information (landings, trips, CPUE, etc.), please refer to the individual island area sections.

Overall, charter fishing in the region primarily target the same pelagic species in each island area utilizing primarily trolling gear. Charter fishing in Hawaii is more focused on catching blue marlin, which in 2004 formed about 50 percent of the total annual charter vessel catch by weight. An increase in catch and release effort of marlins in the industry that has grown since 2004 and, coupled with the lower price per pound received for marlins, outside forces such as the Billfish Conservation Act that reduced the ability for fishermen to export marlin and marlin products outside of Hawaii may be the reason. In 2020, Hawaii's charter industry took 1,257 trips and kept 134,889 lb of fish. Both trips and catch were down nearly 75 percent from previous years due mainly to the inability to fish during much of the COVID-19 pandemic due to stay-at-home orders and the lack of tourism. Guam's charter industry has slightly expanded but is subject to the availability of military and visitors, and, thus, it has waxed and waned with the tourism industry. The COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 showed this impact with charter landings, effort, and trips all being well below 2019 values. In CNMI, charter fishing was nonexistent as the pandemic eliminated tourism, the sole source of charter fishing, resulting in no charter catch in 2020.

Table 34. Summary of charter fishing in the Western Pacific region in 2020

| Island Area | Catch (lb) | Effort (Trips) | CPUE (lb/trip) | Principal Species |
|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---|
| CNMI | 0 | 1 | 0 | skipjack tuna, mahimahi, wahoo, yellowfin tuna |
| Guam | 3,167 | 202 | 15.68 | mahimahi, skipjack tuna, blue marlin, wahoo, yellowfin tuna |
| Hawaii | 134,889.5 | 1,257 | 107.31 | Yellowfin tuna, blue marlin, mahimahi, ono, aku |

Source: NMFS PIFSC, WPacFIN, State of Hawaii CML database.

Hawaii is the only island area in the region that has a specific non-commercial fishing data collection program through the Hawaii Marine Recreational Fishing Survey (HMRFS). This collaborative project between the State of Hawaii and NMFS Office of Science and Technology is part of the nationwide Marine Recreational Information Program (MRIP) used by NMFS to estimate recreational catches in most of the coastal states of the U.S. For more information on HMRFS data collection, see <https://dlnr.hawaii.gov/dar/fishing/hmrfs/>.

Table 35 provides summaries of the non-commercial, boat-based catch between 2013 and 2020 for pelagic fish in Hawaii. Non-commercial catches of pelagic fish were higher in 2020 than 2019 and above the mean for the time series. The species composition of the catch in 2020 was predominantly yellowfin tuna as in past years, followed by skipjack tuna, mahimahi, blue marlin, wahoo, and striped marlin (Figure 110). The species composition of the catch in 2020 was predominantly yellowfin tuna as in past years, followed by skipjack tuna, mahimahi, blue marlin, wahoo, and striped marlin (Figure 110). CPUE, measured in pounds per angler trip, in 2020 had a similar species composition, and every species had a

CPUE of less than 10 lb/angler trip that year except for yellowfin tuna at 11.16 lb/trip (Figure 111). The number of estimated boat-based angler trips was slightly up in 2020 from 2019 at 743,859 angler trips and remains well above the average for the time series (Figure 112).

Table 35. Estimated non-commercial boat-based pelagic catch in Hawaii from 2013 to 2020

| Year | Catch (lb) | Change from previous year |
|------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 2013 | 14,245,945 | +1,915,307 (+16%) |
| 2014 | 10,833,018 | -3,412,927 (-24%) |
| 2015 | 13,065,927 | +2,232,909 (+21%) |
| 2016 | 6,572,343 | -6,493,584 (-50%) |
| 2017 | 6,308,217 | -264,126 (-4%) |
| 2018 | 20,876,569 | +14,568,352 (+231%) |
| 2019 | 12,785,507 | -8,091,062 (-38.76%) |
| 2020 | 14,537,548 | +1,752,041 (+13.7%) |
| AVG | 12,395,079 | --- |

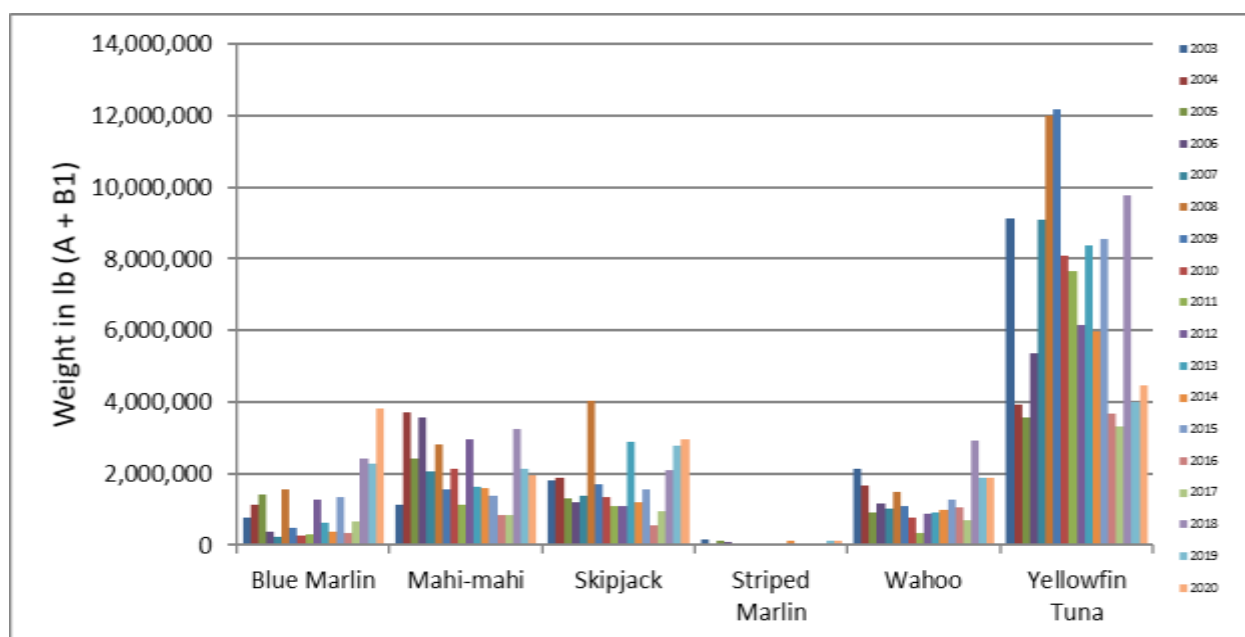


Figure 110. Non-commercial catch (lb) in Hawaii by species from 2003 to 2020

Note: Weight estimates were missing for the catch in some waves (wave = two-month period), but the number of fish could be estimated from interview data that lacked corresponding weight measurements. The weight estimates for these estimated fish numbers were imputed by using average weight from other waves in the year. If there were no mean weight estimates for a whole year, the estimate of mean weight from the previous year was used.

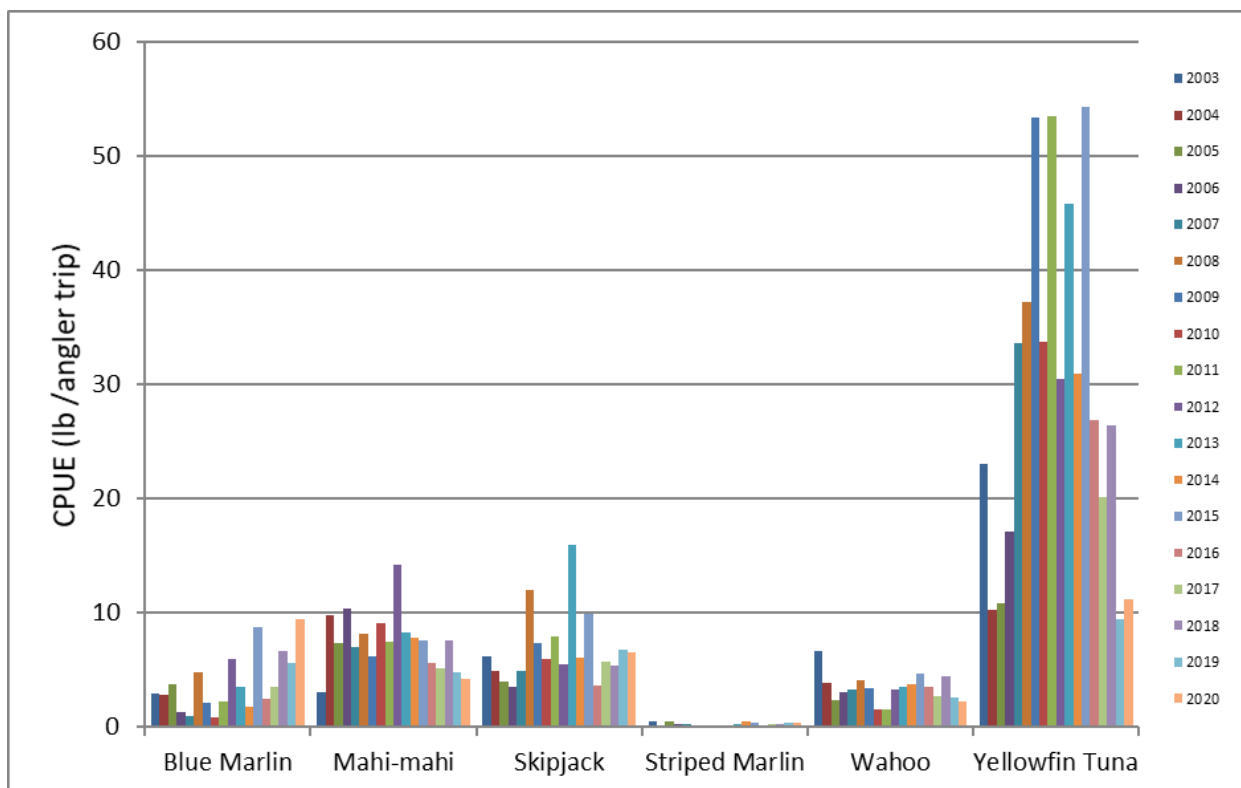


Figure 111. Non-commercial CPUE (lb/angler trip) in Hawaii by species from 2003 to 2020

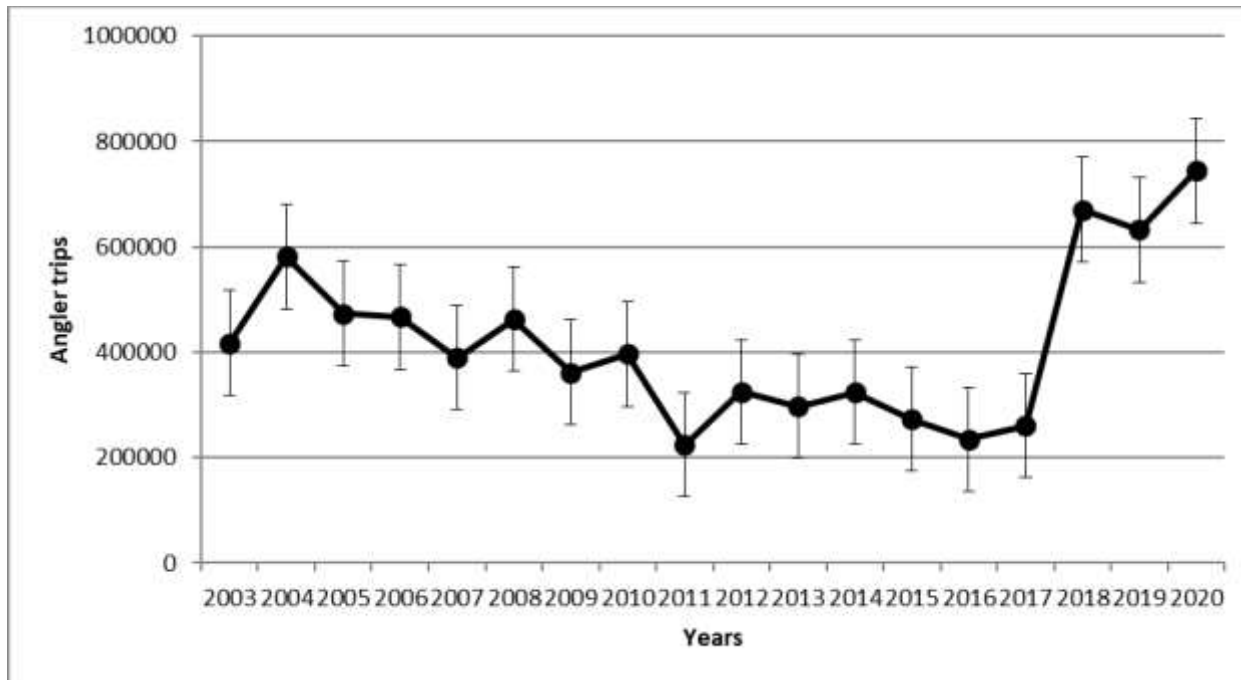


Figure 112. Estimated angler trips in the Hawaii non-commercial fishery from 2003 to 2020

2.6 INTERNATIONAL

2.6.1 INTRODUCTION

The U.S Pacific Island EEZs managed by the Council are surrounded by large and diverse fisheries targeting pelagic species. The International Module contains reported catches of pelagic species in the entire Pacific Ocean by fleets of Pacific Island nations and distant water fishing nations and information for a SAFE report that includes the most recent assessment information in relation to status determination criteria. Fishery trends in the entire Pacific Ocean are illustrated for the purse seine, longline and pole-and-line fisheries. The tables of this section show the catches of pelagic MUS by U.S. longline (Hawaii and California-based) and U.S. territorial longline fisheries in the Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC) Convention Area from 2018-2022, as reported by NMFS to the WCPFC. The catches for 2022 are preliminary.

Table 44 through Table 46 provide the U.S. longline landings as submitted to the WCPFC and Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission (IATTC).

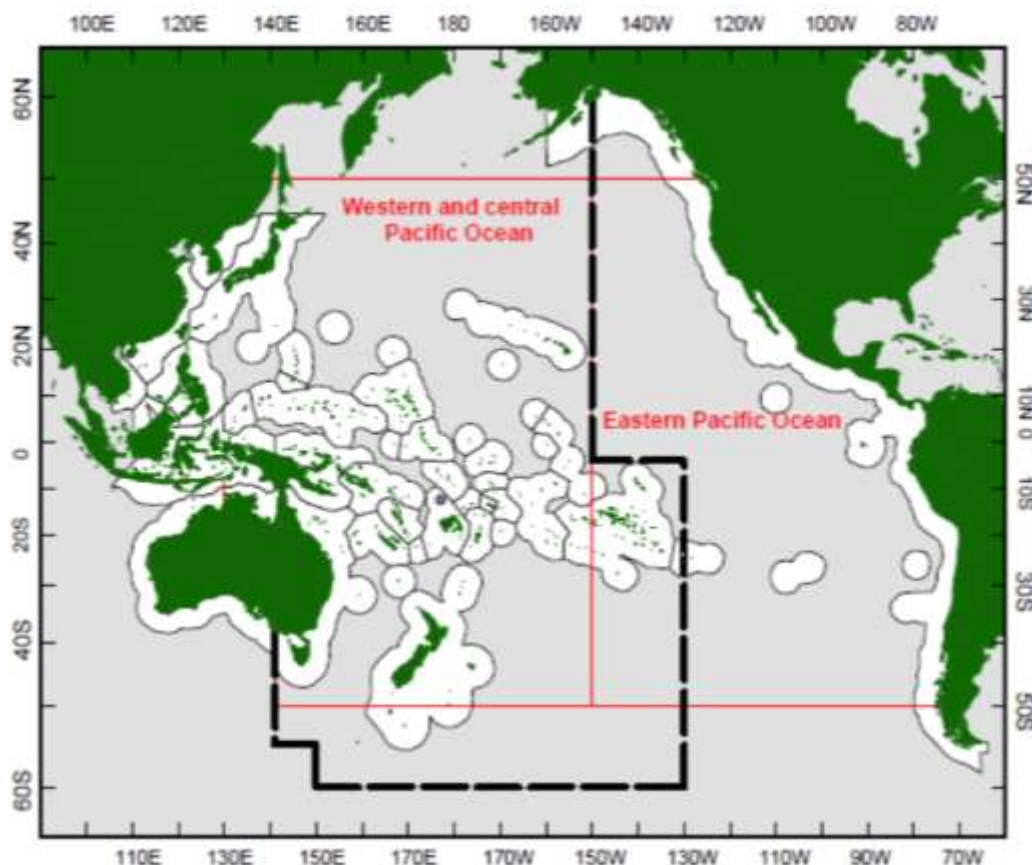


Figure 113. The Western and Central Pacific Ocean, Eastern Pacific Ocean and the WCPFC Convention Area (WCP-CA) [in dashed lines])

2.6.2 DATA SOURCES

The data sources for the international module of the annual SAFE report are obtained from the various literature of the WCPFC, the IATTC, and the International Scientific Committee for Tuna and Tuna-like species (ISC). These references can be found in Section 5. Additional sources of data include the U.S. data submissions to the WCPFC and IATTC documented in this module.

2.6.3 PLAN TEAM RECOMMENDATIONS

There were no recommendations for the International module by the Pelagic Plan Team for the 2022 annual SAFE report to be forwarded to the Council, only work items to Pelagic Plan Team members on improvements to other modules.

2.6.4 SUMMARY OF FISHERIES

This section presents the total catch of tuna species in the Pacific Ocean as reported to the Pacific Community (PC) from all member countries. Table 38 and Figure 114 depict the combined catch of all fisheries, while the following subsections present fishery specific data for the three main fisheries: purse seine, longline, and pole-and-line.

Table 38. Estimated annual catch (mt) of tuna species in the Pacific Ocean

| Year | Albacore | Bigeye | Skipjack | Yellowfin | Total |
|---------------|----------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 2012 | 181,609 | 269,535 | 2,001,883 | 838,293 | 3,291,320 |
| 2013 | 175,643 | 243,627 | 2,106,861 | 811,623 | 3,337,754 |
| 2014 | 162,971 | 260,928 | 2,248,280 | 867,743 | 3,539,922 |
| 2015 | 155,110 | 250,282 | 2,118,867 | 849,259 | 3,373,518 |
| 2016 | 126,953 | 249,087 | 2,127,260 | 915,382 | 3,418,682 |
| 2017 | 151,899 | 232,958 | 1,935,840 | 936,873 | 3,257,570 |
| 2018 | 137,543 | 245,827 | 2,133,155 | 953,881 | 3,470,406 |
| 2019 | 143,530 | 227,566 | 2,385,974 | 935,555 | 3,692,625 |
| 2020 | 113,437 | 252,578 | 2,016,127 | 962,476 | 3,344,618 |
| 2021 | 111,656 | 222,013 | 1,950,558 | 1,034,496 | 3,318,723 |
| Average | 146,035 | 245,440 | 2,102,481 | 910,558 | 3,404,514 |
| STD deviation | 24,113 | 14,665 | 138,201 | 68,211 | 131,933 |

Source: PC (2022).

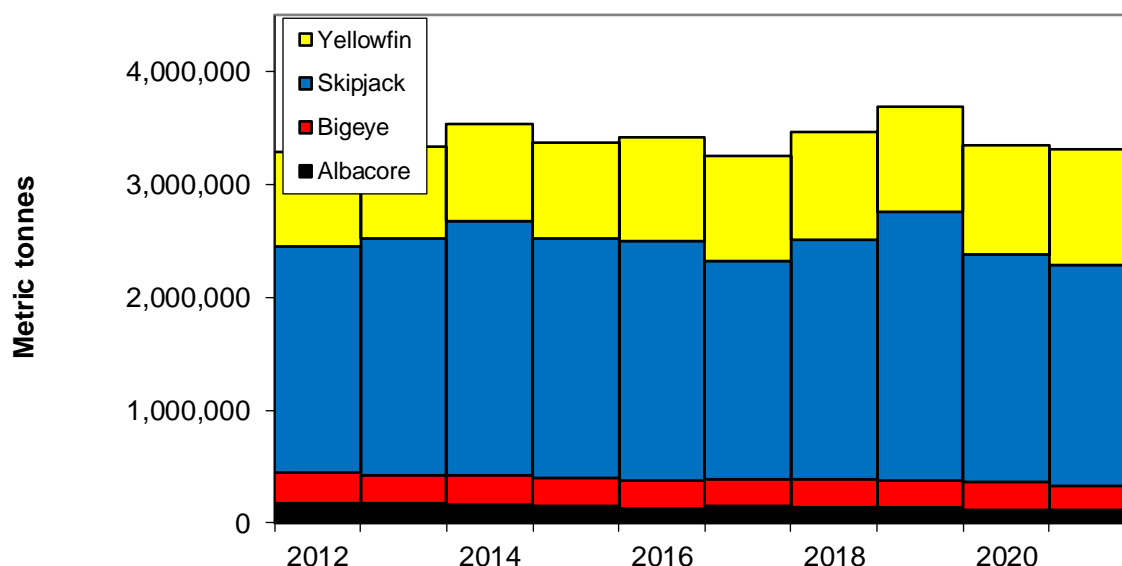


Figure 114. Estimated total annual catch of tuna species in the Pacific Ocean

Source: PC (2022).

2.6.4.1 PURSE SEINE FISHERY IN THE WCPFC

Source: WCPFC-SC18-2022 GN-WP-01

Vessels: The majority of the historic WCP–CA purse seine catch has come from the four main Distant Water Fishing Nation (DWFN) fleets – Japan, Korea, Chinese-Taipei and USA, which combined numbered 163 vessels in 1992, but declined to a low of 111 vessels in 2006 (due to reductions in the US fleet), before some rebound in recent years (up to 129 vessels in 2017 and 124 vessels in 2020). The Pacific Islands fleets have gradually increased in numbers over the past two decades to a level of 142 vessels in 2021. The remainder of the purse seine fishery includes several fleets which entered the WCPFC tropical fishery during the 2000s (e.g., China, Ecuador, El Salvador, New Zealand, and Spain).

The total number of purse seine vessels was relatively stable over the period 1990–2006 (in the range of 180–220 vessels), but thence until 2014, the number of vessels gradually increased, attaining a record level of 308 vessels in 2015, before steadily declining since (to 267 vessels in 2020). Further declines occurred in 2020 and 2021 with a significant reduction in vessels from one component of the US purse seine fleet.

The provisional 2021 purse seine catch of 1,740,370 mt was the lowest catch since 2011, and around 360,000 mt lower than the record catch in 2019 (2,101,405 mt). The 2021 purse seine skipjack catch (1,254,022 mt: 72% of the catch) was a clear drop of around 440,000 mt on the record in 2019 (~1,700,000 mt). The 2021 purse seine catch for yellowfin tuna (405,915 mt; 23% of the total purse seine tuna catch) was around 95,000 mt lower than the record catch in 2017 (501,109 mt) but still amongst the highest annual catches for this fishery. The provisional catch estimate for bigeye tuna for 2021 (79,167 mt) was the highest since 2014 and a clear increase on the relatively low purse seine bigeye tuna catch in 2019 (49,958 mt). The increased bigeye tuna catches in both 2020 and 2021 appears to be related to a higher number of associated sets in conjunction with La Nina conditions.

Despite the FAD closure for certain periods in each year since 2010, drifting FAD sets remain an important fishing strategy, particularly to the east of 160°E. The relatively high proportion of unassociated sets in the eastern areas (e.g. Gilbert Islands) was a feature of the fishery in 2015–2016 (i.e. corresponding to El Niño conditions). The move to ENSO-neutral conditions, then weak La Niña during 2017 into early 2018 resulted in more effort in the area west of 160°E compared to recent years, and a higher use of drifting FADs in the area east of 160°E. By late 2018, weak El Niño conditions presided over the fishery and relatively high catches were taken in the eastern tropical areas, in and adjacent to the waters of Tokelau and the Phoenix Group. El Niño conditions continued into 2019 with purse seine effort extending further to the east compared to recent years and very good catches were taken in a few concentrated areas of the eastern tropical waters. The La Niña conditions experienced in 2020 and 2021 resulted in a general westward shift of fishing effort compared to 2019.

In general, the distribution of effort for most fleets in 2021 is similar to 2020 activities, no doubt related to the prevailing (La Niña) conditions in both years. The US fleet typically fishes in the more eastern areas as was the case during 2020 with effort extended into the Gilberts, Phoenix and Line Islands, the Cook Islands, Tokelau and the adjacent eastern high seas areas with increasingly less effort west of 160°E; during 2021, the US fleet fished even further east, in the Line Group and the high seas areas north of the Cook Islands and French Polynesian EEZs. The difference in areas fished by the non-Pacific islands' fleets (Figures 3.4.2–3.4.5) is related to the areas they have access to and perhaps also related to fishing strategy (e.g., use of traditional fishing grounds, e.g. FSM, PNG and the Solomon Islands by the Japan fleet).

Table 39. Total reported purse seine catch (mt) of skipjack, yellowfin, and bigeye tuna in the Pacific Ocean

| Year | Skipjack | Yellowfin | Bigeye | Total |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|---------|-----------|
| 2012 | 1,639,189 | 596,199 | 142,654 | 2,378,042 |
| 2013 | 1,754,271 | 590,836 | 133,891 | 2,478,998 |
| 2014 | 1,878,005 | 613,970 | 141,875 | 2,633,850 |
| 2015 | 1,722,044 | 563,285 | 123,883 | 2,409,212 |
| 2016 | 1,713,933 | 650,823 | 130,787 | 2,495,543 |
| 2017 | 1,588,071 | 711,486 | 133,783 | 2,433,340 |
| 2018 | 1,738,252 | 621,186 | 138,817 | 2,498,255 |
| 2019 | 2,043,578 | 580,485 | 119,181 | 2,743,244 |
| 2020 | 1,700,197 | 620,375 | 151,824 | 2,472,396 |
| 2021 | 1,652,329 | 683,445 | 134,111 | 2,469,885 |
| Average | 1,742,987 | 623,209 | 135,081 | 2,501,277 |
| STD Deviation | 131,166 | 46,518 | 9,419 | 108,914 |

Source: PC (2022) and IATTC (2022).

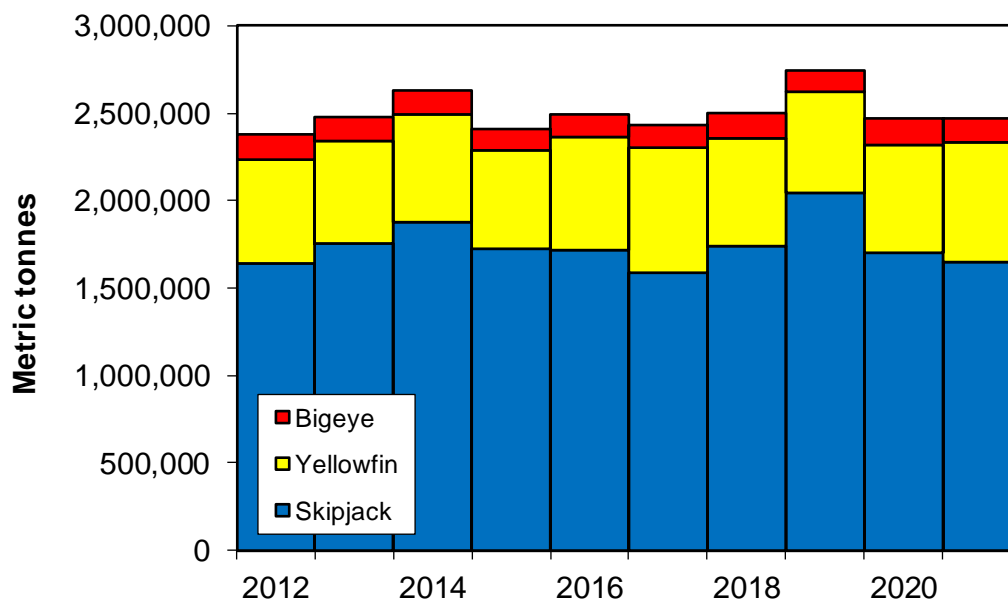


Figure 115. Total purse seine catch of skipjack, yellowfin, and bigeye tuna in the Pacific Ocean

Source: PC (2022) and IATTC (2022).

2.6.4.2 LONGLINE FISHERIES IN THE WCPFC

Source: WCPFC-SC18-2022 GN-WP-01

The longline fishery now accounts for only 8–10% of the total WCP–CA catch (OFP, 2021), but approaches the much larger purse seine catch in landed value. It provides the longest time series of catch estimates for the WCP–CA, with estimates available since the early 1950s. The total number of vessels involved in the fishery generally fluctuated between 3,000 and 6,000 for the period 1970–2004, although for some distant-water fleets, vessels operating in areas beyond the WCP–CA could not be separated out and more representative vessel numbers for WCP–CA have only become available in recent years. Total longline vessel numbers have slowly declined over the past 15 years, with the provisional estimate of 1,543 vessels in 2021 showing a 57% drop on vessel numbers in 2005 and a 9% drop on 2019 vessel numbers, mainly due to a decline in the category of non Pacific Islands domestic fleets, but also no doubt due to the impacts of COVID-19.

The fishery involves two main types of operation:

- Large (typically >250 gross registered tonnes [GRT]) distant-water freezer vessels which undertake long voyages (months) and operate over large areas of the region. These vessels may target either tropical (yellowfin, bigeye tuna) or subtropical (albacore) species. Voluntary reduction in vessel numbers by at least one fleet has occurred in recent years;
- Smaller (typically <100 GRT) offshore vessels which are usually domestically based, undertaking trips less than one month, with ice or chill capacity, and serving fresh or air-freight sashimi markets, or albacore canneries. There are several foreign offshore fleets based in Pacific Island countries.

The following broad categories of longline fishery, based on type of operation, area fished and target species, are currently active in the WCP–CA:

- South Pacific offshore albacore fishery comprises Pacific-Islands domestic “offshore” vessels, such as those from American Samoa, Cook Islands, Fiji, French Polynesia, Kiribati, New Caledonia, PNG, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu; these fleets mainly operate in subtropical waters, with albacore the main species taken. Two new entrants, Tuvalu and Wallis & Futuna, joined this category during 2011, although the latter fleet has not fished recently. Vessel numbers have stabilized in recent years, but they may also vary depending on charter arrangements.
- Tropical offshore bigeye/yellowfin-target fishery includes “offshore” sashimi longliners from Chinese-Taipei, based in Micronesia, Guam, Philippines and mainland Chinese vessels based in Micronesia, and domestic fleets based in Indonesia, Micronesian countries, Philippines, PNG, the Solomon Islands and Vietnam.
- Tropical distant-water bigeye/yellowfin-target fishery comprises “distant-water” vessels from Japan, Korea, Chinese-Taipei, mainland China and Vanuatu. These vessels primarily operate in the eastern tropical waters of the WCP–CA (and into the EPO), targeting bigeye and yellowfin tuna for the frozen sashimi market.
- South Pacific distant-water albacore fishery comprises “distant-water” vessels from Chinese-Taipei, mainland China and Vanuatu operating in the south Pacific, generally below 20°S, targeting albacore tuna destined for canneries.
- Domestic fisheries in the sub-tropical and temperate WCP–CA comprise vessels targeting different species within the same fleet depending on market, season and/or area. These fleets include the domestic fisheries of Australia, Japan, New Zealand and Hawai’i. For example, the Hawaiian longline fleet has a component that targets swordfish and another that targets bigeye tuna.
- South Pacific distant-water swordfish fishery is a relatively new fishery and comprises “distant-water” vessels from Spain and Portugal (one vessel started fishing in 2011).
- North Pacific distant-water albacore and swordfish fisheries mainly comprise “distant-water” vessels from Japan (swordfish and albacore), Chinese-Taipei (albacore only) and Vanuatu (albacore only).

Catch: The provisional WCP–CA longline catch (191,666 mt) for 2021 is the lowest catch since 1993 at this stage, acknowledging the negative impacts due to COVID-19 but also that coverage of available 2021 data is not yet complete. The COVID-19 restrictions played a role in the distribution of 2021 effort in the longline fishery, with clear declines in effort in both the south Pacific Albacore fishery and in the tropical longline fishery. The *La Niña* conditions during 2020 and 2021 may also have contributed to lower catches in the longline fishery, although further investigation would be required to confirm this hypothesis.

The WCP–CA albacore longline catch (66,475 mt – 35%) for 2021 was the lowest since 1996, and nearly 40,000 mt lower than the record of 106,142 mt attained in 2010. The provisional bigeye catch (49,511 mt – 26%) for 2021 was the lowest since 1983, and well down on the bigeye catch levels experienced in the 2000s (e.g. the 2004 longline bigeye

catch was 99,709 mt). The yellowfin catch for 2021 (71,847 mt – 37%), as in 2020, was a significant drop on the high catch level in 2019 (106,279 mt).

The distant-water fleet dynamics have continued to evolve in recent years, with catches down from record levels in the mid-2000s initially due to a reduction in vessel numbers, although vessel numbers for some fleets appear to be on the rise again in recent years, but with variation in areas fished and target species. The Japanese distant water and offshore longline fleets have experienced a substantial decline in both bigeye catches (from 20,725 mt in 2004 to 1,524 mt in 2021) and vessel numbers (366 in 2004 to 71 in 2021). The Chinese-Taipei distant-water longline fleet bigeye catch declined from 16,888 mt in 2004 to 3,667 mt in 2021, mainly related to a substantial drop in vessel numbers (137 vessels in 2004 reduced to 85 vessels in 2021). The Korean distant-water longline fleet experienced some decline in bigeye and yellowfin catches since the period of highest catches 15–20 years ago in line with a reduction in vessel numbers – from 184 vessels active in 2002 reduced to 94 vessels in 2021.

In contrast, the China longline fleet catches of albacore tuna have been amongst the highest ever in recent years (this fleet caught on average 20,000–25,000 mt of albacore tuna in the WCP-CA in recent years, although the 2021 albacore tuna catch was 16,076 mt).

With domestic fleet sizes continuing to increase as foreign-offshore and distant-water fleets decrease, this evolution in fleet dynamics no doubt has some effect on the species composition of the catch. For example, the increase in effort by the Pacific Islands domestic fleets has primarily been in albacore fisheries, although this had been balanced to some extent by the switch to targeting bigeye tuna (from albacore) by certain vessels in the distant-water Chinese-Taipei fleet almost a decade ago. More detail on individual fleet activities during recent years is available in the WCPFC–SC18 National Fisheries Reports.

Fleet distribution: Effort by the large-vessel, distant-water fleets of Japan, Korea and Chinese-Taipei accounts for most of the effort, but there has been some reduction in vessel numbers in some fleets over the past decade. Effort is widespread as sectors of these fleets target bigeye and yellowfin for the frozen sashimi market in central and eastern tropical waters, and albacore for canning in the more temperate waters, mainly in international waters.

Activity by the foreign-offshore fleets from Japan, mainland China and Chinese-Taipei is restricted to tropical waters, targeting bigeye and yellowfin for the fresh sashimi market; these fleets have limited overlap with the distant-water fleets. The substantial "offshore" effort in the west of the region is primarily by the Indonesian, Chinese-Taipei and Vietnamese domestic fleets targeting yellowfin and bigeye (the latter now predominantly using the handline gear). The growth in domestic fleets targeting albacore tuna in the South Pacific over the past decade has been noted; the most prominent fleets in this category are the Cook Islands, Samoa, Fiji, French Polynesia, Solomon Islands (when chartering arrangements are active), Tonga and Vanuatu fleets.

Table 40. Total reported longline catch (mt) of PMUS in the Pacific Ocean

| Year | Albacore | Yellowfin | Bigeye | Striped Marlin | Black Marlin | Blue Marlin | Swordfish | Total |
|---------------|----------|-----------|---------|-------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| 2012 | 122,167 | 100,620 | 120,138 | 6,469 | 2,007 | 18,262 | 43,570 | 413,233 |
| 2013 | 117,437 | 88,129 | 101,807 | 5,881 | 1,820 | 20,037 | 41,032 | 376,143 |
| 2014 | 108,978 | 109,024 | 110,774 | 5,625 | 2,201 | 20,982 | 39,422 | 397,006 |
| 2015 | 112,161 | 115,012 | 114,921 | 5,268 | 2,522 | 20,231 | 44,691 | 414,806 |
| 2016 | 92,514 | 101,677 | 98,618 | 4,335 | 1,313 | 18,598 | 42,056 | 359,111 |
| 2017 | 116,876 | 96,707 | 93,486 | 4,411 | 1,138 | 16,454 | 38,103 | 367,175 |
| 2018 | 102,436 | 110,195 | 98,618 | 4,321 | 1,245 | 15,774 | 40,117 | 372,706 |
| 2019 | 107,067 | 117,327 | 97,015 | 4,872 | 1,161 | 14,393 | 34,514 | 376,349 |
| 2020 | 87,568 | 87,017 | 84,261 | 4,923 | 1,513 | 11,145 | 36,027 | 312,454 |
| 2021 | 89,574 | 86,664 | 68,303 | 4,953 | 1,345 | 10,172 | 35,354 | 296,365 |
| Average | 105,678 | 101,237 | 98,794 | 5,106 | 1,627 | 16,605 | 39,489 | 368,535 |
| STD deviation | 12,300 | 11,533 | 15,058 | 712 | 484 | 3,765 | 3,478 | 38,773 |

Source: SPC (2022) and IATTC (2022).

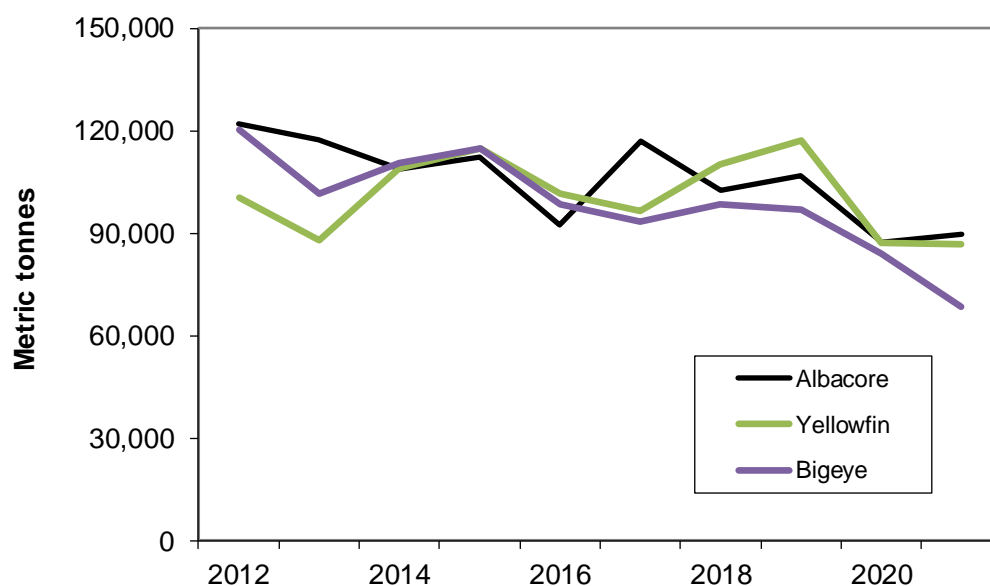


Figure 116. Reported longline tuna catches in the Pacific Ocean

Source: PC (2022) and IATTC (2022).

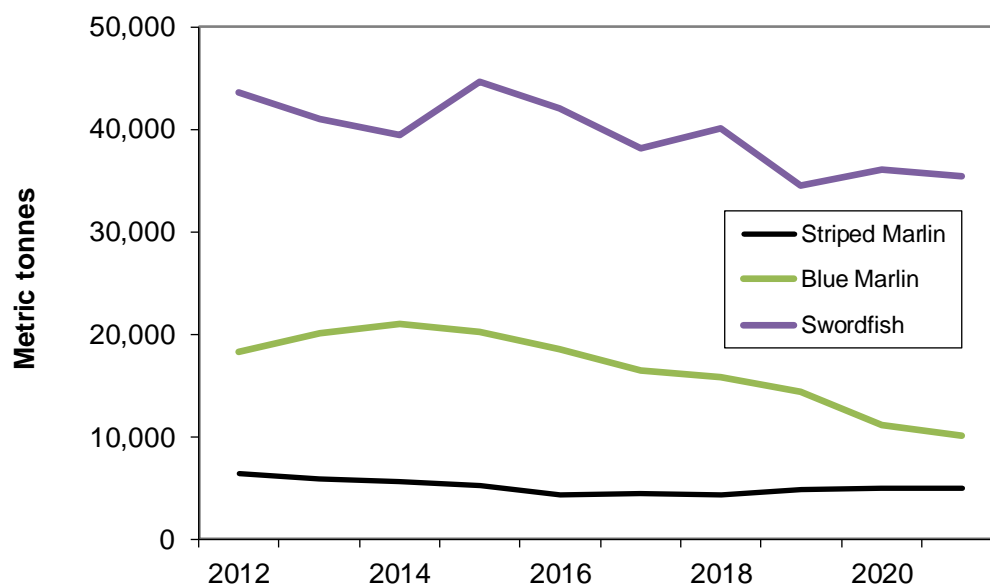


Figure 117. Reported longline billfish catches in the Pacific Ocean

Source: SPC (2022) and IATTC (2022).

2.6.4.3 POLE-AND-LINE FISHERY IN THE WCPFC

Source: WCPFC-SC18-2022 GN-WP-01

Vessels: Economic factors and technological advances in the purse seine fishery (primarily targeting the same species, skipjack) have resulted in a gradual decline in the number of vessels in the pole-and-line fishery and in the annual pole-and-line catch during the past 15–20 years. The gradual reduction in numbers of vessels has occurred in all pole-and-line fleets over the past decade. Pacific Island domestic fleets have declined in recent years – fisheries formerly operating in Fiji, Palau and Papua New Guinea are no longer active, only one vessel is now operating (occasionally) in Kiribati, and fishing activity in the Solomon Islands fishery during the 2000s was reduced substantially from the level experienced during the 1990s. Several vessels continue to fish in Hawai’i, and the French Polynesian *bonitier* fleet remains active (30 vessels in 2021), but an increasing number of vessels have turned to longline fishing. Vessel and catches from Indonesian pole-and-line fleet have also declined over recent years. There is continued interest in pole-and-line fish associated with certification/ecolabelling.

Catch: The provisional 2021 pole-and-line catch (123,528 mt) was lower than the 2020 catch (200,345 mt) and at this stage, the lowest annual catch since the early-1960s, due to reduced catches in both the Japanese and the Indonesian fisheries, although 2021 estimates are provisional at this stage. Skipjack accounts for the majority of the catch (~70–83% in recent years, but typically more than 85% of the total catch in tropical areas) and albacore (5– 10% in recent years) is taken by the Japanese coastal and offshore fleets in the temperate waters of the north Pacific. Yellowfin tuna (recently 10–15%) and a small component of bigeye tuna (1–4%) make up the remainder of the catch. There are only four pole and-line fleets currently active in the WCPO (French Polynesia, Japan, Indonesia and Solomon Islands). Japanese distant-water and offshore fleets (67,910 mt in 2021), and the

Indonesian fleets (54,204 mt in 2021), account for nearly all of the WCP–CA pole-and-line catch (99% in 2021). The catches by the Japanese distant-water and offshore fleets in recent years have been the lowest for several decades and this is no doubt related to the continued reduction in vessel numbers (although the vessel numbers have been stable at around 75-80 over the past 5 years). The Solomon Islands fleet recovered from low catch levels experienced in the early 2000s (only 2,773 mt in 2000 due to civil unrest) to reach a level of 10,448 mt in 2003. This fleet ceased operating in 2009 but resumed fishing in 2011 with catches generally around 1,000 mt (1,200 mt in 2021 from 4 vessels).

Fleet distribution: The WCP–CA pole-and-line fishery has several components:

- the year-round tropical skipjack fishery, mainly involving the domestic fleets of Indonesia, Solomon Islands and French Polynesia, and the distant water fleet of Japan
- seasonal sub-tropical skipjack fisheries in the domestic (home) waters of Japan, Australia, Hawaii, and Fiji
- a seasonal albacore/skipjack fishery east of Japan (largely an extension of the Japan home-water fishery).

Table 41. Total reported pole-and-line catch (mt) of skipjack in the Pacific Ocean

| Year | Catch |
|---------------|---------|
| 2012 | 170,841 |
| 2013 | 169,189 |
| 2014 | 148,851 |
| 2015 | 151,317 |
| 2016 | 156,603 |
| 2017 | 123,466 |
| 2018 | 183,935 |
| 2019 | 158,225 |
| 2020 | 159,440 |
| 2021 | 146,840 |
| Average | 156,871 |
| STD deviation | 16,328 |

Source: PC (2022).

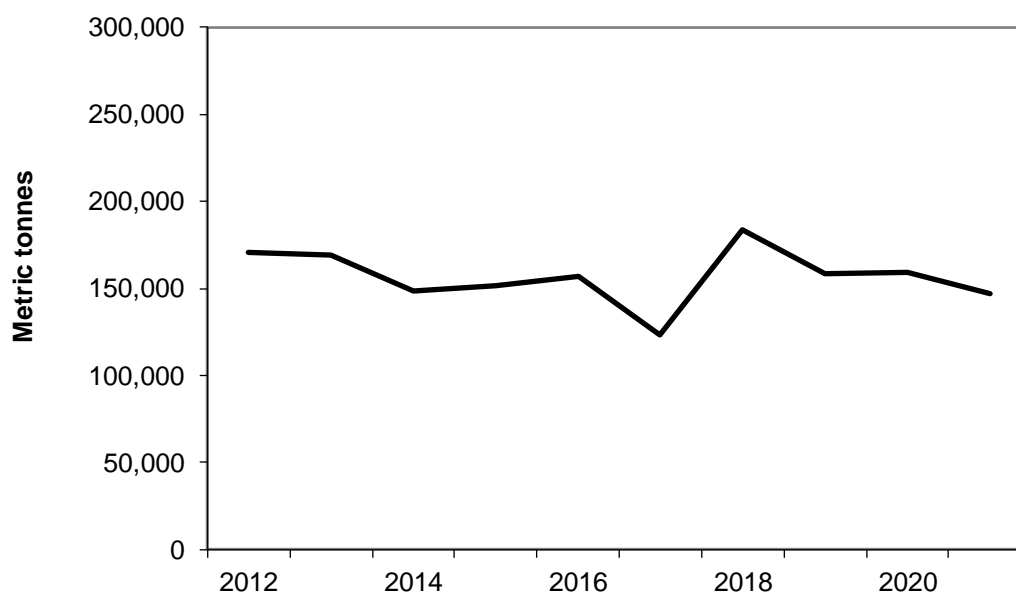


Figure 118. Reported pole-and-line catch (mt) in the Pacific Ocean

Source: PC (2022).

2.6.5 STATUS OF THE STOCKS

National Standard 1 of the MSA requires that conservation and management measures prevent overfishing while achieving, on a continual basis, the optimum yield from each fishery for the U.S. fishing industry. NMFS advisory guidelines for National Standard 1 require the Council to evaluate and describe in their fishery management plans, the criteria for determining if a stock is subject to overfishing, and when a stock is overfished, or approaching a condition of becoming overfished. This section briefly summarizes the status determination criteria (SDC) for pelagic MUS described in the Pelagic FEP, the stock status relative to the SDC, and lists the stock assessments completed since the last SAFE report.

2.6.5.1 DESCRIPTION OF OVERFISHED STATUS DETERMINATION CRITERIA

For all PMUS, the Council adopted a maximum sustainable yield (MSY) control rule shown in Figure 119. The Pelagic FEP uses minimum stock size threshold (MSST) as the SDC for an overfished determination, and a stock is considered overfished when its biomass (B) has declined below the MSST. The MSST is determined based on the natural mortality (M) of the stock and the biomass at MSY (B_{MSY}). Specifically, $MSST = cB_{MSY}$, where c is the greater of 0.5, or $1 - M$. Expressed as a ratio, a stock is overfished when $B_{year}/B_{MSY} < 1 - M$ or 0.50, whichever is greater. To illustrate these specifications of the MSST, for a stock with a natural mortality rate of 0.2, MSST would be set at $0.8B_{MSY}$, and the stock would be overfished if $B_{year}/B_{MSY} < 0.8$. For a stock with a natural mortality rate greater than 0.5, MSST cannot be set below $0.5B_{MSY}$, and the stock would be overfished if $B_{year}/B_{MSY} < 0.5$.

The Council has also adopted a warning reference point, B_{FLAG} , set equal to B_{MSY} to provide a trigger for consideration of management action before a stock's biomass reaches the MSST.

A stock is approaching an overfished condition when there is more than a 50 percent chance that the biomass will decline below the MSST within two years.

It is important to note that NMFS National Standard 1 guidelines at 50 CFR 665.310(e)(1)(i)(C) defines B_{MSY} as the long-term average size of the stock measured in terms of spawning biomass (SB) or other appropriate measure of the stock's reproductive potential that would be achieved by fishing at B_{MSY} . Thus, whenever available, NMFS will use estimates of SB in determining the status of a stock. When estimates of SB are not available, NMFS may use estimates of total biomass (B), or other reasonable proxies for determining stock status.

2.6.5.2 OVERFISHING SDC

The Pelagic FEP uses maximum fishing mortality threshold (MFMT) as the SDC for overfishing. Specifically, overfishing occurs when fishing mortality (F) is greater than the fishing mortality rate that results in MSY (F_{MSY}). Expressed as a ratio, the MFMT is exceeded and a stock is subject to overfishing when $F/F_{MSY} > 1.0$. However, for a stock where biomass has declined below MSST, the default MSY control rule requires the MFMT to be reduced linearly below F_{MSY} to allow for rebuilding of the stock.

It is also important to note that all finfish managed under the Pelagic FEP are also managed under the international agreements governing the WCPFC and/or the IATTC to which the U.S. is a party. Additionally, both the WCPFC and IATTC have adopted criteria for overfishing and overfished for certain species that differ from those described above. Pursuant to Section 304(e)(1), for those fisheries managed under a fishery management plan or international agreement, NMFS shall determine the status of a stock using the criteria specified in the plan, or the agreement. For the purpose of stock status determinations, NMFS will determine stock status of Pelagic MUS using the SDC described in the Pelagic FEP.

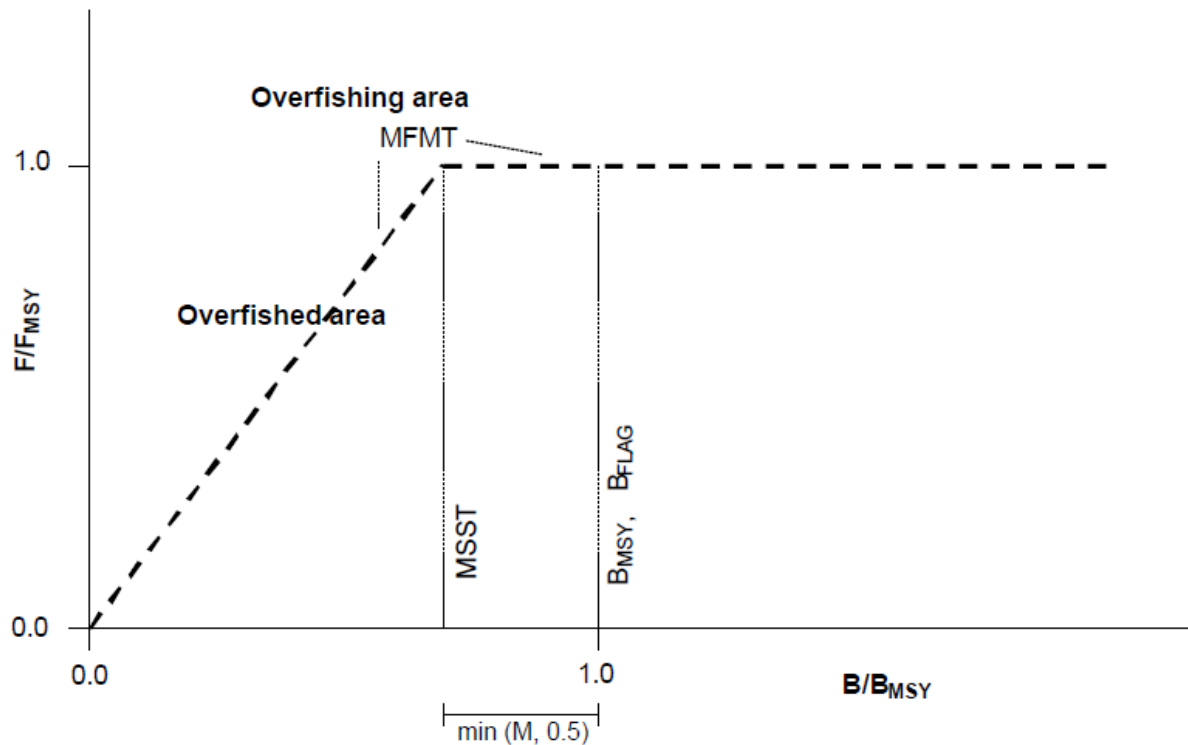


Figure 119. MSY control rule and reference points for pelagic MUS

2.6.6 INFORMATION ON OFL, ABC, AND ACL

Because pelagic squid have an annual life cycle, and all pelagic finfish are subject to management under the international agreements governing the WCPFC and/or the IATTC, all pelagic MUS are excepted from annual catch limit (ACL) and accountability measure requirements of section 303(a)(15) of the MSA, and related reference points. However, this statutory exception does not preclude the Council from specifying ACLs and related reference points for pelagic MUS using the ACL process described in the Pelagic FEP, if the Council deems such specifications are necessary to meet the objectives of the plan.

2.6.7 STOCK ASSESSMENTS COMPLETED SINCE THE LAST PELAGIC SAFE REPORT

Stock status is most reliably determined from stock assessments that integrate fishery and life history information across the range of the stock. For Pelagic MUS, most stock assessments are conducted by several international organizations. In the EPO, IATTC staff conduct stock assessments mainly for tropical tunas (bigeye and yellowfin) and some billfish (striped marlin, swordfish). These assessments are presented to the Scientific Advisory Committee of the IATTC and then to the full IATTC plenary. Assessments for IATTC managed stocks may be accessed on the [IATTC meeting webpage](#).

In the WCPO, the Pacific Community's Oceanic Fisheries Program (OFP-SPC) conducts stock assessments as the science provider to the WCPFC. Like the IATTC, the PC-OFP generally focuses on the tropical tunas, but also conduct stock assessments for South Pacific albacore and southwest Pacific swordfish and striped marlin. In the North Pacific Ocean, the

ISC for Tuna and Tuna-like Species in the North Pacific Ocean conducts stock assessments specifically for the WCPFC Northern Committee. These assessments are presented to the Scientific Committee of the WCPFC and then to the full WCPFC plenary. Assessments for WCPFC managed stocks may be accessed on the [WCPFC meeting webpage](#).

Table 42 summarizes the stock assessments for pelagic MUS completed or scheduled for completion between 2017 and 2022.

Table 42. Schedule of completed stock assessments for WPRFMC PMUS

| Management Unit Species | Year Completed | Management Unit Species | Year Completed |
|---|----------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| Albacore (S. Pacific) | 2021 | Swordfish (N. Pacific) | 2018 |
| Albacore (N. Pacific) | 2020 | Wahoo | |
| Other tuna relatives (<i>Auxis</i> sp.) | | Yellowfin Tuna (WCPO) | 2020 |
| (<i>allothunnus</i> sp., <i>Scomber</i> sp.) | | Kawakawa | |
| Bigeye Tuna (WCPO) | 2020 | Bluefin Tuna (Pacific) | 2022 |
| Black Marlin | | Common Thresher Shark | |
| Blue Marlin | 2021 | Pelagic Thresher Shark | |
| Mahimahi | | Bigeye Thresher Shark | 2017 - risk assessment |
| Oilfishes | | Shortfin Mako Shark | 2018 |
| Opah | | Longfin Mako Shark | |
| Pomfrets | | Blue Shark (N. Pacific) | 2022 |
| Sailfish | | Silky Shark | 2018 |
| Shortbill Spearfish | | Oceanic Whitetip Shark | 2019 |
| Skipjack Tuna (WCPO) | 2022 | Salmon Shark | |
| Striped Marlin (N. Pacific) | 2019 | Squid | |

The following pages include links to the most recent stock assessments and assessment results completed in 2022, including descriptions provided in the [WCPFC SC18 Summary Report](#). For more information on stock assessments and assessment results completed prior to 2021, please see the past [pelagic annual SAFE reports](#).

2.6.7.1 SKIPJACK TUNA

Stock assessment: Castillo Jordan et al. (2022).

Link: <https://meetings.wcpfc.int/node/16242>.

a. Stock status and trends

SC18 noted that the total catch in 2021 was 1,547,945t, a 10% decrease from 2020 and a 14% decrease from the 2016-2020 average. Purse seine catch in 2021 (1,254,022t) was a 11% decrease from 2020 and a 13% decrease from the 2016-2020 average. Pole and line catch (97,908t) was a 39% decrease from 2020 and a 37% decrease from the 2016-2020 average catch. Catch by other gears totalled 192,182t and was a 25% increase from 2020 and 5% decrease from the average catch in 2016-2020.

SC18 adopted the 2022 assessment and a structural uncertainty grid was used to develop management advice which included axes for tag mixing (three options), growth (two options) and steepness (three options), resulting in 18 models (Table SKJ-01). All models within the grid were equally weighted. The assessment grid of models estimated that the overall median

recent spawning depletion ($SB_{\text{recent}}/SB_{F=0}$) is 0.51 (80th percentile 0.43-0.64), which is close to the interim target reference point (TRP) of 0.50 (CMM 2021-01). No grid models were below the limit reference point (LRP) of 0.20 $SB_{F=0}$. The median of $F_{\text{recent}}/F_{\text{MSY}}$ was 0.32 (80th percentile 0.18-0.45) (Table SKJ-02). The 2022 stock assessment of skipjack tuna for the WCPO, indicated that according to WCPFC reference points the stock is not overfished, nor undergoing overfishing.

Catches of skipjack tuna in the WCPO have increased from approximately 250,000 metric tonnes in the late 1970s to a peak catch of approximately 2,000,000 metric tonnes in 2019; catches have dropped from 2019 to 2021 (Figure SKJ-02). Catches are dominated by purse seine fisheries in equatorial regions 6, 7, and 8, and purse seine and other gears in region 5 (Figure SKJ-03). Catches are dominated by pole-and-line in the northern regions 1–4 and continue to be low compared to those in the equatorial regions (Figures SKJ-03 and SKJ-04). The spawning potential and total biomass, while showing variability over time, do not show sustained long-term declining trends (Figures SKJ-05 and SKJ-08). In contrast, the trajectory of spawning potential depletion ($SB/SB_{F=0}$) shows a long-term trend towards a more depleted status (Figure SKJ-09). The spawning potential depletion trajectory was largely driven by the model estimates of increased levels of unfished spawning potential over time which are in turn driven by the model estimates of increasing recruitment over time (Figure SKJ-05). The model estimated increased recruitment over time to account for the increased catches in the face of a relatively stable biomass that is partly informed by several long-term stable CPUE indices of abundance (i.e., pole-and-line fishery indices) within the assessment. However, it is noted that spawning potential, recruitment and total biomass are estimated to have declined since around 2010 (Figure SKJ-05).

Fishing mortality continues to increase over time for the adult and juvenile components of the stock, with fishing mortality being consistently higher for adults (Figure SKJ-06).

Fishery impact analyses show that the purse seine fisheries continue to dominate the impact in the equatorial regions 6, 7, and 8, with similar impacts by the ‘associated’ and ‘unassociated’ components, except for region 8 where ‘associated’ fishing appears to have more impact (Figure SKJ-07). Fishery impacts in region 5 are dominated by purse seine and other gears, and in regions 1-4, by pole-and-line, but with increasing impact of purse seine over time (Figure SKJ-07).

The influences of the structural uncertainty grid axes on key management quantities are shown in Figure SKJ-10. Tag mixing assumptions that applied longer tag mixing periods, and the externally estimated growth curve, resulted in more optimistic estimates of spawning potential depletion and spawning potential and lower fishing mortality.

Majuro and Kobe plots summarising stock status for the 18 models in the structural uncertainty grid are included for the ‘latest’ (2021, Figure SKJ-11) and ‘recent’ periods (2018-2021, Figure SKJ-12). These plots show that the stock status estimates across the 18 models are all within the zones indicating that the stock is not overfished nor undergoing overfishing.

The assessment provided a range of diagnostic analyses derived from the diagnostic model that indicated conflict between tag and CPUE data and instability in the convergence minima. Despite this, the model showed low retrospective bias and the important spawning potential depletion management quantities were robust to the differences in model convergence. However, as noted by several CCMs, data conflicts and the instability in model convergence

minima require follow-up work and should be improved.

SC18 noted that the skipjack assessment continues to show that the stock is currently moderately exploited and the level of fishing mortality is sustainable.

SC18 noted that the stock was assessed to be above the adopted LRP and fished at rates below F_{MSY} with 100% probability. Therefore, the skipjack stock is not overfished, nor subject to overfishing. At the same time, it was also noted that fishing mortality is continuously increasing for both adult and juvenile stages while the estimated spawning potential has shown a declining trend since the mid to late 2000s, and spawning potential depletion reached a historically low level in recent years.

SC18 noted that levels of fishing mortality and depletion differ between regions, and that fishery impact was highest in the tropical region (Regions 5, 6, 7 and 8 in the stock assessment model), mainly due to the purse seine fisheries in the equatorial Pacific and the “other” fisheries within the Western Pacific.

b. Management advice and implications

SC18 did not achieve a consensus on the management advice for skipjack tuna in the WCPO.

2.6.7.2 BLUEFIN TUNA

Stock assessment: ISC (2022a).

Link:

https://isc.fra.go.jp/pdf/ISC22/ISC22_ANNEX06_Report_of_the_PBFWG_Workshop_Dec2021.pdf.

a. Stock status and trends

SC18 welcomed successful completion of an updated Pacific bluefin tuna (PBF) stock assessment and noted the following stock status and conservation information provided by ISC.

SC18 noted the following stock status from ISC:

PBF spawning stock biomass (SSB) has gradually increased in the last 10 years, and the rate of increase is accelerating. These biomass increases coincide with a decline in fishing mortality, particularly for fish aged 0 to 3, over the last decade. The latest (2020) SSB is estimated to be 10.2% of SSB_0 .

- 1) No biomass-based limit or target reference points have been adopted for PBF, but the PBF stock is overfished relative to the potential biomass-based reference points ($20\%SSB_0$) adopted for other tuna species by the IATTC and WCPFC. On the other hand, SSB reached its initial rebuilding target ($SSB_{MED} = 6.3\%SSB_0$) in 2019, 5 years earlier than originally anticipated by the RFMOs.
- 2) No fishing mortality-based reference points have been adopted for PBF by the IATTC and WCPFC. The recent (2018-2020) F_{SPR} is estimated to produce a fishing intensity of 30.7% SPR and is below the level corresponding to overfishing for many F-based reference points proposed for tuna species (Table PBF2), including SPR20%.

SC18 noted that while the gradual improvement of the Pacific bluefin tuna stock is a step in the right direction, it must be remembered that the current spawning biomass of the stock is only 10.2% of the unfished level. This is well below the LRP of 20% adopted for the key tuna species in WCPFC and suggests the Pacific bluefin tuna stock remains overfished relative to the LRP of key tuna species.

SC18 noted some CCMs encourage a precautionary approach towards the management of Pacific bluefin tuna until such time as the second rebuilding target is met, especially as the stock assessment and projection results are based on certain assumptions, including those on future recruitment, that may not always be met.

SC18 supported the continued monitoring of recruitment and spawning stock biomass, and research on a recruitment index for the stock assessment given the uncertainty in future recruitment and the influence of recruitment on stock biomass, as well as the impact of changes in fishing operations due to management changes.

b. Management advice and implications

SC18 noted that the updated stock assessment presented at SC18 indicates that the stock is likely recovering as planned or possibly faster, which suggests that the measures incorporated in CMM 2021-02 appear to be working as intended.

SC18 recommended that the Commission exercise a precautionary approach, and noted that the PBF stock is still in a depleted state (10.2% of SSB_0) when it considers any revisions to the current CMM. Consideration of any increases to the catch limit needs to be weighted against reducing the probability of recovering to the second rebuilding target.

SC18 further welcomed ISC's effort on further investigation of structural uncertainty to incorporate it in future management advice.

SC18 noted the following management information from ISC:

After the steady decline in SSB from 1996 to the historically low level in 2010, the PBF stock has started recovering, and recovery has been more rapid in recent years, consistent with the implementation of stringent management measures. The 2020 SSB was above the initial rebuilding target but remains below the second rebuilding target adopted by the WCPFC and IATTC. However, stock recovery is occurring at a faster rate than anticipated by managers when the Harvest Strategy to foster rebuilding (WCPFC HS 2017-02) was implemented in 2014. The fishing mortality ($F_{\%SPR}$) in 2018-2020 has been reduced to a level producing 30.7% SPR, the lowest observed in the time series. Based on these findings, the following information on the conservation of the Pacific bluefin tuna stock is provided:

1. The PBF stock is recovering from the historically low biomass in 2010 and has exceeded the initial rebuilding target ($SSB_{MED1952-2014}$) five years earlier than expected. The rate of recovery is increasing and under all projection scenarios evaluated, it is very likely the second rebuilding target (20% SSB_0 with 60% probability) will be achieved (probabilities > 90%) by 2029 (Table PBF-3). The risk of SSB falling below the historical lowest observed SSB at least once in 10 years is negligible.
2. The projection results show that increases in catches are possible without affecting the attainment of the second rebuilding objective. Increases in catch should consider both

the rebuilding rate and the distribution of catch between small and large fish.

3. The projection results assume that the CMMs are fully implemented and are based on certain biological and other assumptions. For example, these future projection results do not contain assumptions about discard mortality. Although the impact of discards on SSB is small compared to other fisheries, discards should be considered in future harvest scenarios.
4. Given the uncertainty in future recruitment and the influence of recruitment on stock biomass as well as the impact of changes in fishing operations due to the management, monitoring recruitment and SSB should continue and research on a recruitment index for the stock assessment should be pursued.
5. The results of projections from sensitivity models with lower productivity assumptions show that this conservation information is robust to uncertainty in stock productivity.

2.6.7.3 NORTH PACIFIC BLUE SHARK

Stock assessment: ISC (2022).

Link:

https://isc.fra.go.jp/pdf/ISC22/ISC22_ANNEX12_Stock_Assessment_for_Blue_Shark.pdf.

a. Stock status and trends

SC18 thanked ISC for the updated stock assessment for North Pacific blue shark and noted the following conclusions on the stock status provided by ISC.

Target and limit reference points have not yet been established for pelagic sharks in the Pacific Ocean by either the WCPFC or the IATTC. Stock status was reported in relation to MSY-based reference points. The following information on the status of North Pacific BSH was provided.

The median of the annual spawning stock biomass (SSB) from the model ensemble had a steadily decreasing trend until 1992 and slightly increased until recent years. The median of the annual F from the model ensemble gradually increased in the late 1970s and 1980s and suddenly dropped around 1990, which slightly preceded the high-seas drift gillnet fishing ban, after which it has been slightly decreasing. The median of the annual age-0 recruitment estimates from the model ensemble appeared relatively stable with a slightly decreasing trend over the assessment period except for 1988, which shows a large pulse. The historical trajectories of stock status from the model ensemble revealed that North Pacific BSH had experienced some level of depletion and overfishing in previous years, showing that the trajectories moved through the overfishing zone, overfished and overfishing zone, and overfished zone in the Kobe plots relative to MSY reference points. However, in the last two decades, median estimates of the stock condition returned into the not overfished and not overfishing zone.

Based on these findings, the following information on the status of the North Pacific BSH is provided:

- 1) Median female SSB in 2020 was estimated to be 1.170 of SSB_{MSY} (80th percentile, 0.570 - 1.776) and is likely (63.5% probability) not in an overfished condition relative to MSY-based reference points.

- 2) Recent annual F ($F_{2017-2019}$) is estimated to be below F_{MSY} and overfishing of the stock is very likely (91.9% probability) not occurring relative to MSY-based reference points.
- 3) The base case model results show that there is a 61.9% joint probability that NPO BSH stock is not in an overfished condition and that overfishing is not occurring relative to MSY based reference points.

SC18 noted that the current assessment is an improvement over the previous assessment and supports the model ensemble approach taken in the 2022 stock assessment as a more comprehensive way of characterizing structural uncertainty in stock status. However, SC18 noted that the model ensemble did not consider some key uncertainties, in particular natural mortality or stock-recruitment steepness and SC18 recommended a more thorough use of the model ensemble approach is recommended to better represent uncertainty for future assessments.

b. Management advice and implications

SC18 noted the following conservation information from ISC.

Stock projections of biomass and catch of NPO BSH from 2020 to 2030 were performed assuming four different harvest policies: $F_{current}$ (2017-2019), F_{MSY} , $F_{current+20\%}$, and $F_{current-20\%}$ and evaluated relative to MSY-based reference points. Based on these findings, the following conservation information is provided:

- 1) Future projections in three of the four harvest scenarios ($F_{current}$ (2017-2019), $F_{current+20\%}$, and $F_{current-20\%}$) showed that median SSB in the North Pacific Ocean will likely (>50 probability) increase; the F_{MSY} harvest scenario led to a decrease in median SSB.
- 2) Median estimated SSB of BSH in the North Pacific Ocean will likely (>50 probability) remain above SSB_{MSY} in the next ten years for all scenarios except F_{MSY} ; harvesting at F_{MSY} decreases SSB below SSB_{MSY} (Figure E5).
- 3) There remain some uncertainties in the time series based on the quality (observer vs. logbook) and timespans of catch and relative abundance indices, limited size composition data for several fisheries, the potential for additional catch not accounted for in the assessment, and uncertainty regarding life history parameters. Continued improvements in the monitoring of BSH catches, including recording the size and sex of sharks retained and discarded for all fisheries, as well as continued research into the biology, ecology, and spatial structure of BSH in the North Pacific Ocean are recommended.

SC18 noted that recent estimated recruitment was below the average level from the Beverton-Holt stock recruit relationship, and that if these low recruitments persist into the future then the projection results could be overly optimistic.

Table 43. Estimates of stock status in relation to overfishing and overfished reference points for WPFMC PMUS

| Stock | Overfishing reference point | Is overfishing occurring? | Approaching Overfishing (2 yr) | Overfished reference point | Is the stock overfished? | Approaching Overfished (2 yr) | Assessment results ¹ | Natural mortality ² | MSST |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| Skipjack Tuna (WCPO) | $F_{2017-2020}/F_{MSY}=0.32$ | No | No | $SB_{2018-2022}/SB_{MSY}=3.12$, $SB_{2018-2021}/SB_F=0.52$ | No | No | Castillo et al. (2022), SC18 report | $>0.5 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $0.5 SB_{MSY}$ |
| Skipjack Tuna (EPO) | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | Maunder (2018) | NA | NA |
| Yellowfin Tuna (WCPO) | $F_{2014-2017}/F_{MSY}=0.37$ | No | No | $SB_{2018}/SB_{MSY}=2.43$, $SB_{2018}/SB_F=0.54$ | No | No | Vincent et al. (2020) | $0.8-1.6 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $0.5 SB_{MSY}$ |
| Yellowfin Tuna (EPO) | $F/F_{MSY}=1.01$ | Yes, because $F > MFMT$ | Not applicable | $SB_{2015-2017}/SB_{MSY}=1.08$, $B_{2015-2017}/B_{MSY}=1.35$ | No | No | Minte-Vera et al. (2018) | $0.2-0.7 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $0.5 B_{MSY}$ |
| Albacore (S. Pacific) | $F_{2015-2018}/F_{MSY}=0.25$ | No | No | $SB_{2019}/SB_{MSY}=2.50$ $SB_{2019}/SB_F=0.37$ | No | No | Castillo Jordan et al. (2021) | $0.2-0.4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $0.6 SB_{MSY}$ |
| Albacore (N. Pacific) | $F_{2015-2017}/F_{MSY}=0.60$ | No | No | $SB_{2015-2017}/SB_F=0.43$ | No | No | ISC (2020) | 0.4 yr^{-1} | $0.6 B_{MSY}$ |
| Bigeye Tuna (WCPO) | $F_{2014-2017}/F_{MSY}=0.74$ | No | No | $SB_{2018}/SB_{MSY}=1.70$, $SB_{2018}/SB_F=0.38$ | No, because $SSB > MSST$ | No | Ducharme-Barth et al. (2020) | 0.4 yr^{-1} | $0.6 SB_{MSY}$ |
| Bigeye Tuna (EPO) | $F_{2015-2017}/F_{MSY}=1.15$ | Yes, because $F > MFMT$ | Not applicable | $SB_{2015-2017}/SB_{MSY}=1.02$, $B_{2012-2015}/B_{MSY}=0.91$ | No, because $SSB > MSST$ | Not applicable | Xu et al. (2018) | $0.1-0.25 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $\sim 0.75 B_{MSY}$ |
| Pacific Bluefin Tuna | F is 30.7% SPR | No | Not applicable | $SB_{2019}/SB_F=0.102$ | Yes, because $SSB < MSST$ | Not applicable | ISC (2022) | $0.25-1.6 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $\sim 0.75 B_{MSY}$ |
| Blue Marlin (Pacific) | $F_{2017-2019}/F_{MSY}=0.6$ | No | Unknown | $SB_{2017-2019}/SB_{MSY}=1.13$ | No | Unknown | ISC (2021) | $0.22-0.42 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | $\sim 0.7 SB_{MSY}$ |
| Swordfish (WCNPO) | $F_{2013-2015}/F_{MSY}=0.45$ | No | Unknown | $SB_{2016}/SB_{MSY}=1.87$ | No | Unknown | ISC (2018a) | 0.3 yr^{-1} | $0.7 B_{MSY}$ |
| Swordfish (EPO) | $F_{2012}/F_{MSY} = 1.11$ | Yes, because $F > MFMT$ | Not applicable | $SB_{2012}/SB_{MSY} = 1.87$ | No | Unknown | ISC (2014) | 0.35 yr^{-1} | $0.65 B_{MSY}$ |
| Striped Marlin WC (N. Pacific) | $F_{2015-2017}/F_{MSY}=1.07$ | Yes, because $F > MFMT$ | Not applicable | $SB_{2017}/SB_{MSY}=0.38$ | Yes, because $SSB_{2017} < MSST$ | Not applicable | ISC (2019) | 0.4 yr^{-1} | $0.6 SB_{MSY}$ |

| Stock | Overfishing reference point | Is overfishing occurring? | Approaching Overfishing (2 yr) | Overfished reference point | Is the stock overfished? | Approaching Overfished (2 yr) | Assessment results ¹ | Natural mortality ² | MSST |
|---|---|---------------------------|--------------------------------|---|--------------------------|-------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| Striped Marlin (NEPO) | Not provided in assessment | No | No | SB ₂₀₀₉ /SB _{MSY} =1.5 | No | Unknown | Hinton and Maunder (2011) | 0.5 yr ⁻¹ | 0.5 B _{MSY} |
| Blue Shark (N. Pacific) ² | F ₂₀₁₇₋₂₀₁₉ /F _{MSY} =0.445 | No | Unknown | SB ₂₀₂₀ /SB _{MSY} =1.17 | No | Unknown | ISC (2022) | 0.145-0.785 yr ⁻¹ | ~0.8 SB _{MSY} |
| Oceanic white-tip shark (WCPO) ³ | F ₂₀₁₆ /F _{MSY} =3.30 | Yes | Not applicable | SB ₂₀₁₆ /SB _{MSY} =0.11 | Yes | Not applicable | Tremblay-Boyer et al. (2019), SC15 Report | 0.18 yr ⁻¹ | 0.82 B _{MSY} |
| Silky shark (WCPO) ³ | F ₂₀₁₆ /F _{MSY} =1.61 | Yes | Not applicable | SB ₂₀₁₆ /SB _{MSY} =1.18 | No | Unknown | Clarke et al. (2018), SC14 Report | 0.18 yr ⁻¹ | 0.82 B _{MSY} |
| Silky Shark (EPO) ³ | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Lennert-Cody et al. (2018) | Unknown | Unknown |
| Longfin mako shark (N. Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Shortfin mako shark (N. Pacific) | F ₂₀₁₃₋₂₀₁₅ /F _{MSY} =0.62 | No | Unknown | SB ₂₀₁₆ /SB _{MSY} =1.36 | No | Unknown | ISC (2018b) | 0.128 yr ⁻¹ | 0.872 B _{MSY} |
| Common thresher shark (N. Pacific) | F/F _{MSY} =0.21 | No | Unknown | SB/SB _{MSY} =1.3 | No | Unknown | Teo et al. (2018) | 0.04 yr ⁻¹ | 0.96 B _{MSY} |
| Bigeye thresher shark (N. Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Pelagic thresher shark (N. Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Salmon shark (N. Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Mahimahi (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Wahoo (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |

| Stock | Overfishing reference point | Is overfishing occurring? | Approaching Overfishing (2 yr) | Overfished reference point | Is the stock overfished? | Approaching Overfished (2 yr) | Assessment results¹ | Natural mortality² | MSST |
|---|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------|
| Opah (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Pomfret (family Bramidae, W. Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Black marlin (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Shortbill spearfish (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Sailfish (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Kawakawa (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Oilfish (family Gempylidae, Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Other tuna relatives (<i>Auxis</i> spp., <i>Allothunnus</i> spp., and <i>Scomber</i> spp, Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |
| Squids (Pacific) | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown |

¹For some WCPO stocks, the Scientific Committee of the WCPFC may adjust the weighting of the structural uncertainty grid, based on scientific uncertainty, used to derive median limit reference points. For these stocks, the reference to the SC meeting report at which the weighting decision was made is provided in addition to the stock assessment report reference.

²Estimates based on Boggs et al. (2000) or assumed in the assessments.

³As of this publication, NMFS has not yet determined that this stock assessment is the best scientific information available for the purposes of stock status determination.

2.6.8 U.S. LONGLINE LANDINGS REPORTED TO WCPFC AND IATTC FOR 2021

The tables of this section show the catches of pelagic MUS by U.S. longline (Hawaii and California-based) and U.S. territorial longline fisheries in the WCPFC Convention Area from 2018-2022, as reported by NMFS to the WCPFC in 2023. The catches for 2022 are preliminary.

Table 44. U.S. and territorial longline catch (mt) by species in the WCPFC Statistical Area, 2018-2022

| | U.S. in North Pacific Ocean | | | | | CNMI in North Pacific Ocean | | | | | Guam in North Pacific Ocean | | | | | American Samoa in North Pacific Ocean | | | | | American Samoa in South Pacific Ocean | | | | | Total | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------------------|------|------|------|------|---------------------------------------|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|--------------|------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 |
| Vessels | 142 | 137 | 135 | 138 | 136 | 119 | 131 | 119 | 128 | 121 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 133 | 24 | 122 | 127 | 113 | 11 | 12 | 11 | 18 | 14 | 153 | 150 | 146 | 156 | 151 |
| Species | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Albacore, NPO | 108 | 105 | 48 | 88 | 59 | | | | | | | | | | | 22 | 30 | 8 | 12 | 11 | | | | | | 129 | 135 | 57 | 101 | 70 |
| Albacore, SPO | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1,073 | 835 | 542 | 1,050 | 1,542 | 1,073 | 835 | 542 | 1,050 | 1,542 |
| Bigeye tuna | 3,237 | 3,748 | 3,546 | 3,459 | 3,393 | 544 | 1,500 | 925 | 999 | 993 | | | | | | 1,546 | 405 | 1,563 | 1,514 | 798 | 19 | 30 | 23 | 31 | 53 | 5,346 | 5,683 | 6,058 | 6,003 | 5,236 |
| Pacific bluefin tuna | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Skipjack tuna | 84 | 130 | 124 | 198 | 105 | | | | | | | | | | | 10 | 15 | 16 | 28 | 15 | 39 | 53 | 63 | 69 | 76 | 133 | 198 | 203 | 295 | 196 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 1,969 | 2,021 | 1,199 | 1,556 | 1,868 | | | | | | | | | | | 184 | 274 | 160 | 220 | 209 | 148 | 214 | 222 | 189 | 261 | 2,301 | 2,509 | 1,581 | 1,965 | 2,339 |
| Other tuna | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL TUNA | 5,399 | 6,005 | 4,918 | 5,302 | 5,425 | 544 | 1,500 | 925 | 999 | 993 | | | | | | 1,762 | 725 | 1,747 | 1,774 | 1,034 | 1,278 | 1,132 | 851 | 1,339 | 1,934 | 8,984 | 9,362 | 8,442 | 9,415 | 9,384 |
| Black marlin | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Blue marlin | 351 | 332 | 440 | 747 | 529 | | | | | | | | | | | 52 | 31 | 44 | 83 | 38 | 47 | 34 | 28 | 29 | 32 | 450 | 397 | 513 | 860 | 598 |
| Sailfish | 8 | 9 | 5 | 12 | 9 | | | | | | | | | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 16 | 11 |
| Spearfish | 111 | 110 | 94 | 154 | 171 | | | | | | | | | | | 8 | 10 | 11 | 16 | 15 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 120 | 121 | 105 | 173 | 187 |
| Striped marlin, NPO | 230 | 196 | 241 | 397 | 332 | | | | | | | | | | | 25 | 30 | 47 | 62 | 44 | | | | | | 255 | 226 | 288 | 458 | 375 |
| Striped marlin, SPO | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| Other marlins | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Swordfish, NPO | 735 | 528 | 266 | 510 | 590 | | | | | | | | | | | 26 | 39 | 40 | 44 | 41 | | | | | | 760 | 567 | 306 | 555 | 631 |
| Swordfish, SPO | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 6 |
| TOTAL BILLFISH | 1,436 | 1,177 | 1,047 | 1,821 | 1,631 | | | | | | | | | | | 111 | 111 | 143 | 208 | 138 | 53 | 42 | 33 | 39 | 41 | 1,600 | 1,329 | 1,223 | 2,068 | 1,811 |
| Blue shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mako shark | 1 | 1 | 2 | 32 | 36 | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 35 | 42 |
| Thresher | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 2 |
| Other sharks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Silky shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Hammerhead shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Tiger shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Porbeagle | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL SHARKS | 3 | 1 | 3 | 36 | 38 | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 40 | 47 |
| Mahimahi | 129 | 109 | 75 | 123 | 155 | | | | | | | | | | | 14 | 18 | 11 | 20 | 14 | 6 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 149 | 128 | 92 | 145 | 174 |
| Moonfish | 80 | 109 | 198 | 368 | 390 | | | | | | | | | | | 12 | 26 | 40 | 59 | 58 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 92 | 136 | 238 | 428 | 449 |
| Oilfish | 57 | 52 | 55 | 89 | 98 | | | | | | | | | | | 7 | 6 | 8 | 15 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 64 | 58 | 63 | 103 | 112 |
| Pomfret | 138 | 132 | 157 | 246 | 265 | | | | | | | | | | | 17 | 18 | 23 | 29 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 155 | 150 | 181 | 275 | 298 |
| Wahoo | 194 | 314 | 239 | 401 | 264 | | | | | | | | | | | 25 | 41 | 35 | 60 | 34 | 12 | 16 | 18 | 18 | 31 | 231 | 371 | 292 | 479 | 329 |
| Other fish | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 5 |
| TOTAL OTHER | 600 | 718 | 726 | 1,228 | 1,178 | | | | | | | | | | | 74 | 109 | 118 | 184 | 153 | 18 | 19 | 24 | 21 | 37 | 692 | 846 | 867 | 1,433 | 1,367 |
| GEAR TOTAL | 7,437 | 7,901 | 6,694 | 8,387 | 8,272 | 544 | 1,500 | 925 | 999 | 993 | | | | | | 1,946 | 945 | 2,008 | 2,169 | 1,329 | 1,350 | 1,193 | 908 | 1,400 | 2,016 | 11,278 | 11,539 | 10,535 | 12,955 | 12,610 |

Table 45. U.S. longline catch (mt) by species in the North Pacific Ocean, 2018-2022

| | U.S. (ISC) | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 |
| Vessels | 147 | 146 | 147 | 149 | 143 |
| Species | | | | | |
| Albacore, North Pacific | 201 | 226 | 156 | 104 | 87 |
| Albacore, South Pacific | | | | | |
| Bigeye tuna | 6,374 | 7,039 | 7,445 | 7,692 | 7,591 |
| Pacific bluefin tuna | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| Skipjack tuna | 103 | 153 | 168 | 261 | 150 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 2,427 | 2,501 | 1,733 | 2,029 | 2,500 |
| Other tuna | | | | | |
| TOTAL TUNA | 9,107 | 9,920 | 9,504 | 10,088 | 10,327 |
| Black marlin | | | | | |
| Blue marlin | 444 | 382 | 531 | 901 | 664 |
| Sailfish | 9 | 12 | 7 | 18 | 13 |
| Spearfish | 130 | 132 | 116 | 199 | 219 |
| Striped marlin, North Pacific | 283 | 247 | 336 | 545 | 465 |
| Striped marlin, South Pacific | | | | | |
| Other marlins | | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Swordfish, North Pacific | 927 | 684 | 543 | 734 | 1,052 |
| Swordfish, South Pacific | | | | | |
| TOTAL BILLFISH | 1,793 | 1,459 | 1,534 | 2,398 | 2,414 |
| Blue shark | | | | | |
| Mako shark | 2 | 5 | 16 | 47 | 60 |
| Thresher | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 2 |
| Other sharks | | | | | |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | | | | | |
| Silky shark | | | | | |
| Hammerhead shark | | | | | |
| Tiger shark | | | | | |

| | U.S. (ISC) | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 |
| Porbeagle | | | | | |
| TOTAL SHARKS | 5 | 8 | 19 | 52 | 62 |
| Mahimahi | 178 | 166 | 119 | 198 | 227 |
| Moonfish | 239 | 385 | 740 | 1,039 | 1,392 |
| Oilfish | 75 | 74 | 83 | 140 | 143 |
| Pomfret | 189 | 182 | 227 | 332 | 389 |
| Wahoo | 250 | 406 | 334 | 571 | 390 |
| Other fish | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| TOTAL OTHER | 932 | 1,214 | 1,505 | 2,281 | 2,545 |
| GEAR TOTAL | 11,837 | 12,601 | 12,563 | 14,819 | 15,348 |

Table 46. U.S. longline catch (mt) by species in the Eastern Pacific Ocean, 2018-2022

| | All U.S. vessels | | | | | U.S. vessels ≥ 24 m | | | | | U.S. vessels ≤ 24 m | | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 |
| Vessels | 108 | 112 | 121 | 126 | 121 | 22 | 23 | 27 | 30 | 30 | 86 | 89 | 94 | 96 | 91 |
| Albacore, North Pacific | 72 | 90 | 100 | 4 | 17 | 15 | 20 | 16 | 1 | 3 | 57 | 71 | 84 | 3 | 13 |
| Albacore, South Pacific | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bigeye tuna | 1,047 | 1,386 | 1,410 | 1,720 | 2,408 | 178 | 357 | 332 | 507 | 524 | 869 | 1,029 | 1,078 | 1,212 | 1,883 |
| Pacific bluefin tuna | | | 1 | | | | | 1 | | | | | | | |
| Skipjack tuna | 8 | 8 | 28 | 35 | 30 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 9 | 9 | 7 | 5 | 24 | 26 | 21 |
| Yellowfin tuna | 274 | 205 | 374 | 254 | 422 | 41 | 51 | 82 | 75 | 99 | 233 | 155 | 292 | 179 | 323 |
| Other tuna | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL TUNA | 1,402 | 1,690 | 1,913 | 2,013 | 2,876 | 236 | 430 | 435 | 593 | 635 | 1,166 | 1,260 | 1,478 | 1,420 | 2,241 |
| Black marlin | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Blue marlin | 41 | 19 | 47 | 71 | 98 | 7 | 3 | 6 | 16 | 11 | 35 | 16 | 41 | 55 | 87 |
| Sailfish | 1 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | - | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Spearfish | 11 | 13 | 11 | 28 | 32 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 21 | 25 |
| Striped marlin, North Pacific | 28 | 21 | 48 | 87 | 90 | 3 | 6 | 11 | 23 | 15 | 24 | 15 | 37 | 64 | 74 |

| | All U.S. vessels | | | | | U.S. vessels ≥ 24 m | | | | | U.S. vessels ≤ 24 m | | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|------------|------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 | 2022 | 2021 | 2020 | 2019 | 2018 |
| Striped marlin, South Pacific | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Other marlins | | | | 1 | | | | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Swordfish, North Pacific | 167 | 117 | 237 | 179 | 422 | 96 | 90 | 194 | 110 | 215 | 71 | 27 | 43 | 69 | 207 |
| Swordfish, South Pacific | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL BILLFISH | 247 | 172 | 345 | 369 | 644 | 108 | 103 | 213 | 158 | 249 | 140 | 68 | 132 | 211 | 395 |
| Blue shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mako shark | 1 | 5 | 14 | 12 | 19 | 1 | 4 | 13 | 8 | 11 | | 1 | 1 | 4 | 8 |
| Thresher | 1 | 1 | 2 | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | | | | | |
| Other sharks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Silky shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Hammerhead shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Tiger shark | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Porbeagle | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL SHARKS | 2 | 6 | 16 | 13 | 19 | 2 | 5 | 14 | 9 | 11 | | 1 | 2 | 4 | 8 |
| Mahimahi | 35 | 39 | 32 | 55 | 57 | 6 | 9 | 6 | 14 | 11 | 29 | 29 | 26 | 41 | 46 |
| Moonfish | 147 | 249 | 502 | 612 | 944 | 25 | 54 | 116 | 196 | 258 | 122 | 195 | 386 | 416 | 686 |
| Oilfish | 11 | 16 | 20 | 36 | 30 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 12 | 15 | 26 | 22 |
| Pomfret | 34 | 32 | 47 | 57 | 91 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 17 | 30 | 29 | 24 | 38 | 40 | 61 |
| Wahoo | 31 | 51 | 60 | 110 | 91 | 4 | 12 | 12 | 33 | 22 | 28 | 39 | 48 | 77 | 69 |
| Other fish | | 1 | | | | | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL OTHER | 259 | 387 | 662 | 870 | 1,215 | 42 | 88 | 149 | 270 | 331 | 216 | 300 | 513 | 600 | 884 |
| GEAR TOTAL | 1,909 | 2,255 | 2,936 | 3,264 | 4,754 | 388 | 626 | 811 | 1,029 | 1,226 | 1,522 | 1,629 | 2,125 | 2,235 | 3,528 |

3 FISHERY ECOSYSTEMS

3.1 FISHER OBSERVATIONS

Hawaii fishermen Clay Tam and Roy Morioka started the fisher observations initiative in 2020 to add traditional and local ecological knowledge, and on-the-water observations to complement fishery-dependent data sources in the annual SAFE reports. Fisher observations from 2021 can be found in the pelagic and the respective archipelagic reports (WPRFMC 2022a; WPRFMC 2022b; WPRFMC 2022c; WPRFMC 2022d).

In 2021, the Council collected fisher observations for pelagic fisheries during quarterly advisory panel meetings for Hawai‘i, American Samoa, Guam, and the CNMI. Input collected at these meetings was limited to Advisory Panel members. The Council also convened two meetings dedicated to fisher observations in February 2022 – one for Guam and the CNMI on February 23, 2022 and one for Hawai‘i on February 24, 2022. There was no American Samoa fisher observations meeting in 2022 to cover 2021 due to COVID-19. The Guam and CNMI, and Hawai‘i annual fisher observations meetings included some Advisory Panel members, but also included individuals from the fishing community in those areas. The full results from these two fisher observations meetings are available as PIFSC data reports (Ayers et al. 2022a; Ayers et al. 2022b).

Fisher observations for pelagic species were collected during quarterly Advisory Panel meetings for each of the respective jurisdictions. Annual fisher observation meetings were held for American Samoa, Guam and CNMI, and Hawai‘i in 2023 to cover 2022. Data from these meetings will be published as PIFSC data reports. Pelagic fisher observations from 2022 will begin with a summary of fisher observations collected during the 2022 quarterly advisory panel meetings, separated by island area/jurisdiction, then followed by a summary of pelagic management unit species data collected from the fisher observations meetings.

3.1.1 INFORMATION FROM ADVISORY PANEL MEETINGS

3.1.1.1 AMERICAN SAMOA

From April to June, COVID-19 lockdowns and associated mandates limited fishing activity and pelagic fishing trips. Another reported that the community members from Manu‘a and the American Samoa Longline fleet reported good fishing in the second quarter of 2022. From July to September, rough weather reduced effort by smaller recreational and alia vessels. The albacore season was good for the longline fleet despite increases in food costs and decreases in fish prices. According to Tautai o Samoa Longline and Fishing Association, only one vessel was able to go jigging and reported high costs to outfit the vessel with fishing gear. The association would like to get more vessels to jig for albacore. The raft closure started in the summer, but they expect more vessels to return in October. Purse seiners are fishing in the east and the cannery has been purchasing fish from foreign-flagged purse seine vessels.

3.1.1.2 CNMI

From April to June, CNMI AP members reported an abundance of sharks, with some even hitting vessels. Many FADs have been lost. Another AP member reported seeing just one FAD west of Tinian, the ‘FF’ buoy. The individual noted seabirds attacking lures rather than fish, with some birds going after squid and mahimahi lures. A strange occurrence not seen before by these fishers. Fuel prices continued to increase, with diesel fuel prices reaching \$9-10 per gallon on

Tinian. Military activities are increasing, but the main issue in the CNMI are the high fuel prices. One AP member felt that Saipan needs another boat ramp for fishing. Fishing base is full of activity every weekend. The crowding, along with weekend community events discourage fishing vessels from launching.

Fishers on Tinian are still waiting on the floating marina on Tinian to be finished. The Tinian Marina held its groundbreaking ceremony and the new marina will be paved. Another AP member noted that fuel prices continue to rise, but fish prices remain the same. From July to September, an AP member on Tinian caught the largest Marlin ever caught by a Tinian fisher, which weighed in at 772.5 pounds. Wahoo catches on Tinian have been good, with an average weight around 25 pounds.

A Rota fisher reported catching small tuna, all weighing two pounds or less and also reported that wahoo were not as active as they are around the more Northern Mariana Islands. Fuel prices on Rota dropped to \$6.90 per gallon, which is still very expensive. Another fisher reported that it was difficult to find seabirds. It's unusual to find schools of fish not accompanied by seabirds. Sharks have been active, but one fisher reported fishing for 4 hours with no shark sightings or depredation.

3.1.1.3 GUAM

From January to March, AP members noted small runs of bonito. The cost of diesel increased 25 cents to \$7.25 per gallon, with regular unleaded at \$6.39 and Premium at \$6.79. AP members hope that upcoming tournaments will bring more fish, but added that it will be unlikely without any FADs. From March to June, one AP member reported few fish being caught. When calm waters prevailed, few fishing seabirds were observed and few skipjack tuna were caught. Strange weather and strong winds were also noted during the second quarter of 2022. One fisher reported catching a small mahimahi and wahoo during a recent fishing trip. The mahimahi weighed in during the Greg D. Perez fishing tournament were small, with a 3.2 pound fish placing third overall. Since Guam had not assessed any fines and did not enter into a specified fishing arrangement with Hawai'i longliners for additional bigeye tuna quota [such arrangements fund sustainable fishing and fisheries development for participating U.S. territories], there has not been funding for the Guam Marine Conservation Plan. The AP felt that the Council should explore additional means to fund the plan.

3.1.1.4 HAWAII

3.1.1.4.1 Hawaii Island

From January to March, fishers expect ono, but they have not been observed by AP members. Fishers have been finding 'ahi instead. From April to June, one AP member reported a decrease in fishing trips due to the high cost of fuel, ice, and boat maintenance. Fishers noted an increase in ika abundance along with spotted dolphin. Fuel prices increased in Hilo and 100 pound 'ahis were biting. Only small marlin and mahimahi being caught on the Hilo side, but fishers did find some nice ono (30 pounder). Ika shibi fishers did well with ono during a recent overnight trip. From July-September, fishing and fish prices were steady, with high fuel prices increasing fishing costs. Hilo fishers observed a bloom of tuna eggs spanning over to Maui on the flight to Oahu. The bloom usually occurs in July and is late. Fishers also reported good mahimahi fishing.

3.1.1.4.2 Kauai

From January to March, AP members noted that FAD buoy ‘KK’ has disappeared. From April to June, tuna catches began to improve. Despite improved fishing conditions, AP members reported that fishers are being more selective about going fishing due to higher fuel prices. Fishers also noted more otaru coming up, an abundance of akule, ‘oama coming in, an abundance of nehu, large bird aggregations, and the water boiling with fish off of the north shore. West side fishers noted more fish piles coming close, good fishing and good prices. Fuel prices approached \$6 per gallon, which limited fishing trips.

3.1.1.4.3 Maui

From January to March, Maui fishers reported sustained high fuel prices. Tuna fishing improved in the Spring, from April to June. Maui Co-op fishers caught tuna, but reported high fuel prices. From July-September, fishers observed an abundance of tuna, and mahimahi. One fisherman caught 25 pieces of otaru.

3.1.1.4.4 Oahu

From January to March, AP members observed a strong mango and avocado bloom which usually means a good year for fishing. During the first quarter of 2022, the small boat fishery have experienced a strong ‘ahi bite. The longline catch has been low in this quarter, but the prices have remained near \$5-\$6 per pound. Increased swordfish catches have been absorbed by local and domestic markets.

Another AP member noted that the ‘ahi have been jumping just like the 1980s and noted the strong correlation with the strong avocado bloom. Other AP members agreed that there a lot of small to medium-sized ‘ahi around. Another member noted that this year has seen an early mango bloom which is often associated with an abundance of ‘ahi and otaru. In terms of FADs, O‘ahu AP members noted that FAD ‘X’ north of O‘ahu is gone. From April to June fishers observed an abundance of mahimahi. They reported a moderate ‘ahi catch that was offset by high fuel and maintenance costs. An AP member said they observed a slowdown in fishing, but fishers were still finding big ‘ahi, nearing 100 pounds. Another AP member reported that the Hawai‘i longline catch has been higher relative to recent months with moderate demand. From July to September more aku and otaru were seen offshore and a bloom of mū [Bigeye emperor, *Monotaxis grandoculis*] off of O‘ahu’s north shore.

3.1.2 INFORMATION FROM THE AMERICAN SAMOA ANNUAL SUMMIT MEETING

From 6-8pm Samoa Standard Time on February 14, 2023, the Council convened a fisher observations meeting with American Samoa Advisory Panel members and other members of the American Samoa fishing community. The meeting included 8 American Samoa fishers with remote attendance by 4 Council staff and 1 PIFSC social scientist. Advisory Panel members reached via their social networks to the American Samoa fishing community to invite fishers to attend the meeting and contribute to 2022 fisher observations. Advisory panel members often have experience in multiple gear types, many years of fishing experience, and are well-informed of fishery changes. For the 2022 American Samoa fisher observations meeting, they tried to secure participation and gather data from current or past ‘highliners’ with different fishery specializations, including individuals on small ‘alia’ vessels that target pelagic species.

Highliners have more fishery knowledge than less experienced fishers and thus may offer deeper insights.

Just as in 2021, the focus of the 2022 meeting was to describe notable fishery events, changes in timing of fisheries events, issues the council should pay attention to, including drivers of changes. Discussions were based upon a streamlined interview guide developed by Roy Morioka and Zach Yamada. Although the interview guide was streamlined from the previous year, it did not substantially change participant responses. Participants were asked follow up questions as needed related to different social, economic, ecological, and management (SEEM) aspects of the fishery to facilitate their use in fisheries science and management. These four SEEM categories comprise a qualitative construct which have been used to complement the quantitative P* construct and process, and provide additional guidance when setting annual catch limits, although the process has never been applied to pelagic management unit species (Hospital et al. 2019).

The American Samoa fisher observations meeting was not recorded, but PIFSC staff along with Council staff took detailed notes during the meeting and captured attendee quotes as close to verbatim as possible and captured all main ideas shared by meeting attendees. Main ideas were categorized topically using the SEEM categories, then into additional sub-categories to provide further detail on fisher observations from American Samoa fishers in 2022. Below, their observations of pelagic fisheries are separated and described using the SEEM categories.

3.1.2.1 SOCIAL

COVID-19 continued to impact American Samoa fishers. Meeting attendees referenced the slow rollout of COVID relief and CARES Act funds. They also conveyed the need to upgrade American Samoa fishing infrastructure, such as adding more boat slips, upgrading longline docks, and replacing Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs). There was good turnout for their pelagic species fishing tournament and the fishing was productive with over 50 masi caught over 2 days, along with good catches of yellowfin tuna and marlin.

3.1.2.2 ECONOMIC

Several fishers referenced the alia program, a program in which local fishers receive government assistance to purchase an alia fishing vessel. Another mentioned a Super alia program, which was announced 6-7 years ago, but is still in development. One attendee reported that ice availability is an issue for alia fishers, which may decrease market demand due to spoilage of catch.

3.1.2.3 ECOLOGICAL (BIOLOGICAL AND PHYSICAL/OCEANOGRAPHIC)

American Samoa fishers indicated that 2022 was a good year for pelagic species. One fisher reported a strong masi run in August and September, catching 6-12 masi per trip. Good catches of yellowfin tuna and marlin were also referenced, including one fisher that caught a 168 pound yellowfin. Shark depredation remains an issue, and may be increasing each year. Fishers also reported severe weather that limited fishing trips. One fisher reported that an earthquake may have caused yellowfin and aku to move closer to shore, where fishers were catching larger size classes of fish. Fishers also noted very warm water temperatures throughout the year.

3.1.2.4 MANAGEMENT UNCERTAINTY

Fishers lamented the lack of support for the Council's Catchit Logit app to record catches and expressed apprehension over the uncertainty surrounding Biden Administration's 30x30 plan implementation.

3.1.3 INFORMATION FROM THE GUAM AND CNMI ANNUAL SUMMIT

On February 7, 2023 from 6:00-8:00pm Chamorro Standard Time, the Council convened a fisher observations meeting with advisory panel members from Guam and the CNMI, along with other members of fishing communities in the archipelago. Hawai'i fishermen Clay Tam and Roy Morioka convened and facilitated the meeting and it was attended by 9 Guam fishers and 11 CNMI fishers, along with 4 Council staff, and 2 PIFSC staff. The focus of the meeting was the same as the American Samoa meeting and discussions/follow-up questions were based on the same revised interview guide developed by Roy Morioka and Zach Yamada.

The Guam and CNMI fisher observations meeting was not recorded, but PIFSC staff along with Council staff took detailed notes in the same manner as the American Samoa meeting. Main ideas were categorized topically using the SEEM categories, then into additional sub-categories to provide further detail on fisher observations from Guam and CNMI fishers in 2022. Below, their observations of pelagic fisheries are separated and described using the SEEM categories.

3.1.3.1 SOCIAL

In Guam, fishers described around 30 new boats entering the fishery from Saipan. They also detailed the loss of Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs), crowding and thefts at boat ramps, fishers transitioning trolling reels to electric, and customary exchange of fish in the community.

In the CNMI, fishers also reported losing FADs, a marina upgrade, and nearly 30 boats exiting the fishery, that were delivered to Guam. They also described ongoing military exercises that interfered with fishing activity and reduce fishing effort.

3.1.3.2 ECONOMIC

Guam fishers reported that fuel costs remained high and fish prices were down due to excess supply of fish, particularly pelagic species like mahimahi, which made it difficult to get fair market prices.

CNMI fishers reported challenging market conditions, as noted in previous social research in fishing community profiles (Allen and Amesbury 2012; Ayers 2018). Fishers did find markets for their catch or consumed them at home. Fuel costs, normally high in the Marianas, climbed as high as \$7.29/gallon in 2022

3.1.3.3 ECOLOGICAL (BIOLOGICAL AND PHYSICAL/OCEANOGRAPHIC)

A majority of Guam fishers reported good fishing for pelagic species in 2022, both in terms of amount and size of fish for marlin, aku/bonito, and dogtooth tuna. Mahimahi was particularly abundant. Some fishers posited that it could be part of a 5-7 year cycle. In terms of phenology, wahoo showed up later in the year than usual. Guam fishers noted stronger winds and weather, which inhibited fishing trips. They also observed cooler water temperatures and abnormal currents that ran opposite the prevailing direction.

CNMI fishers also reported a strong mahimahi year in 2022 and larger numbers of wahoo. Shark depredation remains an issue around Tinian and Goat island. CNMI fishers also reported rougher

water due to prevailing weather and wind patterns, cooler water temperatures, and stronger currents. One fisher noted a lot of fishing debris in the water around CNMI waters.

3.1.3.4 MANAGEMENT UNCERTAINTY

There were no comments from fishers pertaining to management uncertainty.

3.1.4 INFORMATION FROM THE HAWAII ANNUAL SUMMIT

On February 8, 2023 from 6:30-8:30pm Hawai'i Standard Time, the Council convened a fisher observations meeting with advisory panel members from Hawai'i, along with other members of the fishing community. Hawai'i fishermen Clay Tam and Roy Morioka convened and facilitated the meeting and it was attended by 18 Hawai'i fishers or fisher representatives, including 8 from O'ahu, 5 from Hawai'i Island, and 1 each from Kaua'i and Maui. Council staff, staff from the Hawai'i Division of Aquatic Resources, and 3 PIFSC staff also attended. The focus of the meeting was the same as the American Samoa, and Guam and CNMI meetings. The interview guide, notetaking, and analysis process was also the same. Below, 2022 Hawai'i fisher observations of pelagic fisheries are separated and described using the SEEM categories.

3.1.4.1 SOCIAL

In 2022, customary exchange remained an important social and cultural component of Hawai'i pelagic fisheries. Fishers reported fishing infrastructure challenges such as crowded boat ramps in Hilo, the loss of a charter weigh-in station and tags for billfish in Kailua-Kona, maintenance or replacements needed on Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs), safety issues for fishers unfamiliar with navigation channels in Kawaihae, and conflicts associated with private FADs (PFADs) offshore. The boat ramp crowding and infrastructure needs affected access for pelagic fishing trips, and the FADs and PFADs affected fishing trips targeting pelagic species. Changes in social networks included older fishers exiting the fishery and newer, less experienced fishers replacing them. COVID-19 continued to affect fishing operations, making it difficult to find crew at times and potentially making remote fishing spots more crowded.

3.1.4.2 ECONOMIC

Economic conditions were mixed, with most O'ahu fishers reporting good market conditions for pelagic species like mahimahi, monchong, and ono due to their closer proximity to the United Fishing Agency Auction in Honolulu. Fuel prices were up for most of the year, as were prices for bait, tackle, and ice, with a slight decrease in fuel prices observed late in the year. Fewer tuna imports may have helped secure better market prices for Hawai'i-caught fish.

3.1.4.3 ECOLOGICAL (BIOLOGICAL AND PHYSICAL/OCEANOGRAPHIC)

Fishers reported greater abundance and availability of pelagic species with a few exceptions. One being Hawai'i island fisheries, where aku was more difficult to find and in smaller size classes when located. Hilo trollers also reported a poor season off of their side of the island. Sharks continued to depredate catch during fishing trips. O'ahu fishers reported few issues with currents, but Kona fishers observed a change in currents due to La Niña and/or increases in easterly wind days. The change in current has negatively affected fishing in west Hawai'i. Winds were up and down with extended periods of both strong and light winds.

3.1.4.4 MANAGEMENT UNCERTAINTY

The comments related to management uncertainty dealt with the lack of data collection from unsold fish caught by Kona fishing charters, and the need for Hawai'i fishing communities to share the importance of fishing.

3.2 SOCIOECONOMICS

The socioeconomics section outlines the pertinent economic, social, and community information available for assessing the performance of Fishery Ecosystem Plan (FEP) management measures for the Pelagic Fisheries (WPRFMC 2009d). This section meets the objective “Support Fishing Communities” adopted at the 165th Council meeting; specifically, it identifies the various social and economic groups and their interconnections within the region’s fishing communities. The section begins with an overview of the socioeconomic context for the region, and then provides a summary of relevant general studies and data for each jurisdiction, followed by summaries of relevant studies and data for each specific fishery within the jurisdiction.

In 1996, the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act’s (MSA) National Standard 8 (NS8) specified that conservation and management measures take into account the importance of fishery resources to fishing communities. In doing so, the measures would ensure the community’s sustained participation in fisheries and minimize associated adverse economic impacts provided that these considerations do not compromise local conservation. Unlike other regions of the United States, the settlement of the Western Pacific region was intimately tied to the sea (Figure 120), which is reflected in local culture, customs, and traditions.



Figure 120. Settlement of the Pacific Islands¹

¹ Source: Wikimedia Commons, https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Polynesian_Migration.svg.

Polynesian voyagers relied on the ocean and marine resources on their long voyages in search of new islands, as well as in sustaining established island communities. Today, the population of the region also represents many Asian cultures from Pacific Rim countries, which hold similar significance for many marine resources. Thus, fishing and seafood are integral ways of life in the local community. This is reflected in the amount of seafood eaten in the region in comparison with the rest of the United States, as well as in the language, customs, ceremonies, and community events of the region. Because fishing is such an integral part of the culture, it is difficult to discern commercial from non-commercial fishing, with many trips involving multiple motivations and multiple uses of the catch landed. While economics are an important consideration, fishermen report other motivations (e.g., customary exchange) as being equally important, if not more so. Due to changing economies and westernization, recruitment of younger fishermen has become a concern for the sustainability of fishing and fishing traditions in the region. During the COVID-19 pandemic, the diversification of the fisheries in the region and their ability to adapt to shift from a national and global economy to a local one played a vital role in supporting local food systems, nutrition, food security, and community social cohesion (Kleiber et al. 2022, Smith et al. 2022).

3.2.1 RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS COUNCIL RECOMMENDATIONS

At its 190th meeting held via web conference and in Hagatña, Guam, and Garapan, Saipan, CNMI in March 2022, the Council directed staff to work with the Advisory Panels on restructuring fishermen's observation meetings and reports. PIFSC social scientists continued to assist the AP chairs, participating in organizational sessions, serving as note-takers, and providing synthesis reports.

At its 191st meeting held via web conference and in Honolulu, HI in June 2022, the Council directed staff to continue developing options for fishing regulations in the Papahānaumokuākea Marine Expansion Area. PIFSC social scientists have reviewed noncommercial fishing laws, policies, and regulations, and served as subject matter experts to assist the Council in developing potential alternatives for discussion.

At its 192nd meeting held via web conference and in Honolulu, HI in September 2022, the Council directed staff to develop a process for improving noncommercial data collection. Council members noted the importance of including non-fish species or species of concern. PIFSC social scientists are reviewing noncommercial fishing concepts in policy documents and peer-reviewed literature. This analysis identified core data needs for a more comprehensive understanding of noncommercial fishing as well as potential categories for data collection. PIFSC social scientists are also examining cultural prioritization of marine taxa. Publications on both of these topics are expected in 2023.

Also at its 192nd meeting, regarding the proposal to expand the PRIMNM, the Council requested NMFS assist the territories on a scientific and economic evaluation of the proposal, including unintended consequences to American Samoa fisheries. PIFSC staff have developed an analysis of the economic contributions from commercial fisheries to the American Samoa economy and this report should be published in 2023.

Also at its 192nd meeting, the Council requested PIFSC report on recent information on market prices and trends to better understand underlying market dynamics and targeting in the Hawai'i longline fishery. PIFSC has offered to prepare, upon request, a market snapshot report to present

alongside the midyear and annual Hawai'i Longline Fishery Report at future SSC and Council meetings, as a complement to these recurring reports provided by our Fisheries Reporting and Bycatch Program.

Also at its 192nd meeting, the Council requested PIFSC to work with vessel owners to infer socioeconomic impacts of the LVPA (and the recent exemption of large vessels) and inform trends in fishery participation. In 2021, PIFSC conducted an American Sāmoa small boat fishery cost-earning survey to better understand the economic, social, and cultural characteristics of small boat fishing in American Sāmoa. In total, 37 surveys were completed with respondents from Tutuila (76%) and the Manu'a Islands (24%). In an open ended question, Do you have any suggestions for how American Samoa's fisheries should be managed or topics that you feel need further study, approximately 11% of surveys received expressed concerns that specifically reference the LVPA exemption of large vessels negatively impacting small boat fishery performance, while 14% desired more local government authority over fisheries management. In considering general trends in fishery participation, 22% of respondents felt that fewer people will fish for pelagic species in the coming year. PIFSC expects to publish the results of this survey in 2023, and therefore these results are preliminary at this time.

Also at its 192nd meeting, the Council directed staff to incorporate scenario planning for extreme environmental events into EBFM-related planning. PIFSC, PIRO, and Council staff initiated a contract and began coordinating a training to build scenario planning capacity, which would be held in early 2023.

At its 193rd meeting held via web conference and in Honolulu, HI in December 2022 the Council requested NMFS staff to work with SSC members to evaluate the impacts of large static closed areas in the Pacific Islands Region (including the Marine National Monuments) on target and non-target species, to address the SSC's concerns about a lack of reproducibility of findings by a recent paper published in *Science*, and also evaluate socioeconomic impacts. PIFSC staff conducted further analysis, and found the results presented in the 2022 *Science* paper, "Spillover benefits from the world's largest fully protected MPA" are reproducible following the approach presented in the paper. There are questions as to the suitability of the approach taken, with the main statistical concerns related to the data transformation and the choice of underlying statistical distribution of the data used. The approach assumed an underlying Gaussian distribution and even with the transformation applied in the paper, the distribution of scaled catch rates is not well described by a Gaussian distribution. Assuming an incorrect form of the underlying distribution of the data can bias results. Using the approach taken, the overall effect of the spillover benefit is around 0.75 yellowfin tuna per 1000 hooks close to the Monument, decreasing by 0.25 yellowfin tuna per 1000 hooks per 100 nautical miles away from the monument. The effects are less for bigeye tuna. Further work could be done to understand the effect of the assumed statistical distribution, but is currently not planned.

3.2.2 SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ELEMENTS

3.2.2.1 EQUITY AND ENVIRONMENTAL JUSTICE

NOAA Fisheries equity and environmental justice (EEJ) goals are to 1) Prioritize identification, equitable treatment, and meaningful involvement of underserved communities, 2) Provide equitable delivery of services and 3) Prioritize EEJ in our mandated and mission work with demonstrable progress.

NOAA Fisheries commitment to EEJ is particularly relevant to the Pacific Islands Region. While every community is a fishing community in the Pacific Islands Region, there are specific features of these communities that can create barriers to EEJ. While some are shared across the region such as comparatively smaller populations and geographic isolation for NOAA Fisheries headquarters, others are specific to the cultural and political context of each archipelago, territory and commonwealth.

In this first year of adding EEJ to the SAFE report we will report a synthesis of feedback from partners and communities collected in informal listening sessions conducted in 2022.

Going forward we will work to further develop this section to highlight the social and cultural impacts of fisheries science and management, and highlight the EEJ issues specific to pelagic fisheries.

3.2.2.1.1 2022 Listening Sessions

EEJ themes for pelagic fisheries were extracted from feedback in 2022 listening sessions that were relevant to pelagic fisheries.

3.2.2.1.2 Key EEJ themes

- The remote location of the U.S. Pacific territories creates logistical challenges that aren't accounted for in many U.S. standards, many of which impact the territorial pelagic fisheries.
- There is frustration with closure of federal waters to fishing, creating a barrier to local access to pelagic fisheries.

3.2.2.2 AMERICAN SAMOA

3.2.2.2.1 Introduction

As described in Chapter 1, fishing has played a crucial role in American Samoan culture and society since the Samoan archipelago was populated. An overview of American Samoa history, culture, geography, and relationship with the U.S. is described in Section 1.3 of the American Samoa FEP (WPRFMC 2009a). Over the past decade, a number of studies have synthesized more specifics about the role of fishing and marine resources in American Samoa, as well as information about the people who engage in the fisheries or use of fishery resources (Armstrong et al. 2011; Grace-McCaskey 2015; Kleiber and Leong 2018; Levine and Allen 2009; Richmond and Levine 2012). These studies describe the importance of marine resources in cultural, economic, and subsistence aspects of Samoan village life. Fishing was held in high esteem in traditional Samoan culture, with proficiency in fishing bringing high social status; fishing activities were featured prominently in Samoan mythology as well. The basic units of Samoan social structure are the family and village, with the family as the central unit. The village leadership would decide, according to season, what sort of community fishing should take place. The tautai, or master fishermen of the village, were key decision makers who were awarded higher status than others when it came to matters of fishing (even those that might otherwise outrank him). Village-level systems of governance and resource tenure are still largely intact, and Samoan cultural systems and representation are formally incorporated into the Territorial Government. Reciprocity is emphasized over individual accumulation. Gifts of food (especially

fish and other marine resources) mark every occasion and help maintain Samoan social structure to this day.

Recent studies have found that American Samoa is ethnically and culturally very homogeneous (Levine et al. 2016; Richmond and Levine 2012). Polynesians account for the vast majority of the territory's people (93%). The primary language spoken at home is Samoan (91%), although English is often spoken in school and business settings. Contemporary American Samoan culture is characterized by a combination of traditional Samoan values and systems of social organization, as well as the strong influence of Christianity. Maintaining *fa'a Samoa*, or "the Samoan way", was considered a priority under the territorial constitution. Given the cultural homogeneity, nearly everyone in American Samoa accepts and complies with Samoan traditions of land and resource tenure.

However, over the last half century or more, fishing has become less prominent as a central and organizing community force. Through this time, modern fishing gears and new technologies were introduced, tuna canneries became a major economic force in Pago Pago, the population more than tripled, and the gradual but continuous introduction of Western cultural norms and practices altered locals' relationship with the sea. While many traditions and village-based systems of governance have been maintained, the islands have experienced a shift from a subsistence-oriented economy, where sharing of fish catch was extremely important, to a cash-based economy, where fishing is often viewed as a more commercial venture.

A recent study by Levine et al. (2016) found that American Samoans still consume seafood frequently, with 78% of respondents stating that they eat fish or seafood at least once a week. Most American Samoans purchase seafood from stores or restaurants, with 65% of survey respondents listing this as their first or second choice for obtaining seafood. Other common means for obtaining fish include markets and roadside vendors (45%) and fish caught by household members (37%). This corroborates Levine and Allen's (2009) observation that American Samoans largely rely on, and in many cases prefer, store-bought food to locally-caught fish, with the majority of fish consumed in American Samoa imported from Samoa.

The introduction of outboard engines and other technology in the 1950s and 1960s allowed American Samoan boats to go farther and faster, but also made it necessary for boat owners and operators to sell a portion of their catch to pay for fuel and engine maintenance. The disruption of other traditional values, as well as the introduction of a cash economy based primarily on government jobs and cannery employment, also decreased reliance on traditional, subsistence fishing and allowed commercial fishing to develop on the islands (Levine and Allen, 2009).

Unlike other areas within the Western Pacific region, American Samoa also experienced the development of domestic industrial-scale fisheries, including tuna processing, transshipment, and home port industries. This is due to the excellent harbor at Pago Pago, 390,000 km² of surrounding exclusive economic zone (EEZ), and certain special provisions of U.S. law that allowed the development of the fish processing industry. For example, the territory is exempt from the Nicholson Act, which prohibits foreign ships from landing their catches in U.S. ports, and American Samoan products with less than 50 percent market value from foreign sources enter the U.S. duty free.

The two most important economic sectors are the American Samoa Government (ASG), which receives income and capital subsidies from the Federal Government and tuna canning. According to the last published Statistical Yearbook (American Samoa Government 2022), main imports

include fish brought in for processing. Exports are primarily canned tuna and associated products. In 2019, domestic exports from American Samoa amounted to \$353,215,000, of which \$351,470,000 (over 99%) was from canned tuna (American Samoa Government 2022). Private businesses and commerce comprise a third sector. Unlike some of its South Pacific neighbors, American Samoa has never had a robust tourist industry.

In 2020, the ASG employed 6,614 people (40% of total employment; American Samoa Government 2022), and the private sector employed 7,424 people (Figure 121). Supporting data for Figure 121 are provided in Table A-111. The canneries employed 2,361 people, which is 14% of the total people employed in the territory. Ancillary businesses involved in re-provisioning the fishing fleet generate a significant number of jobs and income for local residents.

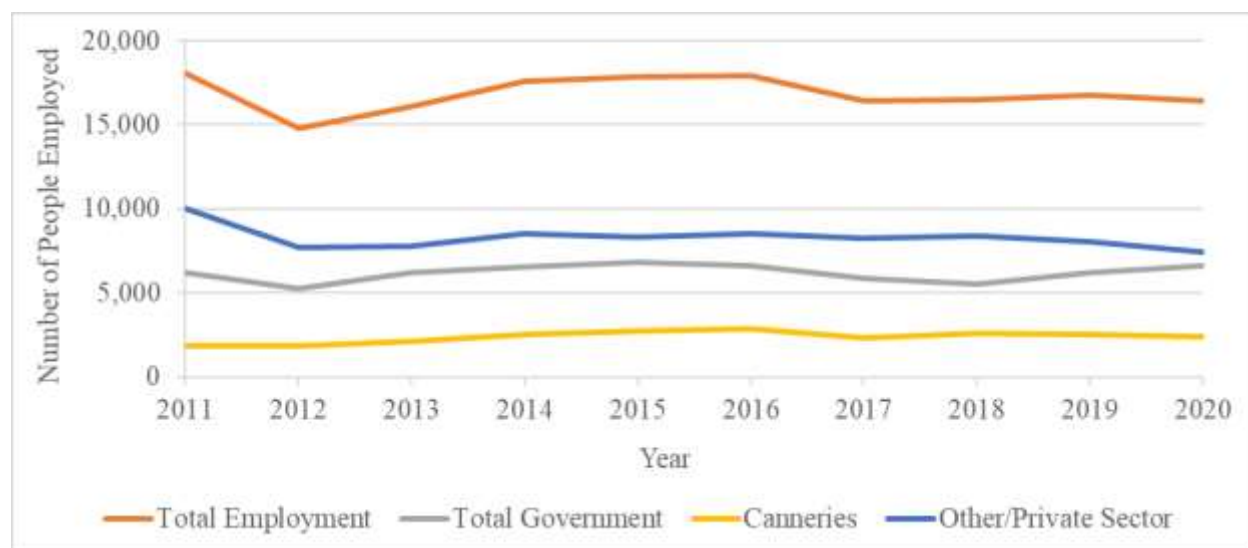


Figure 121. American Samoa Employment Estimates from 2011-2020¹

¹Source: American Samoa Government (2022).

The canneries have been operating since 1954, represent the largest private-sector source of employment in the region, and, until recently, were the principal industry in the territory. Although as many as 90% of cannery workers are not American Samoa citizens, the canneries play a large role in the American Samoa economy (e.g., via delivery of goods or services to tuna processors and expenditures and buying patterns of cannery workers). Trends in world trade, specifically reductions in tariffs, have been reducing the competitive advantage of American Samoa's duty-free access to the U.S. canned tuna market, and the viability of the canneries has been uncertain for nearly a decade. In 2009, the Chicken of the Sea cannery closed, resulting in a loss of approximately 2,000 jobs. It was bought by Tri Marine International, which invested \$70 million in rebuilding and expansion before reopening in 2015. In October 2016, Starkist Co. suspended operations due to lack of fish, partly because of the Effort Limit Area for Purse Seine (ELAPS) closures (Pacific Islands Report 2016). That same month, Tri Marine International announced that it would suspend production indefinitely in December 2016 (Honolulu Star Advertiser 2016). There are currently no plans to reopen (Pacific Islands Report 2017). Starkist Samoa is currently the only cannery operating in American Samoa and is the largest private employer with about 2,000 workers.

Even before Tri Marine International's closure, American Samoa's economy was identified as being in a highly transitional state that should be monitored closely (McCaskey 2015). It will be important to monitor any changes and developments related to the tuna industry, given the historically close connection between the tuna canneries, employment levels, population trends, and the economic welfare of the territory. It is also possible that increased federal aid in recent years has masked the full extent of the economic recession.

Members of the American Samoa fishing community had also expressed concerns about the impact of National Marine Sanctuary of American Samoa (NMSAS) expansion in 2012 and management of the Rose Atoll Marine National Monument, which was established in 2009. In both of these cases, the local communities have been concerned about the impacts on fishing practices as well as broader social and cultural issues, such as traditional marine tenure and the ability of villages to manage their own resources.

In 2017, understanding the relationship of pelagic fisheries with cultural fishing practices took on a greater focus. During the peak of longline landings in 2002, NMFS created a Large Vessel Prohibited Area (LVPA) to prevent gear conflicts and catch competition between large and small vessels, as well as to preserve opportunities for fishing by American Samoa's small boat ("alia") fleet (NOAA 2017). Since 2002, both large and small vessels have experienced declining catch rates, fish prices, and increasing fuel and operating costs. In 2016, NMFS published an exemption to the LVPA rule to allow large U.S. vessels holding a federal American Samoa longline limited entry permit to fish in portions of the LVPA (NOAA 2016). NMFS and the Council were then sued by the American Samoa Government, who claimed that the 1900 and 1904 Deeds of Cession were not considered in the rulemaking process. The U.S. District Court ruled in favor of American Samoa in March 2017, requiring NMFS to preserve American Samoan cultural fishing practices as part of their obligations to the Deeds of Cession. A study examining dimensions of cultural fishing for the small and large longline fleets found that these fisheries play an important role in maintaining cultural practices, primarily through sharing of catch (Kleiber and Leong 2018). The Council took action to provide a four-year exemption for vessels permitted under the American Samoa Longline Limited Entry permit, which reduced the area closed to large vessels from 25.5 to 11.5%. In September 2020 the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the District Court decision in favor of NMFS. In February 2021, the ASG appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, but the writ of certiorari was denied June 21, 2021. NMFS published the original 2016 LVPA exemption as a final rule, effective July 6, 2021.

3.2.2.2.2 People Who Fish

Few studies have been conducted that include demographics or other information about people who fish in American Samoa. Information at the fishery level will be reported in the fishery specific sections below. Qualitative research has resulted in some general observations about trends in fishing by American Samoans.

One household survey by Levine et al. (2016) found that over half of residents participate in fishing or gathering of marine resources. Approximately 15% reported fishing once a week or more and over 30% of households stated that they engaged in fishing or gathering at least once a month. Commercial fishing is very uncommon in American Samoa, with only 3% of those who fish stated that they frequently did so to sell their catch and 62% never selling their catch. More commonly, people fish to feed themselves and their family or to give to extended friends, family, pastors, and village leaders.

While fishing and marine resources are universally considered to be important aspects of *fa'a Samoa*, limited income has made American Samoans less inclined to engage in strenuous fishing activities when food imports are relatively more available (Levine and Allen 2009). Only a small number of American Samoans engage in boat-based or commercial fishing. Although unemployment in the territory has increased, the percentage of individuals participating in subsistence activities (including fishing for food or home use) decreased between 2000 and 2013 (Grace McCaskey 2015). However, a large number of island residents have been employed by the canneries in Pago Pago, which facilitated the availability of low-cost fish for many residents and ensured that the livelihood of American Samoans is still tightly tied to fishing activities.

As described in the FEP, American Samoans have been discouraged from working on foreign longline vessels delivering tuna to the canneries for a number of reasons, including harsh working conditions, low wages, and long fishing trips. While American Samoans prefer employment on the U.S. purse seine vessels, the capital-intensive nature of purse seine operations limits the number of job opportunities for locals in that sector.

Local fishermen have indicated an interest in participating in the more lucrative overseas markets for fresh fish. However, they are limited by inadequate shore-side ice and cold storage facilities, as well as infrequent and expensive air transportation.

As noted by Levine and Allen (2009), the trend of decreasing reliance on local fish as a food source is reflective of a society that has been undergoing a shift from a subsistence-oriented economy to a cash economy. Changes such as a decrease in leisure time, a shift in dietary preferences towards store-bought foods, a preference to buy fish at the market rather than expend effort in fishing, and an increased availability of inexpensive imported reef fish from Western Samoa and Tonga are also likely contributing to decreasing rates of subsistence fishing in the region (Richmond and Levine 2012).

3.2.2.2.3 American Samoa Longline

The American Samoa longline fishery only includes landings in American Samoa by American Samoa longline permitted vessels, it does not include the bigeye landings in Hawaii by the dual (Hawaii and American Samoa) permitted vessels. The American Samoa longline fishery is a limited entry fishery with a maximum of 60 permits. Under the limited access program, NMFS issued a total of 60 initial longline limited entry permits starting from 2005 to qualified candidates. The American Samoa longline limited entry permit is required for anyone using longline gear to fish for pelagic species within the EEZ around American Samoa or anyone landing or transshipping pelagic species in American Samoa that were caught within the EEZ around American Samoa. The total active permits (vessels) fishing in the South Pacific Ocean and landed in American Samoa in 2016 was 20. The American Samoa longline permit may be used to fish and land catch with longline gear in the EEZ around Guam, the CNMI, and the Pacific Remote Island Area (PRIA). It may not, however, be used to fish with longline gear in the Hawaii EEZ.

The American Samoa longline fishery faces many challenges in recent years. A cost-earnings study conducted in 2009 had already indicated a thin profit margin and significant economic challenges encountered by the longline fleet (Arita and Pan 2013). Pan (2015) also observed that at the end of 2013, the majority of the vessels in the American Samoa fleet were tied up at dock, and 18 vessels posted “For Sale” signs. They noted that the collapse of the fishery seemed inevitable due to the poor economic performance resulting from the continuous decline in catch

per unit effort, increases in fuel prices, and a sharp drop in albacore prices in 2013. The small-scale alia fleet has been greatly reduced in recent years.

3.2.2.2.4 American Samoa Trolling

According to Levine and Allen (2009), until 1995, boat-based fishing in was primarily trolling and bottomfish handlining, with the pelagic fishery in American Samoa being largely troll-based. In 1996, the majority of trolling fishermen converted their alias to longlining, especially larger commercial trollers, although some continued to troll occasionally. Consequently, the alia fishery has experienced a decline in its catch and effort. In 1996, seven of the 35 trolling vessels rarely sold catch; their captains primarily fished for recreation on weekends, holidays, or competed in fishing tournaments. By 2001, longlining became the dominant fishing method in American Samoa and the number of trolling boats, and their total catch dropped dramatically. Nevertheless, alia longlining has dropped dramatically since then. The landings and revenue by alia longline are not included in this section but are included in the American Samoa longline section.

3.2.2.3 CNMI

3.2.2.3.1 Introduction

An overview of CNMI history, culture, geography, and relationship with the U.S. is described in Section 1.3 of the FEP for the Mariana Archipelago (WPRFMC 2009c). The CNMI is situated at the northern end of the archipelago. Over the past decade, a number of studies have synthesized more specifics about the role of fishing and marine resources across CNMI, as well as information about the people who engage in the fisheries or use fishery resources.

The ancestors of the indigenous Chamorros first arrived in the Mariana Archipelago around 3,500 years ago and relied on seafood as their principal source of protein (see Chapter 1, Allen and Amesbury 2012; Grace McCaskey 2014). Similar to other archipelagos in the Western Pacific, fish and marine resources have played a central role in shaping the social, cultural, and economic fabric of CNMI that continues today. They fished for both reef and pelagic species, collected mollusks and other invertebrates, and caught sea turtles. The occupation of CNMI by foreign nations dramatically changed the island's ecosystems, reshaped communities, and disrupted fishing traditions. In the 17th and 18th centuries, Spanish colonizers destroyed the Chamorros' seagoing canoes, suppressed offshore fishing practices, and relocated populations from their traditional home. CNMI was briefly occupied by Germany from 1899 to the beginning of World War 2. During World War 2, CNMI was occupied by the Japanese military, and then was captured by the United States. Throughout this time, fishing remained an important activity. Later immigrants to the islands from East and Southeast Asia also possessed a strong fishing tradition. Today, only Saipan, Rota, and Tinian are permanently inhabited, with 90% of the population on the island of Saipan. Although the CNMI has transitioned to a tourism-based economy, fishing still plays an important cultural role and serves as a reliable source of local food (Ayers 2018).

3.2.2.3.2 People Who Fish

Allen and Amesbury (2012) summarized results of studies that demonstrated the sociocultural importance of fishing to Saipan residents. In a 2005 study, most of the active or commercial fishermen who responded to the survey had fished more than 10 years. They most often participated in snorkel spear fishing at night (participated in by 73% of the fishermen) and snorkel spear fishing during daytime (58% of the fishermen), followed by hook-and-line less

than 100 ft. deep (36%), trolling (21%) cast net (talaya; 14%) hook-and-line more than 100 ft. deep (9%), trapping (octopus, crabs, etc.; 19%), foraging the reef (8%); 18% said they participated in one or more other techniques. Less than a third (30%) said they owned a boat. Their primary reasons for fishing were social and cultural, including that they just really like fishing (32%), they need the fish to feed their family (23%), giving catch to family and friends strengthened social bonds (13%), their family has always fished (12%), and it strengthens bonds with their children/family (6%). Only 4% said they needed the money from the fish they sold. Other motivations included strengthening the bond with their fellow fishermen, fishing to catch fish for fiestas/parties, and seasonal fishing for manahak, ti'ao, and i'e (2% each).

The fishermen reported fishing an average of 71 days a year, with 26% going once every 2 to 3 days and 24% fishing once every 2 weeks. They also reported a decrease in their amount of fishing over time, fishing an average of 93 days a year 10 years ago. Saipan reef fish were the most frequently caught species (caught by 54% of the fishermen), followed by shallow-water bottomfish (23%) and reef invertebrates such as octopus, shellfish, and crabs (14%).

As in other parts of the region, much of their catch was consumed by themselves and immediate family (70%), with another 20% consumed by extended family and friends. Only 8% of the catch was sold. Only 18 respondents identified themselves as commercial fishermen. They reported a median monthly income of ~\$200 from fishing, with an average of just over \$1,000 per month. Costs exceeded sales for almost every income category of fishermen, suggesting that for most fishing is not a profitable business and that they sell their catch to recover some of the costs.

While fish remains an important part of the local diet and an integral part of the people's history and culture, adaptation to and integration with a more westernized lifestyle appears to have changed people's diets on Saipan. Nearly half (45%) of the survey respondents reported eating "somewhat less fish" than they did 10 years ago, although the majority still ate fish between 1 and 3 times a week. The majority also purchased their fish from a store or restaurant (40%) while 31% purchase fish from roadside vendors. Less common was acquiring fish from an extended relative/friend (13%) or their own catch (11%). Most of the fish consumed came from the U.S. mainland (41%), while the next most important source was from inside Saipan's reef (31%), deep water or pelagic fish caught off Saipan (23%) or imported from other Pacific islands such as Chuuk (10%).

Few other surveys have been conducted on fishing in general in CNMI. A household survey conducted in 2012 found that 37% of respondents said they or someone else in their household was a fisherman (Kotowicz and Allen 2015). Respondents from fishing households tended to be younger, have lower education levels, and have a higher rate of unemployment than respondents from non-fishing households.

The designation of the Marianas Trench Marine National Monument ("the Monument") in 2009 has resulted in concerns about loss of fishing access (Richmond and Kotowicz 2015; Kotowicz and Richmond 2013; Kotowicz and Allen 2015; and Kotowicz et al. 2017). Despite long distance, high cost, and inconvenience, travel to the areas now protected by the Monument were rare but culturally significant events, and fishing was an essential component. While CNMI residents generally supported designation of the monument, awareness was low (Kotowicz et al. 2017). In addition, fishing households showed higher awareness of the Monument but were less likely to strongly support it.

3.2.2.3.3 CNMI Trolling

While proportionally few residents own a boat, more than 400 vessels were registered in the CNMI small boat fleet between 2010 and 2011 (Allen and Amesbury 2012). More than 200 of the vessels were active and operating in CNMI waters, and more than 100 of the vessels were involved in fishing activities. However, estimates of active vessels have declined in recent years. The active small boat fleet targets tunas, other small pelagics (through trolling), and bottomfish, although with the increases in the price of gas, pelagic fishing has dropped off somewhat. The fish are marketed locally, given away to family and friends, or used for ceremonial purposes such as parties, culturally significant fiestas, and each village's patron saint's day.

On Saipan, fisheries managers estimated the active small boat fleet at approximately 100 vessels in 2010 and 2011, but it is likely that active vessels have declined in recent years. Full-time commercial fishing is primarily conducted by ethnic nonindigenous minorities, namely Filipino residents (who fish primarily as independent owners and/or operators) and recent immigrants from the Federated States of Micronesia (who are primarily employed for wages). Chamorro and Carolinians, in contrast, primarily fish for recreational and subsistence purposes, selling catch to recoup costs. A few vessel owner operators are considered "Pescadores", a term used to refer to fishermen who provide fish for important community and familial events. Pescadores customarily provide 100-200 lb of reef fish for cooked dishes and pelagic species for kelaguen (i.e., a raw fish dish) for community and family celebrations. The system of seafood distribution underwent significant changes from approximately 2000-2010 with the establishment of large seafood vendors. In contrast to individual fishermen/vendors who only market their own catch, large vendors typically own and operate a number of vessels and purchase catch from independent fishermen to sell, which is reportedly depressing prices. In addition, increases in fuel prices, low market prices for fish, and downturns in the domestic economy have led to a general decline in participation in this fishery since 2000, with respect to numbers of fishermen, trips, landings, and seafood purchasers. The Saipan Fishermen's Association (SFA) is a nonprofit organization established in 1985 that holds annual fishing derbies and participated in community involvement projects, such as beach cleanup.

On Tinian, estimates of fleet size range from 15 to 20 vessels in 2010 and 2011. An estimated 1 to 3 fishermen fished consistently with the primary intent of selling fish. Respondents suggested that fishing and eating of fish was more habitual, rather than geared toward a particular event. Increasing fuel prices have reportedly led to the decline in number of active fishermen, and fishermen frequently sell fish to cover fuel costs. Three restaurants and two stores in Tinian purchase fish, although fishermen also sell house to house and commonly have an established clientele. A few charter boats serve tourist clientele; however, they do not land much catch and even trolling trips serve more as photo opportunities. Charter boats are reportedly owned by nonlocal residents and target tourists from their country of origin (Japan, China, or Korea).

On Rota, fishermen target pelagic species when in season, and fish for bottomfish the rest of the year. Like on the other islands, the number and activity of fishermen have declined as a result of increased fuel prices. Family members will often make requests for certain kinds of fish, but they will also contribute money to purchase fuel for a fishing trip. In addition, fishermen will often check demand with local restaurants, based on fuel prices. In 2010-2011, fishermen sold catch to three restaurants, or to neighbors and friends within the community (door to door or from a cooler on the roadside). One general store sold fish caught by a family member, who fishes

specifically to sell. Rota holds one fishing derby in celebration of San Francisco, the saint of their island.

A survey of the small boat fleet was also conducted in 2011 (Hospital and Beavers 2014). On average, respondents were 41 years old and had been boat fishing for an average of 15 years, providing evidence of a deep tradition of boat fishing in the CNMI. They were more likely to identify themselves as Chamorro relative to the general population of the CNMI, although they were equally likely to have been born in the CNMI. In general, small boat fishermen were more educated than the general population and of comparable affluence. Pelagic trolling as the most popular gear type, followed by deep water bottomfish fishing, shallow-water bottomfish, and spear fishing. Most (71%) fishermen reported fishing at a Fish Aggregating Device (FAD) during the past 12 months, and on nearly 22% of their fishing trips. A high degree of seasonal fishing effort was reported across most subgroups of the fleet, although fishermen on Tinian and Rota were more likely to fish year-round.

Hospital and Beavers (2014) found that a majority of fishermen (74%) reported selling at least a portion of their catch in the past 12 months. However, less than half (43%) of survey respondents indicated that they could always sell all the fish that they wanted. A significant percentage of fish caught was consumed at home (28%) or given away to relatives, friends, or for cultural events (38%), reflecting the strong family and social connections associated with fishing in the CNMI. Approximately 29% of fish catch was sold, with the remaining catch either released (2%) or exchanged for goods and services (3%). Even fishermen who regularly sell fish still retain approximately 22% of their catch for home consumption and participation in traditional fish-sharing networks and customary exchange. Additionally, 86% of respondents considered the pelagic fish they catch to be an important source of food. These findings validate the importance of fishing in building and maintaining social and community networks, perpetuating fishing traditions, and providing fish to local communities as a source of food security.

Fishing in the CNMI is a social activity; only 3% of fishermen reported to fish alone, while 70% reported that their boat is used without them on occasion. In addition, the majority of fishermen (57%) agreed that as a fisherman, they are respected by the greater community. While nearly a third of respondents were neutral (27%) and some were hesitant to express an opinion or simply did not know (13%), the study found that very few (3%) felt that they were not respected by the community.

Overall, the CNMI small boat fisheries are a complex mix of subsistence, cultural, recreational, and quasi-commercial fishermen whose fishing behaviors provide evidence of the importance of fishing to the people of the CNMI. For nearly all fishery participants, the social and cultural motivations for fishing far outweigh any economic prospects. Nearly all fishermen supplement their income with other jobs and are predominantly subsistence fishermen, selling occasionally to recover trip expenses.

3.2.2.4 GUAM

3.2.2.4.1 Introduction

An overview of Guam's history, culture, geography, and relationship with the U.S. is described in Section 1.3 of the Fishery Ecosystem Plan for the Mariana Archipelago (WPRFMC 2009c). Guam is the largest and southernmost island of the archipelago. It is also the largest and most heavily populated island in Micronesia. Over the past decade, a number of studies have

synthesized more specifics about the role of fishing and marine resources across Guam, as well as information about the people who engage in the fisheries or use fishery resources.

The ancestors of the indigenous Chamorros first arrived in the Marianas around 3,500 years ago and were expert fishermen and seafarers, relying on seafood as their principal source of protein (Allen and Bartram 2008; Grace-McCaskey 2014; Hospital and Beavers 2012). They fished on the high seas in large sailing canoes (proas) and used numerous methods to catch reef and bottomfish from boats. Similar to other archipelagos in the Western Pacific, fish and marine resources have played a central role in shaping the social, cultural, and economic fabric of Guam that continues today. Chamorros fished for both reef and pelagic species, collected mollusks and other invertebrates, and caught sea turtles.

The occupation of Guam by foreign nations dramatically changed the island's ecosystems, reshaped communities, and disrupted fishing traditions. In the 17th and 18th centuries, Spanish colonizers destroyed the Chamorros' seagoing canoes, suppressed offshore fishing practices, and relocated populations from their traditional home. Following the Spanish-American War in 1898, the U.S. Navy took control of Guam, until it was occupied by Japan from 1941 to 1944. Guam became a U.S. territory in 1950, and the U.S. military is currently in the process of building up an even greater presence on the island. Throughout this time, fishing has remained an important activity, although by the beginning of the American period in 1898, the indigenous inhabitants had lost many of their seafaring and fishing skills and even the native names of many of the offshore species. Later immigrants to the islands from East and Southeast Asia also possessed a strong fishing tradition. In 2000, for Guam's population that identified as a single ethnicity 37% were Chamorro, followed by 32% Asian (about 80% of whom were Filipino), 17% other Pacific Islander, 7% white and 1% black. Despite rapid socioeconomic change, households still reflect the traditional pattern of extended families with multigenerational clustering of relatives, especially in Guam's southern villages. Social occasions such as neighborhood parties, wedding and baptismal parties, wakes and funerals, and especially the village fiestas that follow the religious celebrations of village patron saints all require large quantities of fish and other traditional foods, reflecting the role of fish in maintaining social ties and cultural identities. Sometimes fish are also sold to earn money to buy gifts for friends and relatives on important Catholic religious occasions such as novenas, births and christenings, and other holidays.

Since the late 1970s, Guam's most important commercial fisheries activity has been its role as a major regional fish transshipment center and resupply base for domestic and foreign tuna fishing fleets. Services provided include fueling, provisioning, unloading, air and sea transshipment, net and vessel repairs, crew repatriation, medical care, and warehousing. Among Guam's advantages as a home port are well-developed and highly efficient port facilities in Apra Harbor; an availability of relatively low-cost vessel fuel; a well-established marine supply/repair industry; and recreational amenities for crew shore leave. In addition, the territory is exempt from the Nicholson Act, which prohibits foreign ships from landing their catches in U.S. ports. Initially, the majority of vessels calling in Apra Harbor to discharge frozen tuna for transshipment were Japanese purse seine boats and carrier vessels. In the late 1980s, Guam became an important port for Japanese and Taiwanese longline fleets, but port calls have steadily declined and the transshipment volume has also declined accordingly. By the early 1990s, an air transshipment operation was also established in Guam. Fresh tuna was flown into Guam from the Federated States of Micronesia and elsewhere on air cargo planes and out of Guam to the Japanese market on wide-body passenger planes. Further, vessels from Japan and Taiwan also landed directly into

Guam where their fish was packed and transshipped by air to Japan. A second air transshipment operation began in the mid-1990s; it was transporting to Europe fish that did not meet Japanese sashimi market standards, but this has since ceased operations. Moreover, the entire transshipment industry has contracted markedly with only a few operators still making transshipments to Japan. Annual volumes of tuna transshipped of between 2007 and 2011 averages about 3,400 mt, with a 2012 estimate of 2,222 mt, compared to over 12,000 mt at the peak of operations between 1995 and 2001. As early as 2006, it was noted that the Port of Guam had lost much of its competitive advantage compared to alternative transshipment locations in the western Pacific and elsewhere, a trend that may not be reversible.

Otherwise, commercial fisheries have a relatively minor contribution to Guam's economy; the social and cultural importance of fisheries in Guam dwarfs their commercial value. Nearly all Guam domestic fishermen hold jobs outside the fishery, with fishing typically supplementing family subsistence. High value is placed on sharing one's fish catch with relatives and friends, and this social obligation extends to part-time and full-time commercial fishermen alike. A 2005 survey of Guam households found that nearly one-quarter (24 percent) of the fish consumed was caught by the respondent or an immediate family member, and an additional 14 percent was caught by a friend or extended family member (Allen and Bartram 2008). However, a little more than half (51%) of the fish consumed was purchased at a store or restaurant and 9% was purchased at a flea market or from a roadside stand. The same study found that annual seafood consumption in Guam is estimated to be about 60 lb per capita, with approximately 43% imported from the U.S.

The Westernization of Guam, particularly since World War II, not only resulted in a transition from a subsistence to wage-based economy but also contributed to dramatic changes in eating patterns, including lower seafood consumption. Indeed, recent years have seen steady declines in the market demand for fresh local fish across Guam (Hospital and Beavers 2012). While some families continue to supplement their diet by fishing and farming, no existing communities are completely dependent on local fishing as a source of food. A household survey conducted in 2016 found that only 29% of respondents participate in fishing (NCRMP 2016a).

As recently as the early 1970s, relatively few people in Guam fished offshore, because boats and deep-sea fishing equipment were prohibitively expensive (Allen and Bartram 2008). During the economic boom from the late 1980s through most of the 1990s, Guam developed a small boat fishery that conducts trolling and bottomfish fishing, mostly within 30 miles of shore.

The Guam Fishermen's Cooperative Association (GFCA) plays an important role in preserving important fishing traditions. It began operations in 1976 and was incorporated in 1977. In 2006, its membership included 164 full-time and part-time fishermen from every district in Guam, and it processed and marketed approximately 80% of the local commercial catch. In addition, it plays a role in fisheries data collection, marine education and training, and fisheries conservation and management. The GFCA strives to provide benefits not just to fishermen but to residents throughout Guam, benefitting the broader Guam community. It utilizes a Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) system to ensure safe seafood, and tests fish for potential toxins or whenever requested by the Guam Department of Health and Sanitation. It has also become a focal point for community activities such as the Guam Marianas International Fishing Derby, cooking competitions, the Guam Fishermen's Festival, dissemination of educational materials on marine resources, vessel safety and seafood preparation, public meetings on resource management issues, and communications via radio base to relay information and coordinate

rescues. It also has adopted a policy of purchasing local origin products that benefits 40 small businesses in Guam, regularly donates seafood for village functions and charitable activities, and provides assistance to victims of periodic typhoons with emergency supplies of ice and fuel. In addition, the GFCA has become a voice for Guam fishermen in the policy arena to ensure that concerns of fishermen are incorporated into issues such as the military buildup.

Fishing in Guam continues to be important not only in contributing to the subsistence needs of the Chamorro and other residents but in preserving their histories and identities. Knowledge of how fish are distributed and consumed locally is crucial to understanding the social and cultural significance of fishing in Guam.

3.2.2.4.2 People Who Fish

Few studies have been conducted on fishing in Guam in general. A household survey conducted in 2012 found that 35% of respondents said they or someone else in their household was a fisherman (Kotowicz and Allen 2015). Respondents from fishing households tended to have lower education levels and have a higher rate of unemployment than respondents from non-fishing households.

A few studies have targeted pelagic fishermen or the small boat fleet. While these boats also engage in bottomfish fishing and reef fishing, the primary pelagic fishing method is trolling, thus, results of these studies will be reported in the Guam Troll section.

3.2.2.4.3 Guam Trolling

As noted in Chapter 1, Guam's primary pelagic fishing method is trolling. While the majority of trolling activity is non-commercial, pelagic fish catch from troll fisheries historically account for about 80 percent of the island's boat-based fisheries commercial harvest. In addition, Guam's charter fishing fleet is considered a commercial fleet and trolls for pelagic fish. In 1998, the charter fleet attracted approximately 3% of visitors to Guam and consisted of about 12 core boats.

In 2001, pelagic fishers were interviewed to develop a profile of contemporary demographic and sociological characteristics of Guam's pelagic fishers (for full report see Rubenstein, 2001). Their study was designed to capture a representative sample of the majority of pelagic fishers and included 97 respondents. Of these, all but two were men, and neither of the two women were Pacific Islanders, reflecting the strong cultural values in Micronesia that discourage women from involvement in pelagic fishing. With respect to ethnic distribution of fishers, indigenous Chamorros reflected the general population of Guam (41%). Micronesians were over-represented, forming nearly 18% of the fishing population, but only about 6% of the general population, as were Euro-Americans, comprising 27% of the fishing population but only about 18% of the general population. Asians were under-represented; 7% of the pelagic fishing population was Filipino versus nearly 23% of the general population. Other Asian nationalities accounted for 3% of the pelagic fishing population versus 13% of the general population. Respondents were significantly more affluent than the general population on average, although there was a wide range of variation. Almost three quarters (72%) of respondents either owned or co-owned a boat. While trolling was the most common method of fishing (occurring on 70% of trips), many fishers also reported both trolling and bottomfish fishing on the same trip.

There were three main motivations for fishing. The predominant motivation (65%) emphasized personal enjoyment, and a number of respondents within this category (especially Chamorros

and other Micronesians) emphasized the sense of cultural identity they derive from fishing. A second motivation (18%) was consumption of fish for family subsistence, and the final motivation (16%) was income. However, more than half (51%) identified multiple motivations. In addition, nearly all fishers (96%) reported regularly giving fish to family (36%), friends (13%), or both (47%). Most (53%) said they did not give fish to people other than family and close friends; of those who did occasionally, the main recipients were church fiestas (32%) and other church events or organizations (20%), reflecting Guam's long and well-entrenched Catholic tradition.

More than half of the respondents (58%) reported that they sell portions of their catches, although again with multiple motivations. People who sold fish one to four times per month (53%) were mostly seeking to recover some of the cost of fishing and boat ownership, whereas those who sold fish eight or more times per month (36%) were more likely selling to make a profit. The majority of fishers (69%) earned less than \$500 monthly from fish sales. A number reported that infrequent fish sales subsidize the cost of fishing equipment and boats, a common theme in the Western Pacific region. There were 22% of respondents who earned more than \$1,000 per month, relying heavily on fishing for their income.

In 2011, another survey was conducted of the small boat fleet, which found similar patterns (Hospital and Beavers, 2012). On average, fishermen responding to the survey were 44 years old and reported to have been boat fishing for an average of 20 years. Respondents were also more educated and more affluent than the general population. The majority of respondents described themselves as Chamorro (72%) followed by white (23%) with relatively small proportions of Filipinos (6%), Micronesians (6%), other ethnicities (5%), and Carolinians (1%). While the percentage of Micronesians was lower than in the 2001 study, the researchers noted that efforts to engage Filipinos and Micronesians were less successful than the investigators had hoped. As in the previous study, there was considerable evidence of co-ownership and sharing of fishing vessels. In addition, fishermen reported the use of multiple gear types, with pelagic trolling as the most popular gear type followed by shallow-water bottomfish fishing and deepwater bottomfish fishing. Almost all (96%) fishermen reported fishing at a Fish Aggregating Device (FAD) during the past 12 months, and on nearly half (53%) of their fishing trips. Fishing for bottomfish and reef fish was highly seasonal compared to pelagics; whereas over half of the survey respondents (54%) fished all year for pelagics, only 16% fished year-round for bottomfish and reef fish.

A larger proportion of fishermen reported selling at least a portion of their fish (70%) than in the 2001 study, and 82% of could always sell all the fish that they wanted to sell. However, nearly 30% reported that they had not sold any fish in the past 12 months, and nobody reported selling all the fish they caught. Instead, cost recovery was cited as the primary motivation for the sale of fish, with fish sales contributing very little to personal income for the majority (59%). In fact, 64% of fishermen reporting the sale of fish earned fishing revenues of less than \$1000, which would not cover overall trip expenditures for the year. Sale of pelagic fish contributes to nearly 67% of fishing income, with another 20% from bottomfish revenues, and the rest from reef fish.

While respondents sold approximately 24% of their total catch, 29% was consumed at home, while 42% was given away. The remaining catch was either released (2%) or exchanged for goods and services (3%). This diversity of catch disposition extends to fishermen who regularly sell fish, as they still retain approximately 30% of their catch for home consumption and participation in traditional fish-sharing networks and customary exchange. Additionally, 78% consider the pelagic fish they catch to be an important source of food, 79% for bottomfish, and

85% for reef fish. These findings validate the importance of fishing in terms of building and maintaining social and community networks, perpetuating fishing traditions, and providing food security to local communities.

Like with CNMI, fishing in Guam is a social activity. Only 7% of fishermen reported fishing alone, and 45% reported that their boat is used without them on occasion. In addition, 61% reported to be a member of a fishing club, association, or group. The majority of fishermen (60%) also agreed that as a fisherman, they are respected by the Guam community. Very few felt that they were not respected by the community.

There was also an open-ended portion of the survey that asked for comments. The two most prevalent themes were that of a rising population and rising fuel costs. Many believed that the expanding population would increase the demand for fish and number of fishermen, yet at the same time, others noted that fuel costs and economic considerations could restrict fishing. In addition, there was concern about the designation of Marianas Trench Marine National Monument (the Monument), especially since respondents felt that the Marine Preserve Areas established in 1997 had already displaced them from their traditional fishing grounds. Military exercises also affected fishing trips. Other studies have also documented concerns about fishing access related to the designation of the Monument (see Richmond and Kotowicz 2015; Kotowicz and Richmond 2013; and Kotowicz and Allen 2015). Despite long distance, high cost, and inconvenience, travel to the areas now protected by the Monument were rare but culturally significant events, and fishing was an essential component.

Similar to CNMI, Guam's small boat fisheries are a complex mix of subsistence, cultural, recreational, and quasi-commercial fishermen whose fishing behaviors provide evidence of the importance of fishing to the island of Guam. For nearly all fishery participants, the social and cultural motivations for fishing far outweigh any economic prospects. Nearly all fishermen supplement their income with other jobs and are predominantly subsistence fishermen, selling occasionally to recover trip expenses.

3.2.2.5 HAWAII

3.2.2.5.1 Introduction

The geography and overall history of the Hawaiian Archipelago, including indigenous culture and current demographics and description of fishing communities is described in section 1.3 of the Fishery Ecosystem Plan for the Hawaii Archipelago (WPRFMC 2009b). Over the past decade, a number of studies have synthesized more specifics about the role of fishing and marine resources across the Hawaiian archipelago, as well as information about the people who engaging in the fisheries or use fishery resources.

As described in Chapter 1, a number of studies have outlined the importance of fishing for Hawaiian communities through history (e.g., Geslani et al. 2012; Richmond and Levine 2012). Traditional Native Hawaiian subsistence relied heavily on fishing, trapping shellfish, and collecting seaweed to supplement land-based diets. Native Hawaiians also maintained fishponds, some of which date back thousands of years are still used today. The Native Hawaiian land and marine tenure system, known as ahupua'a-based management, divided the islands into large parcels called moku, which are reflected in modern political boundaries (Census County Districts).

Immigrants from many other countries with high seafood consumption and cultural ties to fishing and the ocean came to work on the plantations around the turn of the 20th Century, establishing in Hawaii large populations of Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Filipinos, and Portuguese, among others. In 1985, the Compact of Free Association also encouraged a large Micronesian population to migrate to Hawaii. According to the 2020 Census, the State of Hawaii's population is almost 1.5 million. Ethnically, it has the highest percentage of Asian Americans (37.2%) and Multiracial Americans (25.3%) and the lowest percentage of White Americans (22.9%) of all states. Approximately 27% of the population identifies as Native Hawaiian or part Native Hawaiian. Tourism from many of these Asian countries also increases the demand for fresh, high-quality seafood, especially sushi, sashimi, and related raw fish products such as poke.

Today, fishing continues to play a central role in the local Hawaiian culture, diet, and economy. In 2012, an estimated 486,000 people were employed in marine-related businesses in Hawaii, with the level of commercial fishing-related employment well above the national average (Richmond et al. 2015). The Fisheries Economics of the United States 2019 report found that the commercial fishing and seafood industry in Hawaii (including the commercial harvest sector, seafood processors and dealers, seafood wholesalers and distributors, importers, and seafood retailers) generated \$786 million in sales impacts and approximately 7,693 full and part-time jobs that year (NMFS 2022). It is estimated that recreational anglers took 3.5 million fishing trips, with \$400 million in sales impacts and 2,911 full- and part-time jobs were generated by recreational fishing activities in the State during 2019. Similarly, the 2011 National Survey of Fishing, Hunting, and Wildlife-Associated Recreation (USFWS 2011) estimated that 157 thousand people over 16 years old participated in saltwater angling in Hawaii in 2011. They fished approximately 1.9 million days, with an average of 12 days per angler. This study estimated that fishing-related expenditures totaled \$203 million, with each angler spending an average of \$651 on trip-related costs. These numbers are not significantly different from those reported on the 2006 and 2001 national surveys. Due to changes in data availability NMFS does not currently report recreational angler participation at the State level.

Seafood consumption in Hawaii is estimated at approximately two to three times higher than the entire U.S., and Hawaii consumes more fresh and frozen finfish while shellfish and processed seafood is consumed more across the entire U.S. (see Geslani et al. 2010 and Davidson et al. 2012 for review). In addition, studies have shown that seafood is eaten frequently, at least once a week by most, and at least once a month by almost all respondents (NCRMP 2016b). Fresh seafood is the most popular type of seafood purchased, and while most is purchased at markets or restaurants, a sizeable amount is reported as caught by friends, neighbors, or extended family (NCRMP 2016b; Davidson et al. 2012).

At the same time, local supply is inadequate in meeting the high seafood demand. In 2010, 75% of all seafood consumed in the State of Hawaii was imported from either the U.S. mainland or foreign markets, and the rise in imported fish has influenced the price of local catch (Arita et al. 2011; Hospital et al. 2011). In addition, rising costs of fuel and other expenses have made it more difficult to recover trip costs (Hospital et al. 2011). A majority of commercial fishermen report selling their fish simply to recover these costs, not necessarily to make income (Hospital et al. 2011). Many describe the importance of sharing fish as a part of maintaining relationships within family or other networks as being more important than earning income from fishing (Calhoun et al. 2020).

Pelagic fish play a large role in seafood consumption, with Hawaii residents regularly consuming substantial amounts of fresh bigeye and yellowfin tuna as ‘ahi poke (bite-sized cubes of seasoned raw tuna) and ‘ahi sashimi (sliced raw tuna). ‘Ahi is also a significant part of cultural celebrations, especially during the holiday period from late November (Thanksgiving) through late January to mid-February (Chinese New Year). Changes in bigeye regulations can have far-reaching effects not only on Hawaii's fishing community but also on the general population (Richmond et al. 2015). While most of the fresh tuna consumed in Hawaii is supplied by the local industry, market observations suggest that imported tuna is becoming more commonplace to meet local demands (Pan 2014). However, on average, only 18% of tuna consumed is imported (Dombrow et al. 2022).

Examination of the seascape of compliance across the US Pacific Island region found, that while the literature highlights the importance of enforcement, local experts emphasized barriers of capacity, governance process, and the lack of data. This suggests that non-instrumental and governance approaches can complement enforcement and should be part of an integrated compliance approach both in the region (Ayers and Leong 2020).

3.2.2.5.2 People Who Fish

Hawaii includes a mix of commercial, non-commercial, and subsistence characteristics across fisheries. Pelagic fish are caught not only by the industrial-scale Hawaii longline fishery, but also by small boat fishermen. The longline fishery will be addressed in the following section. Within the small boat fleet, there is a nearly continuous gradation from the full-time and part-time commercial fleet to the charter and personal recreation fleets. A single boat (and trip) will often utilize multiple gear types and target fish from multiple fisheries. Thus, other than the longline fishery, the other fisheries are typically not studied individually. Rather, studies have typically been conducted based on ability to reach potential respondents. Studies have targeted fishermen via State of Hawaii Commercial Marine Licenses (CMLs; Chan and Pan 2017; Madge et al. 2016), shoreline and boat ramp intercepts (Hospital et al. 2011; Madge et al. 2016), and vessel and angler registries (Madge et al. 2016).

The Hawaii small boat pelagic fleet was studied in 2007-2008 (hereafter, referred to as the 2008 study), following a design last used in 1997 (Hospital et al. 2011). This work was updated in 2014 by Chan and Pan (2017). Both studies found that the small boat pelagic fleet is predominantly owner-operated and a male dominated activity (98% of respondents were male in both studies). The ethnic composition was predominantly Asian (45% in 2008, 41% in 2014) and White (23% in 2008, 26% in 2014), which is similar to the State population as a whole. In 2014, proportionally more Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders responded to the survey than are represented in the general population (18% vs. 10%). In addition, the majority of respondents had a household income above \$50,000 (75% in 2008, 69% in 2014).

These studies also asked respondents to classify themselves based on categories ranging from commercial to non-commercial. In 2014, 7% identified as full-time commercial, 51% identified as part-time commercial, 27% identified as recreational expense where they sold some catch to offset fishing expenses, 11% as purely recreational, 3% as subsistence, and 1% as cultural. Different activities were then compared based on self-classification.

As previously mentioned, the Hawaii small boat pelagic fishery is a mixed-gear fishery. In 2008, 47% of respondents reported using more than one gear type, predominantly trolling (for pelagic fish) and handline (for bottomfish). In 2014, 65% of respondents reported trolling as their most

common gear, while 16% indicated bottomfish handline, and 12% stated pelagic handline was their most commonly used gear. Trolling was more commonly used by recreational fishermen whereas pelagic handline and bottomfish gears were more commonly used by commercial fishermen. The 2014 study also asked about species composition of catch. While 93% of the respondents reporting landing pelagic fish in the past 12 months, about half of respondents also reported they caught and landed bottomfish or reef fish. Only 7% of survey respondents did not catch any pelagic fish in the past 12 months. Thus, the small boat fleet includes not only a mixture of gear types, but also targets both pelagic and insular fish stocks.

Both studies also examined how fishermen self-identified vs. their commercial and non-commercial activities. In both cases, many people who considered themselves recreational, subsistence, or cultural fishers still sold fish. In 2008, 42% of fishermen self-classified as commercial fishermen, yet 60% of respondents reported selling fish in the past 12 months. In addition, just over 30% of fishermen who self-classified as recreational reported selling fish in the past year. Results for the 2014 study are shown in Table 47.

Table 47. Catch disposition by fisherman self-classification, from Chan and Pan (2017)

| | Number of respondents (n) | Caught and released (%) | Given away (%) | Consumed at home (%) | Sold (%) |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|----------|
| All Respondents | 738 | 5.6 | 13.9 | 15.4 | 65.0 |
| By Fisherman Classification... | | | | | |
| Full-time commercial | 55 | 6.2 | 9.4 | 11.6 | 72.8 |
| Part-time commercial | 369 | 5.2 | 12.9 | 14.4 | 67.5 |
| Recreational expense | 200 | 6.7 | 19.8 | 21.7 | 51.8 |
| Purely recreational | 78 | 5.4 | 37.3 | 29.6 | 27.6 |
| Subsistence | 24 | 1.9 | 20.7 | 31.0 | 46.5 |
| Cultural | 8 | 4.0 | 36.8 | 22.5 | 36.7 |

In 2014, the average value of fish sold by all respondents was approximately \$8,500. Full-time commercial fishermen reported the highest value of fish sold (\$35,528 annually and \$558 per trip), part-time commercial fishermen reported \$8,391 annually and \$245 per trip, cultural fishermen \$3,900 annually and \$150 per trip, recreational expenses fishermen \$2,690 annually and \$95 per trip, subsistence fishermen \$1,905 annually and \$79 per trip, and purely recreational fishermen reported selling close to \$1,000 annually (\$58 per trip). While income from fish selling served as an important source of personal income for full-time commercial fishermen, the majority of fishermen reported selling fish to cover trip expenses, not necessarily to make a profit; few fishermen reported substantial, if any, profits from fishing. In the 2008 study, respondents expressed concern about their ability to cover trip costs, noting that trip costs continued to increase from year to year, but fish prices remained relatively flat.

The 2008 study was also the first attempt to quantify the scale of unsold fish that was shared within community networks. Approximately 38% of pelagic fish caught by commercial fishermen was not sold, 97% of survey respondents indicated they participated in fish sharing networks with friends and relatives, and more than 62% considered the fish they catch as an important food source for their family. Community networks were also present in the outlets where fish were sold, which included the United Fishing Agency (UFA) auction in Honolulu, dealers/wholesalers, markets/stores, restaurants, roadside, but also sales to friends, neighbors, and coworkers. The 2014 study also documented 27% of sales to friends, neighbors, or

coworkers and corroborated the importance of giving away fish for all self-classification categories. In addition, 17% of respondents (who all held CMLs) sold no fish in the past 12 months.

Taken together, the results from these studies suggest a disconnect between the disposition of Hawaii fishermen and public perception of their fishing activity relative to current regulatory frameworks. The small boat fleet is extremely heterogeneous with respect to gear type, target species, and catch disposition, while regulations attempt to treat each separately with clear distinctions between commercial and recreational activities. In addition to providing income, the Hawaii small boat fleet serves many vital nonmarket functions, including building social and community networks, perpetuating fishing traditions, and providing fish to local communities.

A survey was also conducted on the attitudes and preferences of Hawaii non-commercial fishers (see Madge et al. 2016). Nearly all survey respondents were male (96%). Their average age was 53, and, on average, they had engaged in non-commercial saltwater fishing in Hawaii for 31 years. The majority had household income equal to or greater than \$60,000, reported high levels of education, and reflected a large racial diversity (primarily various Asian ethnicities and White). They primarily fished via private motorboat (61%), followed by shore, including beach, pier, and bridge (38%). Offshore trolling and whipping/casting, and free-dive spearfishing were the most frequent gears reported as “always” used, and a majority of respondents reported using multiple gears on a single fishing trip.

As with the small boat fleet, even though this study targeted “non-commercial fishermen”, 9% reported that their primary motivation for fishing was to sell some catch to recover trip expenses. However, the primary motivation for the majority (51%) was purely for recreational purposes (only for sport or pleasure). A total of 78% of respondents indicated they “always” or “often” share catch with family and friends, and only 35% indicated they “never” supply fish for community/cultural events. Fishing for home/personal consumption was the most important trip catch outcome (36% rated it “extremely important”), followed by catching enough fish to be able to share with friends and family (20%). Thirty-six percent indicated that their catch was extremely or very important to their regular diet. Thus, similar to the small boat fleet, non-commercial fishermen demonstrate mixed motivations that include commercial activities. They also play an important role in providing fish via social and community networks, even though they report their primary motivation as fishing only for sport or pleasure.

NMFS and the Hawaii DAR have been collecting information on recreational fishing in Hawaii, administered through the Hawaii Marine Recreational Fishing Survey (HMRFS; see Allen and Bartlett 2008; Ma and Ogawa 2016). The program collected data from 1979-1981, but not from 1982-2000, and then began annual data collection again in 2001. A dual survey approach is currently used. A telephone survey of a random sample of households determines how many have done any fishing in the ocean, their mode of fishing, methods used, and effort. The telephone survey component will be discontinued after 2017 due to declining land line coverage. Concurrently, surveyors conduct in-person intercept surveys at boat launch ramps, small boat harbors, and shoreline fishing sites. Fisher county of residence and zip code are regularly collected in the intercept surveys but has not yet been compared to the composition of the general public. As observed in the other surveys, this program documented wide range of gears used to catch a variety of both pelagic and insular fish. The majority of trips from the onsite interviews were from “pure recreational fishermen” (defined as people who do not sell their catch), with an average of almost 60% to over 80% depending on year and island. However, they

also noted that in Hawaii the divisions between commercial, non-commercial, or recreational are not clearly defined, and results suggested that the majority of catch for some categories of fishermen may be consumed by themselves or given away, further reinforcing common themes from other studies.

3.2.2.5.3 Hawaii Longline

The Hawaii longline fishery (HLF) is the dominant commercial fishery in the Hawaiian Islands and is described in detail in Richmond et al. (2015). It operates out of the port of Honolulu, and in 2018 there were 142 active vessels. The majority of longline fish is sold at the Honolulu fish auction, modeled after the Tsukiji auction in Tokyo, where dealers bid on individual fish. Over 40 dealers representing a variety of different market strategies regularly purchase fish at the auction. Many dealers represent locally-owned small businesses. Additional businesses connected to the bigeye fishery include processors, airline and shipping companies, ice distributors, gear stores, restaurants, and retail outlets.

Owners and operators of Hawaii's longline vessels comprise three main ethnic groups: Korean-American (K-A), Vietnamese-American (V-A), and Euro-American (E-A) (Allen and Gough 2007); and the crew is predominantly Filipino (Allen and Gough, 2006). Unlike the broader Asian-American population in Hawaii, most HLF K-A and V-A fishers are first generation immigrants and speak limited English. E-A fishers largely consist of individuals from the mainland U.S. whose native language is English. The fishery is considered well regulated, although there are concerns about growing social and economic impacts from increased competition and regulation. Social network analysis revealed that fishers interacted more within ethnic groups than across ethnic groups. V-A fishers reported the most cross-scale linkages, whereas K-A fishers reported only one tie to an industry leader outside their community (Barnes-Mauthe et al. 2013). This indicates that the interests of K-A fishers may not be adequately represented in the management and policy arena. It also supports previous research that suggests the three ethnic communities should not be assumed to utilize the same fishing practices, exhibit the same attitudes toward fishery management and regulations, or display the same level of trust across groups. According to Kalberg and Pan (2015), The V-A group had the highest number of active vessels in 2012 (n=70), while the E-A had 44 active vessels, and K-A had 15. In addition, on average each vessel had more foreign crew than U.S. crew members.

An economic model documented some of the major changes to the fishery's role in the local economy, based on 2005 data (Arita et al. 2011). These included rising fuel costs, a steady rise in foreign crewmembers, and weakening profits. From 2003-2004, a study was conducted on Filipino crew members in the longline fleet (Allen and Gough 2006). Filipino crew sampled ranged from 21 to 52 years of age in 2003; the average age was 37, and 55% were older than 36. A total of 89% had completed high school, nearly 30% also completed an associate or trade school degree (often focused on maritime studies), an additional 16% completed at least some college coursework, and 5% completed college studies. In many cases, they had received more formal education than the captains or owners for whom they were working in Hawaii. Crew were responsible for an average of five dependents, and all respondents indicated that their households depended heavily on the Hawaii longline industry for income, with 63% relying on the fishery as their sole source of income. Many had an extensive background in commercial fishing, with an average of 11 years of experience. In comparison, only 25% of respondents reported more than 5 years total involvement in seafaring in a 2004 study of overall seafarers. While there are a number of challenges to obtaining foreign laborers for employment on Hawaii longline vessels,

they are often willing to work for less money and earn more money as a crew member than they would in their home country. Crew must reside on the vessel and do not receive a ‘shore pass’ to leave the pier area. However, many developed strong social networks and a number of Hawaii-based Filipinos developed businesses in the pier area to serve crew needs. The average annual income of a Hawaii-longline crew member was well over double the average earned in the Philippines; even the lowest paid crew members earned 62% more than the family average for the Philippines and did not have to pay for food or housing while living on the longline vessel. Nearly 70% reported high or very high levels of job satisfaction while nearly 80% reported a reasonable income and no problem with their workload or living conditions.

In 2010, the bigeye tuna fishery experienced the first extended closure of the western and central Pacific Ocean (WCPO) to U.S. longliners from the State of Hawaii. Richmond et al. (2015) monitored the socioeconomic impacts of this closure to examine how the bigeye fishery community (including fishermen, a large fish auction, dealers, processors, retailers, consumers, and support industries) perceived and were affected by the constraints of the 40-day closure over the holiday season. During the closure period, they found a reduced supply and quality of bigeye landed, an increase in price for high quality fish, and longer distances traveled to fish in rougher waters. These factors resulted in increased stress and in some cases lost revenue for individuals and businesses connected to the fishery. Different stakeholder groups responded differently to the closure, with fish dealers among those most affected. Some dealers chose to purchase high quality tuna despite abnormally high prices and sell at a loss to maintain relationships with their customers. During the closure, U.S. boats could continue to fish for bigeye in the Eastern Pacific Ocean and foreign and dual permitted vessels could still fish in the WCPO, which mitigated some of the impacts to the fishery. U.S. legislation and federal rules that have prevented subsequent closures of the fishery have since been put in place.

Frozen tuna treated with carbon monoxide to enhance color has appeared in Hawaii markets since the late 1990s. It is often labeled as “Tasteless Smoke” and is sold in markets in thawed form, which is similar in appearance to fresh ‘ahi poke. The price of Tasteless Smoke tuna is lower than the price of fresh tuna landed by local vessels. During the closure, imported products were available in retail markets and the price in the retail market stayed consistent, suggesting that local and imported products are substitutes and that imports increase quickly to meet demand when local landings are low (Pan 2014). However, conversation with multiple dealers suggested that only a few dealers increased their reliance on imports during the closure (Richmond et al. 2015).

In the fall of 2016, concerns about the working conditions of foreign crewmembers garnered national media attention. In response, the Hawaii Longline Association commissioned a follow-up study, based on the methodology developed by Allen and Gough (2006), and conducted by one of the same researchers (see Gough 2016). Many of the same crew members were interviewed in both 2006 and 2016 due to high retention in the fleet. The study interviewed crew from 75% of Hawaii longline vessels on crew recruitment and fees, on board conditions and access, pay structure, medical care, document retention on board, and grievance mechanisms. There were no indications of foreign crew employed against their will, nor were there records of respondents who wished to return to their country of origin but were unable to do so; trends reported did not reflect forced labor or human trafficking. While no exploitation was reported, the study also identified potential operational flaws that could result in exploitation of foreign

crew. It also suggested recommendations to improve those systems to reduce industry vulnerability to scrutiny, including safeguards for both crew and vessel owners.

On August 26, 2016, a Presidential proclamation expanded the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument to include the majority of the United States Exclusive Economic Zone surrounding the Hawaiian Islands, which would largely affect the longline fleet. An internal report noted the potential for differential impacts (e.g., based on target species, vessel size, or ethnicity; see PIFSC 2017). For example, the shallow-set fishery appears to have nominally higher share of catch, effort, and revenues from the Northwest Hawaiian Islands, compared to the deep-set fishery. Multiple evaluations of the effects from the Monument expansion were published in 2020 (Chan 2020; Lynham et al. 2020).

3.2.2.5.4 Hawaii Trolling

Trolling was one of the gear types included in the 2014 Small Boat Survey (Chan and Pan 2017). Fisher demographics and catch disposition were summarized in Chapter 2. Most small boat fishermen trolled, with 65% of respondents stating that trolling was their most commonly used gear. Approximately half of their trips occurred in State waters, and half in federal waters. A higher percentage of those who identified troll as their most commonly used gear reported using only a single gear (35%) in comparison to respondents who most commonly used other gear types. However, a larger percentage (45%) reported using two types of gear. Trolling was more commonly used by fishermen who self-identified as recreational, although respondents spanned all response categories (full-time commercial, part-time commercial, recreational expense, purely recreational, subsistence, and cultural). This finding corroborates the observation that the troll fishery has a significant cultural and subsistence role in Hawaii's fishing communities (Markrich and Hawkins 2016).

3.2.2.5.5 Hawaii Pelagic Handline

Pelagic handline was one of the gear types included in the 2014 Small Boat Survey (Chan and Pan 2017). Fisher demographics and catch disposition were summarized in Chapter 2. Only 12% of respondents stated that pelagic handline was their most commonly used gear. A larger percentage of their fishing trips occurred in State waters (62%) vs. federal waters (38%). In comparison to respondents who most commonly used other gear types, those who identified pelagic handline as their most commonly used gear reported the lowest percentage of single gear use (8%). They predominantly reported using two types of gear (49%). Pelagic handline was most commonly used by fishermen who self-identified as commercial, although respondents spanned all response categories (full-time commercial, part-time commercial, recreational expense, purely recreational, subsistence, and cultural). This finding corroborates the observation that the pelagic handline fishery has a significant cultural and subsistence role in Hawaii's fishing communities (Markrich and Hawkins 2016).

3.2.2.5.6 Offshore Handline

Pelagic offshore handline was one of the gear types included in the 2014 Small Boat Survey (Chan and Pan 2017) and fisher demographics and catch disposition on the offshore handline are available in Chan and Pan (2019b).

3.2.2.5.7 Other Gears (including Aku Boat/Pole and Line)

This category represents pelagic species caught by methods or in areas other than those methods of longline, MHI troll and handline, and offshore handline. There is currently no socioeconomics

information specific to this group of fisheries. Aku boat was included in the group. Fishers trolling in areas outside of the MHI (the distant water albacore troll fishery) or PMUS caught close to shore by diving, spearfishing, squidding, or netting inside of the MHI are also included in this category.

3.2.3 ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE OF MAIN COMMERCIAL FISHERIES

3.2.3.1 AMERICAN SAMOA

3.2.3.1.1 American Samoa Longline

3.2.3.1.1.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

The American Samoa longline fishery includes large longline vessels and small longline vessels (i.e., alia boats). Alia longline fishing has experienced declining participation over time, and no alia vessels participated in fishing activities during 2021 or 2022. There was only one active alia vessel longline vessel in 2020. In 2022, all 11 active longline vessels that actively fished in the American Samoa EEZ were large vessels (i.e., 50 feet or larger). The American Samoa longline fishery mainly targets albacore, differing from the Hawaii longline fishery targeting bigeye tuna and swordfish. The American Samoa longline fishery, especially the large vessels, sell most of their catch to the local canneries. The species sold to the local canneries include four tuna species (albacore, yellowfin, bigeye, and skipjack) and one non-tuna species (wahoo).

In 2022, the total fleet revenue (i.e., estimated landed value sold to cannery) was \$2.98 million associated with 3.19 million pounds of landings. Albacore composed over 90% of the total landed value compared to 80% in 2021, and the revenue from the other four target species comprised the remaining 10% of revenue in 2022. The higher proportion of albacore in 2022 revenue was largely due to the high albacore CPUE. Swordfish and some wahoo landings may be sold in non-cannery markets, but no detailed commercial data are available to describe this behavior. Wahoo was one of the five species that canneries accepted, and traditionally, nearly all wahoo harvested by American Samoa longliners are sold to the canneries. In recent years, fishers noted they have sold wahoo more frequently to local markets instead of the canneries because local markets paid a higher price than the canneries for wahoo. However, this section uses cannery price to estimate the total commercial landings of wahoo and assumes all wahoo were sold to canneries because data regarding the proportion and price of wahoo sold to local markets are not available.

Figure 122 presents the trends of commercial landings and revenue (for cannery only) from 2003-2022. Revenue presented here represents only the landings revenue sold to canneries. Supporting data for Figure 122 are provided in Table A-112. In general, American Samoa longline landings and revenue have been declining since 2003. Commercial landings in 2022 increased 13% compared to 2021. Revenue increased 20% in 2022 due to higher albacore price and CPUE.

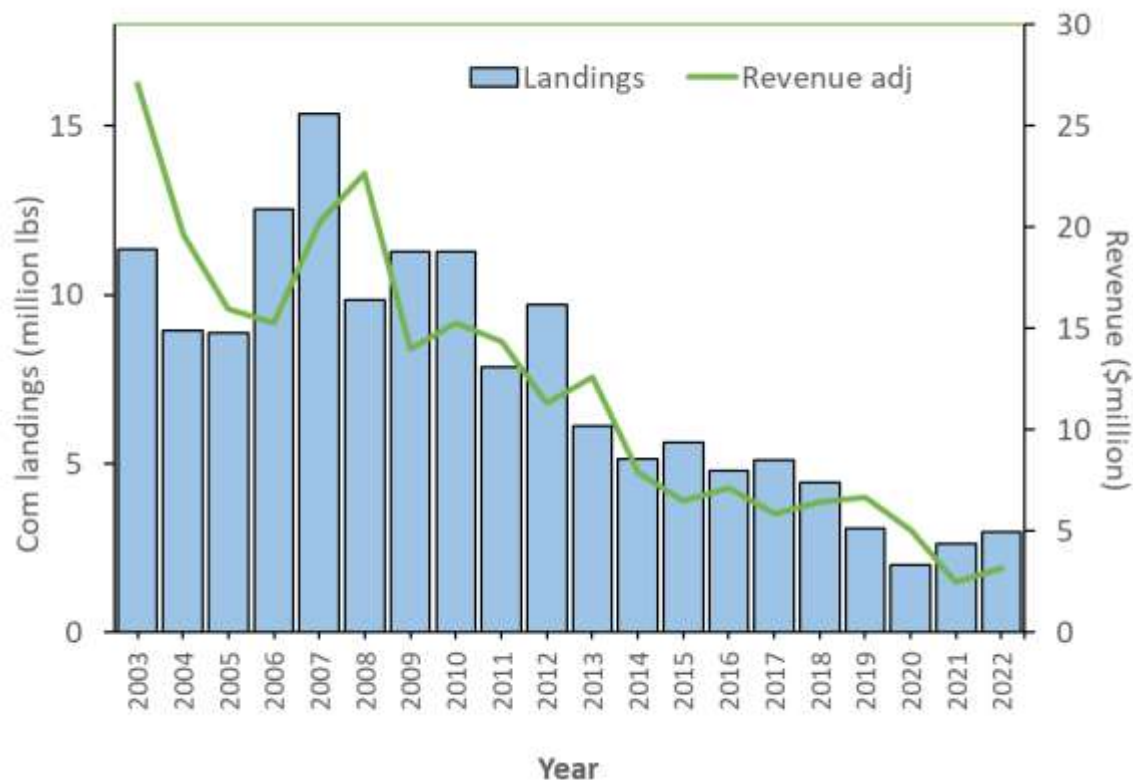


Figure 122. Commercial landings and revenues of the American Samoa longline fishery adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center: Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators). <https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>.

Fish price data for the five main species harvested by American Samoa longline have been collected through annual in-person interviews with owners or agents of the fishery since 2012. Additional information was collected through a collaborative effort between PIFSC and the PIRO Observer Program. The pandemic presented challenges to data collection in 2020 and 2021, as travel restrictions were in place and no in-person interviews with local fishers could be conducted.

Trends in albacore price from 2012 to 2022 are presented in Figure 123. Supporting data for Figure 123 are presented in Table A-113. The albacore price was at its decadal low in 2013, dropping from the second highest decadal value in 2012. The albacore price increased substantially in 2018, because the American Samoa-based US longline fleet secured certification from the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) and the Starkist Co., which led to the higher albacore price (i.e., an additional \$200 per metric ton for vessels that fished exclusively in the U.S. EEZ around American Samoa provided through the MSC program). The nominal average albacore price in 2019 reached a historical high or \$1.61 per pound (whole weight, or \$3,542 per metric ton). However, the adjusted price went down again in 2020 and 2021. The nominal price in 2022 was slightly higher at \$1.50 per pound versus \$1.46 per pound in 2021. Table A-113 also shows the average fish price of all species sold to canneries.

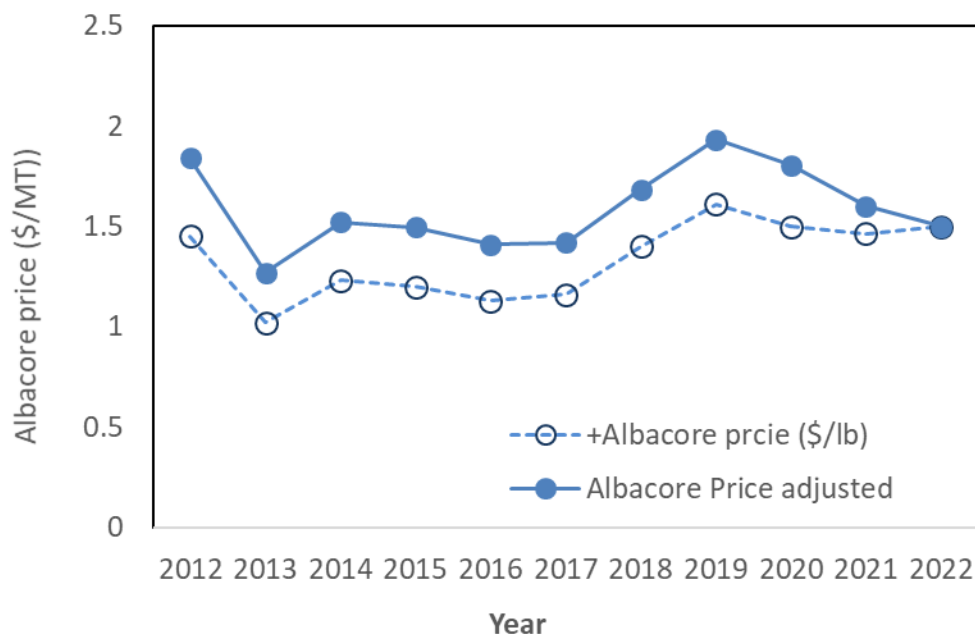


Figure 123. Albacore whole-weight price as reported by American Samoan fishers adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC Continuous Economic Data Collection Program (Pan 2018).

3.2.3.1.1.2 Fishing Costs

The American Samoa longline continuous economic data collection program started in 2006, the same time as PIRO started their observer program in the fishery (Pan 2018 and Pan 2019). Fisher participation in the economic data collection program is voluntary. Similar to the Hawaii longline fisheries continuous economic data collection program, the American Samoa continuous economic data collection obtains information on the fishery via a form requesting data on 10 variable cost items common to American Samoa longline trip expenditures, excluding labor costs. For the main cost items, including diesel fuel, engine oil, and bait, information is collected on unit price, quantity used, and total cost. For other items, such as gear, provisions, and communications, information is collected on total cost only. Often it was difficult for observers to collect trip cost data when vessels were operated by hired captains. In an effort to increase the number of observations for the economic data collection program, PIFSC economists began to supplement observer data by traveling to American Samoa to conduct in-person interviews of owners or agents starting in 2012. The details of the data collection program are described in a NOAA technical memorandum (Pan 2018).

Although cost data from 2020 and 2021 were not available because there were no in-person surveys conducted due to pandemic-related travel restrictions, data were able to be collected during 2023 in-person surveys with fishers. Therefore, cost and net revenue data for the entire data series 2006-2022 are presented without updated information from 2020 and 2021. Data prior to 2006 were not available since trip cost data collection did not begin until 2006. While data on

cost per trip were collected, this section presents the cost per set (i.e., not per trip) to show the change over time because the variation in trip length is considerable over the years.

Figure 124 shows the cost structure for an average longline trip in American Samoa longline in 2022, while Figure 125 presents the trends of costs per set for the period of 2006-2022. Fuel costs usually comprise about 50% of trip costs, but in 2022, the percentage increased to 61%. The share of fuel costs to total trip costs was relatively low in 2016-2017 and 2021 compared to the other years due to lower fuel prices. Thus, the total fishing costs (per set) were also lower for those years. The cost per set in 2022 was a historical high, as shown in Figure 125, due to the high fuel prices in 2022 at \$4.02 per gallon (relative to \$2.27 per gallon in 2021).

The data supporting Figure 125 are presented in Table A-114. Using the average cost per set can be a better index to examine the cost trend across the years, because the average trip length (total trip days) for the American Samoa longline fleet varied substantially over the years.

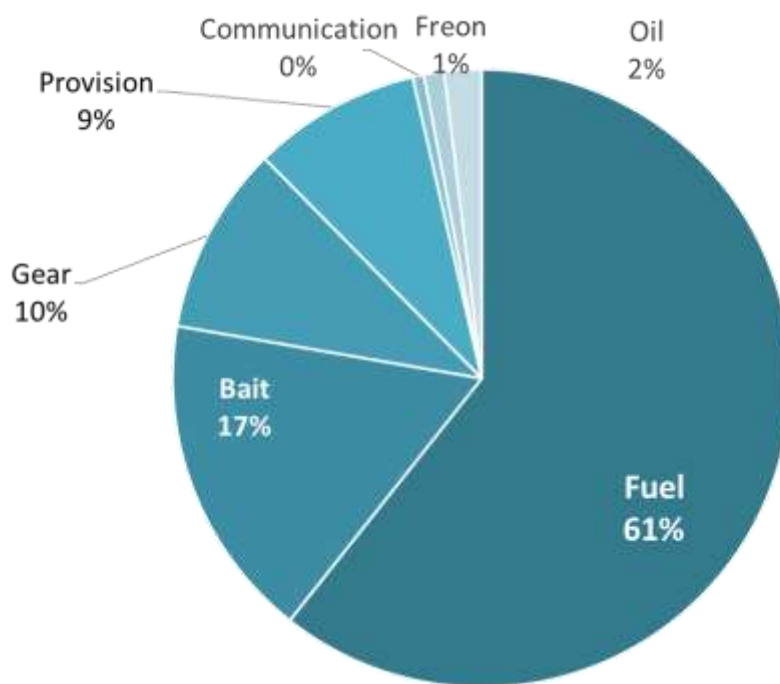


Figure 124. The cost structure for an average American Samoa longline trip in 2022¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC Continuous Economic Data Collection Program (Pan 2018).

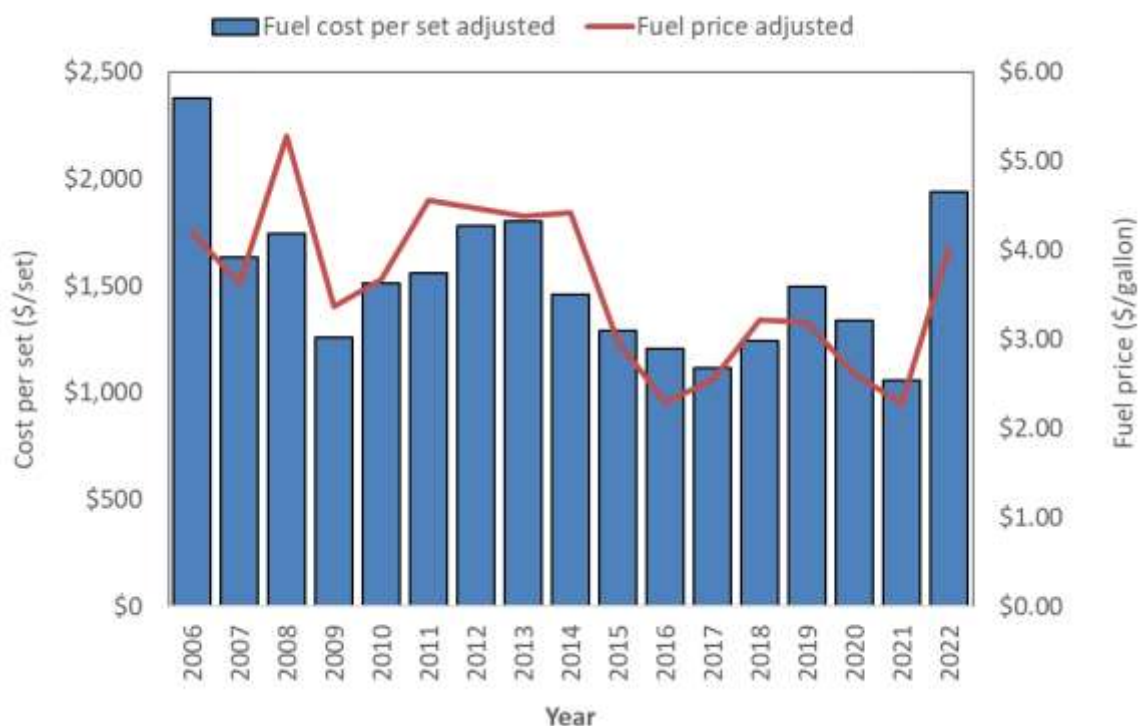


Figure 125. Costs per set¹ for the American Samoa Longline Fishery (not including labor cost and fixed costs) adjusted to 2022 dollars²

¹ Data source: PIFSC Continuous Economic Data Collection Program (Pan 2018).

3.2.3.1.1.3 Economic Performance Indicators

The continuous economic data collection program allows for the monitoring of variation in fishing costs over time. Compiling the revenue with cost and effort data, it is possible to measure the economic performance in terms of net revenue and monitor changes over time.

Figure 126 presents trends in net revenue per set for the period of 2006-2022. The data comprising Figure 126 are provided in Table A-114. Using the average net revenue per set can be a better index to present the revenue and cost trends for comparisons across the years compared to the average net revenue per trip because the average trip length (total trip days) for the American Samoa longline fleet has varied substantially over the years. Figure 126 shows a downward trend in the economic performance (net revenue per set) during 2006-2013 but also a recovery since 2014 and continued improvement through 2019. However, net revenue per set went down again in 2020. The economic performance per set was improved in 2022 due to higher albacore CPUE.

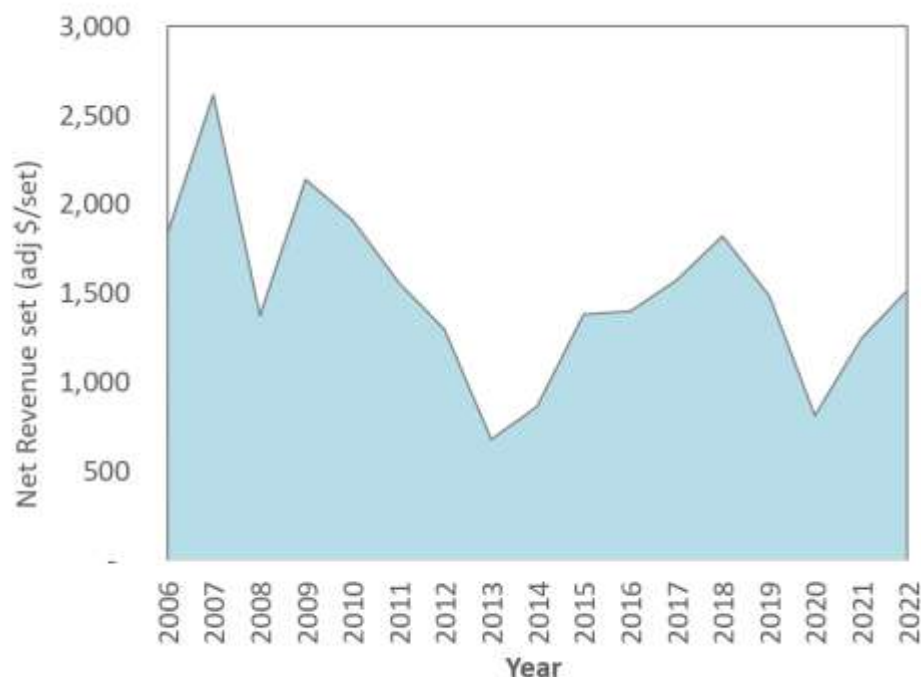


Figure 126. Net revenue per set in the American Samoa longline fishery (adjusted to 2022 dollars)¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

In addition to the measurement of the net revenue, NMFS has established a national set of economic performance indicators to monitor the economic health of the nation's fisheries (Brinson et al. 2015). PIFSC used this framework to evaluate select regional fisheries such as the American Samoa longline, Hawaii longline, and MHI Deep 7 bottomfish fisheries. For the American Samoa longline fishery, this section will present revenue performance metrics of total revenue per day at sea, annual revenue per vessel, and the Gini coefficient.

The Gini coefficient (value 0 to 1) measures the equality of the distribution of revenue among active vessels in the fishery. A value of zero represents a perfectly equal distribution of revenue amongst these vessels, whereas a value of one represents a perfectly unequal distribution, in the case that a single vessel earns all the revenue. Data on aggregate revenue from species in fishery per-day-at-sea and revenue per vessel calculation (for Gini coefficient) are from PIFSC data for the Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators).

Trends in fishery revenue per day are shown Figure 127, while the trends in revenue per vessel and distribution among vessels (i.e., the Gini coefficient) are shown in Figure 128. Revenue data are presented in nominal terms (to be consistent with the national Tier 1 measure). Supporting data for the two charts are provided in Table A-115. The revenue per-fishing-day is relatively steady in nominal value but shows a decreasing trend in adjusted values. The change of revenue-per-vessel across years was greater than per-fishing-day. The revenue per vessel peaked in 2008 but has generally been decreasing since then; it went up in 2018 and 2019 but declined again in 2020 and 2021. The revenue per vessel increased slightly in 2022, reflecting higher CPUE and fish price. The Gini coefficient in 2022 went down in compared to 2021, indicating that the variation of revenue received by individual vessels in the fleet was lower in 2022. The Gini coefficient across years fluctuates, especially compared to the Hawaii longline fleet data.

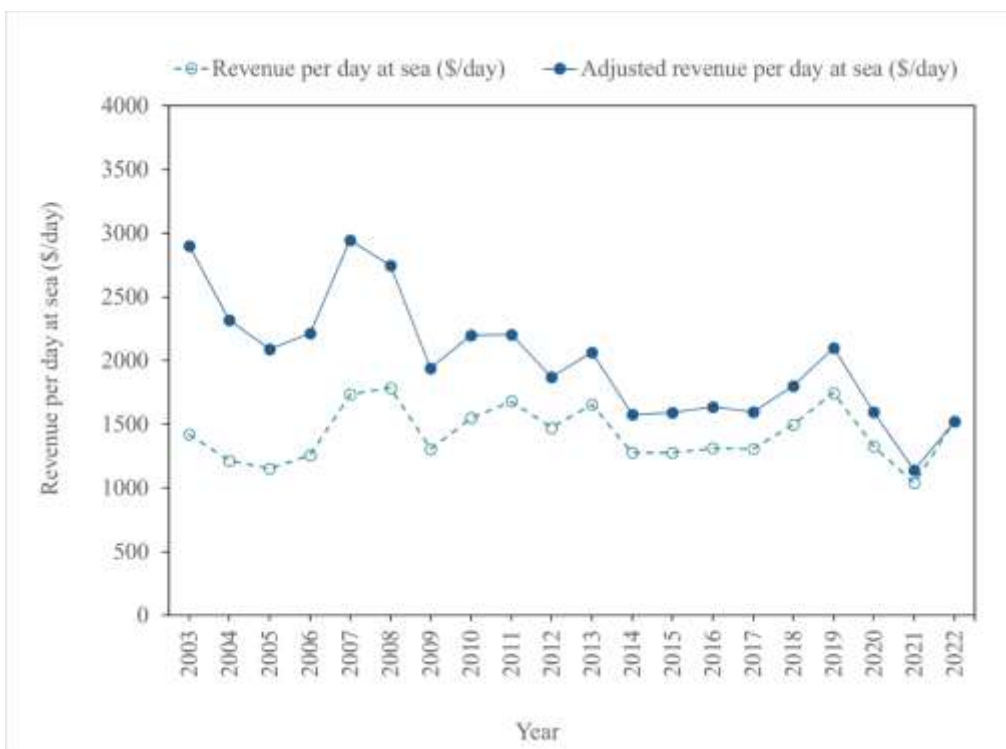


Figure 127. Revenue per-day-at-sea for the American Samoa longline fishery¹

¹ Sourced from PIFSC Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators).

<https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>.

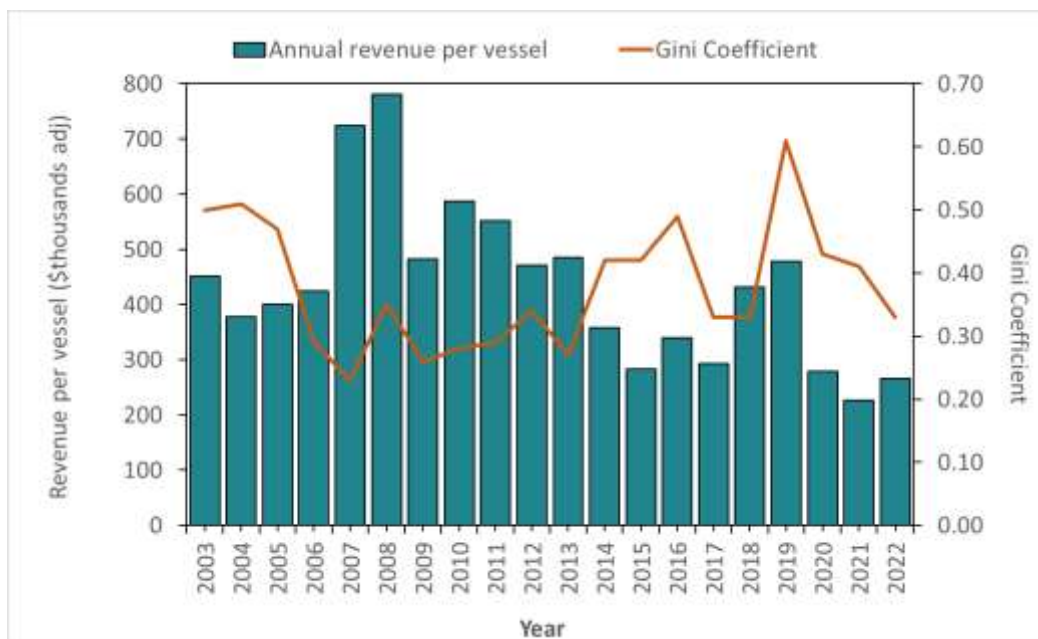


Figure 128. Revenue distribution (revenue per vessel and Gini coefficient) for the American Samoa longline fishery¹

¹ Sourced from PIFSC Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators).

<https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>.

3.2.3.1.2 American Samoa Trolling

3.2.3.1.2.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section describes trends in commercial participation, landings, revenue, and price for the American Samoa troll fishery. The PMUS harvested by alia longliners are not included in this section as alia fishing is classified as longline fishing despite alia vessels being of small size. Figure 129 presents the trends of revenue and pounds sold of the troll fishery for American Samoa for 2003-2022 and Figure 130 presents the price trend of the pelagic price for the PMUS sold by the trollers during 2003-2022. Supporting data for Figure 129 and Figure 130 are presented in Table A-116. There were six years of commercial landings and revenue data during the 20-year period that were confidential and not presented due to fewer than three vendors submitting commercial receipts to the data collection program. In 2020, PMUS pounds sold and revenue by trolling (including trolling from mixed gear trips) were the lowest recorded over the past decade at less than 2,000 lb (valued at \$6,440), down from 13,892 lb in 2019. It was expected that commercial landings and revenue in 2021 and 2022 would be even lower, as total landings of PMUS were lower for these two years. On average, the PMUS commercial landings were 17% of total PMUS landings for the non-longline fishery.

It is worth noting that the data for pounds caught and pounds sold are collected by two different data collection methods. The data for pounds sold were collected through [“Commercial Sales Receipt Books” Program](#) and expanded to 100% based on the dealer reports and ratio of reporting, while the data for pounds caught were collected through [Boat-based and Shore-based creel surveys](#) and expanded to an estimated total. Both data series are generated from an expansion algorithm built on a non-census data collection program, and the survey coverage rates of two data collection methods may change independently across individual years. Therefore, the two time-series may not move coherently with each other. For example, the low percentage of pounds sold compared to pounds caught could be due to the low coverage of dealer participation in the Commercial Receipt Books Program. In addition, the data summary for PMUS in socioeconomic module is based on the PMUS species defined in the [Ecosystem Management Plan](#) and the raw dataset frozen on March 15, 2022.

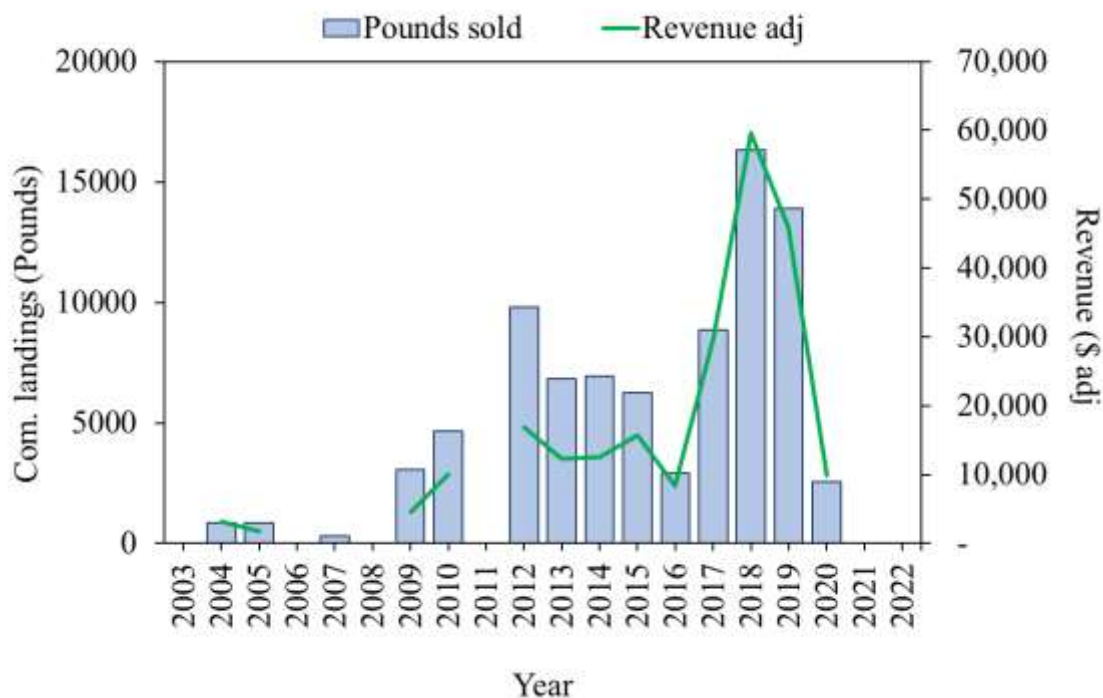


Figure 129. PMUS pounds sold and revenue trend by trolling gear from adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center WPacFIN.

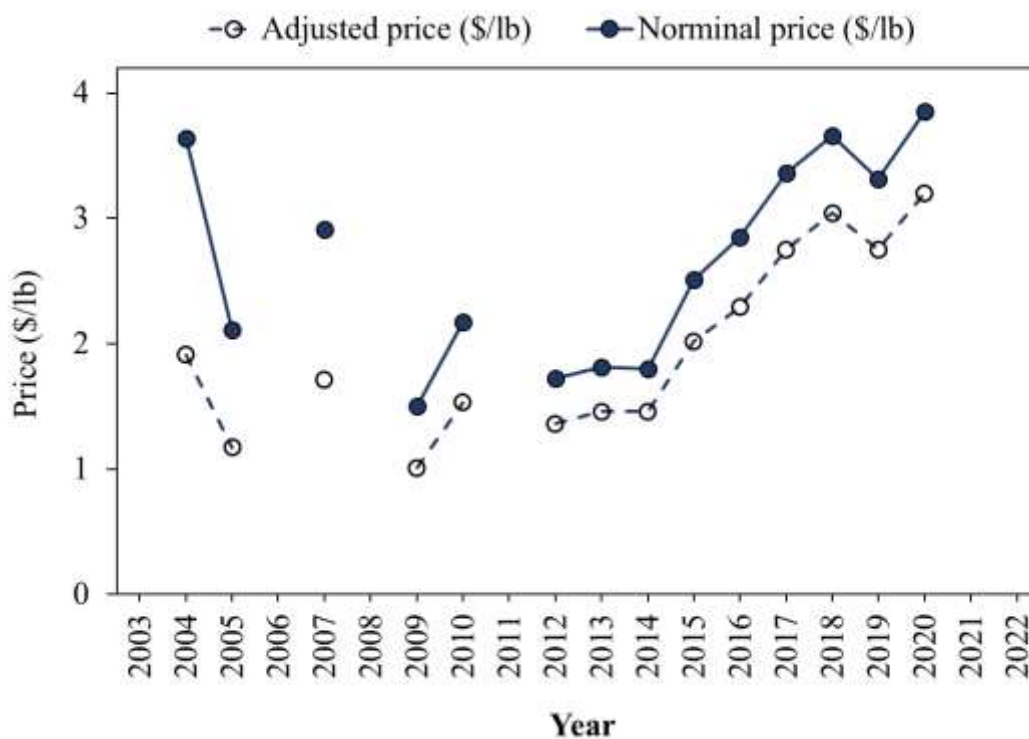


Figure 130. The real and nominal price of PMUS for fish sold by trolling gear adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center. Sale data of 2021 is not available.

3.2.3.1.2.2 Fishing Costs

Since 2009, PIFSC economists have maintained a continuous small boat economic data collection program in American Samoa through collaboration with the PIFSC Fisheries Research and Monitoring Division (FRMD). The economic data collection gathers fishing expenditure data for boat-based reef fish, bottomfish, and pelagic fishing trips on an ongoing basis. Data for fishing trip expenses include gallons of fuel used, price per gallon of fuel, cost of ice used, cost of bait & chum used, cost of fishing gear lost, and the engine type of the boat. These economic data are collected from same subset of fishing trips as the boat-based creel survey carried out by the local fisheries management agencies and PIFSC FRMD.

Figure 131 presents the average trip costs for American Samoa troll trips from 2009-2022 (adjusted to 2022 dollars). Supporting data for Figure 131 are presented in Table A-117. In general, the fishing costs of an average troll trip slightly declined during the period of 2011-2016, mainly as a result of the decrease of fuel costs. Since 2017, fuel cost has risen in general primarily due to fuel price increases. The trip cost in 2022 decreased mainly due to decreased in fuel usage per trip even as the fuel price increased.

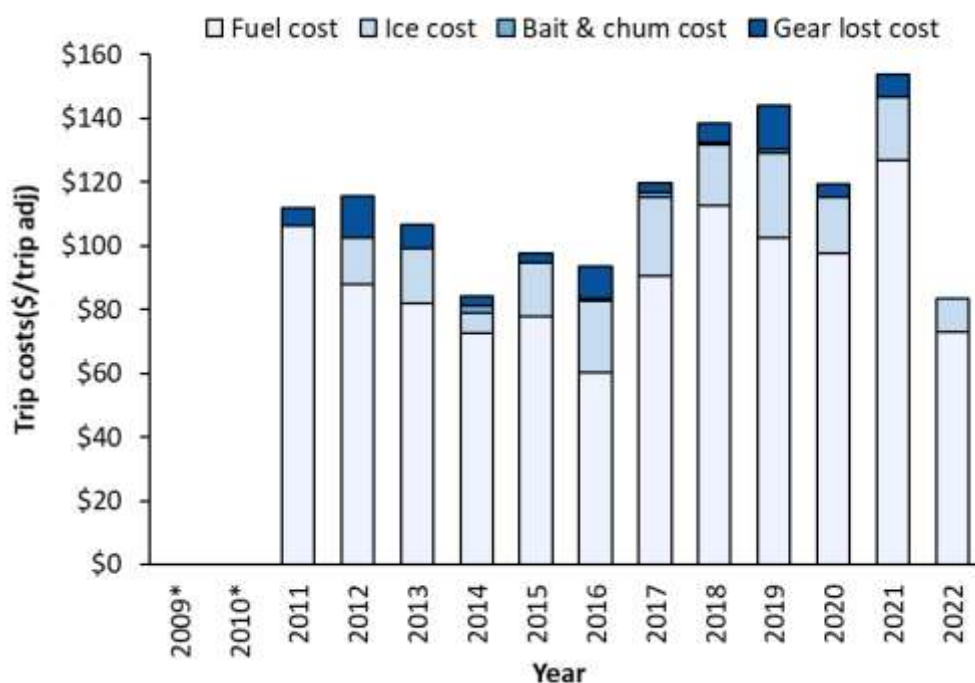


Figure 131. Average trip costs for American Samoa trolling trips from adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from Chan and Pan (2019a). * Confidential data.

3.2.3.2 CNMI

3.2.3.2.1 CNMI Trolling

3.2.3.2.1.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section presents the pounds sold, revenue, and price for all PMUS in the CNMI by all gears. Unlike American Samoa, the data of pounds sold by gear are not available for CNMI. Figure 132 and Figure 133 present the trends of total pounds sold and revenue for all PMUS for CNMI from 2003 to 2022. Supporting data for these two figures are presented in Table A-118.

Pelagic fishing is an important commercial fishery in the CNMI. Nearly half a million pounds of pelagic species are landed annually, about 50% landed pelagic fish were sold to markets during 2003-2022, based on the commercial receipts. In 2022 about 99% of total PMUS landed were sold, which is much higher than in previous years. The high ratio of commercial landings to total landings in 2021 and 2022 is likely a result of improvements in the implementation of the commercial data collection program. In the CNMI, a mandatory reporting program was implemented in 2019 and follow-up outreach efforts have resulted in increased vendor reporting participation as 37 out of 42 vendors reported in 2021. The average pelagic fish price has increased since 2007 gradually, and fish price increased from \$2.53 in 2021 to \$3.08 in 2022, 22% increased after adjusting for inflation.

It is worth noting that the data for pounds caught and pounds sold are collected by two different data collection methods. The data for pounds sold were collected through [“Commercial Sales Receipt Books” Program](#) and expanded to an estimated total. While the data for pounds caught were collected through [Boat-based and Shore-based creel surveys](#). Both data series are generated from an expansion algorithm built on a non-census data collection program, and the survey coverage rates of two data collection methods may change independently in individual years. Therefore, the two time-series may not move coherently with each other. For example, the low percentage of pounds sold compared to pounds caught could be due to the low coverage of dealer participations in the Commercial Receipt Books Program or vice versa.

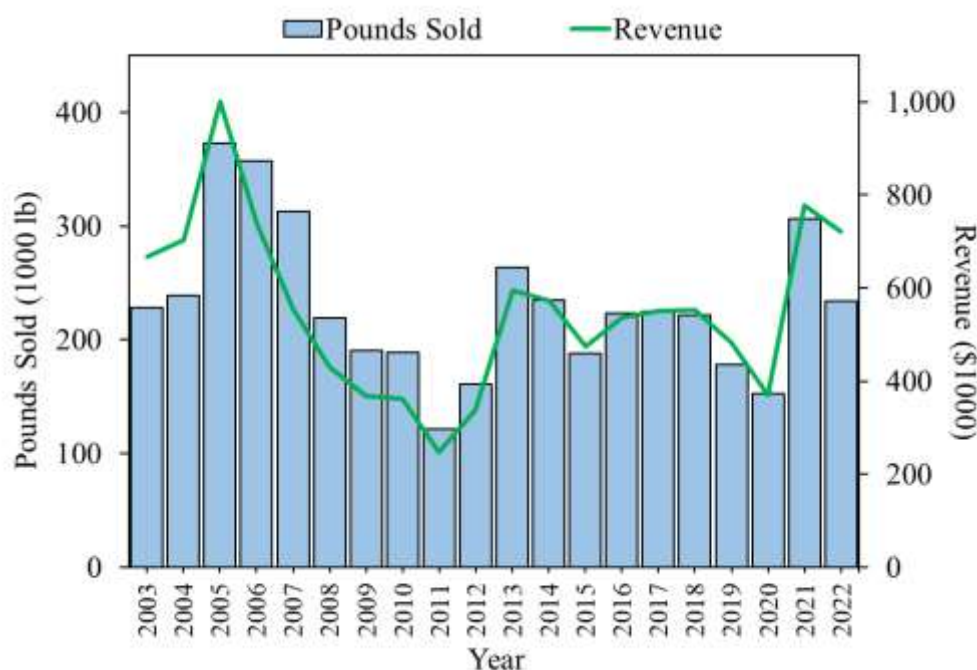


Figure 132. Total PMUS annual pounds sold and revenues in the CNMI for all gears adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ CNMI CPI information was not available since 2016, so we assumed there were no changes for adjustments.



Figure 133. Real and nominal prices of PMUS for fish sold by all gears¹

¹Data sourced from the PIFSC FRMD.

3.2.3.2.1.2 Fishing Costs

Since 2009 the PIFSC Socioeconomics Program has maintained a continuous economic data collection program on Saipan through collaboration with the PIFSC FRMD. The economic data collection program gathers fishing expenditure data for boat-based reef fish, bottomfish, and pelagic fishing trips on an ongoing basis. Data for fishing trip expenses include gallons of fuel used, price per gallon of fuel, cost of ice used, cost of bait & chum used, cost of fishing gear lost, and the engine type of the boat. These economic data are collected from same subset of fishing trips as the boat-based creel survey carried out by the local fisheries management agencies and PIFSC FRMD.

Figure 134 presents the average trip costs for CNMI troll trips from 2012 through 2022 (adjusted to 2022 dollars). In general, the costs of trolling trips showed small changes across years. It moved up and down mainly related to changes in fuel costs. In 2022, the average trip cost of trolling trips were around \$101, \$3 higher than 2021. Fuel cost is the main component of the trolling trip costs. Supporting data for Figure 134 is presented in Table A-119.

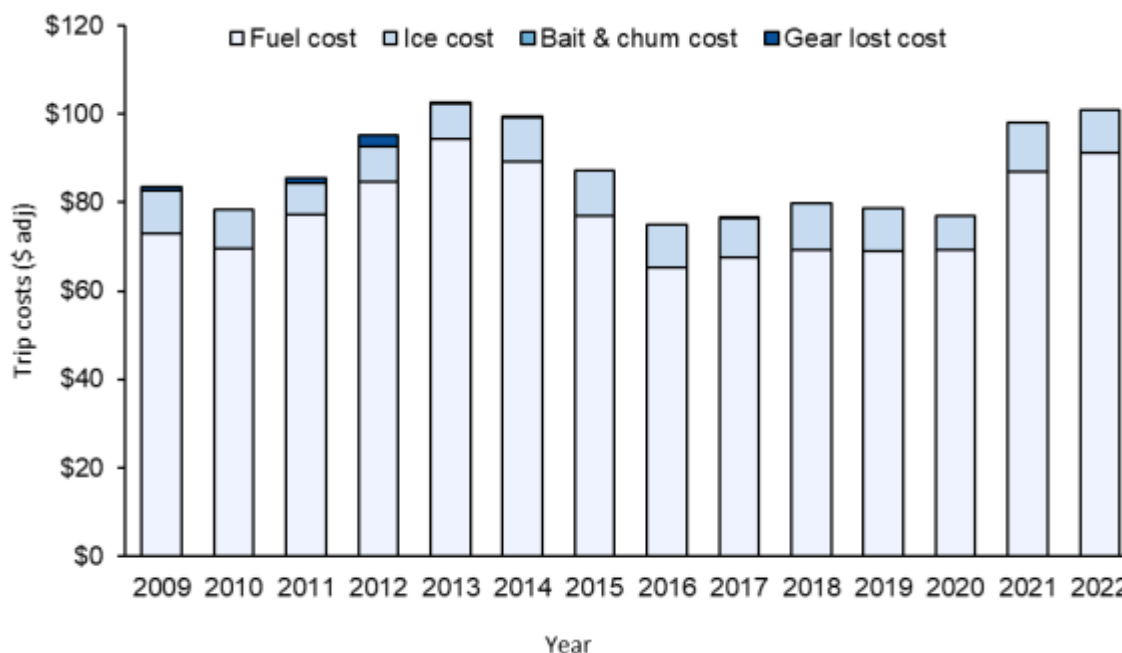


Figure 134. Average cost for CNMI trolling trips adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from PIFSC Continuous Cost Data Collection Program (Chan and Pan 2019a). Trip cost data collection began in 2009.

3.2.3.3 GUAM

3.2.3.3.1 Guam Trolling

3.2.3.3.2 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section will describe trends in commercial landings, revenues, and prices of PMUS in Guam. Figure 135 presents the trends of pounds sold and revenue of PMUS in Guam fisheries and Figure 136 presents the trend of PMUS price during 2003 to 2022. Supporting data of Figure 135 and Figure 136 are shown in Table A-120.

Pelagic fishing is an important fishery in Guam, and the average annual total pounds landed were near 668 thousand pounds over the past 20 years. Figure 135 shows only eight years of commercial landings and revenue between 2003-2022 because data are confidential for years when reported vendors were less than three. The pounds sold, estimated by commercial receipt books, were only a small percentage of pounds landed. For the eight years presented, pounds sold were 19% of the total pounds landed. The average price of all PMUS was relatively flat over 2014-2019 at \$2.62/lb in average.

It should be noted that the data for pounds caught and pounds sold are collected by two different data collection methods. The data for pounds sold were collected through [“Commercial Sales Receipt Books” Program](#), while the data for pounds caught were collected through [Boat-based and Shore-based creel surveys](#). Both data series are generated from an expansion algorithm built on a non-census data collection program, and the survey coverage rates of two data collection methods may change independently in individual years. Therefore, the two time-series may not move coherently with each other. For example, the low percentage of pounds sold compared to

pounds caught could be due to the low coverage of dealer participations in the Commercial Receipt Books Program, or vice versa.

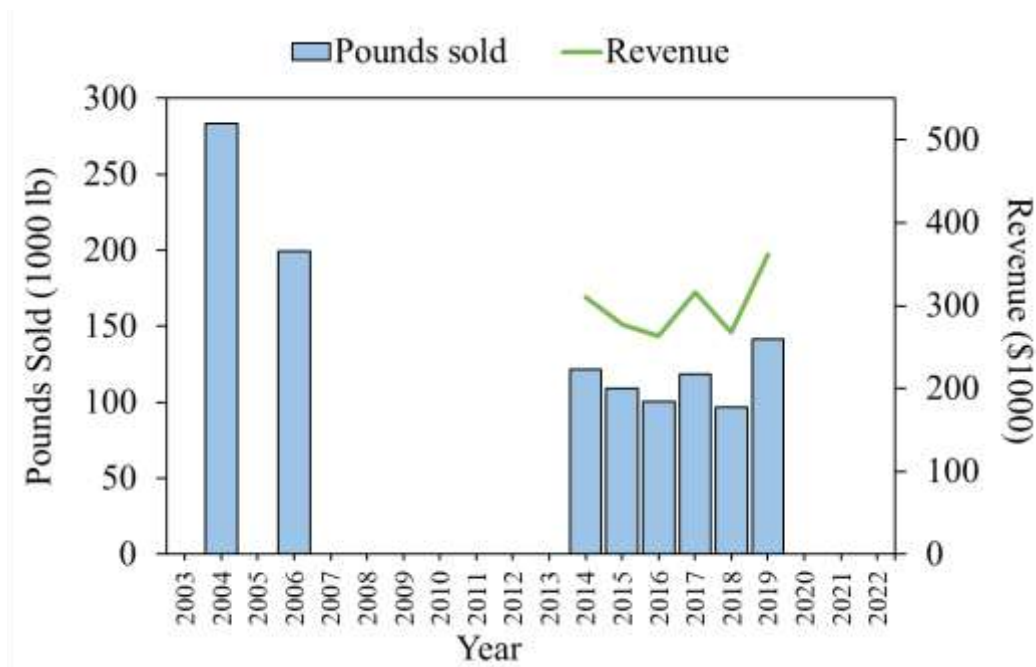


Figure 135. Total PMUS annual pounds sold and revenue in Guam adjusted to 2022 dollars¹
¹Data sourced from PIFSC FRMD.

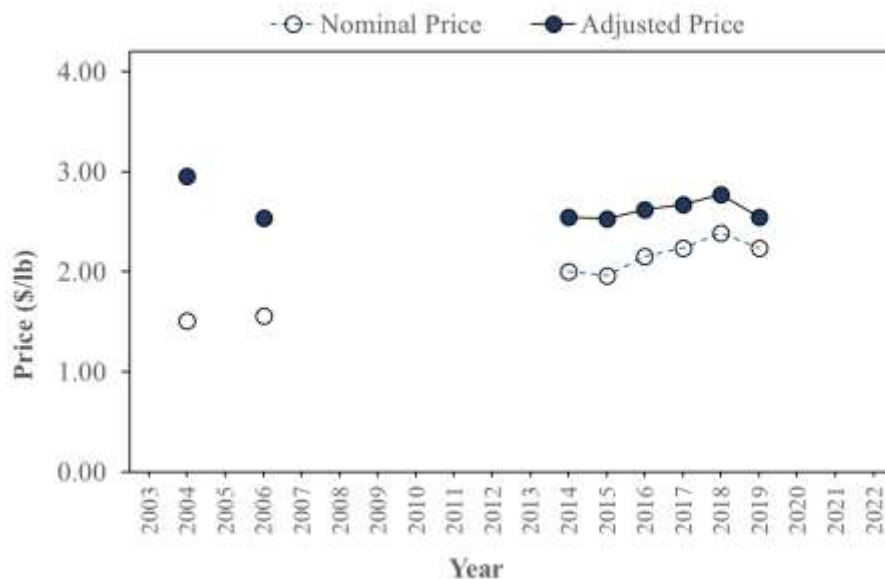


Figure 136. The real and nominal prices of PMUS sold by all gears in Guam¹
¹Data sourced from PIFSC FRMD.

3.2.3.3.3 Fishing Costs

Since 2011, the PIFSC Socioeconomics Program has maintained a continuous economic data collection program on Guam through collaboration with PIFSC FRMD. The economic data collection gathers fishing expenditure data for boat-based reef fish, bottomfish, and pelagic

fishing trips on an ongoing basis. Data for fishing trip expenses include gallons of fuel used, price per gallon of fuel, cost of ice used, cost of bait & chum used, cost of fishing gear lost, and the engine type of the boat. These economic data are collected from same subset of fishing trips as the boat-based creel survey carried out by the local fisheries management agencies and PIFSC FRMD.

Figure 137 shows the trend of trip costs for trolling trips in Guam from 2011-2022. It seems that fishing costs move up and down across years mainly due to changes in fuel costs. The average cost of trolling trips in 2022 was \$92 in Guam, \$17 less than that in the previous year. However, the total fuel cost was higher than the previous year due to higher fuel price in 2022. Supporting data for Figure 137 are presented in Table A-121.

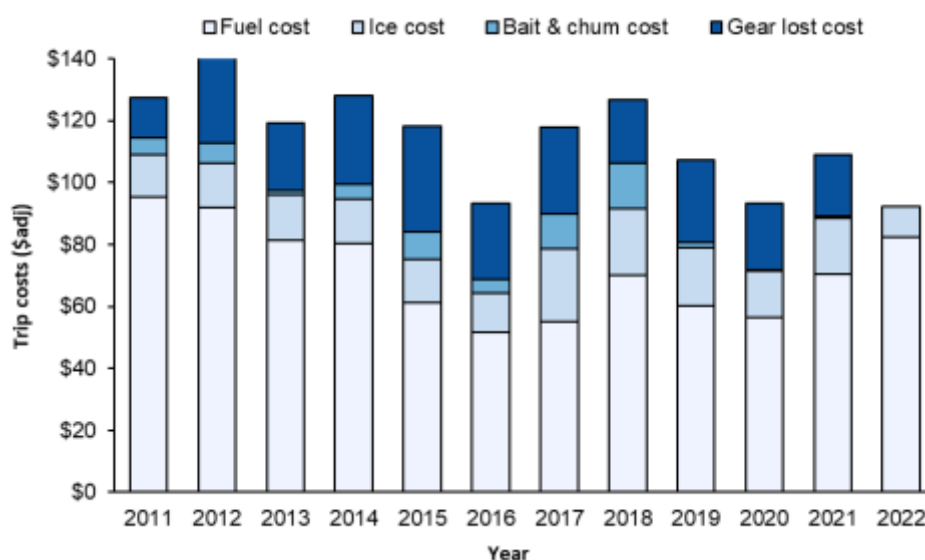


Figure 137. Average cost for Guam troll trips adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (Chan and Pan 2019a).

3.2.3.4 HAWAII

3.2.3.4.1 Hawaii Longline

3.2.3.4.1.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

The Hawaii permitted longline fishery conducts two types of fishing to target the pelagic species of bigeye tuna (deep-set) and swordfish (shallow-set) by setting the fishing gear at different depths in the water column. Most of the vessels only target tuna while some vessels switch between these two types of fishing depending on the season. The majority of the catches by the Hawaii permitted longline vessels were landed and sold in Honolulu, while some of catches were landed and sold on the West Coast of the US Mainland. For the period 2003-2020 when the landings and revenue data were available, it can be observed that the fish landed and sold in the West Coast has increased gradually since 2008 and stabilized from 2009-2020. Based on the West Coast dealers' reports, an average of \$5.3 million in revenue (2.3 million pounds sold) were generated annually from West Coast during the years from 2015-2020, the average annual revenue sold in Hawaii was \$94 million (26 million pounds sold). However, the data of commercial landings for the West Coast were not available in 2021 and 2022. Due to the concerns of incomplete market reports, the total commercial landings and revenue trend of the

Hawaii longline presented in Figure 138 were generated only from total pounds kept, value, and the fish price from the Hawaii dealers.

The total active number of vessels landing fish in 2022 was 144, one new addition to the fleet compared to the 2021. The fleet generated total revenues sold in Hawaii markets (revenue generated from HDAR dealer reports) presented in Figure 138, which only included the total revenue generated from HDAR dealer reports. The pounds sold in Hawaii markets reported from the HDAR dealers only accounted for 97% of the total estimated value of the total pelagic landings (estimated by the pounds kept from fishermen's report in 2022 assuming 100% pounds kept were landed and sold) by the entire fleet. In general, the total revenue of the Hawaii permitted longline fleet showed an upward trend for the period of 2012-2017, but has seen declines since 2018, particularly in 2020. In 2021, the fleet revenue was up and showed historical high (\$111 million), mainly due to higher fish prices in 2021 while commercial landings in 2021 were at the level similar to 2020. The total pounds sold in the Hawaii market were 22 million pounds, valued at \$111 million. The fish prices in 2021 increased from \$3.42/lb in 2020 to \$5.00/lb in 2021. In 2022, total commercial landings were 2% lower than 2021, but total revenue were similar to 2021. Supporting data of Figure 138 are presented in Table A-122.

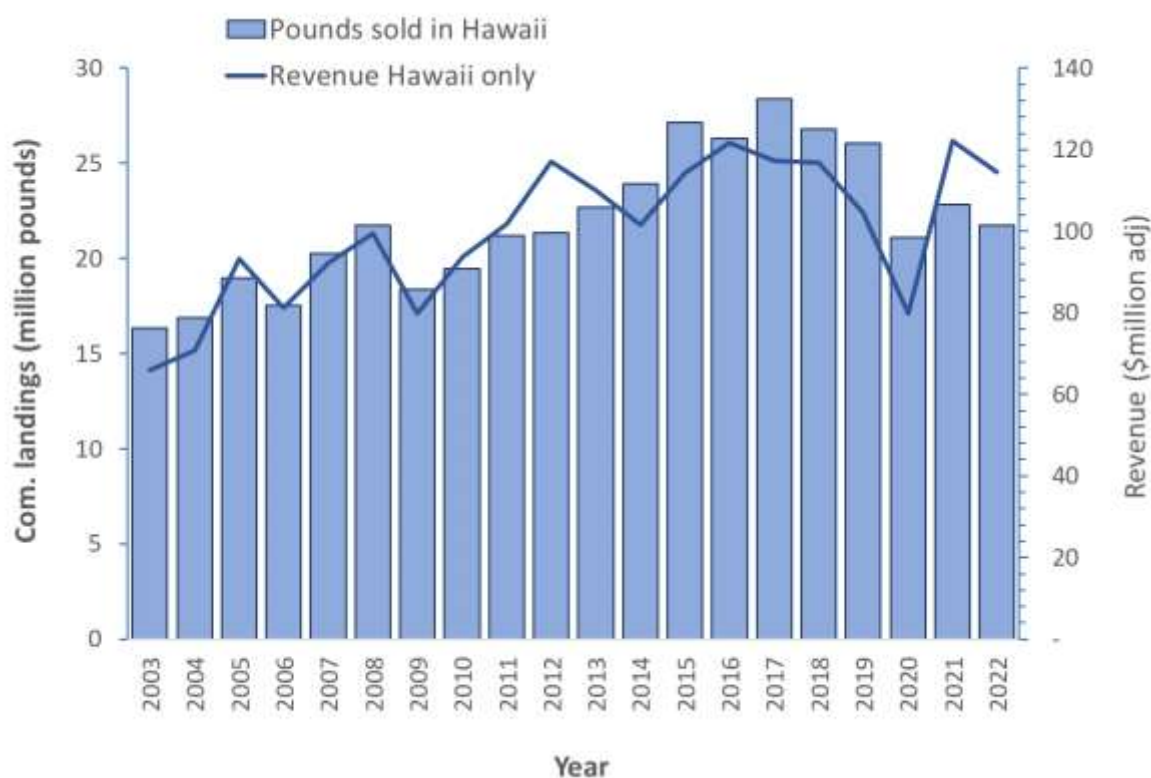


Figure 138. Commercial landings and revenue of Hawaii-permitted longline fleet (landed in Hawaii markets) adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Tier 1 indicators data request.

Figure 139 shows the trends of the revenue composition (based on the estimated total value, instead of sold revenue in Hawaii market) from the main species (bigeye, swordfish, and

yellowfin) and all others during 2003-2022, while Figure 140 shows the price trends for bigeye, swordfish, and yellowfin for the same period. Supporting data for Figure 139 and Figure 140 are presented in Table A-123 and Table A-124, respectively.

It can be observed that bigeye tuna comprised the majority of fishery revenue for the longline fleet during 2003-2022. Revenue from yellowfin tuna has grown in recent years while revenue from swordfish had declined since 2012, but the percentage of revenue from swordfish went up again in 2021 and 2022. In 2022, bigeye tuna composed 61% of revenue for Hawaii permitted longline vessels, followed by yellowfin tuna 18%, and swordfish 14%, and other species composed of 17% of the total Hawaii longline revenue, while the 20-year averages were 65%, 10%, and 13% respectively. Fish prices have fluctuated in general and the prices of the three species merged to each other. Bigeye tuna price peaked in 2012 and has decreased since then, but increased significantly in 2021. Yellowfin tuna price has varied over time, and it peaked in 2013 and declined thereafter in general. However, yellowfin tuna price went up considerably in 2018, approaching bigeye tuna prices. In 2022, the nominal prices of all the three main species went up with swordfish price increased more than bigeye and yellowfin. In 2022, swordfish price exceeded yellowfin price in 2022.

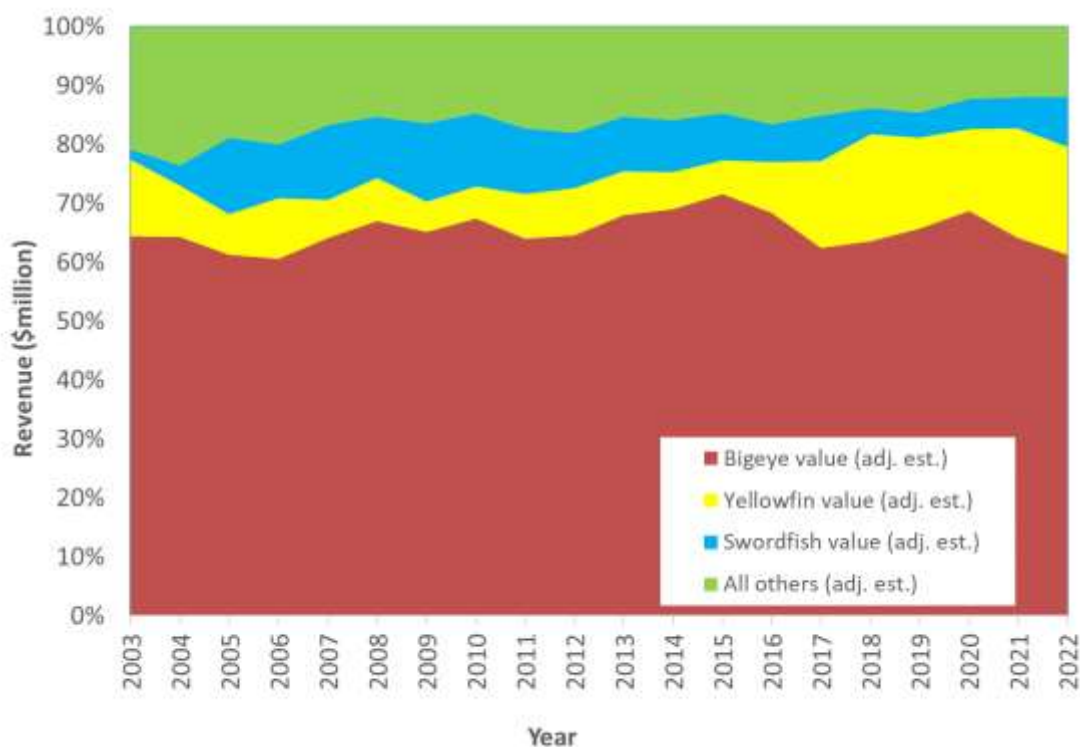


Figure 139. Trends in Hawaii longline revenue species composition¹

¹ Data Source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Tier 1 data request.

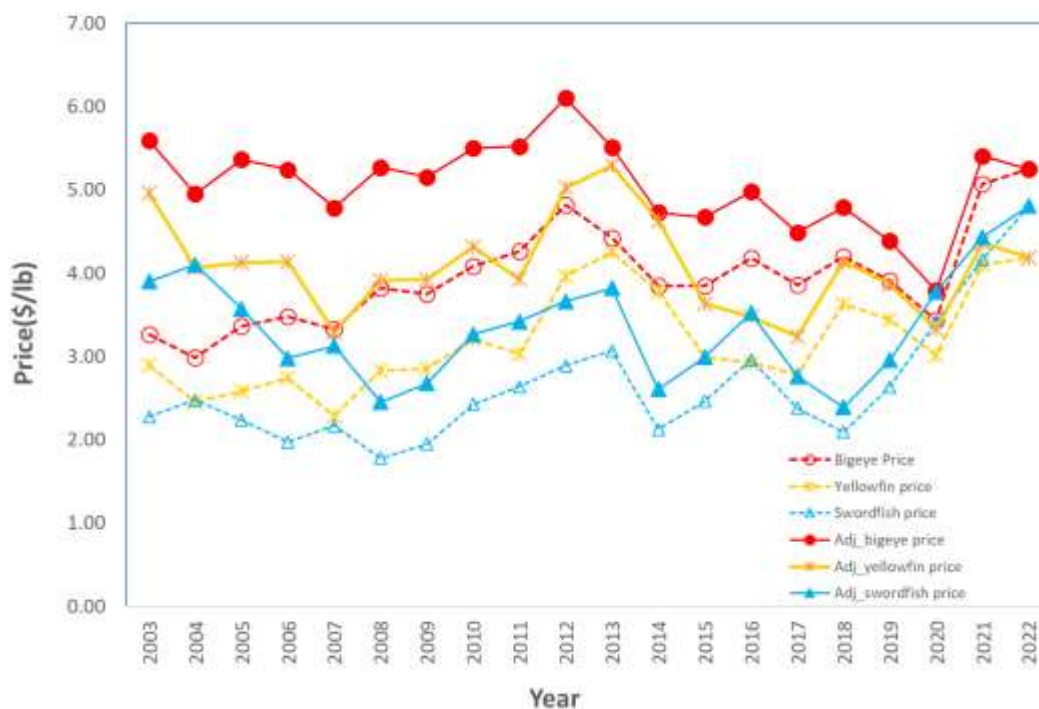


Figure 140. Price trends of nominal and adjusted of three main species (bigeye tuna, yellowfin tuna, and swordfish)¹

¹ Source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Tier 1 data request.

3.2.3.4.1.2 Fishing Costs

The Economic Cost Data Collection Program of the Hawaii longline fishery was the first to establish continuous (routine) trip expenditure collection in the Pacific Islands Region. The program was implemented in August 2004 through cross-agency collaboration with the PIFSC Economics Program and the NOAA Observer Program managed by PIRO (Pan 2018 and Pan 2019). Before the establishment of these programs, trip-level economic information on the fisheries was limited primarily to the dockside value of landed fish. Data on fishing expenses were obtained intermittently, through one-time surveys conducted every five or so years (Hamilton et al. 1996; O'Malley and Pooley 2002; Kalberg and Pan 2016). The continuous economic data collection program has provided important trend data to track changes in economic performance for the Hawaii longline fishery on a continuous basis.

The continuous data collection form is comprised of eight cost items commonly arising in Hawaii longline trips but excludes labor costs. Non-labor cost items collected include diesel fuel, engine oil, bait, ice, as well as total costs for gear replacement, provisions, and communications. The form requests unit price, quantity used, and total costs of fuel, bait, and oil usage. In addition, the total number of crew members, and the subset who are not United States nationals, is collected for both tuna and swordfish trips. Survey forms are produced and available in first languages (English, Korean, and Vietnamese) to ease survey burden.

The project is designed to collect data from all observed trips. Observers conduct interviews with the captains on board while returning to port or when a trip is completed. The participation of

fishermen in the economic data survey is voluntary. Observers accompany 100% of the Hawaii-based shallow-set longline trips (targeting swordfish) and about 20% of the deep-set trips (targeting bigeye tuna). Since the economic data collection project was implemented in August 2004, the average response rate based on observed trips has been around 60%. The data collection program would not succeed without the generous support of vessel owners and operators. A detailed description of the continuous data collection program can be found in a NOAA technical memorandum (Pan 2018).

This report presented trip-level fishing costs for the two types of fishing trips since shallow set (swordfish) trips often have a longer trip length compared to deep set (bigeye tuna) trips. The data series of trip costs and net revenue data were presented in the SAFE report from 2005 to most current as the first full-year's data were available beginning in 2005. Average swordfish trip costs generally were higher than a tuna trip because the trip length of a swordfish trip is longer than a tuna trip. The average trip length for swordfish trips was 31 days per trip during the period of 2005-2022, while it was 22 days for tuna trips. A decreasing trend in trip length for swordfish trips has been observed over the recent years. The average trip length of 26 days per trip in 2022 was considerably lower than the 18 years' average (31 days). The average tuna trip length seems steady over the 18-year period.

In terms of cost structure in 2022, fuel cost accounts for the largest share of total fishing trip costs (non-labor items) for both tuna and swordfish trips. Figure 141 and show the cost structures of an average tuna and swordfish trip in 2022, respectively. In 2022, fuel cost was the leading item of trip costs, comprising 57% of the tuna trip costs, considerably higher than that in 2021 (49%). Bait was the second largest item making up 23% of tuna trip costs. Fuel and bait costs together made up over 80% of the trip costs for tuna fishing. For swordfish trip, the cost of fuel made up 57% of swordfish trip costs, higher than 2021 (49%), while bait cost made up 17% of total swordfish trip costs. The cost of the lightstick gear is unique to swordfish fishing, and it made of 8% of the total trip costs of swordfish trips in 2022. Supporting data for Figure 143 and Figure 144 are presented in Table A-125 and Table A-126.

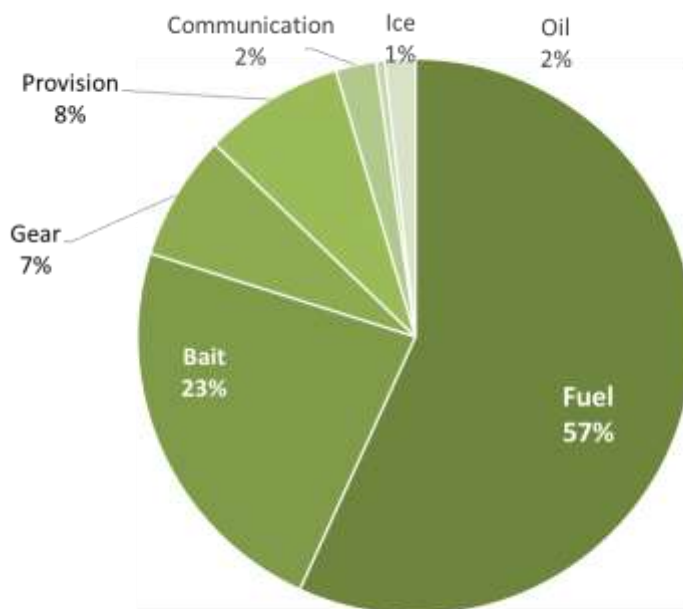


Figure 141. The cost structure of an average deep-set fishing trip¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

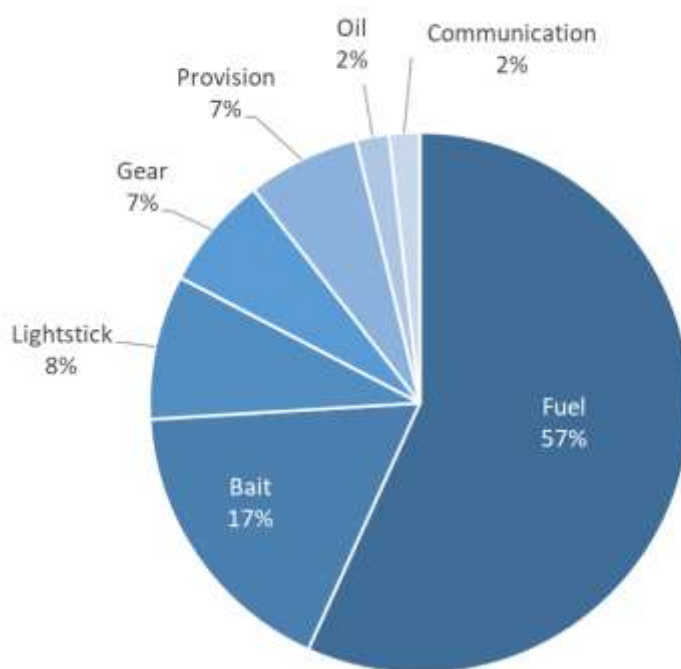


Figure 142. The cost structure of an average shallow-set fishing trip¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

Figure 143 and Figure 144 show the trend of average trip costs for the tuna and swordfish trips respectively of the Hawaii longline fishery for the 2005-2022 period. Supporting data for Figure

143 and Figure 144 also are presented in Table A-125 and Table A-126. The average trip costs for both trip types are different in values and swordfish trip (with longer trip length) costs more than tuna trips. In 2022, the average trip costs for swordfish trips were \$44,905 while it was \$33,923 for tuna trips. They shared similar trend during the period of 2012 to 2018, but trip costs for swordfish trips showed a decreasing trend in the recent three years (2019-2021), while the trip costs for tuna trips seems steady.

In considering trends, the costs of tuna trips peaked in 2012, while swordfish trip costs peaked in 2011 and 2012 was also high for the reporting period. Fishing costs of tuna trips have trended downward in 2015 and were pretty stable since then. Swordfish trip costs also were down after 2012, but it seems that swordfish trip costs went down more than tuna trips. The shorten trip length of swordfish trips might have contributed to the decreased in fuel costs and total trip costs for swordfish trips. In 2022, both tuna trip costs and swordfish trip costs were higher than 2021, mainly due to increases in fuel costs.

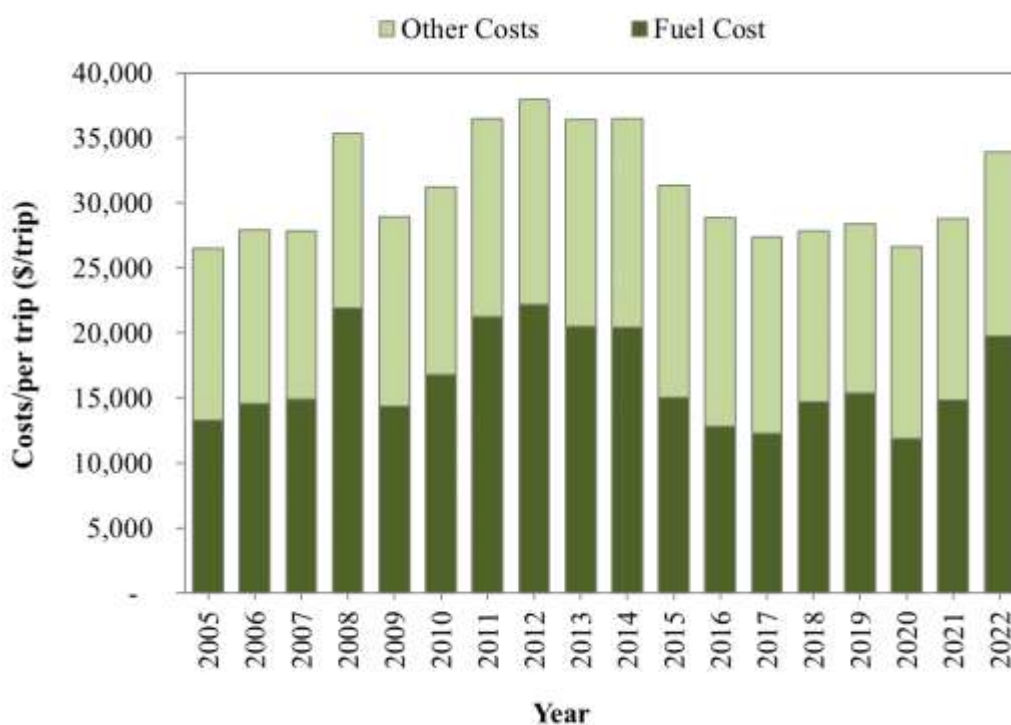


Figure 143. The trend of average trip costs for Hawaii longline deep-set fishing adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

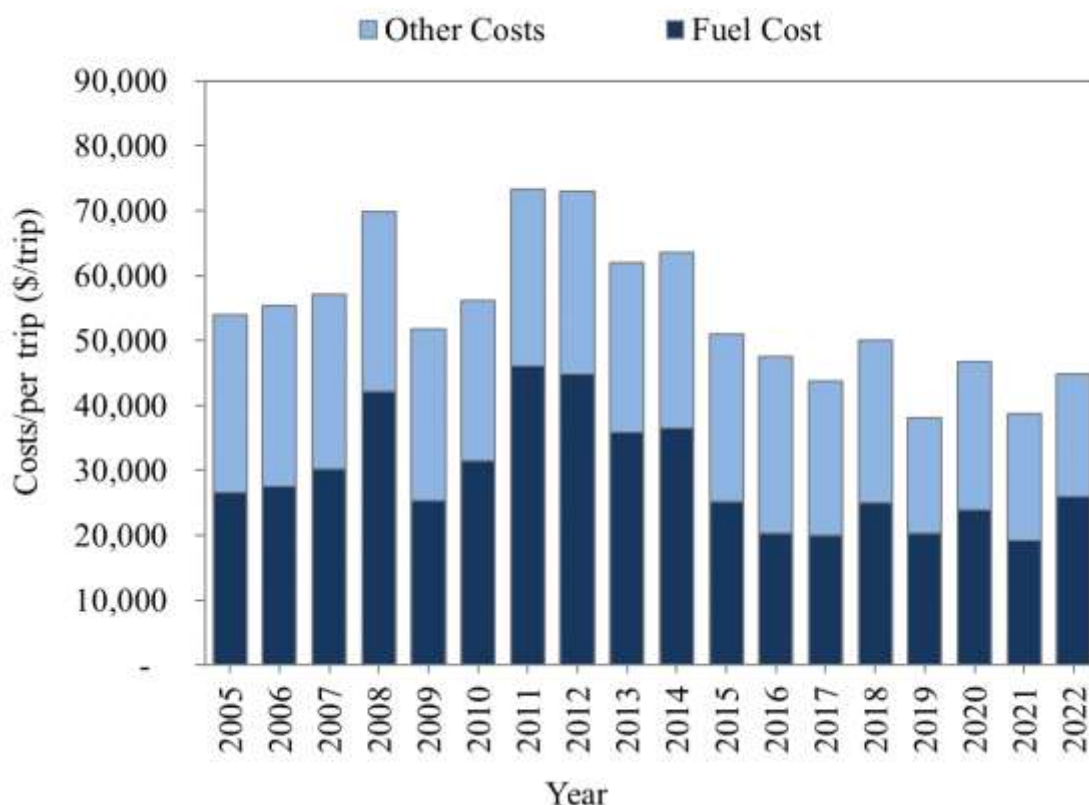


Figure 144. The trend of average trip costs for Hawaii longline shallow-set fishing adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

3.2.3.4.1.3 Economic Performance Indicators

The continuous economic data collection program allows for the monitoring of trends in fishing cost over time (Pan 2018). Compiling revenue data with cost and effort data allows for the measurement of the economic performance in terms of trip net revenue. Figure 145 and Figure 146 present the trends of trip net revenues for the two trip types, respectively, for the period of 2012 to 2022. Supporting data for Figure 145 and Figure 146 are presented in Table A-127 and Table A-128, respectively. The net revenue of tuna (deep-set) fishing varied across years, and peaked in 2016. However, tuna trip net revenue in downward trend after 2016, it was in near historical low in 2020 during the period 2005–2021. In 2022, the net revenue went down slightly compared to 2021 (\$41,566 vs. \$44,283 per trip). The net trip revenue for swordfish trips were high from 2016 to 2019, but trip net revenue was in a lower level in 2020 and 2021 compared to the period of 2016 to 2019. The average trip net revenue for swordfish trip went up slightly in 2021, and increased considerably in 2022, reaching a historical high. The net revenue increased in 2022 mainly contributed by higher CPUE of swordfish as well as fish price in this year.

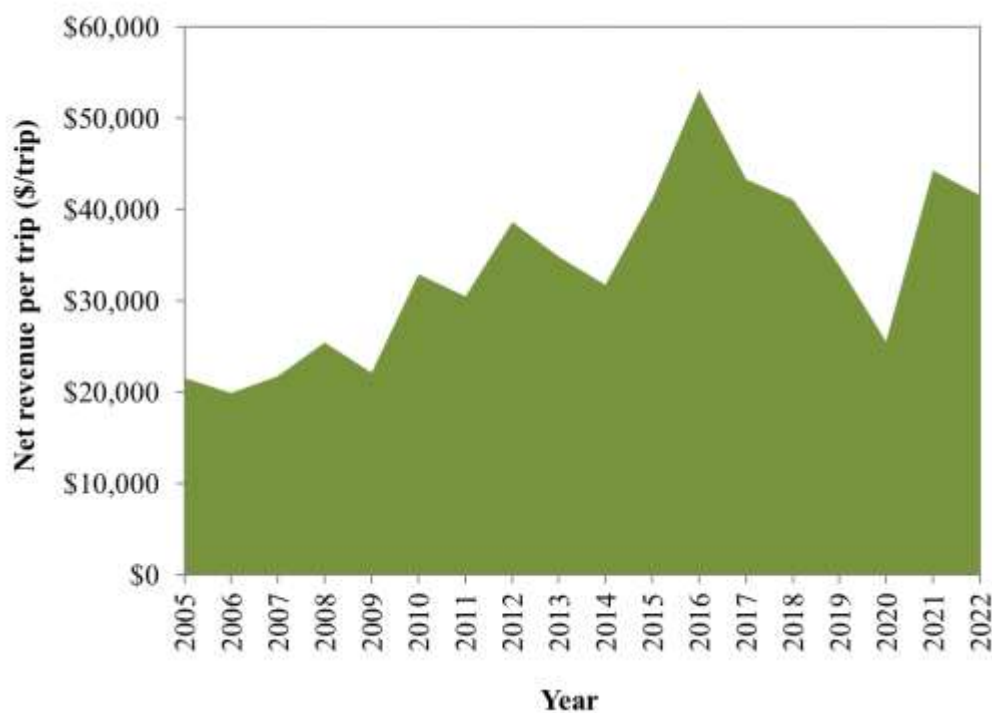


Figure 145. Average net revenue per trip for Hawaii longline deep-set trips adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

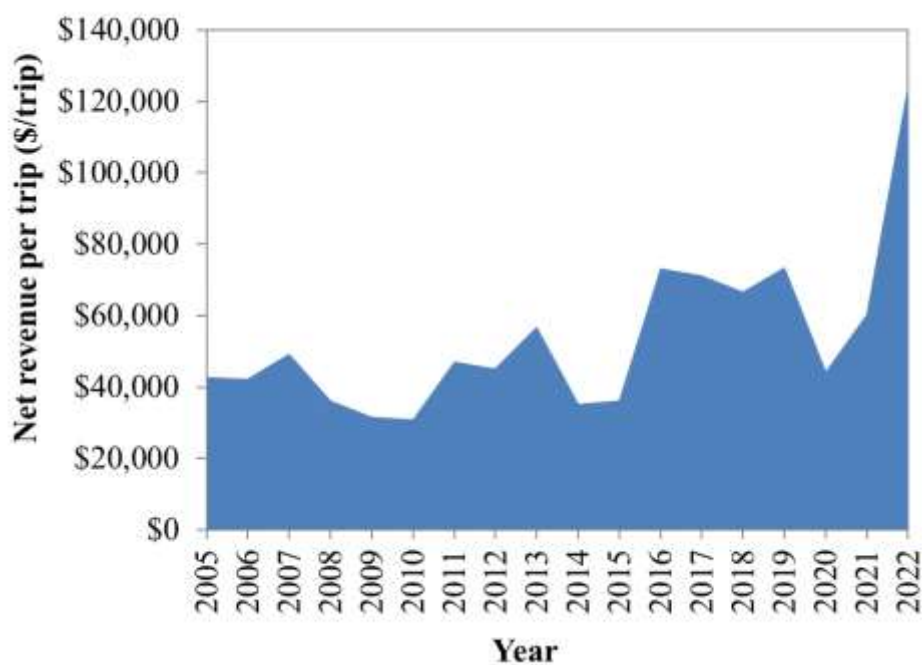


Figure 146. Average net revenue per trip for Hawaii longline shallow-set trips adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data source: PIFSC continuous economic data collection program (Pan 2018).

In addition to the measurement of the net revenue, NOAA Fisheries has established a national set of economic performance indicators to monitor the economic health of the nation's fisheries (Brinson et al. 2015). The PIFSC Socioeconomics Program has used this framework to evaluate select regional fisheries; specifically, the American Samoa Longline, Hawaii Longline, and Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI) Deep 7 bottomfish fisheries. These indicators include metrics related to catch, effort, and revenues. For American Samoa Longline fishery, this section will present revenue performance metrics of (a) the total revenue per day at sea, and (b) annual revenue per vessel and the Gini coefficient based on individual vessels.

The Gini coefficient (value 0 to 1) measures the equality of the distribution of revenue among active vessels in the fishery. A value of zero represents a perfectly equal distribution of revenue amongst these vessels, whereas a value of one represents a perfectly unequal distribution, in the case that a single vessel earns all of the revenue. Data on aggregate revenue from species in fishery per-day-at-sea and revenue per vessel calculation (for Gini coefficient) are from PIFSC FRMD. Figure 147 and Figure 148 presents the revenue per-day-at-sea and revenue per vessel and the Gini coefficient for the Hawaii longline fisheries during the period of 2003 to 2022. Supporting data for Figure 147 and Figure 148 are presented in Table A-129.

One of the economic performance indicators, revenue per-day-at-sea for the Hawaii longline fishery presents an upward trend up to 2016 but declined since then, while the revenue per-day-at-sea was the lowest in 2020. It went back up significantly in 2021 and 2022 was in similar level as 2021. Another economic performance indicator, the revenue per vessel, held steady relatively from 2003-2022 with slowly increasing trend in general up to 2018. The revenue per vessel in 2020 dropped considerably and it seemed recovered during 2021 and 2022. The income distribution (Gini coefficient in term of revenue per vessel) among vessels is relatively stable in the period and at low level (0.22 in 2022), which indicated the variation of revenue received by individual vessels was small in the fleet.

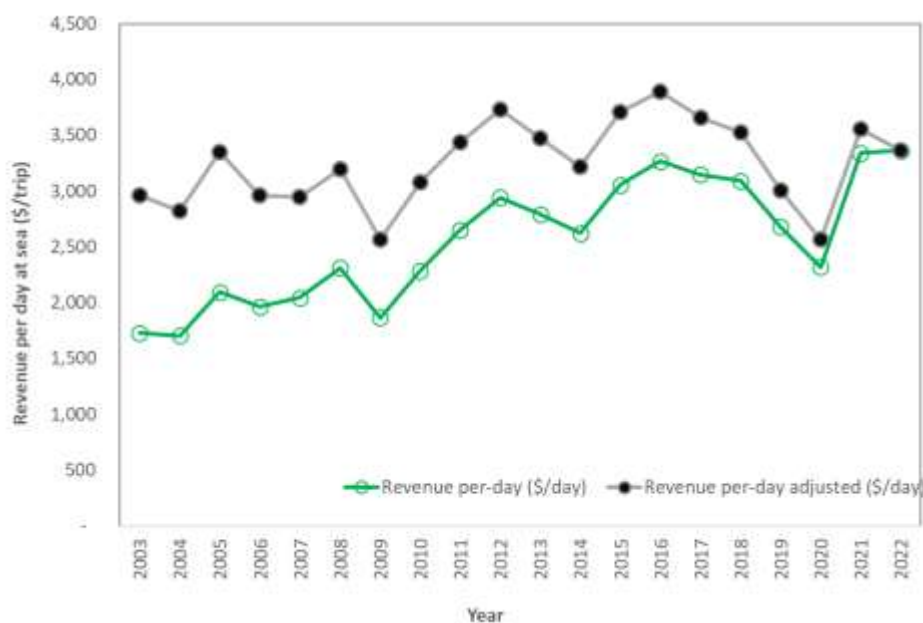


Figure 147. Revenue per-day-at-sea for Hawaii longline adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data Source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Tier 1 indicators data request.

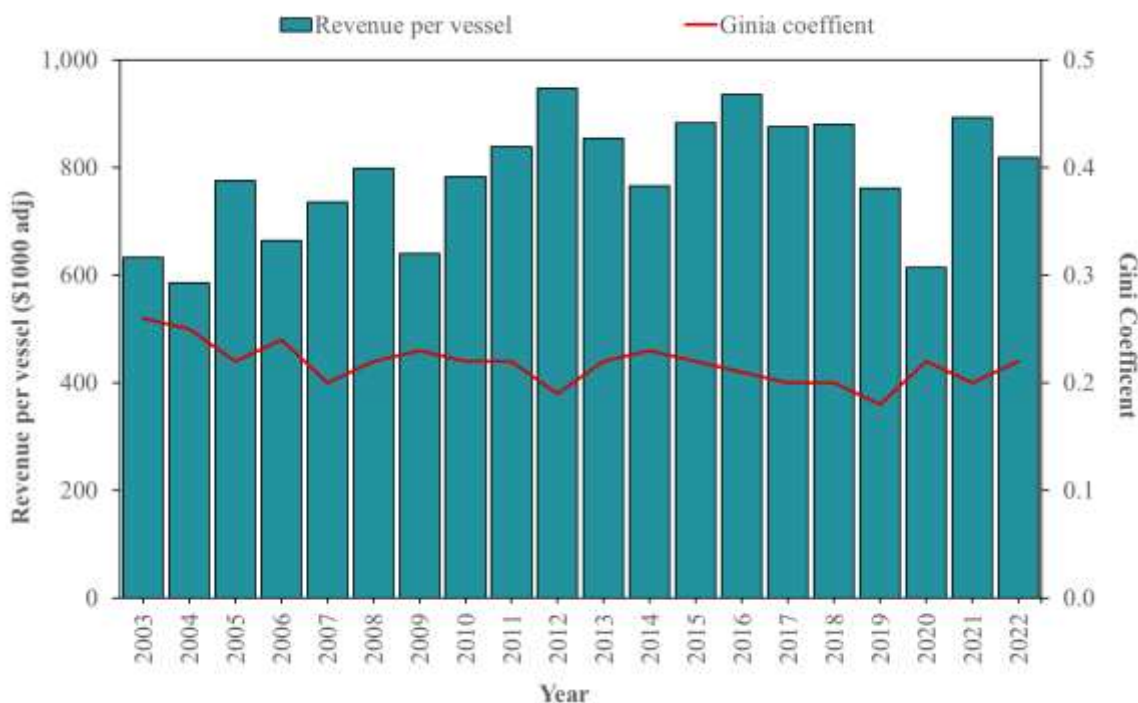


Figure 148. Revenue per vessel and Gini coefficient of the Hawaii longline fisheries¹ adjusted to 2022 dollars²

¹ Revenue per vessel includes the estimation of revenue landed in West Coast.

² Source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Tier 1 indicators data request (<https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>).

3.2.3.4.2 Overview of the Hawaii Non-Longline Gears for PMUS

Beside the Hawaii permitted longline vessels, there are the smaller scale fisheries, such as MHI troll, MHI handline, offshore handline, aku boats (pole and line), and some other gears, that harvested PMUS and sold to the Hawaii markets. The following figures present an overview of these various gears in terms of pounds sold, revenue, price, and participants. Aku boats were not included in “other gears” because the fishery had been declining and the number of active vessels was less than 3 vessels since 2010. In terms of participants in the fisheries, Figure 149 presents the total fishers (numbers of CML) participated in these non-longline fisheries, including the total number of fishers who reported PMUS caught in fishers reports and the total number of fishers who reported PMUS sold in the dealer reports. The number of fishers (numbers of CML) has seen a downward trend since 2013 and decreased considerably in 2020, 191 less compared to 2019. In 2021, the number of fishers increased by 44 CML and 2022 was in a similar level as 2021, but still lower than 2019. The number of fishers (numbers of CML) with fish sold decreased more in 2020, 361 less from the previous year (2019). It went back up slightly in 2021 and 2022, but it still less than the level in 2019.

Including pelagic fish landed and sold in the Hawaii markets from all gear types (including longline), the total revenue generated from Hawaii’s pelagic fisheries sold in Hawaii markets was \$128 million in 2022, a historical high. The Hawaii non-longline fisheries contributed 11% of the total PMUS revenue in 2022. Among the non-longline gears, troll is the leading fishing

gear in terms of PMUS pounds sold and revenue (5% to the total), following by MHI handline gear (2% to the total). Among the total revenue of the non-longline gears, the MHI troll was a leading sector with \$7.04 million revenue or 51% (not including aku boat due to confidential data) of total revenue generated by non-longline gears in 2022. The MHI handline fishery followed at \$4.1 million (30%). The offshore handline fishery was worth \$1.5 million (11%) in 2022. There has been a sharp decline in aku boat fishing during the reporting period and detailed figures are not reported due to confidentiality considerations. Figure 150 presents the trend of commercial landings by different non-longline gears, and Figure 151 presents the trend of commercial revenue by non-longline gears. Both commercial landings and revenue peaked in 2004 and has declined since then (except for a small lift in 2018). Compared to the estimated landings reported from fishers' reports (with CML), 82% of PMUS caught were sold during the period 2003-2022, while it was 92% in 2022. Both total PMUS landings (pounds kept) and commercial landings (pounds sold) increased in 2022 compared to 2021, but they were still lower than 2019 level. Supporting data for the Figure 150 and Figure 151 are presented in Table A-130 and Table A-131, respectively.

Figure 152 presents the price trends of PMUS harvested and sold by different gears, 2003-2022 (adjusted to 2022 dollars). Dealer data do not record gear types, so the prices by species by gear were estimated by assuming that the gear distributions of fish sold in the dealers reports by species were the same as in fishers' reports. Thus, the prices by species by gear presented here may not reflect the actual price differences among gears for the same species. The estimated price data by species by gear presented in Figure 152. In general, pelagic fish price went down slightly in 2022 for all gear types, while all prices were up in 2021. Supporting data for Figure 152 are presented in Table A-132. Figure 153 presents the fishing trip costs by the three main gears (small boats) for pelagic fishing.

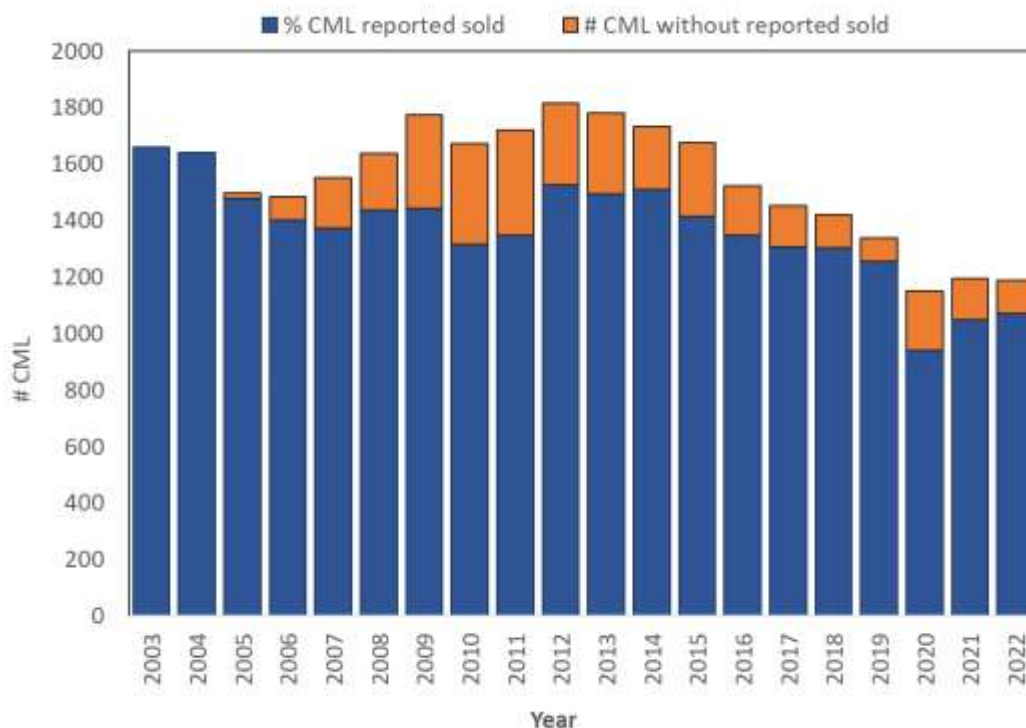


Figure 149. Total number of licensed fishers participating in small scale (non-longline gears) PMUS fisheries¹

¹ Data sourced from PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

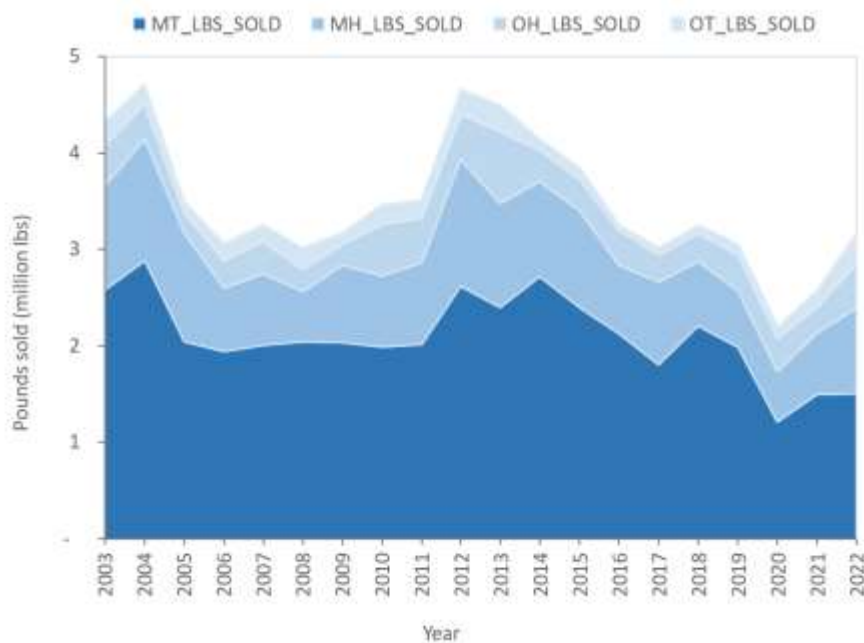


Figure 150. Total pounds sold of MHI commercial non-longline gears¹

¹ Data sourced from PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

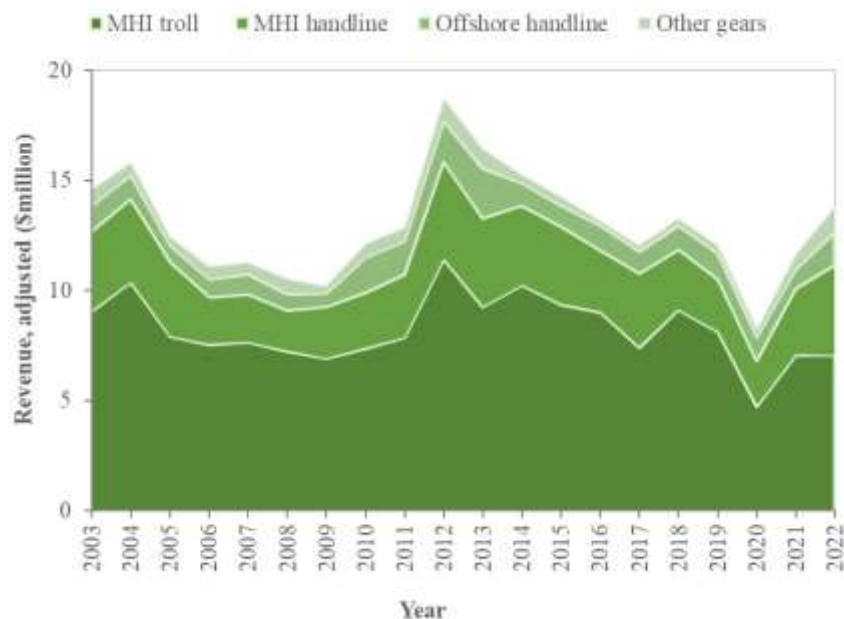


Figure 151. Revenue of non-longline gears adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

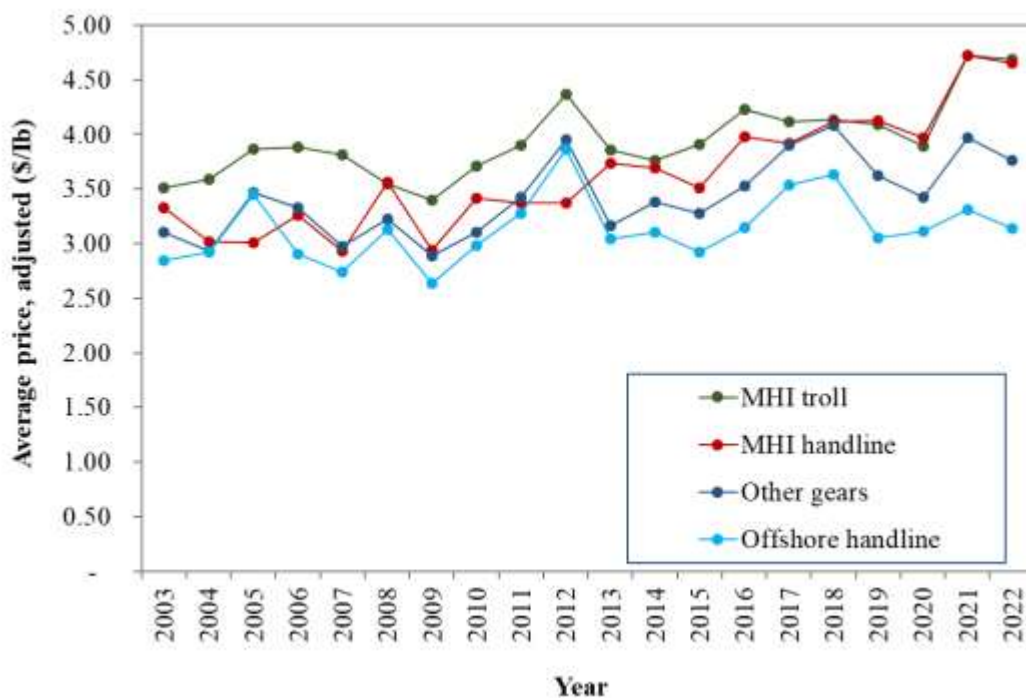


Figure 152. Price trends of PMUS by different gears adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the PIFSCE Pelagic Module data request. Longline price included for reference.

3.2.3.4.2.1 Fishing Costs

There are no continuous cost data collection program established for the non-longline PMUS fisheries in Hawaii. Past periodic research has documented the costs of pelagic small boat fishing

in Hawaii; both trip expenditure and annual fishing expenditures (fixed costs) are provided in the literature (Hamilton and Huffman, 1998; Hospital et al. 2011; Chan and Pan 2017; and Chan 2022). The trip costs by gear types collected in 2014 and 2021 studies (Chan and Pan 2017 and Chan 2022) are presented in Figure 153.

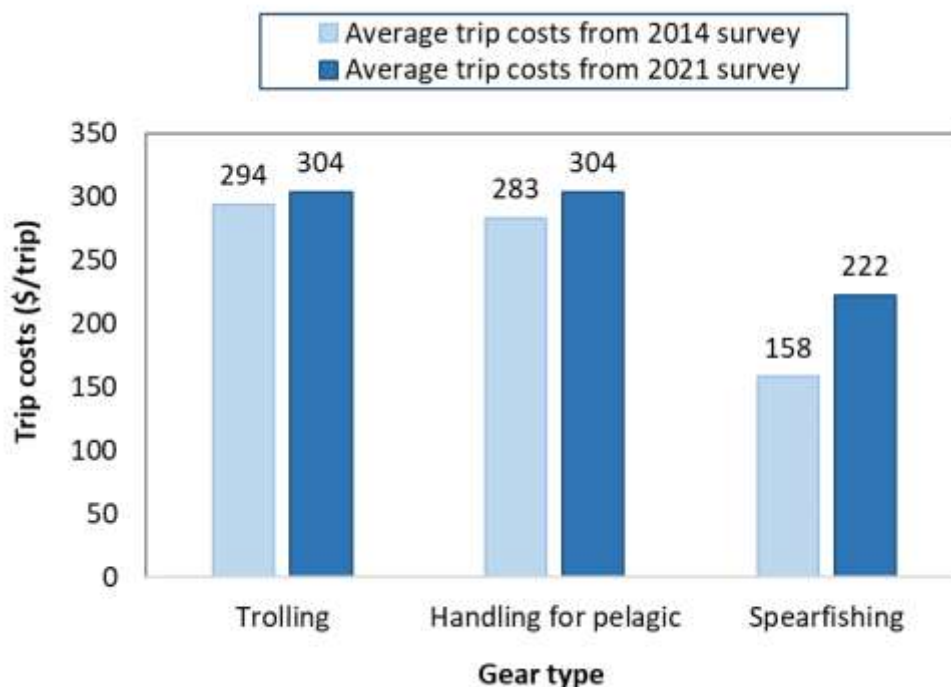


Figure 153. Fishing trip cost by gear type in 2014 and 2021¹

¹ Data sourced from a 2014 and 2021 Hawaii small boat survey (Chan and Pan 2017 and Chan 2022; <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/science-blog/hawaii-small-boat-survey-2021-summary>).

3.2.3.4.3 Hawaii Trolling

3.2.3.4.3.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section will describe trends in commercial participation, landings, revenues, and prices for the Hawaii troll fishery. Figure 154 presents the pounds sold and revenue (adjusted to 2022 dollars) for the MHI troll fishery, 2003-2022. Supporting data of Figure 154 are presented in Table A-130 and Table A-131. Among the non-longline gears, the Hawaii troll fishery landed the largest amount of pelagic fish. The commercial revenue from Hawaii troll fishery peaked in 2012 with over \$10 million revenue (adjusted to 2022 dollars) from 2.6 million pounds sold, while commercial landings (pounds sold) from trolling fishery peaked in 2014 in terms of landings. Since then, both commercial landings and revenue were in a declining trend in general. Total commercial landings and revenue from troll fishery of 2020 was only 61% and 59%, respectively, of 2019, probably due to impact of the pandemic. They went up in 2021 and stayed at similar level in 2022, but were still much lower than the 2019 level. Price information is available in Figure 152.

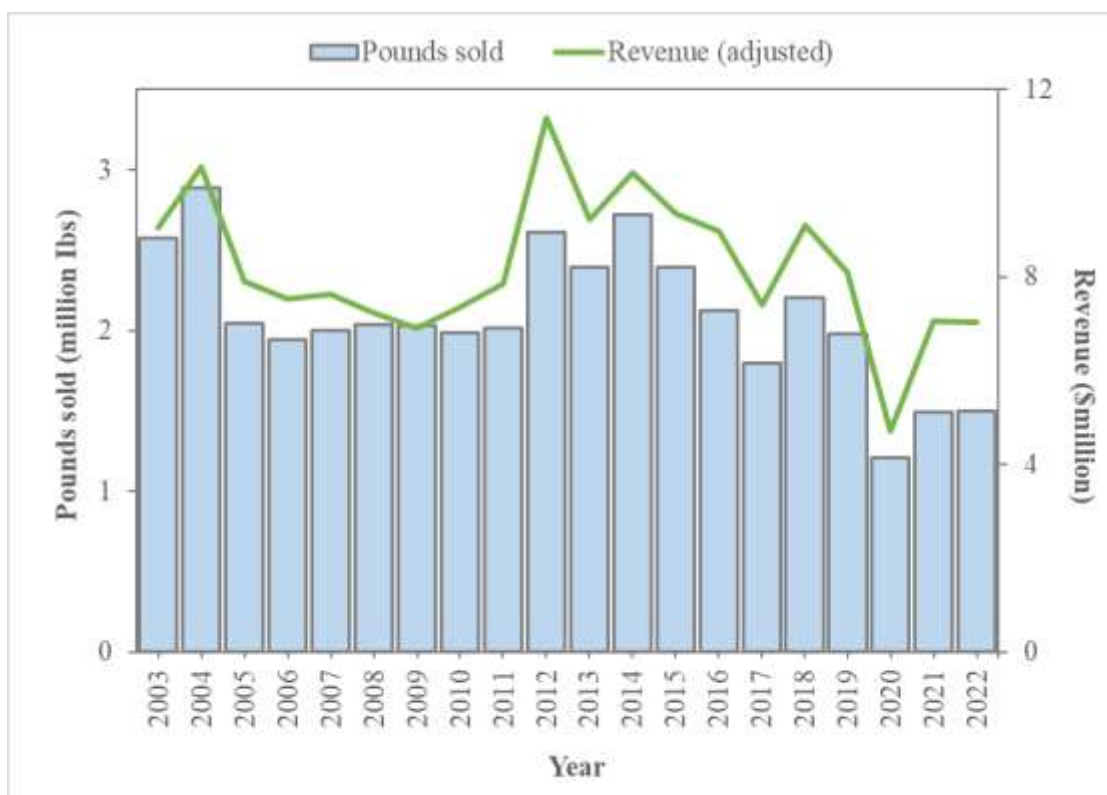


Figure 154. The pounds sold and revenue for the MHI troll adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

3.2.3.4.3.2 Fishing Costs

There are no continuous cost data collection program established for the non-longline PMUS fisheries in Hawaii. Past periodic research has documented the costs of pelagic small boat fishing in Hawaii; both trip expenditure and annual fishing expenditures (fixed costs) are provided in the literature (Hamilton and Huffman 1997; Hospital et al. 2011; Chan and Pan 2017; Chan 2022). The most updated cost data for a Hawaii trolling trip are presented in Figure 153.

3.2.3.4.4 Hawaii Pelagic Handline

3.2.3.4.4.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section describes trends in commercial participation, landings, revenues, and prices for the Hawaii pelagic handline fishery. Figure 155 presents the pounds sold and revenue (adjusted to 2022 dollars) of the MHI troll, 2003-2022. Supporting data for Figure 155 can be found in Table A-130 and Table A-131. The landings and revenue from Hawaii handline fishery peaked in 2012, 1.3 million pounds sold valued over \$4 million (adjusted in 2022 dollars) respectively, then was generally in a declining trend since 2013. Both revenue and commercial landings of Hawaii handline continued declining in 2020, but went up in 2021 and went up more significantly in 2022. Price information is available in Figure 152.

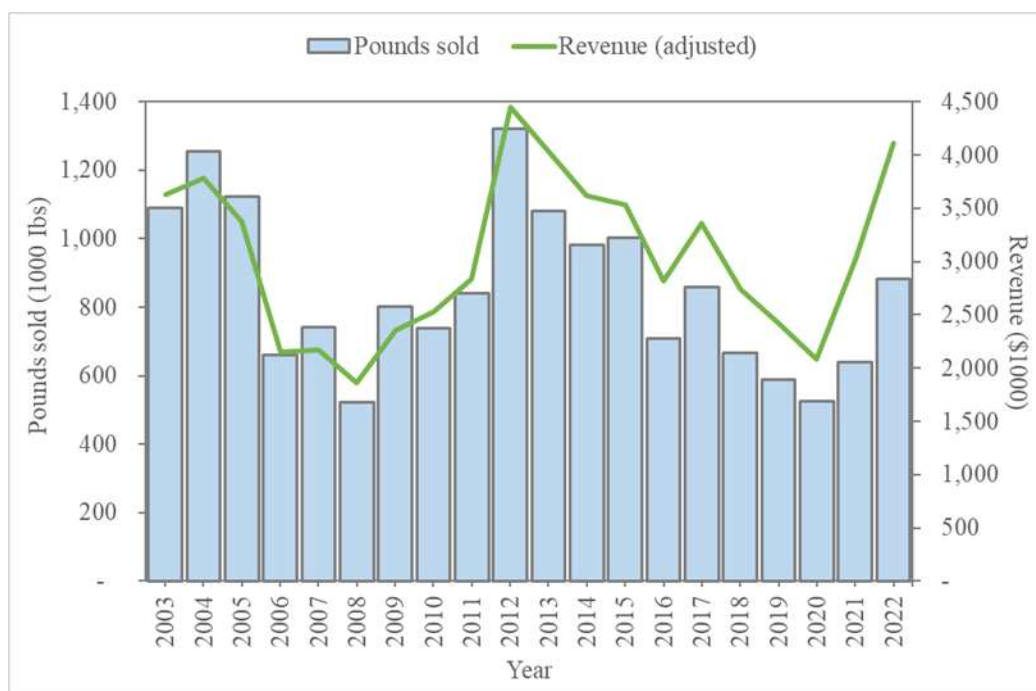


Figure 155. Pounds sold and revenue for MHI handline adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

3.2.3.4.2 Fishing Costs

There are no continuous cost data collection program established for the non-longline PMUS fisheries in Hawaii. Past periodical research has documented the costs of pelagic small boat fishing in Hawaii; both trip expenditure and annual fishing expenditures (fixed costs) are provided in the literature (Hamilton and Huffman 1997; Hospital et al. 2011; Chan and Pan 2017; and Chan 2022). The most current trip cost data for MHI handline trips are presented Figure 153.

3.2.3.4.5 Offshore Handline

3.2.3.4.5.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section describes trends in pounds sold and revenues for the Hawaii offshore handline fishery. Figure 156 presents the pounds sold and revenue (adjusted to 2022 dollars) of the offshore handline, 2003-2022. Supporting data for Figure 156 can be found in Table A-130 and Table A-131. The offshore handline fishery seems stable in most of the years during the period of 2003-2022, except that the pounds sold and revenue jumped up considerably in 2013. The offshore handline in 2022 went up considerably in both landings and revenue, but lower than the historical high in 2013. Price information is available in Figure 152.



Figure 156. The pounds sold and revenue for the offshore handline (adjusted to 2022 dollars)¹
¹ Data sourced from the PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

3.2.3.4.5.2 Fishing Costs

Fishing costs for offshore handline were first studied in the 2014 Hawaii small boat survey (Chan and Pan 2019b). Fishing trip costs were collected from the 2014 Hawaii small boat survey (Chan and Pan 2017). Fishermen were asked their fishing trip costs for the most common and second most common gear types they used in the past 12 months and the survey provides information on the variable costs incurred during the operation of vessel including boat fuel, truck fuel, oil, ice, bait, food and beverage, daily maintenance and repair, and other. However, the 2021 survey did not receive any updated cost information on the offshore handline.

3.2.3.4.6 Other Gears (Including Aku Boat/Pole and Line)

3.2.3.4.6.1 Commercial Participation, Landings, Revenue, and Prices

This section will describe trends in commercial pounds sold and revenues for the “other gears”. Figure 157 presents the pounds sold and revenue (adjusted to 2022 dollars) of the other gears 2003-2022 (excluding aku boats because data are confidential from 2019 to 2022 and the dramatic changes from \$1 million revenue in 2023 to \$4000 in 2018) during the reporting period). Supporting data for Figure 157 can be found in Table A-130 and Table A-131. After a period of continuous declines, the commercial landings and revenue from the other-gear-group (excluding Aku fishing) has risen slowly since 2017. In 2022, the revenue generated from the other fisheries 2022 went up considerably.

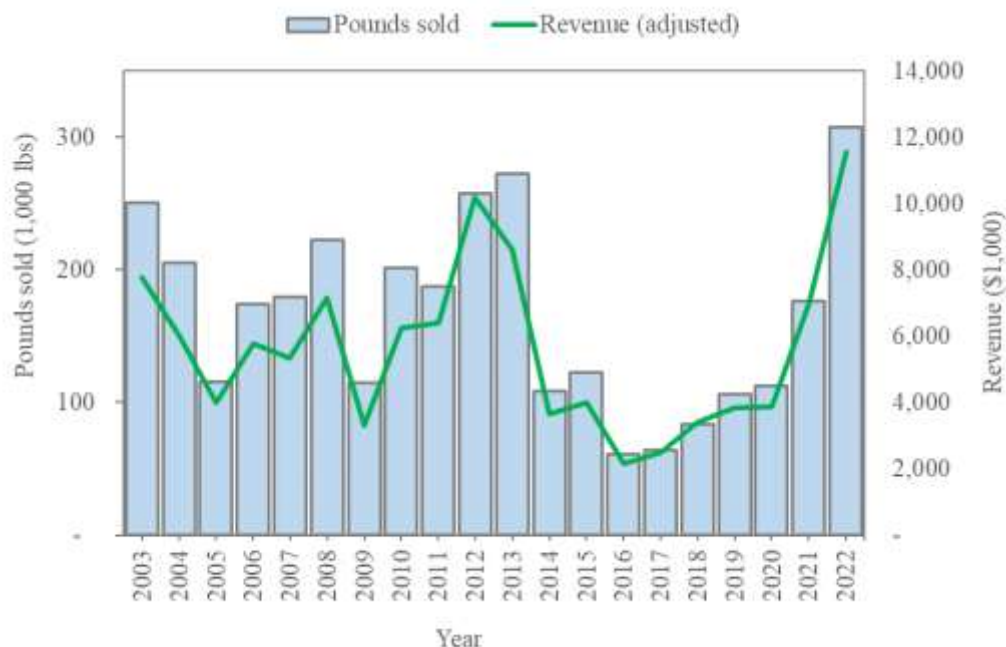


Figure 157. The pounds sold and revenue for all other gears (excluding aku-boat) adjusted to 2022 dollars¹

¹ Data sourced from the PIFSC Pelagic Module data request.

3.2.3.4.6.2 Fishing Costs

Fishing cost data for the other presented gears were not available at the time of publication.

3.2.4 ONGOING RESEARCH AND INFORMATION COLLECTION

Each year, the PIFSC reports on the status of economic data collections for select regional commercial fisheries. This supports a national economic data monitoring effort known as the Commercial Fishing Economic Assessment Index (CFEAI). Details on the CFEAI and access to data from other regions is available at: <https://www.st.nmfs.noaa.gov/data-and-tools/CFEAI-RFEAI/>.

The table below represents the most recent data available for CFEAI metrics for select regional commercial fisheries for 2022. Entries for Pelagic fisheries are bolded in red. These values represent the most recent year of data for key economic data monitoring parameters (fishing revenues, operating costs, and fixed costs). The assessment column indicates the most recent publication year for specific economic assessments (returns above operating cost, profit), where available.

Table 48. Pacific Islands Region 2022 Commercial Fishing Economic Assessment Index

| | 2022 Projected CFEAI | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| | 2022 Reporting Year (e.g. 1/2022-12/2022) | | | | |
| | Data | | | Assessment | |
| Pacific Islands Fisheries | Fishing Revenue Most Recent Year | Operating Cost Most Recent Year | Fixed Cost Most Recent Year | Returns Above Operating Costs (Quasi Rent) Assessment Most Recent Year | Profit Assessment Most Recent Year |
| HI Longline | 2022 | 2022 | 2013 | 2022 | 2016 |
| ASam Longline | 2022 | 2022 | 2016 | 2022 | 2019 |
| HI Offshore Handline | 2022 | 2014 | 2014 | 2019 | 2019 |
| HI Small Boat (pelagic) | 2022 | 2021 | 2021 | 2017 | 2019 |
| HI Small Boat (bottomfish) | 2022 | 2021 | 2021 | 2017 | 2019 |
| HI Small Boat (reef) | 2022 | 2021 | 2021 | 2017 | 2019 |
| Guam Small boat | 2022 | 2022 | 2019 | 2019 | |
| CNMI Small boat | 2022 | 2022 | 2019 | 2019 | |
| ASam Small boat | 2022 | 2022 | 2021 | 2019 | |

PIFSC also generates projections for upcoming fiscal years, and the table below provides the projected CFEAI report for 2022 (*all projected activities and analyses are subject to funding*). Based on early projections PIFSC intends to maintain ongoing economic data collections for the Hawaii and American Samoa longline fisheries (Pan 2018) and small boat fisheries in American Samoa, Guam and the CNMI (Chan and Pan 2019a) during 2022.

Table 49. Pacific Islands Region 2023 Commercial Fishing Economic Assessment Index

| | 2023 CFEAI | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| | 2023 Reporting Year (e.g. 1/2023-12/2023) | | | | |
| | Data | | | Assessment | |
| Pacific Islands Fisheries | Fishing Revenue Most Recent Year | Operating Cost Most Recent Year | Fixed Cost Most Recent Year | Returns Above Operating Costs (Quasi Rent) Assessment Most Recent Year | Profit Assessment Most Recent Year |
| HI Longline | 2023 | 2023 | 2023 | 2023 | 2016 |
| ASam Longline | 2023 | 2023 | 2016 | 2023 | 2019 |
| HI Offshore Handline | 2023 | 2014 | 2014 | 2019 | 2019 |
| HI Small Boat (pelagic) | 2023 | 2021 | 2021 | 2023 | 2023 |
| HI Small Boat (bottomfish) | 2023 | 2021 | 2021 | 2023 | 2023 |
| HI Small Boat (reef) | 2023 | 2021 | 2021 | 2023 | 2023 |
| Guam Small boat | 2023 | 2023 | 2019 | 2019 | |
| CNMI Small boat | 2023 | 2023 | 2019 | 2019 | |
| ASam Small boat | 2023 | 2023 | 2021 | 2019 | |

PIFSC fielded an update to the Hawaii small boat cost earnings survey (Chan and Pan 2017; Hospital et al. 2011) during calendar year 2021 (Chan 2022). This survey will provide updated information on operating costs and fixed costs for the Hawaii pelagic small boat fisheries, as well as numerous elements related to fishing behavior, market participation, and fishery demographics. PIFSC intends final survey results to be published during 2023.

A cost-earnings survey of the American Samoa small boat fishery was completed during 2021. This survey will provide updated data on fishing revenues, operating costs, and fixed costs, as well as numerous elements related to fishing behavior, market participation, and fishery

demographics for American Samoa boat-based fisheries. PIFSC intends final survey results to be published during 2023.

PIFSC completed a cost-earnings survey of small boat fisheries in Guam and the CNMI during 2018-2019 to serve as an update to the previous 2011 cost-earnings survey (Hospital and Beavers 2012, 2014). This 2018-2019 survey collected data on fishing revenues, operating costs, and fixed costs, as well as numerous elements related to fishing behavior, market participation, and fishery demographics. Efforts to complete the analysis of the 2018-2019 cost-earnings have been delayed due to staff departures coupled with COVID-19 monitoring requirements and PIFSC intends final survey results to be published during 2023.

Plans to field an update to the Hawaii longline cost earnings survey (Kalberg and Pan 2016) during 2021 have been postponed to 2023, on account of ongoing pandemic restrictions. This survey will ultimately provide updated information on fixed costs, labor costs, and allow for a more in depth analysis of economic performance for the fleet.

PIFSC will continue to collect and monitor annual community social indicators (Kleiber et al. 2018; Hospital and Leong 2021) for Hawaii fishing communities, in accordance with a national project to describe and evaluate community well-being in terms of environmental justice, economic vulnerability, and gentrification pressure (<https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/socioeconomics/social-indicators-coastal-communities>).

Community social indicators have also been generated for American Samoa, the CNMI and Guam (Kleiber et al. 2018). However, indicators in the Western Pacific rely solely on decennial Census data and cannot be updated until 2020 Census data becomes available, likely during 2023.

3.2.5 RELEVANT PIFSC ECONOMICS AND HUMAN DIMENSIONS PUBLICATIONS: 2022

| Publication | MSRA priority |
|---|-------------------------------|
| Ayers AL, Leong K. 2022. Focusing on the human dimensions to reduce protected species bycatch. Fisheries Research, Volume 254: 106432. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fishres.2022.106432 | PS1.4.2 PS1.4.5 PS2.4.2 |
| Ayers A, Leong K, Hospital J, Tam C, Morioka R. 2022. Guam & CNMI fisher observations data summary and analysis. Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, PIFSC Data Report, DR-22-26, 17 p. https://doi.org/10.25923/wmv2-y197 | HC3.1.1 HC3.1.3 HC1.1.7 |
| Ayers A, Leong K, Hospital J, Tam C, Morioka R. 2022. Hawai'i fisher observations data summary and analysis. Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, PIFSC Data Report, DR-22-27, 23 p. https://doi.org/10.25923/aepb-m302 | HC3.1.1 HC3.1.3 HC1.1.7 |
| Dombrow C, Rollins E, Sweeney J, Hospital J. 2022. Hawai'i Pelagic Fisheries Market Analysis. U.S. Dept. of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NOAA-TM-NMFS-PIFSC-127, 72 p. https://doi.org/10.25923/nb9m-2x97 | HC1.1.3 |

| | |
|---|--------------------|
| Freitag A, Blake S, Clay PM, Haynie AC, Kelble C, Jepson M, Kasperski S, Leong KM, Moss JH, Regan SD. 2022. Scale matters - Relating Wetland Loss and Commercial Fishing Activity in Louisiana across Spatial Scales. <i>Nature and Culture</i> , 17(2), 144-169. https://doi.org/10.3167/nc.2022.170202 | HC2.1.2 HC3.1.3 |
| Kleiber D, Iwane M, Kamikawa K, Leong K, Hospital J. 2022. Pacific Islands Region Fisheries and COVID-19: Impacts and adaptations. U.S. Dept. of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NOAA-TM-NMFS-PIFSC-130, 36 p. https://doi.org/10.25923/2fpm-c128 | HC2.2.4 |
| Smith SL, Cook S, Golden A, Iwane MA, Kleiber D, Leong KM, Mastitski A, Richmond L, Szymkowiak M, Wise S. 2022. Review of adaptations of U.S. commercial fisheries in response to the COVID-19 pandemic using the Resist-Accept-Direct (RAD) framework. <i>Fisheries Management and Ecology</i> . 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1111/fme.12567 | HC2.2.4 |

3.3 PROTECTED SPECIES

This section of the report summarizes information on protected species interactions in fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP. Protected species covered in this report include sea turtles, seabirds, marine mammals, elasmobranchs, and corals. Most of these species are protected under the Endangered Species Act (ESA), Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), and/or the Migratory Bird Treaty Act (MBTA). A list of protected species found in or near waters where fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP operate and a list of critical habitat designations in the Pacific Ocean are included in Appendix B.

3.3.1 HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

3.3.1.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MANAGEMENT MEASURES IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

This report monitors the status of protected species interactions in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery using the following indicators:

- General interaction trends over time
- Effectiveness of FEP conservation measures
- Take levels compared to the incidental take statement (ITS) levels under the ESA
- Take levels compared to marine mammal Potential Biological Removals (PBRs), where applicable

Details of these indicators are discussed below.

3.3.1.1.1 Conservation Measures

The Pelagic FEP includes a number of conservation measures to mitigate seabird and sea turtle interactions in the shallow-set longline fishery. These measures include the following:

- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to adhere to regulations for safe handling and release of sea turtles and seabirds.
- Longline vessel owners/operators must have on board the vessel all required turtle handling/dehooking gear specified in regulations.
- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to remove trailing gear from oceanic whitetip sharks and cut the line as close to the hook as possible.
- Longline vessel owners/operators can choose between side-setting or stern-setting longline gear with additional regulatory specifications to reduce seabird interactions (e.g., night-setting, blue-dyed bait, weighted branch lines, strategic offal discards, using a “bird curtain”).
- When shallow-set longline fishing north of the Equator:
 - Use 18/0 or larger circle hooks with no more than 10° offset.
 - Use mackerel-type bait.
 - Vessel owners and operators required to annually attend protected species workshop
 - Closure for remainder of year when fishery reaches annual interaction limits (“hard caps”). Since September 17, 2020, the fishery has operated under a hard

cap of 16 leatherback turtles and no hard cap for loggerhead turtles (see Section 3.3.1.3.2, this report)

- Effective September 17, 2020, vessels required to return to port when an individual trip interaction limit of 5 loggerhead turtles or 2 leatherback turtles is reached, with additional requirements if the vessel reaches the same trip limit for the second time in a calendar year (see Section 3.3.1.3.2 of this report)

3.3.1.1.2 ESA Consultations

Two valid Biological Opinions document the effects of the shallow-set fishery on ESA listed species. On January 6, 2012, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service issued a Biological Opinion on the effects of the Hawaii deep-set and shallow-set longline fisheries on ESA-listed seabirds (USFWS 2012). The USFWS concluded that the shallow-set fishery would not jeopardize the short-tailed albatross and included an incidental take statement of one short-tailed albatross interaction every five years. To date the fishery has not interacted with any short-tailed albatross.

On June 26, 2019, NMFS issued a biological opinion on the effects of the shallow-set fishery on ESA-listed marine species (NMFS 2019). In total, 49 listed resources comprised of 40 listed species and nine critical habitat designations occur within the area the shallow-set fishery operates and were analyzed in the 2019 Biological Opinion. These also include listed fish, marine invertebrates, and other critical habitat in vessel transiting areas of the shallow-set fishery primarily in California (Long Beach, San Francisco, and San Diego).

NMFS concluded that the continued authorization of the fishery is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of any of the following: endangered North Pacific loggerhead sea turtle distinct population segment (DPS); endangered leatherback sea turtle; endangered Mexico breeding population of olive ridley sea turtle, and threatened (other) populations of olive ridley sea turtle; threatened Eastern Pacific green sea turtle DPS; threatened Central North Pacific green sea turtle DPS; threatened East Indian-West Pacific green sea turtle DPS; endangered Central West Pacific green sea turtle DPS; threatened Southwest Pacific green sea turtle DPS; endangered Central South Pacific green sea turtle DPS; threatened oceanic whitetip shark; threatened giant manta ray; and threatened Guadalupe fur seal.

In its 2019 Biological Opinion, NMFS issued an ITS for the loggerhead, leatherback, green, olive ridley, Guadalupe fur seal, oceanic whitetip shark, and giant manta ray, which were derived from interaction predictions generated by McCracken (2018) using a Bayesian inferential approach (Table 51). These predictions are based on observer data from 2005-2017 for all species, except for loggerheads (2005-2018) where more recent data were available.

Additionally, the 2019 Biological Opinion concluded that the shallow-set fishery may affect, but is not likely to adversely affect the following: hawksbill sea turtle; MHI insular false killer whale DPS; Mexico and Central America humpback whale DPSs; fin whale; blue whale; North Pacific right whale; sei whale; sperm whale; Eastern Pacific scalloped hammerhead shark DPS; and listed fish and invertebrate species common to transiting areas off the coast of California (Central California coast coho salmon, Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, Central California coast steelhead, California coast steelhead, Southern North American green sturgeon, Black abalone, and White abalone).

The 2019 Biological Opinion also concluded that the shallow-set fishery is not likely to adversely modify designated critical habitat for the following: leatherback sea turtle; Hawaiian

monk seal; MHI insular false killer whale; Steller sea lion; and critical habitat for listed fish and invertebrate species common to transiting areas off the coast of California (Central California coast coho salmon, Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, California coast steelhead, Southern North American green sturgeon, and Black abalone).

Table 50. Summary of ESA consultations for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery

| Species or DPS | Consultation Date | Consultation Type ^a | Outcome ^b |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Loggerhead turtle, North Pacific DPS | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Leatherback turtle | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Olive ridley turtle | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Hawksbill turtle | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| False killer whale, MHI insular DPS | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Fin whale | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Blue whale | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| North Pacific right whale | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Sei whale | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Sperm whale | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Hawaiian monk seal | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Guadalupe fur seal | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Eastern Pacific DPS | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Giant manta ray | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Listed fish and invertebrate species ^c | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Short-tailed albatross | 2012-01-06 | BiOp (FWS) | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Critical Habitat | Consultation Date | Consultation Type ^a | Outcome ^b |
| Hawaiian monk seal | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| False killer whale, MHI insular DPS | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Leatherback turtle | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Steller sea lion | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Listed fish and invertebrate species ^d | 2019-06-26 | BiOp | NLAA |

^a BiOp = Biological Opinion; LOC = Letter of Concurrence.

^b LAA = likely to adversely affect; NLAA = not likely to adversely affect.

^c Listed fish and invertebrate species = Central California coast coho salmon, Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, Central California coast steelhead, California coast steelhead, Southern North American green sturgeon, Black abalone, and White abalone.

^d Listed fish and invertebrate species = Central California coast coho salmon, Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, California coast steelhead, Southern North American green sturgeon, and Black abalone.

Table 51. Summary of Incidental Take Statements (ITS) for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery

| Species | ITS Time Period | Takes | Mortalities | Source BiOp |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Loggerhead turtle (North Pacific DPS) | 1-year | 36 | 6 | NMFS (2019) |
| Leatherback turtle | 1-year | 21 | 3 | NMFS (2019) |
| Olive ridley turtle | 1-year | 5 | 1 | NMFS (2019) |
| Green turtle | 1-year | 5 | 1 | NMFS (2019) |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 1-year | 102 | 32 | NMFS (2019) |
| Giant manta ray | 1-year | 13 | 4 | NMFS (2019) |
| Guadalupe fur seal | 1-year | 11 | 9 | NMFS (2019) |
| Short-tailed albatross | 5-year | 1 injury or death | | USFWS (2012) |

3.3.1.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

Fishery impacts to marine mammal stocks are primarily assessed and monitored through the Stock Assessment Reports (SARs) prepared pursuant to the MMPA. The SARs include detailed information on these species' geographic range, abundance, potential biological removal (PBR) estimates, bycatch estimates, and status. The most recent SARs are available online at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-region>.

The Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery is a Category II under the MMPA 2023 List of Fisheries (LOF; 88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), meaning that this fishery has occasional incidental mortality and serious injuries of marine mammals. The 2023 LOF lists the following marine mammal stocks that are incidentally killed or injured in this fishery:³

- Bottlenose dolphin, HI Pelagic stock
- False killer whale, HI Pelagic stock
- Fin whale, HI stock
- Guadalupe fur seal
- Humpback whale, Central North Pacific stock
- Risso's dolphin, HI stock
- Striped dolphin, HI stock

Most bycatch estimates in the SARs are based on the most recently available 5-year period, but there is a data lag of at least two years due to the SAR review process. This annual report focuses on available long-term interaction trends and summarizes relevant information from the most recent SAR.

³ This fishery is listed in the LOF under Commercial Fisheries in the Pacific Ocean and Commercial Fisheries on the High Seas. Stocks from both lists are included here.

3.3.1.2 DATA SOURCE FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Protected species interactions in the Hawaii longline fishery have been monitored through mandatory observer coverage since 1994. Observer coverage in the Hawaii longline fishery was between 3 and 5 percent from 1994 through 1999 and increased to 10 percent in 2000. Since 2004, the shallow-set component of the Hawaii longline fishery has had 100 percent observer coverage.

NMFS uses the date of the interaction for tracking interactions against the ITS and the shallow-set longline sea turtle hard caps, while the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports through 2020 summarized interaction data by vessel arrival dates. As a result, the annual number of interactions counting toward the ITS and hard caps may differ from the numbers reported on the historical Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports. Starting in 2021, the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports began summarizing interaction data by haul begin dates (proxy for interaction date). This report presents sea turtle interactions summarized by vessel arrival date (Table 52) and by interaction date (Table 53) for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery. For the remainder of species and fisheries, the annual observed interactions are based on vessel arrival date.

In 2006 and 2019, the shallow-set longline fishery closed in March, and in 2018 the fishery closed in May (see Section 3.3.1.3.2, this report). Due to these early closures in first and second quarters, data for these years are not representative of typical fishing years and should be interpreted with caution.

3.3.1.3 SEA TURTLE INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 52 summarizes the incidental take data of sea turtles from 2004 to 2022 in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery summarized by vessel arrival date in accordance with the Observer Program. Additionally,

Table 53 summarizes the sea turtle interaction data based on interaction date to allow comparison with the hard caps. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports as well as unpublished observer data and are for monitoring purposes. Since there is full observer coverage for this fishery, all sea turtle interactions have been documented. Many of these interactions have been examined further by PIFSC, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. The incidental take data for the fourth quarter of 2007 were combined with 2008 data due to vessel confidentiality rules.

Based on the vessel arrival date (Table 53), nearly all sea turtles observed in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery from 2004 to 2022 were released alive, with the exception of three total loggerhead turtles released dead in 2018 and 2020, and one olive ridley turtle released dead in 2019. Additionally, one loggerhead in 2013 was entangled in marine debris that was entangled with fishing gear and NMFS did not count this turtle towards the annual shallow-set interaction limit. One unidentified hard shell in 2013 was classified by NMFS as a loggerhead per protocol and was counted towards the annual shallow-set interaction limit for loggerheads. The highest interaction rates involved both leatherback and loggerhead turtles, whereas interactions with greens, olive ridleys, and unidentified hard shell turtles were much less frequent.

The observed number of sea turtle takes per year has been variable for green, olive ridley, leatherback, and unidentified hard shell turtles. Higher numbers of interactions with loggerhead turtles were observed starting in late 2017. In total, 21, 33, and 20 loggerhead turtles were observed in 2017, 2018, 2019, respectively, based on interaction date summary (Table 53). The fishery was closed May-December 2018 due to a stipulated settlement, and March-December 2019 due to reaching the loggerhead hard cap, thus interaction rate data for these years are not directly comparable to other years in which the fishery operated throughout the year. Loggerhead turtle interactions in 2020 were lower than the previous three years, although shallow-set effort in 2020 was not reflective of a typical fishing year due to 1) the shallow-set vessels voluntarily reducing effort in the first quarter after majority of the 2020 loggerhead turtle interactions were observed in January; and 2) impacts from the COVID-19 pandemic especially in second quarter. Additional discussion regarding the higher number of loggerhead turtle interactions observed since 2017 is provided in Section 3.3.1.3.2, and a summary of an analysis evaluating the experimental oceanographic TurtleWatch product is provided in Section 4.1.

Table 52. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for sea turtles in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery based on vessel arrival date associated with Pacific Islands Regional Observer Program annual reports, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Observer Coverage (%) | Sets | Hooks | Green | | Leatherback | | Loggerhead | | Olive ridley | | Unidentified hard shell | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.013 | 1 | 0.013 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.000 | 8 | 0.006 | 10 | 0.008 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.003 | 17 ^b | 0.023 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 ^c | 0.003 |
| 2007 ^d | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.000 | 5 | 0.004 | 15 | 0.012 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 1 | 0.001 | 2 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 1 | 0.001 | 9 | 0.005 | 3 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 0 | 0.000 | 7 | 0.004 | 5 | 0.003 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 4 | 0.002 | 17 | 0.011 | 14 | 0.009 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.000 | 7 ^e | 0.005 | 5 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 0 | 0.000 | 6 | 0.007 | 5 ^f | 0.005 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 ^g | 0.001 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 1 | 0.001 | 19 | 0.013 | 13 | 0.009 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.000 | 6 | 0.005 | 15 | 0.012 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.000 | 5 | 0.006 | 16 | 0.019 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 2 | 0.002 | 4 | 0.004 | 16 | 0.015 | 4 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 1 | 0.002 | 6 | 0.011 | 38(2) | 0.070 | 1 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 20 | 0.053 | 2(1) | 0.006 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.003 | 15(1) | 0.026 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 1 | 0.001 | 3 | 0.003 | 16 | 0.016 | 2 | 0.002 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.000 | 8 | 0.007 | 23 | 0.019 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b The released conditions of two loggerheads were unknown.

^c The released condition of one unidentified hard shell turtle was unknown.

^d Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

^e The released condition of one leatherback was unknown.

^f One injured loggerhead was entangled in marine debris, which became entangled with fishing gear. This loggerhead did not count toward the annual shallow-set interaction limit but is included in this table.

^g One turtle listed as an unidentified hard shell sea turtle in the Observer Program Status Report is being classified as a loggerhead per protocol for the shallow-set interaction limit and will count toward the annual shallow-set limit.

Sources: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

Table 53. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for sea turtles in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery based on interaction date for comparison with the shallow-set sea turtle hard caps, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Observer Coverage (%) | Sets | Hooks | Green | | Leatherback | | Loggerhead | | Olive ridley | | Unidentified hard shell | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|------|-----------|-------|--------------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 135 | 115,718 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.009 | 1 | 0.009 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1646 | 1,358,247 | 0 | 0.000 | 8 | 0.006 | 10 | 0.009 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 850 | 676,716 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.003 | 17 ^b | 0.022 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 ^c | 0.003 |
| 2007 ^d | 100 | 1569 | 1,353,761 | 0 | 0.000 | 5 | 0.004 | 15 | 0.011 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1595 | 1,460,042 | 1 | 0.001 | 2 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1761 | 1,694,550 | 1 | 0.001 | 9 | 0.005 | 3 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1872 | 1,835,182 | 0 | 0.000 | 8 | 0.004 | 7 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1474 | 1,505,467 | 4 | 0.003 | 16 | 0.011 | 12 | 0.008 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1364 | 1,476,969 | 0 | 0.000 | 7 ^e | 0.005 | 6 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 962 | 1,074,909 | 0 | 0.000 | 10 | 0.009 | 6 ^f | 0.006 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 ^g | 0.001 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1338 | 1,470,683 | 1 | 0.001 | 16 | 0.011 | 14 | 0.010 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1156 | 1,274,805 | 0 | 0.000 | 5 | 0.004 | 13 | 0.011 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 727 | 796,165 | 0 | 0.000 | 5 | 0.006 | 15 | 0.019 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 1005 | 1,083,216 | 2 | 0.002 | 4 | 0.004 | 21(1) | 0.019 | 4 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 420 | 486,013 | 1 | 0.002 | 6 | 0.012 | 33(1) | 0.068 | 1 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 314 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 20 | 0.053 | 2(1) | 0.005 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 479 | 624,579 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.003 | 15(1) | 0.024 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 804 | 1,026,373 | 1 | 0.001 | 3 | 0.003 | 19 | 0.019 | 2 | 0.002 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2022 | 100 | 971 | 1,242,997 | 0 | 0.000 | 11 | 0.009 | 24 | 0.019 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data based on interaction dates. Set and hook data based on haul begin date as a proxy for interaction date.

^b The released conditions of two loggerheads were unknown.

^c The released condition of one unidentified hard shell turtle was unknown.

^d Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

^e The released condition of one leatherback was unknown.

^f One injured loggerhead was entangled in marine debris, which became entangled with fishing gear. This loggerhead will not count toward the annual shallow-set interaction limit but is included in this table.

^g One turtle listed as an unidentified hard shell sea turtle in the Observer Program Status Report is being classified as a loggerhead per protocol for the shallow-set interaction limit and will count toward the annual shallow-set limit.

Sources: PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

3.3.1.3.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

Due to a fishery closure in March 2019, the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery in 2019 operated solely under the ITSs in the 2012 Biological Opinion (NMFS 2012). The ITS from the June 26, 2019 Biological Opinion took effect in January 2020 when the fishery reopened.

Under the 2019 Biological Opinion, NMFS will monitor the ITSs for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery annually starting in January 2020 to track incidental take. NMFS uses the date of the interaction for tracking sea turtle interactions against the ITS (Table 54), regardless of when the vessel returns to port. NMFS uses the post-hooking mortality criteria (Ryder et al. 2006) to estimate sea turtle mortality rates.

Table 54. Observed interactions and estimated total mortality (M) (using Ryder et al. 2006) of sea turtles in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery compared to the 1-year ITS in the 2019 Biological Opinion^a

| Species | 1-year ITS Interactions (M) | Interactions (M) | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|--------------------|-------|
| | | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
| Green turtle | 5(1) | 0(0) | 1(0) | 0(0) |
| Leatherback turtle | 21(3) | 2(1) | 3(1) | 11(3) |
| Loggerhead turtle (North Pacific DPS) | 36(6) | 15(2) | 20(4) ^b | 24(5) |
| Olive ridley turtle | 5(1) | 0(0) | 2(0) | 2(1) |

^a Takes are counted based on interaction date.

^b Includes one unidentified turtle.

3.3.1.3.2 Effectiveness of FEP Conservation Measures

Management measures in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery have been effective in reducing the number of sea turtle interactions. The introduction of sea turtle bycatch reduction measures for the fishery in 2004, such as switching from J-hooks to circle hooks, and from squid bait to mackerel bait, resulted in an 89% decrease in sea turtle interactions in 2004-2006 compared to interactions observed in 1994 through 2002 (Gilman et al. 2007). A more recent analysis, including observer data through 2014, show that these mitigation measures continue to be effective with reductions in leatherback and loggerhead turtle interaction rates of 84% and 95%, respectively, for the post-regulation period (Swimmer et al. 2017). The rate of deeply hooked sea turtles, which is thought to result in higher mortality levels, also declined after those measures were implemented (Gilman et al. 2007).

From 2012 to 2018, the fishery did not reach the annual hard cap for either leatherback or loggerhead turtles (26 and 34, respectively, based on the 2012 Biological Opinion ITSs). The Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery was closed in May 2018 pursuant to a settlement agreement. At the time of the closure, the fishery had 33 loggerhead interactions (Table 53), thus the fishery was closed prior to reaching the annual hard cap limit of 34 turtles. From 2004 to 2012, the shallow-set fishery operated under hard caps of 17 loggerhead turtles and 16 leatherback turtles (except in 2010 when the loggerhead hard cap was 46 under Pelagic FEP Amendment 18; later returned to 17 loggerheads due to litigation). The fishery reached the loggerhead hard cap in 2006 and the leatherback hard cap in 2011 (Table 53). Due to the 2018 stipulated settlement agreement, the hard cap limit of 17 loggerhead turtles was reinstated based on the 2004 Biological Opinion when the fishery reopened on January 1, 2019, and remained in place until

September 17, 2020. In 2019, the fishery closed on March 19 due to reaching the loggerhead hard cap limit of 17⁴, and the fishery reopened on January 1, 2020.

In 2017–2019, loggerhead turtle interactions in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery were higher than levels previously observed since the fishery reopened in 2004. A total of 21 loggerhead interactions were observed in 2017, 33 loggerhead interactions observed from January 2018 to the fishery closure in May, and 20 loggerhead interactions observed from January 2019 to the fishery closure in March. The increase in loggerhead interactions may be explained by the high reproductive output at their source nesting beaches in Japan. Loggerhead turtle nest counts increased nearly an order of magnitude from 1997 to 2014. The high levels of nesting likely resulted in higher hatchling production. Most of the loggerhead turtles observed interacting with the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery in 2017 and 2018 were in the range of 40 to 60 cm straight carapace length, which is estimated to be approximately 3 to 10 years in age and consistent with the period of high nesting in Japan.

In response to the higher number of loggerhead turtle interactions in the shallow-set fishery, the Council in 2018 developed management measures to provide managers and fishery participants with the necessary tools to respond to and mitigate fluctuations in loggerhead and leatherback turtle interactions, and to ensure a continued supply of fresh swordfish to U.S. markets, consistent with the conservation needs of these sea turtles. At its 179th Meeting in August 2019, the Council took final action to amend the Pelagic FEP to modify sea turtle mitigation measures for the shallow-set fishery, incorporating provisions required under the 2019 Biological Opinion Reasonable and Prudent Measures (RPMs) and Terms and Conditions 1a and 1b. Specifically, the Council recommended 1) setting an annual fleet-wide hard cap limit on the number of leatherback turtle interactions at 16, consistent with RPMs and Terms and Conditions 1a under the 2019 Biological Opinion; 2) not setting an annual fleet-wide hard cap limit on the number of North Pacific loggerhead turtle interactions; and 3) establishing individual trip interaction limits for loggerhead and leatherback turtles for the shallow-set fishery, consistent with RPMs and Terms and Conditions 1b under the 2019 Biological Opinion. NMFS published the Notice of Availability for Amendment 10 on January 23, 2020 (85 FR 3889) and the proposed rule on February 4, 2020 (85 FR 6131). Amendment 10 became effective on April 22, 2020, and the regulations implementing the amendment became effective on September 17, 2020 (85 FR 57988).

As part of the final action for Amendment 10, the Council recommended an annual review of the fishery's performance under the trip interaction limits in the Annual SAFE Report. Table 55 shows the distribution of the shallow-set vessels' interactions with loggerhead and leatherback turtle interactions from January 1 – December 31, 2022. The current limits are five loggerhead turtle interactions per trip or two leatherback turtle interactions per trip. In 2022, one trip reached the leatherback trip limit.

⁴ The actual observed number of interactions for 2019 was 20 loggerhead turtles due to the fishery having multiple observed interactions on the day the hard cap was reached.

Table 55. Number of shallow-set longline trips by the number of loggerhead and leatherback turtle interactions per trip, January 1 – December 31, 2022. The total number of trips in this period was 75

| Loggerhead turtles | | Leatherback turtles | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| Number of turtles per trip | Number of trips ^a | Number of turtles per trip | Number of trips |
| 0 | 61 | 0 | 65 |
| 1 | 6 | 1 | 9 |
| 2 | 6 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 2 | ≥3 | 0 |
| ≥4 | 0 | -- | -- |

^a Number of trips based on haul begin date.

3.3.1.4 MARINE MAMMAL INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 56 through Table 60 summarize the incidental take data of marine mammals from 2004 to 2022 in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery. Since there is full observer coverage for this fishery, all marine mammal interactions are documented. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Reported interactions listed in these tables reflect all observed interactions, including mortalities, serious injuries, and non-serious injuries. Refer to the most recent SARs for mortality and serious injury estimates and stock-specific estimates of interactions. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. The incidental take data for the fourth quarter of 2007 were combined with 2008 data due to vessel confidentiality rules.

The majority of observed cetacean interactions and all mortalities during this time period involved small dolphin species (Table 56). Of these species, Risso's dolphins had the highest rate of interactions over time, followed by bottlenose dolphins, striped dolphins, common dolphins, and rough-toothed dolphins with a single take. Marine mammals grouped as small whales (Table 57) and large whales (Table 58) had comparatively lower rates of interactions than most small dolphin species. Small and large whales with observed interactions since 2004 include false killer whale, Blainville's beaked whale, pygmy sperm whale, unidentified *Kogia* species, ginkgo-tooth beaked whale, Bryde's whale, humpback whale, and fin whale. Observed interactions with unidentified cetaceans are shown in Table 59.

Interactions with pinnipeds, including Northern elephant seals, Guadalupe fur seals, and unidentified pinniped species have been occasionally observed since 2013 (Table 60). All pinniped interactions were observed outside of the EEZ off of California, while fishing under the Hawaii longline limited entry permit. In 2022, two Guadalupe fur seals and one unidentified pinniped were observed.

Most of the pinniped interactions to date have occurred in the fourth quarter in areas east of 130 degrees west. Effort in this quarter has increased since 2012, which likely partially explains the increase in pinniped interactions. However, demographic and oceanographic influences may also be playing a role in the increase in interactions, particularly for Guadalupe fur seals. The rebound of this species from near extinction has resulted in an increase in both the overall number of seals and their spatial extent, as they reoccupy the northern portion of their historic migration range (e.g., D'Agnes et al. 2020). Further, foraging studies have indicated that during anomalous warming events in the northeastern Pacific, such as those that occurred between 2014 and 2016,

Guadalupe fur seals expand their foraging areas to the north and offshore (Amador-Capitanachi et al. 2020). These conditions may have also precipitated the Unusual Mortality Event, which has involved the stranding of over 700 predominantly young Guadalupe fur seals along the US West Coast between 2015 and 2021.⁵ Although the marine heatwave of 2014-2016 was the largest and longest on record since monitoring began in 1982, the second and third largest events occurred in 2020 and 2019, respectively.⁶ The marine heatwave of 2022 was the fourth largest and second longest on record, suggesting a northward and offshore shift in the distribution of Guadalupe fur seals and other pinnipeds as in other anomalously warm years. The occurrence of Guadalupe fur seal interactions in 2022 is thus not surprising, especially combined with the level of fishing effort east of 130 degrees west. In 2021, there was limited fishing effort east of this longitude and no pinniped interactions, even though the marine heatwave of 2021 was the seventh largest on record, suggesting a dynamic relationship between oceanographic conditions and fishing effort is likely driving pinniped interactions in this fishery.

⁵ <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/2015-2021-guadalupe-fur-seal-unusual-mortality-event-california>

⁶ <https://www.integratedecosystemassessment.noaa.gov/regions/california-current/california-current-marine-heatwave-tracker-blobtracker>

Table 56. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for dolphins in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Observer Coverage (%) | Sets | Hooks | Bottlenose dolphin | | Risso's dolphin | | Rough-toothed dolphin | | Short-beaked common dolphin | | Striped dolphin | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 1 | 0.001 | 2(1) | 0.003 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2007 ^b | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 3 | 0.002 | 3 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.000 | 4(1) | 0.003 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.000 | 3 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 2 | 0.001 | 7(1) | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 2(1) | 0.001 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 2 | 0.001 | 4 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 ^c | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 2(1) | 0.002 | 3 | 0.003 | 1(1) | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 4 | 0.003 | 6(2) | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 2 | 0.001 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 2 | 0.002 | 3(2) | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 1 | 0.001 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 1 | 0.002 | 2 | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 1 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

^c Animal is identified as only a common dolphin in the Observer Program Status Report.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#), PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

Table 57. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for small whales in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Blainville's beaked whale | | False killer whale | | Kogia spp. | | Pygmy sperm whale | | Ginkgo-toothed beaked whale | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|-----------|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2007 ^b | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

Table 58. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for large whales in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Observer Coverage (%) | Sets | Hooks | Bryde's whale | | Humpback whale | | Fin whale | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2007 ^b | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

Table 59. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for unidentified dolphins, beaked whales, whales, and cetaceans in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Unidentified dolphin ^b | | Unidentified beaked whale | | Unidentified whale ^b | | Unidentified cetacean ^b | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2007 ^c | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.001 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Unidentified species identification based on PIRO Observer Program classifications. Unidentified cetacean refers to a marine mammal not including pinnipeds (seal or sea lion); unidentified whale refers to a large whale; unidentified dolphin refers to a small cetacean with a visible beak; and unidentified beaked whale refers to an animal in the Ziphiidae family. Further classifications based on observer description, sketches, photos, and videos may be available from the PIFSC.

^c Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

Table 60. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for pinnipeds in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Northern elephant seal | | Guadalupe fur seal | | Unidentified pinniped | | Unidentified sea lion | | Unidentified seal | | Unidentified fur seal | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|-----------|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2007 ^b | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 3 ^c | 0.002 | 2 ^c | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.000 | 3 ^c | 0.003 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 446,371 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.003 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.000 | 7 | 0.012 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 | 0.003 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.000 | 2(1) | 0.002 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

^c The interactions with these pinnipeds and sea lions occurred off the California coast, outside the EEZ, while fishing under the Hawaii Longline Permit.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

3.3.1.4.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

The 2019 Biological Opinion includes a 1-year ITS of 11 interactions and 9 mortalities with the Guadalupe fur seal. NMFS will monitor the ITSs for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery annually starting in January 2020 to track incidental take. NMFS uses the date of the interaction for tracking pinniped interactions against the ITS (Table 61) regardless of when the vessel returns to port. Prior to 2021, NMFS counted interactions based on vessel arrival dates in the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports. For this reason, the number of annual interactions counted against an ITS may vary from those reported on the Observer Program's quarterly and annual reports. For the purpose of ITS tracking, NMFS uses the mortality rate estimate of 0.80 from the 2019 Biological Opinion to estimate the Guadalupe fur seal mortalities.

Table 61. Observed interactions and estimated total mortalities (M) of Guadalupe fur seals in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery compared to the 1-year ITS in the 2019 Biological Opinion^a

| Species | 1-year ITS Interactions (M) | Interactions (M) | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|------|------|
| | | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
| Guadalupe fur seal | 11(9) | 7(6) | 0(0) | 2(2) |
| Unidentified fur seal ^b | N/A | 2(2) | 0(0) | 0(0) |
| Unidentified pinniped | N/A | 0(0) | 0(0) | 1(1) |

^a Takes are counted based on interaction date.

^b Unidentified fur seal interactions are also tracked as the ITS was based on interaction data that included unidentified pinniped species that may have been Guadalupe fur seals.

3.3.1.4.2 Comparison of Interactions with PBR under the MMPA

Marine mammal takes against the PBR are monitored through the SARs. A summary of the current mean annual M&SI and the PBR for stocks relevant to the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery is presented in Table 62. The PBR of a stock reflects only marine mammals of that stock observed within the EEZ around Hawaii, with the exception of the Central North Pacific stock of humpback whales for which PBR applies to the entire stock. The mean annual M&SI specified in the SARs includes only interactions determined as mortalities and serious injuries; it does not include interactions classified as non-serious injuries.

For marine mammal stocks where the PBR is available, the mean annual M&SI for the shallow-set longline fishery inside the EEZ around Hawaii is well below the corresponding PBR in the time period covered by the current SAR (Table 62).

Table 62. Summary of mean annual M&SI and PBR by marine mammal stocks with observed interactions in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery

| Stock | Years Included in 2021 SARs | Outside EEZ ^a | Inside EEZ | |
|--|-----------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | | Mean Annual M&SI | Mean Annual M&SI | PBR (Inside EEZ only) ^c |
| Bottlenose dolphin, HI Pelagic | 2014-2018 | 2 | 0 | undetermined |
| Risso's dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 2.8 | 0 | 61 |
| Rough-toothed dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 548 |
| Striped dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 0.5 | 0 | 291 |
| Blainville's beaked whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 5.6 |
| False killer whale, HI Pelagic | 2015-2019 | 0.0 | 0 | 16 |
| Short-finned pilot whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 87 |
| <i>Kogia</i> spp. whale (Pygmy or dwarf sperm whale), HI | 2014-2018 | Pygmy = 0 Dwarf = 0 | Pygmy = 0 Dwarf = 0 | Pygmy = 257 Dwarf = undetermined |
| Humpback whale, Central North Pacific | 2014-2018 | 0 | | 83 ^b |
| Fin whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 0.2 |
| Guadalupe fur seal, CA | 2013-2017 | 0.4 | | 1,062 ^b |

^a PBR estimates are not available for portions of the stock outside of the U.S EEZ around Hawaii, except for the Central North Pacific stock of humpback whales for which PBR applies to the entire stock.

^b PBR and M&SI for the Central North Pacific stock for humpback whales and Guadalupe fur seals apply to the entire stock.

^c PBR estimates for Hawaii stocks are only available for portions of the stock within the U.S. EEZ around Hawaii.

Source: [Final 2021 Marine Mammal SARs](#).

3.3.1.5 SEABIRD INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 63 summarizes the incidental take data of seabirds from 2004 to 2022 in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery. Since there is full observer coverage for this fishery, the interactions in Table 63 represent fishery-wide totals.

Interaction data provided here may vary slightly from other sources depending on how interactions were reported (date of trip departure or arrival, set date, or haul date in any given year). The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from NMFS.

NMFS annually publishes the report Seabird Interactions and Mitigation Efforts in Hawaii Longline Fisheries (Seabird Annual Report), which includes verified numbers of seabird interactions and information on fishing regulations and effort, interaction rates, and band recovery data for seabirds caught in the shallow-set and deep-set fisheries. Recent reports are available at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/pacific-islands/bycatch/seabird-interactions-pelagic-longline-fishery>.

The majority of observed interactions and all mortalities during this time period involved Laysan albatrosses and black-footed albatrosses. The fishery has also had a small number of interactions with shearwaters and a northern fulmar, all of which were released injured, and one interaction with an unidentified gull that was released dead. NMFS identified the shearwaters as sooty shearwaters (NMFS 2016). There have been no observed takes of short-tailed albatrosses by this fishery.

Table 63 shows an increase in takes of black-footed albatrosses 2008 through 2017. Black-footed albatross takes from 2018 to 2020 were lower, which may be explained by temporal patterns in interactions. In typical years, the majority of black-footed albatross interactions occur in the second quarter (April-June), but there was lower than average or no fishing effort in that quarter in 2018 through 2020. The shallow-set longline fishery was closed May-December 2018 and March-December 2019 and had limited effort in the second quarter in 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Laysan albatross interactions were also low in 2017-2018. Interaction rate data for 2018-2020 are therefore not directly comparable to other years in which the fishery operated throughout the year. In 2022, black-footed albatross interactions returned to expected levels with the fishery operating year-round, and had higher number of interactions than 2017. Laysan albatross interactions have been relatively more stable.

In the process of developing a regulatory amendment to modify seabird mitigation measures in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery (see Section 3.3.2.5), the Council at the 185th meeting in March 2021 considered options for modifying the shallow-set longline fishery seabird mitigation measures. Based on input from its advisory bodies and industry representatives

and because conditions differ in the shallow-set longline fishery as compared to the deep-set longline fishery, the Council recommended additional research under an Experimental Fishing Permit (EFP) and development of an appropriate combination of mitigation measures for the shallow-set longline fishery. The Council placed high priority on identifying a combination of mitigation measures that maintain effectiveness of seabird deterrence during dusk compared to the existing night-setting suite of measures, to provide operational flexibility in starting the setting operations before sunset.

NMFS received an EFP application from the Hawaii Longline Association in November 2021 to conduct a pilot study of tori lines with gear setting starting at dusk, and the Council at its 189th meeting in December 2021 recommended the issuance of the EFP. NMFS issued the EFP on March 24, 2022, and the study was initiated in 2022.

3.3.1.5.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

The short-tailed albatross ITS in the USFWS 2012 Biological Opinion for the Hawaii longline fishery is 1 incidental take every 5 years in the shallow-set fishery. Exceeding this number will lead to reinitiating consultation of the impact of this fishery on the species. Since there have been no observed takes of short-tailed albatrosses in the fishery, the ITS has not been exceeded as of the end of 2022.

Table 63. Observed takes, mortalities (M), and takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks) for seabirds in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Laysan Albatross | | Black-footed Albatross | | Northern fulmar | | Unidentified shearwater | | Unidentified gull | | Short-tailed Albatross |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|-----------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 1 | 0.013 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 62(18) | 0.047 | 7(4) | 0.005 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 8(3) | 0.011 | 3(3) | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2007 ^b | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 39(6) | 0.030 | 8(2) | 0.006 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 33(11) | 0.024 | 6(4) | 0.004 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 81(17) | 0.046 | 29(7) | 0.016 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 ^c | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 40(7) | 0.022 | 39(11) | 0.021 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 49(10) | 0.030 | 19(5) | 0.012 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 61(11) | 0.043 | 37(10) | 0.026 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 46(10) | 0.046 | 28(17) | 0.028 | 0 | 0.000 | 2 ^c | 0.002 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 36(2) | 0.024 | 29(14) | 0.019 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 ^c | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 45(6) | 0.035 | 41(10) | 0.032 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 26(3) | 0.031 | 40(12) | 0.047 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 6(1) | 0.007 | 51(20) | 0.049 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 2 | 0.004 | 9(2) | 0.017 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 15(3) | 0.040 | 19(5) | 0.051 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 26(0) | 0.044 | 5(0) | 0.009 | 1 | 0.001 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 10(1) | 0.010 | 45(11) | 0.046 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 36(5) | 0.030 | 69(20) | 0.057 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 | 0.000 | 0 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Due to vessel confidentiality rules, data for the fourth quarter in 2007 are combined with data for 2008. Take data for 2007 reflect those from first, second and third quarters.

^c These birds were later identified as sooty shearwaters in the NMFS Seabird Annual Report.

Source: [2004-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

3.3.1.6 ELASMOBRANCH INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII SHALLOW-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Oceanic whitetip sharks constitute the majority of the interactions. Observed oceanic whitetip shark interactions were substantially lower in 2004, 2006, 2018, and 2019 likely due to fishery closures. Spatial distribution of shallow-set fishing effort primarily overlaps with oceanic whitetip shark distribution (south of 30°N) in the summer months (May-June). Most of the oceanic whitetip sharks that are caught in the shallow-set fishery are released alive. Interactions in 2022 were the highest observed since 2011. Although it is premature to derive any theories on the factors driving the higher interaction rates, one possibility is the potential for increased spatial overlap of oceanic whitetip habitat with fishing effort due to warming oceans. Higher interaction rates may also be the result of potential increases in population density in the region because of international management measures prohibiting retention of the species through IATTC since 2011 and WCPFC since 2013 (WCPFC measure implemented under U.S. regulations in 2015), but these require further investigation.

Giant manta ray interactions with this fishery are rare. There were no observed interactions with scalloped hammerheads in the shallow-set fishery since 2004. Furthermore, there have been no recorded or observed take of scalloped hammerhead sharks in the range of the Eastern Pacific DPS in the shallow-set fishery. Based on the known range and likely occurrence for the Eastern Pacific DPS, it is unlikely that these sharks occur in the area where shallow-set fishing occurs.

Table 64 summarizes the incidental take data of ESA-listed elasmobranchs from 2004 to 2022 in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery.

Oceanic whitetip sharks constitute the majority of the interactions. Observed oceanic whitetip shark interactions were substantially lower in 2004, 2006, 2018, and 2019 likely due to fishery closures. Spatial distribution of shallow-set fishing effort primarily overlaps with oceanic whitetip shark distribution (south of 30°N) in the summer months (May-June). Most of the oceanic whitetip sharks that are caught in the shallow-set fishery are released alive. Interactions in 2022 were the highest observed since 2011. Although it is premature to derive any theories on the factors driving the higher interaction rates, one possibility is the potential for increased spatial overlap of oceanic whitetip habitat with fishing effort due to warming oceans. Higher interaction rates may also be the result of potential increases in population density in the region because of international management measures prohibiting retention of the species through IATTC since 2011 and WCPFC since 2013 (WCPFC measure implemented under U.S. regulations in 2015), but these require further investigation.

Giant manta ray interactions with this fishery are rare. There were no observed interactions with scalloped hammerheads in the shallow-set fishery since 2004. Furthermore, there have been no recorded or observed take of scalloped hammerhead sharks in the range of the Eastern Pacific DPS in the shallow-set fishery. Based on the known range and likely occurrence for the Eastern Pacific DPS, it is unlikely that these sharks occur in the area where shallow-set fishing occurs.

Table 64. Observed and estimated interactions with elasmobranchs in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Scalloped hammerhead shark | | Oceanic whitetip shark | | Giant manta ray | |
|------|---------------|-------|-----------|----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks |
| 2004 | 100 | 88 | 76,750 | 0 | 0.0000 | 3 | 0.0391 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2005 | 100 | 1,604 | 1,328,806 | 0 | 0.0000 | 348(32) | 0.2619 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2006 | 100 | 939 | 745,125 | 0 | 0.0000 | 1 | 0.0013 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2007 | 100 | 1,496 | 1,292,036 | 0 | 0.0000 | 98(7) | 0.0758 | 5(2) | 0.0039 |
| 2008 | 100 | 1,487 | 1,350,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | 47(8) | 0.0348 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2009 | 100 | 1,833 | 1,767,128 | 0 | 0.0000 | 54(14) | 0.0306 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2010 | 100 | 1,879 | 1,828,529 | 0 | 0.0000 | 90(17) | 0.0492 | 6 | 0.0027 |
| 2011 | 100 | 1,579 | 1,611,395 | 0 | 0.0000 | 78(9) | 0.0484 | 3(2) | 0.0031 |
| 2012 | 100 | 1,307 | 1,418,843 | 0 | 0.0000 | 24(2) | 0.0169 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2013 | 100 | 912 | 1,000,084 | 0 | 0.0000 | 27(2) | 0.0270 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2014 | 100 | 1,349 | 1,509,727 | 0 | 0.0000 | 21(3) | 0.0139 | 1 | 0.0033 |
| 2015 | 100 | 1,178 | 1,286,628 | 0 | 0.0000 | 22(2) | 0.0171 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2016 | 100 | 778 | 849,681 | 0 | 0.0000 | 32(3) | 0.0377 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2017 | 100 | 973 | 1,051,426 | 0 | 0.0000 | 29(1) | 0.0276 | 2 | 0.0048 |
| 2018 | 100 | 476 | 546,371 | 0 | 0.0000 | 1 | 0.0018 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2019 | 100 | 312 | 374,487 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2020 | 100 | 455 | 588,481 | 0 | 0.0000 | 13(1) | 0.0221 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2021 | 100 | 763 | 972,692 | 0 | 0.0000 | 45(6) | 0.0463 | 0 | 0.0000 |
| 2022 | 100 | 945 | 1,219,202 | 0 | 0.0000 | 54(7) | 0.0443 | 3 | 0.0025 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Mortality numbers include sharks that were released dead or retained (prior to applicable prohibition on retention).

Source: PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

3.3.1.6.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

An ITS is not required to provide protective coverage for oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays because there are no take prohibitions under ESA section 4(d) for these species. However, the 2019 Biological Opinion includes 1-year ITSs for oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays to serve as a check on the no-jeopardy conclusion by providing a reinitiation trigger if the level of take analyzed in the Biological Opinion is exceeded.

NMFS will monitor the ITSs for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery annually starting in January 2020 to track incidental take. NMFS uses the date of the interaction (begin haul date) for tracking elasmobranch interactions against the ITS (Table 65) regardless of when the vessel returns to port. Prior to 2021, NMFS counted sea turtle interactions based on vessel arrival dates the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports. For this reason, the number of annual interactions counted against an ITS may vary from those reported on the

Observer Program’s quarterly and annual reports. For the purpose of ITS tracking, NMFS uses the mortality rate estimates of 0.19 for oceanic whitetip sharks and 0.41 for large rays from the 2019 Biological Opinion to estimate mortalities.

Table 65. Observed interactions and estimated total mortalities (M) of oceanic whitetip shark and giant manta ray in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery compared to the 1-year ITS in the 2019 Biological Opinion^a

| Species | 1-year ITS Interactions (M) | Interactions (M ^c) | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|--------|--------|
| | | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 102(32) | 13 (5) | 45(13) | 54(16) |
| Giant manta ray | 13(4) | 0(0) | 0(0) | 3(1) |
| <i>Manta/Mobula</i> ^b | | 1(0) | 4(2) | 0 |

^a Takes are counted based on begin haul date.

^b Manta/mobula interactions are also tracked as the ITS for giant manta ray was based on interaction data that included rays classified as manta/mobula in the observer record that may have been giant manta rays.

^c Mortality rates are from the 2019 Biological Opinion and are based on 2004-2018 interaction data.

3.3.2 HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

3.3.2.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MANAGEMENT MEASURES IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

In this annual report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery using the following indicators:

- General interaction trends over time
- Effectiveness of FEP conservation measures
- Take levels compared to the incidental take statement levels under ESA
- Take levels compared to marine mammal PBRs, where applicable

3.3.2.1.1 Conservation Measures

The Pelagic FEP includes a number of conservation measures to mitigate seabird and sea turtle interactions in the deep-set longline fishery. These measures include the following:

- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to adhere to regulations for safe handling and release of sea turtles and seabirds.
- Longline vessel owners/operators must have on board the vessel all required turtle handling/dehooking gear specified in regulations.
- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to remove trailing gear from oceanic whitetip sharks and cut the line as close to the hook as possible.
- Deep-set fishing operations north of 23° N latitude are required to comply with seabird mitigation regulations, which include choosing between side-setting or stern-setting longline gear with additional regulatory specifications (e.g., blue-dyed bait, weighted branch lines, strategic offal discards, using a “bird curtain”).
- Vessel owners and operators are required to annually attend a protected species workshop.
- When deep-set longline fishing, the use of wire leaders is prohibited.

The following regulatory amendment to the Pelagic FEP that affect conservation measures for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery is undergoing rulemaking and was not implemented during the 2022 calendar year:

- Replace blue-dyed thawed bait and strategic offal discharge measures required for stern-setting deep-set longline vessels with a new tori line requirement (Council final action in December 2021; see Section 3.3.2.5) of this report for more information.

3.3.2.1.2 ESA Consultations

During 2022, the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery was covered under a NMFS Biological Opinion dated September 19, 2014 (NMFS 2014) and associated supplements. NMFS concluded in the 2014 Biological Opinion that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize four sea turtle species (North Pacific DPS loggerhead, leatherback, olive ridley and green turtles), three marine mammal species (humpback whale, sperm whale and MHI insular DPS false killer whale) and the Indo-West Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks, and not likely to adversely affect hawksbill turtles, four marine mammal species (blue, North Pacific right and sei whale, and Hawaiian monk seal) and the Eastern Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks (Oceanic whitetip sharks constitute the majority of the interactions. Observed oceanic whitetip shark interactions were substantially lower in 2004, 2006, 2018, and 2019 likely due to fishery closures. Spatial distribution of shallow-set fishing effort primarily overlaps with oceanic whitetip shark distribution (south of 30°N) in the summer months (May-June). Most of the oceanic whitetip sharks that are caught in the shallow-set fishery are released alive. Interactions in 2022 were the highest observed since 2011. Although it is premature to derive any theories on the factors driving the higher interaction rates, one possibility is the potential for increased spatial overlap of oceanic whitetip habitat with fishing effort due to warming oceans. Higher interaction rates may also be the result of potential increases in population density in the region because of international management measures prohibiting retention of the species through IATTC since 2011 and WCPFC since 2013 (WCPFC measure implemented under U.S. regulations in 2015), but these require further investigation.

Giant manta ray interactions with this fishery are rare. There were no observed interactions with scalloped hammerheads in the shallow-set fishery since 2004. Furthermore, there have been no recorded or observed take of scalloped hammerhead sharks in the range of the Eastern Pacific DPS in the shallow-set fishery. Based on the known range and likely occurrence for the Eastern Pacific DPS, it is unlikely that these sharks occur in the area where shallow-set fishing occurs.

Table 64). The humpback whale Hawaii DPS was delisted under the ESA in 2016, so interactions are no longer monitored against the ITS. A USFWS Biological Opinion dated January 6, 2012, also concluded that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize short-tailed albatrosses (USFWS 2012). An additional informal consultation dated September 16, 2015 concluded that the fishery is not likely to adversely affect fin whales or Hawaiian monk seal critical habitat. In 2017, NMFS completed a Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion for green, loggerhead, and olive ridley sea turtles due to exceedance of the ITS for these three species (NMFS 2017).

NMFS and USFWS have issued ITSs for species included in the Biological Opinions and determined not to jeopardize the species (Table 67). Exceedance of the 3-year or 5-year ITSs

requires reinitiation of consultation on the fishery under the ESA. The ITSs for green turtle and loggerhead turtles were exceeded in 2015 and the ITS for olive ridley turtles was exceeded during the first quarter of 2016, and reconsultation was completed on March 24, 2017.

On October 4, 2018, NMFS reinitiated ESA Section 7 consultation for the deep-set fishery for all ESA-listed species under NMFS jurisdiction occurring in the action area due to three re-initiation triggers: listing of the oceanic whitetip shark and giant manta ray; designation of MHI insular false killer whale critical habitat; and exceeding the ITS for East Pacific green sea turtle DPS in mid-2018. On October 4, 2018, NMFS determined that the conduct of the fishery during the period of consultation will not violate ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d) (updated April 15, 2020, December 18, 2020, November 17, 2021, and January 11, 2023).

On September 28, 2022, NMFS issued a Supplemental Biological Opinion to the 2014 Biological Opinion for the two new listed species, and concluded that the deep-set fishery is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of the oceanic whitetip shark and giant manta ray.

On May 18, 2023, NMFS issued a Biological Opinion covering all applicable ESA-listed species, which concluded that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize the following species: giant manta ray; Indo-West Pacific scalloped hammerhead shark; oceanic whitetip shark; Central North Pacific, East Indian-West Pacific, East Pacific, Southwest Pacific, Central West Pacific and Central South Pacific green sea turtles; leatherback sea turtles; North Pacific loggerhead sea turtles; olive ridley sea turtles, sperm whale, and main Hawaiian Islands insular false killer whale. The new ITSs took effect when the new Biological Opinion was signed, thus did not apply in 2022.

Table 66. Summary of ESA consultations for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery

| Species | Consultation Date | Consultation Type ^a | Outcome ^b |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Loggerhead turtle, North Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Leatherback turtle | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Olive ridley turtle, Endangered Mexico and threatened eastern Pacific populations | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Olive ridley turtle, Threatened western Pacific population | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, East Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Central North Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, East Indian-West Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Southwest Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Central West Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Central South Pacific DPS | 2017-03-24 | BiOp ^c | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Hawksbill turtle | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |
| False killer whale, MHI insular DPS | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Fin whale | 2015-09-16 | LOC | NLAA |
| Blue whale | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |
| North Pacific right whale | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Sei whale | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |

| Species | Consultation Date | Consultation Type ^a | Outcome ^b |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Sperm whale | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Hawaiian monk seal | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Eastern Pacific DPS | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Indo-West Pacific DPS | 2014-09-19 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 2022-09-28 | BiOpc | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Giant manta ray | 2022-09-28 | BiOpc | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Short-tailed albatross | 2012-01-06 | BiOp (FWS) | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Critical Habitat: Hawaiian monk seal | 2015-09-16 | LOC | NLAA |

^a BiOp = Biological Opinion; LOC = Letter of Concurrence.

^b LAA = likely to adversely affect; NLAA = not likely to adversely affect.

^c Supplement to the 2014 BiOp.

Table 67. Summary of ITSs for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery

| Species | ITS Time Period | Takes | Mortalities | Source BiOp |
|---|--------------------|----------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Loggerhead turtle, North Pacific DPS | 3-year | 18 | 13 | NMFS 2017 |
| Leatherback turtle | 3-year | 72 | 27 | NMFS 2014 |
| Olive ridley turtle, Endangered Mexico and threatened eastern Pacific populations | 3-year | 144 | 134 | NMFS 2017 |
| Olive ridley turtle, Threatened western Pacific population | 3-year | 42 | 40 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, East Pacific DPS | 3-year | 12 | 12 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, Central North Pacific DPS | 3-year | 6 | 6 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, East Indian-West Pacific DPS | 3-year | 6 | 6 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, Southwest Pacific DPS | 3-year | 6 | 6 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, Central West Pacific DPS | 3-year | 3 | 3 | NMFS 2017 |
| Green turtle, Central South Pacific DPS | 3-year | 3 | 3 | NMFS 2017 |
| Sperm whale | 3-year | 9 | 6 | NMFS 2014 |
| False killer whale (MHI insular DPS) | 3-year | 1 | 0.74 | NMFS 2014 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark (Indo-West Pacific DPS) ^a | 3-year | 6 | 3 | NMFS 2014 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark ^a | 5-year running sum | 6,336 | | NMFS 2022 |
| Giant manta ray ^a | 5-year running sum | 144 | | NMFS 2022 |
| Short-tailed albatross | 5-year | 2 injuries or deaths | | USFWS 2012 |

^a An ITS is not required for the Indo-West Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks due to the lack of take prohibition under ESA section 4(d), but NMFS included an ITS to serve as a check on the no-jeopardy conclusion by providing a reinitiation trigger.

3.3.2.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

Fishery impacts to marine mammal stocks are primarily assessed and monitored through the SARs prepared pursuant to the MMPA. The SARs include detailed information on these

species' geographic range, abundance, PBR estimates, bycatch estimates, and status. The most recent SARs are available online at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-region>.

The Hawaii deep-set longline fishery is a Category I fishery under the MMPA 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), meaning that NMFS has determined that this fishery has frequent incidental mortality and serious injuries of marine mammals. The 2023 LOF lists the following marine mammal stocks that are incidentally killed or injured in this fishery:⁷

- Bottlenose dolphin, HI Pelagic stock
- False killer whale, MHI Insular stock (also ESA-listed)
- False killer whale, HI Pelagic stock
- False killer whale, NWHI stock
- *Kogia* spp. (Pygmy or dwarf sperm whale), HI stock
- Risso's dolphin, HI stock
- Rough-toothed dolphin, HI stock
- Short-finned pilot whale, HI stock
- Striped dolphin, HI stock

Most bycatch estimates in the SARs are based on the most recently available 5-year period, but there is a data lag of approximately 2 years due to the SAR review process. This annual report focuses on available long-term interaction trends and summarizes relevant information from the most recent SAR.

3.3.2.2 DATA SOURCE FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Protected species interactions in the Hawaii longline fishery have been monitored through mandatory observer coverage since 1994. Observer coverage in the Hawaii longline fishery was between 3 and 5 percent from 1994 through 1999, increased to 10 percent in 2000, then to 20 percent in 2001.

In response to the emerging COVID-19 crisis, and to ensure the safety and protect the health of fishermen, observers, and others, NMFS issued an emergency action on March 27, 2020 (85 FR 17285), to provide the authority, on a case-by-case basis, to waive observer coverage. This action was extended on September 21, 2020 (85 FR 59199) and again on March 29, 2021 (86 FR 16307). Under this emergency action, a NMFS Regional Administrator, Office Director, or Science Center Director had the ability to waive observer coverage requirements if:

- Local, state, or national governments, or private companies or organizations that deploy observers pursuant to NMFS regulations, restrict travel or otherwise issue COVID-19-related social control guidance, or requirement(s) addressing COVID-19-related concerns, such that it is inconsistent with the requirement(s) or not recommended to place an observer(s); or

⁷ This fishery is listed in the LOF under Commercial Fisheries in the Pacific Ocean and Commercial Fisheries on the High Seas. Stocks from both lists are included here.

- No qualified observer(s) are available for placement due to health, safety, or training issues related to COVID-19.

The PIRO Regional Administrator granted waivers on a case-by-case basis consistent with the emergency rule resulting in reduced annual coverage for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery for 2020 and 2021 at 15.25% and 17.84% respectively. Observer coverage was also variable in 2020 ranging from 7.7% to 18.2% in a quarter. While 2021 saw an improved coverage rate and less coverage variability (14.3% to 21.1% in a quarter), fleet-wide interaction estimates for 2021 may still have greater uncertainty than usual. Annual observer coverage rate returned to 20.2% in 2022.

This report summarizes protected species interactions in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery since 2002, when separate reporting by deep-set and shallow-set components of the longline fishery began. Annual observed interactions are tallied based on vessel arrival date (rather than interaction date) for the purposes of this report for consistency with the methods used to estimate the annual total interactions. Comparison of annual incidental takes within a year to the ITSs are based on the interaction date rather than the vessel arrival date, consistent with the 2014 BiOp and associated supplements. Annual summary data presented in this report may differ from those in the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports, which began summarizing interaction data by haul begin dates (proxy for interaction date) in 2021.

3.3.2.3 SEA TURTLE INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 68 summarizes the incidental take data of sea turtles from 2002 to 2022 in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (referred to in this document as “McCracken estimates (ME)”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is used ($EF\ Est. = 100 / \% \text{ observer coverage} * \# \text{ takes}$).

Observed sea turtle takes year to year were variable. The most commonly observed sea turtle species being olive ridley sea turtles, whereas interactions with leatherbacks, greens, and loggerheads were much less frequent.

Preliminary results from an analysis conducted by PIFSC and presented to the Scientific and Statistical Committee at its 122nd Meeting in March 2016 showed that leatherback interactions in 2014 were significantly higher than levels expected from previous years (2007-2013). The higher level of interactions in 2014 was considered in the 2014 Biological Opinion, which concluded that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize leatherback turtles. Leatherback interactions, since the 2014 Biological Opinion, remain below the ITS of 72 interactions over three years. The Council at its 165th Meeting in March 2016 recommended continued monitoring of the interactions and further analysis to evaluate patterns of leatherback interactions in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. Leatherback turtle interactions in 2017-2019 were lower than 2014-2015.

The highest number of observed olive ridley interactions occurred in 2016 with 31 takes. This was followed by three years of high olive ridley interactions with 26, 18, and 29

interactions in 2017, 2018, and 2019, respectively. Interactions in 2020-2022 were within the range observed prior to 2016. Due to the depth of the deep-set longline gear, most of the interactions result in mortalities. The higher level of olive ridley turtle interactions was considered in the 2017 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion, which analyzed impacts with data through the second quarter of 2016 (25 of the 31 interactions occurred in the first two quarters). The 2017 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion concluded that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize olive ridley turtles after considering this higher level of interactions. The Council's Protected Species Advisory Committee at its March 2017 meeting discussed the olive ridley turtle interaction trend and recommended evaluation of the increasing trend in conjunction with the previously recommended effort to evaluate ecosystem factors influencing bycatch in the longline fishery. This recommendation led to a collaborative ecosystem-based fisheries management project between Council, PIFSC, PIRO and University of Florida to develop a protected species ensemble random forest (PSERF) model. Additional information on this effort is included in Section 4.1.

Top variables for defining olive ridley turtle interaction determined using the PSERF model indicate an influence of mean wind direction and shows that SW-W-NW winds seem to have higher probability of interactions than normal. Eddy-based features such as Okubo-Weiss (negative values indicate vorticity dominated regions e.g., eddies), eddy kinetic energy (positive values indicate high eddy activity) and current speed also seems to have higher than average probability of interactions. Together, these seem to indicate that features that result in higher turtle movement rates (wind, currents) or aggregate turtles (eddies) increase the probability of interactions with olive ridley turtles. Aggregate mean characteristics from the fishing sets indicate that for sets from 2015-2019, higher eddy activity, higher current speeds, and winds blowing from the west-southwest increased whereas these conditions waned after 2020.

Table 68. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for sea turtles in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Green | | | | Leatherback | | | | Loggerhead | | | | Olive ridley | | | | Unidentified hard shell | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|-----------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------|--------------------|---------|----|------------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------------|--------------------|---------|-----|-------------------------|--------------------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 5 | 4(1) | 0.0006 | - | 17 | 7(7) | 0.0010 | - | 31 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0002 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3(3) | 0.0005 | - | 14 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 3 | 0.0004 | - | 15 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 13(13) | 0.0016 | - | 46 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4(4) | 0.0004 | - | 16 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 2(2) | 0.0003 | - | 6 | 2(2) | 0.0003 | - | 9 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 11(10) | 0.0015 | - | 54 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 4 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 7(7) | 0.0009 | - | 26 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 11 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3(3) | 0.0003 | - | 18 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4(4) | 0.0005 | - | 18 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 1 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 4(3) ^b | 0.0005 | - | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 3 | 0.0004 | - | 14 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 7(6) | 0.0008 | - | 36 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 6(6) | 0.0007 | - | 34 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 15 | 2(2) | 0.0002 | - | 11 | 9(9) | 0.0010 | - | 42 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 3(3) | 0.0003 | - | 16 | 7(2) | 0.0007 | - | 38 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 8(7) | 0.0008 | - | 50 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 4(2) | 0.0004 | - | 18 | 2(2) | 0.0002 | - | 9 | 13(12) | 0.0014 | - | 69 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 3(1) | 0.0003 | - | 15 | 2(1) | 0.0002 | - | 7 | 31(28) | 0.0031 | - | 162 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | 5 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 3(1) | 0.0003 | - | 18 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 12 | 26(23) | 0.0026 | - | 119 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 3(3) | 0.0003 | - | 17 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 12 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 18(16) | 0.0015 | - | 96 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 2(2) | 0.0002 | - | 12 | 3 | 0.0002 | - | 14 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 29(28) | 0.0022 | - | 138 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 2(2) | 0.0002 | - | 13 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 31 | 3(1) | 0.0003 | - | 19 | 11(9) | 0.0013 | - | 79 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 3(3) | 0.0003 | - | 17 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 8 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 7(5) | 0.0006 | - | 46 | 0 | 0.0000 | - |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | 5 | - | 5 | 0.0004 | 25 | - | 3 | 0.0002 | 15 | - | 10(8) | 0.0008 | 49 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.^b One olive ridley turtle interaction (released injured) occurred inside the American Samoa EEZ. This interaction was included in the Observer Program Annual Report for the Hawaii deep-set fishery because the vessel departed Honolulu under the Hawaii longline permit.

Sources: Take data—2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports, PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data. Expansion estimates for 2002-2003, NMFS 2005.

ME—McCracken, 2005; McCracken, 2006; McCracken, 2007; McCracken, 2008; McCracken, 2009; McCracken, 2010; McCracken, 2011b; McCracken, 2012; McCracken, 2013; McCracken, 2014; McCracken 2017c, McCracken 2017d, McCracken 2019b, McCracken 2019d, McCracken and Cooper 2020a, McCracken and Cooper (in review).

3.3.2.3.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

The Hawaii deep-set longline fishery operates under the 3-year ITS in the 2014 Biological Opinion for leatherback sea turtles, and in the 2017 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion for all other sea turtle species (Table 69). NMFS began monitoring the 2014 Biological Opinion ITS in Quarter 3 of 2014 and the 2017 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion ITS in Quarter 3 of 2016 and uses a rolling 3-year period to track incidental take. NMFS always uses the interaction date for tracking sea turtle interactions against the ITS, regardless of vessel arrival date. Prior to 2021, NMFS in its PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports counted sea turtle interactions based on vessel arrival dates. For this reason, the number of quarterly or annual sea turtle interactions counted against an ITS may vary from those reported on the Observer Program's quarterly and annual reports. NMFS uses post-hooking mortality criteria (Ryder et al. 2006) to calculate sea turtle mortality rates.

Unlike the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, the deep-set fishery does not have hard caps and the ITS triggers reinitiation of consultation when exceeded. The ITSs for green and olive ridley turtles were exceeded in 2018. On October 4, 2018, NMFS reinitiated consultation for the deep-set fishery due in part to exceeding the ITS for the east Pacific green turtle DPS. Since the October 4, 2018, reinitiation, the deep-set fishery has also exceeded the ITS for the North Pacific loggerhead turtle and eastern and western Pacific populations of olive ridley turtle. NMFS has since updated its analysis under ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d).

Table 69. Estimated total interactions (extrapolated using quarterly observer coverage) and total mortalities (M) (using Ryder et al. 2006) of sea turtles in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery compared to the 3-year ITS in the 2014 Biological Opinion and in the 2017 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion^a

| 2014 BiOp | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|
| Species | 3-year ITS Interactions (M) | Estimated Total Interactions and Mortalities Interactions (M) | | |
| | | 2018-2020 | 2019-2021 | 2020-2022 |
| Leatherback turtle | 72(27) | 57(21.55) | 53(19.77) | 62.61(22.60) |
| 2017 Supp. BiOp | | | | |
| Species ^b | 3-year ITS Interactions (M) | Estimated Total Interactions and Mortalities Interactions (M) | | |
| | | 2018-2020 | 2019-2021 | 2020-2022 |
| Green turtle | - | - | - | - |
| East Pacific DPS (70%) | 12(12) | 22.4(21.35) | 29.4(28.08) | 25.17(24.1) |
| Central North Pacific DPS (12%) | 6(6) | 3.84(3.66) | 5.04(4.81) | 4.31(4.13) |
| East Indian-west Pacific DPS (8%) | 6(6) | 2.56(2.44) | 3.36(3.21) | 2.88((2.75) |
| Southwest Pacific DPS (7%) | 6(6) | 2.24(2.14) | 2.94(2.81) | 2.52(2.41) |
| Central West Pacific DPS (1%) | 3(3) | 0.32(0.31) | 0.42(0.40) | 0.36(0.34) |
| Central South Pacific DPS (1%) | 3(3) | 0.32(0.31) | 0.42(0.40) | 0.36(0.34) |
| Loggerhead turtle | 18(13) | 23(14.89) | 24(14.52) | 41.35(22.87) |
| Olive ridley turtle | - | - | - | - |
| Endangered Mexico and threatened eastern Pacific populations (77%) | 141(134) | 241.01(228.80) | 202.51(190.43) | 137.10(129.59) |
| Threatened western Pacific populations (23%) | 42(40) | 71.99(68.34) | 60.49(56.88) | 40.95(38.71) |

^a Takes are counted based on interaction date.

^b These species exceeded their ITSs in 2016, and interactions beginning the third quarter of 2016 count against their new ITSs (NMFS 2017).

3.3.2.4 MARINE MAMMAL INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 70 through Table 75 summarize the incidental take data of marine mammals from 2002 to 2022 in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Reported interactions listed in these tables reflect all observed interactions, including mortalities, serious injuries, and non-serious injuries. Refer to the most recent SARs for mortality and serious injury estimates and stock-specific abundance estimates and geographic range. Many of these interactions have been further examined, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of annual incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (referred to in this document as “ME”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is listed in the table (EF Est. = 100 / % observer coverage * # takes).

The majority of observed interactions and all observed mortalities since 2002 involved dolphin and small whale species. False killer whales also had the highest interaction rate over the entire 2002-2022 period, with the highest number of observed interactions occurring in 2019. Short-finned pilot whales, bottlenose dolphins, Risso's dolphins, and rough-toothed dolphins are also occasionally observed, but in 2022, only one Risso's dolphin interaction was observed and none observed of the other species. Rough-tooth dolphin interactions were notably higher in 2020 compared to past years, but no contributing factors are readily apparent, with interactions closer to baseline levels for 2021 and none observed in 2022. Very few interactions were observed with striped dolphins, pantropical spotted dolphins, Blainville's beaked whales, pygmy killer whales, and *Kogia* spp. whales. Interactions with marine mammals grouped as large whales were also rare, with observed interactions recorded with humpback whales and one sperm whale in 2011 (Table 72). Observed interactions with unidentified cetacean groups are shown in Table 73. In 2022, there were two observed unidentified cetacean interactions and one unidentified beaked whale interaction.

In response to the false killer whale interactions and Southern Exclusion Zone (SEZ) closures in recent years (see also Section 3.3.2.4.2), the Council at its 190th meeting in March 2022 recommended analysis of interaction and depredation patterns through 2021, including estimating economic impacts from depredation, as well as the effect of SEZ closure on fishing effort and false killer whale interactions.

Table 70. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for dolphins in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Bottlenose dolphin | | | | Pantropical spotted dolphin | | | | Rough-toothed dolphin | | | | Risso's dolphin | | | | Striped dolphin | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-----------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-----------------|--------------------|---------|----|-----------------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 1(1) | 0.0002 | 5 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 1 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 5 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 6 |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 2 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 4 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 2(1) | 0.0002 | - | 11 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 2(1) | 0.0002 | - | 10 | 0 ^b | 0.0000 | - | 4 ^b |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 5(2) | 0.0006 | - | 29 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 16 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 3 | 0.0003 | 17 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 2(1) | 0.0002 | 11 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b One unidentified dolphin was later identified as a striped dolphin but is listed as an unidentified dolphin in the 2015 Annual Observer Report.

Source: Take data—[2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#), PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

ME—[McCracken, 2005](#); [McCracken, 2006](#); [McCracken, 2011a](#); [McCracken, 2016](#); [McCracken, 2017b](#); [McCracken 2019c](#), [McCracken and Cooper 2022c](#).

Table 71. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for small whales in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Blainville's beaked whale | | | | False killer whale | | | | Kogia spp. | | | | Pygmy killer whale | | | | Short-finned pilot whale | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|---------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------------|--------------------|---------|----|------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | 4 | - | 5 | 0.0007 | 20 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 2 | 0.0003 | 9 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 6(1) | 0.0008 | - | 28 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 2(1) | 0.0002 | - | 6 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 6 |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 17 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 6 |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 15 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 2 |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 11 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 5 |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 10(1) | 0.0013 | - | 55 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 19 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3 | 0.0004 | - | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 15 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4 | 0.0004 | - | 22 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 4 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 11 | 0.0011 | - | 55 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 5(1) | 0.0005 | - | 21 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 4 |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 7 | 0.0007 | - | 39 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 8(2) | 0.0008 | - | 45 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 12 | 0.0010 | - | 49 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 15(3) | 0.0012 | - | 75 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 22 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 15(2) | 0.0013 | 84 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0000 | 6 | - |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 7 | 0.0006 | 35 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

Source: Take data—[2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#); PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data

ME—[McCracken, 2005](#); [McCracken, 2006](#); [McCracken, 2011a](#); [McCracken, 2016](#); [McCracken, 2017b](#); [McCracken 2019c](#), [McCracken and Cooper 2022c](#).

Table 72. Observed takes, takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for large whales in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Humpback whale | | | | Sperm whale | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|----------------|-------------------|---------|----|-------------|-------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes | Takes/1,000 hooks | | | Takes | Takes/1,000 hooks | | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 1 | 0.0001 | 4 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 6 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

Source: Take data—[2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#), PIRO

Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

ME—[McCracken, 2005](#); [McCracken, 2006](#); [McCracken, 2011a](#); McCracken, 2016; McCracken, 2017b; [McCracken 2019c](#); [McCracken and Cooper 2022c](#).

Table 73. Observed takes, takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates for unidentified species of cetaceans in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Unidentified cetacean ^b | | | Unidentified whale ^b | | | Unidentified dolphin ^b | | | Unidentified beaked whale ^b | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|---------|---------------------------------|--------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------|--|--------------------|---------|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | Observed | | EF Est. | Observed | | EF Est. | Observed | | EF Est. |
| | | | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Takes | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 2 | 0.0003 | 8 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 1 | 0.0002 | 5 | 1 | 0.0002 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 1 | 0.0001 | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 2 | 0.0003 | 9 | 2 | 0.0003 | 9 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 2 | 0.0002 | 9 | 2 | 0.0002 | 9 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 3 | 0.0004 | 15 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 3 | 0.0004 | 14 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 ^c | 0.0001 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 4 | 0.0004 | 20 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 4 | 0.0003 | 20 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 3 | 0.0002 | 15 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | 5 |
| 2020 | 15.3 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 4 | 0.0005 | 26 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | 7 |
| 2021 | 17.8 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 4(1) | 0.0003 | 22 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2022 | 20.2 2 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 2 | 0.0002 | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Unidentified species identification based on PIRO Observer Program classifications. Unidentified cetacean refers to a marine mammal not including pinnipeds (seal or sea lion); unidentified whale refers to a large whale; unidentified dolphin refers to a small cetacean with a visible beak; and unidentified beaked whale refers to an animal in the Ziphiidae family. Further classifications based on observer description, sketches, photos, and videos may be available from the Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center.

^c This dolphin was later identified as a striped dolphin but is listed as an unidentified dolphin in the 2015 Annual Observer Report.

Source: Take data—[2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#), PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

3.3.2.4.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

The Hawaii deep-set longline fishery operates under the 3-year ITS in the 2014 Biological Opinion for all marine mammals protected under the ESA, which includes sperm whales and the MHI insular DPS of false killer whales (Table 74). NMFS began monitoring the Hawaii

deep-set longline fishery ITS in Quarter 3 of 2014 and uses a rolling 3-year period to track incidental take. NMFS always uses the interaction date for tracking marine mammal interactions against the ITS, regardless of vessel arrival date. In the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports, NMFS bases the percent observer coverage on vessel departures, and bases the marine mammal interactions on vessel arrival dates. For this reason, the number of quarterly or annual marine mammal interactions counted against an ITS may vary from those reported in the Observer Program's quarterly and annual reports. NMFS uses M&SI determinations under the MMPA to calculate marine mammal mortality rates. Takes for these species are still under the 3-year ITS at this time.

On September 8, 2016, NMFS issued a final rule identifying 14 distinct population segments (DPS) of the humpback whale under the ESA (81 FR 62260). Under this final rule, the Hawaii DPS is not listed, so interactions are no longer being monitored against the ITS. Humpback whale interactions will continue to be monitored against the PBR in this report.

On October 4, 2018, NMFS reinitiated ESA Section 7 consultation for the deep-set fishery for all ESA-listed species under NMFS jurisdiction occurring in the action area. NMFS determined that the conduct of the fishery during the period of consultation will not violate ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d). Until NMFS completes the Section 7 consultation and issues a new biological opinion, the 2014 BiOp as supplemented (2017) remains valid for all species and critical habitat considered in the 2014 BiOp as supplemented. Since the October 4, 2018 reinitiation, the deep-set fishery has not exceeded the ITS for the sperm or MHI insular false killer whale.

Table 74. Estimated total interactions (extrapolated using quarterly observer coverage) and total mortalities (M) of cetaceans in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery compared to the 3-year ITS in the 2014 Biological Opinion^a

| Species | 3-year ITS Interactions (M) | 3-year Monitoring Period Interactions (M) | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | | 2017-2019 | 2018-2020 | 2019-2021 | 2020-2022 |
| Sperm whale | 9(3) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| MHI insular false killer whale | 1(0.74) | 2017: 0.07 (0.05) 2018: 0.10 (0.09) 2019: Data not yet available. | 2018: 0.10 (0.09) 2019-2020: Data not yet available. | 2019-2021: Data not yet available. | 2020-2022: Data not yet available. |

^a Takes are counted based on interaction date.

3.3.2.4.2 Comparison of Interactions with PBR under the MMPA

Marine mammal takes against the PBR are monitored through the SARs. A summary of the current mean estimated annual M&SI and the PBR for stocks relevant to the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery is presented in Table 75. The PBR of a stock reflects only marine mammals of that stock observed within the EEZ around Hawaii, with the exception of the Central North Pacific stock of humpback whales for which PBR applies to the entire stock. The mean estimated annual M&SI specified in the SARs includes only interactions determined as mortalities and serious injuries and not interactions classified as non-serious injuries.

For most marine mammal stocks where the PBR is available, the number of observed takes of marine mammal species in the deep-set longline fishery inside the EEZ around Hawaii is well below the PBR in the time period covered by the most current SAR (Table 75).

The M&SI interactions inside the Hawaii EEZ for the HI Pelagic stock of false killer whales previously exceeded the PBR for this stock. A False Killer Whale Take Reduction Team was formed in 2010 pursuant to the MMPA to address incidental takes of false killer whales in the Hawaii-permitted longline fisheries. NMFS implemented the False Killer Whale Take Reduction Plan in 2012. The objective of the plan is to reduce mortality and serious injury of false killer whales in the Hawaii-permitted longline fisheries.

Monitoring of false killer whale interactions in the MHI Insular and HI Pelagic stocks is ongoing under the False Killer Whale Take Reduction Plan. The M&SI interactions inside the Hawaii EEZ for the HI Pelagic stock for 2015 to 2019 was 9.8 in the latest SAR, which is below this stock's PBR (Table 75). Updated information provided to the False Killer Whale Take Reduction Team in 2022 indicated that the M&SI interactions inside the Hawaii EEZ for the HI Pelagic Stock was 17 for the 2017-2021 period, which was above PBR (NMFS unpublished data).

On July 24, 2018, the Southern Exclusion Zone (SEZ) was closed pursuant to the False Killer Whale Take Reduction Plan following two false killer whale interactions within the EEZ resulting in a M&SI (83 FR 33848). The SEZ was closed for the remainder of the year and was reopened on January 1, 2019. On February 22, 2019, the SEZ closed from reaching the closure trigger (84 FR 5356), and was reopened on August 25, 2020, after at least one of the reopening criteria defined in the Take Reduction Plan implementing regulations was met (85 FR 50959). In 2021, the revised SEZ trigger of four M&SI was met, but SEZ did not close because the fourth interaction was not confirmed until January 2022 when the timeframe for closing the SEZ in 2021 had passed (87 FR 12941). The SEZ trigger was not met in 2022.

Table 75. Mean estimated annual M&SI and PBR by marine mammal stocks with observed interactions in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery

| Stock | Years Included in 2021 SAR | Outside EEZ ^a | Inside EEZ ^b | |
|---|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | | Mean Estimated Annual M&SI | Mean Estimated Annual M&SI | PBR (Inside EEZ only) |
| Bottlenose dolphin, HI Pelagic | 2014-2018 | 3.0 | 0 | undetermined |
| Pantropical spotted dolphin, HI Pelagic | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 265 |
| Rough-toothed dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 1.0 | 0 | 548 |
| Risso's dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 2.9 | 0 | 61 |
| Striped dolphin, HI | 2014-2018 | 0.4 | 0 | 291 |
| Blainville's beaked whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 5.6 |
| False killer whale, MHI Insular | 2015-2019 | N/A | 0.0 | 0.3 |
| False killer whale, HI Pelagic | 2015-2019 | 28.8 | 9.8 | 16 |
| False killer whale, NWHI | 2015-2019 | N/A | 0.1 | 1.4 |
| False killer whale, Palmyra Atoll | 2006-2010 | N/A | 0.3 | 6.4 |
| Kogia spp. whale (Pygmy or dwarf sperm whale), HI | 2014-2018 | Pygmy = 0 Dwarf = 0 | Pygmy = 0 Dwarf = 0 | Pygmy = 257 Dwarf = undetermined |
| Pygmy killer whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 1.1 | 56 |
| Short-finned pilot whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 87 |
| Humpback whale, Central North Pacific | 2014-2018 | 0.9 | | 83 ^c |
| Sperm whale, HI | 2014-2018 | 0 | 0 | 18 |

^a PBR estimates are not available for portions of the stock outside of the U.S. EEZ around Hawaii, except for the Central North Pacific stock of humpback whales for which PBR applies to the entire stock.

^b PBR estimates are only available for portions of the stock within the U.S. EEZ around Hawaii.

^c PBR for the Central North Pacific stock for humpback whales apply to the entire stock.

Source: [Final 2021 Marine Mammal SARs](#).

3.3.2.5 SEABIRD INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from NMFS. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of annual incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (hereafter “ME”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is listed in the table (EF Est. = 100 / % observer coverage * # takes).

Interaction data provided here may vary slightly from other sources depending on how interactions were reported (date of trip departure or arrival, set date, or haul date in a given year). NMFS annually publishes the report *Seabird Interactions and Mitigation Efforts in Hawaii Longline Fisheries* (Seabird Annual Report), which includes verified numbers of seabird interactions and information on fishing regulations and effort, interaction rates, and band recovery data for seabirds caught in the shallow-set and deep-set fisheries. Recent reports are available at: <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/pacific-islands/bycatch/seabird-interactions-pelagic-longline-fishery>.

Table 76 and Table 77 summarize the incidental take data of seabirds from 2002 to 2022 in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The most common observed interactions during this time period involved black-footed albatrosses and Laysan albatrosses. Additional takes of unidentified shearwaters, sooty shearwaters, brown boobies, red-footed boobies, unidentified gulls, unidentified albatross, and unidentified seabirds have been observed. Most of the unidentified shearwaters have been identified as sooty shearwaters (NMFS 2016). There have been no observed takes of short-tailed albatrosses by this fishery.

Interactions with black-footed albatrosses since 2015 have been substantially higher compared to previous years with the highest number observed in 2018. From 2019 to 2022, the observed number of black-footed albatross interactions has declined every year. Expanded annual estimated takes for other seabird species suggested a high degree of variability from year to year. Interactions with sooty shearwaters and boobies are relatively infrequent.

Results from an analysis of seabird interaction rates in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery (Gilman et al. 2016) were presented to the Protected Species Advisory Committee and Pelagic Plan Team in 2016. The analysis included data from October 2004 to May 2014. Results indicate that seabird interaction rates significantly increased as annual mean multivariate ENSO index values increased, meaning that decreasing ocean productivity may have contributed to the increasing trend in seabird catch rates. The analysis also showed a significant increasing trend in the number of albatrosses attending vessels, which may also be contributing to the increasing seabird catch rates. Both side setting and blue-dyed bait significantly reduced the seabird catch rate compared to stern setting and untreated bait, respectively. Of two options for meeting regulatory requirements, side setting had a significantly lower seabird catch rate than blue-dyed bait.

The Council, at its 166th Meeting in June 2016, directed the Plan Team and the Protected Species Advisory Committee to continue monitoring interactions through the SAFE to detect any future changes in albatross interactions that may be attributed to fishing operations. The

Council noted that current seabird measures implemented in the Hawaii longline fishery are effective and recent increase in seabird captures are driven by non-fishery factors at this time. The Council additionally recommended research to be conducted, as appropriate, on at-sea foraging behavior of albatross species to improve understanding of interaction rates in the Hawaii longline fisheries.

In response to the Council recommendation, a seabird workshop was convened in November 2017. The objectives of the workshop were to: 1) review recent increased albatross interactions in the Hawaii longline fishery; 2) explore possible factors responsible for this increase; 3) evaluate albatross population impacts; and 4) provide input for future data collection, analysis, and models. Information presented at the workshop strongly suggested that El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) influence albatross distribution by affecting wind patterns and ocean productivity. In years of positive ENSO and PDO, albatross distributions and longline fishing effort overlap more closely, resulting in increased albatross interaction rates. (Wren et al. 2019; Hyrenback et al. 2021) The workshop also identified albatross population dynamics, mesoscale oceanographic processes, and increased albatross attraction to vessels as other factors that may influence interaction rates. A black-footed albatross population model indicated that the recent increase in albatross interactions is unlikely to significantly affect population growth as long as the increase is limited to the Hawaii longline fishery or is episodic. Next steps include filling a variety of data gaps in order to build an Integrated Population Model (IPM).

At its 173rd Meeting, the Council directed staff to conduct a seabird workshop to review seabird mitigation requirements and the best scientific information available for Hawaii's pelagic longline fisheries, considering operational aspects of the fisheries, seasonal and spatial distributions of seabird interactions, alternative bycatch mitigation measures and findings from cost-benefit analyses. Identified priority mitigation measures suitable for the Hawaii longline fishery, potential changes to seabird measures, and research needs to inform future changes to seabird measures (Gilman and Ishizaki 2018). Specifically, workshop participants identified deterrents such as tori lines (also called streamer lines or bird scaring lines) and towed buoys, which are currently not required in the Hawaii longline fishery, to be a high priority for further research and development. Conversely, workshop participants identified blue-dyed bait as a candidate for removal from Hawaii's seabird requirements because of concerns with efficacy and practicality. Participants discussed that the requirement for using blue-dyed bait was intended to be used for squid bait but currently only fish are used for bait in both Hawaii longline fisheries, and that blue-dyed fish bait may also be less effective at mitigating seabird catch risk than blue-dyed squid bait. Industry members who participated in the workshop indicated that blue-dyed bait is not favored by fishermen as the dye is messy and thawing of bait reduces retention on hooks. Additionally, recent analysis of observer data indicate that side-setting is more effective than blue-dyed bait in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The workshop also identified the importance of training and outreach, in light of possible captain effects showing higher interactions by a smaller number of captains in the fleet.

The Council at its 174th Meeting in October 2018 received a report of the September 2018 Workshop and recommended: 1) enhancing outreach and training efforts to ensure proper application of existing seabird mitigation measure requirements; 2) NMFS provide support for research and development for alternative measures with potential to replace blue-dyed

bait, with high priority placed on identifying suitable designs for tori lines; and 3) encourage submission of Experimental Fishing Permit applications for testing alternative measures without the use of blue-dyed bait to allow comparison of measure effectiveness with and without blue-dyed bait. The Council additionally directed staff to prepare a discussion paper for the March 2019 Council Meeting to evaluate the effect of potential removal of blue-dyed bait without additional replacement measures on seabird interaction rates.

The Council, at its 176th meeting held in March 2019, endorsed additional strategies for identifying alternative measures and improving seabird measure effectiveness for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery including addressing captain effects through strategic outreach, identifying tori line designs suitable for the Hawaii fishery, encouraging trials for making minor modifications to existing required measures, and progressing international bycatch assessments for North Pacific albatross species. In 2020, a cooperative research project by the Council, NMFS and the Hawaii Longline Association was completed. The project conducted 1) demonstration and trial of tori lines in the Hawaii longline fishery to inform minimum standards specific to this fishery, and 2) field trials of tori lines to collect data on operational practicality and effectiveness in using tori lines under commercial fishing operations. The results from the study indicate that tori lines are effective in reducing albatross contacts and attempts on baited hooks when used in conjunction with existing seabird bycatch mitigation measures in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. Specifically, the results indicate that albatrosses contacts are about 3 times less likely, and attempts about 2 times less likely when tori lines are used (Gilman et al. 2021).

The Council at its 183rd meeting in September 2020 recommended additional at-sea trials for winter 2020/spring 2021 to test tori line efficacy without the use of blue-dyed bait when fishing north of 23N under an Experimental Fishing Permit (EFP) to inform development of options for revising mitigation measures. The Council at its 183rd Meeting 2020 also directed staff to develop an options paper to consider inclusion of tori lines in the seabird mitigation measures, including an option to allow the use of tori lines without blue-dyed bait. The Council at its 184th Meeting reviewed the options paper, and recommended development of a regulatory amendment to evaluate options for allowing the use of tori lines in lieu of blue-dyed bait and removing the strategic offal discharge requirement in the DSLF fishery. The Council also indicated its intent to schedule further action on the DSLF fishery when the results of an ongoing Experimental Fishing Permit (EFP) study are available later in 2021.

NMFS received an EFP application from the Hawaii Longline Association in November 2020, and the Council at its 184th Meeting in December 2020 recommended the issuance of the EFP. NMFS issued the EFP on January 27, 2021. Field trials for the EFP study were conducted from February to June 2021. The results of the study were presented at the 187th Council meeting. The results showed that albatross attempts are 1.5 times less likely, contacts are 4 times less likely, and captures 14 times less likely on tori line sets compared to blue-dyed bait sets (Chaloupka et al. 2021).

The Council at the 187th Meeting in September 2021 considered initial action on the regulatory amendment, and recommended as preliminary preferred alternatives 1) replacing blue-dyed bait with tori line; and 2) removing strategic offal discard from the regulatory requirement, with the addition to include best practices training on offal management as part of the required annual protected species workshop. The Council directed staff to consider a contingency that would allow vessels to continue fishing if a tori pole breaks during a trip.

Additionally, the Council directed staff to work with the Action Team to develop the necessary documentation including draft regulations for consideration of final action at the December 2021 meeting.

The Council at its 189th Meeting on December 7-9, 2021, took final action and recommended regulatory amendments under the Pelagic FEP to improve the overall operational practicality and mitigation efficacy of required measures for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. Specifically, the Council recommended replacing blue-dyed thawed bait and strategic offal discharge measures required for stern-setting deep-set longline vessels with a new tori line requirement. In lieu of a regulatory requirement for a strategic offal discharge measure, the Council recommended implementing best practices training on offal management as part of the annual protected species workshop, based on the best practices as presented, or any update thereof. The Council additionally recommended tori line regulatory specifications.

3.3.2.5.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

The short-tailed albatross ITS in the USFWS 2012 Biological Opinion for the Hawaii longline fishery is two incidental takes every five years in the deep-set fishery. Exceeding this number will lead to reinitiating consultation of the impact of this fishery on the species. Since there have been no observed takes of short-tailed albatrosses in the fishery, the ITS has not been exceeded as of the end of 2022.

Table 76. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (sets and 1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for albatross species in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Laysan albatross | | | | Black-footed albatross | | | | Unidentified albatross | | | | Short-tailed albatross |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|------------|------------------|--------------------|---------|-----|------------------------|--------------------|---------|-----|------------------------|-------------------|---------|----|------------------------|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 16(13) | 0.0024 | 65 | - | 18(17) | 0.0027 | 73 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 44(44) | 0.0068 | 198 | - | 24(23) | 0.0037 | 108 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 2(2) | 0.0003 | - | 10 | 4(4) | 0.0005 | - | 16 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 6(6) | 0.0006 | - | 43 | 12(12) | 0.0013 | - | 82 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 17(17) | 0.0023 | - | 70 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 7(7) | 0.0009 | - | 44 | 14(14) | 0.0018 | - | 77 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2008 ^d | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 14(13) | 0.0016 | - | 55 | 34(33) | 0.0039 | - | 118 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 18(18) | 0.0023 | - | 60 | 23(23) | 0.0029 | - | 110 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 39(38) | 0.0048 | - | 155 | 17(17) | 0.0021 | - | 65 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 32(31) | 0.0039 | - | 187 | 13(12) | 0.0016 | - | 73 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 30(25) | 0.0034 | - | 136 | 35(35) | 0.0040 | - | 167 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 48(46) | 0.0052 | - | 236 | 50(47) | 0.0054 | - | 257 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 13(10) | 0.0014 | - | 77 | 32(29) | 0.0033 | - | 175 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 24(22) | 0.0026 | - | 119 | 107(92) | 0.0114 | - | 541 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - | 0 |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 34(32) | 0.0034 | - | 166 | 104(99) | 0.0105 | - | 485 | 1(1) | 0.0003 | - | 7 | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 38(38) | 0.0037 | - | 226 | 97(85) | 0.0096 | - | 471 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 33(29) | 0.0028 | - | 157 | 194(168) | 0.0165 | - | 931 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 45(44) | 0.0035 | - | 231 | 146(139) | 0.0113 | - | 767 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 59(55) | 0.0068 | - | 315 | 96(87) | 0.0110 | - | 590 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 38(35) | 0.0033 | - | 244 | 87(80) | 0.0076 | 2 | 536 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 56(56) | 0.0045 | 277 | - | 47(45) | 0.0038 | 232 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

Source: Take data—2002-2019 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports, PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

ME—McCracken, 2005; McCracken, 2006; McCracken, 2007; McCracken, 2008; McCracken, 2009; McCracken, 2010; McCracken, 2011b; McCracken, 2012; McCracken, 2013; McCracken, 2014; McCracken, 2017c; McCracken, 2017d; McCracken 2019d; McCracken and Cooper 2020b; McCracken and Cooper 2022a; McCracken and Cooper (in review).

Table 77. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (sets and 1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for other seabird species in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2002-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Booby species | | | | Sooty shearwater | | | Unidentified shearwater | | | | Unidentified gull | | | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|------------|-------------------|--------------------|---------|----|------------------|--------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2002 | 24.6 | 3,523 | 6,786,303 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2003 | 22.2 | 3,204 | 6,442,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 2(2) | 0.0003 | 8 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 1(1) ^b | 0.0001 | 4 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 3(3) | 0.0004 | 14 | 2(2) ^c | 0.0003 | 9 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2008 ^d | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 1 ^e | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 14(14) ^c | 0.0016 | - | 62 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 4(4) ^c | 0.0005 | - | 24 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1(1) ^c | 0.0001 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 3(3) ^c | 0.0004 | - | 19 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | 5 | 6(6) ^c | 0.0007 | - | 36 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 8(8) ^c | 0.0009 | - | 43 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1(1) ^c | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 1(1) ^g | 0.0001 | - | 6 | 5(4) | 0.0005 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 21 ^f | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 2(1) ^g | 0.0002 | - | 12 | 4(4) | 0.0004 | 20 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 6 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 2(2) ^h | 0.0002 | - | 11 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 10(10) | 0.0009 | - | 40 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 1(1) ⁱ | 0.0001 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 1(1) ^j | 0.0001 | - | 5 | 1(1) | 0.0001 | 7 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 2 | 0.0000 | - | 9 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 1(1) ^j | 0.0001 | 5 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.^b This animal was identified as a brown booby on the 2005 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.^c These were later identified as sooty shearwaters in NMFS Seabird Interactions and Mitigation Efforts in Hawaii Longline Fisheries (Seabird Annual Report).^d One *unidentified seabird* was released injured in the second quarter of 2008 (takes/1,000 hooks < 0.001, ME = 2).^e This animal was identified as a red-footed booby on the 2008 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.^f These birds were identified as sooty shearwaters in the 2015 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.^g These birds were identified as red-footed boobies in the 2015 and 2016 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.^h One of the booby species was identified as a red-footed booby and one was identified as a brown booby on the 2018 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.ⁱ This animal was identified as a brown booby in the 2019 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status reports.^j This animal was identified as a brown booby in the unpublished observer data.Source: Take data—[2002-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#), PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data.

ME—[McCracken, 2005](#); [McCracken, 2006](#); [McCracken, 2007](#); [McCracken, 2008](#); [McCracken, 2009](#); [McCracken, 2010](#); [McCracken, 2011b](#); [McCracken, 2012](#); [McCracken, 2013](#); [McCracken, 2014](#); [McCracken, 2017c](#); [McCracken, 2017d](#); [McCracken 2019d](#); [McCracken and Cooper 2020b](#), [McCracken and Cooper 2022a](#), [McCracken and Cooper \(in review\)](#).

3.3.2.6 ELASMOBRANCH INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII DEEP-SET LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 78 summarizes the incidental take data for the Indo-west Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks, oceanic whitetip sharks, and giant manta rays in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery. The most common observed interactions from 2004 to 2022 were of oceanic whitetip sharks, with giant manta rays observed infrequently. Three observed interactions with the Indo-west Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead shark have been recorded since 2004. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of annual incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (referred to in this document as “ME”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is listed in the table (EF Est. = $100 / \% \text{ observer coverage} * \# \text{ takes}$).

The scalloped hammerhead shark data only include interactions that occurred within the range of the Indo-west Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks, and do not include interactions occurred within the range of the Central Pacific DPS, which is not listed under the ESA. Giant manta rays were listed under the ESA on January 22, 2018 (83 FR 2916), and oceanic whitetip sharks were listed on January 30, 2018 (83 FR 4153).

In an effort to reduce impacts to oceanic whitetip sharks in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, the Hawaii Longline Association (HLA) announced in late 2020 that its members, comprising more than 90% of the Hawaii deep-set longline fleet of approximately 146 active vessels, would voluntarily switch from wire to monofilament leaders. At the 186th meeting in June 2021, the Council recommended that wire leaders be prohibited in the Hawaii deep-set fishery, along with the requirement to remove trailing gear in all longline fisheries operating under the Pelagic FEP. The proposed rule for this regulatory amendment was published on January 19, 2022 (87 FR 2742) and the final rule published on April 28, 2022 (87 FR 25153) with an effective date of May 31, 2022.

Table 78. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (sets and 1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for ESA-listed elasmobranch species in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, 2004-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Scalloped hammerhead shark | | | | Oceanic whitetip shark | | | | Giant manta ray | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|------------|----------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|-------|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2004 | 24.6 | 3,958 | 7,900,681 | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 6 | 434(101) | 0.0549 | - | 2,938 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 |
| 2005 | 26.1 | 4,602 | 9,360,671 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 341(80) | 0.0364 | - | 1,282 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 7 |
| 2006 | 21.2 | 3,605 | 7,540,286 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 331(78) | 0.0439 | - | 1,346 | 2(1) | 0.0003 | - | 11 |
| 2007 | 20.1 | 3,506 | 7,620,083 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 7 | 262(72) | 0.0344 | - | 1,341 | 2 | 0.0003 | - | 5 |
| 2008 | 21.7 | 3,915 | 8,775,951 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 144(36) | 0.0164 | - | 741 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 10 |
| 2009 | 20.6 | 3,520 | 7,877,861 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 244(55) | 0.0310 | - | 1,236 | 4 | 0.0005 | - | 23 |
| 2010 | 21.1 | 3,580 | 8,184,127 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 253(44) | 0.0309 | - | 1,198 | 17(1) | 0.0021 | - | 95 |
| 2011 | 20.3 | 3,540 | 8,260,092 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 225(43) | 0.0272 | - | 1,176 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 |
| 2012 | 20.4 | 3,659 | 8,768,728 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 172(38) | 0.0196 | - | 878 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 11 |
| 2013 | 20.4 | 3,830 | 9,278,133 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 196(36) | 0.0211 | - | 973 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 5 |
| 2014 | 20.8 | 3,831 | 9,608,244 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 374(68) | 0.0389 | - | 1,670 | 3 | 0.0003 | - | 11 |
| 2015 | 20.6 | 3,728 | 9,393,234 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 531(139) | 0.0565 | - | 2,654 | 2 | 0.0002 | - | 10 |
| 2016 | 20.1 | 3,880 | 9,872,439 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 423(123) | 0.0428 | - | 2,188 | 4 | 0.0004 | - | 22 |
| 2017 | 20.4 | 3,832 | 10,148,195 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 242(57) | 0.0238 | - | 1,257 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 20.4 | 4,332 | 11,751,144 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 224(62) | 0.0191 | - | 1,092 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 3 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 4,697 | 12,948,077 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 435(99) | 0.0336 | - | 2,125 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 15.25 | 3,131 | 8,738,011 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 302(83) | 0.0346 | - | 1,959 | 1 | 0.0001 | - | 7 |
| 2021 | 17.84 | 3,972 | 11,454,331 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 522(103) | 0.0456 | - | 3,084 | 2(2) | 0.0002 | - | 11 |
| 2022 | 20.22 | 4,314 | 12,473,293 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 480(130) | 0.0385 | 2,374 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b Mortality numbers include animals that were released dead, finned (prior to passage of the Shark Conservation Act of 2010), and kept.

Source: NMFS 2014 (2004-2013), PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division unpublished data (2014-2018), McCracken 2019b; McCracken and Cooper 2020a; McCracken and Cooper 2021b.

3.3.2.6.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

An ITS is not required to provide protective coverage for the ESA listed elasmobranchs including the Indo-west Pacific scalloped hammerhead shark DPS, the oceanic whitetip shark, or the giant manta ray, because there are no take prohibitions under ESA section 4(d) for these species. However, ITS were included for these species in their relevant Biological Opinions to serve as a check on the no-jeopardy conclusions by providing a reinitiation trigger.

For the Indo-west Pacific scalloped hammerhead DPS, NMFS included an ITS of 6 interactions over a three-year period in the 2014 Biological Opinion (NMFS 2014). NMFS uses a rolling three-year period to track incidental take. NMFS counts takes for the Indo-west Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead shark based on the end of haul incidental take date. NMFS uses data from condition at time of release to calculate shark mortality rates. Interactions since 2017 are monitored against this ITS, and there has been no observed interaction with this DPS through the end of 2022.

On September 28, 2022, NMFS issued a no-jeopardy supplemental biological opinion on the agency's authorization of the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery (NMFS 2022). The 2022 Supplement addresses the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery's impacts to oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays and concluded that the authorization of the deep-set longline fishery as currently managed is not likely to jeopardize their continued existence. NMFS included in this supplement, ITSs of 6,336 interactions with the oceanic whitetip shark and 144 interactions with the giant manta ray over a five-year running period (Table 79). Exceeding either of these numbers over 5 consecutive years will lead to reinitiating consultation of the impact of this fishery on these species.

Table 79. Estimated total interactions (extrapolated using quarterly observer coverage) of oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery compared to the 5-year running sum ITS in the 2022 Supplement to the 2014 Biological Opinion^a

| Species | 5-year Running Sum ITS | Estimated Total Interactions in 2022 |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 6,336 | 2,291 |
| Giant manta ray | 144 | 0 |
| <i>Manta/Mobula</i> ^b | | 27 |

^a Take data are based on haul dates.

^b 20% of manta/mobula interactions are also tracked as the ITS for giant manta ray was based on interaction data that included rays classified as manta/mobula in the observer record that may have been giant manta rays

3.3.2.6.2 Effectiveness of FEP Conservation Measures

In June 2021, the Council recommended a regulatory amendment that would prohibit wire leaders in the Hawaii deep-set fishery and require removal of trailing gear for oceanic whitetip sharks in all longline fisheries operating under the Pelagic FEP. The rule change took effect in May 2022.

During 2021, the Hawaii deep-set longline fleet initiated the voluntary transition from wire to monofilament nylon leaders. Figure 158 shows the monthly proportion of leader material

used for observed sets, with most of the vessels using monofilament nylon leaders by December 2021.

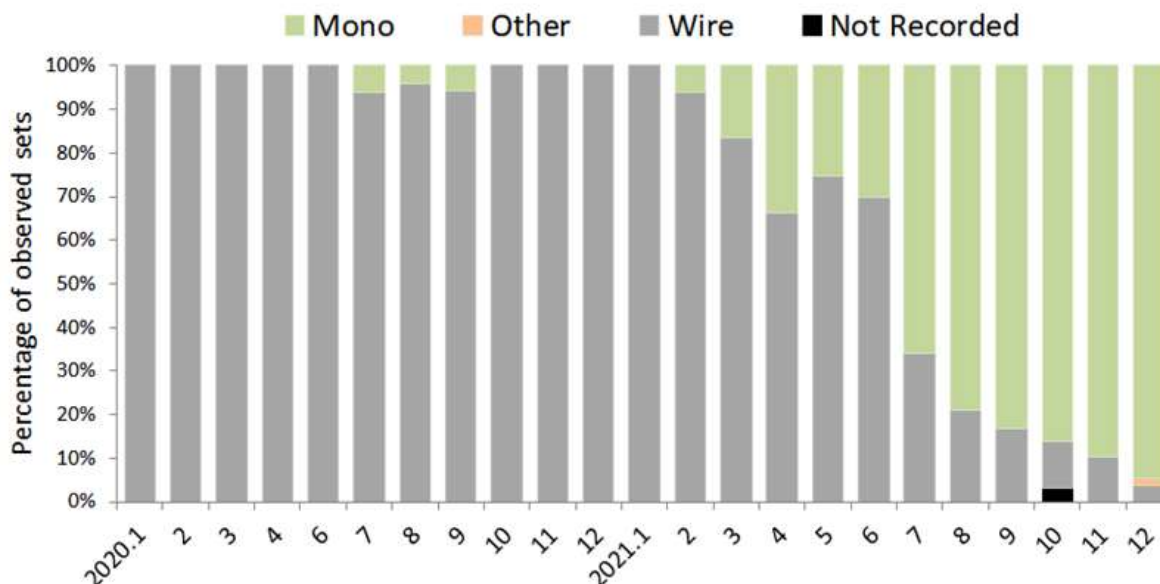


Figure 158. Leader material (based on observed sets) used in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery by month before and during the voluntary transition period (2020–2021)

3.3.3 AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

3.3.3.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MANAGEMENT MEASURES IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

In this annual report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the American Samoa longline fishery using the following indicators:

- General interaction trends over time
- Effectiveness of FEP conservation measures
- Take levels compared to the incidental take statement levels under ESA
- Take levels compared to marine mammal PBRs, where applicable

Details of these indicators are discussed below.

3.3.3.1.1 FEP Conservation Measures

The Pelagic FEP includes conservation measures to mitigate sea turtle interactions in the American Samoa longline fishery. These measures include the following:

- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to adhere to regulations for safe handling and release of sea turtles and seabirds.
- Longline vessel owners/operators must have on board the vessel all required turtle handling/dehooking gear specified in regulations.
- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to remove trailing gear from oceanic whitetip sharks and cut the line as close to the hook as possible.

- Longline vessel owners/operators are required to annually complete a protected species workshop.
- Owners and operators of vessels longer than 40 ft (12.2 m) must use longline gear that meet the following requirements:
 - Each float line must be at least 30 m long.
 - At least 15 branch lines must be attached to the mainline between any two float lines attached to the mainline.
 - Each branch line must be at least 10 m long.
 - No branch line may be attached to the mainline closer than 70 m to any float line.

Additionally, the American Samoa longline fishery has had observer coverage since 2006.

3.3.3.1.2 ESA Consultations

During 2022, the American Samoa longline fishery was covered under a NMFS Biological Opinion dated October 30, 2015 (NMFS 2015) and associated supplements. NMFS concluded in the 2015 Biological Opinion that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize five sea turtle species (South Pacific DPS loggerhead, leatherback, olive ridley, green and hawksbill turtles) and the Indo-West Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks, and not likely to adversely affect six species of reef-building corals (Table 80). The 2015 Biological Opinion also included a Conference Opinion for the green turtle DPSs and an ITS, which became effective at the time of the final listing in 2016 (81 FR 20058, April 5, 2016). Several informal consultations conducted by NMFS and USFWS have concluded that the fishery is not likely to adversely affect two marine mammal species (humpback and sperm whale) or the Newell's shearwater. NMFS has also determined that the fishery has no effect on three marine mammal species (fin, blue, and sei whale) or three petrel species (Chatham, Fiji, and magenta petrel).

NMFS and USFWS have issued ITSs for species with a non-jeopardy determination in the Biological Opinions (Table 81). Exceeding the three-year ITSs requires reinitiation of consultation on the fishery under the ESA.

On April 3, 2019, NMFS reinitiated ESA Section 7 consultation for the American Samoa deep-set fishery for all ESA-listed species under NMFS jurisdiction occurring in the action area due to several re-initiation triggers: listing of the oceanic whitetip shark, giant manta ray, and chambered nautilus; and exceeding the ITS for the east Indian west Pacific, southwest Pacific, central South Pacific, and east Pacific green sea turtle DPS; hawksbill; and olive ridley sea turtles in 2018. On April 3, 2019, May 6, 2020, July 13, 2021, August 29, 2022, NMFS determined that the conduct of the fishery during the period of consultation will not violate ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d).

On October 27, 2022, NMFS issued a Supplemental Biological Opinion to the 2015 Biological Opinion for the two new listed species, and concluded that the deep-set fishery is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of the oceanic whitetip shark and giant manta ray.

On May 15, 2023, NMFS issued a Biological Opinion covering all applicable ESA-listed species, which concluded that the fishery is not likely to jeopardize the following species: Leatherback sea turtle, green sea turtles in the East Pacific, East Indian-West Pacific,

Southwest Pacific, Central West Pacific and Central South Pacific; olive ridley sea turtles; hawksbill sea turtles, oceanic whitetip sharks, Indo-West Pacific scalloped hammerhead sharks, and giant manta ray. The new ITSs took effect when the new Biological Opinion was signed, thus did not apply in 2022.

Table 80. Summary of ESA consultations for the American Samoa longline fishery

| Species | Consultation Date | Consultation Type ^a | Outcome ^b |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Loggerhead turtle, South Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Leatherback turtle | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Olive ridley turtle | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Central South Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Southwest Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, East Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, Central West Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Green turtle, East Indian-West Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Hawksbill turtle | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Humpback whale | 2010-07-27 | LOC | NLAA |
| Fin whale | 2010-05-12 | No Effects Memo | No effect |
| Blue whale | 2010-05-12 | No Effects Memo | No effect |
| Sei whale | 2010-05-12 | No Effects Memo | No effect |
| Sperm whale | 2010-07-27 | LOC | NLAA |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Indo-West Pacific DPS | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 2022-10-27 | BiOpc | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Giant manta ray | 2022-10-27 | BiOpc | LAA, non-jeopardy |
| Reef-building corals | 2015-10-30 | BiOp | NLAA |
| Newell's shearwater | 2011-05-19 | LOC (FWS) | NLAA |
| Chatham petrel | 2011-07-29 | No Effects Memo | No effect |
| Fiji petrel | 2011-07-29 | No Effects Memo | No effect |
| Magenta petrel | 2011-07-29 | No Effects Memo | No effect |

^a BiOp = Biological Opinion; LOC = Letter of Concurrence.

^b LAA = likely to adversely affect; NLAA = not likely to adversely affect.

^c Supplement to the 2015 BiOp.

Table 81. Summary of ITSs for the American Samoa longline fishery

| Species | ITS Time Period | Takes | Mortalities | Source BiOp |
|--|--------------------|-------|-------------|------------------------|
| Loggerhead turtle, South Pacific DPS | 3-year | 6 | 3 | NMFS 2015 |
| Leatherback turtle | 3-year | 69 | 49 | NMFS 2015 |
| Olive ridley turtle | 3-year | 33 | 10 | NMFS 2015 |
| Green turtle, Central South Pacific DPS ^a | 3-year | 30 | 27 | NMFS 2015 |
| Green turtle, Southwest Pacific DPS ^a | 3-year | 20 | 17.82 | NMFS 2015 |
| Green turtle, East Pacific DPS ^a | 3-year | 7 | 6.48 | NMFS 2015 |
| Green turtle, Central West Pacific DPS ^a | 3-year | 2 | 1.62 | NMFS 2015 |
| Green turtle, East Indian-West Pacific DPS ^a | 3-year | 1 | 1.08 | NMFS 2015 |
| Hawksbill turtle | 3-year | 6 | 3 | NMFS 2015 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Indo-West Pacific DPS ^b | 3-year | 36 | 12 | NMFS 2015 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 5-year running sum | 3,520 | NMFS 2022 | Oceanic whitetip shark |
| Giant manta ray | 5-year running sum | 57 | NMFS 2022 | Giant manta ray |

^a The green turtle DPS-specific ITSs became effective in May 2016 when the DPS listings were finalized.

^b An ITS is not required for the Indo-West Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks, oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta ray due to the lack of take prohibition under ESA section 4(d), but NMFS included an ITS to serve as a check on the no-jeopardy conclusion by providing a re-initiation trigger.

3.3.3.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

Fishery impacts to marine mammal stocks are primarily assessed and monitored through the SARs prepared pursuant to the MMPA. The SARs include detailed information on these species' geographic range, abundance, PBR estimates, bycatch estimates, and status. The most recent SARs are available online at <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-mammal-protection/marine-mammal-stock-assessment-reports-region>.

The American Samoa longline fishery is a Category II under the MMPA 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), meaning that this fishery has occasional incidental mortality and serious injuries of marine mammals. The 2023 LOF lists the following marine mammal stocks that are incidentally killed or injured in this fishery:

- False killer whale, American Samoa stock
- Rough-toothed dolphin, American Samoa stock
- Short-finned pilot whale, unknown stock
- Stiped dolphin, unknown stock

Most bycatch estimates in the SARs are based on the most recently available 5-year period, but there is a data lag of approximately two years due to the SAR review process. This annual report focuses on available long-term interaction trends and summarizes relevant information from the most recent SAR.

3.3.3.2 DATA SOURCE FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

Protected species interactions in the American Samoa longline fishery have been monitored through mandatory observer coverage since 2006. Observer coverage in the fishery ranged

between 6 and 8 percent from 2006-2009, increased to 25 percent in 2010 and 33 percent in 2011. Coverage ranged between 15-22 percent in 2012-2019.

In response to the emerging COVID-19 crisis, and to ensure the safety and protect the health of fishermen, observers, and others, NMFS issued an emergency action on March 27, 2020 (85 FR 17285), to provide the authority, on a case-by-case basis, to waive observer coverage. This action was extended on September 21, 2020 (85 FR 59199) and again on March 29, 2021 (86 FR 16307). Under this emergency action, a NMFS Regional Administrator, Office Director, or Science Center Director had the ability to waive observer coverage requirements if:

- Local, state, or national governments, or private companies or organizations that deploy observers pursuant to NMFS regulations, restrict travel or otherwise issue COVID-19-related social control guidance, or requirement(s) addressing COVID-19-related concerns, such that it is inconsistent with the requirement(s) or not recommended to place an observer(s); or
- No qualified observer(s) are available for placement due to health, safety, or training issues related to COVID-19.

The PIRO Regional Administrator granted waivers on a case-by-case basis consistent with the emergency rule resulting in reduced coverage for the American Samoa longline fishery for 2020 at 2.13%, for 2021 at 4.65%, and for 2022 at 8.70%. Observer coverage remained below pre-COVID-19 rates in 2022 for this fishery due to the logistics and costs of deploying observers in American Samoa. NMFS is looking into designing a program that would allow for easier hire of local observers to increase coverage rates.

This report summarizes protected species interactions in the American Samoa longline fishery since 2006. Data for 2020 and 2021 are not reported due to data confidentiality rules associated with the low observer coverage. Annual observed interactions are tallied based on vessel arrival date (rather than interaction date) for the purposes of this report for consistency with the methods used to estimate the annual total interactions. Comparison of annual incidental takes within a year to the ITSs are based on the interaction date rather than the vessel arrival date, consistent with the 2015 Biological Opinion and associated supplements. Annual summary data presented in this report may differ from those in the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports, which began summarizing interaction data by haul begin dates (proxy for interaction date) in 2021.

3.3.3.3 SEA TURTLE INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 82 summarizes the incidental take data of sea turtles from 2006 to 2021 in the American Samoa longline fishery. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (referred to in this document as “McCracken estimates (ME)”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is used (EF Est. = $100 / \% \text{ observer coverage} * \# \text{ takes}$). PIFSC

generated estimated number of interactions for 2020-2021 based on observer data from 2012-2020 (McCracken and Cooper 2022a, 2022e).

Between 2006 and 2019, the PIRO Observer Program reported interactions with green, leatherback, olive ridley, and hawksbill sea turtles, but no observed interactions were reported with loggerhead sea turtles. The highest observed interaction rate involved green sea turtles, whereas interactions with leatherbacks, olive ridleys, and hawksbills were less frequent. 2020 and 2021 data cannot be reported due to confidentiality rules.

Green sea turtle takes were variable year to year, ranging between 0-11 observed takes (0-50 expanded annual estimated takes). From 2016 to 2019, four annual interactions per year with green turtles were observed, all of which resulted in mortalities. The interaction rate in 2018 was the highest since 2006. At its 170th Meeting in June 2017, the Council recommended evaluation of the effectiveness of the 2011 green turtle measure that required gear configuration to set hooks below 100 meters in the American Samoa longline fishery. PIFSC in response indicated they do not recommend evaluation at that time due to the low statistical power. At its 173rd Meeting in June 2018, the Council recommended PIFSC conduct an economic cost-benefit analysis on the use of large circle hooks in the American Samoa longline fishery to determine whether modifying the green turtle mitigation measures in the fishery may contribute to further reductions in interactions in the fishery without significant negative impacts on fishery operations and revenue. In response, PIFSC conducted a feasibility assessment for conducting a cost-benefit analysis, which indicated that a detailed analysis is not likely to provide new information beyond what is known from the Council-funded large circle hook study (Curran and Beverly 2012) due to data limitations (Raynor 2018).

All leatherback, olive ridley, and hawksbill sea turtle interactions were observed after 2010, with hawksbill interactions first occurring in 2016. Observer coverage was relatively low in 2006-2009 when interactions with these species were not observed (average observer coverage = 10.8%) compared to 2010-2019 (above 15%). Since leatherback, olive ridley, and hawksbill interactions with this fishery are relatively uncommon, it is possible the recent occurrence of interactions after 2010 is due to higher observer coverage as opposed to a true increase in interactions in the fishery.

Table 82. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for sea turtles in the American Samoa longline fishery, 2006-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Green | | | | Leatherback | | | | Olive ridley | | | | Hawksbill | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|-----------|-----------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------|--------------------|---------|----|-----------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2006 | 8.1 | 287 | 797,221 | 3(3) | 0.0038 | 37 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2007 | 7.1 | 410 | 1,255,329 | 1(1) | 0.0008 | 14 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2008 | 6.4 | 379 | 1,194,096 | 1(1) | 0.0008 | 16 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2009 | 7.7 | 306 | 880,612 | 3(3) | 0.0034 | 39 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2010 | 25.0 | 798 | 2,301,396 | 6(5) | 0.0026 | - | 50 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2011 | 33.3 | 1,257 | 3,605,897 | 11(10) | 0.0031 | - | 32 | 2(1) | 0.0006 | - | 4 | 1 | 0.0003 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2012 | 19.8 | 662 | 1,880,525 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1 | 0.0005 | - | 6 | 1(1) | 0.0005 | - | 6 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2013 | 19.4 | 585 | 1,690,962 | 2(2) | 0.0012 | - | 19 | 2(1) | 0.0012 | - | 13 | 1 | 0.0006 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2014 | 19.4 | 565 | 1,490,416 | 2(2) | 0.0013 | - | 17 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 4 | 2 | 0.0013 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2015 | 22.0 | 504 | 1,441,706 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 3(3) | 0.0021 | - | 22 | 1 | 0.0007 | - | 6 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | - |
| 2016 | 19.4 | 424 | 1,179,532 | 4(4) | 0.0034 | - | 17 | 1(1) | 0.0008 | - | 3 | 3(3) | 0.0025 | - | 12 | 1(1) | 0.0008 | - | 4 |
| 2017 | 20.0 | 447 | 1,271,803 | 4(4) | 0.0031 | - | 22 | 1 | 0.0008 | - | 3 | 2(2) | 0.0016 | - | 12 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 3 |
| 2018 | 17.5 | 276 | 732,476 | 4(4) | 0.0055 | - | 20 | 1 | 0.0014 | - | 5 | 2(2) | 0.0027 | - | 11 | 2(2) | 0.0027 | - | 5 |
| 2019 | 15.7 | 380 | 1,087,860 | 4(4) | 0.0037 | - | 26 | 1(1) | 0.0009 | - | 7 | 3(3) | 0.0028 | - | 29 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2020 | 2.13 | * | * | * | * | * | 11 | * | * | * | 7 | * | * | * | 6 | * | * | * | 2 |
| 2021 | 4.65 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * |
| 2022 | 8.70 | 90 | 260,768 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1(1) | 0.0038 | 11 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

*2020 and 2021 data are not reported due to confidentiality rules.

Source: Take data—[2006-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#)

ME—McCracken, 2015; McCracken, 2017a; McCracken 2019a; McCracken 2020b; McCracken and Cooper 2022a; McCracken and Cooper 2022e.

3.3.3.3.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

NMFS completed a Biological Opinion for the American Samoa longline fishery on October 30, 2015. The Biological Opinion includes data through June 30, 2015. NMFS began monitoring the American Samoa longline fishery ITS in the third quarter of 2015 and uses a rolling three-year period to track incidental take (Table 83). This table was not updated for the 2020 report due to data confidentiality. NMFS always uses the date of the interaction for tracking sea turtle interactions against the ITS, regardless of when the vessel returns to port. In the PIRO Observer Program Quarterly and Annual Reports, NMFS bases the percent observer coverage on vessel departures and bases sea turtle interactions on vessel arrivals. For this reason, the number of quarterly or annual interactions counted against an ITS may vary from those reported on the Observer Program's quarterly and annual reports. NMFS uses post-hooking mortality criteria (Ryder et al. 2006) to calculate sea turtle mortality rates.

On April 3, 2019, NMFS reinitiated ESA Section 7 consultation for the American Samoa deep-set fishery for all ESA-listed species under NMFS jurisdiction occurring in the action

area due in part to exceeding the ITS for the east Indian west Pacific, southwest Pacific, central South Pacific, and east Pacific green sea turtle DPS, hawksbill turtle, and olive ridley turtles in 2018. NMFS determined that the conduct of the fishery during the period of consultation will not violate ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d).

Table 83. Estimated total interactions^a (extrapolated using quarterly observer coverage) and total mortality (M) (using Ryder et al. 2006) of sea turtles in the American Samoa longline fishery compared to the 3-year Incidental Take Statement (ITS) in the 2015 Biological Opinion

| Species | 3-year ITS Interactions (M) | Estimated Total Interactions and Mortalities Interactions (M) ^{b,c} | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| | | 2017-2019 | 2018-2020 | 2019-2021 | 2020-2022 |
| Green turtle | 60(54) | 68(64.64) | 46(43.72) | 47(44.72) | 21(20.28) |
| Central South Pacific DPS | 30(27) | 34(32.32) | 23(21.86) | 23.5(22.36) | 10.5(10.14) |
| Southwest Pacific DPS | 20(17.82) | 22.44(21.33) | 15.18(14.43) | 15.51(14.76) | 6.93(6.69) |
| East Pacific DPS | 7(6.48) | 8.16(7.76) | 5.52(5.25) | 5.64(5.37) | 2.52(2.43) |
| Central West Pacific DPS | 2(1.62) | 2.04(1.94) | 1.38(1.31) | 1.41(1.34) | 0.63(0.61) |
| East Indian-West Pacific DPS | 1(1.08) | 1.36(1.29) | 0.92(0.87) | 0.94(0.89) | 0.42(0.41) |
| Leatherback turtle | 69(49) | 15(10.28) | 12(8.29) | 20(13.6) | 13(8.62) |
| Olive ridley turtle | 33(10) | 43(32.92) | 31(23.72) | 33(24.6) | 18(13.58) |
| Loggerhead turtle | 6(3) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Hawksbill turtle | 6(3) | 8(8) | 5(5) | 4(4.0) | 4 (4.0) |

^a Takes are counted based on interaction date.

^b The green turtle DPS-specific ITSs became effective in May 2016 when the DPS listings were finalized.

^c Estimated total interactions for the green turtle DPSs are prorated based on the estimated proportion of each green turtle DPS indicated in the 2015 BiOp (NMFS 2015).

^d Estimated total interactions for 2021 were calculated using the number of observed interactions multiplied by the expansion factor.

3.3.3.4 MARINE MAMMAL INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 84 summarizes the incidental take data of marine mammals from 2006 to 2022 in the American Samoa longline fishery. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Reported interactions listed in these tables reflect all observed interactions, including mortalities, serious injuries, and non-serious injuries. Refer to the most recent SARs for mortality and serious injury estimates and stock-specific abundance estimates and geographic range. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. Observed take data were expanded to represent the estimated number of incidental takes for the entire fishery using a standard expansion factor estimate ($EF\ Est. = 100 / \% \text{ observer coverage} * \# \text{ takes}$). PIFSC generated estimated number of interactions for -2021 based on observer data from 2012-2020 (McCracken and Cooper 2022b, 2022g), and the logbook and observer data were also used to derive the 2021 estimates (McCracken and Cooper 2022g).

Observed marine mammal interactions with the American Samoa longline fishery between 2006 and 2019 were relatively infrequent with only one striped dolphin interactions in 2019. False killer whales had the highest interaction rate over this period, followed by rough-toothed dolphins, Cuvier's beaked whales, short-finned pilot whales, and 2 unidentified cetaceans. Between 2006 and 2022, there were 6 years of no observed marine mammal interactions with this fishery (2006, 2007, 2009, 2010, 2012, and 2022).

3.3.3.4.1 Comparison of Interactions with PBR under the MMPA

SARs are only available for four species of marine mammals for which stocks have been identified around American Samoa (humpback whale, false killer whale, rough-toothed dolphin, and spinner dolphin). PBR comparisons with estimates of mortality and serious injury are not available for American Samoa stocks of marine mammals due to the lack of abundance estimates.

Table 84. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates for marine mammals in the American Samoa longline fishery, 2006-2022^a

| Year | Obs · Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Cuvier's beaked whale | | | False killer whale | | | | Rough-toothed dolphin | | | | Short-finned pilot whale | | | Striped dolphin | | | | Unidentified cetacean | | |
|------|-------------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------|-----------------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|------------------|---------------------------|------------|--------|-----------------------|---------------------------|------------|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est · | Observed | | EF Est · | M E | Observed | | EF Est · | M E | Observed | | EF Est · | Observed | | EF Est. | M E | Observed | | EF Est. |
| | | | | Take s (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Take s (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Take s (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Take s (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | Take s (M) | Takes / 1,000 hooks | | | Take s (M) | Takes / 1,000 hooks | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2006 | 8.1 | 287 | 797,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2007 | 7.1 | 410 | 1,255,329 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2008 | 6.4 | 379 | 1,194,096 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 2(1) | 0.0017 | 31 | - | 1 | 0.0008 | 16 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2009 | 7.7 | 306 | 880,612 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2010 | 25.0 | 798 | 2,301,396 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2011 | 33.3 | 1,257 | 3,605,897 | 1(1) | 0.0003 | 3 | 3 | 0.0008 | 9 | - | 5 | 0.0014 | 15 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 2 | 0.0006 | 6 |
| 2012 | 19.8 | 662 | 1,880,525 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2013 | 19.4 | 585 | 1,690,962 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0006 | 5 | - | 1(1) | 0.0006 | 5 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2014 | 19.4 | 565 | 1,490,416 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1 | 0.0007 | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2015 | 22.0 | 504 | 1,441,706 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 2(1) | 0.0014 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2016 | 19.4 | 424 | 1,179,532 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 2 | 0.0017 | - | 10 | 2(2) | 0.0017 | - | 10 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.0 | 447 | 1,271,803 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0008 | - | 6 | 1 | 0.0008 | - | 4 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2018 | 17.5 | 276 | 732,476 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0014 | - | 5 | 1(1) | 0.0014 | - | 3 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 2 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2019 | 15.7 | 380 | 1,087,860 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 1 | 0.0009 | - | 5 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 |
| 2020 | 2.13 | * | * | * | * | * | 1 | * | - | 5 | 1 | * | - | 3 | 0 | * | - | 0 | 0 | * | - | 0 | * | * |
| 2021 | 4.65 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | | * | * | * | | * | * | * | | * | * | * | | * | * |
| 2022 | 8.70 | 90 | 260,768 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

*2020 and 2021 data are not reported due to confidentiality rules.

Source: [2006-2020 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#) and unpublished observer data; McCracken 2020a; McCracken and Cooper 2022b; McCracken and Cooper 2022g.

3.3.3.5 SEABIRD INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 85 summarizes the incidental take data of seabirds from 2006 to 2022 in the American Samoa longline fishery. The incidental take data in this section were compiled from the PIRO Observer Program Annual Status Reports and are for monitoring purposes. Many of these interactions have been further examined by NMFS, and updated information necessary for any data analyses is available from PIFSC. Observed take data are expanded to represent the estimated number of annual incidental takes for the entire fishery by PIFSC (referred to in this document as McCracken Estimates, or “ME”). When ME are not available, a standard expansion factor estimate is listed in the table (EF Est. = 100 / % observer coverage * # takes). 2020-2021 data cannot be reported due to confidentiality rules. PIFSC generated estimated number of interactions for 2020-2021 based on observer data from 2012-2020 (McCracken and Cooper 2022a, 2022e).

Observed seabird interactions with the American Samoa longline fishery between 2006 and 2022 were uncommon, including interactions with two unidentified shearwaters and one frigatebird. Additionally, the observer program report for 2015 included 13 observed interactions with black-footed albatrosses that occurred in the North Pacific with vessels departing American Samoa and landing in California. There was one unidentified shearwater was observed in 2019, and no other observed seabird interactions from 2016-2022.

Table 85. Observed takes, mortalities (M), takes per fishing effort (1,000 hooks), and estimated annual takes using expansion factor estimates and ME for seabirds in the American Samoa longline fishery, 2006-2022^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Black-footed Albatross | | | | Unidentified shearwater | | | | Unidentified frigatebird | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|-----------|------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2006 | 8.1 | 287 | 797,221 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2007 | 7.1 | 410 | 1,255,329 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1(1) | 0.0008 | 14 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2008 | 6.4 | 379 | 1,194,096 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2009 | 7.7 | 306 | 880,612 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2010 | 25.0 | 798 | 2,301,396 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2011 | 33.3 | 1,257 | 3,605,897 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1(1) | 0.0003 | - | 2 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2012 | 19.8 | 662 | 1,880,525 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2013 | 19.4 | 585 | 1,690,962 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 1(1) | 0.0006 | - | 5 |
| 2014 | 19.4 | 565 | 1,490,416 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2015 | 22.0 | 504 | 1,441,706 | 13(13) ^b | 0.0090 | - | 13 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2016 | 19.4 | 424 | 1,179,532 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2017 | 20.0 | 447 | 1,271,803 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2018 | 17.5 | 276 | 732,476 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2019 | 15.7 | 380 | 1,087,860 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 1(1) | 0.0009 | - | 7 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2020 | 2.13 | * | * | * | * | * | 0 | * | * | * | 1 | * | * | * | 1 |

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Black-footed Albatross | | | | Unidentified shearwater | | | | Unidentified frigatebird | | | |
|------|---------------|------|---------|------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|--------------------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2021 | 4.65 | * | * | * | * | * | 0 | * | * | * | 1 | * | * | * | 1 |
| 2022 | 8.70 | 90 | 260,768 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.

^b These seabird interactions occurred in the North Pacific by vessels departing American Samoa and landing in California.

*2020 data are not reported due to confidentiality rules.

Source: [2006-2019 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#)

ME—McCracken, 2015a; McCracken, 2017a; McCracken 2020b; McCracken and Cooper 2022a.

3.3.3.6 ELASMOBRANCH INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERY

Table 86 summarizes the incidental take data for the Indo-west Pacific DPS scalloped hammerhead sharks, oceanic whitetip sharks, and giant manta rays in the American Samoa longline fishery. Giant manta rays were listed under the ESA on January 22, 2018 (83 FR 2916), and oceanic whitetip sharks were listed on January 30, 2018 (83 FR 4153). On April 3, 2019, NMFS reinitiated consultation for the American Samoa longline fishery and determined that the conduct of the fishery during the period of consultation will not violate ESA Sections 7(a)(2) and 7(d). 2020 and 2021 data cannot be reported due to confidentiality rules. PIFSC generated estimated number of interactions for 2020-2021 based on observer data from 2012-2020 (McCracken and Cooper 2022a, 2022d).

Observed interactions with oceanic whitetip sharks are most common in the American Samoa longline fishery from 2006 to 2019. Scalloped hammerheads and giant manta rays are observed less frequently. There have been no observed takes of giant manta rays since 2014.

Table 86. Observed and estimated total elasmobranch interactions with the American Samoa longline fishery for 2006-2021^a

| Year | Obs. Cov. (%) | Sets | Hooks | Scalloped hammerhead | | | | Oceanic whitetip | | | | Giant manta ray | | | |
|------|---------------|-------|-----------|-------------------------|--------------------|----------|-----|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|-------|-----------------|--------------------|---------|----|
| | | | | Observed | | E F Est. | M E | Observed | | EF Est. | ME | Observed | | EF Est. | ME |
| | | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M ^b) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | | Takes (M) | Takes/ 1,000 hooks | | |
| 2006 | 8.1 | 287 | 797,221 | 1(1) | 0.0013 | 12 | - | 46(11) | 0.0577 | 568 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2007 | 7.1 | 410 | 1,255,329 | 1 | 0.0008 | 14 | - | 62(18) | 0.0494 | 873 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2008 | 6.4 | 379 | 1,194,096 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 48(17) | 0.0402 | 750 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2009 | 7.7 | 306 | 880,612 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 45(13) | 0.0511 | 584 | - | 1 | 0.0011 | 13 | - |
| 2010 | 25 | 798 | 2,301,396 | 4(1) | 0.0017 | - | 17 | 130(37) | 0.0565 | - | 1,176 | 3 | 0.0013 | - | 11 |
| 2011 | 33.3 | 1,257 | 3,605,897 | 2(1) | 0.0006 | - | 7 | 116(44) | 0.0322 | - | 319 | 3 | 0.0008 | - | 11 |
| 2012 | 19.8 | 662 | 1,880,525 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 71(26) | 0.0378 | - | 470 | 3 | 0.0016 | - | 29 |
| 2013 | 19.4 | 585 | 1,690,962 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 88(15) | 0.0520 | - | 407 | 2 | 0.0012 | - | 8 |
| 2014 | 19.4 | 565 | 1,490,416 | 1 | 0.0007 | - | 6 | 104(37) | 0.0698 | - | 464 | 1 | 0.0007 | - | 2 |
| 2015 | 22.0 | 504 | 1,441,706 | 1(1) | 0.0007 | - | 3 | 168(59) | 0.1165 | - | 827 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 3 |
| 2016 | 19.4 | 424 | 1,179,532 | 1 | 0.0008 | - | 8 | 197(70) | 0.1670 | - | 788 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2017 | 20.0 | 447 | 1,271,803 | 1 | 0.0008 | - | 7 | 63(22) | 0.0495 | - | 484 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 |
| 2018 | 17.5 | 276 | 732,476 | 3 | 0.0041 | - | 8 | 108(39) | 0.1474 | - | 513 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2019 | 15.7 | 380 | 1,087,860 | 0 | 0.0000 | - | 0 | 140(51) | 0.1287 | - | 870 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |
| 2020 | 2.13 | * | * | * | * | * | 4 | * | * | * | 469 | * | * | * | 3 |
| 2021 | 4.65 | * | * | * | * | * | 3 | * | * | * | 467 | * | * | * | 3 |
| 2022 | 8.70 | 90 | 260,768 | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - | 25(8) | 0.0959 | 287 | - | 0 | 0.0000 | 0 | - |

^a Take data are based on vessel arrival dates.^b Mortality numbers include sharks that were released dead, finned (prior to the passage of the Shark Conservation Act of 2010), and kept.

*2020 data are not reported due to confidentiality rules.

Source: [2006-2019 PIRO Observer Program Annual and Quarterly Status Reports](#) and unpublished observer data; McCracken 2015a; McCracken 2017a, McCracken 2019a; McCracken 2020b; McCracken and Cooper 2022a.

3.3.3.6.1 Comparison of Interactions with ITS

An ITS is not required to provide protective coverage for the ESA listed elasmobranchs including the Indo-west Pacific scalloped hammerhead shark DPS, the oceanic whitetip shark, or the giant manta ray, because there are no take prohibitions under ESA section 4(d) for these species. However, ITS were included for these species in their relevant Biological Opinions to serve as a check on the no-jeopardy conclusions by providing a reinitiation trigger.

For the Indo-west Pacific scalloped hammerhead shark DPS, NMFS included an ITS of 36 interactions over a three-year period in the 2015 Biological Opinion. NMFS uses a rolling three-year period to track incidental take against this ITS (Table 87). NMFS counts takes for the Indo-west Pacific DPS of scalloped hammerhead sharks based on the end of haul incidental take date.

On October 27, 2022, NMFS issued a no-jeopardy supplemental biological opinion on the agency's authorization of the American Samoa longline fishery. The 2022 Supplement addresses the American Samoa longline fishery's impacts to oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays and concluded that the authorization of the deep-set longline fishery as currently managed is not likely to jeopardize their continued existence. NMFS included in this supplement, ITSs of 3,520 interactions with the oceanic whitetip shark and 57 interactions with the giant manta ray over a

five-year running period (Table 87). Exceeding either of these numbers over 5 consecutive years will lead to reinitiating consultation of the impact of this fishery on these species.

Table 87. Estimated total interactions (extrapolated using quarterly observer coverage) of oceanic whitetip sharks and giant manta rays in the American Samoa longline fishery compared to the 5-year running sum ITS in the 2022 Supplement to the 2015 Biological Opinion^a

| 2015 BiOp | | |
|---|------------------------|--|
| Species | 3-year ITS | Estimated Total Interactions 2020-2022 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark, Indo-West Pacific DPS | 36 | 7 |
| 2022 Supp. BiOp | | |
| Species | 5-year Running Sum ITS | Estimated Total Interactions in 2022 |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | 3,520 | 190 |
| Giant manta ray | 57 | 0 |
| <i>Manta/Mobula</i> ^b | | 1 |

^a Take data are based on haul dates.

^b 20% of manta/mobula interactions are also tracked as the ITS for giant manta ray was based on interaction data that included rays classified as manta/mobula in the observer record that may have been giant manta rays

3.3.4 HAWAII TROLL FISHERY

3.3.4.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII TROLL FISHERY

In this report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the Hawaii troll fishery using proxy indicators such as fishing effort and changes in gear types as this fishery does not have observer coverage.

3.3.4.1.1 Conservation Measures

The Hawaii troll fishery has not had reported interactions with protected species, and no specific regulations are in place to mitigate protected species interactions. The Pacific Pelagic FEP requires any vessel fishing under the FEP to comply with sea turtle handling and release regulations.

3.3.4.1.2 ESA Consultations

In a Biological Opinion completed on September 1, 2009 for the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region, NMFS concluded that these fisheries are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of green turtles and included an ITS of four animals killed per year from collisions with troll and handline fishing vessels (NMFS 2009). The Biological Opinion also concluded that the fisheries are not likely to adversely affect all other protected species in the region. NMFS also determined on October 6, 2014 that fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals.

3.3.4.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

The MMPA requires NMFS to annually publish a LOF that classifies commercial fisheries in one of three categories based on the level of mortality and serious injury of marine mammals

associated with that fishery. According to the 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), the Hawaii troll fishery (HI troll) is classified as a Category III fishery (i.e., a remote likelihood of or no known incidental mortality and serious injury of marine mammals). The 2023 LOF lists the following marine mammal stock that may be incidentally killed or injured in this fishery:

- Pantropical spotted dolphin, HI stock

While NMFS lists Pantropical spotted dolphin as potentially interacting with the Hawaii troll fishery in the LOF, there is a lack of direct evidence of serious injury or mortality in this fishery (78 FR 23708, April 22, 2013).

3.3.4.2 STATUS OF PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII TROLL FISHERY

NMFS has determined that the Hawaii troll fishery operating under the Pacific Pelagic FEP is not likely to jeopardize green sea turtles and not likely to adversely affect other ESA-listed sea turtles, marine mammals, seabirds, scalloped hammerhead shark, and non ESA-listed marine mammals, and has no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals. The Hawaii troll fishery has minimal interactions with these protected species.

The ITS in the 2009 Biological Opinion estimates four green turtle mortalities annually in the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region. There have not been any reported or observed collisions of troll and handline vessels with green turtles, and data are not available to attribute stranded turtle mortality source to troll and handline vessels.

Based on fishing effort and other characteristics described in Chapter 2, no notable changes have been observed in the fishery. There is no other information to indicate that impacts to protected species from this fishery have changed in recent years.

3.3.5 MHI HANDLINE FISHERY

3.3.5.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE MHI HANDLINE FISHERY

In this report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the MHI handline fishery using proxy indicators such as fishing effort and changes in gear types as this fishery does not have observer coverage.

3.3.5.1.1 Conservation Measures

The MHI handline fishery has not had reported interactions with protected species, and no specific regulations are in place to mitigate protected species interactions. The Pacific Pelagic FEP requires any vessel fishing under the FEP to comply with sea turtle handling and release regulations.

3.3.5.1.2 ESA Consultations

In a Biological Opinion completed on September 1, 2009 for the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region, NMFS concluded that these fisheries are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of green turtles and included an ITS of four animals killed per year from collisions with troll and handline fishing vessels (NMFS 2009). The Biological Opinion also concluded that the fisheries are not likely to adversely affect all other protected species in the

region. NMFS also determined on October 16, 2014 that fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals.

3.3.5.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

The MMPA requires NMFS to annually publish an LOF that classifies commercial fisheries in one of three categories based on the level of mortality and serious injury of marine mammals associated with that fishery. According to the 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), the MHI handline (HI pelagic handline) fishery is classified as a Category III fishery (i.e., a remote likelihood of or no known incidental mortality and serious injury of marine mammals).

3.3.5.2 STATUS OF PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE MHI HANDLINE FISHERY

NMFS has determined that the MHI handline fishery operating under the Pacific Pelagic FEP is not likely to jeopardize green sea turtles and not likely to adversely affect other ESA-listed sea turtles, marine mammals, seabirds, scalloped hammerhead shark, and non ESA-listed marine mammals, and has no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals. The MHI handline fishery has minimal interactions with these protected species.

The ITS in the 2009 Biological Opinion estimates four green turtle mortalities annually in the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region. There have not been any reported or observed collisions of troll and handline vessels with green turtles, and data are not available to attribute stranded turtle mortality source to troll and handline vessels.

Based on fishing effort and other characteristics described in Chapter 2, no notable changes have been observed in the fishery. There is no other information to indicate that impacts to protected species from this fishery have changed in recent years.

3.3.6 HAWAII OFFSHORE HANDLINE FISHERY

3.3.6.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII OFFSHORE HANDLINE FISHERY

In this report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the Hawaii offshore handline fishery using proxy indicators such as fishing effort and changes in gear types as this fishery does not have observer coverage.

3.3.6.1.1 Conservation Measures

The Hawaii offshore handline fishery has not had reported interactions with protected species, and no specific regulations are in place to mitigate protected species interactions. The Pacific Pelagic FEP requires any vessel fishing under the FEP to comply with sea turtle handling and release regulations.

3.3.6.1.2 ESA Consultations

In a Biological Opinion completed on September 1, 2009 for the troll and handline fisheries in the Western Pacific region, NMFS concluded that these fisheries are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of green turtles and included an ITS of four animals killed per year from collisions with troll and handline fishing vessels. The Biological Opinion also concluded that the fisheries are not likely to adversely affect all other protected species in the region. NMFS also

determined on October 16, 2014 that fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals.

3.3.6.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

The MMPA requires NMFS to annually publish an LOF that classifies commercial fisheries in one of three categories based on the level of mortality and serious injury of marine mammals associated with that fishery. According to the 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), the Hawaii offshore handline (HI pelagic handline) fishery is classified as a Category III fishery (i.e., a remote likelihood of or no known incidental mortality and serious injury of marine mammals).

3.3.6.2 STATUS OF PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE HAWAII OFFSHORE HANDLINE FISHERY

NMFS has determined that the Hawaii offshore handline fishery operating under the Pacific Pelagic FEP is not likely to jeopardize green sea turtles and not likely to adversely affect other ESA-listed sea turtles, marine mammals, seabirds, scalloped hammerhead shark, and non ESA-listed marine mammals, and have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals. The Hawaii offshore handline fishery has minimal interactions with these protected species.

The ITS in the 2009 Biological Opinion estimates four green turtle mortalities annually in the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region. There have not been any reported or observed collisions of troll and handline vessels with green turtles, and data are not available to attribute stranded turtle mortality source to troll and handline vessels.

Based on fishing effort and other characteristics described in Chapter 2, no notable changes have been observed in the fishery. There is no other information to indicate that impacts to protected species from this fishery have changed in recent years.

3.3.7 AMERICAN SAMOA, GUAM, AND CNMI TROLL FISHERY

3.3.7.1 INDICATORS FOR MONITORING PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA, GUAM AND CNMI TROLL FISHERY

In this report, the Council monitors protected species interactions in the American Samoa, Guam, and CNMI troll fisheries using proxy indicators such as fishing effort and changes in gear types as these fisheries do not have observer coverage.

Details of these indicators are discussed in the sections below.

3.3.7.1.1 Conservation Measures

The American Samoa, Guam, and CNMI fisheries have not had reported interactions with protected species, and no specific regulations are in place to mitigate protected species interactions. The Pacific Pelagic FEP requires any vessel fishing under the FEP to comply with sea turtle handling and release regulations.

3.3.7.1.2 ESA Consultations

In a Biological Opinion completed on September 1, 2009 for the troll and handline fisheries in the Western Pacific region, NMFS concluded that these fisheries are not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of green turtles and included an ITS of four animals killed per year from collisions with troll and handline fishing vessels. The Biological Opinion also concluded that the fisheries are not likely to adversely affect all other protected species in the region. NMFS also

determined on October 16, 2014 that fisheries managed under the Pelagic FEP have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals.

3.3.7.1.3 Non-ESA Marine Mammals

The MMPA requires NMFS to annually publish an LOF that classifies commercial fisheries in one of three categories based on the level of mortality and serious injury of marine mammals associated with that fishery. According to the 2023 LOF (88 FR 16899, March 21, 2023), troll fisheries in American Samoa, Guam and CNMI are classified as Category III fisheries (i.e., a remote likelihood of or no known incidental mortality and serious injury of marine mammals).

3.3.7.2 STATUS OF PROTECTED SPECIES INTERACTIONS IN THE AMERICAN SAMOA, GUAM AND CNMI TROLL FISHERY

NMFS has determined that the American Samoa, Guam, and CNMI fisheries operating under the Pacific Pelagic FEP are not likely to jeopardize green sea turtles and not likely to adversely affect other ESA-listed sea turtles, marine mammals, seabirds, scalloped hammerhead shark, and non ESA-listed marine mammals, and have no effects on ESA-listed reef-building corals. The American Samoa, Guam, and CNMI fisheries likely have minimal interactions with these protected species.

The ITS in the 2009 Biological Opinion estimates four green turtle mortalities annually in the troll and handline fisheries in the western Pacific region. There have not been any reported or observed collisions of troll and handline vessels with green turtles, and data are not available to attribute stranded turtle mortality source to troll and handline vessels.

Based on fishing effort and other characteristics described in Chapter 2, no notable changes have been observed in the American Samoa, Guam, and CNMI troll fisheries. There is no other information to indicate that impacts to protected species from these fisheries have changed in recent years.

3.3.8 IDENTIFICATION OF EMERGING ISSUES

Oceanic whitetip sharks were listed under the ESA in 2018. This species is incidentally captured in the Hawaii and American Samoa longline fisheries. Observed interaction data have been added to this report. RFMO conservation measures implemented in the U.S. domestic fisheries has required non-retention of oceanic whitetip sharks since 2011 in the IATTC area and 2015 in the WCPFC area. Additionally, the Cooperative Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research and the Hawaii Institute of Marine Biology is conducted a study to assess the post-release survivorship of five species of sharks including the oceanic whitetip shark released alive in the Hawaii and American Samoa longline fishery.

In the study (Hutchinson et al. 2021), PIFSC researchers worked with observer programs and fishermen to quantify post release mortality rates of blue (BSH), bigeye thresher (BTH), shortfin mako (SMA), oceanic whitetip (OCS), and silky sharks (FAL) that are incidentally captured in the Hawaii deep-set (HiDS) and OCS and FAL in the American Samoa (AS) tuna target longline fisheries, using pop-off archival satellite tags (PAT). This study also assessed the effects that standard shark bycatch handling and discard practices utilized in these fisheries may have on the post release fate of discarded sharks that are alive at haul back of the longline gear. Observers trained in the project methods collected shark condition and handling data on 19,all incidental elasmobranchs captured during the study. Tagging was not conducted on Hawaii shallow-set

(HIDS) trips targeting swordfish. The handling and damage data recorded by trained observers indicated that most of the five species of sharks considered in this study were released by cutting the line. Followed by; gear removal with jaw damage, gear removal with no damage to the shark, gear removal with removal of part of the shark (e.g., lobe of tail on tail-hooked BTH). A small proportion of these sharks escaped the gear on their own. Other handling methods that were observed included the use of a dehooker and a drag line. The length and composition of the trailing gear was also recorded by observers and varied by fishery and by species. The HIDS fishery left the greatest amount of trailing gear on sharks, where sharks were released with an average of 8.75 m, ranging in length from 1.0–25.0 m, typically composed of a stainless-steel hook, 0.5 m of braided wire leader, a 45-gram weighted swivel, and monofilament branchline. Sharks released by cutting the line in American Samoa were released with an average of 2.98 m of trailing gear which is composed of a stainless-steel hook to an all monofilament line ranging in length from 1.0–10.0 m.

A proportional hazard model was implemented in a Bayesian framework to understand the impacts of several factors (fishery, condition at the vessel, handling and discard methods, approximate fork length, length of trailing gear) associated with the fishery interaction on survival. The baseline hazard was assumed to vary by species and tag deployment period. Of the species caught and tagged in the HIDS fishery, BSH had the lowest survival rate, followed by BTH, OCS, and SMA at their mean interaction conditions. For the species caught in the ASLL fishery, OCS had a lower survival rate than FAL at their mean interaction conditions. The only species tagged in both fisheries, OCS, had lower survival in the ASLL fishery than the HIDS fishery. The most influential factors reducing survival rates post release were; catch condition where injured animals had higher mortality rates, handling methods that either damaged the jaw or removed part of the tail (thresher sharks only), the amount of trailing gear left on an animal, tail hooking (thresher sharks only) and wire leader material. Additional details regarding the preliminary results of this study are available in Hutchinson et al. (2021). Currently, analysis is ongoing to incorporate data from tags deployed after 2019 and final results are forthcoming.

Currently, genetic samples are being taken from large Mobulids captured in the Hawaii longline fishery to help elucidate species identification issues, interaction rates, and eventually, population structure for the giant manta ray. To date, 24 samples have been collected and 15 of those samples have been analyzed for species identification. To date, species collected include *M. mobular/japanica*, *M. thurstoni*, *M. tarapacana*; none were *M. birostris*. More samples are needed for a larger sample size.

Previous efforts to understand the spatial relationships of loggerhead turtles and the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery have included data generated from satellite tags deployed on both captive-reared turtles, and turtles incidentally caught in the fishery. Given captive-reared turtles may not be representative of the size or locations of turtles interacting with the modern Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery, efforts have been underway since 2020 to increase the sample size of satellite tags deployed on incidentally caught turtles. A total of 41 satellite tags were deployed between February 2020 and March 2023 on post-hooked loggerheads, and additional tags will be deployed in coming years.

A power-assisted device that will be affixed to an extendable pole is currently being developed to enable longline observers (on deck) to attach satellite tags to leatherback turtles (still in the water). Doing so will generate urgently needed spatial ecology information on the species that can inform models and management decision making.

Potential interactions between Hawaii non-longline pelagic fisheries and cetaceans have been identified and are summarized in the most recent marine mammal SARs. Available information does not identify which type of fisheries may be causing injury to cetaceans nor the extent to which the cetacean populations may be impacted by such injuries. New information on this subject published in 2016 that are not included in the current SARs are summarized below.

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Madge, L., 2016. Exploratory study of interactions between cetaceans and small-boat fishing operations in the Main Hawaiian Islands (MHI). Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center, Administrative Report H-16-07, 37 p. doi:10.7289/V5/AR-PIFSC-H-16-07.

Summary: The exploratory study was aimed at improving the understanding of fishery-cetacean interactions in the main Hawaiian Islands through interviews with small-boat fishermen on Oahu and the Big Island. The study highlighted that there is considerable uncertainty in species identification by fishermen of false killer whales and other odontocetes categorized as blackfish, and respondents generally reported avoiding interactions by leaving the fishing area when a blackfish is observed. The results of this study cannot be used to estimate frequency or assess the distribution of interactions due to the small sample size and non-random sampling method.

Table 87 summarizes current candidate ESA species, recent listing status, and post-listing activity (critical habitat designation and recovery plan development). Impacts from FEP-managed fisheries on any new listings and critical habitat designations will be considered in future versions of this report.

Table 87. Status of ESA listing, status reviews, critical habitat and recovery plan for species occurring in the Pelagic FEP region

| Species | | Listing/Petition Response Process | | | Post-Listing Activity | |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|---|
| Common Name | Scientific Name | 90-day Finding | 12-month Finding / Proposed Rule | Final Rule | Critical Habitat | Recovery Plan |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> | Positive (81 FR 1376, 1/12/2016) | Positive, threatened (81 FR 96304, 12/29/2016) | Listed as threatened (83 FR 4153, 1/30/18) | Designation not prudent; no areas within US jurisdiction that meet definition of critical habitat (85 FR 12898, 3/5/2020) | Draft Recovery Plan published January 25, 2023 (88 FR 4817) |
| Chambered nautilus | <i>Nautilus pompilius</i> | Positive (81 FR 58895, 8/26/2016) | Positive, threatened (82 FR 48948, 10/23/17) | Listed as threatened (83 FR 48876, 09/28/2018) | Designation not prudent; no areas within US jurisdiction that meet definition of critical habitat (85 FR 5197, 01/29/2020) | TBA |

| Species | | Listing/Petition Response Process | | | Post-Listing Activity | |
|---|------------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|
| Common Name | Scientific Name | 90-day Finding | 12-month Finding / Proposed Rule | Final Rule | Critical Habitat | Recovery Plan |
| Giant manta ray | <i>Manta birostris</i> | Positive (81 FR 8874, 2/23/2016) | Positive, threatened (82 FR 3694, 1/12/2017) | Listed as threatened (83 FR 2916, 1/22/18) | Designation not prudent; no areas within US jurisdiction that meet definition of critical habitat (84 FR 66652, 12/5/2019) | In development, Recovery outline published 12/4/19 to serve as interim guidance until full recovery plan is developed. |
| Shortfin mako shark | <i>Isurus paucus</i> | Positive (86 FR 19863), 4/15/2021 | Not warranted (87 FR 68236, 11/14/2022) | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Corals | N/A | Positive for 82 species (75 FR 6616, 2/10/2010) | Positive for 66 species (77 FR 73219, 12/7/2012) | 20 species listed as threatened (79 FR 53851, 9/10/2014) | Critical habitat proposed (85 FR 76262, 11/27/2021), comment period extended through 5/26/2021 (86 FR 16325) | In development, interim recovery outline in place, recovery workshops convened in May 2021. |
| Cauliflower coral | <i>Pocillopora meandrina</i> | Positive (83 FR 47592, 9/20/2018) | Not warranted (85 FR 40480, 7/6/20) | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| False killer whale (MHI Insular DPS) | <i>Pseudorca crassidens</i> | Positive (75 FR 316, 1/5/2010) | Positive, endangered (75 FR 70169, 11/17/2010) | Listed as endangered (77 FR 70915, 11/28/2012) | Designated in waters from the 45 m depth contour to the 3,200 m depth contour around the MHI from Niihau east to Hawaii (83 FR 35062, 07/24/2018) | Final Recovery Plan published November 3, 2021 (85 FR 60615) |
| Green sea turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Positive (77 FR 45571, 8/1/2012) | Identification of 11 DPSs, endangered and threatened (80 FR 15271, 3/23/2015) | 11 DPSs listed as endangered and threatened (81 FR 20057, 4/6/2016) | In development, proposal expected summer 2023 | TBA |
| Loggerhead sea turtle (North Pacific DPS) | <i>Caretta caretta</i> | Positive (72 FR 64585, 11/16/2007) | 9 DPSs listed as endangered and threatened (76 FR 15932, 03/22/2011) | 9 DPSs listed as endangered and threatened (76 FR 58867, 10/24/2011) | Designated for Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico DPSs (79 FR 39855, 08/11/2014) | In development; 5-year status review published on 4/7/2020 |

3.3.9 IDENTIFICATION OF RESEARCH, DATA, AND ASSESSMENT NEEDS

The following research, data and assessment needs for pelagic fisheries were identified by the Council's Plan Team:

- Identify zones to develop a regional look at environmental and oceanographic factors for area outside of the EEZ that may focus on areas of high-interactions. Develop metrics to characterize environmental data, effort, and bycatch rates at these regional scales (e.g. leatherback, olive ridley, albatrosses, elasmobranchs);
- Generate data on the spatial ecology, as well as post-hooking behaviors and survival rates for leatherback turtles interacting with the SSL and DSL fisheries;
- Ecosystem considerations on catch and bycatch in the DSL fishery (e.g., bigeye tuna, albatrosses, leatherback, and olive ridley turtles) and SSL fishery (e.g., black-footed albatross) as they relate to environmental and ecological drivers of changing species distribution and aggregation;
- Improve observer data collection for elasmobranchs in longline fisheries to record release condition, handling, trailing gear, size and sex;
- Improve data collection for oceanic whitetip shark capture data in non-longline pelagic fisheries;
- Conduct genetic and telemetry research to improve understanding of population structure and movement patterns for listed elasmobranchs;
- Estimates of post release survival for incidental protected species;
- Improve observer data collection for bite-offs; and
- Build species distribution models (SDM) for protected species using existing telemetry data to assess how a changing ocean may affect the availability of preferred habitat and how this might impact fishery vulnerability under future climate change projections.

3.4 CLIMATE AND OCEANIC INDICATORS

Over the past few years, the Council has incorporated climate change into the overall management of the fisheries over which it has jurisdiction. This 2022 annual SAFE report includes a now standard section on indicators of climate and oceanic conditions in the Western Pacific Region. These indicators reflect both global climate variability and change, as well as trends in local oceanographic conditions.

The section begins with a brief summary of the state of the ocean and climate in 2022. This is followed by a list of all selected indicators. These indicators are then examined through summaries focused on natural climate variability and on anthropogenic climate change. Information on the background of these indicators, their development over time, and ongoing research needs can be found at the end of this section.

3.4.1 INDICATORS AT A GLANCE

Based on the information provided by the indicators in this chapter, long-term climate trends persisted in the Western Pacific region in 2022. Modes of interannual climate variability (e.g., ENSO, PDO) remained in negative phases. Hurricane activity and storm energy were below average. The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide continued to increase, ocean acidification intensified, and sea surface temperatures continued to rise. Chlorophyll concentrations at the ocean's surface exhibited no long-term trend, but the median size of phytoplankton has declined slightly over the past 25 years. Both the Subtropical Frontal Zone and the Transition Zone Chlorophyll Front were north of average across much of the longline fishing grounds. Temperatures at 200–300 m below the surface were average. Both bigeye tuna and swordfish had size distributions similar to last year, though no long-term trend is evident. Neither bigeye tuna weight-per-unit-effort nor the bigeye tuna recruitment index suggest there will be a pulse of increased recruitment or catch rates in the next few years. The bigeye tuna catch rate forecast suggests that catch will be fairly steady over the next four years.

3.4.2 SELECTED INDICATORS

The primary goal for selecting the indicators used in this report is to provide fisheries-related communities, resource managers, and businesses with a climate-related situational awareness. In this context, indicators were selected to:

- Be fisheries relevant and informative;
- Build intuition about current conditions in light of a changing climate;
- Provide historical context; and
- Allow for recognition of patterns and trends.

In this context, this section includes the following climate and oceanic indicators:

- Atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂)
- Oceanic pH at Station ALOHA;
- El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO);
- Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO);
- Tropical cyclones;
- Sea surface temperature (SST);

- Ocean temperature at 200-300 m depth;
- Ocean color;
- North Pacific Subtropical Front (STF) and Transition Zone Chlorophyll Front (TZCF);
- Estimated median phytoplankton size
- Fish community size structure;
- Bigeye tuna weight-per-unit-effort;
- Bigeye tuna recruitment index; and
- Bigeye tuna catch rate forecast.

3.4.2.1 NATURAL CLIMATE VARIABILITY SUMMARY

The ocean and climate indicators described in this chapter can be used to understand the effects of natural climate variability. The relationship between these indicators is illustrated in Figure 159.

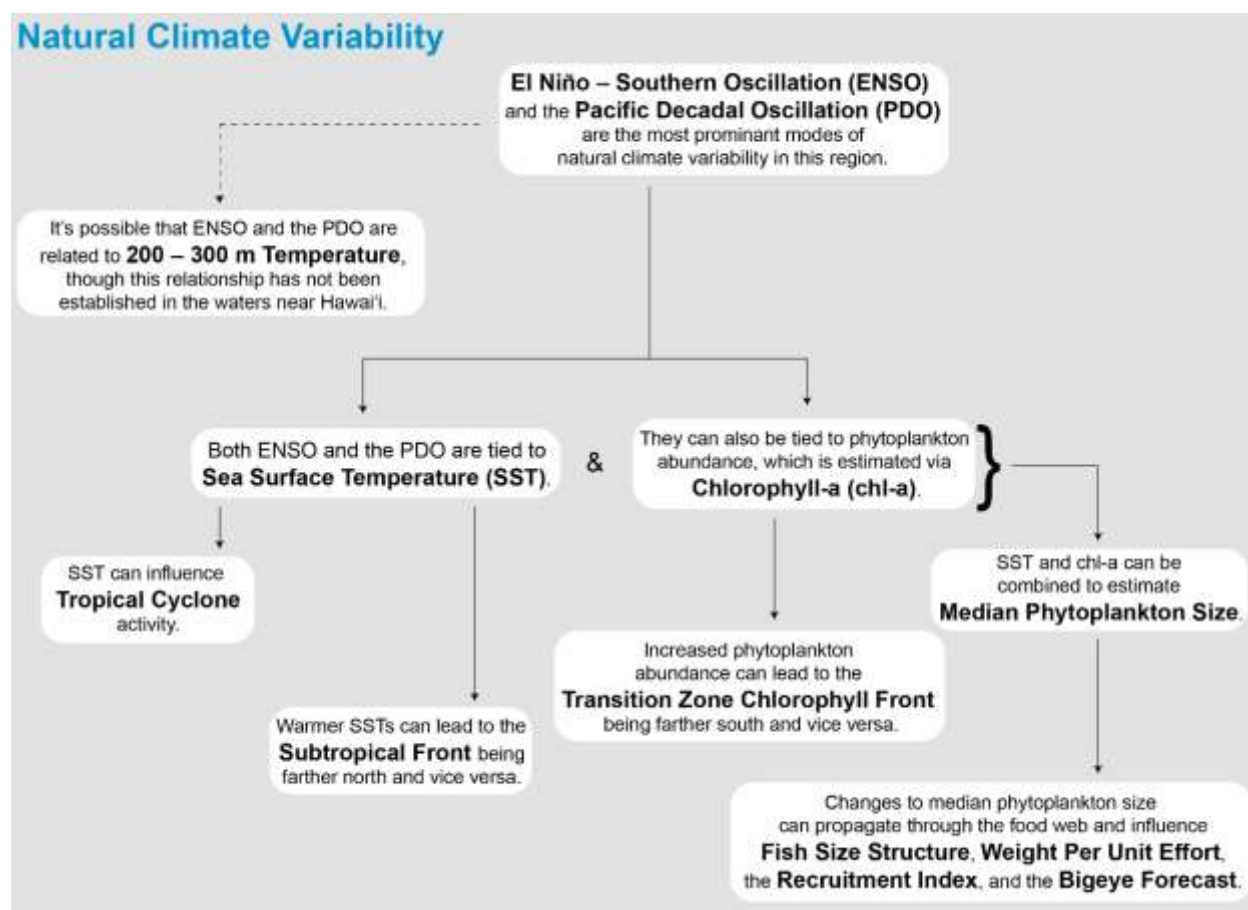


Figure 159. Schematic diagram illustrating the relationships between the ocean and climate indicators from the perspective of natural climate variability

The El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) are the most prominent modes of natural climate variability in the North Pacific. ENSO cycles are known to impact Pacific fisheries including tuna fisheries. The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) is a measure of ENSO phase that focuses on ocean temperature, which has the most direct effect on these fisheries.

Both ENSO and the PDO are associated with interannual changes in sea surface temperature (SST), which is one of the most directly observable existing measures for tracking ocean temperature. Natural variability in SST impacts the marine ecosystem and pelagic fisheries. For example, higher SSTs can lead to the subtropical front being farther north and vice versa, which in turn affects the distance fishers may need to travel to reach longline fishing grounds. Changes in SST can also influence the number, location, strength, and seasonal timing of tropical cyclones.

ENSO and the PDO are also associated with interannual changes in phytoplankton abundance, which is observed through ocean color and estimated via chlorophyll-a (chl-a). Phytoplankton are the foundational food source for the species targeted by the region's longline fishery. Changes in phytoplankton abundance have the potential to impact fish abundance, size, and catch. Increased phytoplankton abundance can lead to the transition zone chlorophyll front (TZCF) being farther south and vice versa, and changes in the location of this front particularly impact Hawai'i's swordfish fishery.

SST and chl-a can be combined to estimate median phytoplankton size. Changes to median phytoplankton can propagate through the food web and influence fish size structure, weight-per-unit-effort, and the bigeye tuna recruitment index. Furthermore, the recruitment index can be combined with median phytoplankton size to forecast bigeye tuna catch rates up to four years in advance.

It is possible that natural climate variability influences temperatures at 200–300 m below the surface where the bigeye fishery sets their hooks. However, this relationship has yet to be established.

Understanding the effects of natural climate variability, like ENSO and the PDO, on the ocean, marine ecosystems, and the fishery is an active area of research.

3.4.2.2 ANTHROPOGENIC CLIMATE CHANGE SUMMARY

The ocean and climate indicators described in this chapter can be used to understand the effects of anthropogenic climate change. The relationship between these indicators is illustrated in Figure 160.

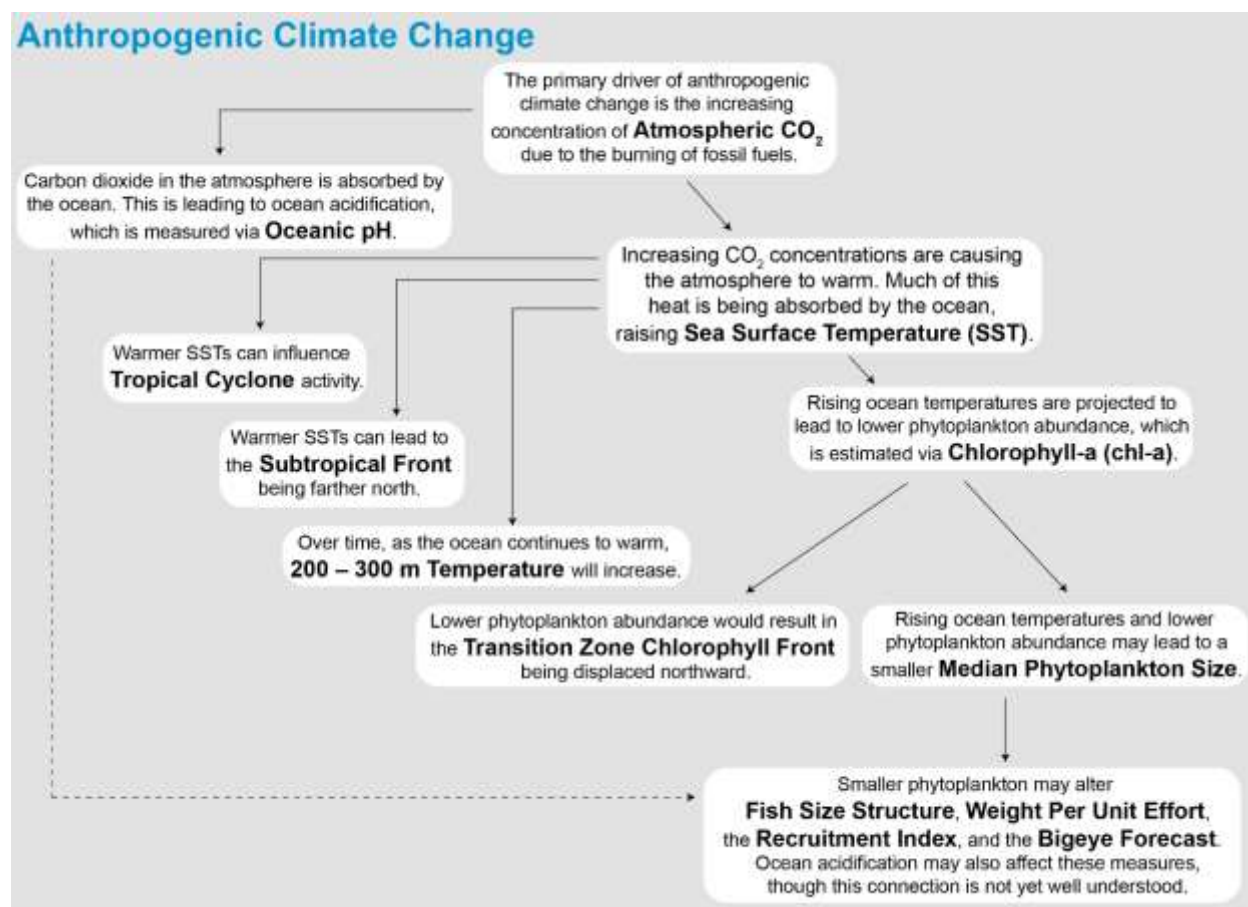


Figure 160. Schematic diagram illustrating the relationships between the ocean and climate indicators from the perspective of anthropogenic climate change

The primary driver of anthropogenic (human-caused) climate change is the increasing concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide, CO₂, due to the burning of fossil fuels. Therefore, atmospheric CO₂ serves as a measure of what human activity has already done to affect the climate system through greenhouse gas emissions. The concentration of atmospheric CO₂, and, in turn, its warming influence, is increasing more quickly over time.

Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is absorbed by the ocean. This leads to ocean acidification, which is measured via pH. Therefore, oceanic pH is a measure of how greenhouse gas emissions have already impacted the ocean. Increasing ocean acidification limits the ability of marine organisms to build shells and other hard structures. Prey for commercially valuable fish are already being negatively affected by increasing ocean acidification.

Increasing carbon dioxide concentrations cause the atmosphere to warm. Much of this heat is then absorbed by the ocean, raising sea surface temperature (SST). SST is another measure of how greenhouse gas emissions are already impacting the ocean.

Rising sea surface temperatures may affect the number, strength, duration, track, and seasonal timing of tropical cyclones. The Accumulated Cyclone Energy index, or ACE Index, accounts for both the strength and duration of storms.

Over time, rising sea surface temperatures will warm deeper ocean waters. Changes in ocean temperature will affect tuna, and in turn, potentially their catchability. For example, fish may move to deeper waters or their habitat could be compressed geographically or vertically. Temperatures at 200–300 meters below the ocean's surface reflect those at the mid-range of depths targeted by the deep-set bigeye tuna fishery. Bigeye tuna have preferred thermal habitat, generally staying within waters between 8–14 °C while they are at depth.

Rising ocean temperatures are projected to lead to lower phytoplankton abundance, which is observed through ocean color and estimated via chlorophyll-a (chl-a). Combined, rising ocean temperatures and lower phytoplankton abundance may lead to smaller median phytoplankton sizes. Smaller phytoplankton may alter fish size structure, weight-per-unit-effort, and the bigeye tuna recruitment index. Median phytoplankton size can be combined with the bigeye recruitment index to forecast catch rates.

Understanding the effects of anthropogenic climate change on the ocean, marine ecosystems, and the fishery is an active area of research.

3.4.2.3 ATMOSPHERIC CONCENTRATION OF CARBON DIOXIDE AT MAUNA LOA

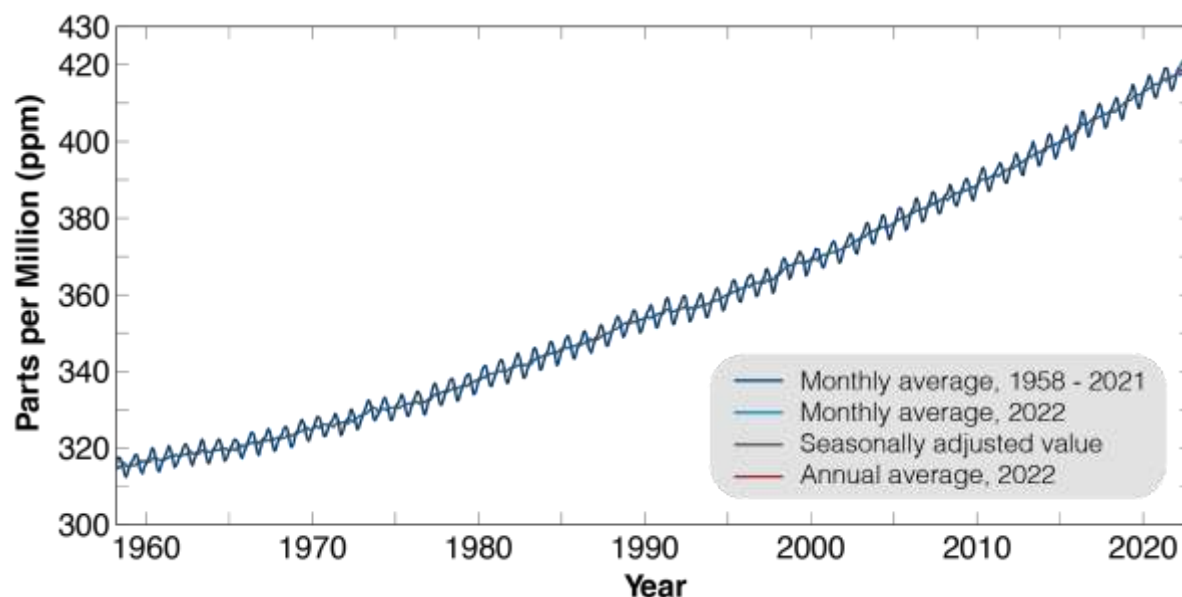


Figure 161. The concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide at Mauna Loa Observatory on the island of Hawaii

Rationale: Atmospheric carbon dioxide is a measure of what human activity has already done to affect the climate system through greenhouse gas emissions. It provides quantitative information in a simplified, standardized format that decision makers can easily understand. This indicator demonstrates that the concentration (and, in turn, warming influence) of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere has increased substantially over the last several decades.

Status: Atmospheric CO₂ is increasing exponentially. This means that atmospheric CO₂ is increasing more quickly over time. In 2022, the annual mean concentration of CO₂ was 418.56 ppm. This is the highest annual value recorded. This year also saw the highest monthly value, which was 420.99 ppm. In 1959, the first year full of the time series, the atmospheric

concentration of CO₂ was 316 ppm. The annual mean passed 350 ppm in 1988, and 400 ppm in 2015.

Description: Monthly mean atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) at Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawai‘i in parts per million (ppm) from March 1958 to present. The observed increase in monthly average carbon dioxide concentration is primarily due to CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel burning. Carbon dioxide remains in the atmosphere for a very long time, and emissions from any location mix throughout the atmosphere in approximately one year. The annual variations at Mauna Loa, Hawai‘i are due to the seasonal imbalance between the photosynthesis and respiration of terrestrial plants. During the summer growing season, photosynthesis exceeds respiration, and CO₂ is removed from the atmosphere. In the winter (outside the growing season), respiration exceeds photosynthesis, and CO₂ is returned to the atmosphere. The seasonal cycle is strongest in the northern hemisphere because of its larger land mass.

Timeframe: Annual, monthly.

Region/Location: Mauna Loa, Hawaii, but representative of global atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* station.

Data available at: <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/data.html>.

Sourced from: Keeling et al. (1976), Thoning et al. (1989), and NOAA (2023a). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.4 OCEANIC PH

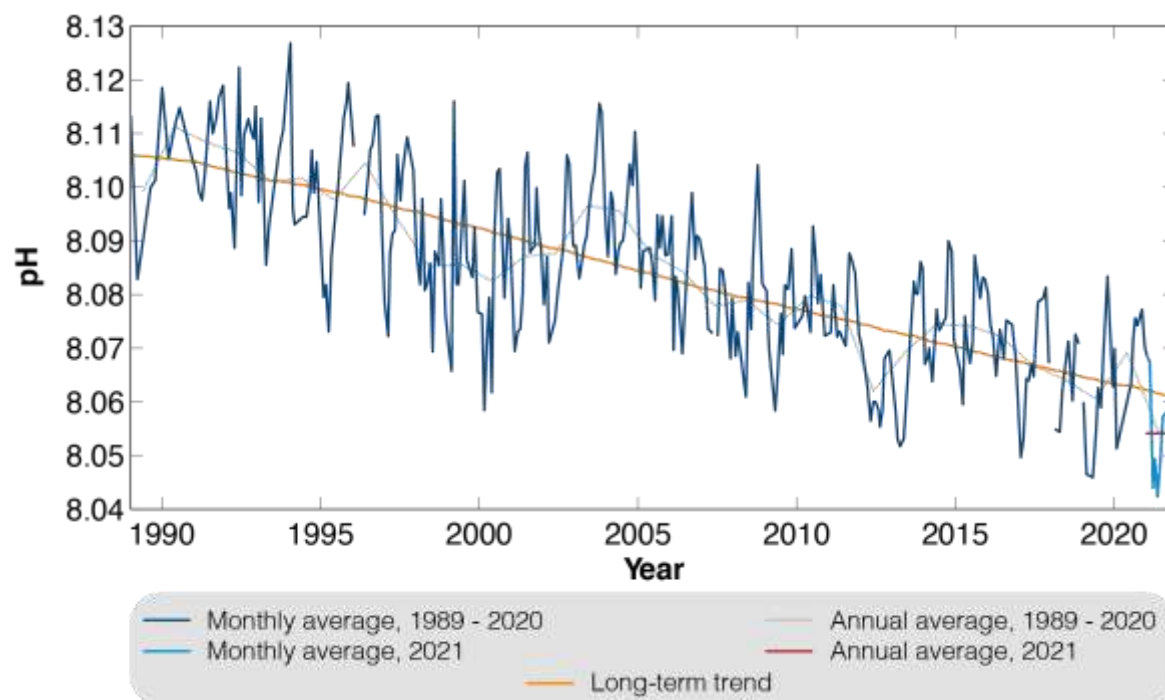


Figure 162. Time series and long-term trend of oceanic pH measured at Station ALOHA

Rationale: Oceanic pH is a measure of how greenhouse gas emissions have already impacted the ocean. This indicator demonstrates that oceanic pH has decreased significantly over the past

several decades (i.e., the ocean has become more acidic). Increasing ocean acidification limits the ability of marine organisms to build shells and other calcareous structures. Recent research has shown that pelagic organisms such as pteropods and other prey for commercially valuable fish species are already being negatively impacted by increasing acidification (Feely et al. 2016). The full impact of ocean acidification on the pelagic food web is an area of active research (Fabry et al. 2008).

Status: The ocean is roughly 10.9% more acidic than it was 30 years ago at the start of this time series. Over this time, pH has declined by 0.045 at a constant rate. In 2021, the most recent year for which data are available, the average pH was 8.05. Additionally, for the 6th year, small variations seen over the course of the year are outside the range seen in the first year of the time series. The highest pH value reported for the most recent year (8.069) is lower than the lowest pH value reported in the first year of the time series (8.083).

Description: Trends in surface (5 m) pH at Station ALOHA, north of Oahu (22.75°N, 158°W), collected by the Hawai'i Ocean Time Series (HOT) from October 1988 to 2020 (2021 data are not yet available). Oceanic pH is a measure of ocean acidity, which increases as the ocean absorbs carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. Lower pH values represent greater acidity. Oceanic pH is calculated from total alkalinity (TA) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC). Total alkalinity represents the ocean's capacity to resist acidification as it absorbs CO₂ and the amount of CO₂ absorbed is captured through measurements of DIC. The multi-decadal time series at Station ALOHA represents the best available documentation of the significant downward trend in oceanic pH since the time series began in 1988. Oceanic pH varies over both time and space, though the conditions at Station ALOHA are considered broadly representative of those across the Western and Central Pacific's pelagic fishing grounds.

Timeframe: Monthly.

Region/Location: Station ALOHA: 22.75°N, 158°W.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* station.

Data available at: <https://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/hot/hot-dogs/bseries.html>.

Sourced from: Fabry et al. (2008), Feely et al. (2016), and the Hawai'i Ocean Time Series as described in Karl and Lukas (1996) and on its website (HOT 2023) using the methodology provided by Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow (2001). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.5 EL NIÑO – SOUTHERN OSCILLATION

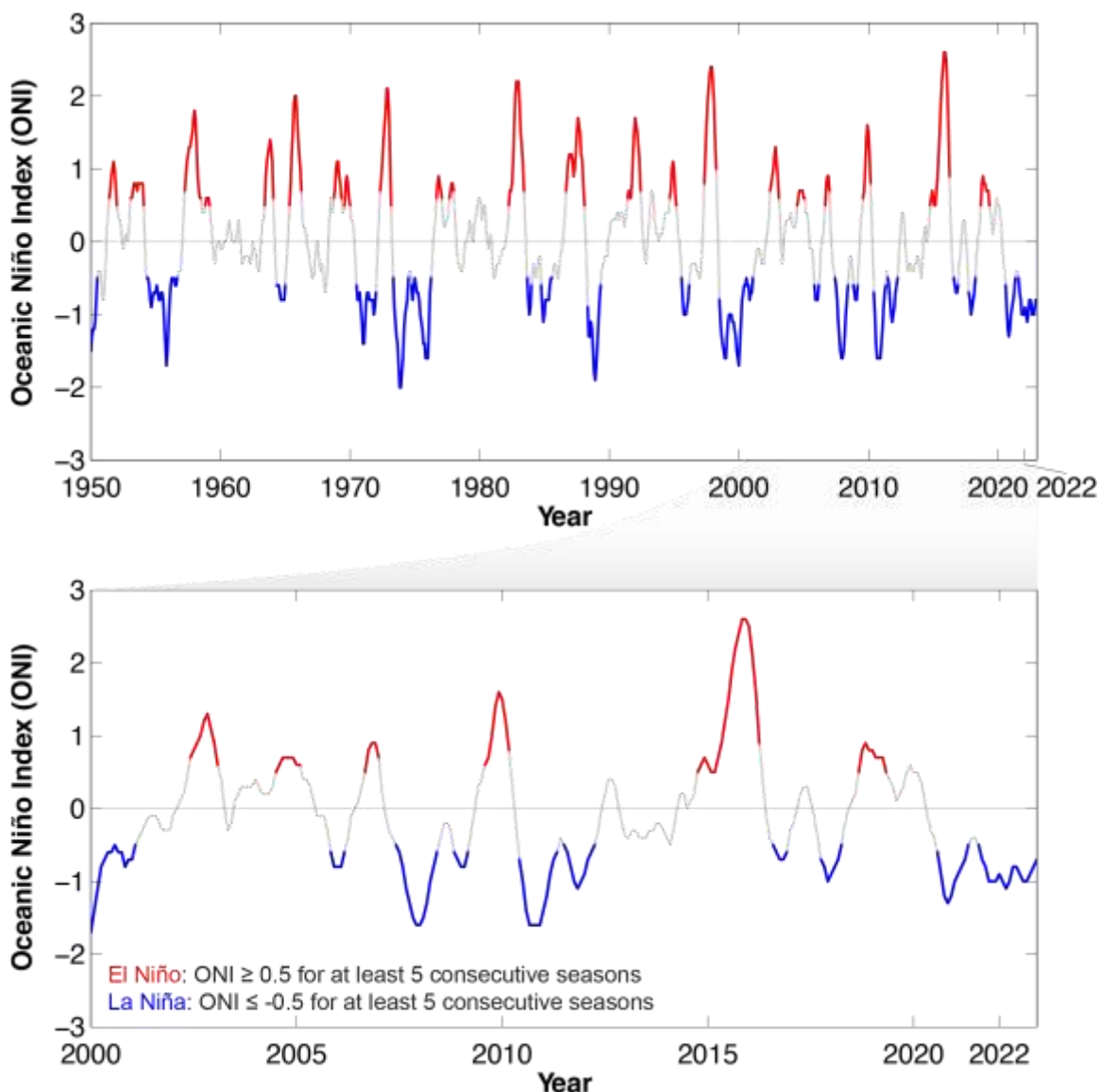


Figure 163. Oceanic Niño Index from 1950-2022 (top) and 2000–2022 (bottom) with El Niño periods in red and La Niña periods in blue

Rationale: The El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle is known to have impacts on Pacific fisheries including tuna fisheries. The ONI focuses on ocean temperature, which has the most direct effect on these fisheries.

Status: The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) indicated La Niña conditions throughout 2022. In 2022, the ONI ranged from -1.06 to -0.81. This is within the range of values observed previously in the time series.

Description: The three-month running mean (referred to as a season) of satellite remotely-sensed sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies in the Niño 3.4 region (5°S – 5°N, 120° – 170°W). The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) is a measure of the El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phase.

Warm and cool phases, termed El Niño and La Niña respectively, are based in part on an ONI threshold of ± 0.5 °C being met for a minimum of five consecutive overlapping seasons. Additional atmospheric indices are needed to confirm an El Niño or La Niña event, as the ENSO is a coupled ocean-atmosphere phenomenon. The atmospheric half of ENSO is measured using the Southern Oscillation Index.

Timeframe: Every three months.

Region/Location: Niño 3.4 region, 5°S – 5°N, 120° – 170°W.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* station, satellite, model.

Data available at: <https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/data/indices/oni.ascii.txt>.

Sourced from NOAA CPC (2023).

3.4.2.6 PACIFIC DECADAL OSCILLATION

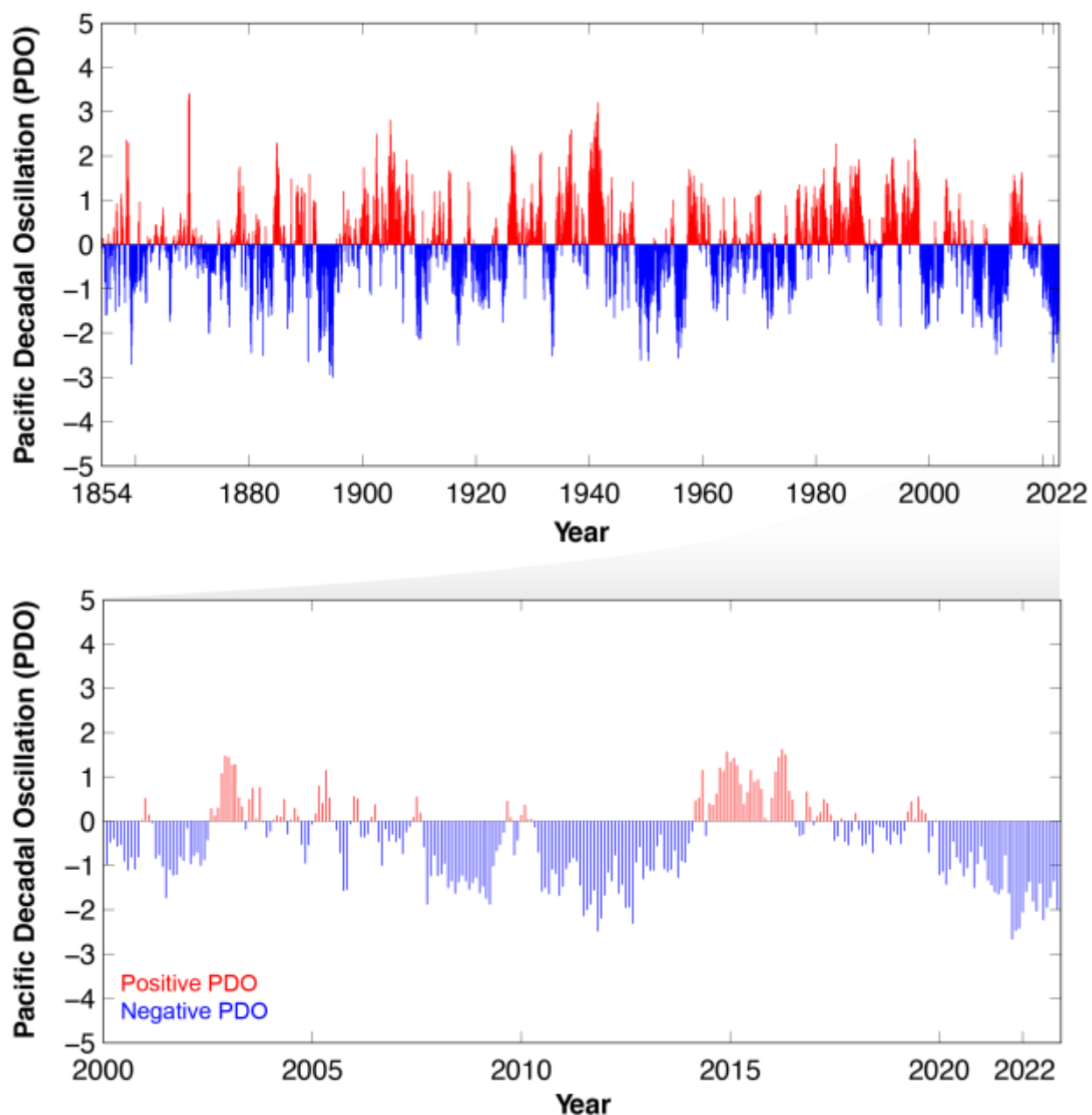


Figure 164. Pacific Decadal Oscillation from 1854–2022 (top) and 2000–2022 (bottom) with positive warm periods in red and negative cool periods in blue

Rationale: The Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) was initially named by fisheries scientist Steven Hare in 1996 while researching connections between Alaska salmon production cycles and Pacific climate. Like ENSO, the PDO reflects changes between periods of persistently warm or persistently cool ocean temperatures, but over a period of 20 to 30 years (versus six to 18 months for ENSO events). The climatic fingerprints of the PDO are most visible in the Northeastern Pacific, but secondary signatures exist in the tropics.

Status: The PDO was negative in 2022. The index ranged from -2.22 to -1.35 over the course of the year. This is within the range of values observed previously in the time series.

Description: The PDO is often described as a long-lived El Niño-like pattern of Pacific climate variability. As seen with the better-known ENSO, extremes in the PDO pattern are marked by widespread variations in the Pacific Basin and the North American climate. In parallel with the ENSO phenomenon, the extreme cases of the PDO have been classified as either warm or cool, as defined by ocean temperature anomalies in the northeast and tropical Pacific Ocean. When SST is below average in the [central] North Pacific and warm along the North American coast, and when sea level pressures are below average in the North Pacific, the PDO has a positive value. When the climate patterns are reversed, with warm SST anomalies in the interior and cool SST anomalies along the North American coast, or above average sea level pressures over the North Pacific, the PDO has a negative value. Description inserted from NOAA (2022b).

Timeframe: Annual, monthly.

Region/Location: Pacific Basin north of 20°N.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* station, satellite, model.

Data available at: <https://psl.noaa.gov/pdo/>.

Sourced from: NOAA (2023b), Mantua (1997), and Newman (2016).

3.4.2.7 TROPICAL CYCLONES

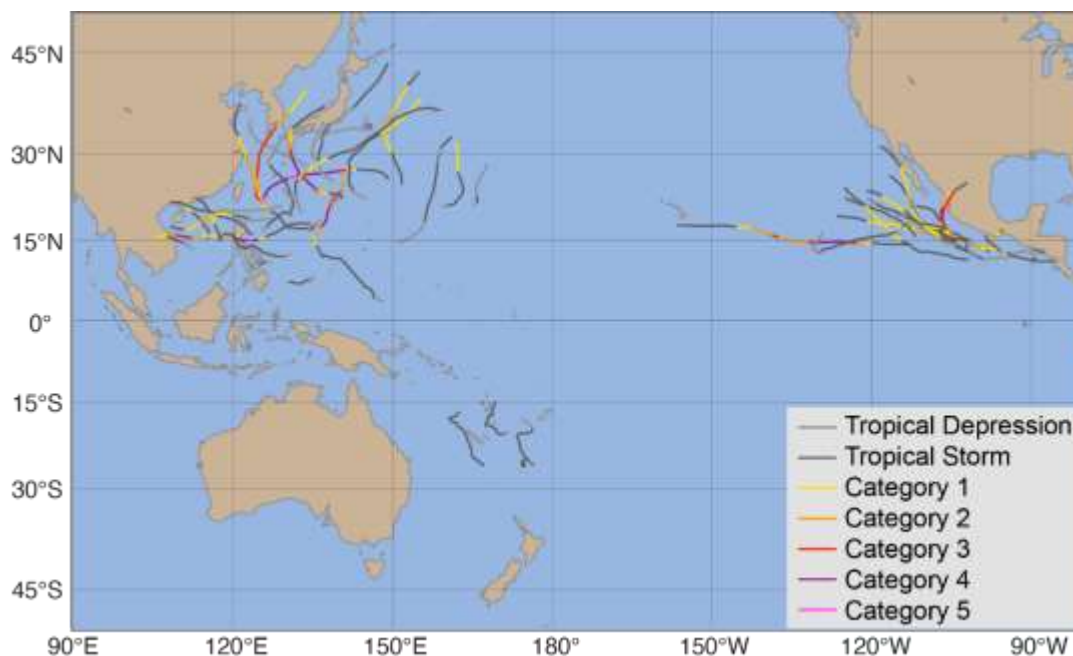


Figure 165. 2022 Pacific basin tropical cyclone tracks

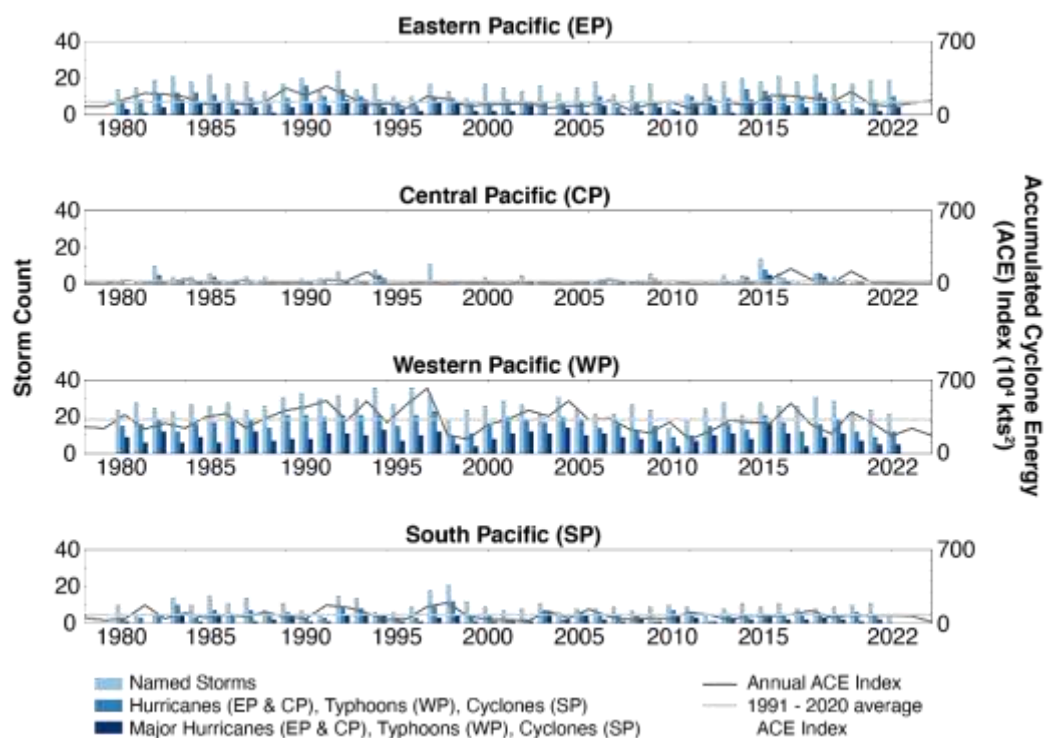


Figure 166. Storm counts (bars) and Accumulated Cyclone Energy (ACE) index values (lines) in each region of the Pacific. Both annual ACE index (black lines) and 1981 – 2020 average ACE index (grey lines) are shown

Rationale: The effects of tropical cyclones are numerous and well known. At sea, storms disrupt and endanger shipping traffic as well as fishing effort and safety. The Hawai‘i longline fishery, for example, has had serious problems with vessels dodging storms at sea, delayed departures, and inability to make it safely back to Honolulu because of bad weather. When cyclones encounter land, their intense rains and high winds can cause severe property damage, loss of life, soil erosion, and flooding. Associated storm surge, the large volume of ocean water pushed toward shore by cyclones’ strong winds, can cause severe flooding and destruction.

Status:

Eastern North Pacific. Tropical cyclone activity was near normal in the Eastern Pacific in 2022. There were 19 named storms, 10 of which were hurricanes. There were 4 major hurricanes (category 3 or higher), which is also near normal. The Accumulated Cyclone Energy (ACE) was near the 1991–2020 average. After four straight years of named storms forming in the Eastern Pacific in November (which is unusually high), conditions returned to normal this November with no storms, named or otherwise. Portions of this summary inserted from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202211>.

Central North Pacific. Central Pacific tropical cyclone activity was below the 1991–2020 average in 2022. There was 1 named storm, which reached hurricane status, and no major hurricanes. A weakened Hurricane Darby entered the Central Pacific in July, passing south of the Island of Hawai‘i as a tropical depression. On average (1991–2020), the central Pacific sees four

named storms, two hurricanes, and one major hurricane each year. The 2022 ACE index was about ten percent of the 1991–2020 average. Portions of this summary inserted from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202207>.

Western North Pacific. Tropical cyclone activity got off to a slow but strong start in the Western Pacific, with no storms occurring until Super Typhoon Malakas formed in April. The season overall saw below normal activity for the third year in a row. Tropical cyclone activity was below the 1991–2020 average in 2022. The 22 named storms, 12 typhoons, and 5 major typhoons were all below average (1991–2020), as was the ACE. Portions of the summary inserted from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202203>, <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202204>, and <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202213>.

South Pacific. South Pacific tropical cyclone activity was below average in 2022. There were 4 named storms, none of which became cyclones or major cyclones. The 2022 ACE was also below the 1991–2020 average. Portions of the summary inserted from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/monitoring/monthly-report/tropical-cyclones/202213>.

Description: This indicator uses historical data from the NOAA National Climate Data Center (NCDC) International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship to track the number of tropical cyclones in the western, central, eastern, and southern Pacific basins. This indicator also monitors the Accumulated Cyclone Energy (ACE) Index and the Power Dissipation Index which are two ways of monitoring the frequency, strength, and duration of tropical cyclones based on wind speed measurements.

The annual frequency of storms passing through each basin is tracked and Figure 166 shows the representative breakdown of Saffir-Simpson hurricane categories.

Every cyclone has an ACE Index value, which is a number based on the maximum wind speed measured at six-hourly intervals over the entire time that the cyclone is classified as at least a tropical storm (wind speed of at least 34 knots; 39 mph). Therefore, a storm's ACE Index value accounts for both strength and duration. Figure 166 shows the ACE values for each hurricane/typhoon season and has a horizontal line representing the average annual ACE value.

Timeframe: Annual.

Region/Location:

Eastern North Pacific: east of 140° W, north of the equator.

Central North Pacific: 180° - 140° W, north of the equator.

Western North Pacific: west of 180°, north of the equator.

South Pacific: south of the equator.

Measurement Platform: Satellite.

Data available at: <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/international-best-track-archive-for-climate-stewardship-ibtracs/v04r00/access/csv>.

Sourced from: Knapp et al. (2010), Knapp et al. (2018), and NOAA (2023c).

3.4.2.8 SEA SURFACE TEMPERATURE (SST)

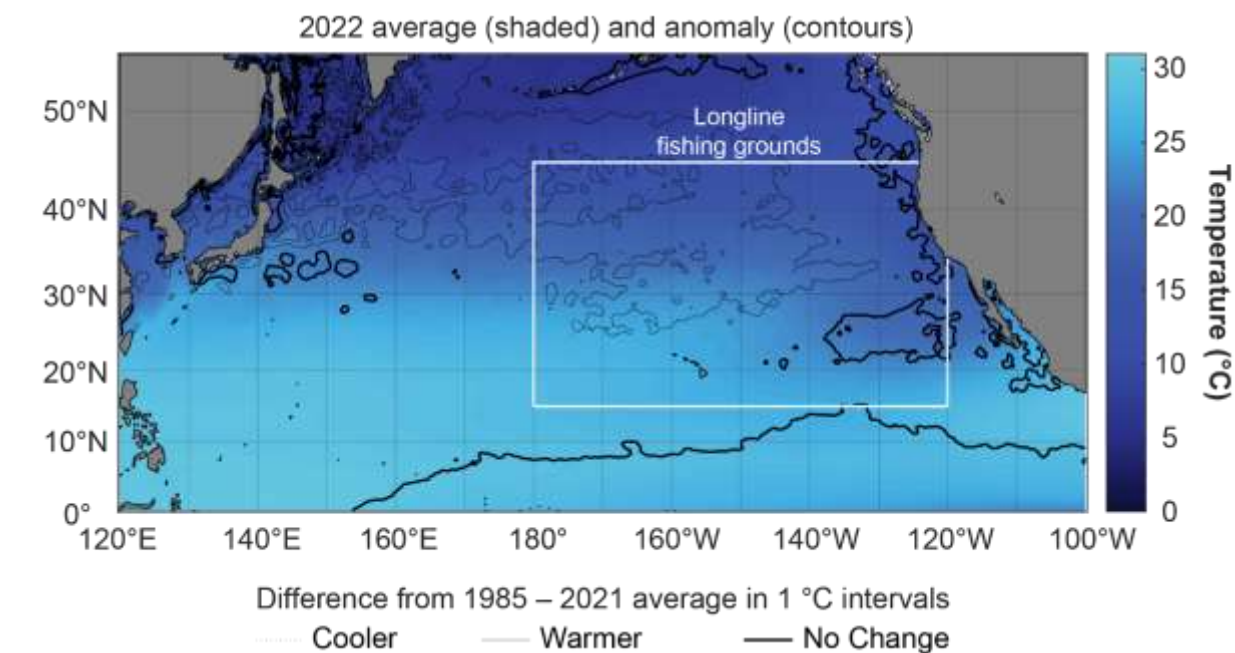


Figure 167. Average 2022 sea surface temperature (shaded) and the difference from the 1985 – 2021 average (contoured). The white rectangle identifies the area targeted by Hawaii’s longline fisheries. SST is averaged over this area for the time series shown in Figure 168 and Figure 169

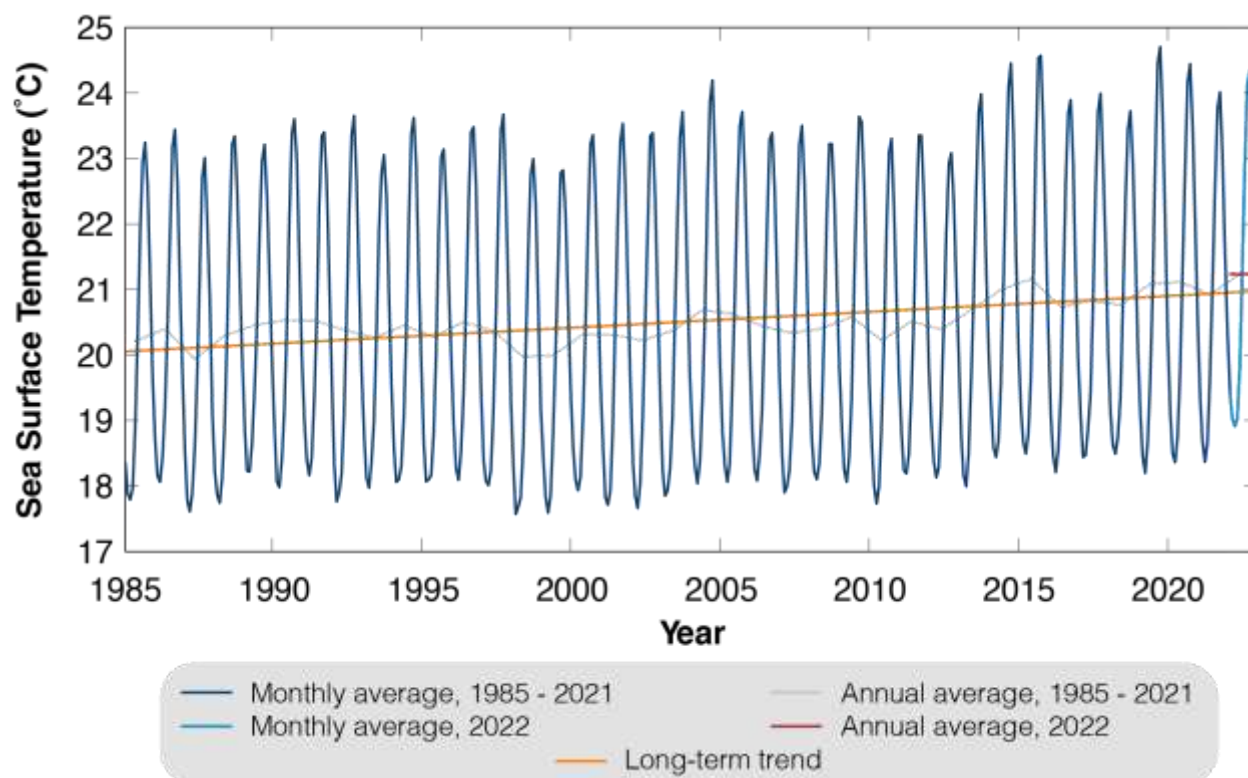


Figure 168. Time series of monthly average sea surface temperature over the longline fishing grounds outlined in Figure 167

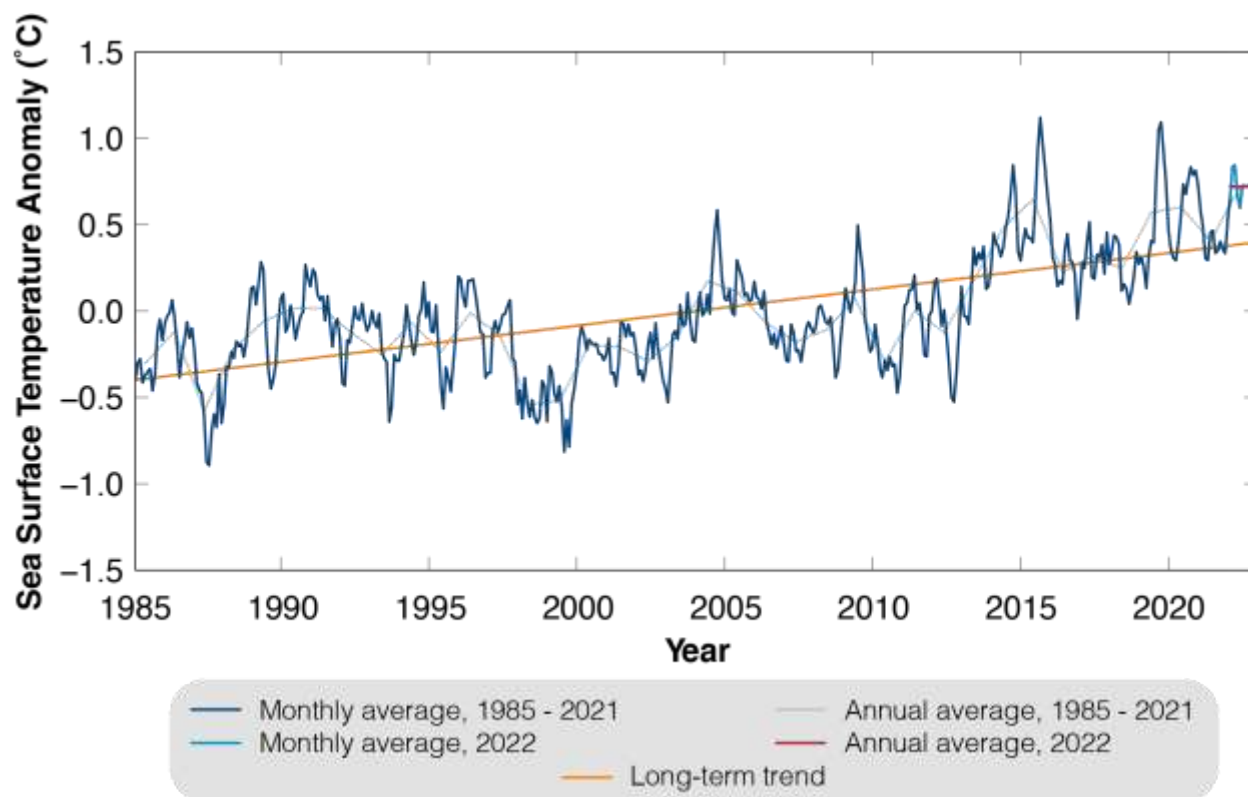


Figure 169. Time series of monthly average sea surface temperature anomaly over the longline fishing grounds outlined in Figure 167

Rationale: Sea surface temperature (SST) is one of the most directly observable existing measures for tracking increasing ocean temperatures. SST varies in response to natural climate cycles such as the El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and is rising as a result of anthropogenic climate change. Both short-term variability and long-term trends in SST impact the marine ecosystem. Understanding the mechanisms through which organisms are impacted and the time scales of these impacts is an area of active research.

Status: Annual mean SST was 21.2 °C in 2022. Over the period of record, SST across the longline fishing grounds has increased by 0.9 °C and the monthly SST anomaly increased by 0.8 °C, both at a rate of roughly 0.02 °C yr⁻¹. Monthly SST values in 2022 ranged from 18.9–24.3 °C, within the range of temperatures experienced over the past several decades (17.6–24.7 °C). Overall, SST was above the long-term average across most of the Hawai‘i longline region in 2022. The exception to this was a patch of slightly cooler waters in the southeastern corner of the fishing grounds where very little fishing takes place and the waters of the California Current where the fishery does not operate.

Description: Satellite remotely sensed monthly sea surface temperature (SST) is averaged across the Hawai‘i-based longline fishing grounds (15° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W). A time series of monthly mean SST averaged over the Hawai‘i longline region is presented. Additionally, spatial climatologies and anomalies are shown. CoralTemp data are used to calculate this indicator.

Timeframe: Monthly.

Region/Location: Hawaii longline region: 15° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W.

Measurement Platform: Satellite.

Data available at: https://oceanwatch.pifsc.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/CRW_sst_v3_1_monthly.

Sourced from: NOAA OceanWatch (2023a). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.9 TEMPERATURE AT 300 M DEPTH

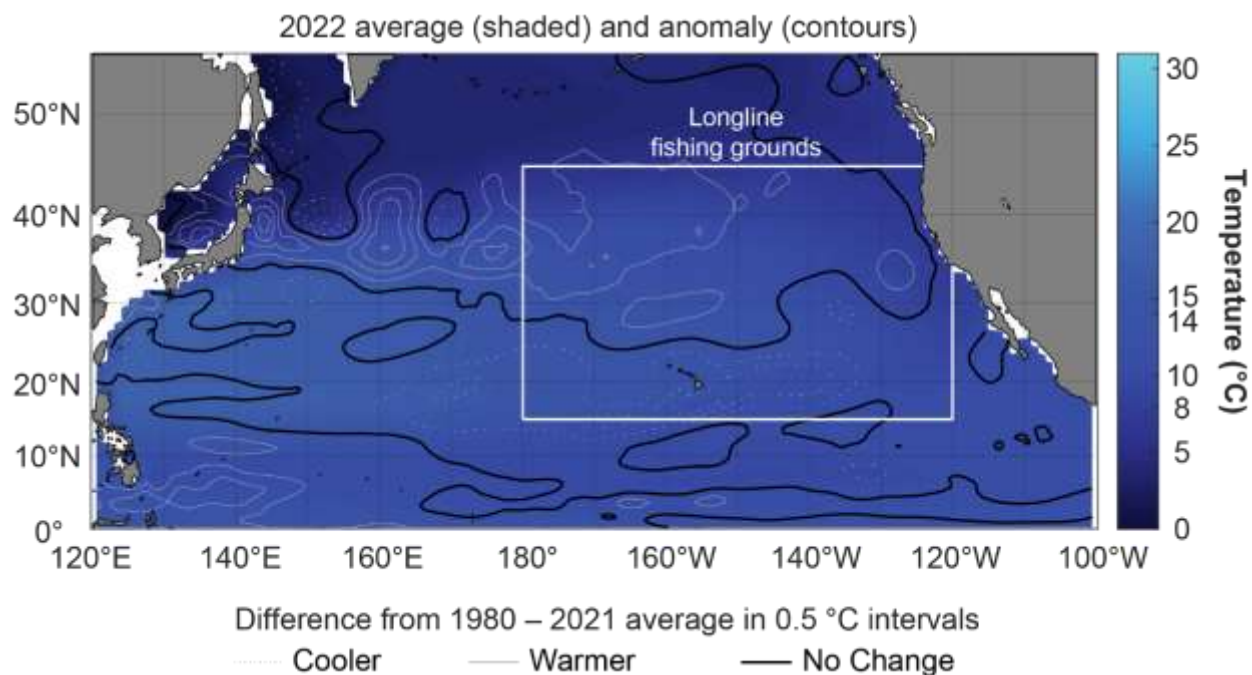


Figure 170. Average temperatures at 200 – 300 m depth in 2022 (shaded) and the difference from the 1980 – 2021 average (contoured). The white rectangle identifies the area targeted by Hawaii’s longline fisheries. Temperatures is averaged over this area for the time series shown in Figure 171

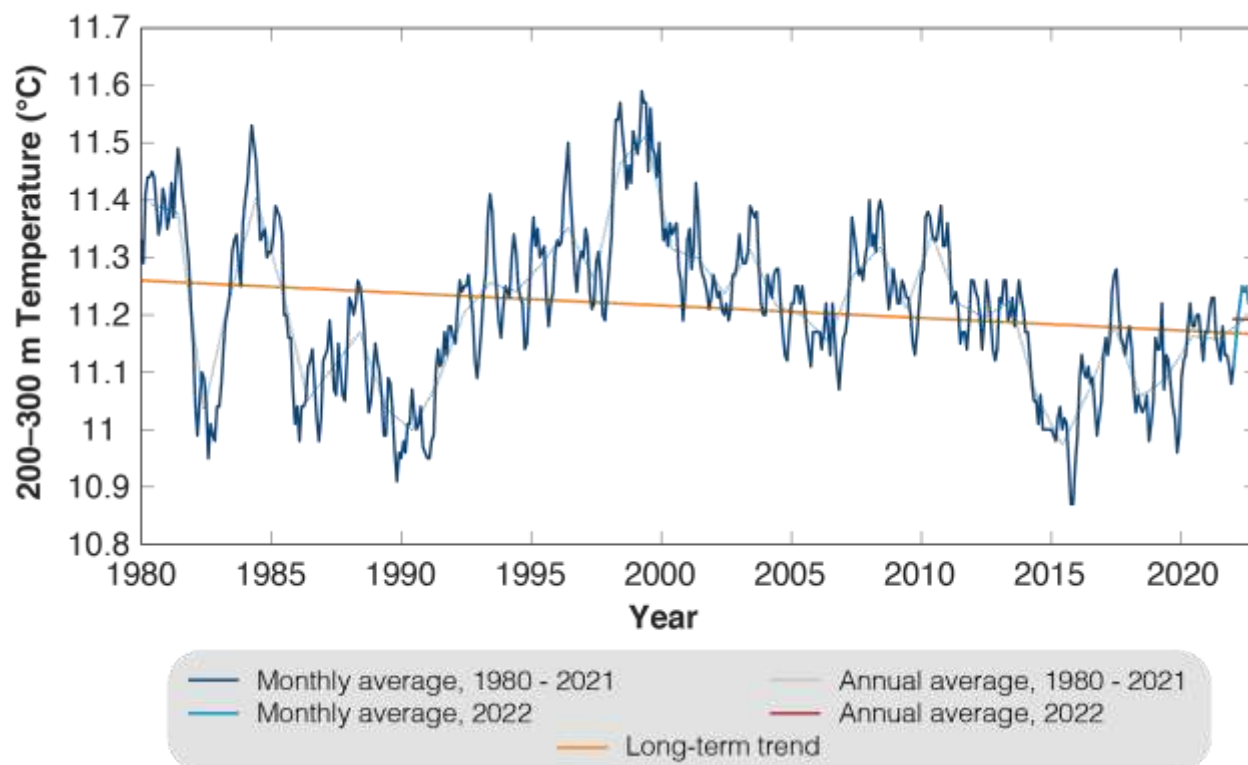


Figure 171. Time series of monthly 200 – 300 m temperatures over the longline fishing grounds outlined in Figure 170

Rationale: The temperature at 200–300 m reflects the temperature in the mid-range of depths targeted by the deep-set bigeye tuna fishery. Bigeye have preferred thermal habitat, generally staying within temperatures ranging from 8–14 °C while they are at depth (Howell et al. 2010). Changes in ocean temperature at depth will impact tuna, and in turn, potentially impact their catchability. Understanding the drivers of sub-surface temperature trends and their ecosystem impacts is an area of active research.

Status: In 2022, 200–300 m temperatures ranged from 11.11–11.25 °C with an average value of 11.19 °C. These temperatures are within the range of temperatures experienced over the past several decades (10.87–11.59 °C) and are within the bounds of bigeye tuna’s preferred deep daytime thermal habitat (8–14 °C). Over the period of record (1980–2022), 200–300 m temperatures have declined by -0.09 °C. The spatial pattern of temperature anomalies was mixed with temperatures at depth around the main Hawaiian Islands roughly 0.5–1 °C below average, and temperatures north of about 30°N 0–0.5 °C above average.

Description: Ocean temperature at 200–300 m depth is averaged across the Hawai‘i-based longline fishing grounds (15° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W). Global Ocean Data Assimilation System (GODAS) data are used. GODAS incorporates global ocean data from moorings, expendable bathythermographs (XBTs), and Argo floats.

Timeframe: Annual, monthly.

Region/Location: Hawaii longline region: 15° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* sensors, model.

Sourced from: NOAA (2023d) and APDRC (2023). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.10 OCEAN COLOR

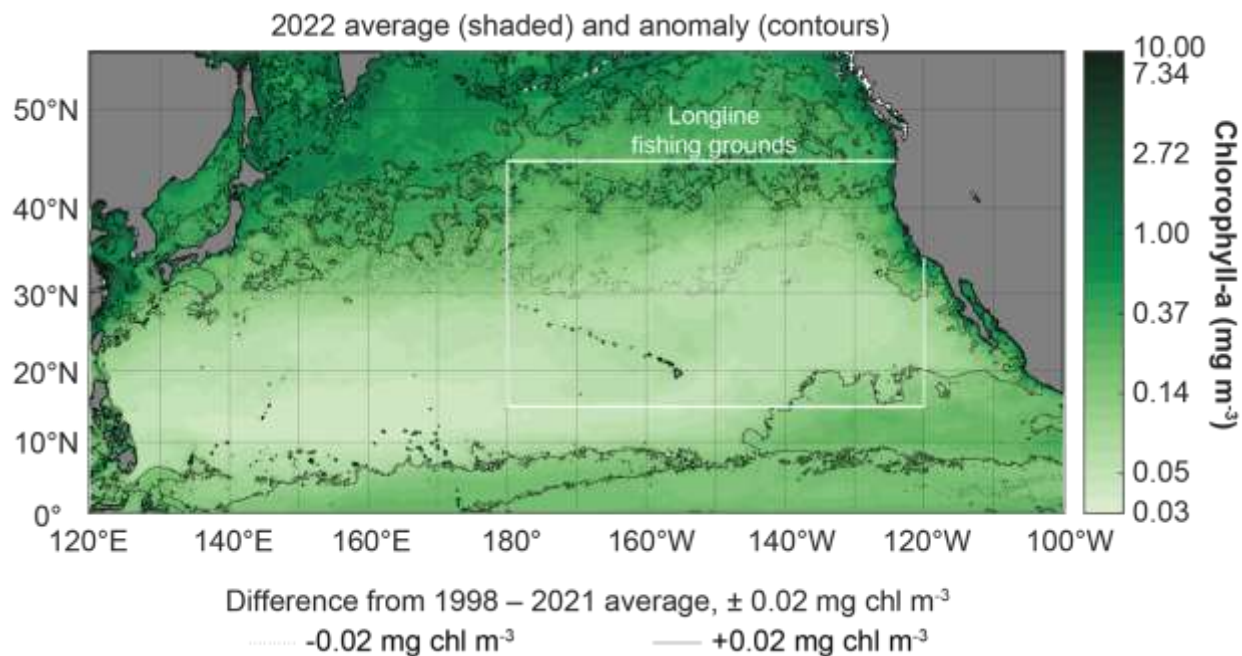


Figure 172. Average chlorophyll-a concentration in 2022 (shaded) and the difference from the 1998–2021 average (contoured). The white rectangle identifies the area targeted by Hawai‘i’s longline fisheries. Chlorophyll-a is averaged over this area for the time series shown in Figure 173 and Figure 174

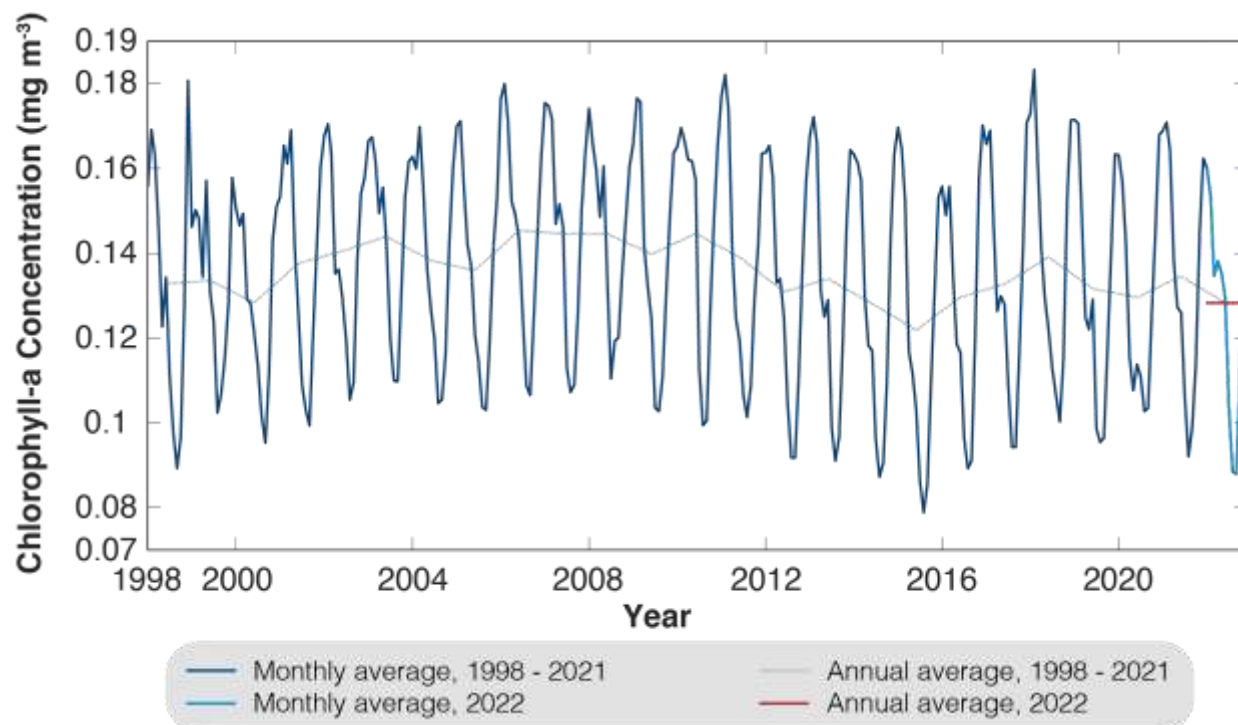


Figure 173. Time series of monthly average chlorophyll concentration over the longline fishing grounds outlined in Figure 174

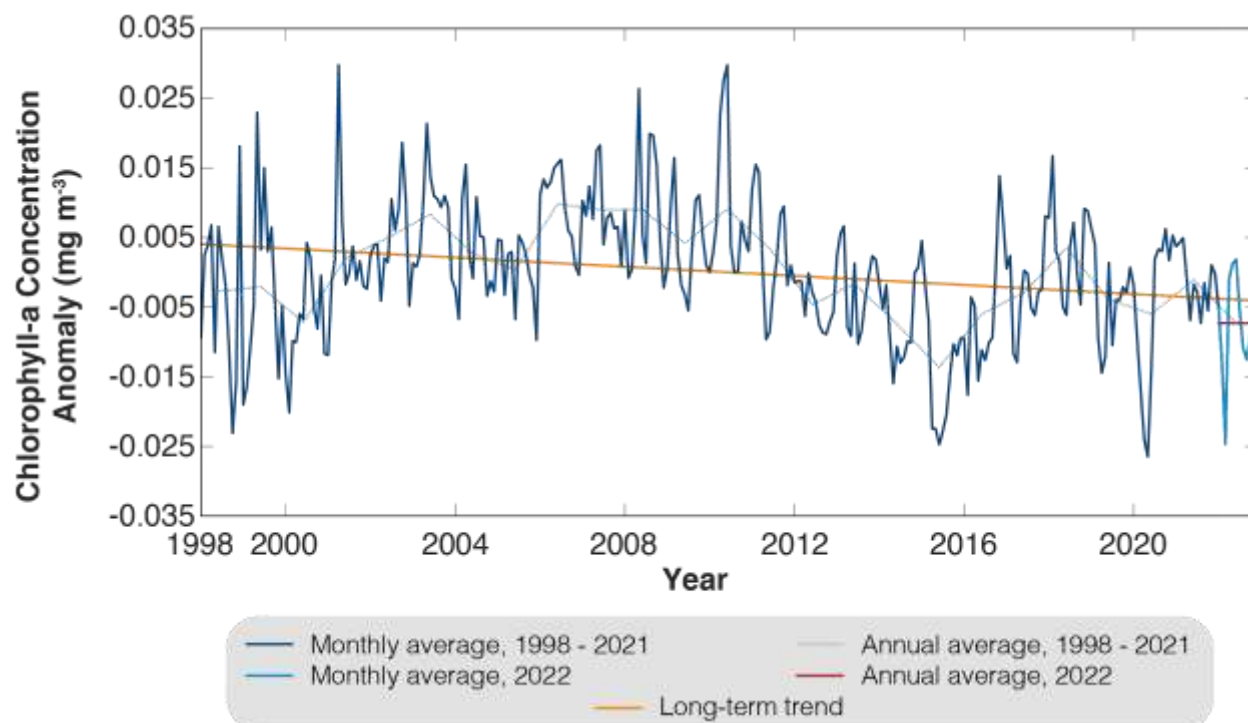


Figure 174. Time series of monthly average chlorophyll concentration anomaly over the longline fishing grounds outlined in Figure 173

Rationale: Phytoplankton are the foundational food source for the fishery. Changes in phytoplankton abundance have been linked to both natural climate variability and anthropogenic climate change. These changes have the potential to impact fish abundance, size, and catch.

Status: The mean monthly chlorophyll concentration was $0.13 \text{ mg chl m}^{-3}$ in 2022. Monthly mean chlorophyll concentrations ranged from $0.088\text{--}0.16 \text{ mg chl m}^{-3}$, which was within the range of values observed during the previous years of the time series ($0.079\text{--}0.18 \text{ mg chl m}^{-3}$). There has been no significant trend in monthly average chlorophyll concentration over the time period, however chlorophyll anomalies have declined by 0.008. Chlorophyll concentrations were fairly average across the southern portion of the longline fishing grounds and a little below average north of $30 - 35^{\circ}\text{N}$.

Description: Satellite remotely sensed ocean color is used to determine chlorophyll concentrations in the pelagic surface ocean. A time series of median monthly chlorophyll-a concentrations averaged over the Hawai‘i longline region is presented. Additionally, spatial climatologies and anomalies are shown. European Space Agency (ESA) Climate Change Initiative (CCI) data are used for this indicator (Sathyendranath et al. 2018).

Timeframe: Monthly

Region/Location: Hawaii longline region: $5^{\circ} - 45^{\circ}\text{N}$, $180^{\circ} - 120^{\circ}\text{W}$

Measurement Platform: Satellite

Sourced from: NOAA OceanWatch (2023b) and Sathyendranath et al. (2018). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.11 NORTH PACIFIC SUBTROPICAL FRONT (STF) AND TRANSITION ZONE CHLOROPHYLL FRONT (TZCF)

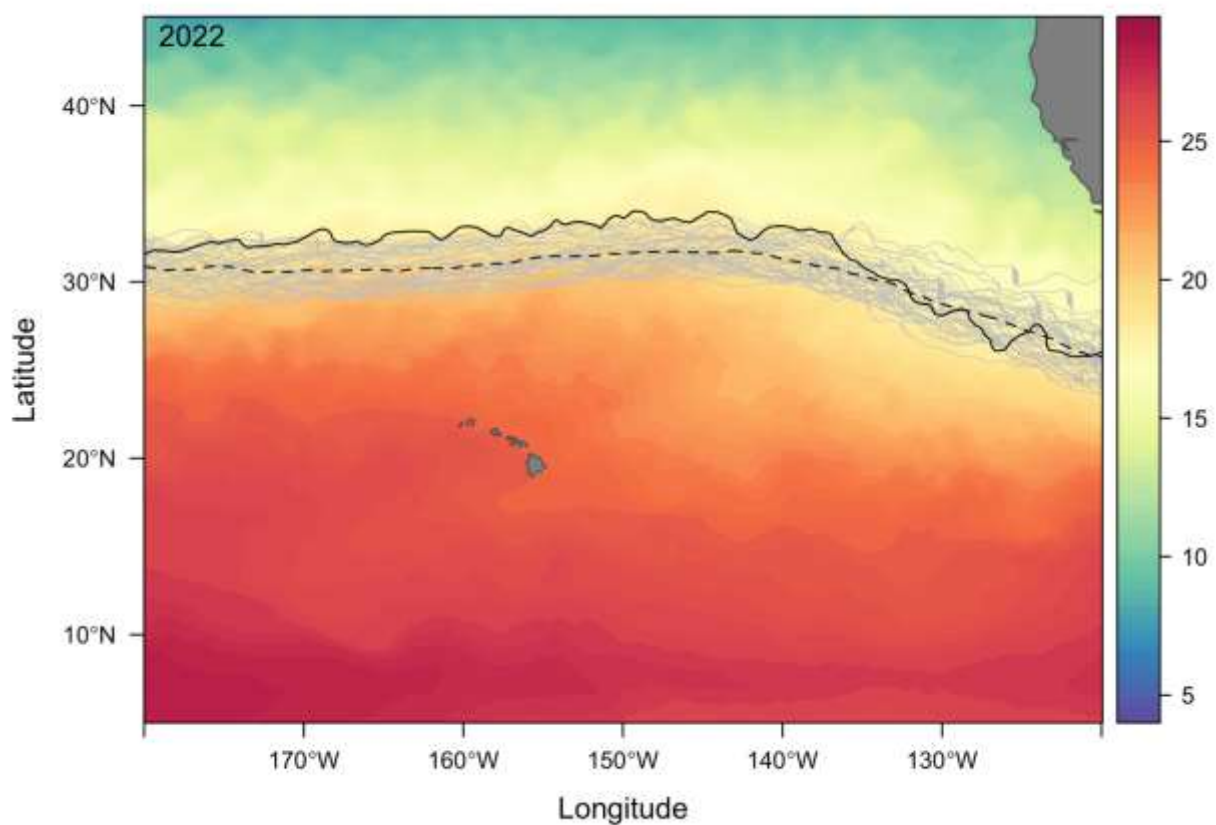


Figure 175. Average positions of the transition zone chlorophyll front (TZCF, blue lines) and subtropical front (STF, red lines) in 2022 (solid lines) and over a long-term average (dotted

lines). The long-term average for the TZCF spans 1998–2021. The long-term average for the STF spans 1985–2021

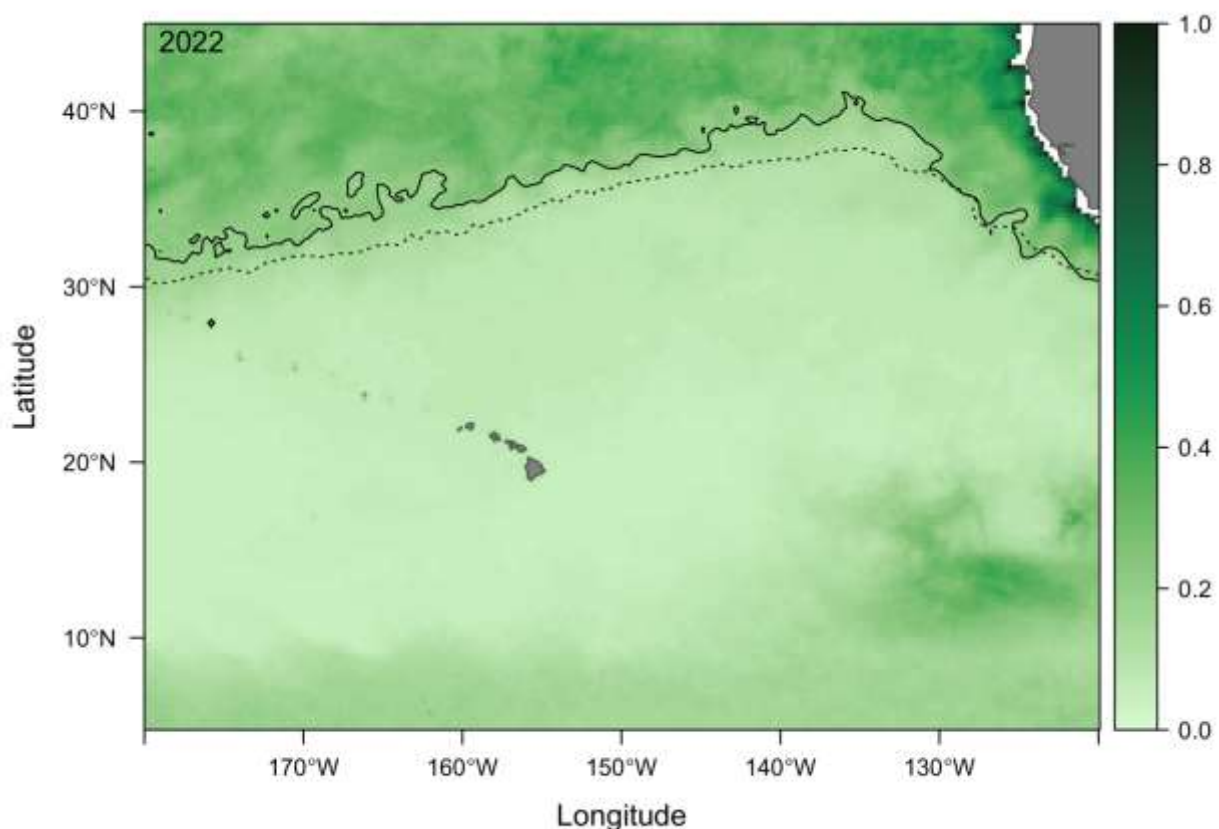


Figure 176. Average positions of the transition zone chlorophyll front (TZCF) in 2022 (solid black line) over a long-term average (dotted black line) and ocean color for the first quarter of 2022 (shaded). The long-term average for the TZCF spans 1998–2021

Rationale: The STF is targeted by the swordfish fishery. Additionally, both the STF and TZCF are used as migration and foraging corridors by both commercially valuable and protected species. Northward displacement of the frontal zone can increase the distance fishing vessels must travel to set their gear. This can, in turn, increase operational expenses. The positions of the fronts vary in response to natural climate variations. Long-term northward displacement of the frontal zone may also result from anthropogenic climate change.

Status: During the first quarter of 2022, the STF was north of average and near its northernmost position across much of the fishing grounds west of 135°W, and roughly average east of 135°W. The TZCF was also north of average west of about 135°W and at its average latitude east of 135°W.

Description: The subtropical front (STF) is marked by the 18 °C sea surface temperature (SST) isotherm and the transition zone chlorophyll front (TZCF) by the 0.2 mg chl-a m⁻³ isopleth (Bograd et al. 2004; Polovina et al. 2001). They roughly mark the northern boundary of the North Pacific subtropical gyre as well as the northern extent of the Hawai‘i-based longline

fishery. Both fronts migrate meridionally on a seasonal basis and their positions are impacted by the phase of the El Niño – Southern Oscillation (ENSO). Due to significant seasonal variation, the climatology and anomaly (2021) are presented for the first quarter of the year only. The STF is determined from CoralTemp data (see SST indicator) and the TZCF is determined from ESA CCI data (see Section 0).

Timeframe: Annual, seasonal

Region: Hawaii longline region: 5° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W

Measurement Platform: Satellite

Data available at: https://oceanwatch.pifsc.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/CRW_sst_v3_1_monthly and <https://oceanwatch.pifsc.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/esa-cci-chla-monthly-v5-0>.

Sourced from: Bograd et al. (2004), Polovina et al. (2001), and NOAA OceanWatch (2023a; 2023b).

3.4.2.12 ESTIMATED MEDIAN PHYTOPLANKTON SIZE

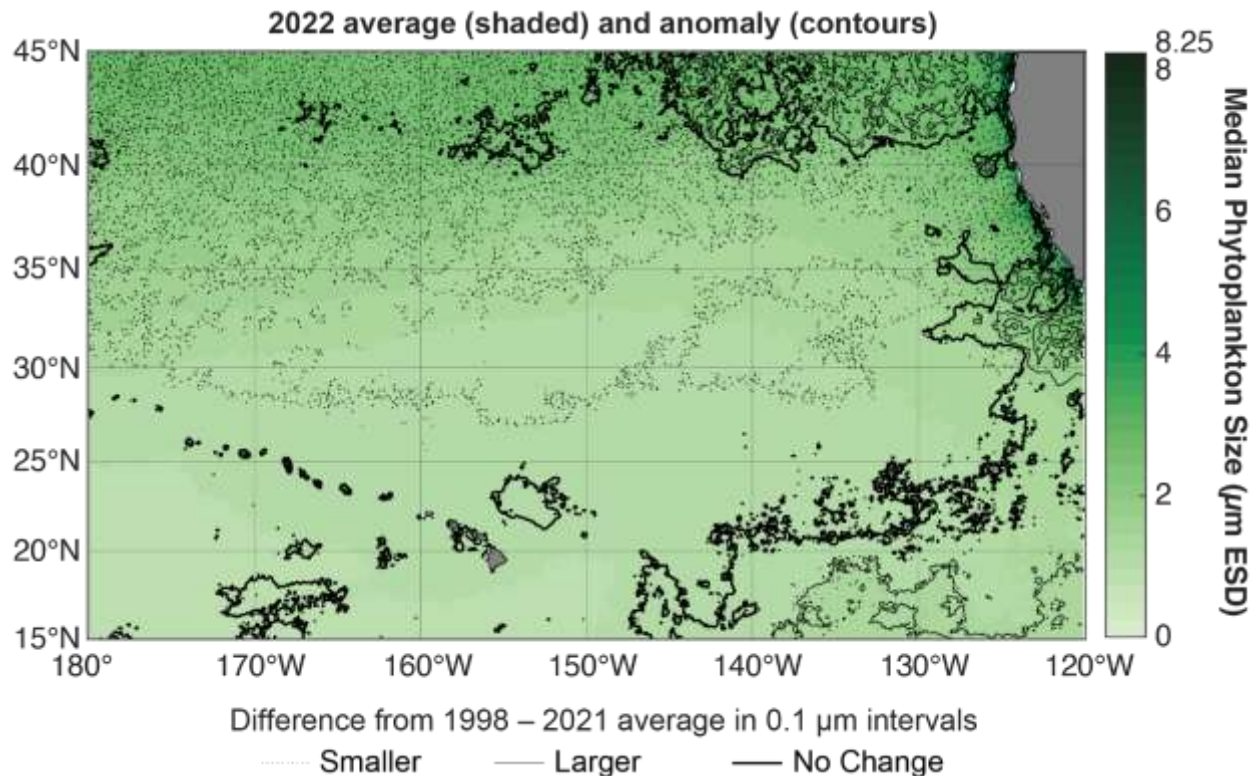


Figure 177. Average estimated median phytoplankton size in 2022 (shaded) and the difference from the 1998–2021 average (contoured) across the area targeted by Hawai‘i’s longline fisheries.

Estimated median phytoplankton size is averaged over this area for the time series shown in Figure 173 and Figure 174

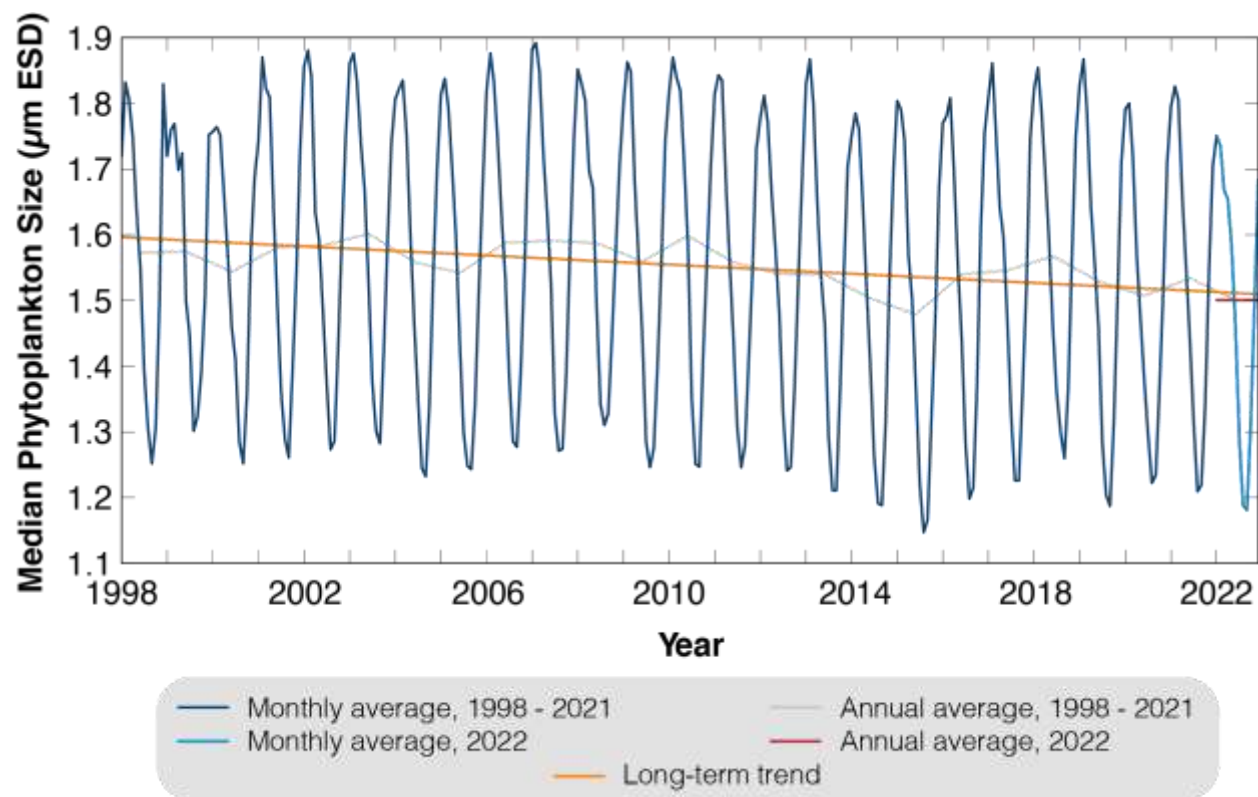


Figure 178. Time series of monthly median phytoplankton size over the longline fishing grounds shown in Figure 177

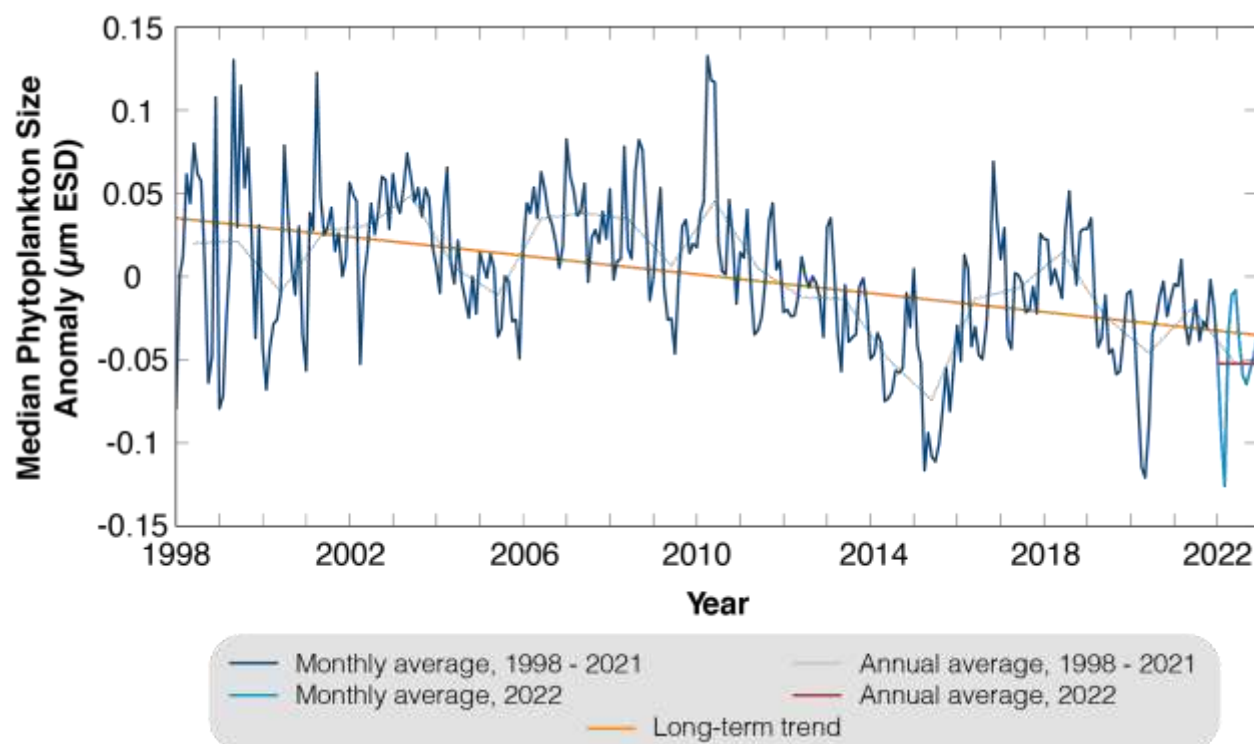


Figure 179. Time series of monthly median phytoplankton size anomaly over the longline fishing grounds shown in Figure 177

Rationale: Phytoplankton are the base of the food web and their abundance influences the food available to all higher trophic levels from zooplankton through tuna and billfish. Some studies project that climate change will result in both fewer and smaller phytoplankton. This would reduce the food available to all members of the food web. Understanding trends in phytoplankton abundance and size structure, how they are influenced by oceanographic conditions, and how they influence fish abundance and size structure are areas of active research.

Status: The mean monthly phytoplankton cell size was 1.5 μm Equivalent Spherical Diameter (ESD) in 2022. Monthly mean cell size ranged from 1.18–1.75 μm ESD during the year, within the range of values observed over the period of record (1.15–1.89 μm ESD). Over the period of record, there has been weakly significant decline in monthly median phytoplankton size. Over the time series, median phytoplankton size has declined by 0.087 μm ESD, or by -5.4%. The monthly anomaly has declined as well, by -0.07 μm ESD. Average estimated median phytoplankton size was below average across much of the fishing grounds.

Description: Median phytoplankton cell size can be estimated from satellite remotely sensed SST and ocean color (Barnes et al. 2011). A time series of monthly median phytoplankton cell size averaged over the Hawai'i longline region is presented, as well as a time series of anomalies. NOAA CoralTemp (see SST indicator) and ESA CCI data (see ocean color indicator) are used to calculate median phytoplankton cell size.

Timeframe: Monthly

Region: Hawaii longline region: 15° – 45°N, 180° – 120°W

Measurement Platform: Satellite

Data available at: https://oceanwatch.pifsc.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/CRW_sst_v3_1_monthly
and <https://oceanwatch.pifsc.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/esa-cci-chla-monthly-v5-0>

Sourced from: Barnes et al. (2011) and NOAA OceanWatch (2023a; 2023b). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.2.13 FISH COMMUNITY SIZE STRUCTURE

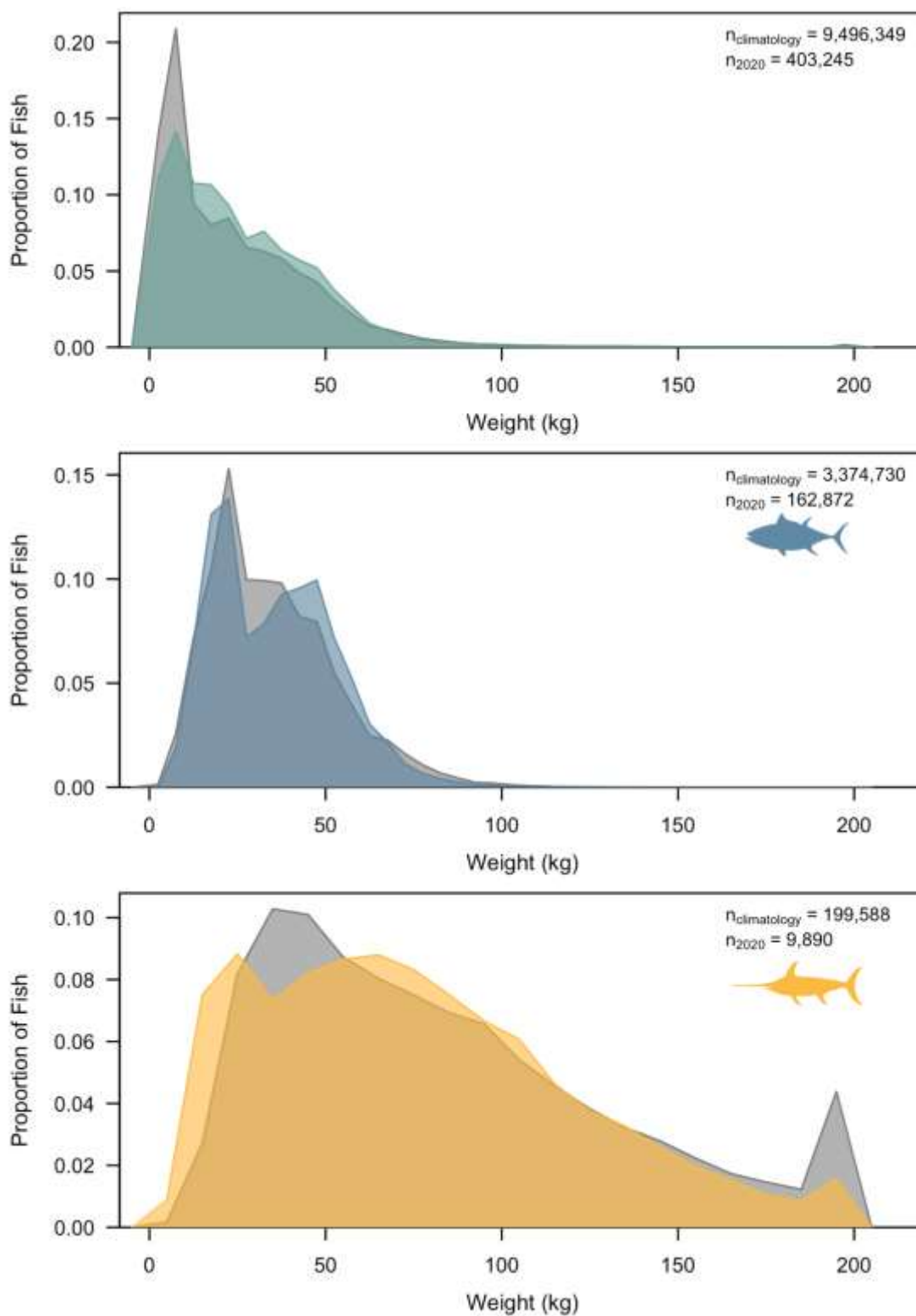


Figure 180. The climatological (2000 – 2021; grey) and 2022 (color) distribution of weights for all fish (top), bigeye tuna from deep sets (middle), and swordfish from shallow sets (bottom)

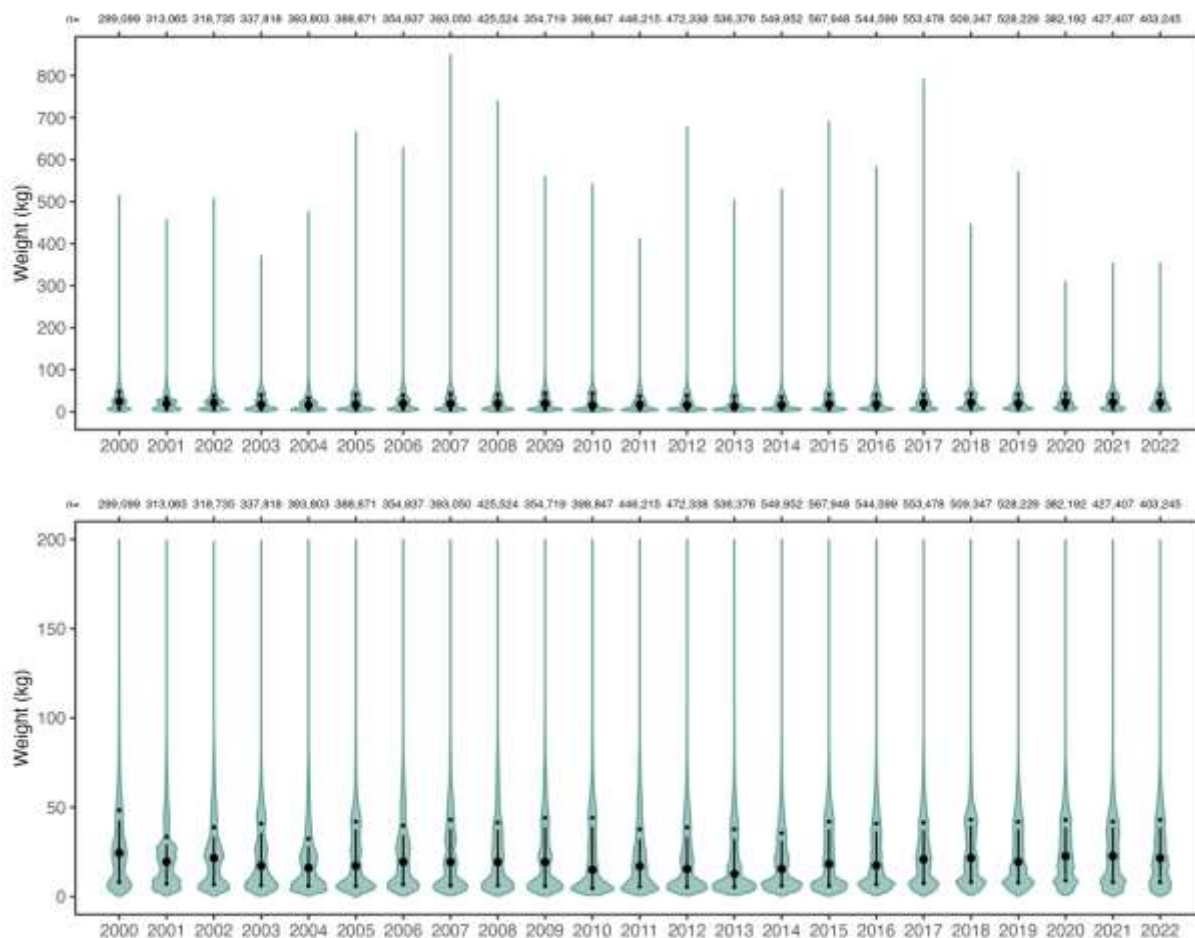


Figure 181. The annual distribution of weights of all fish, showing the full range of weights (top) and truncated to better demonstrate the distribution of the majority of weights (bottom) with large circles denoting median weight, black lines showing the range of the middle 50% of fish, small circles denoting the 20th and 80th percentiles of the weight distributions, and width of shading proportional to the number of fish of a given weight

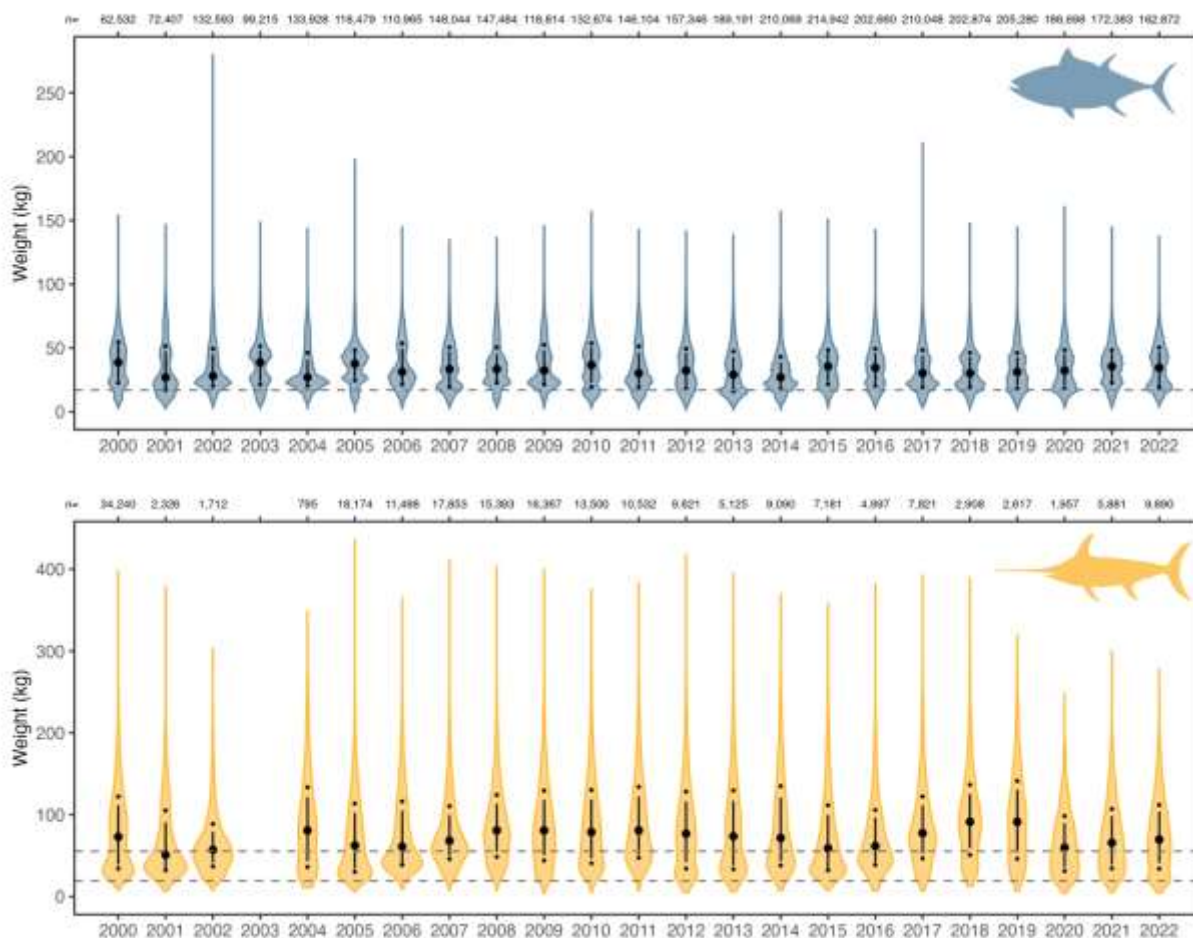


Figure 182. The annual distribution of weights of bigeye tuna from deep sets (top) and swordfish from shallow sets (bottom), with large circles denoting median weight, black lines showing the range of the middle 50% of fish, small circles denoting the 20th and 80th percentiles of the weight distributions, and width of shading proportional to the number of fish of a given weight. Horizontal dashed lines denote the weight corresponding to L_{50} for bigeye tuna (17 kg; Farley et al. 2018), female swordfish (55.5 kg; Kapur et al. 2017), and male swordfish (19.4 kg, Kapur et al. 2017)

Rationale: Fish size can be impacted by a number of factors, including climate. Currently, the degree to which the fishery's target species are impacted by climate, and the scale at which these impacts may occur, is largely unknown. Ongoing collection of size structure data is necessary for detecting trends in community size structure and attributing causes of these trends.

Understanding trends in fish size structure and how oceanographic conditions influence these trends is an area of active research.

Status: For the longline fishery as a whole, fish were slightly larger than average in 2022, with a lower proportion of fish smaller than about 15 kg. Bigeye tuna had a more bimodal size distribution than average in 2022 and swordfish were slightly larger than the previous year on average.

In 2022, the median bigeye tuna weight was 34.5 kg and the median swordfish weight was 69.9 kg. The median weight of all fish species caught was 21.6 kg. These values are within the bounds observed of the time series from 2000 through 2021.

Description: The weight of individual fish moving through the Honolulu auction is available from 2000 through the present. Using these weights, community size structure is presented. A standardized pooled climatological distribution is presented, as is the 2021 distribution. Similar distributions for target species (bigeye tuna and swordfish) are also presented. Annual time series of pooled target species weights are presented as violin plots. Bigeye weights are from deep sets (≥ 15 hooks per float) only. Swordfish weights are from shallow sets (< 15 hooks per float) only. The Honolulu auction reports weights for gilled and gutted fish. A conversion factor is used to calculate the whole fish weights used for this indicator (Langley et al. 2006).

Timeframe: Annual.

Region: Hawaii-based longline fishing grounds.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* measurement.

Sourced from: Farley et al. (2018), HDAR Measurement Platform, and Langley et al. (2006).

3.4.2.14 BIGEYE WEIGHT-PER-UNIT-EFFORT

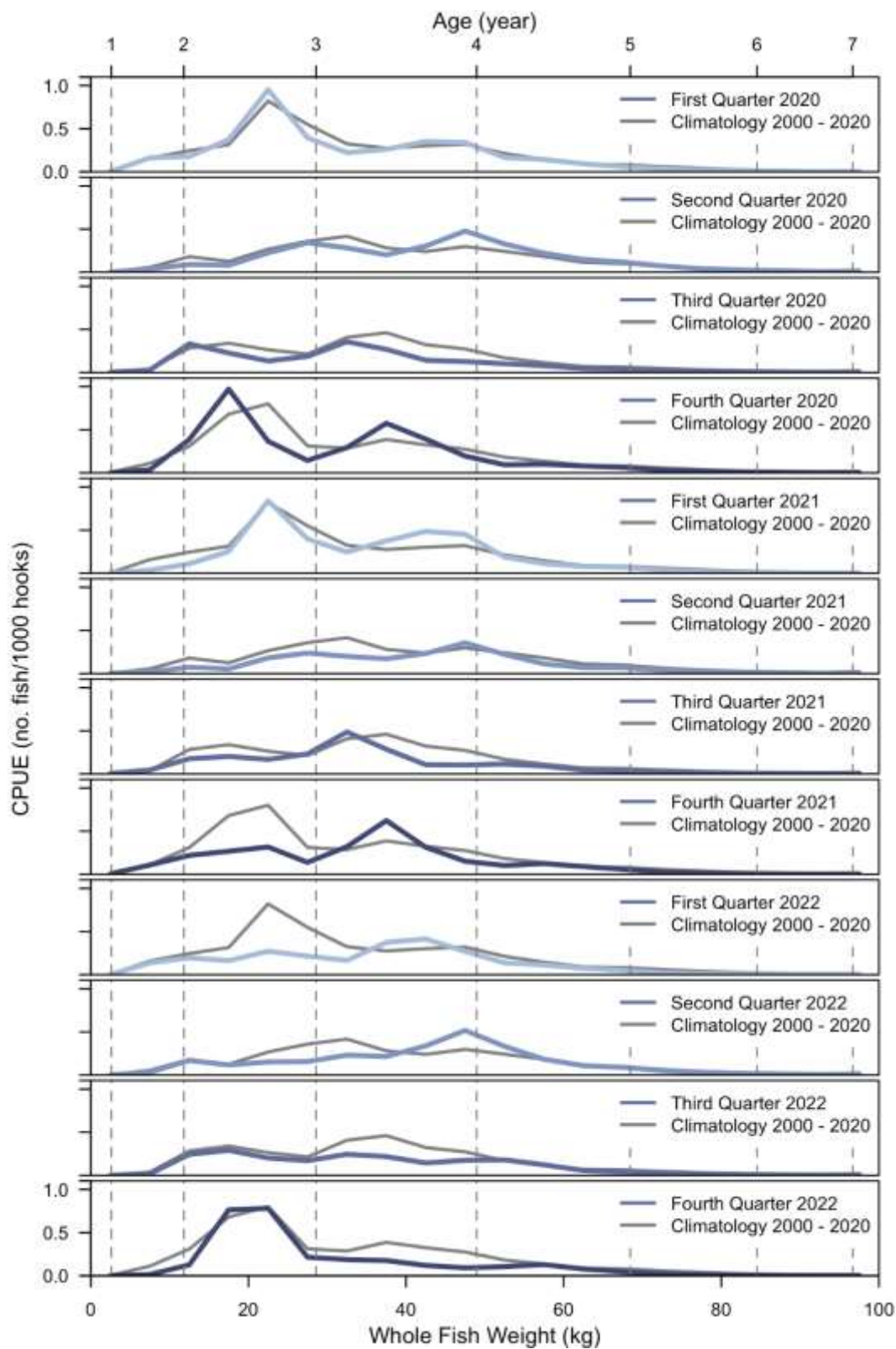


Figure 183. Quarterly deep-set bigeye tuna weight per unit effort for 2020–2022 (color) and the climatological average (2000–2020)

Rationale: Tracking the progression of growing size classes through time can provide a strong indication of recruitment pulses. The timing of these pulses is not yet well understood, particularly in terms of how they relate to climatic influences such as interannual variability. Improving this understanding could lead to the ability to project future yields and is an area of active research.

Status: No above-average peaks in two-year-old bigeye CPUE was observed in 2021 or 2022, suggesting that there will not be a peak in the CPUE of four- and five-year-old bigeye in 2023 and 2024.

Description: Quarterly time series of bigeye weight-per-unit-effort (WPUE) in hooks set is presented for the previous two years. Fish weights are those of bigeye tuna received at the Honolulu auction. The Honolulu auction reports weights for gilled and gutted fish. A conversion factor is used to calculate the whole fish weights used for this indicator (Langley et al. 2006). Note the quarterly (colored) and climatological (grey) distributions of bigeye tuna weight-per-unit-effort in Figure 183. Bigeye weights are from sets using ≥ 15 hooks per float.

Timeframe: Quarterly.

Region: Hawaii-based longline fishing grounds.

Measurement Platform: *In-situ* measurement.

Sourced from: HDAR and Langley et al. (2006).

3.4.2.15 BIGEYE RECRUITMENT INDEX

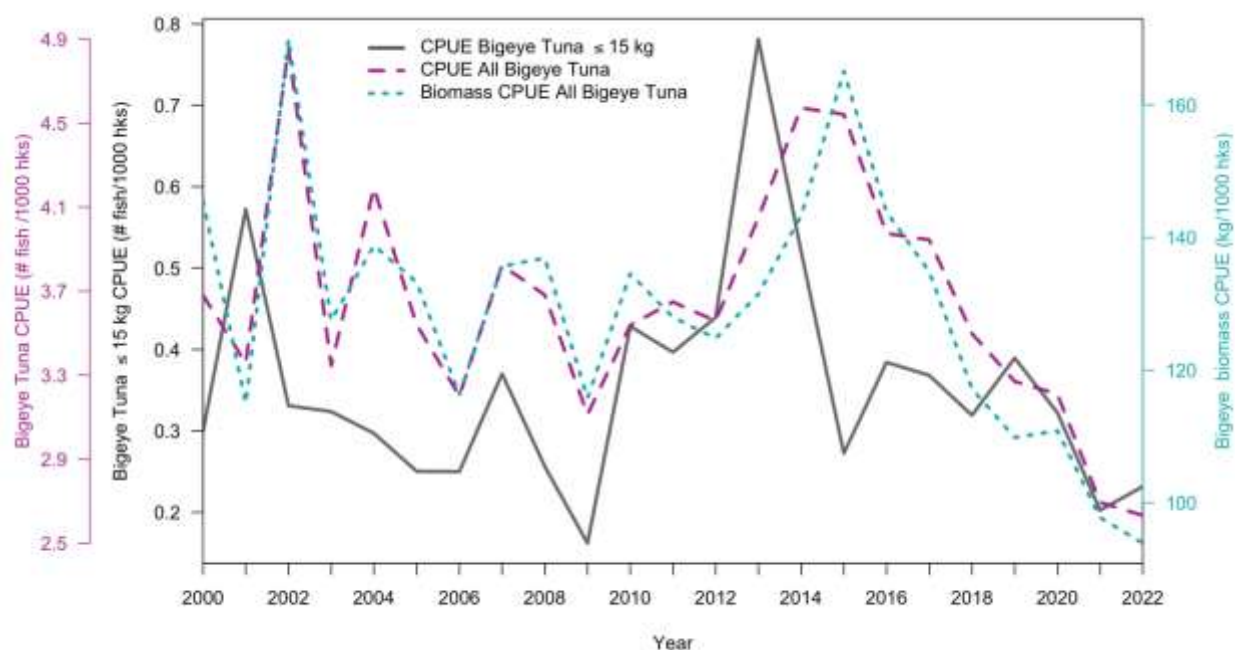


Figure 184. Annual CPUE of bigeye tuna ≤ 15 kg (grey solid line), CPUE of all bigeye tuna (pink dashed line), and biomass CPUE (blue dotted line) from 2000 – 2022, all from deep sets

Rationale: Catch rates of small bigeye tuna (≤ 15 kg) peak two years prior to peaks in catch rates (CPUE) and biomass (weight-per-unit-effort), indicating a recruitment pulse and allowing for predictions regarding increases in total catch rates of the fishery. The timing of these pulses is not yet well understood, particularly in terms of how they relate to climate impacts such as interannual variability. Improving this understanding could lead to the ability to project future yields and is an area of active research.

Status: In 2022, the CPUE of bigeye ≤ 15 kg was 0.23 fish per 1,000 hooks set. This is within the range observed over the last 21 years (0.16–0.78 fish per 1,000 hooks set) and at this time does not appear indicative of a strong recruitment pulse such as was seen in 2001 or 2013.

Description: Time series of small (≤ 15 kg) and total bigeye tuna catch-per-unit-effort (hooks set) and weight-per-unit-effort (hooks set) for all bigeye tuna is presented. Fish weights are those of bigeye tuna received at the Honolulu auction. The Honolulu auction reports weights for gilled and gutted fish. A conversion factor is used to calculate the whole fish weights used for this indicator (Langley et al. 2006).

Timeframe: Annual.

Region: Hawaii-based longline fishing grounds.

Measurement Platform: Model-derived.

Sourced from: HDAR and Langley et al. (2006).

3.4.2.16 BIGEYE TUNA CATCH RATE FORECAST

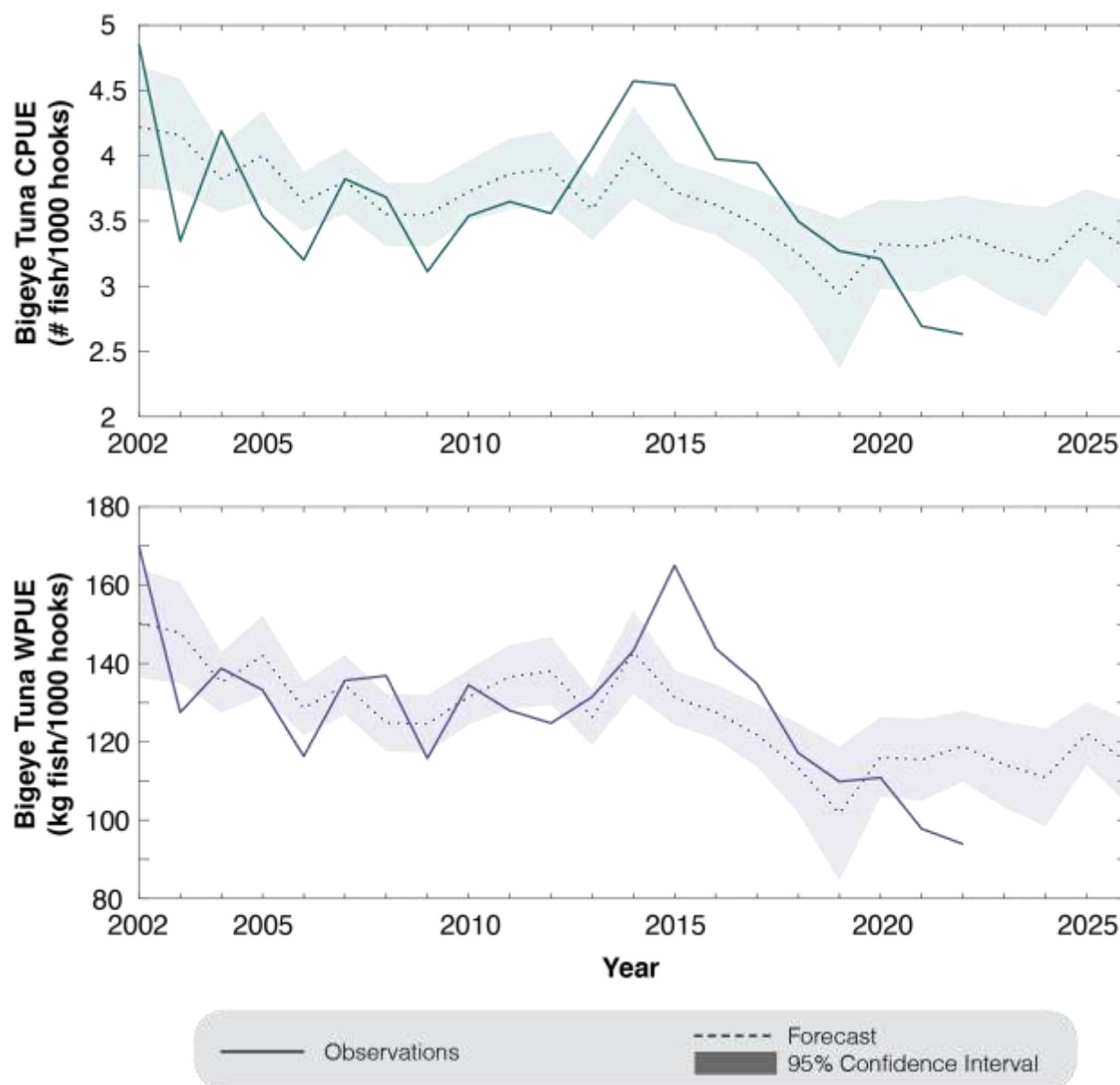


Figure 185. Annual observed (solid lines) and forecast (dotted lines) CPUE (upper panel; green) and WPUE (lower panel; purple) of bigeye tuna from deep sets. The forecasts' 95% confidence intervals are shaded

Rationale: Recent work has shown that average phytoplankton size can be used to predict bigeye tuna catch rates up to four years in advance (Woodworth-Jefcoats and Wren 2020). The hypothesized mechanism behind this relationship is that larger phytoplankton are indicative of higher quality food for the zooplankton upon which larval and juvenile bigeye tuna prey. With higher quality prey available, more bigeye tuna survive into adulthood and recruit to the fishery.

Status: The catch rate forecasts suggest that catch rates will be fairly steady over the next four years.

Description: Time series of observed bigeye tuna CPUE and WPUE are presented together with the annual forecast values and their associated 95% confidence interval. The forecast is based on a linear regression between four-year-lagged median phytoplankton size and both CPUE and WPUE (individual).

Timeframe: Annual.

Region: Hawaii-based longline fishing grounds (0° – 40°N, 180° – 150°W and 15° – 36°N, 150° – 125°W).

Measurement Platform: Model-derived from satellite remotely sensed data.

Sourced from: HDAR, Langley et al. (2006), NOAA OceanWatch (2023c), and Woodworth-Jefcoats and Wren (2020). Graphics produced in part using Stawitz (2022).

3.4.3 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR INDICATORS

The reasons for the Council’s decision to provide and maintain an evolving discussion of climate conditions as an integral and continuous consideration in their deliberations, decisions, and reports are numerous:

- Emerging scientific and community understanding of the impacts of changing climate conditions on fishery resources, the ecosystems that sustain those resources, and the communities that depend upon them;
- Recent Federal Directives including the 2010 implementation of a National Ocean Policy that identified Resiliency and Adaptation to Climate Change and Ocean Acidification as one of nine National priorities as well as the development of a Climate Science Strategy by NMFS in 2015 and the subsequent development of the Pacific Islands Regional Action Plan for climate science; and
- The Council’s own engagement with NOAA as well as jurisdictional fishery management agencies in American Samoa, CNMI, Guam, and Hawaii as well as fishing industry representatives and local communities in those jurisdictions.

In 2013, the Council began restructuring its Marine Protected Area/Coastal and Marine Spatial Planning Committee to include a focus on climate change, and the committee was renamed as the Marine Planning and Climate Change (MPCC) Committee. In 2015, based on recommendations from the committee, the Council adopted its Marine Planning and Climate Change Policy and Action Plan, which provided guidance to the Council on implementing climate change measures, including climate change research and data needs. The revised Pelagic Fisheries Ecosystem Plan (FEP; February 2016) included a discussion on climate change data and research as well as a new objective (Objective 9) that states the Council should consider the implications of climate change in decision-making, with the following sub-objectives:

1. To identify and prioritize research that examines the effects of climate change on Council-managed fisheries and fishing communities.
2. To ensure climate change considerations are incorporated into the analysis of management alternatives.
3. To monitor climate change related variables via the Council’s Annual Reports.
4. To engage in climate change outreach with U.S. Pacific Islands communities.

Beginning with the 2015 report, the Council and its partners began providing continuing descriptions of changes in a series of climate and oceanic indicators.

This annual report focuses previous years' efforts by refining existing indicators and improving communication of their relevance and status. Future reports will include additional indicators as the information becomes available and their relevance to the development, evaluation, and revision of the FEPs becomes clearer. Working with national and jurisdictional partners, the Council will make all datasets used in the preparation of this and future reports available and easily accessible.

3.4.4 RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS COUNCIL RECOMMENDATIONS

At its 182nd meeting in June 2020, the Council requested the Pelagic Plan Team to look at South Pacific albacore indicators, provide more information on spatial catches within the region including American Samoa, and investigate ecosystem drivers for inclusion in the Annual SAFE Report. Preliminary information was explored and presented at the Pelagic Plan Team meeting in May 2021.

At its 170th meeting from June 20-22, 2017, the Council directed staff to support the development of community training and outreach materials and activities on climate change. In addition, the Council directed staff to coordinate a “train-the-trainers” workshop that includes NOAA scientists who presented at the 6th Marine Planning and Climate Change Committee (MPCCC) meeting and the MPCCC committee members in preparation for community workshops on climate and fisheries. The Council and NOAA partnered to deliver the workshops in the fall of 2017 to the MPCCC members in Hawaii (with the Hawaii Regional Ecosystem Advisory Committee), as well as American Samoa, Guam, and the CNMI (with their respective Advisory Panel groups). Feedback from workshop participants has been incorporated into this year's climate and oceanic indicator section. To prepare for community outreach, Guam-based MPCCC members conducted a climate change survey and shared the results with the MPCCC at its 7th meeting on April 10th and 11th, 2018. The Council also directed staff to explore funding avenues to support the development of additional oceanic and climate indicators, such as wind and extratropical storms. These indicators were added to this module by corresponding Plan Team members in 2018.

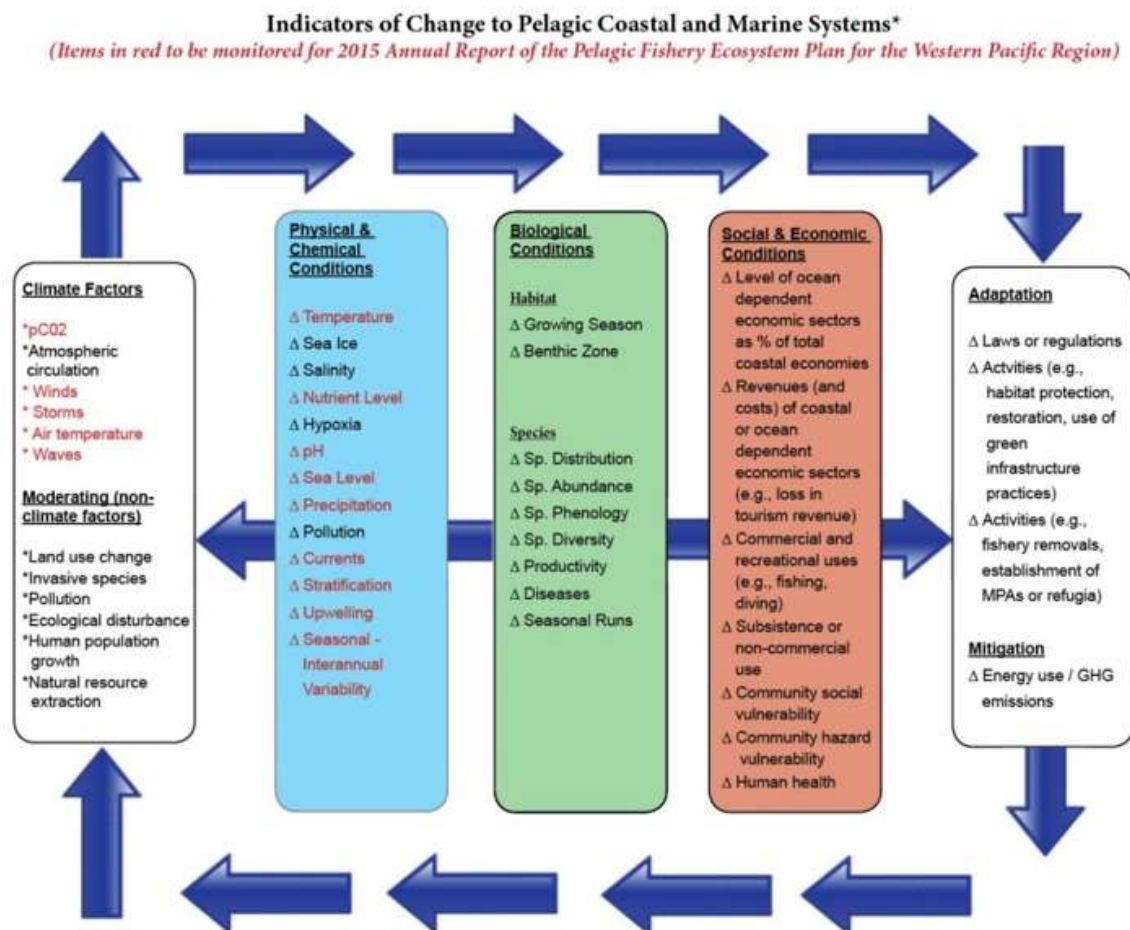
Prior to holding its 8th meeting, the MPCCC was disbanded in early 2019, re-allocating its responsibilities among its members already on other committees or teams, such as the Fishery Ecosystem Plan Teams.

3.4.5 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

In developing this chapter, the Council relied on a number of recent reports conducted in the context of the U.S. National Climate Assessment including, most notably, the 2012 Pacific Islands Regional Climate Assessment and the Ocean and Coasts chapter of the 2014 report on a Pilot Indicator System prepared by the National Climate Assessment and Development Advisory Committee (NCADAC).

The Advisory Committee Report presented a possible conceptual framework designed to illustrate how climate factors can connect to and interact with other ecosystem components to

impact ocean and coastal ecosystems and human communities. The Council adapted this model with considerations relevant to the fishery resources of the Western Pacific Region:



*Adapted from National Climate Assessment and Development Advisory Committee, February 2014, National Climate Indicators System Report, B-59.

Figure 186. Indicators of change of pelagic coastal and marine systems; conceptual model

As described in the 2014 NCADAC report, the conceptual model presents a “simplified representation of climate and non-climate stressors in coastal and marine ecosystems.” For the purposes of this Annual Report, the modified Conceptual Model allows the Council and its partners to identify indicators of interest to be monitored on a continuing basis in coming years. The indicators shown in red were considered for inclusion in the annual SAFE reports, though the final list of indicators varied somewhat. Other indicators will be added over time as data become available and an understanding of the causal chain from stressors to impacts emerges.

The Council also hopes that this Conceptual Model can provide a guide for future monitoring and research. This guide will ideally enable the Council and its partners to move forward from observations and correlations to understanding the specific nature of interactions, and to develop capabilities to predict future changes of importance in the developing, evaluating, and adapting of FEPs in the Western Pacific region.

3.4.6 OBSERVATIONAL AND RESEARCH NEEDS

Through preparation of this and previous Pelagic annual SAFE reports, the Council has identified a number of observational and research needs that, if addressed, would improve the information content of future Climate and Oceanic Indicators section. This information would provide fishery managers, the fishing industry, and community stakeholders with better understanding and predictive capacity that is vital to sustaining a resilient and vibrant fishery in the Western Pacific. These observational and research needs are to:

- Emphasize the importance of continuing the climate and ocean indicators used in this report so that a consistent, long-term record can be maintained and interpreted;
- Develop agreements among stakeholders and research partners to ensure the sustainability, availability, and accessibility of climate and ocean indicators, associated datasets, and analytical methods used in this and future reports;
- Improve monitoring and understanding of the impacts of changes in ocean temperature, pH and ocean acidity, ocean oxygen content and hypoxia, and sea level rise through active collaboration by all fishery stakeholders and research partners;
- Develop, test, and provide access to additional climate and ocean indicators that can improve the Pelagic Conceptual Model;
- Investigate the connections between climate variables and other indicators in the Pelagic Conceptual Model to improve understanding of changes in physical, chemical, biological, and socio-economic processes and their interactions in the regional ecosystem;
- Develop predictive models that can be used for scenario planning to account for unexpected changes and uncertainties in the regional ecosystem and fisheries;
- Foster applied research in ecosystem modeling to better describe current conditions and to better anticipate the future under alternative projections of climate and ocean change including changes in expected human benefits and their variability;
- Improve understanding of the connections between the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and fisheries ecosystems beyond the North Pacific;
- Improve understanding of mahimahi and swordfish size in relation to the location and orientation of the transition zone chlorophyll front (TZCF);
- Explore the connections between sea surface conditions, stratification, and mixing;
- Identify the biological implications of tropical cyclones;
- Research cultural knowledge and practices for adapting to past climate changes and investigate how they might contribute to future climate adaptation; and
- Explore additional and/or alternative climate and ocean indicators that may have important effects of pelagic fisheries systems including:
 - Ocean currents and anomalies;
 - Eddy kinetic energy (EKE);
 - Near-surface wind velocity and anomalies;
 - Wave forcing and anomalies;
 - Oceanic nutrient concentration;
 - South Pacific convergence zones targeted by swordfish;
 - Standardized fish community size structure data for gear types, including the troll fishery for yellowfin and blue marlin;

- Estimates of phytoplankton abundance and size from satellite remotely-sensed sea surface temperature (SST) and ocean color measurements;
- Additional spatial coverage for the international purse seine fishery and the American Samoa longline fishery;
- Time series of species richness and diversity from catch data which could potentially provide insight into how the ecosystem is responding to physical climate influences; and
- Socio-economic indicators of effects of a changing climate on fishing communities and businesses.

3.5 ESSENTIAL FISH HABITAT

3.5.1 INTRODUCTION

Per requirements of the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act (MSA; 50 CFR § 600.815), Essential Fish Habitat (EFH) information for all Pelagic Management Unit Species (MUS) is found in the Pelagic Fishery Ecosystem Plan (FEP). The EFH Final Rule requires that the Council review and revise EFH provisions periodically and report on this review as part of the annual Stock Assessment and Fishery Evaluation (SAFE) report, with a complete review conducted as recommended by the Secretary, but at least once every five years.

The habitat objective of the FEP is to refine EFH and minimize impacts to EFH, with the following sub-objectives:

- Review EFH and Habitat Areas of Particular Concern (HAPC) designations every five years and update such designations based on the best available scientific information, when available.
- Identify and prioritize research to assess adverse impacts to EFH and HAPC from fishing (including aquaculture) and non-fishing activities, including, but not limited to, activities that introduce land-based pollution into the coastal environment.

Pelagic EFH information was not updated during preparation of 2022 SAFE report, except for Section 3.5.5. Non-fishing impacts to pelagic EFH were reviewed in the past as part of the Council's omnibus review of non-fishing effects on EFH. The Council's support of non-fishing activities research is monitored through the program plan and five-year research priorities, not the annual SAFE report.

3.5.2 RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS COUNCIL RECOMMENDATIONS

There were no Council recommendations for the EFH section of the Pelagic annual SAFE report in 2022.

3.5.3 HABITAT USE BY MUS AND TRENDS IN HABITAT CONDITION

The geographic extent of EFH for PMUS in the Western Pacific region is the shoreline to the edge of the exclusive economic zone (EEZ; 64 FR 19067, April 19, 1999). Egg/larval PMUS EFH is the water column to a depth of 200 m, while juvenile/adult PMUS EFH is designated to 1000 m. HAPC is designated to a depth of 1,000 m above seamounts and banks with summits shallower than 2,000 m.

Because the habitat is the water column, the Climate and Oceanic Indicators section (Section 3.4) provides data and trends relevant to pelagic EFH, including oceanic pH, the ONI PDO, tropical cyclones, North Pacific oligotrophic area, ocean color, and subtropical front/transition zone chlorophyll front indicators. Future SAFE reports may provide further interpretation of these indicators as they relate to EFH.

3.5.4 REPORT ON REVIEW OF EFH INFORMATION

No pelagic EFH reviews were completed in 2022.

3.5.5 RESEARCH NEEDS AND ONGOING PROJECTS

The Council previously identified pelagic scientific data needs to address the EFH provisions more effectively in the FEP. This section includes active research and data collection initiatives to address these needs. Many recent research cruises have been cancelled due to the COVID-19 pandemic, so data needed to move these projects forward have generally not been collected.

Research continues at PIFSC to enhance understanding of open-ocean habitats and ecosystem processes through improved utility of climate and oceanographic information. Specific research efforts continue on determining the distribution of feeding and spawning habitats and their response to anthropogenic climate change, as well as the influence of natural climate variability (e.g., ENSO) on the distribution of suitable habitat for bigeye tuna (BET).

The BET Initiative is a collection of projects that looks to utilize telemetry data to describe BET thermal and spatial habitat, identify imminent spawners among longline catch to shed light on where in the Hawaii longline fishery spawning occurs, explore the distribution of feeding and spawning habitat and responses to anthropogenic climate change, and examine the effect of large-scale climate variability to better understand shifts in catch rates and locations.

Currently, BET research almost exclusively uses satellite and/or modeled data (with much less frequent use of sparse *in situ* observations for environmental data). Additional telemetry data would improve the models, especially with respect to species distribution. At present, commercial catch data is used exclusively for fish distribution models. There is a need for better models, and the furtherance of dynamic habitat delineation is dependent on more *in situ* data and regular scientific sampling.

PIFSC is also researching the effect of large-scale variability on longline and purse seine tuna species CPUE in the Equatorial Pacific. Results of this research would tie into the BET Initiative, as it can provide information on possible links between the North Pacific and the Equatorial Pacific CPUE and BET population structure. One of the main management questions is whether the North Pacific stock is a separate stock or individuals that spawn in the equatorial region and migrate north.

At Cross Seamount, PIFSC scientists are looking at the distribution and relative abundance of micronekton (i.e., BET forage) in the seamount environment, and the distribution and relative biomass of juvenile BET in the seamount environment. This research can lead to an assessment of how juvenile BET abundance is reflected in the North Pacific pelagic environment (i.e., fishing grounds), possibly providing a route to fisheries independent data for stock assessments. PIFSC is also characterizing micronekton at the Transition Zone Chlorophyll Front (TZCF), a critical migratory route and foraging ground for top predators (e.g., tunas, billfish, and protected species) that feed on micronekton.

PIFSC has recently developed the Protected Species Ensemble Random Forest (PSERF) model, which is a habitat-based framework to describe Hawaii- and American Samoa-based longline interactions with protected species, utilizing olive ridley sea turtles (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) as a case study. Ongoing work includes updating Hawaii deep-set and shallow-set longline fishery

data sets for the most recent years and adding oceanographic features derived from weekly products, including eddy kinetic energy, Okubo-Weiss parameters, and Ekman pumping to define mesoscale features. Distribution models are being developed for all species in the Hawaii deep-set, Hawaii shallow-set, and American Samoa longline fisheries, and will be rerun with more recent data and features. More robust habitat delineation and possible dynamic ocean management based on models using weekly products could facilitate timely updates for areas of high protected species encounter probabilities.

3.6 MARINE PLANNING

3.6.1 INTRODUCTION

Marine planning is a science-based management tool being utilized regionally, nationally, and globally to identify and address issues of multiple human uses, ecosystem health and cumulative impacts in the coastal and ocean environment. The Council's efforts to formalize incorporation of marine planning in its actions began in response to Executive Order 13547, Stewardship of the Ocean, Our Coasts, and the Great Lakes. Executive Order 13158, Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), proposes that agencies strengthen the management, protection, and conservation of existing MPAs, develop a national system of MPAs representing diverse ecosystems, and avoid causing harm to MPAs through federal activities. MPAs, or marine managed areas (MMAs) are one tool used in fisheries management and marine planning.

At its 165th meeting in March 2016, in Honolulu, Hawaii, the Council approved the following objective for the FEPs: Consider the Implications of Spatial Management Arrangements in Council Decision-making. The following sub-objectives apply:

- a. Identify and prioritize research that examines the positive and negative consequences of areas that restrict or prohibit fishing to fisheries, fishery ecosystems, and fishermen, such as the Bottomfish Fishing Restricted Areas, military installations, NWHI restrictions, and Marine Life Conservation Districts.
- b. Establish effective spatially-based fishing zones.
- c. Consider modifying or removing spatial-based fishing restrictions that are no longer necessary or effective in meeting their management objectives.
- d. As needed, periodically evaluate the management effectiveness of existing spatial-based fishing zones in federal waters.

In order to monitor implementation of this objective, this annual report includes the Council's spatially-based fishing restrictions or MMAs, the goals associated with those, and the most recent evaluation. Council research needs are identified and prioritized through the 5 Year Research Priorities and other processes and are not tracked in this report.

To meet the EFH and National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) mandates, this annual SAFE report tracks activities that occur in the ocean that are of interest to the Council and incidents or facilities that may contribute to cumulative impact. While the Council is not responsible for NEPA compliance, monitoring the environmental effects of ocean activities for the FEP's EFH cumulative impacts section is duplicative of the agency's NEPA requirement, and therefore, this report can provide material or suggest resources to meet both mandates.

3.6.2 RESPONSE TO PREVIOUS COUNCIL RECOMMENDATIONS

There are no standing Council recommendations indicating review deadlines for Pelagic MMAs.

At its 147th meeting in March 2010, the Council recommended a no-take area from 0–12 nm around Rose Atoll Marine National Monument (MNM) with the Council to review the no-take regulations after three years. The most recent review took place in 2013, with the subsequent review previously scheduled for 2016. PIRO received no requests for non-commercial permits to

fish within the Rose Atoll MNM. Further, inquiries in American Samoa showed that there was no indication that the 12 nm closure around Rose Atoll MNM has been limiting fishing. The Pelagic Plan Team deferred decision on Rose Atoll in May 2017. At its 172nd meeting in March 2018, the Council requested that NOAA and USFWS provide a report to the Council at its following meeting to review resultant benefits to fish populations, protected species, and coral reef, deep-slope, and pelagic ecosystems from the establishment of the Rose MNM. USFWS presented this report to the Council at its 173rd meeting in June 2018, from which no Council recommendations were generated.

At its 162nd meeting in March 2015, the Council recommended a regulatory amendment for the temporary exemption to the Large Vessel Protected Area (LVPA) by American Samoa longline limited entry permitted vessels greater than 50 ft in length. The Council would review the LVPA exemption on an annual basis. In 2016, NMFS published a final rule that allowed large, federally-permitted U.S. longline vessels to fish in specific areas of the LVPA (81 FR 5619, February 3, 2016). In July 2016, American Samoa sued NMFS and the Council in the Hawaii Federal District Court, claiming that NMFS did not consider the 1900 and 1904 Deeds of Cession with respect to the protection of the cultural fishing rights of the people of American Samoa. In 2017, the Hawaii Federal District Court deemed the final rule invalid and ordered NMFS to vacate the LVPA exemption rule (82 FR 43908, September 20, 2017).

At its 173rd meeting in June 2018, regarding the LVPA applicable to the American Samoa limited entry vessels, the Council recognized the LVPA rule has led to disagreement within the American Samoa fishing community and was the subject of litigation. The Council noted that the court decision requires the consideration and protection of American Samoa cultural fishing. To this end, the Council requested PIFSC conduct research on American Samoa cultural fishing practices to facilitate understanding and potential impacts of opening some restricted fishing areas within the U.S. EEZ for American Samoa vessels that primarily target albacore. PIFSC presented the results of this research at the Council's 172nd meeting in March 2018, which indicated that all fishing in American Samoa has cultural importance because catch from all locally-based fishing sectors flows into the American Samoa community for cultural purposes. The Council also recommended a regulatory amendment to provide a four-year exemption for vessels permitted under the American Samoa longline limited entry program to fish within the LVPA seaward of 12 nm around Tutuila, 12 nm around Manua, 12 nm around Swains, and 2 nm around the offshore banks, and recommended annual monitoring of the American Samoa longline and troll catch rates, small vessel participation, and local fisheries development.

NMFS appealed Hawaii Federal District Court's 2017 decision that invalidated the 2016 LVPA reduction to the U.S. Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals. Oral arguments were in February 2020 in Honolulu, Hawaii, and the decision was reversed in a September 2020 ruling.

At its 184th meeting in December 2020, the Council directed staff to monitor the fishing operation and fishery performance of the American Samoa longline and alia fisheries and report back to the Council at its September 2021 meeting. Council staff provided this presentation to the Council as scheduled. On July 9, 2021, NMFS published a final rule reimplementing the 2016 regulations that the Council submitted to NMFS (86 FR 36239).

3.6.3 MARINE MANAGED AREAS

Council-established MMAs are shown in Figure 187, and are compiled in Table 89.

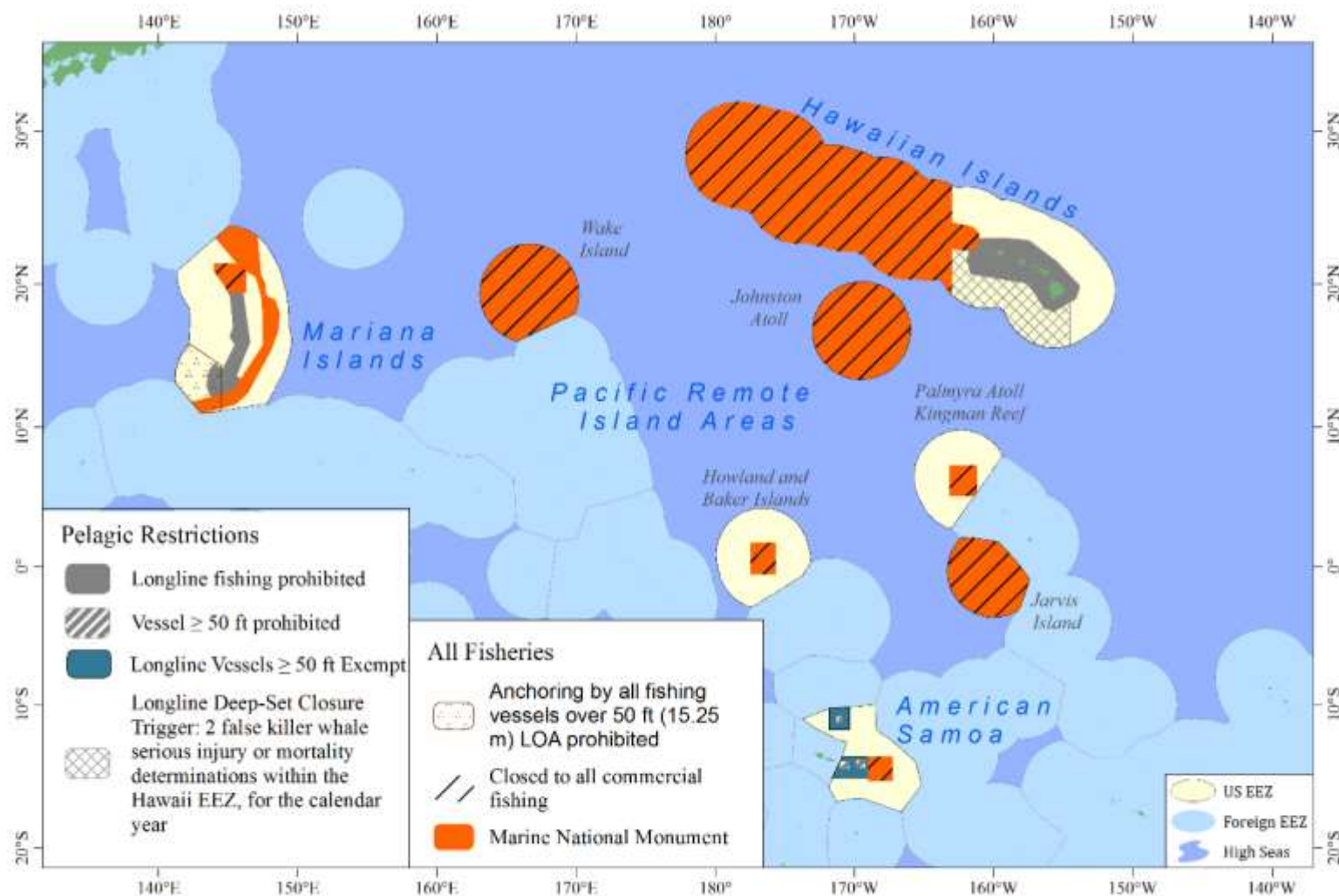


Figure 187. Regulated Fishing Areas of the Western Pacific Region

Table 89. MMAs established under FEPs from [50 CFR § 665](#)

| Name | FEP | Island(s) | 50 CFR /FR /Amendment Reference | Marine Area (km ²) | Fishing Restriction | Goals | Most Recent Evaluation | Review Deadline |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------------------------|-----------------|
| Pelagic Restrictions | | | | | | | | |
| NWHI Longline Protected Species Zone | Pelagic (Hawaii) | NWHI | 665.806(a)(1) 56 FR 52214 76 FR 37287 Pelagic FMP Am. 3 | 351,514.00 | Longline fishing prohibited | Prevent longline interaction with monk seals. | 1991 | - |
| MHI Longline Prohibited Area | Pelagic (Hawaii) | MHI | 665.806(a)(2) 57 FR 7661 77 FR 71286 Pelagic FMP Am. 5 | 248,682.38 | Longline fishing prohibited | Prevent gear conflicts between longline vessels and troll/handline vessels. | 1992 | - |
| Guam Longline Prohibited Area | Pelagic (Marianas) | Guam | 665.806(a)(3) 57 FR 7661 Pelagic FMP Am. 5 | 50,192.88 | Longline fishing prohibited | Prevent gear conflicts between longline vessels and troll/handline vessels. | 1992 | - |
| CNMI Longline Prohibited Area | Pelagic (Marianas) | Mariana Archipelago | 665.806(a)(4) 76 FR 37287 Pelagic FEP Am. 3 | 88,112.68 | Longline fishing prohibited | Reduce potential for nearshore localized fish depletion from longline fishing, and to limit catch competition and gear conflicts between the CNMI-based longline and trolling fleets. | 2011 | - |

| Name | FEP | Island(s) | 50 CFR /FR /Amendment Reference | Marine Area (km ²) | Fishing Restriction | Goals | Most Recent Evaluation | Review Deadline |
|---|--------------------------|---------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|------------------------|-----------------|
| Large Vessel Prohibited Area | Pelagic (American Samoa) | Tutuila, Manu'a, and Rose Atoll | 665.806 (b)(1) 81 FR 5619 82 FR 43908 | 74,857.32 | Vessels ≥ 50 ft. prohibited | Prevent gear conflict with smaller alia vessels; longline vessels >50 ft. exempted from 12 to 50 nm to improve the viability of the American Samoa longline fishery and achieve optimum yield from the fishery while preventing overfishing. | Jan 29, 2016 | - |
| Large Vessel Prohibited Area | Pelagic (American Samoa) | Swains Island | 665.806 (b)(1) 81 FR 5619 82 FR 43908 Pelagic FEP | 28,352.17 | Vessels ≥ 50 ft. prohibited | Prevent gear conflict with smaller alia vessels; longline vessels over 50 ft. exempted between 12 and 50 nm due to improve the viability of the American Samoa longline fishery and achieve optimum yield from the fishery while preventing overfishing. | Jan 29, 2016 | - |
| Other Restrictions | | | | | | | | |
| Howland Island No-Take Marine Protected Area (MPA)/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/ Pelagic | Howland Island | 665.599 and 665.799(a)(1) 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem Fishery Management Plan (FMP) 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | All Take Prohibited | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; commercial fishing prohibited within 12 nautical miles (nm). | 2013 | - |

| Name | FEP | Island(s) | 50 CFR /FR /Amendment Reference | Marine Area (km ²) | Fishing Restriction | Goals | Most Recent Evaluation | Review Deadline |
|--|-------------------------------------|---------------|---|--------------------------------|---------------------|--|------------------------|-----------------|
| Jarvis Island No-Take MPA/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/ Pelagic | Jarvis Island | 665.599 and 665.799(a)(1) 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | All Take Prohibited | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; commercial fishing prohibited within 12 nmi. | 2013 | - |
| Baker Island No-Take MPA/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/ Pelagic | Baker Island | 665.599 and 665.799(a)(1) 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | All Take Prohibited | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; commercial fishing prohibited within 12 nmi. | 2013 | - |
| Rose Atoll No-Take MPA/Rose Atoll Marine National Monument | American Samoa Archipelago/ Pelagic | Rose Atoll | 665.99 and 665.799(a)(2) 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 American Samoa FEP Am. 3 | - | All Take Prohibited | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; commercial fishing prohibited within 12 nmi. | June 3, 2013 | June 3, 2016 |
| Kingman Reef No-Take MPA/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/Pelagic | Kingman Reef | 665.599 and 665.799(a)(1) 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | All Take Prohibited | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; all fishing prohibited within 12 nmi. | 2013 | - |

| Name | FEP | Island(s) | 50 CFR /FR /Amendment Reference | Marine Area (km ²) | Fishing Restriction | Goals | Most Recent Evaluation | Review Deadline |
|---|---------------------|----------------|---|--------------------------------|--|--|------------------------|-----------------|
| Guam No Anchor Zone | Mariana Archipelago | Guam | 665.399 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP | 138,992.51 | Anchoring by all fishing vessels ≥ 50 ft. prohibited on the offshore southern banks located in the U.S. EEZ off Guam | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources. | 2004 | - |
| Johnston Atoll Low-Use MPA/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/ Pelagic | Johnston Atoll | 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | Special Permit Only | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; superseded by prohibiting fishing within 12 nm in Am. 2. | 2013 | - |
| Palmyra Atoll Low-Use MPAs/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/ Pelagic | Palmyra Atoll | 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | Special Permit Only | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; superseded by prohibiting fishing within 12 nm in Am. 2. | 2013 | - |
| Wake Island Low-Use MPA/PRI Marine National Monument | PRIA/Pelagic | Wake Island | 69 FR 8336 Coral Reef Ecosystem FMP 78 FR 32996 PRIA FEP Am. 2 | - | Special Permit Only | Minimize adverse human impacts on coral reef resources; superseded by prohibiting fishing within 12 nm in Am. 2. | 2013 | - |

3.6.4 ACTIVITIES AND FACILITIES OCCURRING IN THE WESTERN PACIFIC REGION

In the Western Pacific Region, fisheries compete with other activities for access to and use of fishing grounds. These activities include, but are not limited to, military bases and training activities, commercial shipping, recreational activities, and off-shore energy projects. Between the Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM), the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE), and NMFS, most permits for offshore energy and aquaculture development, dredging, or mooring projects that occur in the waters of the U.S. are captured. Department of Defense (DOD) activities are assessed in environmental impact statements (EIS) on a five-year cycle and are available through the *Federal Register*. Due to the sheer volume of ocean activities and the annual frequency of this report, only major activities on multi-year planning cycles or those permitted by NMFS Sustainable Fisheries Division are tracked in this report. Activities which are no longer reasonably foreseeable or have been replaced with another planning activity are removed from the report, though they may occur in previous reports.

3.6.4.1 AQUACULTURE FACILITIES

Hawaii has one offshore aquaculture facility operating in federal waters that was owned by Ocean Era (formerly Kampachi Farms), but the associated Special Coral Reef Ecosystem Fishing Permit (SCREFP) been transferred to Forever Oceans (see Table 90). Additionally, the [draft Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement \(DPEIS\) for an aquaculture management program in the Pacific Islands](#) was published in 2021. Once the DPEIS is finalized, the Council can amend their FEPs to include aquaculture and create a permitting program for offshore aquaculture. Relatedly, the State of Hawaii is interested in developing a pre-permitted demonstration/pilot area for offshore aquaculture technologies at their NELHA facility.

Table 90. Offshore aquaculture facilities near Hawaii

| Name | Size | Location | Species | Status |
|--|--|---|--------------------------|---|
| Forever Oceans, transferred from Ocean Era (formerly Kampachi Farms) | Shape: Cylindrical Height: 33 ft. Diameter: 39 ft. Volume: 36,600 ft ³ | 5.5 nautical miles (nm) west of Keauhou Bay and 7 nm south-southwest of Kailua Bay, off the west coast of Hawaii Island (19°33' N, 156° 04' W). Mooring scope is 10,400-foot radius. | <i>Seriola rivoliana</i> | On July 6, 2016, NMFS authorized SCREFP for culture and harvest of 30,000 kampachi over two years on July 6, 2016. Array broke loose from mooring and net pen sank in 12,000 feet of water on Dec. 12, 2016. The mooring was redeployed under guidance from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) in late 2018 and stocked with a cohort of 10,000 fish in early 2019. On March 30, 2017, NMFS authorized transfer of the two-year SCREFP from Ocean Era to Forever Oceans. Forever Oceans' most recent SCREFP expired in December 2021, and there are currently no ongoing, in-water operations. |

3.6.4.2 ALTERNATIVE ENERGY FACILITIES

There are no alternative energy facilities in territorial or federal waters, proposed or existing, in American Samoa, Guam, the CNMI, or the PRIA.

Hawaii previously had four proposed wind energy facilities in federal waters through BOEM. On June 24, 2016, BOEM published a “Call for Information and Nominations” to seek additional nominations from companies interested in commercial wind energy leases within the Call Area offshore Hawaii, and pursued public comment on site conditions, resources, and existing uses of the area associated with BOEM’s wind energy development authorization process (BOEM 2017). However, these projects were disengaged in 2018. In December 2020, BOEM put out a new call for recommendations on environmental studies regarding offshore wind facilities, and the Hawaii State Energy Office is facilitating and providing input on studies that could be conducted to mitigate impacts on various resources, including aquatic. In October 2021, the National Renewable Energy Laboratory published a study providing estimates of the Levelized Cost of Energy of offshore wind in the region surrounding Oahu and investigates related topics relevant to planning for offshore wind (Shields et al. 2021). There are several alternative energy projects also being tracked in this report (Table 91).

Table 91. Alternative Energy Facilities and Development in the Western Pacific region

| Name | Type | Location | Impact to Fisheries | Stage of Development | Source |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---|--|
| Makai Ocean Engineering, Inc., Natural Energy Laboratory of Hawaii Authority (NELHA) | 120 kW Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) Test Site/ 1 MW OTEC Test Site | Ke'ahole, North Kona, West Hawaii | Intake | 120 kW OTEC operational; Final EA for 1 MW OTEC Site using existing infrastructure submitted July 2012 and lease negotiations being finalized; HEPA Exemption List memo Dec. 27, 2016. | NELHA Energy Projects Final Environmental Assessment, NELHA, July 2012 |
| Honolulu Sea Water Air Conditioning (SWAC) | SWAC | 4 miles S of Kaka'ako, Oahu | Benthic impacts; intake | USACE Record of Decision (ROD) signed in 2015. In 2018, HSWAC and the State of Hawaii finalized an agreement to provide seawater air conditioning for eight State buildings. Construction was planned to start in late 2019 or, but the operation was shut down in late 2020 due to increasing costs. | Honolulu SWAC Press Room Final Environmental Assessment, June 2014 |
| Marine Corps Base Hawaii Wave Energy Test Site (WETS) | Shallow- and Deep-Water Wave Energy | 1, 2 and 2.5 km N of Mokapu, Oahu | Hazard to navigation | Shallow and deepwater wave energy units operational in mid-2015. In 2021, deployments were planned for the C-Power 2 kW SeaRay, the Oscilla Triton-C, and the Ocean Energy 500 kW OE35. | Final Environmental Assessment, NAVFAC PAC, January 2014 Tethys The Maritime Executive |

3.6.4.3 MILITARY TRAINING AND TESTING ACTIVITIES AND IMPACTS

Major activities occurring in waters of the Western Pacific region by the DOD are summarized in Table 92.

Table 92. DOD major activities in the Western Pacific region

| Action | Description | Phase | Impacts |
|--|--|---|---|
| Guam and CNMI Military Relocation SEIS | Relocate Marines to Guam and build a cantonment/family housing unit on Finegayan/Andersen Air Force Base, a live-fire individual training range complex at the Ritidian Unit of the Guam National Wildlife Refuge. | <p>Record of Decision (ROD) published August 29, 2015 after release of Final SEIS on July 18, 2015 (80 FR 55838).</p> <p>Lawsuit filed for segmentation and range of reasonable alternatives under NEPA. The case was lost in 2018 when a judge from the District Court of CNMI stated that the Guam buildup and proposed training in the CNMI are not connected actions. The case was appealed, and the US Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed the District Court's dismissal in 2020.</p> <p>Marine Corps Base Camp Blaz was activated on October 1, 2020. The US Army Corps of Engineers published a final rule on Oct. 8, 2021, amending regulations to establish a danger zone in the Pacific Ocean adjacent to the Mason Live-Fire Training Range Complex at Camp Blaz.</p> | <p>Surface danger zone established at Ritidian – access restricted during training.</p> <p>Northern District Wastewater Treatment Plant will significantly impact nearshore water quality until it is upgraded.</p> |
| Mariana Islands Training and Testing – Supplemental | The supplement to the 2015 Final EIS/OEIS was prepared to support ongoing and future activities conducted at sea and on Farallon de Medinilla (FDM) beyond 2020. New information, including an updated acoustic effects model, updated marine mammal density data, and evolving and emergent BSIA, were used to update the MITT. | <p>The MITT Final Supplemental EIS/OEIS was released in June 2020. ROD published on August 7, 2020 to continue training and testing activities in the study area (85 FR 47952).</p> <p>Meetings are ongoing to discuss FDM research activities and exercises. Meetings were previously held to discuss the Integrated Natural Resources Management Plan and plans for future surveys around FDM.</p> <p>In July 2020, NMFS implemented regulations regarding to the incidental take of marine mammals in the MITT area (85 FR 46302).</p> | Access and habitat impact similar to previously analyzed activities in the 2015 EIS/OEIS (80 FR 46525). |
| Rim of the Pacific (RIMPAC) Exercise | Multinational, sea control/power projection fleet exercise that has been performed biennially for currently headquartered in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. RIMPAC exercise locations are present throughout the State of Hawaii. | RIMPAC Programmatic EA developed in 2002 and a Supplemental Programmatic EA was finalized in 2006 (71 FR 31170). Biennial exercises continue through the present, with the most recent occurring in August 2020 as an at-sea-only event. RIMPAC will occur again in Summer 2022 and will be more traditional. | <p>Programmatic Environmental Assessment, June 2002</p> <p>U.S. Pacific Fleet</p> |
| Hawaii-Southern California Training and Testing (HSTT) | Increase naval testing and training activities, including the use of active sonar and explosives. | Record of Decision available in December 2018 to conduct training and testing activities as identified in Alternative 1 of the HSTT Final EIS/OEIS published in October 2018 (83 FR 66255). NMFS implemented regulations regarding to the incidental take of marine mammals in the HSTT area in July 2020 (85 FR 41780). | The 2018 HSTT EIS/OEIS predicts impacts to access and habitat impact similar to previous analysis in the 2013 HSTT EIS/OEIS . |

| Action | Description | Phase | Impacts |
|--|---|---|--|
| Long Range Strike Weapon Systems Evaluation Program (WSEP) | Conduct operational evaluations of Long Range Strike weapons and other munitions as part of Long Range Strike WSEP operations at the Pacific Missile Range Facility at Kauai, Hawaii. | Comment period closed Feb. 6, 2017, and final rule on Aug. 22, 2017, for NMFS authorization to take marine mammals incidental to conducting munitions testing for their Long-Range Strike Weapons Systems Evaluation Program (LRS WSEP) over the course of five years, from August 21, 2017 through August 22, 2022 (82 FR 1702 ; 82 FR 39684). | Access – closures during training. Final Environmental Assessment, October 2016 NMFS Biological Opinion, August 2017 |
| Naval Special Operations Training in the State of Hawaii | Small-unit maritime training activities for naval special operations personnel. | Draft EA released in October 2018. Public comment period through Dec. 10, 2018 was extended to Jan. 7, 2019. Final EA released May 2021. | Access. Draft Environmental Assessment, 2018 |
| CNMI Joint Military Training | Establish unit and combined level training ranges on Tinian and Pagan. | Revised Draft EIS was expected in late 2018 or early 2019, but there is no new information on the EIS status. Lawsuit filed for segmentation and range of reasonable alternatives under NEPA. DOJ asked U.S. District Court for the NMI to dismiss the plaintiff's complaint with prejudice to prevent refiling. The case was lost in 2018 after a judge from the district court of CNMI agreed with the military that the Guam buildup and proposed training in the CNMI are not connected actions. The case was appealed, and the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed the District Court's dismissal in 2020. Several meetings have been held with DFW and military officials to discuss relevant natural resource, land use, and social concerns regarding the proposed activities and prompted the reconsideration of proposed alternatives. | Significant access and habitat impacts around Tinian and Pagan. |
| Garapan Anchorage | Military Pre-Positioned Ships anchor and transit. | Expired Memorandum of Understanding with the CNMI Government. As of 2022, a new MOU had not been signed. | Access, invasive species, unmitigated damage to reefs. |
| Farallon de Medinilla | Restricted airspace covering the island to 12 nm radius to conduct military training scenarios using air-to-ground ordnance delivery, naval gunfire, lasers, and special operations training. | Final rule published March 13, 2017, effective June 22, 2017, designating a new area, R-2701A, that surrounds existing R-2701, encompassing airspace between a 3 nm radius and 12 nm radius of FDM (82 FR 13389). Proposed surface danger zone to 12 nmi. Meetings with military officials established that the 12 nm radius is closed when exercises are being conducted, but a 3 nm closure would instead be in effect year-round when exercises are not being conducted. Damage to submerged lands and fisheries to be included within consultation establishing continued US interest in the island and compensation to the CNMI (Report to the President on 902 Consultations 2017) | Access – to fishing grounds and transit to fishing grounds – and damage to submerged lands. |

| Action | Description | Phase | Impacts |
|---|--|---|--|
| Tinian Divert Infrastructure Improvements, Marianas | Improvements to airport and seaport (improving roads, installing fuel line) in CNMI for expanding mission requirements in Western Pacific. | <p>ROD for Tinian Divert Infrastructure Improvements published in 2016 (81 FR 92791). The USAF has published a NOI to prepare a SEIS for the proposed Tinian Divert Infrastructure Improvements. The NOI began the public scoping process for the SEIS, which ended on May 31, 2018. Substantive comments received during the public scoping period were taken into consideration during preparation of the Draft SEIS.</p> <p>The USAF published a Notice of Availability (NOA) for the Draft SEIS on May 17, 2019. The NOA began the public review period for the Draft SEIS, which ended on July 1, 2019. Substantive comments received during the public review period were taken into consideration during preparation of the Final SEIS, which had an NOA published in July 2020 (85 FR 43580).</p> <p>Ground was broken on the Tinian Divert airfield on Feb. 22, 2022, which is expected to be completed by Oct. 9, 2025.</p> | <p>Adverse impacts to EFH minimal; access near Port of Tinian fuel transfer facility affected.</p> <p>Access and transit to fishing grounds.</p> |

In addition to the Department of Defense activities detailed in Table 92, the U.S. military proposed the development of a small arms firing range near the shoreline in northwest Tinian. Several concerns were brought to the military regarding the proposed firing range, including issues with fishing access in the associated spatial closure area, issues with access to dive sites in the area, issues with the increased distance that boaters would have to travel to transit between Tinian and Saipan, and issues regarding boater safety due to having to travel further west from Tinian and losing access to the calmer waters nearshore (Tenorio, pers. comm., April 4, 2022).

In early 2010, the U.S. military began exercises in an area south and southeast of Guam designated W-517. W-517 is a special use airspace (approximately 14,000 nm²) that overlays deep open ocean approximately 50 miles south-southwest of Guam. Exercises in W-517 generally involve live fire and/or pyrotechnics. When an offshore area such as W-517 is in use for training or testing exercises by the U.S. military, a notice to mariners (NTM) is issued, and vessels attempting to use the area are advised to be cautious of objects in the water and other small vessels. This discourages access to virtually all banks south of Guam, including Galvez, Santa Rosa, White Tuna, and other popular fishing areas. NTMs from the military regarding these exercises and the number of days affected for Guam and the CNMI are included in Table 93. The warning areas for which NTMs are issued are presented in Figure 188. Starting in 2022, the Guam DAWR stopped receiving detailed reports about NTMs associated with military training and testing exercises, and data are not presented here after 2021.

Table 93. Notices to mariners for military exercises in the Mariana Archipelago from 2013-2021

| Year | Location | Number of Notices to Mariners Issued | Number of Days Affected |
|-------|----------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 2013 | FDM | 45 | 159 |
| | W-517 | 24 | 54 |
| 2014 | FDM | 38 | 145 |
| | W-517 | 24 | 49 |
| 2015 | FDM | 37 | 164 |
| | W-517 | 33 | 87 |
| 2016 | FDM | 35 | 142 |
| | W-517 | 50 | 139 |
| | W-11 | N/A | N/A |
| | W-12 | N/A | N/A |
| 2017 | FDM | 56 | 191 |
| | W-517 | 46 | 119 |
| | W-12 | 2 | 5 |
| | W-11 | N/A | N/A |
| 2018 | FDM | 38 | 150 |
| | W-517 | 49 | 107 |
| | W-12 | 6 | 13 |
| | W-11 | 1 | 1 |
| 2019 | FDM | 39 | 165 |
| | W-517 | 27 | 65 |
| | W-12 | 3 | 22 |
| | W-11 | 6 | 27 |
| | W-13 | 15 | 37 |
| 2020 | FDM | 17 | 62 |
| | W-517 | 12 | 26 |
| | W-12 | 5 | 10 |
| | W-11 | 3 | 8 |
| | W-13 | 15 | 62 |
| 2021* | FDM | N/A | 49 |
| | W-517 | N/A | 80 |
| | W-12 | N/A | 32 |
| | W-11 | N/A | 41 |
| | W-13 | N/A | 63 |

*Data for 2021 are incomplete. The number of notices to mariners is not able to be reported for 2021 due to changes in how the Department of Defense presents aggregate NTM data. Additionally, military departments did not issue NTMs from August to December of 2021, so the presented data are from January to July 2021.

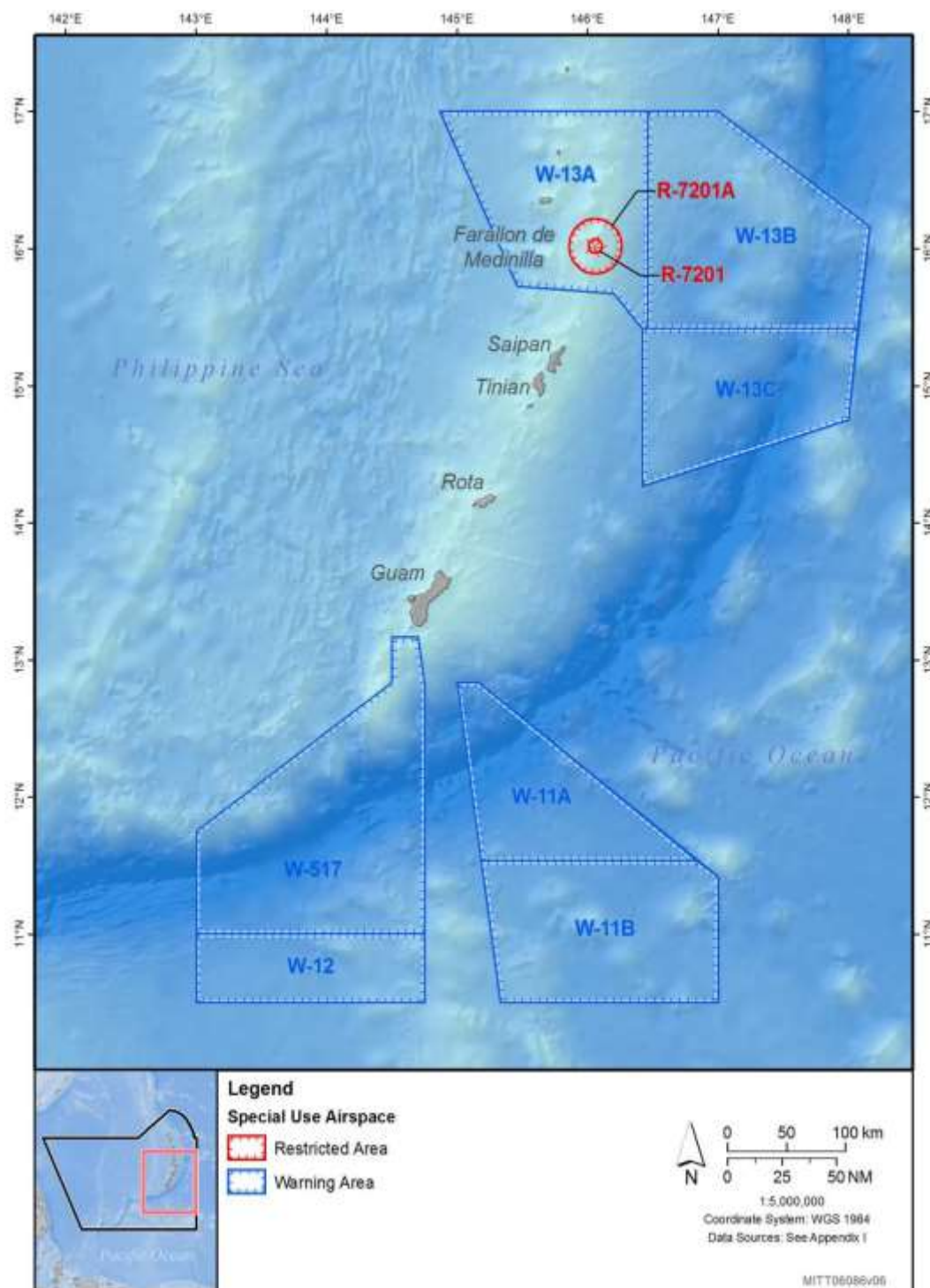


Figure 188. Map showing Warning Areas around the Mariana Archipelago

3.6.5 ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.6.5.1 AMERICAN SAMOA

3.6.5.1.1 Spatial planning Tools

In June 2018, President Trump signed the EO 13840 *Regarding the Ocean Policy to Advance Economic, Security, and Environmental Interests of the United States*, which established a policy focused on public access to marine data and information and requires federal agencies to 1) coordinate activities regarding ocean-related matters and 2) facilitate the coordination and collaboration of ocean-related matters with governments and ocean stakeholders. To that end, the [American Samoa Coastal and Marine Spatial Planning Data Portal](#) was created by [Marine Cadastre](#) to share information and data for coastal and marine spatial planning in American Samoa.

3.6.5.1.2 Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs)

There are usually five FADs active in the waters around American Samoa in recent years: four around Tutuila and one near Manua. In 2021, however, only two fish aggregating devices (FADs) were active, FADs B and E (Figure 189).

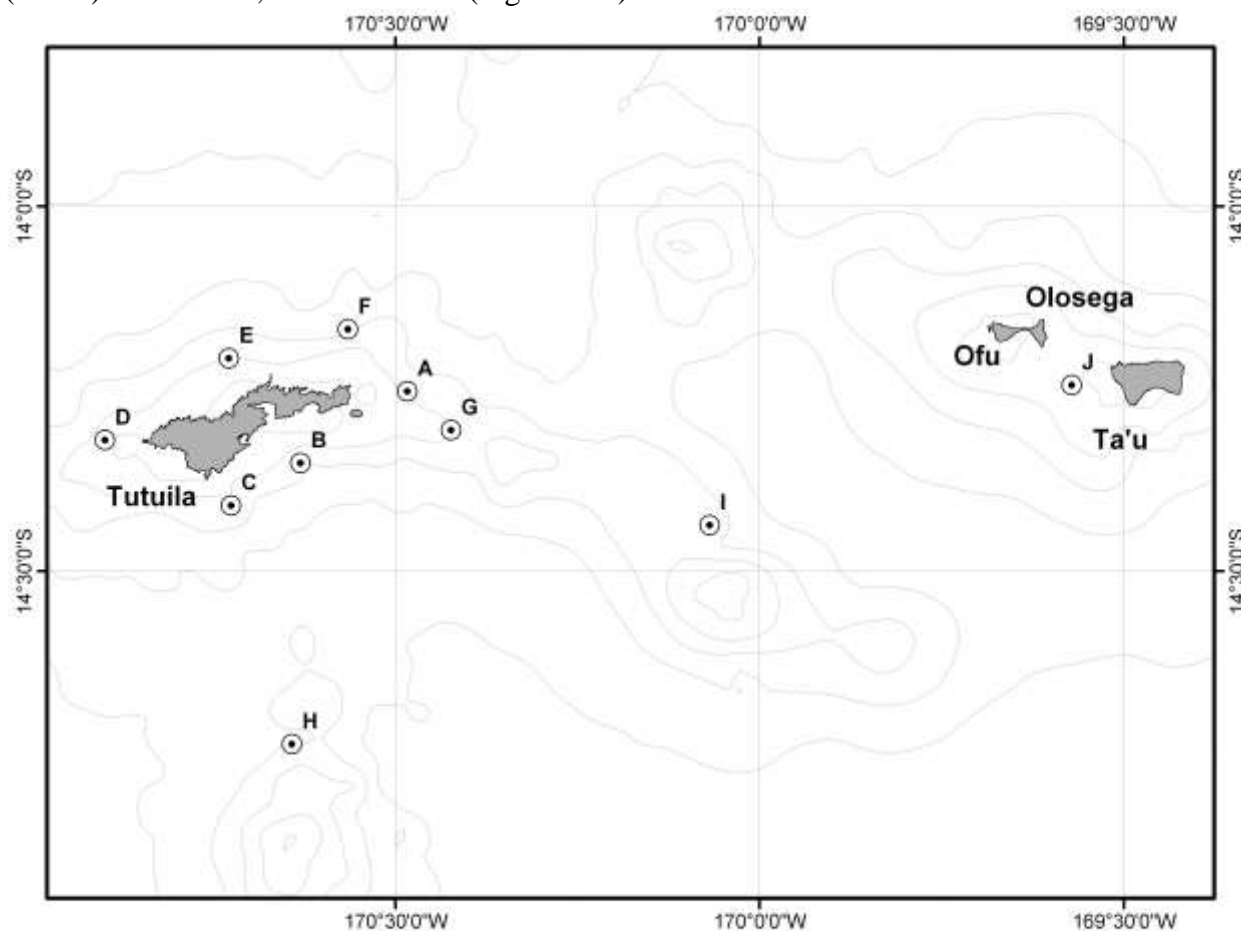


Figure 189. Present or planned locations of FADs in deep water around American Samoa in 2020 (Source: DMWR)

Two other FADs have been lost in recent years, FADs A and C; however, there are plans to deploy FADs C, G, and J in the near future. American Samoa recently received three new FADs sent from New Zealand to replace lost FADs, though the shipment had been delayed due to complications associated with COVID-19 shipping restrictions in Australia and New Zealand. The American Samoa DMWR also resurveyed three potential FAD sites around Tutuila, noting some discrepancies in the depth.

3.6.5.2 CNMI

3.6.5.2.1 Spatial Planning Initiatives

Spatial planning has occurred in CNMI in Saipan Lagoon. CNMI Division of Coastal Resources Management developed the [Saipan Lagoon Use Management Plan](#), which was updated in 2017 and has an associated [mapping tool](#).

3.6.5.2.2 FADs

As of early 2022, there are six FAD systems active within waters of the CNMI: KK, JJ, II, HH, FF, and DE. The CNMI DFW is planning on conducting another site assessment in the near future to verify reports from fishers of missing FADs. Additionally, DFW is currently acquiring materials to construct replacement FADs, including ropes, shackles, swivels, and anchors; procurement of solar navigational lights and buoys is ongoing. DFW plans to secure a FAD deployment contract once all the materials have been obtained and the systems have been prepared. Relatedly, DFW participated in a meeting with fishers to discuss the FAD program and consider options to reconfigure site locations around the islands of Saipan, Tinian, and Rota in the future (Tenorio, pers. comm. April 5, 2022). A map of the FADs is provided in Figure 190.

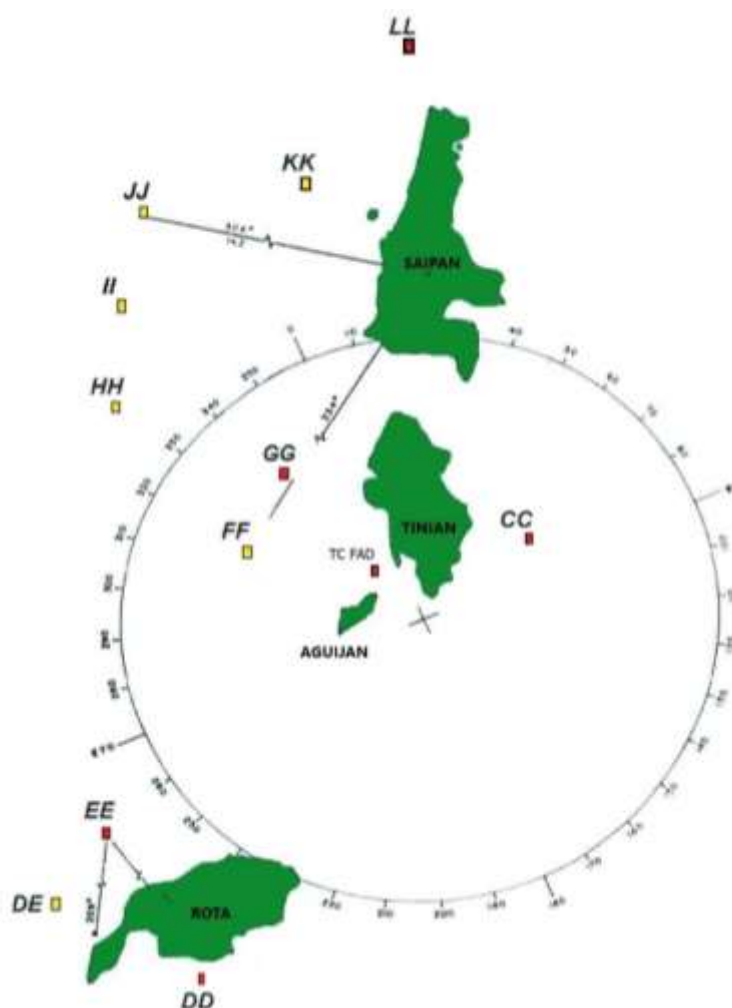


Figure 190. Map of FAD locations around the CNMI. Yellow depicts present FADs, and red depicts missing FADs as of the beginning of April 2022 (Source: DFW)

3.6.5.2.3 Mariana Trench National Marine Sanctuary Nomination – Five-Year Review

On January 21, 2022, the NOAA Office of National Marine Sanctuaries (ONMS) began facilitation of a review of the nomination for the Mariana Trench National Marine Sanctuary (NMS) at the five-year interval by requesting written and oral comments (87 FR 3284). On March 10, 2022, the NOAA OMNS extended the public comment period by an additional 45 days through April 25, 2022 (87 FR13709). ONMS will review information to its 11 evaluation criteria for inclusion in the inventory of nominations, emphasizing any new information about the significance of the area's natural or cultural resources, changes to any threats to these resources, and any updates to the management framework of the area. The original nominating parties for the NMS were Pew Charitable Trusts and Friends of the Marianas Trench, which will also have an opportunity to provide input on relevant information. Following information gathering and internal analysis, NOAA will make a final determination on whether or not the Mariana Trench NMS nomination will remain in the inventory for another five-year period.

The potential development of an NMS for the Mariana Trench is an issue of debate for residents of the Mariana Archipelago. The Marianas Trench Marine National Monument (MTMNM)

already exists in the area, and the creation of an NMS would have the potential to further restrict fishing access or limit the potential for fisheries development within the EEZ around the CNMI. Regarding the nomination of the Mariana Trench NMS, concerns have been raised about the potential to expand the NMS beyond the boundaries of the MTMNM, the expansion of fishing restrictions to the water column within the Trench Unit of the MTMNM, and the current lack of community support and public confusion surrounding the nomination letter submitted by Friends of the Marianas Trench (Tenorio, pers. comm., April 4, 2022)

3.6.5.3 GUAM

3.6.5.3.1 FADs

In Guam, as of 2020, there were five active FADs: Number 2, Umatac, Facpi 2, Cocos, and Agat Bay (Figure 191). DAWR is also in possession of three other FADs to be deployed in the near future in addition to a community-based FAD via the GFCA. These FADs will be deployed once the deployment contract is finalized. DAWR is also planning to experiment with two new FAD designs as well as procure three FADs under the existing design pending a purchase order from the Guam Department of Agriculture.

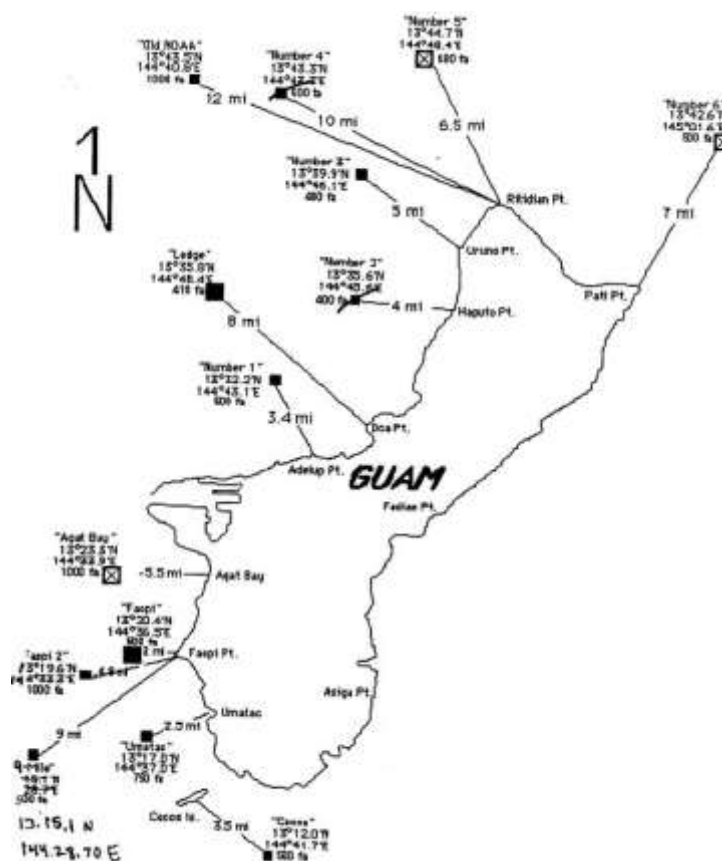


Figure 191. Map of FAD locations around Guam (Source: DAWR)

3.6.5.4 HAWAII

3.6.5.4.1 Spatial Planning Initiatives

The State of Hawaii has several initiatives ongoing, including its [30x30 Initiative](#) and its [Ocean Resource Management Plan](#), which was most recently updated in 2020 (Hawaii Office of

Planning 2020). Interested parties are encouraged to provide input to and track the progress of these plans.

3.6.5.4.2 Bottomfish Restricted Fishing Areas (BRFAs)

In 1997, in response to a federal stock assessment indicating that certain species of the MHI bottomfish stock complex were in danger of being overfished, DAR developed a bottomfish management plan, which included the creation of 19 bottomfish restricted fishing areas (BRFAs) where bottomfish fishing was prohibited. These BRFAs were enacted in 1998. The MHI BRFAs are situated in both State and federal waters. Upon review in 2005, it was determined that the BRFA system did not protect an adequate amount of preferred habitat for bottomfish, so a new system was created in 2007 with 12 BRFAs (Figure 192) with the objective of reducing fishing mortality of MHI bottomfish stocks, rebuilding bottomfish populations on habitats within the BRFAs, and improving bottomfish populations in adjacent fishing areas (Drazen et al. 2014). In 2019, four of the 12 BRFAs were opened: BRFA C (Poipu, Kauai), BRFA F (Penguin Banks), BRFA J (Hana, Maui), and BRFA L (Leleiwi, Hawaii Island) (Figure 192).

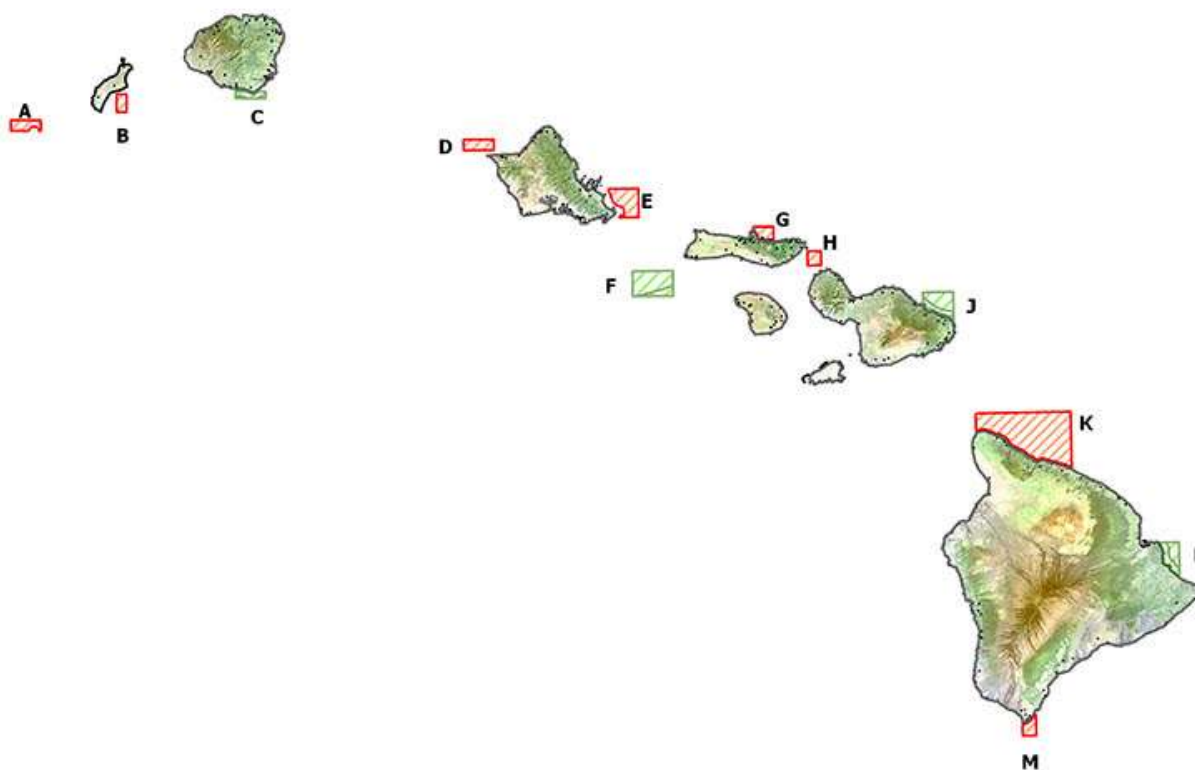


Figure 192. Map of the 12 BRFAs around the MHI; green boxes indicate those areas were opened to bottomfish fishing in 2019 and red boxes indicate areas that remained closed to bottomfish fishing at this time. All BRFAs are now open (from DAR 2021)

On February 25, 2022, the Hawaii Board of Land and Natural Resources (BLNR) approved the reopening of all BRFAs such that registered bottomfish vessels are now allowed to fish for Deep-7 bottomfish in all previously closed BRFAs. During deliberations, representatives from DAR suggested that, because the Deep-7 bottomfish complex is being fished at sustainable levels according to the 2021 stock assessment update (Syslo et al. 2021), DAR is comfortable in taking

an adaptive management approach to co-management of the Hawaii bottomfish fishery by opening the BRFA and relying on other existing conservation and management measures to sustain the fishery.

3.6.5.4.3 FADs

The State of Hawaii FAD program is run by the Hawaii Institute of Marine Biology, SOEST, University of Hawaii in cooperation with DAR. FADs attract schools of tuna, mahimahi, ono, billfish, and other pelagic fishes so that fisher can easily locate and catch these species, as it is known that pelagic fish tend to aggregate around floating objects (Hawaii Sea Grant). The FADs utilized around the MHI are typically surface FADs anchored using a catenary mooring method and have an average life expectancy of three to four years (Figure 193; Hawaii Sea Grant). There are currently 54 FADs monitored and maintained throughout the MHI, with 17 around the Big Island (Figure 194), 14 around Maui (Figure 195), 14 around Oahu (Figure 196), and nine around Kauai (Figure 197). Over the course 2021, there were 13 FADs reported as missing, four FADs recovered, and seven deployed. As of March 22, 2022, two of the 17 FADs around the Big Island, six of the 14 FADs around Maui, eight of the 14 FADs around Oahu, and four of the nine FADs around Kauai were not active (Figure 194 through Figure 197). Additionally, there were two FADs, one near Maui and the other near the Big Island, that were discontinued.

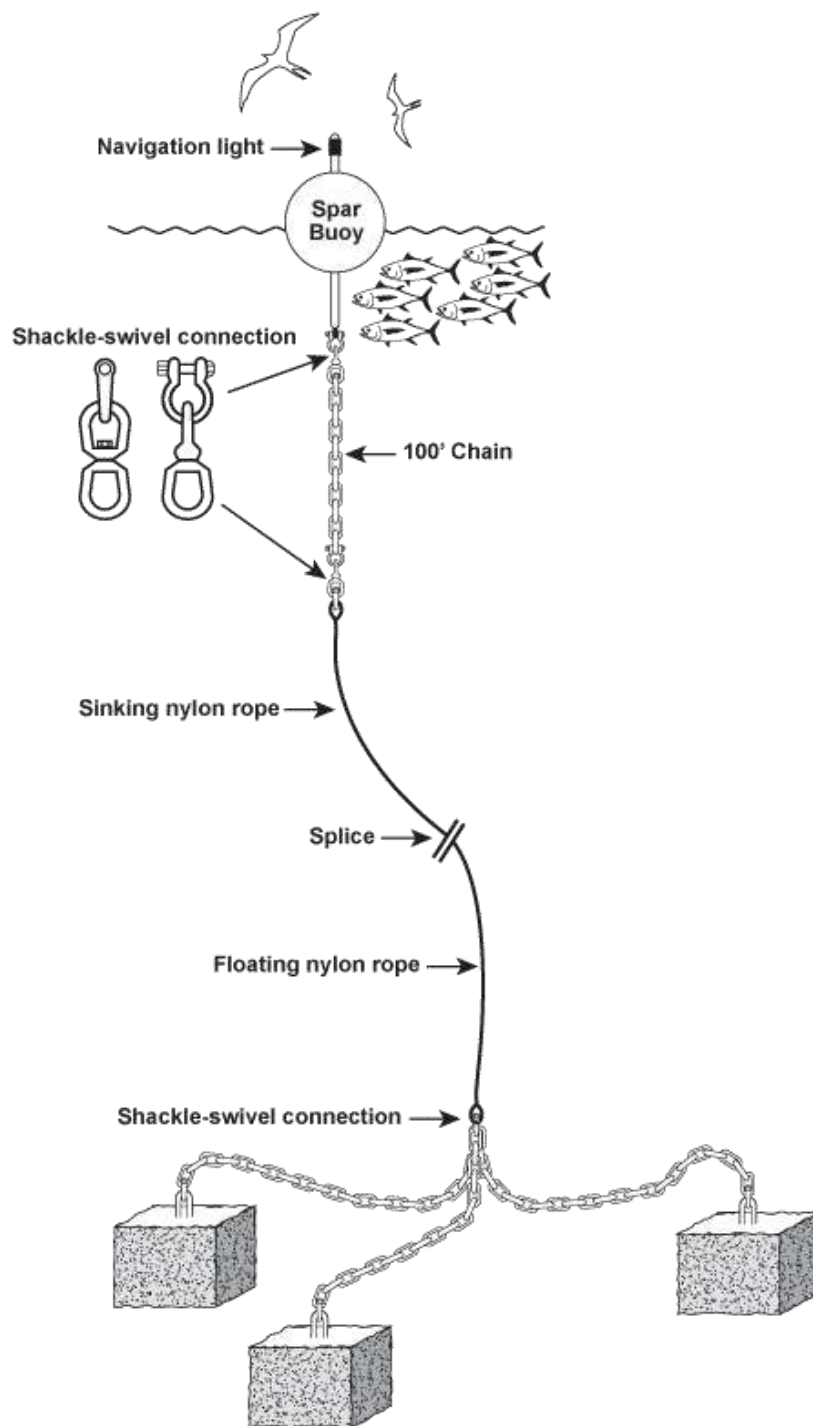


Figure 193. Diagram of the typical arrangement of FADs around the MHI (from Hawaii Sea Grant)

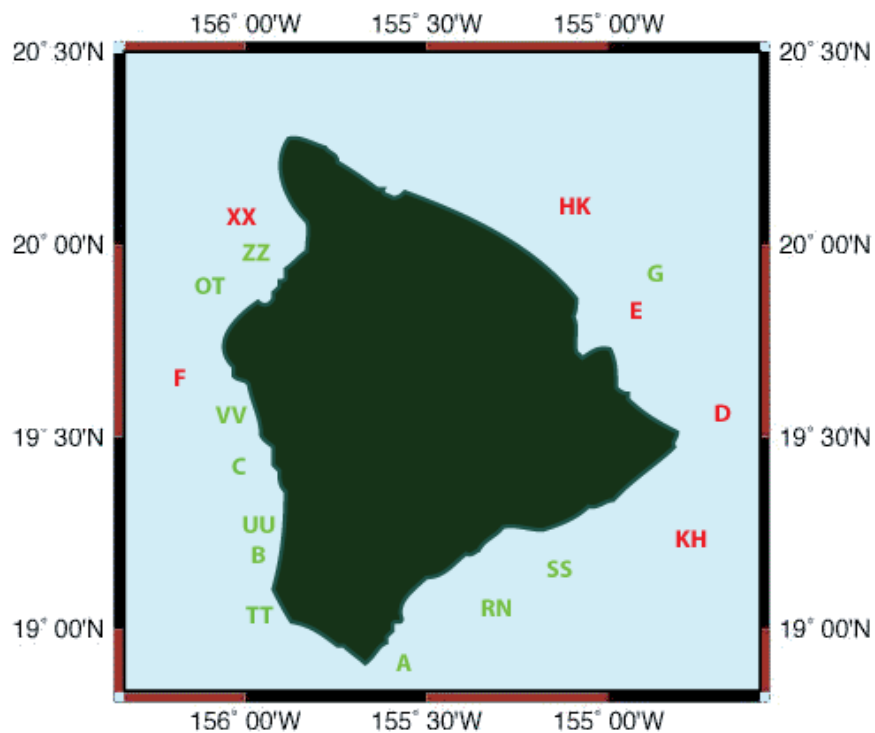


Figure 194. Map of FADs in the waters around the Big Island; red letters indicate a FAD that is known to be missing, and green letters indicate an active FAD (as of March 22, 2022, from Hawaii Sea Grant)

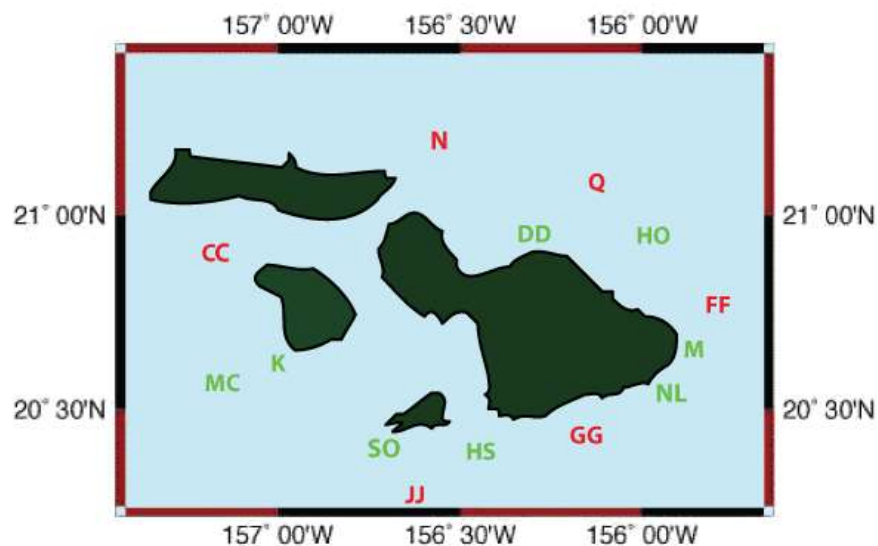


Figure 195. Map of FADs in the waters around Maui; red letters indicate a FAD that is known to be missing, and green letters indicate an active FAD (as of March 22, 2022, from Hawaii Sea Grant)

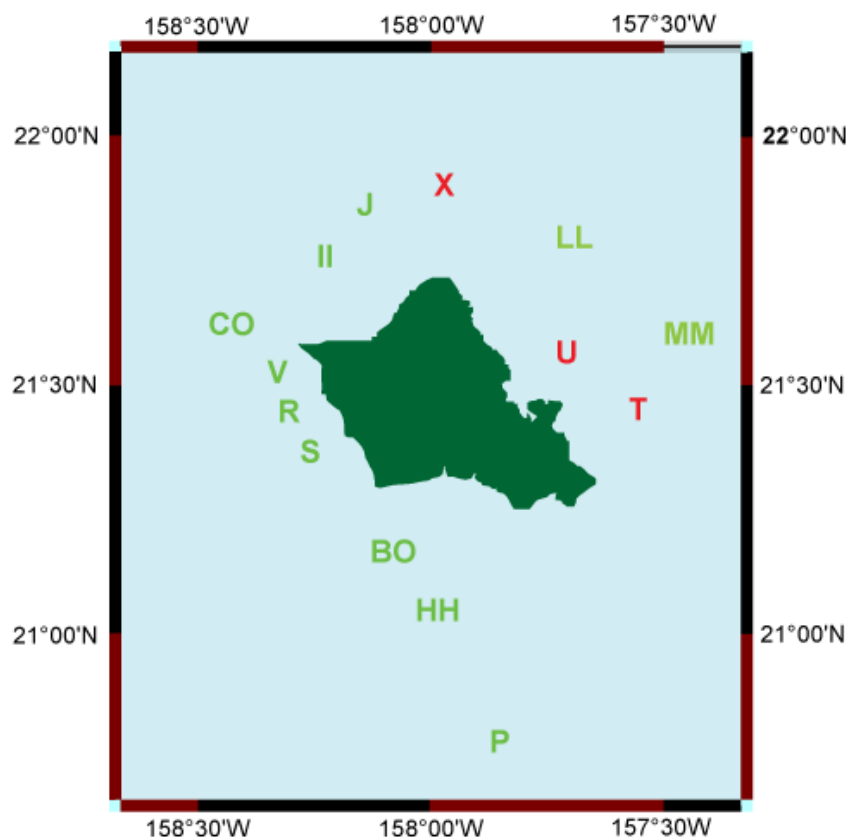


Figure 196. Map of FADs in the waters around Oahu; red letters indicate a FAD that is known to be missing, and green letters indicate an active FAD (as of March 22, 2022, from Hawaii Sea Grant)

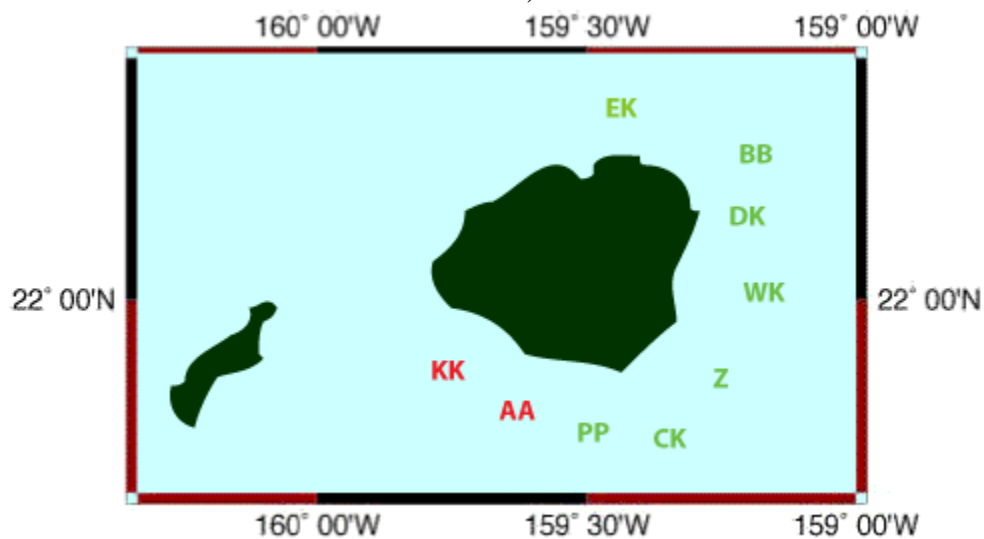


Figure 197. Map of FADs in the waters around Kauai; red letters indicate a FAD that is known to be missing, and green letters indicate an active FAD that has been recently deployed (as of March 22, 2022, from Hawaii Sea Grant)

4 DATA INTEGRATION

This chapter intends to advance ecosystem-based fishery management of Western Pacific pelagic fisheries by examining the fisheries in the context of marine ecosystems. The Council convened a two-day workshop on November 30 to December 1, 2016, to identify content for this chapter. The pelagic fisheries group suggested this chapter focus on three topical issues: 1) bycatch (with a focus on protected species factors that may influence interaction rates; 2) a socioeconomics section examining fishery performance in two areas: attrition in American Samoa longline fleet and the decline of shallow-set longline swordfish fishery; and 3) the projected decrease in oceanic productivity with implications for management issues, including a discussion of factors influencing significant changes in the CPUE of target species. The chapter used to include a section on influences of black-footed albatross interaction rates in the Hawaii longline fishery, but this has since been moved to the Protected Species section of the report and replaced with a summary of the Ecosystem-Based Fisheries Management project for impact assessments of protected species. As of the 2019 report, abstracts from recent publications relevant to data integration for pelagic fisheries are included in this chapter.

In 2019, the Pelagic Fishery Ecosystem Plan Team recommended work items for this chapter, such as directing Council staff and PIRO Sustainable Fisheries Division (SFD) to update the SAFE report data integration section with regularity and to include notable changes or issues pertinent to the FEP as a guide for adaptive management. The Plan Team also noted that Council staff should work with PIRO SFD to review thematic priorities that were previously identified in the Data Integration Workshop going forward. These work items were briefly discussed at the 2020 Pelagic Fishery Ecosystem Plan Team meeting to better determine a path forward, but at the 2021 Plan Team meeting, the efforts were discontinued. This section will continue to be updated by Council staff as resources and information allow.

4.1 ECOSYSTEM-BASED FISHERIES MANAGEMENT PROJECT FOR PROTECTED SPECIES IMPACTS ASSESSMENT FOR HAWAII AND AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE FISHERIES

In response to olive ridley turtle interaction trends observed in the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery (see Section 3.3.2.3) the Council's Protected Species Advisory Committee at its March 2017 meeting recommended evaluation of the increasing trend in conjunction with the previously recommended effort to evaluate ecosystem factors influencing bycatch in the longline fishery. Following this recommendation, the Council and NMFS implemented the ecosystem-based fisheries management (EBFM) project for protected species impacts assessment for the Hawaii and American Samoa longline fishery. The project is a collaboration between PIFSC, Council, PIRO and University of Florida.

In the first year of the initiative, the team developed methodologies to associate the spatiotemporal patterns of olive ridley turtle interactions with the Hawaii deep-set fishery primarily targeting bigeye tuna with static and dynamic environmental characteristics. However, the project quickly expanded looking not only across marine turtle species within the fisheries but across taxa as well. The project resulted in the development of a data compilation workflow linking the observer dataset with NOAA and other related oceanographic data products for the Hawaii deep-set observer data set as well as the shallow-set observer data. The resulting data sets were used to develop an Ensemble Random Forest model (Siders et al. 2020) to (i) predict the

probability of fishery interactions with protected species including target and non-target catch; (ii) defining critical areas of interaction using quantile contouring over a range of temporal time frames; (iii) assessed the number of sets and interactions within the contours; and (iv) developing covariate response curves using Accumulated Local Effects.

The team summarized the first year's effort into a publication in the Endangered Species Research journal. The primary purposes of this publication were to test the model performance of the developed Ensemble Random Forests model against other existing approaches to handle rare events (e.g., bycatch), to demonstrate its performance on case studies of ESA-listed and protected species, and to Ensemble Random Forests as an intuitive extension of the Random Forest algorithm to handle rare event bias. Through simulation, the team showed Ensemble Random Forests outperforms Random Forest with and without down-sampling as well as the synthetic minority over-sampling technique from highly class imbalanced to balanced datasets. The team found spatial covariance greatly impacts Ensemble Random Forests perceived performance as shown through simulation and case studies. For cases studies from the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery, giant manta ray (*Mobula birostris* syn. *Manta birostris*) and scalloped hammerhead (*Sphyrna lewini*) had high spatial covariance in their presences and high model test performance while false killer whale (*Pseudorca crassidens*) had low spatial covariance and low model test performance. Overall, the team found Ensemble Random Forests have four advantages: 1) reduced successive partitioning effects; 2) prediction uncertainty propagation; 3) better accounting of interacting variables through balancing; and 4) minimization of false positives as the majority of Random Forest within the ensemble vote correctly. Regarding the ESA-listed and protected species case studies, the team found the giant manta ray's highest probability of interaction with the Hawaii deep-set fishery was concentrated around the main Hawaiian islands as well as between 170-160°W and 10-15°N, the scalloped hammerhead's probability of interaction was more diffuse but still concentrated around the main Hawaiian islands as well as throughout 170-155°W and 10-17°N, and the false killer whale's probability of interaction was the most diffuse but highest northeast of the main Hawaiian islands.

In 2020, the team conducted an evaluation of the experimental oceanographic TurtleWatch product (Siders et al. 2023). The team focused on the 1°C band originally set by Howell et al. (2008) and five aspects of the TurtleWatch product: (i) does the TurtleWatch 17.5-18.5°C band hold up with additional satellite telemetry information on loggerhead sea turtle locations; (ii) when are loggerhead sea turtles in the TurtleWatch 17.5-18.5°C band over the course of a year; (iii) when do the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery (SSLL) locations and the loggerhead sea turtle locations overlap; (iv) do fisher avoid the band as the hard cap of loggerhead sea turtle fishery interactions is approached. To answer these questions, the team used an expanded set of the satellite telemetry locations of tagged loggerhead sea turtles from the original analysis and PIRO Observer Program fisheries-dependent monitoring SSLL set locations. Using the oceanographic extraction subroutine developed in previous EBFM activities, the team matched sea surface temperature (SST) with the tag and fishery locations.

(i & ii) The team found that the original band holds up well with additional data for locations of fishery interactions in quarter 1 (January–March) and quarter 4 (October–December) (Figure 198). In quarter 1, tagged turtles were in colder water than the TurtleWatch band (SST < 17.5°C). In quarter 2, tagged turtles were in the TurtleWatch band while quarter 3 they were warmer than the band (SST > 18.5°C). In quarter 4, the tagged turtles, fishing locations, and interactions all strongly overlapped with the TurtleWatch band (Figure 198).

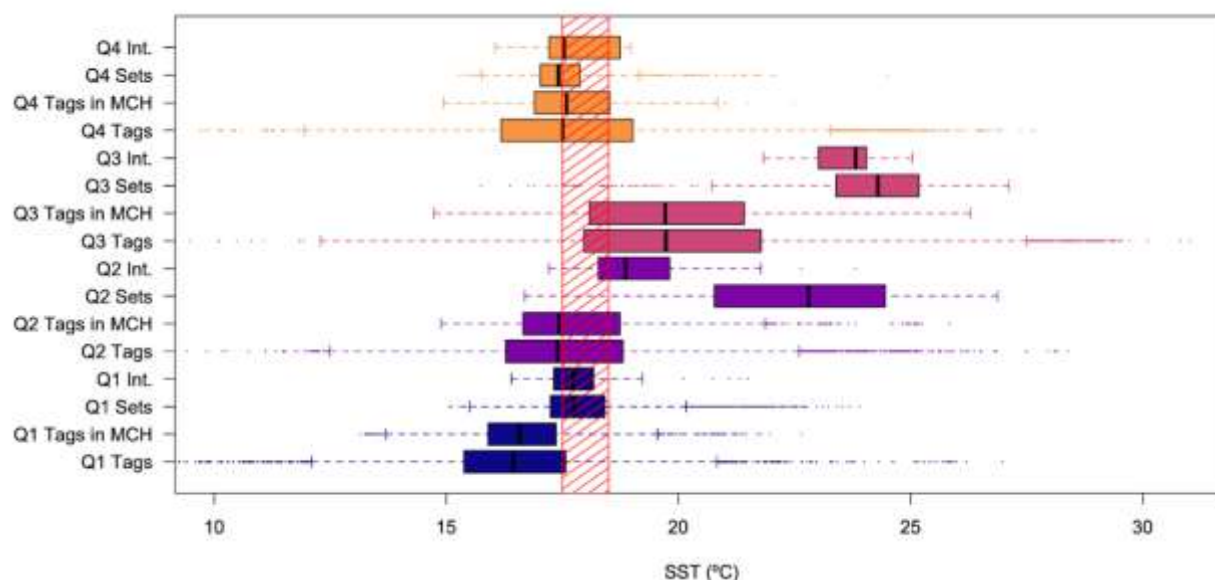


Figure 198. Quarterly sea surface temperature distribution of telemetered sea turtles (Tags), of telemetered sea turtles in the minimum convex hull of the Hawaii shallow-set longline sets (Tags in MCH), the shallow-set fishery sets (Sets), and the interactions between loggerheads and the shallow-set fishery (Interactions) relative to the 1° TurtleWatch band (17.5-18.5°C), the red hash.

(iii) As the vast majority of these turtles were released in the western Pacific, the number of telemetry locations in the area of the shallow-set fishery peaked at about a third of all locations in a given quarter. For each quarter, we visualized and calculated the overlap between the turtle location for each quarter (Figure 198). The team showed that in the quarters with more loggerhead interactions (quarters 1 and 4), there is little avoidance of the TurtleWatch band and many of the interactions come from within the band. Interestingly, sets in quarter 4 are likely to get more turtles per set than quarter 1. Sets with interactions in quarter 2 come from early in the quarter before the fishery has pushed to warmer SST. Overall, the team found that the overlap between the fishery and the turtles is driven by changing in latitudes over the course of the year (Figure 199). In quarter 1 and quarter 4, both the turtles and the fishery are in the same latitudinal band. In quarter 2, the fishery moves farther south (lower latitudes) while the turtles move farther north over quarter 2 and 3. In quarter 3, the fishery pushes north again and by quarter 4 ends up overlapping with the turtle locations again.

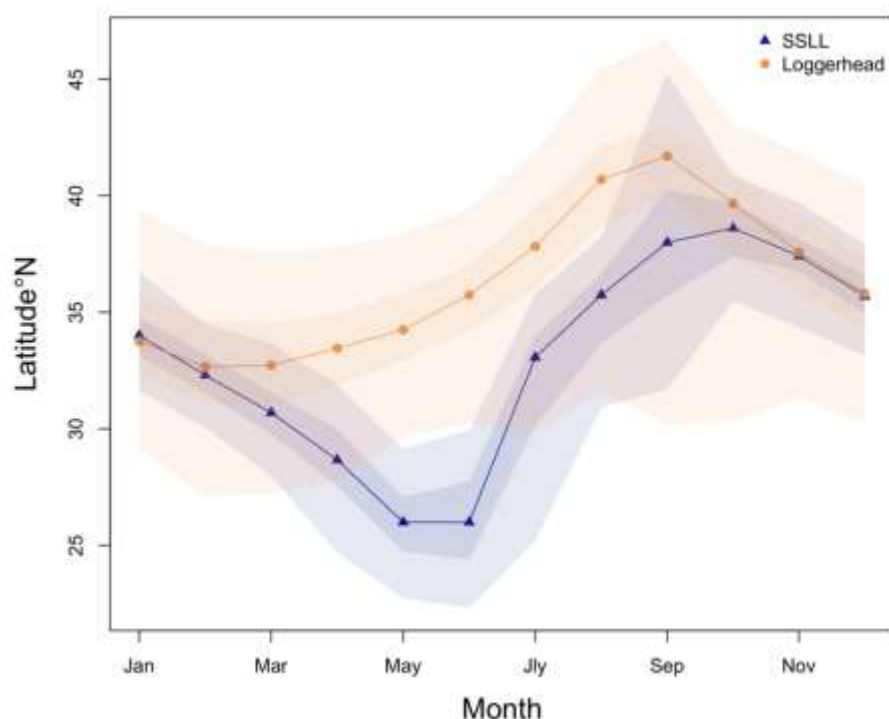


Figure 199. Latitudinal overlap between the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery (blue triangles) and the loggerhead locations (orange circles). The line is the mean, the darker shading is the 50%, and the lighter shading is the 95%.

(iv) The team evaluated some aspects of fisher behavior garnered from the fishery locations only. The mean distance to the TurtleWatch band was calculated and whether fishers were avoiding the band as the percent of the loggerhead hard cap was filled was assessed. The team saw no indication of avoidance behavior except in 2018, when the hard cap was reached in early quarter 2, rather than in late quarter 1 as in other years, and the majority of the fishery had moved to warmer SSTs than the turtles frequent.

Overall, the team concluded that the TurtleWatch experimental product was still valid for quarters 1 and 4 for the location of shallow-set fishery interactions with loggerhead sea turtles. The location of tagged sea turtles in quarter 1 suggests that if fishers were to set in cooler waters than they do now, more interactions could occur as the overlap with the distribution of loggerhead sea turtles increases. Additionally, quarter 4 had the highest interaction rates but some of the lowest fishing effort. The team noted that if effort were to increase in quarter 4, there is likely to be an increase in loggerhead sea turtle interactions. Quarter 2 and 3 offer the least chance of encountering loggerhead sea turtles. From the historic fishing location information, fishers did not appear to use the TurtleWatch product to avoid loggerhead sea turtle interactions. Further analysis following the 2019 regulatory change from the fishery hard cap to trip interaction limits (see Section 3.3.1.3.2) will offer an opportunity to explore the change in fisher behavior.

In November 2022, the Council, PIFSC and the University of Florida convened a workshop with representatives from the Hawaii Longline Association (HLA), Hawaii SSLL fishery, and PIRO to discuss a case study evaluating the effects of spatial decision making by fishery participants

on the protected species interactions and catch of target species.⁸ The case study focused on scenarios of SSL fishers avoiding loggerhead sea turtles in the first or fourth quarter of the year either by using the TurtleWatch product (based on 17.5–18.5°C sea surface temperature band) or areas identified by the Protected Species Ensemble Random Forests (PSERF) model based on the probability of loggerhead interactions. The workshop provided an overview of the spatial tool developed to do the evaluation, highlighted where industry feedback from an initial session with HLA/SSL participants was used in the model, and presented the evaluation results.

The spatial tool consisted of four submodels: 1) PSERF models of the probability of interactions with loggerhead and leatherback sea turtles with the SSL fishery; 2) a spatiotemporal model of fishery effort; 3) a spatiotemporal model of fishery Swordfish catch-per-unit-effort (CPUE); 4) an avoidance area design model using the TurtleWatch product or the PSERF models' outputs. These were then used to predict the fishery effort, CPUE, protected species interaction distribution, and avoidance areas for the months in quarters 1 and 4 in 2019–2021. A fifth submodel redistributed fishing effort out of avoidance areas.

The model results were summarized as the amount of effort that would need to avoid one of the spatial avoidance areas, the percent change in swordfish catch, the change in the number of loggerhead sea turtle interactions, and the change in the number of leatherback sea turtle interactions from avoidance. The tool identified that no matter how the avoidance area was defined, there was a strong chance that avoiding loggerhead interactions by the SSL fishery would result in increasing the leatherback interactions in at least one of the months in quarters 1 and 4. The TurtleWatch-defined avoidance area resulted in the highest increase in leatherback interactions per loggerhead interaction avoided.

Workshop participants discussed the results of the submodels of the spatial tool and concluded that most of the submodels did a decent job of capturing the environmental covariates important for determining where fishing effort, CPUE, and protected species interactions occurred. As the models did not account for size of swordfish in the catch and other market drivers (secondary species, spatial variation in catch quality, competition), participants discussed at length how market forces influence the decision making of SSL fishers. As the spatial tool identified a strong inverse tradeoff between avoiding loggerhead interactions and increasing leatherback interactions, participants discussed alternative solutions to avoiding protected species interactions. These encompassed discussions on vessel-to-vessel communication and information sharing amongst the fleet on interaction hotspots, training of new fishery participants on best practices to avoid protected species, and dissemination of avoidance areas or model-generated protected species hotspots to vessels at sea. Further discussions centered on what incentivizes fishers with a focus on how the market and market forces interact with swordfish behavior to constrain fishers' spatial and temporal decision making. The rest of the discussions considered applications of the spatial tool to the Hawaii deep-set longline (DSL) fishery, the time and information needed to apply the tool, and potential species or spatial scenarios to test.

⁸ Report of the Ecosystem Based Fishery Management Workshop: Exploring the effect of spatial decision making by fishers in the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery. Available online at: <https://www.wpcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/09.A1-EBFM-SSL-Turtle-Model-Workshop-Report.pdf>.

4.2 ATTRITION IN LONGLINE FLEETS

4.2.1 AMERICAN SAMOA LONGLINE

A downward trend of economic returns to the American Samoa longline fishery for the period of 2007 to 2013 has been observed in a recent economic study (Pan et al. 2017). This decline continues based on results from ongoing Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC) Socioeconomics Program economic data collection and performance indicator monitoring programs. Based on data from a 2009 cost-earnings study on the fishery researchers found that the economic performance of the American Samoa longline fleet is highly sensitive to changes in albacore price, fuel prices, and the CPUE of albacore (Pan et al. 2017). The fishery was hit hard in 2013, when all three of these elements trended in the wrong direction, resulting in negative impacts to profit (Pan 2015). In early 2014, the majority of vessels in the American Samoa longline fleet were tied up at the docks in Pago Pago, and according to the *Samoa News*, “For Sale” signs had been posted on close to 20 (of the 22) active vessels⁹.

Based on the analyses, the situation in 2013 was clearly associated with poor economic performance resulting from: (a) a continuous decline in albacore CPUE, (b) increasing fuel price, (c) a sharp drop in market prices for albacore, and (d) a baseline of limited profit margins resulting from a long term downward trend of net return since 2007 (Pan 2015). The previous cost-earnings study indicated that the fleet in 2009 operations was barely profitable where the albacore CPUE was at 14.8 fish per 1,000 hooks, the fuel price was at \$2.53 (adjusted to 2013 value), and the market price for the albacore species was \$1.00/lb. (\$2,200 per mt). However, in 2013, the CPUE for albacore fell to 11.9 fish per 1,000 hooks (versus 14.8 in 2009) and the fuel price increased to \$3.20 per gallon (versus \$2.53 in 2009, adjusted to 2013 value). The albacore price in 2013 was similar to the 2009 level but it was a sharp drop compared to the price of \$1.47/lb. in the previous year (2012). Thus, these changes yielded extensive losses across the fleet in 2013.

It is worth noting that the continuing decline of the American Samoa longline fishery during this period was not an isolated event but was a part of a region-wide economic collapse of the South Pacific albacore fishery. According to a report of the SPC Fisheries Newsletter #142 (September to December 2013), domestic fishing fleets targeting primarily albacore in Pacific Island Countries and Territories (PICTs) had reported difficulties in maintaining profitability in recent years, probably facing the challenges in fuel price rise, and albacore CPUE and price decline¹⁰. Ongoing PIFSC Socioeconomics Program economic monitoring programs will allow researchers to provide timely updates on future changes in economic performance for the American Samoa longline fishery.

4.2.2 HAWAII LONGLINE: SHALLOW-SET FISHERY

Gear configuration for Hawaii longline vessels is rather flexible as operations can easily be adjusted to change target species between swordfish or tuna fishing trips. Tuna fishing (deep-set fishery) has shown steady increases in both effort (hooks) and catch over the past two decades, while swordfish fishing (shallow-set fishery) has experienced a steady downward trend during

⁹ <http://www.samoanews.com/tri-marine-says-local-longline-fleet-vital-economy>

¹⁰ <http://www.spc.int/coastfish/publications/bulletins/419-spc-fisheries-newsletter-142.html>

the same period (Pan 2014). Since its closure and reopening in the early 2000s, the shallow set fishery has yet to recover even halfway to levels during its historical peak in the early 1990s.

Diminishing economic performance of shallow-set fishing may have contributed to the overall decline of the shallow set fishery, in addition to regulatory measures in controlling sea turtle interactions within the fishery. The Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center (PIFSC) Socioeconomics Program economic data collection has documented declining net returns to the fishery during the period of 2005-2016, while the average net revenue for tuna trips has generally increased over the same period of time (Pan 2018).

Trends in swordfish and tuna trip costs have been similar over the years; however, swordfish trip revenues have fluctuated widely over the years unlike the relatively steady increase in tuna trip revenue over time (see Chapter 2). As a result, the average net revenue of swordfish trips moved up and down during 2005 to 2014. Prior to 2008, the average net revenue of a tuna trip was less than 50% of the average net revenue of a swordfish trip. In 2014, the level of the average tuna trip net revenue, \$32,100, was much closer to the level of the average swordfish trip net revenue, \$33,446. Yet, a swordfish trip usually lasts longer than a tuna trip, so the average net returns per day at sea for a swordfish trip are lower than for a tuna trip. Thus, tuna fishing seems to have an increasing comparative advantage over swordfish fishing in terms of trip-level economic returns. Without improved economic performance for swordfish fishing, there may not be much economic incentive to increase fishing effort for swordfish in the future.

Economic performance of longline fishing is the combined effect of many factors, but the key factors that determine the net revenue of Hawaii longline fishing may include: a) prices of target species, b) CPUE of the target species, c) fuel prices, and d) regulatory effects.

4.2.2.1 WEAKENED SWORDFISH MARKET

The weakened swordfish market has been a disincentive for Hawaii fishermen to re-engage in the swordfish fishery in recent years. Unlike bigeye tuna, which is mainly consumed in Hawaii's local market, the majority of the swordfish landed in Hawaii and used to be exported to the U.S. mainland where it competed with imports from other nations and the Atlantic. Concern over mercury contamination could have possibly contributed to decreased demand as well. In early 1990, bigeye and swordfish ex-vessel prices in the Hawaii market were similar at around \$4.50 per pound. From 1994 to 2009, swordfish prices declined while bigeye prices have held relatively stable. In recent years, the price differential between these two species has increased. For example, in 2008 the ex-vessel price of bigeye tuna was \$4.12 per pound while the ex-vessel price of swordfish was only \$2.08 per pound.

4.2.2.2 CPUE DECLINES FOR SWORDFISH TRIPS

Swordfish CPUE was high at the beginning of the time series, being above 15 fish per 1,000 hooks in the years of 2005, 2006, and 2007. It has decreased since 2007, dropping to its lowest in 2010 with only 10 fish per 1,000 hooks. The swordfish CPUE has slightly increased and then remained unchanged in recent years. Bigeye CPUE, on the other hand, shows a different trend; it was quite steady from 2005 to 2012, and has increased continuously in the last four years from 3.8 fish per 1,000 hooks in 2012 to approximately 4.5 fish per 1,000 hooks in 2015.

4.2.2.3 FUEL PRICES

While the two types of fisheries face the same fuel market, trip costs, revenues, and subsequent net revenues can vary across the deep-set and shallow-set fisheries. As previously stated, PIFSC

Socioeconomics Program economic data collection programs have documented declining net returns to the swordfish fishery during the period from 2005 to 2014, while the average net revenue for tuna trips has generally increased over the same period of time (Pan 2018).

4.2.2.4 SUDDEN CLOSURES DURING FISHING SEASON

Due to hitting the sea turtle caps, the fishery experienced closures in 2006 and 2011, respectively. The sudden closures had interrupted the normal fishing trip cycle and might have resulted in economic loss to the fishermen as a fishing trip had to be ended no matter if the catch was fully loaded as planned. In the case of 2006, the closure brought back all the swordfish fishing vessels to port, flooding the swordfish market, which in turn constrained air shipping capacity and limited local consumption.

4.2.3 FACTORS AFFECTING CPUE OF TARGET SPECIES

The work of PIFSC researchers in spatial and temporal changes in Hawaii longline fishery catch and their potential for forecasting future fishery performance are excerpted below from the briefing document provided for the 124th meeting of the Council's Scientific and Statistical Committee (SSC). Authors include Phoebe Woodworth-Jefcoats, Johanna Wren, Jeff Drazen and Jeff Polovina¹¹. Additional explanatory text was provided by Phoebe Woodworth-Jefcoats (pers. comm.)

A comprehensive examination of the spatial and temporal trends in the Hawaii-based longline fishery over the past 20 years was conducted using three fisheries-dependent data sets: logbook (1995-2016), observer (2006-2016), and dealer (2000-2016) data. Logbook data completed by fishermen provides catch, effort, and catch location data of landed species for all vessels in the fleet, while observer data provides lengths of every third fish caught, including discards, but only ~20% of vessels have an observer on board. Dealer data provides weight of all fish sold at the Honolulu Fish Auction and can be matched with logbook data for each vessel trip.

¹¹ Factors behind the recent rise in bigeye CPUE in the Hawaii longline fishery. Documented submitted for Western Pacific Fishery Regional Management Council 124th Scientific and Statistical Committee Meeting, October 4 to October 6, 2016, Honolulu, Hawaii, 4 p.

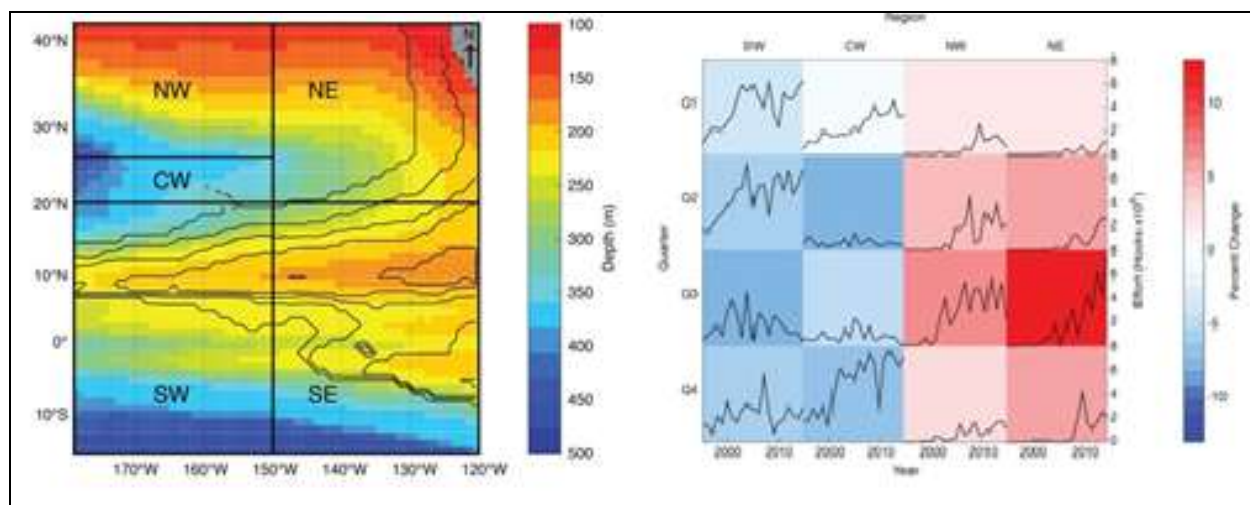


Figure 200. Left: Map depicting the five regions by which the fishery is examined overlaid on the climatological (1995-2015) median depth of preferred thermal habitat

Note: (8 – 14 °C, shaded) and the depth of the 1 mL/L oxygen threshold (contoured every 100 m from 100 to 500 m, with stippling where the depth is less than 100 m). Right: The difference between the proportion of total annual effort set in each region and quarter from the beginning (1995 – 1997 mean) to the end (2013 – 2015 mean) of the time series is shaded. Total annual effort in each region and quarter is plotted in black. Note: nearly no effort is deployed in the SE region.

The deep-set longline fishery, which targets bigeye tuna, has expanded considerably over the past two decades. Not only has total effort increased from nearly 8.4 million hooks set in 1995 to over 47 million hooks set in 2015, but the spatial footprint of the fishery has expanded as well. At the beginning of the time series, nearly all (97%) of Hawaii's deep-set effort was set in the fishery's core operating area south of 26°N and west of 150°W, whereas in 2015 over 40% of the deep-set effort was set either north or east of these bounds. This expansion is most prominent in the third quarter of the year (Figure 200).

The marked northeastward expansion of the fishery appears to have several drivers. First, it is possible that waters closer to Hawaii were unable to support an increase in effort due to both Hawaii-based and international effort. Waters northeast of Hawaii had little to no international competition. Second, bigeye catch rates within the fishery's core operating area are lowest in the third quarter of the year. However, during this quarter catch rates are still high in waters to the northeast of Hawaii. Finally, preferred bigeye thermal habitat and oxygen levels overlap most completely with deep-set gear in waters to the northeast of Hawaii (Figure 200). This overlap could act to increase bigeye's catchability, and in turn catch rates, in northeastern waters. The fishery expanded spatially in the third quarter in response to low target catch rates. In waters to the northeast of Hawaii the fleet faced little competition and found a particularly efficient fishing ground due to its local oceanography.

One consequence of the fishery's spatiotemporal expansion has been an increase in the amount of lancetfish caught. Lancetfish have no commercial value and all catches are discarded. Lancetfish catch rates are highest north of 26°N and in the third quarter. Thus, the fishery is deploying more effort both in the region where lancetfish are most commonly caught and at the time when catch rates are highest. This has resulted in lancetfish catches exceeding bigeye catches for the past decade (Figure 201).

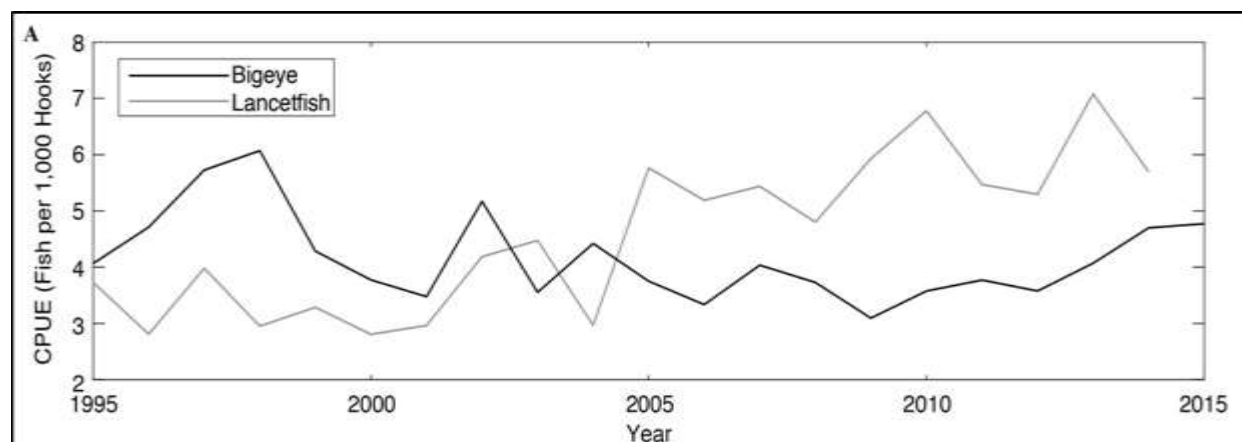


Figure 201. Annual deep-set bigeye tuna (black) and lancetfish (gray) CPUE

Trends in productivity and catch rates in the fishery over the past decades may be caused by spatiotemporal changes in the fishery itself, changes in the stock, or both. In order to better understand these trends A General Additive Models (GAM) was built to analyze time series of mean weight, catch per unit effort (CPUE, in number of fish caught per 1000 hooks) and weight per unit effort (WPUE, in kg caught per 1000 hooks). The GAM allowed researchers to tease apart trends caused by changes in the stock from those caused by changes in seasonality and geographic location of the fishery. Over the past 16 years, mean weights of commercially important fish in the Hawaii-based longline fishery have declined 10%.

This is in part due to a decline in mean weight by five out of the eleven most commonly caught species, and partly due to a change in species composition of the catch. Smaller fishes, such as pomfrets and walu, are becoming more common while larger fishes, such as opah and striped marlin, make up a lesser proportion of the total catch (Figure 202A). Because more small fish, and more small fish species are caught, the productivity of the fishery (WPUE) declined by 53% since 2000, but the shift in area and seasonality of fishing effort helped maintain productivity in the fishery (Figure 202C).

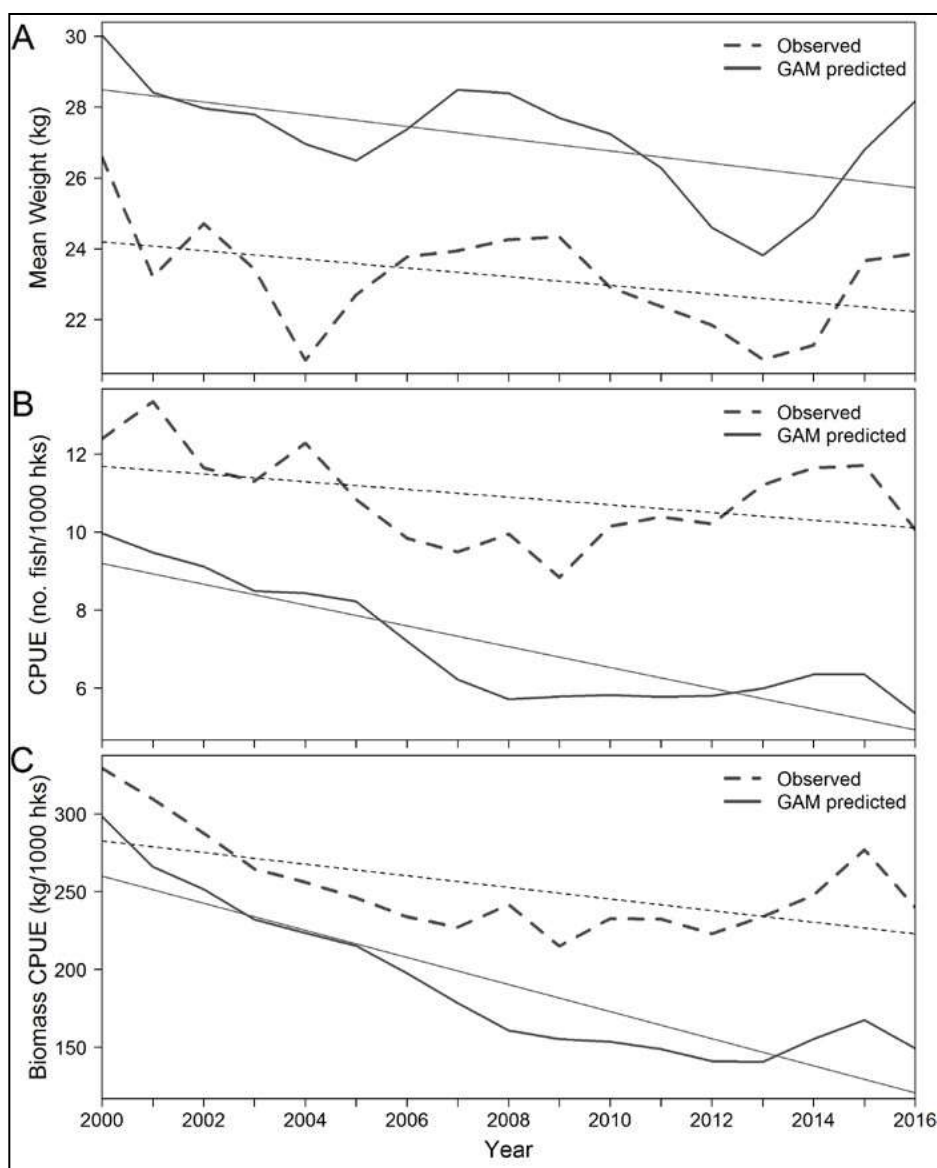


Figure 202. Mean weight (A), catch per unit effort (B), and weight per unit effort (WPUE) for all fish in the Hawaii-based longline fishery from dealer provided data.

Note: The dashed lines show the annual values from the dealer data with a linear trend line, and the solid line shows the GAM predicted annual values with linear trend lines.

CPUE has increased slowly since 2008, but when accounting for the increase in effort and geographic shift of the fishery, CPUE has remained stable. The recent peaks in both CPUE and WPUE are largely due to a strong recruitment pulse of bigeye tuna entering the fishery in the third quarter of 2013. This recruitment pulse in the fishery can be followed through 2016, where it provides an increase in first CPUE then WPUE. A recruitment index could be generated for bigeye tuna that provides a forecast of fishery performance. A peak in small bigeye tuna (≤ 15 kg) is an indication that there will be an increase in CPUE and WPUE in the following two years (Figure 203).

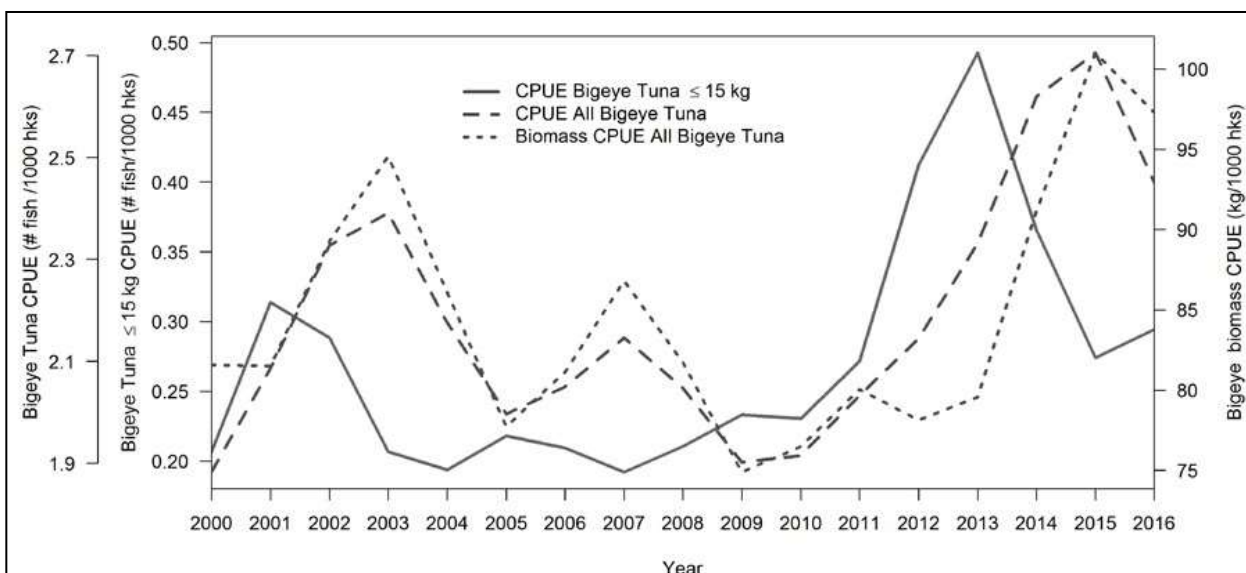


Figure 203. Temporally- and spatially-adjusted annual catch per 1000 hooks

Note: (CPUE; dashed line), and biomass per 1000 hooks (WPUE) for all bigeye tuna and bigeye tuna 15 kg or less (solid line) from the GAM from 2000-2016.

Additional reading on the influence of environmental impacts on tuna populations can be found in Lehodey et al. (2010) and Lehodey et al. (2013).

4.3 ABSTRACTS FROM RECENT RELEVANT STUDIES (TO BE UPDATED)

In this section, abstracts from primary journal articles published in 2021 and relevant to data integration are compiled. Collecting the abstracts of these articles is intended to further the goal of this section being used to guide adaptive management.

Becker EA, Forney KA, Oleson EM, Bradford AL, Moore JE, Barlow J. 2021. Habitat-based density estimates for cetaceans within the waters of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone around the Hawaiian Archipelago. U.S. Dept. of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NOAA-TM-NMFS-PIFSC-116, 38 p. <https://doi.org/10.25923/x9q9-rd73>.

The Hawaiian Islands Cetacean and Ecosystem Assessment Survey (HICEAS) 2017 was conducted in waters within the United States (U.S.) Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) around the Hawaiian Archipelago (henceforth “Hawaiian EEZ” for brevity) from 6 July through 1 December 2017 (Yano et al. 2018). The primary objective of this line-transect survey was to collect cetacean sighting data to support the derivation of cetacean density estimates using both design-based analyses and habitat modeling techniques. This report summarizes the results of the habitat modeling effort. The design-based estimates are described separately in Bradford et al. (in review).

Berger AM, Deroba JJ, Bosley KM, Goethel DR, Langseth BJ, Schueller AM, Hanselman DH. 2021. Incoherent dimensionality in fisheries management: consequences of misaligned stock assessment and population boundaries. ICES Journal of Marine Science. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fsaa203>.

Fisheries policy inherently relies on an explicit definition of management boundaries that delineate the spatial extent over which stocks are assessed and regulations are implemented. However, management boundaries tend to be static and determined by politically negotiated or historically identified population (or multi-species) units, which create a potential disconnect with underlying, dynamic population structure. The consequences of incoherent management and population or stock boundaries were explored through the application of a two-area spatial simulation–estimation framework. Results highlight the importance of aligning management assessment areas with underlying population structure and processes, especially when fishing mortality is disproportionate to vulnerable biomass among management areas, demographic parameters (growth and maturity) are not homogenous within management areas, and connectivity (via recruitment or movement) unknowingly exists among management areas. Bias and risk were greater for assessments that incorrectly span multiple population segments (PSs) compared to assessments that cover a subset of a PS, and these results were exacerbated when there was connectivity between PSs. Directed studies and due consideration of critical PSs, spatially explicit models, and dynamic management options that help align management and population boundaries would likely reduce estimation biases and management risk, as would closely coordinated management that functions across population boundaries.

Donovan MK, Burkepile DE, Kratochwill C, Shlesinger T, Sully S, Oliver TA, Hodgson G, Freiwald J, van Woesik R. 2021. Local conditions magnify coral loss after marine heatwaves. *Science*. 372(6545):977-80. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abd9464>.

Climate change threatens coral reefs by causing heat stress events that lead to widespread coral bleaching and mortality. Given the global nature of these mass coral mortality events, recent studies argue that mitigating climate change is the only path to conserve coral reefs. Using a

global analysis of 223 sites, we show that local stressors act synergistically with climate change to kill corals. Local factors such as high abundance of macroalgae or urchins magnified coral loss in the year after bleaching. Notably, the combined effects of increasing heat stress and macroalgae intensified coral loss. Our results offer an optimistic premise that effective local management, alongside global efforts to mitigate climate change, can help coral reefs survive the Anthropocene.

Friedland KD, Smolinski S, Tanaka KR. 2021. Contrasting patterns in the occurrence and biomass centers of gravity among fish and macroinvertebrates in a continental shelf ecosystem. *Ecol Evol.* 11(5). <https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.7150>.

The distribution of a group of fish and macroinvertebrates ($n = 52$) resident in the US Northeast Shelf large marine ecosystem were characterized with species distribution models (SDM), which in turn were used to estimate occurrence and biomass center of gravity (COG). The SDMs were fit using random forest machine learning and were informed with a range of physical and biological variables. The estimated probability of occurrence and biomass from the models provided the weightings to determine depth, distance to the coast, and along-shelf distance COG. The COGs of occupancy and biomass habitat tended to be separated by distances averaging 50 km, which approximates half of the minor axis of the subject ecosystem. During the study period (1978–2018), the biomass COG has tended to shift to further offshore positions whereas occupancy habitat has stayed at a regular spacing from the coastline. Both habitat types have shifted their along-shelf distances, indicating a general movement to higher latitude or to the Northeast for this ecosystem. However, biomass tended to occur at lower latitudes in the spring and higher latitude in the fall in a response to seasonal conditions. Distribution of habitat in relation to depth reveals a divergence in response with occupancy habitat shallowing over time and biomass habitat distributing in progressively deeper water. These results suggest that climate forced change in distribution will differentially affect occurrence and biomass of marine taxa, which will likely affect the organization of ecosystems and the manner in which human populations utilize marine resources.

Gonzalez-Mon B, Bodin Ö, Lindkvist E, Frawley TH, Giron-Nava A, Basurto X, Nenadovic M, Schlüter M. 2021. Spatial diversification as a mechanism to adapt to environmental changes in small-scale fisheries. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 116, pp.246-257.

Small-scale fisheries' actors increasingly face new challenges, including climate driven shifts in marine resource distribution and productivity. Diversification of target species and fishing locations is a key mechanism to adapt to such changes and maintain fisheries livelihoods. Here we explore environmental and institutional factors mediating how patterns of spatial diversification (i.e., utilization of alternative fishing grounds) and target species diversification change over time. Using small-scale fisheries in Baja California Sur (Mexico) as a case study, we adopt a social-ecological network approach to conduct a spatially explicit analysis of fisheries landings data (2008–2016). This approach quantifies relative patterns of diversification, and when combined with a qualitative analysis of existing literature, enables us to illuminate institutional and environmental factors that may influence diversification strategies. Our results indicate that interannual changes in spatial diversification are correlated with regional oceanographic change, while illustrating the heterogeneity and dynamism of diversification strategies. Rather than acting in isolation, we hypothesize that environmental drivers likely operate in combination with existing fisheries regulations and local socioeconomic context to mediate spatial diversification. We argue that small-scale fisheries policies need to better account

such linkages as we move towards an increasingly variable environment. Overall, our results highlight spatial diversification as a dynamic process and constitute an important step towards understanding and managing the complex mechanisms through which environmental changes affect small-scale fisheries.

Heneghan RF, Galbraith E, Blanchard JL, Harrison C, Barrier N, Bulman C, Cheung W, Coll M, Eddy TD, Erauskin-Extramiana M, Everett JD, et al. 2021. Disentangling diverse responses to climate change among global marine ecosystem models. *Progress in Oceanography*:102659 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2021.102659>.

Climate change is warming the ocean and impacting lower trophic level (LTL) organisms. Marine ecosystem models can provide estimates of how these changes will propagate to larger animals and impact societal services such as fisheries, but at present these estimates vary widely. A better understanding of what drives this inter-model variation will improve our ability to project fisheries and other ecosystem services into the future, while also helping to identify uncertainties in process understanding. Here, we explore the mechanisms that underlie the diversity of responses to changes in temperature and LTLs in eight global marine ecosystem models from the Fisheries and Marine Ecosystem Model Intercomparison Project (FishMIP). Temperature and LTL impacts on total consumer biomass and ecosystem structure (defined as the relative change of small and large organism biomass) were isolated using a comparative experimental protocol. Total model biomass varied between -35% to $+3\%$ in response to warming, and -17% to $+15\%$ in response to LTL changes. There was little consensus about the spatial redistribution of biomass or changes in the balance between small and large organisms (ecosystem structure) in response to warming, an LTL impacts on total consumer biomass varied depending on the choice of LTL forcing terms. Overall, climate change impacts on consumer biomass and ecosystem structure are well approximated by the sum of temperature and LTL impacts, indicating an absence of nonlinear interaction between the models' drivers. Our results highlight a lack of theoretical clarity about how to represent fundamental ecological mechanisms, most importantly how temperature impacts scale from individual to ecosystem level, and the need to better understand the two-way coupling between LTL organisms and consumers. We finish by identifying future research needs to strengthen global marine ecosystem modelling and improve projections of climate change impacts.

Hyrenbach KD, Ishizaki A, Polovina J, Ellgen S (Eds.). 2021. The factors influencing albatross interactions in the Hawaii longline fishery: Towards identifying drivers and quantifying impacts. U.S. Dept. of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NOAA-TM-NMFS-PIFSC-122, 163 p. <https://doi.org/10.25923/nb95-gs31>.

The Hawaii longline fishery has been required to use seabird mitigation measures under the Pacific Pelagic Fishery Management Plan (current Fishery Ecosystem Plan, or FEP) since 2001. In the past decade since the successful implementation of seabird mitigation measures, the fishery has seen a gradual increasing trend in Black-footed (*Phoebastria nigripes*, BFAL) and Laysan (*P. immutabilis*, LAAL) albatross interactions, with higher rates of Black-footed albatross interactions since 2015. A published analysis conducted by Gilman and colleagues (2016) using data from October 2004 to May 2014, indicated that albatross interaction rates significantly increased during years of higher annual mean multivariate El Niño index (MEI), suggesting that oceanographic changes may have contributed to these changes in albatross catch rates. This analysis also showed a significant increasing trend in the number of albatross attending fishing vessels which may have contributed to the increasing catch rates. Moreover, the

higher interaction rates observed during the recent El Niño event (2015–2016) further underscore the potential links between ocean conditions and albatross longline interactions.

Jardim E, Azevedo M, Brodziak J, Brooks EN, Johnson KF, Klibansky N, Millar CP, Minto C, Mosqueira I, Nash RD, et al. 2021. Operationalizing ensemble models for scientific advice to fisheries management. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fsab010>.

This paper explores the possibility of using the ensemble modelling paradigm to fully capture assessment uncertainty and improve the robustness of advice provision. We identify and discuss advantages and challenges of ensemble modelling approaches in the context of scientific advice. There are uncertainties associated with every phase in the stock assessment process: data collection, assessment model choice, model assumptions, interpretation of risk, up to the implementation of management advice. Additionally, the dynamics of fish populations are complex, and our incomplete understanding of those dynamics and limited observations of important mechanisms, necessitate that models are simpler than nature. The aim is for the model to capture enough of the dynamics to accurately estimate trends and abundance, and provide the basis for robust advice about sustainable harvests. The status quo approach to assessment modelling has been to identify the “best” model and generate advice from that model, mostly ignoring advice from other model configurations regardless of how closely they performed relative to the chosen model. We discuss and make suggestions about the utility of ensemble models, including revisions to the formal process of providing advice to management bodies, and recommend further research to evaluate potential gains in modelling and advice performance.

Kaplan IC, Gaichas SK, Stawitz CC, Lynch PD, Marshall KN, Deroba JJ, Masi M, Brodziak JK, Aydin KY, Holsman K, et al. 2021. Management Strategy Evaluation: Allowing the Light on the Hill to Illuminate More Than One Species. *Frontiers in Marine Science*. 8:688. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.624355>.

Management strategy evaluation (MSE) is a simulation approach that serves as a “light on the hill” (Smith, 1994) to test options for marine management, monitoring, and assessment against simulated ecosystem and fishery dynamics, including uncertainty in ecological and fishery processes and observations. MSE has become a key method to evaluate trade-offs between management objectives and to communicate with decision makers. Here we describe how and why MSE is continuing to grow from a single species approach to one relevant to multi-species and ecosystem-based management. In particular, different ecosystem modeling approaches can fit within the MSE process to meet particular natural resource management needs. We present four case studies that illustrate how MSE is expanding to include ecosystem considerations and ecosystem models as ‘operating models’ (i.e., virtual test worlds), to simulate monitoring, assessment, and harvest control rules, and to evaluate tradeoffs via performance metrics. We highlight United States case studies related to fisheries regulations and climate, which support NOAA’s policy goals related to the Ecosystem Based Fishery Roadmap and Climate Science Strategy but vary in the complexity of population, ecosystem, and assessment representation. We emphasize methods, tool development, and lessons learned that are relevant beyond the United States, and the additional benefits relative to single-species MSE approaches.

Kasperski S, DePiper GS, Blake S, Colburn LL, Jepson M, Haynie1 AC, Karnauskas M, Leong KM, Lipton D, Masi M, et al. 2021. Assessing the State of Coupled Social-Ecological

Modeling in Support of Ecosystem Based Fisheries Management in the U.S. *Front. Mar. Sci.* <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.631400>.

There has been a proliferation of coupled social-ecological systems (SES) models created and published in recent years. However, the degree of coupling between natural and social systems varies widely across the different coupled models and is often a function of the disciplinary background of the team conducting the research. This manuscript examines models developed for and used by NOAA Fisheries in support of Ecosystem Based Fisheries Management (EBFM) in the United States. It provides resource managers and interdisciplinary scientists insights on the strengths and weaknesses of the most commonly used SES models: end-to-end models, conceptual models, bioeconomic models, management strategy evaluations (MSEs), fisher behavior models, integrated social vulnerability models, and regional economic impact models. These model types are not unique to the literature, but allow us to differentiate between one-way coupled models – where outputs from one model are inputs into a second model of another discipline with no feedback to the first model, and two-way coupled models – where there are linkages between the natural and social system models. For a model to provide useful strategic or tactical advice, it should only be coupled to the degree necessary to understand the important dynamics/responses of the system and to create management-relevant performance metrics or potential risks from an (in)action. However, one key finding is to not wait to integrate! This paper highlights the importance of “when” the coupling happens, as timing affects the ability to fully address management questions and multi-sectoral usage conflicts that consider the full SES for EBFM or ecosystem based management (EBM) more generally.

McNamara KE, Westoby R, Chandra A. 2021. Exploring climate-driven non-economic loss and damage in the Pacific Islands. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 50, pp.1-11.

Non-economic loss and damage induced by climate change in the Pacific Islands region has been reported as fears of cultural loss, deterioration of vital ecosystem services, and dislocation from ancestral lands, among others. This paper undertakes an in-depth systematic review of literature from the frontlines of the Pacific Islands to ascertain the complexities of non-economic loss and damage from climate change. We synthesise knowledge to date on different but inter-connected categories of non-economic loss and damage, namely: human mobility and territory, cultural heritage and Indigenous knowledge, life and health, biodiversity and ecosystem services, and sense of place and social cohesion. Identifying gaps and possibilities for future research agendas is presented. Synthesising knowledge to date and identifying remaining gaps about non-economic loss and damage is an important step in taking stock of what we already know and fostering action and support for addressing loss and damage in the years to come.

Politikos DV, Rose KA, Curchitser EN, Checkley DM Jr, Rykaczewski RR, Fiechter J. 2021. Climate variation and anchovy recruitment in the California current: a cause-and-effect analysis of an end-to-end model simulation. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*. 680:111-136. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps13853>.

Interannual and regime (decadal) scale changes in climate affect the spatial distribution and productivity of marine fish species in numerous ecosystems. We analyzed a historical simulation (1965-2000) from an end-to-end ecosystem model of anchovy population dynamics for the California Current System to untangle the effects of warm versus cool conditions on recruitment. A 3-dimensional coupled hydrodynamic-NPZD (nitrogen-phytoplankton-zooplankton-detritus)

model (ROMS-NEMURO) provided the physical conditions (circulation, temperature) and 3 zooplankton concentrations as inputs to an anchovy full life cycle individual-based model (IBM). Our analysis was focused on isolating the effects of the well-documented El Niño Southern Oscillation signal and 3 climate regimes on spawning habitat, development, and survival of eggs and yolk-sac larvae, growth and survival of larvae and juveniles, and ultimately recruitment of anchovy. The major drivers of lowered recruitment success in warm years and in warmer regimes were reduced survival and growth rates of eggs and larvae that resulted from the poleward shift of adults in response to warmer temperatures prior to spawning. Three model-data comparisons showed the model deviated from empirically derived values of annual recruitment success but agreed with data for annual mean latitude of egg distributions and predicted larval consumption rates versus measured zooplankton concentrations. More effort is needed to improve certain biological aspects of the IBM so that it can replicate empirically estimated recruitment fluctuations. Overall, the altered responses of anchovy to changing climate in the California Current domain illustrate the benefit of the present mechanistic approach to infer how anchovy may respond under future ecosystem conditions.

Smith JA, Tommasi D, Welch H, Hazen EL, Sweeney J, Brodie S, Muhling B, Stohs SM, Jacox MG. 2021. Comparing Dynamic and Static Time-Area Closures for Bycatch Mitigation: A Management Strategy Evaluation of a Swordfish Fishery. *Frontiers in Marine Science*. 8:272. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.630607>.

Time-area closures are a valuable tool for mitigating fisheries bycatch. There is increasing recognition that dynamic closures, which have boundaries that vary across space and time, can be more effective than static closures at protecting mobile species in dynamic environments. We created a management strategy evaluation to compare static and dynamic closures in a simulated fishery based on the California drift gillnet swordfish fishery, with closures aimed at reducing bycatch of leatherback turtles. We tested eight operating models that varied swordfish and leatherback distributions, and within each evaluated the performance of three static and five dynamic closure strategies. We repeated this under 20 and 50% simulated observer coverage to alter the data available for closure creation. We found that static closures can be effective for reducing bycatch of species with more geographically associated distributions, but to avoid redistributing bycatch the static areas closed should be based on potential (not just observed) bycatch. Only dynamic closures were effective at reducing bycatch for more dynamic leatherback distributions, and they generally reduced bycatch risk more than they reduced target catch. Dynamic closures were less likely to redistribute fishing into rarely fished areas, by leaving open pockets of lower risk habitat, but these closures were often fragmented which would create practical challenges for fishers and managers and require a mobile fleet. Given our simulation's catch rates, 20% observer coverage was sufficient to create useful closures and increasing coverage to 50% added only minor improvement in closure performance. Even strict static or dynamic closures reduced leatherback bycatch by only 30–50% per season, because the simulated leatherback distributions were broad and open areas contained considerable bycatch risk. Perfect knowledge of the leatherback distribution provided an additional 5–15% bycatch reduction over a dynamic closure with realistic predictive accuracy. This moderate level of bycatch reduction highlights the limitations of redistributing fishing effort to reduce bycatch of broadly distributed and rarely encountered species, and indicates that, for these species, spatial management may work best when used with other bycatch mitigation approaches. We recommend future research explores methods for considering model uncertainty in the spatial and temporal resolution of dynamic closures.

Syddall V, Thrush S, Fisher K, 2021. Transdisciplinary analysis of Pacific tuna fisheries: A research framework for understanding and governing oceans as social-ecological systems. *Marine Policy*, 134, p.104783.

Western and Central Pacific (WCP) tuna fisheries are faced with complex and interlinked social and ecological challenges including high seas management issues, setting sustainable limits, human rights violations, and illegal, unreported, and unregulated (IUU) activities. However, strong but narrow disciplinary science persist to dominate governance. Effective governance across complex multi-scale systems in the WCP tuna fishery requires a more integrated understanding of social-ecological systems (SES). Transdisciplinary problem solving informed by participatory, social-ecological resilience research, and political ecology has the potential to reveal complicated interactions and connections across ocean SES networks. Social-Ecological-Oceans Systems Framework (SECO) was developed to capture the breadth and depth of the system and address interactions and connections between separate system components. SECO develops a practical integrated approach using accessible methods for addressing a large complex ocean system such as the WCP tuna fisheries. The framework offers a rapid transdisciplinary assessment and opens space for their deeper transdisciplinary analyses. This exploratory framework, as the WCP tuna case example shows, starts to reveal issues at scales that are not likely to be addressed by the strong single disciplinary approaches to governance now prevailing. The transdisciplinary research approach was developed to be responsive to diverse participants' knowledge, including local communities, scientists (social and biophysical), industry experts, economists, and fisheries managers. SECO was applied to place-specific studies, Suva, Fiji and Honiara and Gizo, Solomon Islands in the WCP tuna fishery. This validated SECO to ensure robustness and reliability

Tanaka KR, Van Houtan KS, Mailander E, Dias BS, Galginitis C, O'Sullivan J, Lowe CG, Jorgensen SJ. 2021. North Pacific warming shifts the juvenile range of a marine apex predator. *Scientific Reports*. 11:3373. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-82424-9>.

During the 2014–2016 North Pacific marine heatwave, unprecedented sightings of juvenile white sharks (*Carcharodon carcharias*) emerged in central California. These records contradicted the species established life history, where juveniles remain in warmer waters in the southern California Current. This spatial shift is significant as it creates potential conflicts with commercial fisheries, protected species conservation, and public safety concerns. Here, we integrate community science, photogrammetry, biologging, and mesoscale climate data to describe and explain this phenomenon. We find a dramatic increase in white sharks from 2014 to 2019 in Monterey Bay that was overwhelmingly comprised of juvenile sharks < 2.5 m in total body length. Next, we derived thermal preferences from 22 million tag measurements of 14 juvenile sharks and use this to map the cold limit of their range. Consistent with historical records, the position of this cold edge averaged 34° N from 1982 to 2013 but jumped to 38.5° during the 2014–2016 marine heat wave. In addition to a poleward shift, thermally suitable habitat for juvenile sharks declined 223.2 km² year⁻¹ from 1982 to 2019 and was lowest in 2015 at the peak of the heatwave. In addition to advancing the adaptive management of this apex marine predator, we discuss this opportunity to engage public on climate change through marine megafauna.

Timmers MA, Jury CP, Vicente J, Bahr KD, Webb MK, Toonen RJ. 2021. Biodiversity of coral reef cryptobiota shuffles but does not decline under the combined stressors of ocean

warming and acidification. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 118: Issue 39. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2103275118>.

Although climate change is expected to decimate coral reefs, the combined impacts of ocean-warming and acidification on coral reef biodiversity remains largely unmeasured. Here, we present a two-year mesocosm experiment to simulate future ocean acidification and ocean-warming to quantify the impacts on species richness, community composition, and community structure. We find that species richness is equivalent between the dual-stressor and present-day treatments but that the community shuffles, undoubtedly altering ecosystem function. However, our ability to predict the outcomes of such community shuffling remains limited due to the critical knowledge gap regarding ecological functions, life histories, and distributions for most members of the cryptobenthic community that account for the majority of the biodiversity within these iconic ecosystems.

Whitney JL, Gove JM, McManus MA, Smith KA, Lecky J, Neubauer P, Phipps JE, Contreras EA, Kobayashi DR, Asner GP. 2021. Surface slicks are pelagic nurseries for diverse ocean fauna. *Scientific Reports*. 11(1):1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-81407-0>.

Most marine animals have a pelagic larval phase that develops in the coastal or open ocean. The fate of larvae has profound effects on replenishment of marine populations that are critical for human and ecosystem health. Larval ecology is expected to be tightly coupled to oceanic features, but for most taxa we know little about the interactions between larvae and the pelagic environment. Here, we provide evidence that surface slicks, a common coastal convergence feature, provide nursery habitat for diverse marine larvae, including > 100 species of commercially and ecologically important fishes. The vast majority of invertebrate and larval fish taxa sampled had mean densities 2–110 times higher in slicks than in ambient water. Combining in-situ surveys with remote sensing, we estimate that slicks contain 39% of neustonic larval fishes, 26% of surface-dwelling zooplankton (prey), and 75% of floating organic debris (shelter) in our 1000 km² study area in Hawai‘i. Results indicate late-larval fishes actively select slick habitats to capitalize on concentrations of diverse prey and shelter. By providing these survival advantages, surface slicks enhance larval supply and replenishment of adult populations from coral reef, epipelagic, and deep-water ecosystems. Our findings suggest that slicks play a critically important role in enhancing productivity in tropical marine ecosystems.

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TABLES FOR SECTION 2.1: AMERICAN SAMOA

Table A-1. Summary of creel survey boat-based sampling effort

| Year | Sample Days | Trolling Interviews | Troll Trips Sampled | Expanded # of Trips | Percent of Trolling Trips Surveyed |
|-------------|--------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---|
| 2013 | 259 | 73 | 73 | 119 | 61.3 |
| 2014 | 237 | 97 | 111 | 124 | 89.5 |
| 2015 | 220 | 51 | 53 | 103 | 51.5 |
| 2016 | 196 | 44 | 44 | 77 | 57.1 |
| 2017 | 199 | 41 | 43 | 132 | 32.6 |
| 2018 | 207 | 59 | 59 | 162 | 36.4 |
| 2019 | 211 | 49 | 49 | 116 | 42.2 |
| 2020 | 228 | 43 | 43 | 79 | 54.4 |
| 2021 | 201 | 26 | 26 | 86 | 30.2 |
| 2022 | 164 | 15 | 15 | 50 | 30.0 |

Table A-2. Supporting Data for Figure 2

| Year | Boats Landing Pelagics (All Methods) | Boats Landing Pelagics (Longline) | Boats Landing Pelagics (Troll) |
|---------------------------|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| 2013 | 44 | 22 | 13 |
| 2014 | 52 | 23 | 22 |
| 2015 | 40 | 21 | 10 |
| 2016 | 38 | 20 | 12 |
| 2017 | 27 | 15 | 8 |
| 2018 | 25 | 14 | 7 |
| 2019 | 29 | 18 | 5 |
| 2020 | 22 | 11 | 8 |
| 2021 | 19 | 12 | 5 |
| 2022 | 20 | 11 | 9 |
| Average | 32 | 17 | 10 |
| Standard Deviation | 11 | 5 | 5 |

Table A-3. Supporting Data for Figure 3

| Year | Troll Trips | Longline Sets |
|---------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| 2013 | 162 | 3,411 |
| 2014 | 145 | 2,748 |
| 2015 | 162 | 2,786 |
| 2016 | 118 | 2,451 |
| 2017 | 159 | 2,488 |
| 2018 | 191 | 2,213 |
| 2019 | 137 | 1,882 |
| 2020 | 128 | 1,322 |
| 2021 | 101 | 1,552 |
| 2022 | 50 | 1,219 |
| Average | 135 | 2,207 |
| Standard Deviation | 39 | 708 |

Table A-4. Supporting Data for Figure 4

| Year | Total Pounds Landed - Tuna | Total Pounds Landed - Non-Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| 2013 | 5,855,624 | 295,415 |
| 2014 | 4,908,415 | 251,065 |
| 2015 | 5,401,420 | 231,205 |
| 2016 | 4,601,298 | 217,186 |
| 2017 | 4,851,383 | 269,547 |
| 2018 | 4,279,765 | 184,972 |
| 2019 | 2,965,882 | 134,912 |
| 2020 | 1,887,156 | 126,679 |
| 2021 | 2,512,481 | 133,642 |
| 2022 | 2,822,445 | 158,037 |
| Average | 4,008,587 | 200,266 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,355,210 | 61,300 |

Table A-5. Supporting Data for Figure 5

| Year | Commercial Landings (lb) - Tuna | Commercial Landings (lb) - Non-Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| 2013 | 5,783,775 | 188,237 |
| 2014 | 4,895,560 | 139,857 |
| 2015 | 5,380,023 | 116,355 |
| 2016 | 4,593,671 | 96,634 |
| 2017 | 4,842,676 | 104,657 |
| 2018 | 4,273,435 | 63,636 |
| 2019 | 2,962,774 | 38,782 |
| 2020 | 1,883,833 | 37,492 |
| 2021 | 2,509,499 | 34,080 |
| 2022 | 2,820,772 | 24,110 |
| Average | 3,994,602 | 84,384 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,341,290 | 54,076 |

Table A-6. Supporting Data for Figure 6

| Year | Estimated Yellowfin Longline Landings (lb) | Estimated Yellowfin Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| 2013 | 808,271 | 7,354 |
| 2014 | 1,067,483 | 7,687 |
| 2015 | 1,003,907 | 4,189 |
| 2016 | 848,926 | 8,482 |
| 2017 | 1,233,124 | 14,367 |
| 2018 | 575,768 | 8,242 |
| 2019 | 417,262 | 2,476 |
| 2020 | 490,527 | 3,385 |
| 2021 | 470,931 | 4,097 |
| 2022 | 326,301 | 19 |
| Average | 724,250 | 6,030 |
| Standard Deviation | 311,095 | 4,052 |

Table A-7. Supporting Data for Figure 7

| Year | Estimated Skipjack Longline Landings (lb) | Estimated Skipjack Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| 2013 | 161,136 | 8,753 |
| 2014 | 286,397 | 15,448 |
| 2015 | 250,832 | 7,610 |
| 2016 | 210,451 | 8,661 |
| 2017 | 155,788 | 6,842 |
| 2018 | 168,457 | 7,317 |
| 2019 | 151,372 | 10,189 |
| 2020 | 139,867 | 6,194 |
| 2021 | 116,265 | 12,853 |
| 2022 | 84,974 | 3,734 |
| Average | 172,554 | 8,760 |
| Standard Deviation | 60,835 | 3,374 |

Table A-8. Supporting Data for Figure 8

| Year | Estimated Wahoo Longline Landings (lb) | Estimated Wahoo Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| 2013 | 149,619 | 1,144 |
| 2014 | 122,384 | 1,241 |
| 2015 | 121,750 | 567 |
| 2016 | 101,693 | 1,742 |
| 2017 | 110,322 | 981 |
| 2018 | 67,510 | 676 |
| 2019 | 40,231 | 447 |
| 2020 | 39,577 | 93 |
| 2021 | 35,913 | 271 |
| 2022 | 25,826 | 0 |
| Average | 81,483 | 716 |
| Standard Deviation | 44,727 | 555 |

Table A-9. Supporting Data for Figure 9

| Year | Estimated Mahimahi Longline Landings (lb) | Estimated Mahimahi Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| 2013 | 39,140 | 310 |
| 2014 | 23,037 | 2,344 |
| 2015 | 11,822 | 430 |
| 2016 | 8,969 | 1,008 |
| 2017 | 30,883 | 1,678 |
| 2018 | 10,007 | 792 |
| 2019 | 4,163 | 557 |
| 2020 | 10,494 | 949 |
| 2021 | 1,819 | 521 |
| 2022 | 12,247 | 578 |
| Average | 15,258 | 917 |
| Standard Deviation | 11,969 | 637 |

Table A-10. Supporting Data for Figure 10

| Year | Blue Marlin Longline Landings (lb) | Blue Marlin Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| 2013 | 60,795 | 0 |
| 2014 | 55,941 | 731 |
| 2015 | 55,836 | 1,561 |
| 2016 | 66,073 | 395 |
| 2017 | 87,684 | 847 |
| 2018 | 70,536 | 1,009 |
| 2019 | 64,672 | 657 |
| 2020 | 62,800 | 0 |
| 2021 | 76,001 | 0 |
| 2022 | 104,196 | 0 |
| Average | 70,453 | 520 |
| Standard Deviation | 15,257 | 536 |

Table A-11. Supporting Data for Figure 11

| Year | Sailfish Longline Landings (lb) | Sailfish Trolling Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|--|--|
| 2013 | 3,546 | 0 |
| 2014 | 3,616 | 25 |
| 2015 | 5,106 | 57 |
| 2016 | 5,106 | 0 |
| 2017 | 3,262 | 0 |
| 2018 | 1,702 | 0 |
| 2019 | 4,184 | 143 |
| 2020 | 1,276 | 270 |
| 2021 | 1,915 | 0 |
| 2022 | 1,418 | 48 |
| Average | 3,113 | 54 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,462 | 88 |

Table A-12. Supporting Data for Figure 13

| Year | Longline Hooks Set |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 2013 | 10,184 |
| 2014 | 7,667 |
| 2015 | 7,806 |
| 2016 | 6,909 |
| 2017 | 7,009 |
| 2018 | 6,010 |
| 2019 | 5,104 |
| 2020 | 3,646 |
| 2021 | 4,474 |
| 2022 | 3,613 |
| Average | 6,242 |
| Standard Deviation | 2,086 |

Table A-13. Supporting Data for Figure 14

| Year | Bigeye Tuna Longline Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|---|
| 2013 | 191,554 |
| 2014 | 210,869 |
| 2015 | 183,849 |
| 2016 | 155,842 |
| 2017 | 139,424 |
| 2018 | 117,516 |
| 2019 | 68,305 |
| 2020 | 51,213 |
| 2021 | 65,789 |
| 2022 | 41,818 |
| Average | 122,618 |
| Standard Deviation | 62,813 |

Table A-14. Supporting Data for Figure 15

| Year | Albacore Longline Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|--|
| 2013 | 4,673,320 |
| 2014 | 3,313,856 |
| 2015 | 3,937,366 |
| 2016 | 3,367,685 |
| 2017 | 3,296,463 |
| 2018 | 3,400,628 |
| 2019 | 2,315,559 |
| 2020 | 1,195,281 |
| 2021 | 1,842,039 |
| 2022 | 2,365,584 |
| Average | 2,970,778 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,033,926 |

Table A-15. Supporting Data for Figure 16

| Year | Swordfish Longline Landings (lb) |
|---------------------------|---|
| 2013 | 20,474 |
| 2014 | 17,736 |
| 2015 | 14,615 |
| 2016 | 12,194 |
| 2017 | 13,438 |
| 2018 | 13,561 |
| 2019 | 8,210 |
| 2020 | 5,529 |
| 2021 | 6,127 |
| 2022 | 5,669 |
| Average | 11,755 |
| Standard Deviation | 5,231 |

Table A-16. Supporting Data for Figure 17

| Year | Releases - Tunas | Releases - Non- Tuna PMUS | Releases - Other Pelagics | Releases - Sharks |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|------------------------------|
| 2013 | 1,095 | 11,838 | 936 | 3,878 |
| 2014 | 846 | 6,762 | 342 | 5,067 |
| 2015 | 1,722 | 8,025 | 156 | 6,043 |
| 2016 | 996 | 5,116 | 33 | 5,131 |
| 2017 | 767 | 3,170 | 49 | 4,282 |
| 2018 | 910 | 2,120 | 5 | 4,642 |
| 2019 | 962 | 1,893 | 16 | 3,234 |
| 2020 | 727 | 1,541 | 27 | 2,077 |
| 2021 | 577 | 1,544 | 4 | 2,718 |
| 2022 | 467 | 861 | 1 | 1,316 |
| Average | 907 | 4,287 | 157 | 3,839 |
| Standard Deviation | 345 | 3,594 | 294 | 1,490 |

Table A-17. Supporting Data for Figure 18

| Year | Alia Catch (Individuals) per 1,000 Hooks | Monohull Catch (Individuals) per 1,000 Hooks |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| 2013 | n.d. | 11.7 |
| 2014 | n.d. | 10.6 |
| 2015 | n.d. | 12.7 |
| 2016 | n.d. | 11.9 |
| 2017 | n.d. | 11.6 |
| 2018 | n.d. | 13.5 |
| 2019 | n.d. | 11.3 |
| 2020 | n.d. | 8.5 |
| 2021 | n.d. | 9.3 |
| 2022 | n.d. | 14.6 |
| Average | n.d. | 11.6 |
| Standard Deviation | n.d. | 1.8 |

Table A-18. Supporting Data for Figure 19

| Year | Troll Catch (lb) Per Hour | Effective Troll Hours |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------------------|
| 2013 | 28 | 845 |
| 2014 | 32 | 930 |
| 2015 | 18 | 980 |
| 2016 | 45 | 553 |
| 2017 | 16 | 1,918 |
| 2018 | 19 | 1,104 |
| 2019 | 25 | 653 |
| 2020 | 22 | 574 |
| 2021 | 33 | 561 |
| 2022 | 22 | 205 |
| Average | 26 | 832 |
| Standard Deviation | 9 | 463 |

Table A-19. Supporting Data for Figure 20

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Skipjack | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Yellowfin |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| 2013 | 13.33 | 11.59 |
| 2014 | 17.97 | 8.72 |
| 2015 | 8.08 | 5.79 |
| 2016 | 17.90 | 17.58 |
| 2017 | 4.00 | 8.12 |
| 2018 | 6.75 | 8.11 |
| 2019 | 16.87 | 4.49 |
| 2020 | 12.46 | 6.65 |
| 2021 | 25.39 | 6.10 |
| 2022 | 18.16 | 0.09 |
| Average | 14.09 | 7.72 |
| Standard Deviation | 6.47 | 4.59 |

Table A-20. Supporting Data for Figure 21

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) – Blue Marlin | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Mahimahi | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Wahoo |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | | 0.46 | 1.81 |
| 2014 | 0.51 | 2.87 | 1.06 |
| 2015 | 2.52 | 0.47 | 0.39 |
| 2016 | 1.10 | 1.94 | 4.31 |
| 2017 | 0.53 | 0.91 | 0.28 |
| 2018 | 1.08 | 0.71 | 0.72 |
| 2019 | 1.19 | 0.94 | 0.51 |
| 2020 | | 1.43 | 0.05 |
| 2021 | | 0.16 | 0.56 |
| 2022 | | 2.82 | |
| Average | 1.16 | 1.27 | 1.08 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.73 | 0.97 | 1.32 |

**TABLES FOR SECTION 2.2: COMMONWEALTH OF THE NORTHERN
MARIANA ISLANDS**

Table A-21. Boat-based Survey Statistics (raw data), CNMI

| Year | Survey Days | Trips in Boat Log | Charter Trips | Non-Charter Trips | Total Interviews | Charter Interviews | Non-Charter Interviews |
|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 2013 | 72 | 163 | 2 | 161 | 149 | 2 | 147 |
| 2014 | 71 | 155 | 2 | 153 | 144 | 4 | 140 |
| 2015 | 57 | 110 | 1 | 109 | 102 | 1 | 101 |
| 2016 | 65 | 115 | 4 | 111 | 100 | 4 | 96 |
| 2017 | 66 | 121 | 7 | 114 | 109 | 3 | 106 |
| 2018 | 54 | 124 | 3 | 121 | 108 | 4 | 104 |
| 2019 | 33 | 65 | 1 | 64 | 58 | 4 | 54 |
| 2020 | 58 | 112 | 1 | 111 | 119 | 5 | 114 |
| 2021 | 69 | 138 | 0 | 138 | 129 | 0 | 129 |
| 2022 | 51 | 107 | 0 | 107 | 84 | 0 | 84 |

Table A-22. Supporting Data for Figure 22

| Year | Number of Fishers Landing Pelagic Species from Commercial Receipt Invoices |
|---------------------------|---|
| 2013 | 28 |
| 2014 | 21 |
| 2015 | 12 |
| 2016 | 73 |
| 2017 | 48 |
| 2018 | 56 |
| 2019 | 51 |
| 2020 | 73 |
| 2021 | 83 |
| 2022 | 92 |
| Average | 54 |
| Standard Deviation | 27 |

Table A-23. Supporting Data for Figure 23

| Year | Number of Trips Catching Pelagic Fish from Commercial Receipt Invoices |
|---------------------------|---|
| 2013 | 1,640 |
| 2014 | 1,229 |
| 2015 | 582 |
| 2016 | 1,205 |
| 2017 | 1,540 |
| 2018 | 2,204 |
| 2019 | 2,457 |
| 2020 | 1,325 |
| 2021 | 2,132 |
| 2022 | 1,789 |
| Average | 1,610 |
| Standard Deviation | 561 |

Table A-24. Supporting Data for Figure 24

| Year | Estimated Total Troll Trips | Estimated Troll Trips - Non- Charter | Estimated Troll Trips - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 2,492 | 2,434 | 59 |
| 2014 | 3,595 | 3,568 | 27 |
| 2015 | 2,654 | 2,654 | 0 |
| 2016 | 3,563 | 3,556 | 7 |
| 2017 | 2,599 | 2,599 | 0 |
| 2018 | 4,203 | 4,185 | 18 |
| 2019 | 3,202 | 3,161 | 41 |
| 2020 | 4,193 | 4,193 | 0 |
| 2021 | 3,072 | 3,072 | 0 |
| 2022 | 2,973 | 2,973 | 0 |
| Average | 3,255 | 3,240 | 15 |
| Standard Deviation | 622 | 625 | 21 |

Table A-25. Supporting Data for Figure 25

| Year | Estimated Troll Hours - Total | Estimated Troll Hours - Non- Charter | Estimated Troll Hours -Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| 2013 | 12,658 | 12,413 | 246 |
| 2014 | 19,598 | 19,522 | 77 |
| 2015 | 14,084 | 14,084 | 0 |
| 2016 | 19,158 | 19,125 | 33 |
| 2017 | 14,498 | 14,498 | 0 |
| 2018 | 21,562 | 21,477 | 84 |
| 2019 | 16,841 | 16,667 | 175 |
| 2020 | 20,631 | 20,631 | 0 |
| 2021 | 17,460 | 17,460 | 0 |
| 2022 | 14,427 | 14,427 | 0 |
| Average | 17,092 | 17,030 | 62 |
| Standard Deviation | 3,087 | 3,106 | 87 |

Table A-26. Supporting Data for Figure 26

| Year | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip - Non- Charter | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 4.2 |
| 2014 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 2.9 |
| 2015 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 0.0 |
| 2016 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 4.7 |
| 2017 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 0.0 |
| 2018 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 4.7 |
| 2019 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 4.3 |
| 2020 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 0.0 |
| 2021 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 0.0 |
| 2022 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 0.0 |
| Average | 5.3 | 5.3 | 2.1 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.3 | 0.3 | 2.2 |

Table A-27. Supporting Data for Figure 27

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - All Pelagics | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 341,891 | 273,137 | 62,507 |
| 2014 | 398,939 | 262,061 | 132,820 |
| 2015 | 397,551 | 303,201 | 93,167 |
| 2016 | 308,531 | 214,112 | 84,480 |
| 2017 | 340,871 | 280,241 | 57,876 |
| 2018 | 465,009 | 389,288 | 74,354 |
| 2019 | 466,269 | 381,645 | 78,218 |
| 2020 | 305,252 | 262,905 | 34,604 |
| 2021 | 388,492 | 336,427 | 39,606 |
| 2022 | 237,440 | 148,983 | 82,313 |
| Average | 365,025 | 285,200 | 73,995 |
| Standard Deviation | 72,393 | 72,950 | 28,188 |

Table A-28. Supporting Data for Figure 28

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - All Pelagics | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| 2013 | 341,891 | 338,964 | 2,928 |
| 2014 | 398,939 | 398,418 | 521 |
| 2015 | 397,551 | 397,551 | 0 |
| 2016 | 308,531 | 307,950 | 581 |
| 2017 | 340,871 | 340,871 | 0 |
| 2018 | 465,009 | 463,410 | 1,598 |
| 2019 | 466,269 | 463,144 | 3,125 |
| 2020 | 305,252 | 305,252 | 0 |
| 2021 | 388,492 | 388,492 | 0 |
| 2022 | 237,440 | 237,440 | 0 |
| Average | 365,025 | 364,149 | 875 |
| Standard Deviation | 72,393 | 71,797 | 1,240 |

Table A-29. Supporting Data for Figure 29

| Year | Estimated Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Landings (lb) - Non-Charter | Estimated Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| 2013 | 273,137 | 273,137 | 0 |
| 2014 | 262,061 | 262,061 | 0 |
| 2015 | 303,201 | 303,201 | 0 |
| 2016 | 214,112 | 213,531 | 581 |
| 2017 | 280,241 | 280,241 | 0 |
| 2018 | 389,288 | 388,105 | 1,182 |
| 2019 | 381,645 | 378,904 | 2,741 |
| 2020 | 262,905 | 262,905 | 0 |
| 2021 | 336,427 | 336,427 | 0 |
| 2022 | 148,983 | 148,983 | 0 |
| Average | 285,200 | 284,750 | 450 |
| Standard Deviation | 72,950 | 72,426 | 896 |

Table A-30. Supporting Data for Figure 30

| Year | Estimated Landings (lb) - Non-Tuna PMUS | Estimated Landings (lb) - Non-Charter | Estimated Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| 2013 | 62,507 | 59,580 | 2,928 |
| 2014 | 132,820 | 132,308 | 512 |
| 2015 | 93,167 | 93,167 | 0 |
| 2016 | 84,480 | 84,480 | 0 |
| 2017 | 57,876 | 57,876 | 0 |
| 2018 | 74,354 | 73,962 | 392 |
| 2019 | 78,218 | 78,218 | 0 |
| 2020 | 34,604 | 34,604 | 0 |
| 2021 | 39,606 | 39,606 | 0 |
| 2022 | 82,313 | 82,313 | 0 |
| Average | 73,995 | 73,611 | 383 |
| Standard Deviation | 28,188 | 28,216 | 914 |

Table A-31. Supporting Data for Figure 31

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Skipjack | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| 2013 | 248,672 | 248,672 | 0 |
| 2014 | 233,474 | 233,474 | 0 |
| 2015 | 287,173 | 287,173 | 0 |
| 2016 | 193,697 | 193,116 | 581 |
| 2017 | 235,065 | 235,065 | 0 |
| 2018 | 374,373 | 373,190 | 1,182 |
| 2019 | 345,172 | 342,431 | 2,741 |
| 2020 | 238,094 | 238,094 | 0 |
| 2021 | 307,492 | 307,492 | 0 |
| 2022 | 132,152 | 132,152 | 0 |
| Average | 259,536 | 259,086 | 450 |
| Standard Deviation | 71,494 | 70,981 | 896 |

Table A-32. Supporting Data for Figure 32

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Yellowfin | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 23,278 | 23,278 | 0 |
| 2014 | 23,149 | 23,149 | 0 |
| 2015 | 15,760 | 15,760 | 0 |
| 2016 | 18,535 | 18,535 | 0 |
| 2017 | 16,968 | 16,968 | 0 |
| 2018 | 11,787 | 11,787 | 0 |
| 2019 | 36,473 | 36,473 | 0 |
| 2020 | 24,756 | 24,756 | 0 |
| 2021 | 26,144 | 26,144 | 0 |
| 2022 | 14,224 | 14,224 | 0 |
| Average | 21,107 | 21,107 | 0 |
| Standard Deviation | 7,228 | 7,228 | 0 |

Table A-33. Supporting Data for Figure 33

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Mahimahi | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| 2013 | 53,907 | 52,934 | 974 |
| 2014 | 116,586 | 116,132 | 454 |
| 2015 | 88,799 | 88,799 | 0 |
| 2016 | 80,072 | 80,072 | 0 |
| 2017 | 45,099 | 45,099 | 0 |
| 2018 | 65,266 | 65,070 | 196 |
| 2019 | 71,791 | 71,791 | 0 |
| 2020 | 31,629 | 31,629 | 0 |
| 2021 | 30,264 | 30,264 | 0 |
| 2022 | 58,049 | 58,049 | 0 |
| Average | 64,146 | 63,984 | 162 |
| Standard Deviation | 26,627 | 26,571 | 321 |

Table A-34. Supporting Data for Figure 34

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Wahoo | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 7,177 | 5,223 | 1,954 |
| 2014 | 10,673 | 10,615 | 58 |
| 2015 | 4,264 | 4,264 | 0 |
| 2016 | 4,351 | 4,351 | 0 |
| 2017 | 9,811 | 9,811 | 0 |
| 2018 | 6,400 | 6,204 | 196 |
| 2019 | 2,448 | 2,448 | 0 |
| 2020 | 2,975 | 2,975 | 0 |
| 2021 | 5,343 | 5,343 | 0 |
| 2022 | 20,646 | 20,646 | 0 |
| Average | 7,409 | 7,188 | 221 |
| Standard Deviation | 5,380 | 5,424 | 612 |

Table A-35. Supporting Data for Figure 35

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Blue Marlin | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 1,347 | 1,347 | 0 |
| 2014 | 5,561 | 5,561 | 0 |
| 2015 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2016 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2017 | 2,966 | 2,966 | 0 |
| 2018 | 2,688 | 2,688 | 0 |
| 2019 | 3,855 | 3,855 | 0 |
| 2020 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2021 | 3,020 | 3,020 | 0 |
| 2022 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Average | 1,944 | 1,944 | 0 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,971 | 1,971 | 0 |

Table A-36. Supporting Data for Figure 36

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - All Pelagics | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 263,497 | 200,294 | 52,950 |
| 2014 | 235,104 | 178,712 | 48,467 |
| 2015 | 188,300 | 154,658 | 30,893 |
| 2016 | 223,004 | 199,620 | 17,387 |
| 2017 | 224,531 | 201,111 | 18,392 |
| 2018 | 221,714 | 193,130 | 18,294 |
| 2019 | 177,957 | 140,716 | 22,044 |
| 2020 | 152,599 | 133,411 | 14,841 |
| 2021 | 306,547 | 263,410 | 35,746 |
| 2022 | 234,128 | 186,018 | 42,818 |
| Average | 222,738 | 185,108 | 30,183 |
| Standard Deviation | 43,567 | 37,275 | 14,101 |

Table A-37. Supporting Data for Figure 37

| Year | Commercial Purchase Landings (lb) - Skipjack | Commercial Purchase Landings (lb) - Yellowfin |
|---------------------------|---|--|
| 2013 | 167,050 | 31,278 |
| 2014 | 161,798 | 15,102 |
| 2015 | 139,873 | 14,636 |
| 2016 | 178,815 | 18,725 |
| 2017 | 164,196 | 36,500 |
| 2018 | 171,856 | 16,345 |
| 2019 | 128,027 | 12,283 |
| 2020 | 119,044 | 14,341 |
| 2021 | 238,068 | 24,892 |
| 2022 | 172,080 | 11,217 |
| Average | 164,081 | 19,532 |
| Standard Deviation | 32,904 | 8,548 |

Table A-38. Supporting Data for Figure 38

| Year | Commercial Purchase Landings (lb) - Mahimahi | Commercial Purchase Landings (lb) - Wahoo | Commercial Purchase Landings (lb) - Blue Marlin |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| 2013 | 44,889 | 5,345 | 2,091 |
| 2014 | 38,095 | 7,262 | 2,547 |
| 2015 | 30,465 | 428 | 0 |
| 2016 | 12,582 | 1,603 | 2,198 |
| 2017 | 14,715 | 2,894 | 440 |
| 2018 | 16,839 | 943 | 374 |
| 2019 | 20,724 | 336 | 604 |
| 2020 | 12,627 | 1,114 | 94 |
| 2021 | 26,517 | 2,869 | 4,071 |
| 2022 | 33,112 | 7,356 | 1,638 |
| Average | 25,057 | 3,015 | 1,406 |
| Standard Deviation | 11,367 | 2,710 | 1,329 |

Table A-39. Supporting Data for Figure 39

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 26.7 | 26.9 | 11.9 |
| 2014 | 20.4 | 20.5 | 6.8 |
| 2015 | 28.0 | 28.0 | |
| 2016 | 16.1 | 16.1 | 17.6 |
| 2017 | 23.5 | 23.5 | |
| 2018 | 21.5 | 21.5 | 19.0 |
| 2019 | 27.9 | 28.0 | 17.9 |
| 2020 | 14.6 | 14.6 | |
| 2021 | 22.0 | 22.0 | |
| 2022 | 15.9 | 15.9 | |
| Average | 21.7 | 21.7 | 14.6 |
| Standard Deviation | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.2 |

Table A-40. Supporting Data for Figure 40

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Skipjack | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| 2013 | 19.6 | 20.0 | |
| 2014 | 11.9 | 12.0 | |
| 2015 | 20.4 | 20.4 | |
| 2016 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 17.6 |
| 2017 | 16.2 | 16.2 | |
| 2018 | 17.3 | 17.3 | 14.1 |
| 2019 | 20.5 | 20.5 | 15.7 |
| 2020 | 11.5 | 11.5 | |
| 2021 | 17.6 | 17.6 | |
| 2022 | 9.2 | 9.2 | |
| Average | 15.4 | 15.5 | 15.8 |
| Standard Deviation | 4.4 | 4.4 | 1.8 |

Table A-41. Supporting Data for Figure 41

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Yellowfin | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 1.8 | 1.9 | |
| 2014 | 1.2 | 1.2 | |
| 2015 | 1.1 | 1.1 | |
| 2016 | 0.9 | 0.9 | |
| 2017 | 1.2 | 1.2 | |
| 2018 | 0.5 | 0.5 | |
| 2019 | 2.2 | 2.2 | |
| 2020 | 1.2 | 1.2 | |
| 2021 | 1.5 | 1.5 | |
| 2022 | 1.0 | 1.0 | |
| Average | 1.3 | 1.3 | |
| Standard Deviation | 0.5 | 0.5 | |

Table A-42. Supporting Data for Figure 42

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Mahimahi | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| 2013 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.0 |
| 2014 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 5.9 |
| 2015 | 6.2 | 6.2 | |
| 2016 | 4.2 | 4.2 | |
| 2017 | 3.0 | 3.0 | |
| 2018 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 2.3 |
| 2019 | 4.2 | 4.3 | |
| 2020 | 1.5 | 1.5 | |
| 2021 | 1.7 | 1.7 | |
| 2022 | 3.9 | 3.9 | |
| Average | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.1 |
| Standard Deviation | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.8 |

Table A-43. Supporting Data for Figure 43

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Wahoo | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 7.9 |
| 2014 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.8 |
| 2015 | 0.3 | 0.3 | |
| 2016 | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| 2017 | 0.7 | 0.7 | |
| 2018 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 2.3 |
| 2019 | 0.1 | 0.1 | |
| 2020 | 0.1 | 0.1 | |
| 2021 | 0.3 | 0.3 | |
| 2022 | 1.2 | 1.2 | |
| Average | 0.4 | 0.4 | 3.7 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.3 | 0.3 | 3.7 |

Table A-44. Supporting Data for Figure 44

| Year | Troll Overall Average Catch Rate (lb/hr) – Blue Marlin | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2013 | 0.1 | 0.1 | |
| 2014 | 0.3 | 0.3 | |
| 2015 | | | |
| 2016 | | | |
| 2017 | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| 2018 | 0.1 | 0.1 | |
| 2019 | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| 2020 | | | |
| 2021 | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| 2022 | | | |
| Average | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| Standard Deviation | 0.1 | 0.1 | |

Table A-45. Supporting Data for Figure 45

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Mahimahi | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Wahoo | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Blue Marlin |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| 2013 | 27.4 | 3.3 | 1.3 |
| 2014 | 31.0 | 5.9 | 2.1 |
| 2015 | 52.4 | 0.7 | |
| 2016 | 10.4 | 1.3 | 1.8 |
| 2017 | 9.6 | 1.9 | 0.3 |
| 2018 | 7.6 | 0.4 | 0.2 |
| 2019 | 8.4 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| 2020 | 9.5 | 0.8 | 0.1 |
| 2021 | 12.4 | 1.4 | 1.9 |
| 2022 | 18.5 | 4.1 | 0.9 |
| Average | 18.7 | 2.0 | 1.0 |
| Standard Deviation | 14.4 | 1.9 | 0.8 |

Table A-46. Supporting Data for Figure 46

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Skipjack | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Yellowfin | Troll Catch Rate (lb/trip) - Skipjack (Creel) |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 102 | 19 | 101 |
| 2014 | 132 | 12 | 74 |
| 2015 | 240 | 25 | 114 |
| 2016 | 148 | 16 | 52 |
| 2017 | 107 | 24 | 94 |
| 2018 | 78 | 7 | 89 |
| 2019 | 52 | 5 | 109 |
| 2020 | 90 | 11 | 54 |
| 2021 | 112 | 12 | 96 |
| 2022 | 96 | 6 | 47 |
| Average | 116 | 14 | 83 |
| Standard Deviation | 51 | 7 | 25 |

TABLES FOR SECTION 2.3: GUAM

Table A-47. Numbers of Trips and Interviews for Creel Trolling Method, Guam

| Year | Survey Days | Trips in Boat Log | Interviews |
|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| 2013 | 96 | 799 | 456 |
| 2014 | 90 | 964 | 511 |
| 2015 | 97 | 904 | 540 |
| 2016 | 93 | 1,147 | 728 |
| 2017 | 92 | 1,018 | 643 |
| 2018 | 89 | 979 | 652 |
| 2019 | 93 | 930 | 620 |
| 2020 | 96 | 981 | 243 |
| 2021 | 96 | 1,101 | 676 |
| 2022 | 97 | 949 | 568 |

Table A-48. Supporting Data for Figure 47

| Year | Estimated Troll Boats | Upper 95 Percent | Lower 95 Percent |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 2013 | 496 | 588.0 | 446.0 |
| 2014 | 447 | 537.0 | 395.0 |
| 2015 | 372 | 460.0 | 326.0 |
| 2016 | 428 | 505.0 | 386.0 |
| 2017 | 408 | 473.0 | 366.0 |
| 2018 | 398 | 495.0 | 349.0 |
| 2019 | 465 | 624.0 | 392.0 |
| 2020 | 459 | 685.0 | 382.0 |
| 2021 | 546 | 635.0 | 493.0 |
| 2022 | 449 | 513.0 | 410.0 |
| Average | 447 | 552 | 395 |
| Standard Deviation | 50 | 77 | 48 |

Table A-49. Supporting Data for Figure 48

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - All Pelagic | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| 2013 | 799,483 | 554,062 | 235,590 |
| 2014 | 764,151 | 437,871 | 307,092 |
| 2015 | 959,906 | 709,521 | 228,207 |
| 2016 | 883,583 | 591,599 | 273,533 |
| 2017 | 600,826 | 469,153 | 117,938 |
| 2018 | 891,748 | 663,817 | 214,168 |
| 2019 | 759,653 | 537,064 | 211,095 |
| 2020 | 612,672 | 402,664 | 192,467 |
| 2021 | 858,372 | 758,641 | 88,545 |
| 2022 | 629,837 | 453,876 | 165,668 |
| Average | 776,023 | 557,827 | 203,430 |
| Standard Deviation | 127,045 | 121,697 | 66,279 |

Table A-50. Supporting Data for Figure 49

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Pelagic | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 799,483 | 749,955 | 49,529 |
| 2014 | 764,151 | 707,659 | 56,491 |
| 2015 | 959,906 | 898,827 | 61,081 |
| 2016 | 883,583 | 843,726 | 39,858 |
| 2017 | 600,826 | 577,287 | 23,539 |
| 2018 | 891,748 | 840,306 | 51,444 |
| 2019 | 759,653 | 721,615 | 38,034 |
| 2020 | 612,672 | 609,506 | 3,167 |
| 2021 | 858,372 | 837,411 | 20,962 |
| 2022 | 629,837 | 612,438 | 17,399 |
| Average | 776,023 | 739,873 | 36,150 |
| Standard Deviation | 127,045 | 113,917 | 19,133 |

Table A-51. Supporting Data for Figure 50

| Year | Estimated Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Landings (lb) - Non-Charter | Estimated Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| 2013 | 554,062 | 547,430 | 6,633 |
| 2014 | 437,871 | 427,658 | 10,213 |
| 2015 | 709,521 | 703,930 | 5,591 |
| 2016 | 591,599 | 582,607 | 8,992 |
| 2017 | 469,153 | 462,585 | 6,568 |
| 2018 | 663,817 | 655,356 | 8,461 |
| 2019 | 537,064 | 526,439 | 10,625 |
| 2020 | 402,664 | 402,039 | 625 |
| 2021 | 758,641 | 751,563 | 7,078 |
| 2022 | 453,876 | 449,239 | 4,637 |
| Average | 557,827 | 550,885 | 6,942 |
| Standard Deviation | 121,697 | 120,965 | 2,945 |

Table A-52. Supporting Data for Figure 51

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Skipjack | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non-Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| 2013 | 501,465 | 494,833 | 6,633 |
| 2014 | 403,139 | 393,270 | 9,868 |
| 2015 | 598,507 | 593,703 | 4,804 |
| 2016 | 458,312 | 452,579 | 5,733 |
| 2017 | 408,491 | 403,074 | 5,417 |
| 2018 | 610,751 | 603,412 | 7,339 |
| 2019 | 473,405 | 464,156 | 9,249 |
| 2020 | 347,793 | 347,417 | 376 |
| 2021 | 665,717 | 660,368 | 5,349 |
| 2022 | 419,431 | 414,935 | 4,496 |
| Average | 488,701 | 482,775 | 5,926 |
| Standard Deviation | 104,359 | 103,864 | 2,663 |

Table A-53. Supporting Data for Figure 52

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Yellowfin | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 52,183 | 52,183 | 0 |
| 2014 | 34,492 | 34,148 | 345 |
| 2015 | 110,459 | 109,672 | 787 |
| 2016 | 133,210 | 130,028 | 3,182 |
| 2017 | 60,541 | 59,390 | 1,151 |
| 2018 | 52,555 | 51,433 | 1,122 |
| 2019 | 63,621 | 62,245 | 1,376 |
| 2020 | 54,871 | 54,622 | 249 |
| 2021 | 92,834 | 91,105 | 1,729 |
| 2022 | 34,050 | 33,909 | 141 |
| Average | 68,882 | 67,874 | 1,008 |
| Standard Deviation | 32,788 | 32,036 | 957 |

Table A-54. Supporting Data for Figure 53

| Year | Estimated Total Landings Non-Tuna (lb) - PMUS | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 235,590 | 193,026 | 42,564 |
| 2014 | 307,092 | 260,949 | 46,142 |
| 2015 | 228,207 | 173,272 | 54,936 |
| 2016 | 273,533 | 243,237 | 30,296 |
| 2017 | 117,938 | 101,582 | 16,356 |
| 2018 | 214,168 | 171,742 | 42,427 |
| 2019 | 211,095 | 183,877 | 27,215 |
| 2020 | 192,467 | 189,926 | 2,542 |
| 2021 | 88,545 | 74,934 | 13,612 |
| 2022 | 165,668 | 154,013 | 11,655 |
| Average | 203,430 | 174,656 | 28,775 |
| Standard Deviation | 66,279 | 56,299 | 17,425 |

Table A-55. Supporting Data for Figure 54

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Mahimahi | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| 2013 | 164,550 | 133,376 | 31,174 |
| 2014 | 189,444 | 158,333 | 31,110 |
| 2015 | 158,536 | 121,621 | 36,915 |
| 2016 | 191,940 | 175,089 | 16,851 |
| 2017 | 39,505 | 33,950 | 5,555 |
| 2018 | 88,817 | 77,314 | 11,503 |
| 2019 | 136,665 | 119,970 | 16,694 |
| 2020 | 92,283 | 90,418 | 1,865 |
| 2021 | 31,235 | 29,117 | 2,118 |
| 2022 | 94,491 | 86,651 | 7,840 |
| Average | 118,747 | 102,584 | 16,163 |
| Standard Deviation | 58,195 | 48,450 | 12,847 |

Table A-56. Supporting Data for Figure 55

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Wahoo | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 54,202 | 49,646 | 4,556 |
| 2014 | 88,394 | 80,074 | 8,320 |
| 2015 | 31,457 | 23,955 | 7,502 |
| 2016 | 34,240 | 28,860 | 5,380 |
| 2017 | 46,985 | 43,437 | 3,548 |
| 2018 | 96,035 | 81,248 | 14,787 |
| 2019 | 23,707 | 21,669 | 2,037 |
| 2020 | 46,262 | 45,586 | 677 |
| 2021 | 22,567 | 19,144 | 3,423 |
| 2022 | 57,003 | 55,434 | 1,569 |
| Average | 50,085 | 44,905 | 5,180 |
| Standard Deviation | 25,208 | 22,592 | 4,176 |

Table A-57. Supporting Data for Figure 56

| Year | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Blue Marlin | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Non- Charter | Estimated Total Landings (lb) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|--|
| 2013 | 15,050 | 8,216 | 6,834 |
| 2014 | 29,241 | 22,529 | 6,712 |
| 2015 | 37,509 | 26,992 | 10,518 |
| 2016 | 44,954 | 36,889 | 8,065 |
| 2017 | 31,253 | 24,000 | 7,253 |
| 2018 | 24,516 | 12,754 | 11,763 |
| 2019 | 49,973 | 41,512 | 8,460 |
| 2020 | 50,846 | 50,846 | 0 |
| 2021 | 30,967 | 22,897 | 8,071 |
| 2022 | 8,700 | 6,818 | 1,882 |
| Average | 32,301 | 25,345 | 6,956 |
| Standard Deviation | 14,027 | 14,370 | 3,572 |

Table A-58. Supporting Data for Figure 57

| Year | Estimated Commercial Landings (lb) - All Pelagic | Estimated Commercial Landings (lb) - Tuna PMUS | Estimated Commercial Landings (lb) - Non-Tuna PMUS |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|
| 2013 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| 2014 | 121,632 | 48,148 | 68,668 |
| 2015 | 109,395 | 63,677 | 42,794 |
| 2016 | 100,551 | 37,560 | 58,031 |
| 2017 | 118,457 | 56,455 | 55,434 |
| 2018 | 97,019 | 54,112 | 38,655 |
| 2019 | 141,756 | 52,020 | 82,100 |
| 2020 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| 2021 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| 2022 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. |
| Average | 114,802 | 51,995 | 57,614 |
| Standard Deviation | 16,341 | 8,764 | 16,160 |

Table A-59. Supporting Data for Figure 58

| Year | Estimated Troll Trips | Estimated Troll Trips - Non-Charter | Estimated Troll Trips - Charter |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|--|--|
| 2013 | 8,100 | 7,182 | 918 |
| 2014 | 9,803 | 8,495 | 1,308 |
| 2015 | 9,223 | 8,000 | 1,223 |
| 2016 | 11,680 | 10,344 | 1,336 |
| 2017 | 10,302 | 9,083 | 1,219 |
| 2018 | 10,760 | 9,323 | 1,437 |
| 2019 | 9,249 | 8,016 | 1,233 |
| 2020 | 9,218 | 9,016 | 202 |
| 2021 | 10,719 | 10,106 | 614 |
| 2022 | 9,895 | 9,107 | 788 |
| Average | 9,895 | 8,867 | 1,028 |
| Standard Deviation | 1,019 | 972 | 392 |

Table A-60. Supporting Data for Figure 59

| Year | Estimated Troll Hours - Total | Estimated Troll Hours - Non-Charter | Estimated Troll Hours - Charter |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| 2013 | 42,438 | 39,554 | 2,885 |
| 2014 | 48,889 | 44,501 | 4,388 |
| 2015 | 62,568 | 55,600 | 6,968 |
| 2016 | 64,671 | 60,141 | 4,530 |
| 2017 | 53,390 | 49,092 | 4,298 |
| 2018 | 54,617 | 50,289 | 4,328 |
| 2019 | 47,101 | 43,135 | 3,966 |
| 2020 | 47,516 | 46,778 | 738 |
| 2021 | 56,373 | 54,125 | 2,248 |
| 2022 | 48,297 | 45,461 | 2,836 |
| Average | 52,586 | 48,868 | 3,719 |
| Standard Deviation | 7,115 | 6,296 | 1,665 |

Table A-61. Supporting Data for Figure 60

| Year | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip – Overall Average | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip - Non-Charter | Estimated Troll Hours per Trip - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|
| 2013 | 5.2 | 5.5 | 3.1 |
| 2014 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 3.4 |
| 2015 | 6.8 | 7.0 | 5.7 |
| 2016 | 5.5 | 5.8 | 3.4 |
| 2017 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 3.5 |
| 2018 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 3.0 |
| 2019 | 5.1 | 5.4 | 3.2 |
| 2020 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 3.7 |
| 2021 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 3.7 |
| 2022 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 3.6 |
| Average | 5.3 | 5.5 | 3.6 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.8 |

Table A-62. Supporting Data for Figure 61

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Overall Average | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non-Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|
| 2013 | 19.2 | 19.4 | 17.1 |
| 2014 | 15.7 | 16.0 | 12.8 |
| 2015 | 15.4 | 16.2 | 8.8 |
| 2016 | 13.6 | 14.0 | 8.8 |
| 2017 | 11.2 | 11.7 | 5.5 |
| 2018 | 16.3 | 16.6 | 11.9 |
| 2019 | 16.0 | 16.6 | 9.6 |
| 2020 | 12.8 | 13.0 | 4.3 |
| 2021 | 15.1 | 15.3 | 9.0 |
| 2022 | 12.9 | 13.3 | 6.1 |
| Average | 14.8 | 15.2 | 9.4 |
| Standard Deviation | 2.3 | 2.2 | 3.8 |

Table A-63. Supporting Data for Figure 62

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Skipjack | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| 2013 | 11.8 | 12.5 | 2.3 |
| 2014 | 8.2 | 8.8 | 2.2 |
| 2015 | 9.6 | 10.7 | 0.7 |
| 2016 | 7.1 | 7.5 | 1.3 |
| 2017 | 7.7 | 8.2 | 1.3 |
| 2018 | 11.2 | 12.0 | 1.7 |
| 2019 | 10.1 | 10.8 | 2.3 |
| 2020 | 7.3 | 7.4 | 0.5 |
| 2021 | 11.8 | 12.2 | 2.4 |
| 2022 | 8.7 | 9.1 | 1.6 |
| Average | 9.4 | 9.9 | 1.6 |
| Standard Deviation | 1.8 | 2.0 | 0.7 |

Table A-64. Supporting Data for Figure 63

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Yellowfin Tuna | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non- Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| 2013 | 1.2 | 1.3 | |
| 2014 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.1 |
| 2015 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 0.1 |
| 2016 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 0.7 |
| 2017 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 0.3 |
| 2018 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.3 |
| 2019 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 0.3 |
| 2020 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 0.3 |
| 2021 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 0.8 |
| 2022 | 0.7 | 0.7 | |
| Average | 1.3 | 1.4 | 0.4 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.3 |

Table A-65. Supporting Data for Figure 64

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Mahimahi | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non-Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| 2013 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 10.8 |
| 2014 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 7.0 |
| 2015 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 5.3 |
| 2016 | 3.0 | 2.9 | 3.7 |
| 2017 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 1.3 |
| 2018 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 2.7 |
| 2019 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 4.2 |
| 2020 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.5 |
| 2021 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.9 |
| 2022 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.8 |
| Average | 2.3 | 2.1 | 4.1 |
| Standard Deviation | 1.2 | 1.1 | 3.0 |

Table A-66. Supporting Data for Figure 65

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Wahoo | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non-Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|
| 2013 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.6 |
| 2014 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.9 |
| 2015 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 1.1 |
| 2016 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1.2 |
| 2017 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 |
| 2018 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 3.4 |
| 2019 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| 2020 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| 2021 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 1.2 |
| 2022 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 0.6 |
| Average | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.3 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.8 |

Table A-67. Supporting Data for Figure 66

| Year | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Blue Marlin | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Non-Charter | Troll Catch Rate (lb/hr) - Charter |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|
| 2013 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 2.4 |
| 2014 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 1.5 |
| 2015 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 1.5 |
| 2016 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 1.8 |
| 2017 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 1.7 |
| 2018 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 2.7 |
| 2019 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 2.1 |
| 2020 | 1.1 | 1.1 | |
| 2021 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 3.6 |
| 2022 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.7 |
| Average | 0.6 | 0.5 | 2.0 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.8 |

TABLES FOR SECTION 2.4: HAWAII

Table A-68. Supporting Data for Figure 67

| Year | Hawaii pelagic catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | Total |
|---------|-------------------------------------|----------|------------|----------------|----------|----------|
| | Tunas | Billfish | Other PMUS | PMUS Sharks | non-PMUS | |
| 2013 | 21,321 | 5,440 | 6,215 | 131 | 25 | 33,133 |
| 2014 | 21,317 | 6,721 | 6,932 | 129 | 18 | 35,116 |
| 2015 | 25,515 | 6,928 | 7,186 | 150 | 23 | 39,802 |
| 2016 | 25,038 | 5,687 | 6,167 | 168 | 24 | 37,083 |
| 2017 | 26,584 | 7,060 | 5,543 | 166 | 11 | 39,364 |
| 2018 | 25,439 | 5,732 | 6,515 | 139 | 12 | 37,838 |
| 2019 | 24,696 | 5,697 | 5,955 | 115 | 5 | 36,468 |
| 2020 | 23,005 | 3,624 | 3,757 | 43 | 5 | 30,433 |
| 2021 | 24,134 | 3,528 | 3,340 | 17 | 6 | 31,025 |
| 2022 | 22,736 | 4,255 | 2,562 | 10 | 4 | 29,566 |
| Average | 23,978.5 | 5,467.0 | 5,417.3 | 106.7 | 13.4 | 34,982.8 |
| SD | 1,813.0 | 1,292.8 | 1,611.0 | 60.4 | 8.6 | 3,746.7 |

Table A-69. Supporting Data for Figure 68

| Year | Hawaii pelagic total catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|---|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|----------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 25,006 | 2,345 | 3,117 | 1,282 | 831 | 550 | 33,133 |
| 2014 | 26,615 | 3,255 | 3,486 | 1,161 | 416 | 182 | 35,116 |
| 2015 | 32,136 | 2,778 | 3,094 | 1,200 | 409 | 184 | 39,802 |
| 2016 | 31,434 | 1,849 | 2,582 | 785 | 366 | 67 | 37,083 |
| 2017 | 32,760 | 3,007 | 2,209 | 975 | 323 | 89 | 39,364 |
| 2018 | 32,410 | 1,438 | 2,743 | 778 | 366 | 104 | 37,838 |
| 2019 | 31,865 | 829 | 2,479 | 687 | 477 | 132 | 36,468 |
| 2020 | 27,035 | 875 | 1,498 | 582 | 328 | 113 | 30,433 |
| 2021 | 26,808 | 1,264 | 1,829 | 685 | 257 | 180 | 31,025 |
| 2022 | 24,229 | 1,873 | 1,762 | 940 | 454 | 309 | 29,566 |
| Average | 29,030.0 | 1,951.4 | 2,479.9 | 907.7 | 422.8 | 191.2 | 34,982.8 |
| SD | 3,379.4 | 870.7 | 654.2 | 243.1 | 157.7 | 143.8 | 3,746.7 |

Table A-70. Supporting Data for Figure 69

| Year | Hawaii tuna catch by gear type (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|---|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|----------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 17,019 | 82 | 1,745 | 1,166 | 810 | 499 | 21,321 |
| 2014 | 17,898 | 101 | 1,743 | 1,026 | 403 | 145 | 21,317 |
| 2015 | 22,255 | 123 | 1,473 | 1,106 | 400 | 157 | 25,515 |
| 2016 | 22,450 | 106 | 1,368 | 703 | 362 | 48 | 25,038 |
| 2017 | 23,768 | 274 | 1,253 | 899 | 310 | 80 | 26,584 |
| 2018 | 22,588 | 188 | 1,494 | 717 | 358 | 94 | 25,439 |
| 2019 | 22,167 | 93 | 1,220 | 626 | 469 | 120 | 24,696 |
| 2020 | 21,012 | 151 | 864 | 552 | 324 | 102 | 23,005 |
| 2021 | 21,931 | 220 | 915 | 650 | 252 | 166 | 24,134 |
| 2022 | 19,845 | 236 | 1,014 | 907 | 450 | 283 | 22,736 |
| Average | 21,093.4 | 157.5 | 1,308.9 | 835.2 | 413.9 | 169.6 | 23,978.5 |
| SD | 2,180.9 | 67.9 | 315.2 | 215.8 | 153.6 | 132.4 | 1,813.0 |

Table A-71. Supporting Data for Figure 70

| Year | Hawaii tuna catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|----------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|----------|-----------------|----------------|----------|
| | Bigeye tuna | Yellowfin tuna | Skipjack tuna | Albacore | Bluefin tuna | Other tunas | |
| 2013 | 15,699 | 3,698 | 1,109 | 803 | 1 | 11 | 21,321 |
| 2014 | 16,564 | 3,522 | 648 | 552 | 1 | 30 | 21,317 |
| 2015 | 20,009 | 4,068 | 722 | 679 | 0 | 36 | 25,515 |
| 2016 | 18,663 | 4,956 | 801 | 602 | 1 | 14 | 25,038 |
| 2017 | 17,955 | 7,596 | 732 | 287 | 3 | 11 | 26,584 |
| 2018 | 17,093 | 7,567 | 530 | 239 | 1 | 10 | 25,439 |
| 2019 | 17,612 | 5,982 | 832 | 255 | 4 | 10 | 24,696 |
| 2020 | 16,968 | 5,108 | 554 | 366 | 3 | 6 | 23,005 |
| 2021 | 16,129 | 6,970 | 494 | 534 | 2 | 5 | 24,134 |
| 2022 | 14,688 | 7,124 | 460 | 457 | 3 | 3 | 22,736 |
| Average | 17,138.0 | 5,659.2 | 688.3 | 477.4 | 2.0 | 13.6 | 23,978.5 |
| SD | 1,524.3 | 1,602.0 | 196.7 | 190.6 | 1.3 | 10.9 | 1,813.0 |

Table A-72. Supporting Data for Figure 71

| Year | Hawaii bigeye tuna catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|---|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|----------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll handline | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 14,240 | 45 | 326 | 147 | 719 | 222 | 15,699 |
| 2014 | 15,657 | 65 | 315 | 105 | 348 | 75 | 16,564 |
| 2015 | 19,248 | 99 | 129 | 74 | 373 | 87 | 20,009 |
| 2016 | 18,070 | 75 | 75 | 93 | 310 | 40 | 18,663 |
| 2017 | 17,498 | 126 | 81 | 48 | 185 | 17 | 17,955 |
| 2018 | 16,635 | 108 | 59 | 30 | 244 | 17 | 17,093 |
| 2019 | 16,916 | 60 | 77 | 63 | 435 | 62 | 17,612 |
| 2020 | 16,445 | 102 | 41 | 40 | 279 | 61 | 16,968 |
| 2021 | 15,653 | 88 | 28 | 31 | 240 | 89 | 16,129 |
| 2022 | 13,956 | 99 | 28 | 46 | 396 | 163 | 14,688 |
| Average | 16,431.6 | 86.7 | 115.8 | 67.8 | 352.8 | 83.2 | 17,138.0 |
| SD | 1,638.6 | 25.2 | 111.9 | 37.7 | 150.2 | 64.5 | 1,524.3 |

Table A-73. Supporting Data for Figure 72

| Year | Hawaii yellowfin tuna catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll handline | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 1,582 | 22 | 1,078 | 894 | 82 | 40 | 3,698 |
| 2014 | 1,407 | 24 | 1,224 | 795 | 53 | 21 | 3,522 |
| 2015 | 2,012 | 17 | 1,095 | 878 | 25 | 41 | 4,068 |
| 2016 | 3,304 | 29 | 1,024 | 542 | 51 | 5 | 4,956 |
| 2017 | 5,581 | 137 | 951 | 758 | 124 | 45 | 7,596 |
| 2018 | 5,437 | 75 | 1,240 | 628 | 114 | 73 | 7,567 |
| 2019 | 4,445 | 30 | 903 | 516 | 32 | 57 | 5,982 |
| 2020 | 3,845 | 39 | 647 | 492 | 44 | 41 | 5,108 |
| 2021 | 5,441 | 113 | 730 | 598 | 11 | 77 | 6,970 |
| 2022 | 5,254 | 97 | 761 | 840 | 53 | 119 | 7,124 |
| Average | 3,830.8 | 58.3 | 965.2 | 694.1 | 58.9 | 51.9 | 5,659.2 |
| SD | 1,671.9 | 43.8 | 204.8 | 155.7 | 37.0 | 31.9 | 1,602.0 |

Table A-74. Supporting Data for Figure 73

| Year | Hawaii skipjack tuna catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|---|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll handline | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 515 | 0 | 328 | 22 | 9 | 235 | 1,109 |
| 2014 | 411 | 0 | 172 | 15 | 3 | 48 | 648 |
| 2015 | 467 | 1 | 213 | 11 | 2 | 28 | 722 |
| 2016 | 529 | 0 | 258 | 11 | 0 | 3 | 801 |
| 2017 | 485 | 1 | 214 | 13 | 0 | 18 | 732 |
| 2018 | 329 | 0 | 185 | 12 | 0 | 4 | 530 |
| 2019 | 576 | 0 | 232 | 21 | 2 | 1 | 832 |
| 2020 | 369 | 0 | 172 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 554 |
| 2021 | 333 | 1 | 152 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 494 |
| 2022 | 226 | 1 | 222 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 460 |
| Average | 424.1 | 0.5 | 214.7 | 13.2 | 1.9 | 33.8 | 688.3 |
| SD | 109.3 | 0.4 | 51.2 | 4.8 | 2.5 | 72.4 | 196.7 |

Table A-75. Supporting Data for Figure 74

| Year | Hawaii albacore catch (1,000 pounds) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | MHI troll handline | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 682 | 14 | 4 | 101 | 0 | 2 | 803 |
| 2014 | 423 | 12 | 7 | 108 | 0 | 1 | 552 |
| 2015 | 529 | 7 | 4 | 139 | 0 | 0 | 679 |
| 2016 | 546 | 2 | 2 | 52 | 0 | 0 | 602 |
| 2017 | 200 | 9 | 1 | 76 | 1 | 0 | 287 |
| 2018 | 187 | 5 | 3 | 44 | 0 | 0 | 239 |
| 2019 | 227 | 3 | 2 | 22 | 1 | 0 | 255 |
| 2020 | 350 | 9 | 1 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 366 |
| 2021 | 503 | 18 | 2 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 534 |
| 2022 | 406 | 38 | 2 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 457 |
| Average | 405.2 | 11.6 | 2.6 | 57.2 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 477.4 |
| SD | 165.3 | 10.5 | 1.9 | 47.0 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 190.6 |

Table A-76. Supporting Data for Figure 75

| Year | Hawaii billfish catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 2,895 | 2,177 | 334 | 18 | 5 | 10 | 5,440 |
| 2014 | 3,282 | 3,033 | 373 | 21 | 6 | 6 | 6,721 |
| 2015 | 3,898 | 2,539 | 462 | 16 | 4 | 9 | 6,928 |
| 2016 | 3,608 | 1,677 | 382 | 15 | 1 | 3 | 5,687 |
| 2017 | 4,059 | 2,625 | 349 | 20 | 4 | 3 | 7,060 |
| 2018 | 4,106 | 1,216 | 392 | 13 | 1 | 4 | 5,732 |
| 2019 | 4,564 | 723 | 385 | 15 | 3 | 6 | 5,697 |
| 2020 | 2,720 | 665 | 224 | 9 | 2 | 4 | 3,624 |
| 2021 | 2,210 | 1,020 | 282 | 7 | 3 | 6 | 3,528 |
| 2022 | 2,338 | 1,616 | 281 | 8 | 1 | 9 | 4,255 |
| Average | 3,368.2 | 1,729.0 | 346.5 | 14.4 | 2.9 | 6.0 | 5,467.0 |
| SD | 805.9 | 835.7 | 68.5 | 4.7 | 1.6 | 2.6 | 1,292.8 |

Table A-77. Supporting Data for Figure 76

| Year | Hawaii billfish catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | Total |
|---------|-----------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------|------------------|---------|
| | Swordfish | Blue marlin | Striped marlin | Spearfish | Other marlins | |
| 2013 | 2,816 | 1,190 | 898 | 497 | 39 | 5,440 |
| 2014 | 3,690 | 1,511 | 967 | 501 | 52 | 6,721 |
| 2015 | 3,356 | 1,804 | 1,112 | 605 | 50 | 6,928 |
| 2016 | 2,418 | 1,542 | 887 | 784 | 56 | 5,687 |
| 2017 | 3,582 | 1,833 | 910 | 688 | 46 | 7,060 |
| 2018 | 2,329 | 1,808 | 1,052 | 504 | 39 | 5,732 |
| 2019 | 1,626 | 2,337 | 1,231 | 453 | 50 | 5,697 |
| 2020 | 1,202 | 1,373 | 762 | 262 | 24 | 3,624 |
| 2021 | 1,517 | 1,101 | 571 | 304 | 35 | 3,528 |
| 2022 | 2,048 | 1,239 | 645 | 296 | 27 | 4,255 |
| Average | 2,458.5 | 1,573.9 | 903.5 | 489.5 | 41.8 | 5,467.0 |
| SD | 885.6 | 378.0 | 204.1 | 171.5 | 10.9 | 1,292.8 |

Table A-78. Supporting Data for Figure 77

| Year | Swordfish catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 677 | 2,120 | 1 | 14 | 1 | 2 | 2,816 |
| 2014 | 694 | 2,978 | 2 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 3,690 |
| 2015 | 843 | 2,500 | 2 | 11 | 0 | 1 | 3,356 |
| 2016 | 794 | 1,615 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 2,418 |
| 2017 | 998 | 2,570 | 1 | 13 | 1 | 0 | 3,582 |
| 2018 | 1,111 | 1,210 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 2,329 |
| 2019 | 898 | 720 | 1 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 1,626 |
| 2020 | 538 | 659 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 1,202 |
| 2021 | 524 | 989 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1,517 |
| 2022 | 464 | 1,580 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2,048 |
| Average | 754.0 | 1,694.0 | 1.0 | 8.3 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 2,458.5 |
| SD | 213.5 | 817.8 | 0.7 | 4.7 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 885.6 |

Table A-79. Supporting Data for Figure 78

| Year | Blue marlin catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 879 | 17 | 282 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 1,190 |
| 2014 | 1,160 | 19 | 318 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 1,511 |
| 2015 | 1,380 | 12 | 399 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 1,804 |
| 2016 | 1,194 | 28 | 311 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 1,542 |
| 2017 | 1,502 | 14 | 306 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 1,833 |
| 2018 | 1,463 | 1 | 336 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 1,808 |
| 2019 | 1,987 | 0 | 334 | 8 | 2 | 5 | 2,337 |
| 2020 | 1,168 | 3 | 193 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1,373 |
| 2021 | 827 | 15 | 247 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 1,101 |
| 2022 | 970 | 9 | 247 | 6 | 1 | 7 | 1,239 |
| Average | 1,253.1 | 11.8 | 297.3 | 5.4 | 2.2 | 4.0 | 1,573.9 |
| SD | 346.7 | 8.8 | 57.7 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 378.0 |

Table A-80. Supporting Data for Figure 79

| Year | Striped marlin catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 843 | 35 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 898 |
| 2014 | 908 | 31 | 27 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 967 |
| 2015 | 1,064 | 24 | 23 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,112 |
| 2016 | 831 | 29 | 27 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 887 |
| 2017 | 861 | 34 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 910 |
| 2018 | 1,021 | 4 | 26 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,052 |
| 2019 | 1,200 | 1 | 29 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,231 |
| 2020 | 738 | 2 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 762 |
| 2021 | 538 | 13 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 571 |
| 2022 | 599 | 25 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 645 |
| Average | 860.4 | 19.8 | 22.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 903.5 |
| SD | 203.7 | 13.5 | 4.9 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 204.1 |

Table A-81. Supporting Data for Figure 80

| Year | Catch of other PMUS by gear type (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|--|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 5,071 | 86 | 1,036 | 97 | 16 | 40 | 6,346 |
| 2014 | 5,421 | 121 | 1,367 | 114 | 7 | 30 | 7,061 |
| 2015 | 5,964 | 116 | 1,155 | 78 | 4 | 18 | 7,336 |
| 2016 | 5,356 | 67 | 828 | 66 | 3 | 15 | 6,335 |
| 2017 | 4,926 | 108 | 603 | 56 | 10 | 7 | 5,709 |
| 2018 | 5,706 | 34 | 855 | 48 | 7 | 6 | 6,654 |
| 2019 | 5,129 | 12 | 872 | 46 | 5 | 5 | 6,070 |
| 2020 | 3,300 | 60 | 409 | 21 | 2 | 7 | 3,799 |
| 2021 | 2,664 | 24 | 632 | 27 | 2 | 8 | 3,357 |
| 2022 | 2,041 | 21 | 466 | 24 | 2 | 17 | 2,572 |
| Average | 4,557.8 | 64.8 | 822.3 | 57.7 | 5.9 | 15.3 | 5,524.0 |
| SD | 1,370.7 | 41.3 | 305.3 | 31.2 | 4.4 | 11.7 | 1,665.7 |

Table A-82. Supporting Data for Figure 81

| Year | Catch of other PMUS by species (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|--|----------|---------|---------|---------|------------|---------|
| | Mahimahi | Moonfish | Oilfish | Ono | Pomfret | PMUS shark | |
| 2013 | 1,588 | 2,073 | 580 | 883 | 1,091 | 131 | 6,346 |
| 2014 | 1,819 | 2,242 | 516 | 1,176 | 1,179 | 129 | 7,061 |
| 2015 | 1,495 | 2,662 | 528 | 1,223 | 1,278 | 150 | 7,336 |
| 2016 | 1,232 | 2,166 | 481 | 1,204 | 1,084 | 168 | 6,335 |
| 2017 | 1,003 | 2,293 | 338 | 984 | 925 | 166 | 5,709 |
| 2018 | 1,077 | 3,070 | 315 | 1,176 | 878 | 139 | 6,654 |
| 2019 | 1,005 | 2,292 | 308 | 1,599 | 751 | 115 | 6,070 |
| 2020 | 585 | 1,629 | 184 | 850 | 509 | 43 | 3,799 |
| 2021 | 750 | 845 | 162 | 1,174 | 409 | 17 | 3,357 |
| 2022 | 775 | 526 | 164 | 667 | 429 | 10 | 2,572 |
| Average | 1,132.9 | 1,979.9 | 357.6 | 1,093.6 | 853.3 | 106.7 | 5,524.0 |
| SD | 398.6 | 780.6 | 159.6 | 258.7 | 317.8 | 60.4 | 1,665.7 |

Table A-83. Supporting Data for Figure 82

| Year | Moonfish catch (1,000 lbs) | | | Total |
|---------|----------------------------|----------------------|------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow-set longline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 2,063 | 10 | 0 | 2,073 |
| 2014 | 2,213 | 28 | 0 | 2,242 |
| 2015 | 2,622 | 39 | 1 | 2,661 |
| 2016 | 2,148 | 19 | 0 | 2,166 |
| 2017 | 2,261 | 32 | 0 | 2,293 |
| 2018 | 3,057 | 13 | 0 | 3,070 |
| 2019 | 2,289 | 3 | 0 | 2,292 |
| 2020 | 1,606 | 23 | 0 | 1,629 |
| 2021 | 843 | 2 | 0 | 845 |
| 2022 | 524 | 2 | 0 | 526 |
| Average | 1,962.6 | 17.2 | 0.1 | 1,979.8 |
| SD | 773.5 | 13.4 | 0.2 | 780.6 |

Table A-84. Supporting Data for Figure 83

| Year | Mahimahi catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 846 | 43 | 639 | 37 | 12 | 11 | 1,588 |
| 2014 | 810 | 45 | 901 | 52 | 5 | 7 | 1,819 |
| 2015 | 692 | 30 | 734 | 27 | 2 | 9 | 1,495 |
| 2016 | 636 | 16 | 558 | 19 | 1 | 3 | 1,232 |
| 2017 | 548 | 15 | 416 | 18 | 1 | 3 | 1,003 |
| 2018 | 495 | 6 | 553 | 18 | 1 | 3 | 1,077 |
| 2019 | 434 | 2 | 549 | 17 | 2 | 1 | 1,005 |
| 2020 | 262 | 3 | 305 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 585 |
| 2021 | 355 | 12 | 365 | 14 | 1 | 3 | 750 |
| 2022 | 380 | 13 | 357 | 16 | 1 | 8 | 775 |
| Average | 545.8 | 18.5 | 537.6 | 23.0 | 2.9 | 5.1 | 1,132.9 |
| SD | 196.9 | 15.5 | 186.4 | 12.5 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 398.6 |

Table A-85. Supporting Data for Figure 84

| Year | Ono catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | | Total |
|---------|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI troll | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 464 | 1 | 396 | 16 | 2 | 4 | 883 |
| 2014 | 684 | 2 | 465 | 20 | 1 | 5 | 1,176 |
| 2015 | 781 | 1 | 421 | 17 | 1 | 3 | 1,223 |
| 2016 | 920 | 1 | 269 | 11 | 0 | 2 | 1,204 |
| 2017 | 784 | 3 | 186 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 984 |
| 2018 | 859 | 1 | 301 | 13 | 0 | 1 | 1,176 |
| 2019 | 1,259 | 0 | 322 | 14 | 2 | 2 | 1,599 |
| 2020 | 738 | 0 | 104 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 850 |
| 2021 | 894 | 2 | 267 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 1,174 |
| 2022 | 550 | 1 | 109 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 667 |
| Average | 793.2 | 1.2 | 284.0 | 11.9 | 0.9 | 2.4 | 1,093.6 |
| SD | 218.5 | 0.7 | 124.2 | 4.8 | 0.6 | 1.3 | 258.7 |

Table A-86. Supporting Data for Figure 85

| Year | Pomfret catch (1,000 lbs) | | | | | Total |
|---------|---------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | MHI handline | Offshore handline | Other gear | |
| 2013 | 1,027 | 1 | 41 | 2 | 20 | 1,091 |
| 2014 | 1,118 | 2 | 41 | 1 | 18 | 1,179 |
| 2015 | 1,242 | 1 | 31 | 1 | 4 | 1,278 |
| 2016 | 1,038 | 0 | 34 | 2 | 10 | 1,084 |
| 2017 | 888 | 0 | 28 | 7 | 1 | 925 |
| 2018 | 857 | 0 | 16 | 5 | 1 | 878 |
| 2019 | 732 | 0 | 15 | 2 | 2 | 751 |
| 2020 | 501 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 4 | 509 |
| 2021 | 400 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 409 |
| 2022 | 417 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 7 | 429 |
| Average | 822.1 | 0.7 | 21.6 | 2.0 | 6.9 | 853.2 |
| SD | 300.1 | 0.7 | 15.2 | 2.3 | 6.9 | 317.8 |

Table A-87. Supporting Data for Figure 86

| Year | PMUS shark catch (1,000 lbs) | | | Total |
|---------|------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------|
| | Deep-set longline | Shallow- set longline | Non- longline | |
| 2013 | 112 | 15 | 4 | 131 |
| 2014 | 106 | 20 | 3 | 129 |
| 2015 | 120 | 25 | 4 | 150 |
| 2016 | 140 | 24 | 4 | 168 |
| 2017 | 116 | 49 | 2 | 166 |
| 2018 | 126 | 12 | 2 | 139 |
| 2019 | 108 | 6 | 1 | 115 |
| 2020 | 11 | 31 | 0 | 43 |
| 2021 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 17 |
| 2022 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 10 |
| Average | 85.9 | 18.8 | 2.0 | 106.7 |
| SD | 52.7 | 14.3 | 1.7 | 60.4 |

Table A-88. Supporting Data for Figure 87

| Year | Deep-set longline | | |
|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| | Vessels | Trips | Sets |
| 2013 | 136 | 1,386 | 18,803 |
| 2014 | 140 | 1,355 | 17,831 |
| 2015 | 143 | 1,452 | 18,519 |
| 2016 | 142 | 1,480 | 19,391 |
| 2017 | 145 | 1,539 | 19,674 |
| 2018 | 143 | 1,643 | 21,012 |
| 2019 | 149 | 1,727 | 22,318 |
| 2020 | 146 | 1,643 | 20,784 |
| 2021 | 146 | 1,689 | 22,175 |
| 2022 | 147 | 1,531 | 21,299 |
| Average | 143.7 | 1,544.5 | 20,180.6 |
| SD | 3.8 | 128.0 | 1560.3 |

Table A-89. Supporting Data for Figure 88

| Year | Number of deep-set hooks by area (millions) | | | Total |
|----------------|--|-------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | Outside EEZ | Hawaii EEZ | PRIA EEZ | |
| 2013 | 32.9 | 12.9 | 1.2 | 47.0 |
| 2014 | 34.2 | 10.8 | 0.8 | 45.8 |
| 2015 | 33.0 | 14.3 | 0.3 | 47.6 |
| 2016 | 38.6 | 12.5 | 0.1 | 51.1 |
| 2017 | 40.5 | 13.0 | 0.0 | 53.6 |
| 2018 | 43.1 | 15.4 | 0.0 | 58.6 |
| 2019 | 49.1 | 14.3 | 0.0 | 63.4 |
| 2020 | 44.8 | 14.9 | 0.0 | 59.7 |
| 2021 | 41.6 | 23.8 | 0.0 | 65.4 |
| 2022 | 46.8 | 16.6 | 0.0 | 63.3 |
| Average | 40.46 | 14.85 | 0.24 | 55.55 |
| SD | 5.75 | 3.55 | 0.42 | 7.46 |

Table A-90. Supporting Data for Figure 89

| Year | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Adjusted revenue (\$1,000) | Nominal revenue (\$1,000) | Honolulu CPI |
|----------------|------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|
| 2013 | 25,006 | \$105,029 | \$84,376 | 253.9 |
| 2014 | 26,615 | \$97,860 | \$78,617 | 257.6 |
| 2015 | 32,136 | \$110,835 | \$91,229 | 260.2 |
| 2016 | 31,434 | \$118,182 | \$99,190 | 265.3 |
| 2017 | 32,760 | \$111,710 | \$96,137 | 272.0 |
| 2018 | 32,410 | \$115,595 | \$101,332 | 277.1 |
| 2019 | 31,865 | \$104,237 | \$92,862 | 281.6 |
| 2020 | 27,035 | \$78,265 | \$70,820 | 286.0 |
| 2021 | 26,808 | \$116,306 | \$109,219 | 296.8 |
| 2022 | 24,229 | \$106,362 | \$106,362 | 316.1 |
| Average | 29,030.0 | \$106,437.9 | \$93,014.6 | |
| SD | 3,379.4 | \$11,739.7 | \$12,181.6 | |

Table A-91. Supporting Data for Figure 90

| Year | Deep-set longline CPUE (fish per 1,000 hooks) | | |
|----------------|--|------------------|-----------------|
| | Bigeye | Yellowfin | Albacore |
| | tuna | tuna | |
| 2013 | 4.1 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| 2014 | 4.8 | 0.4 | 0.2 |
| 2015 | 4.8 | 0.6 | 0.2 |
| 2016 | 4.3 | 0.9 | 0.2 |
| 2017 | 4.2 | 1.5 | 0.1 |
| 2018 | 3.7 | 1.1 | 0.1 |
| 2019 | 3.5 | 1.0 | 0.1 |
| 2020 | 3.5 | 0.9 | 0.1 |
| 2021 | 2.9 | 1.2 | 0.2 |
| 2022 | 2.7 | 1.3 | 0.2 |
| Average | 3.85 | 0.93 | 0.17 |
| SD | 0.72 | 0.37 | 0.07 |

Table A-92. Supporting Data for Figure 91

| Year | Deep-set longline CPUE (fish per 1,000 hooks) | | |
|---------|--|----------------|-------------|
| | Swordfish | Striped marlin | Blue marlin |
| 2013 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| 2014 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| 2015 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| 2016 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 2017 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 2018 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| 2019 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| 2020 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 2021 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 2022 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Average | 0.10 | 0.24 | 0.12 |
| SD | 0.00 | 0.07 | 0.04 |

Table A-93. Supporting Data for Figure 92

| Year | Deep-set CPUE (fish per 1000 hooks) |
|---------|--|
| | Blue shark |
| 2013 | 1.0 |
| 2014 | 1.2 |
| 2015 | 1.4 |
| 2016 | 1.4 |
| 2017 | 1.6 |
| 2018 | 1.6 |
| 2019 | 1.8 |
| 2020 | 1.7 |
| 2021 | 1.5 |
| 2022 | 1.2 |
| Average | 1.44 |
| SD | 0.25 |

Table A-94. Supporting Data for Figure 93

| Year | Shallow-set longline | | |
|---------|----------------------|-------|-------|
| | Vessels | Trips | Sets |
| 2013 | 15 | 58 | 962 |
| 2014 | 20 | 81 | 1,338 |
| 2015 | 22 | 69 | 1,130 |
| 2016 | 13 | 46 | 727 |
| 2017 | 20 | 70 | 994 |
| 2018 | 11 | 30 | 420 |
| 2019 | 14 | 25 | 284 |
| 2020 | 14 | 36 | 461 |
| 2021 | 17 | 57 | 703 |
| 2022 | 22 | 69 | 857 |
| Average | 16.8 | 54.1 | 787.6 |
| SD | 4.0 | 19.0 | 334.0 |

Table A-95. Supporting Data for Figure 94

| Year | Number of hooks set by area (millions) | | | |
|---------|--|------------|----------|-------|
| | Outside EEZ | Hawaii EEZ | PRIA EEZ | Total |
| 2013 | 0.9 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.1 |
| 2014 | 1.3 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.5 |
| 2015 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1.3 |
| 2016 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.8 |
| 2017 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 1.1 |
| 2018 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.5 |
| 2019 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.4 |
| 2020 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.6 |
| 2021 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.9 |
| 2022 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.1 |
| Average | 0.82 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.93 |
| SD | 0.29 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.36 |

Table A-96. Supporting Data for Figure 95

| Year | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Adjusted revenue (\$1,000) | Nominal revenue (\$1,000) | Honolulu CPI |
|---------|----------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|
| 2013 | 2,345 | \$3,958 | \$3,180 | 253.9 |
| 2014 | 3,255 | \$4,999 | \$4,074 | 257.6 |
| 2015 | 2,778 | \$3,414 | \$2,810 | 260.2 |
| 2016 | 1,849 | \$2,961 | \$2,486 | 265.3 |
| 2017 | 3,007 | \$4,915 | \$4,230 | 272.0 |
| 2018 | 1,438 | \$1,755 | \$1,538 | 277.1 |
| 2019 | 829 | \$2,180 | \$1,942 | 281.6 |
| 2020 | 875 | \$1,429 | \$1,293 | 286.0 |
| 2021 | 1,264 | \$5,120 | \$4,808 | 296.8 |
| 2022 | 1,873 | \$9,679 | \$9,679 | 316.1 |
| Average | 1,951.4 | \$4,040.9 | \$3,603.9 | |
| SD | 870.7 | \$2,397.2 | \$2,436.0 | |

Table A-97. Supporting Data for Figure 96

| Year | Shallow-set longline CPUE (fish per 1,000 hooks) | | |
|---------|---|-----------|----------|
| | Bigeye | Yellowfin | Albacore |
| | tuna | tuna | |
| 2013 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.5 |
| 2014 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| 2015 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| 2016 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 0.1 |
| 2017 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 0.3 |
| 2018 | 2.6 | 1.6 | 0.3 |
| 2019 | 2.5 | 0.9 | 0.2 |
| 2020 | 1.9 | 0.9 | 0.6 |
| 2021 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 0.7 |
| 2022 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.3 |
| Average | 1.37 | 0.79 | 0.46 |
| SD | 0.75 | 0.56 | 0.35 |

Table A-98. Supporting Data for Figure 97

| Year | Shallow-set longline CPUE (fish per 1,000 hooks) | | |
|---------|---|----------------|-------------|
| | Swordfish | Striped marlin | Blue marlin |
| 2013 | 10.1 | 0.4 | 0.1 |
| 2014 | 10.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 2015 | 11.9 | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| 2016 | 12.4 | 0.4 | 0.1 |
| 2017 | 12.9 | 0.4 | 0.1 |
| 2018 | 12.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| 2019 | 9.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 2020 | 7.9 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| 2021 | 7.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 2022 | 8.9 | 0.4 | 0.0 |
| Average | 10.36 | 0.24 | 0.05 |
| SD | 1.99 | 0.15 | 0.05 |

Table A-99. Supporting Data for Figure 98

| Year | Shallow-set CPUE (fish per 1000 hooks) |
|---------|---|
| | Blue shark |
| 2013 | 4.9 |
| 2014 | 6.8 |
| 2015 | 10.0 |
| 2016 | 13.8 |
| 2017 | 9.0 |
| 2018 | 5.1 |
| 2019 | 8.5 |
| 2020 | 10.4 |
| 2021 | 5.9 |
| 2022 | 5.9 |
| Average | 8.03 |
| SD | 2.85 |

Table A-100. Supporting Data for Figure 99

| Year | Fishers | Days fished |
|----------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 2013 | 1,730 | 28,880 |
| 2014 | 1,697 | 28,114 |
| 2015 | 1,624 | 26,070 |
| 2016 | 1,485 | 23,295 |
| 2017 | 1,418 | 21,502 |
| 2018 | 1,387 | 21,975 |
| 2019 | 1,294 | 20,479 |
| 2020 | 1,125 | 12,188 |
| 2021 | 1,186 | 16,406 |
| 2022 | 1,166 | 15,420 |
| Average | 1,411.2 | 21,432.9 |
| SD | 221.4 | 5,509.3 |

Table A-101. Supporting Data for Figure 100

| Year | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Adjusted revenue (\$1,000) | Nominal revenue (\$1,000) | Honolulu CPI |
|----------------|------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|
| 2013 | 3,117 | \$9,149 | \$7,350 | 253.9 |
| 2014 | 3,486 | \$10,269 | \$8,368 | 257.6 |
| 2015 | 3,094 | \$9,432 | \$7,763 | 260.2 |
| 2016 | 2,582 | \$9,005 | \$7,558 | 265.3 |
| 2017 | 2,209 | \$7,406 | \$6,374 | 272.0 |
| 2018 | 2,743 | \$9,116 | \$7,991 | 277.1 |
| 2019 | 2,479 | \$8,102 | \$7,218 | 281.6 |
| 2020 | 1,498 | \$4,894 | \$4,429 | 286.0 |
| 2021 | 1,829 | \$7,055 | \$6,625 | 296.8 |
| 2022 | 1,762 | \$7,040 | \$7,040 | 316.1 |
| Average | 2,479.9 | \$8,146.8 | \$7,071.7 | |
| SD | 654.2 | \$1,576.9 | \$1,106.2 | |

Table A-102. Supporting Data for Figure 101

| MHI troll tuna CPUE (pounds per day fished) | | | MHI troll tuna CPUE (pounds per hour fished) | | |
|--|-------------------|------------------|---|-------------------|------------------|
| Year | Yellowfin tuna | Skipjack tuna | Year | Yellowfin tuna | Skipjack tuna |
| 2013 | 38.4 | 11.5 | 2013 | 5.8 | 1.73 |
| 2014 | 43.7 | 6.1 | 2014 | 6.6 | 0.91 |
| 2015 | 42.3 | 8.2 | 2015 | 6.5 | 1.25 |
| 2016 | 44.4 | 11.1 | 2016 | 6.8 | 1.71 |
| 2017 | 44.6 | 10.0 | 2017 | 7.0 | 1.55 |
| 2018 | 56.6 | 8.4 | 2018 | 8.6 | 1.27 |
| 2019 | 44.1 | 11.4 | 2019 | 6.8 | 1.75 |
| 2020 | 53.1 | 14.1 | 2020 | 7.9 | 2.10 |
| 2021 | 44.5 | 9.3 | 2021 | 6.7 | 1.38 |
| 2022 | 49.4 | 14.4 | 2022 | 7.3 | 2.13 |
| Average | 46.11 | 10.45 | Average | 6.97 | 1.58 |
| SD | 5.39 | 2.61 | SD | 0.78 | 0.39 |

Table A-103. Supporting Data for Figure 102

| MHI troll marlin CPUE (pounds per day fished) | | | MHI troll marlin CPUE (pounds per hour fished) | | |
|--|----------------|-------------------|---|----------------|-------------------|
| Year | Blue marlin | Striped marlin | Year | Blue marlin | Striped marlin |
| 2013 | 10.5 | 0.6 | 2013 | 1.6 | 0.1 |
| 2014 | 11.4 | 1.0 | 2014 | 1.7 | 0.2 |
| 2015 | 15.1 | 0.9 | 2015 | 2.3 | 0.1 |
| 2016 | 13.5 | 1.2 | 2016 | 2.1 | 0.2 |
| 2017 | 14.3 | 0.6 | 2017 | 2.2 | 0.1 |
| 2018 | 15.4 | 1.2 | 2018 | 2.3 | 0.2 |
| 2019 | 16.3 | 1.4 | 2019 | 2.5 | 0.2 |
| 2020 | 15.9 | 1.7 | 2020 | 2.4 | 0.3 |
| 2021 | 15.1 | 1.1 | 2021 | 2.3 | 0.2 |
| 2022 | 16.0 | 1.3 | 2022 | 2.4 | 0.2 |
| Average | 14.35 | 1.10 | Average | 2.17 | 0.17 |
| SD | 2.00 | 0.34 | SD | 0.30 | 0.05 |

Table A-104. Supporting Data for Figure 103

| MHI troll mahimahi and ono CPUE (pounds per day fished) | | | MHI troll mahimahi and ono CPUE (pounds per hour fished) | | |
|--|----------|----------------|---|----------|----------------|
| Year | Mahimahi | Ono (wahoo) | Year | Mahimahi | Ono (wahoo) |
| 2013 | 22.7 | 14.1 | 2013 | 3.4 | 2.1 |
| 2014 | 32.1 | 16.6 | 2014 | 4.8 | 2.5 |
| 2015 | 28.2 | 16.1 | 2015 | 4.3 | 2.5 |
| 2016 | 24.1 | 11.6 | 2016 | 3.7 | 1.8 |
| 2017 | 19.6 | 8.8 | 2017 | 3.0 | 1.4 |
| 2018 | 25.4 | 13.8 | 2018 | 3.8 | 2.1 |
| 2019 | 26.8 | 15.8 | 2019 | 4.1 | 2.4 |
| 2020 | 25.0 | 8.5 | 2020 | 3.7 | 1.3 |
| 2021 | 22.2 | 16.3 | 2021 | 3.3 | 2.4 |
| 2022 | 23.1 | 7.1 | 2022 | 3.4 | 1.0 |
| Average | 24.91 | 12.84 | Average | 3.77 | 1.94 |
| SD | 3.50 | 3.61 | SD | 0.53 | 0.55 |

Table A-105. Supporting Data for Figure 104

| Year | Fishers | Days fished |
|---------|---------|-------------|
| 2013 | 591 | 5,540 |
| 2014 | 556 | 5,094 |
| 2015 | 528 | 4,862 |
| 2016 | 470 | 3,996 |
| 2017 | 491 | 4,735 |
| 2018 | 426 | 4,047 |
| 2019 | 439 | 3,677 |
| 2020 | 394 | 3,051 |
| 2021 | 382 | 3,385 |
| 2022 | 427 | 3,726 |
| Average | 470.4 | 4,211.3 |
| SD | 70.0 | 807.3 |

Table A-106. Supporting Data for Figure 105

| Year | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Adjusted revenue (\$1,000) | Nominal revenue (\$1,000) | Honolulu CPI |
|----------------|------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|
| 2013 | 1,282 | \$4,190 | \$3,366 | 253.9 |
| 2014 | 1,161 | \$3,608 | \$2,940 | 257.6 |
| 2015 | 1,200 | \$3,518 | \$2,896 | 260.2 |
| 2016 | 785 | \$2,817 | \$2,364 | 265.3 |
| 2017 | 975 | \$3,358 | \$2,890 | 272.0 |
| 2018 | 778 | \$2,724 | \$2,388 | 277.1 |
| 2019 | 687 | \$2,427 | \$2,162 | 281.6 |
| 2020 | 582 | \$2,215 | \$2,005 | 286.0 |
| 2021 | 685 | \$3,017 | \$2,833 | 296.8 |
| 2022 | 940 | \$4,109 | \$4,109 | 316.1 |
| Average | 907.7 | \$3,198.3 | \$2,795.3 | |
| SD | 243.1 | \$672.6 | \$621.0 | |

Table A-107. Supporting Data for Figure 106

| MHI handline CPUE (pounds per day fished) | | | | |
|--|---------------|-----------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Yellowfin | | | | |
| Year | tuna | Albacore | Bigeye tuna | Total |
| 2013 | 163.8 | 18.6 | 27.9 | 210.3 |
| 2014 | 157.0 | 21.2 | 20.9 | 199.2 |
| 2015 | 180.4 | 28.7 | 15.3 | 224.3 |
| 2016 | 137.8 | 13.3 | 23.4 | 174.6 |
| 2017 | 162.6 | 16.3 | 10.3 | 189.2 |
| 2018 | 157.2 | 11.0 | 7.5 | 175.7 |
| 2019 | 140.4 | 6.0 | 17.2 | 163.6 |
| 2020 | 161.3 | 2.2 | 13.1 | 176.6 |
| 2021 | 176.8 | 3.3 | 9.0 | 189.1 |
| 2022 | 225.3 | 3.0 | 12.4 | 240.8 |
| Average | 166.27 | 12.36 | 15.70 | 194.33 |
| SD | 24.69 | 8.92 | 6.62 | 24.47 |

| MHI handline CPUE (pounds per hour fished) | | | | |
|---|--------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------|
| Yellowfin | | | | |
| Year | tuna | Albacore | Bigeye tuna | Total |
| 2013 | 22.5 | 2.6 | 3.8 | 28.9 |
| 2014 | 21.7 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 27.5 |
| 2015 | 26.4 | 4.2 | 2.2 | 32.9 |
| 2016 | 20.3 | 2.0 | 3.5 | 25.7 |
| 2017 | 22.3 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 25.9 |
| 2018 | 23.4 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 26.2 |
| 2019 | 21.5 | 0.9 | 2.6 | 25.0 |
| 2020 | 24.0 | 0.3 | 1.9 | 26.3 |
| 2021 | 26.3 | 0.5 | 1.4 | 28.2 |
| 2022 | 32.1 | 0.4 | 1.8 | 34.3 |
| Average | 24.05 | 1.77 | 2.26 | 28.08 |
| SD | 3.46 | 1.26 | 0.92 | 3.15 |

Table A-108. Supporting Data for Figure 107

| Year | Fishers | Days fished |
|----------------|----------------|------------------------|
| 2013 | 16 | 551 |
| 2014 | 9 | 284 |
| 2015 | 9 | 255 |
| 2016 | 6 | 182 |
| 2017 | 6 | 230 |
| 2018 | 5 | 217 |
| 2019 | 7 | 274 |
| 2020 | 5 | 258 |
| 2021 | 7 | 196 |
| 2022 | 6 | 188 |
| Average | 7.6 | 263.5 |
| SD | 3.3 | 107.2 |

Table A-109. Supporting Data for Figure 108

| Year | Catch (1,000 lbs) | Adjusted revenue (\$1,000) | Nominal revenue (\$1,000) | Honolulu CPI |
|----------------|------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|
| 2013 | 831 | \$2,238 | \$1,798 | 253.9 |
| 2014 | 416 | \$955 | \$778 | 257.6 |
| 2015 | 409 | \$987 | \$812 | 260.2 |
| 2016 | 366 | \$1,100 | \$923 | 265.3 |
| 2017 | 323 | \$1,039 | \$894 | 272.0 |
| 2018 | 366 | \$1,093 | \$958 | 277.1 |
| 2019 | 477 | \$1,147 | \$1,021 | 281.6 |
| 2020 | 328 | \$1,520 | \$1,375 | 286.0 |
| 2021 | 257 | \$887 | \$833 | 296.8 |
| 2022 | 454 | \$1,494 | \$1,494 | 316.1 |
| Average | 419.4 | \$1,218.2 | \$1,043.6 | |

Table A-110. Supporting Data for Figure 109

| Year | Offshore handline CPUE (pounds per day fished) | | | Total |
|---------|---|-------------------|----------|---------|
| | Bigeye tuna | Yellowfin tuna | Mahimahi | |
| 2013 | 1,305 | 150 | 23 | 1,478 |
| 2014 | 1,228 | 183 | 20 | 1,431 |
| 2015 | 1,457 | 99 | 9 | 1,564 |
| 2016 | 1,788 | 309 | 3 | 2,100 |
| 2017 | 805 | 540 | 6 | 1,351 |
| 2018 | 1,048 | 527 | 7 | 1,582 |
| 2019 | 1,586 | 116 | 6 | 1,708 |
| 2020 | 1,083 | 170 | 5 | 1,257 |
| 2021 | 1,225 | 57 | 4 | 1,286 |
| 2022 | 2,105 | 284 | 8 | 2,396 |
| Average | 1,280.4 | 238.9 | 9.3 | 1,528.7 |
| SD | 297.4 | 181.0 | 7.2 | 259.5 |

TABLES FOR SECTION 3.3: SOCIOECONOMICS

Table A-111. Supporting Data for Figure 121

| Labor force status | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |
|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Total Employment | 16,990 | 14,108 | 18,862 | 18,028 | 14,806 | 16,089 | 17,565 | 17,853 | 17,930 | 16,408 |
| Total Government | 6,035 | 6,004 | 6,782 | 6,177 | 5,258 | 6,198 | 6,556 | 6,804 | 6,585 | 5,849 |
| Canneries | 4,861 | 1,562 | 1,553 | 1,815 | 1,827 | 2,108 | 2,500 | 2,759 | 2,843 | 2,312 |
| Other/Private Sector | 6,094 | 6,542 | 10,527 | 10,036 | 7,721 | 7,783 | 8,509 | 8,290 | 8,502 | 8,247 |

Table A-112. Data for Figure 122

| Year | Total Landings | Revenue | Revenue Adj. | Fish Price (\$/lb Nominal) | Fish Price (\$/lb Adjusted) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|----------------|---------|--------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 11.36 | 13.29 | 27.07 | 1.17 | 2.38 | 2.037 |
| 2004 | 8.94 | 10.31 | 19.65 | 1.15 | 2.20 | 1.905 |
| 2005 | 8.88 | 8.84 | 16.00 | 1.00 | 1.80 | 1.811 |
| 2006 | 12.53 | 8.68 | 15.26 | 0.69 | 1.22 | 1.758 |

| Year | Total Landings | Revenue | Revenue Adj. | Fish Price (\$/lb Nominal) | Fish Price (\$/lb Adjusted) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|----------------|---------|--------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|
| 2007 | 15.37 | 11.96 | 20.28 | 0.78 | 1.32 | 1.696 |
| 2008 | 9.84 | 14.76 | 22.66 | 1.50 | 2.30 | 1.535 |
| 2009 | 11.27 | 9.41 | 13.99 | 0.84 | 1.24 | 1.486 |
| 2010 | 11.28 | 10.76 | 15.26 | 0.95 | 1.35 | 1.418 |
| 2011 | 7.86 | 10.95 | 14.36 | 1.39 | 1.83 | 1.311 |
| 2012 | 9.69 | 8.92 | 11.32 | 0.92 | 1.17 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 6.13 | 10.14 | 12.62 | 1.65 | 2.06 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 5.14 | 6.38 | 7.88 | 1.24 | 1.53 | 1.236 |
| 2015 | 5.62 | 5.21 | 6.49 | 0.93 | 1.16 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 4.80 | 5.71 | 7.13 | 1.19 | 1.48 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 5.10 | 4.78 | 5.85 | 0.94 | 1.15 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 4.45 | 5.38 | 6.47 | 1.21 | 1.45 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 3.09 | 5.58 | 6.70 | 1.81 | 2.17 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 2.00 | 4.17 | 5.02 | 2.08 | 2.51 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 2.63 | 2.27 | 2.49 | 0.86 | 0.95 | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 2.98 | 3.19 | 3.19 | 1.07 | 1.07 | 1 |

Data source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center: Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators).
<https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>.

Table A-113. Supporting Data for Figure 123

| Year | Albacore Price (\$/MT) | Albacore Price adj (\$/lb) | Yellowfin Price adj (\$/lb) | Bigeye Price adj (\$/lb) | Skipjack Price adj (\$/lb) | Wahoo Price adj (\$/lb) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| 2012 | 3,193 | 1.84 | 0.80 | 0.36 | 0.79 | 0.76 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 2,254 | 1.27 | 0.88 | 0.43 | 0.74 | 0.81 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 2,707 | 1.52 | 0.60 | 0.53 | 0.51 | 0.51 | 1.236 |
| 2015 | 2,651 | 1.50 | 0.62 | 0.54 | 0.57 | 0.53 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 2,498 | 1.41 | 0.66 | 0.55 | 0.57 | 0.55 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 2,559 | 1.42 | 0.88 | 0.80 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 3,086 | 1.68 | 0.72 | 0.82 | 0.63 | 0.63 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 3,542 | 1.93 | 0.61 | 0.53 | 0.52 | 1.09 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 3,306 | 1.80 | 0.59 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 1.36 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 3,212 | 1.60 | 0.64 | 0.54 | 0.54 | 1.36 | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 3,305 | 1.50 | 0.73 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 1.36 | 1 |

Table A-114. Supporting Data for Figure 124, Figure 125, and Figure 126

| Year | Total costs per trip (\$) | Costs per set (\$) | Costs per set (adj) | Revenue per set | Revenue per set (\$ adjusted) | Net Rev per set | Net Rev per set (adj) | CPI Adjustor |
|------|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| 2006 | 31,468 | 1,353 | 2,379 | 2,400 | 4,218 | 1,046 | 1,839 | 1.758 |
| 2007 | 45,253 | 963 | 1,633 | 2,506 | 4,250 | 1,543 | 2,617 | 1.696 |
| 2008 | 43,881 | 1,138 | 1,747 | 2,036 | 3,125 | 897 | 1,378 | 1.535 |
| 2009 | 32,942 | 848 | 1,260 | 2,288 | 3,399 | 1,440 | 2,139 | 1.486 |
| 2010 | 29,815 | 1,065 | 1,510 | 2,416 | 3,426 | 1,351 | 1,916 | 1.418 |
| 2011 | 30,916 | 1,189 | 1,559 | 2,378 | 3,117 | 1,189 | 1,558 | 1.311 |
| 2012 | 46,832 | 1,403 | 1,780 | 2,424 | 3,076 | 1,021 | 1,296 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 50,792 | 1,448 | 1,801 | 1,993 | 2,480 | 546 | 679 | 1.244 |
| 2014 | 43,106 | 1,181 | 1,460 | 1,877 | 2,320 | 696 | 860 | 1.236 |
| 2015 | 42,468 | 1,034 | 1,289 | 2,143 | 2,672 | 1,109 | 1,384 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 34,148 | 967 | 1,207 | 2,090 | 2,609 | 1,123 | 1,402 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 34,223 | 913 | 1,116 | 2,195 | 2,684 | 1,282 | 1,568 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 30,515 | 1,034 | 1,244 | 2,547 | 3,064 | 1,512 | 1,819 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 44,728 | 1,246 | 1,496 | 2,481 | 2,979 | 1,235 | 1,483 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 35,944 | 1,112 | 1,337 | 1,787 | 2,149 | 675 | 812 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 38,803 | 964 | 1,058 | 2,099 | 2,303 | 1,135 | 1,245 | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 45,879 | 1,942 | 1,942 | 3,455 | 3,455 | 1,513 | 1,513 | 1 |

Table A-115. Supporting Data for Figure 127 and Figure 128

| Year | Total Revenue per Sea Day | Total Revenue per Sea Day (\$ Adjusted) | Total Revenue per Vessel | Total Revenue per Vessel (\$ Adjusted) | Gini Coefficient | CPI Adjuster |
|------|---------------------------|---|--------------------------|--|------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 1425 | 2902 | 221,496 | 451,187 | 0.50 | 2.037 |
| 2004 | 1218 | 2319 | 198,339 | 377,835 | 0.51 | 1.905 |
| 2005 | 1155 | 2091 | 220,885 | 400,023 | 0.47 | 1.811 |
| 2006 | 1260 | 2215 | 241,063 | 423,789 | 0.29 | 1.758 |
| 2007 | 1737 | 2946 | 427,137 | 724,424 | 0.23 | 1.696 |
| 2008 | 1790 | 2747 | 509,034 | 781,368 | 0.35 | 1.535 |
| 2009 | 1306 | 1941 | 324,571 | 482,313 | 0.26 | 1.486 |
| 2010 | 1553 | 2202 | 413,787 | 586,750 | 0.28 | 1.418 |
| 2011 | 1682 | 2205 | 421,250 | 552,258 | 0.29 | 1.311 |
| 2012 | 1476 | 1873 | 371,547 | 471,493 | 0.34 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 1658 | 2065 | 389,816 | 485,321 | 0.27 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 1279 | 1581 | 289,848 | 358,252 | 0.42 | 1.236 |

| | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|---------|---------|------|-------|
| 2015 | 1279 | 1595 | 226,442 | 282,373 | 0.42 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 1314 | 1640 | 271,891 | 339,320 | 0.49 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 1309 | 1601 | 239,035 | 292,340 | 0.33 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 1501 | 1805 | 358,431 | 431,192 | 0.33 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 1749 | 2101 | 398,419 | 478,501 | 0.61 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 1329 | 1598 | 231,925 | 279,005 | 0.43 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 1041 | 1142 | 206,761 | 226,816 | 0.41 | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 1526 | 1526 | 265,646 | 265,646 | 0.33 | 1 |

Table A-116. Supporting Data for Figure 129 and Figure 130

| Year | Est. pounds caught (lb) | Est. pounds sold (lb) | % sold | Est. revenue (\$) | Est. revenue (\$ adj.) | Fish price (\$) | Fish price (\$ adj.) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------|-------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| 2003 | 64,056 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 2.037 |
| 2004 | 58,689 | 864 | 1% | 1,651 | 3,145 | 1.91 | 3.64 | 1.905 |
| 2005 | 39,558 | 850 | 2% | 991 | 1,795 | 1.17 | 2.11 | 1.811 |
| 2006 | 56,065 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1.758 |
| 2007 | 38,860 | 310 | 1% | 531 | 901 | 1.71 | 2.91 | 1.696 |
| 2008 | 79,378 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1.535 |
| 2009 | 24,854 | 3,044 | 12% | 3,069 | 4,561 | 1.01 | 1.5 | 1.486 |
| 2010 | 17,044 | 4,648 | 27% | 7,104 | 10,066 | 1.53 | 2.17 | 1.417 |
| 2011 | 71,797 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1.311 |
| 2012 | 51,069 | 9,800 | 19% | 13,294 | 16,870 | 1.36 | 1.72 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 45,930 | 6,827 | 15% | 9,936 | 12,360 | 1.46 | 1.81 | 1.244 |
| 2014 | 59,623 | 6,946 | 12% | 10,128 | 12,518 | 1.46 | 1.8 | 1.236 |
| 2015 | 34,971 | 6,240 | 18% | 12,577 | 15,684 | 2.02 | 2.51 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 40,617 | 2,919 | 7% | 6,670 | 8,324 | 2.29 | 2.85 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 30,148 | 8,863 | 29% | 24,353 | 29,784 | 2.75 | 3.36 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 21,152 | 16,314 | 77% | 49,597 | 59,665 | 3.04 | 3.66 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 16,367 | 13,892 | 85% | 38,246 | 45,933 | 2.75 | 3.31 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 20,703 | 2,566 | 12% | 8,204 | 9,869 | 3.20 | 3.85 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 18,472 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 9,098 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 1 |

Table A-117. Supporting Data for Figure 131

| Year | Total trip costs (\$) | Total cost adj. (\$) | Fuel cost adj. (\$) | Ice cost adj. (\$) | Bait cost adj. (\$) | Gear lost adj. (\$) | Fuel price adj. (\$/gal) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| 2011 | 85 | 112 | 106 | 0 | 0.00 | 5.74 | 5.63 | 1.311 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----|-----|-----|----|------|-------|------|-------|
| 2012 | 91 | 116 | 88 | 15 | 0.00 | 13.05 | 5.43 | 1.269 |
| 2013 | 86 | 107 | 82 | 17 | 0.00 | 7.54 | 5.26 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 68 | 84 | 73 | 6 | 2.35 | 2.75 | 2.65 | 1.236 |
| 2015 | 78 | 98 | 78 | 17 | 0.00 | 2.70 | 2.73 | 1.247 |
| 2016 | 75 | 94 | 60 | 23 | 0.83 | 9.95 | 2.88 | 1.248 |
| 2017 | 98 | 120 | 91 | 25 | 1.30 | 3.26 | 2.87 | 1.223 |
| 2018 | 115 | 138 | 113 | 19 | 0.86 | 5.82 | 3.64 | 1.203 |
| 2019 | 120 | 144 | 103 | 26 | 1.06 | 13.78 | 3.67 | 1.201 |
| 2020 | 99 | 120 | 98 | 18 | 0.00 | 4.14 | 3.77 | 1.203 |
| 2021 | 140 | 154 | 127 | 20 | 0.00 | 6.97 | 3.78 | 1.097 |
| 2022 | 84 | 84 | 73 | 11 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 4.15 | 1 |

Table A-118. Supporting Data for Figure 132 and Figure 133

| Year | Est. pounds caught (lb.) | Est. pounds sold (lb.) | Est. revenue (\$) | Est. revenue (\$ adj.) | % of pounds sold | Fish price (\$) | Fish price (\$ adj.) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 2003 | 733,629 | 228,416 | 447,647 | 666,994 | 31% | 1.96 | 2.92 | 1.490 |
| 2004 | 609,526 | 239,007 | 476,543 | 703,853 | 39% | 1.99 | 2.94 | 1.477 |
| 2005 | 576,576 | 372,375 | 678,773 | 1,000,512 | 65% | 1.82 | 2.69 | 1.474 |
| 2006 | 611,151 | 356,706 | 568,872 | 739,534 | 58% | 1.59 | 2.07 | 1.300 |
| 2007 | 615,271 | 312,554 | 439,953 | 553,901 | 51% | 1.41 | 1.77 | 1.259 |
| 2008 | 604,672 | 219,187 | 359,427 | 430,593 | 36% | 1.64 | 1.96 | 1.198 |
| 2009 | 378,230 | 190,796 | 323,778 | 368,136 | 50% | 1.70 | 1.93 | 1.137 |
| 2010 | 535,875 | 188,906 | 335,518 | 361,688 | 35% | 1.78 | 1.91 | 1.078 |
| 2011 | 349,389 | 121,118 | 234,444 | 246,870 | 35% | 1.94 | 2.04 | 1.053 |
| 2012 | 481,069 | 160,883 | 324,934 | 338,581 | 33% | 2.02 | 2.10 | 1.042 |
| 2013 | 341,891 | 263,497 | 555,686 | 594,028 | 77% | 2.11 | 2.25 | 1.069 |
| 2014 | 398,939 | 235,104 | 542,205 | 573,110 | 59% | 2.31 | 2.44 | 1.057 |
| 2015 | 397,551 | 188,299 | 431,039 | 475,005 | 47% | 2.29 | 2.52 | 1.102 |
| 2016 | 308,531 | 223,004 | 497,524 | 537,326 | 72% | 2.23 | 2.41 | 1.080 |
| 2017 | 340,870 | 224,531 | 524,317 | 550,009 | 66% | 2.34 | 2.45 | 1.049 |
| 2018 | 465,007 | 221,714 | 535,533 | 552,134 | 48% | 2.42 | 2.49 | 1.031 |
| 2019 | 466,269 | 177,957 | 464,101 | 483,129 | 38% | 2.61 | 2.71 | 1.041 |
| 2020 | 305,251 | 152,540 | 352,544 | 369,819 | 50% | 2.31 | 2.42 | 1.049 |
| 2021 | 388,492 | 306,420 | 747,474 | 776,625 | 79% | 2.44 | 2.53 | 1.039 |
| 2022 | 237,441 | 234,092 | 721,579 | 721,579 | 99% | 3.08 | 3.08 | 1 |

Table A-119. Supporting Data for Figure 134

| Year | Total trip costs (\$) | Total cost adj. (\$) | Fuel cost adj. (\$) | Ice cost adj. (\$) | Bait cost adj. (\$) | Gear lost adj. (\$) | Fuel price adj. (\$/gal) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| 2009 | 73 | 84 | 73 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.88 | 3.80 | 1.137 |
| 2010 | 73 | 78 | 70 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 4.14 | 1.078 |
| 2011 | 81 | 86 | 77 | 7 | 0.00 | 1.24 | 4.86 | 1.053 |
| 2012 | 91 | 95 | 85 | 8 | 0.00 | 2.41 | 5.23 | 1.042 |
| 2013 | 96 | 102 | 94 | 8 | 0.08 | 0.00 | 5.33 | 1.069 |
| 2014 | 94 | 99 | 89 | 10 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 5.23 | 1.057 |
| 2015 | 79 | 87 | 77 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 4.47 | 1.102 |
| 2016 | 69 | 75 | 65 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 3.86 | 1.080 |
| 2017 | 73 | 76 | 68 | 9 | 0.00 | 0.20 | 4.13 | 1.049 |
| 2018 | 77 | 80 | 69 | 11 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 4.27 | 1.031 |
| 2019 | 76 | 79 | 69 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 4.10 | 1.041 |
| 2020 | 73 | 77 | 69 | 8 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 3.84 | 1.049 |
| 2021 | 94 | 98 | 87 | 11 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 4.89 | 1.039 |
| 2022 | 101 | 101 | 91 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 5.49 | 1 |

Table A-120. Supporting Data for Figure 135 and Figure 136

| Year | Est. pounds caught (lb.) | Est. pounds sold (lb.) | Est. revenue (\$) | Est. revenue (\$ adj.) | % of pounds sold | Fish price (\$) | Fish price (\$ adj.) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 517,491 | | | | | | | 2.083 |
| 2004 | 698,610 | 283,395 | 427,504 | 839,191 | 41% | 1.51 | 2.96 | 1.963 |
| 2005 | 300,643 | | | | | | | 1.823 |
| 2006 | 516,279 | 199,352 | 310,625 | 507,250 | 39% | 1.56 | 2.54 | 1.633 |
| 2007 | 561,524 | | | | | | | 1.529 |
| 2008 | 550,717 | | | | | | | 1.44 |
| 2009 | 721,525 | | | | | | | 1.416 |
| 2010 | 738,036 | | | | | | | 1.376 |
| 2011 | 591,947 | | | | | | | 1.332 |
| 2012 | 397,776 | | | | | | | 1.291 |
| 2013 | 799,482 | | | | | | | 1.291 |
| 2014 | 764,150 | 121,632 | 242,719 | 310,681 | 16% | 2.00 | 2.55 | 1.280 |
| 2015 | 959,906 | 109,395 | 214,560 | 277,212 | 11% | 1.96 | 2.53 | 1.292 |
| 2016 | 883,582 | 100,551 | 216,029 | 263,339 | 11% | 2.15 | 2.62 | 1.219 |
| 2017 | 600,826 | 118,457 | 265,559 | 315,749 | 20% | 2.24 | 2.67 | 1.189 |

| Year | Est. pounds caught (lb.) | Est. pounds sold (lb.) | Est. revenue (\$) | Est. revenue (\$ adj.) | % of pounds sold | Fish price (\$) | Fish price (\$ adj.) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------|
| 2018 | 891,746 | 97,019 | 231,632 | 268,461 | 11% | 2.39 | 2.77 | 1.159 |
| 2019 | 759,651 | 141,756 | 318,008 | 361,893 | 19% | 2.24 | 2.55 | 1.138 |
| 2020 | 612,671 | | | | | | | 1.119 |
| 2021 | 858,369 | | | | | | | 1.078 |
| 2022 | 629,837 | | | | | | | 1 |

Table A-121. Supporting Data for Figure 137

| Year | Total trip costs (\$) | Total cost adj. (\$) | Fuel cost adj. (\$) | Ice cost adj. (\$) | Bait cost adj. (\$) | Gear lost adj. (\$) | Fuel price adj. (\$/gal) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| 2011 | 96 | 127 | 95 | 14 | 5.52 | 13.08 | 6.08 | 1.329 |
| 2012 | 112 | 145 | 92 | 14 | 6.23 | 31.97 | 6.19 | 1.289 |
| 2013 | 92 | 119 | 81 | 15 | 1.12 | 21.95 | 6.15 | 1.289 |
| 2014 | 100 | 128 | 80 | 14 | 4.84 | 28.76 | 5.98 | 1.279 |
| 2015 | 91 | 118 | 61 | 14 | 8.85 | 34.10 | 4.93 | 1.291 |
| 2016 | 76 | 93 | 52 | 13 | 4.56 | 24.48 | 4.34 | 1.219 |
| 2017 | 99 | 118 | 55 | 24 | 11.18 | 27.97 | 4.55 | 1.189 |
| 2018 | 109 | 127 | 70 | 22 | 14.51 | 20.50 | 4.78 | 1.159 |
| 2019 | 94 | 107 | 60 | 19 | 1.70 | 26.84 | 4.65 | 1.139 |
| 2020 | 83 | 93 | 57 | 15 | 0.50 | 21.37 | 4.19 | 1.119 |
| 2021 | 101 | 109 | 71 | 18 | 0.48 | 19.81 | 4.72 | 1.078 |
| 2022 | 92 | 92 | 82 | 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 5.13 | 1 |

Table A-122. Supporting Data for Figure 138

| Year | Estimated total landings (million lb) | Estimated total value (\$ million) | Pounds sold in Hawaii markets (million lb) | Revenue from Hawaii markets (\$ million) | Revenue adjusted (millions) | Price (\$/lb) | Price adjusted (\$/lb) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 17.58 | 40.21 | 16.33 | 38.54 | 66.02 | 2.29 | 3.92 | 1.713 |
| 2004 | 18.61 | 44.50 | 16.87 | 44.50 | 73.77 | 2.39 | 3.96 | 1.658 |
| 2005 | 23.37 | 60.62 | 18.96 | 60.62 | 96.88 | 2.59 | 4.15 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 21.47 | 55.85 | 17.55 | 55.85 | 84.28 | 2.60 | 3.93 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 24.75 | 65.84 | 20.27 | 65.84 | 94.80 | 2.66 | 3.83 | 1.44 |

| Year | Estimated total landings (million lb) | Estimated total value (\$ million) | Pounds sold in Hawaii markets (million lb) | Revenue from Hawaii markets (\$ million) | Revenue adjusted (millions) | Price (\$/lb) | Price adjusted (\$/lb) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------|
| 2008 | 26.86 | 74.54 | 21.76 | 74.54 | 102.94 | 2.77 | 3.83 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 22.14 | 59.10 | 18.38 | 59.10 | 81.20 | 2.67 | 3.67 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 23.79 | 72.12 | 19.47 | 72.12 | 97.07 | 3.03 | 4.08 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 26.51 | 83.33 | 21.17 | 83.33 | 108.08 | 3.14 | 4.08 | 1.297 |
| 2012 | 26.12 | 96.46 | 21.33 | 96.46 | 122.21 | 3.69 | 4.68 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 27.28 | 92.59 | 22.66 | 92.59 | 115.28 | 3.39 | 4.23 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 29.80 | 87.31 | 23.93 | 87.31 | 107.13 | 2.93 | 3.59 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 34.40 | 102.44 | 27.12 | 102.44 | 124.46 | 2.98 | 3.62 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 33.14 | 110.68 | 26.32 | 110.68 | 131.81 | 3.34 | 3.98 | 1.191 |
| 2017 | 35.60 | 108.48 | 28.37 | 108.48 | 126.06 | 3.05 | 3.54 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 33.57 | 109.44 | 26.80 | 109.44 | 124.87 | 3.26 | 3.72 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 32.13 | 99.05 | 26.03 | 99.05 | 111.14 | 3.08 | 3.46 | 1.122 |
| 2020 | 26.84 | 80.07 | 21.11 | 80.07 | 88.48 | 2.98 | 3.30 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 27.10 | 119.77 | 22.82 | 119.77 | 127.56 | 4.42 | 4.71 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 25.43 | 117.82 | 21.75 | 117.82 | 117.82 | 4.63 | 4.63 | 1 |

Data source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center: Fishery Economic Performance Measures (Tier 1 indicators).
<https://inport.nmfs.noaa.gov/inport/item/46097>.

Table A-123. Supporting Data for Figure 139

| Year | Total revenue (\$million) | Bigeye revenue (\$million) | Yellowfin revenue (\$million) | Swordfish revenue (\$million) | Others Revenue (\$million) | % bigeye | % yellowfin | % swordfish | % others |
|------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| 2003 | 40,206,394 | 25,867,486 | 5,229,913 | 688,623 | 8,420,372 | 64% | 13% | 2% | 21% |
| 2004 | 44,495,720 | 28,611,612 | 3,877,632 | 1,529,800 | 10,476,677 | 64% | 9% | 3% | 24% |
| 2005 | 60,622,926 | 37,166,905 | 4,120,645 | 7,877,437 | 11,457,938 | 61% | 7% | 13% | 19% |
| 2006 | 55,853,742 | 33,857,353 | 5,731,074 | 5,084,768 | 11,180,547 | 61% | 10% | 9% | 20% |
| 2007 | 65,835,772 | 42,208,056 | 4,272,917 | 8,298,317 | 11,056,482 | 64% | 6% | 13% | 17% |
| 2008 | 74,537,264 | 49,877,959 | 5,479,032 | 7,792,301 | 11,387,972 | 67% | 7% | 10% | 15% |
| 2009 | 59,095,670 | 38,515,167 | 3,001,797 | 7,840,792 | 9,737,914 | 65% | 5% | 13% | 16% |
| 2010 | 72,120,632 | 48,635,042 | 3,923,402 | 8,948,693 | 10,613,495 | 67% | 5% | 12% | 15% |
| 2011 | 83,330,475 | 53,366,379 | 6,271,548 | 9,265,500 | 14,427,049 | 64% | 8% | 11% | 17% |
| 2012 | 96,459,498 | 62,223,867 | 7,731,132 | 9,049,944 | 17,454,555 | 65% | 8% | 9% | 18% |
| 2013 | 92,594,422 | 62,979,020 | 6,793,581 | 8,574,965 | 14,246,856 | 68% | 7% | 9% | 15% |
| 2014 | 87,313,949 | 60,271,041 | 5,388,558 | 7,796,655 | 13,857,695 | 69% | 6% | 9% | 16% |
| 2015 | 102,439,890 | 73,242,543 | 5,850,355 | 8,216,373 | 15,130,619 | 71% | 6% | 8% | 15% |
| 2016 | 110,675,624 | 75,641,255 | 9,542,693 | 7,118,299 | 18,373,377 | 68% | 9% | 6% | 17% |

| Year | Total revenue (\$million) | Bigeye revenue (\$million) | Yellowfin revenue (\$million) | Swordfish revenue (\$million) | Others Revenue (\$million) | % bigeye | % yellowfin | % swordfish | % others |
|------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| 2017 | 108,482,532 | 67,678,779 | 15,901,494 | 8,476,775 | 16,425,484 | 62% | 15% | 8% | 15% |
| 2018 | 109,436,602 | 69,528,643 | 19,846,193 | 4,854,514 | 15,207,251 | 64% | 18% | 4% | 14% |
| 2019 | 99,051,238 | 65,067,355 | 15,282,634 | 4,239,370 | 14,461,878 | 66% | 15% | 4% | 15% |
| 2020 | 80,068,411 | 55,043,150 | 11,098,050 | 4,060,091 | 9,867,121 | 69% | 14% | 5% | 12% |
| 2021 | 119,771,693 | 76,808,382 | 22,240,926 | 6,253,326 | 14,469,060 | 64% | 19% | 5% | 12% |
| 2022 | 117,821,092 | 72,119,277 | 21,648,346 | 9,797,328 | 14,256,140 | 61% | 18% | 8% | 12% |

Table A-124. Supporting Data for Figure 140

| Year | Bigeye price | Bigeye price adj. | Yellowfin price | Yellowfin price adj. | Swordfish price | Swordfish price adj. | CPI Adjuster |
|------|--------------|-------------------|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 3.27 | 5.59 | 2.90 | 4.96 | 2.28 | 3.90 | 1.713 |
| 2004 | 2.99 | 4.95 | 2.45 | 4.06 | 2.47 | 4.10 | 1.658 |
| 2005 | 3.36 | 5.37 | 2.58 | 4.13 | 2.24 | 3.57 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 3.48 | 5.24 | 2.74 | 4.14 | 1.97 | 2.98 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 3.32 | 4.79 | 2.28 | 3.29 | 2.17 | 3.12 | 1.44 |
| 2008 | 3.82 | 5.27 | 2.83 | 3.91 | 1.78 | 2.45 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 3.75 | 5.15 | 2.85 | 3.92 | 1.95 | 2.68 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 4.08 | 5.50 | 3.21 | 4.32 | 2.43 | 3.26 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 4.26 | 5.52 | 3.03 | 3.93 | 2.63 | 3.42 | 1.297 |
| 2012 | 4.82 | 6.10 | 3.96 | 5.02 | 2.89 | 3.66 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 4.43 | 5.51 | 4.25 | 5.29 | 3.07 | 3.82 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 3.85 | 4.73 | 3.77 | 4.63 | 2.12 | 2.61 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 3.85 | 4.67 | 2.99 | 3.63 | 2.46 | 2.99 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 4.18 | 4.98 | 2.92 | 3.48 | 2.96 | 3.52 | 1.191 |
| 2017 | 3.86 | 4.49 | 2.79 | 3.24 | 2.38 | 2.76 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 4.20 | 4.79 | 3.63 | 4.14 | 2.09 | 2.39 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 3.91 | 4.39 | 3.45 | 3.87 | 2.64 | 2.96 | 1.122 |
| 2020 | 3.43 | 3.79 | 3.01 | 3.32 | 3.42 | 3.78 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 5.07 | 5.40 | 4.10 | 4.36 | 4.16 | 4.43 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 5.25 | 5.25 | 4.18 | 4.18 | 4.81 | 4.81 | 1 |

Data source: Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center pelagic module data request.

Table A-125. Supporting Data for Figure 143

| Year | Total trip costs (adj \$) | Fuel Cost (\$ adj) | Other costs (\$ adj) | Trip days | CPI Adjustor |
|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 2005 | 26,495 | 13,314 | 13,182 | 19 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 27,905 | 14,582 | 13,324 | 20 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 27,851 | 14,936 | 12,915 | 21 | 1.440 |
| 2008 | 35,353 | 21,948 | 13,406 | 22 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 28,932 | 14,365 | 14,568 | 24 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 31,232 | 16,817 | 14,415 | 24 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 36,470 | 21,258 | 15,211 | 23 | 1.298 |
| 2012 | 37,987 | 22,180 | 15,807 | 23 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 36,402 | 20,522 | 15,880 | 23 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 36,503 | 20,434 | 16,069 | 23 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 31,342 | 15,067 | 16,275 | 22 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 28,872 | 12,824 | 16,047 | 22 | 1.191 |
| 2017 | 27,531 | 12,263 | 15,123 | 21 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 29,129 | 14,677 | 13,175 | 21 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 29,059 | 15,364 | 13,055 | 22 | 1.123 |
| 2020 | 26,645 | 11,865 | 14,781 | 21 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 28,796 | 14,827 | 13,969 | 21 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 33,923 | 19,771 | 14,152 | 23 | 1 |

Table A-126. Supporting Data for Figure 144

| Year | Total trip costs (\$ adj) | Fuel Cost (\$ adj) | Other costs (\$ adj) | trip days | CPI Adjustor |
|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 2005 | 53,965 | 26,596 | 27,369 | 28 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 55,417 | 27,630 | 27,787 | 31 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 57,159 | 30,167 | 26,992 | 33 | 1.440 |
| 2008 | 69,826 | 42,195 | 27,630 | 33 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 51,686 | 25,430 | 26,256 | 32 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 56,201 | 31,445 | 24,756 | 33 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 73,347 | 46,114 | 27,233 | 33 | 1.298 |
| 2012 | 73,010 | 44,790 | 28,219 | 35 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 61,925 | 35,881 | 26,044 | 31 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 63,595 | 36,591 | 27,004 | 32 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 50,989 | 25,181 | 25,808 | 33 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 47,535 | 20,404 | 27,131 | 31 | 1.191 |

| | | | | | |
|------|--------|--------|--------|----|-------|
| 2017 | 43,673 | 20,055 | 23,617 | 27 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 49,508 | 25,005 | 24,980 | 33 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 38,990 | 20,315 | 17,775 | 27 | 1.123 |
| 2020 | 46,779 | 23,901 | 22,878 | 28 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 38,656 | 19,180 | 19,476 | 25 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 44,905 | 26,060 | 18,845 | 26 | 1 |

Table A-127. Supporting Data for Figure 145

| Year | Trip costs (\$) | Trip costs (\$ adjusted) | Revenue (\$) | Net revenue (\$ adjusted) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| 2005 | 16,580 | 38,162 | 21,581 | 34,487 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 18,493 | 38,443 | 19,950 | 30,105 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 19,341 | 41,099 | 21,758 | 31,332 | 1.440 |
| 2008 | 25,600 | 51,084 | 25,484 | 35,193 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 21,057 | 43,216 | 22,159 | 30,447 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 23,204 | 56,194 | 32,990 | 44,405 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 28,097 | 58,598 | 30,501 | 39,590 | 1.298 |
| 2012 | 29,981 | 68,629 | 38,647 | 48,966 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 29,239 | 64,165 | 34,926 | 43,483 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 29,750 | 61,565 | 31,815 | 39,037 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 25,796 | 67,022 | 41,226 | 50,090 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 24,242 | 77,368 | 53,126 | 63,273 | 1.191 |
| 2017 | 23,692 | 67,065 | 43,372 | 50,399 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 25,529 | 66,676 | 41,146 | 46,948 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 25,876 | 59,779 | 33,903 | 38,073 | 1.123 |
| 2020 | 24,113 | 49,706 | 25,592 | 28,279 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 27,039 | 71,322 | 44,283 | 47,161 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 33,923 | 75,489 | 41,566 | 41,566 | 1 |

Table A-128. Supporting Data for Figure 146

| Year | Trip costs (\$) | Trip costs adjusted (\$) | Revenue (\$) | Net revenue adjusted (\$) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| 2005 | 33,770 | 35,815 | 42,502 | 67,918 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 36,724 | 44,495 | 42,116 | 63,553 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 39,694 | 33,844 | 49,153 | 70,780 | 1.440 |

| Year | Trip costs (\$) | Trip costs adjusted (\$) | Revenue (\$) | Net revenue adjusted (\$) | CPI Adjuster |
|------|-----------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| 2008 | 50,562 | 40,593 | 36,147 | 49,919 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 37,617 | 29,622 | 31,565 | 43,370 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 41,754 | 38,383 | 30,846 | 41,519 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 56,508 | 50,774 | 46,958 | 60,952 | 1.298 |
| 2012 | 57,624 | 48,538 | 44,944 | 56,944 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 49,739 | 41,101 | 56,566 | 70,425 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 51,829 | 38,714 | 35,141 | 43,118 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 41,966 | 28,927 | 36,082 | 43,839 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 39,912 | 37,562 | 73,066 | 87,022 | 1.191 |
| 2017 | 37,584 | 52,720 | 71,204 | 82,739 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 43,390 | 73,529 | 66,473 | 75,846 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 34,720 | 58,873 | 73,167 | 82,167 | 1.123 |
| 2020 | 42,334 | 71,177 | 43,940 | 48,554 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 36,297 | 58,413 | 60,117 | 64,024 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 44,905 | 88,561 | 123,178 | 123,178 | 1 |

Table A-129. Supporting Data for Figure 147 and Figure 148

| Year | Revenue per-day at-sea (\$/day) | Revenue per-day-at-sea adjusted (\$/day) | Annual revenue per vessel (\$) | Annual revenue per vessel adjusted (\$) | Gini coefficient | CPI Adjuster |
|------|---------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|---|------------------|--------------|
| 2003 | 1,729 | 2,961 | 368,866 | 631,867 | 0.26 | 1.713 |
| 2004 | 1,704 | 2,825 | 353,141 | 585,507 | 0.25 | 1.658 |
| 2005 | 2,096 | 3,349 | 484,983 | 775,003 | 0.22 | 1.598 |
| 2006 | 1,964 | 2,963 | 439,793 | 663,648 | 0.24 | 1.509 |
| 2007 | 2,045 | 2,945 | 510,355 | 734,911 | 0.20 | 1.44 |
| 2008 | 2,313 | 3,194 | 577,808 | 797,953 | 0.22 | 1.381 |
| 2009 | 1,866 | 2,564 | 465,320 | 639,350 | 0.23 | 1.374 |
| 2010 | 2,287 | 3,078 | 581,618 | 782,858 | 0.22 | 1.346 |
| 2011 | 2,652 | 3,439 | 645,973 | 837,827 | 0.22 | 1.297 |
| 2012 | 2,943 | 3,729 | 747,748 | 947,397 | 0.19 | 1.267 |
| 2013 | 2,792 | 3,476 | 685,885 | 853,926 | 0.22 | 1.245 |
| 2014 | 2,624 | 3,220 | 623,671 | 765,244 | 0.23 | 1.227 |
| 2015 | 3,056 | 3,712 | 726,524 | 882,727 | 0.22 | 1.215 |
| 2016 | 3,269 | 3,893 | 784,934 | 934,856 | 0.21 | 1.191 |

| | | | | | | |
|------|-------|-------|---------|---------|------|-------|
| 2017 | 3,147 | 3,657 | 753,351 | 875,394 | 0.20 | 1.162 |
| 2018 | 3,092 | 3,528 | 770,680 | 879,346 | 0.20 | 1.141 |
| 2019 | 2,679 | 3,006 | 678,433 | 761,202 | 0.18 | 1.122 |
| 2020 | 2,320 | 2,564 | 556,031 | 614,414 | 0.22 | 1.105 |
| 2021 | 3,341 | 3,558 | 837,564 | 892,006 | 0.20 | 1.065 |
| 2022 | 3,364 | 3,364 | 818,202 | 818,202 | 0.22 | 1 |

Table A-130. Supporting Data for Figure 149, Figure 150, Figure 154, Figure 155, Figure 156, and Figure 157

| Year | MT_LBS_KEPT | MH_LBS_KEPT | OH_LBS_KEPT | OT_LBS_KEPT | AK_LBS_KEPT | MT_LBS_SOLD | MH_LBS_SOLD | OH_LBS_SOLD | OT_LBS_SOLD | AK_LBS_SOLD |
|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 2003 | 2,548,628 | 962,758 | 371,084 | 214,263 | 905,837 | 2,578,123 | 1,090,141 | 401,481 | 250,618 | 1,010,872 |
| 2004 | 3,182,537 | 1,186,050 | 480,686 | 248,461 | 636,909 | 2,885,469 | 1,255,683 | 366,463 | 205,258 | 655,161 |
| 2005 | 2,605,780 | 1,223,122 | 423,736 | 189,906 | 904,729 | 2,042,131 | 1,122,523 | 222,082 | 115,363 | 921,759 |
| 2006 | 2,590,508 | 801,476 | 502,765 | 273,090 | 630,590 | 1,942,533 | 660,212 | 280,570 | 173,794 | 655,735 |
| 2007 | 2,838,518 | 949,837 | 598,687 | 279,449 | 643,029 | 2,003,353 | 740,916 | 331,025 | 179,696 | 640,107 |
| 2008 | 2,976,988 | 686,237 | 325,433 | 293,628 | 702,193 | 2,037,864 | 522,670 | 232,856 | 222,178 | 696,977 |
| 2009 | 2,967,253 | 1,063,594 | 306,922 | 156,145 | 506,695 | 2,032,363 | 800,740 | 221,450 | 114,801 | 509,769 |
| 2010 | 2,857,486 | 929,717 | 615,316 | 235,169 | 114,320 | 1,985,285 | 738,725 | 537,959 | 201,618 | 113,525 |
| 2011 | 2,984,978 | 1,119,839 | 614,733 | 247,663 | 347,897 | 2,017,997 | 841,610 | 461,697 | 187,089 | 369,687 |
| 2012 | 3,672,150 | 1,609,266 | 590,123 | 322,838 | 109,563 | 2,612,743 | 1,320,311 | 472,479 | 257,351 | 109,364 |
| 2013 | 3,201,290 | 1,309,552 | 835,410 | 308,294 | 233,275 | 2,395,280 | 1,081,399 | 743,874 | 272,190 | 233,292 |
| 2014 | 3,490,512 | 1,167,585 | 417,010 | 132,028 | 47,648 | 2,720,280 | 981,747 | 327,058 | 108,530 | 56,390 |
| 2015 | 3,094,132 | 1,198,983 | 407,075 | 151,028 | 31,517 | 2,394,041 | 1,004,449 | 328,964 | 122,208 | 25,607 |
| 2016 | 2,594,388 | 795,355 | 386,290 | 65,349 | 1,521 | 2,125,306 | 707,736 | 361,983 | 61,195 | 478 |
| 2017 | 2,230,479 | 989,701 | 323,700 | 74,969 | 16,434 | 1,799,828 | 858,984 | 286,686 | 64,174 | 15,593 |
| 2018 | 2,755,065 | 786,965 | 349,723 | 99,810 | 4,019 | 2,203,546 | 667,591 | 295,765 | 83,424 | 3,922 |
| 2019 | 2,480,164 | 685,164 | 476,898 | 130,650 | NULL | 1,982,594 | 587,139 | 375,390 | 106,198 | NULL |
| 2020 | 1,497,197 | 582,480 | 328,425 | 112,824 | NULL | 1,208,545 | 524,585 | 344,764 | 112,562 | NULL |
| 2021 | 1,829,023 | 684,573 | 256,969 | 179,848 | NULL | 1,495,417 | 638,805 | 267,868 | 176,572 | NULL |
| 2022 | 1,761,684 | 940,181 | 453,846 | 309,001 | NULL | 1,502,843 | 882,858 | 476,338 | 307,616 | NULL |

Table A-131. Supporting Data for Figure 151, Figure 154, Figure 155, Figure 156, and Figure 157

| Year | MT_VALUE | MH_VALUE | OH_VALUE | OT_VALUE | AK_VALUE | MT Rev adj. | MH Rev adj. | OH Rev adj. | OT Rev adj. | Aku Rev adj. | CPI adjus tor |
|------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|
| 2003 | 5,283,460 | 2,119,320 | 666,040 | 454,417 | 1,004,565 | 9,050,567 | 3,630,395 | 1,140,926 | 778,416 | 1,720,819 | 1.71 |
| 2004 | 6,249,787 | 2,282,403 | 645,728 | 363,090 | 861,060 | 10,362,146 | 3,784,224 | 1,070,617 | 602,003 | 1,427,637 | 1.66 |
| 2005 | 4,942,867 | 2,112,004 | 479,726 | 250,138 | 1,073,828 | 7,898,702 | 3,374,983 | 766,603 | 399,720 | 1,715,978 | 1.60 |
| 2006 | 4,995,421 | 1,425,473 | 539,284 | 383,226 | 878,864 | 7,538,090 | 2,151,038 | 813,780 | 578,288 | 1,326,206 | 1.51 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------|
| 2007 | 5,310,730 | 1,506,553 | 630,916 | 371,466 | 671,832 | 7,647,451 | 2,169,436 | 908,518 | 534,911 | 967,438 | 1.44 |
| 2008 | 5,234,010 | 1,348,929 | 527,932 | 518,735 | 866,873 | 7,228,168 | 1,862,871 | 729,073 | 716,373 | 1,197,152 | 1.38 |
| 2009 | 5,024,316 | 1,713,658 | 424,543 | 241,195 | 681,289 | 6,903,411 | 2,354,566 | 583,322 | 331,401 | 936,091 | 1.37 |
| 2010 | 5,465,395 | 1,876,576 | 1,191,546 | 464,922 | 210,682 | 7,356,422 | 2,525,871 | 1,603,820 | 625,785 | 283,577 | 1.35 |
| 2011 | 6,063,930 | 2,189,502 | 1,167,044 | 493,311 | 607,295 | 7,864,917 | 2,839,784 | 1,513,657 | 639,825 | 787,662 | 1.30 |
| 2012 | 9,000,679 | 3,510,958 | 1,441,714 | 802,107 | 230,235 | 11,403,860 | 4,448,383 | 1,826,651 | 1,016,270 | 291,708 | 1.27 |
| 2013 | 7,423,961 | 3,241,943 | 1,816,264 | 692,705 | 456,267 | 9,242,831 | 4,036,219 | 2,261,249 | 862,418 | 568,053 | 1.25 |
| 2014 | 8,342,685 | 2,950,764 | 826,835 | 298,684 | 102,352 | 10,236,475 | 3,620,588 | 1,014,526 | 366,485 | 125,586 | 1.23 |
| 2015 | 7,700,797 | 2,905,434 | 791,461 | 329,319 | 71,569 | 9,356,469 | 3,530,102 | 961,625 | 400,123 | 86,956 | 1.22 |
| 2016 | 7,550,122 | 2,364,861 | 956,080 | 181,293 | 1,035 | 8,992,196 | 2,816,550 | 1,138,692 | 215,920 | 1,233 | 1.19 |
| 2017 | 6,369,541 | 2,893,301 | 873,230 | 215,332 | 32,035 | 7,401,407 | 3,362,016 | 1,014,693 | 250,216 | 37,225 | 1.16 |
| 2018 | 7,989,348 | 2,406,115 | 941,238 | 298,541 | 12,768 | 9,115,846 | 2,745,377 | 1,073,952 | 340,636 | 14,568 | 1.14 |
| 2019 | 7,223,669 | 2,158,940 | 1,021,691 | 342,598 | NULL | 8,104,956 | 2,422,331 | 1,146,337 | 384,395 | NULL | 1.12 |
| 2020 | 4,259,225 | 1,883,736 | 970,351 | 349,183 | NULL | 4,706,444 | 2,081,528 | 1,072,238 | 385,847 | NULL | 1.11 |
| 2021 | 6,624,840 | 2,832,637 | 832,704 | 657,791 | NULL | 7,055,455 | 3,016,759 | 886,830 | 700,547 | NULL | 1.07 |
| 2022 | 7,040,001 | 4,108,970 | 1,494,323 | 1,156,468 | NULL | 7,040,001 | 4,108,970 | 1,494,323 | 1,156,468 | NULL | 1.00 |

Table A-132. Supporting Data for Figure 152

| Year | MHI troll price (\$/lb), adjusted | MHI handline price (\$/lb), adjusted | Offshore price (\$/lb), adjusted | Other gears price (\$/lb), adjusted |
|-------------|--|---|---|--|
| 2003 | 3.51 | 3.33 | 2.84 | 3.11 |
| 2004 | 3.59 | 3.01 | 2.92 | 2.93 |
| 2005 | 3.87 | 3.01 | 3.45 | 3.46 |
| 2006 | 3.88 | 3.26 | 2.90 | 3.33 |
| 2007 | 3.82 | 2.93 | 2.74 | 2.98 |
| 2008 | 3.55 | 3.56 | 3.13 | 3.22 |
| 2009 | 3.40 | 2.94 | 2.63 | 2.89 |
| 2010 | 3.71 | 3.42 | 2.98 | 3.10 |
| 2011 | 3.90 | 3.37 | 3.28 | 3.42 |
| 2012 | 4.36 | 3.37 | 3.87 | 3.95 |
| 2013 | 3.86 | 3.73 | 3.04 | 3.17 |
| 2014 | 3.76 | 3.69 | 3.10 | 3.38 |
| 2015 | 3.91 | 3.51 | 2.92 | 3.27 |
| 2016 | 4.23 | 3.98 | 3.15 | 3.53 |
| 2017 | 4.11 | 3.91 | 3.54 | 3.90 |
| 2018 | 4.14 | 4.11 | 3.63 | 4.08 |
| 2019 | 4.09 | 4.13 | 3.05 | 3.62 |
| 2020 | 3.89 | 3.97 | 3.11 | 3.43 |
| 2021 | 4.72 | 4.72 | 3.31 | 3.97 |
| 2022 | 4.68 | 4.65 | 3.14 | 3.76 |

APPENDIX B: LIST OF PROTECTED SPECIES AND DESIGNATED CRITICAL HABITAT

Table B-1. Protected species found or reasonably believed to be found near or in Hawaii shallow-set longline waters

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------|------------------------------|---|
| Seabirds | | | | | |
| Laysan Albatross | <i>Phoebastria immutabilis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black-Footed Albatross | <i>Phoebastria nigripes</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Short-Tailed Albatross | <i>Phoebastria albatrus</i> | Endangered | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | 35 FR 8495, 65 FR 46643, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Northern Fulmar | <i>Fulmarus glacialis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Kermadec Petrel | <i>Pterodroma neglecta</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Herald Petrel | <i>Pterodroma arminjoniana</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Murphy's Petrel | <i>Pterodroma ultima</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Mottled Petrel | <i>Pterodroma inexpectata</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Juan Fernandez Petrel | <i>Pterodroma externa</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Hawaiian Petrel | <i>Pterodroma sandwichensis</i> (<i>Pterodroma phaeopygia sandwichensis</i>) | Endangered | N/A | Breeding visitor in the MHI | 32 FR 4001, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White-Necked Petrel | <i>Pterodroma cervicalis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Bonin Petrel | <i>Pterodroma hypoleuca</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black-Winged Petrel | <i>Pterodroma nigripennis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Cook Petrel | <i>Pterodroma cookii</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Stejneger Petrel | <i>Pterodroma longirostris</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Pycroft Petrel | <i>Pterodroma pycrofti</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Bulwer Petrel | <i>Bulweria bulwerii</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Flesh-Footed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna carneipes</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Wedge-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna pacifica</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Buller's Shearwater | <i>Ardenna bulleri</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Sooty Shearwater | <i>Ardenna grisea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Short-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna tenuirostris</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Christmas Shearwater | <i>Puffinus nativitatis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Newell's Shearwater | <i>Puffinus newelli</i> (<i>Puffinus auricularis newelli</i>) | Threatened | N/A | Breeding visitor | 40 FR 44149, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Wilson's Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanites oceanicus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Leach's Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma leucorhoa</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Band-Rumped Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma castro</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Tristram Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma tristrami</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon lepturus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Red-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon rubricauda</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Masked Booby | <i>Sula dactylatra</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Brown Booby | <i>Sula leucogaster</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Red-Footed Booby | <i>Sula sula</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Great Frigatebird | <i>Fregata minor</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Lesser Frigatebird | <i>Fregata ariel</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Laughing Gull | <i>Leucophaeus atricilla</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Franklin Gull | <i>Leucophaeus pipixcan</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Ring-Billed Gull | <i>Larus delawarensis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Herring Gull | <i>Larus argentatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Slaty-Backed Gull | <i>Larus schistisagus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Glaucous-Winged Gull | <i>Larus glaucescens</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Brown Noddy | <i>Anous stolidus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black Noddy | <i>Anous minutus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Blue-Gray Noddy | <i>Procelsterna cerulea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White Tern | <i>Gygis alba</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|--|-------------|--|---|
| Sooty Tern | <i>Onychoprion fuscatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Gray-Backed Tern | <i>Onychoprion lunatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Little Tern | <i>Sternula albifrons</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Least Tern | <i>Sternula antillarum</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Arctic Tern | <i>Sterna paradisaea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| South Polar Skua | <i>Stercorarius maccormicki</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Pomarine Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius pomarinus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Parasitic Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius parasiticus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Long-Tailed Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius longicaudus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Sea turtles | | | | | |
| Green Sea Turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Threatened (Central North Pacific DPS) | N/A | Most common turtle in the Hawaiian Islands, much more common in nearshore State waters (foraging grounds) than offshore federal waters. Most nesting occurs on French Frigate Shoals in the NWHI. Foraging and haul out in the MHI. | 43 FR 32800, 81 FR 20057, Balazs et al. 1992, Kolinski et al. 2001 |
| Green Sea Turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Threatened (East Pacific DPS) | N/A | Nest primarily in Mexico and the Galapagos Islands. Little known about their pelagic range west of 90°W but may range as far as the Marshall Islands. Genetic testing confirmed that they are incidentally taken in the HI DSLF fishery. | 43 FR 32800, 81 FR 20057, WPRFMC 2009, Clifton et al. 1982, Karl & Bowen 1999 |
| Hawksbill Sea Turtle | <i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Small population foraging around Hawaii and low level nesting on Maui and Hawaii Islands. Occur worldwide in tropical and subtropical waters. | 35 FR 8491, NMFS & USFWS 2007, Balazs et al. 1992, Katahira et al. 1994 |
| Leatherback Sea Turtle | <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Regularly sighted in offshore waters, especially at the southeastern end of the archipelago. | 35 FR 8491, NMFS & USFWS 1997 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|---|---------------|---|---|
| Loggerhead Sea Turtle | <i>Caretta caretta</i> | Endangered (North Pacific DPS) | N/A | Rare in Hawaii. Found worldwide along continental shelves, bays, estuaries, and lagoons of tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. | 43 FR 32800, 76 FR 58868, Dodd 1990, Balazs 1979 |
| Olive Ridley Sea Turtle | <i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i> | Threatened (Entire species, except for the breeding population on the Pacific coast of Mexico, which is listed as endangered) | N/A | Rare in Hawaii. Occurs worldwide in tropical and warm temperate ocean waters. | 43 FR 32800, Pitman 1990, Balacz 1982 |
| Marine mammals | | | | | |
| Blainville's Beaked Whale | <i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and temperate waters | Mead 1989 |
| Blue Whale | <i>Balaenoptera musculus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Acoustically recorded off of Oahu and Midway Atoll, small number of sightings around Hawaii. Considered extremely rare, generally occur in winter and summer. | 35 FR 18319, Bradford et al. 2013, Northrop et al. 1971, Thompson & Friedl 1982, Stafford et al. 2001 |
| Bottlenose Dolphin | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Distributed worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock distinct from island-associated stocks. | Perrin et al. 2009, Martien et al. 2012 |
| Bryde's Whale | <i>Balaenoptera edeni</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Distributed widely across tropical and warm-temperate Pacific Ocean. | Leatherwood et al. 1982 |
| Common Dolphin | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Found worldwide in temperate and subtropical seas. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Cuvier's Beaked Whale | <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur year round in Hawaiian waters. | McSweeney et al. 2007 |
| Dall's Porpoise | <i>Phocoenoides dalli</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Range across the entire north Pacific Ocean. | Hall 1979 |
| Dwarf Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia sima</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Most common in waters between 500 m and 1,000 m in depth. Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Nagorsen 1985, Baird et al. 2013 |
| False Killer Whale | <i>Pseudorca crassidens</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock tracked to within 11 km of Hawaiian Islands. | Stacey et al. 1994, Baird et al. 2012, Bradford et al. 2015 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|--|--|
| Fin Whale | <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Infrequent sightings in Hawaii waters. Considered rare in Hawaii, though may migrate into Hawaiian waters during fall/winter based on acoustic recordings. | 35 FR 18319, Hamilton et al. 2009, Thompson & Friedl 1982 |
| Fraser's Dolphin | <i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical waters. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Guadalupe Fur Seal | <i>Arctocephalus townsendi</i> | Threatened | Strategic | Extremely rare sightings. Little known about their pelagic distribution. Breed mainly on Isla Guadalupe, Mexico. | 50 FR 51252, Gallo-Reynoso et al. 2008, Fleischer 1987 |
| Hawaiian Monk Seal | <i>Neomonachus schauinslandi</i> | Endangered ^a | Strategic | Endemic tropical seal. Occurs throughout the archipelago. MHI population spends some time foraging in federal waters during the day. | 41 FR 51611, Baker et al. 2011 |
| Humpback Whale | <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> | Delisted Due to Recovery (Hawaii DPS) | Strategic | Migrate through the archipelago and breed during the winter. Common during winter months when they are generally found within the 100 m isobath. | 35 FR 18319, 81 FR 62259, Childerhouse et al. 2008, Wolman & Jurasz 1976, Herman & Antinaja 1977, Rice & Wolman 1978 |
| Killer Whale | <i>Orcinus orca</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Rare in Hawaii. Prefer colder waters within 800 km of continents. | Mitchell 1975, Baird et al. 2006 |
| Longman's Beaked Whale | <i>Indopacetus pacificus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical waters from the eastern Pacific westward through the Indian Ocean to the eastern coast of Africa. Rare in Hawaii. | Dalebout 2003, Baird et al. 2013 |
| Melon-Headed Whale | <i>Peponocephala electra</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical and warm-temperate waters worldwide, found primarily in equatorial waters. Uncommon in Hawaii. | Perryman et al. 1994, Barlow 2006, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Minke Whale | <i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur seasonally around Hawaii | Barlow 2003, Rankin & Barlow 2005 |
| North Pacific Right Whale | <i>Eubalaena japonica</i> | Endangered ^a | Strategic | Extremely rare in Hawaii waters | 35 FR 18319, 73 FR 12024, Rowntree et al. 1980, Herman et al. 1980 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|---|---|
| Northern Elephant Seal | <i>Mirounga angustirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Females migrate to central North Pacific to feed on pelagic prey. | Le Beouf et al. 2000 |
| Northern Fur Seal | <i>Callorhinus ursinus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur throughout the North Pacific Ocean. | Gelatt et al. 2015 |
| Pacific White-Sided Dolphin | <i>Lagenorhynchus obliquidens</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Endemic to temperate waters of North Pacific Ocean. Occur both on the high seas and along continental margins. | Brownell et al. 1999 |
| Pantropical Spotted Dolphin | <i>Stenella attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Common and abundant throughout the Hawaiian archipelago. Pelagic stock occurs outside of insular stock areas (20 km for Oahu and 4-island stocks, 65 km for Hawaii Island stock). | Baird et al. 2013, Oleson et al. 2013 |
| Pygmy Killer Whale | <i>Feresa attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Small resident population in Hawaiian waters. Found worldwide in tropical and subtropical waters. | McSweeney et al. 2009, Ross & Leatherwood 1994 |
| Pygmy Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia breviceps</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Caldwell & Caldwell 1989 |
| Risso's Dolphin | <i>Grampus griseus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Rough-Toothed Dolphin | <i>Steno bredanensis</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. Occasionally found offshore of Hawaii. | Perrin et al. 2009, Baird et al. 2013, Barlow 2006, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Sei Whale | <i>Balaenoptera borealis</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Rare in Hawaii. Generally found in offshore temperate waters. | 35 FR 18319, Barlow 2003, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Short-Finned Pilot Whale | <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. Commonly observed around MHI and present around NWHI. | Shallenberger 1981, Baird et al. 2013, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Sperm Whale | <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Found in tropical to polar waters worldwide, most abundant cetaceans in the region. Sighted off the NWHI and the MHI. | 35 FR 18319, Rice 1960, Lee 1993, Barlow 2006, Mobley et al. 2000, Shallenberger 1981 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|---|---|
| Spinner Dolphin | <i>Stenella longirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock found outside of island-associated boundaries (10 nm). | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Striped Dolphin | <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters throughout the world. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Elasmobranchs | | | | | |
| Giant manta ray | <i>Manta birostris</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. Commonly found in upwelling zones, oceanic island groups, offshore pinnacles and seamounts, and on shallow reefs. | Dewar et al. 2008, Marshall et al. 2009, Marshall et al. 2011. |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in open ocean waters from the surface to 152 m depth. It is most commonly found in waters > 20°C | Bonfil et al. 2008, Backus et al. 1956, Strasburg 1958, Compagno 1984 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark | <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> | Endangered (Eastern Pacific DPS) | N/A | Found in coastal areas from southern California to Peru. | Compagno 1984, Baum et al. 2007, Bester 2011 |
| Scalloped hammerhead | <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> | Threatened (Indo-West Pacific DPS) | N/A | Occur over continental and insular shelves, and adjacent deep waters, but rarely found in waters < 22°C. Range from the intertidal and surface to depths up to 450–512 m. | Compagno 1984, Schulze-Haugen & Kohler 2003, Sanches 1991, Klimley 1993 |
| Corals | | | | | |
| N/A | <i>Acropora globiceps</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Occur on upper reef slopes, reef flats, and adjacent habitats in depths ranging from 0 to 8 m | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora jacquelineae</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Found in numerous subtidal reef slope and back-reef habitats, including but not limited to, lower reef slopes, walls and ledges, mid-slopes, and upper reef slopes protected from wave action, and depth range is 10 to 35 m. | Veron 2014 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|--|-------------------------|
| N/A | <i>Acropora retusa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Occur in shallow reef slope and back-reef areas, such as upper reef slopes, reef flats, and shallow lagoons, and depth range is 1 to 5 m. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora speciosa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Found in protected environments with clear water and high diversity of <i>Acropora</i> and steep slopes or deep, shaded waters. Depth range is 12 to 40 meters and have been found in mesophotic habitat (40-150 m). | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Euphyllia paradivisa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Found in environments protected from wave action on at least upper reef slopes, mid-slope terraces, and lagoons in depths ranging from 2 to 25 m depth. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Isopora crateriformis</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Found in shallow, high-wave energy environments, from low tide to at least 12 meters deep, and have been reported from mesophotic depths (less than 50 m depth). | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Seriatopora aculeata</i> | Threatened | N/A | Not confirmed in Hawaii waters. Found in broad range of habitats including, but not limited to, upper reef slopes, mid-slope terraces, lower reef slopes, reef flats, and lagoons, and depth ranges from 3 to 40 m. | Veron 2014 |
| Invertebrates | | | | | |
| Chambered nautilus | <i>Nautilus pompilius</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in small, isolated populations throughout the Indo-Pacific on steep-sloped forereefs with sandy, silty, or muddy bottom substrates from depths of 100 m to 500 m. | 83 FR 48948, CITES 2016 |

^a These species have critical habitat designated under the ESA. See Table B-4.

Table B-2. Protected species found or reasonably believed to be found near or in Hawaii deep-set longline waters

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------|------------------------------|---|
| Seabirds | | | | | |
| Laysan Albatross | <i>Phoebastria immutabilis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black-Footed Albatross | <i>Phoebastria nigripes</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Short-Tailed Albatross | <i>Phoebastria albatrus</i> | Endangered | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | 35 FR 8495, 65 FR 46643, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Northern Fulmar | <i>Fulmarus glacialis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Kermadec Petrel | <i>Pterodroma neglecta</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Herald Petrel | <i>Pterodroma arminjoniana</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Murphy's Petrel | <i>Pterodroma ultima</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Mottled Petrel | <i>Pterodroma inexpectata</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Juan Fernandez Petrel | <i>Pterodroma externa</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Hawaiian Petrel | <i>Pterodroma sandwichensis</i> (<i>Pterodroma phaeopygia sandwichensis</i>) | Endangered | N/A | Breeding visitor in the MHI | 32 FR 4001, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White-Necked Petrel | <i>Pterodroma cervicalis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Bonin Petrel | <i>Pterodroma hypoleuca</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black-Winged Petrel | <i>Pterodroma nigripennis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Cook Petrel | <i>Pterodroma cookii</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Stejneger Petrel | <i>Pterodroma longirostris</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Pycroft Petrel | <i>Pterodroma pycrofti</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Bulwer Petrel | <i>Bulweria bulwerii</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Wedge-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna pacifica</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Buller's Shearwater | <i>Ardenna bulleri</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Sooty Shearwater | <i>Ardenna grisea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Short-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna tenuirostris</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Christmas Shearwater | <i>Puffinus nativitatis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------|-------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Newell's Shearwater | <i>Puffinus newelli</i> (<i>Puffinus auricularis newelli</i>) | Threatened | N/A | Breeding visitor | 40 FR 44149, Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Wilson's Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanites oceanicus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Leach's Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma leucorhoa</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Band-Rumped Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma castro</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Tristram Storm-Petrel | <i>Oceanodroma tristrami</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon lepturus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Red-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon rubricauda</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Masked Booby | <i>Sula dactylatra</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Nazca Booby | <i>Sula granti</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Vagrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Brown Booby | <i>Sula leucogaster</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Red-Footed Booby | <i>Sula</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Great Frigatebird | <i>Fregata minor</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Lesser Frigatebird | <i>Fregata ariel</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Laughing Gull | <i>Leucophaeus atricilla</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Franklin Gull | <i>Leucophaeus pipixcan</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Ring-Billed Gull | <i>Larus delawarensis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Herring Gull | <i>Larus argentatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Slaty-Backed Gull | <i>Larus schistisagus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Glaucous-Winged Gull | <i>Larus glaucescens</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Brown Noddy | <i>Anous stolidus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Black Noddy | <i>Anous minutus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Blue-Gray Noddy | <i>Procelsterna cerulea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| White Tern | <i>Gygis alba</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Sooty Tern | <i>Onychoprion fuscatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Gray-Backed Tern | <i>Onychoprion lunatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|--|-------------|--|---|
| Little Tern | <i>Sternula albifrons</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Least Tern | <i>Sternula antillarum</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breeding visitor in the NWHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Arctic Tern | <i>Sterna paradisaea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| South Polar Skua | <i>Stercorarius maccormicki</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Pomarine Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius pomarinus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Winter resident in the MHI | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Parasitic Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius parasiticus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Long-Tailed Jaeger | <i>Stercorarius longicaudus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Migrant | Pyle & Pyle 2009 |
| Sea turtles | | | | | |
| Green Sea Turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Threatened (Central North Pacific DPS) | N/A | Most common turtle in the Hawaiian Islands, much more common in nearshore State waters (foraging grounds) than offshore federal waters. Most nesting occurs on French Frigate Shoals in the NWHI. Foraging and haulout in the MHI. | 43 FR 32800, 81 FR 20057, Balazs et al. 1992, Kolinski et al. 2001 |
| Green Sea Turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Threatened (East Pacific DPS) | N/A | Nest primarily in Mexico and the Galapagos Islands. Little known about their pelagic range west of 90°W but may range as far as the Marshall Islands. Genetic testing confirmed that they are incidentally taken in the HI DSLF fishery. | 43 FR 32800, 81 FR 20057, WPRFMC 2009, Clifton et al. 1982, Karl & Bowen 1999 |
| Hawksbill Sea Turtle | <i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Small population foraging around Hawaii and low level nesting on Maui and Hawaii Islands. Occur worldwide in tropical and subtropical waters. | 35 FR 8491, NMFS & USFWS 2007, Balazs et al. 1992, Katahira et al. 1994 |
| Leatherback Sea Turtle | <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Regularly sighted in offshore waters, especially at the southeastern end of the archipelago. | 35 FR 8491, NMFS & USFWS 1997 |
| Loggerhead Sea Turtle | <i>Caretta</i> | Endangered (North Pacific DPS) | N/A | Rare in Hawaii. Found worldwide along continental shelves, bays, estuaries, and lagoons of tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. | 43 FR 32800, 76 FR 58868, Dodd 1990, Balazs 1979 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|---|---------------|---|---|
| Olive Ridley Sea Turtle | <i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i> | Threatened (Entire species, except for the breeding population on the Pacific coast of Mexico, which is listed as endangered) | N/A | Rare in Hawaii. Occurs worldwide in tropical and warm temperate ocean waters. | 43 FR 32800, Pitman 1990, Balacz 1982 |
| Marine mammals | | | | | |
| Blainville's Beaked Whale | <i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and temperate waters | Mead 1989 |
| Blue Whale | <i>Balaenoptera musculus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Acoustically recorded off of Oahu and Midway Atoll, small number of sightings around Hawaii. Considered extremely rare, generally occur in winter and summer. | 35 FR 18319, Bradford et al. 2013, Northrop et al. 1971, Thompson & Friedl 1982, Stafford et al. 2001 |
| Bottlenose Dolphin | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Distributed worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock distinct from island-associated stocks. | Perrin et al. 2009, Martien et al. 2012 |
| Bryde's Whale | <i>Balaenoptera edeni</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Distributed widely across tropical and warm-temperate Pacific Ocean. | Leatherwood et al. 1982 |
| Common Dolphin | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Found worldwide in temperate and subtropical seas. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Cuvier's Beaked Whale | <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur year round in Hawaiian waters. | McSweeney et al. 2007 |
| Dall's Porpoise | <i>Phocoenoides dalli</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Range across the entire north Pacific Ocean. | Hall 1979 |
| Dwarf Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia sima</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Most common in waters between 500 m and 1,000 m in depth. Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Nagorsen 1985, Baird et al. 2013 |
| False Killer Whale | <i>Pseudorca crassidens</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock tracked to within 11 km of Hawaiian Islands. | Stacey et al. 1994, Baird et al. 2012, Bradford et al. 2015 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|--|--|
| Fin Whale | <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Infrequent sightings in Hawaii waters. Considered rare in Hawaii, though may migrate into Hawaiian waters during fall/winter based on acoustic recordings. | 35 FR 18319, Hamilton et al. 2009, Thompson & Friedl 1982 |
| Fraser's Dolphin | <i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical waters. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Guadalupe Fur Seal | <i>Arctocephalus townsendi</i> | Threatened | Strategic | Rare sightings. Little known about their pelagic distribution. Breed mainly on Isla Guadalupe, Mexico. | 50 FR 51252, Gallo-Reynoso et al. 2008, Fleischer 1987 |
| Hawaiian Monk Seal | <i>Neomonachus schauinslandi</i> | Endangered ^a | Strategic | Endemic tropical seal. Occurs throughout the archipelago. MHI population spends some time foraging in federal waters during the day. | 41 FR 51611, Baker et al. 2011 |
| Humpback Whale | <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> | Delisted Due to Recovery (Hawaii DPS) | Strategic | Migrate through the archipelago and breed during the winter. Common during winter months when they are generally found within the 100 m isobath. | 35 FR 18319, 81 FR 62259, Childerhouse et al. 2008, Wolman & Jurasz 1976, Herman & Antinaja 1977, Rice & Wolman 1978 |
| Killer Whale | <i>Orcinus orca</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Rare in Hawaii. Prefer colder waters within 800 km of continents. | Mitchell 1975, Baird et al. 2006 |
| Longman's Beaked Whale | <i>Indopacetus pacificus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical waters from the eastern Pacific westward through the Indian Ocean to the eastern coast of Africa. Rare in Hawaii. | Dalebout 2003, Baird et al. 2013 |
| Melon-Headed Whale | <i>Peponocephala electra</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical and warm-temperate waters worldwide, found primarily in equatorial waters. Uncommon in Hawaii. | Perryman et al. 1994, Barlow 2006, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Minke Whale | <i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur seasonally around Hawaii | Barlow 2003, Rankin & Barlow 2005 |
| North Pacific Right Whale | <i>Eubalaena japonica</i> | Endangered ^a | Strategic | Extremely rare in Hawaii waters | 35 FR 18319, 73 FR 12024, Rowntree et al. 1980, Herman et al. 1980 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|--|---|
| Northern Elephant Seal | <i>Mirounga angustirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Females migrate to central North Pacific to feed on pelagic prey | Le Beouf et al. 2000 |
| Northern Fur Seal | <i>Callorhinus ursinus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Range across the north Pacific Ocean. | Gelatt et al. 2015 |
| Pacific White-Sided Dolphin | <i>Lagenorhynchus obliquidens</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Endemic to temperate waters of North Pacific Ocean. Occur both on the high seas and along continental margins. | Brownell et al. 1999 |
| Pantropical Spotted Dolphin | <i>Stenella attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Common and abundant throughout the Hawaiian archipelago. Pelagic stock occurs outside of insular stock areas (20 km for Oahu and 4-island stocks, 65 km for Hawaii Island stock) | Baird et al. 2013, Oleson et al. 2013 |
| Pygmy Killer Whale | <i>Feresa attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Small resident population in Hawaiian waters. Found worldwide in tropical and subtropical waters. | McSweeney et al. 2009, Ross & Leatherwood 1994 |
| Pygmy Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia breviceps</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Caldwell & Caldwell 1989 |
| Risso's Dolphin | <i>Grampus griseus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Rough-Toothed Dolphin | <i>Steno bredanensis</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. Occasionally found offshore of Hawaii. | Perrin et al. 2009, Bradford et al. 2013, Barlow 2006, Baird et al. 2013 |
| Sei Whale | <i>Balaenoptera borealis</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Rare in Hawaii. Generally found in offshore temperate waters. | 35 FR 18319, Barlow 2003, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Short-Finned Pilot Whale | <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. Commonly observed around MHI and present around NWHI. | Shallenberger 1981, Baird et al. 2013, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Sperm Whale | <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Found in tropical to polar waters worldwide, most abundant cetaceans in the region. Sighted off the NWHI and the MHI. | 35 FR 18319, Rice 1960, Lee 1993, Barlow 2006, Mobley et al. 2000, Shallenberger 1981 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|---|---|
| Spinner Dolphin | <i>Stenella longirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock found outside of island-associated boundaries (10 nm) | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Striped Dolphin | <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters throughout the world | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Elasmobranchs | | | | | |
| Giant manta ray | <i>Manta birostris</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. Commonly found in upwelling zones, oceanic island groups, offshore pinnacles and seamounts, and on shallow reefs. | Dewar et al. 2008, Marshall et al. 2009, Marshall et al. 2011. |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in open ocean waters from the surface to 152 m depth. It is most commonly found in waters > 20°C | Bonfil et al. 2008, Backus et al. 1956, Strasburg 1958, Compagno 1984 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark | <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> | Endangered (Eastern Pacific DPS) | N/A | Found in coastal areas from southern California to Peru. | Compagno 1984, Baum et al. 2007, Bester 2011 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark | <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> | Threatened (Indo-West Pacific DPS) | N/A | Occur over continental and insular shelves, and adjacent deep waters, but rarely found in waters < 22°C. Range from the intertidal and surface to depths up to 450–512 m. | Compagno 1984, Schulze-Haugen & Kohler 2003, Sanches 1991, Klimley 1993 |
| Corals | | | | | |
| N/A | <i>Acropora globiceps</i> | Threatened | N/A | Occur on upper reef slopes, reef flats, and adjacent habitats in depths ranging from 0 to 8 m. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora jacquelineae</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in numerous subtidal reef slope and back-reef habitats, including but not limited to, lower reef slopes, walls and ledges, mid-slopes, and upper reef slopes protected from wave action, and depth range is 10 to 35 m. | Veron 2014 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|---|-------------------------|
| N/A | <i>Acropora retusa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Occur in shallow reef slope and back-reef areas, such as upper reef slopes, reef flats, and shallow lagoons, and depth range is 1 to 5 m. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora speciosa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in protected environments with clear water and high diversity of <i>Acropora</i> and steep slopes or deep, shaded waters. Depth range is 12 to 40 meters, and it has been found in mesophotic habitat (40-150 m). | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Euphyllia paradivisa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in environments protected from wave action on at least upper reef slopes, mid-slope terraces, and lagoons in depths ranging from 2 to 25 m depth. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Isopora crateriformis</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in shallow, high-wave energy environments, from low tide to at least 12 m deep, and have been reported from mesophotic depths (less than 50 m depth). | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Seriatopora aculeata</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in broad range of habitats including, but not limited to, upper reef slopes, mid-slope terraces, lower reef slopes, reef flats, and lagoons, and depth ranges from 3 to 40 m. | Veron 2014 |
| Invertebrates | | | | | |
| Chambered nautilus | <i>Nautilus pompilius</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in small, isolated populations throughout the Indo-Pacific on steep-sloped forereefs with sandy, silty, or muddy bottom substrates from depths of 100 m to 500 m. | 83 FR 48948, CITES 2016 |

^a These species have critical habitat designated under the ESA. See Table B-4.

Table B-3. Protected species found or reasonably believed to be found near or in American Samoa longline waters

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|------------|
| Seabirds | | | | | |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|-------------------------|
| Audubon's Shearwater | <i>Puffinus lherminieri</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Black Noddy | <i>Anous minutus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Black-Naped Tern | <i>Sterna sumatrana</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Blue-Gray Noddy | <i>Procelsterna cerulea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Bridled Tern | <i>Onychoprion anaethetus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Brown Booby | <i>Sula leucogaster</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Brown Noddy | <i>Anous stolidus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Christmas Shearwater | <i>Puffinus nativitatis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident? | Craig 2005 |
| Collared Petrel | <i>Pterodroma brevipes</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident? | Craig 2005 |
| White Tern | <i>Gygis alba</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Greater Crested Tern | <i>Thalasseus bergii</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Gray-Backed Tern | <i>Onychoprion lunatus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Great Frigatebird | <i>Fregata minor</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Herald Petrel | <i>Pterodroma heraldica</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Laughing Gull | <i>Leucophaeus atricilla</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Lesser Frigatebird | <i>Fregata ariel</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Masked Booby | <i>Sula dactylatra</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Newell's Shearwater | <i>Puffinus auricularis newelli</i> | Threatened | N/A | Visitor | 40 FR 44149, Craig 2005 |
| Red-Footed Booby | <i>Sula</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Red-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon rubricauda</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Short-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna tenuirostris</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Sooty Shearwater | <i>Ardenna grisea</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| Sooty Tern | <i>Sterna fuscata</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Tahiti Petrel | <i>Pterodroma rostrata</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| Wedge-Tailed Shearwater | <i>Ardenna pacifica</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident? | Craig 2005 |
| White-Necked Petrel | <i>Pterodroma cervicalis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| White-Faced Storm-Petrel | <i>Pelagodroma marina</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Visitor | Craig 2005 |
| White-Tailed Tropicbird | <i>Phaethon lepturus</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident | Craig 2005 |
| White-Throated Storm-Petrel | <i>Nesofregatta fuliginosa</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Resident? | Craig 2005 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|---------------------------|--|---|---------------|---|--|
| Laysan Albatross | <i>Phoebastria immutabilis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breed mainly in Hawaii, and range across the North Pacific Ocean. | Causey 2008 |
| Hawaiian Petrel | <i>Pterodroma sandwichensis</i> (<i>Pterodroma phaeopygia sandwichensis</i>) | Endangered | N/A | Breed in MHI, and range across the central Pacific Ocean. | 32 FR 4001, Simons & Hodges 1998 |
| Laysan Albatross | <i>Phoebastria immutabilis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breed mainly in Hawaii, and range across the North Pacific Ocean. | Causey 2009 |
| Northern Fulmar | <i>Fulmarus glacialis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Breed and range across North Pacific Ocean. | Hatch & Nettleship 2012 |
| Short-Tailed Albatross | <i>Phoebastria albatrus</i> | Endangered | N/A | Breed in Japan and NWHI, and range across the North Pacific Ocean. | 35 FR 8495, 65 FR 46643, BirdLife International 2017 |
| Sea turtles | | | | | |
| Green Sea Turtle | <i>Chelonia mydas</i> | Endangered (Central South Pacific DPS) | N/A | Frequently seen. Nest at Rose Atoll in small numbers. | 43 FR 32800, 81 FR 20057, Balacz 1994 |
| Hawksbill Sea Turtle | <i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Frequently seen. Nest at Rose Atoll, Swain's Island, and Tutuila. | 35 FR 8491, NMFS & USFWS 2013, Tuato'o-Bartley et al. 1993 |
| Leatherback Sea Turtle | <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> | Endangered ^a | N/A | Very rare. One juvenile recovered dead in experimental longline fishing. | 35 FR 8491, Grant 1994 |
| Loggerhead Sea Turtle | <i>Caretta caretta</i> | Endangered (South Pacific DPS) | N/A | No known sightings. Found worldwide along continental shelves, bays, estuaries, and lagoons of tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. | 43 FR 32800, 76 FR 58868, Utzurum 2002, Dodd 1990 |
| Olive Ridley Sea Turtle | <i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i> | Threatened (Entire species, except for the endangered breeding population on the Pacific coast of Mexico) | N/A | Rare. Three known sightings. | 43 FR 32800, Utzurum 2002 |
| Marine mammals | | | | | |
| Blainville's Beaked Whale | <i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and temperate waters | Mead 1989 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|--|---------------|---|--|
| Blue Whale | <i>Balaenoptera musculus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | No known sightings. Occur worldwide and are known to be found in the western South Pacific. | 35 FR 18319, Olson et al. 2015 |
| Bottlenose Dolphin | <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Distributed worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. Pelagic stock distinct from island-associated stocks. | Perrin et al. 2009, Martien et al. 2012 |
| Bryde's Whale | <i>Balaenoptera edeni</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Distributed widely across tropical and warm-temperate Pacific Ocean. | Leatherwood et al. 1982 |
| Common Dolphin | <i>Delphinus delphis</i> | Not Listed | N/A | Found worldwide in temperate and subtropical seas. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Cuvier's Beaked Whale | <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Occur worldwide. | Heyning 1989 |
| Dwarf Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia sima</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Nagorsen 1985 |
| False Killer Whale | <i>Pseudorca crassidens</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Found in waters within the U.S. EEZ of A. Samoa | Bradford et al. 2015 |
| Fin Whale | <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | No known sightings but reasonably expected to occur in A. Samoa. Found worldwide. | 35 FR 18319, Hamilton et al. 2009 |
| Fraser's Dolphin | <i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical waters. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Guadalupe Fur Seal | <i>Arctocephalus townsendi</i> | Threatened | Strategic | No known sightings. Little known about their pelagic distribution. Breed mainly on Isla Guadalupe, Mexico. | 50 FR 51252, Gallo-Reynoso et al. 2008, Fleischer 1987 |
| Humpback Whale | <i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i> | Delisted Due to Recovery (Oceania DPS) | Strategic | Migrate through the archipelago and breed during the winter in American Samoan waters. | 35 FR 18319, 81 FR 62259, Garrigue et al. 2007, SPWRC 2008 |
| Killer Whale | <i>Orcinus orca</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide. Prefer colder waters within 800 km of continents. | Leatherwood & Dalheim 1978, Mitchell 1975, Baird et al. 2006 |
| Longman's Beaked Whale | <i>Indopacetus pacificus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical waters from the eastern Pacific westward through the Indian Ocean to the eastern coast of Africa. | Dalebout 2003 |
| Melon-Headed Whale | <i>Peponocephala electra</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical and warm-temperate waters worldwide, primarily found in equatorial waters. | Perryman et al. 1994 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------|--|--|
| Minke Whale | <i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Uncommon in this region, usually seen over continental shelves in the Pacific Ocean. | Brueggeman et al. 1990 |
| North Pacific Right Whale | <i>Eubalaena japonica</i> | Endangered ^a | Strategic | Extremely rare. | 35 FR 18319, 73 FR 12024, Childerhouse et al. 2008, Wolman & Jurasz 1976, Herman & Antinaja 1977, Rice & Wolman 1978 |
| Northern Elephant Seal | <i>Mirounga angustirostris</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Females migrate to central North Pacific to feed on pelagic prey | Le Beouf et al. 2000 |
| Pantropical Spotted Dolphin | <i>Stenella attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical and subtropical waters worldwide. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Pygmy Killer Whale | <i>Feresa attenuata</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical and subtropical waters worldwide. | Ross & Leatherwood 1994 |
| Pygmy Sperm Whale | <i>Kogia breviceps</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found worldwide in tropical and warm-temperate waters. | Caldwell & Caldwell 1989 |
| Risso's Dolphin | <i>Grampus griseus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Rough-Toothed Dolphin | <i>Steno bredanensis</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide. Common in A. Samoa waters. | Perrin et al. 2009, Craig 2005 |
| Sei Whale | <i>Balaenoptera borealis</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Generally found in offshore temperate waters. | 35 FR 18319, Barlow 2003, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Short-Finned Pilot Whale | <i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters worldwide | Shallenberger 1981, Baird et al. 2013, Bradford et al. 2013 |
| Sperm Whale | <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> | Endangered | Strategic | Found in tropical to polar waters worldwide, most abundant cetaceans in the region. | 35 FR 18319, Rice 1960, Barlow 2006, Lee 1993, Mobley et al. 2000, Shallenberger 1981 |
| Spinner Dolphin | <i>Stenella longirostris</i> | Not Listed | Unknown | Common in American Samoa, found in waters with mean depth of 44 m. | Reeves et al. 1999, Johnston et al. 2008 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|---|---|
| Striped Dolphin | <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> | Not Listed | Non-strategic | Found in tropical to warm-temperate waters throughout the world | Perrin et al. 2009 |
| Elasmobranchs | | | | | |
| Giant manta ray | <i>Manta birostris</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in tropical, subtropical, and temperate waters. Commonly found in upwelling zones, oceanic island groups, offshore pinnacles and seamounts, and on shallow reefs. | Dewar et al. 2008, Marshall et al. 2009, Marshall et al. 2011. |
| Oceanic whitetip shark | <i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found worldwide in open ocean waters from the surface to 152 m depth. It is most commonly found in waters > 20°C. | Bonfil et al. 2008, Backus et al. 1956, Strasburg 1958, Compagno 1984 |
| Scalloped hammerhead shark | <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> | Threatened (Indo-West Pacific DPS) | N/A | Occur over continental and insular shelves, and adjacent deep waters, but rarely found in waters < 22°C. Range from the intertidal and surface to depths up to 450–512 m. | Compagno 1984, Schulze-Haugen & Kohler 2003, Sanches 1991, Klimley 1993 |
| Corals | | | | | |
| N/A | <i>Acropora globiceps</i> | Threatened | N/A | Occur on upper reef slopes, reef flats, and adjacent habitats in depths from 0 to 8 m | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora jacquelineae</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in numerous subtidal reef slope and back-reef habitats, including but not limited to, lower reef slopes, walls and ledges, mid-slopes, and upper reef slopes protected from wave action, and its depth range is 10 to 35 m. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora retusa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Occur in shallow reef slope and back-reef areas, such as upper reef slopes, reef flats, and shallow lagoons. Depth range is 1 to 5 m. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Acropora speciosa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in protected environments with clear water and high diversity of Acropora and steep slopes or deep, shaded waters. Depth range is 12 to 40 meters and have been found in mesophotic habitat (40-150 m). | Veron 2014 |

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | MMPA Status | Occurrence | References |
|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|---|-------------------------|
| N/A | <i>Euphyllia paradivisa</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in environments protected from wave action on at least upper reef slopes, mid-slope terraces, and lagoons in depths ranging from 2 to 25 m depth. | Veron 2014 |
| N/A | <i>Isopora crateriformis</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in shallow, high-wave energy environments, from low tide to at least 12 meters deep, and have been reported from mesophotic depths (less than 50 m depth). | Veron 2014 |
| Invertebrates | | | | | |
| Chambered nautilus | <i>Nautilus pompilius</i> | Threatened | N/A | Found in small, isolated populations throughout the Indo-Pacific on steep-sloped forereefs with sandy, silty, or muddy bottom substrates from depths of 100 m to 500 m. | 83 FR 48948, CITES 2016 |

^a These species have critical habitat designated under the ESA. See Table B-4.

Table B-4. ESA-listed species' critical habitat in the Pacific Ocean^a

| Common Name | Scientific Name | ESA Listing Status | Critical Habitat | References |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Hawksbill Sea Turtle | <i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i> | Endangered | None in the Pacific Ocean. | 63 FR 46693 |
| Leatherback Sea Turtle | <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> | Endangered | Approximately 16,910 square miles (43,798 square km) stretching along the California coast from Point Arena to Point Arguello east of the 3,000 meter depth contour; and 25,004 square miles (64,760 square km) stretching from Cape Flattery, Washington to Cape Blanco, Oregon east of the 2,000 meter depth contour. | 77 FR 4170 |
| Hawaiian Monk Seal | <i>Neomonachus schauinslandi</i> | Endangered | Ten areas in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands (NWHI) and six in the main Hawaiian Islands (MHI). These areas contain one or a combination of habitat types: Preferred pupping and nursing areas, significant haul-out areas, and/or marine foraging areas, that will support conservation for the species. | 53 FR 18988, 51 FR 16047, 80 FR 50925 |
| North Pacific Right Whale | <i>Eubalaena japonica</i> | Endangered | Two specific areas are designated, one in the Gulf of Alaska and another in the Bering Sea, comprising a total of approximately 95,200 square kilometers (36,750 square miles) of marine habitat. | 73 FR 19000, 71 FR 38277 |

^a For maps of critical habitat, see <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/endangered-species-conservation/critical-habitat>.

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APPENDIX C: OBSERVER PROGRAM BYCATCH DATA**Table C-1. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the Hawaii deep-set longline fishery**

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Lancetfish, Longnose | 229,791 | 230,048 | 309,551 | 275,802 | 288,339 | 217,244 |
| Lancetfish, Shortnose | 5 | 0 | 16 | 9 | 9 | 5 |
| Triggerfish, Rough | 0 | 7 | 9 | 3 | 0 | 8 |
| Triggerfish, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Needle Fish, Gaping | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Fanfishes | 63 | 32 | 27 | 32 | 57 | 46 |
| Pomfret, Bigtooth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Brama spp. | 4,773 | 10,999 | 3,681 | 5,038 | 4,961 | 3,288 |
| Pomfret, Dagger | 6,464 | 7,443 | 8,188 | 8,929 | 5,667 | 9,450 |
| Pomfret, Lustrous | 62 | 92 | 131 | 115 | 66 | 225 |
| Pomfret, Pacific | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Rough | 658 | 719 | 1,146 | 597 | 286 | 430 |
| Pomfret, Sickie | 2,284 | 1,845 | 1,488 | 1,510 | 1,337 | 1,525 |
| Pomfret, Unidentified | 290 | 258 | 306 | 294 | 113 | 165 |
| Jack, Cottonmouth | 5 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 5 |
| Kahala, Unspecified (Amberjacks) | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pilotfish | NC | NC | NC | NC | 6 | 0 |
| Rainbow Runner | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| Yellowtail | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Swallowers | 122 | 115 | 288 | 336 | 258 | 67 |
| Dolphinfish | 5,277 | 4,428 | 5,177 | 4,896 | 2,505 | 3,092 |
| Dolphinfish, Pompano | 195 | 165 | 208 | 82 | 59 | 288 |
| Flyingfish | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Escolar | 37,860 | 35,052 | 44,873 | 47,973 | 50,556 | 53,089 |
| Escolar, Longfin | 2,823 | 2,590 | 4,057 | 4,570 | 5,370 | 3,430 |
| Escolar, Roudi's | 414 | 338 | 301 | 510 | 253 | 268 |
| Gemfish, Black | 150 | 136 | 166 | 147 | 268 | 111 |
| Oilfish | 994 | 1,516 | 2,276 | 2,717 | 2,457 | 2,063 |
| Snake Mackerel | 110,655 | 120,432 | 79,308 | 49,481 | 43,862 | 67,877 |
| Snake Mackerel, Unidentified | 33 | 178 | 54 | 148 | 55 | 38 |
| Billfish, Unidentified | 499 | 498 | 628 | 1,298 | 454 | 275 |
| Marlin, Black | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Marlin, Blue | 176 | 132 | 226 | 817 | 476 | 224 |
| Marlin, Striped | 878 | 772 | 1,243 | 2,781 | 1,186 | 536 |
| Marlin, Unidentified | NC | NC | NC | NC | 82 | 137 |
| Sailfish | 59 | 26 | 11 | 331 | 63 | 21 |
| Spearfish, Shortbill | 3,559 | 2,301 | 1,706 | 2,663 | 2,126 | 2,073 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Opah | 963 | 721 | 1,885 | 1,315 | 932 | 144 |
| Crestfish | 184 | 130 | 133 | 82 | 72 | 45 |
| Crestfish, Unicorn | NC | NC | NC | NC | 8 | 8 |
| Louvar | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mola, Common | 148 | 86 | 151 | 183 | 114 | 165 |
| Mola, Sharptail | 91 | 133 | 51 | 59 | 55 | 33 |
| Mola, Slender | 1,480 | 692 | 630 | 196 | 226 | 19 |
| Molas | NC | NC | NC | NC | 16 | 0 |
| Cigarfishes | 49 | 58 | 48 | 80 | 48 | 54 |
| Hammerjaw | 415 | 255 | 290 | 468 | 420 | 71 |
| Oarfish | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 |
| Mackerel (incl. Chub, Spotted Chub) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mackerel, Bullet | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Albacore | 265 | 73 | 106 | 145 | 80 | 790 |
| Tuna, Bigeye | 20,723 | 20,800 | 24,053 | 19,481 | 20,596 | 12,360 |
| Tuna, Bluefin | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Dogtooth | NC | NC | NC | NC | 4 | 0 |
| Tuna, Kawakawa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Skipjack | 5,502 | 5,559 | 2,585 | 4,366 | 2,833 | 3,074 |
| Tuna, Southern Bluefin | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Unidentified | 5,731 | 6,337 | 5,164 | 6,855 | 4,097 | 5,052 |
| Tuna, Yellowfin | 5,615 | 9,455 | 5,201 | 7,434 | 6,138 | 10,804 |
| Wahoo | 1,989 | 1,664 | 2,245 | 3,404 | 1,784 | 2,080 |
| Barracuda, Great | 271 | 197 | 210 | 204 | 433 | 233 |
| Puffer, Pelagic | 798 | 745 | 589 | 267 | 526 | 538 |
| Puffer, Unidentified | 42 | 32 | 48 | 51 | 101 | 63 |
| Pufferfish, Porcupine | NC | NC | NC | NC | 30 | 5 |
| Ribbonfish, Scalloped | 21 | 24 | 3 | 29 | 7 | 31 |
| Ribbonfish, Tapertail | 286 | 216 | 370 | 207 | 164 | 215 |
| Ribbonfishes | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 8 |
| Scabbardfish, Razorback | 38 | 5 | 51 | 20 | 16 | 5 |
| Scabbardfish, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| Bony Fish, Other Identified | 37 | 35 | 58 | 54 | 29 | 27 |
| Bony Fish, Unidentified | 357 | 214 | 265 | 368 | 60 | 1,104 |
| Swordfish | NA | 4,282 | 3,851 | 2,228 | 2,495 | 1,485 |
| Stingray, Pelagic | 6,958 | 6,608 | 7,234 | 10,949 | 9,357 | 8,526 |
| Manta Ray, Giant | 22 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 7 | 11 |
| Manta/Mobula | 16 | 26 | 39 | 82 | 43 | 66 |
| Mobula (Devil Ray) | 120 | 121 | 86 | 218 | 76 | 251 |
| Ray, Other Identified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ray, Unidentified | 4 | 7 | 14 | 0 | 6 | 26 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Shark, Bigeye Thresher | 11,639 | 9,551 | 6,519 | 10,399 | 9,754 | 13,313 |
| Shark, Common Thresher | 0 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 23 | 29 |
| Shark, Pelagic Thresher | 1,403 | 47 | 135 | 212 | 132 | 158 |
| Shark, Unid. Thresher | 476 | 476 | 586 | 659 | 400 | 485 |
| Shark, Bignose | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Blacktip Reef | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Blue | 102,250 | 123,166 | 119,306 | 134,067 | 139,284 | 124,209 |
| Shark, Galapagos | 16 | 32 | 55 | 41 | 37 | 39 |
| Shark, Oceanic White-Tip | 2,188 | 1,257 | 1,092 | 2,125 | 1,959 | 3,084 |
| Shark, Sandbar | 20 | 50 | 26 | 28 | 17 | 39 |
| Shark, Silky | 2,538 | 1,417 | 1,071 | 1,831 | 959 | 1,419 |
| Shark, Tiger | 34 | 19 | 31 | 20 | 36 | 26 |
| Shark, Cookie Cutter | 24 | 3 | 31 | 5 | 21 | 15 |
| Shark, Longfin Mako | 228 | 124 | 251 | 212 | 340 | 193 |
| Shark, Salmon | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 8 |
| Shark, Shortfin Mako | 6,205 | 8,184 | 8,834 | 7,362 | 7,052 | 4,678 |
| Shark, Unid. Mako | 42 | 79 | 95 | 171 | 82 | 36 |
| Bigeye Sand Tiger Shark | 0 | 24 | 21 | 22 | 31 | 18 |
| Shark, Crocodile | 2,132 | 3,449 | 2,009 | 3,206 | 1,994 | 1,704 |
| Shark, Scalloped Hammerhead | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Smooth Hammerhead | 167 | 140 | 92 | 184 | 195 | 215 |
| Shark, Unid. Hammerhead | 44 | 14 | 49 | 32 | 43 | 49 |
| Dogfish, Velvet | 2,225 | 2,219 | 3,063 | 2,216 | 2,639 | 1,629 |
| Shark, Other Identified | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Shark, Unidentified | 853 | 1,300 | 1,457 | 1,066 | 454 | 1,131 |

Note: Species that did not have a unique species code prior to 2020 are listed as “NC” for each year from 2016 to 2019.

Table C-2. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the Hawaii shallow-set longline fishery

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Lancetfish, Longnose | 1,784 | 2,728 | 1,211 | 1,232 | 1,268 | 2,480 |
| Lancetfish, Shortnose | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Triggerfish, Rough | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Triggerfish, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Needle Fish, Gaping | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Fanfishes | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Bigtooth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Brama spp. | 50 | 50 | 42 | 27 | 45 | 21 |
| Pomfret, Dagger | 11 | 13 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 21 |
| Pomfret, Lustrous | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Pacific | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Rough | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Pomfret, Sickle | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Pomfret, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Jack, Cottonmouth | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kahala, Unspecified (Amberjacks) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Rainbow Runner | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Yellowtail | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Swallowers | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Dolphinfish | 83 | 107 | 34 | 18 | 20 | 75 |
| Dolphinfish, Pompano | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Flyingfish | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Escolar | 459 | 765 | 150 | 122 | 152 | 0 |
| Escolar, Longfin | 2 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 521 |
| Escolar, Roudi's | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Gemfish, Black | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Oilfish | 171 | 327 | 114 | 57 | 248 | 1 |
| Snake Mackerel | 315 | 638 | 62 | 16 | 31 | 219 |
| Snake Mackerel, Unidentified | 1 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 98 |
| Billfish, Unidentified | 6 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 0 |
| Marlin, Black | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| Marlin, Blue | 11 | 7 | 5 | 0 | 7 | 0 |
| Marlin, Striped | 55 | 81 | 44 | 6 | 31 | 7 |
| Marlin, Unidentified | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 55 |
| Sailfish | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Spearfish, Shortbill | 53 | 19 | 8 | 3 | 12 | 0 |
| Opah | 110 | 70 | 20 | 7 | 22 | 12 |
| Crestfish | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Crestfish, Unicorn | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 0 |
| Louvar | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mola, Common | 31 | 46 | 41 | 5 | 41 | 0 |
| Mola, Sharptail | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Mola, Slender | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Molas | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 1 |
| Cigarfishes | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Hammerjaw | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mackerel (incl. Chub, Spotted Chub) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mackerel, Bullet | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Albacore | 5 | 28 | 6 | 1 | 51 | 0 |
| Tuna, Bigeye | 121 | 278 | 153 | 55 | 77 | 63 |
| Tuna, Bluefin | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 79 |
| Tuna, Dogtooth | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Kawakawa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-----------------------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Tuna, Skipjack | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Tuna, Unidentified | 5 | 30 | 11 | 12 | 16 | 9 |
| Tuna, Yellowfin | 27 | 125 | 55 | 8 | 46 | 28 |
| Wahoo | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 71 |
| Barracuda, Great | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Puffer, Pelagic | 21 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| Puffer, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Pufferfish, Porcupine | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 7 |
| Ribbonfish, Scalloped | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ribbonfish, Tapertail | 5 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 |
| Ribbonfishes | NC | NC | NC | NC | 0 | 0 |
| Scabbardfish, Razorback | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Scabbardfish, Unidentified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Bony Fish, Other Identified | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Bony Fish, Unidentified | 22 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 3 | 0 |
| Swordfish | 1,049 | 1,419 | 735 | 254 | 251 | 30 |
| Stingray, Pelagic | 245 | 284 | 440 | 82 | 328 | 499 |
| Manta Ray, Giant | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 171 |
| Manta/Mobula | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Mobula (Devil Ray) | 8 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| Ray, Other Identified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Ray, Unidentified | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Bigeye Thresher | 57 | 72 | 13 | 3 | 21 | 0 |
| Shark, Common Thresher | 3 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 58 |
| Shark, Pelagic Thresher | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Unid. Thresher | 2 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 0 |
| Shark, Gray Reef | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| Shark, Bignose | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Shark, Blacktip Reef | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Blue | 11,853 | 10,102 | 4,115 | 4,225 | 6,949 | 0 |
| Shark, Galapagos | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6,446 |
| Shark, Oceanic White-Tip | 32 | 29 | 1 | 0 | 13 | 0 |
| Shark, Sandbar | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 37 |
| Shark, Silky | 2 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Shark, Tiger | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| Shark, Cookie Cutter | 3 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Shark, Longfin Mako | 2 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Shark, Salmon | 6 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 1 |
| Shark, Shortfin Mako | 968 | 1,085 | 537 | 298 | 1,151 | 2 |
| Shark, Unid. Mako | 6 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 808 |
| Bigeye Sand Tiger Shark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Crocodile | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Shark, Scalloped Hammerhead | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Shark, Smooth Hammerhead | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Shark, Unid. Hammerhead | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| Dogfish, Velvet | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Shark, Other Identified | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shark, Unidentified | 65 | 52 | 19 | 44 | 32 | 0 |

Note: Species that did not have a unique species code prior to 2020 are listed as “NC” for each year from 2016 to 2019.

Table C-3. Total estimated bycatch in number of fish from the Pacific Islands Region Observer Program for the American Samoa longline fishery

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Cardinalfish, Blackmouth | NC | NC | NC | NC | NA | NA |
| Lancetfish, Longnose | 6,228 | 5,881 | 5,482 | 4,991 | 4,063 | 3,913 |
| Lancetfish, Shortnose | 9 | 11 | 3 | 13 | 3 | 4 |
| Fanfishes | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 |
| Pomfret, Dagger | 141 | 203 | 151 | 344 | 85 | 85 |
| Pomfret, Lustrous | 27 | 22 | 23 | 20 | 28 | 27 |
| Pomfret, Rough | 4 | 6 | 16 | 24 | 8 | 8 |
| Pomfret, Sickle | 459 | 412 | 388 | 535 | 407 | 425 |
| Pomfret, Brama spp. | 193 | 191 | 112 | 232 | 145 | 135 |
| Pomfret, Unidentified | 4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Jack, Cottonmouth | 5 | 16 | 13 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| Rainbow Runner | 4 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| Yellowtail | 0 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Swallowers | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Dolphinfish | 64 | 100 | 106 | 18 | 163 | 147 |
| Dolphinfish, Pompano | 0 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| Soapfish, Goldenstripe | 7 | 6 | 15 | 34 | 10 | 10 |
| Escolar | 7,756 | 7,773 | 5,567 | 5,094 | 5,540 | 5,517 |
| Escolar, Longfin | 8,820 | 9,652 | 5,605 | 6,609 | 5,037 | 4,788 |
| Escolar, Roudi's | 751 | 774 | 509 | 521 | 417 | 406 |
| Gemfish, Black | 82 | 41 | 23 | 31 | 57 | 54 |
| Oilfish | 516 | 586 | 567 | 718 | 485 | 498 |
| Snake Mackerel | 1,049 | 1,026 | 1,183 | 1,689 | 1,568 | 1,502 |
| Snake Mackerel, Unidentified | 18 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| Marlin, Blue | 219 | 167 | 108 | 144 | 294 | 289 |
| Marlin, Striped | 167 | 160 | 44 | 279 | 131 | 121 |
| Sailfish | 204 | 124 | 93 | 163 | 98 | 97 |
| Spearfish, Shortbill | 262 | 316 | 210 | 447 | 423 | 390 |
| Billfish, Unidentified | 75 | 57 | 50 | 43 | 40 | 32 |
| Opah | 116 | 98 | 46 | 109 | 68 | 66 |
| Crestfish | 85 | 115 | 106 | 129 | 124 | 122 |

| Species | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-----------------------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| Mola, Common | 9 | 13 | 11 | 0 | 9 | 8 |
| Mola, Sharptail | 4 | 8 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Mola, Slender | 1,327 | 2,595 | 1,648 | 193 | 2,210 | 2,074 |
| Cigarfishes | 17 | 14 | 13 | 9 | 8 | 10 |
| Hammerjaw | 48 | 39 | 13 | 13 | 28 | 26 |
| Tuna, Albacore | 1,078 | 1,520 | 1,630 | 1,584 | 1,136 | 1,077 |
| Tuna, Bigeye | 656 | 476 | 736 | 564 | 830 | 778 |
| Tuna, Skipjack | 781 | 830 | 867 | 1,196 | 1,510 | 1,366 |
| Tuna, Yellowfin | 1,873 | 1,702 | 1,345 | 1,180 | 1,476 | 1,363 |
| Wahoo | 425 | 517 | 380 | 326 | 728 | 690 |
| Tuna, Unidentified | 1,340 | 1,595 | 1,326 | 824 | 1,473 | 1,313 |
| Barracuda, Great | 659 | 729 | 542 | 747 | 442 | 434 |
| Puffer, Pelagic | 4 | 15 | 23 | 27 | 12 | 11 |
| Puffer, Unidentified | 2 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| Ribbonfish, Tapertail | 40 | 34 | 25 | 27 | 33 | 31 |
| Scabbardfish, Razorback | 13 | 16 | 20 | 16 | 14 | 13 |
| Swordfish | 367 | 257 | 199 | 706 | 211 | 260 |
| Bony Fish, Other Identified | 59 | 120 | 83 | 24 | 34 | 34 |
| Bony Fish, Unidentified | 104 | 10 | 15 | 58 | 31 | 34 |
| Stingray, Pelagic | 19,459 | 16,306 | 8,156 | 11,908 | 8,395 | 8,259 |
| Manta Ray, Giant | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| Mobula (Devil Ray) | 24 | 31 | 18 | 0 | 12 | 12 |
| Manta/Mobula | 7 | 6 | 8 | 24 | 4 | 5 |
| Ray, Unidentified | 9 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Shark, Bigeye Thresher | 196 | 254 | 253 | 148 | 159 | 158 |
| Shark, Pelagic Thresher | 4 | 11 | 12 | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| Shark, Unid. Thresher | 82 | 54 | 27 | 27 | 25 | 25 |
| Shark, Blue | 4,490 | 4,224 | 3,359 | 2,681 | 2,958 | 2,721 |
| Shark, Galapagos | 0 | 0 | 5 | 11 | 7 | 4 |
| Shark, Oceanic White-Tip | 788 | 484 | 513 | 870 | 469 | 467 |
| Shark, Silky | 1,874 | 1,695 | 1,212 | 1,840 | 1,227 | 1,238 |
| Shark, Longfin Mako | 21 | 20 | 19 | 47 | 24 | 20 |
| Shark, Shortfin Mako | 321 | 231 | 229 | 169 | 234 | 232 |
| Shark, Unid. Mako | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 6 | 5 |
| Shark, Crocodile | 5 | 8 | 9 | 5 | 5 | 8 |
| Shark, Scalloped Hammerhead | 8 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 4 | 3 |
| Shark, Smooth Hammerhead | 0 | 0 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 2 |
| Shark, Unid. Hammerhead | 6 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Dogfish, Velvet | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Shark, Unidentified | 56 | 35 | 133 | 96 | 62 | 57 |

Note: Species that did not have a unique species code prior to 2020 are listed as “NC” for each year from 2016 to 2019.

APPENDIX D: LIST OF PLAN TEAM MEMBERS

| Member; Title | Plan Team Role |
|--|--|
| Donald Koybayashi; NMFS PIFSC | Chair; Habitat and Living Marine Resources |
| Réka Domokos; NMFS PIFSC | Ecosystems |
| Russell Ito; NMFS PIFSC | Pelagics |
| Ashley Tomita; NMFS PIFSC | Pelagics |
| Kirsten Leong; NMFS PIFSC | Human Dimensions |
| Emily Crigler; NMFS PIRO | Fisheries Policy |
| Michael Kinney; NMFS PIFSC | Life History |
| Minling Pan; NMFS PIFSC | Economics |
| T. Todd Jones; NMFS PIFSC | Protected Resources |
| Phoebe Woodworth-Jefcoats; NMFS PIFSC | Oceanography |
| Robert Ahrens; NMFS PIFSC | Management Strategy Evaluation |
| Valerie Post; NMFS PIRO | International Fisheries |
| Chelsea Young; NMFS PIRO | Protected Resources |
| Melissa Snover; NMFS PIRO | Protected Resources |
| Jenny Suter; NMFS PIFSC | Fisheries Research & Monitoring |
| Lynn Rassel; NMFS PIFSC | Observer Program |
| Jason Helyer; Hawaii DAR | Hawaii |
| Sean Felise; American Samoa DMWR | American Samoa |
| Domingo Ochavillo; American Samoa DMWR | American Samoa |
| Kelsey Lizama; CNMI DFW | CNMI |
| Nathan VanEe; CNMI DFW | CNMI |
| Brent Tibbatts; Guam DAWR | Guam |
| Frank Roberto; Guam DAWR | Guam |
| Bryan Ishida; Hawaii DAR | Ex-Officio |
| Felipe Carvalho; NMFS PIFSC | Ex-Officio |