Before and after delisting: population dynamics of North Atlantic humpback whales over two decades in the Gulf of Maine

Jooke Robbins[1†*], Martine Bérubé[1,2], Phillip J. Clapham[3], David K. Mattila[1], Per J. Palsbøll[1,2],

Regina Asmutis-Silvia[4], Alex Hill[1,5], Laura J. Howes[6,7], Scott Landry[1], Shelley Lonergan[8],

Dianna Schulte[9], Jennifer E. Tackaberry[1] and Mason T. Weinrich[1,10] and Richard M. Pace, III[11†]

†These authors contributed equally to this work

[1]Center for Coastal Studies, 5 Holway Avenue, Provincetown, MA 02657-1036, U.S.A.

[2]Marine Evolution and Conservation, Groningen Institute of Evolutionary Life Sciences,
   University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 7, 9747 AG, Groningen, The Netherlands

[3]Seastar Scientific, Vashon Island, WA, 98070 USA

[4]Whale and Dolphin Conservation, 7 Nelson Street, Plymouth, MA02360, U.S.A.

[5]Dolphin Fleet, P.O. Box 1175, Eastham, MA 02642 U.S.A.

[6]Boston Harbor City Cruises, One Long Wharf Boston, MA 02110 U.S.A.

[7]University of Massachusetts Boston, 100 Morrissey Blvd, Boston, MA 02125 U.S.A.

[8]Brier Island Whale and Seabird Cruises, 223 Water St, Westport, NS B0V 1H0, Canada

[9]Blue Ocean Society, 400 Little Harbor Road, Portsmouth, NH 03801, U.S.A.

[10]Whale Center of New England, c/o Center for Coastal Studies, 5 Holway Avenue,
   Provincetown, MA02657, U.S.A.

[11]Northeast Fisheries Science Center (retired), 166 Water Street, Woods Hole, MA 02543-1026,
   U.S.A.

*Corresponding author: jrobbins@coastalstudies.org, 1-508-487-3623

Abstract

Whales are long-lived, slow-reproducing species that were decimated by commercial whaling. Although some populations seem close to recovery, others are challenging to assess. We studied humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) in the Gulf of Maine, an area of the North Atlantic (NA) with well-documented threats. Long-term studies and mark-recapture data were used to estimate humpback whale apparent survival, abundance and population growth from 2000 through 2019. Estimates were derived from a hierarchical, Bayesian state-space model with sex, age, and random time effects on survival while accounting for capture probability. Abundance increased from 744 (95% CI: 726-762) in 2000 to 1,706 (95% CI: 1,639-1,771) in 2019, with 4.6% mean annual growth. However, adult males exhibited higher survival and outnumbered adult females by the end of the study. Over time, fewer calves were observed, calf survival varied and the juvenile class declined. These are the most detailed data on humpback whale dynamics in the western NA since the early 1990s and the first since a status change under the U.S. Endangered Species Act. Some patterns resemble those of a sympatric species that is declining due to environmental and human impacts. These results also inform an Unusual Mortality Event and recovery from historical whaling.

1. Introduction

Historical commercial whaling decimated whale species worldwide, including the humpback whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*, Clapham et al. 1999; Rocha et al. 2015). Whereas some humpback whale populations are now thought to be at or close to recovery (Noad et al. 2019; Zerbini et al. 2019), the status of others is uncertain (Punt et al. 2006; Smith & Pike 2009; Thomas et al. 2016). In the U.S., the humpback whale was listed as an endangered species across its global range when the Endangered Species Act (ESA) became law in 1973. Over four decades later, the species was removed from the Endangered Species List and re-assessed for protection as 14 Distinct Population Segments (DPSs, NOAA 2016). The West Indies DPS, the primary breeding population of humpback whales in the western North Atlantic, is one of nine DPSs that no longer receives protection under the ESA (NOAA 2016). While the DPS is unlikely to be in jeopardy of extinction, there are nevertheless questions about its status of recovery from whaling and its current population dynamics. Notably, available abundance data have been insufficient to determine population trends since early 1990s (Bettridge et al. 2015; Hayes et al. 2018).

Humpback whales in the West Indies DPS breeding population maintain maternally directed fidelity to specific mid- to high-latitude feeding grounds (Martin et al. 1984; Clapham & Mayo 1987). The Gulf of Maine (GoM), along the northeastern coast of the United States and southeastern Canada, is the southwestern-most primary humpback whale feeding ground in the North Atlantic (Katona & Beard 1990; Stevick et al. 2006). The GoM is also an area with high human activity and the humpback whales that feed there are vulnerable to a range of unintentional anthropogenic impacts that have exceeded management limits (van der Hoop et al. 2013; Hayes et al. 2022). There have been four Unusual Mortality Events (UMEs) involving

humpback whales in the GoM since the 1980s, including one event that has been ongoing since

the DPS was removed from the Endangered Species List (Geraci et al. 1989; NOAA 2024).

Humpback whale abundance and survival trends are essential to place these events in context,

including in relation to population management and the mitigation of human impacts.

Long-term studies of individual humpback whales in the GoM have amassed life history

and demographic data, the extent and detail of which are uncommon in other parts of the world.

When integrated within a mark-recapture framework, such data can provide novel insights into

the population processes that underlie abundance trends. Here, we used a combination of mark-

recapture survey data, auxiliary sightings and demographic information in a Bayesian state-space

mark-recapture statistical model to estimate humpback whale survival and abundance in the

GoM over two decades, from 2000 through 2019. We assess an ESA recovery benchmark for the

first time and provide insight into the effects of a UME that has been underway along the U.S.

East Coast since the delisting. We also compare our findings to the dynamics of a declining and

critically endangered species, the North Atlantic right whale (*Eubalaena glacialis*). Finally, we

place our results in the context of population recovery from historical commercial whaling.

2. Materials and methods

Humpback whales can be individually identified based on their natural markings, particularly the

shape and ventral pigmentation pattern of the flukes (Katona & Whitehead 1981). We obtained

mark-recapture data from dedicated vessel surveys in the GoM (Figure 1), auxiliary sightings

from an opportunistic sighting network and demographic data from longitudinal studies, as

described in Appendix A. We estimated abundance using a mark-recapture statistical modeling

approach similar to one employed to assess the population abundance trends of North Atlantic

right whales, *Eubalaena glacialis* (Pace et al. 2017; Pace 2021). We used re-sighting histories of

marked individuals to estimate survival rates and abundance in a Bayesian, state-space

formulation estimated using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation. Specifically, we

modified the approaches of Kéry & Schaub (2011) and Royle & Dorazio (2012) to produce a

multi-state formulation that relied on Jolly-Seber open population model concepts of estimating

the probability of new member entry (Jolly 1965; Seber 1982) but executed it in a Bayesian

framework together with data augmentation. We separated the predictive relationships associated

with state transition (or biological process) from those of the observation process and used

auxiliary sightings to inform the biological state of individuals when they were missed by the

survey. We then used logistic relationships with linear combinations of predictors to estimate

apparent survival and capture probabilities for each age and sex class while accounting for

sources of heterogeneity (Lebreton et al. 1992). When combined with an estimate of probability

of entry, this allowed for the estimation of annual abundance (N_t). Population growth rate was

derived from the Bayesian state-space model outputs and the crude birth rate was calculated as

the number of calves per individual each year as recorded in the primary dedicated surveys.

Details of the Bayesian state-space model structure, implementation, derived products and

statistical tests are provided in Appendix A.

3. Results

Between 2000 and 2019, the primary mark-recapture surveys documented 1,757 unique

individuals and 6,401 individual sighting occasions over the years. An average of 320 individuals

were seen per year (SD=96.9, Table B.1), and the average individual was seen in 3.6 years.

Many individuals were seen only once (44.3%, n=778) and a minority (9.7%, n=171) were seen

in more than half of the survey years (10-18 years). Most of the sightings occurred in the

southwestern or northeastern GoM where auxiliary platforms (primarily commercial whale

watching) were also clustered, but there was exchange among all of the areas where whales were

found (Figure 2).

The primary state-space Bayesian mark-recapture model had excellent Gelman-Rubin

convergence statistics results and posterior distributions for all linear (logistic) parameters

associated with time. Sex and age covariates contributed significantly to estimates of capture

probability and survival (i.e., they were distinct from zero). Capture probabilities achieved by the

primary mark-recapture surveys varied by year and were relatively low in most years except

2003 when we performed the survey twice in the same season (Figure B.1). The inclusion of

auxiliary data on biological state increased the estimated abundance in all years, but especially in

the last few intervals (Figure B.2).

Total abundance estimated from the state-space model increased from 744 (95% CI: 726-

762) individuals in 2000 to 1,706 (95% CI: 1639-1,771) in 2019. (Figure 3). The population was

estimated to number 1,589 (95%CI: 1,531-1,644) in 2016 when the West Indies DPS was

removed from the U.S. Endangered Species List. Partitioning abundance by age class suggested

that adults of both sexes increased in number across the study period. However, adult male

survival rates were higher than females (Figure 4) and they numbered 13% (n=121) more than

females by the end of the study (Figure 3). Juvenile survival was lower than for adults in all

years and especially for calves in the year after weaning (Figure 4). Juvenile survival and

abundance varied over time but the portion of the population known to be less than 5 years old

declined by 60% between 2000 and 2019.   The crude birth rate varied over time (mean=0.104,

SD=0.036) but declined significantly over this period (p=0.0054, tau= -0.308, 95%CI: -0.6348, -

0.3189, Figure 5). The average rate of population growth was estimated to be 4.6% per year, but

it was negative or flat during three periods of low apparent survival (2005-2006, 2011-2013,

2016) and was anomalously high (15.8%) in 2002 (Figure 6).

4. Discussion

Information on population abundance and trends is essential for understanding population

dynamics and managing accordingly. However, whale populations are challenging to monitor

over appropriate spatial scales and timeframes due to their long lifespans, high mobility, slow

reproductive rates, and their heterogeneous spatial distribution. They were decimated by

commercial whaling and remain vulnerable to unintended impacts from even the most common

human activities at sea, such as vessel operation and fishing. Here, we estimated humpback

whale abundance and trend for the southwestern-most primary feeding ground in the North

Atlantic using a combination of directed mark-recapture research, an auxiliary data-collection

network and demographic data from more than 40 years of longitudinal research. We employed a

novel mark-recapture statistical approach to maximize the use of these data, as well as account

for heterogeneity and uncertainty. The results are the first extended time series of abundance in

decades for any humpback whale feeding ground in the western North Atlantic.

4.1 Population dynamics of humpback whales in the Gulf of Maine

The results of this study indicate that the overall number of humpback whales using the GoM has

increased over the past two decades. However, adult female abundance appears to have lagged

behind that of adult males in recent years, and the minimum number of juveniles varied over

time with no net increase between 2000 and 2019. This is the first study to partition whale

abundance by age class and the decline in juvenile abundance is consistent with the observed low

and variable calf survival rates, as well as the decline in calving rates over the study period.

The age- and sex-stratified apparent survival patterns underlying these estimates were

consistent with the results of previous studies on this population (Robbins 2007), although the

methods used here differed somewhat from prior Cormack-Jolly-Seber type analyses. Age-

specific survival has not been estimated for other humpback whale populations, but our results

are consistent with age-specific patterns of survival for long-lived mammals more generally

(Caughley 1966, Gaillard et al. 1998, Eberhardt 2002), with survival being the lowest and most

variable for juveniles. This study did not address the causes of juvenile mortality, but it could be

the result of a range of natural and human-caused hazards experienced by young and

inexperienced animals. With regard to the latter, entanglement in fishing gear and vessel strike

are known sources of impact (Robbins 2012, Hill et al. 2017, Stepanuk et al. 2021). Whereas

adult survival was high in most years, it was slightly lower for females than males. Previous

work in the GoM found lower survival of adult females in calving years and suggested a cost of

the energetic burden of reproduction (Robbins 2007), but other causes, such as human

interactions, warrant investigation. For example, female North Atlantic right whales with evidence of

entanglement have lower survival than for males with the same level of injury (Knowlton et al.

2022). The only other area where sex-specific humpback whale survival has been studied is Gulf

of St. Lawrence, Canada, and it was significantly lower there for males than females (Ramp et al.

2010). However, the population of humpback whales that summers in the Gulf of St. Lawrence

differs from those in the GoM in other respects as well, such as lower overall abundance and

lower female reproductive rates (Schleimer et al. 2019). Survival patterns are contextual and thus

expected to differ among humpback whale populations according to the local circumstances.

The few available contemporaneous abundance estimates for this population included

two minimum number alive (MNA) estimates from the same mark-recapture data used in this

study and six line-transect-based abundance estimates (Table B.2, Clapham et al. 2003; Waring et

al. 2007; Waring et al. 2013; Hayes et al. 2019; Palka 2020). MNA is a minimum by definition,

and it depends upon the amount of sampling performed before and after each year. For this

population, these MNA-based estimates were lower than the 95% probability envelope of our

model-based estimates. MNA is easily calculated from mark-recapture data and avoids

potentially over-estimating abundance, but may be an overly precautionary lower bound on the

size of this population when information is needed in near real-time.

Comparing our results with available line-transect-based estimates is more challenging

because the two methodologies estimate a different quantity: i.e., the number of animals present

within a surveyed area at the time of the study versus the size of the population that uses the area.

The geographic coverage is therefore an important consideration for line transect estimates, and

that coverage varied somewhat from year to year. Only one such study (Palka 2020) has

suggested a substantially larger abundance than estimated here (2,368, CV=0.48 in 2016). The

Palka (2020) survey took place in the same season as our study, but it covered only the U.S.

portion of the primary GoM feeding ground, versus also Canadian waters. That survey also

included waters to the south of the GoM, and most of the sightings occurred in those more

southerly waters. Although it is not possible to determine the identity of the individuals counted

by Palka (2020), any GoM whales would have been included in our estimates if they had only

temporarily moved out of our study area. Our surveys were not originally designed to extend

south of the GoM because, historically, humpback whales were rarely observed in southerly

coastal and shelf waters in summer (CETAP 1982). The Palka (2020) line-transect results add to

accumulating evidence of increasing use of that area by humpback whales (Brown et al. 2018;

Zoidis et al. 2021). The primary feeding ground origin of humpback whales in the New York

Bight and adjacent waters is still under investigation, with only some of the individuals identified

there currently known to use the adjacent waters of the GoM (Brown et al. 2022). That research

will be important for determining how humpback whales along the U.S. East Coast should be

managed in the future, given that these new areas potentially pose different threats.

A population growth rate of 4.6% is low for a species with a conservative average of

7.4% and a maximum plausible rate of increase of 11.8% (Zerbini et al. 2010). There are no

other estimates of the population growth rate of humpback whales in the GoM or other feeding

or breeding grounds in the western North Atlantic during the study period. In the 1980s,

humpback whales in the GoM increased at an average annual rate of 6.5% (95%CI: 4.1-8.8,

1979–1991, Clapham et al. 2003). In the following decade, growth was either zero or 4.0%,

assuming calf survival rates of 51% and 87.5%, respectively (Clapham et al. 2003). A later study

found that a 51% calf survival rate was more plausible for that study period (Robbins 2007). The

most recent growth rate estimate for the overall West Indies DPS was nearly a decade before this

study began (1979-1993, 3.1%, Stevick et al. 2003). The results presented here suggest that

population growth resumed after the 1990s at an average rate that is not distinguishable from the

rate during the 1980s.

4.2 Insights into the recovery status of North Atlantic humpback whales

North Atlantic humpback whales were a target of historical whaling, with over 30,000

individuals killed from 1616 until the International Whaling Commission (IWC) established a

moratorium for this population in 1955 (Smith & Reeves 2010). Two decades ago, the Scientific

Committee of the IWC undertook a Comprehensive Assessment of the North Atlantic humpback

whale to assess the level of population recovery (IWC 2001, 2002; Punt et al. 2006). Historical

carrying capacity for the GoM was estimated to be 2,500-3,000 individuals, depending on model

assumptions, and neither the GoM nor the North Atlantic population overall, was estimated to

have reached carrying capacity (historical or current) by the year 2000 (Punt et al. 2006).

However, the population dynamics model had a poor fit to some of the available data, including

the limited available absolute and relative abundance trends for the GoM (Punt et al. 2006).

Thus, conclusions regarding recovery status were limited and mainly served to emphasize

several areas of ongoing uncertainty about population structure and other data gaps (Clapham et

al. 2003; Punt et al. 2006; Bettridge et al. 2015). The present study provides new, robust results

on population abundance trends in the GoM and suggests that there has been continued

population growth since 2000. However, the decline in the abundance of adult females and

juveniles, as well as reduced calving rates, may indicate population limitation (Eberhardt 2002).

The population estimate in 2019 was at most 66% of the estimated historical carrying capacity,

although our understanding of both historical and present carrying capacity for humpback whales

remains limited (Punt et al. 2006). The IWC is in the process of re-evaluating population

recovery in the North Atlantic (IWC 2019, 2020) and the results of the present study will help to

resolve the data gaps for the GoM.

4.3 Monitoring a vulnerable subset of the West Indies DPS

In 2016, after 46 years as an endangered species in the United States, humpback whales that

breed in the western North Atlantic, the West Indies DPS, were removed from the U.S.

Endangered Species List. Assessing the status of wide-ranging oceanic populations can be

challenging, and research conducted since the status change suggests that the West Indies DPS is

not homogenous. The southeastern portion of the West Indies DPS exhibits different timing and

preferential exchange with eastern North Atlantic feeding grounds, and documented exchange

with the endangered Cape Verde Islands/Northwest Africa DPS (Stevick et al. 2016; 2018). The

GoM is the feeding ground with the least exchange with the southeastern portion of the West

Indies DPS (Stevick et al. 2018), but given its high level of human activity, even a small amount

of exchange may ultimately prove to have management implications.

Even at the time of delisting, one of the original target goals for status assessment,

population doubling over 20 years (NMFS 1991), could not be evaluated (Bettridge et al. 2015).

This study focused on one portion of the West Indies DPS that has been studied on its feeding

grounds for decades. The GoM feeding ground, used consistently by some members of the West

Indies DPS, is an area of high human use, and the humpback whales that feed in the GoM are

vulnerable to anthropogenic impacts (van der Hoop et al. 2013; Henry et al. 2022). Even for this

comparatively well-studied portion of the population, impacts are likely under-estimated because

they are based only on observed cases that are known, or suspected, to lead to death (e.g., Henry

et al. 2022). Entanglement alone could result in an annual mortality rate of over 3% (Robbins et

al. 2010). However, the present study suggests that the GoM subset of the West Indies DPS met

the goal of doubling in abundance. The results further indicate that population growth remains

positive, but has slowed, since the change in status under the ESA in 2016.

One of the strengths of this study is the amount and types of data available to inform the

state-space model. The depth and detail of the demographic data available to this study are not

common for baleen whale populations and are the product of decades of long-term research on

individuals. The availability of auxiliary data to clarify the biological state of individuals that

were alive but not seen is also unusual and greatly improved estimates of abundance achieved by

the primary mark-recapture data alone. In the Gulf of Maine, auxiliary data come primarily from

a long-standing relationship between scientists and whale-watching-based data collection

programs. Those programs were historically founded by and directed by researchers, but are now

largely maintained by whale-watching companies that share data with research programs. This

study is an example of how formally structured collaborations of that nature can benefit science

and conservation. It is challenging to study a population that ranges across an ocean basin, and

population trends are still not well understood for portions of the DPS that feed in other areas of

the western North Atlantic. However, the GoM is an area where population dynamics can be

monitored at a high level, along with potential threats, yielding information that is particularly

relevant to U.S. impacts and resource management. Such monitoring may also serve as a

bellwether for DPS-wide status changes, such as from predicted climate change impacts on

shared breeding habitats (von Hammerstein et al. 2022).

4.4 Study assumptions and limitations

This study leveraged several large, long-term data sets to estimate the abundance and trend of

humpback whales in the GoM, but they were not specifically collected for this purpose. One

important assumption of open population mark-recapture models is that there is no permanent

emigration from the study area, which would be confounded with mortality. Humpback whale

feeding grounds are largely discrete, but individuals do sometimes move among areas. Studies to

date have suggested that only a small number of individuals move between the GoM and other

primary feeding grounds, including individuals hypothesized to be migratory transients moving

from northerly feeding grounds during shoulder seasons (Katona & Beard 1990; Stevick et al.

2006). Higher than average levels of exchange to eastern Canada in the 1980s (n=25 individuals)

appeared to correlate with years of particularly low abundance of two preferred prey species in

the GoM (Stevick et al. 2006). By contrast, only one such movement between these areas was

detected during a subsequent ocean-basin-wide study in 1992 and 1993 (Stevick et al. 2006). In a

more recent photo-identification study, 4% of individuals sighted in the GoM between 1970 and

2015 were detected on a nearby primary feeding ground (Jones 2018). No studies have formally

examined whether detected movements among feeding areas are temporary or permanent. A

recent study of the closest primary feeding ground (the Gulf of St. Lawrence) found declining

reproductive rates during the same period as reported here (2004-2018), which the authors

hypothesized to be related to resource limitations (Kershaw et al. 2021). If so, and if individual

movements to other feeding grounds are resource-related, then conditions in at least the Gulf of

St. Lawrence may not have been attractive for permanent emigration during that period.

However, further work is required to fully understand and predict the movements of individuals

between feeding grounds.

Survival rates varied across years and classes, and could conceivably include effects from

permanent emigration. For example, the two periods of low apparent survival in the GoM in

2005-2006 and 2016 were proximal to documented UMEs (NOAA 2024), but the most

prominent one, peaking in 2012, was not. It is possible that those deaths were not detected due

to an offshore distribution of mortalities or other factors (Williams et al. 2011), as also

demonstrated for North Atlantic right whales (Pace et al. 2021). However, permanent emigration

is another possible explanation. Adult survival estimates were high in this study and so there is

no significant concern of downward bias due to permanent movements outside of the study area.

However, we cannot exclude it as possible explanation for low and variable juvenile survival and

abundance. Previous ocean-scale studies of movement among primary feeding grounds in the

North Atlantic are not likely to be as informative for the movement patterns of juveniles, as

individuals represented only by calf-year images are not necessarily cataloged for areas outside

of the GoM (Jones 2018). As noted previously, humpback whale sightings have increased

immediately south of the GoM (Brown et al. 2018; Zoidis et al. 2021) where they were

historically uncommon (CETAP 1982). Photo-identification studies have shown that individuals

in this newly populated area are primarily juvenile whales, but not exclusively (Brown et al.

2018; Zoidis et al. 2021), including off the New York Bight apex (Brown et al. 2022). The vast

majority of those individuals have subsequently returned at least once to the GoM (Center for

Coastal Studies, unpublished data). Thus, while the issue of permanent emigration is a topic that

warrants further investigation, particularly for low survival around 2012, at this time it does not

appear to be a major source of downward bias in survival estimates, even among juveniles.

An important facet of this study was that there was an effort to detect individuals over a

wide portion of the primary feeding range in the GoM. Nevertheless, all sites within the GoM

were not equally sampled, and offshore sites, in particular, were challenging to reach consistently

across years due to distance from shore, prevailing weather and other factors. Our results confirm

previous evidence that individual humpback whales use both coastal and offshore GoM areas

(Robbins 2007). Mark-recapture estimates are less vulnerable to fine-scale spatial coverage than

line-transect sampling because they estimate the population that uses an area versus the number

of animals present within the specific temporal and spatial bounds of a survey. Furthermore,

previous research has demonstrated that there is connectivity among areas, including inshore and

offshore areas, such as the southwestern GoM (Stevick et al. 2006; Robbins 2007). Biases could

still potentially arise if individuals have such strong preferences for particular sites or other

behaviors that result in consistent heterogeneity in capture probabilities among individuals.

However, in this study, individual heterogeneity was accounted for as a parameter in the model

because prior research indicated the importance of accounting for such differences, as well as sex

and age, in mark-recapture studies (Hammond 1990; Robbins 2007; Ford et al. 2012; Robbins et

al. 2015; Pace et al. 2017). Pace et al. (2017) confirmed through simulation that individual

heterogeneity had minimal bias on true North Atlantic right whale abundance based on a similar

model structure. Nevertheless, in the future, it may be useful to explore how inter-annual

variation in spatial coverage for this species might affect capture probabilities.

Finally, our knowledge of the age and sex of individuals was extensive, but it was not

complete. Some of the individuals that were of unknown exact age at first sighting were likely

juveniles, but were treated as adults in these analyses. We took this approach because we could

not allocate these individuals to a specific age class and any assignment errors would likely have

resulted in an overestimate of juvenile survival and abundance. Pooling those individuals with

adults could have had the effect of reducing adult survival, but as noted previously, this was

more precautionary and less impactful in light of the large adult sample size. A previous study of

North Atlantic right whales using a similar model and age assignment approach confirmed

through simulation that the resulting adult survival estimates were close to true survival (Pace et

al. 2017). However, in this study, it does still have the effect of reducing juvenile abundance,

which was already low because the threshold for maturity was the earliest known age of calving.

Given these facts, our results represent minimums for both juvenile abundance and the

percentage of the population that was immature. These quantities are nevertheless valuable for

understanding changes in demographic patterns over time.

4.5 Comparison to a Critically Endangered population

The Bayesian state-space mark-recapture model used here is similar to the approach recently

used to estimate the abundance and trend of the critically endangered North Atlantic right whale

(Pace et al. 2017). The similarity in methods invites a comparison of the dynamics of these

sympatric but otherwise very different species. Right whales are a species of grave conservation

concern, with a total abundance across the entire North Atlantic of only 356 individuals in 2022

and declining abundance (Linden 2023). Right whales occupy a different ecological niche than

humpback whales and their temporal-spatial usage is correspondingly different. At the same

time, they face the same primary types of contemporary human impacts within the GoM:

entanglement and ship strikes. There are also some similarities in their population trends, despite

the substantial differences in status and ecology. For example, both species generally increased in

abundance until approximately 2014. After that point, right whales experienced a prolonged

decline (Pace et al. 2017), whereas humpback whales declined briefly and then increased. Both

species exhibited lower female survival and lower resulting female abundance (Pace et al. 2017).

A notable difference between species is that juvenile humpback whales have a substantially

lower average survival rate than juvenile right whales (Robbins et al. 2015; Pace et al. 2017).

However, temporal trends in right whale calf survival (Reed et al. 2022) are similar to those

reported here for humpback whale calves. It is conceivable that these species are facing parallel,

resource-driven population limitations, although it is unlikely that the different resource trophic

levels at which these two species typically feed (i.e., on copepods versus fish) would exhibit

patterns on the same time scale. Both species are vulnerable to human activities, and the

possibility that human impacts are simultaneously affecting the dynamics of both populations

warrants more investigation.

5. Conclusions

Overall, our results suggest that the number of North Atlantic humpback whales in the GoM has

grown in most years since 2000. The population has increased since it was removed from the

Endangered Species List, but growth slowed toward the end of the study, concurrent with an on-

going UME. The average population growth rate estimated here (4.6%) is moderate, both in

relation to historical GoM estimates and for the species overall (Zerbini et al. 2010). Our

findings of low and variable juvenile survival, declining reproductive rates and lower survival of

adult females than males may indicate a population compensating for resource limitations

(Eberhardt 2002). However, the population remains at no more than 66% of the pre-whaling

carrying capacity estimated by Punt et al. (2006). While our understanding of current carrying

capacity of the GoM remains limited, it is notable that the critically endangered North Atlantic

right whale is exhibiting some of these same population trends, despite its low and declining

abundance (Pace et al. 2017). Limitations on population growth can be a result of the resources

available to individuals (carrying capacity), but they may also result from factors such as human

impacts. One or both are possible factors affecting this population after many years of protection

from commercial whaling, but with ongoing, well-established sources of human-caused

mortality. The declining abundance of adult females is a potential concern here, although it is

weaker than a similar effect in the critically endangered North Atlantic right whale that also uses

GoM waters extensively (Pace et al. 2017). Changes in the distribution of humpback whales

along the U.S. East Coast further complicate the understanding of GoM population trends,

particularly for the juvenile component. Better estimates of human-caused mortality and an

explicit modeling of those deaths in a population context will be important for assessing the

degree to which humans are affecting the dynamics of this population.

Acknowledgments

These data were available thanks to long-term humpback whale population research by the

Center for Coastal Studies and its collaborators. The authors acknowledge the contribution of

many staff, interns and volunteers at their institutions over the decades that made this work

possible. They particularly thank the late C. Carlson, P. Durazo, P. Kamath, E. Kelly, A.

Kennedy, T. Kirchner, B. Lynch, C. McMillan and D. Sandilands for their support and assistance.

The following whale-watch companies hosted collaborating NGOs for data collection: the

Dolphin Fleet Whale Watch, Captain Bill's Whale Watch, Captain John Boats, Granite State

Whale Watch, Hyannis Whale Watcher Cruises and Shearwater Excursions. Thanks also to the

following for data, information or other support: Allied Whale/North Atlantic Humpback Whale

Catalog, the Stellwagen Bank National Marine Sanctuary, New England Aquarium and the right

whale team from the Anderson Cabot Center at the New England Aquarium. Finally, we thank

the following for sharing sightings data with the GoM Humpback Whale Catalog: 7 Seas Whale

Watch, Bar Harbor Whale Watch, Cape Ann Whale Watch, Coastal Research and Education

Society of Long Island, Grand Manan Whale and Seabird Research Station, New England

Coastal Wildlife Alliance, Newburyport Whale Watch, Quoddy Link Marine and others. The

Northeast and Southeast Marine Mammal Stranding Networks provided photographs used to

identify cataloged whales after death. The Atlantic Scientific Review Group's Peer Review Panel

(R. Merrick, T. McDonald, G. Nesslage, R. Kenney and J. Calambokidis) provided comments

that improved the manuscript.

Ethical statement

Primary mark-recapture surveys were undertaken under the authorization of the governments of

the United States (NMFS-ESA permits 917, 755-1600, 633-1483, 633-1778, 16325 and 21485)

and Canada. Auxiliary sighting data were obtained under government research permits or in

accordance with local whale-watching guidelines.

Funding Statement

A portion of this work was funded by the NOAA Northeast Fisheries Science Center

(EE133F17SE1320, 1333MF20PNFFM0198, and EA133F03CN0046).

Competing Interests

The authors have no competing interests.

Authors' Contributions

Robbins: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition,

Investigation, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Visualization, Writing – original

draft, Writing – review & editing. **Bérubé:** Data curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation,

Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Clapham**: Investigation, Resources, Writing – review &

editing. **Mattila:** Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Palsbøll:** Data curation,

Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Asmutis-Silvia**: Data

curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Hill:** Data

curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Howes:**

Data curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing.

Landry: Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Lonergan:** Data curation,

Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Schulte:** Data

curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing.

Tackaberry: Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Weinrich:** Data curation,

Funding acquisition, Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Pace**:

Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Project

management, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

References

Bettridge S, Baker CS, Barlow J, Clapham PJ, Ford M, Gouveia D, Mattila DK, Pace RM, Rosel
PE, Silber GK, Wade PR. 2015. Status review of the humpback whale (*Megaptera*
novaeangliae) under the Endangered Species Act. NOAA Technical Memorandum
NMFS-SWFSC-540. 263pp.
Brown D, Robbins J, Sieswerda PL, Schoelkopf R, Parsons ECM. 2018. Humpback whale
(*Megaptera novaeangliae*) sightings in the New York-New Jersey Harbor Estuary.
Marine Mammal Science 34:250-257.
Brown DM, Robbins J, Sieswerda PL, Ackerman C, Aschettino JM, Barco S, Boye T,
DiGiovanni Jr. RA, Durham K, Engelhaupt A, Hill A, Howes L, Johnson KF, Jones L,
King CD, Kopelman AH, Laurino M, Lonergan S, Mallette SD, Pepe M, Ramp C,
Rayfield K, Rekdahl M, Rosenbaum HC, Schoelkopf R, Schulte D, Sears R, Stepanuk
JEF, Tackaberry JE, Weinrich M, Parsons ECM, Wiedenmann J. 2022. Site fidelity,
population identity, and demographic characteristics of humpback whales in the New

York Bight apex. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom
102(1-2):157-165.

Caughley G. 1966. Mortality patterns in mammals. Ecology 47(6):906-918.

CETAP. 1982. A characterization of marine mammals and turtles in the mid- and north-Atlantic
areas of the US outer continental shelf, final report. Cetacean and Turtle Assessment
Program, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, RI. 576pp.

Clapham P, Young SB, Brownell RL. 1999. Baleen whales: conservation issues and the status of
the most endangered populations. Mammal Review 29(1):35-60.

Clapham PJ, Barlow J, Bessinger M, Cole T, Mattila D, Pace R, Palka D, Robbins J, Seton R.
2003. Abundance and demographic parameters of humpback whales from the Gulf of
Maine, and stock definition relative to the Scotian Shelf. Journal of Cetacean Research
and Management 5(1):13-22.

Clapham PJ, Mayo CA. 1987. Reproduction and recruitment of individually identified humpback
whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*, observed in Massachusetts Bay, 1979-1985. Canadian
Journal of Zoology 65(12):2853-2863.

Eberhardt LL. 2002. A paradigm for population analysis of long-lived vertebrates. Ecology
83(10):2841-2854.

Ford J, Bravington M, Robbins J. 2012. Incorporating individual variability into mark recapture
models. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3:1047–1054.

Gaillard JM, Festa-Bianchet M, Yoccoz NG. 1998. Population dynamics of large herbivores:
variable recruitment with constant adult survival. Trends in Ecology & Evolution
13(2):58-63.

Geraci JR, Anderson DM, Timperi RJ, St. Aubin DJ, Early GA, Prescott JH, Mayo CA. 1989.
Humpback whales *Megaptera novaeangliae* fatally poisoned by dinoflagellate toxin.
Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 46(11):1895-1898.

Hammond PS, Mizroch SA, Donovan GP. 1990. Individual recognition of cetaceans: use of
photo-identification and other techniques to estimate population parameters. Reports of
the International Whaling Commission (special issue) 12:440pp.

Hayes S, Josephson E, Maze-Foley K, Rosel P, Byrd B, Chavez-Rosales S, Cole T, Engleby L,
Garrison L, Hatch J, Henry A, Horstman S, Litz J, Lyssikatos M, Mullin K, Orphanides

C, Pace R, Palka D, Soldevilla M, Wenzel F. 2018. US Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments - 2017. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS NE-245. 371 pp.

Hayes S, Josephson E, Maze-Foley K, Rosel P, Byrd B, Chavez-Rosales S, Cole T, Garrison L, Hatch J, Henry A, Horstman S, Litz J, Lyssikatos M, Mullin K, Orphanides C, Pace R, Palka D, Powell J, Wenzel F. 2019. US Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments - 2018. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-258. 306 pp.

Hayes SH, Josephson E, Maze-Foley K, Rosel PE, Wallace J. 2022. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Marine Mammal Stock Assessments 2021. NOAA technical memorandum NMFS-NE-288. 387 pp.

Henry AG, Garron M, Morin D, Smith A, Reid A, Ledwell W, Cole TVN. 2022. Serious Injury and Mortality Determinations for Baleen Whale Stocks along the Gulf of Mexico, United States East Coast, and Atlantic Canadian Provinces, 2015-2019. NOAA technical memorandum NMFS-NE-280. 65pp.

Hill A, Karniski C, Robbins J, Pitchford T, Todd S, Asmutis-Silvia R. 2017. Vessel collision injuries on live humpback whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*, in the southern Gulf of Maine. Marine Mammal Science 33:558–573.

International Whaling Commission. 2001. Report of the Scientific Committee. Journal of Cetacean Research and Management (Suppl.) 3:1-76.

International Whaling Commission. 2002. Report of the Scientific Committee. Journal of Cetacean Research and Management (Suppl.) 4:1-78.

International Whaling Commission. 2019. Report of the Scientific Committee. Journal of Cetacean Research and Management (Suppl.) 20:1-78.

International Whaling Commission. 2020. Report of the Scientific Committee, Virtual Meetings, 11-24 May 2020. 93pp.

Jolly GM. 1965. Explicit estimates from capture-recapture data with both death and immigration stochastic model. Biometrika 52:225-247.

Jones L. 2018. Ocean-basin-wide movement patterns of North Atlantic humpback whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*. Master's thesis. College of the Atlantic, Bar Harbor, Maine. USA. 134 pp.

Katona SK, Beard JA. 1990. Population size, migrations and feeding aggregations of the
humpback whale *Megaptera novaeangliae* in the western North Atlantic Ocean. Reports
of the International Whaling Commission (special issue) 12:295-305.

Katona SK, Whitehead HP. 1981. Identifying humpback whales using their natural markings.
Polar Record 20:439-444.

Kershaw JL, Ramp CA, Sears R, Plourde S, Brosset P, Miller PJO, Hall AJ. 2021. Declining
reproductive success in the Gulf of St. Lawrence's humpback whales (*Megaptera*
novaeangliae) reflects ecosystem shifts on their feeding grounds. Global Change Biology
27(5):1027-1041.

Kéry M, Schaub M 2011. Bayesian population analysis using Winbugs: a hierarchical
perspective. Academic Press, New York. 554pp.

Knowlton AR, Clark JS, Hamilton PK, Kraus SD, Pettis HM, Rolland RM, Schick RS. 2022.
Fishing gear entanglement threatens recovery of critically endangered North Atlantic
right whales. Conservation Science and Practice 4(8):10.1111/csp1112.12736.

Lebreton JD, Burnham KP, Clobert J, Anderson DR. 1992. Modeling survival and testing
biological hypotheses using marked animals - a unified approach with case-studies.
Ecological Monographs 62(1):67-118.

Linden DW. 2023. Population size estimation of North Atlantic right whales from 1990-2022.
NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-314. 19pp.

Martin AR, Katona SK, Mattila D, Hembree D, Waters TD. 1984. Migration of humpback
whales between the Caribbean and Iceland. Journal of Mammalogy 65(2):330-333.

NMFS. 1991. Final recovery plan for the humpback whale. Prepared by the Humpback Whale
Recovery Team for the National Marine Fisheries Service, Silver Spring, Maryland.
105pp.

NOAA. 2016. Endangered and threatened species; identification of 14 Distinct Population
Segments of the humpback whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) and revision of species-
wide listing. Federal Register 81(174):62260-62320.

NOAA. 2024. Active and Closed Unusual Mortality Events, Available from
https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/marine-life-distress/active-and-closed-unusual-
mortality-events (accessed 2024.01.05 2024).

Noad MJ, Kniest E, Dunlop RA. 2019. Boom to bust? Implications for the continued rapid

growth of the eastern Australian humpback whale population despite recovery.

Population Ecology 61(2):198-209.

Pace III RM. 2021. Revisions and Further Evaluations of the Right Whale Abundance Model:

Improvements for Hypothesis Testing. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-NE-269

54p.

Pace III RM, Corkeron PJ, Kraus SD. 2017. State-space mark-recapture estimates reveal a recent

decline in abundance of North Atlantic right whales. Ecology and Evolution 7(21):8730-

8741.

Pace III RM, Williams R, Kraus SD, Knowlton AR, Pettis HM. 2021. Cryptic mortality of North

Atlantic right whales. Conservation Science and Practice 3(2):e346.

Palka D. 2020. Cetacean abundance in the US Northwestern Atlantic Ocean Summer 2016.

Northeast Fisheries Science Center Reference Doc. 20-05. 60pp.

Punt AE, Friday NA, Smith TD. 2006. Reconciling data on the trends and abundance of North

Atlantic humpback whales within a population modelling framework. Journal of

Cetacean Research and Management 8:145-159.

Ramp C, Berube M, Palsboll P, Hagen W, Sears R. 2010. Sex-specific survival in the humpback

whale *Megaptera novaeangliae* in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Canada. Marine Ecology

Progress Series 400:267-276.

Reed J, New L, Corkeron P, Harcourt R. 2022. Multi-event modeling of true reproductive states

of individual female right whales provides new insights into their decline. Frontiers in

Marine Science 9:10.3389/fmars.2022.994481.

Robbins J. 2007. Structure and dynamics of the Gulf of Maine humpback whale population.

Ph.D. thesis. St Andrews, Scotland. 179pp.

Robbins J. 2012. Scar-based inference into Gulf of Maine humpback whale entanglement: 2010.

Report to the National Marine Fisheries Service. Order number EA133F09CN0253.

28pp.

Robbins J, Knowlton AK, Landry S. 2015. Apparent survival of North Atlantic right whales after

entanglement in fishing gear. Biological Conservation 191:421-427.

Robbins J, Mattila DK, Landry S. 2009. Estimating entanglement mortality from scar-based
studies. Report to the Scientific Committee of the International Whaling Commission,
SC/61/BC3. 4pp.

Rocha Jr. RC, Clapham P, Ivashchenko Y. 2015. Emptying the Oceans: A Summary of Industrial
Whaling Catches in the 20th Century. Marine Fisheries Review 76:37-48.

Royle JA, Dorazio RM. 2012. Parameter-expanded data augmentation for Bayesian analysis of
capture-recapture models. Journal of Ornithology 152:S521-S537.

Schleimer A, Ramp C, Delarue J, Carpentier A, Berube M, Palsboll PJ, Sears R, Hammond PS.
2019. Decline in abundance and apparent survival rates of fin whales (*Balaenoptera*
physalus) in the northern Gulf of St. Lawrence. Ecology and Evolution 9(7):4231-4244.

Seber GAF 1982. The estimation of animal abundance and related parameters. Charles Griffin &
Co., London. 654pp.

Smith T, Pike D. 2009. The enigmatic whale: the North Atlantic humpback. NAMMCO
Scientific Publications 7:161–178.

Smith TD, Reeves RR. 2010. Historical catches of humpback whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*,
in the North Atlantic Ocean: estimates of landings and removals. Marine Fisheries
Review 72(3):1-43.

Stepanuk JEF, Heywood EI, Lopez JF, DiGiovanni RA, Jr., Thorne LH. 2021. Age-specific
behavior and habitat use in humpback whales: implications for vessel strike. Marine
Ecology Progress Series 663:209-222.

Stevick PT, Allen J, Clapham PJ, Friday N, Katona S, Larsen F, Lien J, Mattila D, Palsbøll PJ,
Sigurjønsson J, Smith TD, Øien N, Hammond PS. 2003. North Atlantic humpback whale
abundance and rate of increase four decades after protection from whaling. Marine
Ecology-Progress Series 258:263-273.

Stevick PT, Allen J, Clapham PJ, Katona SK, Larsen F, Lien J, Mattila DK, Palsbøll PJ, Sears R,
Sigurjønsson J, Smith TD, Vikingsson G, Øien N, Hammond PS. 2006. Population spatial
structuring on the feeding grounds in North Atlantic humpback whales. Journal of
Zoology 270:244-255.

Stevick PT, Berrow SD, Bérubé M, Bouveret L, Broms F, Jann B, Kennedy A, Lopez-Suarez P,
Meunier M, Ryan C, Wenzel F. 2016. There and back again: multiple and return exchange

of humpback whales between breeding habitats separated by an ocean basin. Journal of

the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom 96(Special Issue 04):885-890.

Stevick PT, Bouveret L, Gandilhon N, Rinaldi C, Rinaldi R, Broms F, Carlson C, Kennedy A,

Ward N, Wenzel F. 2018. Migratory destinations and timing of humpback whales in the

southeastern Caribbean differ from those off the Dominican Republic. Journal of

Cetacean Research and Management 18:127–133.

Thomas PO, Reeves RR, Brownell RL. 2016. Status of the world's baleen whales. Marine

Mammal Science 32(2):682-734.

van der Hoop JM, Moore MJ, Barco SG, Cole TVN, Daoust P-Y, Henry AG, McAlpine DF,

Mclellan WA, Wimmer T, Solow AR. 2013. Assessment of management to mitigate

anthropogenic effects on large whales. Conservation Biology 27:121-133.

von Hammerstein H, Setter RO, van Aswegen M, Currie JJ, Stack SH. 2022. High-Resolution

Projections of Global Sea Surface Temperatures Reveal Critical Warming in Humpback

Whale Breeding Grounds. Frontiers in Marine Science 9:10.3389/fmars.2022.837772.

Waring GT, Josephson E, Fairfield-Walsh CP, Katherine M-F, editors. 2007. U.S. Atlantic and

Gulf of Mexico marine mammal stock assessments - 2007. NOAA Technical

Memorandum, NMFS-NE-205. 415pp.

Waring GT, Josephson E, Maze-Foley K, Rosel PE, editors. 2013. U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of

Mexico marine mammal stock assessments - 2012. NOAA Technical Memorandum,

NMFS-NE-223. 419pp.

Williams R, Gero S, Bejder L, Calambokidis J, Kraus SD, Lusseau D, Read AJ, Robbins J. 2011.

Underestimating the damage: interpreting cetacean carcass recoveries in the context of

the Deepwater Horizon/BP incident. Conservation Letters 4(3):228-233.

Zerbini AN, Adams G, Best J, Clapham PJ, Jackson JA, Punt AE. 2019. Assessing the recovery

of an Antarctic predator from historical exploitation. Royal Society Open Science

6(10):190368.

Zerbini AN, Clapham PJ, Wade PR. 2010. Assessing plausible rates of population growth in

humpback whales from life-history data. Marine Biology 157:1225-1236.

Zoidis AM, Lomac-MacNair KS, Ireland DS, Rickard ME, McKown KA, Schlesinger MD.
2021. Distribution and density of six large whale species in the New York Bight from
monthly aerial surveys 2017 to 2020. Continental Shelf Research 230:104572.

Figure 1. Gulf of Maine study area. Primary mark-recapture surveys focused on humpback whale aggregation sites (labeled in italics) around the inner margin of the GoM and Bay of Fundy, including Stellwagen Bank National Marine Sanctuary (hatched area). The white circles indicate the home ports of nine auxiliary data platforms.

668
Figure 2. Primary mark-recapture sighting locations (white circles). The white lines connect the
first sighting of an individual in a given year to its first sighting the next year (inter-annual
displacement). There was individual exchange among all sampled areas.

Figure 3: Abundance estimates and their 95% credible intervals for all whales (black squares), adult females (black circles), adult males (gray circles) and juveniles (white circles) in the Gulf of Maine from 2000 through 2019.

Figure 4: Apparent survival estimates and their 95% credible intervals for adult males (black circles), adult females (gray circles), and calves (<1 year old, white circles) from 2000 through 2019. Apparent survival of older juveniles (ages 1-4) are shown as lines only.

Figure 5: Crude birth rate (black circles with linear trend line) and minimum percentage of
juveniles in the population (gray bars, right axis).

Figure 6: Apparent humpback whale population growth in the Gulf of Maine, 2001-2019, as
derived from the Bayesian state-space model. Median growth rate with standard deviation for
pairs of adjacent years. The dashed line represents the mean growth rate (4.6%).