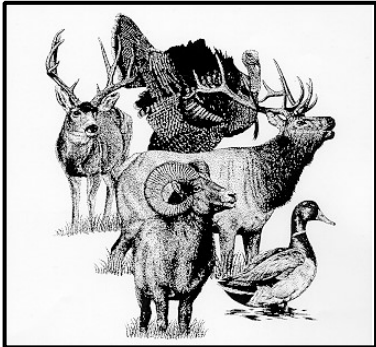


STATE OF WASHINGTON

2021 Game Status and Trend Report



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2021 GAME STATUS AND TREND REPORT

July 1, 2020 – June 30, 2021

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife
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This Program Receives Federal Aid in Wildlife Restoration, Project W-96-R, Statewide Wildlife Management.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|------------|
| Deer | 1 |
| Blue Mountains Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 2 |
| Columbia Plateau Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 7 |
| East Columbia Gorge Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 14 |
| East Slope Cascades Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 18 |
| Naches Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 24 |
| Northern Rocky Mountains Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 28 |
| Okanogan Highlands Mule Deer Management Zone..... | 31 |
| Blue Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 34 |
| Columbia Basin White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 38 |
| North Cascade Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 41 |
| Okanogan Highlands White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 44 |
| Palouse White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 47 |
| Selkirk White-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 52 |
| Islands Black-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 56 |
| North Cascade Mountains Black-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 60 |
| Olympic Peninsula Black-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 64 |
| South Cascade Mountain Black-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 68 |
| Willapa Hills Black-tailed Deer Management Zone..... | 74 |
| Elk | 80 |
| Blue Mountains Elk Herd..... | 81 |
| Colockum Elk Herd..... | 89 |
| Mount Saint Helens Elk Herd..... | 98 |
| North Cascade Elk Herd..... | 110 |
| North Rainier Elk Herd..... | 119 |
| Olympic Elk Herd..... | 132 |
| Selkirk Elk Herd..... | 145 |
| South Rainier Elk Herd..... | 157 |
| Willapa Hills Elk Herd..... | 167 |
| Yakima Elk Herd..... | 177 |
| Mountain Goat | 187 |
| Region 2, Chelan County..... | 188 |
| Region 2, Methow..... | 196 |
| Region 3, Blazed Ridge, Bumping River, Naches Pass..... | 198 |
| Region 4, Mt. Baker and Boulder River North Areas..... | 203 |
| Region 5, Goat Rocks, Smith Creek, Mt. St. Helens..... | 208 |
| Region 6, Olympic Mountains..... | 215 |
| Bighorn Sheep | 220 |
| Region 1, Blue Mountains..... | 221 |
| Region 1, Hall Mountain and Vulcan Mountain..... | 227 |
| Region 1, Lincoln Cliffs..... | 234 |
| Region 2, Mt. Hull and Sinlahekin..... | 240 |
| Region 2, Swakane, Chelan Butte, and Manson..... | 245 |
| Region 3, Quilomene, Cleman Mtn., Umtanum/Selah Butte, and Tieton..... | 256 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Moose | 264 |
| Statewide Summary | 265 |
| Cougar | 270 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 271 |
| Black Bear | 278 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 279 |
| Band-Tailed Pigeon and Mourning Dove | 288 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 289 |
| Waterfowl | 298 |
| Breeding Populations and Production | 299 |
| Winter Populations and Harvest..... | 321 |
| Wild Turkey | 355 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 356 |
| Pheasant | 364 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 365 |
| Chukar and Gray Partridge | 372 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 373 |
| Quail | 376 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 377 |
| Grouse | 382 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 383 |
| Private Lands Access | 391 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 392 |
| Human-Wildlife Interaction | 399 |
| Statewide Summary..... | 400 |

Deer

Blue Mountains Mule Deer Management Zone

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Introduction

The Blue Mountains Mule Deer Management Zone (MDMZ) is located in southeast Washington and consists of 13 GMUs (145, 149, 154, 157, 162, 163, 166, 169, 172, 175, 178, 181, and 186; Figure 1). GMU 157 is closed to human entry with no mule deer harvest opportunity.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this MDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on abundance and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does in predominantly agricultural areas, and 20-24 bucks:100 does in predominantly public land units.

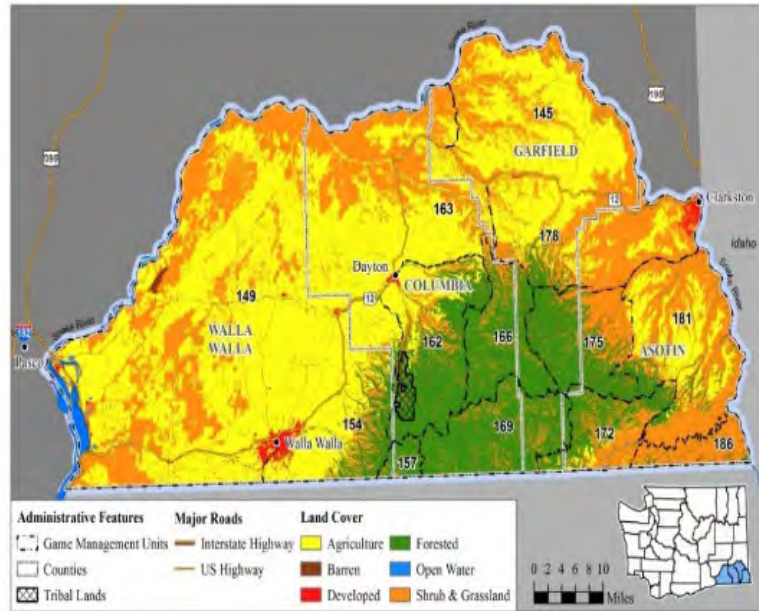


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Blue Mountains MDMZ.

Population Surveys

The last two population surveys were conducted in 2017 and 2018 following sightability protocols (procedure to statistically estimate a population in the survey area) in the area of greatest winter mule deer concentrations. This area is generally north of State Hwy 12, from Alpowa Creek on the east side of District 3 across to Wallula Junction. While the Department had initially planned for three years of abundance estimate surveys, consistent results from the first two large-scale surveys indicated the survey methodology was sound and did not require further verification. WDFW will likely conduct future survey efforts on a 5-7-year rotation in conjunction with use of integrated population models (IPM), which are currently being investigated.

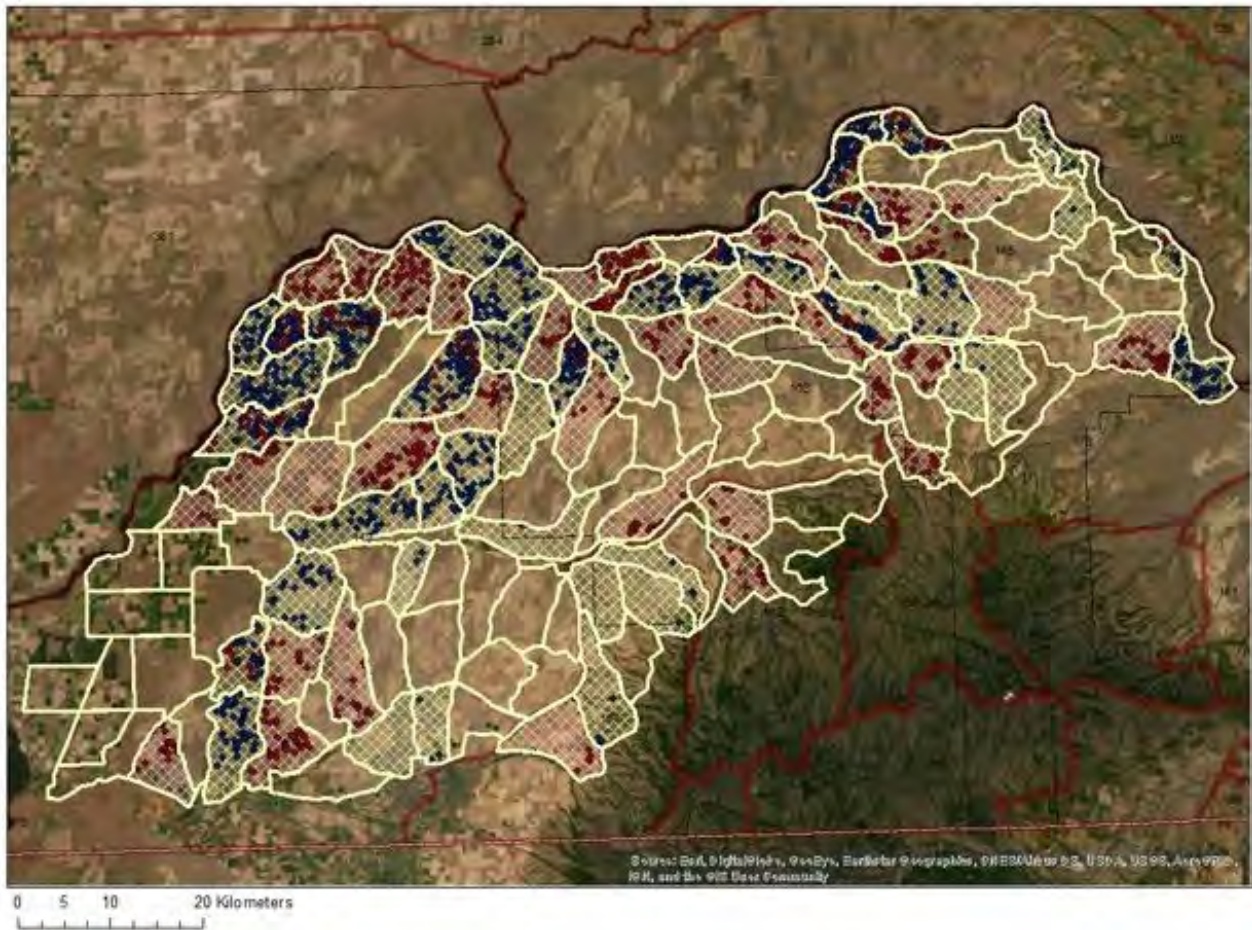


Figure 2. Mule Deer survey subunits (light outline) and subunits surveyed (cross-hatching) in 2017 (red) and 2018 (blue). Each dot represents a deer group.

Recent Population Survey Details

December 2017: Post-hunt aerial sightability surveys in western, northcentral, and northeast portions of the District. Counted 8,221 mule deer in 1,141 groups across 55 of 139 subunits. Estimated population of 18,368 mule deer (95% CI = 15,728 - 22,293), with estimated ratio of 14.1 bucks:100 does (95% CI = 11.2-17.0) and 49.6 fawns:100 does (95% CI = 43.3-56.0).

December 2018: Post-hunt aerial sightability survey, survey area consistent with 2017 surveys. Counted 7,287 mule deer in 1,032 groups across 44 of 139 subunits. Estimated population of 18,415 mule deer (95% CI = 15,744 - 22,224), with estimated ratio of 22.6 bucks:100 does (95% CI = 18.1-27.0) and 47.0 fawns:100 does (95% CI = 41.2-52.8).

In addition to population surveys, we also collect annual pre- and post-hunt herd composition data to monitor buck:doe ratios and fawn:doe ratios. We conduct surveys for buck:doe ratios in August and Nov-Dec for pre- and post-hunt estimates, while fawn:doe surveys are conducted in September and Nov-Dec (Figure 3a and 3b).

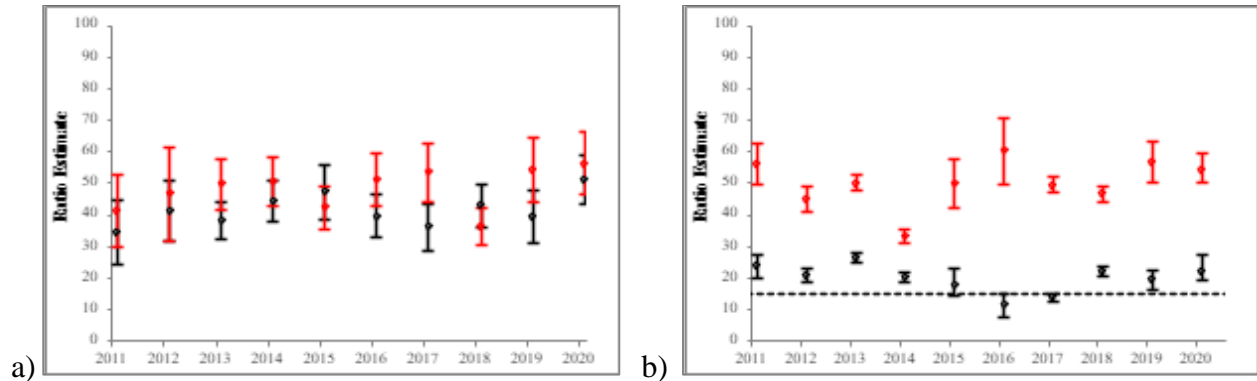


Figure 3. Estimates of buck (black) and fawn (red) ratios per 100 does for, (a) pre-hunt (ground-based) and (b) post-hunt (ground and aerial) surveys in the Blue Mountains MDMZ, 2011–2020.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest estimates from 2011-2020 general seasons (Figure 4) have been variable over that 10-year time frame but exhibit a recent recovery to the 10-year mean. While hunter effort (hunter days; Figure 3b) has remained consistent, harvest rate (kills/day; Figure 3b) has mirrored recent upward trends in total harvest after a 2017 low. Some of this recent variability could be related to increased mule deer antlerless permits being offered in GMUs 145 and 149 putting pressure on the doe segment of the population. For example, in GMU 145, we went from 50 permits offered in 2012, to 130 permits in 2016, and in GMU 149, we went from zero permits to 135 permits over the same time period; however, these permit increases resulted in approximately 70 more antlerless deer being harvested per year, which on a population level is likely to have very little effect. These GMUs exhibited improving harvest metrics through 2013, along with an increase in deer crop damage complaints, which prompted the increase in antlerless permits. Hunter success and harvest per unit effort (HPUE) have improved after recent declines in those two GMUs, possibly related to modest decreases in antlerless permits (down to 105 permits in GMU 145 and 95 permits in GMU 149), but more likely due to improving herd numbers after poor winter survival in 2016. Hunter success and HPUE have been stable in both GMUs through the last three harvest years, maintaining a consistent level in GMU 145 and showing a stable recovery following a declining trend in GMU 149. GMU 149, on average, accounts for 33% of the total District mule deer harvest, and changes in this GMU have the greatest impact on the overall trends across the District. It is important to note that hunter days represent time hunting for both white-tailed and mule deer but kills/day represent mule deer harvest in the zone and estimates are likely to be biased lower than actual harvest rates.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for mule deer herds in the Blue Mountains MDMZ. Since 2019, biologists have been maintaining approximately 50 radio-collared does across the recent population survey area, which should provide information on doe survival as well as identifying range and movement patterns. In addition, a graduate student is analyzing location data and habitat associations, as well as determining fawning status from a subsample of radio-collared does. Researchers identified high mortality during the first full winter of collar deployments, which was likely related to severe late winter conditions resulting in poor body condition, capture-related stress, and predation. This was an unusual convergence of events and

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

expect to see higher doe survival rates for the duration of the radio-collars' performance (approx. 4 years). Preliminary results show a yearly survival rate of approximately 85% (from each June through the following May). During February 2021, eight collars were re-deployed after being retrieved from mortalities and currently have 40 working collars on mule deer across District 3.

In addition to legal hunter harvest, other potential sources of mule deer mortality include predators such as cougars, coyotes, wolves, and black bears, and to a lesser extent, bobcats, golden eagles, and domestic dogs. Collisions with vehicles, over-winter starvation, disease, and poaching can also be significant causes of mortality. While these mortality sources may influence population abundance, particularly in the forested habitats, habitat condition and availability likely have the greatest impact to mule deer populations, particularly here in the Blue Mountains MDMZ where most of the deer population at lower elevation is likely to be summer-range limited.

Habitat

Limited habitat is the major impediment to increasing deer numbers and hunting opportunity within the Blue Mountains MDMZ. The Blue Mountains MDMZ has been altered by landscape changes including conversion to croplands, wildfire suppression and burning, road construction, invasion of noxious weeds, extensive wind power development, and urban-suburban development. Solar development is another emerging threat to habitat, with over 2,000 acres proposed for development in Garfield County. Although no single factor has had a direct, large-scale effect on mule deer populations in the Blue Mountains, the cumulative effects of such alterations have likely been detrimental to mule deer habitat and populations over time.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

The agricultural damage prevention program managed by WDFW changed approximately 10 years ago, with responsibilities being shifted from the Enforcement Program to the Wildlife Program. 2014 saw the institution of "damage tags" which must be purchased through the licensing program.

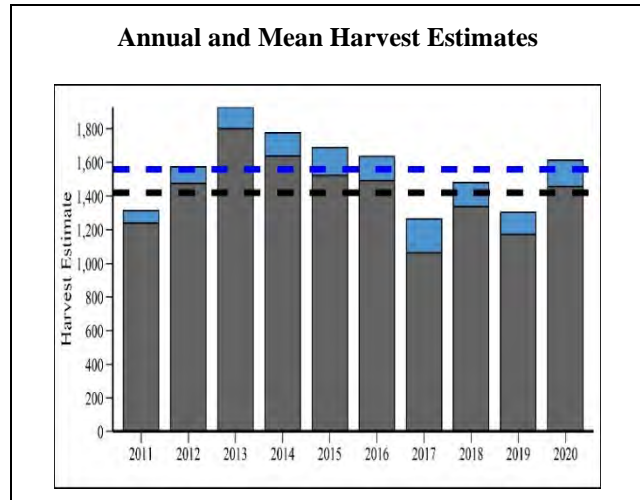


Figure 4. Harvest estimates (columns) and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General BM Zone Harvest (gray) and General + Permit BM Zone Harvest (blue) in the Blue Mountains MDMZ, 2011–2020.

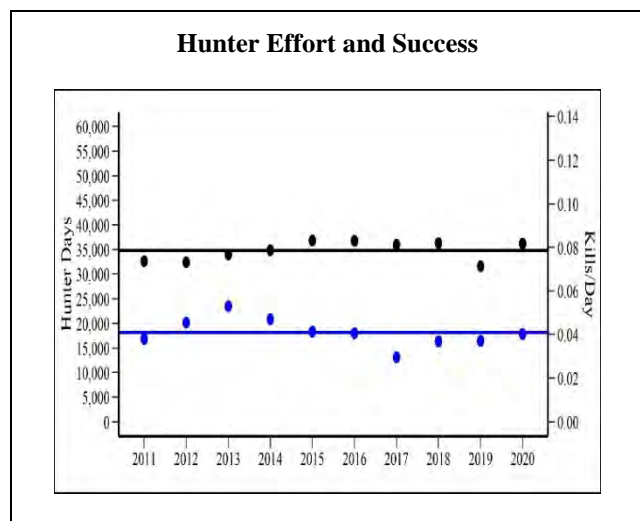


Figure 5. General season estimates (points) and 10-yr means (solid lines) for hunter days (black) and harvest/day (blue) in the Blue Mountains MDMZ, 2011–2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Qualifying landowners are allowed to 2 free kill permits, with the requirement of reporting directly to the Conflict Specialist, and are the predominant tags issued in damage situations. Any additional permits are issued as damage permits with the requirement that the landowner, lease holder, or their designee purchase a damage tag and report their harvest through the licensing system. Conflict biologists reported 19 hunters successfully filling kill permits between July 2020 and March 2021, including a 15 mule deer does and 4 bucks causing damage to cherry and peach trees. Two hunters reported hunting their damage tag, with one harvesting a mule deer doe, and 1 with no report of the deer species. Most hunts occurred in GMU 149 and 154 in areas where there would be very little hunting opportunity otherwise, such as in the winery and orchard areas around Walla Walla and Burbank.

Management Concerns

Although recent harvest trends show some variability, population survey results indicate the mule deer population is apparently stable in the Blue Mountains MDMZ, and the biggest management concerns are habitat alteration and effects of extreme climatic events (i.e., drought and winter conditions). The Conservation Reserve Program (CRP) acres across the zone have probably played the largest role in sustaining the mule deer population in this agriculture-dominated landscape, but CRP acreages have been declining, and incidental information indicates significant acreages will be removed from the program to be farmed in the next few years. Winter range along the breaks of the Snake and Grande Ronde Rivers is probably secure in the short-term, but expansion of wind and solar energy development, expansion of orchards and other agriculture on the south side of the Snake River, and gradual development of estates along both river valleys indicates that this range faces threats in the long-term. With the majority of mule deer habitat being in private ownership, the challenges for WDFW to protect the long-term security of mule deer in SE Washington are difficult. Supporting the CRP program in the Farm Bill and pursuing other conservation opportunities, such as conservation easements and habitat restoration, are a few of the actions WDFW can undertake to maintain habitat for mule deer across the District. A small but significant portion of mule deer reside in the mountain units, where long-term harvest trends show a generally declining population. Some of this is likely due to habitat changes brought about by fire suppression, but recent wildfire activity, controlled burns by the USFW, and forest thinning projects on State and Federal lands may help improve habitat conditions. However, we have yet to see a population response to these habitat alterations. We are continuing to monitor the mountain segment of the population through harvest metrics while exploring new methods for population monitoring.

Management Conclusions

Mule deer populations in the Blue Mountains MDMZ are currently at management objective based on the 10-year mean for post-hunt buck:doe ratio, and the 2020 surveys documented a ratio within the objective range (15-19 bucks/100 does post-hunt). Fawn:doe ratios, while highly variable throughout the different habitats of the District, remain within the range that supports a stable to increasing population (40-60 fawns/100 does), assuming good over-winter fawn survival from the time of surveys in December until spring green-up and average adult doe survival within the population. General season antlerless opportunity is very limited, and since population abundance is most sensitive to doe survival, managing antlerless permits is one of the few tools available to influence population changes. Available population survey and harvest data indicate stable populations where habitat availability and quality allow.

Population Surveys

Mule deer are present throughout most of the Columbia Plateau MDMZ at varying densities. The highest densities are seasonally associated with irrigated cropland with adjacent shrub-steppe or riparian habitat. The lowest densities are associated with large monotypic blocks of either dryland agricultural crops or uncultivated ground. While no estimates of mule deer abundance exist for the entire zone, estimates are available for portions of this MDMZ where higher densities occur (Figure 2). These subherds loosely represent expected population segments within this MDMZ.

Odessa Subherd

Odessa Subherd population estimates from aerial sightability surveys conducted from 2012-2014 and 2019 resulted in population estimates ranging from 10,980 to 13,582 deer (Figure 3). Buck to doe ratios based on annual ground surveys between 2011 and 2020 have been above management objectives every year except 2016, but most bucks observed are yearlings (Figure 4). The decline in buck to doe ratios observed in 2016 is likely due to low recruitment of fawns from 2015 that was associated with drought conditions. The post-season buck population is highly dependent on yearlings. Fawn to doe ratios based on ground surveys have been above 60 fawns per 100 does, except in 2010 and 2015 (Figure 4). The low fawn to doe ratio in 2015 was probably due to the 2015 drought reducing fawn survival. The lower-than-average fawn ratio in 2010 could have been a lingering effect of the two back-to-back hard winters of 2007-2008 and 2008-2009. It also could simply be a byproduct of being the first year post-season ground surveys were conducted in this subherd.

Benge Subherd

Benge Subherd population estimates from aerial sightability surveys conducted from 2009-2011 and 2015 have ranged from 11,990 to 13,589 (Figure 5). Estimates of buck to doe ratios based on ground surveys have been above management objectives every year except 2016 (Figure 6). However, like the Odessa Subherd, the majority of bucks observed were yearlings. The decline in the buck to doe ratio estimates observed in 2016 was likely due in part to decreased fawn survival in 2015, presumably associated with drought conditions. Fawn to doe ratio estimates based on ground surveys have remained relatively stable with a 10-yr average of 64 fawns per 100 does (range = 56– 74; Figure 6).

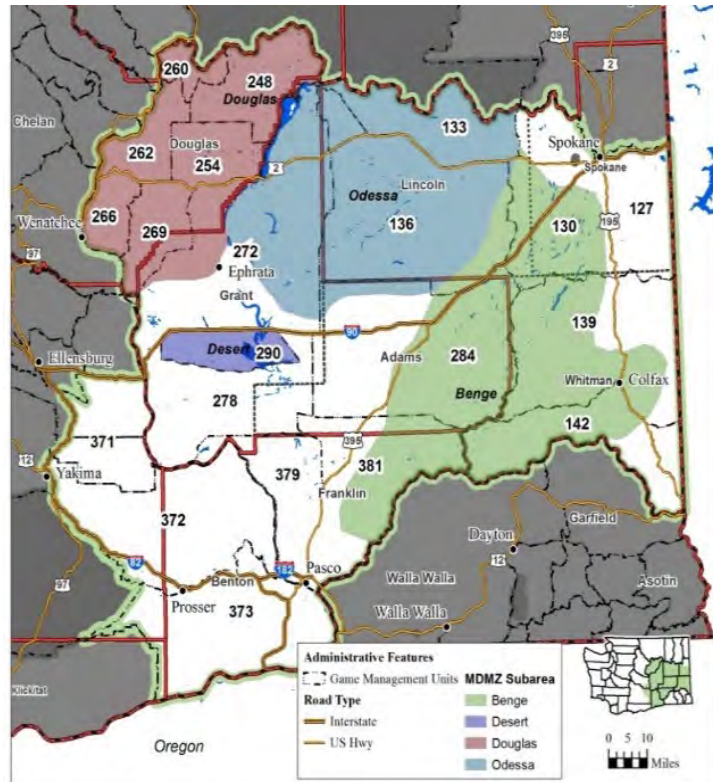


Figure 2. Subherd area boundaries for post-hunt aerial mule deer population surveys in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

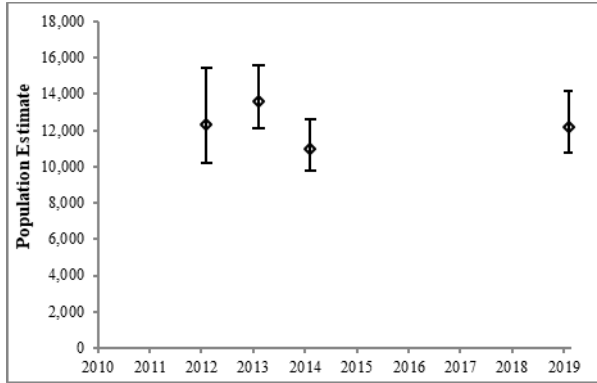


Figure 3. Abundance estimates and 90% confidence intervals from aerial mule deer surveys of the Odessa Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2010-2019.

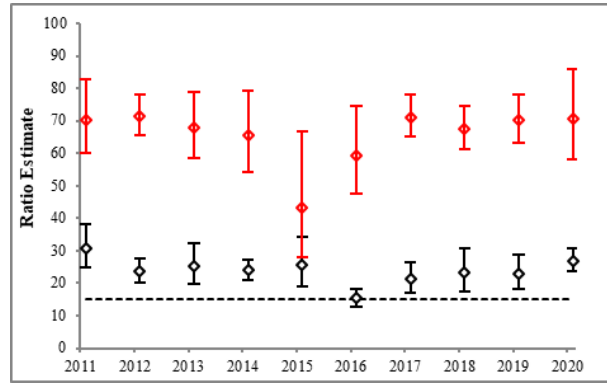


Figure 4. Fawn:doe (red) and buck:doe (black) ratio estimates and 90% confidence intervals from ground-based surveys of the Odessa Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2011-2020.

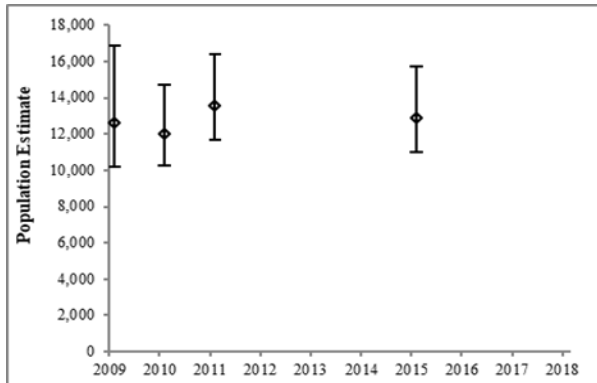


Figure 5. Abundance estimates and 90% confidence intervals from aerial mule deer surveys of the Benge Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2009-2018.

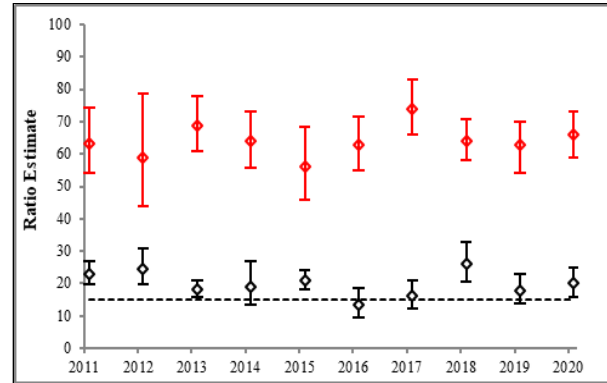


Figure 6. Fawn:doe (red) and buck:doe (black) ratio estimates and 90% confidence intervals from ground-based surveys of the Benge Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Desert Unit (GMU 290)

Desert Unit (GMU 290) buck to doe ratio estimates have been at or above management objectives since 2006 (range = 30 - 55 bucks per 100 does; Figure 7), except in 2017 when the estimate decreased to 24. Fawn to doe ratios have been low relative to other populations within the zone (range = 29 - 58 fawns per 100 does; Figure 8). Aerial surveys were conducted in 2019, and estimates were consistent with previous survey results.

Douglas Subherd

Douglas Subherd buck to doe ratio estimates have been at or above management objectives since 2008 (average = 23:100; Figure 10). Most bucks classified during these surveys are in the juvenile age class because most legal bucks are harvested each year due to open cover and high road densities. In areas where landowners restrict access to large expanses of habitat, numbers of older age-class bucks are more abundant. Fawn to doe ratio estimates have been stable over that same period (average = 63:100; Figure 10). Post-hunt ratios are estimated from annual ground-based composition surveys conducted along established routes within the subherd. The first

comprehensive post-hunt aerial survey of mule deer in the Douglas Subherd was conducted in 2017 and resulted in a population estimate of 12,860 mule deer (90% CI = 10,299-16,735). The second year of aerial abundance surveys estimated 15,254 deer in 2018 (90% CI=12,145-19,975). Ground surveys will continue to generate annual post-hunt estimates for buck to doe and fawn to doe ratios, with aerial surveys for abundance estimates planned to occur on 3-5-year intervals.

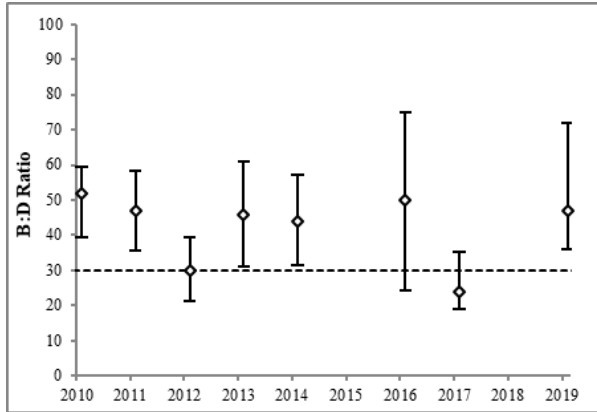


Figure 7. Buck:doe ratio estimates and 90% confidence intervals from aerial mule deer surveys of the Desert Unit in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2010-2019.

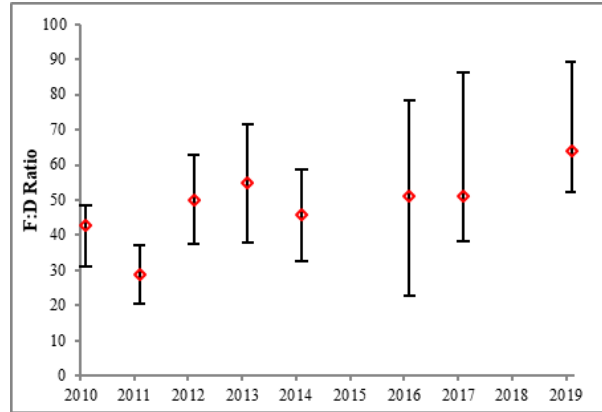


Figure 8. Fawn:doe ratio estimates and 90% confidence intervals from aerial mule deer surveys of the Desert Unit in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2010-2019.

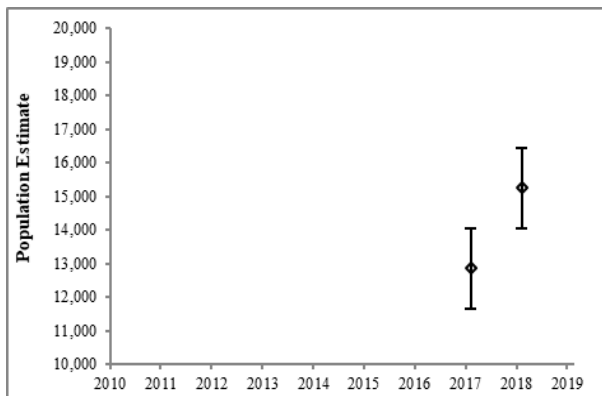


Figure 9. Abundance estimates and 90% confidence intervals from aerial mule deer surveys of the Douglas Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2010-2019.

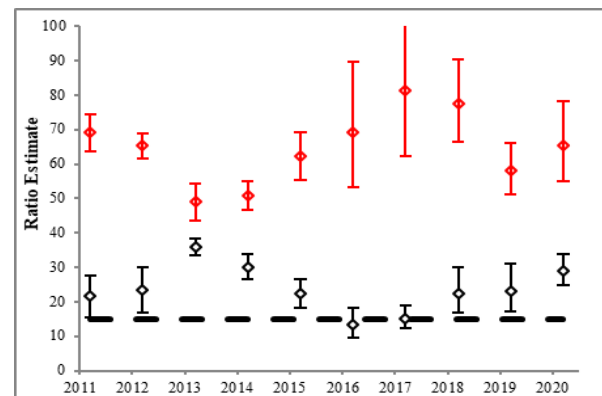


Figure 10. Fawn:doe (red) and buck:doe (black) ratio estimates and 90% confidence intervals from ground-based surveys of the Douglas Subherd in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

More mule deer are harvested in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ than in any other zone and harvest has been relatively stable, outside of the dip in 2016-2018, over the past decade (Figure 11a). The decline in the 2016 harvest was likely due to poor fawn recruitment in 2015 associated with drought conditions. However, there were also fewer hunters, which may have resulted in fewer deer being harvested as well. The low harvest in 2017 was likely due to the hard winter of 2016/17. Measures of hunter effort in the zone have generally been stable during the past 10 years (Figure 11b). Estimates of hunter effort (i.e., hunter days; Figure 11b) in this zone are not mule deer

specific and include days spent hunting white-tailed deer. Because harvest data are specific to mule deer, kills/day estimates are consequently biased low.

Survival and Mortality

Field studies conducted in the eastern portion of this zone between 2000 and 2008 indicated annual survival ($\hat{s} = 0.92$, 95% CI = 0.91 – 0.93), pregnancy ($\hat{p} = 0.96$, 90% CI = 0.91– 1.0), and fetal rates ($\hat{f} = 1.44$, 90% CI = 1.20– 1.68) of adult female mule deer were sufficient to maintain stable populations (WDFW, 2016). Cause-specific mortality for radio-marked juvenile mule deer (30 marked as neonates, 35 marked at 6 months of age) indicated legal hunting and coyotes were the most frequent sources of mortality ($n = 28$). Juvenile survival rates during the first summer ($\hat{s} = 0.52$) and the first winter (fawns transitioning into the yearling age class; $\hat{s} = .90$) were sufficient to maintain stable populations (Johnstone-Yellin et al., 2009; WDFW, 2016).

While not observed during the field studies, other sources of mule deer mortality likely include predation (not only coyotes), collisions with vehicles, perishing in irrigation canals, and poaching. Predator species living within this zone include cougars, bobcats, black bears, coyotes, golden eagles, and domestic dogs. Availability of suitable habitat, disease events, and other factors will influence survival, pregnancy rates, and fetal rates. Therefore, results from former studies are not necessarily indicative of the status of the current population.

Habitat

Loss of important habitat, particularly shrub-steppe, riparian, and wet meadow habitat, is the most important issue facing wildlife managers in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ. Land conversion is the most obvious source of habitat loss, but wildfires have become more frequent and more intense in recent years and can often result in a rapid invasion of exotic plant species such as cheatgrass, which perpetuates more fire. In 2020 two of the largest wildfires in the state’s history occurred in this management zone: the Pearl Hill (223,730-ac) and Whitney Rd (127,430-ac) fires. Restoration of native vegetation requires an intensive, expensive, long-term effort to be successful.

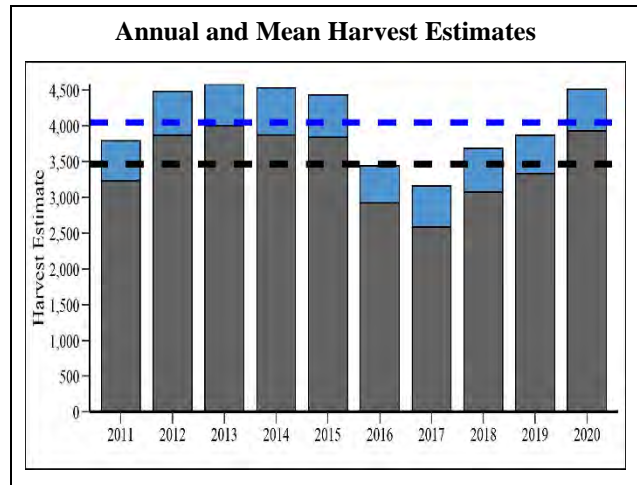


Figure 11. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2011–2020.

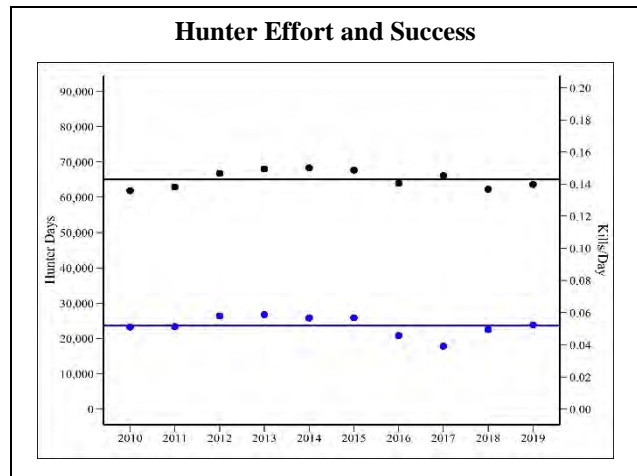


Figure 12. Ten-year mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2011–2020.

In some areas of the zone where crop fields have been enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program (CRP), the increase in associated cover and introduction of beneficial plant species may partially mitigate losses of shrub-steppe, especially important during fawning season.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Mule deer in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ are largely migratory and often stage in large numbers on the way to, and at, the wintering grounds along the Snake River breaks and the Wilson Creek area. These large congregations are cause for concern from wheat farmers, although research suggests crop depredation by large ungulates does not influence grain yield, provided it occurs before the joint stage when plants begin to invest in their reproductive phase (Austin and Urness, 1995; Dunphy et al., 1982). However, grazing on alfalfa and hay fields does have the potential to reduce crop production (Austin et al., 1998). Currently, five Deer Areas with additional permit opportunities exist within this zone to address impacts associated with these congregations (Figure 12). Nuisance damage in suburban areas can also be a problem, and WDFW provides additional antlerless hunting opportunities to address this issue. The WDFW Wildlife Conflict staff work with producers to provide technical assistance in both lethal and non-lethal control of deer on agricultural lands, including orchards and vineyards with high-value crops favored by deer.

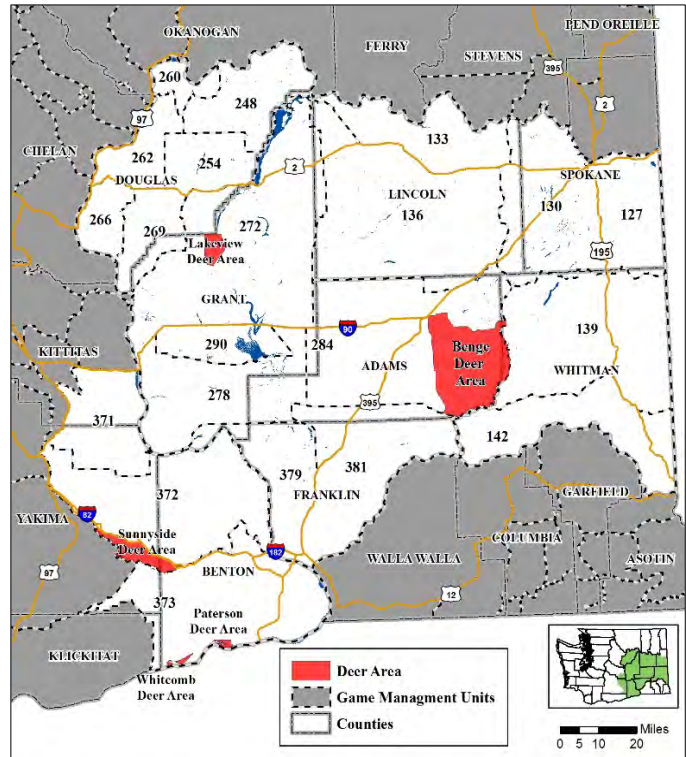


Figure 12. Deer Areas within the Columbia Plateau MDMZ, 2019.

Management Concerns

As previously discussed, habitat loss and habitat degradation are management concerns in this area. While the expansion of agricultural crops is currently low relative to historical rates throughout much of this zone, habitat conversion through urban sprawl and small ranch development is slowly taking a toll. Loss of lands enrolled in CRP programs due to Federal budgets and county caps could drastically reduce available habitat in this zone. Additionally, recent changes to the Federal Farm Bill may allow for cattle grazing and hay harvest of CRP lands. Those changes could negatively affect wildlife by reducing forage and cover, as well as having other impacts from associated infrastructure developments. Impacts from wildfires vary depending upon the type of habitat burned, overall size of the area burned, season of burn, and intensity of the burn.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Short-term impacts may include reduced habitat suitability, which is particularly damaging during the summer fawning season and/or when precipitation fails to initiate fall green-up and animals are unable to increase nutritional reserves needed to meet the demand of a harsh winter. Areas with older shrub-steppe habitat and good species diversity are limited and declining annually due to fires and housing development. High-value shrub-steppe habitat can take over 50 years to develop and combating encroachment by invasive species is a difficult and expensive battle once intact habitat burns.

A relatively new threat to habitat for mule deer in this zone is solar power generation. These installations range in size from just a few hundred acres to upwards of 10,000ac. They are often sited in rangelands (shrub-steppe habitat), and adjacent dryland agriculture. The majority of vegetation is either permanently removed, especially larger shrubs, or regularly mowed to a short height in order to keep it from interfering with solar exposure of the panels. Additionally, the perimeter fencing installed at these sites tend to be wildlife unfriendly (e.g., six-foot-high chain link fence) effectively keeping mule deer out of the site that, at large installations, can impact broader movement across the landscape.

Management Conclusions

Mule deer populations in the Columbia Plateau MDMZ are currently at management objective based on buck to doe ratio estimates. Demographic and survey data indicate stable populations between years. Zone-wide harvest appears to be recovering from the decline observed in 2016 and 2017.

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East Columbia Gorge Mule Deer Management Zone

CARLY WICKHEM, Wildlife Biologist
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Introduction

The East Columbia Gorge Mule Deer Management Zone (MDMZ), located in south central Washington, is the smallest of the seven mule deer management zones and consists of two GMUs: 382 and 388 (Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department’s objective within this MDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on field surveys and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

Mule deer are present throughout the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ, with the highest densities observed January through April throughout the low-elevation winter ranges. Post-hunt aerial surveys conducted in December of 2019 resulted in a buck:doe estimate of 16:100 (95% CI = 10–21, $n = 2,084$), which is within the management objective. The post-hunt fawn:doe estimate for 2019 was 58:100 (95% CI = 45–71, $n = 2,084$), which is a decrease from the previous two years of surveys that observed 64 fawns:100 does in 2017 and 62 fawns:100 does in 2018. Population surveys were not conducted in 2020 because of COVID-19 restrictions but will potentially resume in December 2021.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

After three years of declines, harvest in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ increased slightly in 2019 and even more in 2020, meeting the 10-year average in 2020 (Figure 2). Estimates from 2016-2018 indicated a decline in harvest (Figure 2) that likely reflected, in part, decreased hunter participation and effort (Figure 3), fewer antlerless permits offered, and population declines within the zone. After these declines in 2016 and 2017, estimates of kills/day were up in 2018, 2019, and 2020, with 2020 rates surpassing the 10-year average (Figure 3). The 2020 increase in harvest is hopefully a sign of a growing deer population but was also potentially bolstered by a slight increase in hunter participation and effort during the COVID-19 pandemic.

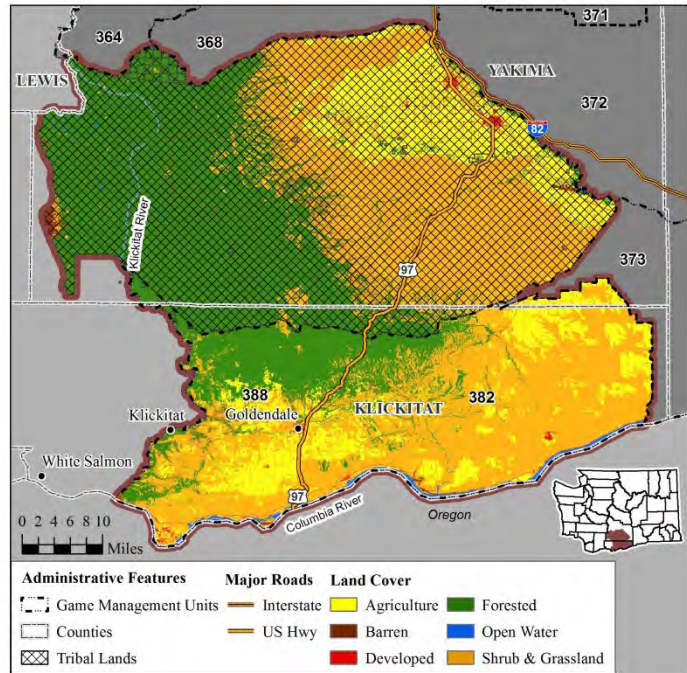


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ.

Survival and Mortality

There are no current data on annual survival rates of mule deer in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. In addition to legal hunting, common mortality sources include disease, predation, and deer-vehicle collisions. Lice infestations and hair loss syndrome have been documented in mule deer (Bernatowicz et al., 2011) and likely contribute to declines in mule deer numbers. Common predator species include cougar, bobcat, black bear, and coyote.

The winter of 2016-17 was very severe, with persistent snow down to Columbia River level (lowest elevations of the MDMZ) from December through February, making forage unavailable in key wintering habitats. As a result, both population and harvest estimates dropped in 2017 and 2018. The four following winters were mild to average, except for the late winter/early spring of 2019, which had several large snowfall events and persistent cold temperatures into April. Spring 2021 productivity surveys counted the most deer since 2011 and recorded a fawn:adult estimate of 63:100, above the 10-year average of 57:100. The annual post-hunt aerial surveys scheduled for December 2021 will continue to monitor the population as it hopefully recovers from the severe winter of 2016-17.

In the summer of 2017, an outbreak of Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease (AHD) was confirmed in the area just east of Goldendale in both GMUs 382 and 388. High rates of fawn mortality were observed, which is typical with this disease. This type of AHD is specific to deer and has occurred in other states, including Oregon and California. Given the relative commonness of AHD, the disease has probably been present in Washington before but was not detected. The last confirmed report of AHD in the Goldendale area was in September 2017.

Habitat

The East Columbia Gorge MDMZ has experienced extensive alternative energy development and agricultural land conversion in recent years. Electricity generated by wind power currently is one of the fastest-growing alternative energy sources in the region with large wind power sites already

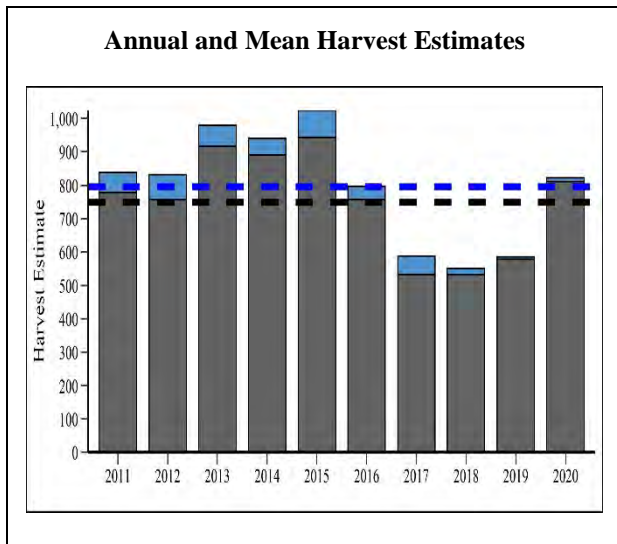


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr mean (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ, 2011-2020.

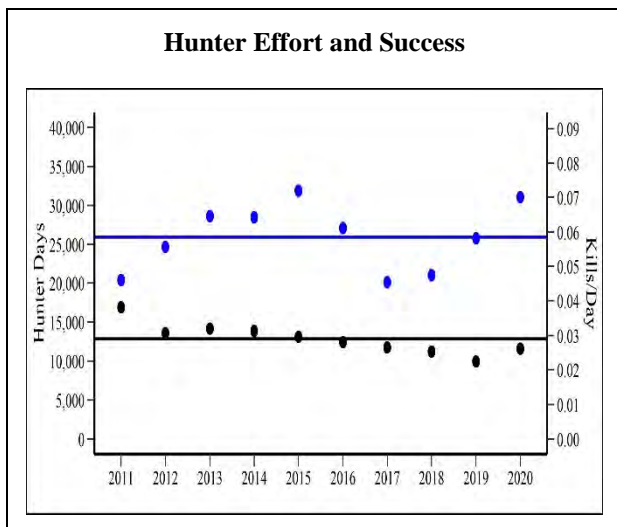


Figure 3. Ten-year mean for hunter days (black) and harvests/day (blue) in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

in operation along the Columbia River. Despite being thought of as a “green” energy source, wind farms reduce and fragment critical habitat (Hebblewhite, 2008; Fargione et al., 2012), especially in the winter range of mule deer in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. In addition, construction on the first solar farm in this MDMZ began in early 2021 and several other solar farm proposals in the area are in various stages of permitting. These operations typically include tall fencing and vegetation damage, resulting in complete habitat loss (Lutz et al., 2011). More direct effects on the population have occurred in the form of habitat loss from agricultural conversion and associated roadways necessary to access such development, as well as increased mortality from vehicle collisions.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Agricultural damage to crops such as hay, alfalfa, wheat, berries, and grapes occurs at low levels in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. Wildlife Conflict Specialists work closely with producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which identify a plan to reduce the amount of damage incurred to agricultural crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. Wildlife Conflict Specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal means to discourage deer, including electrified fladry fencing, noisemakers (e.g., bird bangers, critter gitters, and propane cannons), hazing and herding, scarecrow-like electronic devices, and odor-based repellents such as Plantskydd. In 2020-2021, one DPCA and zero kill permits were issued relating to mule deer in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. In many circumstances, the Department addresses damage complaints by working with landowners to increase access to their property during hunting seasons so that hunters can help to resolve the damage.

Research

In January 2021, a 4-year study was initiated to investigate mule deer movement and migration patterns in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. Eighty-one adult female mule deer were captured and fitted with GPS collars. The primary focus of this study is to identify mule deer migration routes and winter ranges within the MDMZ, with the end goal of preserving and enhancing habitat in these areas. When possible, biologists are also attempting to determine the cause of death when a collared animal dies and will calculate vital rates like annual survival. Biologists will redeploy collars each winter with a goal of maintaining approximately 80 collars in the MDMZ throughout the 4-year period.

Management Concerns

Deer hairloss syndrome was observed in Klickitat County for the first time in 2000. Hairloss was first documented in GMU 382 in the spring of 2006. Approximately 13% of deer observed during road-based surveys conducted in March 2021 in and around the Klickitat Wildlife Area had noticeable signs of the syndrome, which is above the average observed since 2008 (7.6%). Late 1990s declines in hunter harvest, increases in buck mortality rates, and reduced fawn recruitment all roughly coincide with the onset of the hairloss syndrome. We will continue to monitor for this disease during spring surveys.

Habitat loss is the greatest concern for mule deer in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. Increased land conversion, especially into vineyards and wind and solar farms, have the potential to negatively affect this herd. Not only do developments reduce the amount of available habitat, but

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

their associated roads and fencing increase the risk of deer-vehicle collisions and inhibit movement across the landscape. Many of the deer in this zone are thought to be migratory and spend the winter in lower elevations, typically preferring habitat with a strong oak (*Quercus garryana*) component (McCorquodale 1996). Increased human activity and habitat conversion in lower elevation wintering areas can cause these deer to unnecessarily expend energy during the winter months when resources are limited, resulting in lower survival and reproduction rates.

Management Conclusions

As of December 2019, mule deer populations in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ were currently within the buck:doe management objective. Abundance and harvest estimates were low in 2017 and 2018 when compared to previous seasons, indicating a decrease in the population. After the 2017 and 2018 hunting seasons, managers removed most antlerless special permits, reduced the number of remaining antlerless permits, and reduced the number of quality and buck special permits to allow the population to recover. For the fall 2021 hunting season, managers also removed the antlerless opportunity from archery general seasons in GMUs 382 and 388. The 2020 harvest estimates showed an increase from recent years, which could be a sign that milder weather and management actions are benefitting the mule deer population in the East Columbia Gorge MDMZ. Annual survey efforts and the data collected from hunter reporting will allow managers to continue monitoring the population and determine future management needs.

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East Slope Cascades Mule Deer Management Zone

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Introduction

The East Slope Cascades MDMZ, home to Washington's major migratory mule deer populations, spans three wildlife districts (districts 6, 7, and the northern portion of 8) in north-central Washington and is comprised of 22 GMUs (203, 209, 215, 218, 224, 231, 233, 239, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 249, 250, 251, 328, 329, 330, 334, and 335; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this MDMZ is to maintain stable populations based on field surveys and harvest estimates and manage for a post-hunt buck:doe ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does in the southern and northern portions, and a minimum of 25 bucks:100 does in the central portion.

Population Surveys

Mule deer are present throughout the East Slope Cascades MDMZ, with the highest densities observed during January through March on the low elevation traditional winter ranges. Populations within the zone are comprised of four general subherds, from north to south they are the Methow and Okanogan (western Okanogan County), Chelan (Chelan County), and Kittitas (Kittitas County north of I-90) subherds. The last zone-wide post-hunt aerial sightability surveys indicated approximately 47,000 mule deer resided within the East Slope Cascades MDMZ at that time (WDFW, 2013).

Methow and Okanogan Subherds

No post-hunt aerial surveys were conducted in 2020 in Okanogan County (District 6) due to COVID restrictions. In the spring of 2021, ground surveys produced a spring fawn:adult ratio (Figure 2b) of 41:100 (95% CI=32-45, $n = 718$), significantly above the 10-yr average of 34. Improving trends in both productivity and recruitment indices are likely a reflection of improving winter habitat conditions several years after the severe drought and fires of 2014-15.

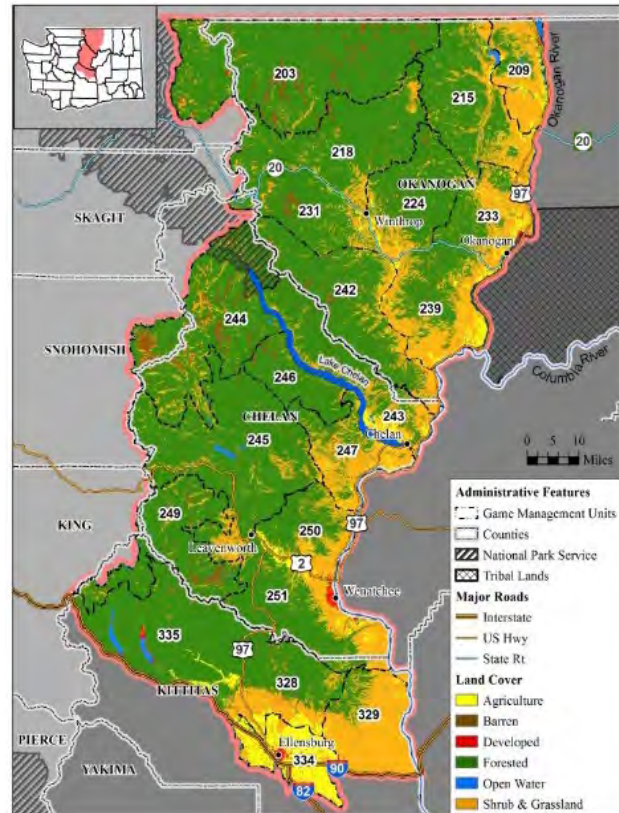


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the East Slope Cascades MDMZ.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

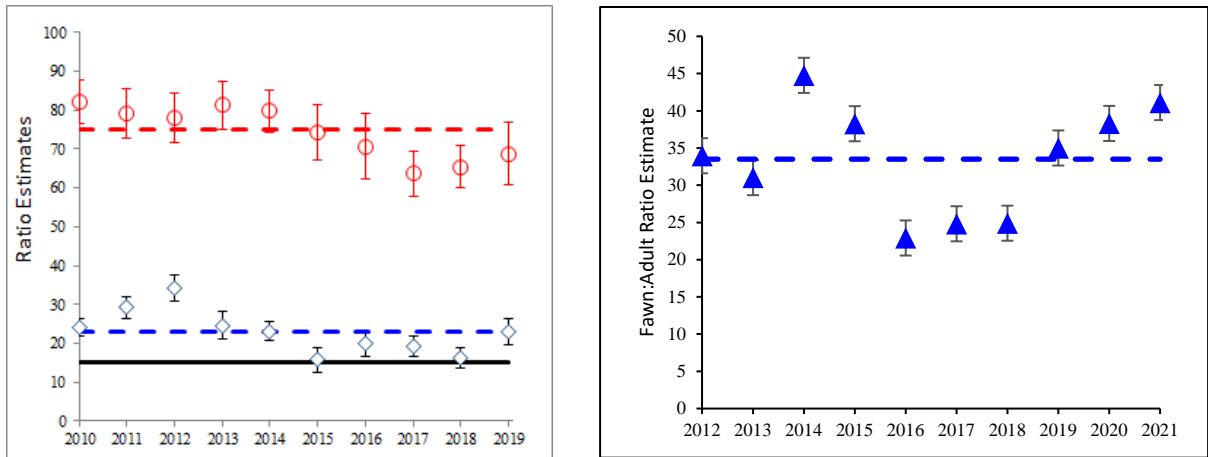


Figure 2. (a) Post-hunt buck:doe ratio estimates (black) and fawn:doe ratio estimates (red) with 10-year means 2010-2019 (dashed lines), and minimum ratio management objective (solid black line); and (b) spring fawn:adult ratio estimates with 10-year mean 2011-2020 (dashed line); for mule deer in the northern subherds of the East Slope Cascades MDMZ.

Buck:doe ratios for the northern subherds have met or exceeded the management objective of 15:100 does (Figures 2a). A combination of rugged topography and limited road access in many GMUs allows for high escapement, which results in a higher proportion of older age-class bucks in the population. Fawn recruitment varies year to year, largely fluctuating in response to winter conditions. High-quality summer range has traditionally led to high fawn production. Late fall fawn:doe ratios fell in the wake of fire and drought in the middle of the last decade but are beginning to climb toward the long-term average (Figures 2a & b). Survey efforts have largely focused on the Methow subherd during the last five years due to concurrent research investigating survival rates for that subherd. Ratio data collected in earlier years for the Okanogan subherd suggest trends seen for mule deer in the Methow subherd likely track with those of the Okanogan subherd.

Chelan Subherd

Biologists were not able to perform post-hunt aerial surveys on the Chelan subherd in 2020 due to safety concerns regarding the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, poor winter flying conditions in the central portion of the zone (District 7) have led to a significant reduction in demographic data collected from the Chelan subherd over the past few years. In 2019, inclement weather entirely precluded post-hunt aerial surveys of the Chelan subherd. Poor flying conditions prevented biologists from obtaining an abundance estimate of this subherd in 2018 and did not allow for a sufficient sample size to confidently estimate herd composition ratios in 2017.

In 2016, spring aerial surveys resulted in population estimates of 14,870 mule deer (90% CI = 12,085-19,679), and in 2017, the population was estimated at 11,061 mule deer (90% CI = 9,317-13,865). These estimates are comparable to post-hunt population estimates from 2010 and 2011 (Figure 3b). Cumulative impacts of severe drought and large wildfires in 2015, combined with a severe winter in 2016/17, likely contributed to a decline in this population, as was detected in spring 2017 (Figure 3b).

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Management of the Chelan subherd is conservative with a post hunt buck ratio objective of 25+ bucks per 100 does. Since 2009, estimates of post-hunt buck:doe ratios have largely been sustained at this objective. The combination of high buck harvests in 2015 and 2016, along with the effects of the 2016-17 winter, appears to be responsible for a decline in the buck:doe ratio in 2017. The 2018 post-hunt estimated buck:doe ratios were 23.1:100 (90% CI = 14.1 – 32.2), which is up from the previous estimate in 2017 of 18.7:100 (90% CI = 12.0 – 25.4; Figure 3a). Fawn:doe ratios also increased from 2017 to 2018 with the 2017 post-hunt fawn:doe ratio estimated at 61.5:100 (90% CI = 51.1 – 71.84) and the 2018 post-hunt fawn:doe ratio estimate of 83.4 (90% CI = 63.4 – 103.4; Figure 3a).

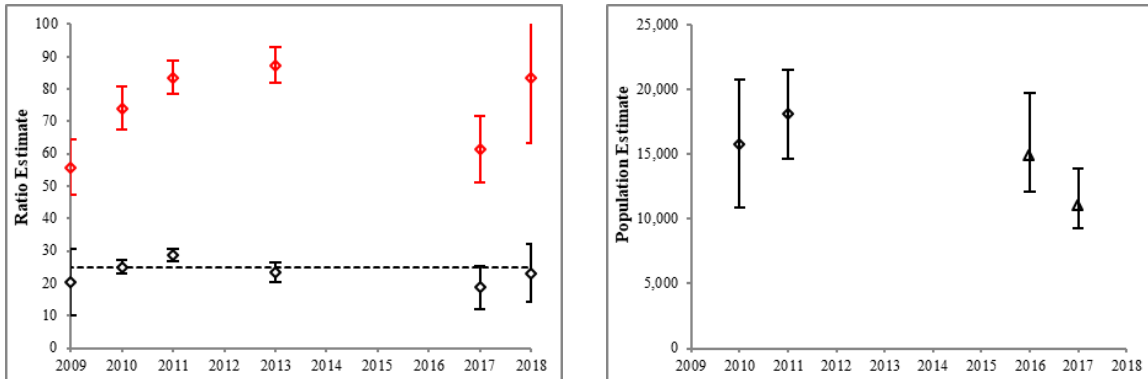


Figure 3. Estimates of (a) post-hunt buck:doe (black) and fawn:doe ratios (red) with 90% confidence intervals, and the buck:doe ratio management objective (dashed line) and, (b) abundance estimates with 90% confidence intervals from aerial surveys conducted post-hunt in fall 2010 and 2011 (diamonds) and spring in 2016 and 2017 (triangles), for the Chelan subherd in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ between 2009 and 2018.

Kittitas Subherd

In 2016, spring population surveys were conducted in the southern portion of the zone (Kittitas Subherd; District 8). The estimate was 3,718 deer (90% CI = 3,307-4,494). The southern population was down 40% from 2003 and 10% from the last survey in 2013. No surveys have been conducted since 2016, but harvest indicates little change in the population.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Mule deer harvest in much of the East Slope Cascades MDMZ is sometimes greatly influenced by the interaction of modern firearm general season dates and weather conditions during this season. A later than average season ending date and significant early high-country snow combined to produce a harvest spike in 2015. Since then, the calendar cycle has produced earlier general season ending dates, and early fall weather conditions have been relatively mild. Conservative harvest of antlerless mule deer is generally designed to maintain population stability while still providing some recreational opportunity. Increased harvest of antlerless mule deer is used at times to limit herd growth, reduce deer numbers in damage areas, or respond to dramatic changes in carrying capacity such as those associated with large wildfires.

Since 2015, overall harvest estimates have fluctuated closer to the 10-year average and have likely more closely tracked actual changes in the deer population following the fire/drought years in the

middle part of the past decade (Figure 4). Hunter days and harvest both declined between 2016 and 2018, but although hunter days continued that decline in 2019, deer harvest actually increased that year. In 2020, both hunter days and harvests increased (Figure 5). This likely reflects the significant rise in outdoor recreation seen during the COVID-19 pandemic throughout the state and across the country but also is a good indicator that deer populations in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ are remaining stable or continuing to gradually increase.

Survival and Mortality

Data from past research in the central portion of the East Slope Cascades MDMZ on pregnancy ($\hat{p} = 0.95$) and fetal rates ($\hat{f} = 1.66$), coupled with a high annual adult doe survival rate ($\hat{s} = 0.92$, $n = 50$) indicate sufficient recruitment to support a stable to increasing population in this portion of the zone (WDFW, 2016). Research investigating the survival of adult mule deer in the Methow subherd is ongoing and should provide important insights into population status in coming years.

Habitat

The productive, high mountain habitats in this zone make the East Slope Cascades MDMZ extremely important to mule deer. These optimal habitat conditions provide nutritious forage for lactating does and contribute to high fawn survival and recruitment. These habitats are not limited, face little threat of direct human alteration, and are at present self-sustaining.

In recent years, however, drought conditions have arisen more frequently and become more intense, negatively impacting summer forage in the second half of the growing season and fostering large, intense wildfires. Many models predict these warmer and drier conditions will become more common as climate change progresses.

On winter ranges, mule deer move to a small portion of the overall landscape to avoid deep snow and find forage and thermal cover. This lower elevation habitat is under greater threat of alteration and disturbance; however, 25+ years of securing conservation status for critical areas has improved the long-term outlook.

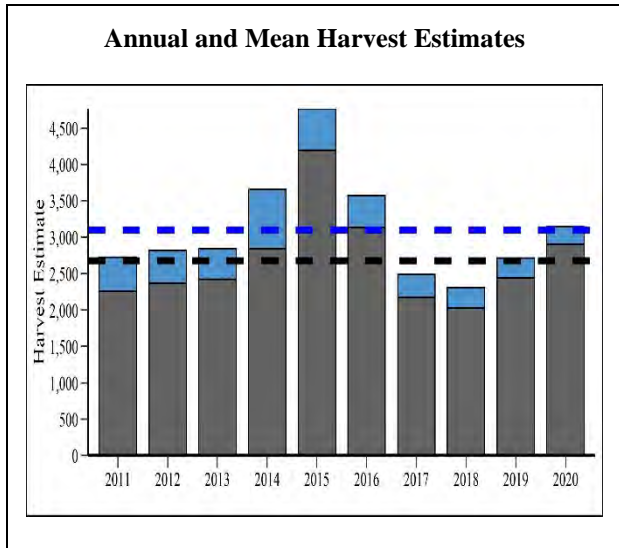


Figure 4. Harvest estimates and 10-yr mean (dashed lines) for (a) General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ, 2011-2020.

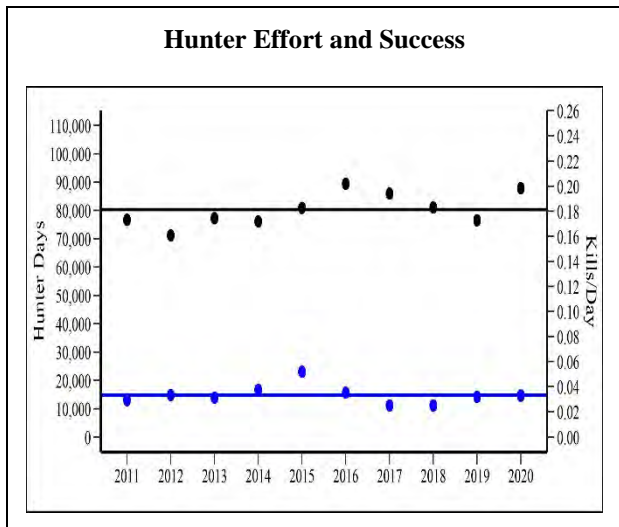


Figure 5. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue); in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Habitat-related considerations in this zone include continued development and fragmentation of low-elevation habitats, growing use and distribution of off-road vehicles, and increasing disturbance on winter ranges. This is compounded by recent landscape-level fires at low elevation and the increasing spread of invasive weeds, which result in a reduction of shrub vegetation communities.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most deer conflict is restricted to the lower elevation irrigated agriculture lands throughout the Zone. Specific Deer Areas have been established in the northern portion of this Zone with antlerless permit hunt seasons designed to target and reduce deer damage. Permit numbers within each Deer Area fluctuate with the level of reported damage incidents and are currently at minimal levels. To date, the program is operating smoothly and appears to be helpful in reducing deer damage complaints.

Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCA) and Kill permits are also conservatively issued to reduce deer damage throughout the Zone. In 2019, WDFW Conflict Specialists issued only 19 deer (Mule or White-tailed deer) permits to address deer damage throughout the entire East Slope Cascades Mule Deer Management Zone.

Significant roadkill occurs in the northern portion of this zone along State Highways 20 and 153 in the Methow Valley and along a 12.5-mile segment of State Highway 97 in the Okanogan Valley. The Okanogan Trails Mule Deer Foundation Chapter and others are working with the WA Department of Transportation to create underpasses(s) and fencing along this segment to reduce roadkill and provide safer passage. In the central portion of the zone, State Highways 97 and 97A are the major contributors to deer vehicle collisions.

Research

A large-scale predator-prey study with a mule deer component began in the northern portion of the zone in January 2017. By the end of January 2018, biologists had radio-marked 100 mule deer does and have since redeployed collars from mortalities to maintain a sample size of around 100 animals. Project staff follows up on mortalities to determine mortality source and, where applicable, predation type to the extent possible. The radio-marked animals are also being used to collect migration data similar to that mentioned below.

In 2019, funding was provided by the US Department of Interior for a four-year study to determine migratory routes, stopover areas, and seasonal ranges of mule deer in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ. In January 2020, 98 adult female mule deer were captured across Chelan ($n = 40$) and Kittitas ($n = 58$) counties and fitted with global positioning system (GPS) collars expected to last four years. In January 2021, biologists redeployed collars retrieved from mortalities that occurred over the previous year to maintain a sample size of approximately 100 animals. This annual process will be repeated for the duration of the study. Initial analyses of GPS collar data to determine movement strategies during the first year has revealed that the Chelan subherd is 68% migratory and 32% resident, whereas the inverse relationship is present in the Kittitas subherd with 30% migratory and 70% resident.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Adult survival proportions during the first year were 83% for Chelan and 69% for Kittitas. Although cause-specific mortality is not a focus of this study, biologists investigated mortalities to determine the proximate cause if sufficient evidence was present. In Chelan, all mortalities were classified as “unknown” causes as snow conditions or private land access typically precluded biologists from reaching carcasses in time to determine cause of death. In Kittitas, 35% of mortalities were attributed to cougars, 12% were vehicle collisions, and 47% were classified as “unknown” cause. Analyses of movement behavior and survival are ongoing, as is the identification of important migration routes and stopover points for mule deer in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ.

Management Concerns

Extensive loss of winter range shrub forage due to wildfire and development is currently the major management concern in the northern three-fourths of the zone. The issue of winter range shrub loss is compounded by the post-fire conversion of these communities toward invasive weeds, decreasing the capability of the landscape to support deer. These effects are most prominent where conditions limit restoration success, such as on steep aspects with dry shallow soil. Mule deer access to winter forage is also threatened by ongoing human population expansion in areas such as Wenatchee and Chelan. In these places and others throughout the East Slope Cascades MDMZ, new housing developments continue to encroach upon the already limited winter range available to deer in the foothills and lowlands.

In the northern portion of the zone, recent composition counts have documented rebounding spring fawn:adult ratios over the last three years. Drought conditions also eased during this time likely improving the quality of summer range, an important factor in productivity and overall deer health.

Management Conclusions

As of December of 2019, mule deer populations in the East Slope Cascades MDMZ were meeting the minimum management objective in the north (15-19 bucks:100 does) and the central portion (25 bucks:100 does), and slightly lower than objective in the south, suggesting current buck harvest strategies are generally sustainable. Past surveys indicated a decline in the overall population in the zone immediately following the 2014-15 fires, but more recent demographic data suggests the population is now growing slowly. This current population trend is anticipated to continue to the extent that: 1) winter shrub forage continues to recover, 2) winter conditions are moderate, and 3) extreme summer drought is absent.

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Naches Mule Deer Management Zone

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Introduction

The Naches MDMZ is located in central Washington (Figure 1) and includes GMUs 336, 340, 342, 346, 352, 356, 360, 364, and 368.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this MDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on field surveys and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does.

Population Surveys

Mule deer are present throughout the Naches MDMZ, with the highest densities observed March and April on low elevation winter ranges as the forage green-up progresses. Spring aerial surveys have been conducted in the zone since 2003 to estimate abundance. In March 2003, the population was estimated at 7,865 deer (90% CI = 7,114-9,086). Spring aerial population surveys have continued in portions of the zone most years and indicated about a 50% decline by 2007 in those portions of the zone surveyed. In 2013, the abundance estimate for the MDMZ was 4,997 (90% CI = 4,587-5,625), down 36% from the zone-wide 2003 estimate (WDFW, 2013). Since 2017, only the northern portion of the zone has been flown. The population in the northern portion decreased about 43% from 2015 to 2017. The Muckleshoot Indian Tribe (MIT) flew the northern zone in 2018 and 2019 with a goal of estimating the population. The population rebounded slightly in 2018, but there was little change from 2018 to 2019. In 2020, MIT surveyed the highest density units. The population in those units increased roughly 18%. The units are likely a good index of the population, but a more complete survey is needed to make definitive conclusions.

Ground surveys have been conducted periodically since the early 1990s to estimate post-hunt buck:doe ratios for the zone. Surveys were attempted in December 2017, but a low sample size precluded a reliable ratio estimate.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

State harvest trend for the past ten years has been variable annually (Figures 2 and 3) but largely reflects population survey results. Drought and severe winters decreased the population 2015-2017; it is now rebounding, but well below historic and 10-year averages. Neither Native American tribe that hunts the Naches MDZ submits official harvest reports. The Yakama Nation season for

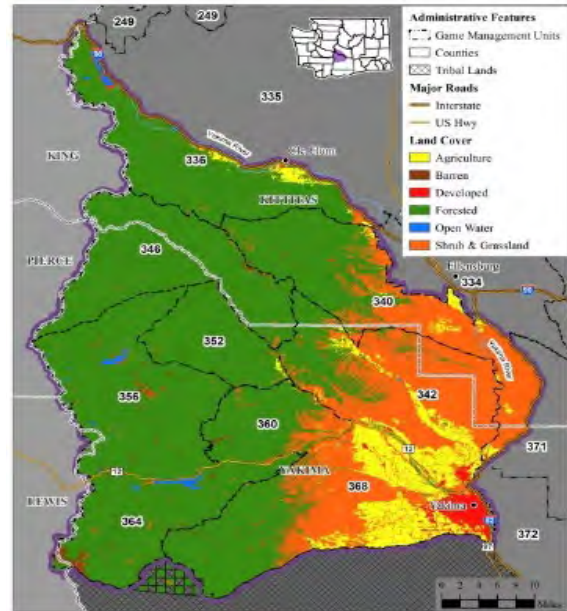


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Naches MDMZ.

bucks is year-round, with antlerless take allowed from September through December. The Muckleshoot Indian Tribe restricts harvest to buck-only during the fall.

Survival and Mortality

The Muckleshoot Indian Tribe (MIT) initiated telemetry studies conducted in 2012. These studies are ongoing and will provide managers with some zone-specific survival and movement information. Their goal is to have 100 adult does radio-collared each winter. Estimates of annual survival rates for adult female mule deer averaged 80% and ranged from 67% in years with more severe drought/winter weather to 87% in “good years.” These estimates are consistent with adult female survival documented in other mule deer populations throughout the west (Bleich and Taylor, 1998; Unsworth et al., 1999; Bishop et al., 2005; Hurley et al., 2011; Monteith et al., 2014). However, the survival estimates are lower than observed in the WDFW’s research conducted in the Columbia Plateau, East Slope Cascades, and Okanogan Highlands MDMZs (WDFW, 2016). Predation by cougars has accounted for the highest proportion of the radio-marked deer mortalities in this MDMZ (~40%). The second and third highest proportions of total mortality were attributed to malnutrition and human-caused mortality, at 26% and 16% of total mortalities, respectively.

Since 2004, some deer in this zone have been affected by Hair-Loss Syndrome (HLS), a condition caused by an exotic louse. The mule deer population declined in the mid-2000s in this MDMZ, and the contributing factors are suspected of having been HLS and winter mortality (Bernatowicz et al., 2011). Another suspected but unconfirmed pathogen may have been Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease (AHD). The population has not rebounded to historic levels noted before 2004.

Habitat

Deer radioed in the northern portion of the winter range disperse through much of the MDMZ, but densities are highest in GMU’s 340 and 342. Harvest data match radio-marked deer distribution.

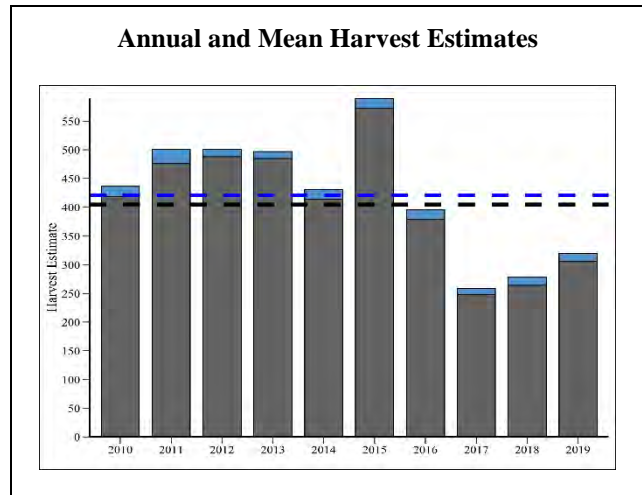


Figure 2 Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for (a) General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Naches MDMZ, 2010–2019.

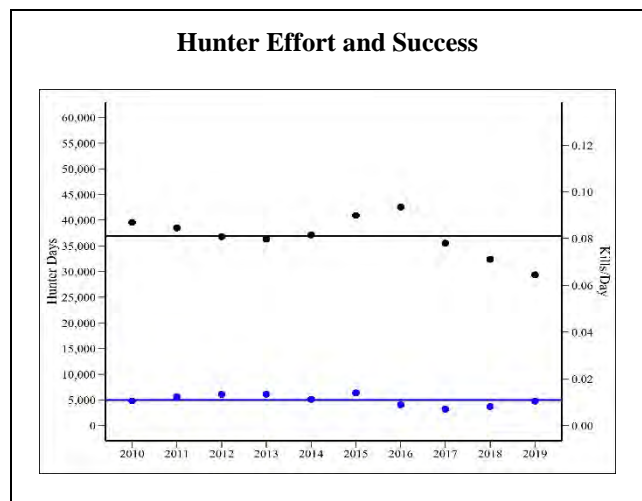


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and harvest/day (blue) in the Naches MDMZ, 2010–2019.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

There are currently no measures of habitat quality for this deer zone. Fire, fire suppression, post-fire salvage, and thinning/control burns to reduce fuel have probably affected deer habitat in the last decade. In portions of important range in GMU's 340 and 342, fire/human alteration has generally increased browse production. The exception has been in more arid portions of GMU 342, where fires have converted shrub-steppe to grassland by removing sagebrush and affecting other shrub cover. Thinning/burning in GMU 352 appears to have converted many areas to park-like ponderosa pine/grass. Radio-marked deer have made limited use of those areas.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Deer conflicts with agriculture in the Naches MDMZ are typically minimal. In 2019-2020, there were two does reported taken on landowner harvest permits.

Management Concerns

The largest concern in the Naches MDMZ is that deer density remains well below historical levels. Surveys and harvest indicate the population is at one of the lowest levels in modern history. Recent summer droughts followed by moderate winters caused significant population declines. Bleich and Taylor (1998) and Robinson et al. (2002) found cougar predation was a limiting factor in some deer populations and suggested other factors could be involved. The same may be true in the Naches MDMZ. Cougars are a significant cause of mortality for deer in this zone, but it is unknown if degrading habitat is also a factor. Cougar predation is not likely the cause of the deer declines but may be a factor affecting the pace and scale of population recovery.

Wildfires, thinning, and control burns are increasing and may increase browse production in more moist forest zones. In shrub-steppe, fires have converted the range to grass. "Restoration" in arid environments is rarely successful, especially in shallow soil. "Restoration" often involves native plants only, which may limit potential benefits to deer. In light winters following summers with adequate moisture, the population will increase slowly, but decline during droughts and moderate to severe winters.

Management Conclusions

Mule deer populations in the Naches MDMZ are low compared to historic levels. Recent data suggest the population may not recover to historic levels soon without other management actions. There is a trend towards hotter and drier summers, which will make any recovery more difficult. The buck population is typically within the minimum management objective of 15-19 bucks per 100 does. Survey approaches in this MDMZ are still being refined.

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Northern Rocky Mountains Mule Deer Management Zone

ANNEMARIE PRINCE, Wildlife Biologist
MIKE ATAMIAN, Wildlife Biologist
CARRIE LOWE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ is located in northeast Washington and consists of six GMUs (105, 108, 111, 113, 117, and 124; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this MDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on harvest estimates and other best-available information. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does. While mule deer are present at low numbers, the habitat is better suited to white-tailed deer which, are the primary focus of management in this zone.

Population Surveys

No estimates of mule deer abundance are available for populations within this zone, but the overall mule deer numbers are low given the limited high-quality mule deer habitat in the zone.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Subsequent to 2010, harvest estimates have fluctuated over time (Figure 2). Estimates of hunter effort (i.e., hunter days; Figure 3) and harvest rate (i.e., kills/day; Figure 3) in this zone include days spent hunting white-tailed deer as well and are consequently skewed with regard to mule deer-specific harvest. Because this zone is predominantly hunted for white-tailed deer, the true number of days spent hunting only mule deer are substantially lower, and harvest rates are higher than indicated.

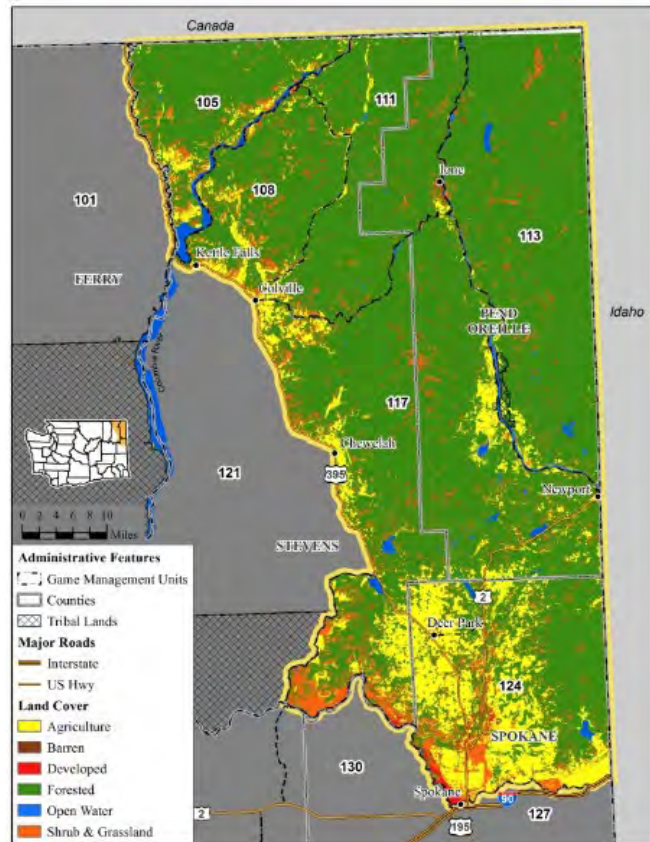


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for mule deer herds in the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ. Cougars, black bears, grizzly bears, gray wolves, and coyotes occur within this MDMZ. The effects of predation on this population of mule deer are unknown.

Habitat

Habitat within the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ is predominantly conifer forest, comprising over 70 % of the total land cover within the zone. Forest types include dry forest at low elevations, mainly composed of ponderosa pine and Douglas fir, and high elevation forest composed of subalpine fir, western larch, Engelmann spruce, whitebark pine, and lodgepole pine. More mesic sites at any elevation contain western red cedar, western hemlock, and grand fir. Outside the winter season, mule deer tend to be found at high elevation ridges and basins, except in GMU 124, where they are found year round along the Spokane River and associated tributaries. Most of these high elevation summer ranges are on public land managed for multiple uses, including wildlife conservation. Lands under private ownership are typically managed for long-term timber production. Hence, there appears to be little threat of habitat conversion on mule deer summer ranges within the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ. The one exception to this is in GMU 124, where residential development along the Spokane River and tributaries is resulting in loss of traditional habitat. Mule deer, however, are apparently adapting to this development and are often reported as nuisance or damage issues in the towns along the river.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most mule deer observed within the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ are in places where the deer are generally appreciated. Hence, there have been no conflicts reported specific to mule deer, outside of the Spokane area, and all Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements filed within this

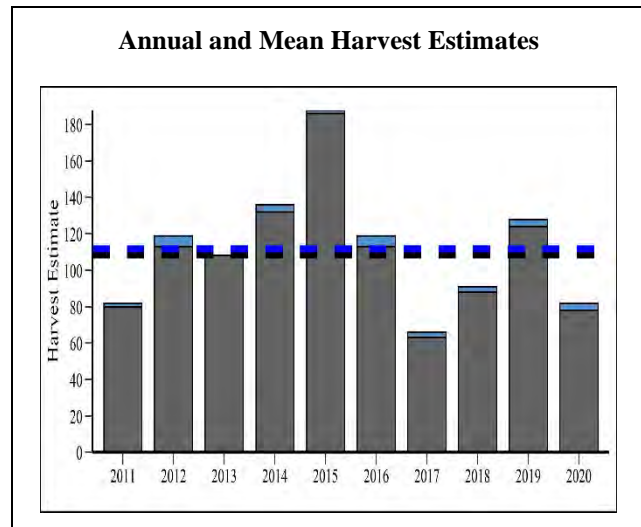


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ, 2011-2020.

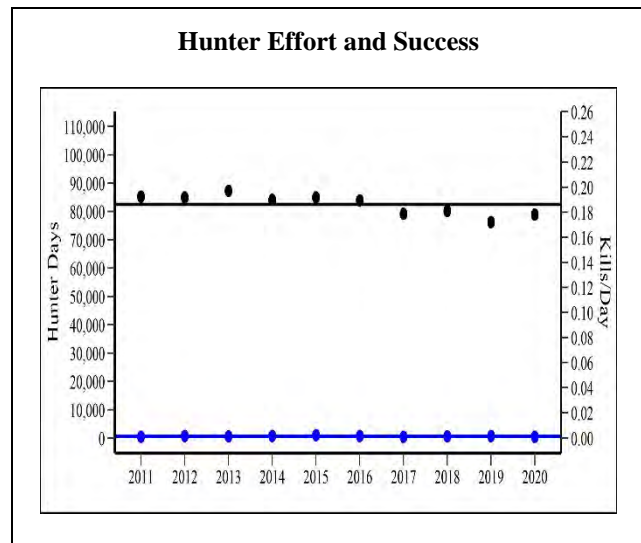


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue); in the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

zone have been specific to conflicts with white-tailed deer in low elevation farmlands. Within the Spokane area, conflicts with mule deer have typically involved damage to landscaping and human safety issues, predominantly vehicle-deer collisions along Hwy 291 and Northwest Blvd.

Management Concerns

The primary management concerns for mule deer in the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ are that numbers appear to be low and restricted in range by suitable habitat.

Management Conclusions

Mule deer populations in the Northern Rocky Mountains MDMZ are not considered to be at risk based upon hunter harvest metrics. The estimated harvest for 2019 was above the 10-year average and the third-highest harvest observed in the last ten years.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2016. Washington State Mule Deer Management Plan, Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, WA, USA. 144 p. [2016 WA State Mule Deer Management Plan](#)

Okanogan Highlands Mule Deer Management Zone

ANNEMARIE PRINCE, Wildlife Biologist
SCOTT FITKIN, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Okanogan Highlands MDMZ is in north-central Washington and includes GMUs 101, 121, and 204 (Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this MDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on field surveys and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does.

Population Surveys

Mule deer are present throughout the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ, but they are more common in the western portion. Pre-hunt road surveys are conducted for white-tailed deer in the eastern portion of the zone, but sample sizes are not sufficient to provide useful information for mule deer.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest trends for the past ten years have been relatively stable (Figure 2). Hunter days have fluctuated in recent years and could be due to shortened season length, and kills/day have remained stable (Figure 3).

Survival and Mortality

A study involving adult female mule deer in the zone, conducted between 2000 and 2007, indicated survival ($\hat{s} = 0.89$, 95% CI = 0.87 – 0.91), pregnancy rates ($\hat{p} = 0.93$, 90% CI = 0.81 – 1.00), and fetal rates ($\hat{f} = 1.44$, 90% CI = 1.03 – 1.85) in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ were sufficient to support stable populations (WDFW, 2016). The study also found that cougars and deer-vehicle collisions were the most common sources of mortality (WDFW, 2016). As of 2014, the Department has been working in collaboration with the University of Washington to provide updated survival information for this zone over the next few years. Predators in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ include black bears, bobcats, coyotes, cougars, golden eagles, and gray wolves.

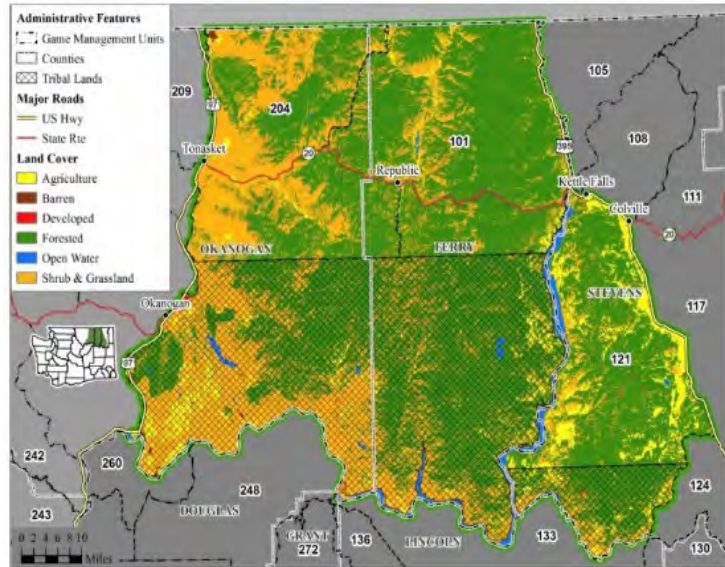


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ.

Habitat

Habitat within the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ is predominantly conifer forest, contributing approximately 61% of the total land cover within the zone. Shrublands, combined with upland grass and herbaceous, along with agricultural lands make up the next highest level in land cover classes, altogether comprising approximately 33% of the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ area. The Okanogan Highlands MDMZ can also be broken down to about 28% public land and 27% private lands, with the remaining 45% comprised of the Colville and Spokane Indian Reservations (WDFW, 2016).

Threats to habitat quality within the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ include continued development and fragmentation of low-elevation habitats, increasing use and distribution of off-road vehicles, and increasing prevalence of invasive weeds. Wildfire also alters habitat throughout this zone. Large landscape-scale wildfires are becoming more frequent within this zone. Wildfires can create an immediate loss of habitat but typically improve forage quality in the years following. Loss of forage on the winter range and reduced concealment cover take longer to recover after wildfires.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most deer conflict is restricted to the lower elevation irrigated agriculture lands throughout the Zone. Specific Deer Areas have been established in the western edge of this Zone with antlerless permit hunt seasons designed to target and reduce deer damage. Permit numbers within each Deer Area fluctuate with the level of reported damage incidents. To date, the program is operating smoothly and appears to be helpful in reducing deer damage complaints. Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCA) and kill permits are also conservatively issued to reduce deer damage throughout the Zone. In 2020, WDFW Conflict Specialists issued 11 damage prevention permits and six kill permits to address deer damage throughout the entire Okanogan Highlands MDMZ. These permits were for the harvest of either a white-tailed deer or mule deer.

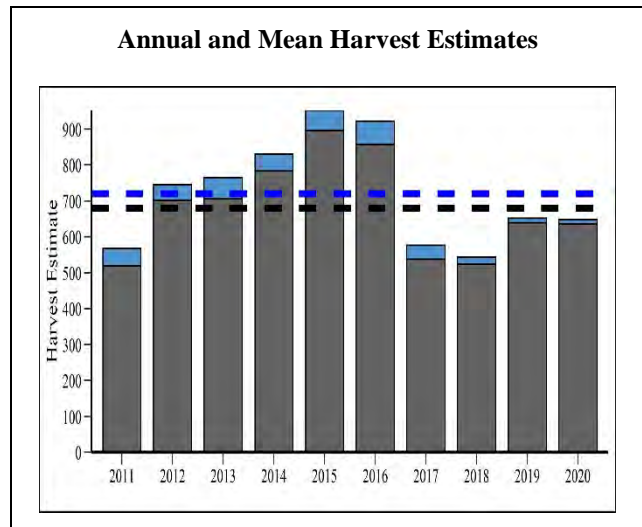


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ, 2011-2020.

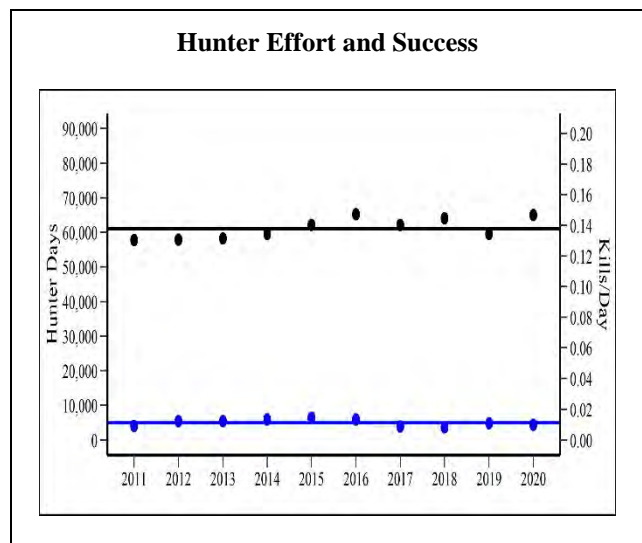


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue); in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

The town of Republic has a resident in-town mule deer population that causes property damage and occasionally poses a safety threat. Historically, the town of Republic was issued kill permits on a yearly basis, so the local police department could address acute deer issues. However, no permits have been requested or issued in recent years.

Significant roadkill occurs in the western edge of this zone along a 12.5-mile segment of State Highway 97 between the towns of Riverside and Tonasket, Washington. The Okanogan Trails Mule Deer Foundation Chapter, Conservation Northwest, the Colville Confederated Tribes and other local, state and national partners are working with the Washington Department of Transportation to install fencing and underpasses along this segment of State Highway 97 to reduce roadkill and provide safer passage. In 2020 one mile of deer fencing was installed on either side of State Highway 97, running south of the Janis Bridge (with associated gates and cattle-guards at access roads), and the Janis Bridge was renovated to serve as a wildlife undercrossing.

Research

There is no research being conducted on mule deer in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ.

Management Concerns

Approximately 28% of the land base comprising the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ is in public ownership. Thus, maximizing hunting opportunities largely depends on securing access to private lands. Major sources of mortality to deer, other than hunting, in this zone include predation by native carnivores and vehicle collisions. Severe winter conditions periodically result in a decline in the over-winter survival of mule deer in this zone, generally affecting fawns more so than adults. Becoming more frequent are summer heat and drought that can foster conditions for severe outbreaks of hemorrhagic disease, reduce available forage deer need to accrue adequate fat stores for winter, and can also result in reduced fawn recruitment. The influence of these factors can complicate how best to balance deer hunting opportunities with herd sustainability.

Management Conclusions

Mule deer populations in the Okanogan Highlands MDMZ are considered stable based on harvest data trend.

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Blue Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone

MARK VEKASY, Wildlife Biologist

PAUL WIK, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Blue Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone (WDMZ) is in southeast Washington and consists of 11 GMUs (154, 157, 162, 163, 166, 169, 172, 175, 178, 181, and 186; Figure 1). GMU 157 is closed to all entry except by permit, and no white-tailed deer hunting is currently permitted. GMUs 145 and 149 are included in the Palouse WDMZ.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this WDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on available survey data and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does (WDFW, 2010).

Population Surveys

White-tailed deer occur throughout the zone, but densities are generally greater in the foothills, riparian corridors, and higher-elevation agricultural areas. Pre-hunt ground surveys are conducted each year to estimate sex and age ratios for both mule deer and white-tailed deer in portions of the zone, and some information is recorded for white-tailed deer during post-hunt aerial mule deer surveys and road-based composition surveys. Estimates vary widely from year to year, with a 10-year pre-hunt mean of 41 bucks:100 does and 49 fawns:100 does. WDFW 2020 monitoring efforts resulted in higher values for bucks, but similar fawn values compared to the mean, with 48 bucks:100 does and 46 fawns:100 doe ratios (Figures 2a and 2b). Road surveys for ratio estimates are not adequate to obtain a population estimate.

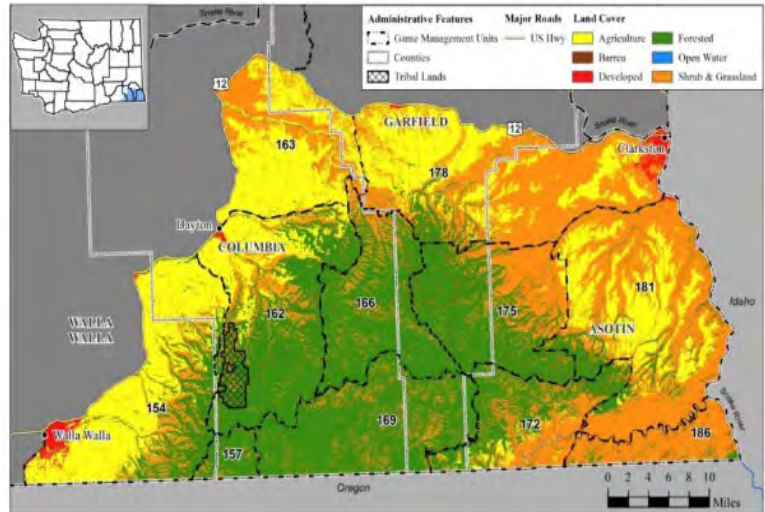


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Blue Mountains WDMZ.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

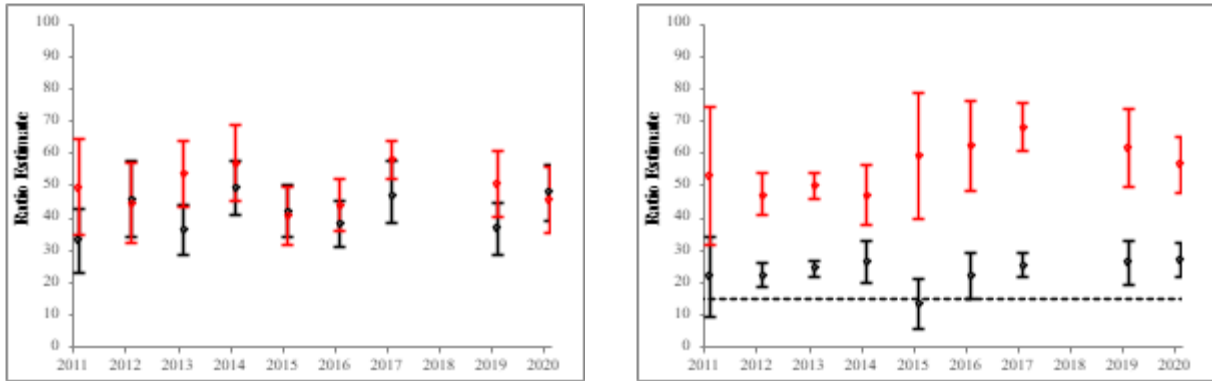


Figure 2. Estimates of buck (black) and fawn (red) ratios per 100 does and post-hunt buck objectives (dashed lines) from (a) pre-hunt (ground-based) and (b) post-hunt (aerial and ground) composition surveys in the Blue Mountains WDMZ, 2011–2020. Years where ground counts were below 100 deer have been excluded.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest estimates for the past ten years (Figure 3) showed a 4-year declining trend, consistent with the number of hunter days, resulting in stable values for harvest/day (Figure 4). This trend was truncated in 2020 with a return near the 10-year averages. The average general season hunter harvest is 855 white-tailed deer per season, with a harvest of 831 estimated for the 2020 season. Estimates of hunter days are for white-tailed and mule deer combined, and the kills/day are for white-tailed deer only; therefore harvest/day is likely underestimated. The numbers of permits issued varies by year, particularly for antlerless deer, depending on factors affecting the population (disease occurrence and severity, winter severity, drought, etc.) and levels of agricultural damage; therefore, the trend in permit harvest is not a good indicator of overall population condition.

A recent permit change was the addition of muzzleloader antlerless permits in GMUs without general season muzzleloader opportunity. In general, there was no net increase in permits, as the Department decreased 2nd deer antlerless permits (or any species antlerless permits) for modern firearm hunters, to avoid overharvesting of antlerless mule deer. Despite adding muzzleloader antlerless permits in 2019, total antlerless permits dropped from a 10-year high of 941 in 2017 to 820 in 2018, down to 775 in 2019 and 2020. As a percentage of total permits issued, youth permits rose to nearly 16%. WDFW also incorporated the use of “any deer” permits for youth starting in 2017, which now includes permit hunts available in five GMUs.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for white-tailed deer herds in the Blue Mountains WDMZ. In addition to legal hunter harvest, other potential sources of white-tailed deer mortality include predation, collisions with vehicles, disease (EHD and Bluetongue), and poaching. Predator species living within this zone include cougar, wolves, bobcat, black bear, coyote, golden eagles, and domestic dogs.

Habitat

Similar to mule deer in this area, white-tailed deer populations are generally habitat limited. Habitat limitations include conversion to croplands from CRP, grazing by domestic livestock, wildfire suppression, invasion of noxious weeds, extensive wind power development, and urban-

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

suburban development that has been detrimental to available habitat in this zone. Dry conditions that develop during the summer growing season, particularly on the east side of the Blue Mountains, are likely a limiting factor to productivity for white-tailed deer. More white-tailed deer are observed on the west side of the District. GMUs 162 and 154 have the highest annual white-tailed deer harvest and account for roughly 65% of the white-tailed harvest in this zone.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

The agricultural damage prevention program is managed by the WDFW Wildlife Program to minimize crop damage through multiple actions, such as issuance of permits in designated Deer Areas, hazing deer out of fields or away from haystacks, and Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreement (DPCA) permits. Qualifying landowners are initially allowed two free kill permits under the DPCA contract, with the requirement of reporting harvest directly to the Conflict Specialist. Kill Permits make up the majority of damage tags given to landowners. Any additional permits are issued as damage permits require the landowner, lessee, or their designee to purchase a damage tag and report any harvest through the licensing system. Most of the harvest has occurred where there would be very little hunting opportunity otherwise, such as in the winery and orchard areas around Walla Walla. From July 2020 through March 2021, two hunters reported hunting with their damage tag, with one reporting a harvest of a mule deer doe and the other with no harvest information. Conflict biologists reported 13 white-tailed does harvested with landowner kill permits in GMUS 154 and 162.

Management Concerns

One of the biggest management concerns for white-tailed deer in the District over the past decade has been the occurrence of epizootic hemorrhagic disease (EHD) or Bluetongue outbreaks. The disease is spread by a biting midge (*Culicoides* spp.), and outbreaks generally occur during drought years when there is limited open water and ample mud for midge breeding habitat, and deer are

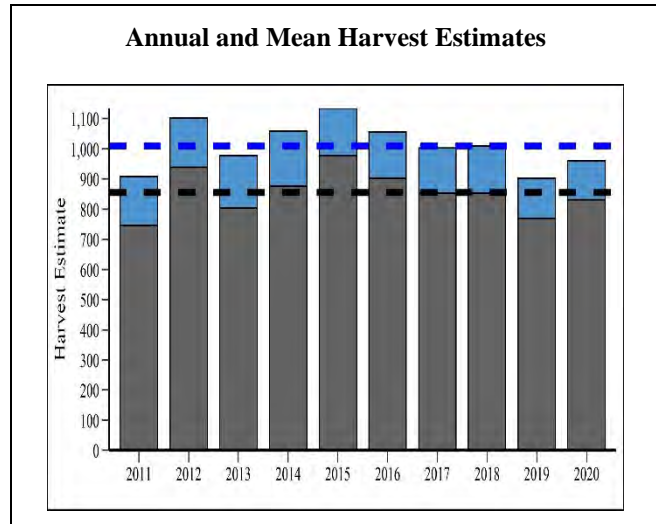


Figure 3. Harvest estimates and 10-year means (dashes lines) for General (gray) and Permit (blue) seasons in the Blue Mountains WDMZ, 2011-2020.

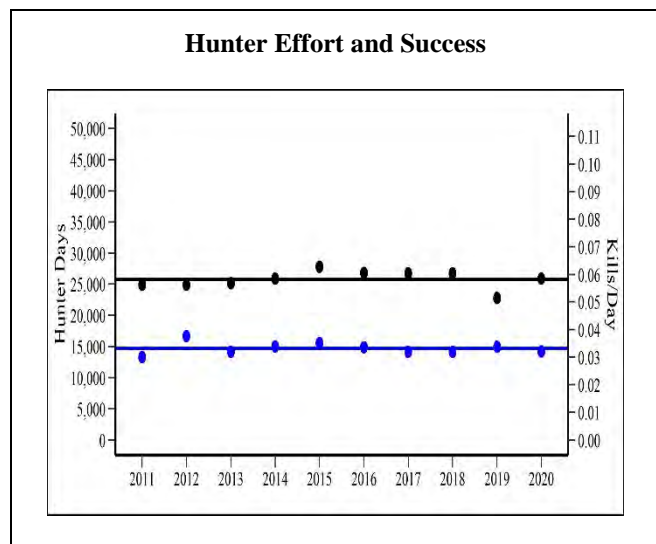


Figure 4. General season estimates (points) and 10-year means (solid lines) for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Blue Mountains WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

concentrated near water sources. Our only management option is to gauge the severity of the outbreak and adjust antlerless permits as appropriate. Habitat conversion is an ongoing issue that has mainly resulted in increasing white-tailed deer damage conflicts. Expansion of residential areas and conversion of crop acreage to wineries and orchards has brought deer into conflict with landowners by eating ornamental shrubs, fruit trees, and vines. Harvest trends in GMU 166 are of specific concern; the 2020 harvest declined over the improved harvest estimate in 2019, but some of this can be attributed to removing all antlerless opportunities from the GMU. Biologists will continue to closely monitor management actions in that unit.

Management Conclusions

White-tailed deer composition metrics in the Blue Mountains WDMZ are currently at management objective for the post-hunt buck:doe ratios, and despite the recent drop in total harvest, hunter success and harvest/unit effort indicate that the population is stable where habitat availability and quality allow.

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Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Washington State Deer Management Plan: White-tailed Deer. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia. 124 pp. [2010 WA State White-tailed Deer Management Plan](#)

Columbia Basin White-tailed Deer Management Zone

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 CARRIE LOWE, Wildlife Biologist
 SEAN DOUGHERTY, Wildlife Biologist
 ELLA ROWAN, Wildlife Biologist
 JASON FIDORRA, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Columbia Basin White-tailed Deer Management Zone (WDMZ) is located in east-central Washington and consists of eight GMUs (136, 272, 278, 284, 290, 373, 379, and 381; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department’s objective within this WDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on harvest trends. The Columbia Basin is not optimal white-tailed deer habitat and there is no management objective to change the distribution or numbers of the few white-tailed deer that reside there (WDFW, 2010).

Population Surveys

GMUs within this zone are primarily managed for mule deer, but white-tailed deer are present at low densities throughout the Columbia Basin WDMZ. No survey work specific to white-tailed deer is being conducted in this WDMZ at this time.

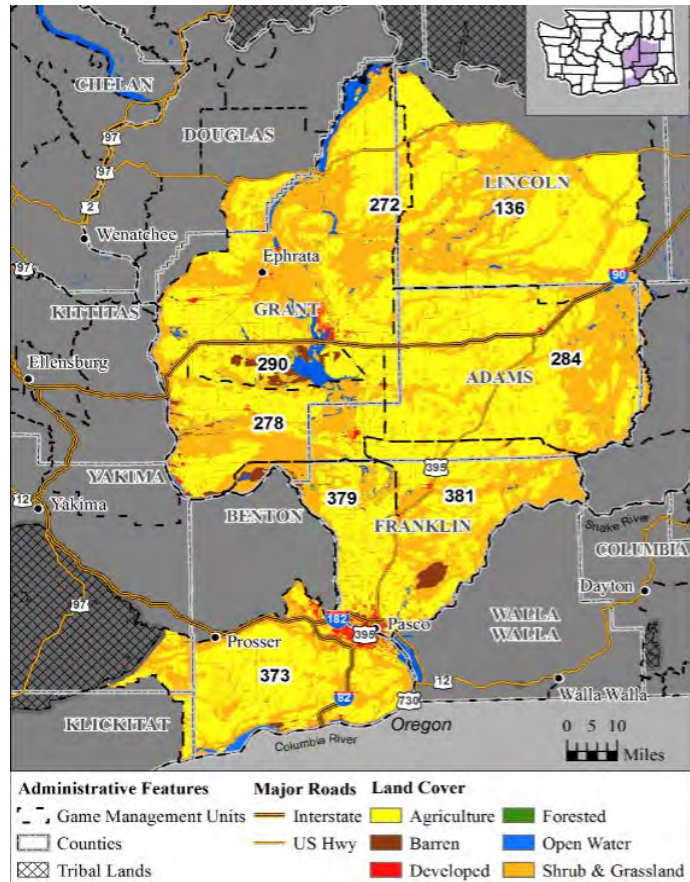


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Columbia Basin WDMZ.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Estimated harvest is low overall for this zone, reflective of the availability of preferred habitat for white-tailed deer (Figure 2). Harvest has been declining the past five years (Figure 2). Measures of hunter effort (hunter days; Figure 3) and harvest rate (kills/day; Figure 3) in the zone include days spent hunting all deer (i.e., mule deer) so are less useful as indicators of population trend but have remained relatively stable the past ten years. The decline in harvest and kills/day since 2015 is due to the drought and associated Bluetongue (BT) outbreak that year resulting in reduced white-tailed deer numbers and recruitment. The continued negative trend in harvest since is likely due to

the hard winters of 2016/17 and 2018/19, as well as two minor outbreaks of Epizootic hemorrhagic disease (EHD) in 2018 and 2019 in GMU 136, where a significant amount of white-tail harvest for this zone traditionally occurs. In addition, a wildfire burned over 127,000 acres of GMU 136 in September 2020. Hunter success and effort in this zone is correlated to access to private land (86% of the zone is private land); if private landowners are not opening their land to hunters due to perceived low white-tailed deer numbers this can have a marked effect on harvest.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for white-tailed deer in the Columbia Basin WDMZ. Similar to mule deer, other sources of mortality in this zone likely include collisions with vehicles, drowning in irrigation canals, poaching, and predation. Predator species living within this zone include cougars, bobcats, black bears, gray wolves (transients have been observed but there are no known packs confirmed within this WDMZ at the time of this writing), coyotes, golden eagles, and domestic dogs. Black bears are not common in open shrub-steppe landscapes but do occur at low levels in some parts of the Columbia Basin. Cougars are comparatively more common.

Habitat

The Columbia Basin zone represents the periphery of white-tailed deer distribution in central Washington, and habitats present are generally more suitable for mule deer. The overall numbers of white-tailed deer are low in all GMUs within the zone; generally, white-tailed deer are found mostly in the eastern portion of the zone and in association with habitats of very limited extent, such as riparian areas along creeks and streams, CRP grasslands, and non-intensive agricultural tracts. White-tailed deer use in the extensive tracts of shrub-steppe within the zone is not common.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Given the relatively small number of white-tailed deer in this zone, there are no significant white-tailed deer specific issues.

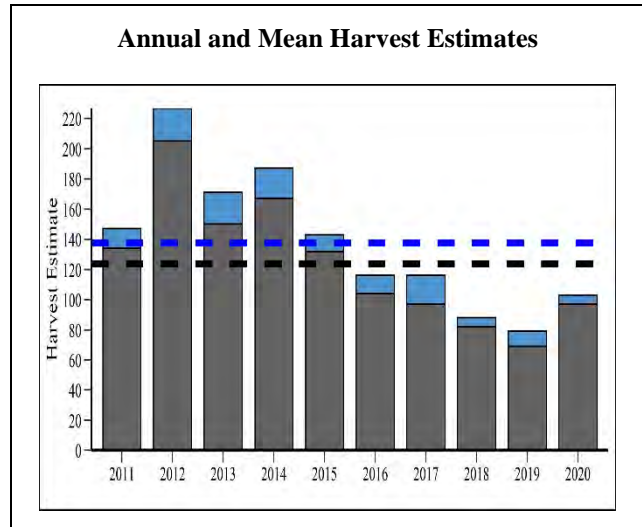


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Columbia Basin WDMZ, 2011-2020.

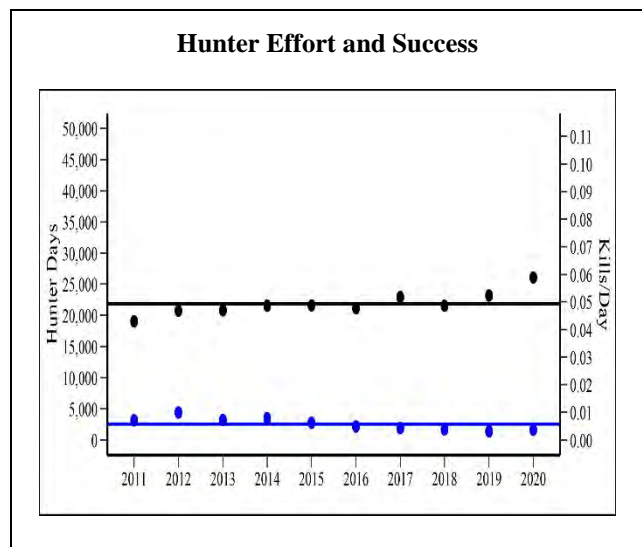


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Columbia Basin WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Management Concerns

Drought and loss of riparian habitat are the most important issues facing white-tailed deer in the Columbia Basin WDMZ. Disease is also a concern in this zone, which regularly has white-tailed deer mortalities due to BT and EHD. These mortality events are typically small in number and isolated, however in drought years the number of mortalities can be high and widespread. The western and southern portion of the WDMZ have had a low level of occurrence of these pathogens but also have lower numbers of white-tailed deer.

Management Conclusions

White-tailed deer populations in the Columbia Basin WDMZ are below management objective based on harvest data that indicate a declining population. In order to quicken the pace of recovery, all general season antlerless opportunity in GMU 136 was removed in 2021. The only exception is for youth hunters that can still harvest an antlerless white-tailed deer, but only during the last weekend of the general modern firearm season.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Washington State Deer Management Plan: White-tailed Deer. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia. 124 pp. [2010 WA State White-tailed Deer Management Plan](#)

North Cascade Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone

SCOTT FITKIN, Wildlife Biologist
JEFF HEINLEN, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The North Cascade Mountains White-tailed Deer Management Zone (WDMZ) is located in north-central Washington and consists of 11 GMUs (209, 215, 218, 224, 231, 233, 239, 242, 243, 247, and 250; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this WDMZ is to maintain stable populations based on harvest estimates (WDFW, 2010).

Population Surveys

GMUs within the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ are primarily managed for mule deer, but white-tailed deer are present at low densities throughout the zone. No formal surveys uniquely designed for white-tailed deer are conducted in this WDMZ.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest estimates for the last 10-years have been low compared with mule deer harvest but relatively stable (Figure 2). Estimates of hunter effort (which include mule deer hunters) and harvest rates have been variable in recent years, generally tracking the trends seen with mule deer (Figure 3). This is to be expected since many hunters will harvest either species opportunistically during the general seasons.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for white-tailed deer in the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ. Mortality sources in this zone include legal hunting, vehicle collisions, domestic dogs, poaching, and predation. Several predators occur within the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ including black bears, bobcats, cougars, coyotes, golden eagles, and gray wolves. The effects of predation on white-tailed deer in this zone are unknown, but not believed to be population limiting.

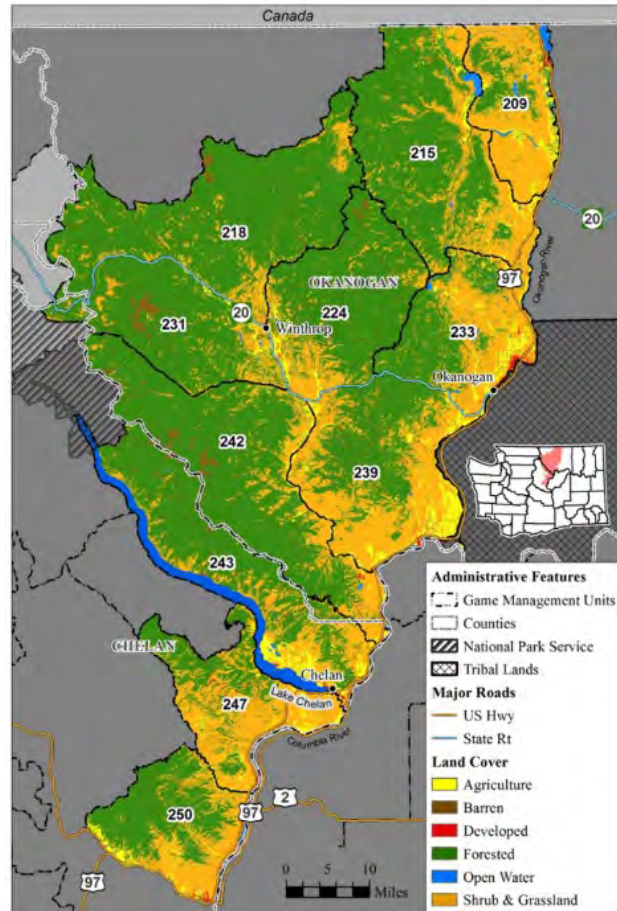


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ.

Habitat

Habitat related considerations in this zone include continued development and fragmentation of low-elevation habitats, increasing use and distribution of off-road vehicles, and increasing prevalence of invasive weeds.

Large, landscape-scale wildfires are becoming more frequent within this zone. Wildfires can create an immediate loss of habitat but typically improve summer forage quality in the years following. Loss of forage on the winter range and reduced concealment cover take longer to recover after wildfires and may increase winter fawn mortality for several years post-fire. Also becoming more frequent are summer heat and drought that can reduce the quality and quantity of available deer forage. This can affect the ability of animals to accrue adequate fat stores for winter and can also result in reduced fawn production/recruitment.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most deer conflict is restricted to the lower elevation irrigated agriculture lands throughout the Zone. Specific Deer Areas have been established in the northern portion of this Zone with antlerless permit hunt seasons designed to target and reduce deer damage. Permit numbers within each Deer Area fluctuate with the level of reported damage incidents. To date, the program is operating smoothly and appears to be helpful in reducing deer damage complaints. Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCA) and Kill permits are also conservatively issued to reduce deer damage throughout the Zone. In 2020, WDFW Conflict Specialists issued only 19 deer (Mule or White-tailed deer) permits to address deer damage throughout the entire North Cascade Mountains WDMZ.

Significant roadkill occurs in the northern portion of this zone in the Methow Valley and along a 12.5-mile segment of State Highway 97 between the towns of Riverside and Tonasket, Washington. The Okanogan Trails Mule Deer Foundation Chapter, Conservation Northwest, the

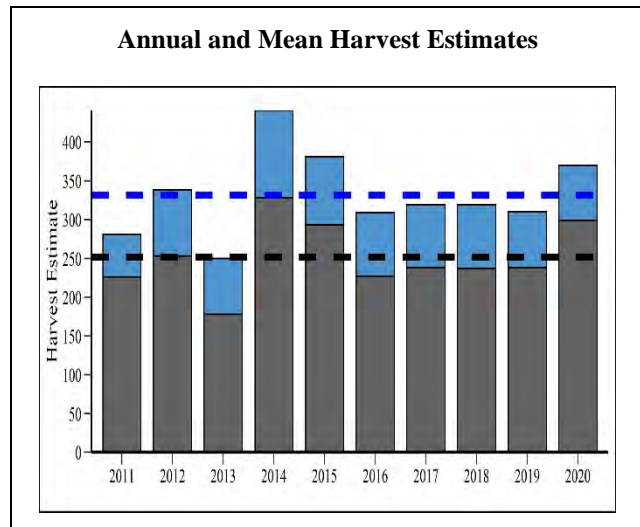


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for (a) General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ, 2011-2020.

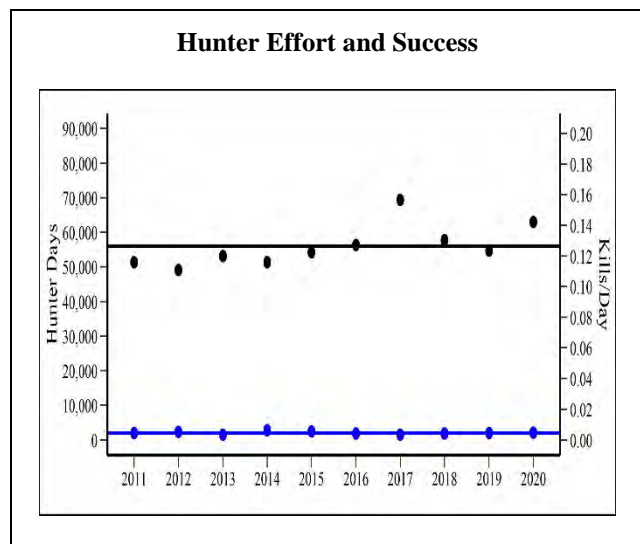


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Colville Confederated Tribes and other local, state and national partners are working with the Washington Department of Transportation to install fencing and underpasses along this segment of State Highway 97 to reduce roadkill and provide safer passage. In 2020, one mile of deer fencing on either side of State Highway 97 running south of the Janis Bridge (with associated gates and cattle-guards at access roads) was completed. Additionally, the Janis Bridge was renovated to serve as a wildlife undercrossing.

Management Concerns

Chronic loss of habitat to development and recurring loss of winter-range shrub forage to wildfires are primary management concerns in the northern three-fourths of the zone. Degradation of summer range habitat due to a warming climate and increasing drought frequency and intensity is also an issue. More frequent and/or severe outbreaks of adenovirus and hemorrhagic diseases potentially related to climate change are also growing concerns.

Management Conclusions

White-tailed deer populations in the North Cascade Mountains WDMZ are currently healthy and harvest estimates indicate a stable to slightly growing population.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Washington State Deer Management Plan: White-tailed Deer. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia. 124 pp. [2010 WA State White-tailed Deer Management Plan](#)

Okanogan Highlands White-tailed Deer Management Zone

JEFF HEINLEN, Wildlife Biologist

ANNEMARIE PRINCE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Okanogan Highlands White-tailed Deer Management Zone is in north-central Washington and includes GMUs 101 and 204 (Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this WDMZ is to maintain stable populations based on field surveys and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does (WDFW, 2010).

Population Surveys

White-tailed deer are present throughout the Okanogan Highlands

WDMZ but are more common in the eastern portion. Because estimates of total white-tailed deer abundance in this zone are not practical, pre-hunt ground surveys were conducted in the past in the eastern half of the zone to estimate buck:doe ratios (a rough annual measure of the effect of harvest on the population) over time. In 2020, no pre-hunt surveys were conducted within this zone. The forested landscape and limited visibility experienced during road surveys in this zone generally result in low sample sizes, which prevent calculation of confidence intervals and limit any conclusions that can be made about the status of population in the Okanogan Highlands.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest estimates have been mostly stable over the last decade except for a slight increase in 2014 and 2015. The number of hunter days reported held near the 10-year average until it dipped slightly below in 2019 and slightly above in 2020. Kills/day and harvest have declined below the 10-year average since 2017 (Figures 2 & 3).

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for white-tailed deer in the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ.

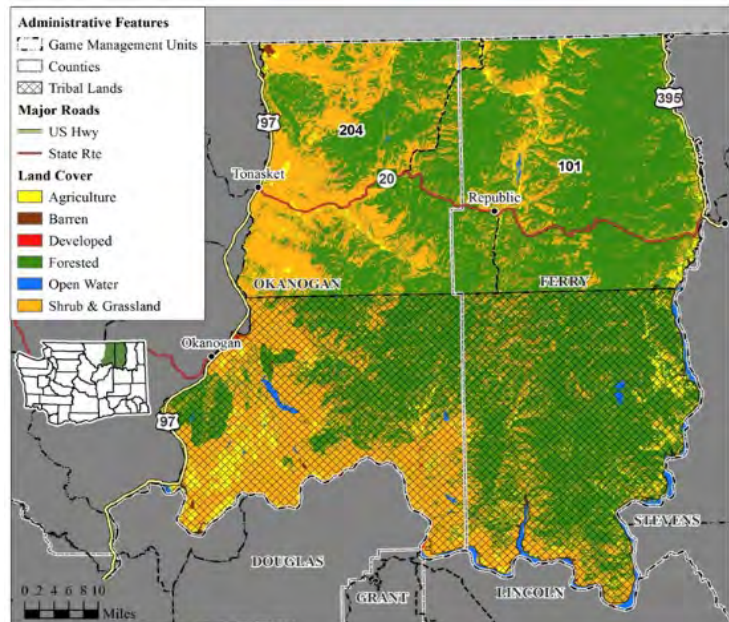


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

In addition to legal hunter harvest, other potential sources of white-tailed deer mortality include disease, poaching, collisions with vehicles, and predation. Predator species that occur within this zone include cougar, bobcat, black bear, gray wolf, coyote, golden eagles, and domestic dogs.

Habitat

Habitat within the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ is predominantly conifer forest, contributing approximately 55% of the total land cover within the zone. Shrub land combined with grassland, pasture, and cultivated crops make up the next highest level in land cover classes, altogether comprising approximately 41% of the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ area. These cover classes combined produce the highest densities of white-tailed deer, particularly in the valley bottoms where deer have both forage and cover resources in close proximity. Although cultivated crops alone account for only 0.7% of the aforementioned land cover, their influence on support of the white-tailed deer population cannot be overstated. The Okanogan Highlands WDMZ can also be broken down to about 31% public land and 19% private lands with the remaining 50% comprised of the Colville Indian Reservation (WDFW, 2010).

Threats to habitat quality within the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ include continued development and fragmentation of low-elevation habitats, increasing use and distribution of off-road vehicles, and increasing prevalence of invasive weeds. Large landscape-scale wildfires are becoming more frequent within this zone. Wildfires can create an immediate loss of habitat but typically improve forage quality in the years following. Loss of forage on the winter range and reduced concealment cover take longer to recover.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most deer conflict is restricted to the lower elevation irrigated agriculture lands throughout the Zone. Specific Deer Areas have been established in the western edge of this Zone with antlerless

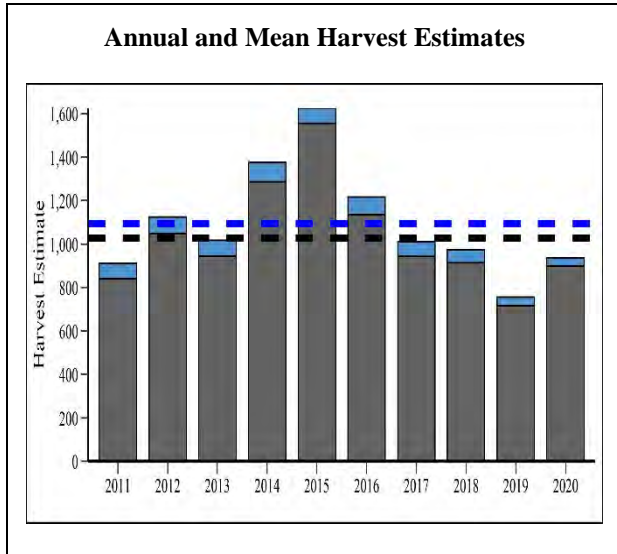


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for (a) General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ, 2011-2020.

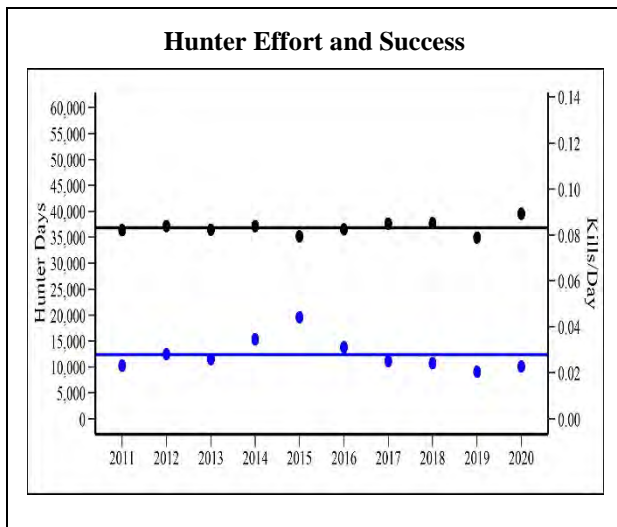


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

permit hunt seasons designed to target and reduce deer damage. Permit numbers within each Deer Area fluctuate with the level of reported damage incidents. To date, the program is operating smoothly and appears to be helpful in reducing deer damage complaints. Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCA) and kill permits are also conservatively issued to reduce deer damage throughout the Zone. In 2020, WDFW Conflict Specialists issued 11 (mule deer and white-tailed deer) of these permits to address deer damage within GMU 204 of the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ. Within GMU 101, Conflict Specialists issued three (mule deer or white-tailed deer) damage prevention permits to address damage.

Research

There is no ongoing research on white-tailed deer in the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ.

Management Concerns

As less than half the land base comprising the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ is in public ownership (31%), maximizing hunting opportunities largely depends on securing access to private lands. Closely coupled to this concern is the availability of cultivated crop land cover, particularly cereal grain and alfalfa hay, to the deer. Cultivated crops are a major driver to white-tailed deer density and productivity in northeastern Washington and beyond. Besides hunting, the other major sources of mortality to deer in this zone include predation by both native carnivores and domestic dogs, and road kills from vehicle collisions. Periodically, but unpredictably, a severe winter will cause major deer loss. Also unpredictable, but becoming more frequent, are summer heat and drought that can foster conditions for severe outbreaks of hemorrhagic disease, reduce available forage deer need to accrue adequate fat stores for winter, and can also result in reduced fawn recruitment. The influence of these diverse factors can greatly complicate how best to balance deer hunting opportunity with herd sustainability. The winter of 2020 was mild to moderate, and there were no reported large outbreaks of hemorrhagic disease that summer.

Significant roadkill occurs in the western edge of this zone along a 12.5-mile segment of State Highway 97 between the towns of Riverside and Tonasket, Washington. The Okanogan Trails Mule Deer Foundation Chapter, Conservation Northwest, the Colville Confederated Tribes and other local, state and national partners are working with the Washington Department of Transportation to install fencing and underpasses along this segment of State Highway 97 to reduce roadkill and provide safer passage. In 2020 both a one mile of deer fencing on either side of State Highway 97 running south of the Janis Bridge (with associated gates and cattle-guards at access roads) and a renovation of Janis Bridge to serve as a wildlife undercrossing was completed.

Management Conclusions

White-tailed deer populations in the Okanogan Highlands WDMZ are considered stable based on harvest data trend, but remain below the 10-year average.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Washington State Deer Management Plan: White-tailed Deer. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia. 124 pp. [2010 WA State White-tailed Deer Management Plan](#)

Palouse White-tailed Deer Management Zone

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MARK VEKASY, Wildlife Biologist
PAUL WIK, Wildlife Biologist
CARRIE LOWE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Palouse White-tailed Deer Management Zone is located in east-central Washington and consists of seven GMUs in Districts 2 and 3 (127, 130, 133, 139, 142, 145, 149; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this WDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on available survey data and harvest trends. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks per 100 does (WDFW, 2010).

Population Surveys

White-tailed deer are present at moderate to high densities throughout the Palouse WDMZ. The Palouse WDMZ is split into two areas for management purposes; the North Palouse comprised of those GMUs north of the Snake River (GMUs 127 – 142; District 2) and the South Palouse comprised of those GMUs south of the Snake River (GMUs 145 and 149; District 3).

South Palouse

White-tailed deer are not a management focus in the South Palouse; the area supports less than 20% of the total Palouse Zone white-tailed deer harvest. Most of the management is directed towards mule deer, and any population information for white-tailed deer is incidental to that collected for mule deer. Pre-hunt ground surveys are conducted throughout the two GMUs, but sample sizes for white-tailed deer from ground composition surveys are too small and variable to be robust indicators of the population. For a baseline reference, biologists conducted an aerial survey in December 2017, sampling across portions of GMUs 145 and 149 and obtained a raw count of 669 white-tailed deer. They flew surveys following sightability model protocols, but the model was not designed nor validated for white-tailed deer, so survey area estimates were not calculated. The post-hunt buck:doe ratio was 31.8 (90% CI = 22.9-44.3), and the fawn:doe ratio was 65.6 (90% CI = 57.9-74.3). Researchers conducted a survey in the same area but different subunits in 2018 and eliminated counts of white-tailed deer in some subunits due to poor weather

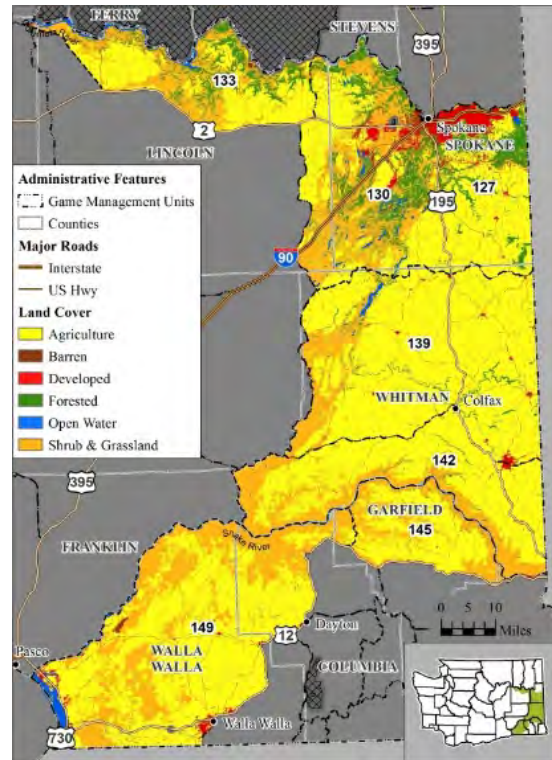


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Palouse WDMZ.

conditions placing time constraints on the survey; therefore, those counts are not adequate for ratio estimates. During 2020 post-hunt road surveys, biologists only counted 126 white-tailed deer for ratios of 41 bucks and 59 fawns per 100 does.

North Palouse

Pre-hunt ground surveys are conducted throughout the North Palouse. The goal of these surveys is to estimate deer herd composition not population size; therefore, routes are altered annually, as needed, to reflect changes in habitat and agricultural crops. Routes are run twice each year; once in August for buck to doe ratios to estimate buck recruitment, and once in September for fawn to doe ratios to estimate fawn production. Though the ratio data indicate stable recruitment of bucks, production of fawns dipped down between 2016 and 2018 (Figure 2).

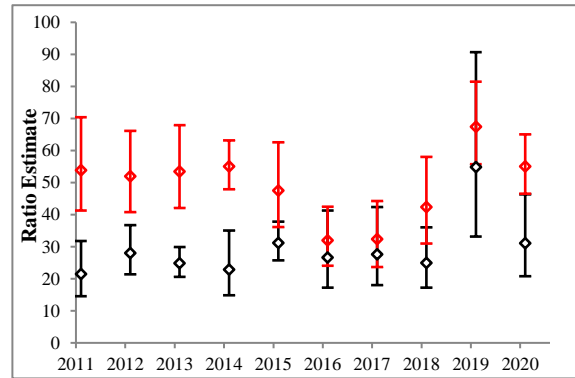


Figure 2. Estimated pre-hunt fawn:doe (◊) and buck:doe (◊) ratios and associated 90% confidence intervals in North Palouse WDMZ (GMUs 127 – 142), 2011-2020.

Drought conditions that extended well into October and the associated Bluetongue (BT) outbreak in 2015 were likely factors in the decrease in production seen in 2016. The hard winter in 2016-17 likely contributed to the low production in 2017, and there was a small Epizootic hemorrhagic disease (EHD) outbreak in the northwest of this zone in 2018 that likely contributed to the lower production that year. The high ratio estimates in 2019 indicated good recruitment and production, however the counts that produced these estimates were the lowest in the past 10 years. As noted above, routes are not designed to estimate abundance, however the low counts are indicative that the 2018/19 winter extending into April had an impact on the overwinter survival. The good news is that those does that survived had higher fawn production and/or fawn survival than in previous years. Ratios from 2020 are more in line with the long term averages and hopefully indicate a return to more normal recruitment and survival.

Ratio estimates should not be interpreted as an index to population abundance; they are a relative annual measure of the effect of harvest and reproduction of deer populations and provide a general indication of whether a population is stable, increasing, or decreasing. In conjunction with harvest estimates, these measures are used to inform management decisions each year.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest has declined by ~40% during the past five years compared to the five years (2011-2015) previous (Figure 3). Estimates of hunter effort and kills/day have also declined for the past five years (Figure 4). However, estimates of hunter effort (i.e., hunter days; Figure 4) in this zone are not white-tailed specific and include days spent hunting mule deer, while kill data is specific to white-tailed deer, therefore kills/day estimates are biased low.

Similar to ratio estimates discussed above, the negative trend in harvest, hunter days, and kills/day since 2015 is likely due to the 2015 drought and associated BT outbreak, the hard winter of 2016-

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

17, the small EHD outbreak in 2018, and the extended winter of 2018/19. An additional variable to consider when interpreting harvest data is that 94% of this zone is private land. If private landowners are not opening their land to hunters due to perceived low white-tailed deer numbers, this can have a marked effect on harvest above and beyond the true population status. Given the trends in harvest data and pre-season ratios all general season antlerless opportunity was removed in GMUs 127 through 142. The only exception was for youth hunters that can still harvest an antlerless white-tailed deer, but only during the last weekend of the general season.

The South Palouse currently comprises roughly 18% of the total Palouse harvest, and although this portion of the Palouse Zone has not experienced BT to the same degree as the North Palouse, harvest changes have followed a similar pattern. Although individual GMUs show very different harvest trends, both GMU 145 and 149 showed significant white-tailed deer harvest improvements in 2020, both being slightly above the previous 5-year averages. Although antlerless permit numbers have increased since 2013 in response to damage complaints and high general season harvest success (indicating more available harvest opportunities), WDFW decreased permit numbers in 2018 in response to harvest declines. Most of the harvests are attributed to Youth/Senior/Disabled general seasons and early and late general archery season opportunities. The Department will continue to monitor general season harvest to determine if antlerless opportunity should be managed through the permit system.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are available for white-tailed deer in the Palouse WDMZ. Like mule deer, sources of mortality in this zone include harvest, collisions with vehicles, poaching, disease, and predation. Predator species living within this zone include cougars, bobcats, black bears, coyotes, golden eagles, and domestic dogs.

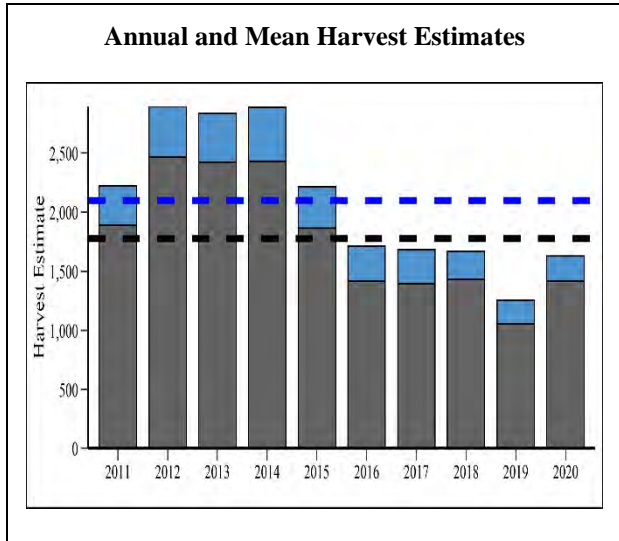


Figure 3. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for (a) General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Palouse WDMZ, 2011-2020.

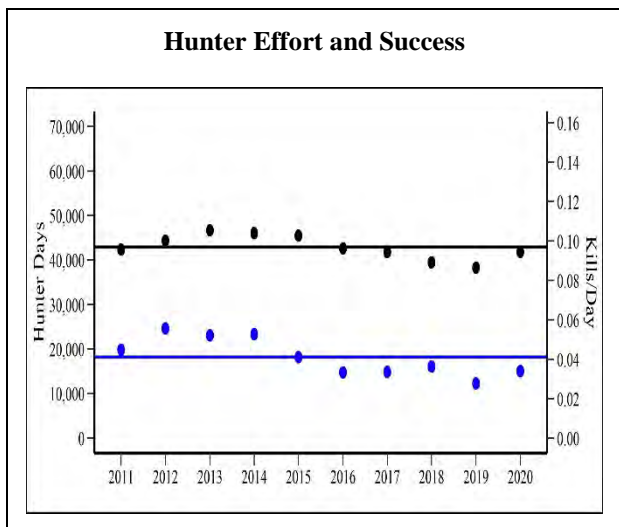


Figure 4. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Palouse WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Habitat

The Palouse WDMZ includes five broad habitat types: active agricultural fields, Conservation Reserve Program (CRP) fields (primarily grasslands), a native grass/shrub complex (primarily along the breaks of the Snake River), coniferous forest, and riparian. Locations obtained during aerial and ground surveys have shown a relationship between white-tailed deer and riparian corridors, primarily the Palouse, Spokane, Little Spokane, Touchet, Tucannon, and Walla Walla rivers and some creeks and hollows, such as Rock, Union Flat, Meadow, and Deadman creeks. Surveyors observe fewer white-tailed deer than mule deer along the Snake River breaks and unbroken CRP fields, and more whitetails associated with shrubby draws intermixed with active agricultural fields. Coniferous forest habitat exists primarily in the north of this WDMZ and is intensively used by white-tailed deer, especially when it is associated with agricultural fields. White-tailed deer have also taken advantage of larger acreage (10-20-acre) semi-rural development where forage and cover are present and predation risk (human and non-human) is reduced.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

High numbers of vehicle collisions with white-tailed and mule deer are a problem along State Highways 195, 26 and 2, and Interstate 90 in the North Palouse WDMZ. WDFW works with the Washington State Department of Transportation when hot spots are identified to come up with solutions.

Additionally, crop damage is reported annually in some portions of all GMUs in the North Palouse and is likely to increase as farmers switch to higher value crops like garbanzo beans. Antlerless harvest is the primary tool used to address crop damage; in the South Palouse WDFW applies it both at a broad (GMU-wide) scale through general season antlerless opportunity for archery, muzzleloader, youth, senior, disabled, and antlerless only permits and second deer tags, as well as at the individual landowner scale through damage and kill permits. In the North Palouse, with the removal of the vast majority of our general and permit season antlerless opportunity, our primary tool for addressing damage will be at the individual landowner scale until this population recovers.

Deer crop damage complaints in the South Palouse WDMZ, as measured by damage permits issued, account for approximately 44% of the permits issued across District 3, but the majority of complaints are related to mule deer. There are isolated damage issues with white-tailed deer along the boundary of GMU 149 with GMU 154 near Walla Walla where some orchard, vineyard, and strawberry damage is attributable to white-tailed deer. In response to increasing damage complaints, antlerless permit numbers have increased by 200 across both GMUs since 2013, with 45 of those permits specifically for white-tailed deer.

Management Concerns

Mass conversion of natural habitats to agriculture occurred over the past century, but represent relatively minor changes today. Gains have been made in deer habitat with enrollment of agricultural acres into the Conservation Reserve Program (CRP). However, with current wheat, lentil, garbanzo bean, and hay prices, several landowners have chosen not to re-enroll in CRP after their contracts expired. In addition, there has been a recent reduction in funding available for CRP, and many expiring contracts have not been eligible for renewal.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Habitat loss due to development is of concern in GMUs 127 and 130, with the redistribution of Spokane's urban populations outward into rural settings. High-density development (>1 house per acre) removes less habitat than low-density development (<1 house per 10 acres), but tends to permanently displace deer. While low-density development incorporates more habitat, direct disturbance is less, and more habitat is usable by deer post-construction. However, these deer tend to become damage/nuisance deer. Currently, the district promotes high-density clustered development with larger open space areas, with the hope of maintaining larger tracts of habitat that supply some connectivity.

Bluetongue (BT) and Epizootic Hemorrhagic Disease (EHD) occur in this zone and likely cause a small number of isolated mortalities every year. During droughts, these disease events can be more severe and can affect white-tailed deer herds across multiple Management Zones. This occurred in 2015 when white-tailed deer deaths related to BT were reported in the Palouse, Columbia Basin, and Selkirk WDMZs. Given climate change and the trend towards warmer, dryer summers we may see more BT and EHD outbreaks in the future.

Management Conclusions

Based on harvest metrics and survey data, white-tailed deer populations in the Palouse WDMZ appear to have declined. White-tailed deer populations generally rebound quickly from weather and disease related events, due to their naturally high reproductive potential (McCullough, 1987). However, due to the number of events in such a short period and to support faster recovery, WDFW will be reducing antlerless harvest opportunities.

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- Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2010. Washington State Deer Management Plan: White-tailed Deer. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia. 124 pp. [2010 WA State White-tailed Deer Management Plan](#)

Selkirk White-tailed Deer Management Zone

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CARRIE LOWE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Selkirk WDMZ is in northeast Washington and consists of seven Game Management Units (GMUs 105, 108, 111, 113, 117, 121, and 124; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this WDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on harvest estimates and available survey data. Additional management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of 15-19 bucks:100 does (WDFW, 2010).

GMUs 105 through 121 have similar rural characteristics, climatic traits, land ownership patterns, and cover types; hence management prescriptions and white-tailed deer hunting regulations are uniform throughout these six GMUs.

GMU 124, however, is dominated by the metropolitan area of Spokane in the south of the unit and extensive small agricultural properties in the north valleys interspersed with conifer forest in the foothills and mountains. Many of these small, private property owners do not allow hunting, thus functioning as quasi-sanctuaries. This, combined with the generally milder winters in GMU 124, results in greater deer abundance than in the northern GMUs. Consequently, hunting regulations are formulated to be more liberal as a mechanism to help keep the white-tailed deer population within local landowner tolerance.

Population Surveys

To date, a reliable estimate of deer population size for this zone has been unattainable due to forest cover, deer behavior, staff availability, and funding limitations. As a result, pre-hunt ground surveys are conducted in the Selkirk zone to estimate age and sex ratios, which provide managers with a relative measure of the effect of harvest (bucks:100 does) and reproduction (fawns:100 does) on deer population status within the zone. These measures are used to inform management decisions each year.

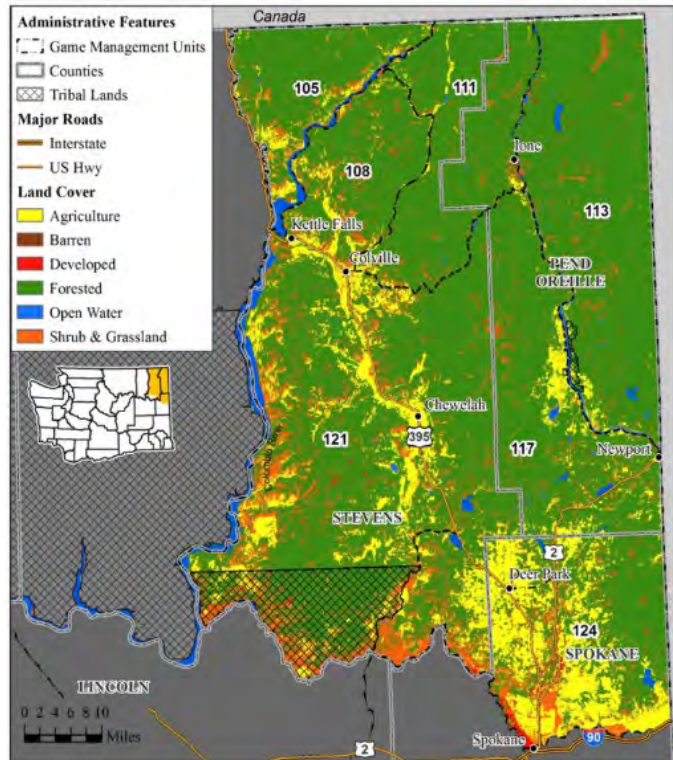


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Selkirk WDMZ.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

The pre-hunt buck:doe ratio estimates from surveys conducted in GMUs 105-121 during the last 10 years (Figure 2) indicate no significant change since 2013. The 2020 fawn:doe ratio for GMUs 105-121 was 64:100 (90% CI = 53-76). This estimate is higher than the estimates calculated over the previous 10 years.

In GMU 124, the pre-hunt buck:doe ratio estimate was 35:100 (90% CI = 27-45, $n = 315$) in 2020, high compared to the previous 10-yr average of 26:100. The fawn:doe ratio estimate was 56:100 (90% CI = 51-62, $n = 511$) in 2020, in line with the previous 10-year average of 55:100.

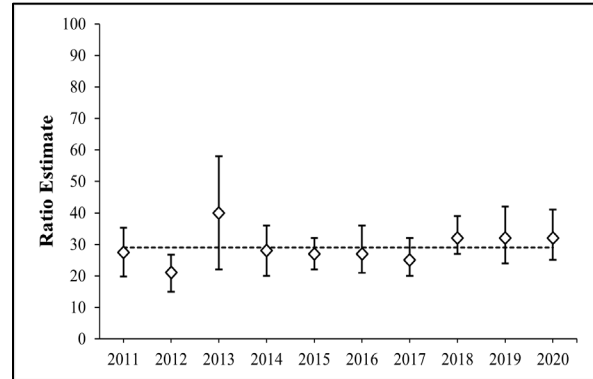


Figure 2. Estimated pre-hunt buck:doe ratios, 90% CIs, and 10-yr average (dotted line) for GMUs 105-121 in the Selkirk WDMZ, 2011-2020.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Estimates of white-tailed deer harvest in this zone declined between 2008 and 2011, coincident with two consecutive harsh winters in 2008 and 2009 which suppressed fawn recruitment (Figure 3). In addition, there was a decline observed from 2015 to 2019, likely as a result of a wide-spread blue-tongue outbreak in 2015, followed by a severe winter in 2016/17, and another hard winter in 2018/19. White-tailed deer populations generally rebound quickly from such temporary weather and disease related events, due to their naturally high reproductive potential (McCullough, 1987). However, due to the number of events in a short period and to support faster recovery, WDFW reduced antlerless harvest opportunity. Estimates of harvest and kills/day (Figure 3), as well as ratio estimates from our annual ground surveys, indicate populations are still below the pre-2015 level.

Survival and Mortality

The most recent estimates of survival for adult does in the zone were 0.87 (SD = 0.05; Henderson, 2014). Mortalities documented during the study were predominantly due to cougars, domestic dogs, and deer-vehicle collisions (Henderson, 2014). Other predators in this zone include black bear, grizzly bear, coyote, wolves and golden eagles.

Regarding recent disease concerns in the zone, white-tailed deer populations throughout the country can be affected, to varying degrees, each fall by different hemorrhagic diseases; most often Epizootic Hemorrhagic Disease (EHD) and Bluetongue Disease. Bluetongue and EHD both naturally occur in this zone and typically cause a relatively small number of mortalities every year. During severe droughts, as happened in fall 2015, these disease events can be more pronounced and affect localized white-tailed deer herds in multiple Management Zones. Because regional weather patterns can substantially affect the scale and locality of an outbreak, incidences are neither predictable nor preventable. Though intense outbreaks, like that experienced in the Selkirk WDMZ in 2015 can be alarming, white-tailed deer appear to be well adapted to survive such ecological challenges due to high reproductive potential (McCullough, 1987).

Habitat

Habitat within the Selkirk WDMZ is predominantly conifer forest, contributing approximately 68% of the total land cover within the zone. Shrub land combined with grassland, pasture, and cultivated crops make up the next highest level in land cover classes, altogether comprising nearly 21% of the Selkirk WDMZ area. These cover classes combined produce the highest densities of white-tailed deer, particularly within the farm and forest mosaic where deer have both forage and cover resources in close proximity. Although cultivated crops alone account for only 2.4% of the aforementioned land cover, their influence on support of the white-tailed deer population cannot be overstated. The Selkirk WDMZ can also be broken down to about 37% public land and 57% private lands with the remaining 6% in other categories (WDFW, 2010).

Human-Wildlife Interaction

The Selkirk WDMZ is home to the largest populations of white-tailed deer in the state. Areas with large concentrations of agricultural and suburban land uses tend to attract and perpetuate greater densities of white-tailed deer than would normally occur in the wild. This interaction often leads to increased incidence of human-wildlife conflict and increased deer mortality due to vehicle collisions. A study looking at collision rates in Washington indicates that deer-vehicle collisions in this zone are consistently among the highest in the state (Myers et al., 2008). In 2020, a total of 75 white-tailed deer damage prevention permits and 25 kill permits were issued to landowners experiencing issues with deer damaging their crops.

Research

Henderson (2014) examined how habitat quality influences migratory strategy of female white-tailed deer within the Selkirk WDMZ. Using GPS-collared female white-tailed deer, an evaluation was accomplished on the influence of deer access to high quality winter habitat based upon the probability of an individual migrating, the differences in seasonal habitat use between and within

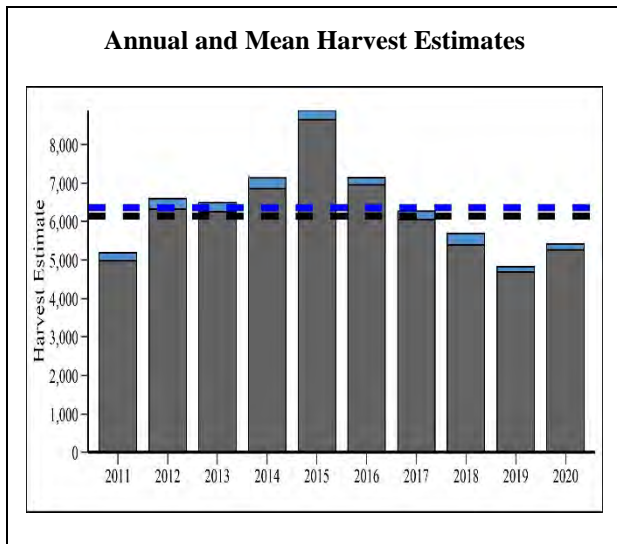


Figure 3. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Selkirk WDMZ, 2011-2020.

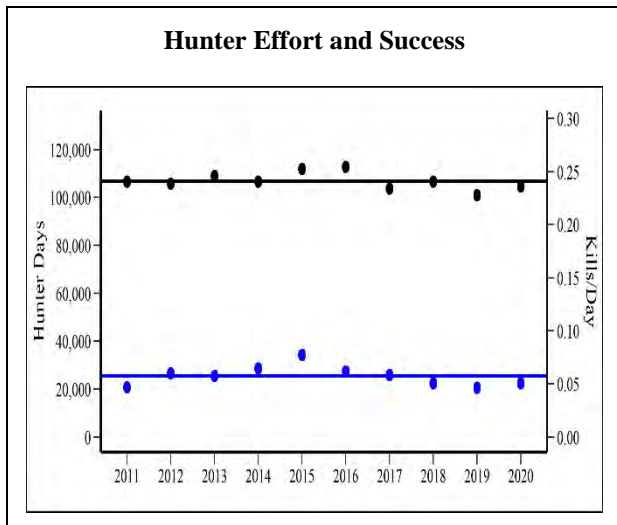


Figure 4. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue); in the Selkirk WDMZ, 2011-2020.

migratory and resident classes of deer, and the effects of this decision on the survival of female white-tailed deer. Study results found little difference between annual and seasonal rates of deer survival and that the presence of partial migration within this white-tail population may be a response to competition for high quality habitat (Henderson, 2014).

Management Concerns

As less than half the land base comprising the Selkirk WDMZ is in public ownership (37%), maximizing hunting opportunities largely depends on securing access to private lands. Closely coupled to this concern is the availability of cultivated crop land cover, particularly cereal grain and alfalfa hay, to the deer. Cultivated crops are a major driver to white-tailed deer density and productivity in northeastern Washington and beyond. Besides hunting, the other major sources of mortality to deer in this zone include predation by both native carnivores and domestic dogs, and road kills from collisions with automobiles on public roadways. Periodically, but unpredictably, severe winter will cause major deer loss. Also unpredictable are summer heat and drought that foster conditions for severe outbreaks of hemorrhagic disease. The influence of these diverse factors can greatly complicate how best to balance deer hunting opportunity with herd sustainability.

Management Conclusions

White-tailed deer populations in this zone have declined in recent years, but remain within management objectives based on harvest, survey, and survival data available for the zone.

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Islands Black-tailed Deer Management Zone

MATT HAMER, Wildlife Biologist
MIKE SMITH, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Islands Black-tailed Deer Management Zone (BDMZ) is located in the Puget Sound in northwest Washington and consists of 13 GMUs (410-417 and 419-424; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this BDMZ is to maintain or reduce the population based on the best available knowledge for each island.

Population Surveys

No population surveys are being conducted in the Islands BDMZ at this time. Prior to the spring of 2021, annual harvest estimates and anecdotal reports from island residents suggested a stable to increasing population. However, Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease (AHD) was detected on San Juan and Orcas Islands during May 2021 and on Whidbey Island during September 2021. Public reports also indicate that AHD may have impacted other islands in the San Juan Archipelago (e.g., Lopez, Blakely). Deer abundance in AHD-affected areas is likely significantly lower than in previous years.

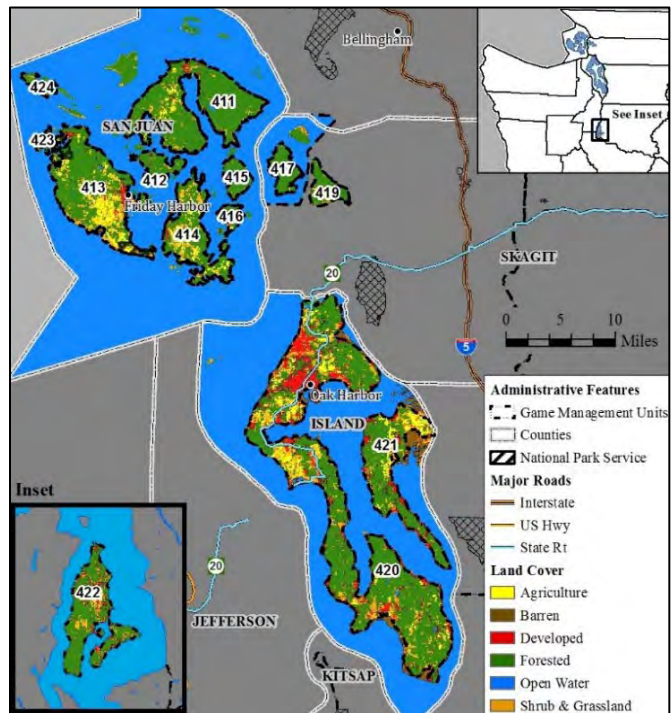


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Islands BDMZ.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Island BDMZ GMUs are managed for a liberal deer harvest with the intent of maintaining or reducing deer abundance. Participating hunters may harvest one animal of either sex during long general seasons. In 2020, the Island BDMZ general season harvest (Figure 2) was the highest that it had been in the previous decade, although hunter participation (hunter days) was similar to the 10-year average (Figure 3). The above-average general season harvest and kills/day likely indicated a stable to increasing population before this year's AHD outbreak.

A total of 1,001 deer were harvested from the Island BDMZ during the 2020 general seasons, the majority (80%) were antlered bucks. Modern Firearm hunters experienced the highest success rate (50%) and were most likely to harvest an antlered buck. Archery and Muzzleloader hunters also experienced high success rates at 40% and 29%, respectively. Most of the islands in the BDMZ

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

offer antlerless-only second tag special permits to reduce deer densities and increase hunting opportunities. In 2020, the number of available special permits in the BDMZ was increased from 1,080 to 1,200. Of the 1,200 special permits available, 1,042 were awarded and claimed by applicants. A total of 148 antlerless deer were harvested in the BDMZ by special permit during the 2020 season.

Publicly owned land is extremely limited in the Islands BDMZ. Public landowners that allow hunting on some properties include the Washington Department of Natural Resources, Bureau of Land Management, San Juan County Land Bank, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, and Island County Public Works Department. WDFW is currently negotiating deer hunting access to some private properties in San Juan and Island counties. Contact information for these agencies and information regarding private land hunting opportunities in the Islands BDMZ can be found in the “2021 District 13 Hunting Prospects”, available on the [WDFW website](#).

The season dates and weapon type regulations for antlerless-only second tag special permits were recently restructured for several GMUs, including GMU 411 (Orcas), GMU 412 (Shaw), GMU 413 (San Juan), GMU 414 (Lopez), GMU 415 (Blakely), GMU 420 (Whidbey), and GMU 422 (Vashon-Maury). The new regulations allow permit holders to hunt August 1st - December 31st using any legal weapon (archery, muzzleloader, modern firearm—firearm type restricted). Centerfire rifles are not permitted for use because all the affected GMUs are in firearm-restricted areas. All deer hunters afield in these GMUs must wear hunter orange or hunter pink during the general season and extended second deer permit season because modern firearm hunters may be afield during the entire duration of the seasons.

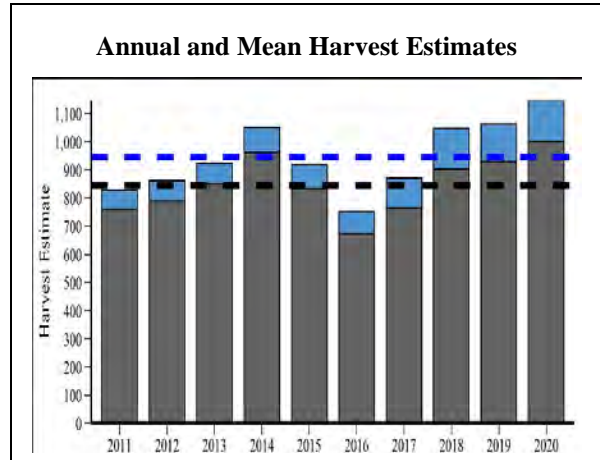


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr mean (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray) and General + Permit State Harvest (blue) in the Islands BDMZ, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was unavailable at time of writing.



Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and harvests/day (blue) in the Islands BDMZ, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was unavailable at the time of writing.

Survival and Mortality

No information regarding vital rates is available for black-tailed deer in the Islands BDMZ. In addition to legal hunter harvest, other potential sources of mortality include predation by coyotes on Whidbey, Camano, Cypress, Guemes, and Vashon Islands (the sole large predator in this zone, but absent in the San Juan Archipelago), collisions with vehicles, disease, and poaching.

Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease (AHD) substantially increased the number of deer mortalities in the San Juan Archipelago during the late spring and summer of 2021. Orcas and San Juan Islands appear to have been impacted the most, with roughly 210 reported AHD-related mortalities on Orcas Island and 115 on San Juan Island. These figures are an underestimate of the actual number of AHD-related mortalities. AHD appears to have also impacted deer on Lopez, Shaw, Henry, and Blakely Islands.

Habitat

Habitat in the Islands BDMZ generally consists of a mosaic of alder, big-leaf maple, or second-growth Douglas fir forests intermixed with openings created by small regenerating clear cuts, agricultural fields, hobby farms, and horticultural plantings associated with homes and gardens. Although small towns exist on most of the larger islands serviced by the Washington Department of Transportation (WSDOT) ferries, most of the islands retain a highly rural character that provides abundant habitat for black-tailed deer.

Human development affects the amount of habitat available for deer in the Island GMUs, particularly on the larger islands where local deer populations are very robust. Robust deer populations may be supported by expanded edge habitats and inadvertent forage enhancements such as gardens and ornamental plantings, which provide abundant food in safe environments where hunting is controlled.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Vehicle collisions are common on all the larger islands in this BDMZ. Deer may be encountered during the day or night, and complaints from residents about deer on roadways are frequent. Tolerance for high deer populations varies among island residents. Some are anti-hunting and often feed the deer, while others favor aggressive reductions in the current populations.

Damage complaints regarding deer depredation on farm crops, ornamental plantings, and conifer seedlings occur sporadically throughout the Islands BDMZ. During the previous year, three antlered and five antlerless deer were harvested on San Juan Island, and two antlerless deer were harvested on Whidbey Island under permits issued to landowners experiencing agricultural damage by deer. Deer depredation has altered the understory habitat conditions and reduced avian species' diversity on many islands (Martin et al., 2013). Deer predation has also been identified as a key factor hindering the recovery of the Island Marble Butterfly on San Juan Island, where deer browse flowering plants containing butterfly eggs and larvae (Lambert, 2014). Deer also browse the flowers of Golden Paint Brush on Whidbey Island, prohibiting the plants from setting seeds needed for restoration projects.

Management Concerns

In 2013, most of the islands in the BDMZ were split into individual GMUs to better understand hunter access and harvest trends on each island where deer occur. Previously, all the islands were lumped into one or two large GMUs. Despite outreach efforts to educate hunters of the change, hunters continue to report their harvest using the previously assigned GMU number, thus hindering our ability to assess deer management on an island-by-island basis. Although accurate reporting improves each year, erroneous GMU reporting continues, complicating harvest assessments for individual islands. The immediate and long-term impacts of this year's Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease outbreak are not well known. It appears that deer abundance on impacted islands in the San Juan Archipelago is substantially lower. Deer harvest on these islands will likely be lower during the coming season than during previous years.

Management Conclusions

Based on harvest data, black-tailed deer populations in the Islands BDMZ were at or above management objective with an increasing trend. However, deer populations on Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease impacted islands may have substantially decreased during the spring and summer of 2021. Regardless of the current abundance of deer on AHD-impacted islands, the long-term objective of wildlife managers has been to reduce and maintain a lower deer abundance in the Islands BDMZ. Consequently, hunters can anticipate liberal hunting seasons in future years with the goals of stabilizing and decreasing deer abundance within the Islands BDMZ.

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North Cascade Mountains Black-tailed Deer Management Zone

ROBERT WADDELL, Wildlife Biologist

MIKE SMITH, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The North Cascade Mountains Black-tailed Deer Management Zone (BDMZ) is in northwest Washington and consists of 11 GMUs (407, 418, 426, 437, 448, 450, 454, 460, 466, 485, and 490; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this BDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on harvest estimates and other best available information. Other management objectives include managing for a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of approximately 15–19 bucks:100 does (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

Due to the difficulties of surveying black-tailed deer in the dense habitats they occupy, no formal estimates of abundance are available in this zone. However, annual harvest estimates indicate that this population is generally stable.

In May 2021, Adenovirus Hemorrhagic Disease (AHD) was detected in the adjacent Islands BDMZ where it quickly spread to other areas within the zone. In June 2021, AHD was confirmed in GMU 407 of the North Cascade Mountain BDMZ. At the time of this writing, the impacts of the outbreak in this BDMZ are minimal, possibly due to the natural segregation and lower densities of black-tailed deer within this zone.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Harvest estimates for the past ten years generally indicate a slow rise in harvest, commensurate with increases in hunter effort within the zone (Figures 2 and 3). The 2020 harvest estimate, including general season and special permits was below the 10-year average (Figure 2). The number of hunter days and kills per day were above and just below the 10-year average, respectively (Figure 3). Overall, consistent long-term harvest rates (kills/day) indicate population stability in the zone (Figure 3).

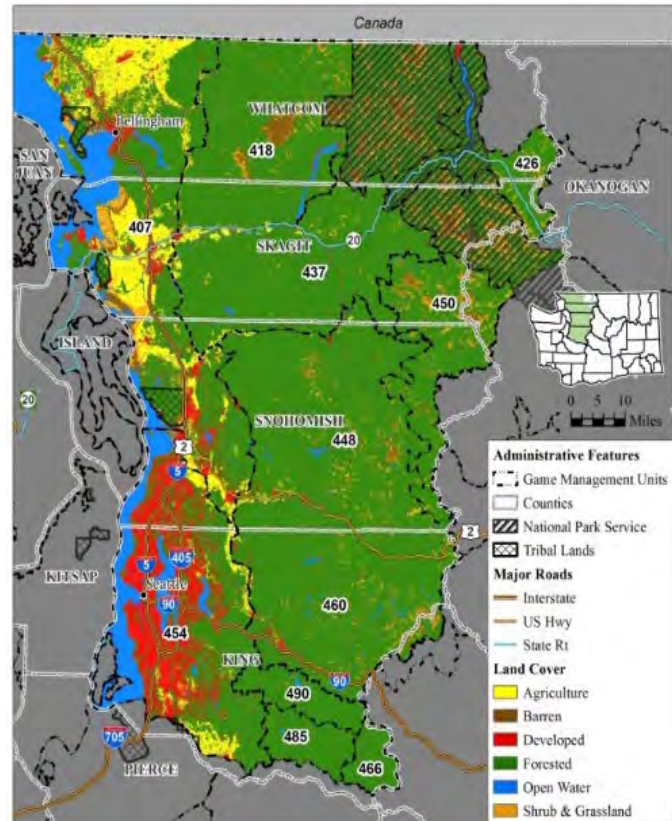


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy or survival rates are available for black-tailed deer herds specific to the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ. However, the vital rates of adult does are thought to be sufficient based on harvest trends. In general, estimates of annual survival of black-tailed bucks in Washington State have averaged 50 percent in forested landscapes, with hunting identified as the primary source of mortality (Bender et al., 2004).

Cougars, black bears, bobcats, wolves, and coyotes occur within this BDMZ. Although the effects of predation on this population of black-tailed deer are unknown, deer harvest metrics have remained stable.

Habitat

Three primary landownership types make up most of the huntable habitat within the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ: U.S. Forest Service, private timberlands, and state-managed forests (Dept. of Natural Resources). Throughout Washington, changes in land-use practices have been the primary driver of declines in black-tailed deer populations (Nelson et al., 2008). Human encroachment, reductions in timber harvest, changes in timber management practices, and the natural progression of aging timber stands have contributed to a decrease in the amount and quality of local black-tailed deer habitat. Closures of private timberland roads can buffer the influences of increased human disturbance throughout deer ranges in Skagit and Whatcom counties. However, continued use of herbicides on these private timberlands decreases forage plants important for black-tailed deer and can subsequently have negative effects on the population. Although this management practice has declined on state and federally owned lands during the previous ten years and is of minimal concern compared to historical herbicide use levels, it is still a factor to consider when managing local deer populations and habitat quality.

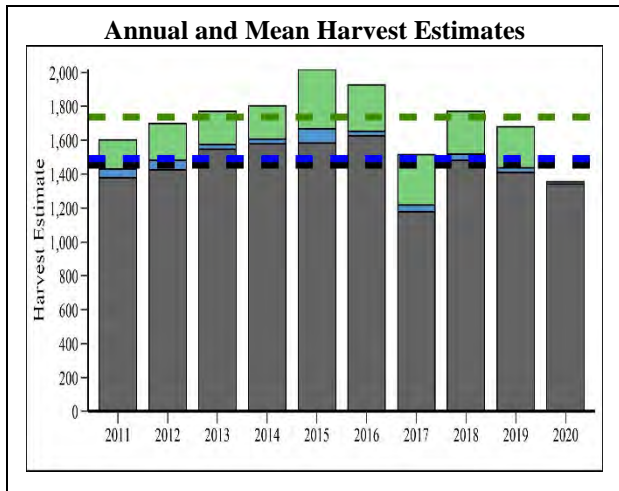


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr mean (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue), and General + Permit + Tribal Harvest (green) in the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ, 2011–2020.

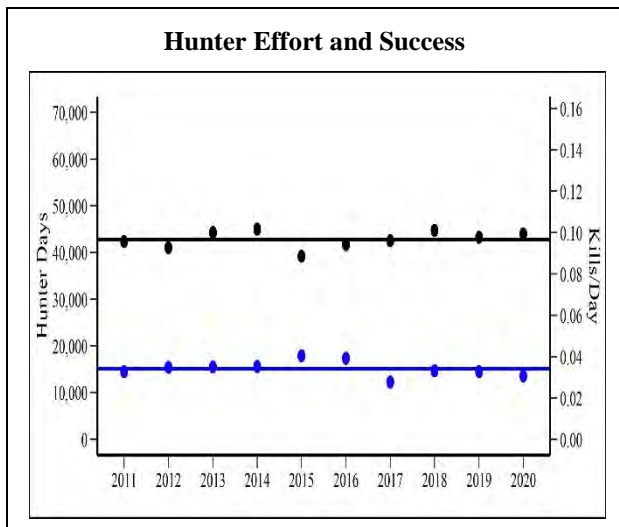


Figure 3. 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and harvest/day (blue) in the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ, 2011–2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

In general, the long-term trend in GMU 454 deer habitat is for a continued decline. The decline is consistent with the housing and commercial development of the habitat currently used by deer. However, deer in GMU 454 and elsewhere in the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ are taking advantage of 1–10-acre tracts cleared for homes. These tracts still provide and may improve deer forage availability, particularly during winter months, improving overall body condition, which usually translates to higher productivity and increased survival. Further, limited hunting access may reduce mortality on private lands closed to the general public, subsequently increasing deer densities in those areas, and prompting deer dispersal to surrounding habitats more accessible to hunters in GMU 454.

A significant majority of GMU 460 is managed for timber production. Annual timber harvests create a mosaic of seral stages that can be beneficial to deer. Forest clearings of 1–10 acres and riparian corridors protected by the Washington Forest and Fish Law exist and provide a good forage base for wildlife. The forest stands in these corridors provide older age classes that diversify habitat and help intercept snow during harsh winters and may provide deer access to forage in these sites, serve as travel corridors, and provide added winter shelter.

In 2004, King County announced the purchase of development rights on the King County portion of the Snoqualmie Forest (approx. 90,000 acres). This acquirement will protect a large area of commercial forest as open space and de facto deer habitat. Additional research into the relationship between current landscape conditions, herbicide application, deer populations, and habitat quality is needed. Deer habitat trends in GMU 466 and 485 depend on timber management and subsequent seral stage development that determines forage availability. Several thousand acres of timberlands are managed primarily for wood fiber production, with considerations for recreational opportunities, fish, and wildlife.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Deer-related damage to private property has remained a problem throughout the mainland portions of northern Region 4. However, no crop damage compensation payments were made in this general area in 2020. In GMU 407, WDFW Conflict Specialists issued 16 damage permits to producers, with two antlerless deer harvested. Permits were issued to producers of strawberries, raspberries, blueberries, and apples. In Snohomish County, two permits were issued near Stanwood, and both permits were filled. Three damage permits were issued in King County, but no deer were harvested. These permits were issued for lands involved in the production of nursery and vegetable crops. Deer Area 4541 was created in GMU 454 to offer additional harvest opportunities and to address damage complaints in the most densely populated portion of the unit. Thirty antlerless permits (10 each for Second Deer, Hunters 65 and Over, and Hunters with Disabilities) were offered through a special permit application. Nine of the 30 permit recipients reported as having hunted, resulting in the reported harvest of zero deer.

Management Concerns

Safety concerns associated with increased human development and changing attitudes towards hunting have resulted in fewer areas open to hunters in the North Cascades BDMZ. In addition, public hunting sites are limited in many of the North Cascade GMUs. The agency continues to look for opportunities to partner with private landowners to open more opportunities for hunters.

Management Conclusions

Limited information is available for black-tailed deer populations in the North Cascade Mountains BDMZ, but populations are considered stable based upon harvest metrics.

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Olympic Peninsula Black-tailed Deer Management Zone

BRYAN MURPHIE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Olympic Peninsula Black-tailed Deer Management Zone (BDMZ) is located in northwest Washington and consists of 16 Game Management Units (601, 602, 603, 607, 612, 615, 618, 621, 624, 627, 633, 636, 638, 642, 648, and 651; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Black-tailed deer (*Odocoileus hemionus columbianus*) in this zone are managed to maintain productive populations while providing for multiple uses, including recreational, educational, aesthetic, and a sustainable annual harvest (WDFW, 2014). We attempt to achieve these objectives largely through manipulating hunting seasons. Hunting regulations for Olympic BDMZ Game Management Units (GMUs) generally provide liberal buck hunting and a conservative antlerless harvest.

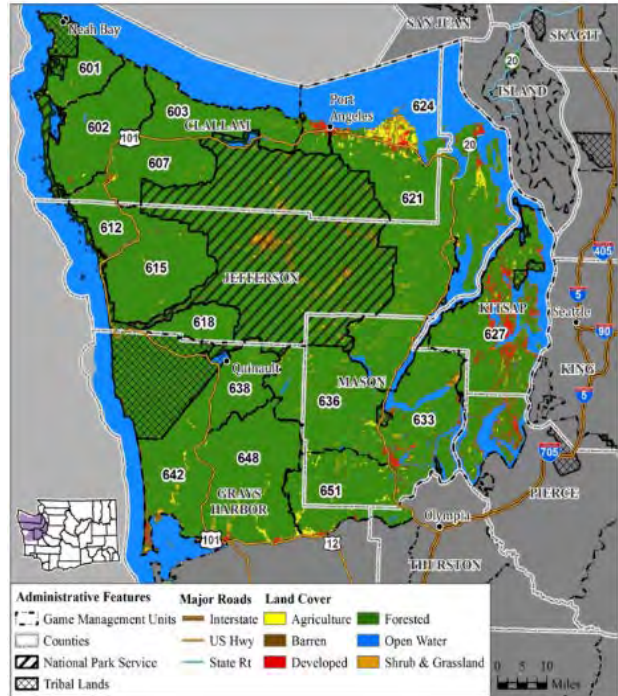


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the Olympic Peninsula BDMZ.

Population Surveys

Monitoring is primarily achieved via mandatory hunter reporting. When funding is available, WDFW conducts more targeted projects related to specific GMUs or study areas. Tribal game harvest reports are compiled and published annually by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission (for data referred to in this document, see the NWIFC Big Game Harvest Reports for Western Washington Treaty Tribes; 2010-2019/20. The 2020/21 tribal harvest data was not available at the time this report was completed). Tribal research and monitoring also provide valuable information on black-tailed deer in this BDMZ through work conducted independently and in cooperation with WDFW.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The 2020 deer hunting season regulations were similar to previous years in the Olympic BDMZ. Most general season hunting opportunities were for any buck, while antlerless harvest was limited to certain weapon types or special permits. Deer Area 6020 was open to the harvest of any deer during the general season for all weapon types. The Olympic BDMZ provided additional hunting opportunities during the 2020 season, with 518 permits offered through the Department's special permit system; of these, 288 hunters reported harvesting 87 deer in 2020.

Estimates from harvest reports indicate 2020 buck harvest (Figure 2), kills/day, and hunter participation (Figure 3) were consistent with 10-year averages. Tribal harvest, which accounts for 9% of the deer harvest in the Olympic BDMZ on average was not available for the 2020 season at the time this report was prepared.

Survival and Mortality

Survival and mortality have been studied in some GMUs, and inferences can be made from these data in a general sense regarding black-tailed deer in the Olympic BDMZ. Doe survival is generally higher than 75% (Rice, 2018; McCoy et al., 2014). Buck survival has been documented to be around 50% (Bender et al., 2014). Fawn survival varies the most annually and is generally below 40% (Rice, 2018; McCoy et al., 2014; Murphie S., 2010).

Causes of mortality among black-tailed deer include nutritional stress, predation, legal harvest, poaching, and a variety of other natural and human-related causes (vehicle collisions for example). Malnutrition and predation are the most common factors associated with the mortality of does and fawns (Rice, 2018; McCoy et al., 2014; Murphie S., 2010). Hair-loss syndrome (Bildfell et al., 2004) is also an important factor influencing black-tailed deer survival (McCoy et al., 2014; Murphie S., 2010). Hunter harvest is the most common cause of mortality among bucks (Bender et al., 2014).

Habitat

Black-tailed deer in the Olympic BDMZ have access to a wide range of habitat types, from alpine meadows in the Olympic Mountains to coastal marine estuaries along the outer coast and inland marine waters. Black-tailed deer have a selective foraging strategy, preferring to consume the most nutritious plants (Nelson et al., 2008). They consume a variety of browse, including woody shrubs, forbs, lichens, and some grasses. Woody shrubs and forbs are typically more abundant in younger, more recently disturbed sites (<20 years old) with less canopy cover than sites in mid to late-seral stages created predominately through active logging. Units heavily logged years ago with vast areas of single-aged stands in the mid to late-seral stage of forest succession

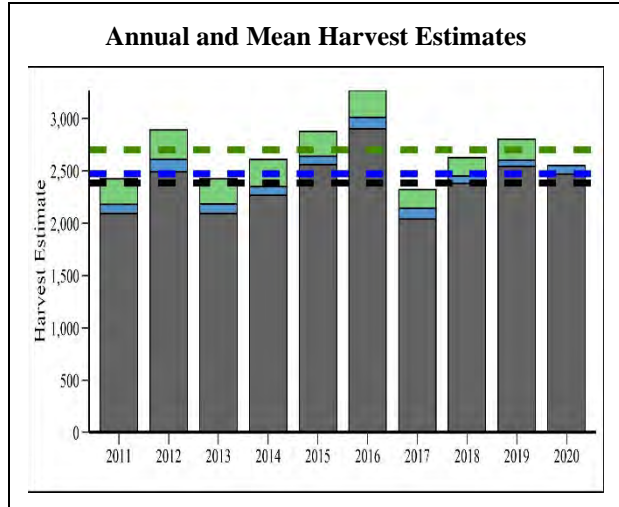


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue), and General + Permit + Tribal Harvest (green) in the Olympic Peninsula BDMZ 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at the time of writing.

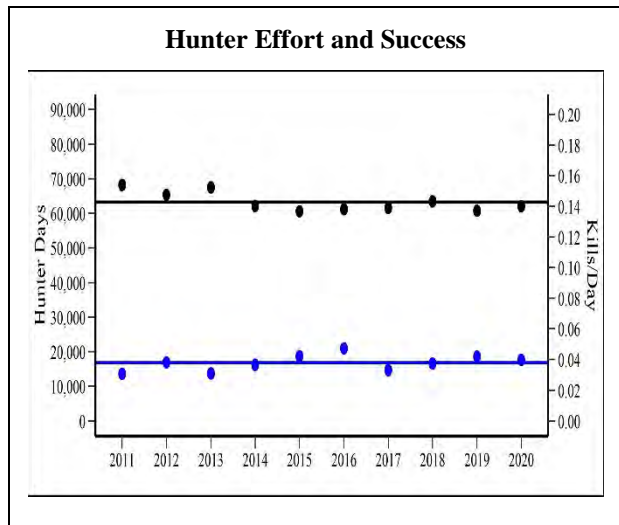


Figure 3. 10-year mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Olympic Peninsula BDMZ, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at the time of writing.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

are the least productive for ungulate forage. Active timber harvest in some GMUs continues to create early seral habitats that include a diverse mix of stand-ages, which benefit black-tailed deer. Some common plants present in black-tailed deer diets include vine maple (*Acer circinatum*), red alder (*Alnus rubra*), cascara (*Rhamnus purshiana*), Himalayan blackberry (*Rubus discolor*), evergreen blackberry (*Rubus laciniatus*), salmonberry (*Rubus spectabilis*), trailing blackberry (*Rubus ursinus*), elderberry (*Sambucus spp.*), red huckleberry (*Vaccinium parvifolium*), fireweed (*Epilobium angustifolium*), willowherb (*Epilobium watsonii*), hairy cat's ear (*Hypochaeris radicata*), big deervetch (*Lotus crassifolius*), oxalis (*Oxalis oregana*), and violets (*viola spp.*) (Nelson et al., 2008, Ulapa, 2015).

Research

No research on deer in the Olympic BDMZ was conducted during this review period.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

In the Olympic BDMZ, most deer conflict issues occur in urban areas where natural mortality is considered low. Management actions generally revolve around liberalizing hunting seasons or adding second deer permits to increase harvest levels. These efforts often have limited value due to local shooting ordinances that reduce deer hunting activity despite the liberalized seasons. Landowners can work with WDFW through Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which are plans designed to proactively prevent, minimize, or correct damage caused by wildlife to crops or livestock, which may include both lethal and nonlethal measures. Wildlife Conflict specialists may issue landowners damage prevention/harvest permits, remove deer under an agency action, or deploy Master Hunters to remove deer or conduct non-lethal activities, such as hazing.

In response to chronic damage/conflict issues, liberal deer hunting seasons have been established in GMUs 624, 627, and 633. Forty 2nd-deer permits were available in the portion of GMU 624 designated as Deer Area 6020, but participation and success were quite low; 6 hunters reported harvesting doe. General season antlerless hunting is also provided during the general season for all three weapon types in Deer Area 6020. Although general season harvest is not reported at the Deer Area level, the combined general season antlerless harvest in GMU 624 was reported to be 57 in 2020, and the 10-year average is 48. The Department issued 33 damage prevention/harvest permits within the Olympic BDMZ, resulting in the removal of 15 deer.

Management Concerns

The primary objective for black-tailed deer management in the Olympic Black-tailed Deer Management Zone is to maintain productive populations, while providing for multiple uses. Currently, WDFW does not use formal estimates or indices of population size to monitor black-tail deer populations. Instead, trends in harvest, hunter success, and catch per unit effort are used as surrogates. Provided harvest and participation are robust, these statistics can provide a reasonable indicator of population trend. However, deer harvest can be influenced by factors other than density. Changes to hunting regulations and a recent trend of timber companies restricting or limiting hunting access make it difficult to compare harvest estimates across years. WDFW is currently evaluating new approaches to monitor black-tailed deer populations that are independent of harvest data.

Management Conclusions

Based on harvest data, black-tailed deer populations in the Olympic Peninsula BDMZ are likely within management objectives, with stable populations where habitat allows.

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South Cascade Mountain Black-tailed Deer Management Zone

STEFANIE BERGH, Wildlife Biologist

ERIC HOLMAN, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The South Cascade Mountains Black-tailed Deer Management Zone (BDMZ) is located in the southwest portion of the Cascade Mountains and consists of 22 GMUs (503, 505, 510, 513, 516, 520, 522, 524, 550, 554, 556, 560, 564, 568, 572, 574, 578, 652, 653, 654, 666, and 667; Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this BDMZ is to maintain a stable population based on field surveys, harvest estimates, and a post-hunt population with a sex ratio of approximately 15-19 bucks/100 does (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

Population estimates of black-tailed deer abundance and post-season ratios are unavailable for the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ, but deer are generally more abundant at lower elevations in the zone.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Hunting seasons in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ vary by GMU. Most hunting is structured to focus harvest on bucks, and hunting is allowed on a general season basis with no antler-restrictions in place. An exception is GMU 578, which is managed with a 3-point minimum antler restriction. In many GMUs, archers are allowed to harvest antlerless deer during general seasons. Certain GMUs targeted for deer population control also allow antlerless opportunity for modern firearm under special permit drawings. Harvest estimates have remained relatively stable over the past 10 years (Figure 2a). A decrease in deer harvest during the 2017 season was observed statewide likely due in part to the severe winter of 2016-17 and drier than normal conditions during the 2017 hunting season. The 2020 hunting season had General State harvest at approximately the 10-year average. While hunter effort has declined steadily since 2010, the 2020 season saw a slight increase in the number of hunter days which could possibly be attributed to the COVID-19 pandemic (Figure 2). The catch-per-unit effort (kills/hunter-day) remains very consistent each year around the 10-year average (Figure 3).

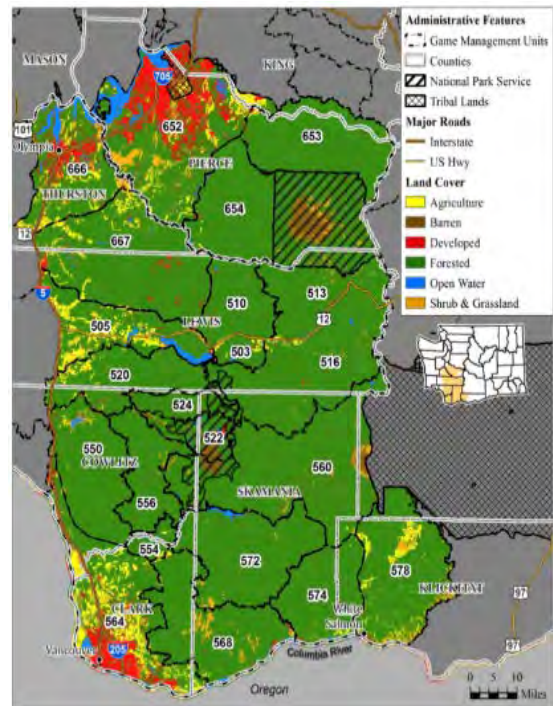


Figure 1. GMUs and generalized land cover types within the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ.

Common predator species in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ include cougar, bobcat, black bear, and coyote. Currently there are no documented gray wolf packs in the herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

Previous estimates of annual survival rates for black-tailed deer bucks in Washington have indicated a mean of 0.50 in forested landscapes, with mortalities primarily due to legal harvest (McCorquodale 1999, Bender et al. 2004). In more urbanized habitat, the annual buck survival rate is closer to 0.86 and mortalities are generally not the result of harvest (Bender et al. 2004). Rice (2018, unpublished report) estimated the annual survival of 188 does to be 0.77 on State Department of Natural Resources land and 0.75 on private industrial timber lands in a study area encompassing the South Cascades, Willapa Hills, and the Olympic Peninsula. McCorquodale (1999a) estimated typical doe annual survival as 0.82 in the Klickitat basin and Gilbert et al. (2007) estimated doe survival as 0.75 in commercial forest on the western slope of the Cascade Range in west-central Washington. McNay and Voller (1995) found adult doe survival on Vancouver Island to be lower for resident does (0.77) than migratory does (0.90).

Survival and Mortality

The industrial forestlands consist of a mosaic of clear-cuts, relatively open young regeneration stands, dense second growth stands of timber, and stream buffers lined with second-growth forest. Industrial timber management practices benefit deer by increasing the quantity of early seral habitats and forage species preferred by black-tailed deer including trailing blackberry, fireweed, salmonberry, red huckleberry, and vine maple. While beneficial to deer, management practices are not conducted to purposefully increase or improve habitat. Additionally, intensive forest management practices including the planting of dense stands of fast-growing conifer seedlings and the application of herbicides during re-establishment of the timber stand may also be affecting overall productivity due to reduced forage

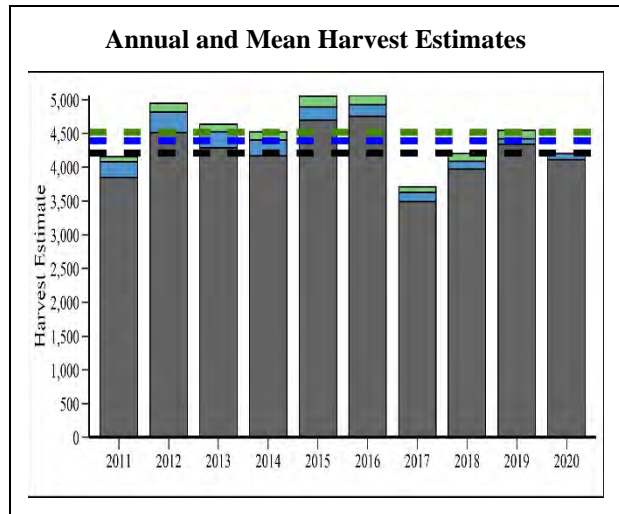


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr mean (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue), and General + Permit + Reported Tribal Harvest (green) in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ, 2011–2020.

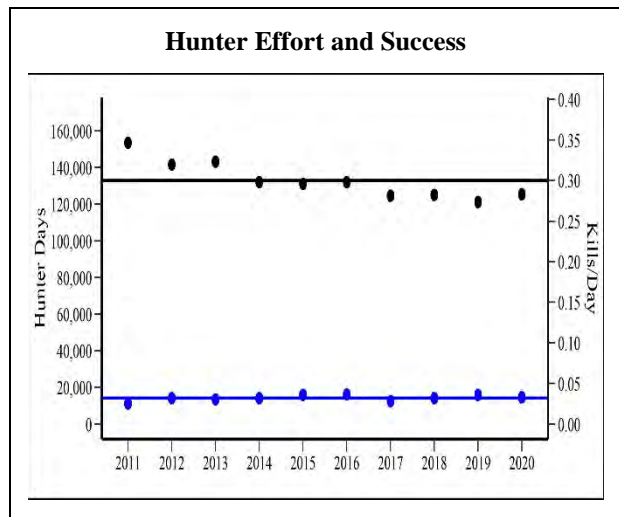


Figure 3. General season estimates and 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and catch-per-unit-effort (blue) in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ, 2011–2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at the time of writing.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

quality and availability. These effects work in tandem by reducing the amount of favorable plants available as forage in the early term and completion of forest canopy closure around 14-20 years (Ulappa, 2020), far earlier than would occur in a naturally regenerated stand. The magnitude of these effects is influenced by site-specific types of post-timber harvest treatments, plant compositions, weather, and the number of years since timber harvest. A commonality among these varying factors is that the best quality and most quantity of favorable forage seems to occur approximately 3 to 14 years after timber harvest, whether herbicide treatments are applied or not. However, the differences between available, favorable forage in that time period for treated and untreated stands can still be substantial. The nuances of how forage availability is influenced by forest stand age and the application of herbicides is complex and in-depth research on the subject can be found by reviewing Ulappa (2015), (2020) and Geary et al. (2012).

In contrast, very limited timber harvest on federal forests in the last three decades has led to more even-aged, closed canopy forests than were historically found in the Pacific Northwest. These forests have lower abundance of forage species important to deer and generally support fewer deer than the early-seral forests found on private industrial and State managed timberlands.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Deer damage reports occur at relatively low levels in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ. However, complaints of damage to home gardens and ornamental plants have been increasing in the South Cascades Mountains BDMZ with higher human populations. WDFW Wildlife Conflict Specialists work closely with agricultural producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which identify a plan to reduce the amount of damage incurred to agricultural crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. In the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ in 2019-2020, there were seven DPCAs in place. Four permits for lethal removal were issued to landowners associated with these DPCAs, and one deer was harvested.

Conflict Specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal means to discourage deer, including temporary electrified fladry fencing, permanent fencing, noisemakers (bird bangers, critter gitters, and propane cannons), hazing and herding, scarecrow-like electronic devices, and odor-based repellents such as Plantskydd. Damage to commercial agriculture production over the past year has occurred in wheat and alfalfa fields, Christmas tree farms, peach orchards, organic produce farms, and ornamental flower nurseries.

In many circumstances, the Department addresses damage complaints by working with landowners to increase access to their property during hunting seasons so that hunters can help to resolve the damage. Sometimes, Master Hunters are also deployed to hunt outside of established hunting seasons to directly address damage issues.

Habitat Conditions on Federally Managed Lands

Habitat conditions on federally managed lands within the South Cascades Zone are of concern. Large scale fire, timber harvest, disease, or other succession re-setting events are largely absent from the federal lands. The resulting landscape is dominated by closed-canopy forest, much of

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

which was harvested from roughly 1950-1990 and subsequently replanted with dense Douglas fir trees. These stands provide little in the way of ungulate forage and lack the diversity and forage resources of either older or younger forests. In recent years, USFS has conducted limited forest thinning and created forest openings to provide more robust forage resources for deer and elk. While beneficial, the scale of these efforts is minimal when compared to the size of the landscape. WDFW should continue to work with USFS to encourage more of this proactive management.

Fee-Only Hunting Access Restrictions

In 2013 and 2014, the largest industrial forestland owner within the South Cascades Zone implemented a fee-only access system for hunting and other recreation on their lands. This system limits the number of individuals allowed access to these lands and has continued in the years that have followed. This has primarily affected GMUs 520, 524, 550, 556, 568, and 667. The ramifications of this limited access to deer hunting opportunity are difficult to quantify as the landowners don't own entire Game Management Units. Some hunters elect to pay the access fee, some individuals elect to hunt in another area, and some may decide to quit hunting. Up to this point, the total deer harvest has remained similar, on average, in these GMUs before and after the change in recreational access opportunities. The number of hunters in these GMUs, however, has decreased by approximately one-third across the six GMUs mentioned above.

Hair Loss Syndrome

“Hair loss syndrome” (HLS) of black-tailed deer was first described in Washington in 1995. In 1996, initial reports in the South Cascades Mountains BDMZ came from GMUs 501, 504, 506, and 530. The condition is caused by a heavy infestation of a Eurasian louse of poorly defined taxonomic status in the genus *Damalinia* (*Cervicola*). The normal hosts of this louse are Eurasian deer and antelope, which are not seriously affected by the lice.

When black-tailed deer become infested with this foreign louse, they tend to develop a hypersensitivity (severe allergic) reaction to the lice. The reaction causes irritation of the skin and excessive grooming by the deer. Eventually, this excessive grooming leads to loss of the guard hairs, leaving yellow or white patches along the sides. Infestations are heaviest during late winter and early spring and many affected deer, especially fawns, die during this time. The geographical distribution of HLS has steadily expanded since its first appearance and now affects black-tailed deer throughout their range in western Washington.

Over a three-year period, Bender and Hall (2004) reported rates of “hair-slip syndrome” in fawns as 46-74% from 1999-2001. They concluded that HLS was not significant in increasing fawn winter mortality and called for future research to better determine effects HLS has on black-tailed deer populations. HLS may increase predation risk due to poor overall body condition. Poor body condition is attributed to a combination of potential factors including poor forage, low birth weight, and timing of birth; as well as afflictions including, but not limited to HLS.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Many HLS affected individuals tend to rebound in condition and health if they survive the winter. Ultimately, HLS is very likely only one of several regular annual mortality factors acting synergistically in given local populations.

WDFW provides more information regarding hair loss syndrome at our Wildlife Diseases website: [Hair-loss syndrome in deer](#).

In addition to reports of HLS, WDFW annually receives reports of animals with hoof abnormalities, deer warts, and lethargy/unknown illness. While these afflictions can affect the behavior and survival of individual deer, they do not pose a population concern.

Management Conclusions

Harvest data indicate a stable population of black-tailed deer in the South Cascade Mountains BDMZ. However, habitat related concerns such as the lack of early seral forests on federally managed lands and direct loss of habitat to urbanization remain a concern. The progression towards limited, fee-based hunting access programs, and HLS also complicate deer management in the zone. Monitoring black-tailed deer populations is a perennial challenge due to the dense understory favored by deer in these landscapes, but the Department continues to investigate new methods that might provide additional information about population status in the future.

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Willapa Hills Black-tailed Deer Management Zone

ANTHONY NOVACK, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Willapa Hills Black-tailed Deer Management Zone (BDMZ) is located in the southwest corner of Washington and includes the southern coast of Washington. The total area consists of 12 GMUs (501, 504, 506, 530, 658, 660, 663, 672, 673, 681, 684, and 699 (Figure 1).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective within this BDMZ is to maintain stable populations based on field surveys and harvest estimates. Additional management objectives include a post-hunt sex ratio of approximately 15-19 bucks to 100 does (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

Conventional surveys are not possible due to the dense forest structure in this zone. Populations are currently monitored using harvest data obtained from mandatory hunter reporting by licensed state hunters and tribal harvest reports. Tribal game harvest reports are compiled and published annually by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission (for data referred to in this document, see the [NWIFC 2020 Big Game Harvest Reports for Western Washington Treaty Tribes](#)).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Estimates from harvest reports for the past decade indicate harvest has generally been stable. The year 2017 was the lowest estimated harvest during the entire 2011-2020 timeframe (Figure 2). Last year (2020) saw a slight decrease in hunter harvest compared to 2019 but higher than both 2017 and 2018. Total harvest in 2020 was close to the average since 2011.

Hunter effort has been increasing since its lowest point in 2018 and was the highest recorded since 2011 (Figure 3). Kills/day (e.g., Catch per Unit Effort or CPUE) has been relatively stable since 2010 and peaked in 2016.

The vast majority of deer harvested in the Willapa Hills BDMZ are bucks. Any buck seasons are in effect for all GMUs open during the modern firearm seasons. The majority of GMUs are open for any buck during muzzleloader season except for GMU 684 (any deer) and 699 (no muzzleloader season). Most units are open for any deer during archery seasons. GMUs 506, 681,



Figure 1. GMU boundaries with county lines, and public lands within the Willapa Hills BDMZ.

and 699 are limited to any buck during archery seasons. Limited permit opportunities are available for both antlerless deer and bucks throughout the Willapa Hills BDMZ.

Survival and Mortality

No estimates of pregnancy, fetal, or survival rates are currently available for black-tailed deer in the Willapa Hills BDMZ. Sources of mortality for deer in this BDMZ include hunting, disease, malnutrition, poaching, deer-vehicle collisions, and predation. Common predator species in the Willapa Hills BDMZ include cougar, bobcat, black bear, and coyote. Previous estimates of the annual survival rate for black-tailed deer bucks in western Washington revealed a mean survival rate of 0.50 in forested landscapes, with mortalities primarily due to legal harvest (McCorquodale, 1999, Bender et al., 2004). Research has concluded that will provide additional data on survival and mortality of both bucks, and female deer and fawns within the BDMZ (see Research section).

Habitat

The majority of forestland in the Willapa BDMZ is managed to maximize revenue from timber production. Both the privately-owned industrial forestlands and large portions of the publicly owned lands consist of a mosaic of clear-cuts, relatively open young regeneration stands, dense second-growth stands of timber, and stream buffers lined with second-growth forest. This mosaic changes on a yearly basis due to ongoing timber cutting operations. Although timber harvest is generally beneficial to deer, timber management practices are not intended to improve deer habitat.

The timber management practices implemented within the Willapa Hills BDMZ are broadly benefiting deer by increasing the quantity of early seral habitats, which improves the forage base. Standard forest management practices include planting dense stands of fast-growing conifer seedlings and applying herbicides during re-establishment to reduce competitive plant growth. Ulappa (2015 & 2020) found that herbicide use decreased the amount of understory biomass useable for foraging deer and decreased their daily digestible energy intake, especially in the first three years of stand establishment. Despite the widespread use of herbicide, the early seral habitats will still provide more forage and higher daily energy intake for deer than closed-canopy stands.

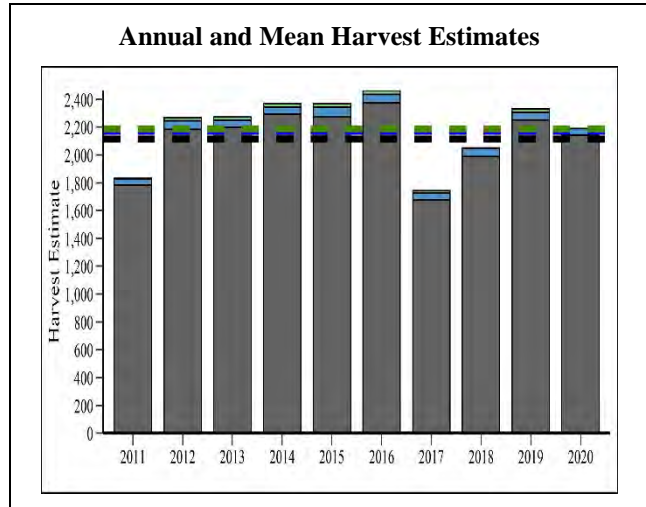


Figure 2. Harvest estimates and 10-yr means (dashed lines) for General State Harvest (gray), General State + Permit State Harvest (blue), and General + Permit + Tribal Harvest (green) in the Willapa Hills BDMZ, 2011-2020.

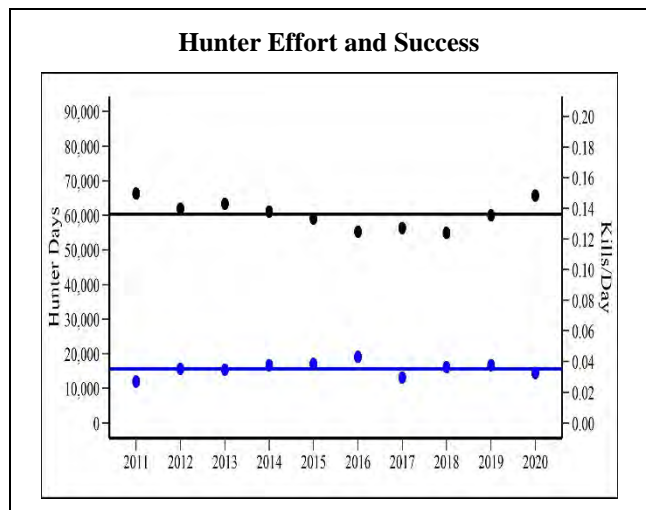


Figure 3. 10-yr mean for hunter days (black) and kills/day (blue) in the Willapa Hills BDMZ, 2011-2020.

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

Canopy closure for intensely managed forest typically occurs at around 14-20 years post-planting, which is far earlier than occurs in most naturally regenerated stands. Once canopy closure occurs, forage availability decreases significantly. More naturally regenerated stands can continue to produce improved levels of forage through the first 30 years of growth. Pre-commercial and commercial thinning of second-growth stands can greatly improve the available deer forage until canopy closure reoccurs.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Deer conflicts with commercial agricultural activities occur at low levels in the Willapa Hills BDMZ. Wildlife Conflict specialists work closely with producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs) which identify a plan to reduce the amount of damage incurred to agricultural crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. These conflict specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal means to discourage deer which may include electrified fladry fencing, noisemakers, hazing and herding, scarecrow-like electronic devices, and odor-based repellents such as Plantskyyd. The total number of DPCAs relating to deer in the Willapa Hills BDMZ for 2020-2021 was twenty-five with seven deer harvested from forty-six permits issued (Table 1). Deer within this zone primarily cause damage to commercially produced cranberries, wine grapes, blueberries, orchards, and non-commercial garden and ornamental plants.

In many circumstances, WDFW addresses damage complaints by working with landowners to increase access to their property during hunting seasons so that hunters can help to resolve the damage. Certified Master Hunters may be deployed to harvest animals outside of the regularly established hunting seasons.

Table 1. Sum of Deer related Damage Prevention and Control Agreements with resulting deer permits issued and total harvest by GMU in the Willapa Hills BDMZ, 2020-21.

| Game Management Unit | DPCA's | Permits Issued | Deer Removed |
|-----------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 501 | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| 506 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 530 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 658 | 8 | 8 | 0 |
| 660 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 663 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| 672 | 6 | 11 | 6 |
| 673 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 681 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 684 | 5 | 16 | 2 |
| Sum | 25 | 46 | 7 |

Research

From 2009-2017, the Department conducted a study of black-tailed deer throughout western Washington to determine black-tailed deer fawn production and survival under a variety of forest management scenarios and conditions. Does were captured in eight different clusters across

Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

western Washington with half of those clusters predominately located on private industrial timber land, while the other half were located on Washington Department of Natural Resources (DNR) lands. Black-tailed deer does were captured in late winter or spring and fitted with GPS tracking collars and their fawns were subsequently collared shortly after birth for survival monitoring. A single cluster of does was located within the Willapa Hills BDMZ on state owned lands within Capitol Forest (GMU 663). Data from this study are still being analyzed and final results are pending.

The Department initiated a new project in 2017 with the intent to generate estimates of black-tailed deer abundance or population trends at the GMU level. The field component of this effort began in May 2017 and was expected to last at least 5 years. GPS collars were deployed on a sample of bucks distributed across western Washington with an objective of maintaining a sample of up to 50 bucks during each year of the 5-year study. Monitoring of these bucks was expected to provide information on buck survival, causes of mortality, and vulnerability to harvest. Additionally, these collars would automatically record a position fix every thirteen hours, providing a fairly detailed account of the area used by these collared bucks. To date, only two collared bucks were located within the Willapa Hills BDMZ. Those two animals were specifically located inside the Fall River GMU (672) and both were harvested during the 2019 hunting season. This project was cancelled in 2020.

WDFW initiated an effort in 2019 to collect teeth of black-tailed deer from successful hunters in western Washington. WDFW collected hundreds of tooth samples from successful black-tailed deer hunters during the 2019 and 2020 season. Reported number of antler points was submitted with each tooth and samples were sent to a laboratory for analysis of cementum annuli to determine age. Generally, the number of antler points increases with age. However, a 3-year-old buck may still be a spike and, an 11-year-old buck could be a 2 pt. while, conversely, a yearling could have 4 points. On average, spikes were a year old while a 2-point buck was 3 years of age and a 3pt buck was 4 years of age. Four-point bucks were 4 ½ years on average and 5-point bucks were 5 years old.

Management Concerns

Hunter Access

WDFW actively works with timber companies to maintain hunting access. The vast majority of lands that provide deer hunting opportunities in the Willapa Hills BDMZ are privately owned industrial timberlands. There's an increasing trend among the timber companies to restrict public access or require an access permit to hunt or recreate on their lands. The multitude of landowners with changing ownerships and rules regarding public access creates confusion and uncertainty among hunters trying to get afield.

Implementation of fee access programs has reduced hunter participation in the Willapa Hills BDMZ. In some instances, the number of access permits issued is lower than previous hunter participation rates. For other areas, the cost of the permit is considered too much of an added financial burden for hunters. Although the addition of access permits has caused the number of hunters to decline in some GMUs, hunter success has sometimes increased as fewer hunters are afield. Access can be restricted due to the risk of fire, which predominately affects early season archery and muzzleloader hunters.

Hair Loss Syndrome

“Hair loss syndrome” (HLS) of black-tailed deer was first described in Washington in 1995 and reports came from GMU’s 501, 504, 506, 530, in 1996. The condition is caused by a heavy infestation with a Eurasian louse of poorly defined taxonomic status in the genus *Damalinia* (*Cervicola*) sp. The normal hosts of this louse are non-native deer and antelope, which are not seriously affected by the lice.

When black-tailed deer become infested with this foreign louse, they tend to develop a hypersensitivity (severe allergic) reaction to the lice. The reaction causes irritation of the skin and excessive grooming by the deer. Eventually, this excessive grooming leads to loss of the guard hairs, leaving yellow or white patches along the sides. Infestations are heaviest during late winter and early spring, and many affected deer, especially fawns, die during this time. The geographical distribution of HLS has steadily expanded since its first appearance and now affects black-tailed deer throughout their range in western Washington.

Over a three-year period, Bender and Hall (2004) reported rates of “hair-slip syndrome” in fawns as 46-74% from 1999-2001. They concluded that HLS was not significant in increasing fawn winter mortality and called for future research to better determine effects HLS has on black-tailed deer populations. HLS may result in additive winter mortality or increase predation risk due to poor overall body condition. Poor body condition is attributed to a combination of potential factors including poor forage, low birth weight, timing of birth; as well as afflictions including, but not limited to, HLS.

Many HLS affected individuals tend to rebound in condition and health if they survive the winter. Ultimately, HLS is very likely only a portion of the regular annual mortality factors acting synergistically in given local populations.

WDFW provides more information regarding hair loss syndrome at our Wildlife Diseases website: [Hair-loss syndrome in deer](#).

In addition to reports of HLS, WDFW regularly receives reports of animals with hoof abnormalities, deer warts, lethargy and other unknown illnesses. While these afflictions can affect the behavior and survival of individual deer, they do not pose a population concern.

Management Conclusions

Black-tailed deer populations in the Willapa Hills BDMZ appear to be within management objective based on a harvest trend that indicates a stable population. Habitat conditions are expected to support a stable to increasing trend into the near future.

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Deer Status and Trend Report 2021

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Elk

Blue Mountains Elk Herd

PAUL WIK, Wildlife Biologist
 MARK VEKASY, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Blue Mountains elk herd area is located in southeast Washington and consists of 13 GMUs, including 145 (Mayview), 149 (Prescott), 154 (Blue Creek), 157 (Mill Creek Watershed), 162 (Dayton), 163 (Marengo), 166 (Tucannon), 169 (Wenaha), 172 (Mountain View), 175 (Lick Creek), 178 (Peola), 181 (Couse), and 186 (Grande Ronde); (Figure 1). The landscape is dominated by agricultural land in the prairie and foothill regions, with interspersed grassland areas and brushy draws. The most common habitat in the Blue Mountains is characterized by second-growth forests consisting primarily of Ponderosa pine, Douglas fir, grand fir, and subalpine fir. The Blue Mountains have been characterized as a high plateau dissected by deep draws and canyons carved by numerous creeks and rivers.

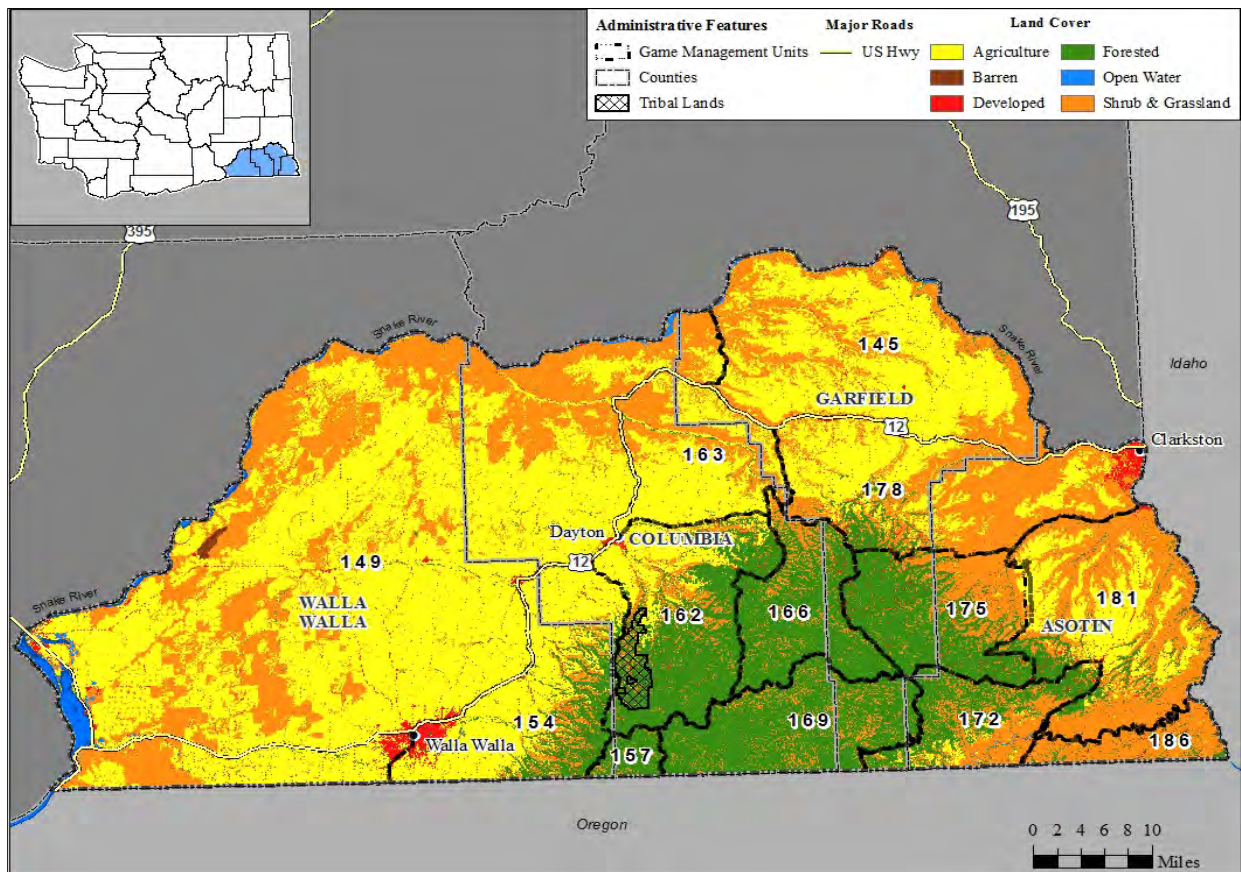


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 13 game management units that comprise the Blue Mountains elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department finalized the Blue Mountains Elk Herd Plan in 2020, which includes a population objective of maintaining herd size between 4,950 and 6,050 elk. Additional objectives include maintaining a post-hunt population with a bull:cow ratio of 22–28 bulls:100 cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of 0.50 for bulls when bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2019).

Population Surveys

The Department monitors population status by conducting aerial surveys in the early spring and uses a sightability model developed for elk in Idaho (Unsworth et al., 1999) to generate estimates of elk abundance, age ratios, and sex ratios. In early spring 2021, the Department estimated total elk abundance to be 3,600 elk (90% CI 3,506-3,812), which is 27% below the lower range of our management objective of 4,950 elk and 35% below our objective of 5,500 elk. Abundance estimates indicate the Blue Mountains elk herd was within objective from 2009 through 2017 when a severe winter was partially responsible for triggering the decline (Figure 2). The estimated bull:cow ratio in spring 2021 was 24 bulls:100 cows, which is within the management objective of 22–28 bulls:100 cows (Figure 3). The estimated calf:cow ratio in spring 2020 was 25 calves:100 cows. Estimated calf:cow ratios were consistently near 30 calves:100 cows, 2006–2016, and dropped to one of the lowest recorded levels in 2017 (Figure 4). No aerial surveys were conducted in the Spring of 2018.

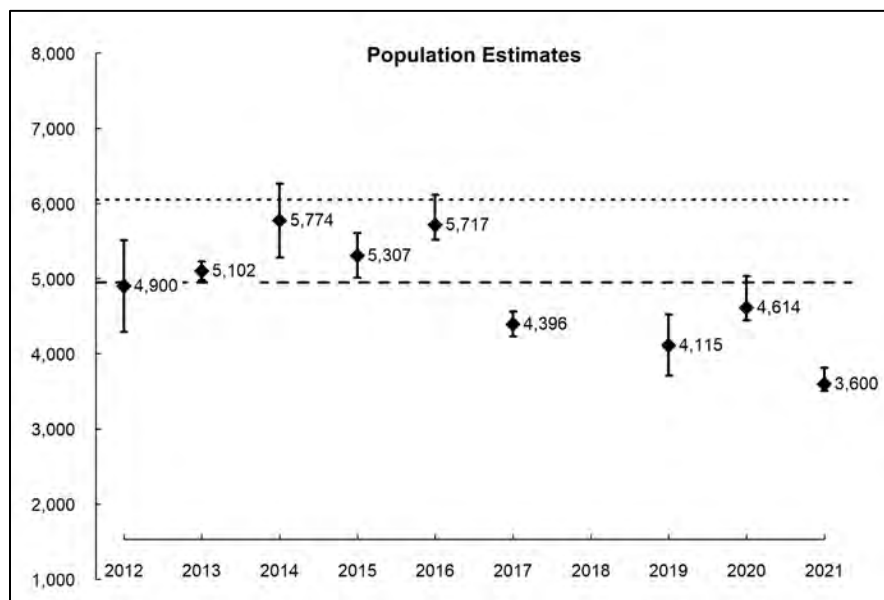


Figure 2. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance with associated 90% confidence intervals in the Blue Mountains elk herd area, 2012-2021. The dashed lines represent management objectives for total elk abundance (4,950–6,050 elk).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

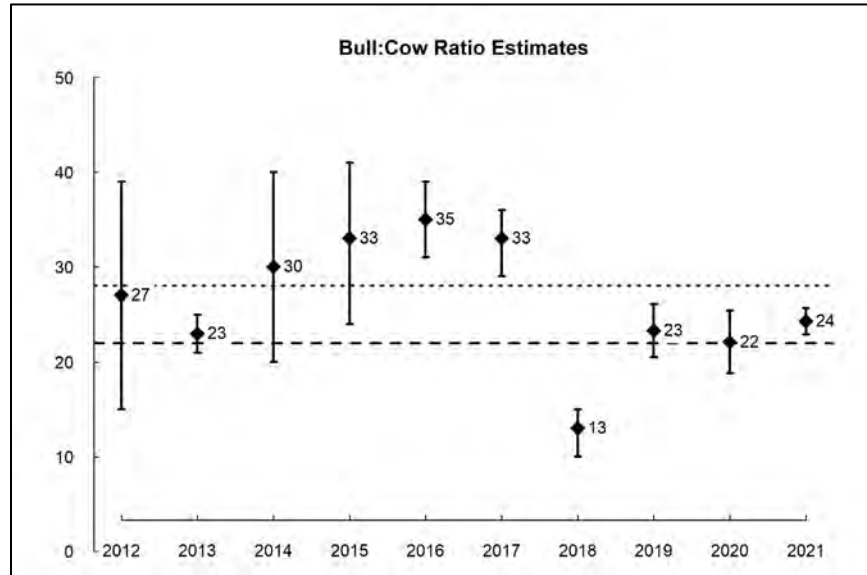


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 90% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Blue Mountains elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 22-28 bulls:100 cows. The 2018 data are based on ground sampling of historic elk winter ranges and are not thought to accurately reflect the true population ratios due to low observability of bulls from the ground.

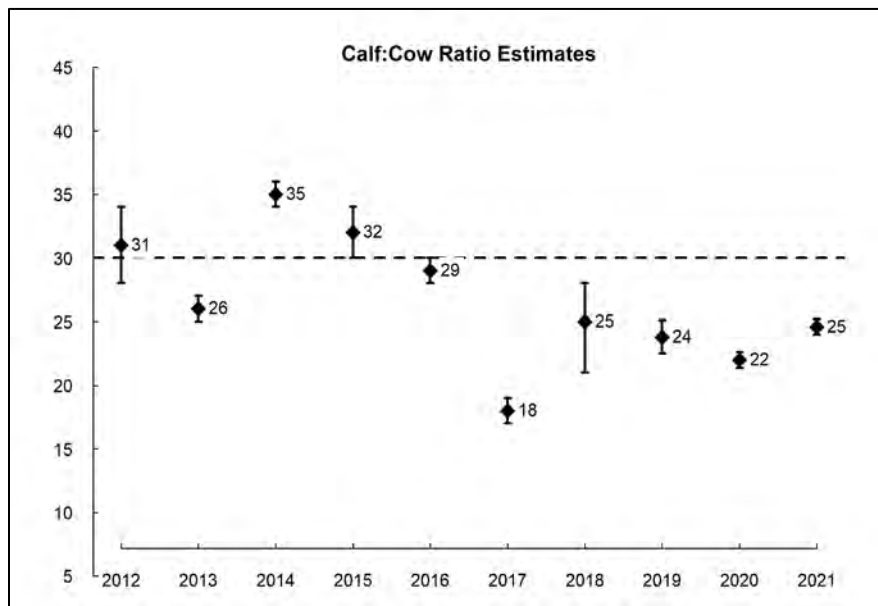


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 90% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Blue Mountains elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth. The 2018 survey data are based on ground sampling of historic elk winter ranges.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Estimates of total harvest have averaged 348 elk from 2010–2019 and were relatively stable 2010–2015 (Figure 5). The Department restricts general season bull harvest to spikes and offers opportunities to harvest branch-antlered bulls under special permits in all GMUs. Consequently, most antlered harvest consists of spikes being harvested during general seasons (Figure 6). The Department generally focuses most opportunities to harvest antlerless elk in areas associated with private land to help alleviate agricultural damage, and most of those opportunities occur during special permit seasons (Figure 7). Estimates of hunter effort during general seasons have been relatively stable since 2008 (Figure 8), while estimates of Catch Per Unit Effort (CPUE) have varied but were similar in most years (Figure 9).

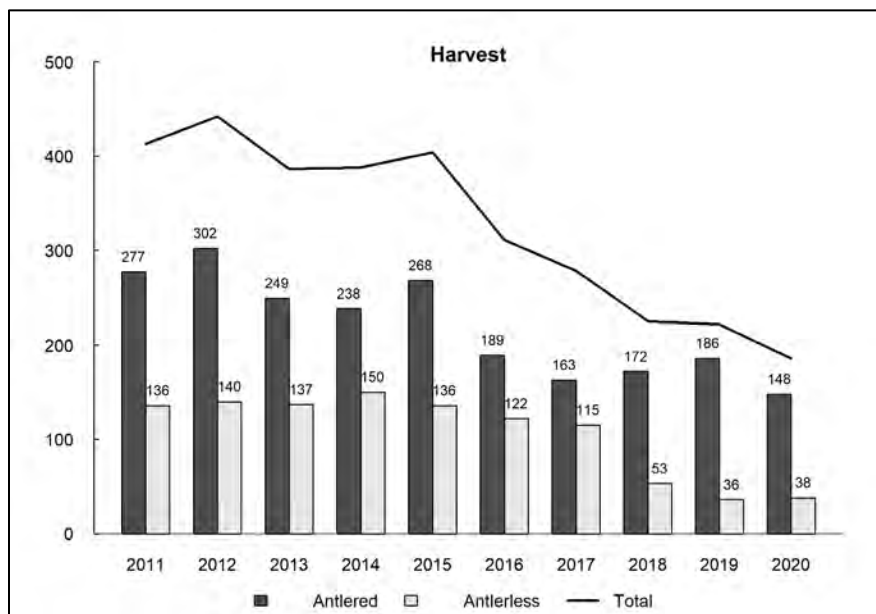


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Blue Mountains elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department, 2011-2020. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below). Estimates also do not include harvest that occurred during established Tribal seasons because that data is not collected.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

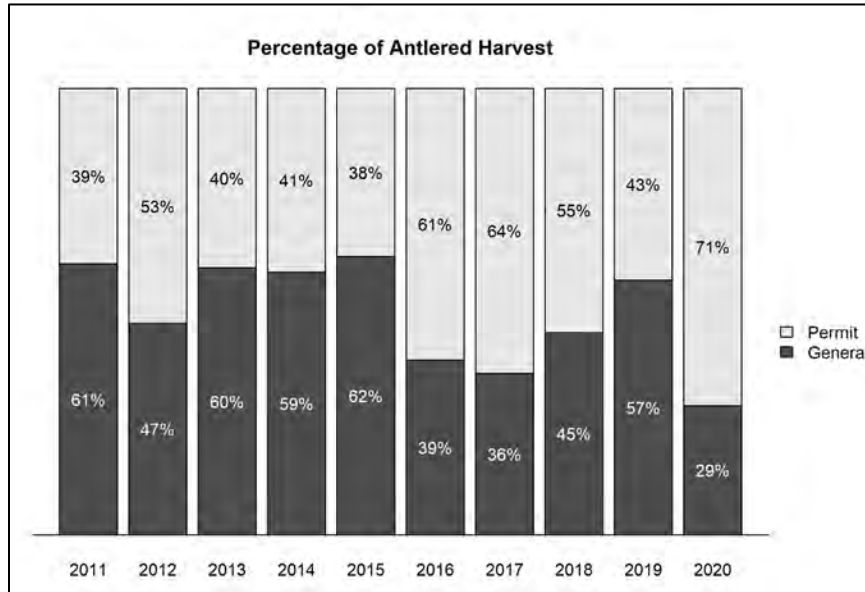


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Blue Mountains elk herd area that occurred during general and permit

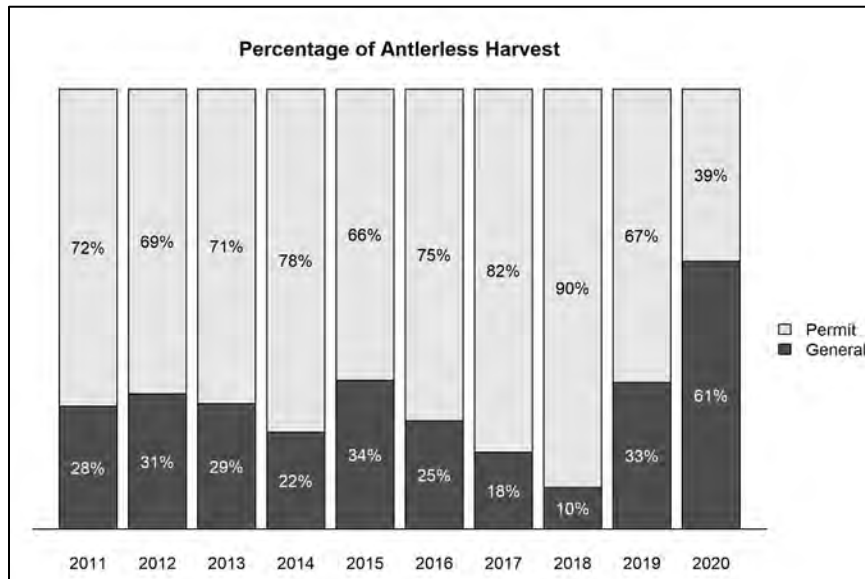


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Blue Mountains elk herd area occurring during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

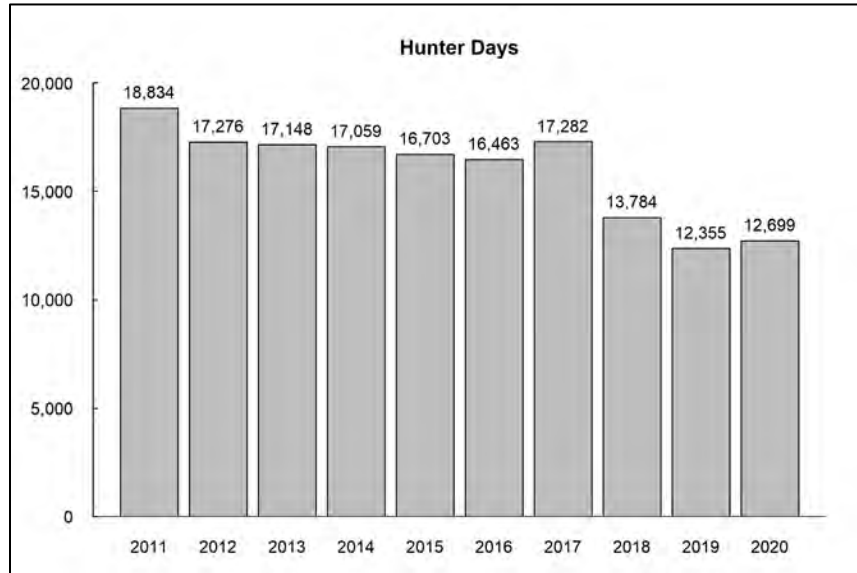


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Blue Mountains elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020

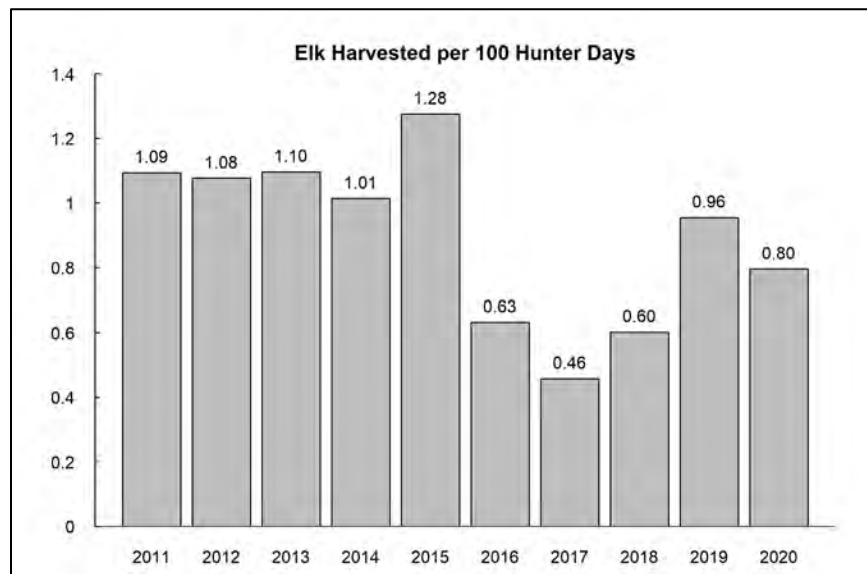


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Blue Mountains elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators of elk in the Blue Mountains include black bears, cougars, and gray wolves. Black bears and cougars occur throughout the area, but black bears are more abundant in forested areas. At the time of this writing, there are four confirmed wolf packs within the Blue Mountains elk herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Extreme weather events that strongly affect the survival of elk in the Blue Mountains elk herd area are typically rare, but extreme winter weather did occur during the 2016-2017 winter and early in 2019. Calf ratios declined dramatically, as did adult survival. Dead elk were commonly reported or observed during the later portions of the winters of 2016-2017 and 2018-2019.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

While actual elk damage claims are low, complaints from farmers are common, and elk damage continues to be a problem in some units. This is largely being addressed by the issuance of landowner depredation permits. The largest damage issues occur in GMU-154 Blue Creek, GMU-162 Dayton, GMU-178 Peola, and GMU-181 Couse. Damage tags are typically valid from July 1 – March 31, with restrictions limiting harvest to antlerless elk.

Damage issues in GMU-181 have remained high in the Cloverland area. Periodically, high numbers of elk move into the western portion of the unit (Couse), with this trend remaining over the past four years. During the reporting period, 45 antlerless elk were harvested by Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreement (DPCA) or Kill permit holders. This approach to reducing elk-caused damage to private lands is currently accomplishing its goal in a majority of the herd range. This results in more targeted hunts that directly alter elk distribution at the smaller scale.

Research

Beginning in May 2021, an elk calf mortality monitoring project began in the Blue Mountains. One hundred and twenty-five neonate calves were captured and fitted with satellite/GPS expandable collars. The aim of this effort is to estimate calf survival and determine causes of mortality, with poor calf recruitment likely being a limiting factor from recovering this elk population to management objectives. This project does not have a timeframe associated with it due to funding uncertainty. It is unknown at this time if the monitoring will continue into the next biological year.

Management Concerns

The number of elk estimated to be within the Blue Mountains herd area is 27% below the lower range of our population objective of 4,950 elk and 35% below our point objective of 5,500 elk. The decline in this population has occurred in the last five years and is likely attributed to summer droughts, severe winter conditions, and poor recruitment. A number of management actions are being considered for implementation if the calf monitoring effort clearly identifies a problem and the population continues to decline or remains below objective.

Road densities in some portions of the Blue Mountains elk herd area are above the recommended levels and have the potential to reduce use of important summer range because of human disturbance. The United States Forest Service (USFS) has closed several old roads and reduced overall road densities, but more work is needed to address elk habitat and security needs. In addition, anecdotal evidence suggests elk habitat use in early spring has changed in some portions of the Blue Mountains elk herd area due to disturbance caused by people looking for shed antlers.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Shed antler hunting and other activities on traditional winter range continue to be a concern in the Blue Mountains because these activities put elk under stress at a critical time of year. Shed antler hunting activity in GMUs 154, 162, 166, 169, 172, and 175 can be extremely intense during March and April, and disturbance associated with these activities has changed elk use patterns in these areas. Bull groups are broken and scattered into the upper elevation timber and snow, while cow/calf groups can be redistributed onto agricultural lands. Closures to human use were enacted during the later portions of winter 2018/2019 on WDFW controlled lands to reduce disturbance to elk during abnormally severe winter conditions. Closures similar in nature will be discussed as needed in the future.

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Colockum Elk Herd

JEFFERY A. BERNATOWICZ, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Colockum elk herd area is located in central Washington along the eastern foothills of the Cascades and consists of six GMUs: 249 (Alpine), 251 (Mission), 328 (Naneum), 329 (Quilomene), 330 (West Bar), 334 (Ellensburg), and 335 (Teanaway) (Figure 1).

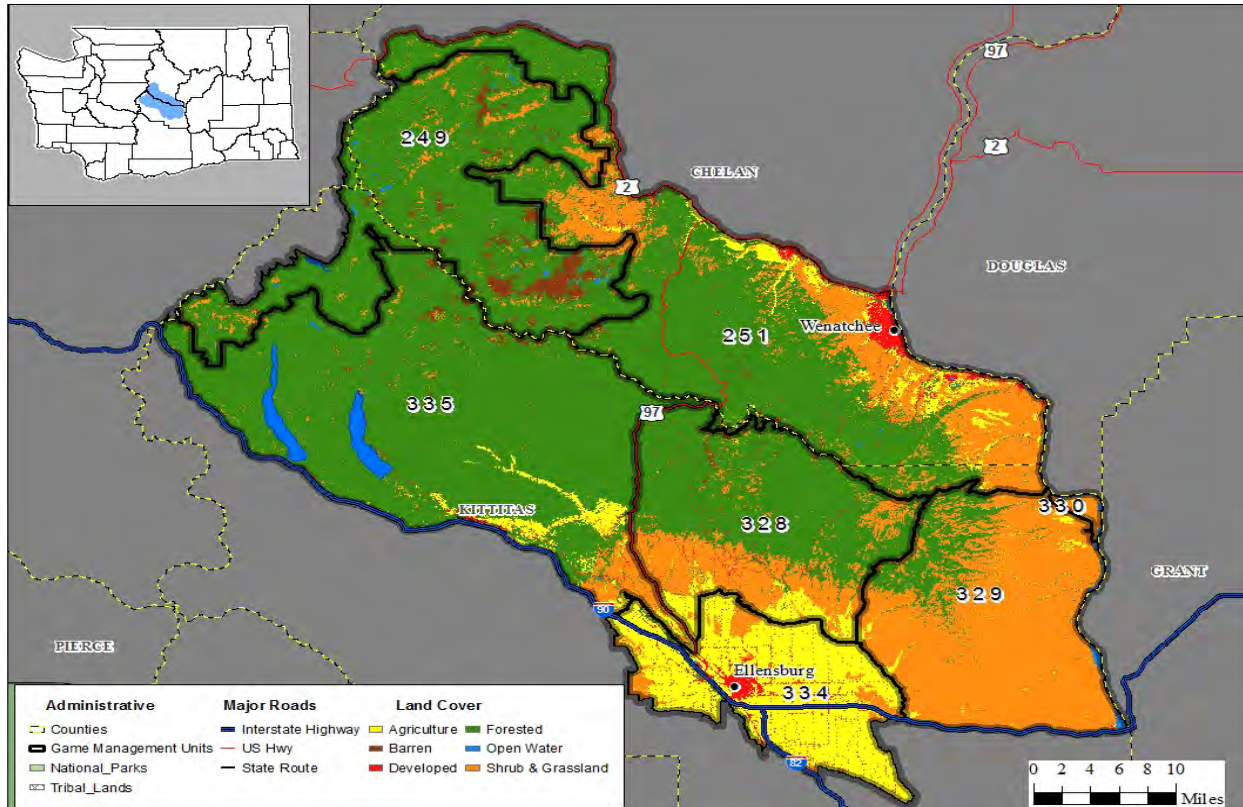


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 6 game management units that comprise the Colockum elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department’s current objective is to maintain elk abundance in the surveyed winter range post-winter at between 4,275 and 4,725 elk (i.e., $4,500 \pm 5\%$; WDFW, 2006). Additional objectives include maintaining a post-hunt population with a bull:cow ratio of 12–20 bulls:100 cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of ≥ 0.50 for bulls if bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

The Department monitors the Colockum elk herd by conducting post-winter aerial composition surveys and uses a sightability correction model developed for elk in Idaho (Unsworth et al., 1999) to estimate elk abundance, age ratios, and sex ratios in a large surveyed area of core winter range.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

The Department conducted post-hunt composition surveys in March 2021 and estimated total elk abundance on the core winter range to be 4,165 elk (90% CI = 4,128–4,203), which is slightly below the management objective. Estimates of total elk abundance steadily increased 2006–2015, declined through 2020, and increased slightly last year (Figure 2). The initial declines were the result of recent high antlerless harvests, an extended drought in 2015, and severe winter conditions during the winters of 2015-2016 and 2016-2017. Antlerless harvest (Figure 5) has now been reduced to reverse the population decline.

The Department estimated post-hunt calf:cow and bull:cow ratios in March 2020 to be 29:100 and 10:100, respectively (Figures 3, 4). The estimated bull population is below objective. The low calf recruitment has resulted in low spike-bull recruitment through hunting season. The total bull mortality is likely exceeding recruitment.

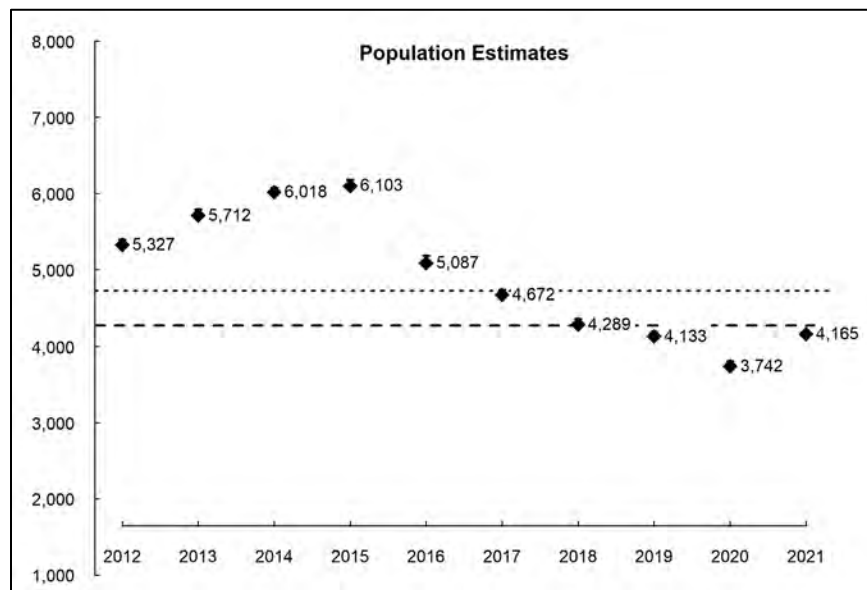


Figure 2. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance with associated 90% confidence intervals in the Colockum elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed lines represent management objectives for total elk abundance (4,275–4,725 elk).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

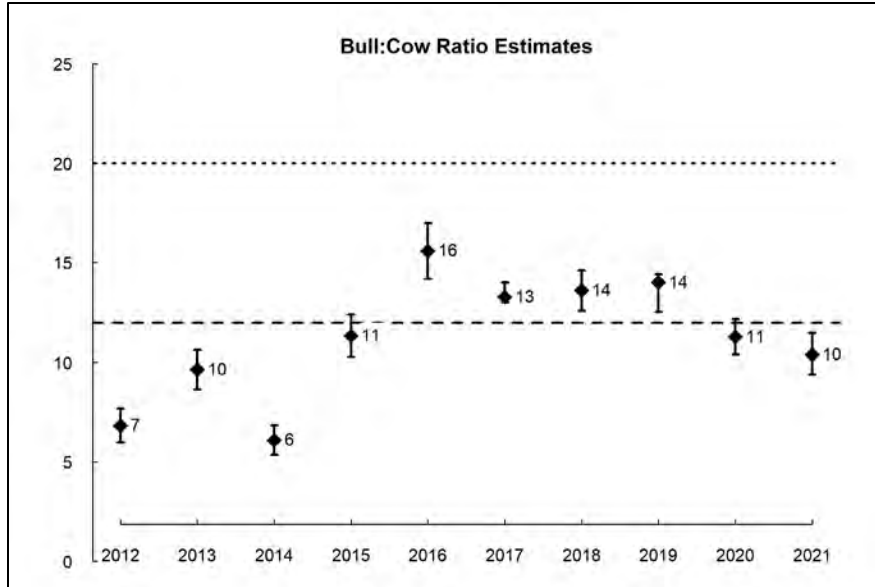


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 90% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Colockum elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows.

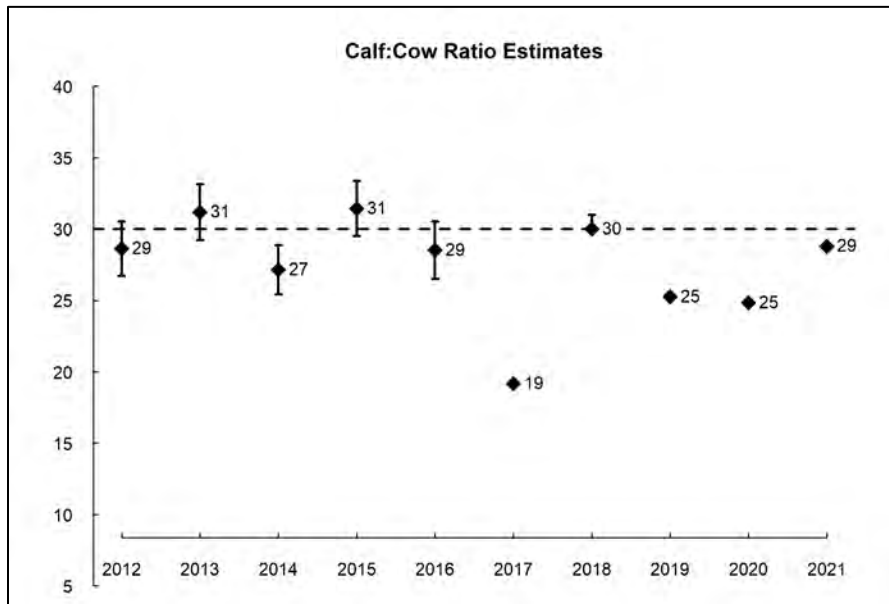


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 90% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Colockum elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department restricts general season bull harvest to true-spike bulls (1×1 bulls) in the Colockum and offers opportunities to harvest branch-antlered bulls under special permits. In 2012, the Department began to increase opportunities to harvest antlerless elk throughout the herd area to bring the herd within the established management objective, and antlerless harvest steadily increased as a result, before peaking in 2015 (Figure 5). As the population approached objective (Figure 2), the Department subsequently reduced those opportunities, and antlerless harvest has declined accordingly, 2016–2019 (Figure 5). Proportions of antlered and antlerless harvest during general and special permit seasons are shown in Figures 6 and 7. Hunter effort declined in 2010, likely in response to the Department implementing “true-spike” restrictions in 2009, but increased 2012–2018 as opportunities to harvest antlerless elk were increased (Figure 8). Hunter kills per 100 days of effort are shown in Figure 9.

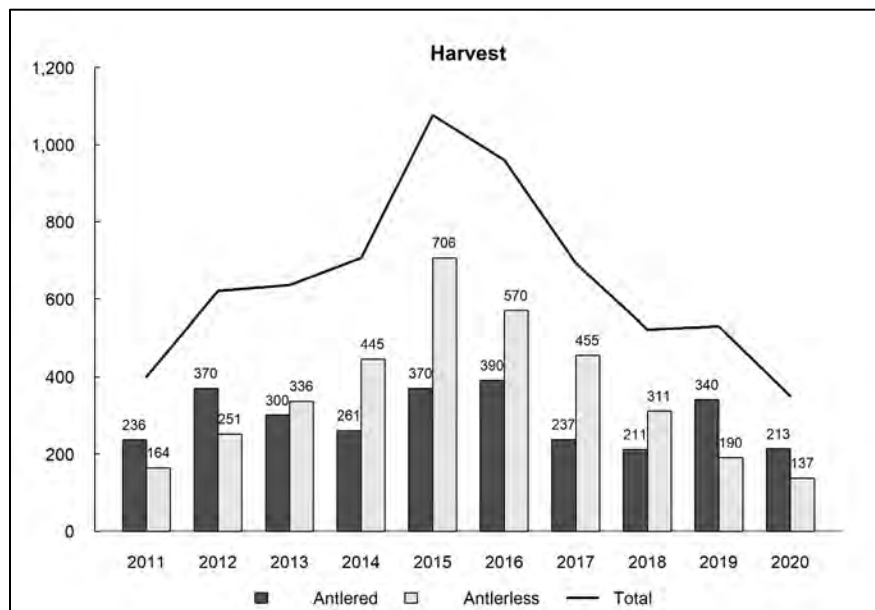


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Colockum elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department, 2011-2020. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below). Estimates also do not include harvest that occurred during Tribal seasons because those data are currently not provided.

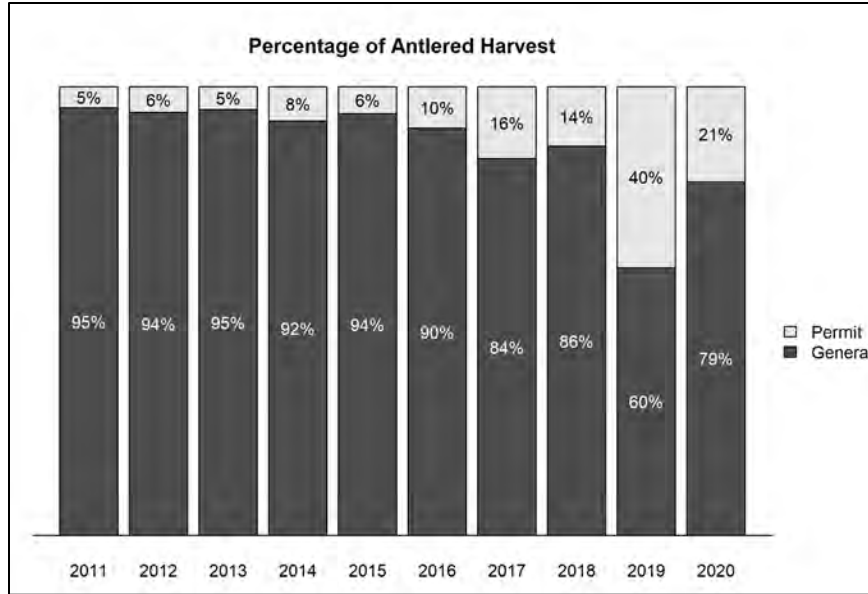


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Colockum elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

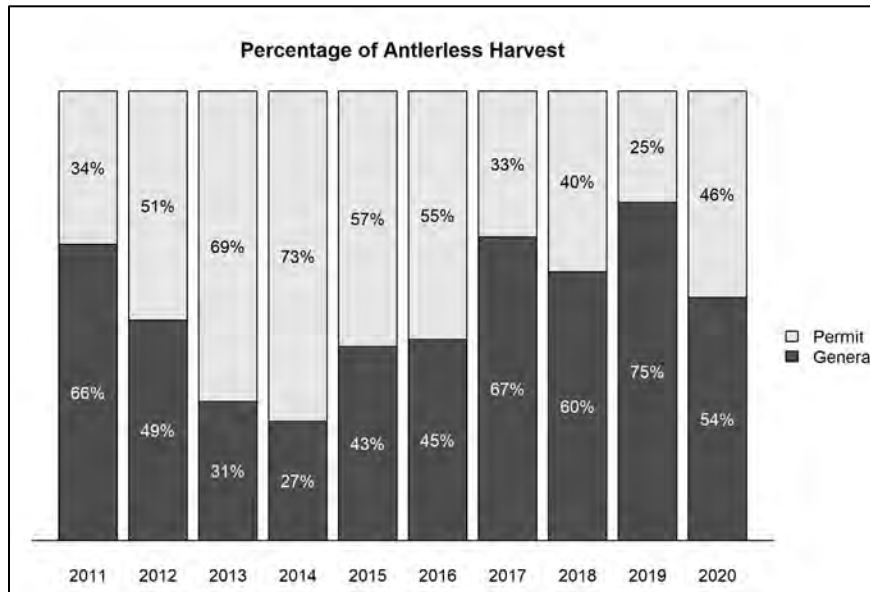


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Colockum elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

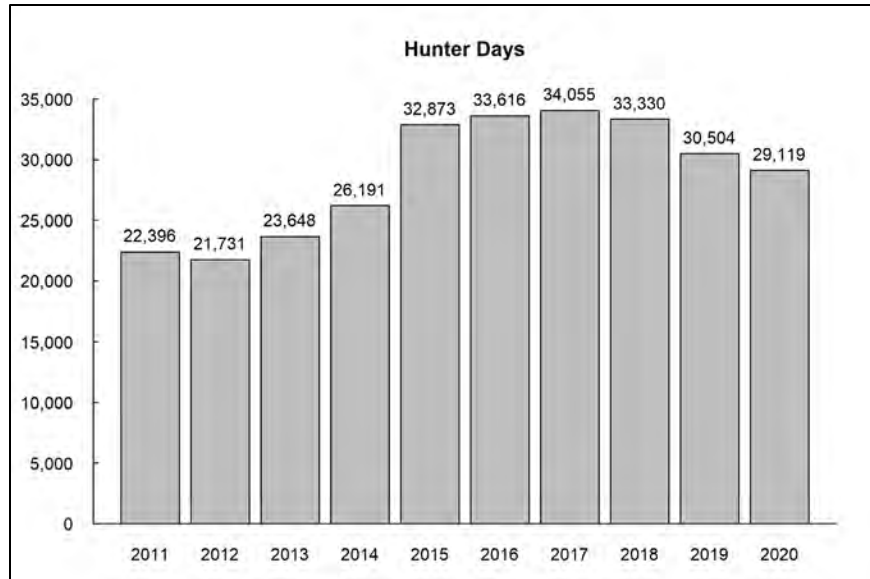


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Colockum elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

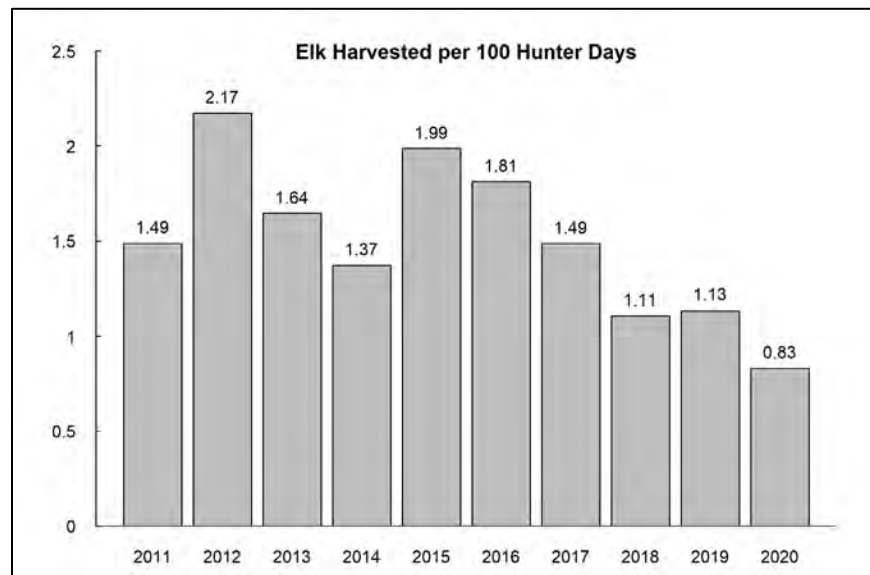


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Colockum elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common elk predators that occur within the Colockum elk herd area include black bears, cougars, and gray wolves. Black bears and cougars occur throughout the herd area, but black bears are more abundant in forested habitats. At the time of this writing, there were two confirmed wolf packs within the Colockum elk herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

The Colockum elk herd, like most elk herds, is typically robust to severe winters. The Department monitored the survival of 105 adult cow elk captured on core winter range 2008–2012 and estimated annual survival rates to be 0.92 (95% CI = 0.87–0.96); 73% of all mortalities were attributed to hunter-harvest (S. McCorquodale, WDFW, unpublished data). The Department also monitored the survival and movements of radiomarked branch-antlered bulls, 2013–2017. Fifty-five radiomarked bulls were monitored; annual survival was estimated to be 0.81 (95% CI = 0.61–0.94) for subadult bulls and 0.63 (95% CI = 0.49–0.76) for mature bulls. Twenty-five bull mortalities were documented, 21 of which were attributed to hunter-harvest (S. McCorquodale, WDFW, unpublished data). Bracken and Musser (1993) attributed all Colockum elk mortality in an earlier study to humans.

Although survival was not monitored directly, biologists observed a substantial number of elk carcasses during their annual survey following the winter of 2015–2016, which is uncommon and an indication that overwinter survival rates were reduced across all ages and sex classes. Antlerless harvest was being increased to reduce the population at the same time. After an antlerless harvest of 445 in 2014 (Fig. 5), the population increased slightly (Figure 2). Antlerless harvest increased from 261 to 706 harvested elk from 2014 to 2015, but the population decreased >1,000 elk. The decline was mostly the result of high late winter mortality followed by record low calf recruitment. Both were the result of a severe drought in 2015 and the following severe winter, which likely impacted body fat reserves and possibly resulted in reduced pregnancy rates and calf recruitment.

Habitat

Timber harvest in the Colockum elk herd area increased as timber companies logged heavily 10–20 years ago, prior to selling their lands. The logging was followed by the 42,000+ acre Table Mountain fire in 2012. Wildfires also burned more than 100,000 acres of winter range in 2013. Smaller fires have occurred annually. In the summer range, fires increase forage quantity and quality but reduce security in a heavily roaded landscape. On arid portions of the winter range, fires typically convert vegetation to grass (cheatgrass on south slopes and disturbed areas). This likely has a negative impact on elk because of reduced plant diversity and the poor forage quality of invasive plants.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

The Colockum herd is not fenced from private lands, and damage is managed by hunting, damage permits, and hazing. The boundaries of the hunts are adjusted frequently, depending on where damage is occurring. In 2004, the damage permit season was extended to August 1st – February 28th. In recent years, the general damage season closed on January 20th. Additional problem elk are being managed through hazing, Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), and Master Hunter Permits. The goal is to displace elk that have developed a habit of foraging on agricultural lands. In 2020, conflict staff issued 44 permits in response to damage complaints, and

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

35 antlerless elk were reported harvested. Another 59 antlerless elk were harvested during the Master hunter open damage general season.

During winter 2015-2016, elk were crossing Interstate-90, presumably in search of suitable forage immediately adjacent to the highway or in the median. The Washington Department of Transportation documented at least 70 elk/vehicle collisions on Interstate-90 adjacent to the Colockum elk herd core winter range, mostly in the westbound lanes. Currently, there is no barrier to keep elk off the highway or engineered wildlife crossings. WDFW responded to this issue in 2016 by hazing elk away from the highway and installing a temporary 3-D fence to keep elk from approaching the highway. However, the effectiveness of these approaches is limited, so WDFW will have to work closely with the Department of Transportation to identify long-term solutions if similar events occur in the future. Elk-vehicle conflicts were much lower, consistent with historic levels, the last five winters.

Research

The previous research projects on Colockum elk have been concluded. No new research is planned for the near future.

Management Concerns

The Colockum herd has decreased and is now below the desired population objective. The main factors contributing to that decrease were increases in antlerless harvest, drought, and severe winter events during the winters of 2015-2016 and 2016-2017. To prevent further declines, the Department has reduced permit opportunities for modern firearm and muzzleloader hunters to harvest antlerless elk, in addition to removing the general archery antlerless season. In 2020, Archery antlerless harvest will be restricted to permit only. The target antlerless harvest may stop the decline but will not likely increase the population unless there is a significant increase in calf recruitment.

Agricultural damage is a concern for some landowners in the Colockum elk herd area. There are many factors that cause elk to move into areas where they are in conflict with private landowners. Cultivated lands and irrigated pasture are attractive foraging areas for elk. Human disturbance can be high on public lands, especially during late summer, during fall hunting seasons, and in late winter when people begin hunting for shed antlers. Elk are widely distributed during times of the year when human disturbance is low, but they become concentrated in areas like the Coffin Game Reserve when human disturbance is high. The reserve offers security for elk on a landscape where secure areas are very limited.

The main tool used to manage damage has been to issue damage permits and maintain long Master Hunter seasons. Harvesting elk is less desirable than preventing elk from entering fields. Some funding for cooperative fencing recently became available. The most efficient fence would be a boundary fence along the borders of irrigated fields where elk come off public land. For fences to be effective, all landowners along the boundary would need to agree to a fence so that there would not be gaps. Unfortunately, WDFW has not been able to obtain a full landowner agreement.

Much of the Colockum elk herd area also has a high road density and limited security cover. The high road density and lack of cover historically resulted in high yearling bull vulnerability to

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

hunting. The true-spike regulation has more than doubled yearling recruitment and increased the overall bull population. From 2016-2019, the estimated bull:cow ratio was within objectives for the traditional winter range that is surveyed. The decrease from 2020-2021 to 10 bulls per 100 cows is concerning. It is not known if the decrease is due to portions of the mature bull subpopulation wintering outside the surveyed portion of the winter range or due to high mortality/low recruitment. New techniques/methods may need to be adopted to better estimate the total bull subpopulation.

Management Conclusions

The Colockum herd is below the desired total population objective. Steps have been taken to slow the decline and stabilize the herd. It is likely antlerless harvest restrictions will be needed to be maintained/increased to get the population back to objectives. The Colockum herd has fallen below bull:cow ratio objectives on the surveyed portion of winter range. True-spike general season hunting has reduced yearling bull mortality, but adult bull mortality may be increasing while recruitment is decreasing. Adjustment of the current survey structure is needed to better estimate the full complement of adult bulls in the population.

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Mount St. Helens Elk Herd

ERIC HOLMAN, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Mount St. Helens elk herd is located in southwest Washington and is comprised of 14 GMUs: 505 (Mossyrock), 520 (Winston), 522 (Loo-Wit), 524 (Margaret), 550 (Coweeman), 554 (Yale), 556 (Toutle), 560 (Lewis River), 564 (Battle Ground), 568 (Washougal), 572 (Siouxon), 574 (Wind River), 578 (West Klickitat), and 388 (Grayback) (Figure 1).

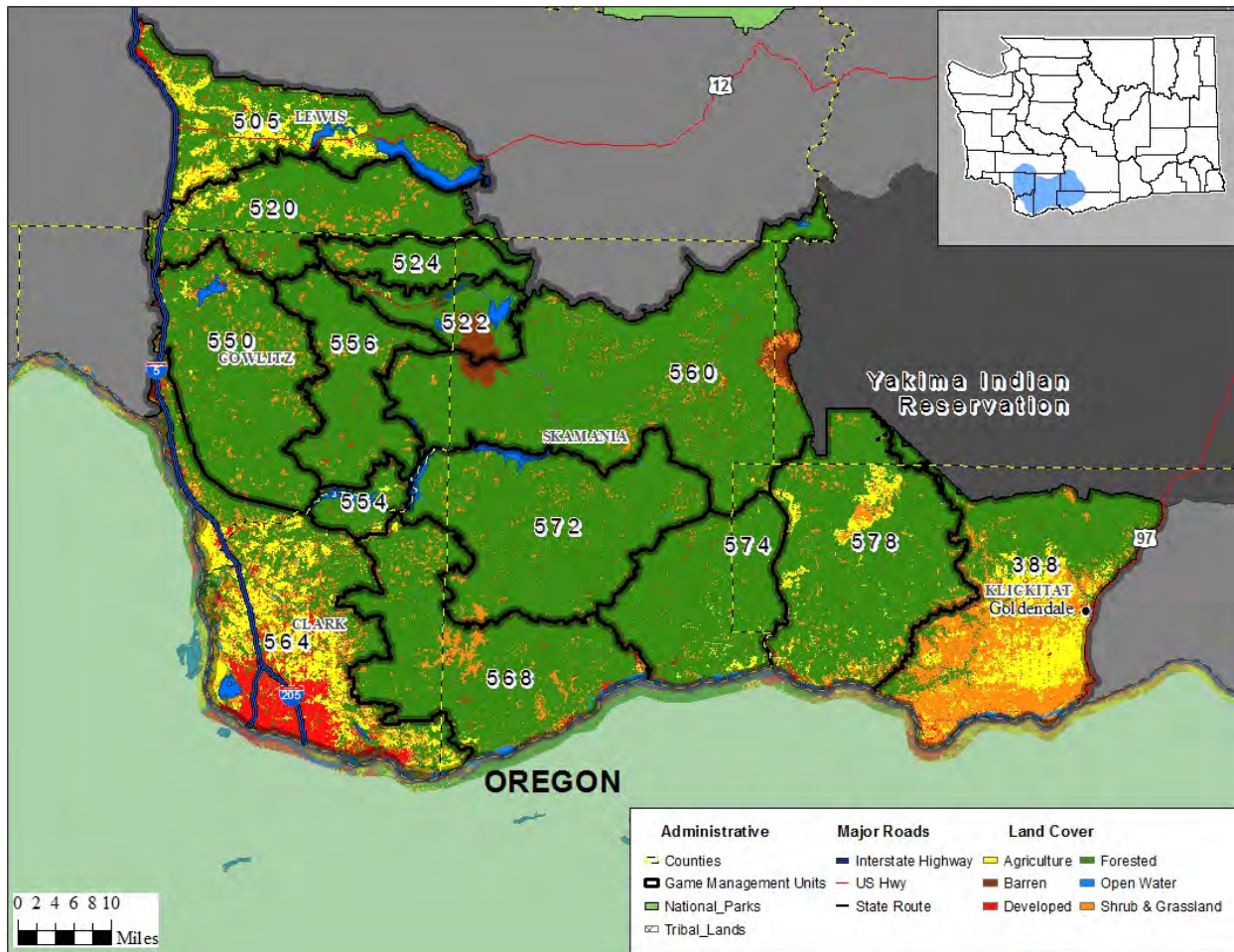


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 14 game management units that comprise the Mount St. Helens elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

In response to the frequency and magnitude of winter mortality events in the 2000s, the Department began liberalizing opportunities to harvest antlerless elk in 2007 with the objective of reducing the Mount St. Helens elk herd by 35% (WDFW, 2006). The Department’s current objective is to promote population stability as indexed by estimates of total elk abundance in spring. Additional herd objectives include maintaining a post-hunt population with a bull:cow of 12-20 bulls:100

cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of 0.50 for bulls when bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2014). The Mount St. Helens Elk Herd Management Plan (WDFW, 2006) also outlines objectives to continue efforts that monitor and improve winter habitat and wintering elk populations in the Toutle River valley. In addition, plan objectives address minimizing damage conflicts, increasing public appreciation of the elk resource, and using sound science to monitor the herd.

Population Surveys

The Department began monitoring population trends in 2009 by indexing total elk abundance within the core herd area (GMUs 520, 522, 524, 550, 556) using a sightability model developed specifically for the Mount St. Helens elk herd (McCorquodale et al., 2014). Unfortunately, the COVID-19 pandemic and associated restrictions on work activities did not allow the survey to occur in 2020 or 2021. The survey was most recently completed in March 2019. At that time, the Department estimated total elk abundance within the core herd area to be 1,389 elk (95% CI 1,352-1,497). Estimates of total elk abundance had been relatively stable since the Department reduced opportunities to harvest antlerless elk following the 2012 season (Figure 2); however, after the severe winter of 2016-17, the abundance estimate declined by roughly 33%. In March 2019, the Department estimated post-hunt bull:cow and calf:cow ratios to be 40:100 and 35:100, respectively. Bull:cow increased since 2010 during the period of purposeful herd reduction and are well above management objective (Figure 3). Calf:cow have ranged from 25-41:100 over the past ten years (Figure 4).

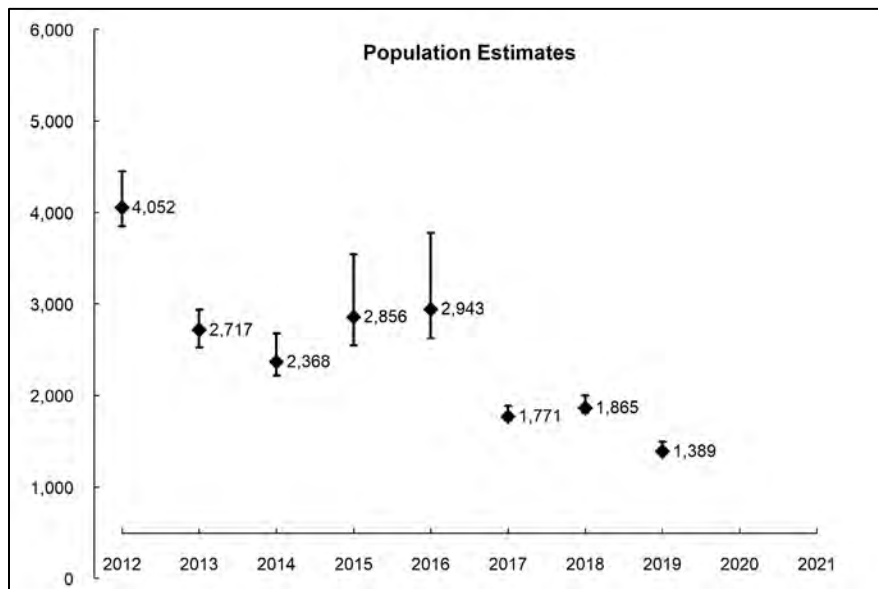


Figure 2. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance with associated 95% confidence intervals in the core range of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area (GMUs 520, 522, 524, 550, 556), spring 2011-2021. WDFW did not conduct population surveys in spring 2020 and 2021.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

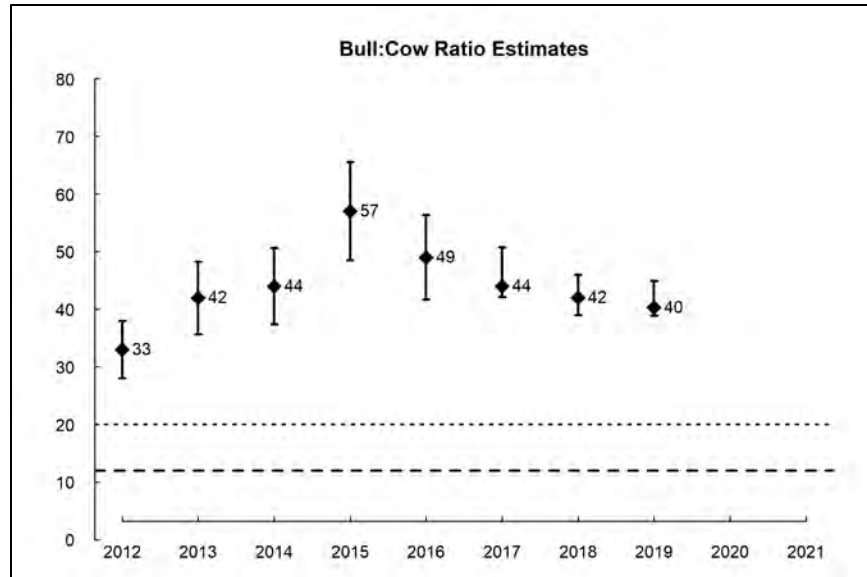


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow in the core range of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area (GMUs 520, 522, 524, 550, 556), spring 2011-2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows. WDFW did not conduct population surveys in spring 2020 and 2021.

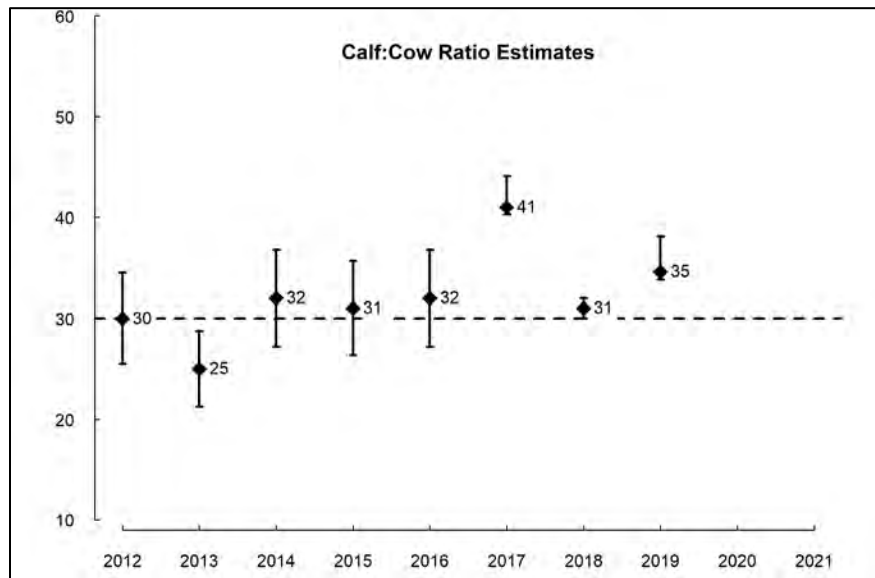


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow in the core range of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area (GMUs 520, 522, 524, 550, 556), spring 2011-2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth. WDFW did not conduct population surveys in spring 2020 and 2021.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department manages harvest opportunities in the Mount St. Helens elk herd with a combination of general season and special permit hunts. During the period this review covers, the Department restricted all elk harvest in GMUs 522 and 556 to permit-only opportunities. The Department restricted elk harvest in GMU 524 to special permit only from 1983 through 2014, then changed management strategies by allowing general season opportunities for branch-antlered bulls starting in 2015.

Estimates of harvest during general seasons averaged 937 elk during 2011-2020 and have steadily declined during this 10-year period (Figure 5). Estimates of total harvest have averaged 1,450 elk since 2011, reached a high point in 2012, and declined precipitously after the Department reduced opportunities to harvest antlerless elk in 2013 (Figure 5).

Harvest of antlered elk in the Mount St. Helens herd area occurs primarily during general seasons, and most hunts are managed with a 3-point or greater antler point restriction (Figure 6). Antlerless elk harvest occurs during a mix of general and permit-only seasons. Opportunities to harvest antlerless elk during general seasons occur primarily in areas where the Department's objective is to maintain low numbers of elk or in areas where the population is robust enough to sustain general season harvest of females (Figure 7). Elk harvest within reported tribal hunting seasons are minimal in the Mount St. Helens herd area, totaling just eight antlered and one antlerless elk during 2011-20.

Hunter effort within the Mount St. Helens herd area has steadily declined since 2011 but did increase slightly during 2020 (Figure 8). In contrast, catch per unit effort (CPUE) has varied considerably during 2011-20 but reached a low point for this period during the 2018 hunting season (Figure 9).

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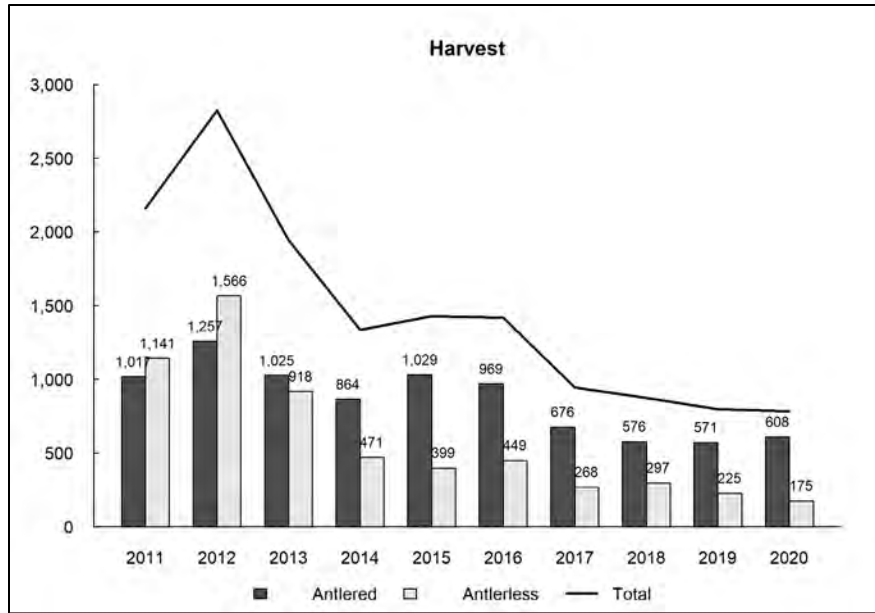


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction).

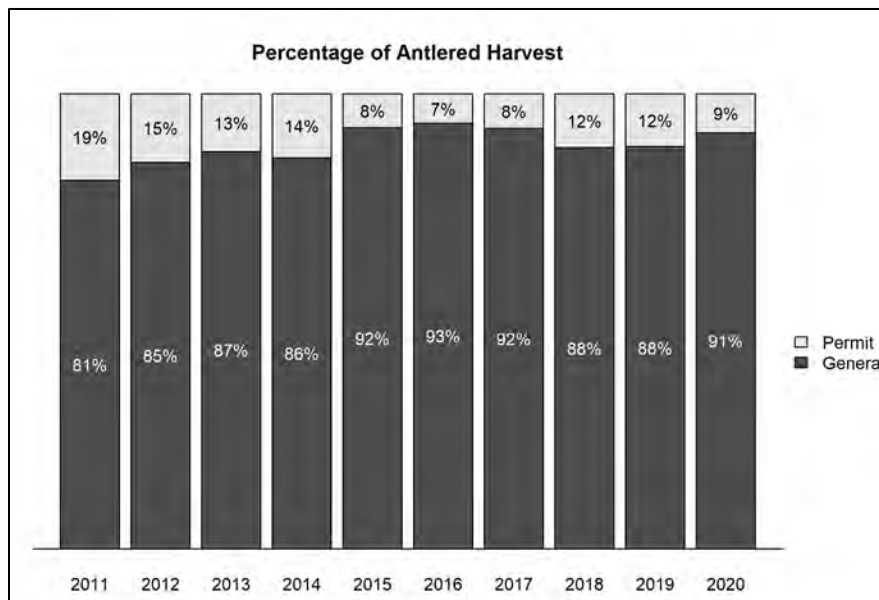


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020. Harvest during established tribal seasons accounted for <1% of the antlered harvest and is not reported here.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

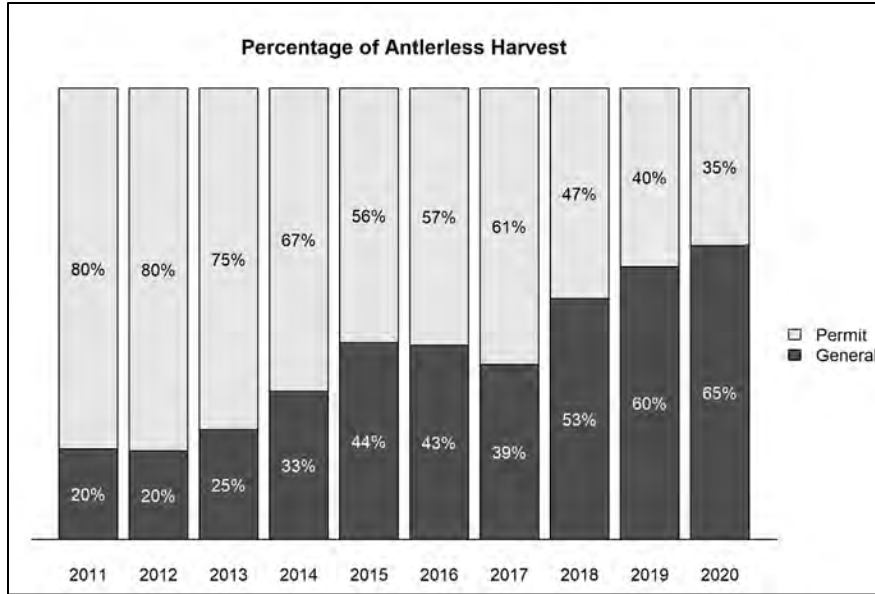


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area that occurred during general and permit season, 2011-2020. Harvest during established tribal seasons accounted for <1% of the antlerless harvest and is not reported here.

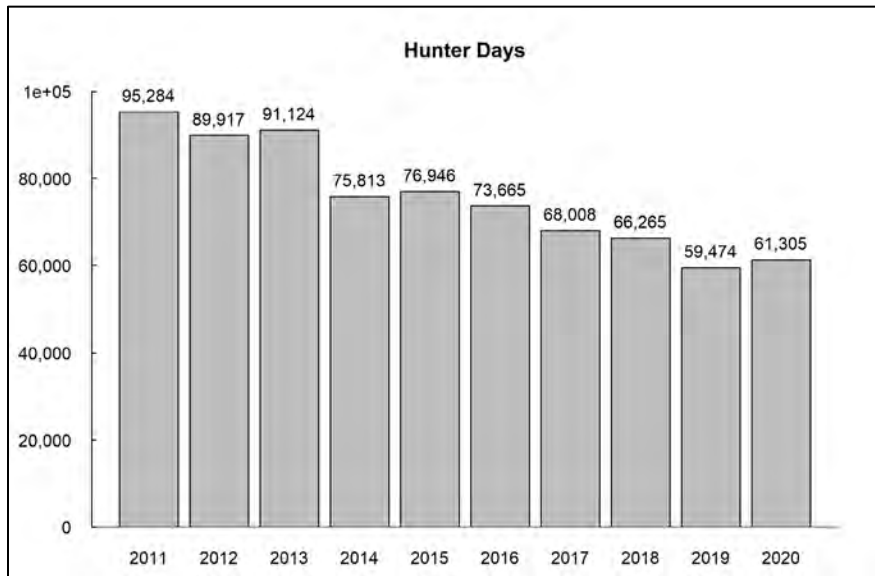


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

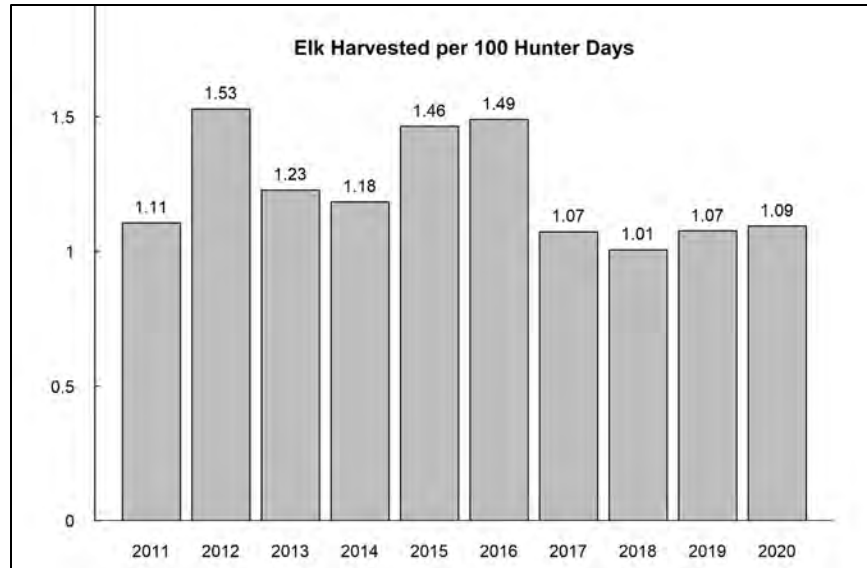


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators that occur throughout the Mount St. Helens elk herd area include black bears and cougars. At the time of this writing, there are no documented gray wolf packs in the herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

Some elk in portions of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area are susceptible to increased overwinter mortality events when severe winter and dry summer-fall conditions persist (McCorquodale et al., 2014). From 1999-2019, the Department has conducted an annual winter elk mortality survey on the Mount St. Helens Wildlife Area and documented the number of elk carcasses detected. Since that time, the number of elk carcasses detected has varied annually, averaging 36 per year, and has been above the 21-year average on seven separate occasions, most recently in 2014. The survey was not conducted in 2020 or 2021 due to the COVID-19 pandemic and associated work restrictions.

The Department recently completed monitoring the survival and movements of adult cow elk in GMUs 520, 522, 524, 550, and 556. The study of elk in this portion of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area is an effort to determine the effects of treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) on elk survival and reproduction. The project spanned February 2015 through May 2019 and involved capturing, collaring, and monitoring of 178 individual elk. The Department is in the process of analyzing this information.

The Department (McCorquodale et al., 2014) monitored the survival of branch-antlered bulls and adult female elk from 2009–2013 but did not attempt to account for elk mortalities by cause beyond distinguishing between hunting-related and natural causes (e.g., predation, disease, winter mortality, etc. combined). Estimated annual survival of adult female elk in GMUs 520, 522, 524, and 556 was 0.85 (95% CI 0.78–0.91) from 2009–2011 and 0.52 (95% CI 0.38–0.65) in 2012. Estimated annual survival rates of adult female elk in GMU 550 from 2009–2011 were 0.64 (95%

CI 0.48–0.78) and 0.52 (95% CI 0.38–0.65) in 2012. The estimated branch-antlered bull survival was 0.56 (95% CI 0.43–0.67) across years and GMUs. Most mortality events were associated with harvest-related causes in 2009–2011, while the reduced survival in 2012 was attributed to increased winter mortality.

Habitat

Most of the landscape that comprises the Mount St. Helens elk herd area is a roughly even split of private industrial forestlands and U.S. Forest Service (USFS) managed lands. Smaller portions of the herd area are made up of State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) managed forestlands, agricultural areas, urban/suburban lands, small forestland ownerships, WDFW, etc.

The industrial forestlands consist of a mosaic of clear-cuts, relatively open young regeneration stands, dense second-growth stands of timber, and stream buffers lined with second-growth forest. Industrial timber management practices benefit elk by increasing the quantity of early seral habitats and the subsequent forage base. While beneficial to elk, management practices are not conducted to purposefully increase or improve elk habitat. Additionally, intensive forest management practices, including the planting of dense stands of fast-growing conifer seedlings and the application of herbicides during the re-establishment of the timber stand, may also be affecting overall productivity due to reduced forage quality and availability. These effects work in tandem by reducing the number of favorable plants available as forage in the early term and completion of forest canopy closure (typically approximately age 12) far earlier than would occur in a naturally regenerated stand. The magnitude of those effects is influenced by site-specific types of post-timber harvest treatments and plant compositions and the number of years since timber harvest. A commonality among these varying factors is that the best quality and most quantity of favorable forage seems to occur approximately three to 14 years after timber harvest, whether herbicide treatments are applied or not. However, the differences between available, favorable forage in that time period for treated and untreated stands can still be substantial. A full discussion on the complexity of these habitat interactions is beyond the scope of this report and we refer the reader to Ulappa (2015) and Geary et al. (2012) for a more comprehensive understanding of this research.

In contrast, very limited timber harvest on federal forests in the last three decades has led to a general decline in the quality of elk habitat.

The Department continues to take steps to enhance forage quality on the North Fork Toutle River Mudflow Unit of the Mount St. Helens Wildlife Area within GMU 522. Forage enhancement efforts have included planting and fertilizing forage plots; mowing pasture; controlling Scotch broom, yellow and mouse-ear hawkweed, and non-native invasive blackberries; and planting trees in upland areas and along the banks of the North Fork Toutle River to reduce bank erosion and re-establish tree cover in areas where Scotch broom had been removed.

The Department recently completed habitat enhancement activities on the Hoffstadt Unit of the Mt. St. Helens Wildlife Area. This work included conducting thinning of dense conifer stands; creating openings within forested stands; treating invasive plants; establishing forage including grasses, clover, and peas on abandoned roadways and landings; and re-establishing diverse forest stands. These enhancements were conducted in portions of GMUs 522, 524, and 556.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

In addition, activities on approximately 16,000 acres of mitigation lands managed by PacifiCorps include forest canopy removal, fertilization, establishment of forage plots, treatment of invasive plants, maintenance of farmlands and meadows for elk habitat, and creation of meadows and openings within the forested landscape. These enhanced habitats provide high-quality foraging opportunities for elk.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Conflicts with the production of agricultural crops occur throughout the lower-elevation portions of the Mount St. Helens Elk Herd area. Elk damage complaints have decreased in recent years, reflecting the reduced elk population. A variety of crops are impacted by elk damage, but most of the damage occurs on fields used for hay production.

Wildlife Conflict Specialists work closely with producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which identify a plan to reduce the amount of damage incurred to agricultural crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. Non-lethal methods of discouraging elk use are an important component to reducing elk damage and are generally attempted prior to the use of lethal response. Conflict Specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal means, including electrified fladry fencing, noisemakers (bird bangers, critter gitters, propane cannons), hazing and herding on foot, with a vehicle or with a dog, scarecrow-like electronic devices, and odor-based repellents such as Plantskydd.

Lethal methods of deterring elk are also used. These efforts include special late and early season damage hunts within specified elk areas, a region-wide pool of Master Hunters, Youth Hunters, and Hunters with Disabilities for immediate response to damage issues, as well as landowner damage permits. These authorizations to lethally remove elk usually require that the landowner allows some public hunting on their property. Wildlife Conflict Specialists negotiate the amount of lethal elk removal and public access on a case-by-case basis with each landowner. Collectively, these hunts are designed to decrease the number of elk causing the damage and/or to haze elk from the area.

In recent years, the most acute situation of elk damage to agricultural crops has been associated with the mid-elevation valleys of Trout Lake and portions of the Glenwood and Gilmer valleys within GMU 578. These valleys provide year-round habitat and are considered historic winter range for elk occupying the south Cascade mountains. The aggressive use of landowner kill-permits and some non-lethal deterrents have failed to reduce this conflict over the course of many years. In order to help with this conflict, the Department implemented a liberalized late muzzleloader season in GMU 578 starting in 2018. This general season opportunity resulted in more harvest than anticipated, so it has been replaced with a limited permit opportunity for antlerless elk for the 2021 hunting season.

Legislative funding during the 2019-21 biennium provided WDFW with cost-share funds for deer/elk fencing to protect agricultural crops. This funding allowed WDFW Conflict Specialists to work with two different producers in GMU 574 and one producer in GMU 554 to successfully construct fence projects in 2020 on their respective properties. As a condition of their individual cost-share agreements, producers who enter into these agreements are ineligible to file crop damage claims in the future, and thus none of the producers who received cost-share funding

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

were enrolled in DPCAs in 2020-2021. Furthermore, the fencing projects eliminated elk damage to crops on these farms.

Table 1 shows a summary of permits issued to landowners allowing the take of elk causing agricultural damage in the Mount St. Helens Elk Herd during 2020-21. Collectively, these hunts are designed to decrease the number of elk causing damage and/or to haze elk from the area.

Table 1. Number of DPCA'S (Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements), Permits to lethally remove elk causing damage to agricultural crops, and resulting number of elk removed, Mt. St. Helens elk herd, 2020-21.

| GMU | DPCA'S | Landowner Permits | Public Permits | Total Permits | Elk Removed |
|-----|--------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|-------------|
| 505 | 9 | 13 | 1 | 14 | 10 |
| 520 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| 568 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 1 |
| 574 | 4 | 13 | 1 | 14 | 12 |
| 578 | 12 | 39 | 1 | 40 | 26 |
| SUM | 29 | 70 | 4 | 74 | 51 |

Research

The research associated with TAHD (discussed above) is scheduled for continued data analysis during 2021. It is anticipated that this effort will shed light on the impacts of TAHD on the survival and reproductive fitness of adult female elk. Additional information will include survival rates and reproductive fitness of elk not afflicted with TAHD, habitat use, cause-specific mortality among study animals, and other variables.

Management Concerns

Treponeme-associated hoof disease

Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) of elk results in abnormal hoof growth, cavitating sole ulcers, and in severe cases, eventual sloughing of the hoof capsule. Elk severely affected by TAHD often have reduced mobility and body condition. Consequently, it seems reasonable to assume elk would have a reduced probability of survival or reproductive potential. However, it is unknown how TAHD affects the population dynamics of herds where TAHD occurs. This is the focus of ongoing research. The Department is also conducting research to better estimate the distribution and prevalence of TAHD. To learn more about the Department's efforts associated with investigating TAHD, please visit the Department's hoof disease webpage: <https://wdfw.wa.gov/species-habitats/diseases/elk-hoof>.

Habitat Conditions on Federal Lands

Habitat conditions on federally managed lands within the Mount St. Helens elk herd area are of concern. Large-scale fire, timber harvest, disease, or other succession re-setting events are largely absent from the federal lands. The resulting landscape is dominated by closed-canopy forest, much of which was harvested from roughly 1950-1990 and subsequently replanted with dense Douglas fir trees. These stands provide little in the way of elk forage and lack the diversity and forage resources of either older or younger forests. While some forest thinning projects have been completed by the USFS and do provide more robust forage resources, at least temporarily, elk forage and therefore, elk populations will continue to be suppressed in GMUs 560, 572, and 574.

Fee-Only Hunting Access Restrictions

In 2014, the largest industrial forestland owner within the Mount St. Helens elk herd area implemented a fee-only access system for hunting and other recreation on their lands. This system limited the number of individuals allowed access to these lands and has continued in the years that have followed. The effects of this limited access to elk hunting opportunity are difficult to quantify as the landowners don't own entire Game Management Units, some individuals elect to pay the access fee, some individuals elect to hunt in another area, and some may decide to quit hunting. It is probable that the reduction in participation over the years (Figure 8) partially reflects this reduction in free, unlimited hunting access within a large portion of the Mount St. Helens elk herd area. Ramifications of reduced hunter access and participation are twofold as they impact the Department's goals to maximize recreational access to wildlife and likely reduce hunter participation and recruitment, therefore undermining the capacity to manage elk and other wildlife.

Management Conclusions

Population monitoring indicates that the surveyed portion of the Mount St. Helens elk herd has declined by approximately two-thirds over the past ten years. While the Department's objective within the Mt. St. Helens Elk Herd Plan did call for a reduction of approximately one-third, the population is now significantly below that target. Accordingly, opportunities to harvest antlerless elk have been steadily reduced during this timeframe. Additionally, estimates of calf:cow ratios during this period suggest calf recruitment rates are at a level that should promote population growth or stability. Despite reductions in antlerless hunting opportunities and apparently robust calf recruitment, the population has not shown any indication of reversing its downward trend. The lack of 2020 and 2021 survey information means that the next assessment of this population will be generated no sooner than spring of 2022.

The overall population level, treponeme-associated hoof disease, habitat condition on federal lands, the nutritional condition of the animals, and fee-access systems remain concerns for the Mount St. Helens elk herd. An updated herd plan is needed. The existing plan is now more than ten years old and does not reflect current conditions. Specifically, the plan was written before the presence of hoof disease in southwest Washington elk, prior to the organizational change of wildlife management staff addressing wildlife-human conflicts, and during a time when the elk population was much greater in number.

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North Cascade Elk Herd

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CALLIE MOORE, Assistant Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The North Cascade Elk Herd (NCEH) is the smallest of 10 herds formally managed by the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW or Department). The herd area is located in northwest Washington and consists of five Game Management Units (GMU; Figure 1), which includes 407 (North Sound), 418 (Nooksack), 437 (Sauk), 448 (Stillaguamish), and 450 (Cascade).

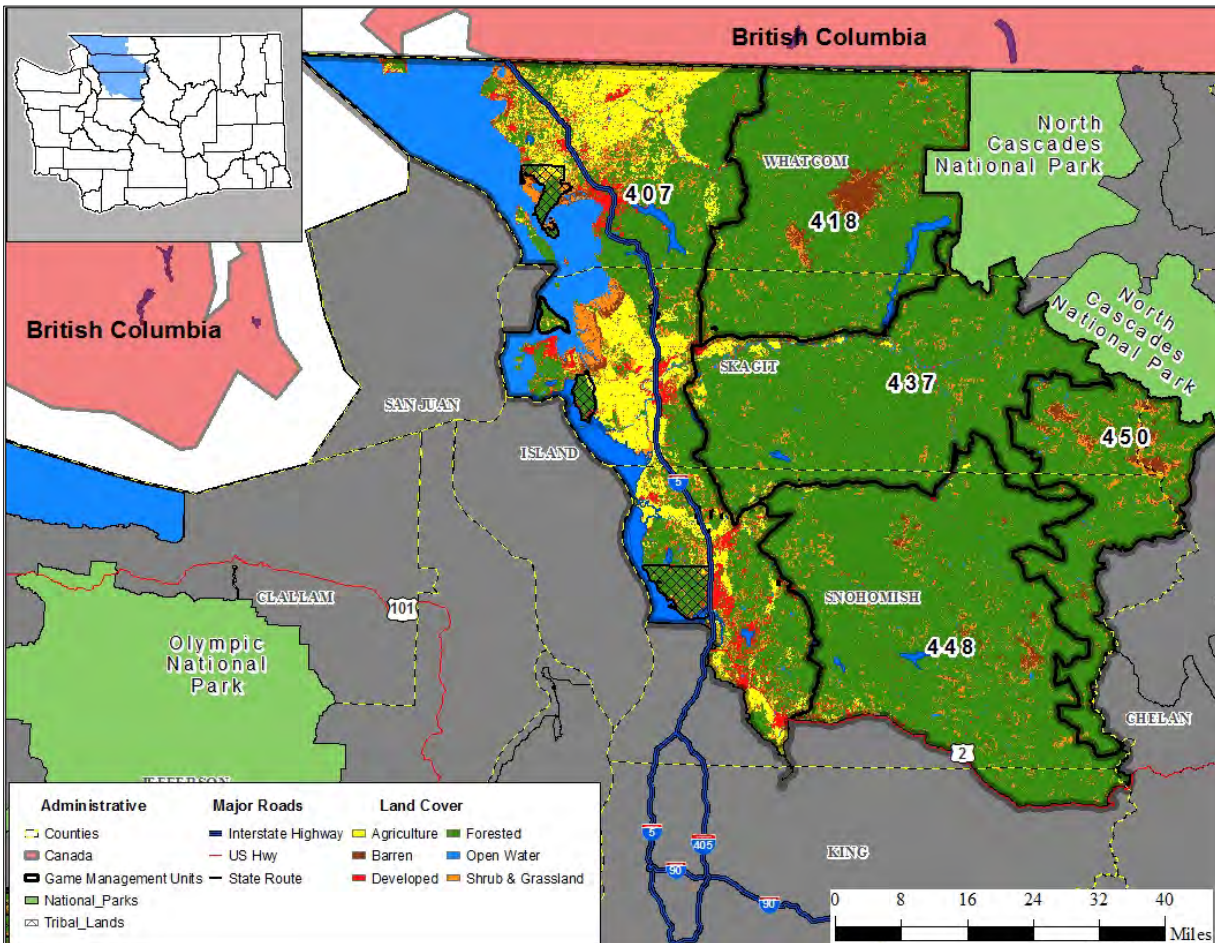


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 5 game management units that comprise the North Cascade elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department completed the most recent NCEH Plan in 2018 (WDFW, 2018). Current objectives include maintaining a post-hunt population with a bull:cow ratio of 12–20 bulls:100 cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of greater than 0.50 for bulls when bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

In cooperation with the Point Elliot Treaty Tribes, the Department conducts an aerial population survey during spring in the core herd area (GMUs 407, 418, and 437). WDFW derives estimates of total elk abundance and estimates of the cow subpopulation within the survey area using a variant of mark-resight known as the logit-normal mixed effects model (McCorquodale et al., 2011, 2013) whenever the required replicate flights during a survey period are performed. When single aerial surveys are performed due to weather, cost, or other factors, as in 2017, 2018, and 2020, total elk abundance is based on a Lincoln-Petersen (L-P) estimate.

Replicate survey flights were conducted in spring 2021. Biologists estimated total elk abundance within the core herd area to be 1,194 (95% CI = 1,108–1,287) elk (Figure 2). Estimates of bull:cow and calf:cow ratios derived from uncorrected observation data were 18 bulls:100 cows (Figure 3) and 32 calves:100 cows (Figure 4), respectively. Bull:cow ratios are within the post-hunt management objective of 12–20 bulls:100 cows (Figure 3), and calf:cow ratios represent good to excellent calf recruitment rates in most years (Figure 4).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department and Point Elliot Treaty Tribes implemented a harvest moratorium throughout most of the herd area during 1997–2006 because managers believed the herd had declined to as few as 300 elk. General season opportunities continue to be limited, but managers have increased special permit opportunities as the population has increased. Similarly, antlerless harvest has expanded over the past few years and is primarily limited to agricultural areas where conflict with commercial agricultural producers can be high.

Estimates of antlered harvest during 2015–2020 generally have remained high (Figure 5), compared to previous years, due to increases in estimated elk abundance, increases in special permit opportunities, high estimated bull:cow ratios (Figure 3), and a need to address crop damage concerns. Most antlered harvest occurs during permit seasons (Figure 6). Estimates of antlerless harvest have remained steady since 2014 (Figure 5) and occur primarily during permit seasons (Figure 7).

The estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk within the NCEH during general recreational seasons, where over-the-counter license opportunities are available, remained steady from 2015–2017 (Figure 8). This number increased from 2018–2020 (Figure 8), due to a large increase in the number of hunters seeking general season elk hunting opportunities in northwest Washington. During the 2020 general recreational season, the estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days decreased from 2019 (Figure 9), likely due to the increased number of licensed hunters and other undetermined factors.

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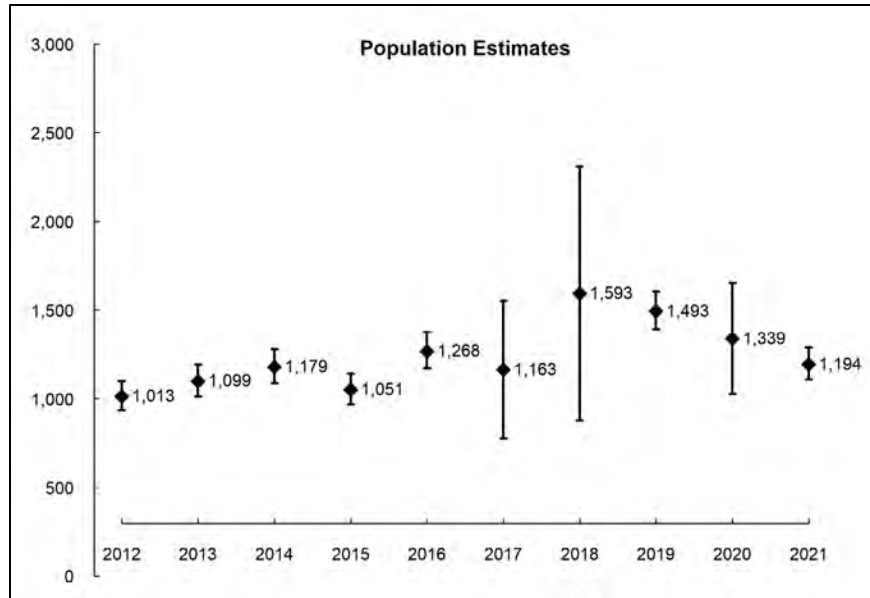


Figure 2. Estimates of total elk abundance using a variant of mark-resight or a Lincoln-Petersen estimator (2017, 2018, and 2020) with associated 95% confidence intervals in the core range of the North Cascade elk herd area (GMUs 407, 418, and 437), spring 2012–2021.

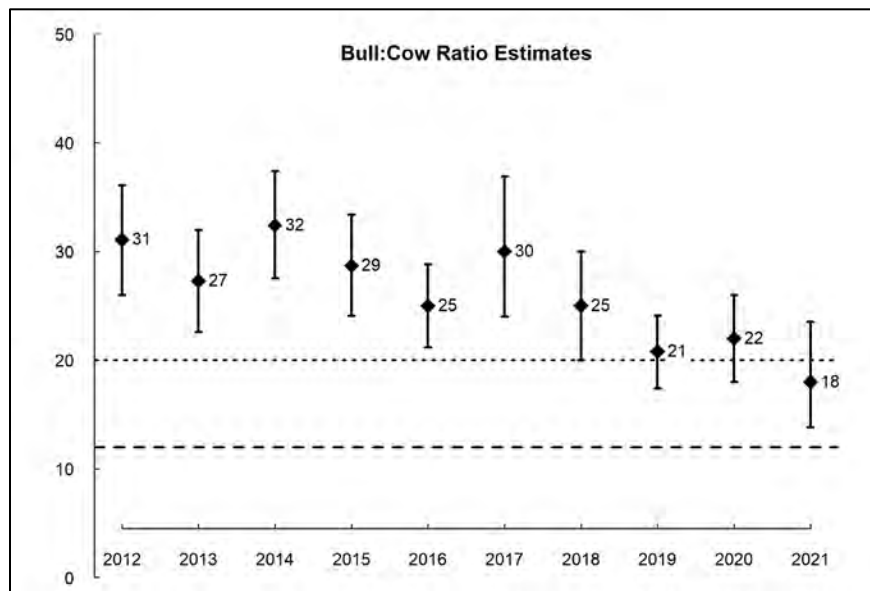


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt, bull:cow ratios in the core range of the North Cascade elk herd (GMUs 407, 418, and 437), spring 2012–2021. The dashed lines represent the WDFW post-hunt objective range of 12–20 bulls:100 cows.

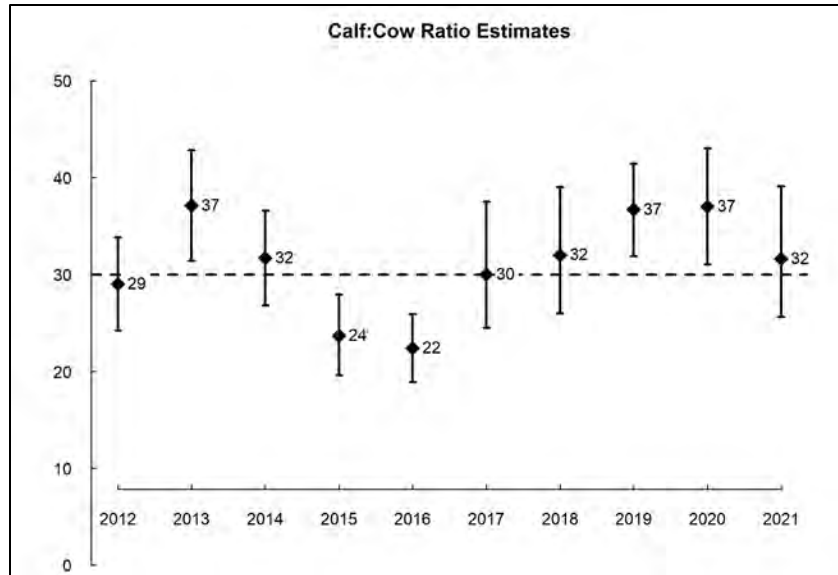


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the core range of the North Cascade elk herd (GMUs 407, 418, and 437), spring 2012–2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

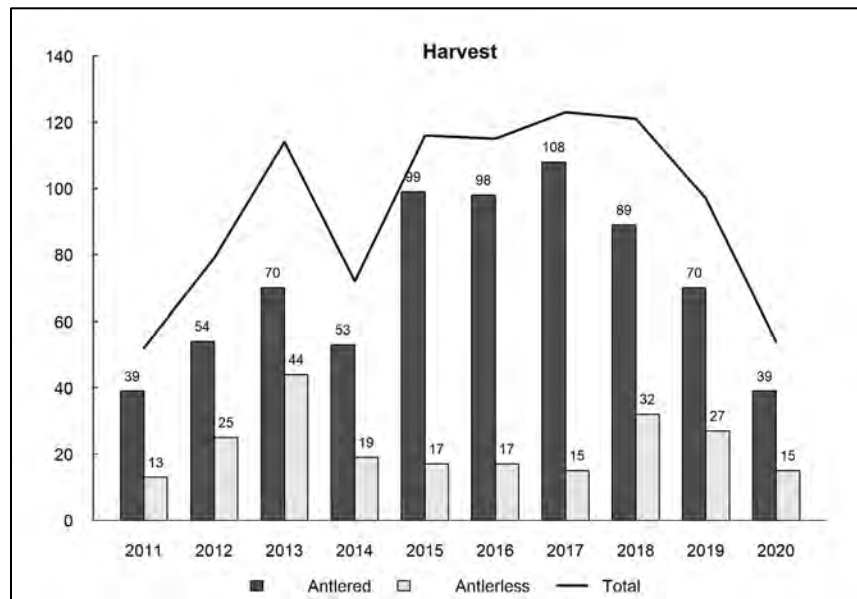


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the North Cascade elk herd area, 2011–2020. Estimated antlered and antlerless harvests for 2011–2019 include recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011–2019. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Beginning 2020, harvest estimates only include elk harvested during recreational hunting seasons. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below).

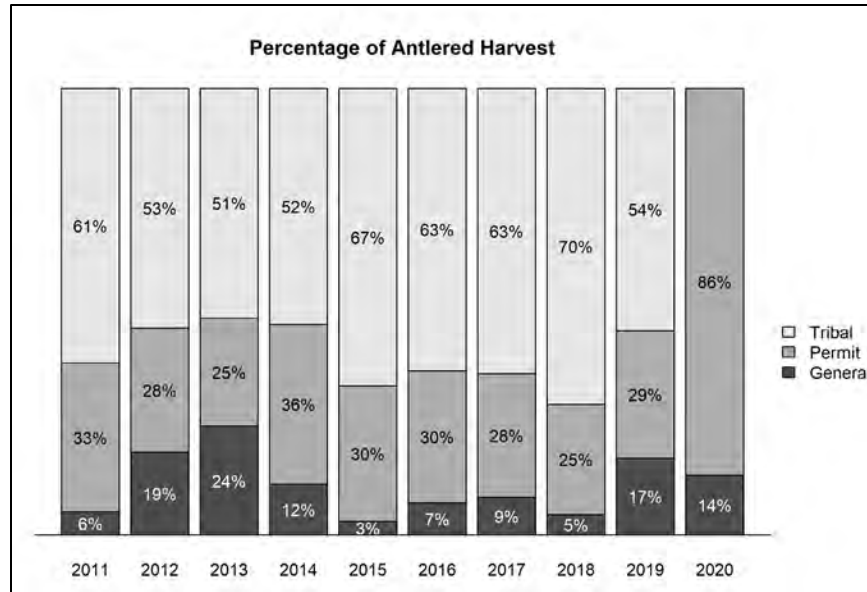


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered elk harvest in the North Cascade elk herd area, 2011–2020. Estimated antlered harvests for 2011–2019 include general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons. Beginning 2020, antlered harvest estimates only include elk harvested during recreational hunting seasons.

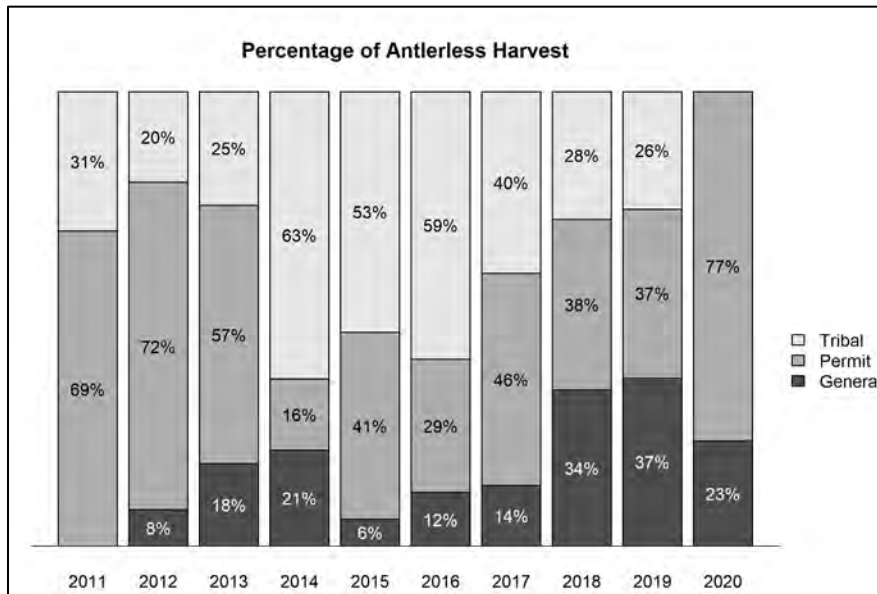


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless elk harvest in the North Cascade elk herd area, 2011–2020. Estimated antlerless harvests for 2011–2019 include harvest from general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons. Beginning 2020, antlerless harvest estimates only include elk harvested during recreational hunting seasons.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

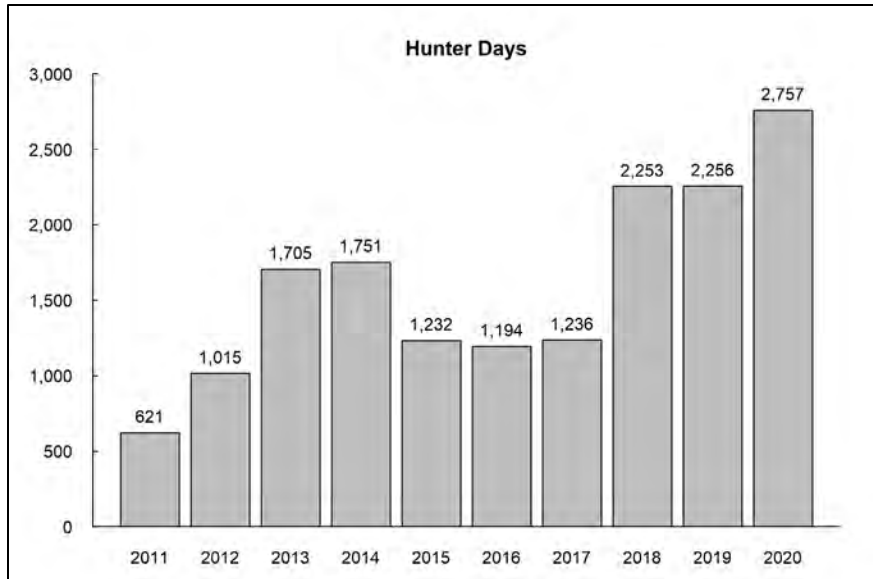


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the North Cascade elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general, over-the-counter opportunities, 2011–2020.

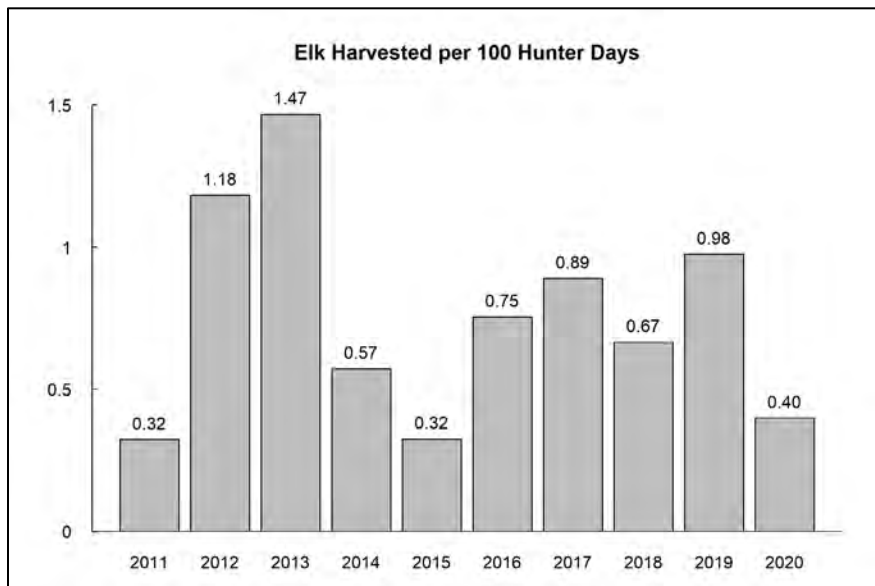


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the North Cascade elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general, over-the-counter opportunities, 2011–2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators of elk that occur throughout the NCEH area include black bears and cougars. The Department has documented the presence of gray wolves in the upper Skagit River system near the U.S./Canada border since the early 1990s and collared a single wolf in Skagit County in 2017. In late 2018, the Department documented the first wolf pack in western Washington in the modern era when an unknown wolf paired with the collared wolf to form the two-member Diobsud Creek pack (WDFW et al., 2021). Surveys in 2020 and 2021 indicated that a single wolf is maintaining a territory in the same area and thus no longer meets the definition of a pack.

Although biologists have never documented a substantial winter effect on elk survival for this herd, it can influence their distribution. When severe winter conditions persist, elk become concentrated in low-elevation areas, including the Skagit River and Acme Valleys, where the potential for conflict with agricultural producers is high.

The Department monitored the survival of adult female elk and branch-antlered bulls in the NCEH area 2005–2011 and estimated annual survival rates to be >0.90 for both sex classes prior to the reinstatement of harvest opportunities in 2007 (McCorquodale et al., 2011). Following the resumption of bull harvests, the survival of branch-antlered bulls was estimated to be 0.68 (95% CI = 0.50–0.82). In addition, of the 270 mortality events documented during that study, biologists attributed 77% to harvest-related causes, 14% to elk-vehicle collisions, and only 4% to natural causes (e.g., predation, disease, accidents, etc., combined).

Habitat

Forest management practices on private industrial and state forestlands generally benefit the NCEH by creating a mosaic of habitat types. Specifically, clear-cuts and young regenerating stands provide a forage base that is commonly absent in mature forests, though the size, location, and topography of clear-cuts, as well as the intensive use of herbicides, can impact the value of these early seral stage forest openings for elk. In contrast to state and commercial forestlands, that portion of the NCEH area under federal ownership is dominated by mature timber that provides little benefit to elk.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

The damage removal period for elk ran from July 1, 2020 thru March 31, 2021. During that period, WDFW received 36 elk-related complaints, a decrease from the 68 complaints received during the 2019-20 season, with most complaints involving damage to lands, fences, and equipment owned or operated by commercial producers. The remainder came from individuals not engaged in agricultural or livestock production, instead involving damage to ornamental and fruit trees, gardens, landscaping, etc.

Sixty-two landowner permits and 13 Master Hunter permits were issued during 2020–2021 to address elk damage in GMUs 407, 418, and 437. Most of the damage permits were focused in Elk Area 4941 during the state-authorized removal period. Of the issued damage permits, 43 elk (9 bulls, 34 cows) were harvested.

Research

The Department captured nine cow elk in Elk Area 4941 during February–March 2021 and fitted them with GPS/Satellite collars to track their movements and aid in population monitoring. Analysis of home range size and movements will be conducted in 2022.

Management Concerns

Treponeme-associated hoof disease

The Department confirmed the presence of Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) in the NCEH area in 2016, with one confirmed case in the Skagit River Valley and another occurring near the town of Acme. TAHD of elk results in abnormal hoof growth, cavitating sole ulcers, and in severe cases, eventual sloughing of the hoof capsule. Elk severely affected by TAHD often have reduced mobility and condition. Consequently, it seems reasonable to assume they would have a reduced probability of survival or reproductive potential. However, it is unknown how TAHD affects the population dynamics of herds where it occurs. The Department is currently investigating the effects of TAHD on elk population dynamics in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area and conducting research to better estimate the distribution and prevalence of TAHD. To learn more about the Department's efforts associated with investigating TAHD, please visit the Department's hoof disease webpage: <https://wdfw.wa.gov/species-habitats/diseases/elk-hoof>.

Management Conclusions

Estimates of total elk abundance and calf:cow ratios within the core herd area indicate the NCEH has steadily increased since 2007, and calf recruitment rates have been at levels that would promote population growth or stability in most years. Biologists did not attribute the lower population estimate in 2021 to a decline, citing challenges associated with the use of a pilot inexperienced with surveying elk in the area. In addition, estimated bull:cow ratios and the most recent estimates of bull survival indicate the Department is exceeding its objective of maintaining 12-20 bulls:100 cows and an annual survival rate of 0.50 for bulls. Consequently, in the absence of abnormal weather conditions or exceedingly high harvest rates for adult female elk, the Department expects the NCEH population to continue to increase.

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North Rainier Elk Herd

MICHELLE TIRHI, Wildlife Biologist

MIKE SMITH, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The North Rainier elk herd area is located in west-central Washington and consists of 8 Game Management Units (GMUs), which includes 454 (Issaquah), 460 (Snoqualmie), 466 (Stampede), 485 (Green River), 490 (Cedar River), 652 (Puyallup), 653 (White River), and 654 (Mashel) (Figure 1). Elk are primarily found only in the eastern halves of GMUs 454 and 652. The primary land use of the North Rainier herd area is forest, accounting for nearly 50% of the total area. These lands occur in the eastern portion of the herd area and dominate the landscape in GMUs 460, 466, 485, 490, 653, and 654. Developed lands make up more than 25% of the herd area. Undeveloped lands, which include designated open space, exceed 10% but are largely intermingled with developed land. A relatively small amount of agricultural land is found scattered in the eastern parts of GMUs 454 and 652.

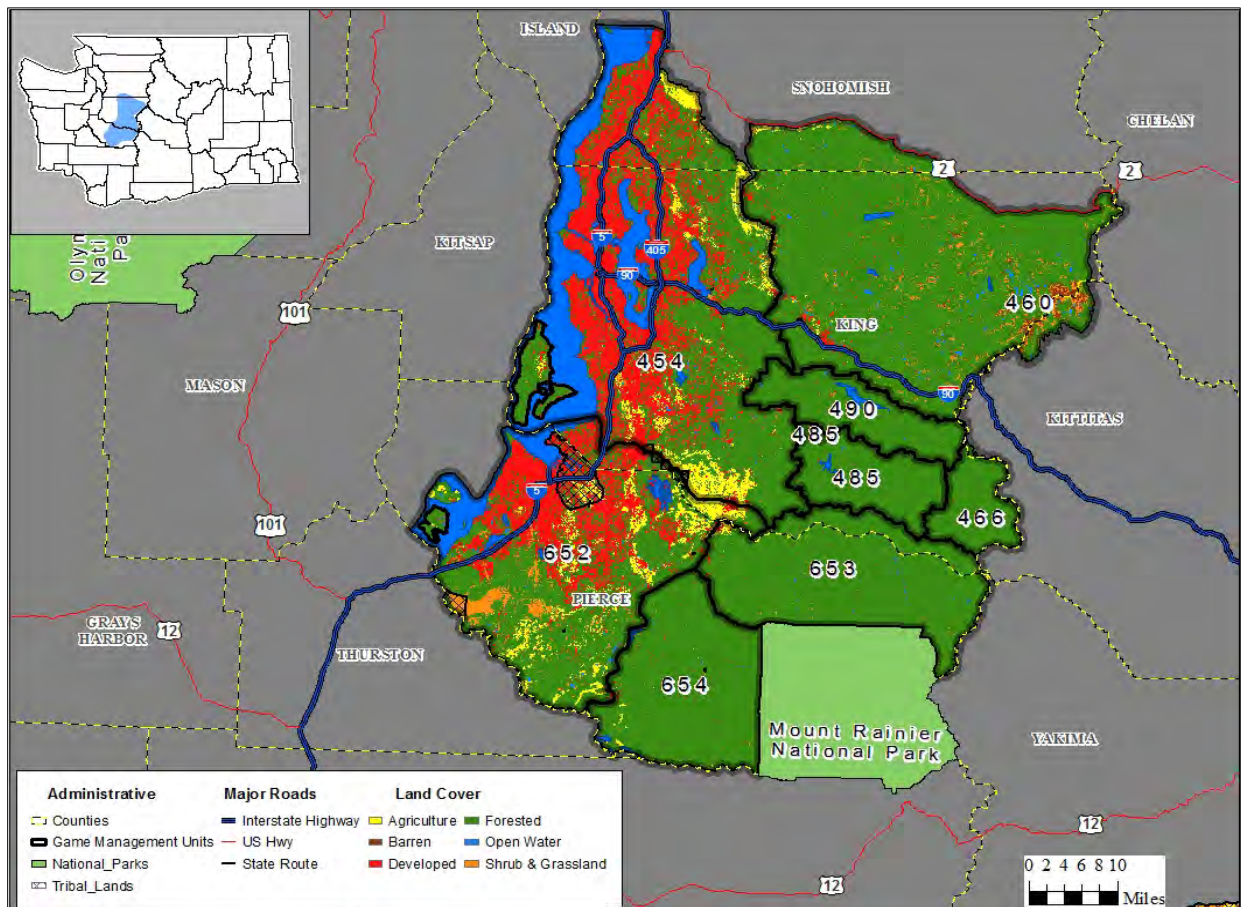


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 8 game management units that comprise the North Rainier elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department has updated the North Rainier Elk Herd Plan (WDFW, 2020, [North Rainier Elk Herd Plan](#)), including population objectives for each of the herd's subunits and the herd overall. Management objectives include developing a survey protocol(s) for the herd by 2025; maintaining a herd size of 4,850 elk; maintaining a minimum post-hunt population with a bull:cow ratio of 12-20 bulls:100 cows; reducing elk-caused damage complaints on private lands; reducing elk vehicle collisions; increasing opportunities to view elk; continuing to partner with tribes on co-management of the herd. Calf:cow ratios are also monitored as indicative of herd dynamics, and a ratio of 30:100 indicates a herd that is potentially stable while anything above that indicates a herd that is potentially increasing.

Population Surveys

A formalized monitoring program to estimate elk abundance for the entire herd area in 2020 and 2021 was hampered by the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions on flights. Limited surveys took place in 2020 and 2021. Currently, there are several monitoring efforts that occur within the herd area at smaller scales. The Muckleshoot Indian Tribe (MIT) conducts aerial composition surveys in GMU 653 and annually estimates elk abundance using mark-resight, in addition to estimating post-hunt sex and age ratios. Surveys typically only occur in the eastern half of the GMU, so estimates of abundance are not reflective of the entire GMU. However, the western half of the GMU was also surveyed in 2012, 2015, and 2017 with few elk observed. This supports the conclusion that the eastern GMU survey area contains the majority of elk (MIT and WDFW, unpubl. data).

MIT estimated elk abundance in GMU 653 to be 1,257 (95% CI = 945–1,569) elk in spring 2017 (Figure 2). Resulting estimates of post-hunt bull:cow and calf:cow ratios were 17:100 (95% CI = 13–21) and 25:100 (95% CI = 19–30), respectively (MIT unpubl. data; Figures 3 and 4). Estimates of elk abundance steadily increased 2007-2012 but stabilized 2013-2017. Estimates of post-hunt bull:cow ratios were stable 2012-2017, and MIT reports ratios remain at or above objectives in 2021 (MIT data not provided after 2017). Estimates of post-hunt calf:cow ratios were high from 2012-2017. According to MIT, that ratio has since declined but not to a level of concern. MIT continues to monitor cow elk survival using a sample of radio-marked animals that ranges from 6-8% of the estimated number of cow elk in the 653 subpopulation. The updated North Rainier elk herd plan sets the population objective for GMU 653 at 1,800 elk (WDFW, 2020).

MIT also conducts annual aerial composition surveys and uses mark-resight to estimate elk abundance in GMU 485. They estimated elk abundance to be 472 (95% CI = 375–569) elk. These estimates are derived from a post-2020 hunt survey effort in spring 2021 (Figure 5). Estimates of elk abundance have steadily increased in 2007 (Figure 5: 2012-present; see previous reports [here](#)). Resulting estimates of post-hunt bull:cow and calf:cow ratios were 12:100 (95% CI = 8–18) and 19:100 (95% CI = 14–27), respectively (Figures 6 and 7). Estimates of post-hunt bull:cow ratios have varied but have consistently been within the objective. Estimates of post-hunt calf:cow ratios have also varied but have generally been at or above levels that should promote population stability. The North Rainier elk herd plan sets the population objective for GMU 466 and 485 combined at 600 elk (WDFW 2020).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

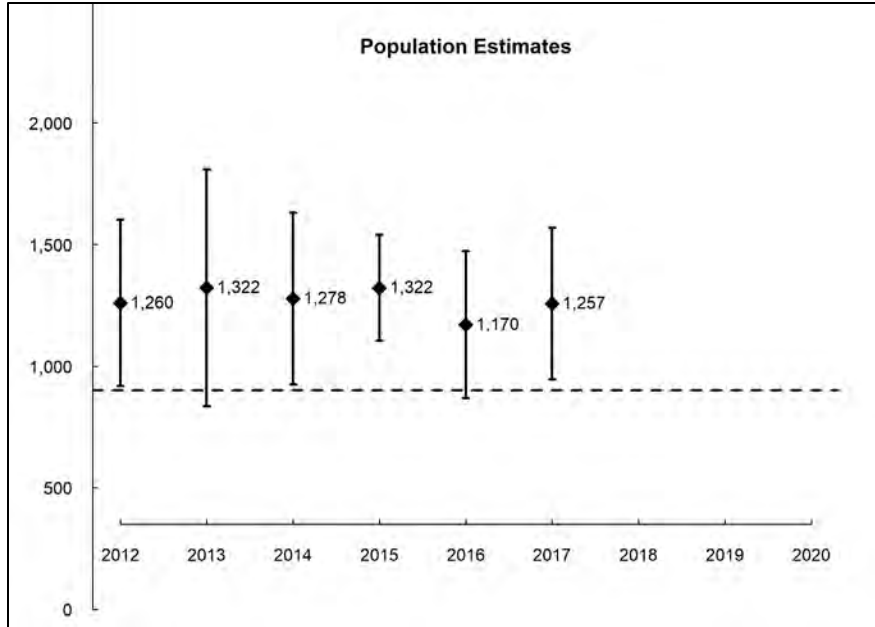


Figure 2. Mark-resight estimates of total elk abundance with associated 95% confidence intervals in GMU 653, spring 2012-2017 (MIT unpubl. data). The dashed line represented the 2002-2020 management objective for total elk abundance (900 elk) and updated 2020 management objective for total elk abundance (1,800 elk) will be reflected in the 2022 Status and Trend report.

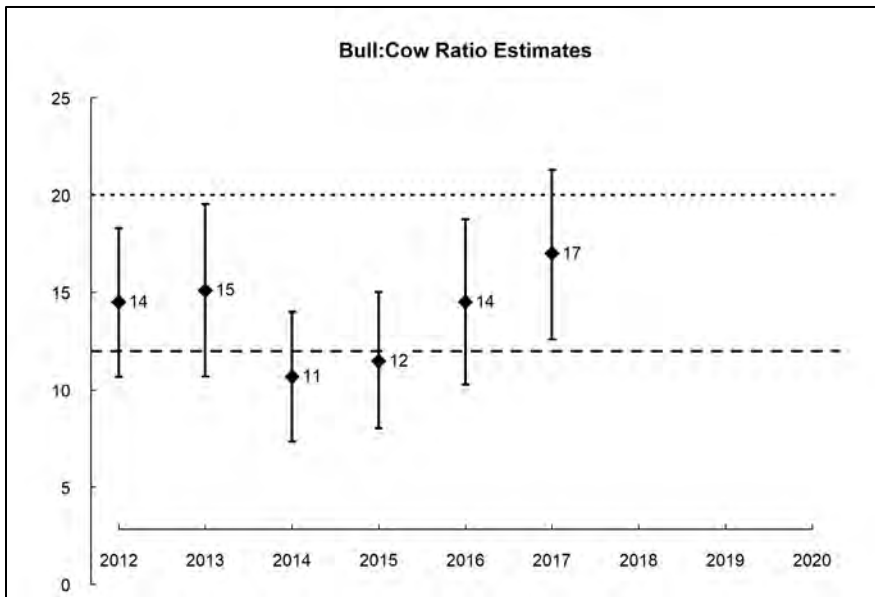


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in GMU 653, spring 2011-2017 (MIT unpubl. data). The lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

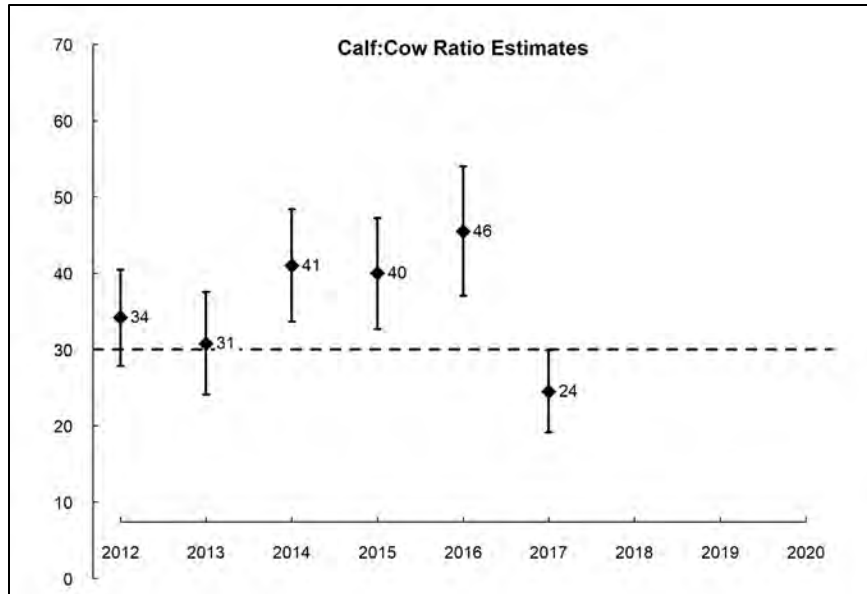


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in GMU 653, spring 2011-2017 (MIT unpubl. data). The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

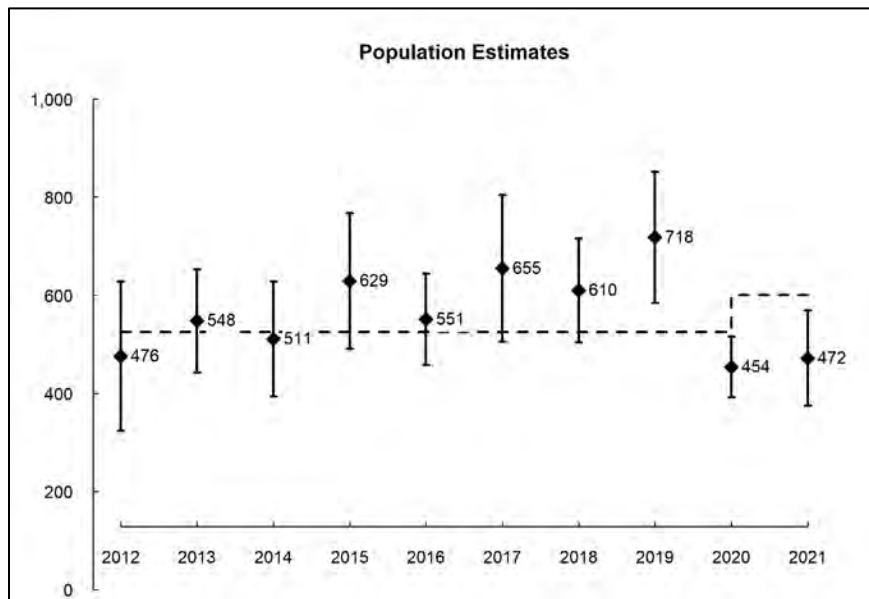


Figure 5. Mark-resight estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of total elk abundance in GMU 485, spring 2012-2021 (MIT unpubl. data.). The dashed line represented the management objective for total elk abundance in 2002 (525 elk) and the updated 2020 management objective for total elk abundance (600 elk; GMUs 485 and 466 combined).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

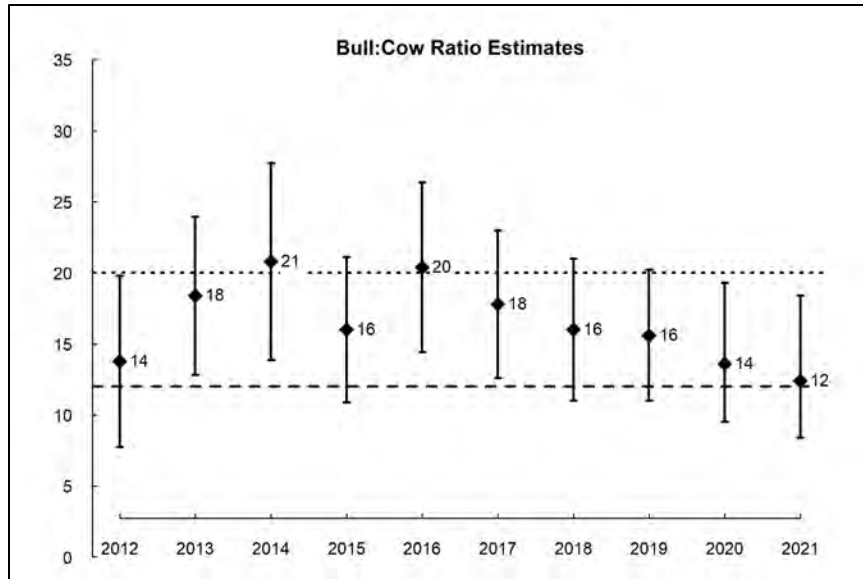


Figure 6. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in GMU 485, spring 2012-2021 (MIT unpubl. data). The lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows.

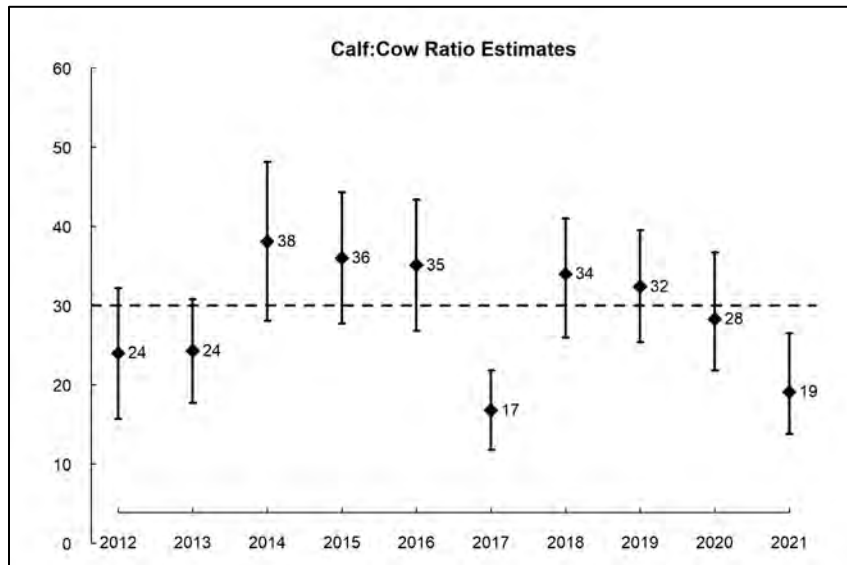


Figure 7. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in GMU 485, spring 2012-2021 (MIT unpubl. data). The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Other efforts to monitor elk abundance in the North Rainier elk herd area occur in Elk Areas 4601, 6013, and 6014 and the Mount Rainier National Park. The volunteer-based Upper Snoqualmie Valley Elk Management Group (USVEMG) estimated elk abundance in Elk Area 4601 using ground-based mark-resight surveys 2010-2018. Estimates of elk abundance indicate elk numbers in Elk Area 4601 have been relatively stable since 2012, except for a significant increase in 2018 (Figure 8). Both the USVEMG and WDFW don't believe this represents an actual increase in the elk population but is instead a function of the model used to estimate herd size.

WDFW, in partnership with NW Trek and MIT, launched a pilot citizen science elk monitoring project in Elk Areas 6013 and 6014 in 2015. A driving route with designated observation points was established, and volunteers were trained to conduct monthly dusk or dawn surveys to record elk by sex and age and record observation location. A limited number of volunteers participated in this first-year pilot, but volunteers increased in 2016 and they collected meaningful data. The highest one-day count, according to the survey results, was 180. According to the area conflict specialist, this survey has not been successful and has lacked participation over the past two years and so is not currently an active project.

WDFW and MIT conducted a survey of Elk Area 6013 and 6014 in 2017 and located 192 elk with bull:cow and calf:cow ratios of 15:100 and 37:100, respectively (WDFW, unpubl. data). The Department has also collaborated with MIT, the U.S. Geological Survey, National Park Service, and Puyallup Tribe of Indians to estimate elk abundance in the subalpine meadows of Mount Rainier National Park (MRNP) (Griffen et al., 2013). Those surveys only include a small portion of the North Rainier elk herd, a group referred to as the White River elk. Although WDFW no longer participates in this survey, the partners continued to survey thru 2017 and used the model to estimate an average of 359 elk in the subalpine meadows of GMU 653 within the park during surveys conducted from 2008-2017. This equates to an average density of 3.5 elk/km² during surveys. On average, the survey crews detected approximately 81-83% of elk estimated present.

Based on historical data from collared elk in the 1980s (WDFW, unpublished data), about 15% of the White River elk did not migrate to higher elevations in the late spring, while the remaining 85% migrated to high elevation areas in MRNP. More recently, studies conducted by MIT in 1998 indicated about half of the White River elk migrate to MRNP while the remainder remain outside the park, with some being non-migratory and some making short local migrations to nearby ridges.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department limits most general season harvest opportunities in the North Rainier elk herd area to branch-antlered bulls and offers most opportunities to harvest antlerless elk through their special permit system. However, limited opportunities to harvest antlerless elk during general seasons do occur during general archery and muzzleloader seasons and in areas where the Department's objective is to maintain low elk numbers. The Department restricts all elk harvest in GMUs 485 and 653 to special permit-only opportunities.

The total harvest within the herd area has been steadily increasing and averaged 548 elk, 2010-2019 (Figure 9). Total State harvest during 2020 was 666 elk (Tribal harvest not available at time of this writing). Most harvest for both antlered and antlerless elk occurs during general seasons (Figures 10 and 11). Hunter effort (Figure 12) and catches per unit effort (CPUE) (Figure 13) has also been increasing during the same period.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

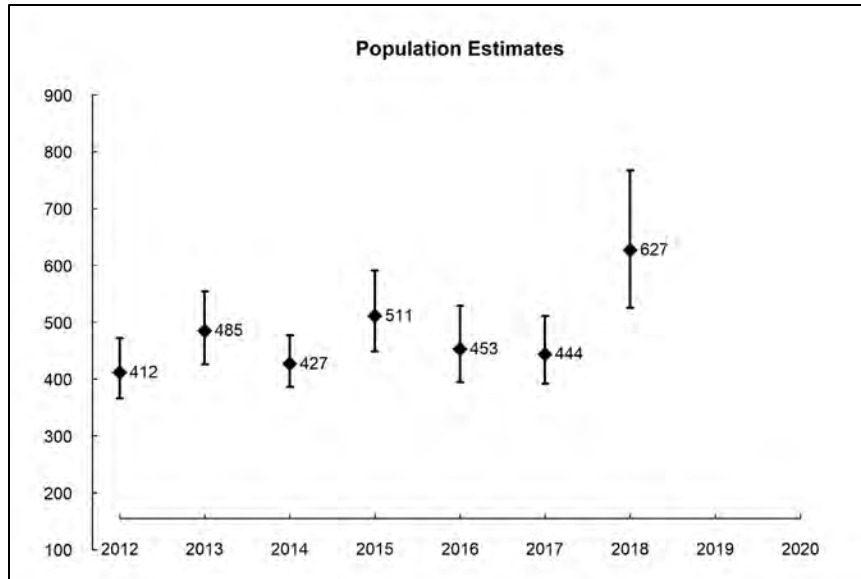


Figure 8. Mark-resight estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of total elk abundance in Elk Area 4601, spring 2012–2018 (data not collected 2019-2020).

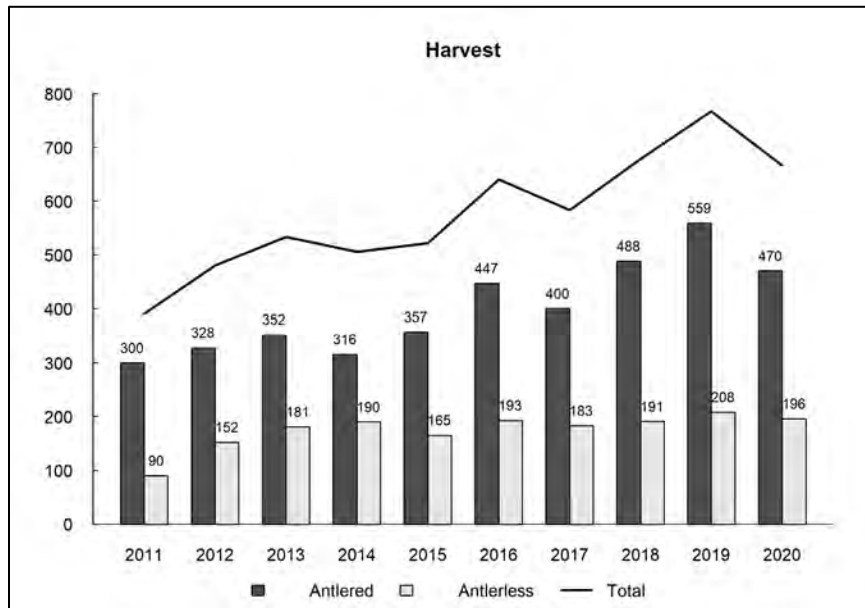


Figure 9. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the North Rainier elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Tribal harvest was not available for 2020 and may account for the decline in bull harvest. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human Wildlife Interaction below).

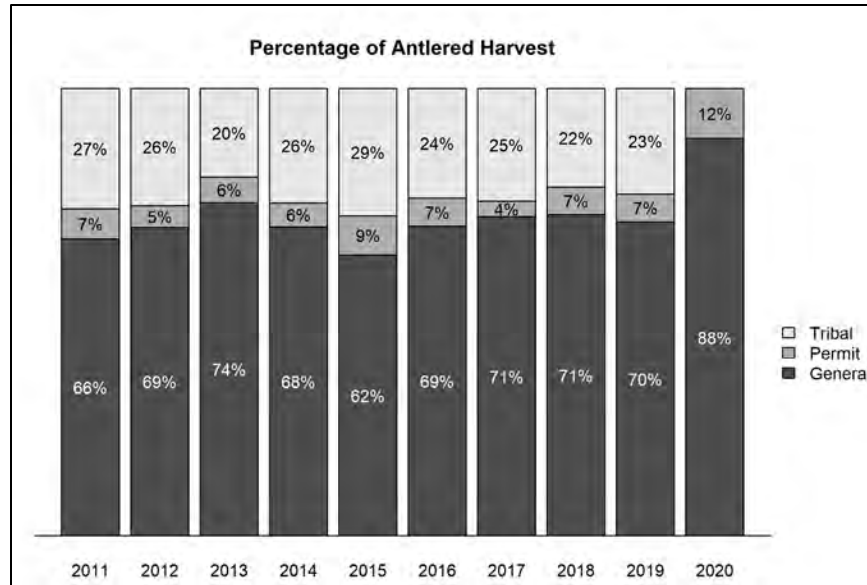


Figure 10. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the North Rainier elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest for 2020 not available at time of this writing.

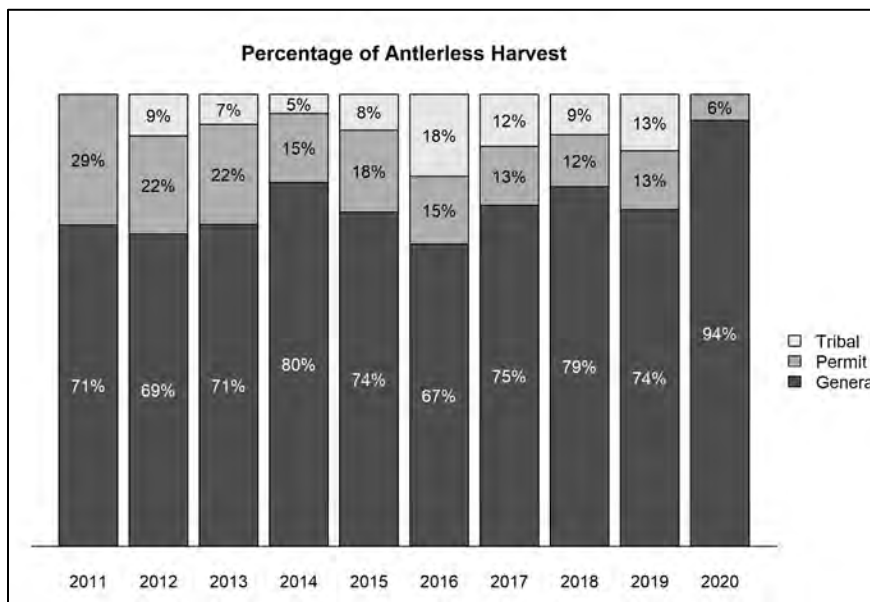


Figure 11. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the North Rainier elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest for 2020 not available at time of this writing.

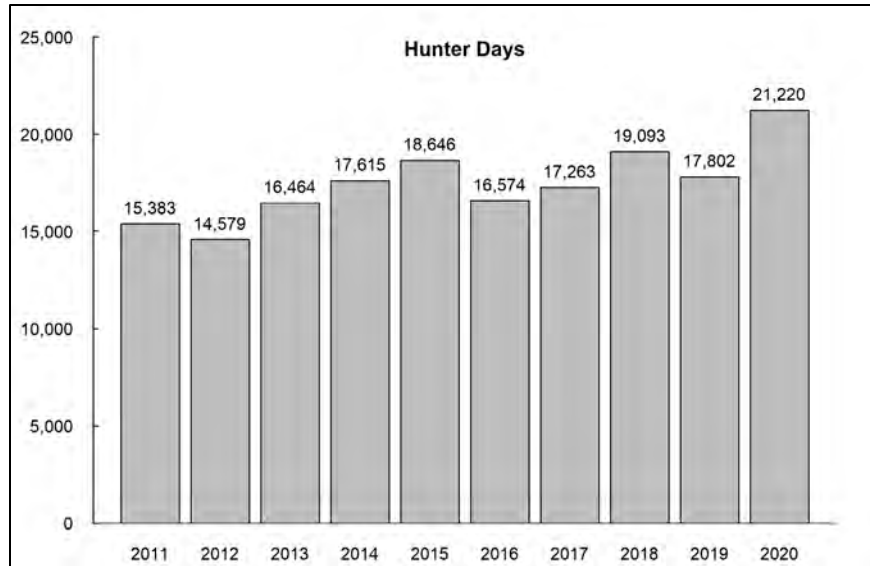


Figure 12. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the North Rainier elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

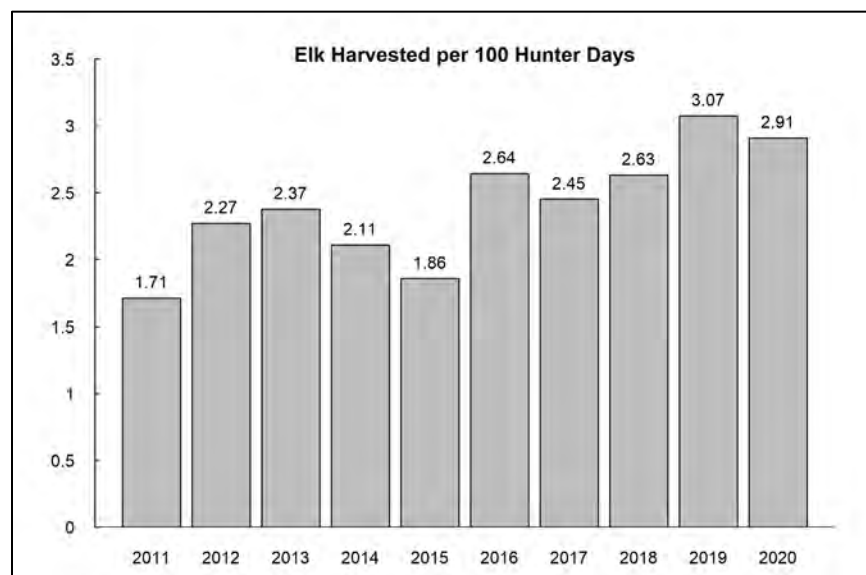


Figure 13. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the North Rainier elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators of elk that occur throughout the North Rainier elk herd area include black bears and cougars. At the time of this writing, there were no documented wolf packs within the herd area (WDFW et al., 2019), although WDFW staff are monitoring in response to various public reports (M. Tirhi, pers. comm.).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Severe winter conditions are rare in the North Rainier elk herd area and are unlikely to influence the population dynamics of this herd. However, extreme drought conditions that persist through summer and fall have the potential to reduce the availability of high-quality forages that elk need to accrue adequate fat stores for winter.

MIT has monitored the survival of adult female elk and calves in GMUs 485, 490, and 653, 1998-present (MIT, unpubl. data). During that same period, they estimated annual adult female survival rates that were as low as 0.70-0.75 in some years, but typically ranged between 0.80-0.90. Cougars accounted for 63% and 33% of all adult cow mortalities in GMUs 485 and 653, respectively, prior to MIT implementing a cougar reduction program (see below) and 33% and 25%, respectively, following cougar removals.

Estimates of calf survival were quite variable and ranged from a low of 0.09 in 1999 to a high of 0.82 in 2006. Cougars accounted for 43-88% of all calf mortalities; bears only accounted for 6-11% of calf mortalities. Calf annual mortality rates due to cougar ranged from 0.20-0.71. The lowest estimates of cow and calf survival from the MIT research occurred in the late 1990s and early 2000s and indicated cougars were the leading cause of mortality for both adult females and calves.

In response to these findings, MIT implemented a cougar reduction program from 2001 through 2007 with the goal of improving elk survival to the degree necessary for promoting population growth. Estimates of annual survival rates for cows and calves, and subsequently estimates of elk abundance, increased during that same period, which suggests cougar predation was a primary factor negatively affecting elk survival in these GMUs. Although the cougar reduction program seemingly benefited local elk numbers, it also occurred simultaneously with the implementation of more conservative hunting seasons and various habitat improvement projects, which also likely benefited elk. By 2018, female and calf survival was still occurring at levels that should promote elk population growth and stability (D. Vales, MIT, pers. Comm.).

Habitat

A large portion of the North Rainier elk herd area consists of lands administered by the USFS. The Huckleberry Land Exchange transferred over 9,000 acres of commercial timberland in the White River drainage to the USFS to be managed mostly as late-successional reserve with minimal timber harvest. Restricting timber harvest reduces the amount of forest openings and can, in turn, reduce forage availability to elk and the number of animals a landscape can support. In response, the USFS created 400-500 acres of permanent openings to increase forage production for elk and deer in this area under the Greenwater Elk Forage Management Project (USFS 2008). In general, the North Rainier elk herd benefits most from forest management practices on private and state industrial forestlands, where frequent harvesting of mature timber creates a mosaic of early seral habitats that provide an important forage base for this herd.

Pierce County Planning and Land Services have adopted the elk winter range as a Habitat of Local Importance within Title 18E.40. (Regulated Fish and Wildlife Species and Habitat Conservation Areas). Land use development permits within mapped elk winter range are regulated by the county under four management goals: 1) minimize human activity that would disturb elk, 2) maximize retention of undisturbed vegetation – particularly forest cover, 3) avoid activities that serve to exclude elk, and 4) protecting private property.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Elk damage to ornamental shrubs, gardens, crops, and pastures is a problem in all GMUs to some degree, and complaints are received every year. Wildlife Conflict specialists work closely with agricultural producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which identify a plan to reduce damage incurred to crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. Non-lethal methods of discouraging elk use are a very important component to reducing elk damage and are generally attempted prior to the use of lethal measures. WDFW Conflict Specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal methods, including electrified fladry fencing, noisemakers (bird-bangers, critter gitters, propane cannons), hazing and herding on foot, with a vehicle or dog, scarecrow-like electronic devices, and odor-based repellents such as Plantskydd.

Lethal methods of deterring elk are also used to reduce damage to crops. These efforts include hunts within specified elk areas, pools of Master Hunters, as well as landowner damage permits. See Table 1 for a summary of active DPCA agreements, permits issued to landowners allowing the taking of elk causing agricultural damage, and the actual number of elk that were killed in the North Rainier Elk Herd during the 2020-2021 season. Collectively, these hunts are designed to decrease the number of elk causing damage and/or to haze elk from the area.

Table 1. Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements, number of permits to lethally remove elk causing damage to agricultural crops and resulting kills, North Rainier Elk Herd, April 1, 2019-March 21, 2020.

| Game Management Unit | DPCA's | Permits Issued | Elk Removed |
|-----------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 454 | 8 | 4 | 0 |
| 460 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| 466 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 485 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 490 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 652 | 13 | 41 | 20 |
| 653 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 654 | 5 | 9 | 11 ¹ |
| TOTAL | 29 | 57 | 31 |

¹Includes 2 additional youth removal permits.

In GMU 460, elk damage is a notable problem for some golf courses, Christmas tree farms, nurseries, blueberry farms, and other agricultural crops. Vehicle-elk collisions have increased as well. The Upper Snoqualmie Valley Elk Management Group was formed in 2008 in response to damage complaints within the city limits of North Bend and Snoqualmie, and elk-vehicle collisions on I-90. The group is made up of citizens, WDFW wildlife and enforcement personnel, and city and county staff. The primary role of the group is to address concerns related to elk-human

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

interactions. Further, the Washington Department of Transportation has initiated monitoring and collaborative academic studies to examine vehicle-elk collisions along I-90.

Additional elk hunting opportunities aimed at reducing private property damage were initiated in 2014 within Elk Area 4601 and in 2015 in Elk Area 6014. The harvest of antlerless elk was added to general season hunts aimed at reducing the herd in these localized areas. Regional master hunter permit holders were also used to harvest elk on specific properties specified by the Wildlife Conflict Specialists in 6014 to further curtail damage.

Elk in GMUs 485, 466, and 653 have largely not been a problem to private property owners with few nuisance complaints received. However, continued monitoring of herd growth and opportunities to track any emigration from these GMUs will be valuable as surrounding communities continue to expand and develop adjacent to core herd use areas.

In addition to retaining permit opportunities in the expanded Elk Area 6054, the Department is considering additional opportunities to harvest antlerless elk in GMU 654 to assist with mitigating elk damage complaints.

Research

WDFW is a member of the White River Elk Herd Technical Committee comprised of state, federal, and tribal biologists and researchers who comprise the White River elk group. There is no collective partnership for the entire herd area. Members of the Committee collaborated on a Hybrid Double-observer Sightability Model for Aerial Survey research project from 2008-2017 (Griffin et al., 2013). WDFW is not currently engaged in research in the North Rainier herd planning area.

Management Concerns

Currently, management decisions are based largely on hunter harvest and effort within the herd area. WDFW is contemplating a strategy to better understand herd size, population demographics, distribution, and trends, but implementation will depend on funding. The work of MIT biologists and others has been helpful in this regard, but a more comprehensive assessment is needed. Elk conflicts with commercial agricultural production and other areas remain a concern in portions of the herd area.

Treponeme-associated Hoof Disease

Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) of elk results in abnormal hoof growth, cavitating sole ulcers, and in severe cases, eventual sloughing of the hoof capsule. Elk severely affected by TAHD often have reduced mobility and condition. Sporadic reports of lame elk or elk with overgrown or missing hooves have been received in southwest Washington since the mid-1990s. Reports of “hoof disease” have been increasing, and hunters have regularly seen and sometimes harvested elk with this condition. At times, observers have reported many individuals in a group limping and showing signs of hoof disease, which has been noted in males and females and old and very young animals. TAHD has been confirmed from samples collected in GMU 454 and 485. It is believed to be present in all remaining GMUs of the North Rainier Elk Herd based on observations and reports from WDFW staff and the general public. The Department is also conducting research to better estimate the distribution and prevalence of TAHD. To learn more

about the Department's efforts associated with investigating TAHD, please visit the Department's hoof disease webpage at: <https://wdfw.wa.gov/species-habitats/diseases/elk-hoof>.

Management Conclusions

Available data indicates the North Rainier elk herd is stable or increasing in most areas and meeting the Department's management objective for bull escapement throughout the herd area. The Department will continue efforts to limit the expansion of this herd in areas where the potential for conflict is high (e.g., agricultural areas, urban interface, etc.) and will promote population growth in areas that provide hunting and recreational viewing opportunities. In addition, limited-entry permit hunts offered in GMUs 485 and 653 are some of Washington's most popular because of the opportunity to harvest and view mature bulls coupled with high success rates. As such, the Department will continue to manage harvest opportunities in these GMUs through special permits.

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Olympic Elk Herd

BRYAN MURPHIE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Olympic elk herd area is located on the Olympic Peninsula, which consists of 14 GMUs, 601 (Hoko), 602 (Dickey), 603 (Pysht), 607 (Sol Duc), 612 (Goodman), 615 (Clearwater), 618 (Matheny), 621 (Olympic), 624 (Coyle), 633 (Mason), 636 (Skokomish), 638 (Quinault Ridge), 642 (Copalis), 648 (Wynoochee), and 651 (Satsop) (Figure 1). Much of the land utilized by elk in this area is in public ownership. Federal lands include over 922,000 acres in the Olympic National Park (ONP), consisting of the core of the Olympic Mountains proper, as well as portions of coastal areas along the Pacific coast. Olympic National Forest (ONF) lands adjacent to ONP include an additional 643,000 acres. The State of Washington, Department of Natural Resources, manages 368,000 acres of forest lands in the herd area, of which the 168,000-acre Clearwater Block is the largest. Indian Reservation lands encompass over 255,000 acres, the largest being 208,000 acres in the Quinault Indian Nation Reservation. The remainder of the land is in private residential, agriculture, or industrial timber company lands.

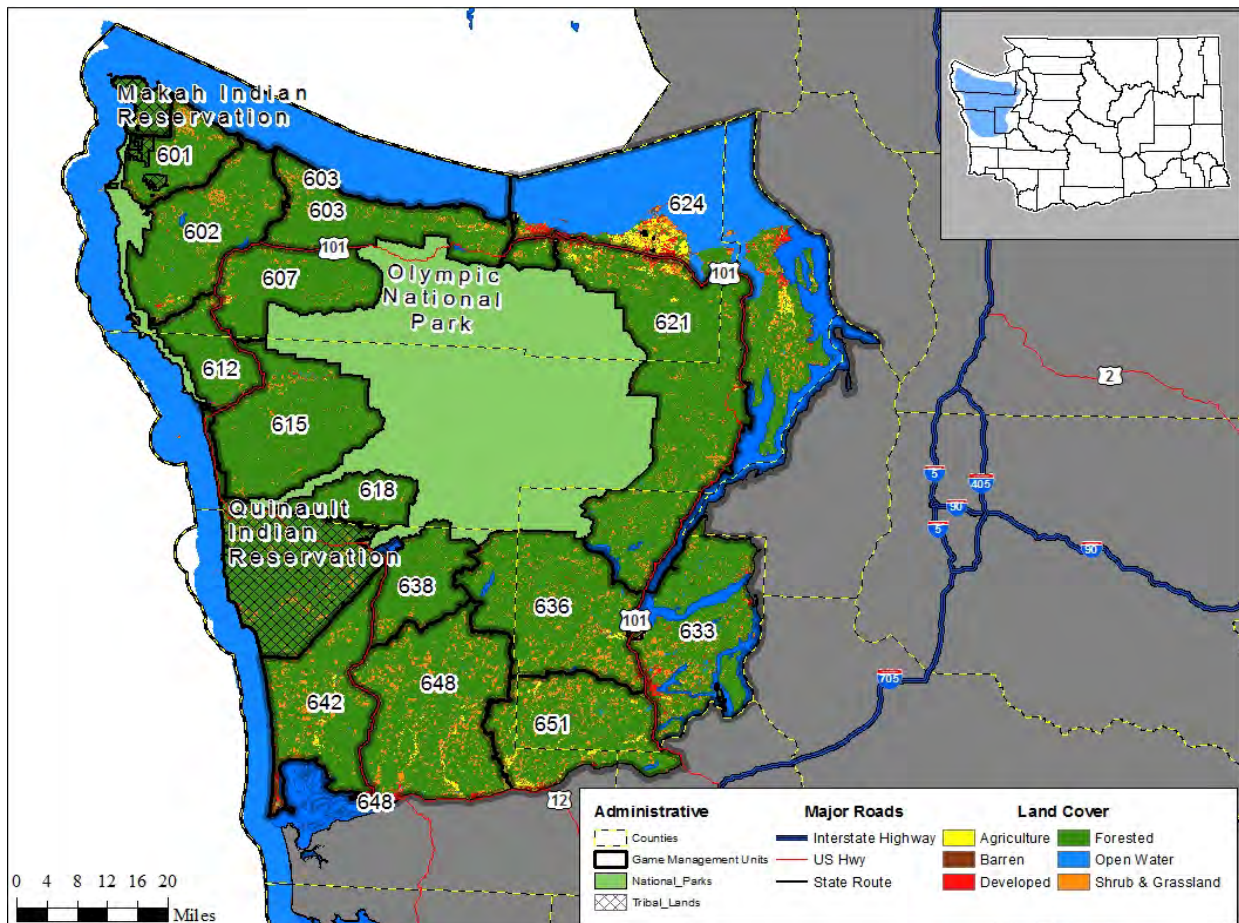


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 14 game management units that comprise the Olympic elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Olympic Elk Herd Plan identifies a population objective of 11,350 elk outside Olympic National Park (WDFW, 2004). However, that objective is likely to change when the plan is updated. The Department has not identified a formalized monitoring strategy to estimate elk abundance or composition throughout the herd area. Consequently, the Department generally manages for stable to increasing elk populations while providing for multiple uses, including recreational, educational, and aesthetic, as well as a sustainable annual harvest. Additional objectives include managing for a pre-season population with 15-35 bulls:100 cows and/or a post-hunt population with 12-20 bulls:100 cows (WDFW, 2014).

While the Department has defined objectives relating to herd abundance and acceptable ranges for bull:cow ratios, there are no established objectives for calf:cow ratios because most factors that affect calf survival can rarely be addressed through short-term management activities. In addition, the Department primarily collects age ratios to assess the likelihood for a herd to grow, remain stable, or decline. However, whether an estimated recruitment rate would result in a change in abundance also depends on the survival rate of adult female elk. This makes it difficult to identify the minimum calf:cow ratio needed to prevent population declines (Caughley, 1974; Skalski et al., 2005). Nonetheless, survival of adult female elk in managed populations is typically > 0.85 and is often relatively constant (Raithel et al., 2007; Brodie et al., 2013), which means elk abundance usually has the potential to increase if calf:cow ratios in spring are ≥ 30 calves:100 cows. Thus, even though the Department does not establish management objectives for calf:cow ratios, we do prefer to see post-hunt ratios that are ≥ 30 calves:100 cows and become concerned when they are below 25 calves:100 cows in consecutive years.

The primary means the Department manages for a stable to increasing elk population is through hunting regulations. Thus, we retain a relatively conservative state elk harvest strategy in the Olympic elk herd area through a 3-point minimum bull restriction and limited cow harvest. Most, but not all, antlerless hunting opportunities are related to reducing human-elk conflict.

Population Surveys

The Department and several Treaty Tribes that have hunting rights on the Olympic Peninsula periodically conduct aerial or ground-based composition surveys in the Olympic elk herd area. Formalized estimators (e.g., sightability models, mark-resight, distance sampling, etc.) to correct observed data for detection probabilities that vary among age and sex classes are generally not applied. Even though those data are likely biased and managers must make conservative inferences, it still provides some insight into the current composition of this herd.

Estimates of pre-hunt bull:cow ratios have been within management objectives most years when collected, but most emphasis for surveys are on the post-hunt period (Figure 2). Estimates of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in 2018 and 2019 were within management objectives but were lower than objectives in some years since 2008 (Figure 3). Although often reported as below the management objective of 12-20 bulls:100 cows, these ratios are thought to be biased low, as post-hunt surveys are conducted in late winter with effort focused on the main cow and calf groups. This is also a period when most mature bulls are traveling independently or in small bachelor groups making them less detectable during survey flights. Estimates of post-hunt calf:cow ratios averaged 28:100 cows (range = 24:100 to 34:100) (Figure 4).

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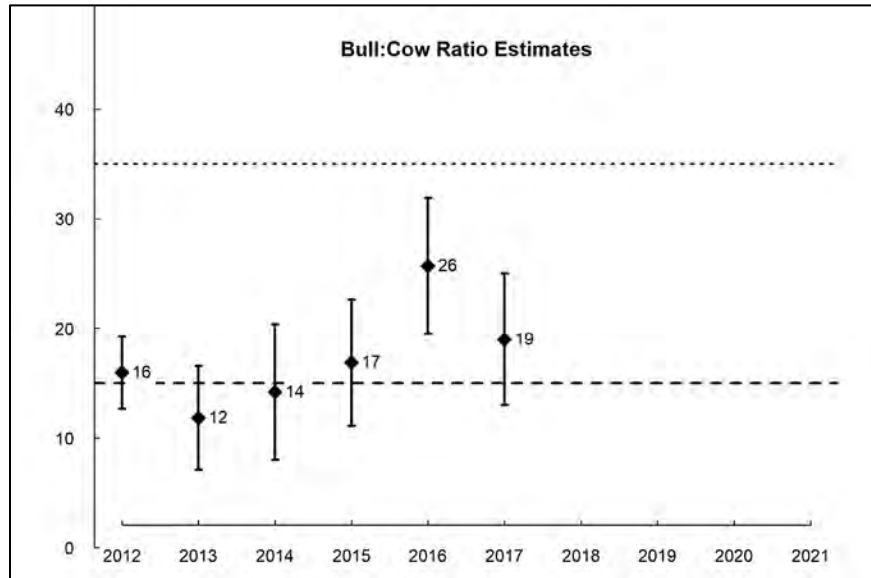


Figure 2. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of pre-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Olympic elk herd area, autumn 2011-2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 15-35 bulls:100 cows.

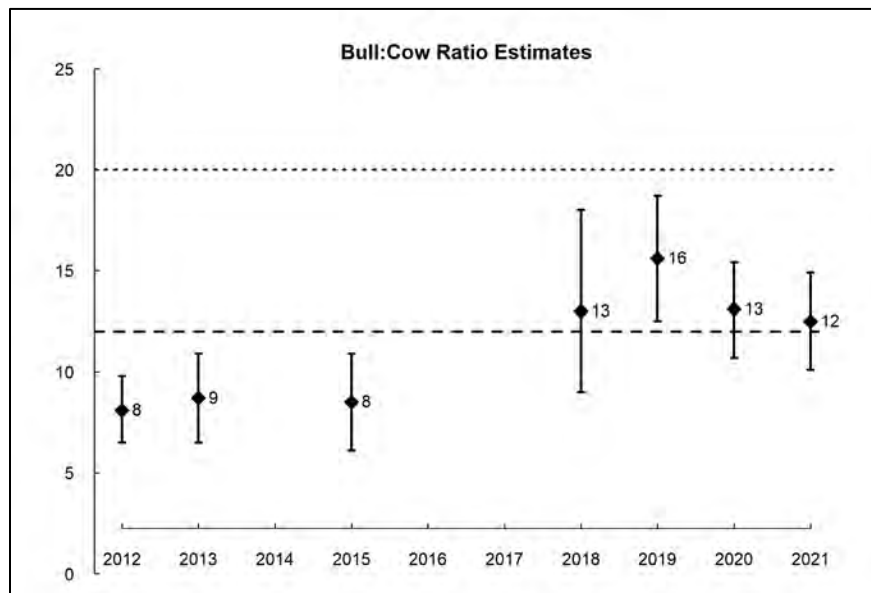


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Olympic elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows. Post-hunt ratios from 2014, 2016, and 2017 are not included because biologists only conducted surveys in a single GMU during these years.

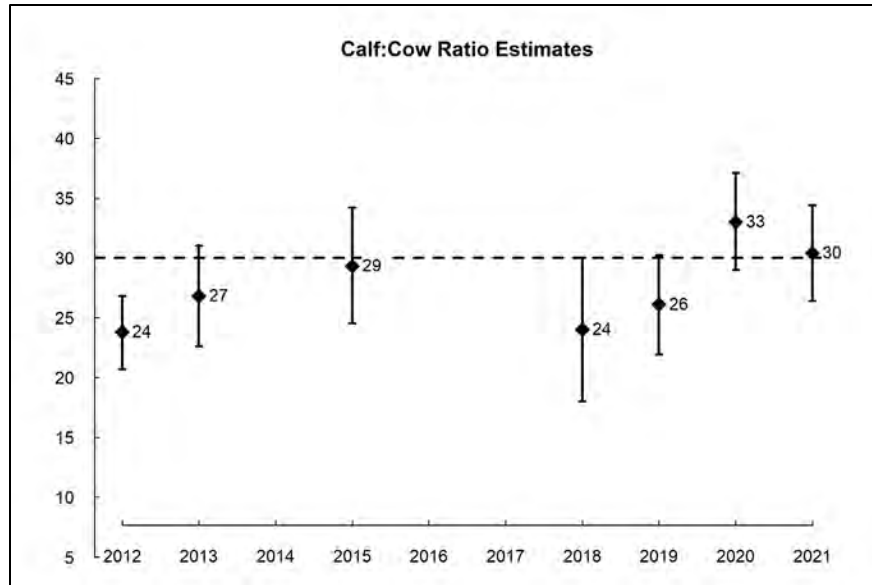


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Olympic elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth. Post-hunt ratios from 2014, 2016, and 2017 are not included because biologists only conducted surveys in a single GMU during these years.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The legal elk for most general season hunts in the Olympic elk herd area are 3-point minimum, branch-antlered bulls. Harvest opportunities for antlerless elk are offered during some general season archery hunts and through a special permit system. Antlerless harvest is usually targeted at areas where the Department’s objective is to maintain low elk numbers.

Estimates of harvest during general seasons and total State harvest have averaged 267 and 302 elk, respectively, 2011-2020; while estimates of harvest including tribal harvest have averaged 470 elk, 2010-2019. Elk harvest in 2020, although down from the period high reported in 2018 for State hunters, was still among the highest reported since 2001 (Figure 5). State hunting typically accounts for a greater percentage of the bull harvest in the Olympic elk herd area (Figure 6); while Tribal hunting usually accounts for a greater percentage of the cow harvest (Figure 7). The increase in state antlerless harvest in 2018 and 2019 is largely a result of a new permit hunt designed to address human-elk conflict around Forks, WA. Hunter effort, reported as hunter days, was on a slightly downward trend in the Olympics but has been increasing since 2018 (Figure 8). The estimate of catch per unit effort (CPUE) in 2020, reported as the number of elk killed per 100 days, was consistent with the period average (Figure 9). Total harvest in Figure 6 includes reported Tribal game harvest data, which are compiled and published annually by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission (for data referred to in this document, see the NWIFC Big Game Harvest Reports for Western Washington Treaty Tribes; 2010-2019/20), 2020/21 tribal harvest data was not available at the time this report was completed.

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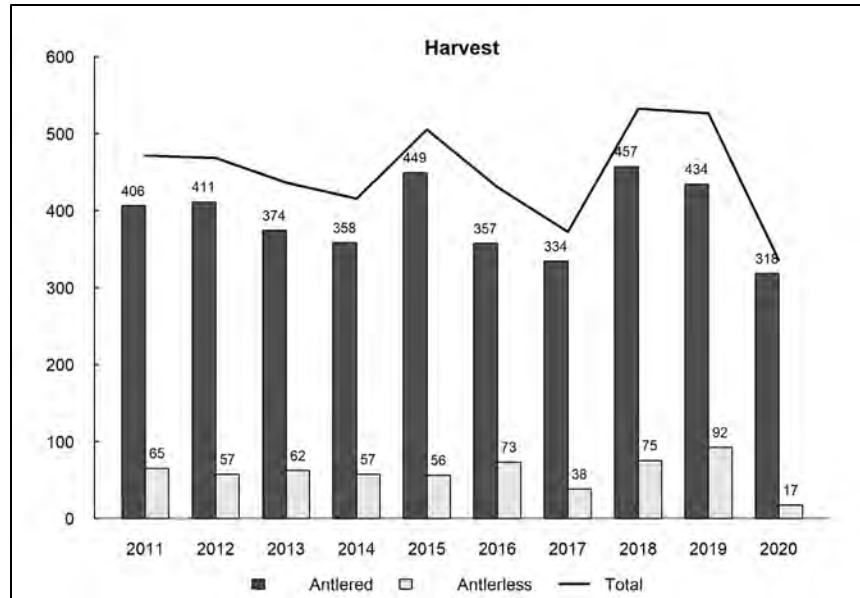


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Olympic elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at time this report was compiled. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below).

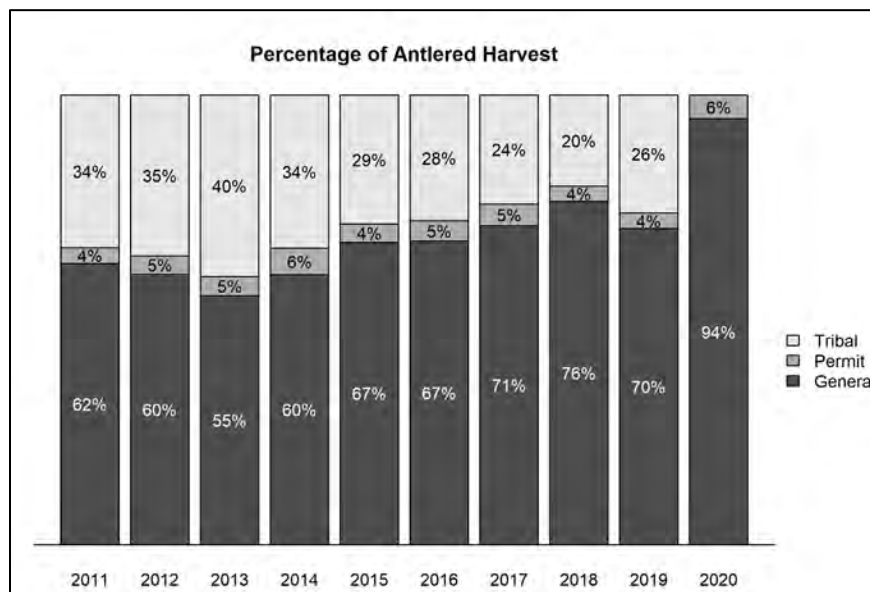


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Olympic elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at time this report was compiled.

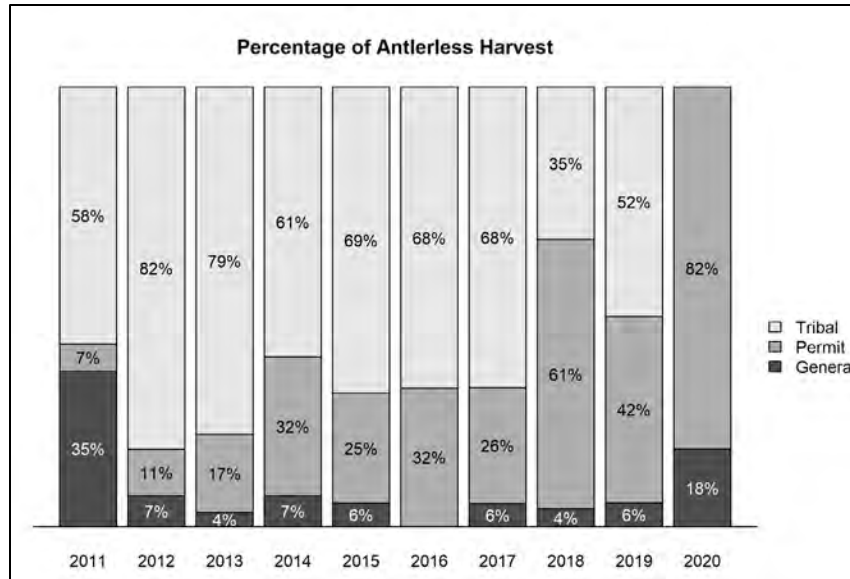


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Olympic elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Tribal harvest data for 2020 was not available at time this report was compiled.

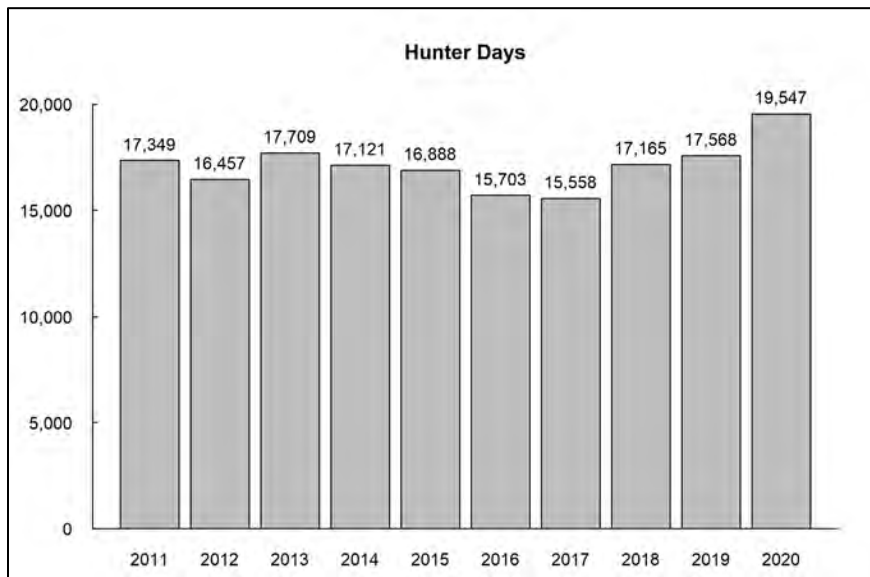


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Olympic elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

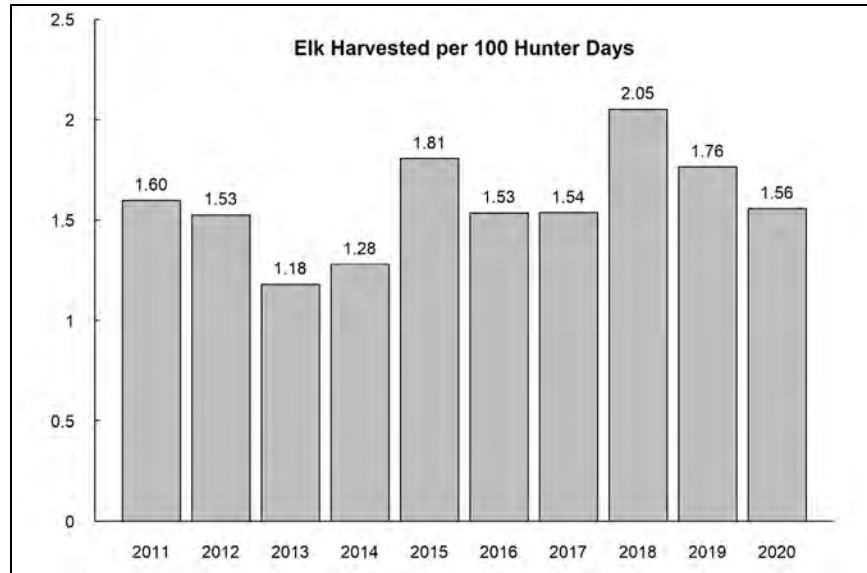


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Olympic elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

There have been no comprehensive studies to estimate the survival of elk throughout the Olympic elk herd area during a specific time period; however, the Department and several Treaty Tribes have conducted numerous projects in specific GMUs. Cow survival is generally higher than 80% (Smith et al., 1994; WDFW, unpublished data; R. McCoy, Makah Tribe, unpublished data). Bull survival has been documented to be 23% (Smith et al., 1994) and 29% (R. McCoy, Makah Tribe, unpublished data). Calf survival ranged from 27-40% in one study conducted in GMUs 601 and 602 by the Makah Tribe (R. McCoy, unpublished data).

Causes of mortality among Olympic elk include nutritional stress, predation, legal harvest, poaching, and a variety of other natural and human-related causes (vehicle collision, for example). Malnutrition and predation are the most common factors associated with the mortality of cows and calves (Smith et al., 1994; WDFW, unpublished data; R. McCoy, Makah Tribe, unpublished data). Hunter harvest is the most common cause of mortality among bulls (Smith et al., 1994; R. McCoy, Makah Tribe, unpublished data). Poaching-related mortality accounted for 2.5% among bulls and cows in the Olympic herd in one study (Smith et al., 1994).

Habitat

Franklin and Dyrness (1973 and 1988) provide a thorough description of the natural characteristics of the diverse array of habitat found in the OEH range, which extends from the coastal and inland marine ecosystems at sea level through a series of forested zones culminating at elevations well above 7,000 feet in the Olympic Mountains. At the higher elevations within ONP and USFS designated wilderness areas, elk have access to abundant, largely undisturbed habitat, including old-growth forest, river valleys, and alpine meadows (Franklin and Dyrness, 1973 and 1988; Henderson et al., 1989). Following robust timber harvest in the 1970s, management of USFS lands

at mid-elevations within the herd area promoted the creation of late-seral forests. As a result, much of the USFS land on the Olympic Peninsula, once highly productive for elk, entered a phase of declining elk forage value which contributed to a reduction in elk numbers on the Olympic Peninsula following their peak in the 1980s (WDFW, 2004). Today, the application of variable-density forest thinning on USFS land is opening closed-canopy forests and improving understory plant productivity important to elk in many areas (Harrington et al., 2005; Mazza, 2009). Since 2005, Olympic National Forest has conducted commercial and pre-commercial thinning of more than 20,000 acres and nine projects specific to deer and elk forage that included invasive weed treatments, native plant seeding and planting, meadow restoration, and slash piling (B. Howell and K. Holtrop, personal communications).

At lower elevations, commercial timber harvest has substantially changed elk habitat resulting in a patchwork of stand types and ages, each with varying degrees of value for elk (WDFW, 2004). Early seral stands, riparian zones, mature conifer, mixed forests, and remnant stands of old-growth tend to provide the most value to elk, while stands with dense canopy cover, usually 20-40 years old, provide the least (Lopez-Perez, 2004). Burning, a once common practice that created improved forage conditions for elk following clear-cutting, has largely been replaced with herbicide spraying, which can delay or reduce plant growth for the first three years after clear-cutting (Ullapa, 2015). As such, the amount and condition of elk habitat are subject to change as a result of the timing and extent of forest management activities, at times entering a phase when conditions are favorable to elk and at other times conditions less favorable. Private pastureland, planted for other agricultural purposes, can also be an important component of elk habitat in many GMUs.

Forage quality and quantity affect the nutritional condition of elk (Cook, 2002) and have been identified as limiting factors affecting elk populations (Trainer, 1971; Starkey et al., 1982; Leslie et al., 1984). Inadequate forage, resulting in a lower nutritional condition, affects elk through poor body condition, repressing adult and calf survival, pregnancy rates, recruitment rates, and ultimately the ability of a population to grow (Trainer, 1971; Thorne, 1976; Cook, 2002; Cook et al., 2004). Inadequate nutrition can be limiting during any season; however, if good nutritional conditions exist during alternate seasons, animals may be able to compensate for periods of lower condition (Cook et al., 2004). In western Washington and particularly on the Olympic Peninsula, poor forage quality or quantity may have contributed to declines in some areas (WDFW, 2004) and may be limiting productivity overall (Schwartz and Mitchell, 1945; Starkey et al., 1982; Jenkins and Starkey, 1991; Schroer et al., 1993; Jenkins and Starkey, 1996; Peek et al., 2001; Cook et al., 2014). In a comparison of elk nutritional condition and productivity, Cook et al. (2014) found that when compared to Roosevelt and Rocky Mountain elk elsewhere, coastal populations of Roosevelt elk, including the Olympic Peninsula, were subject to summer range conditions inadequate to support moderate to high body fat levels in the fall, resulting in lower pregnancy rates and calf recruitment.

Management objectives for WDFW lands in the OEH area are described in the Olympic (WDFW, 2006), North Olympic (WDFW, 2010), and South Puget Sound (WDFW, *in prep*) Wildlife Area Management plans. About 2,034 acres of the Olympic Wildlife Area is managed to provide habitat for elk (WDFW, 2006). The Wynoochee Mitigation Unit of the Olympic Wildlife Area is owned by Tacoma Power but is managed by WDFW. It provides 1,030 acres of habitat to mitigate the inundation of the winter range following the construction of the Wynoochee Dam in 1976. This includes 250 acres of pasture planted to provide elk winter forage. To help reduce agricultural crop

damage on adjacent private land and provide elk winter forage, the Olympic Wildlife Area also includes the 963-acre Olympic Unit and the 41-acre Anderson Homestead. Pastures on these wildlife area units are tilled, seeded, and fertilized on a routine basis to provide forage for locally important elk groups. Although elk use occurs on Department lands elsewhere in the OEH range, management of these lands does not currently include specific activities associated with elk.

Climate

The climate of the herd area is strongly influenced by the Olympic Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. Although drought-like conditions can occur during the summer, weather conditions over much of the Olympic elk herd area tend to be mild, wet, and temperate, with most precipitation falling as rain. The highest precipitation amounts fall to the west of the Olympic Mountains, while the lowest amounts fall to the east. As points of reference, the average annual precipitation in Forks is 120 inches per year, in Sequim it is 16 inches, and in Montesano it is 80 inches (US Climate Center data). Snow accumulations are generally low and of short duration at lower elevations, averaging less than 10 inches per year. Persistent snow accumulations greater than 18 inches is enough to hinder elk movement and can reduce access to available forage (Parker et al., 1984; Poole and Mowat, 2005). At higher elevations in the Olympic Mountain range, snow accumulations can be considerable, often enough to trigger seasonal migrations to lower elevations (Houston et al., 1990; Schroer, 1986; WDFW, unpublished data).

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Elk conflict in the Olympic elk herd area generally falls into two categories: public safety and property/crop damage. Public safety concerns occur where elk and urban development overlap and where elk routinely cross roadways or highways. Occasionally, both damage and public safety concerns overlap. Two of the most notable areas with overlapping concern involve elk near the towns of Sequim and Forks. The Department employs Wildlife Conflict Specialists to work directly with landowners and communities to address human-elk conflicts using lethal and non-lethal activities, often through formal agreements termed Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs). The intent of these activities is to reduce damage, increase landowner tolerance of elk, or reduce risk to human safety by reducing the number of elk and/or the amount of time elk spend on these lands. Non-lethal activities involve hazing and fencing but may also include the deployment of traffic signs that warn drivers traveling through areas where elk routinely cross roadways. Lethal removals are conducted either through permits issued to landowners, special permit hunts, or during general season hunts within a designated Elk Area. Master Hunter permits are used in areas and times designated by the Department to address elk damage. Similarly, a youth permit hunt was created in 2018. Finally, Wildlife Conflict Specialists may also remove elk under an agency kill authority permit.

Management actions to address human-elk conflicts around Sequim began in the 1990s, as expanding urban development replaced historic or traditional elk range in the area, at the same time the Sequim elk group was growing. These actions included use of electronic traffic warning signs triggered by radio-collars worn by elk; habitat enhancement work to provide alternative range; a capture and relocation of 17 elk in 1995 (Nickelson et al., 2003); numerous hazing activities; landowner compensation for crop damage or loss; and the removal of elk. Many of these activities are still utilized today.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Similar situations are emerging in Forks and Joyce, WA. In 2018, an Elk Area was created around the town of Forks (Elk Area 6612, Forks). Forty antlerless elk permits were issued each year from 2018 to 2020, and 58 hunters reported hunting during this permit hunt, resulting in a harvest of 48 elk. New for 2021, an elk area was created around the town of Joyce, and five antlerless permits are available.

The more common human-elk conflict situation in the Olympic elk herd area is related to damage on private agricultural lands and pastures, which can create significant costs for the landowner and WDFW. For 2020/21, 102 permits were issued to remove elk, and 38 elk were harvested (Table 1). Additionally, four Master Hunters removed four elk from the Olympic herd.

Table 1. The number of permits issued associated with conflict reduction activities and elk removed in 2020/21 for Game Management Units (GMU) in the Olympic elk herd area.

| GMU | Permits Issued | Elk Removed |
|--------------|----------------|-------------|
| 602 | 2 | |
| 603 | 8 | 4 |
| 607 | 12 | |
| 612 | 6 | |
| 615 | 2 | 1 |
| 624 | 8 | 4 |
| 636 | 8 | 6 |
| 648 | 43 | 18 |
| 651 | 13 | 5 |
| Total | 102 | 38 |

Management Concerns

The Olympic Elk Herd Plan (WDFW, 2004), which provides management objectives and guidance for monitoring, is currently being updated. A formalized monitoring strategy is under development as the herd plan is updated. Hunting harvest data and herd composition surveys, including information collected by the Olympic Peninsula Treaty Tribes, provide the basis for management decisions related to the Olympic elk herd. Monitoring during this interim period has increased to include additional GMUs, but better coverage is desired. Calf to cow ratios frequently at or below desired levels needed to increase the elk population remain a concern and support a conservative harvest strategy, particularly among antlerless elk. Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) spreading to new places in the Olympic elk herd area may present additional future challenges related to the management of this herd.

Management Conclusions

Post-season (Spring) bull to cow ratio objectives are usually met. Calf to cow ratios are frequently at or below desired levels needed to increase the elk population. Conservative harvest strategies remain important for management of this herd, although some areas with human-elk conflict may need a different approach.

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Selkirk Elk Herd

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Introduction

The Selkirk elk herd is located in northeast Washington and includes the Pend Oreille and Spokane subherds. The Pend Oreille subherd consists of nine GMUs, including 101 (Sherman), 105 (Kelly Hill), 108 (Douglas), 111 (Aladdin), 113 (Selkirk), 117 (49 Degrees North), 121 (Huckleberry), 124 (Mount Spokane), and 204 (Okanogan East) (Figure 1). The Spokane subherd consists of six GMUs, including GMUs 127 (Mica Peak), 130 (Cheney), 133 (Roosevelt), 136 (Harrington), 139 (Step toe), and 142 (Almota) (Figure 1).

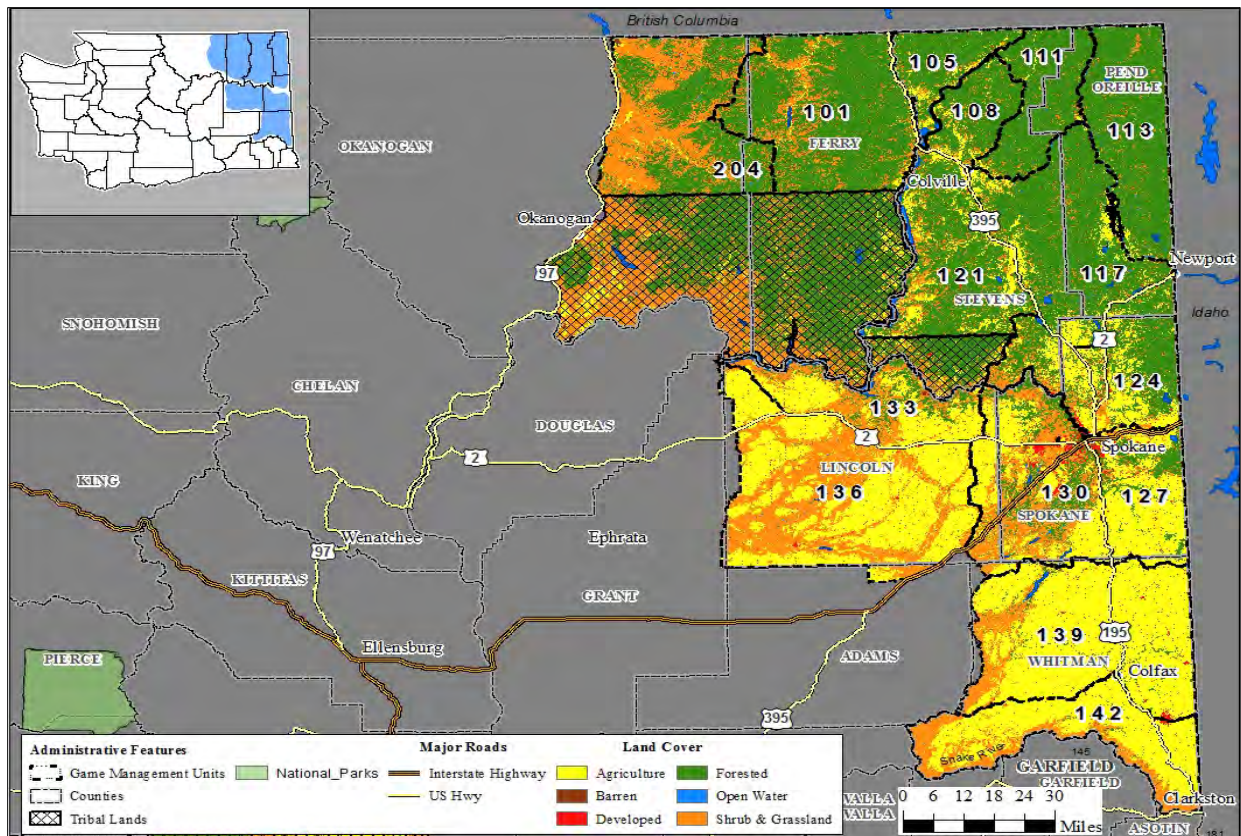


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 15 game management units that comprise the Selkirk elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department's objective is to increase elk abundance in the Pend Oreille subherd area to 1,500-2,500 elk and to maintain 1,000-1,500 elk in the Spokane subherd area (WDFW, 2014a).

Additional objectives include maintaining populations with a pre-hunt bull:cow ratio of 15-35 bulls:100 cows or post-hunt bull:cow ratio of 12-20 bulls:100 cows (WDFW, 2014a) and maintaining an annual survival rate of 0.50 for bulls when bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2014b).

Population Surveys

Habitat and terrain within the Pend Oreille subherd area present a sampling environment that is not conducive for typical aerial composition surveys because the dense and largely unbroken forests impede the ability of observers to detect elk. Consequently, the Department does not currently conduct widespread surveys to monitor the Pend Oreille subherd.

Since the winter of 2017/18, the Department used radio-collars deployed on cow elk within GMUs 117 and 121 to conduct helicopter surveys of groups with collared elk and record calf to cow ratios. Biologists counted a total of 414 elk in 2018, which resulted in an observed calf:cow ratio of 30 calves per 100 cows. During the second year of flights, WDFW biologists counted 419 elk and an observed calf:cow ratio of 22 calves per 100 cows. No aerial surveys were conducted in 2020 because of COVID-19.

The Department collaborates with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) to conduct pre-hunt aerial composition surveys on the Turnbull National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR), located in the Spokane subherd area. However, these surveys only include a small portion of the Spokane subherd and are not likely to be representative of the entire subherd. The number of elk observed during these surveys since 2006 has ranged from 154–460 elk and varies annually (Figure 2). The decline observed in this population from 2010 to 2018 is the result of a concerted effort by WDFW and TNWR to reduce the local population due to elk suppression of aspen regeneration on the refuge. This reduction was accomplished through limited-entry antlerless hunts on TNWR that resulted in both direct mortalities as well as moving animals out of the survey area. The increase observed in the past three years is likely a result of elk figuring out the locations on and off TNWR where hunting is not allowed. Estimated calf:cow ratios have been relatively stable (Figure 4), while estimated bull:cow ratios have shown more variability but have been consistently within or above the management objective of 15-35 bulls:100 cows (Figure 3).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Most general season harvest opportunities in the Pend-Oreille subherd area are for any bull. Most opportunities to harvest antlerless elk are limited, special permit opportunities. However, opportunities to harvest antlerless elk do occur throughout the subherd area during general archery seasons, and for all weapon types in GMU 124 where the Department's objective is to maintain elk numbers within landowner tolerance. Estimates of total harvest (general and permit opportunities combined) within the Pend Oreille subherd have averaged 319 elk between 2011-2020 and have been relatively stable (Figure 5). Nearly all bull harvests (Figure 6) and most antlerless harvests (Figure 7) occur during general seasons. Hunter effort increased slightly in 2020 and catch per unit effort (CPUE) has varied annually within the subherd since 2011 (Figures 8-9).

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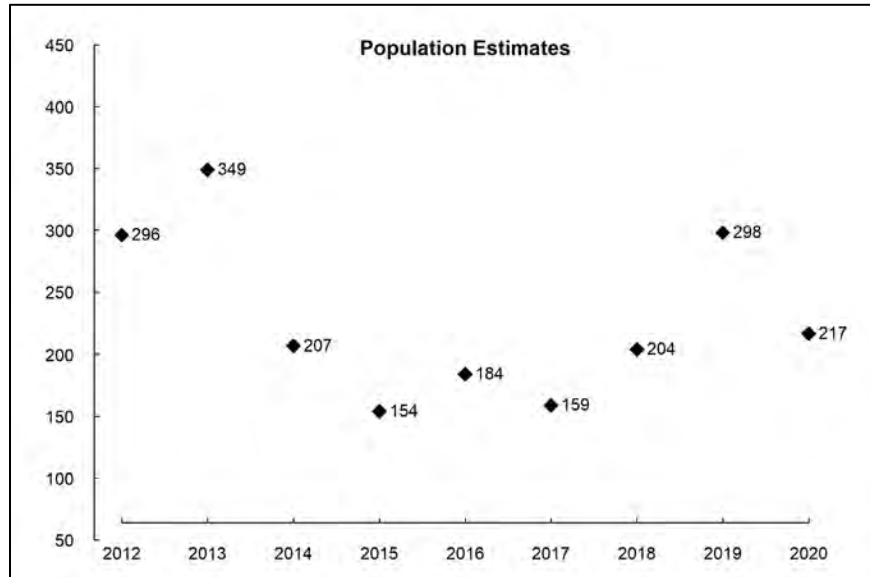


Figure 2. Number of elk observed during aerial composition surveys in autumn on the Turnbull National Wildlife Refuge, autumn 2012-2020.

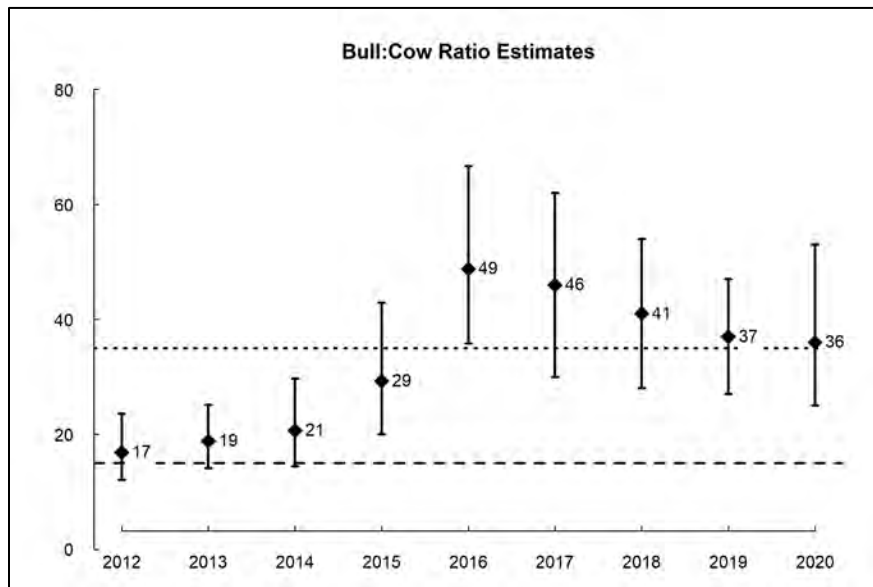


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of pre-hunt bull:cow ratios on the Turnbull National Wildlife Refuge, autumn 2012-2020. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 15-35 bulls:100 cows.

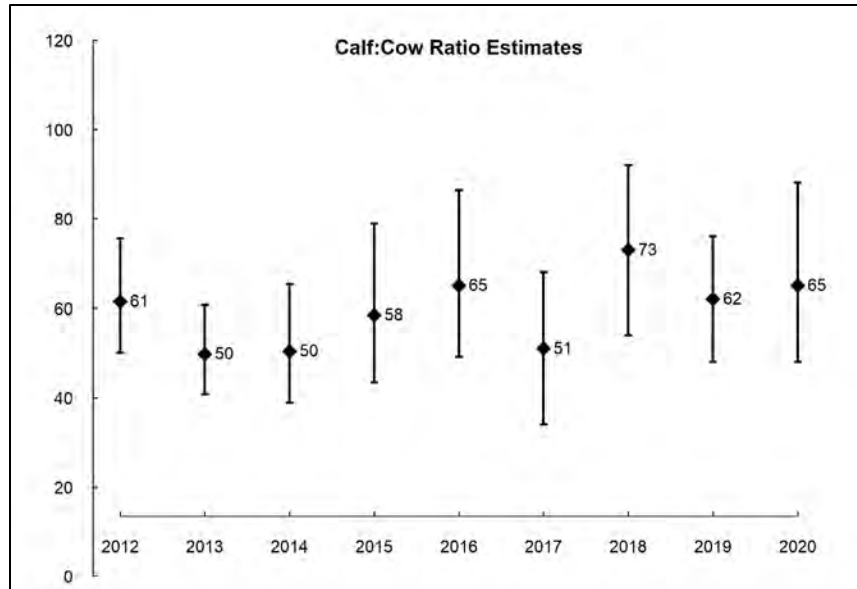


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of pre-hunt calf:cow ratios on the Turnbull National Wildlife Refuge, autumn 2012-2020.

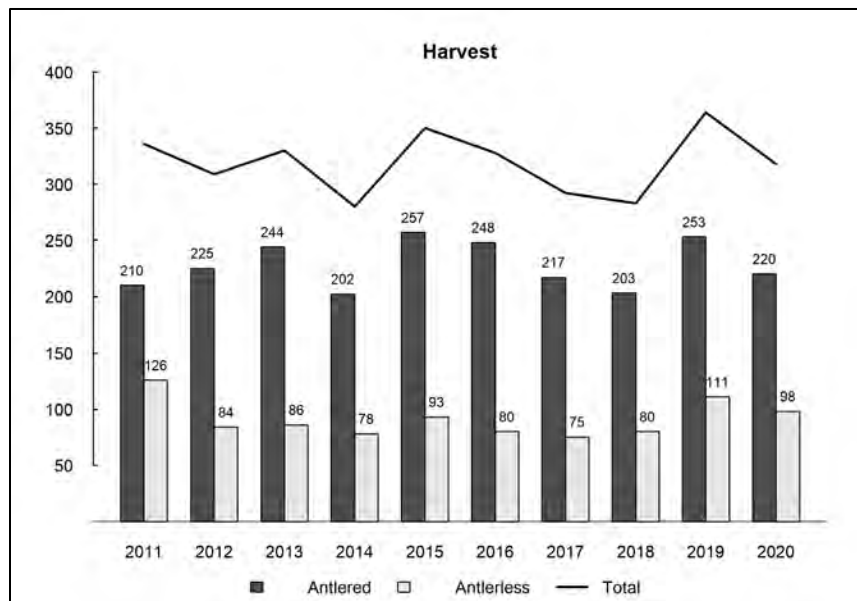


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Pend-Oreille subherd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department, 2011-2020. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below). Estimates also do not include harvest that occurred during established Tribal seasons because that data is currently not available.

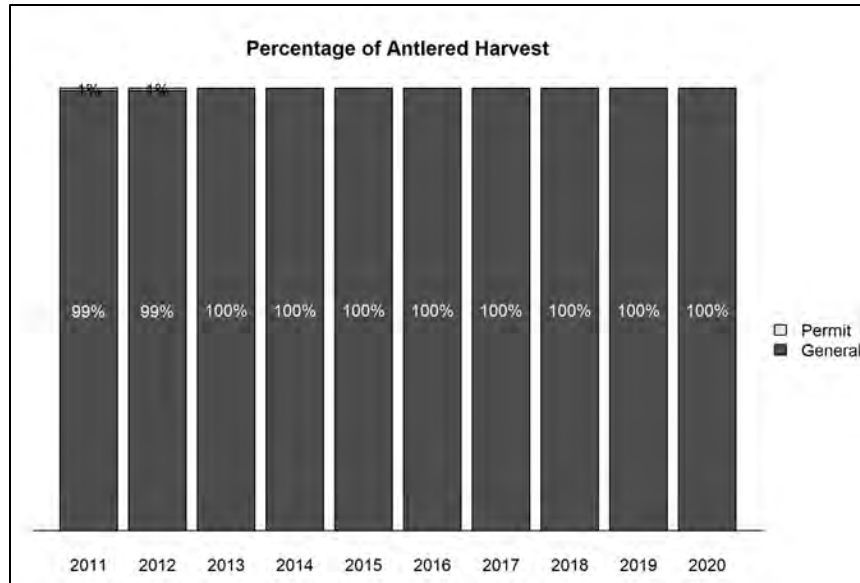


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Pend-Oreille subherd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

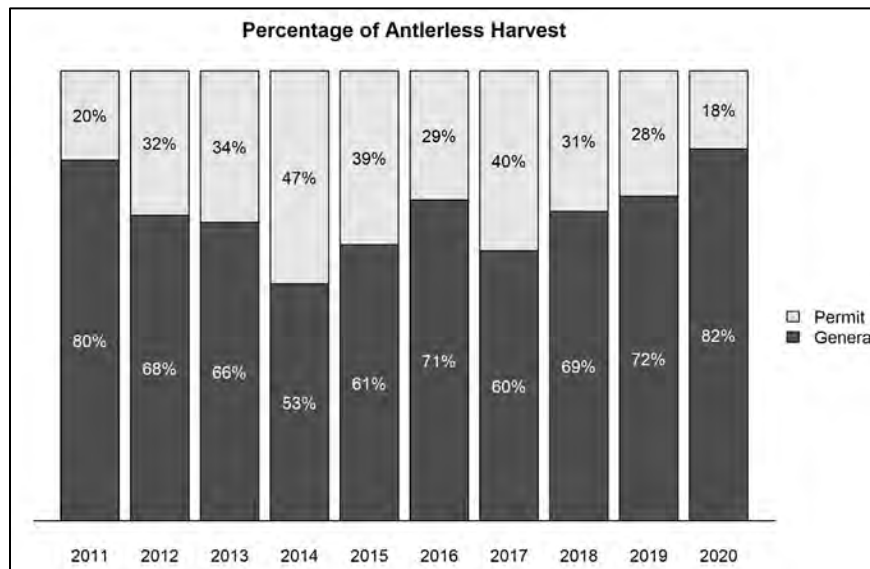


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Pend-Oreille subherd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

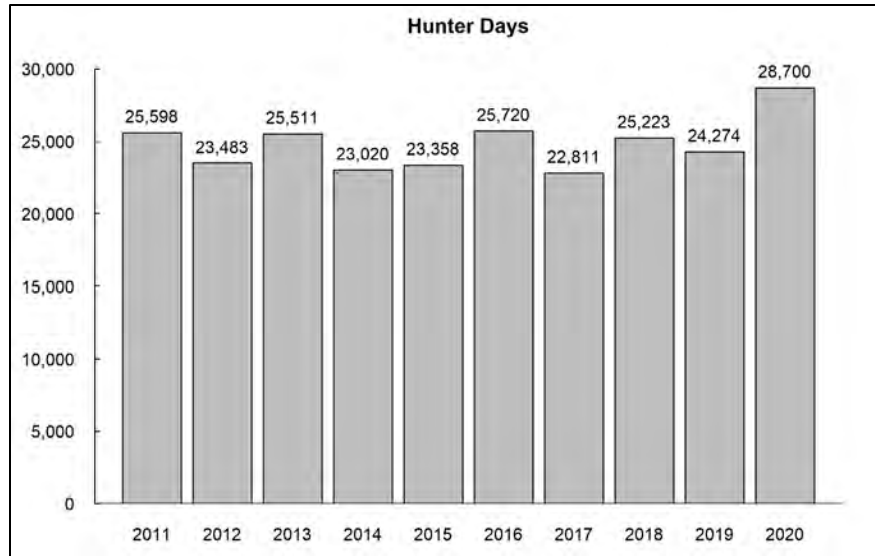


Figure 8. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Pend-Oreille subherd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

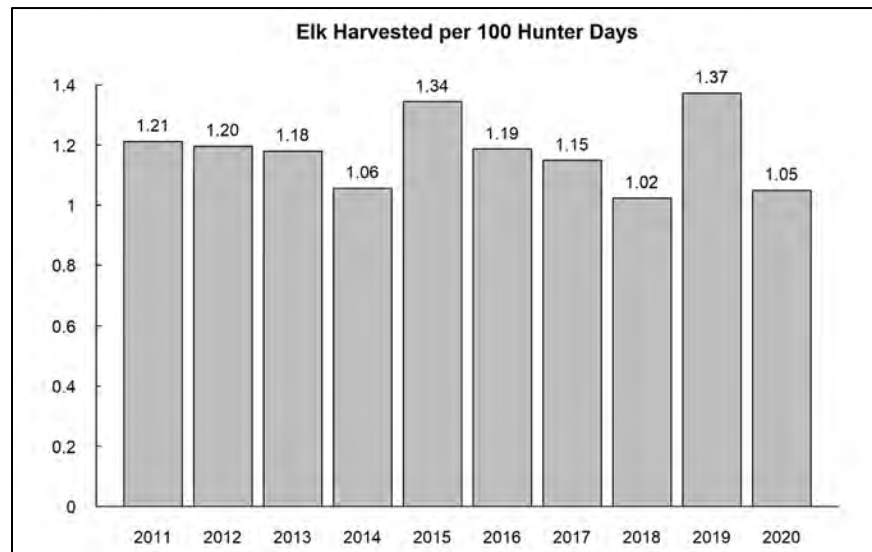


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Pend-Oreille subherd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

The Department allows the harvest of any elk during all general seasons in the Spokane subherd area and collaborates with the USFWS to implement special permit harvest opportunities on TNWR. Estimates of harvest during general seasons and total harvest in the Spokane subherd area averaged 252 and 265 elk, respectively, for 2011-2020 (Figure 10). Most elk harvested in the Spokane subherd are done so during general seasons (Figures 11 & 12). Harvest estimates (Figure 10), hunter effort (Figure 13), and CPUE (Figure 14) vary annually in this subherd. Likely much of this variation reflects access to private lands and the patchy distribution of elk in this area rather than true variation in the elk population.

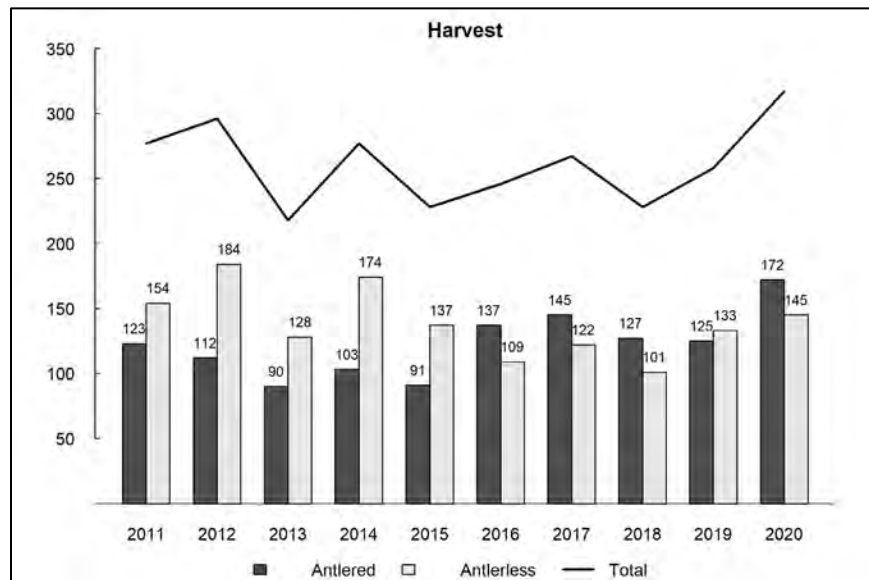


Figure 10. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Spokane subherd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department, 2011-2020. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below). Estimates also do not include harvest that occurred during established Tribal seasons because that data is currently not available.

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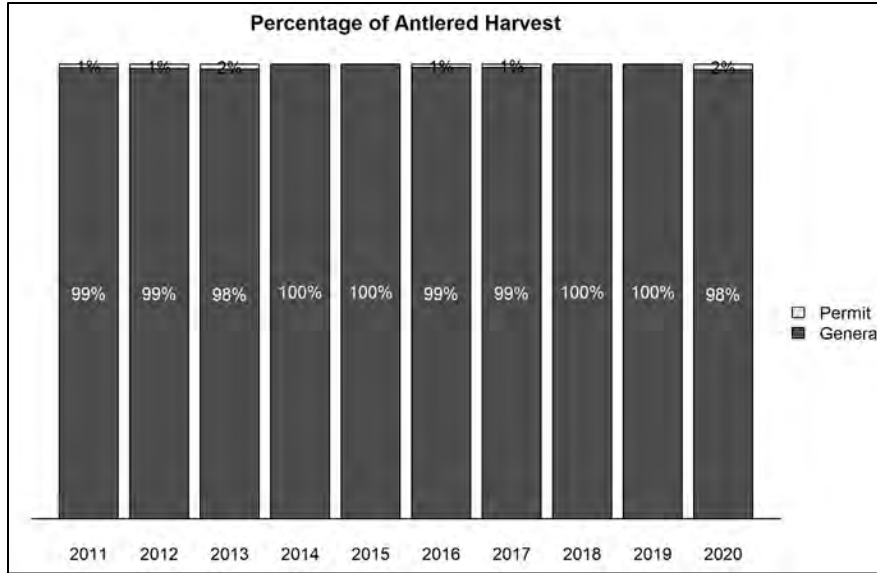


Figure 11. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Spokane subherd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

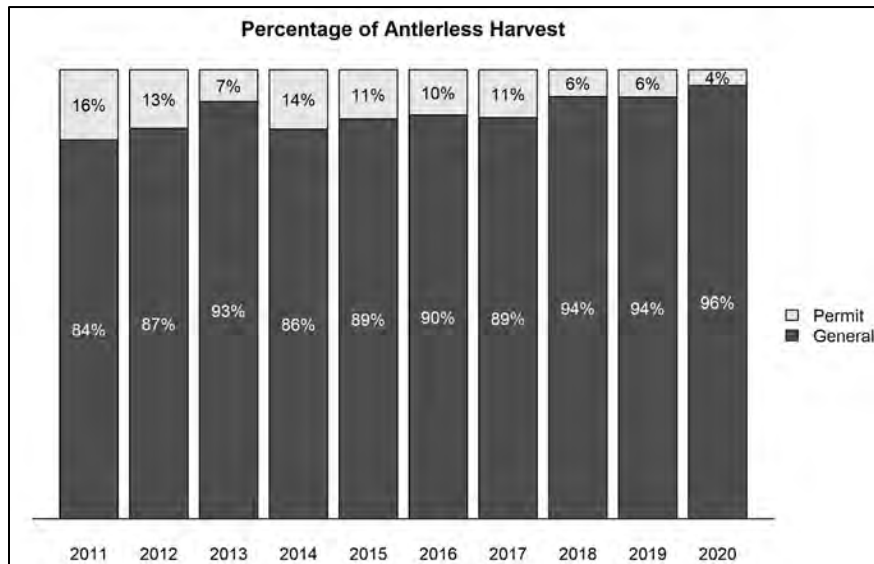


Figure 12. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Spokane subherd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

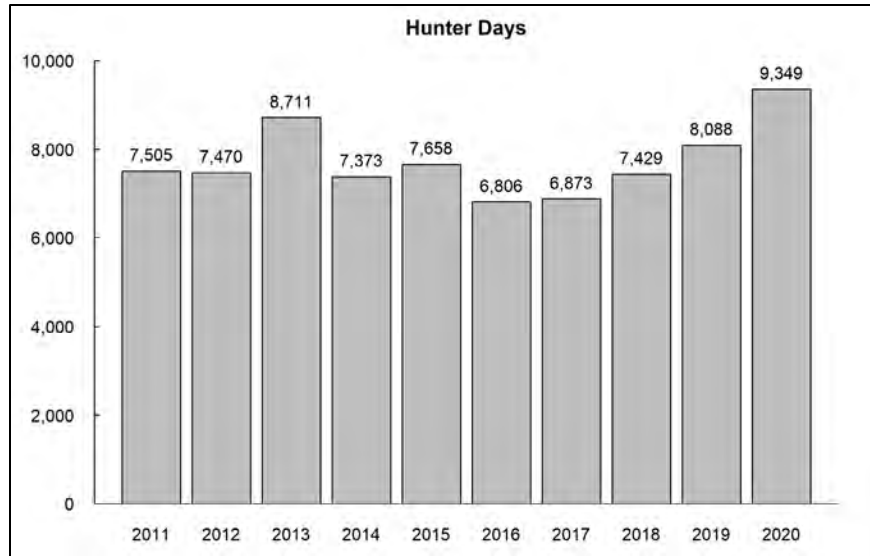


Figure 13. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Spokane subherd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

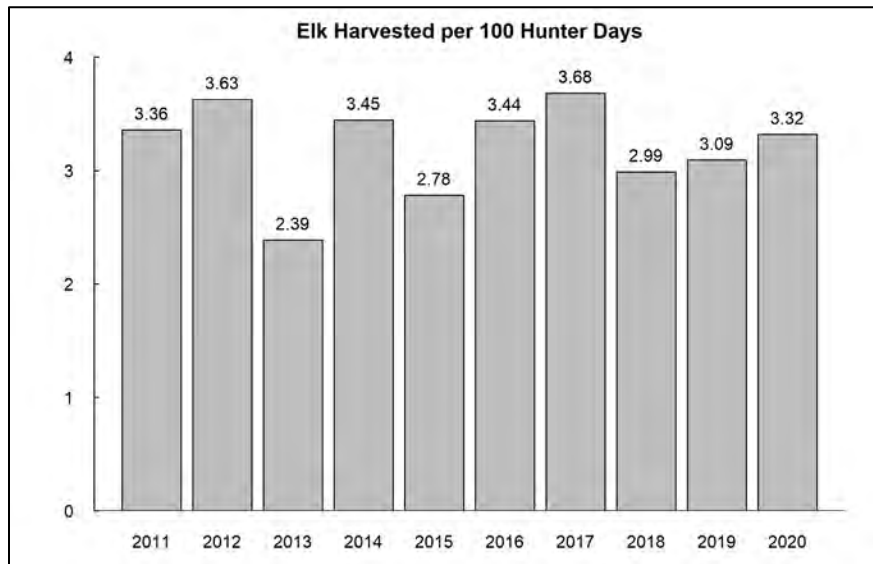


Figure 14. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Spokane subherd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators that occur throughout the Pend Oreille subherd area include black bears, cougars, and gray wolves. Initial results from a Department research project (WDFW/UW Predator-Prey Project), indicate human-caused mortality is the leading cause of mortality for cow elk within the Pend Oreille subherd.

Black bears and cougars also occur throughout the Spokane subherd area. Habitat conditions and hunter harvest suggest that bear and cougar numbers are likely higher north of the Spokane River in the Pend Oreille subherd area than in the Spokane subherd area (WDFW, 2014a). Most cougar and black bear populations are managed to maintain a stable population. At the time of this writing, there were no documented gray wolf packs in the Spokane subherd area (WDFW et al., 2020).

Although the Department has never documented any increased mortality events, severe winter events do occur within the Pend Oreille and Spokane subherd areas and likely have the potential to reduce the overwinter survival of elk. In addition, extreme drought conditions that can persist through summer and fall are becoming more frequent, especially in the Spokane subherd area, which have the potential to reduce the availability of high-quality forages that elk rely on to accrue adequate fat stores for winter. This can affect adult survival directly but is more likely to have a population impact via reduced calf recruitment.

Obtaining elk survival estimates and causes of mortality for the Pend Oreille subherd is one goal of the predator-prey project (see research section), but because the project has one more year of data collection, there are no estimates currently available. There have been no comprehensive efforts to monitor the survival of elk in the Spokane subherd area.

Habitat

Timber harvest is common on state forest lands and even more intensive on private lands. Timber harvest is limited on federal forests. Logging potentially benefits the Pend Oreille subherd by increasing the amount of early seral habitats. In addition, the Colville National Forest, with grant money from the Rocky Mountain Elk Foundation (RMEF), has implemented habitat enhancement projects on approximately 58,000 acres to benefit elk. Most of the projects involved prescribed burning to enhance winter forage production, but there were also projects to restore aspen stands and reclaim roadbeds for improved habitat. The RMEF also funded a prescribed burn on 390 acres of elk habitat on the WDFW Chesaw Wildlife Area within the Pend Oreille subherd area. Over 350,000 acres within the Pend Oreille subherd area were burned by wildfires in the summer of 2015 and approximately 10,601 more acres were burned in 2017. These burns will likely benefit elk in the long term, but some areas burned completely and with high intensity. Thus, it may be years before any benefits to elk are realized.

Conversion of native Palouse Prairie and shrub-steppe habitat in the Spokane subherd area to agricultural lands has and continues to reduce the amount of native elk habitat. However, irrigated alfalfa, hay fields, and legume crops can supply critical forage for elk during dry summers, when rancher's haystacks are common targets for elk during harder winters. In addition, the expansion of urban populations associated with the main Spokane metropolitan area continues to result in habitat degradation or loss in GMUs 127 and 130. Consequently, it is likely that social tolerance within agricultural and suburban areas will limit the growth and expansion of the Spokane subherd.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Most elk conflict is restricted to the lower-elevation agriculture lands in the Pend Oreille subherd. In 2020, there were 38 damage prevention permits and 41 kill permits issued to landowners experiencing agricultural damage within GMUs 101, 111, 113, 117, 121, and 204. Reported harvest was 33, and all permits issued were for antlerless elk only. Hunting regulations for GMU 204 were modified in 2016 to allow Early Archery while Late Muzzleloader season was switched to Early Muzzleloader to match the rest of the subherd area and to have hunting seasons during the time of year when most damage occurs.

Complaints of agricultural damage caused by elk in GMUs 124-142 have increased over the last several years; much of the damage has been associated with land that has been converted to legume crops (e.g., garbanzo beans, peas, and lentils). WDFW Conflict Specialists work with landowners to address current damage and develop plans to avoid future damage. Hunters are one tool used to help address damage issues. A total of 54 damage permits and 17 kill permits were issued to private landowners who were enrolled in the Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreement (DPCA) Program for elk in GMUs 124-142 in 2020. The reported harvest on those permits was 12 for damage permits and one for kill permits. Occasionally, Master Hunter Damage Permits are also utilized to address damage outside of the general hunting season for landowners who are not enrolled in the DPCA Program, but none were used in 2020. Harassment is another common tool used to reduce damage, elk are hazed by staff, Master Hunters, and local sportsman's groups. Additionally, WDFW loans landowners propane cannons to harass elk during critical times, and as budgets allow, WDFW has assisted in fencing projects.

Research

The Predator-Prey Project began in the winter of 2016/17 and seeks to quantify the effects of recolonizing wolf populations on co-occurring ungulate species and another top predator, the cougar. The two primary objectives of this project are to 1) examine the effects of wolf predation on ungulate demography and population growth and 2) investigate the impacts of recolonizing wolves on cougar population dynamics, space use, and foraging behavior. This project consists of two study areas; one in northeast Washington encompassing the majority of Stevens and Pend Oreille counties, where the wolf population is larger and more widely distributed, and the other in Okanogan County in north-central Washington where the wolf population is smaller, and portions of suitable habitat remain unoccupied. There is increasing understanding that a multi-species approach to predator-prey studies is relevant to account for the various interactions among apex predators and their prey.

To implement a system-based approach, the Department and University of Washington project personnel were attempting to capture and radio-collar at least 50 elk and 65 white-tailed deer in NE Washington, 100 mule deer in the Okanogan, and ten cougars in each study area. The project will also attempt to maintain at least two active GPS collars on wolves in each project study pack.

Ungulate capture efforts began in late-January 2017 and continued during the winters of 2018 and 2019. Over the course of the capture efforts, 63 elk were collared. During March of 2018 and 2019, WDFW biologists conducted aerial composition surveys by locating cows collared as part of the project. See the survey section for these results.

Management Concerns

Federal, state, and private land managers have implemented numerous road closures in recent years that have likely benefited this herd by reducing human disturbance in areas that provide quality elk habitat.

The special permit hunt on TNWR was created to address habitat damage by elk on the Turnbull Refuge. Elk counts from annual aerial surveys in the Turnbull area have shown a considerable decline since the high observed in 2010. However, reported sightings and damage complaints to agricultural crops in the area suggest this is due in part to the movement of elk out of the area in response to drought and hunting pressure rather than a true population decline. Counts increased in 2018 and 2019, as groups of elk were found in areas where they are infrequently observed in the survey area. In response to frequent reports of a large elk herd a few miles south of the survey area, new survey units were added there in 2020, and 141 additional elk were observed. It is unknown if or how elk from this group use TNWR. The Department will continue to work with TNWR to assess the hunt and if it is accomplishing its objectives.

Management Conclusions

According to harvest estimates and public perception, elk numbers seem to be either stable or slightly increasing within the Pend Oreille subherd area. Recent wildfires will likely improve habitat conditions that favor elk.

According to harvest estimates and landowner perceptions, elk numbers seem to be increasing within the Spokane subherd area. The Department will continue to allow harvest of any elk during the general season for all weapon types in the Spokane subherd range, as well as GMU 124 in the Pend Oreille subherd range to help balance these elk populations with landowner tolerance.

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- Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2014. 2015-2021 Game Management Plan. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, Washington, USA. [2015-2021 Game Management Plan](#)
- Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Confederated Colville Tribes, Spokane Tribe of Indians, USDA-APHIS Wildlife Services, and U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. 2020. Washington Gray Wolf Conservation and Management 2019 Annual Report. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Ellensburg, WA, USA. [WA Gray Wolf Conservation and Management 2019 Annual Report](#)

South Rainier Elk Herd

ERIC HOLMAN, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The South Rainier elk herd is in west-central Washington and consists of five GMUs: 503 (Randle), 510 (Stormking), 513 (South Rainier), 516 (Packwood), and 667 (Skookumchuck) (Figure 1).

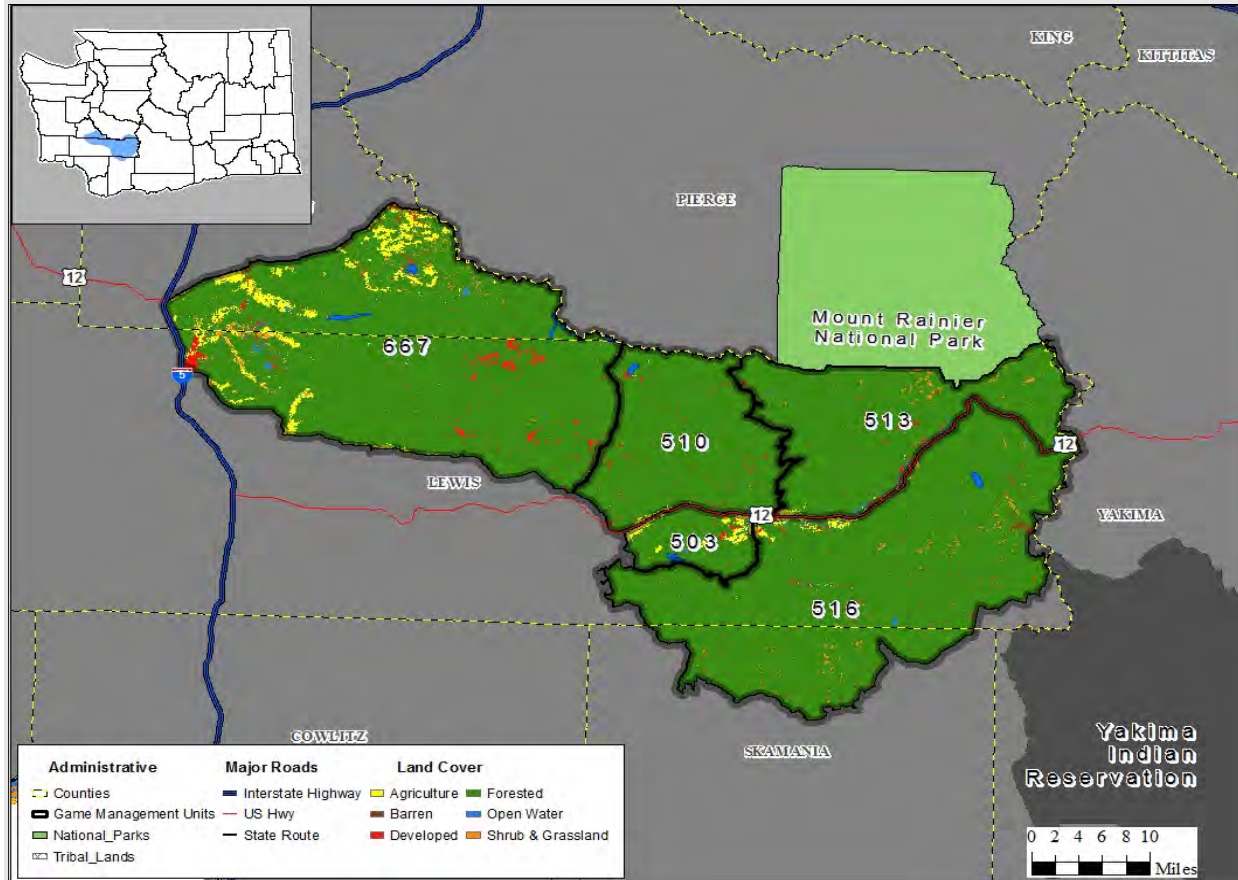


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the five game management units that comprise the South Rainier elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department identified a management objective of 3,000 elk in the South Rainier Elk Herd Plan (WDFW, 2002); however, the plan is overdue for revision, and management objectives may be out of date. In addition, the Department has not identified a formalized monitoring strategy to estimate elk abundance and herd composition in the South Rainier elk herd area. Because the Department has not identified a comprehensive monitoring strategy that is representative of the entire herd, biologists primarily depend on harvest data to make inferences about population trends.

Population Surveys

The Puyallup Tribe of Indians conducts aerial composition surveys and estimates elk abundance in the upper Cowlitz River basin using a sightability model they developed specifically for that area (Gilbert and Moeller, 2008). The surveys are conducted in early spring and include portions of GMUs 503, 510, 513, and 516. The results of these surveys are illustrated in Figure 2 (Moeller, 2021).

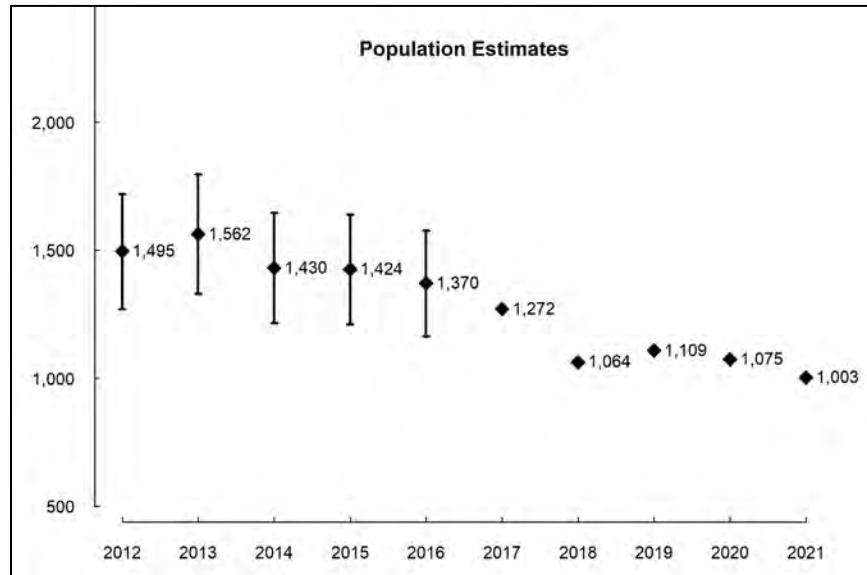


Figure 2. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance in the Cowlitz River Basin (portions of GMUs 503, 510, 513, and 516), spring 2012-2021. Data are collected and provided by the Puyallup Tribe of Indians.

The Department has also collaborated with the Muckleshoot Indian Tribe, the U.S. Geological Survey, National Park Service, and Puyallup Tribe of Indians to estimate elk abundance in the high alpine meadows of Mount Rainier National Park (MRNP) (Griffin et al., 2013). However, those surveys only include a small portion of the South Rainier elk herd (<550 elk). Additionally, it is unknown what proportion of those elk move outside MRNP, what portion may join either the Yakima or North Rainier elk herds, or what portion could be included in the spring survey conducted by the Puyallup Tribe.

The Department has also periodically conducted surveys on the Centralia Mine portion of GMU 667 since 2010. The survey was completed in August of 2020. The effort resulted in observations of 352 elk with a bull:cow ratio of 21:100 and a calf:cow ratio of 25:100.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department limits most general season harvest opportunities in the South Rainier elk herd area to branch-antlered bulls. Opportunities to harvest antlerless elk do occur during some general archery and muzzleloader seasons within GMUs 503 and 667 and by permit in areas where the Department’s objective is to maintain low elk numbers.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

Estimates of annual harvest during general seasons and total harvest have averaged 267 and 367 elk, respectively, 2011-2020. Harvest estimates have slowly declined in recent years (Figure 3).

Figures 4 and 5 respectively display the percentage of antlered and antlerless elk harvest that occurred during general and permit seasons established by the Department and during established tribal seasons. Note that 2020 tribal harvest information is not available at the time of this writing.

Estimates of hunter effort were stable during 2011-2019 but rose by approximately 10% during 2020 (Figure 6). Estimates of hunter success (expressed as catch per unit effort; CPUE) have been stable during 2011-2020 (Figure 7).

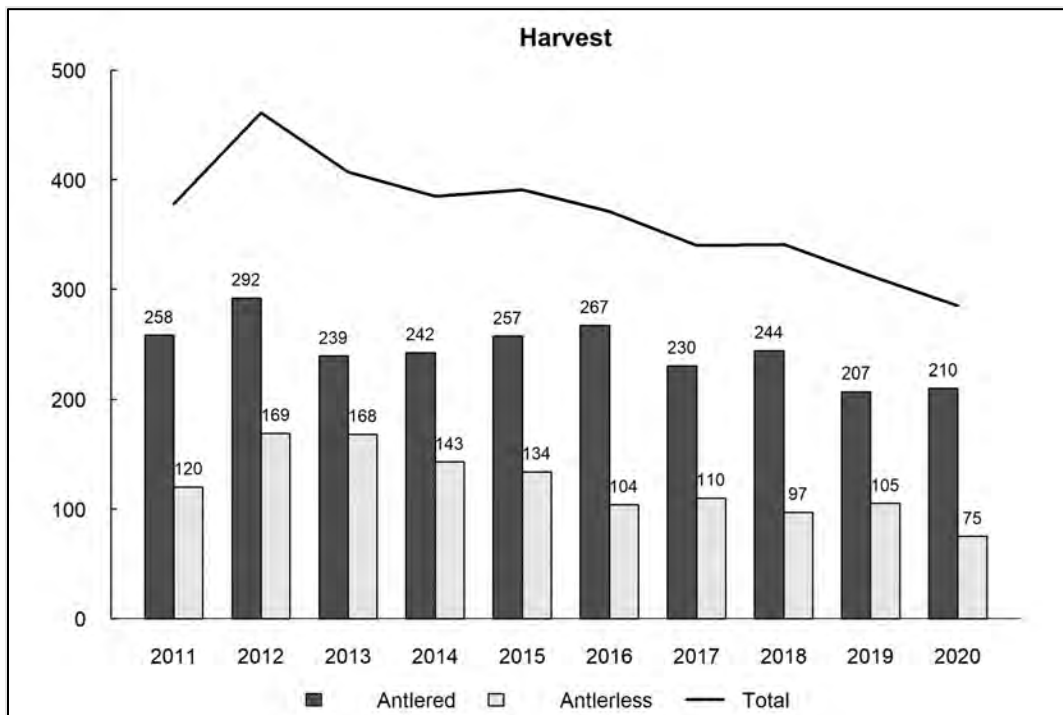


Figure 3. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the South Rainier elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Note that 2020 tribal harvest information is not available at the time of this writing. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below).

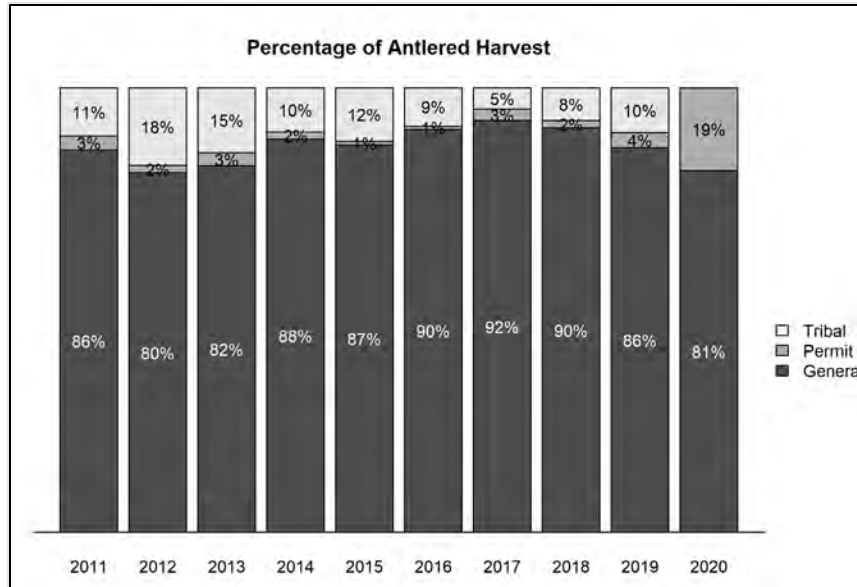


Figure 4. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the South Rainier elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Note that 2020 tribal harvest information is not available at the time of this writing.

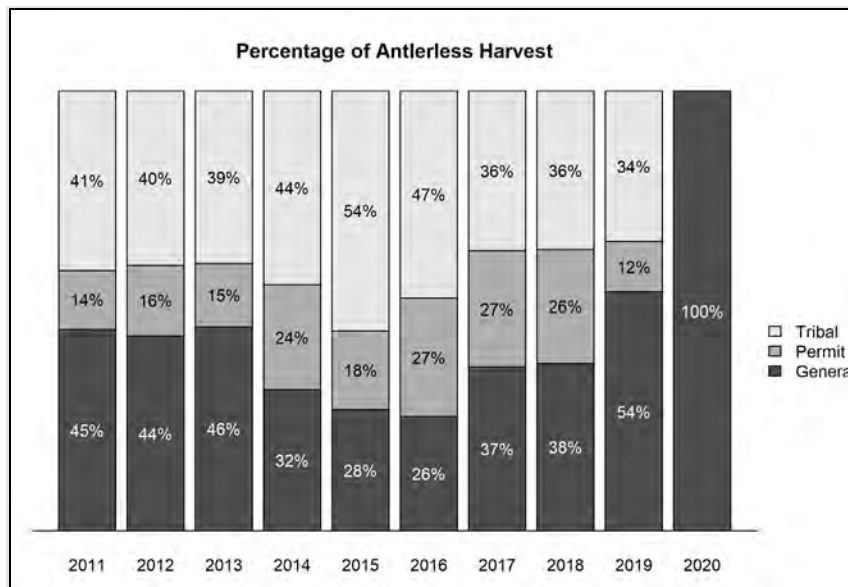


Figure 5. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the South Rainier elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons and the percentage of harvest that occurred during established tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Note that 2020 tribal harvest information is not available at the time of this writing.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

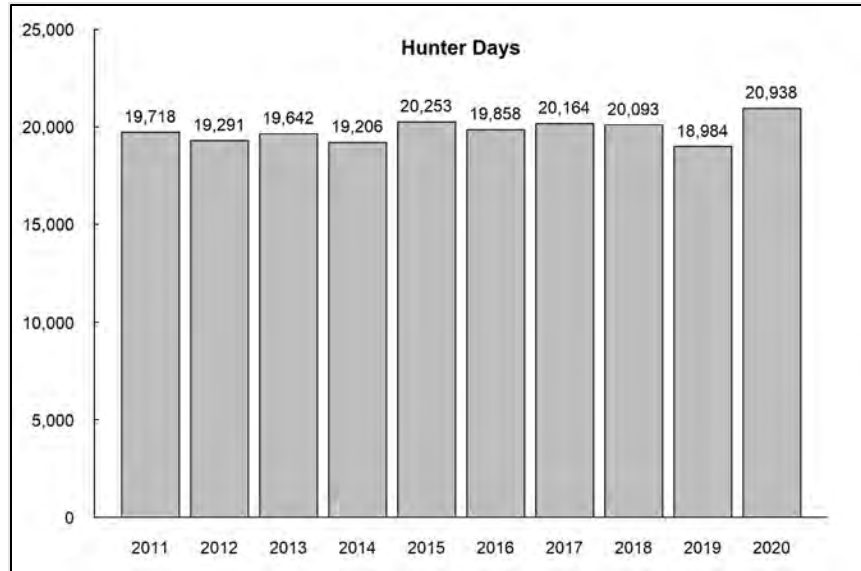


Figure 6. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the South Rainier elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

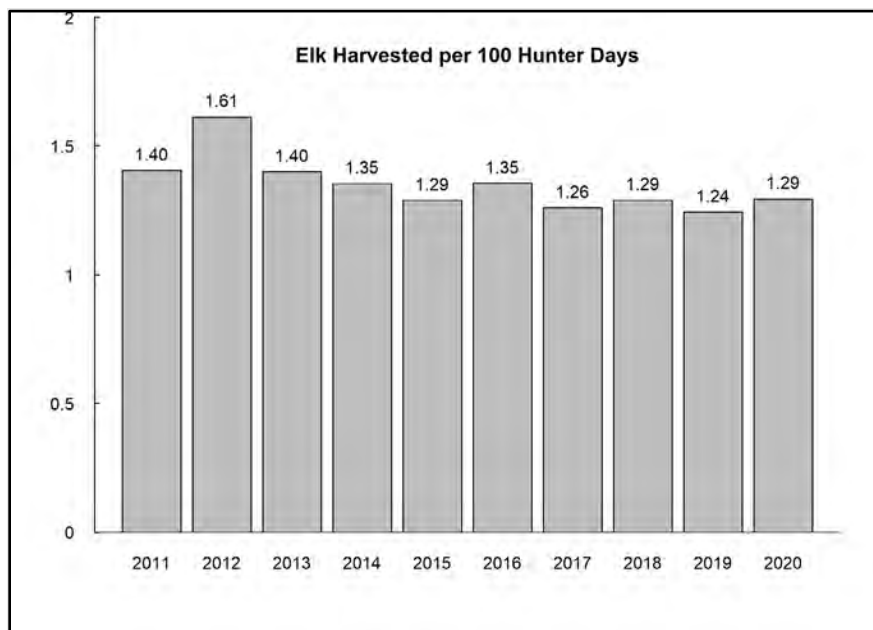


Figure 7. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the South Rainier elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators of elk that occur throughout the South Rainier elk herd area include black bears and cougars. At the time of this writing, there were no documented wolf packs within the herd area (WDFW et al., 2021), although wolf sightings are being investigated (M. Tirhi, pers. comm.).

Severe winter events are thought to rarely affect the South Rainier elk herd. However, extreme drought conditions that persist through summer and fall have the potential to reduce the availability of high-quality forages that elk rely on to accrue adequate fat stores for winter.

There have been no recent studies to monitor the survival of elk in the South Rainier elk herd area.

Habitat

Most of the South Rainier elk herd area consists of lands administered by the U.S. Forest Service (USFS). The remainder of the herd area is comprised of private industrial forestland, State Department of Natural Resources (DNR) forestland, national parkland, agricultural areas, and suburban/rural residential land use. The herd continues to benefit from the creation of early seral habitats on private industrial forests and DNR forests.

The industrial forestlands consist of a mosaic of clear-cuts, relatively open young regeneration stands, dense second-growth stands of timber, and stream buffers lined with second-growth forest. Industrial timber management practices benefit elk by increasing the quantity of early seral habitats and the subsequent forage base. While beneficial to elk, management practices are not conducted to purposefully increase or improve elk habitat. Additionally, intensive forest management practices, including the planting of dense stands of fast-growing conifer seedlings and the application of herbicides during the re-establishment of the timber stand, may also be affecting overall productivity due to reduced forage quality and availability. These effects work in tandem by reducing the amount of favorable plants available as forage in the early term and completion of forest canopy closure (typically approximately age 12), far earlier than would occur in a naturally regenerated stand. The magnitude of those effects is influenced by site-specific types of post-timber harvest treatments and plant compositions and the number of years since timber harvest. A commonality among these varying factors is that the best quality and most quantity of favorable forage seems to occur approximately 3 to 14 years after timber harvest, whether herbicide treatments are applied or not. However, the differences between available, favorable forage in that time period for treated and untreated stands can still be substantial. A full discussion on the complexity of these habitat interactions is beyond the scope of this report, and WDFW refers the reader to Ulappa (2015) and Geary et al. (2012) for a more comprehensive understanding of this research.

In contrast, very limited timber harvest on federal forests in the last three decades has led to a generally declining trend in habitat quality for elk. Forest thinning projects have partially offset the losses of quality habitat on USFS lands. These projects have been cooperative efforts among the Puyallup Tribe, the Rocky Mountain Elk Foundation, and USFS. Additional thinning is planned for this area.

A large number of elk in the South Rainier elk herd area concentrate on the valley floor in the Upper Cowlitz River Basin during winter. However, the continued development of this area for

agricultural, recreational, and housing purposes continues to result in a loss of critical winter habitat. Currently, elk numbers in the Upper Cowlitz River Basin are higher than some segments of the public would prefer.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Complaints of damage to agricultural crops occur within the range of the South Rainier elk herd. The most severe conflicts are concentrated in the upper Cowlitz River valley and the Hanaford area. In the upper Cowlitz River, a narrow band of low-elevation privately owned land is surrounded by mountainous and forested public and industrial forestland. The upper Cowlitz valley is winter range for elk, and their presence is most common in winter and early spring but persists year-round. Elk damage complaints in this area have persisted for many years and are unlikely to be abated given the juxtaposition of attractive food sources and a large amount of forestland. A variety of crops are impacted by elk damage, but most of the damage is on hay fields.

In the Hanaford Area of Lewis County, elk also cause damage to agricultural crops. Elk populations that move between the Centralia Mine and the Skookumchuck Wildlife Area have been increasing over the years. Access to the Centralia Mine is restricted by federal regulations, which reduces the number of elk that may be harvested there. However, the landowner has worked with WDFW to allow senior and disabled special draw permit hunts to help control this elk population. Additionally, three permit-only elk seasons, designed to address agricultural damage, have been implemented in the Hanaford elk area (Elk Area 6069).

Wildlife Conflict Specialists work closely with agricultural producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs), which identify a plan to reduce the amount of damage incurred to crops using non-lethal and lethal methods. Non-lethal methods of discouraging elk use are a very important component to reducing elk damage and are generally attempted prior to the use of lethal response. Conflict Specialists and landowners use a variety of non-lethal methods, including electrified fladry fencing; noisemakers (bird bangers, critter gitters, propane cannons); hazing and herding on foot, with a vehicle or dog; scarecrow-like electronic devices; and odor-based repellents such as Plantskydd.

Lethal methods of deterring elk are also used to reduce damage to crops. These efforts include hunts within specified elk areas, pools of Master Hunters, Youth, and Hunters with Disabilities for immediate response to damage issues, as well as landowner damage permits. See Table 1 for a summary of permits issued to landowners allowing the take of elk causing agricultural damage in the South Rainier elk herd area during 2020-21. Note: These removals are in addition to the elk harvests discussed in Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvests above. Collectively, these hunts are designed to decrease the number of elk causing damage and/or to haze elk from the area.

Table 1. Number of DPCA’S (Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements), Permits to lethally remove elk causing damage to agricultural crops and resulting number of elk removed, South Rainier elk herd, 2020-21.

| GMU | DPCA’S | Landowner Permits | Public Permits | Total Permits | Total Elk Removed |
|-----|--------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|-------------------|
| 503 | 1 | 2 | 7* | 9 | 2 |
| 513 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 8 | 2 |
| 516 | 6 | 6 | 7* | 6 | 8 |
| 667 | 12 | 22 | 2 | 24 | 11 |
| SUM | 22 | 37 | 10* | 47 | 23 |

* A total of 7 permits were deployed to hunt in either 503 or 516, so the total public permits is 10.

In addition to conflicts with agriculture, elk in the Upper Cowlitz River Valley are regularly near people. This situation is most acute in the town of Packwood, where elk are abundant within the city limits, presenting a challenging scenario where many residents very much enjoy the presence of the animals, but others do not. A County ordinance does not allow the use of firearms in town, so these animals are largely not hunted, which has created a refuge effect allowing the elk to feed and loaf in town without fear of humans. Because the elk are somewhat habituated to people, direct interaction among elk and people is not uncommon. Additionally, the elk commonly present a hazard along State Highway 12.

Management Concerns

Treponeme-associated hoof disease

Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) of elk results in abnormal hoof growth, cavitating sole ulcers, and in severe cases, eventual sloughing of the hoof capsule. Elk severely affected by TAHD often have reduced mobility and condition. Consequently, it seems reasonable to assume they would have a reduced probability of survival or reproductive potential. However, it is unknown how TAHD affects the population dynamics of herds where TAHD occurs; this is the focus of ongoing research. The Department is also conducting research to better estimate the distribution and prevalence of TAHD. To learn more about the Department’s efforts associated with investigating TAHD, please visit the Department’s hoof disease webpage at: <https://wdfw.wa.gov/species-habitats/diseases/elk-hoof>.

Habitat Conditions on Federal Lands

Habitat conditions on federally managed lands within the South Rainier Elk herd area are of concern. Large-scale fire, timber harvest, disease, or other succession resetting events are largely absent from federal lands. The resulting landscape is dominated by closed-canopy forest, much of which was harvested from roughly 1950-1990 and subsequently replanted with dense Douglas fir trees. These stands provide little in the way of elk forage and lack the diversity and forage resources of either older or younger forests. While some forest thinning projects have been completed and do provide more robust forage resources, at least temporarily, elk forage and likely elk populations will continue to be suppressed in GMUs 513 and 516.

Fee-Only Hunting Access Restrictions

The largest industrial forestland owner within the South Rainier elk herd area implemented a fee-only access system for hunting and other recreation on their lands several years ago. This system limited the number of individuals allowed access to these lands and has continued in the years that have followed. The ramifications of this limited access to elk hunting opportunity are difficult to quantify as the landowners don't own entire Game Management Units, some individuals elect to pay the access fee, some individuals elect to hunt in another area, and some may decide to quit hunting. The effects of reduced hunter access and participation are twofold in as much as it impacts the Department's goals to maximize recreational access to wildlife and likely reduces hunter participation and recruitment, therefore undermining the capacity to manage elk and other wildlife.

Conflict with Agricultural Land Uses in the Upper Cowlitz River Valley

The situation of conflict among agricultural land uses and elk in the Upper Cowlitz River Valley is not likely to conclude in the near term. The close proximity of relatively abundant elk on forestlands surrounding the valley with attractive food resources within the valley likely guarantees that these conflicts will continue. Furthermore, large-scale habitat changes such as forest fires or extensive timber harvest on the federal lands, which could generate improved habitat conditions and draw elk away from the valley floor, are unlikely to occur in the near future. However, the forest industry, including the USFS, has begun to reconsider fuel loading and fire management practices in the face of the megafires of the 21st century (Natl. Acad. Sci., Eng., Med. 2017). Large amounts of funding that would be needed for extensive fencing of agricultural areas are not available. Even if funding were available, the installation of large-scale fencing would restrict wildlife movement, require maintenance, and be aesthetically unappealing.

Management Conclusions

Harvest data, spring surveys conducted by the Puyallup Tribe of Indians, and surveys of alpine habitats on the south side of Mt. Rainier National Park indicate a slow decline in the elk population. While none of these methods provides a comprehensive index of elk abundance in the South Rainier herd area, together, they do serve as a surrogate means of monitoring the population. Nonetheless, the development and implementation of a method to monitor the entirety of the South Rainier elk herd, including demographic characteristics (i.e., bull and calf to cow ratios), is a management need.

Conflicts with agricultural producers, especially in the Upper Cowlitz River Valley and the Hanaford area, are ongoing and will require continuing attention from Wildlife Conflict staff. Additionally, the development of bacterial hoof disease in southwest Washington elk has the potential to impact elk in the South Rainier herd area. The extent of the disease in the South Rainier herd area is not known, but the condition is extensive in both the Mount St. Helens herd area and Willapa Hills herd areas to the south and west.

An updated herd plan is needed for the South Rainier herd. The existing plan is now more than 15 years old and does not reflect current conditions. Specifically, the plan was written before the presence of hoof disease in southwest Washington elk and prior to the organizational change of hiring wildlife management staff to specifically address wildlife-human conflicts. Finally, the existing plan prescribes an elk population goal of 3,000, but there is no method currently available to monitor the entire population.

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Personal Communications

Michelle Tirhi, WDFW District Wildlife Biologist, Pierce, Thurston and Northern Lewis counties.

Willapa Hills Elk Herd

ANTHONY NOVACK AND ERIC HOLMAN, Wildlife Biologists

Introduction

The Willapa Hills elk herd is located in southwest Washington, which consists of 12 GMUs (Figure 1), including 501 (Lincoln), 504 (Stella), 506 (Willapa Hills), 530 (Ryderwood), 658 (North River), 660 (Minot Peak), 663 (Capitol Peak), 672 (Fall River), 673 (Williams Creek), 681 (Bear River), 684 (Long Beach), and 699 (Long Island). The herd area covers more than 1.7 million acres, of which approximately 22% is in public ownership, and 78% is in private ownership. Most of the herd area is industrial forestland, which is owned by a variety of private corporations. Small private timber holdings and small farms occur along the major drainages.



Figure 1. GMU boundaries with county lines, and public lands within the Willapa Hills Elk Herd Area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department completed the Willapa Hills Elk Herd Plan in 2014 and identified a population objective of managing this herd for a stable to increasing population (WDFW, 2014a). Additional objectives include managing for a pre-hunt population with 15-35 bulls:100 cows or a post-hunt population with 12-20 bulls:100 cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of 0.50 for bulls when bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2014b).

Population Surveys

Historically, the Department conducted pre-hunt (August-September) or post-hunt (March-April) aerial composition surveys to assess trends in age and sex ratios. However, surveys lacked a formalized sampling design and did not account for biases that are commonly associated with observing elk in densely vegetated habitats (Samuel et al., 1987). Consequently, estimated ratios were not reflective of the entire herd and were likely biased (WDFW, 2014a).

In 2014, the Department initiated a formalized sampling design to index total elk abundance across the entire herd area using a sightability model developed for elk in the Mount St. Helens elk herd area (McCorquodale et al., 2014). This design contains two distinct survey areas separated by the Willapa River Valley that will each be surveyed biannually.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

WDFW did not conduct elk survey flights during the spring of 2021 due to COVID restrictions. The most recent surveys were conducted during March of 2020 in the southern half of the Willapa Hills Elk herd area in portions of GMUs 506, 530, 673, and 681. We observed 1,524 elk during the survey. The total estimated elk abundance for this southern portion of the herd area was 2,984 (95% CI =2,546-3,688) (Figure 2). Observed bull to cow ratios averaged 17 bulls per 100 cows (95% CI=14-21)(Figure 3). This 17:100 statistic is well above the minimum management objective of 12 bulls per 100 cows. Mature bulls, carrying antlers with five points or more, were uncommon. Calf to cow ratios measured 34 calves per 100 cows (95% CI =29-40) (Figure 4). This calf ratio indicates good calf recruitment. WDFW conducted surveys during March of 2019 in the northern half of the Willapa Hills Elk herd area, specifically portions of GMUs 658, 660, 672, and 501. We observed 889 elk during the 2019 survey. The total estimated elk abundance for this portion of the herd area was 1,435 (95% CI= 1,192-1,982). Observed bull to cow ratios averaged 23 bulls per 100 cows (95% CI = 16-30). This 23:100 statistic is above the management objective of 12–20 bulls per 100 cows. Calf to cow ratios measured 45 calves per 100 cows (95% CI = 34-55). This calf ratio indicates excellent calf recruitment. Mature bulls carrying antlers with five points or more were uncommon (<10% of total).

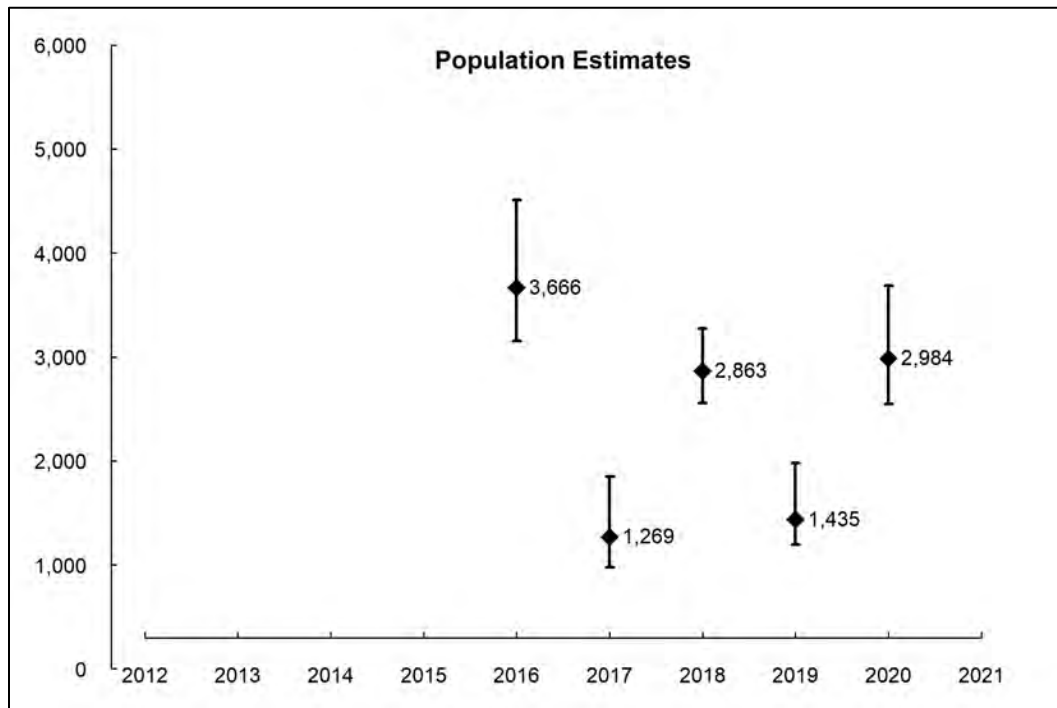


Figure 2. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals for elk in surveyed portions of South Willapa survey area (GMUs 506, 530, 673, and 681) in 2016, 2018, 2020 and from the North Willapa survey area (GMUs 501, 658, 660, and 672) in 2017, and 2019.

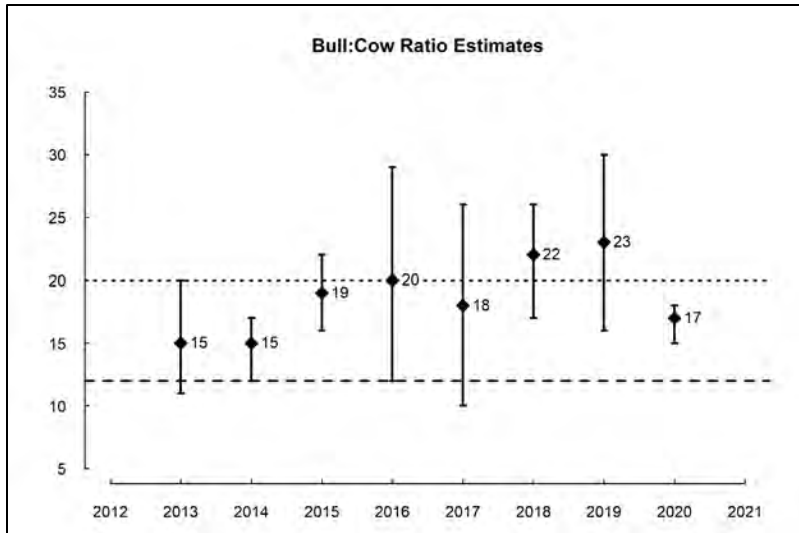


Figure 3. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Willapa Hills elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. (Note - no surveys conducted in 2021) The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows. Post-hunt ratios were not comprehensively estimated prior to spring 2013. Estimates were derived from data collected in the South Willapa survey area (GMUs 506, 530, 673, and 681) in 2013, 2014, 2016, 2018, 2020 and from the North Willapa survey area (GMUs 501, 658, 660, and 672) in 2015, 2017, and 2019.

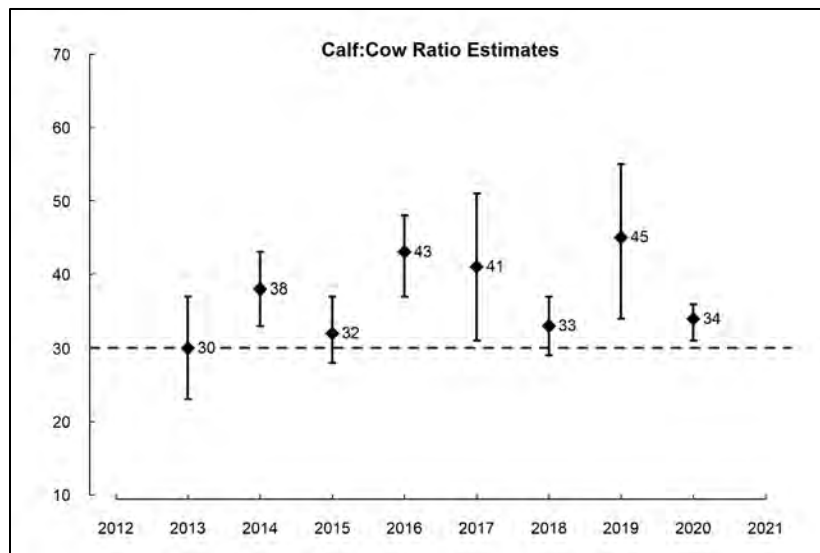


Figure 4. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Willapa Hills elk herd area, spring 2012-2021. (Note - no surveys conducted in 2021). The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth. Post-hunt ratios were not comprehensively estimated prior to spring 2013. Estimates were derived from data collected in the South Willapa survey area (GMUs 506, 530, 673, and 681) in 2013, 2014, 2016, 2018, 2020 and from the North Willapa survey area (GMUs 501, 658, 660, and 672) in 2015, 2017, and 2019.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department limits most general season harvest opportunities in the Willapa Hills elk herd area to branch-antlered bulls and offers most opportunities to harvest antlerless elk through our permit system. Limited opportunities to harvest antlerless elk occur during general archery seasons or in areas where the Department’s objective is to maintain low elk numbers. Total elk harvest, including special permits, has been generally stable since 2011 (Figure 5), although antlerless elk harvest has declined slightly. No tribal harvest was reported for 2020 and, tribal harvest has averaged less than 1% of the overall elk harvest for the past ten years. Nearly all harvest of antlered elk occurs during general seasons (Figure 6). An estimated 76% of the total antlerless harvest in 2020 was taken by non-tribal general season hunters, while the remaining 24% is attributed to permit hunters (Figure 7). Hunter effort has generally declined during that same period, although it’s risen during the last two years from a ten-year low in 2017 (Figure 8). Catch-per-unit-effort (CPUE), or the number of elk taken per 100 hunter days, has fluctuated between 2.04 and 2.52 elk harvested per 100 days effort since 2011 (Figure 9).

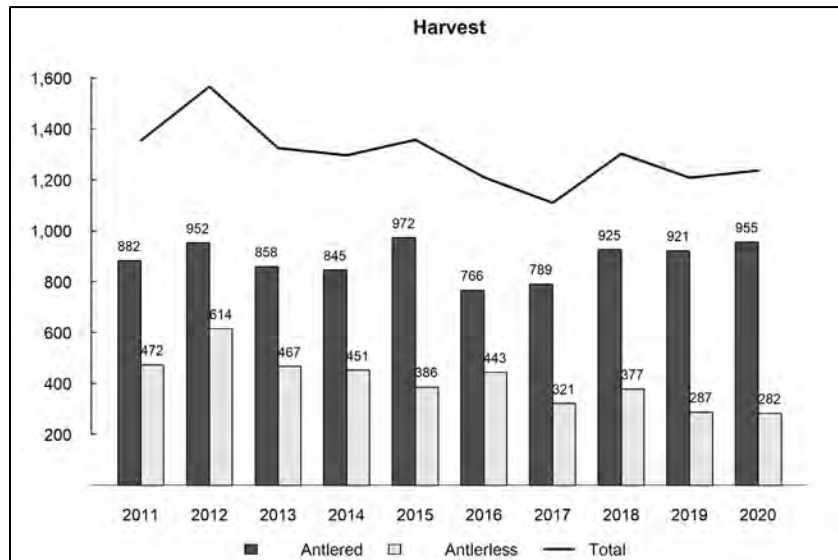


Figure 5. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Willapa Hills elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department and during established Tribal seasons, 2011-2020. Estimates of Tribal harvest were derived from annual harvest reports compiled by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below).

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

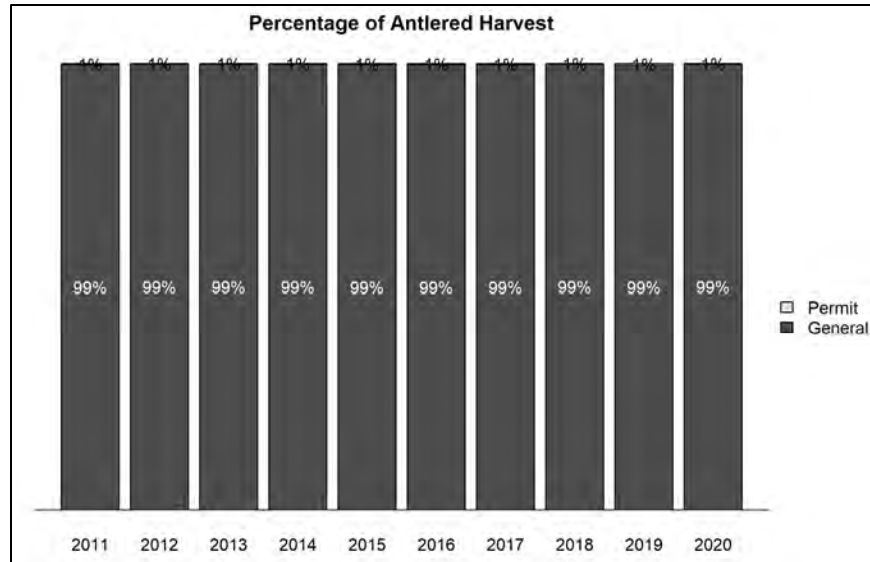


Figure 6. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Willapa Hills elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020. Zero tribal harvest was reported and is not represented in the figure.

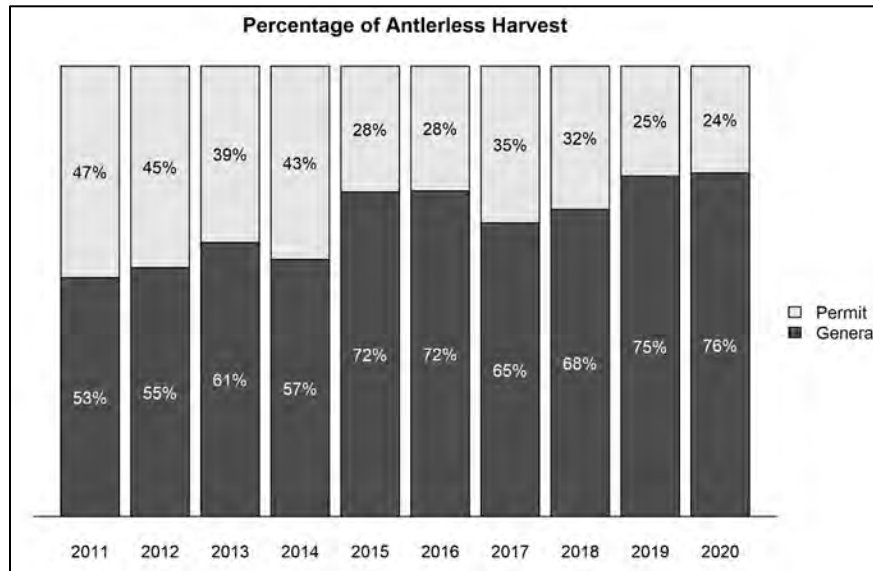


Figure 7. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Willapa Hills elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020. Zero tribal harvest was reported and is not represented in the figure.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

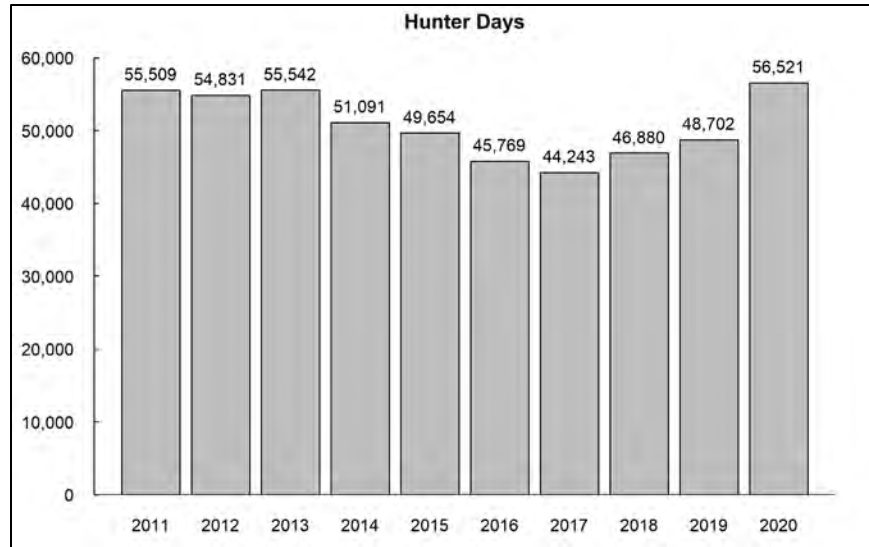


Figure 8. Estimated number hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Willapa Hills elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

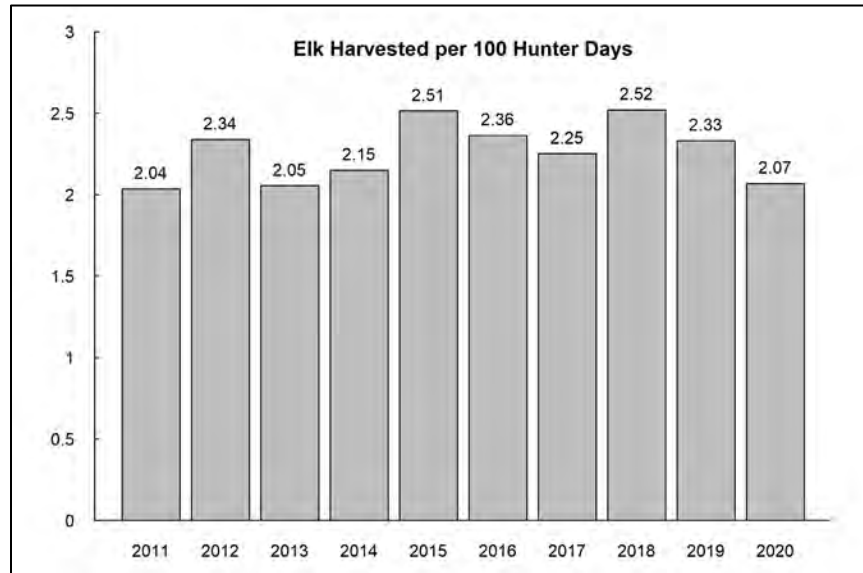


Figure 9. Estimated number of elk harvested given 100 days of effort in the Willapa Hills elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators that occur throughout the Willapa Hills elk herd area include black bears and cougars. At the time of this writing, there were no documented gray wolf packs in the herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

In June of 2021, the Willapa area encountered record-breaking heat (multiple days over 100° degrees Fahrenheit) with potential impacts on elk. The effect of this extreme heat event on the Willapa Elk herd is unknown. However, severe drought conditions that persist through summer and fall have the potential to reduce the availability of high-quality forages that elk rely on to accrue adequate fat stores for winter. Severe winter conditions rarely occur that affect the overwinter survival of elk in the Willapa Hills elk herd area.

The greatest source of mortality for bulls in the Willapa Hills elk herd is likely recreational harvest. There have been no comprehensive studies to estimate the survival of elk in the Willapa Hills elk herd area. However, the Department monitored bull survival for 78 adult bulls in GMU 673, 2005-2009 and estimated annual survival to be 0.37 (95% CI = 0.27–0.48), attributing 93% of all mortalities to legal harvest (W. Michaelis, WDFW, unpublished data). Poaching, wounding loss, predation, and malnutrition combined accounted for <6% of adult bull mortality. Because this study only occurred in GMU 673 and the western third of GMU 506, estimated cause-specific mortality and survival rates may not be representative of the entire Willapa Hills elk herd.

No studies have occurred in the Willapa Hills elk herd area with the specific goal of estimating the annual survival rates of cow elk. However, 22 female elk in GMUs 506 and 672 were monitored in 2001 and 2002 as part of a larger study evaluating the relationship between nutritional condition and survival of adult female elk in the Pacific Northwest. During that study, Bender et al. (2008) reported a mean annual adult female elk survival rate of 0.92 (95% C.I.= 0.82-0.99).

Habitat

The majority of forestland in the Willapa Hills herd area is managed to maximize revenue from timber production. Both the privately-owned industrial forestlands and a large portion of the publicly owned lands consist of a mosaic of clear-cuts, relatively open young regeneration stands, dense second-growth stands of timber, and stream buffers lined with second-growth forest. This mosaic changes on a yearly basis due to ongoing timber cutting operations. Forest management practices on private industrial and state forestlands have generally benefited the Willapa Hills elk herd by creating a mosaic of habitats that increases the forage base for this herd.

Industrial timber management practices have also resulted in a high-density road system that has increased human access to remote areas. A number of large industrial timber company landowners have begun restricting access to their lands. These restrictions can include land leasing and fee permit requirements, which may limit the total number of hunters that access those areas.

Recently, there have been no major changes in the status of elk habitat in the Willapa Hills herd area. At a more localized scale (e.g., GMU), habitat trends are directly related to the proportion of timber stands that are in early seral stages. Logging, especially on private timberlands, county land, and state DNR lands, has resulted in an increase of foraging habitats within many GMUs.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Elk damage complaints continue to be a substantial management concern in the Willapa Hills elk herd. Chronic damage persists in several GMUs across the entire elk herd area. Management actions in response to elk conflicts generally increase hunting activity at the focal damage zones. These damage zones can cover an entire GMU or they can be organized into a special Elk Area. Some focal GMUs include 506 (Willapa Hills), GMU 660 (Chehalis River valley), GMUs 672 (Fall River), 673 (Willapa River valley), and GMU 684 (Long Beach). Within these GMUs, some localized elk areas have been created that target crop depredateing elk. These elk areas include 5056 (Grays River Valley) and 6010 (Mallis).

Elk damage occurs on Christmas tree farms, hay and silage fields, cranberries, corn, peas, and commercial seed crops such as carrot, Swiss chard, bok choy, and other agricultural crops. Elk also damages agriculture infrastructure such as fences or irrigation systems. Overall reports of elk conflicts to agriculture for 2020 were less than 2019 but similar to prior years.

Wildlife Conflict Specialists work closely with producers by developing Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreements (DPCAs). These agreements involve nonlethal measures to prevent elk damage and increase hunter access to modify elk behavior and control group size. Nonlethal measures include herding and hazing by Master Hunters, producers, and WDFW staff; pyrotechnics; and electric fladry fencing. All DPCAs include a public hunting component to increase pressure on groups of elk, causing problems. For 2020-21, Wildlife Conflict Specialists managed at least 32 active DPCAs and worked with many additional landowners without a DPCA. A minimum of 73 elk permits were issued directly to landowners with a DPCA, resulting in 27 being animals harvested (Table 1).

In addition to the use of DPCAs and the issuance of elk permits to landowners, general season regulations may be liberalized to address elk conflicts within an area. Furthermore, special permit seasons can be a tool to address elk conflicts within Elk Areas or GMUs. Finally, the Department maintains regional pools of permit hunters that can be deployed to a property incurring agricultural damage. The regional pools of permit hunters are primarily those hunters that have achieved certification as master hunters. Master hunters who draw these permits are deployed directly by WDFW staff to address localized conflicts. Few elk (< 3% of total harvest) were harvested within the Willapa Hills elk herd area by the entire pool of permittees. Many of the elk harvested under these special permits are unavailable to the general licensed hunter due to the mosaic of land ownerships and safety concerns about removing animals from areas near human habitation.

Table 1: Sum of elk related Damage Prevention and Control Agreements with associated total of elk permits issued and resulting harvest by GMU in the Willapa Hills elk herd area, 2019-20.

| Game Management Unit | DPCAs | Permits Issued | Elk Removed |
|-----------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 506 | 9 | 25 | 10 |
| 530 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| 658 | 5 | 11 | 6 |
| 660 | 1 | 7 | 0 |
| 663 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| 672 | 2 | 5 | 0 |
| 673 | 2 | 10 | 4 |
| 681 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| 684 | 5 | 9 | 0 |
| Total | 32 | 73 | 27 |

Research

There is no ongoing elk research being conducted within the Willapa Hills herd area at this time.

Management Concerns

Treponeme-associated hoof disease

Treponeme-associated hoof disease (TAHD) of elk results in abnormal hoof growth, cavitating sole ulcers, and in severe cases, eventual sloughing of the hoof capsule. We find TAHD afflicted elk throughout the majority of the Willapa Hills herd area. Elk severely affected by TAHD often have reduced mobility and condition. Consequently, they would have a reduced probability of survival or reproductive potential. However, the true effects of TAHD on the population dynamics of herds is unknown. Ongoing research in the Mount St Helens herd area will attempt to identify the specific population-level impacts of TAHD on elk.

The Department has conducted research to better estimate the distribution and prevalence of TAHD. In 2014, a citizen science effort incorporated volunteers to conduct road surveys to locate elk and identify both the number of animals affected and the geographic distribution of the disease. To learn more about the Department’s efforts associated with investigating TAHD, please visit the Department’s hoof disease webpage: [Elk Hoof Disease in WA State](#).

Private Land Access

Private timber companies own >70% of the Willapa Hills elk herd land base. Consequently, the recreational harvest of the Willapa Hills elk herd has largely been dependent on the willingness of these companies to allow hunters access. If these companies choose to preclude hunter access or charge increased fees, recreational hunting will decline. Since 2011, those GMUs that had large

quantities of private lands transferred into fee-access programs have seen large declines in hunter participation although, overall harvest has remained stable.

Management Conclusions

Harvest data indicate the Willapa Hills elk herd has been relatively stable during the period of 2011-2020. Survey data from years previous to 2021 had indicated that the Department is meeting or exceeding its management objective of maintaining populations with a post-hunt bull:cow ratio of 12-20 bulls:100 cows. However, the number of mature bulls (5 pt. or better) observed during surveys is generally low. Calf recruitment rates in recent years have been at levels that should promote population stability or growth. While these herd metrics generally indicate a robust and stable elk population, hoof disease and fee-access systems remain concerns for the Willapa Hills elk herd.

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Yakima Elk Herd

JEFFERY A. BERNATOWICZ, Wildlife Biologist

JASON C. FIDORRA, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

The Yakima elk herd area is located in central Washington and consists of 11 GMUs: 336 (Taneum), 340 (Manastash), 342 (Umtanum), 346 (Little Naches), 352 (Nile), 356 (Bumping), 360 (Bethel), 364 (Rimrock), 368 (Cowiche), 371 (Alkali), and 372 (Rattlesnake Hills) (Figure 1). The Yakima elk herd includes the Rattlesnake Hills subherd that is located on the Arid Lands Ecology Reserve (ALE) and surrounding lands in GMU 372. The Yakima elk herd is the only herd in the state where the Department maintains an annual winter-feeding program for elk.

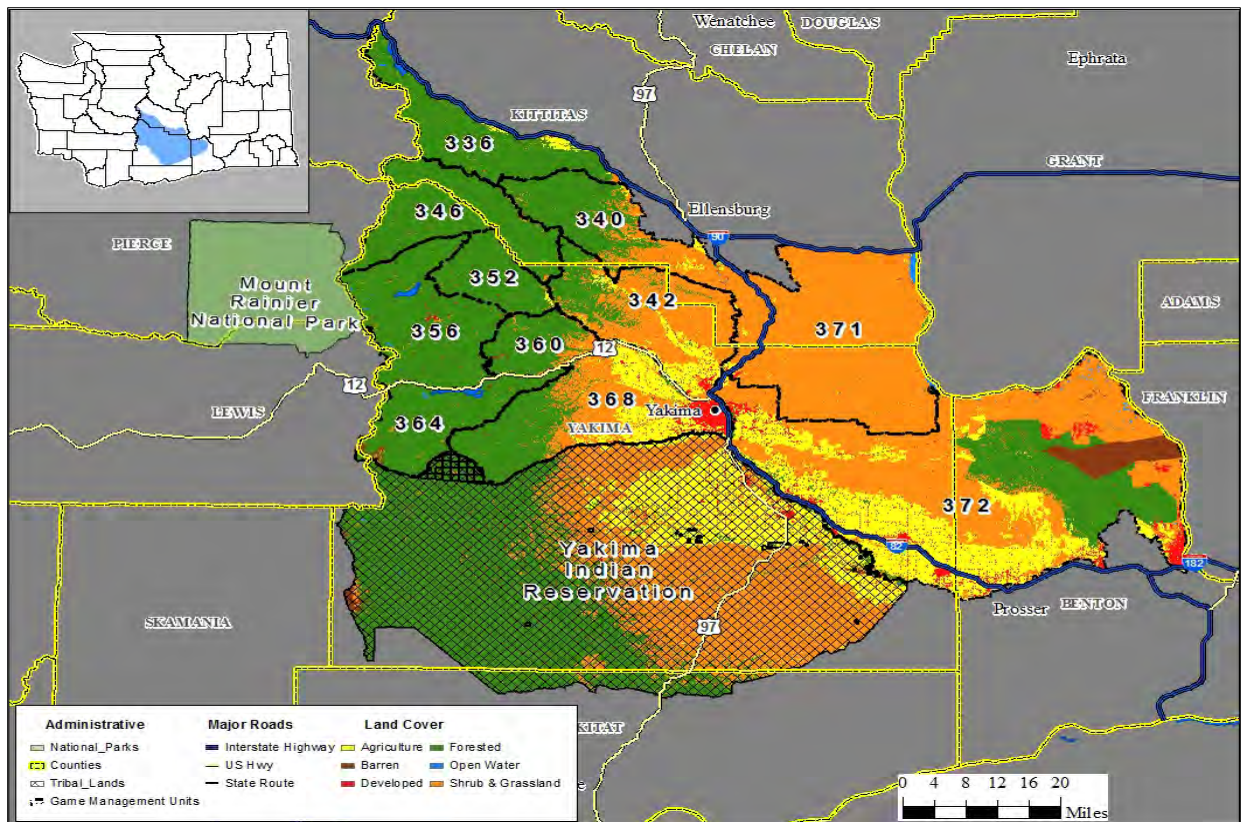


Figure 1. Dominant land use cover types within the 11 game management units that comprise the Yakima elk herd area.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Department’s current management objective is to manage for a post-winter population of approximately 9,000-10,000 elk in the greater Yakima elk herd area and <350 elk in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area (WDFW, 2002). Additional objectives include managing for a post-hunt sex ratio of 12-20 bulls:100 cows and maintaining an annual survival rate of ≥ 0.50 for bulls, if bull mortality is monitored (WDFW, 2002; WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

The Department estimates elk abundance in the Yakima herd area in spring by combining ground count data collected at established feeding sites with estimates of elk abundance derived from areas adjacent to feed sites. Biologists derive estimates of abundance and ratios in areas adjacent to feed sites by conducting helicopter surveys and using a sightability correction model developed for elk in Idaho to correct observed data for biases associated with effects of concealment cover and group sizes (Unsworth et al., 1999). The Department does not conduct aerial surveys when mild winter conditions fail to concentrate elk at lower elevations (2014, 2015, 2018, 2020, 2021). However, in those years surveys on feed sites to estimate calf ratios still occur. Calf ratios in 2021 were derived from a sample of 4,964 elk surveyed on the feed sites.

In February 2019, the Department estimated elk abundance within the survey area to be 8,267 elk (Figure 2), which was below the management objective. The bull:cow ratio has decreased in recent years (Figure 3). The decrease is due to harvest exceeding recruitment. Estimates of post-hunt calf:cow ratios were relatively stable 2007-2016 but have consistently been below average the last five years. Fewer cow elk and relatively low average numbers of calves per cow have resulted in record-low total calf recruitment. Given the poor recruitment and known harvest, the population likely declined to below 8,000.

The Department collaborates with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) to estimate elk abundance in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area using the Idaho sightability correction model. Starting in 2015, winter surveys switched from an annual schedule to alternate years. No funding was available for the 2019 survey, but a survey was conducted in January 2020. Elk abundance was estimated to be 1,646 elk, which far exceeds the management objective of 350 elk (Figure 5). No survey was scheduled for 2021. Bull:cow and calf:cow ratio estimates for the subherd are shown in Figures 6 and 7.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department restricts most general season opportunities to harvest elk in most Yakima herd GMUs to spike bulls and offers opportunities to harvest branch-antlered bulls under special permits. Archers previously had general season opportunities to harvest antlerless elk, whereas modern and muzzleloader hunters were restricted to permit only. Master Hunters can harvest antlerless elk below the elk fence in Elk area 3912 and from GMU 371.

Harvest declined 60% 2015-2017 and has remained at low levels since (Figure 8). Harvest does not include damage/kill permits or corrections for any type of permit non-report. It does include GMU 371, which has no direct connection to the surveyed population. Proportions of antlered and antlerless elk harvest that occurred during general and permit seasons are shown in Figures 9 and 10. Trends in hunter numbers and kills per 100 days of effort are shown in Figures 11 and 12.

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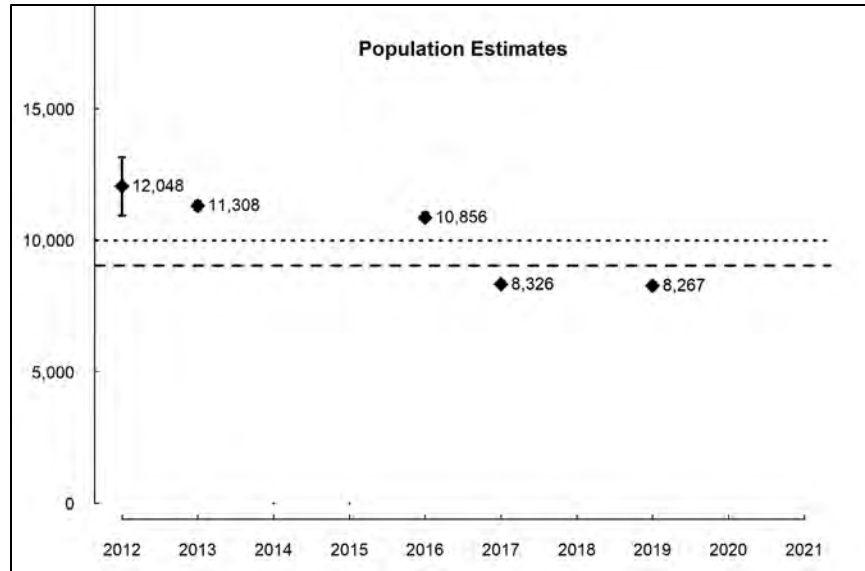


Figure 2. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance with associated 90% confidence intervals in the Yakima elk herd area, spring 2011–2021. The dashed lines represent management objectives for total elk abundance (9,025-9,975 elk).

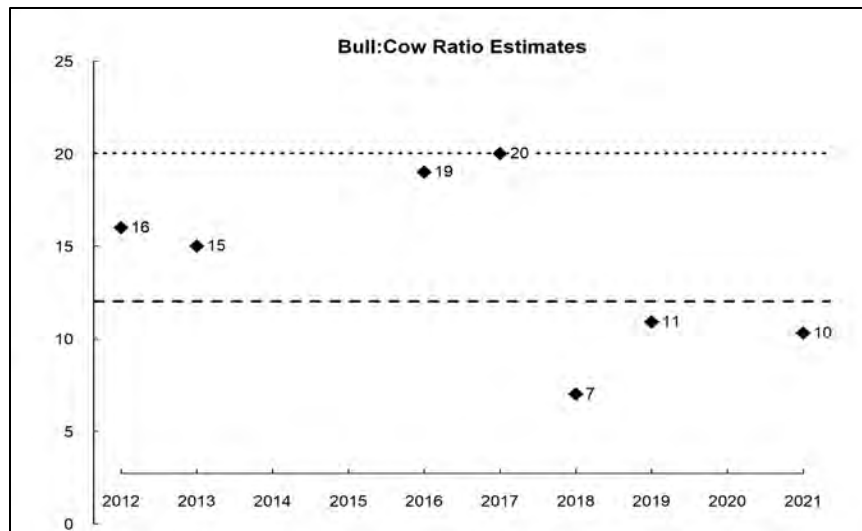


Figure 3. Estimates of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Yakima elk herd area, spring 2012–2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows. Estimates in 2018 and 2021 are based on ground sampling and are not thought to accurately reflect the true population ratios due to low observability of bulls from the ground.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

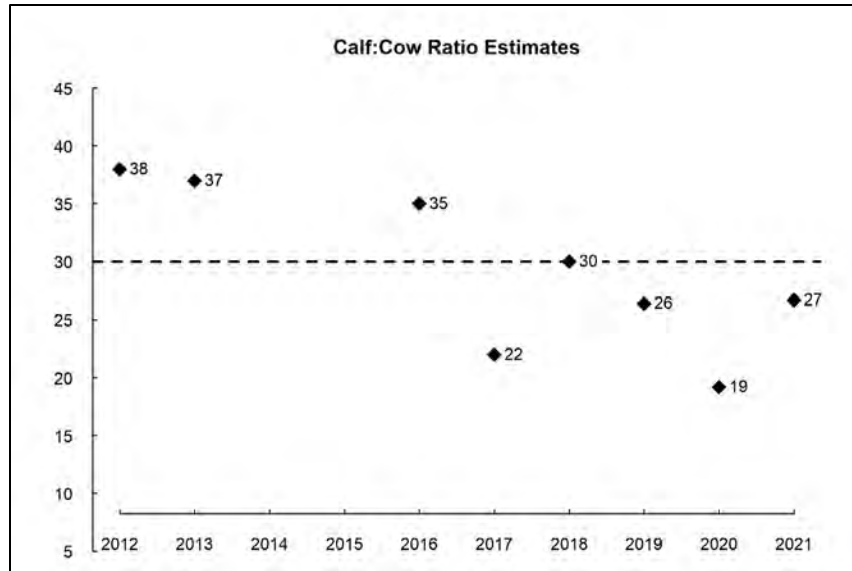


Figure 4. Estimates of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Yakima elk herd area, spring 2012–2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

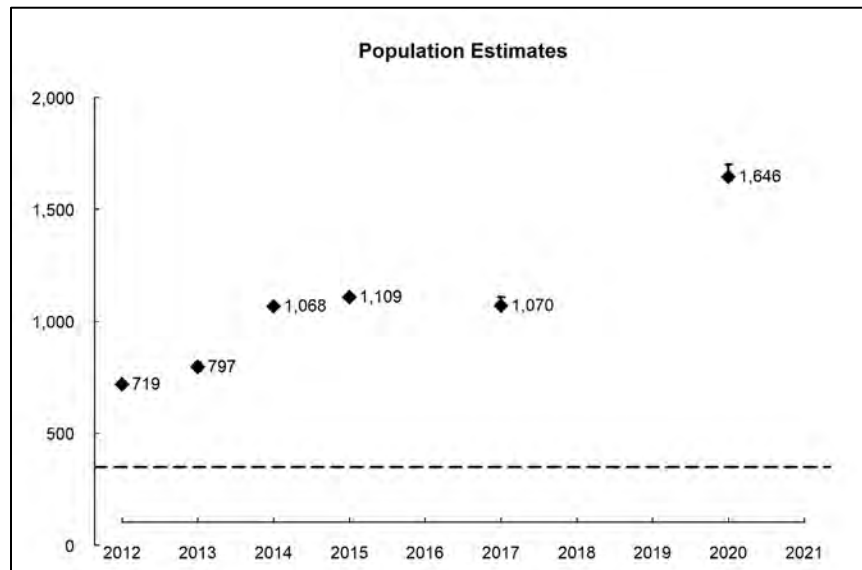


Figure 5. Sightability corrected estimates of total elk abundance with associated 95% confidence intervals in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area, spring 2012–2021. The dashed line represents the management objective of ≤ 350 elk.

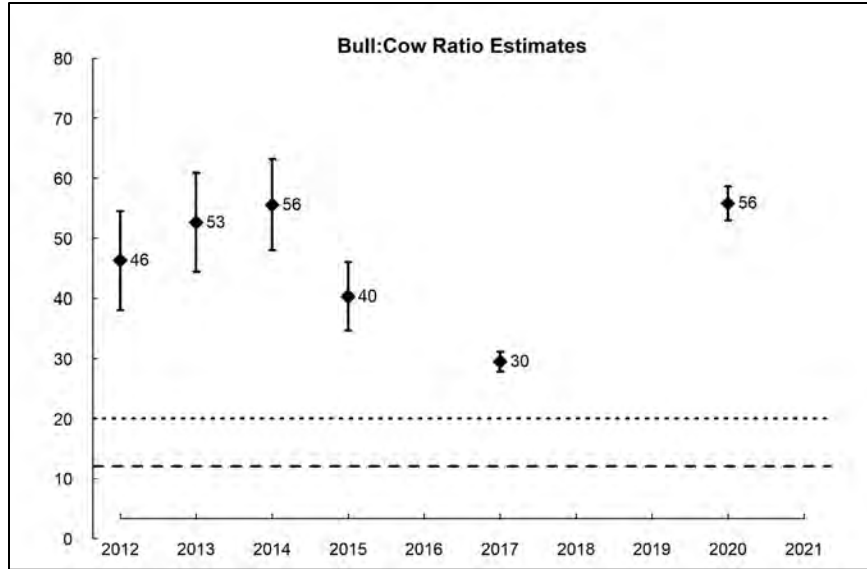


Figure 6. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt bull:cow ratios in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area, spring 2012–2021. The dashed lines represent the objective range of 12-20 bulls:100 cows.

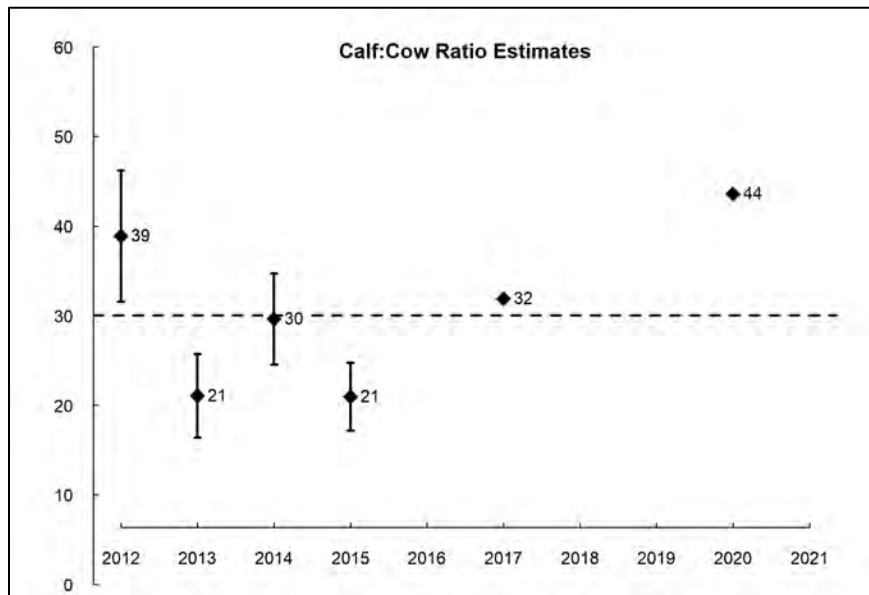


Figure 7. Estimates and associated 95% confidence intervals of post-hunt calf:cow ratios in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area, spring 2012–2021. The dashed line represents a calf:cow ratio of 30 calves:100 cows that should promote herd stability or growth.

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

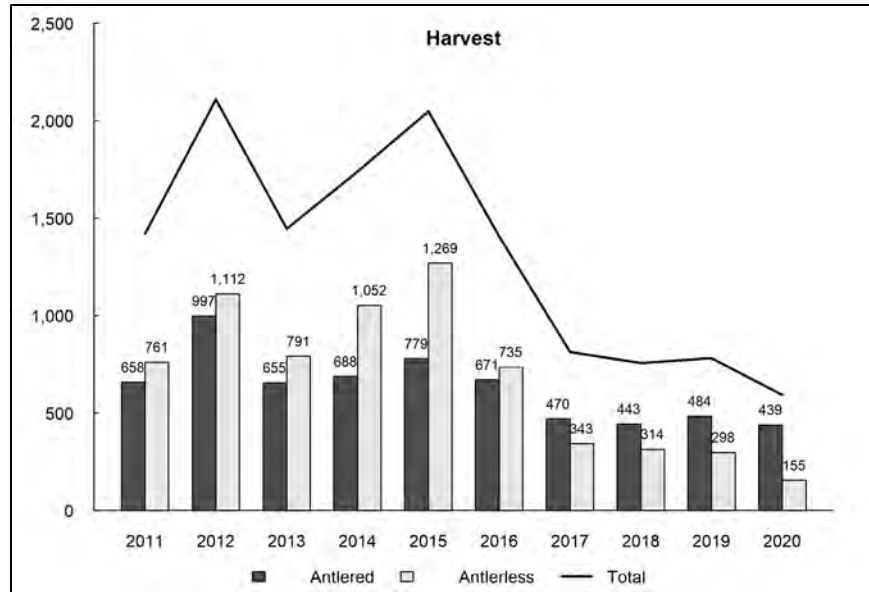


Figure 8. Estimated number of antlered and antlerless elk harvested in the Yakima elk herd area during recreational hunting seasons (general and permit opportunities combined) established by the Department, 2011-2020. Estimates do not include elk harvested in association with damage permits (see Human-Wildlife Interaction below). Estimates also do not include harvest that occurred during established Tribal seasons because that data is currently not available.

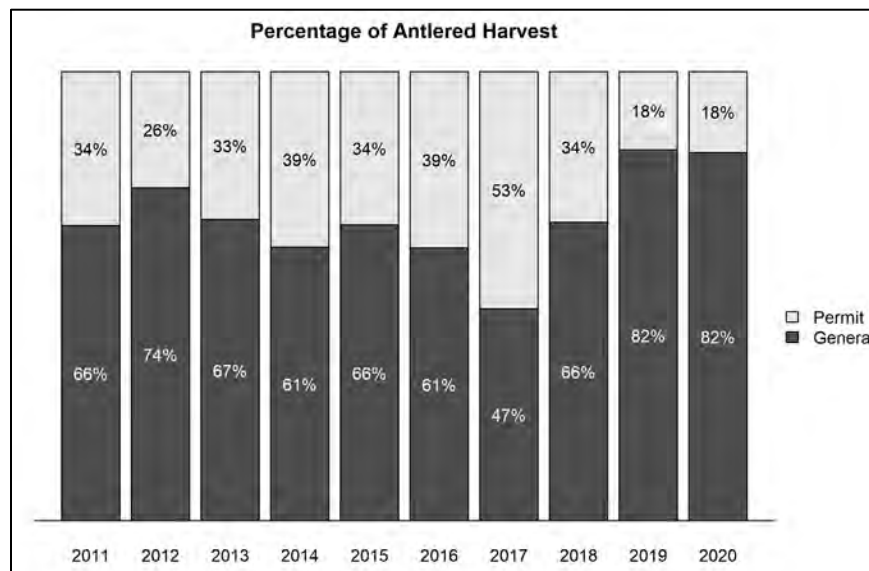


Figure 9. Estimated percentage of recreational antlered harvest in the Yakima elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

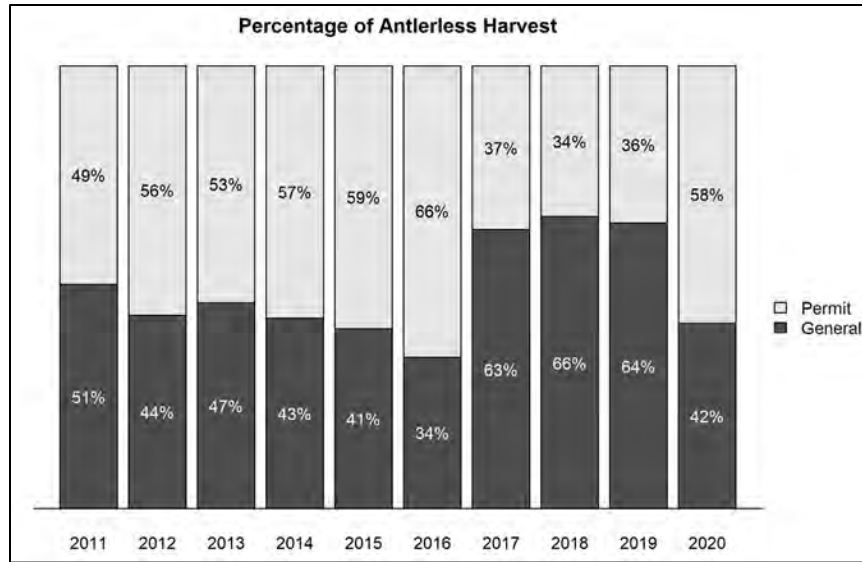


Figure 10. Estimated percentage of recreational antlerless harvest in the Yakima elk herd area that occurred during general and permit seasons, 2011-2020.

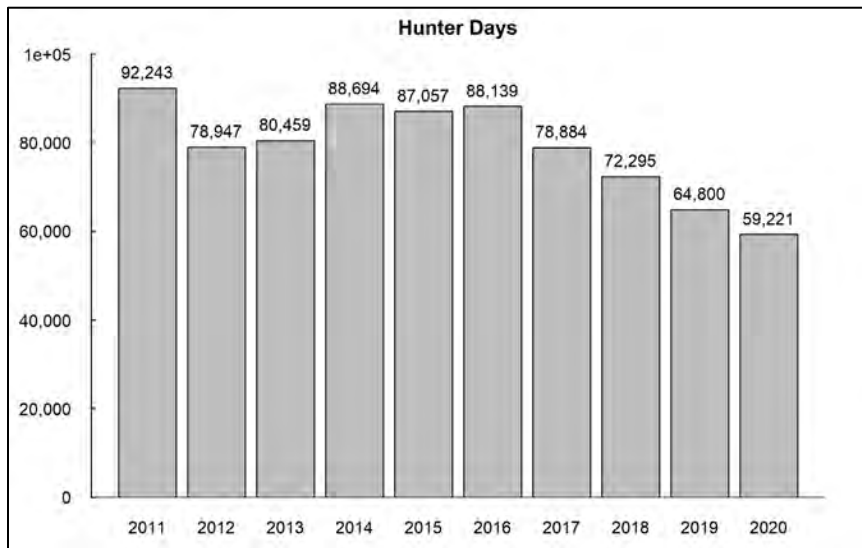


Figure 11. Estimated number of days hunters spent pursuing elk in the Yakima elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

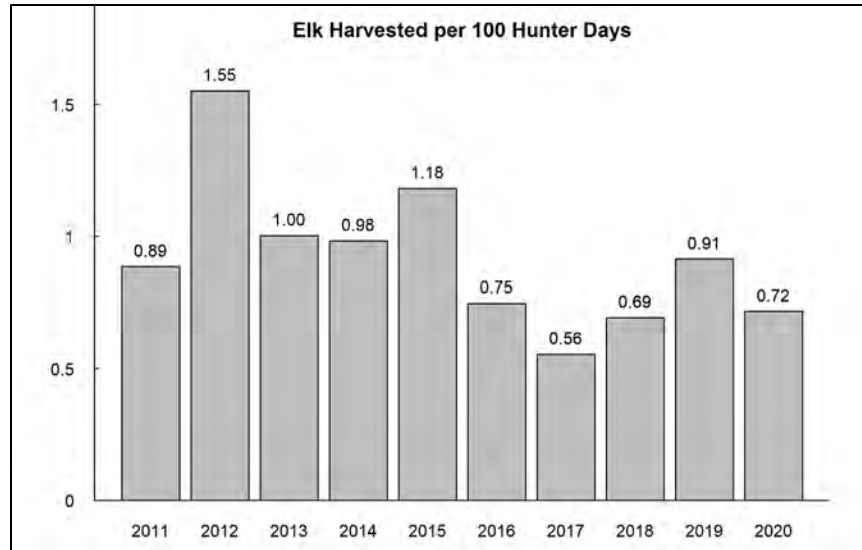


Figure 12. Estimated number of elk harvested for every 100 hunter days spent pursuing elk in the Yakima elk herd area during recreational seasons that provided general over-the-counter opportunities, 2011-2020.

Survival and Mortality

Common predators of elk that occur throughout the Yakima elk herd area include black bears and cougars, but black bears are more abundant in forested habitats. At the time of this writing, there were no documented wolf packs in the herd area (WDFW et al., 2021).

Substantial antlerless hunting opportunities occurred 2012-2016 in an attempt to reduce the population. However, after high harvest 2012-2015 (Figure 8), the population remained well above objective (Figure 2), as calf recruitment remained above average (Figure 4). The Yakima elk herd has never been historically prone to winter mortality. This is partially due to up to 70% of the herd being fed during more severe winters. That appears to have changed during the winters of 2015-2016 and 2016-2017. It is believed that surveys conducted in February 2016 failed to document a winter mortality event that occurred in March because elk carcasses were evident during a deer survey in April. However, the magnitude of the population decline was not documented until biologists conducted surveys in February 2017. The population decline was due to higher-than-average winter mortality for adult cows and low calf recruitment. Antlerless harvest has since been reduced, but overall calf recruitment has remained low.

The Department (S. McCorquodale, WDFW, unpublished data) monitored the survival of adult female elk and branch-antlered bulls in the Yakima elk herd area, 2003-2006, and estimated bull survival to be 0.63 (95% CI = 0.52–0.73). Estimated cow survival was 0.58 (95% CI = 0.39–0.75) in GMUs 336, 340, 342, and 346 in 2005 and 0.83 (95% CI = 0.73–0.90) during 2003, 2004, and 2006. Estimated cow survival across other portions of the herd area and across all study years was 0.88 (95% CI = 0.84–0.92). WDFW documented causes of mortality for 69 elk during that study and attributed 88% of all mortalities to human causes; one (<2%) mortality was attributed to predation (S. McCorquodale, WDFW, unpublished data). The impact of predation on calf recruitment was unknown because calves were not radio-collared during this study.

Habitat

The USFS and Washington Department of Natural Resources (DNR) manage most of the summer range within the Yakima elk herd area. Habitat quality for elk varies across these ownerships, depending on land management and underlying land cover types. A large portion of the herd migrates to wilderness areas where the only factor impacting habitat is fire. In recent years, the USFS has opted to let some fires burn, which has increased long-term habitat quality. Outside the wilderness, the USFS has emphasized reducing the potential for large fires by thinning and under burning. The impact of the thin/burn projects on elk habitat can vary but should increase forage availability long-term. The main concern is the high road-density in many areas and reduced security cover with reductions in canopy cover and screening vegetation. Elk may avoid large areas due to disturbance, even if forage quantity/quality increases. WDFW is now treating some of their lands with the goal of creating stands resilient to fire. Large tracts of open forest may result in elk distribution different than currently observed.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Wildlife Conflict Specialists work with landowners on preventative control efforts and lethal removal of elk to deter elk from visiting croplands that include wheat, orchards, and vineyards. In 2020-21, there were 17 antlerless elk harvested on landowner permits and 22 by Master Hunters within the core Yakima herd area. The estimates may be low due to non-reporting. GMU 371 is a military installation, and Master Hunters are required to report harvest as they leave the facility. Comparing known checked GMU 371 harvest to what was reported to WDFW indicates Master Hunters only report about 55% of their actual harvest to the Department.

In GMU 372, occupied by the Rattlesnake Hills Subherd, crop damage is a constant concern amongst producers near the Arid Lands Ecology Reserve, which provides refuge for most of the subherd year-round. The elk also damage sensitive shrub-steppe and natural spring sites in the arid landscape, and traffic collisions are becoming a concern. There are no elk feeding sites near the Rattlesnake Hills. From April 2020 thru March 2021, 210 damage prevention and 17 kill permits were issued to landowners in the Rattlesnake Hills subherd area, resulting in a minimum harvest of 72 elk. In addition to these permits, the use of non-lethal deterrents and public hunting has reduced conflict over the past decade, despite an increasing elk population.

Management Concerns

The Yakima elk herd had been at or above objective 2010-2015 and had been very productive. Surplus elk allowed for significant recreational opportunities, including antlerless harvest. Recreational harvest, drought, and severe winter weather in 2015-2016 reduced herd size and hunting opportunities. The herd has historically rebounded quickly after poor recruitment years but has not this time. It will likely take some time to bring elk numbers back to objective without more drastic reductions in hunting mortality. This will mean reduced antlerless opportunity in the interim. In 2020-21, general season antlerless archery hunting was restricted to spike-bull with antlerless harvest by permit only. Antlerless harvest has been greatly reduced by this approach. This has likely stopped the population decline, but it will take years to get back to objectives.

There are often questions about the winter-feeding program and ways to get elk to move from feed sites to their natural winter range. WDFW owns or leases (from DNR) much of the available elk

Elk Status and Trend Report 2021

winter range. One of the management issues with elk feeding is human disturbance. Feed sites are closed to all access, but away from feed sites winter range is open to recreation throughout the winter. WDFW lands were originally obtained for elk and deer winter range, but these areas have become very popular for recreation. Elk seek security from human disturbance and would likely concentrate on closed areas even if they were not fed. Closing access to winter range can be controversial. For the foreseeable future, a large portion of the Yakima elk herd will be fed when winter dictates the need. Feeding is driven by the need to control elk distribution in winter and reduce motivation to move lower into private property areas; elk are not fed to prevent starvation.

The trend of managing lands for fire resiliency may lead to more open stands with reduced security for elk. This is expected to result in a change in elk distribution. When elk do enter high road density areas with minimal cover during hunting seasons, their vulnerability to harvest is high. Managing for a specific harvest to meet population objectives could become more difficult.

The Rattlesnake Hills subherd population remains well above management objective. The Department's ability to manage this population is limited because most elk seek refuge on large federal properties closed to hunting and public access. Discussions with Federal land managers began again in 2020 to identify viable options for elk management related to traffic safety, ecological damage, and crop depredations.

Management Conclusions

The goal of 12–20 bulls:100 cows in the post-hunt population has not been met since 2017. There are likely more bulls outside of the feed sites/survey area, but the declining trend is real. Bull calf recruitment is not keeping up with total bull mortality. Branched bull opportunity has been reduced, but not enough to keep the bull ratio from falling below objective. Bull harvest will likely need to be decreased until calf/spike recruitment increases. The Rattlesnake Hills subherd remains above objective because hunting is not allowed on ALE or the adjacent federal Hanford Site, which limits the Department's ability to manage this subherd.

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Mountain Goat

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 2

Chelan County

EMILY JEFFREYS, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The statewide management goals for mountain goats are to perpetuate productive populations and ensure long-term genetic connectivity, to provide opportunities for a wide range of non-consumptive uses, and to enhance populations to provide sustained recreational hunting opportunities. To ensure population viability and allow for sustained yield into the future, statewide mountain goat strategies recommend only allowing harvest in mountain goat populations meeting or exceeding 100 animals and limiting harvest to 4% of the total population, excluding kids. Additionally, the harvest of females should remain below 1.2% of the population, excluding kids (WDFW, 2014).

WDFW manages two mountain goat populations within the Lake Chelan Basin, termed the South Shore and North Shore herds. These herds correspond with the designated Mountain Goat Hunt Areas South Lake Chelan and Chelan North, respectively. Limited harvest of the Lake Chelan mountain goat populations began in 2001 for the North Shore herd and in 2012 for the South Shore herd (WDFW, 2014). Currently, WDFW offers two special permits for the North Shore herd and one for the South Shore herd.

Population Surveys

The Chelan Public Utility District (PUD) has monitored wildlife wintering in the Lake Chelan Basin as part of a hydropower license agreement since 1982. From 2006-2019, Chelan PUD conducted 12 winter wildlife surveys annually from a boat platform on Lake Chelan to inventory and monitor big game and other wildlife (Pope & Cordell, 2020). Surveys have typically occurred from November to February each year. This is the only annually collected, long-term dataset for Chelan County mountain goats. The total number of known goats in the South Shore and North Shore herds is the result of comparing results from all surveys completed during each winter. During the winter of 2019-2020, PUD personnel performed only two boat surveys, during which a maximum of 20 goats was observed on the North Shore of Lake Chelan and 17 goats on the South Shore. In the winter of 2020-2021, PUD biologists performed another two boat surveys. High counts for both herds occurred during the December count, with a total of 17 goats observed on the North Shore and 51 goats on the South Shore (Table 1).

Due to available terrain, rugged topography, and tree cover, mountain goats can be extremely difficult to survey from a boat. Year to year counts vary widely due to snow accumulation and weather conditions along the lake. During heavy snow years, goats generally concentrate in higher densities along the lake to winter, providing a better opportunity to observe them than in years of

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

lighter snowfall. Due to the high potential for biased counts resulting from boat surveys, the 2018-2022 Lake Chelan Wildlife Habitat Plan includes a provision allocating funds that allows WDFW personnel to plan and conduct annual species-specific aerial surveys to estimate the abundance of mountain goats, bighorn sheep, and mule deer in the Lake Chelan Basin (Chelan PUD, 2018).

Low snowfalls in recent years have created challenging conditions in which to survey. With adequate snowfall, goats move down to lower elevations where the likelihood of observation increases. As a comparison to ongoing boat-based survey methods, in February 2015, WDFW biologists conducted a helicopter-based aerial survey using sightability correction to estimate goat numbers in a subsection of habitat on the North Shore of Lake Chelan. Although this survey was not exhaustive, results showed that large numbers of goats occupying habitat in the survey units were not available for observation from a boat-based survey platform. The aerial sightability survey returned an estimate of 91 goats (90% CI = 74-108). In comparison, the maximum count from boat-based surveys conducted the next day totaled 15 goats (Pope and Cordell-Stein, 2015).

Table 1. Compiled maximum counts from ground and boat-based surveys in Chelan County 2009-2021.

| Winter | North Lake Chelan * | North Lake Chelan Adult:Kid * | South Lake Chelan * | South Lake Chelan Adult:Kid* | Stehekin | Chiwawa | North Wenatchee Mtns. | East Stevens Pass |
|---------|---------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|----------|---------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 2009-10 | 81 | 16 | 128 | 31 | | 9 | 69 | 22 |
| 2010-11 | 78 | 27 | 94 | 53 | | 8 | 38 | 10 |
| 2011-12 | 43 | 30 | 116 | 28 | 1 | | 71 | 12 |
| 2012-13 | 74 | 32 | 103 | 26 | | | 56 | |
| 2013-14 | 45 | 23 | 50 | 10 | | | 78 | |
| 2014-15 | 48 | 30 | 45 | 29 | | | 117** | |
| 2015-16 | 65 | 30 | 50 | 22 | | | | |
| 2016-17 | 30 | 25 | 40 | 18 | | | | |
| 2017-18 | 30 | 38 | 32 | 6 | | | 71 | |
| 2018-19 | 20 | 20 | 43 | 14 | | | | |
| 2019-20 | 20 | 36 | 17 | 41 | | | | |
| 2020-21 | 17 | 55 | 51 | 59 | | | | |

* Data from Chelan PUD Winter Boat Surveys. **Increase due to volunteer survey effort.

Adult:Kid ratios calculated from total positively identified animals only.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

A February 20, 2020, aerial survey of the South Shore recorded a raw count of 20 goats, while a simultaneous boating survey along the South Shore of Lake Chelan yielded no mountain goat observations (although 17 mountain goats were observed on the South Shore by the PUD during a December 17, 2019, boating survey). These results provide justification for our assumption that Lake Chelan mountain goat populations are larger than the boat-based surveys indicate (Figure 1).

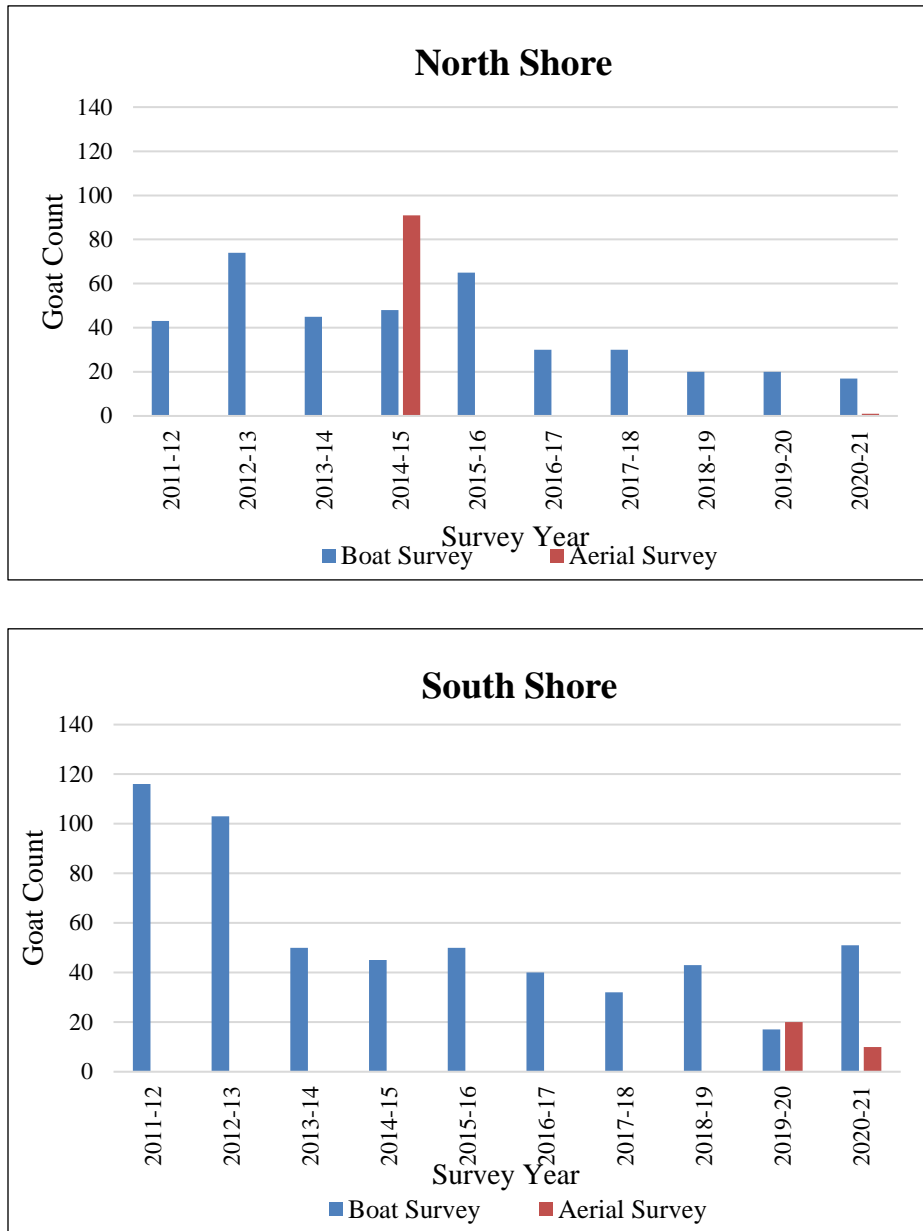


Figure 1. Estimated count of mountain goats in the Lake Chelan Basin over the last ten years for two different survey platforms. Note: aerial surveys conducted in 2021 took place in the summer, while all other surveys represented were conducted in the winter. This means a direct comparison regarding the efficacy of the two survey methods cannot be made for either herd in 2021.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

However, aerial surveys performed since 2015 have proven inconclusive, as well. WDFW conducted aerial mountain goat population surveys in the summer of 2019 and the winter of 2019-2020, both on the South Shore of Lake Chelan. Although survey coverage was extensive, only approximately 20 goats were observed during each effort. One more attempt was made to comprehensively survey delineated summer range for both the North and South Shore herds in June 2021 and resulted in even fewer goat detections than the previous year's efforts. Surveyors observed only a single goat on the North Shore and ten goats on the South Shore over three days of flights.

Winter mountain goat counts conducted between 2010 and 2015 along driven survey routes in other sections of Chelan County returned higher numbers over time, which suggests these populations were increasing over this time period. Additionally, volunteer-led survey efforts conducted along hiking routes in 2008-2015 sought to determine the presence of goats in portions of the Alpine Lakes Wilderness for which no data had previously been available. Surveys averaged a high count of 65 mountain goats per year, which was comparable to previously compiled estimates of 50-75 animals in the Alpine Lakes Wilderness (Rice, 2012). This effort helped document the current mountain goat distribution and galvanized support for initiating aerial surveys to obtain a population estimate. In 2018, WDFW biologists successfully conducted aerial surveys of mountain goats in the Alpine Lakes Wilderness area, including the Enchantments, Icicle Ridge, and the Wenatchee Mountains. Using a sightability-corrected survey, biologists estimated 71 goats with a 90% C.I. of 60-83. The kid to adult ratio was estimated at 22 kids:100 adults (90% C.I. 18-25).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Until 2001, no goat harvest had occurred in Chelan County for over 20 years. In 2001, two permits were authorized for Chelan North, and two male goats were harvested. Only one permit was issued each year from 2002-2008, with permits increasing to two in 2009. Hunter success has varied from year to year but has been high, with hunters in the Chelan North unit enjoying an 83% success rate over the past 12 years and a 75% success rate for the South Lake Chelan unit over the nine seasons since its opening (Tables 2A-2B). Rugged terrain and remote wilderness with restricted access can limit hunter success and make finding adult males difficult. Over the past 12 years in Chelan North, 33% of harvested animals have been nannies. In the nine years the South Lake Chelan unit has been open to hunting, zero females and six male goats have been harvested.

In 2021, special permit levels for both herds remain the same (two permits for the North Shore and one for the South Shore), but both the North and South Shore herds have been removed from the list of possible locations for the raffle hunt. Dropping these two herds as raffle hunt options is in response to the lack of recent data indicating stable or increasing goat populations on either side of Lake Chelan. WDFW is working diligently to develop an effective solution for surveying the Lake Chelan herds to determine whether these populations can continue to be hunted and, if so, at what harvest levels.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2A. Summary of Mountain Goat Harvest for North Lake Chelan, 2009-2020.

| Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest | Male | Female | Success | Days Hunted |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 2009 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 100 | 8 |
| 2010 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 100 | 5 |
| 2011 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 100 | 28 |
| 2012* | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 7 |
| 2013* | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2014 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 5 |
| 2015 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2016 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 27 |
| 2017 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 100 | 5 |
| 2018 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 15 |
| 2019* | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 100 | 11 |
| 2020 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 100 | 12 |
| Total | 24 | 21 | 18 | 12 | 6 | 83% | 121 |

*For 2012, 2013, and 2019, additional harvest of 1 mountain goat from raffle/auction hunts not included.

Table 2B. Summary of Mountain Goat Harvest for South Lake Chelan, 2012-2020

| Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest | Male | Female | Success | Days Hunted |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 2012 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 6 |
| 2014 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 6 |
| 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 10 |
| 2017 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 |
| 2018* | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 17 |
| 2019* | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 10 |
| 2020 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 25 |
| Total | 9 | 8 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 75%** | 87 |

*Additional harvest of 2 mountain goats from raffle/auction hunts in 2018 and 1 mountain goat in 2019 not included. **Success calculation does not include 2012, in which a permit was issued, but no hunt took place.

Mountain goat populations within the East-Central Cascades (Chiwawa, East Stevens Pass, North Wenatchee Mountains, and Stehekin) are not surveyed intensively enough to confidently estimate size, and they are currently closed to hunting. In 2018, aerial surveys conducted in the North Wenatchee Mountains Unit indicated that this population is still below the minimum threshold to initiate a permitted hunt.

Survival and Mortality

Mountain goat populations in Chelan County remain below historical levels of the 1960s. Observational data suggest that the number of goats in populations not open to hunting are increasing from historical low numbers of 30 years ago. For the Lake Chelan populations, which the Chelan PUD has monitored since 1982, the number of goats observed each winter has fluctuated over the years, with the past 12 years of boat surveys yielding counts well below 100 animals on the North Shore (Range: 20-81). On the South Shore, the number of goats observed confirmed the population was sufficient to allow for harvest from 2009 to 2013 (Range: 94-128). However, since then, counts have been substantially lower, with a maximum of 17 to 50 goats observed each winter since 2013-2014.

Since the implementation of annual winter boat-based surveys began in 1982 to the present, the kid to adult ratios for both herds observed during these counts have been adequate for population growth. From the winter of 2015-2016 to winter 2019-2020, boat-based survey observations on the North Shore herd averaged approximately 33 goats (range: 20-65) and 29.8 kids:100 adults (range: 20-38) (Pope & Cordell, 2020). For the South Shore herd, the average number of goats observed over that same period was 36.4 (Range: 17-50), with 20.2 kids:100 adults (Range: 6-41).

A relatively large proportion of goats observed during the 2020-2021 boat-based surveys were kids. Seventeen mountain goats were observed on the North Shore of Lake Chelan with a 55 kid:100 adult ratio, and on the South Shore, 51 goats with a ratio of 59 kids:100 adults were observed. These numbers represent the highest observed kid:adult ratios for both of these herds in over a decade. However, an important caveat here is that the small numbers of mountain goats observed during the previous several years' surveys may not be representative of the entire herd. As such, the ability to quantify herd composition is limited, and kid to adult ratios presented here are indeterminate.

Habitat

Fire suppression during the last 50 years has decreased habitat for mountain goats in Chelan County. Most mountain goat habitat is within wilderness areas managed by Okanogan-Wenatchee National Forest. Wilderness designation precludes most forms of habitat alteration, with changes in habitat conditions caused primarily by wildfires. Fires reduce mountain goat habitat initially, but increased forage post-fire is beneficial to goats. Over the last fifteen years, several major fires in the Lake Chelan Basin (both shores) and North Wenatchee Mountains (Icicle and Tumwater Canyons) have burned substantial mountain goat habitat. The subsequent increase in early seral stage vegetation and forage may have contributed to the increase in mountain goat counts during the same time period, both in terms of increased production and visibility. In 2015, the 65,000-acre Wolverine Fire burned across mountain goat habitat on South Lake Chelan. The fire burned over areas that were recovering from the 2007 Domke Lake fire, the 2004 Deep Harbor fire, and the 2014 Duncan fire.

Research

In 2002, a statewide mountain goat research project was initiated to determine habitat use, seasonal range, population status, methods of survey, and population limiting factors. In 2004, three adult nannies were fitted with GPS collars in District 7. One was collared on Nason Ridge and one each on the North and South Lake Chelan Units. In 2005-2006, all goats were found to concentrate their activity in 4-5 mi² areas near their capture locations.

Insight was also gained on gene flow and interactions between populations. This was highlighted by two nannies collared on Gamma Ridge on Glacier Peak that each traveled 10-12 miles east to the south shore of Lake Chelan. Permit numbers for the South Lake Chelan unit consider the potential harvest of goats from Region 4. Three goats were collared on Gamma Ridge in the fall of 2006 and traveled into the Chiwawa region of Chelan County, highlighting movement and interchange between populations.

Management Conclusions

Most mountain goat populations in Chelan County are below historic levels and are not hunted. Population trends in areas of District 7 outside the Lake Chelan area cannot be effectively monitored without additional survey resources. Based on Chelan PUD and WDFW survey data, annual counts of the Lake Chelan North Shore and South Shore herds have been declining in recent years.

Biologists' inability to confirm population numbers adequate to continue limited harvest in these units over the past several years is concerning. In 2021, WDFW biologists removed both Lake Chelan mountain goat units from the list of locations available for the raffle winner in a preliminary effort to reduce hunting pressure to these herds. The most ambitious attempt yet to assess populations in the Lake Chelan units will be carried out over several months in the fall/winter of 2021-2022 and will combine multiple survey platforms. If biologists do not observe a sufficient number of goats in the Lake Chelan units during these surveys, all hunting permits here will be discontinued.

Additional emphasis should be placed on new surveys in other sections of District 7's mountain goat habitat, particularly those in the East-Central Cascades, to better understand trends in mountain goat populations and their distribution. Given the large fire events in the past fifteen years in the Lake Chelan area, and the number of recurring fires, it is important to understand how mountain goats utilize landscapes post-fire. There continue to be gaps in our understanding of the summer range of goats associated with the South Shore Lake Chelan population and their potential interchange with goat populations of the Mount-Baker Snoqualmie National Forest. As resources allow, studies of the seasonal range of the Lake Chelan populations and improved abundance estimates should be prioritized.

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Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 2

Methow

SCOTT FITKIN, Wildlife Biologist

JEFF HEINLEN, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The Methow unit (Goat Unit 2-2) is currently being managed for population growth and increased distribution. WDFW encourages the public to take advantage of watchable wildlife opportunities at the salt lick along the Hart’s Pass Road and on Grandview Mountain northwest of Palmer Lake.

Population Surveys

As resources allow, the Department conducts annual surveys to determine minimum population size and herd productivity. Units with huntable populations are prioritized for limited aerial survey dollars. These data are used to generate hunting permit allocations in accordance with statewide management guidelines. The last survey in the Methow Unit occurred in 2016, but despite good conditions and timing, only 38 goats were observed (Table 1).

Table 1. Population composition counts from the Methow Unit.

| Year | Kids | Yearling | Adults | Minimum Population | Kids:100 Adults |
|------|------|----------|--------|--------------------|-----------------|
| 2011 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2012 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2013 | 6 | 5 | 15 | 26 | *40 |
| 2014 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2015 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2016 | 10 | 2 | 26 | 38 | *38 |
| 2017 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2018 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2019 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2020 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Statewide mountain goat management guidelines recommend considering harvest permits only for management units with a population size of at least 100 goats. The two most recent surveys in the Methow Unit suggest the population is well below that threshold, and as a result, no harvest permits have been issued for the last seven seasons.

Survival and Mortality

Limited survey data suggests the population in the Methow Unit has declined over the last 15 years, although the kid to adult ratio of the animals seen remains favorable. Incidental observations outside of the hunting unit verify that small numbers of goats are persisting in pockets scattered throughout adjacent suitable habitats in the Okanogan District, so the potential for immigration exists. Little survey work has been done in these areas due to a lack of resources. Population size and trend are unknown for these animals.

Additionally, 49 mountain goats removed from the Olympic Mountains were translocated to the Methow Unit over three summers beginning in 2018. These releases sought to augment the existing population, boost genetic diversity, and improve connectivity with goat bands outside of the unit.

Habitat

Goat habitat is almost entirely within secured areas, and habitat availability remains stable. Habitat quality varies noticeably throughout the goat range in the Okanogan District due to past wildfires of varying ages. Overall, the unit is currently characterized by a mosaic of successional stages. Much of the district's goat habitat is in wilderness areas. As a result, changes in habitat quality will occur primarily through natural, unpredictable events such as wildfires and avalanches rather than human intervention. Fire exclusion may have reduced the quantity or quality of summer forage resources for goats in some alpine terrain; however, goats in areas that have burned in the last 20 years appear to be doing well.

Management Conclusions

Management objectives should continue to focus on population growth and distribution expansion. Resources are needed to allow for a consistent and methodical survey effort annually to better determine population size and trends. Significant differences in productivity between the north and south portions of the unit may be developing. Limited data from telemetry and survey flights suggests minimal interchange occurs between the two herd segments, although recent translocations may help alleviate this. In addition, the suitable goat habitat adjacent to this unit is sparsely populated and could likely support more animals than exist currently. After the translocated animals have settled into new home ranges, the need to redraw unit boundaries to better reflect goat distribution will be explored.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 3

Blazed Ridge, Bumping River, Naches Pass

JEFFREY A. BERNATOWICZ, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The statewide goals for mountain goats are:

1. Preserve, protect, perpetuate, and manage mountain goats and habitats to ensure healthy, productive populations.
2. Manage mountain goats for a variety of recreational, educational, and aesthetic purposes, including hunting, scientific study, cultural and ceremonial uses by Native Americans, and wildlife viewing and photography.
3. Enhance mountain goat populations and manage for sustained yield.
4. For populations to be hunted, they must support a minimum of 100 goats older than kids.
5. Harvest should not exceed 4% of a stable population (defined as animals older than kids), with no more than 30% of the harvest being females.

Population Surveys

Tables 1-3 show annual survey results for mountain goat units in Region 3.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Mountain goat seasons are open only to hunters drawing a special permit or winning a raffle or auction. In 2020, there were four permits distributed among two units (Tables 1-3). Goat Rocks East is included in a different report. Three permit draw hunters and the statewide raffle hunter-harvested goats two billies and two nannies in District 8. This was the third year of “mandatory inspection” in hopes of achieving a higher percentage of billies in the harvest, but that has not been realized, as the percentage of females in the harvest during the past three seasons has been higher than the previous 5-year average of 25%.

Survival and Mortality

The status of mountain goat populations is assessed using aerial surveys (Rice et al., 2009), and as an ancillary data source, interviews with hunters, guides, and other people knowledgeable about local mountain goats.

All mountain goat populations in the Region likely declined from historical levels due to over-harvest. WDFW harvest management calls for the harvest being no more than approximately 4% of the adult (older-than-kid) population. Goats were historically managed with more liberal permit numbers and with harvest rates often over 10%. Since 1996, harvest has been more conservative. Populations appeared to be increasing 2010-2015, but fewer goats have been seen in the last few surveys. The trend for Kachess Ridge is unknown, as no surveys have been conducted there since 2005.

Habitat

Most goats in the Bumping and Naches Pass areas spend summers in wilderness areas where habitat is mostly influenced by weather cycles. A 2017 fire near Naches Pass temporarily reduced forage and cover. Long-term, summer habitat should improve, but the lack of cover may impact winter survival. Insect outbreaks in the last ten years have also killed trees, which may improve forage. There have been several small fires due to lightning that the U.S. Forest Service is now inclined to let burn in wilderness areas. Recreational use could also be influencing the use of available habitat. There is no comprehensive documentation of the goats' winter range. Outside the wilderness areas, timber harvest and road density may impact habitat.

The Blazed Ridge and Kachess Units are mostly outside wilderness areas. Timber harvest in both units in the last 10-15 years may have impacted winter habitat. The north portion of the Blazed Ridge unit has been heavily logged. The timber cutting has probably improved summer habitat but may have removed winter cover. Road and trail densities have also increased. There are often roads at the top and bottom of every ridge. Off-road vehicle use and general recreation are heavy in the Blazed Ridge unit.

It is unknown how goats react to roads and human activity, which have increased with Washington's population. Major highways (e.g., I-90) have probably limited movements among herds over time. Smaller highways and developments (e.g., ski areas) could also limit the movement and use of some areas. This may limit re-colonization and recovery of some areas and may have long-term implications for genetic diversity.

Management Conclusions

Goat populations in Region 3 appeared to be increasing since harvest has been restricted to 4%. The severe drought in 2015-2016 was followed by more severe winters, which impacted deer and elk, so goats were also affected. It is also possible goats are missed on surveys. Goats are often in groups, which can be in timber during the survey. The Blazed Ridge Unit is an example of how surveys can vary. Population estimates for Blazed Ridge have ranged between 26 and 104 goats in the past ten surveys. The differences among years are often much greater increases/decreases than would be expected biologically. Goats may either be missed on surveys or moved in/out of the survey area. Hunters in Naches Pass indicated goat numbers appeared lower, as sightings of billies were low. The fire either caused a relocation of animals or decreased numbers.

The goal is to have hunters harvest billies instead of nannies. At least the first three years, the mandatory inspections had shown limited success. The recent splitting of units will likely make the issue worse. In areas like Naches Pass, the billies tend to be more west of the Pacific Crest Trail, just outside the current unit. Forcing hunters into a smaller area with fewer choices will likely cause hunters to take nannies on the once-in-a-lifetime permit if billies can't be found.

Current unit boundaries may not correspond to biological populations. It is likely that gene flow occurs among all goats south of I-90. Hunting units have changed over time. Previously, Blazed Ridge was lumped with Naches Pass. Lines have been arbitrarily drawn in the past, using little knowledge of population structure or movements. In recent years, this led to a conservative harvest. Following decades of overharvesting, it was prudent to be conservative. Now that populations are recovering, it may soon be time to revisit objectives for populations and harvest.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

For units south of I-90, there were an estimated 440 total goats and 306 adults in 2015. A 4% take quota would have allowed 12 permits instead of six, had the population been viewed at a larger scale. The estimate of 440 goats likely remains biased low. The visibility correction model (Rice et al., 2009) can only adjust for groups of goats seen, and not all groups are seen within a unit on a given survey. Surveys do not cover all habitats. The northwest 1/3 of the Bumping unit is not surveyed, and the unit abuts Mount Rainer National Park. Groups of goats are known to cross the park boundary. Local overharvest can occur if harvest, particularly of nannies, is concentrated within a small area, even if it is numerically sustainable on a larger geographic scale.

North of I-90, the Kachess Unit population is probably the smallest in the state and has limited habitat. It is unlikely the unit ever had 100 adult goats. A meaningful subdivision of the population would probably stretch between I-90 and Hwy 2. The entire area has never been surveyed, but observations suggest there may be over 100 adult goats between these highways. If surveyed, there may be justification for additional hunting opportunities.

Statewide Mountain Goat Goal #5 (4%) may be overly general. Game populations are much more impacted by female harvest than male harvest. Other states use a point system, where harvest of females is accounted for differently than harvest of males. The initiation of mandatory carcass inspection following harvest has allowed WDFW to begin using a point system that accounts for the demographic distinction between harvesting billies and nannies.

Literature Cited

Rice, C.G., K. J. Jenkins, and W.Y. Chang. 2009. A sightability model for mountain goats. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 73(3):468–478.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Harvest and Surveys for Bumping River (Mountain goat Unit 3-7) 2008 to present.

| Harvest Information | | | | Survey Data (for 2009 and later, figures represent points estimates from sightability-corrected model; Rice et al. 2009) | | | |
|---------------------|---------|---------|----------------------------------|--|-----------------|------------------|-------|
| Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest (Females in parentheses) | Kids | Older than kids | Total | K:100 |
| 2010 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | | |
| 2011 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 28 | 75 | 103 | 37 |
| 2012 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 39 | 103 | 142 | 38 |
| 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 (0) | 43 | 108 | 151 | 39 |
| 2014 | 2 | 2 | 1 (0) | No | Survey | | |
| 2015 | 3 | 3 | 3 (1) | 44 | 101 | 147 ^a | 44 |
| 2016 | 3 | 3 | 3 (0) | No | Survey | | |
| 2017 | 3 | 3 | 3 (1) | No | Survey | | |
| 2018 | 3 | 3 | 3 (1) | 33 | 94 | 127 | 36 |
| 2019 | 2 | 2 | 3 (1) | No | Survey | | |
| 2020 | 2 | 1 | 1 (1) | 25 | 64 | 89 | 39 |

* Includes auction/raffle

^a Includes unclassified/yearling

Table 2. Harvest and surveys for Naches/Corral Pass (Mountain goat Unit 3-6 and 4-38) 2008 to Present.

| Harvest Information | | | | Survey Data (for 2009 and later, figures represent points estimates from sightability-corrected model; Rice et al. 2009) | | | |
|---------------------|---------|---------|----------------------------------|--|-----------------|-------------------|-------|
| Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest (Females in parentheses) | Kids | Older than kids | Total | K:100 |
| 2010 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 29 | 74 | 103 | 39 |
| 2011 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 37 | 96 | 133 | 38 |
| 2012 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 34 | 112 | 147 | 32 |
| 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 (0) | 45 | 104 | 169 ^a | 43 |
| 2014 | 2 | 2 | 1 (0) | No | Survey | | |
| 2015 | 3 | 3 | 3 (0) | 61 | 125 | 193 ^a | 49 |
| 2016 | 3 | 4* | 4 (3)* | No | Survey | | |
| 2017 | 3 | 0 | 0 | No | Survey | | |
| 2018 | 4 | 3 | 3 (2) | 17 | 115 | 132 | 15 |
| 2019 | 2 | 2 | 1 (1) | No | Survey | | |
| 2020 | 2 | 2 | 2 (1) | 38 | 66 | 107 ^{''} | 57 |
| | | | | | | | |

* Includes auction/raffle/tribal

^a Includes unclassified

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 3. Harvest and surveys for Blazed Ridge (Mountain goat Unit 3-10) 2008 to Present.

| Harvest Information | | | | Survey Data (for 2009 and later, figures represent points estimates from sightability-corrected model; Rice et al. 2009) | | | |
|---------------------|---------|---------|--|--|--------------------|-------|-------|
| Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest (Females in parentheses) | Kids | Older than kids | Total | K:100 |
| 2010 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | | |
| 2011 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 32 | 46 | 44 |
| 2012 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 26 | 78 | 104 | 33 |
| 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 (0) | 14 | 53 | 67 | 27 |
| 2014 | 1 | 1 | 1 (0) | No | Survey | | |
| 2015 | 0 | n/a | n/a | 19 | 80 | 102 | 24 |
| 2016 | 0 | 0 | 0 | No | Survey | | |
| 2017 | 0 | 1* | 1 | 22 | 78 | 100 | 28 |
| 2018 | 0 | 0 | 0 | No | Survey | | |
| 2019 | 0 | 0 | 0 | No | Survey | | |
| 2020 | 0 | 1* | 1 | 5 | 21 | 26 | 24 |
| | | | | | | | |

* Includes auction/raffle

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 4

Mt. Baker and Boulder River North Areas

ROBERT WADDELL, Wildlife Biologist

MATT HAMER, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The management objective for mountain goats in Region 4 is to maintain stable populations in all units for public viewing and harvest opportunities. Specific guidelines for managing harvest within sustainable limits are listed in the WDFW 2015–2021 Game Management Plan (2014). Guidelines restrict harvest to 4% or less of the total estimated population (excluding kids), only allow harvest in goat populations meeting or exceeding 100 total animals, and limit nanny harvest to 30% of the total harvest. To accomplish this more directly, WDFW restricts permitting if the number of females harvested exceeds 1.2% of the estimated number of adult goats in the harvest unit, averaged over a 3-year period. If guidelines are exceeded, harvest strategies may need to be revised to prevent population declines.

After being closed for many years, the Mt. Baker area was reopened on a limited basis for mountain goat hunting in 2007. Subsequent surveys in this area suggested an increasing population (see previous Game Status and Trend reports), which permitted a gradual increase in hunting opportunities (Table 1).

Mountain goat surveys in 2012 within the Boulder River Wilderness Area also suggested greater numbers than were previously seen in the early 2000s. The number of mountain goats in this area met the minimum requirements to establish a hunting season set in the 2015-21 Game Management Plan (WDFW, 2014). Subsequently, a hunting season was initiated in the Boulder River North Goat Hunt Unit beginning in 2015, with a single permit allocated annually to a state hunter.

Population Surveys

Population surveys were not conducted by WDFW for several years in the Boulder River Wilderness before 2012 because of low population numbers and the fact that all units within the Darrington Ranger District of the Mount Baker Snoqualmie National Forest were closed to hunting in 1995. WDFW reinitiated surveys in this area in 2012 (Figure 1). Beginning in 2014, WDFW adopted a system of biennial surveys. In 2018, WDFW began translocating mountain goats from Olympic National Park to the North Cascades. Therefore, WDFW did not survey mountain goats at Boulder River (Figure 1) or Mt. Baker (Figure 2) in 2018 or 2020 because funds were allocated to the mountain goat translocation project. Due to the inconsistent classification of adults and yearlings in previous surveys, individual goats were classified as either an adult or a kid beginning in 2019.

Tribes, including the Stillaguamish, Tulalip, and Sauk-Suiattle Tribes, surveyed the Boulder River Unit in 2015, 2017, 2018, and 2020. WDFW surveyed the Boulder River Unit in 2021, generating a total estimate of 17 goats (90% CI = 11–24; Figure 1). In 2020, the Sauk-Suiattle and Tulalip Tribes surveyed the Boulder River Unit, generating a total estimate of 45 goats (90% CI = 37–53;

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Figure 1), so the 2021 survey represents the second year where an estimate of fewer than 100 goats was calculated.

WDFW surveyed the Mt. Baker area in 2021, generating a total estimate of 164 goats (90% CI = 149–179; Figure 2). WDFW does not attribute the lower estimate for Mt. Baker in 2021 to a population decline, citing weather, a new pilot and observers, and other unknown factors as possible causes.

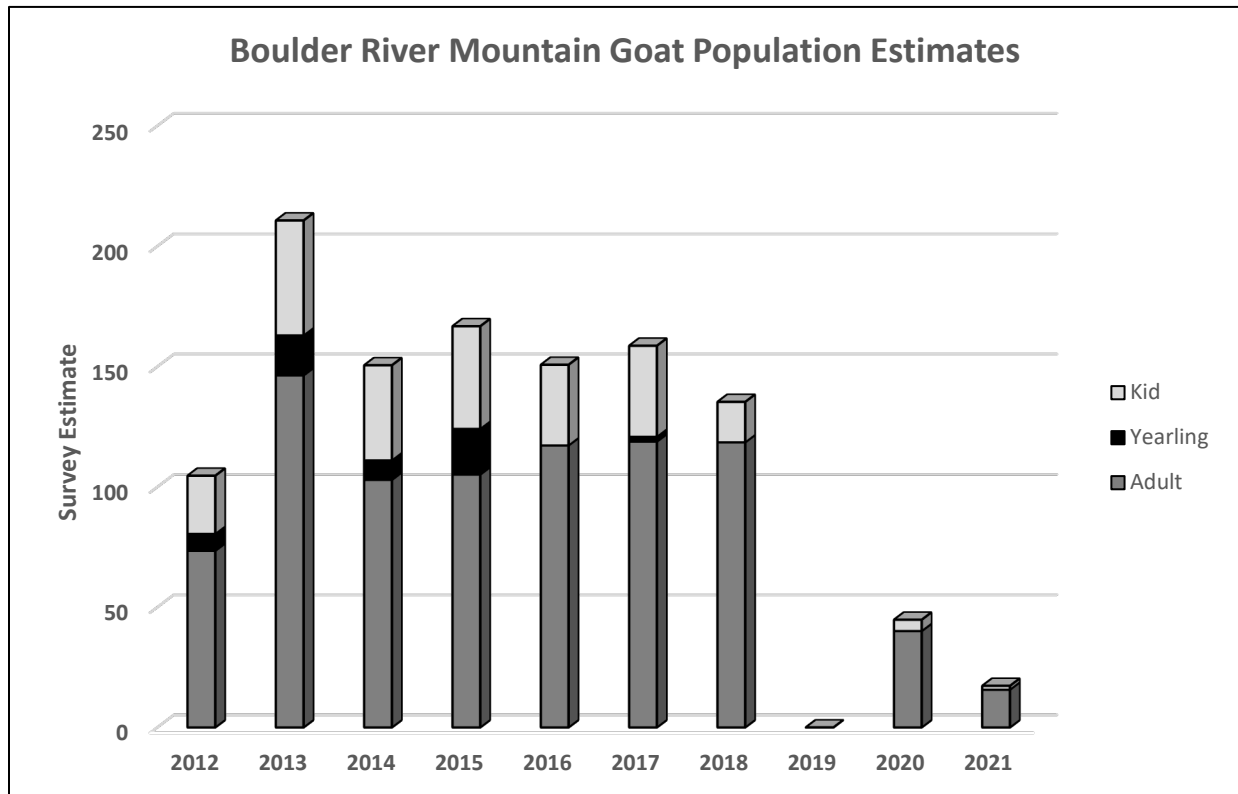


Figure 1. Results from mountain goat aerial surveys in the Boulder River North Hunt Unit from 2012–2021. No survey was conducted in 2019 due to mountain goat translocation work. Estimates are calculated based on numbers derived from the Three Fingers and Whitehorse survey blocks only.

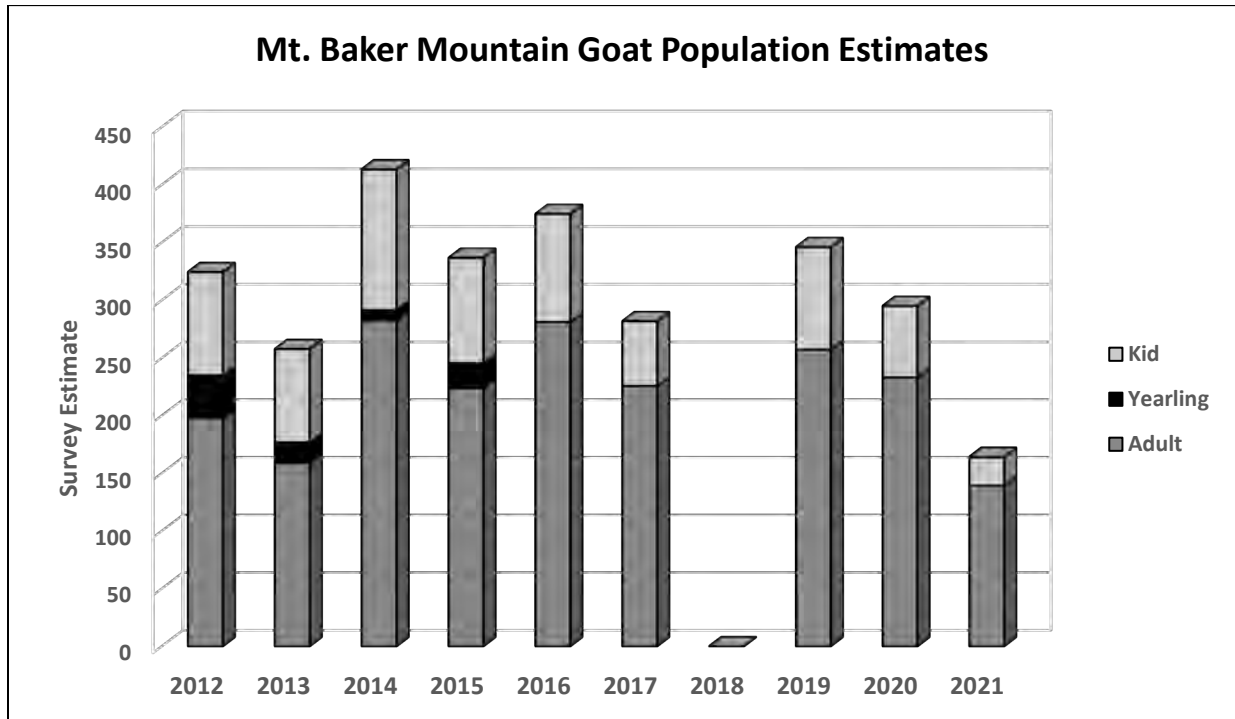


Figure 2. Population estimates from WDFW and Tribal mountain goat aerial surveys in the Mt. Baker Area from 2012–2021. No survey was conducted in 2018. Beginning in 2019, goats were classified as either an adult or a kid. Estimates are calculated based on numbers derived from the Black Buttes, Chowder Ridge, Coleman Pinnacle, Heliotrope, Loomis Mtn., Lava Divide North and South, and Sholes Glacier survey blocks only.

Survival and Mortality

Historically, most of the information regarding goat numbers and distribution was derived from occasional non-standardized aerial surveys and from harvest report cards and questionnaires returned by permitted hunters. The Mt. Baker area originally included goat management units 4-2, 4-3, 4-4, and 4-5 in Whatcom and Skagit Counties. Harvest in these units during the period 1969–85 totaled 121 animals, with an average of 13 goats harvested per season. From 1986–95, harvest totaled 26 animals, with an average of six goats harvested per season. By 1996, all the Mt. Baker goat units were closed to hunting due to declines in harvest and low numbers of goats seen during aerial surveys. In 2007, Mt. Baker units 4-3 (Chowder Ridge) and 4-7 (Avalanche Gorge) were reopened with one permit issued per unit. Unit 4-4 (Lincoln Peak) was added later, with a conservative approach, limiting the annual number of permits in 2020 for the Mt. Baker area to six permits. Within the Boulder River North hunting unit, the population appeared stable, with population estimates (not including kids) exceeding 100 animals in all years from 2012 to 2018 (Figure 1). However, recent population estimates from 2020 and 2021 were lower than previous years, with fewer than 100 animals in the Boulder River North hunting unit.

Habitat

The Mt. Baker area mountain goat population has rebounded substantially since the low abundances in the 1980s and 1990s. It is currently unclear whether the increasing trend seen over the past few years will continue or if the population is reaching the capacity of the habitat to

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

maintain goats. The conservative hunting season, reestablished in 2007, appears to have negligible effects on population size, age/sex structure, and population trend.

Most of the goats in the Mt. Baker area are within the Mt. Baker Wilderness on the Mt. Baker-Snoqualmie National Forest and the adjacent North Cascades National Park. Federal land management restrictions are protective of habitat qualities critical for the maintenance of a robust mountain goat population. However, this area has seen an increase in recreational uses, including hiking, backcountry skiing, and snowmobiling. Discussions on goat management between WDFW and the Tribes are ongoing and remain a high priority.

The Boulder River North unit lies within the Boulder River Wilderness managed by the Darrington District of the Mt. Baker/Snoqualmie National Forest. In recent years, this area saw a population rebound similar to the increases in the Mt. Baker unit, suggesting that habitat quality in this area of the North Cascades was sufficient for mountain goats. The significance and cause of the low 2020 and 2021 population estimates for the Boulder River North unit are not well understood and will require further investigation.

The quantity or quality of summer forage resources for goats in alpine terrain is generally poorly understood in the North Cascades. Fire exclusion and warming climate conditions may be negatively impacting alpine habitats, and additional research is needed on this topic.

Management Conclusions

From September 2018 to August 2020, WDFW and the National Park Service translocated 325 mountain goats from Olympic National Park to the North Cascades, with an overall survival rate of just above 50%. Now that translocation efforts are complete, WDFW, in partnership with area Tribes, is focusing on survey efforts beginning summer 2021. WDFW has no immediate plans to increase mountain goat hunting permits in the North Cascades. WDFW will continue to monitor the success of recent augmentations to determine whether this effort will result in population increases over time.

Literature Cited

- Rice, C.G., K.J. Jenkins, and W. Chang 2009. A sightability model for mountain goats. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 73(3): 468–478.
- Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2014. 2015-2021 Game Management Plan. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, Washington, USA. [2015-2021 Game Management Plan.](#)

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Permit numbers, hunters, harvest, hunter success rates, and total days hunted, Mt. Baker and Boulder River North mountain goat hunt units, 2009-2020.

| Hunt Unit | Year | Permits | Hunters | Harvest | Success (%) | Days hunted | # Females killed |
|----------------------------|------|---------|---------|---------|-------------|-------------|------------------|
| Chowder Ridge | 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 2 | |
| | 2010 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 3 | |
| | 2011 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 5 | |
| | 2012 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | N/A | |
| | 2013 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| | 2014 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 5 | 1 |
| | 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 23 | 1 |
| | 2016 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| | 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 0 |
| | 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 2 | 1 |
| | 2019 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 2 | 0 |
| | 2020 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 0 |
| Lincoln Peak | 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 8 | |
| | 2010 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 5 | |
| | 2011 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 19 | |
| | 2012 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | 2013 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 2014 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 4 | 0 |
| | 2015 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 33 | 0 |
| | 2016 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 50 | 3 | 1 |
| | 2017 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 6 | 0 |
| | 2018 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 9 | 0 |
| | 2019 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 50 | 10 | 0 |
| | 2020 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 0 |
| Avalanche Gorge | 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 1 | |
| | 2010 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 4 | |
| | 2011 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | 2012 | 0 | - | - | - | - | |
| | 2013 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 50 | 14 | 0 |
| | 2014 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 100 | 17 | 1 |
| | 2015 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 75 | 56 | 1 |
| | 2016 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 50 | 15 | 1 |
| | 2017 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 67 | 18 | 0 |
| | 2018 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 67 | 7 | 2 |
| | 2019 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| | 2020 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 100 | 5 | |
| Boulder River North | 2015 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 8 | 0 |
| | 2016 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 2 | 0 |
| | 2017 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 2 | 1 |
| | 2018 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 17 | 1 |
| | 2019 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| | 2020 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 12 | 1 |

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 5

Goat Rocks, Smith Creek, Mt. St. Helens

STEFANIE BERGH, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

Region 5 of the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) contains multiple areas inhabited by mountain goats. Three mountain goat population management units have been monitored aerially in recent years: Smith Creek (Goat Unit 5-3), Goat Rocks/Tieton River (Goat Unit 5-4/5-5/3-9), and the Mt. St. Helens National Volcanic Monument (Goat Units 5-6 and 5-7). The Goat Rocks/Tieton River Unit has historically contained one of the largest goat populations of any goat unit in the state of Washington (Rice, 2012). For several years, a cooperative ground-based survey for mountain goats has been conducted in the Mt. St. Helens National Volcanic Monument, and the first aerial survey was completed in 2017. Several other areas within Region 5 support mountain goats, including the Dark Divide Roadless Area, Mt. Adams Wilderness, and the Tatoosh Mountains. Individual and small groups of mountain goats are reported throughout the southern Cascades region all the way to the Columbia River.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

WDFW's mountain goat management objectives are to manage mountain goats and their habitat to maintain or expand current population levels. In addition, mountain goats are to be managed for recreational, educational, and aesthetic purposes. Recreational management is to be consistent with a stable or increasing population.

Population Surveys

In 2020, the Goat Rocks/Tieton River Unit was aerially surveyed, yielding 171 animals observed (Table 1) and a sightability-corrected population estimate of 181 (90% confidence interval: 170-192; Table 2). The sightability-corrected population of adult mountain goats in that unit was estimated at 145 (90% confidence interval: 136-154). The Smith Creek Unit was also surveyed from the air in 2020, yielding a sightability corrected estimate of 21 goats (90% confidence interval: 15-27; Table 2). In 2020, the second aerial survey of the Mt. St. Helens and Mt. Margaret Backcountry was conducted. A total of 236 goats were observed during the flight, which resulted in a sightability corrected estimate of 254 goats (90% confidence interval: 235-273; Table 2). The sightability corrected population of adult mountain goats in that area was estimated at 201 (90% confidence interval: 188-214). All aerial surveys were conducted using the sightability method developed by WDFW (Rice et al., 2009).

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Raw Survey Data from Mountain Goat Flights, Region 5 (2005-2020).

| Goat Unit | Year | Adult | Kid | Unknown | Total | Kid:Adult |
|-----------------------------|-------------|--------------|------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|
| Goat Rocks/Tieton River | 2020 | 136 | 35 | 0 | 171 | 26:100 |
| | 2019 | 162 | 66 | 0 | 228 | 41:100 |
| | 2017 | 204 | 40 | 0 | 244 | 20:100 |
| | 2015 | 224 | 86 | 0 | 310 | 38:100 |
| | 2013 | 236 | 72 | 0 | 308 | 30:100 |
| | 2012 | 168 | 33 | 0 | 231 | 23:100 |
| | 2011 | 222 | 31 | 0 | 253 | 15:100 |
| | 2010 | 195 | 36 | 0 | 231 | 20:100 |
| | 2009 | 203 | 73 | 0 | 276 | 43:100 |
| | 2008 | 201 | 60 | 7 | 268 | 34:100 |
| | 2006 | 217 | 71 | 0 | 290 | 35:100 |
| 2005 | 235 | 66 | 0 | 303 | 35:100 | |
| Smith Creek | 2020 | 13 | 3 | 0 | 16 | 23:100 |
| | 2017 | 10 | 2 | 0 | 12 | 22:100 |
| | 2012 | 36 | 14 | 0 | 50 | 44:100 |
| | 2010 | 34 | 8 | 0 | 42 | 29:100 |
| | 2008 | 11 | 4 | 2 | 17 | 44:100 |
| | 2007 | 28 | 6 | 0 | 34 | 21:100 |
| | 2006 | 22 | 5 | 0 | 27 | 31:100 |
| | 2005 | 21 | 11 | 0 | 32 | 73:100 |
| Mt. St. Helens/Mt. Margaret | 2020 | 186 | 50 | 0 | 236 | 27:100 |
| | 2017 | 169 | 54 | 0 | 223 | 32:100 |

Table 2. Sightability Corrected Mountain Goat Survey Results – Region 5 (2005-2020).

| Goat Unit | Year | Population Estimate (90% CI) |
|-----------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|
| Goat Rocks/Tieton River | 2020 | 181 (170-192) |
| | 2019 | 239 (226-253) |
| | 2017 | 254 (243-264) |
| | 2015 | 325 (309-341) |
| | 2013 | 232 (307-338) |
| | 2012 | 246 (232-261) |
| | 2011 | 259 (250-268) |
| | 2010 | 224 (213-236) |
| | 2009 | 285 (274-297) |
| | 2008 | 282 (No CI) |
| | 2006 | 308 (291-326) |
| 2005 | 341 (322-359) | |
| Smith Creek | 2020 | 21 (15-27) |
| | 2017 | 14 (9-18) |
| | 2012 | 64 (48-79) |
| | 2010 | 41 (33-49) |
| | 2008 | 32 (No CI) |
| Mt. St. Helens/Mt. Margaret | 2020 | 254 (235-273) |
| | 2017 | 246 (232-260) |

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Mountain goats were formally surveyed from the ground on Mt. St. Helens and in the associated Mt. Margaret Backcountry in August of 2014-20. The effort involved simultaneous surveys and documentation of all goat groups by multiple teams of observers at pre-arranged stations. The surveys have demonstrated an increasing goat population (Figure 1). In 2020, the ground survey was conducted two days before the aerial survey, and a minimum of 200 mountain goats were counted, which was lower than the sightability corrected aerial estimate of 254. Since the aerial surveys have proven to be effective and WDFW is committed to funding them at regular intervals into the future, the ground count has been suspended. The project was a cooperative effort among WDFW, the U.S. Forest Service, the Cowlitz Tribe of Indians, and volunteers associated with the Mt. St. Helens Institute.

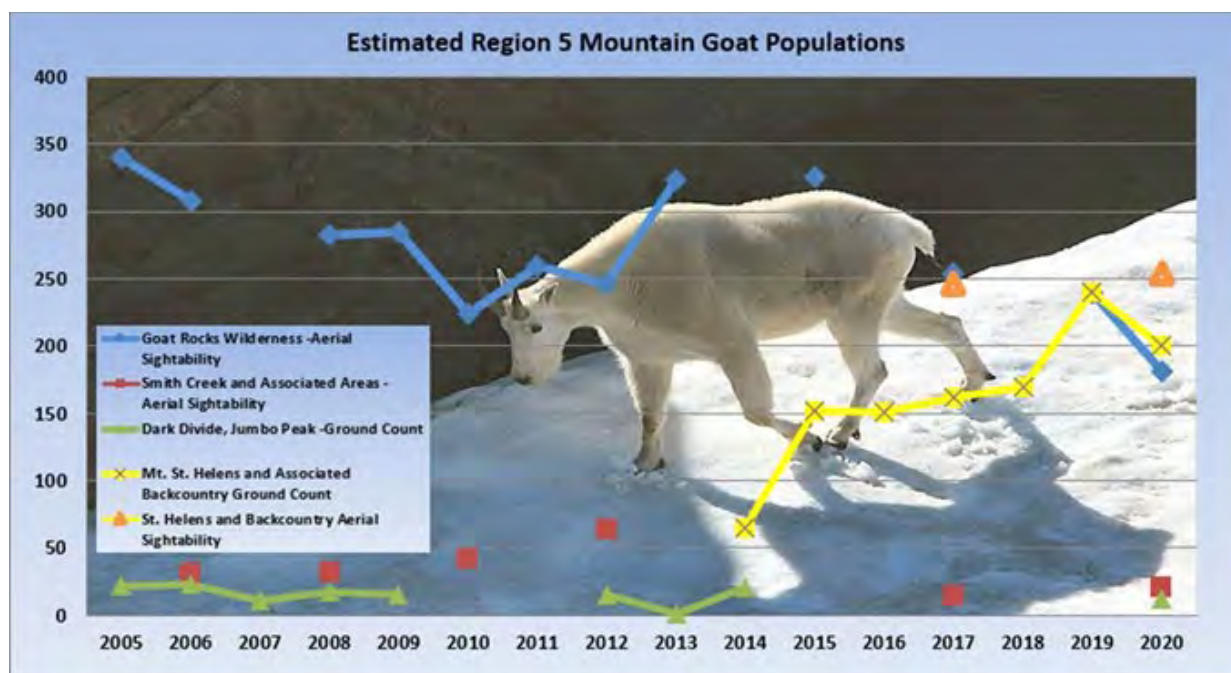


Figure 1. Estimated Region 5 Mountain Goat Populations

No additional mountain goat areas in Region 5 were surveyed from the air during 2020 due to a lack of funding and because hunting permits are not currently offered for these smaller populations. Unsurveyed areas populated with mountain goats in Region 5 include the Tatoosh Mountains and areas between the Indian Heaven Wilderness and Mt. Adams. Finally, individual and small groups of mountain goats are commonly observed throughout the southern Cascades in Region 5 and are also not surveyed. A ground survey at Jumbo Peak in the Dark Divide area was conducted by the United States Forest Service (USFS) in October 2020, and 12 mountain goats were counted.

Sightability corrected aerial surveys conducted over the past several years suggest a decline in the Goat Rocks population and a possible decline in the Smith Creek goat population. The back-to-back ground and aerial surveys of the Mt. St. Helens population in 2017 and 2020 indicated that the ground survey is greatly underestimating the total population, and WDFW recommends using the aerial survey method with sightability correction into the future. The ground survey provided critical information on an increasing goat population as well as its distribution and the Department is grateful for all of the partners and volunteers who participated in the effort.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Hunting opportunity for mountain goats in Washington is allowed only to those selected in the Special Permit Drawing. Those fortunate enough to draw a mountain goat tag may hunt only within a specified goat unit. The bag limit is one goat of either sex, with horns longer than 4 inches. However, hunters are encouraged to shoot billies (males) rather than nannies (females), because mountain goat populations are sensitive to the removal of adult females. Beginning in 2018, hunters who drew a permit were required to successfully complete online mountain goat gender identification training administered by WDFW. The tag allocation for each unit is conservative in nature, with dual goals of providing a high-quality hunt for those successful in the permit draw and having little or no effect on the goat population.

Mountain goat studies completed by WDFW led to a population guideline to direct harvest management (WDFW, 2014). A goat unit must have an estimated population of 100 or more to allow harvest. Furthermore, harvest levels are designed to remove 4% or less of the adult (i.e., older than kids) population (WDFW, 2014). Within Region 5, only the Goat Rocks/Tieton River Unit and the Mt. St. Helens area consist of populations large enough to support hunting under this guideline. Since the 2017 aerial surveys in the Mt. St. Helens and Mt. Margaret Backcountry indicated a goat population much greater than 100 individuals, a proposal for two new goat units (Mt. St. Helens South and Mt. Margaret Backcountry) with one goat tag each was sent to and approved by the WDFW Commission for the 2018 season. These hunts have continued in subsequent years. Surveys of other areas supporting goats will be conducted periodically. Should populations surpass 100 individuals in these areas, hunts could be considered.

Beginning in 2018, the Goat Rocks/Tieton River Hunt Area was split into two separate units: Goat Rocks West and Goat Rocks East. The purpose of this division was to provide for better spatial distribution of harvest within the Goat Rocks area so that most of the harvest and hunting pressure is not concentrated in one small area. Two tags were offered in both the Goat Rocks West and Goat Rocks East Hunt Areas during 2020. The permit holders in both the Goat Rocks West and Goat Rocks East each harvested two billies (Table 3). As of August 2021, there was no information on harvest by Tribal hunters during 2020 in the Goat Rocks population. The 2020 hunting season was the third year for permits in the Mt. Saint Helens area. One permit each was issued for the Mt. Saint Helens South and Mt. Margaret Backcountry Hunt Areas. Both of those permit holders were successful in harvesting a billy (Table 3). Neither the auction nor the raffle goat permits were used in the Goat Rocks, Mt. Saint Helens South, or Mt. Margaret Hunt Areas in 2020.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 3. Region 5 Mountain Goat Hunt Summary 2011-2020.

| Goat Unit | Year | WDFW Permits Issued | WDFW Permit Harvest | Tribal Harvest ^a | Total Harvest | Total Billies Harvested | Total Nannies Harvested |
|--|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Goat Rocks | 2020 | 4 | 4 | No data | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| Goat Rocks | 2019 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 1 |
| Goat Rocks | 2018 ^b | 5 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 2 |
| Goat Rocks | 2017 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 5 | 2 |
| Goat Rocks | 2016 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 5 | 3 |
| Goat Rocks | 2015 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| Goat Rocks | 2014 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| Goat Rocks | 2013 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| Goat Rocks | 2012 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| Goat Rocks | 2011 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Mt. Margaret Backcountry | 2020 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Mt. Margaret Backcountry | 2019 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Mt. Margaret Backcountry | 2018 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Mt. St. Helens South | 2020 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Mt. St. Helens South | 2019 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Mt. St. Helens South | 2018 | 1 | 1 | N/A | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| ^a As reported by the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission | | | | | | | |
| ^b In 2018, the Goat Rocks Hunt Area was split into two areas: Goat Rocks West and Goat Rocks East | | | | | | | |
| Note: Harvest exceeded permit numbers in 2011 due to hunting by Auction and Raffle Permit holders. | | | | | | | |

Habitat

High elevation openings characteristic of goat habitat is being lost in the Smith Creek Unit due to conifer encroachment. Alpine meadows are critical mountain goat foraging areas. Given the limited extent of suitable goat habitat in the Smith Creek Unit, the loss of habitat represents a threat to the sustained viability of this goat population. Results of the cooperative Cispus Adaptive Management Area (AMA) project indicate that in the four study areas (Stonewall Ridge, South Point Ridge, Smith Ridge, and Castle Butte), a total of 404 acres of alpine meadow, were lost in the period spanning 1959-1990 (Kogut 1996). High alpine meadows are thought to be primarily created through disturbances such as avalanche, disease, wind-throw, and fire (Hemstrom, 1979).

Periodic fire is one of the most important factors in the creation and maintenance of alpine meadows (Olmsted, 1979). U.S. Forest Service policy currently dictates the suppression of both man-made and naturally occurring fires. This policy has probably resulted in the loss of alpine

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

meadows documented in the above study. In the years since the completion of this study, the loss of alpine meadows has likely continued. Thus, the need for restoration and preservation of these areas is paramount to continued healthy goat populations. Budgetary, logistical, safety, and other constraints in both the USFS and WDFW make the possibility of a prescribed burn program in the foreseeable future unlikely. However, naturally occurring high-elevation fires have occurred recently. In the summer of 2018, the Miriam fire burned approximately 5,400 acres in the northeastern portion of the Goat Rocks Wilderness (2019 InciWeb). Additionally, fires in the vicinity of Mt. Adams have occurred over the past several years. Another possible avenue to address conifer encroachment is through the use of girdling and snag creation.

Management Concerns

Disease testing on a limited number of samples collected by hunters in 2015 revealed evidence that 1 of 19 mountain goats tested may have been exposed to the bacterium *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* (*M. ovi*), which is associated with pneumonia outbreaks in bighorn sheep. This serological sample was collected from a goat harvested in the Goat Rocks. In 2016, both volunteers and WDFW staff conducted visual observations of goats in the Goat Rocks. The purpose of these surveys was to 1) observe goats for any signs of respiratory disease and 2) count goats, including kids, for evidence of any unusually high levels of early mortality that might be evidence of pneumonia infection. During the surveys, no mountain goat carcasses were found, nor were goats with signs of lethargy, coughing, head shaking, or other indications of respiratory disease observed. Observations made by WDFW staff observed kid to nanny ratios of approximately 0.38. In 2017 and 2020, all hunter-harvested goats sampled from the Goat Rocks were negative for *M. ovi*. Pneumonia due to *M. ovi* is believed to be the cause of a decline in at least one mountain goat population in Nevada. The significance of the positive *M. ovi*-antibody test result from a single mountain goat in Washington is not known at this time. Nonetheless, WDFW will remain vigilant about reports of sick goats, collect samples when needed, and continue to collaborate with veterinary researchers at Washington State University to better understand the health of mountain goats in Washington.

Management Conclusions

Mountain goats in Region 5 are valued for both viewing and hunting opportunities. Additionally, the goats are of cultural value to the native people of southwest Washington. Consequently, harvest quotas are kept at conservative levels to maximize both the consumptive and non-consumptive recreational attributes of these populations. Management direction dictates that two of the traditionally hunted units in Region 5 (Smith Creek and Tatoosh) remain closed until populations increase. The increase in the goat population around Mt. St. Helens has been a benefit for viewing opportunities at the popular Mt. St. Helens National Volcanic Monument visitor centers and trails. Now, with a population larger than currently found in the Goat Rocks, hunting opportunities are available as well.

The recent decline in the Goat Rocks population is concerning, and warrants continued surveillance for disease in hunter-harvested goats as well as aerial surveys to estimate the population. Increased recreational disturbance and a decline in habitat due to lack of disturbances and conifer encroachment could also be factors affecting this population. It is possible that the harvest of 7 nannies between 2016-18 could also have contributed to the population decline as mountain goat populations tend to be sensitive to the harvest of adult females (Hamel et al., 2006).

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

Consideration of nanny harvest from the previous hunting season(s) may be needed when determining the number of permits allocated during future seasons. A system to account for previous years' nanny harvest was proposed as a Strategy in the 2015-2021 Game Management Plan (WDFW, 2014) but was never implemented.

Raffle and auction permit holders sometimes select the Goat Rocks unit as it has one of the highest numbers of goats and has a long history of successful goat hunting. As such, harvest by raffle and auction permit holders must be factored into and considered when setting the permit level for Goat Rocks.

The continuation of aerial surveys is needed to document trends in population and productivity. In most cases, sightability-adjusted aerial surveys provide the least biased and most efficient method of population estimation, particularly considering the large expanse of area involved.

Based upon the results of the cooperative Cispus AMA study, alpine meadow restoration in the Smith Creek Unit is recommended. Fire management in potential goat habitats will also play an important role in the expansion of goat populations outside of the Goat Rocks.

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Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report: Region 6

Olympic Mountains

BRYAN MURPHIE, Wildlife Biologist

Introduction

Mountain goats (*Oreamnos americanus*) are not native to the Olympic Mountains. They were introduced from Alberta and Alaska between 1925 and 1929 (Johnson, 1983). Introductions occurred on the northern part of the Olympic Peninsula in the vicinity of Lake Crescent near Port Angeles and were conducted primarily by the Klahhane Club, a sportsman's group in Port Angeles at the time (Johnson, 1983). The creation of the Olympic National Park (ONP) in 1938 provided complete protection for the introduced mountain goats, and the population thrived. The goat population expanded its distribution to areas outside the ONP boundary, and by the 1980s, the mountain goat population had reached an estimated 1,175 goats throughout their suitable range in the Olympics (Houston et al., 1994). Concerns over the negative effects of non-native mountain goats on endemic plant communities and soils in the ONP prompted an effort to reduce the goat population during the 1980s when 407 goats were relocated to mountain ranges outside the Olympics (Jenkins et al., 2012). An estimated 168 goats were harvested from 1980 until 1997 when the season was closed. No additional removals were conducted, and recreational hunting was closed from 1998-2013.

Following a period of relative stability at low numbers for several years, the mountain goat population increased (Jenkins et al., 2016). Mountain goats currently occupy areas within ONP and on United States Forest Service (USFS) lands along the eastern portion of the Olympic Peninsula. Many of these areas are among the most popular hiking destinations in northwest Washington. As a result, concerns over human-goat conflicts and the negative effects of non-native mountain goats on endemic plant communities reemerged. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) established a mountain goat permit hunt in a designated portion of the eastern Olympic Peninsula wilderness areas in 2014, in part to aid in addressing these concerns. This hunt was closed in 2018.

In 2018, WDFW partnered with ONP and USFS in a relocation effort moving mountain goats from the Olympics to the North Cascades in a project with dual purposes. As described in the Final Mountain Goat Management Plan/Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) (ONP, 2018) and in the USFS Record of Decision on the Final [ONP Mountain Goat Management Plan Final EIS](#), (USFS, 2018), removal of mountain goats from the Olympics aids in addressing the concerns described above. Additionally, the mountain goat population in the North Cascades has undergone substantial declines leaving small, isolated populations in many areas. The translocation of Olympic mountain goats provides an opportunity to reestablish and augment the mountain goat population in the North Cascades, where they were historically.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Due to the issues described above, the Olympic mountain goat population is not being managed for a sustainable harvest, which is in contrast to populations in the Cascades. Rather, the primary objective for the Olympic Mountain goat permit hunt is to provide a recreational hunting opportunity while attempting to reduce the potential for conflicts between mountain goats and recreationists by reducing the number of goats in the designated permit area (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

The last reported estimate of mountain goats on the Olympic Peninsula was 623 (95% CI = 561-741) goats, including ONP and USFS lands (Jenkins et al., 2016). The estimate of goats for those areas surveyed within the WDFW designated permit hunt area was 59 (95% CI = 53-89) (K. Jenkins, personal communication). No surveys have been conducted since then.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Recreational hunting of mountain goats in Washington State began in 1897 with a bag limit of 2 goats per year with a 3-month season (Johnson, 1983). In 1913, the bag limit was reduced to one goat. Then in 1917, hunting was restricted to designated areas in the Cascades until goat hunting in Washington was closed entirely in 1925 (Johnson, 1983). Mountain goat hunting resumed in 1948 by permit in designated hunt units in Washington. Archery-only goat permit hunts were established for three designated permit units in the Olympics in 1980; the Elwha, Quilcene, and Hamma Hamma. An estimated 168 goats were harvested from 1980 until 1997, when the season was closed.

WDFW established a permit hunt area on USFS lands in the eastern Olympics in 2014. Two permit hunt areas were designated, and three permits were issued per hunt area. In 2015, the two designated permit areas were combined into one large unit with six permits issued in a split season of three permits each. Hunter success for this hunt averaged 32%. State hunters harvested 15 goats, and Tribal hunters harvested eight goats from 2014-2019 (Figure 1). The WDFW permit hunting season in the Olympics was closed in 2018 due to the removal and relocation efforts, which expanded to include the permit hunt area.

WDFW will reopen the eastern Olympic goat permit hunt in 2021. A total of 25 permits spread across three hunt periods will be available. Hunters selected for this hunt can harvest up to two goats and hunt anywhere in GMUs 621, 636, and 638. Also, the once-in-a-lifetime restriction is waived for this hunt. Future permit hunts in this area will be evaluated annually.

Survival and Mortality

Estimates of survival and causes of mortality are relevant for a specific time, place, and population, and these data are not available for mountain goats on the Olympic Peninsula. Generally, causes of mortality include weather, nutritional stress, predation, parasites and disease, natural hazards

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

(for example, avalanches), hunter harvest, and the confounding effects of many of these. Similar to other ungulates, survival is often lower among older adults and young-of-the-year than among prime-aged individuals, and generally higher among females than males.

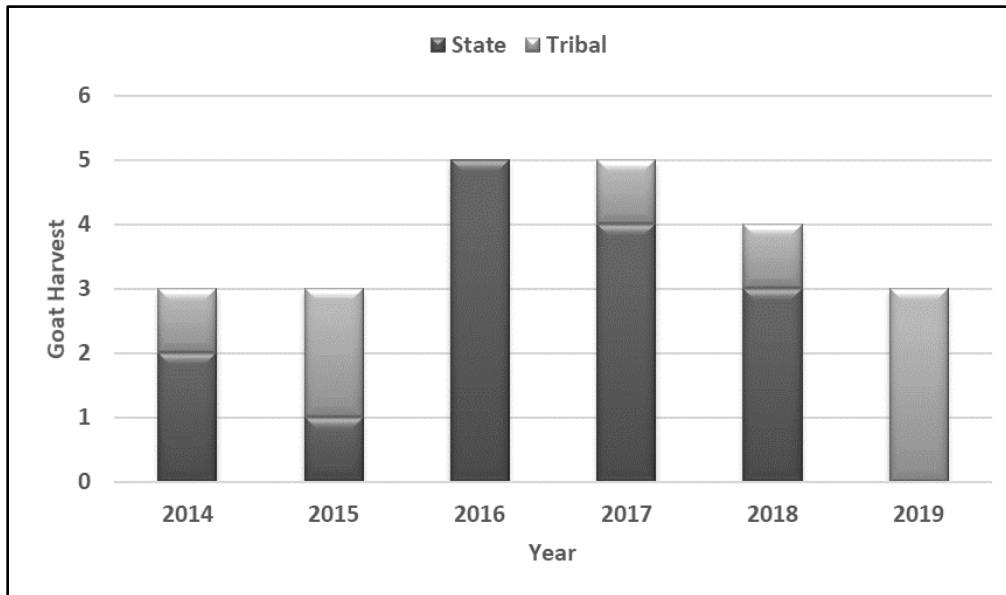


Figure 1. Total State and Tribal mountain goat harvest within the Olympic Mountain Goat Permit Hunt area from 2014 – 2019. 2020 Tribal harvest data was not available.

Habitat

Mountain goats primarily occupy habitats from just below timberline to the highest, rocky peaks in the alpine zone. In the Olympics, mountain goats are generally found at elevations above 1400m (Jenkins et al., 2011). They select habitats based on the availability of forage, landscapes that provide high solar loading, and terrain that is rugged, providing an escape from predators (Beus, 2010). Mountain goats tend to exhibit strong site-fidelity to seasonal ranges, returning to the same summer and winter ranges year after year (Houston et al., 1994). The transition between seasonal ranges generally occurs in June (summer range) and October or November (winter range), but there is considerable individual variability in seasonal migratory behavior (Rice, 2008; Jenkins et al., 2011). Summer diets consist primarily of graminoids and forbs, while during the winter, they consume more tree and shrub species as part of their diet (Houston et al., 1994).

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Goats that have become accustomed to humans are often drawn to them for providing salt from food and urine. Encounters can range from mildly annoying to life-threatening. These primarily occur along popular hiking routes that traverse areas occupied by mountain goats in the designated Olympic permit hunt area, most notably along the Mount Ellinor and Lena Lake trails. Although numerous accounts of potentially hazardous encounters between humans and mountain goats have been reported, two occurrences in the Olympic Range illustrate the seriousness of the risk these

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

types of encounters pose to humans. In 1999, a hiker on Mount Ellinor reported that he was gored in the leg by an aggressive goat and survived; and in 2010, a hiker at Hurricane Ridge was also gored in the leg, sustaining a fatal injury to his femoral artery (ONP Mountain Goat Action Plan, 2011).

Olympic Mountain Goat Removal Project

From 2018-2020, WDFW, ONP, and USFS conducted efforts to remove and relocate mountain goats from the Olympics to the North Cascades. A total of 381 goats were removed during this phase; of these, 325 were relocated to the North Cascades (Happe et al., 2021). Thirty-two goats were removed from the permit hunt area. A ground-based culling effort took place inside Olympic National Park in 2020 by qualified volunteers resulting in the removal of an additional 31 goats.

Additional culling efforts by ONP begin in 2021. Two removal phases are to be conducted in July and August, primarily focused on goats inside the Park, but some areas outside the Park, north of the Dosewallips River may be targeted. This effort is scheduled to continue in 2022, targeting all areas in the Olympics where mountain goats remain.

Management Concerns

As a result of an increasing goat population, concerns over human-goat conflicts and the negative effects of this non-native species on endemic plant communities have reemerged. As part of a long-term plan to address these concerns, strategies to reduce the number of mountain goats in the Olympics were initiated. The Department established the goat conflict reduction permit hunt on USFS lands in the eastern Olympics in 2014 and continued this hunt through 2018. From 2018-2020, the ONP, USFS, and WDFW conducted a removal and relocation effort of mountain goats from the Olympic Peninsula to the North Cascades. In 2020, ONP conducted a ground-based culling effort within the Park. Tribal hunting on USFS lands has also contributed to the goat reduction effort. ONP will continue aerial-based removal activities in 2021. WDFW will reopen the goat permit hunt in 2021.

Management Conclusions

Surveys conducted in 2016 estimated there were 623 (95% CI = 561-741) goats on the Olympic Peninsula, including ONP and USFS lands and that the population was growing (Jenkins et al., 2016). Since 2014, an estimated total of 435 goats have been removed from the Olympic Peninsula through a combination of State hunting, Tribal Hunting, the capture-relocation project, and ground-based culling.

Efforts to reduce the number of goats in the Olympics will continue. The capture and relocation phase of the goat reduction plan concluded in 2020. In 2021, the ONP will continue culling activities within the Park and on USFS lands outside the Park north of the Dosewallips River.

Mountain Goat Status and Trend Report 2021

In 2021, WDFW will reopen the Mountain Goat Conflict Reduction permit hunt in the east Olympic Mountains, expanding the hunt area to include more USFS lands and increasing the number of permits available.

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Bighorn Sheep

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 1

Blue Mountains

PAUL WIK, Wildlife Biologist

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Introduction

Bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis*) were first restored in the Blue Mountains on the W.T. Wooten Wildlife Area (Tucannon River) during the early 1960s and consisted of bighorns transplanted from the Sinlahekin Wildlife Area. Since that re-introduction, four additional herds of bighorn sheep have been established in the Blue Mountains: Asotin Creek, Black Butte, Mountain View (formerly known as the Cottonwood herd), and Wenaha.

The Hells Canyon Initiative (HCI) was established in 1996, with representatives from Washington Department of Fish & Wildlife, Idaho Department of Fish and Game, Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife, U.S. Forest Service, Bureau of Land Management, and the Wild Sheep Foundation (formerly known as Foundation for North American Wild Sheep (FNAWS)). HCI coordinates disease research, develops population survey methodology, conducts transplants, coordinates intergovernmental management activities, and implements projects designed to improve bighorn sheep habitat. All five of southeast Washington's bighorn sheep populations are included in the HCI; Black Butte, Mountain View, Wenaha, Tucannon, and Asotin Creek.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Population objectives for each herd are based on habitat conditions, habitat availability, and minimizing herd expansion into new habitats that may increase the risk of contact and disease transmission with domestic sheep or goats. In 2015, WDFW recognized the utility of differentiating short-term objectives from long-term objectives. Short-term objectives take 2014 population sizes as a starting point, account for existing constraints to population growth, and account for what can realistically be achieved within the 6-year planning horizon that WDFW uses (WDFW, 2014). Long-term objectives reflect the potential of habitat to support bighorns assuming that constraints such as disease and land-owner tolerance can be resolved. For the Tucannon herd, the short-term objective was identified as being in the range 40-80, and the long-term potential was estimated to be approximately 160. For the Mountain View and Wenaha herds combined, short-term objective was bounded by 130-170, with the long-term potential estimated at 375. The short-term objective for the Asotin Creek herd was estimated at 120-130, whereas the potential of the area was estimated to be 240 animals. The short-term objective for the Black Butte herd were estimated to be 50-60 animals, and the long-term potential, reflecting the past abundance of this herd, was estimated to be 585. Thus, for the Blue Mountains herds in aggregate, the short-term objective is to have 340-440 animals; we estimate that ideally the area could ultimately support approximately 1,360 if disease and landowner tolerance issues were resolved.

Population Surveys

Aerial surveys have not been conducted since 2015 because ground counts have proven adequate for estimating population parameters. Ground counts were obtained for three of the five herds

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

during March and April of 2021. The other two herds were not surveyed, but frequent monitoring for research has provided information to generate an estimate. The population estimate for 2021 (for all herds aggregated) was 446 bighorns. Herd composition consisted of 210 ewes, 91 lambs, and 140 rams, with resulting ratios of 66 (90% CI: 54-78) rams and 43 (90% CI: 34-52) lambs (just prior to them becoming yearlings) per 100 ewes (Table 1). A number of bighorns from Mountain View, Wenaha, and Black Butte inhabit Oregon throughout the year. Lamb recruitment during the 2020-2021 biological year improved from the previous year. This is likely due to higher lamb survival as a result of removing chronic *M.ovi* shedders in the previous years.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Recreational hunting opportunity was limited to one raffle permit in 2020. Poor recruitment (past years), research and conflict removals, interstate management, and tribal harvest continues to limit the available recreational opportunity within Washington. One ram was harvested from the Black Butte herd during 2020. Efforts are being made to work with local tribes with treaty rights to coordinate and agree upon the current harvest opportunity to allow for recovery of the male segment of the population. The Nez Perce Tribe does not collect or report harvest, but it is known that at least four rams were harvested through collar monitoring or enforcement investigations. WDFW and the Nez Perce Tribe have agreed to a hunting moratorium in the Asotin herd until the herd recovers from a disease outbreak and poor recruitment and survival. WDFW, Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife, and the Confederated Tribes of the Umatilla Indian Reservation have collaborated for five years in managing harvest in the Wenaha herd, which covers two states and two treaty tribes' areas.

Survival and Mortality

Survival analysis has not been completed at this time for the 2020-2021 biological year. The Hells Canyon Restoration Committee will produce a report periodically that captures this information.

Habitat

Habitat conditions are moderate to good in most areas. However, the spread of noxious weeds, mostly yellow star-thistle (*Centaurea solstitialis*), thistle (*Cirsium* spp.), and rush skeleton weed (*Chondrilla juncea*) are threatening ranges in the Blue Mountains. Although the School Fire (2005) had immediate negative effects on the Tucannon bighorn sheep population (direct mortality), it appears that the range has recovered. Noxious weeds are not dominating the landscape in the core bighorn range and the grasses and forbs appear to be healthy. During the summer of 2015, the Grizzly Complex wildfire burned a large portion of the Wenaha herd range. It is not yet clear what effect this may have on the habitat within this herd range. In June 2021, a large fire burned portions of Joseph Canyon in Oregon and Washington. This early season burn will likely benefit the Black Butte bighorn herd.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Bronchopneumonia caused by, or facilitated by, the bacteria *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* (*M. ovi*, hereafter) has affected four of the five Blue Mountain bighorn populations in Washington: Asotin, Black Butte, Wenaha, and Mountain View. Bighorn populations in the Hells Canyon area

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

generally (which includes the Washington Blue Mountain herds, but also nearby herds in Oregon and Idaho) have not recovered from bronchopneumonia die-offs as quickly as some herds in other states, possibly because of reinfection from adjacent herds or from domestic sheep and goats that exist within the range of multiple herds. The presence of domestic sheep and goats within and adjacent to bighorn sheep range presents a constant and substantial risk of another major epizootic. WDFW actively works with landowners near bighorn sheep herds to ensure accurate disease information is available to stock owners and options to minimize contact between domestics and wild sheep are made available.

To facilitate this outreach to owners of domestic sheep and goats, WDFW has partnered with Idaho Fish and Game, Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife, and state chapters of the Wild Sheep Foundation from Washington, Idaho, and Oregon to fund a full-time position with the Asotin County Conservation District. This person will provide education and testing options to owners, or potential owners of domestic sheep and goats within the northern Hells Canyon ecosystem. The goal of this position is to reduce or eliminate risk of disease transmission from domestic animals to bighorn sheep populations.

Some land-management agencies have encouraged landowners to use domestic goats for weed control. This type of weed control program when used near the range of bighorn sheep presents a risk to bighorn sheep populations in southeast Washington. WDFW staff actively work to explain the risk of using domestic Caprinae species within the ranges of bighorn sheep.

Population Augmentation

No population augmentations occurred during this reporting period.

Research

As part of the Hells Canyon Restoration committee, WDFW is actively participating in research on *M. ovi*-associated pneumonia in bighorn sheep (e.g., Bernatowicz et al., 2016; Manlove et al., 2014; Cassirer et al., 2017, 2018). For the past six years, WDFW and IDFG researchers have been capturing ewes and lambs in the Asotin, Black Butte, Mountain View, Wenaha, and herds in Oregon and Idaho to determine the bacterial shedding status of animals within those populations. Efforts have been made to remove the chronic shedders of *M. ovi* in these herds, ideally increasing the survival and recruitment of lambs in the future. Additional information can be found at the 2017-18 Hells Canyon Initiative Annual Report.

In 2019, a cooperative research project with Idaho Fish and Game, University of Idaho, and Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife was initiated within the Asotin herd. The primary aim in Asotin Creek is to uncover links between behavior (e.g., use of the nutritional landscape) and demography (e.g., lamb survival) of sheep occupying arid, low-elevation habitat. In late summer of 2020, researchers re-visited six 100-m vegetation phenology transects to track availability and succession of plant species across the study areas. Furthermore, they continued collecting fecal pellets and vegetation data to assess diet composition and plant species availability throughout the summer.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Researchers continued to monitor collared lambs that were captured in May of 2020. One collared lamb mortality occurred at five days of age and was related to malnutrition and septicemia. The remaining four marked lambs survived to weaning, however, they were unable to monitor survival thereafter due to collar malfunction. Two adult ewe mortalities occurred after 1 July 2020—both of which were attributed to mountain lion predation.

In fall of 2020, researchers attempted to re-capture all marked females and capture new adults to compensate for mortalities that had occurred since fall of 2019 (n = 9). They were able to add nine new adults to the study, and re-capture all but one marked individual for a total capture sample of n = 19. Median ingesta-free body fat was estimated at 14% (range 7–21%). Females who did not successfully recruit a lamb over the summer were generally in better condition (i.e., greater ingesta-free body fat, median 12–15%) in the fall than females who did successfully recruit a lamb (median 12–13%).

Management Concerns

Disease, predation, and harvest in certain herds remain the biggest challenges for bighorn sheep in the Blue Mountains. A long-term solution to pneumonia spreading within and amongst herds of bighorns has eluded researchers and managers for many years, but recent developments in identifying chronic carriers of *M. ovi*. has provided opportunities to clean a herd. *M. ovi*. has been the limiting factor for population growth in the Blue Mountains for more than 20 years.

Within the Washington Blue Mountains, three government entities have harvest rights to the bighorn sheep herds (WDFW, Confederated Tribes of the Umatilla Indian Reservation, and Nez Perce Tribe). These three entities have begun working toward common population goals and harvest regimes to maintain these goals. This will likely be a multi-year process but coming to an equitable approach for all entities will be the goal.

Management Conclusions

Four of the five bighorn sheep herds in the Blue Mountains have struggled with *M. ovi*-induced bronchopneumonia, but with recent management actions, no bighorn documented *M. ovi*. positive animals have been detected in three years. This is likely a result of the “test and remove” management actions by the Hells Canyon Restoration efforts. The multi-state effort to remove chronic shedders of the *M. ovi*. bacteria will continue in Hells Canyon over the coming years. This will not prevent future contact with infected bighorns from other herds or domestic animals.

Domestic sheep and goats continue to be a major threat for bighorn sheep in the Blue Mountains. Rural landowners continue to use domestic sheep and goats to control weeds, posing a severe threat to all herds in Hells Canyon. HCI research has shown that a large amount of inter-herd movement occurs (F. Cassirer, IDFG, pers. comm.). Numerous bighorn sheep have been removed, either lethally or transferred to captive research facilities to minimize the possibility of transmitting diseases. In early 2008, District 3 wildlife management staff authored response guidelines to be implemented when bighorn sheep are located in “high risk” areas, or domestic sheep or goats are located within bighorn range. However, the general practice has been to lethally remove bighorns that move to the lower reaches of Asotin Creek if a captive facility does not have the ability to house the animal.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

| Year | Rams | | | | | | | | Population | | Ratio (90% CI) | |
|------|-------|------|-----|------|-------|-------|------|-------|------------|-------------|----------------|--|
| | Lambs | Ewes | C I | C II | C III | CIIIB | C IV | Total | Total | Lambs | Rams | |
| 2012 | 36 | 113 | 14 | 14 | 29 | 1 | 15 | 73 | 222 | 32 (22, 42) | 65 (49, 81) | |
| 2013 | 24 | 114 | 9 | 18 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 71 | 209 | 21 (13, 29) | 62 (47, 78) | |
| 2014 | 29 | 131 | 7 | 16 | 28 | 4 | 4 | 59 | 221 | 22 (15, 30) | 45 (33, 57) | |
| 2015 | 34 | 113 | 13 | 14 | 21 | 7 | 2 | 57 | 206 | 30 (20, 40) | 50 (36, 65) | |
| 2016 | 58 | 129 | 7 | 9 | 20 | 2 | 0 | 79 | 268 | 45 (33, 57) | 61 (47, 76) | |
| 2017 | 65 | 164 | 16 | 17 | 16 | 1 | 8 | 76 | 342 | 40 (30, 49) | 46 (36, 57) | |
| 2018 | 67 | 172 | 26 | 29 | 23 | 5 | 1 | 92 | 330 | 39 (30, 48) | 53 (42, 65) | |
| 2019 | 78 | 154 | 33 | 33 | 37 | 3 | 3 | 94 | 327 | 51 (39, 62) | 61 (48, 74) | |
| 2020 | 60 | 152 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 307 | 39 (30, 49) | 62 (49, 76) | |
| 2021 | 91 | 210 | 15 | 34 | 43 | 7 | 6 | 140 | 446 | 43 (34, 52) | 66 (54, 78) | |

Table 1. Bighorn sheep population trend and herd composition, Blue Mountains, Washington.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | | | | | | Ram Total | Population Total | Ratio (90% CI) | |
|------|-------|------|------|-----|------|--------|-----|-------|-----------|------------------|----------------|--|
| | | | CI | CII | CIII | CIIIB* | CIV | Lambs | | | Rams | |
| 2012 | 12 | 26 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 0 | 7 | 31 | 69 | 46 (20, 73) | 119 (67, 171) | |
| 2013 | 2 | 22 | 4 | 6 | 15 | 1 | 1 | 27 | 51 | 9 (0, 20) | 122 (65, 180) | |
| 2014 | 9 | 29 | 1 | 5 | 16 | 3 | 2 | 27 | 65 | 31 (12, 50) | 93 (52, 134) | |
| 2015 | 13 | 25 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 4 | 0 | 18 | 56 | 52 (23, 81) | 72 (30, 114) | |
| 2016 | 16 | 32 | 0 | 3 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 24 | 72 | 53 (26, 80) | 80 (44, 116) | |
| 2017 | 15 | 40 | 3 | | | | | 19 | 74 | 37 (19, 56) | 47 (26, 69) | |
| 2018 | 16 | 47 | 6 | 7 | 4 | | 1 | 18 | 81 | 34 (18, 50) | 38 (21, 56) | |
| 2019 | 8 | 28 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 13 | 49 | 28 (10, 47) | 46 (21, 72) | |
| 2020 | 11 | 33 | | | | | | 20 | 64 | 33 (14, 52) | 60 (32, 88) | |
| 2021 | 14 | 32 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 28 | 75 | 43 (21, 67) | 87 (50, 125) | |

Table 2. Asotin herd 10-year survey history.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | | | | | Ram Total | Population Total | Ratios (90% CI) | |
|------|-------|------|------|-----|------|-------|-----|-----------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| | | | CI | CII | CIII | CIIIB | CIV | | | Lambs | Rams |
| 2012 | 3 | 24 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 7 | 34 | 12 (0, 25) | 29 (9, 50) |
| 2013 | 7 | 26 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 43 | 27 (8, 46) | 38 (15, 62) |
| 2014 | 2 | 25 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 32 | 8 (0, 18) | 20 (4, 36) |
| 2015 | 3 | 11 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 17 | 27 (0, 56) | 27 (0, 59) |
| 2016 | 5 | 10 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 8 | 25 | 50 (5, 95) | 80 (18, 142) |
| 2017 | 10 | 14 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 35 | 71 (23, 120) | 79 (26, 131) |
| 2018 | 5 | 16 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 3 | | 17 | 38 | 31 (5, 58) | 106 (45, 167) |
| 2019 | 11 | 19 | 6 | 2 | 12 | 1 | 0 | 21 | 51 | 58 (22, 94) | 110 (53, 168) |
| 2020 | 5 | 11 | | | | | | 22 | 38 | 45 (5, 86) | 200 (78, 321) |
| 2021 | 4 | 16 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 20 | 45 | 25 (2, 48) | 125 (56, 193) |

Table 3. Black Butte herd 10-year survey history

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | | | | | Total | Population Total | Ratios (90% CI) | |
|------|-------|------|------|-----|------|-------|-----|-------|------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| | | | CI | CII | CIII | CIIIB | CIV | | | Lambs | Rams |
| 2012 | 17 | 51 | 5 | 3 | 14 | 1 | 7 | 30 | 98 | | |
| 2013 | 12 | 54 | 1 | 8 | 15 | 1 | 3 | 28 | 94 | | |
| 2014 | 16 | 65 | 2 | 7 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 21 | 102 | | |
| 2015 | 17 | 67 | 11 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 27 | 111 | | |
| 2016 | 37 | 70 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 38 | 145 | | |
| 2017 | 38 | 97 | 9 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 7 | 38 | 210 | | |
| 2018 | 43 | 95 | 13 | 18 | 12 | 2 | 0 | 53 | 190 | | |
| 2019 | 52 | 94 | 22 | 27 | 17 | 2 | 2 | 55 | 202 | | |
| 2020 | 38 | 97 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 185 | | |
| 2021 | 65 | 148 | 6 | 26 | 31 | 5 | 2 | 89 | 301 | 44 (33, 55) | 60 (47, 73) |

Table 4. Mountain View and Wenaha herd 10-year survey history.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | | | | | Total | Population Total | Ratios (90% CI) | |
|------|-------|------|------|-----|------|-------|-----|-------|------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | | | CI | CII | CIII | CIIIB | CIV | | | Lambs | Rams |
| 2012 | 4 | 12 | 3 | 1 | 1 | | | 5 | 21 | 33 (2, 65) | 42 (5, 78) |
| 2013 | 3 | 12 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 0 | | 6 | 21 | 25 (0, 52) | 50 (9, 91) |
| 2014 | 2 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 22 | 16 (0, 38) | 50 (9, 91) |
| 2015 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 22 | 10 (0, 27) | 90 (17, 163) |
| 2016 | 0 | 17 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 26 | 0 (0, 0) | 53 (17, 89) |
| 2017 | 2 | 13 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 23 | 15 (0, 34) | 62 (16, 107) |
| 2018 | 3 | 14 | 2 | 1 | 1 | | | 4 | 21 | 21 (0, 44) | 29 (2, 55) |
| 2019 | 7 | 13 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 25 | 54 (12, 95) | 38 (5, 72) |
| 2020 | 6 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 2 | | | 3 | 20 | 55 (9, 100) | 27 (0, 56) |
| 2021 | 8 | 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | 3 | 25 | 57 (15, 99) | 21 (0, 44) |

Table 5. Tucannon herd 10-year survey history.

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Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 1

Hall Mountain and Vulcan Mountain

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Introduction

District 1 has two bighorn sheep populations, both resulting from reintroductions. Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were initially introduced to Hall Mountain in Pend Oreille County, Washington from Alberta, Canada in 1972 (Johnson, 1983). The founder herd included five rams and 13 ewes. In 1981, two additional ewes were translocated to Hall Mountain from Thompson Falls, Montana.

California bighorn sheep were introduced to the Vulcan Mountain area of northern Ferry County, Washington in 1971. Eight bighorn sheep, consisting of 2 rams and 6 ewes, were translocated from the Colockum State Wildlife Area to the U.S. Bureau of Land Management land near Little Vulcan Mountain.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

An earlier objective for the Hall Mountain herd was to maintain a population of 40-70 Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (WDFW, 2014). However, population objectives have recently been revised to reflect the updated mapping of suitable habitats. Short-term early winter herd objectives are between 25-35 animals.

The earlier long-term population goal for the Vulcan Mountain bighorn sheep herd was to maintain 80-110 animals on the available range. However, these population objectives have also recently been revised to reflect updated mapping of suitable habitats. Short-term early winter herd objectives for the Vulcan herd are from 70-90 animals. Long-term, we estimate that the Vulcan area could support 80-110 animals.

Population Surveys

No aerial surveys of the Hall Mountain herd were conducted by WDFW during 2020. However, ground surveys were conducted by the Kalispel Tribe in April and September 2020. The ground surveys yielded a minimum of ten sheep (five ewes, two lambs, two yearlings, one ram). Table 1 summarizes the maximum number of sheep observed during aerial surveys.

The Vulcan herd is surveyed annually with ground-based surveys conducted along an automobile route on county roads as well as from private and primitive roads. During the survey, biologists attempt to classify every detected bighorn sheep but recognize that the effort likely never results in a complete count, and classification is not possible for animals at extreme distances. In 2020, ground-based surveys were conducted in July, October, and November by WDFW, and an aerial survey was conducted over the winter by the Colville Tribe. Using the highest count for each classification, the number of bighorn sheep observed was 55 (18 ewes, eight lambs, 26 rams; Table 2).

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Counts of Hall Mountain bighorn sheep, 2001-2020.

Note: The last year of winter feeding was in 2003.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | Total* | Lambs: 100 Ewes: Rams |
|------|----------------------|------|------|---------|-----------------------|
| 2001 | 4 | 11 | 8 | 23 | 36 : 100 : 73 |
| 2002 | 7 | 13 | 4 | 24 | 54 : 100 : 31 |
| 2003 | - | - | - | No Data | No Data |
| 2004 | - | - | - | No Data | No Data |
| 2005 | 7 | 14 | 6 | 27 | 50: 100: 43 |
| 2006 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 19 | 71: 100: 100 |
| 2007 | 4 | 11 | 7 | 22 | 36: 100: 64 |
| 2008 | 9 | 16 | 4 | 29 | 56: 100:25 |
| 2009 | 5 | 14 | 4 | 23 | 36: 100: 29 |
| 2010 | 9 | 11 | 0 | 24 | 82: 100: 0 |
| 2011 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 15 | 56 : 100 : 11 * |
| 2012 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 12 | 33: 100: 67 |
| 2013 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 0: 100: 60 |
| 2014 | 3 | 7 | 11 | 21 | 43:100:157 |
| 2015 | No surveys conducted | | | | |
| 2016 | 0 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 0:100:160** |
| 2017 | 0 | 6 | 9 | 15 | 0:100:150 |
| 2018 | No surveys conducted | | | | |
| 2019 | 0 | 5 | 4 | 9 | 0:100:80 |
| 2020 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 40:100:20 |

* Total counts some years include unclassified bighorn sheep.

** Ground-based surveys conducted in spring before translocation of NBR sheep.

Table 2. Annual population composite counts of the Vulcan Mountain bighorn sheep, 2001-2020.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Yearling | --- Rams --- | | | Total* | Lambs:100 Ewes: Rams |
|--------|-------|------|----------------|--------------|-----------|----------|--------|----------------------|
| | | | | <3/4 curl | >3/4 curl | All rams | | |
| 2001 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 17 | 63 : 100 : 50 |
| 2002 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 9 | 22 | 63 : 100 : 113 |
| 2003 | 9 | 17 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 10 | 36 | 53 : 100 : 59 |
| 2004 | 9 | 20 | 5 | 7 | 5 | 17 | 46 | 45 : 100 : 85 |
| 2005 | 21 | 32 | 4 | 11 | 7 | 22 | 75 | 66 : 100 : 69 |
| 2006 | 10 | 24 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 13 | 47 | 42 : 100 : 54 |
| 2007 | 21 | 39 | 5 | 4 | 6 | 15 | 75 | 54 : 100 : 38 |
| 2008 | 19 | 42 | 5 | 8 | 5 | 18 | 79 | 45 : 100 : 43 |
| 2009 | 15 | 43 | 2 | 14 | 7 | 23 | 81 | 35 : 100 : 53 |
| 2010 | 9 | 24 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 19 | 52 | 38 : 100 : 79 |
| 2011** | 7 | 9 | - | - | - | 15 | 31 | 78 : 100 : 167 |
| 2012** | 4 | 9 | 1 | 3 | 9 | 13 | 26 | 44 : 100 : 144 |
| 2013 | 6 | 15 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 10 | 31 | 40 : 100 : 67 |
| 2014 | 7 | 19 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 36 | 37 : 100 : 37 |
| 2015 | 13 | 19 | 13 | 6 | 7 | 13 | 45 | 68 : 100 : 68 |
| 2016 | 11 | 26 | 5 [†] | 4 | 4 | 13 | 50 | 46 : 100 : 54 |
| 2017** | 10 | 26 | 1 | 6 | 12 | 19 | 55 | 38 : 100 : 73 |
| 2018 | 13 | 22 | 5 | 12 | 4 | 16 | 56 | 59 : 100 : 72 |
| 2019 | 8 | 23 | 0 | 7 | 6 | 13 | 44 | 35 : 100 : 57 |
| 2020 | 8 | 18 | 3 | 18 | 8 | 26 | 55 | 44: 100 : 144 |

* Total counts some years include unclassified bighorn sheep. **These counts were conducted by helicopter.

[†] All males.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Hall Mountain herd is open for the Rocky Mountain raffle permit hunt; however, there have been no bighorn sheep harvested there since 2010. Both general public hunters (state) and members of the Colville Confederated Tribes (CCT) hunt bighorn sheep within the Vulcan Mountain Unit. Department and Tribal biologists annually confer prior to developing their respective permit recommendations. There was no state permit allocated for 2020.

Table 3. Summary of State permit numbers and State hunter harvest of bighorn sheep from the Vulcan Mountain Unit, 2005-2020.

| Year | State | State Hunter Harvest |
|------|-------|----------------------|
| 2005 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2006 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2007 | 2 | 2 rams |
| 2008 | 3 | 1 ram, 2 ewes |
| 2009 | 4 | 1 ram, 3 ewes |
| 2010 | 4 | 1 ram, 3 ewes |
| 2011 | 2 | 1 ram |
| 2012 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2013 | 1 | None |
| 2014 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2015 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2016 | 1 | None |
| 2017 | 0 | None |
| 2018 | 0 | None |
| 2019 | 1 | 1 ram |
| 2020 | 0 | None |

Survival and Mortality

Predators that occur throughout the Hall Mountain herd area include coyotes, black bears, cougars, and gray wolves. Using a Kaplan-Meier survival estimator for the translocated Bison Range sheep, survival during their first year at Hall Mountain was estimated to be 0.50, and the cause of mortality was known for three sheep. Two of the translocated sheep were dispatched, as a precaution, by WDFW after they left the release site and had the potential to interact with domestic sheep and/or goats, and the third was attributed to a cougar. After censoring the two dispatched sheep from the analysis, the median survival during the first year at Hall Mountain for the remaining eight was 0.625. Because of the very low sample size, these estimates should be viewed cautiously, and no conclusions should be made about leading causes of mortality for the sheep at Hall Mountain.

Predators that occur throughout the Vulcan herd area include coyotes, black bears, cougars, and gray wolves. During 2019, one mortality (ewe) was documented among seven radio-collared sheep. The mortality was classified as unknown due to the amount of time that elapsed before being able to retrieve the collar.

Habitat

Northeastern Washington is densely forested, and the Hall Mountain bighorn sheep depend upon the steep terrain, open grasslands, and other scattered sub-alpine openings for forage and predator avoidance. Non-forested escape terrain is limited and fragmented within the range of the Hall Mountain herd, including Sullivan Mountain, Crowell Ridge, Gypsy Ridge, and Hall Mountain. Sheep migrating between these and other peaks and ridges must travel through valley bottoms and dense forests where vulnerability to predators may increase.

The U.S. Forest Service (USFS) owns most of the land within the range of the Hall Mountain herd. Consequently, there are no immediate threats to habitat quality and quantity. The USFS plans to actively manage portions of the winter range habitat with prescribed burns subject to funding (Suarez, 2001). In July and August of 2017, an approximately 4,000-acre fire burned portions of

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

the Hall Mountain bighorn sheep range. This fire may increase forage quality in the future for this herd; however, most of the trees within the sheep range were not affected by the fire. Currently, there are no domestic livestock grazing within the national forest area used by the Hall Mountain bighorn sheep.

Several projects to enhance the habitat for the Vulcan Mountain Bighorn Sheep have been carried out in recent years. These include broad-range weed control, selective logging, forage plant seeding, water source development, and temporary fencing at Moran Meadow to enhance controlled cattle grazing. Partners accomplishing these projects included several local private landowners, the Wild Sheep Foundation (WSF, formerly Foundation for North America Wild Sheep, FNAWS), Safari Club International (SCI), Inland Northwest Wildlife Council (INWC), USFS, Bureau of Land Management (BLM), and WDFW. One large-scale project was the completion of a BLM timber sale within the core sheep range in 2004. This helicopter-logging project was partially designed to improve predator avoidance for bighorn sheep by enhancing sight distances within the most densely forested portions of their range and to increase forage production (Doloughan, 2004). In addition, a forest health/thinning project occurred on DNR property above Moran Meadows. There are no domestic sheep grazing allotments within the Vulcan herd range.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

A winter feeding station was maintained for the Hall Mountain bighorn sheep for many years until it began attracting cougars, posing a risk to humans and an unnatural vulnerability for the sheep. Consequently, winter feeding was discontinued in 2003. More recently, there is concern about bighorn sheep straying beyond their traditional range and increasing the risk of contact with domestic sheep that could harbor *M. ovipneumoniae* (*M. ovi.*), a bacterium that causes pneumonia in bighorn sheep.

Population Augmentation

In March of 2016, ten short-yearling (born in spring 2015) bighorn sheep (eight ewes, two rams) were translocated from the National Bison Range in Montana to Hall Mountain. All sheep were fitted with GPS radio-collars, tested negative for *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* on both nasal swabs and serology, and released at the historic feeding station in the USFS Noisy Creek campground. Unfortunately, two of these translocated ewes moved into residential areas and had to be euthanized because of potential interaction with and transmission of pathogens from domestic sheep and/or goats. There is one collar still functioning and present on Hall Mountain at the time of this writing. Cooperators in this project included the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, the Kalispel Tribe, Pend Oreille Sportsman's Club, the Montana Department of Fish, Wildlife, and Parks, the Confederated Salish and Kootenai Tribes, and Global Wildlife Resources.

In January of 2017, eight sheep were translocated from the Cleman Mountain herd to the Vulcan herd area. All were fitted with GPS radio collars and released at Vulcan Mountain. As of this writing, four of the sheep are still alive and spend the majority of their time on Vulcan Mountain.

Research

In 2016, the Kalispel Tribe, WDFW, the US Forest Service, and the Pend Oreille Sportsman's Club began a collaborative research project at Hall Mountain. Objectives and corresponding updates of the study are as follows:

1. Estimate ewe and lamb abundance with the assistance of VHF telemetry during multiple helicopter flights.
 - a. Unfortunately, the helicopter vendor that is used (closest to Hall Mountain, affordable) has not outfitted their helicopters for aerial telemetry. Without this capability during surveys, observers were not able to locate sheep in real-time, and therefore the collars did not help biologists find additional sheep. Last collar locations were used to navigate to and survey for additional sheep, but in the heavily timbered environment, this proved moderately successful. As of this writing, there are two functioning collars left in the Hall Mountain herd.
2. Determine adult and lamb (up to one year) survival rates and, when possible cause-specific mortality of radio-collared adult sheep.
 - a. Adult survival could not be calculated because no resident sheep were captured on Hall Mountain.
 - b. Annual survival (first year after translocation) was calculated using a Kaplan-Meier survival estimator (see results in Survival section above).
3. Determine habitat use and movement patterns of Hall Mountain bighorn sheep using GPS locations of radio-collared individuals. Compare GPS locations from radio-collared sheep to the USFS habitat suitability model; determine the proportion of GPS locations that fall within the USFS model. Evaluate bighorn sheep movement and timing of movement between Hall Mountain (U.S. Selkirk Mountains) and the B.C. Selkirk Mountains.
 - a. The USFS bighorn sheep habitat prediction model seems to be accurate for the Hall Mountain population's range and is consistent with how sheep are using the landscape. Of the summer GPS collar locations for the NBR sheep, 326 of 444 (73%) fall within 200 m of the USFS predicted summer habitat. The BC ram that crossed into the US multiple times since 2018 was documented as far south as Gypsy Peak, but these visits to the US never lasted longer than a few days. Radio-collared sheep indicate that some Hall Mountain sheep move into the Gypsy Peak area/Salmo Priest wilderness in the summer while others remain on Hall Mountain. All collared sheep spend the winter on Hall Mountain.
4. Use DNA collected at bait/capture sites in Washington and BC to understand the genetic relatedness and diversity within the Hall Mountain sheep population. If genetic diversity is low, investigate the possibility of releasing Rocky Mountain bighorns from another herd to increase genetic diversity.
 - a. This has not been completed. We suspect that genetic diversity is not an issue since the influx of 10 new sheep from the NBR (2M and 8F).
5. Assess the general health of Hall Mountain and BC bighorn sheep. Conduct disease testing, pregnancy tests, check for external parasites, and determine body condition (via ultrasound).
 - a. Sheep at Hall Mountain never acclimated to the baiting site, and no captures were attempted. All NBR sheep and those collared in BC tested negative for *M. ovi*.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

In February 2016, WDFW, with assistance from Leading Edge Aviation, captured seven adult bighorn ewes at Vulcan Mountain. Six of the sheep were fitted with GPS radio collars and all the sheep were screened for pathogens and diseases of interest. In addition, eight radio-collared sheep were added to the Vulcan herd from the Cleman Mountain herd in 2017. Radio-collared ewes will be used to locate lambs and assess recruitment into the population. In addition, the collars will aid in finding sheep during any future helicopter surveys. The collars are starting to fail, and only a portion of them are reliably sending GPS locations.

Management Concerns

The growth of the Hall Mountain bighorn sheep herd appears to be limited, and the cause of this limitation seems to be habitat. The Hall Mountain bighorn herd is considered a clean herd by WDFW, meaning there are no documented cases of *M. ovipneumoniae*. However, recent collar data indicates this herd may wander farther than previously thought, and interactions with domestic sheep and goat herds are a concern. Winter surveys indicate this herd is very small, and the future of the herd is uncertain.

The Vulcan bighorn sheep population declined dramatically in the late 1990s, mainly as a result of complications from exceptionally high internal parasite loads. Domestic goats were known to share part of the Vulcan bighorn sheep range. Evidently, the parasite *Muellerius capillaris* using slugs and snails as intermediate hosts was able to jump from domestic goats to the bighorn sheep. Native bighorn sheep, having less natural resistance than domestic goats to *Muellerius capillaris*, likely succumbed to pneumonia that this parasite brings about (Hall, 2002). After 2001, the Vulcan herd appeared healthy and began producing lambs annually, suggesting that the overall health of the herd was acceptable. Nevertheless, we know of at least two small flocks of domestic sheep and goats near the periphery of the Vulcan range and are concerned about the potential for pathogen transmission from domestic sheep and goats to the Vulcan herd. These flocks have been tested for *M. ovipneumoniae* and are currently clean; however, if new animals enter the flocks, that status could change.

Management Conclusions

More intensive research could help the Department better understand the dynamics of the Hall Mountain herd and determine the future potential of sustaining and/or increasing this herd.

The decline observed in the Vulcan herd 2009-2012 was of considerable concern, but there is evidence (survey numbers) that the population has increased during the past few years. The minimum population count has nearly doubled since 2012. There are currently six radio-collared sheep in the Vulcan herd, and we hope to continue to use these animals for monitoring the status of this population.

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Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 1

Lincoln Cliffs

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Introduction

Bighorn sheep were reintroduced into the Lincoln Cliffs area in 1990. Sheep distribution was historically centered on the original 1990 release site, a parcel owned by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), just south of the town of Lincoln. This was an area jointly selected by WDFW and BLM as suitable habitat. The sheep now regularly occupy two main areas throughout the year: 1) the residential community of Lincoln and the cliffs above it, and 2) the cliffs around Whitestone Rock (about seven miles downriver from Lincoln). Bighorn sheep have also been observed frequently using the cliffs above Sterling Valley, the area between Lincoln and Whitestone. Agricultural fields above cliffs and in valley bottoms are also used regularly by the bighorns. Observations of bighorn sheep have been reported as far east as Porcupine Bay on the Spokane Arm of Lake Roosevelt and as far west as Banks Lake in Grant County.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The objective for the Lincoln Cliffs herd is to manage bighorn sheep numbers for a self-sustaining population capable of supporting both consumptive and non-consumptive recreation, while remaining within the local landowners' tolerance. The short-term objective for the Lincoln Cliffs herd is to maintain a population size of 100-120. This is likely the largest feasible herd size (and thus also the long-term objective) due to increasing landowner concerns and available habitat constraints.

Population Surveys

Aerial surveys have been the preferred method for surveying this herd due to the cliff habitat and lack of road access. Prior to 2002, aerial surveys were inconsistent due to limitations of funding and personnel. From 2002-2013, a concerted effort was made to conduct two aerial surveys per year, one in the spring to assess lamb production (Table 1), and one in late fall to assess ram numbers (Table 2). Review of that data showed that the fall flight produced greater ram and ewe counts 90% of the years and greater lamb count 50% of the time. Consequently, for staff safety and budgetary reasons it was decided to fly only the fall aerial survey beginning in 2014.

Minimum population estimates are based on the highest count of rams and ewes from all helicopter surveys in a given year (Figure 1). These surveys indicate the Lincoln Cliffs population experienced a period of steady growth 2007-2014, after which it has stabilized (Fig. 1). There was a decline in ewes in 2005 followed by a decline of rams in 2006. The decline in rams also followed three consecutive years of two rams being removed, a result of the auction and raffle permit holders selecting the Lincoln herd to hunt. The ram population rebounded immediately after 2006 and had, until 2013, remained fairly stable at around 20 animals. In 2014, 38 rams were observed during aerial surveys, which was the largest number since regular surveys began in 2002. In particular, the number of younger ($\frac{1}{4}$ - and $\frac{1}{2}$ -curl) age classes showed a considerable increase. The total

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

number of bighorns observed on the 2019 flight, including lambs, was 95 (26 rams, 45 ewes, 23 lambs, one unknown). No aerial survey was conducted in 2020 due to COVID-19.

Table 1. Lincoln cliffs herd lamb ratios. *2014-2019 data are from fall aerial survey, prior to 2014 data are from spring aerial survey. No aerial survey was conducted in 2020.

| Year | Ewes | Lambs | Lambs :100 Ewe | Lower 90% CI | Upper 90% CI |
|-------|------|-------|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| 2010 | 37 | 16 | 43 | 22 | 64 |
| 2011 | 34 | 11 | 32 | 14 | 50 |
| 2012 | 37 | 12 | 32 | 14 | 50 |
| 2013 | 34 | 18 | 53 | 28 | 78 |
| 2014* | 49 | 7 | 14 | 5 | 23 |
| 2015* | 39 | 24 | 62 | 36 | 88 |
| 2016* | 47 | 31 | 66 | 41 | 91 |
| 2017* | 48 | 22 | 46 | 27 | 65 |
| 2018* | 49 | 19 | 39 | 22 | 56 |
| 2019* | 45 | 23 | 51 | 29 | 73 |

Table 2. Lincoln cliffs herd ram ratios from fall aerial surveys.

| Year | Ewes | Rams | Rams :100 Ewe | Lower 90% CI | Upper 90% CI |
|------|------|------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| 2010 | 41 | 16 | 39 | 20 | 58 |
| 2011 | 42 | 26 | 62 | 37 | 87 |
| 2012 | 49 | 21 | 43 | 25 | 61 |
| 2013 | 55 | 32 | 58 | 37 | 79 |
| 2014 | 49 | 38 | 78 | 50 | 106 |
| 2015 | 39 | 29 | 74 | 44 | 104 |
| 2016 | 47 | 29 | 62 | 38 | 86 |
| 2017 | 48 | 25 | 52 | 31 | 73 |
| 2018 | 49 | 20 | 41 | 23 | 59 |
| 2019 | 45 | 26 | 58 | 35 | 81 |

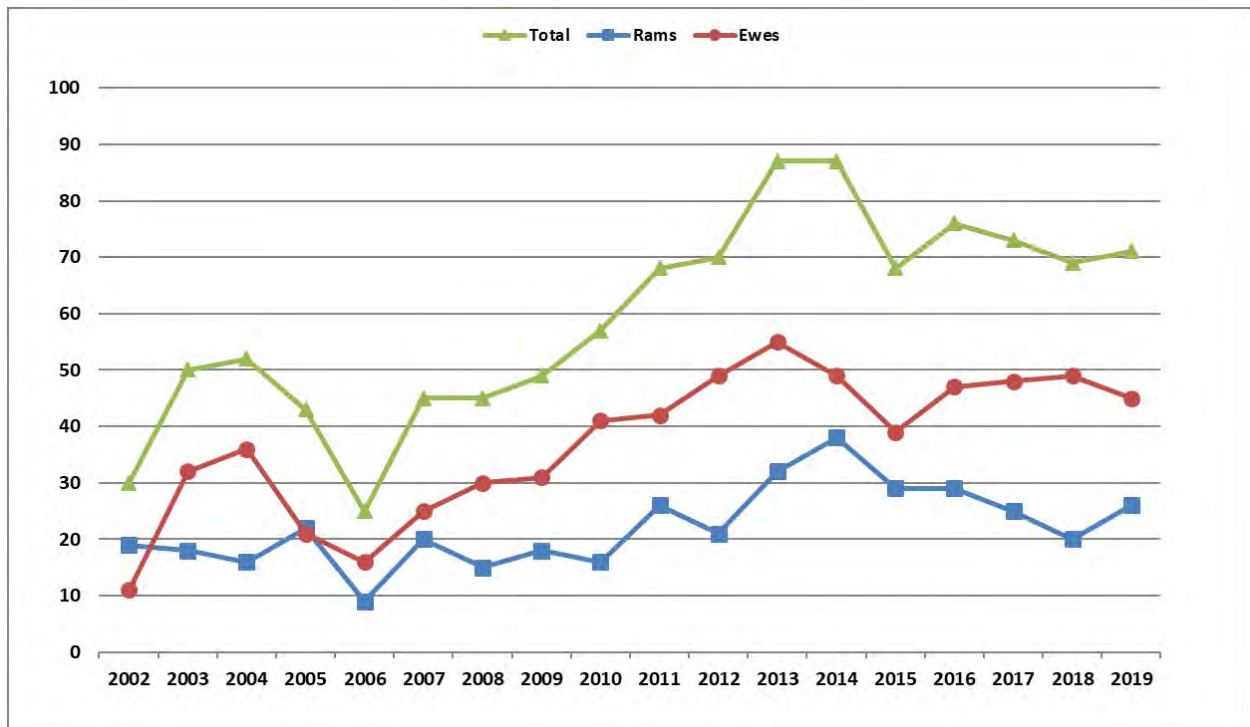


Figure 1. Lincoln Cliffs minimum population estimate by sex for 2002-2019. Shown are the maximum count from all helicopter surveys conducted each year, beginning in 2002, the year regular helicopter surveys were initiated. No aerial survey was conducted in 2020.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Herd composition results from the aerial surveys have varied from 39 to 78 rams per 100 ewes over the last 10 years (Table 2). The lambs per 100 ewe ratios has remained relatively stable, although yearly 90% confidence intervals are large (Table 1). The exception was in 2014, when concerns were raised as only seven lambs were located during the fall aerial survey, all in the Whitestone area. This confirmed what had been reported from public ground observations of the Lincoln group. The cause for this one-off year is unknown; testing during the 2015 capture (see research section below) indicate that *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* was not present in this population.

Ground counts are conducted whenever possible to supplement the aerial surveys; however, these are often very limited due to terrain and limited access to private property. Ground counts for ewes and lambs have been relatively easy to obtain in the Lincoln group, but less so for the Whitestone group. Ram counts in both areas have proven largely unsuccessful from the ground. Ground counts were conducted regularly during the spring and summer of 2015 and occasionally in 2016-2019 to monitor lamb production and survival. Lamb counts have indicated the recruitment failure of the Lincoln sub-herd in 2014 was a singular event. Residents in Lincoln have also been very helpful in reporting counts and other observations of this group.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

One ram permit for this herd was offered each year from 1997-2013. In addition to the annual permit, the statewide 2003 and 2005 auction winners and the 2004 raffle winner all selected Lincoln Cliffs to harvest their rams. Lincoln Cliffs herd was closed to the raffle and auction winners from 2006-2014, in 2015-2017 it was open but none of the winners chose to hunt in this herd. In 2014, based on ram numbers and population size, general draw ram permits were increased to two. Ewe hunts were introduced in 2018, with one permit available for the Lincoln sub-herd and one for the Whitestone sub-herd. This was reduced to one ewe permit, for the Whitestone sub-herd only, in 2020.

Ram permittees have spent an average of 5 days hunting per kill; however, days hunted has varied widely from one to 14 days. The area is almost entirely composed of private property and days/kill often reflects how much time was spent prior to the hunt gathering permission to access the local properties. Hunter success has been 100% for this hunt, which had 2,372 applicants in 2020. However, neither ram permittee reported in 2020, although one ram is known to have been harvested, and the ewe permittee was unsuccessful in 2020 after one day of hunting.

Survival and Mortality

Since 1997, 57 known sheep mortalities (42 rams, 15 ewes) have been documented in this herd: 34 from hunting, two from vehicle collisions, seven from cougar predation, and 14 from unknown causes. One non-hunting mortality, a ewe suspected to have fallen, was reported in May 2020. Prior to this, the last reported non-hunting mortality occurred in May 2017, when residents witnessed two cougars chase a ewe off a cliff in Sterling Valley. Frequent cougar activity was reported in Lincoln during the spring and summer of 2018, spring of 2019, and fall of 2020. It is unknown if lamb and/or adult survival were affected, however we suspect that the 2014 lamb crop failure in the Lincoln sub-herd was caused by cougar predation.

Habitat

Habitat within the range of the Lincoln Cliffs bighorn sheep is primarily private land. Where intact, it includes sparse ponderosa pine, bunchgrasses, forbs, shrubs, and rock outcrops. The cliffs along the bank of Lake Roosevelt provide escape terrain and lambing areas. The flats above the cliffs are mainly dry land agricultural fields such as wheat and barley. Fields used by the sheep adjacent to roads in valley bottoms contain irrigated alfalfa and other crops. Much of the area has been broken into small parcels and developed, and landscaped residential areas are frequented by the sheep.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Damage complaints related to bighorns occur in both the Lincoln and Whitestone areas. With the growth of this herd, agricultural activities adjacent to escape terrain, and recent drought conditions, some local producers experience significant seasonal damage to crops such as winter wheat and alfalfa. WDFW staff and Master Hunters were used periodically in 2014 to haze sheep from fields with little success. Ewe permits were also issued for the first time in 2018 to help address the growing concern.

Growth in the local human population and associated construction of new housing continue to be a concern in Lincoln. The Lincoln group of sheep spends substantial amounts of time near residences, so this may become an issue in the future if landowner tolerance changes. At the request of some residents, WDFW worked with the Wild Sheep Foundation to investigate the feasibility of installing sheep crossing signs in Lincoln, where roads are driven frequently by visitors and risk of collision is significant. This action did not move forward due to liability concerns by the county.

Population Augmentation

The Lincoln Cliffs population was started with an introduction of 11 ‘California’ bighorns from Northwest Trek in December 1990. Three additional sheep from Vulcan Mountain were released in March 1991 and 5 from Kamloops, British Columbia in 1996. The population showed a steady increase over the following years, and reportedly peaked at around 100 animals in June 1998 (personal communication, J. Hickman). As a result of such growth, the herd was used to augment other populations in the state from 1999-2001. Sixteen ewes and 1 ram lamb were translocated to Lake Chelan, and 11 ewes were captured and released on Cleman Mountain. Aerial and ground surveys in 2002 indicated that population was not recovering from the removal of ewes. As a result, 15 sheep were translocated from Nevada to the Lincoln Cliffs and Whitestone areas in January 2003 (12 ewes, 1 ram, and 2 lambs). There have been no augmentations to this population since 2003.

Research

In February 2015, 10 sheep (8 ewes and 2 rams) were captured and fitted with GPS-enabled radio collars. Animals captured in 2015 were in overall good condition, with moderate to good body fat levels, low parasite loads, and no scabies infestations. With concern over poor lamb recruitment in 2014, all animals were also tested for *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* (*M. ovi*) exposure and active infection. *M. ovi*, a respiratory pathogen that predisposes wild sheep to pneumonia, is associated with domestic sheep or goat contact. An outbreak can cause high lamb mortality and persist in populations for decades. All bighorns captured in 2015 tested negative for *M. ovi*. Radio collars

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

deployed in this capture aided in location of sheep during lamb monitoring and during aerial surveys. In addition, the GPS data collected from the collars provided insight into the movements and habitat use of the ewes and rams in the Lincoln and Whitestone groups. There appears to be little to no interaction between ewes in the Lincoln and Whitestone groups, although the rams showed regular movement between the two areas (Figure 2). None of the collared sheep went on any large forays out of the known use area during their collar lifetime.

To date, one known mortality has occurred for the 10 sheep that were radio-collared in the February 2015 capture. This ewe was killed by a cougar in September 2015, though later testing indicated she had contracted the bluetongue virus and was in poor condition. One ewe's collar battery failed before the end of May 2015; this collar was an older collar redeployed on this capture. Though the collar's GPS and VHF are no longer functioning, the ewe has been seen on subsequent survey flights. One ewe that was marked only with an ear-tag was also seen on the 2015 and 2016 flights. Additionally, one ram collar stopped its GPS transmittal in March 2016; the fate of that ram is unknown as it was not seen, or the VHF heard on any subsequent aerial or ground surveys. All remaining collars in this herd have now stopped transmitting; the remaining ewe collars failed during the fall of 2017, and the ram collar failed in August 2018. Although not transmitting, six collared ewes and one collared ram were observed during the 2019 survey flight. Three collared ewes and one collared ram were observed from the ground in Lincoln during the winter of 2020.

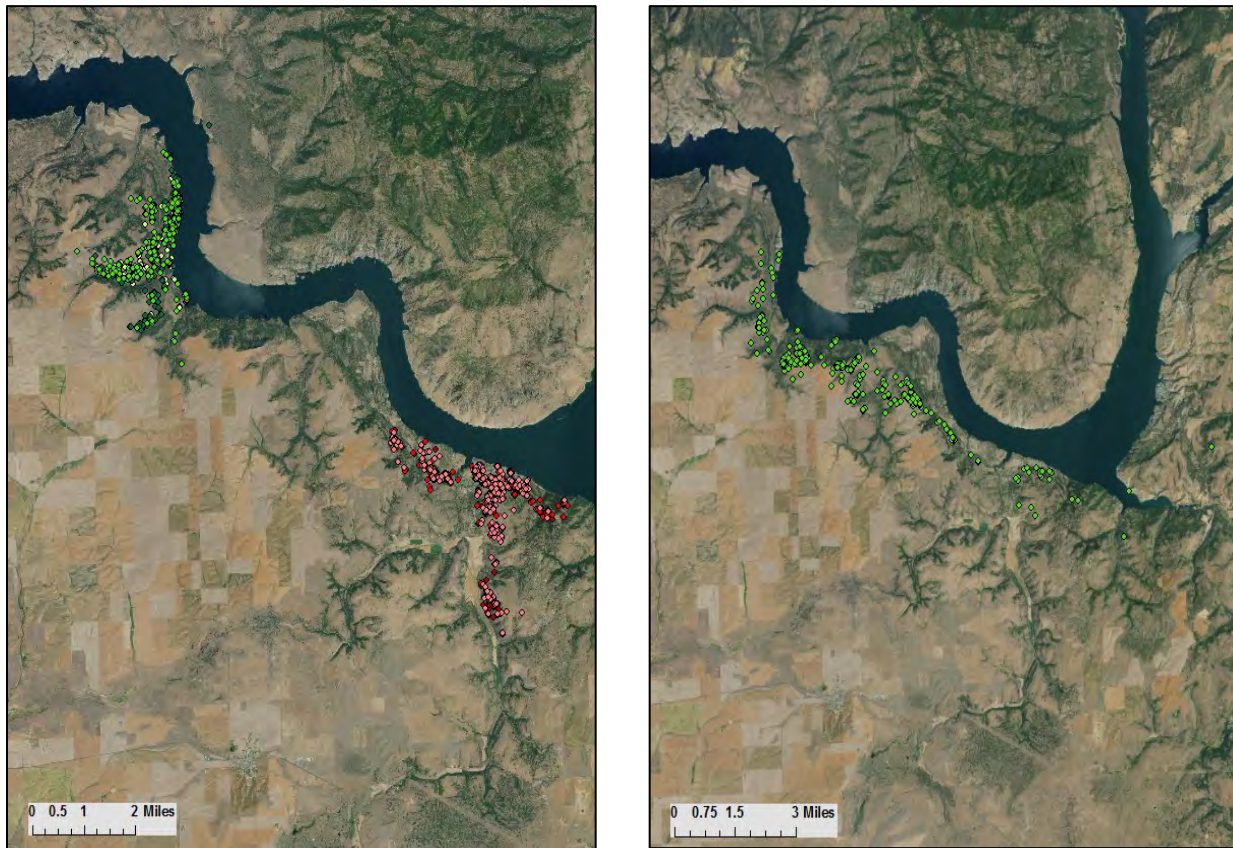


Figure 2. Left-hand panel: Radio locations for 6 Lincoln Cliffs bighorn ewes August 2016-July 2017. Whitestone ewes (3) are in green; Lincoln ewes (3) are in red. Right-hand panel: Radio locations for Whitestone ram August 2016-July 2017 in green.

Management Concerns

Though the Lincoln Cliffs herd is considered “clean,” (i.e., there have been no documented cases of *M. ovi.*) disease continues to be a concern, given the proximity to rural private lands. This is important should it ever be considered as a source population to augment failing herds in Washington. In addition, there are over 200 bighorn sheep on the Hellgate Game Reserve, located across Lake Roosevelt within the Colville Reservation boundaries. In 2015, an ear-tagged ewe was observed in Lincoln from the Hellgate population. And in 2019, the remains of an ear-tagged ewe translocated from Tieton to Hellgate in 2010 was found in the Lincoln Cliffs, indicating that movement between the two populations occurs at least occasionally. Thus, a pneumonia outbreak in either could affect both populations.

There are no known large domestic sheep or goat operations in the range of the Lincoln Cliffs bighorns at this time. With increased residential development in the area there is potential for contact with domestic sheep or goats via 4-H and small-scale hobby farms, though none of these were identified during this reporting period. In past years, information regarding the potential of disease interactions between domestic sheep and goats with bighorns was provided to the local 4-H extension for inclusion in the newsletter. Outreach to small farm operations, new residents, and local organizations should continue in order to minimize risk of outbreak. GPS collar data has allowed WDFW to better delineate the herd’s home range and movements, and thus where to target education and outreach efforts regarding these threats.

Management Conclusions

The Lincoln Cliffs herd is estimated to be near the stated goal of 100-120 animals for this population if lambs are included. Given the expansion of this herd to Whitestone Rock, regular use of Sterling Valley, and the addition of GPS marked individuals, available habitat should be reviewed for this herd. Lincoln Cliffs sheep are living primarily on private land, both in the residential area of Lincoln and the agricultural fields above Whitestone. As Lincoln continues to be split into smaller parcels and developed, and the sheep consume agricultural crops, there is an increasing need to explore tools to address damage.

In early 2016, WDFW staff held a public meeting in Lincoln to update residents on current management and listen to concerns and ideas regarding future management of this herd. Outreach to residents and local producers should continue as management decisions are considered. The addition of a limited ewe hunt was proposed to the public as part of the 2018-2020 hunting season setting process. The proposal was supported, and two ewe permits were issued for the first time for the 2018 season, one in the Lincoln sub-herd and one in the Whitestone sub-herd. Two ewe permits were issued again for the 2019 season. In 2020 this was reduced to one permit, in the Whitestone sub-herd.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 2

Mt. Hull and Sinlahekin

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Management Guidelines and Objectives

Mt. Hull Herd

The overall objective for the Mt. Hull herd is to maintain the current, self-sustaining population of around 100 animals that can support both hunting and wildlife viewing opportunities, while remaining within the capability of the limited land base to support it. The short-term management priority is to monitor the current *M. ovi* pneumonia outbreak and its effect on herd demographics. Efforts to minimize contact with domestic sheep and goats and reduce agricultural damage and associated roadkill continue.

Sinlahekin Herd

The overall objective for the Sinlahekin herd is to increase bighorn sheep numbers to at least 50-80 animals capable of supporting both hunting and wildlife viewing opportunities. A current management priority is improving the monitoring of herd demographics and assessing the effects of the ectoparasitic mite *Psoroptes ovis* on the herd.

Population Surveys

Population surveys are generally conducted annually to determine composition and trend on both the Mt. Hull and Sinlahekin herds (Tables 2 & 3). The surveys are conducted in late fall or winter and consist of helicopter and/or ground count efforts. An attempt is made to classify all sheep in each herd. Although a complete count is generally not achieved the result represents a minimum count from which a population estimate is generated.

Mt. Hull Herd

Biologists from the Confederated Tribes of the Colville Reservation (co-managers) conducted an aerial survey of the Mt. Hull Unit in 2020 classifying 92 sheep (50 ewes, 5 lambs, 37 rams). This yielded a lamb:ewe:ram ratio of 10:100:74 (Table 2).

Sinlahekin Herd

WDFW biologists conducted a ground survey of the Sinlahekin Unit in December 2020 classifying 24 sheep (11 ewes, 5 lambs, 8 rams). This yielded a lamb:ewe:ram ratio of 45:100:73 (Table 3).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Mt. Hull Herd

Permits are split between the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) and the Confederated Tribes of the Colville Reservation (CTCR). Table 1 shows permit levels and harvest

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

success during 2010-2020. Since 2019, WDFW and the CTCR did not issue any harvest permits due to the discovery of pneumonia in the herd and the unknown population affects.

Sinlahekin Herd

In past years, herd demographics supported the issuance of one ram permit annually from 2010 through 2012, and hunters successfully filled all permits. Since then, herd demographics have not met management guidelines for harvest. If herd demographics improve and meet management guidelines opportunities for harvest will again be considered.

Table 1. Summary of harvest information for bighorn sheep in the Mt. Hull Unit.

| Year | WDFW Permits | WDFW Harvest | CCT^a Permits | CCT^a Harvest |
|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 2010 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | 0 ram 2 ewe |
| 2011 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 ram 1 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | 1 ram 1 ewe |
| 2012 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | 0 ram * ewe |
| 2013 | 2 ram 2 ewe | 2 ram 1 ewe | 2 any 2 ewe | 0 ram 1 ewe |
| 2014 | 5 ram 2 ewe | 5 ram 2 ewe | 2 any 2 ewe | 2 ram * ewe |
| 2015 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 ram 1 ewe | 4 any 2 ewe | 3 ram 0 ewe |
| 2016 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 0 ram 1 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | 1 ram *ewe |
| 2017 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 ram 2 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | 1 ram * ewe |
| 2018 | 1 ram 2 ewe | 0 ram 1 ewe | 1 any 2 ewe | * ram * ewe |
| 2019 | No permits issued | | | |
| 2020 | No permits issued | | | |

^aCCT=Colville Confederated Tribes * Not Reported

Survival and Mortality

Mt. Hull Herd

Observational data suggests that the Mt. Hull herd grew steadily following initial reintroduction in 1970 until the herd size reached around 100 animals by the 1990s. Since then, the population has fluctuated in response to fires, weather and other factors but generally remained around 100 sheep. In 2001, WDFW augmented the herd with eight ewes and three rams from the Cleman Mountain herd. Additional augmentation occurred in 2003 with five animals from John Day, Oregon. Augmentation efforts are primarily designed to maintain genetic diversity. Population growth is achieved largely through natural production.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2. Population composition counts from the Mt Hull area. <math><3/4</math> = less than 3/4 curl rams, $\geq 3/4$ = greater than or equal to 3/4 curl rams, and L:100:R is lambs (L) and rams (R) per 100 ewes (100).

| Year | Lamb s | Ewes | Rams | | | Unknown | Count Total | Population Estimate | L:100:R |
|------|-----------|------|-------------------|------------|-------|---------|----------------|------------------------|------------|
| | | | <math><3/4</math> | $\geq 3/4$ | Total | | | | |
| 2000 | 21 | 30 | 9 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 60 | 60-65 | 70:100:30 |
| 2001 | 10 | 30 | 15 | 4 | 19 | 0 | 59 | 60-70 | 33:100:63 |
| 2002 | 11 | 40 | 6 | 4 | 10 | 0 | 61 | 65-70 | 28:100:25 |
| 2003 | 20 | 39 | 9 | 12 | 21 | 0 | 80 | 80-90 | 51:100:54 |
| 2004 | 9 | 32 | 7 | 10 | 17 | 0 | 58 | 70-90 | 28:100:53 |
| 2005 | 16 | 48 | 16 | 10 | 16 | 0 | 90 | 90-100 | 60:100:33 |
| 2006 | 8 | 40 | 25 | 5 | 30 | 0 | 77 | 100+ | 20:100:75 |
| 2007 | 13 | 54 | 17 | 6 | 23 | 0 | 90 | 100+ | 24:100:43 |
| 2008 | 18 | 52 | 20 | 13 | 33 | 0 | 103 | 110-120 | 35:100:63 |
| 2009 | 17 | 58 | 11 | 10 | 21 | 0 | 96 | 100+ | 36:100:29 |
| 2010 | 19 | 43 | 6 | 3 | 9 | 0 | 71 | 80-100 | 44:100:21 |
| 2011 | 8 | 38 | 13 | 18 | 31 | 0 | 77 | 80-100 | 21:100:82 |
| 2012 | 8 | 38 | 26 | 17 | 43 | 0 | 89 | 90-100 | 21:100:113 |
| 2013 | 12 | 50 | 17 | 8 | 25 | 3 | 90 | 90-100 | 24:100:50 |
| 2014 | 28 | 52 | 27 | 12 | 39 | 9 | 128 | 130-135 | 54:100:75 |
| 2015 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2016 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2017 | 13 | 48 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 4 | 72 | 80-90 | 27:100:15 |
| 2018 | 6 | 26 | 8 | 6 | 14 | 0 | 46 | -- | 23:100:54 |
| 2019 | 11 | 42 | 15 | 2 | 17 | 0 | 70 | 70-80 | 26:100:40 |
| 2020 | 5 | 50 | 22 | 9 | 37 | 0 | 92 | 100+ | 10:100:74 |

When herd size surpassed 100 animals in the mid-2000s, roadkill became an issue as sheep regularly began crossing state highway 97 to forage on irrigated agriculture. In response, WDFW and the Colville Confederated Tribes established some ewe permits and translocated some sheep from Mt Hull to the Hell's Gate herd on the Colville Reservation in an effort to stabilize the Mt Hull herd size. These actions in conjunction with some private land management changes have significantly reduced roadkill occurrence.

In February 2019, *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* (*M. ovi*) was discovered in a dead ram within the Mt. Hull herd. *M. ovi* is the bacterium that triggers pneumonia outbreaks in wild sheep. Five bighorn sheep (4 rams and 1 ewe) were sampled with all testing positive for *M. ovi*. In July 2021 a male lamb tested positive for *M. ovi* confirming the bacterium is still in the herd. Monitoring of the herd has not shown an extensive die off to date; however, the *M. ovi* outbreak continues both in the Mt Hull herd and in connected herds to the north in Canada.

Sinlahekin Herd

Initially, the herd grew rapidly following reintroduction in 1957. High productivity and continued expansion allowed for translocation of sheep to other ranges in Washington. During the 1990s, the population declined, incurring particularly heavy losses during the winter of 1992-93. In 2003, WDFW augmented the Sinlahekin herd with ten animals to improve genetic diversity and bolster production. Post-augmentation the herd expanded its range and grew steadily through 2011.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

During a 2011 capture effort, Psoroptic mange was discovered in the Sinlahekin herd, and a similar Psoroptic outbreak was documented to the north in adjacent Canadian herds. In 2012, surveys detected poor lamb production and a dramatic decrease in the population, with Psoroptic mange likely a significant contributing factor in the decline. Similar trends were documented in the connected Canadian population. Since 2012, herd size has fluctuated up and down, but not returned to pre-Psoroptes levels. Other potential mortality factors such as *M. ovi* or heavy predation have not been detected in the Sinlahekin, but the heavy Psoroptes infestation is still widespread in the herd and remains the leading candidate to explain the stagnated herd demographics.

Table 3. Population composition counts from the Sinlahekin area. <3/4 = less than 3/4 curl rams, >3/4 = greater than 3/4 curl rams, and L:100:R is lambs (L) and rams (R) per 100 ewes (100).

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Rams | | | Unknown | Count Total | Population Estimate | L:100:R |
|------|-------|------|------|------|-------|---------|-------------|---------------------|-----------|
| | | | <3/4 | >3/4 | Total | | | | |
| 2000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 14 | 20-30 | -- |
| 2001 | 6 | 16 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 29 | 30-35 | 38:100:25 |
| 2002 | 8 | 20 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 34 | 35-40 | 40:100:30 |
| 2003 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2004 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2005 | 2 | 13 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 20 | 30-40 | 15:100:38 |
| 2006 | 3 | 24 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 32 | 35-40 | 12:100:21 |
| 2007 | 2 | 37 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 0 | 51 | 50-60 | 15:100:32 |
| 2008 | 7 | 21 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 0 | 33 | 35-40 | 33:100:24 |
| 2009 | 15 | 48 | 14 | 9 | 23 | 0 | 86 | 90-95 | 31:100:48 |
| 2010 | 15 | 31 | 9 | 5 | 14 | 7 | 67 | 70-90 | 48:100:45 |
| 2011 | 4 | 55 | 18 | 5 | 23 | 0 | 82 | 90-95 | 7:100:42 |
| 2012 | 2 | 15 | 2 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 26 | 30-35 | 13:100:60 |
| 2013 | 4 | 29 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 38 | 40-45 | 14:100:17 |
| 2014 | 7 | 16 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 27 | 30-35 | 44:100:25 |
| 2015 | 11 | 41 | 8 | 3 | 11 | 0 | 63 | 65-70 | 27:100:27 |
| 2016 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2017 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 7 | 5 | 22 | -- | 21:100:50 |
| 2018 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2019 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2020 | 5 | 11 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 0 | 24 | 25-30 | 45:100:73 |

Habitat

Mt. Hull Herd

The Mt. Hull range has generally remained in good shape. The Rocky Hull fire in 2000 rejuvenated a large portion of the area, but noxious weeds and conifer encroachment remain a concern. In 2020, the US Forest Service Tonasket Ranger District began aggressively addressing these issues by thinning 704 acres of conifer forest. Additional conifer removal and noxious weed treatments are planned.

Radio collar telemetry data indicates that the current landscape supports functional connectivity between the Mt. Hull herd and the bighorn sheep herd at Omak Lake to the south and the Vaseux Lake herd in British Columbia, Canada to the north. DNA testing of the Omak Lake herd indicated all animals tested but one is genetically linked to the Sinlahekin herd. The one remaining individual

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

was genetically linked to the Mt. Hull herd. This connectivity may increase genetic mixing but may also increase the chances of disease transmission between these herds.

Sinlahekin Herd

In the second half of the twentieth century, fires suppression and associated conifer encroachment reduced the quality and quantity of bighorn sheep habitat, and sheep expanded their occupied range in response. In this century, both prescribed burning and wildfires in combination with aggressive weed control efforts have reversed this trend and are improving habitat conditions, particularly on WDFW managed lands. However, much of the sheep foraging habitat for the Sinlahekin herd is not under WDFW control. The WADNR and US BLM maintain extensive cattle grazing in sheep range, and most of the adjacent private land is intensively grazed. These pressures are likely to continue.

An additional threat to both the Mt. Hull and Sinlahekin herds is the presence of domestic sheep and goats within and adjacent to their range. Wild sheep are often in close proximity to these domestic herds. This interaction may lead to the transfer of disease into these bighorn sheep herds, especially *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae*, the bacterial pathogen associated with bighorn die-offs. WDFW biologists work to encourage holders of small herds of sheep and goats to minimize risk to bighorns whenever possible.

Management Conclusions

Mt. Hull Herd

Reducing the risk of contact between domestics and bighorns, improving range conditions, and reducing agricultural damage and road kills are all needed for the viability and health of the Mt. Hull herd. Domestic sheep and goats are in close proximity to the Mt. Hull bighorns and may have led to the current *M. ovi* outbreak. Having these domestic herds *M. ovi* free would reduce the risk of further disease transmission. The proposed range improvements on USFS lands should help reinvigorate range quality. WDFW supports these efforts and continues to work on improving habitat and reducing the factors associated with vehicle collisions and agricultural damage.

Sinlahekin Herd

Even with extensive habitat improvements within the Sinlahekin Wildlife Area and the rejuvenating effects of the Okanogan Complex Fire the herd has not seemed to recover from the declines since 2012. Improved survey accuracy, maintaining separation between bighorn sheep and domestic sheep and goats and understanding the effects of the Psoroptes mites are the current management priorities.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 2

Swakane, Chelan Butte, Manson

DEVON COMSTOCK, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Three herds of ‘California’ bighorn sheep are found in Chelan County. The Swakane herd was established in 1969 with the translocation of nine bighorn sheep from the Colockum herd (which, in turn, were descended from animals brought from near Williams Lake, British Columbia). Between 1999-2001, 47 sheep from multiple Washington herds and 21 sheep from British Columbia were reintroduced to the north shore of Lake Chelan to establish the Manson herd. Most recently, in 2004, 35 bighorn sheep from the Cleman herd were reintroduced to establish the Chelan Butte herd. In addition, bighorn sheep from the Quilomene herd use areas in Chelan County by Tarpiscan Creek and along Jumpoff Ridge.

Management objectives for the Wenatchee District are: (1) increase the size and range of existing populations; (2) ensure genetic health by augmenting existing populations with bighorns from other areas; (3) minimize risk of disease from domestic sheep grazing allotments on public land, and provide information to the public about the importance of separating wild and domestic sheep; (4) reintroduce bighorn sheep into suitable unoccupied historic habitat within the District; and (5) provide recreational opportunities.

The short-term objective for the Swakane herd is to maintain a population size of 130-170 animals; long-term, WDFW estimates the habitat can support 150-180 animals (WDFW, 2014). The short-term objective for the Manson herd is 100-120 sheep, while the long-term objective estimates that the available habitat could support up to 200 sheep. The Chelan Butte herd has expanded from an original release of 35 in 2004, to a current estimate of over 150 bighorns. Although habitat analysis (Musser and Dauer, 2003) suggests sufficient habitat exists for a population of 195-390 sheep in the area currently occupied by the Chelan Butte herd, concerns regarding possible movement of animals out of their core range into areas where they may encounter domestic sheep or goats have led WDFW to propose an objective of 150-170 bighorns (WDFW, 2014).

Population Surveys

Prior to 2009, herd population data was collected primarily from incidental reports from WDFW personnel, permit hunters, public sightings, and occasionally aerial and ground surveys during the spring and rut periods. All three herds were surveyed in 2009 and uncorrected minimum counts were produced. In March of 2009, 12 sheep were outfitted with telemetry collars in both the Swakane and Manson herds (18 ewes and six rams). VHF collars were placed on 12 ewes and four rams, and GPS collars were placed on six ewes and two rams. These collars improved our ability to locate sheep during ground and aerial surveys, improving survey data, population estimates, and knowledge of home range and habitat use. In 2014, an additional 13 bighorns were outfitted with GPS telemetry collars in the Manson herd to continue monitoring efforts. In November 2018, the Manson herd was surveyed by helicopter by WDFW personnel, and the Chelan PUD conducted seven surveys by boat over the 2018/19 winter (Pope & Cordell, 2019). Between 2010-2018 the Swakane and Chelan Butte herds were typically surveyed annually during fall ground counts.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Ground counts for both these herds follow vehicle-accessible routes along public highways, county roads, and unimproved roads. However, due to topographic relief and the limits of optics, these ground counts certainly underestimate herd sizes. In fall 2019, WDFW conducted aerial surveys of the Swakane and Chelan Butte herds. Due to COVID-19 limitations, fall ground surveys were conducted for all three herds in 2020, however counts were too low in both Chelan and Manson herds to calculate ratios (< 100 animals observed). Minimum ground counts for the Swakane herd found 154 animals and lamb:ewe ratios were 44:100. Starting in 2021, staff will be conducting a census of each herd from a helicopter every three years.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

In 1999, the first ram permit was offered for the Swakane herd, followed by one permit per year from 2000-2015, increasing to two in 2016. Additional Swakane harvests occurred in 2009 and 2016 by statewide auction tag winners (Table 1a). Beginning in 2018, the Yakama Nation offered two ram tags for the Swakane herd. All hunters have been successful at killing a mature ram ($\geq 3/4$ curl). No bighorn permit was offered in the Swakane in 2009 due to the high number of vehicle collision mortalities along Hwy 97A in 2008. Highway mortalities were significantly reduced with the construction of a wildlife fence along Hwy 97A. A drawing permit for the harvest of one bighorn ram was reinstated for the 2010 hunting season. Currently, the bighorn season in the Swakane runs September 15-October 10. Two drawing permits for rams in the Swakane herd will be offered in 2021.

Two permits per year have been offered in the Manson unit since the hunt began in 2005. Both auction tag holders and raffle tag holders regularly harvest rams from the Manson herd (Table 1b). There will be two drawing permits offered for the Manson herd along the north shore of Lake Chelan for 2021.

The Chelan Butte herd was hunted for the first time in 2010, with hunters harvesting mature rams in each year since (Table 1c). Aerial and ground surveys of the area have confirmed an increasing herd. A second drawing permit for hunters with disabilities was offered in 2015. WDFW is offering four adult ram tags as well as four ewe permits in 2021. Hunters with disabilities will also have the opportunity to draw for five permits, three for bighorn ewes, and two for juvenile rams. Raffle tag winners often harvest additional rams from Chelan Butte.

Survival and Mortality

From 1996 to 2000, the Swakane bighorn population increased slowly. In 2001, the population was estimated at 51 sheep, representing a 46% increase from the 1992-2000 average. The increased count in 2001 resulted after Swakane bands increased use of the cliffs and breaks along the Columbia River and Hwy 97A, allowing for better monitoring. The proliferation of residential developments and their associated ornamental plantings along the west shore of the Rocky Reach pool may have enticed bighorns to cross Hwy 97A with increasing frequency. For over 30 years, no bighorn mortalities had been attributed to vehicle collisions. However, beginning in 2002, the number of bighorn sheep being killed by vehicles rose steadily with numerous sheep being killed on Hwy 97A. In response to these events, multiple agencies and conservation groups, including Washington Department of Transportation (WSDOT), State Patrol, WDFW, and the Wenatchee Sportsmen's Association convened a working group to address deer and bighorn sheep vehicle collisions on Hwy 97A, and developed plans for a wildlife fence to reduce wildlife-vehicle

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

collisions. This wildlife fence spans nine miles, starting at milepost 203 and extending to milepost 212. Repair costs for fence maintenance can quickly add up and in 2021 WDFW secured matching fund commitments from the Wenatchee Sportsman's Association, Washington Wild Sheep Foundation and Backcountry Hunters & Anglers to complete delinquent repairs. Prior to being fenced, this stretch of highway was identified as having some of the highest vehicle strikes in the state. While vehicle collisions have not stopped, collision rates for bighorn sheep have dropped significantly since the fence's completion in 2009.

In winter 2019, ten bighorn sheep from the Chelan Butte herd were outfitted with GPS-enabled collars and released onsite. Eight adult ewes and two juvenile rams received collars. To date, two of the collared ewes have died, with the proximal cause determined to be cougar predation, one ewe was harvested by a hunter in the fall of 2020. Currently five adult ewes remain alive and collared. They show very high local fidelity, with little seasonal movement. Both rams that were collared have either slipped their collar or have died.

Data collected during focused ground surveys has increased minimum counts. From 2011 through 2014, Swakane herd counts increased steadily (Fig. 1). Ground counts for bighorns exhibit significant variability because of the inherent bias in sightability and accurately classifying animals. Year to year variation in the distribution of bighorns and survey effort can cause uncertainty in the minimum counts and populations estimates. When surveys return a reduced number of observations, and no other supporting data suggesting populations declines, the previous year's count may continue to be the best estimate. In 2019, a fall aerial census detected a minimum of 220 sheep, with a lamb:ewe ratio of 48:100 (Fig. 1).

The Manson herd on Lake Chelan exhibited rapid population growth typical of a founder population in excellent quality unoccupied habitat. In 2004, June survey data were used to calculate 2002-2004 population trends, indicating a three-year average annual population growth rate of roughly 38%. Locations from telemetry data show that several bands have centralized their core use area westward up lake into steeper, rockier, habitat. Compared to the other two herds in this District, this herd consistently has lower lamb production. In 2018, fall aerial surveys returned a count of 72 sheep with a lamb:ewe ratio of 26:100. These counts were similar to spring aerial surveys conducted in 2017, as well as fall boat-based surveys conducted that same year (Fig. 2). The Chelan PUD recorded a higher minimum count of 96 bighorn sheep during their winter surveys on Lake Chelan in 2017, with an estimated lamb ratio of 15.3:100 (Pope and Cordell, 2018). Due to its remote location and the complex topography of the Manson herd's core range, it is difficult to conduct an accurate census of this herd.

The Chelan Butte herd has shown rapid growth and is now expanding its range north of Chelan Butte into Deer Mountain and Howard Flats. Observations of bighorns south of Knapp Coulee suggest that expansion is continuing to occur. An aerial survey of this herd was conducted to assess production and estimate numbers in 2009. A total of 84 sheep were observed in 2009, and the population was estimated at 84-98 individuals. A 2019 fall aerial survey detected a minimum of 150 animals in this herd, with a lamb:ewe ratio of 48:100 (Fig. 3).

The connectivity of the Chelan Butte herd to the other two herds is not understood, though it is apparent this herd is expanding both north and south of its core range. Multiple sightings of bighorn sheep at low elevations in the Entiat Valley have occurred, though it cannot be

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

determined with certainty which herd these animals may have originated from. In recent years, sheep from the Swakane herd have been detected as far north as the mouth of the Entiat River. In the spring of 2020, a vehicle collision mortality of a bighorn ewe was found on Highway 153, which is in the Lower Methow Valley. This suggests that animals, possibly from the Manson herd, may be expanding their range and survey efforts need to be expanded to detect possible changes in core range.

We estimate that roughly 20 bighorns seasonally use the Colockum and Jumpoff Ridge areas in Chelan County. These sheep are considered part of the Quilomene herd. A group of 10-15 rams is regularly seen east and south of Jumpoff Ridge. Residents report a small group of 5-9 ewes and lambs on Jumpoff Ridge that reside there from spring to fall. Due to the consistent use of these areas by the Quilomene herd, the boundary of the hunt unit was extended northward to include those sheep, allowing hunters to pursue them where possible.

Habitat

Both the Chelan Butte and Swakane herds occupy low elevation sites characterized primarily by Columbia Basin grasslands and shrub-steppe habitats. These areas are dominated by bluebunch wheatgrass and big sagebrush, transitioning to arid ponderosa pine and Douglas fir forests at higher elevations. Habitat conditions for these two herds are driven by historic land uses, the current fire regime, and the success of active habitat restoration. Fires can be beneficial to bighorn sheep by reducing conifer encroachment and increasing the forage quality of perennial grasses and forbs. Dependent on the pre-fire vegetation conditions, fire severity and post-fire precipitation regimes, these burn scars have the potential for passive recovery and providing more palatable forage during the early seral stage of vegetation recovery. Bighorns have been observed utilizing fall “green-up” within burned areas immediately following a fire. Lower elevation arid grasslands and shrub steppe communities are most at-risk as the fire return interval has shortened and human-caused fires are increasing. This has been the scenario in the range of the Swakane herd, with successive human-caused fires in 2007, 2009, 2010, and again in 2014, which cumulatively burned 48,600 acres. As a result, vegetation communities are being altered by reduction of the shrub component and increased invasive annual grasses and weeds. In 2015, the Chelan Complex fire burned through steep canyon habitats within the northern range of the Chelan Butte herd, including an area known for holding bighorn sheep groups.

WDFW manages both the Chelan Butte and Swakane Units of the Chelan Butte Wildlife Area and has implemented active restoration projects to restore previously farmed dryland agricultural fields back to native perennial grass and shrub communities. Over the past eight years, the Department has been successful in transforming 27 fields on Chelan Butte to native habitat with grasses, forbs, and shrubs. By the end of 2017, all the fields had been seeded with native grass. Restoration of the fields has provided visible benefits to Chelan Butte’s bighorn sheep herd.

The Manson herd on the north shore of Lake Chelan occupies somewhat different habitat spanning a range of ecotypes, from cool season grasslands and shrub-steppe, to ponderosa and lodgepole pine forests mixed with true firs. Habitat conditions here are generally excellent, with wildfires providing disturbance to maintain high quality herbaceous forage. During summer 2001, the Rex Creek fire on the north shore of Lake Chelan burned over 53,000 acres. However, only a small portion of this burn was known occupied bighorn habitat. During summer 2002, the

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Deer Point fire on the north shore of Lake Chelan, and down-lake from the Rex Creek fire, burned over 43,000 acres, including most of the occupied bighorn habitat of grass, bitterbrush, mixed shrubs, and ponderosa and lodgepole pine. In October 2002, at least 25 bighorns moved northerly to the Point-No-Point area of the Rex Creek burn, apparently to take advantage of the new forage; they continue to utilize this area. In 2013, the 2,100 acre 25-Mile fire reburned a section of the Deer Point Fire. The most recent fire within the Manson herd range was the 2017 Uno Peak Fire, which burned approximately 9,000 acres of higher elevation timbered habitats. Survey efforts have not included this area post-fire, so it is unknown if sheep have responded to habitat changes by utilizing new areas within the recovery zone.

The Manson herd occurs almost entirely on land managed by the USFS, with a few private lakefront properties at the southeastern end of its range. The herd's occupied terrain is extremely rugged and remote with few roads. Unlike the Chelan Butte and Swakane herds, the Manson herd is not realistically threatened by development and land use conversion. However, the continued development of the community of Manson and the development of desirable parcels in the unincorporated areas north and east of the City of Chelan may present connectivity barriers for exchange between the Manson and Chelan Butte herds.

Several springs were developed or improved for bighorn sheep within the range of the Swakane herd along the breaks of the Columbia River. Prior to fence construction, ewe bands regularly moved to the river to access native riparian and ornamental forage. Completion of the Hwy 97A fence excluded sheep from a small amount of habitat, as they have always spent most of their time in habitats west of the highway. While developed springs are likely used by sheep, their presence is not thought to be critical to the herd. Telemetry data indicate that sheep have not altered their patterns of seasonal habitat use in response to the newly constructed wildlife fence.

Maintaining habitat connectivity at lower elevations is a priority for managing Chelan County's bighorn sheep herds. Between 2000 and 2015, Chelan County saw significant population growth with the addition of over 5,500 residences. Most development occurs below 2,000 ft. on slopes less than 20%. From 2017 to 2037, the unincorporated population of Chelan County is expected to grow by 3,751 people, requiring an additional 1,405 residences (Chelan County, 2017).

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Reports have been received in recent years from orchardists adjacent to the Swakane and Chelan Butte units about the presence of bighorns in their orchards. They have expressed concerns of damage to young trees, but no claims for damage have yet been filed. Observations indicate that the sheep are feeding mainly on grass within the irrigated orchards, but occasional browse on new plantings may cause damage. Some orchardists are taking proactive measures to exclude bighorn sheep by erecting deer fences, and old fences on the Chelan Butte Wildlife Area have been replaced and/or upgraded.

The public lands on which these bighorn sheep herds range are increasingly attracting new types and previously unanticipated levels of recreation that may have a negative impact on bighorn sheep. This is especially true for the Chelan Butte and Swakane herds, which occupy land that is adjacent to a highly traveled interstate highway and contains numerous maintained and unmaintained roads and trails. Mountain biking and cross-country hiking are popular activities in

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

the Swakane Canyon and Chelan Butte areas. The creation and use of unauthorized trails on public lands creates wildlife disturbance, soil erosion and vectors for noxious weeds. In 2017, WDFW received a proposal to establish a multi-use recreational trail on the Chelan Wildlife Area, which could potentially disrupt bighorn sheep in the area. Research conducted in other parts of the U.S. and Canada indicate that sheep exhibit a stress response to approaching humans, especially those with dogs (MacArthur et al., 1982), and can be displaced by, or alter feeding habits in response to, non-motorized recreation (Lowrey and Longshore, 2017; Wiedmann and Bleich, 2014). Discussions are underway both within WDFW and with user groups to craft solutions that meet the management objectives of the wildlife area.

Due to their high visibility both the Swakane and Chelan Butte sheep herds offer excellent wildlife viewing opportunities. Because these herds do not make long distance seasonal migrations, it is possible to view rams, ewes, and lambs throughout the year. The famous horn clashing battles of bighorn rams are on display each fall. With persistent searching, it is not unreasonable to expect to see 50 to 100 bighorns during the peak of the breeding season. The lack of safe pullouts along Hwy 97A near fall sheep congregation can sometimes create traffic hazards.

In 2019, WSDOT expressed concern over bighorn sheep use of cliff faces above Hwy 97A to the south of Knapp Tunnel. It was reported that bighorn sheep were causing dangerous rock fall onto the highway, though the extent of rock fall caused by sheep, versus natural cleaving, was unknown. In January 2020, WSDOT submitted a proposal to conduct a slope study of the area using drones. This was approved, with conditions to avoid wildlife disturbance. However, due to significant rock fall events in the spring of 2020, WSDOT applied for an emergency permit to conduct hillside stabilization and install netting as a barrier to falling rock. Knapp Tunnel is a bored tunnel with a natural rock and vegetation surface which allows sheep to cross over the highway. Small groups of bighorns were detected just south of Knapp Tunnel during 2019 fall aerial surveys.

Population Augmentation

There have been no bighorn sheep population augmentations in Chelan County since 2004, and there are no plans to translocate bighorns in the immediate future. In winter 2019, WDFW captured 30 bighorn sheep from the Chelan Butte herd. All animals were tested for pathogens, including *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae*, for which they all tested negative. Twenty animals were translocated to the Stansbury Mountains in Utah, in order to augment a newly re-established herd.

Research

No formal research is currently being conducted on any bighorn sheep herds in Chelan County.

Management Conclusions

The risk of disease transmission from domestic sheep is substantial for both the Swakane and Chelan Butte herds (Lyons et al., 2016). Domestic sheep were documented six times within the core habitat of Swakane bighorns from 2000-2007. Domestic sheep were euthanized by WDFW (with permission from owners) in 2003 and 2007.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Bighorn rams were documented in domestic sheep grazing allotments twice during 2000. WDFW and the Okanogan-Wenatchee National Forest have reduced the risk to bighorns from domestic sheep on Forest Service lands, however, no final solutions have been developed. Bighorns in Swakane are at the greatest risk for disease transmission from domestic animals. In both 2013 and 2014, four bighorn ewes were seen multiple times near and within occupied domestic grazing allotments in the Entiat Valley. Efforts to locate and remove the bighorn sheep were unsuccessful. In spring 2019, USFS personnel and local citizens reported sighting up to five bighorn ewes crossing the Entiat River at Ardenvoir towards occupied sheep grazing allotments. Both USFS and the producer responded immediately by moving domestic sheep off pastures earlier than planned. WDFW continues to work closely with the USFS to minimize encounters between bighorn and domestic sheep. USFS is currently preparing an Environmental Impact Statement for domestic sheep grazing within the range of bighorn sheep. In the interim, however, as the population of the Swakane herd grows, management actions will need to be taken to minimize the risk of contact with domestic sheep, through ewe harvest and/or translocation.

Also, of concern are small, unregistered hobby farms where domestic goats or sheep may be raised in pastures adjacent to bighorn sheep ranges. To the extent possible, local WDFW staff works to identify and educate local landowners about the risks of disease transmission from domestic livestock to bighorn sheep. In 2021 WDFW initiated a cooperative agreement with a private landowner to extend a section of the Hwy 97A fence that will exclude bighorn sheep from entering pasture containing domestic goats. These domestic goats were tested for *M. ovipneumonia* in 2014 and again in 2021, both times results were negative. WDFW intends to continue disease surveillance in this flock in cooperation with the landowners.

The Swakane and Chelan Butte bighorn population is highly accessible for viewing during the winter months. Viewing opportunities, particularly large adult rams, are highly valued by the public. A long-term objective in the Chelan Wildlife Area plan is to creating safe viewing opportunities for the public. As the population of Chelan County grows, recreational use on public lands increases. WDFW will have to effectively engage in land use planning at federal, state, and local levels to ensure a balanced approach and minimize impacts to bighorn sheep populations.

The minimum population objective for the Manson herd on the north shore of Lake Chelan is conservative, based on the low potential for conflicts, USFS management emphasis for bighorn sheep habitat, and the increase in habitat resulting from wildfires. Recent WDFW minimum counts have been lower than expected. This may be due to a change in habitat use by bighorn sheep, poor detectability in rugged terrain, or from a yet undiscovered source of additional mortality. Current plans for this herd include conducting a fall aerial census in 2021 and deploying GPS-collars on ten animals in the winter, this will include sampling for the presence of *M. ovipneumonia*.

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Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

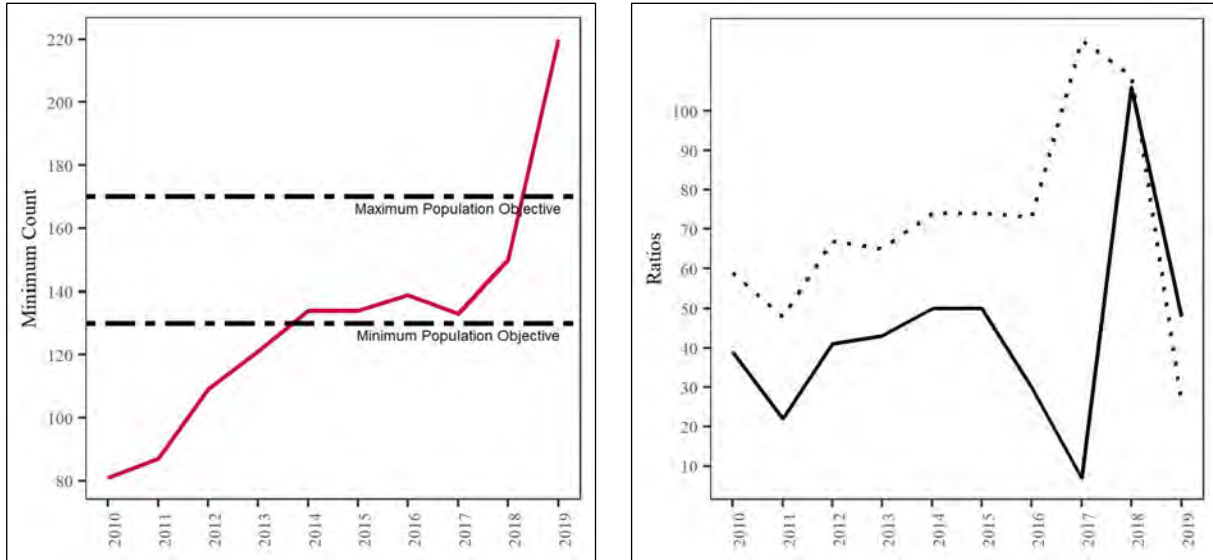


Figure 1: (a) Minimum population counts of the Swakane herd 2010-2019, dashed lines represent short-term population objectives from the 2015 Game Management Plan. (b) Observed ram:100 ewe ratios (dotted line) and lamb:100 ewe ratios (solid line).

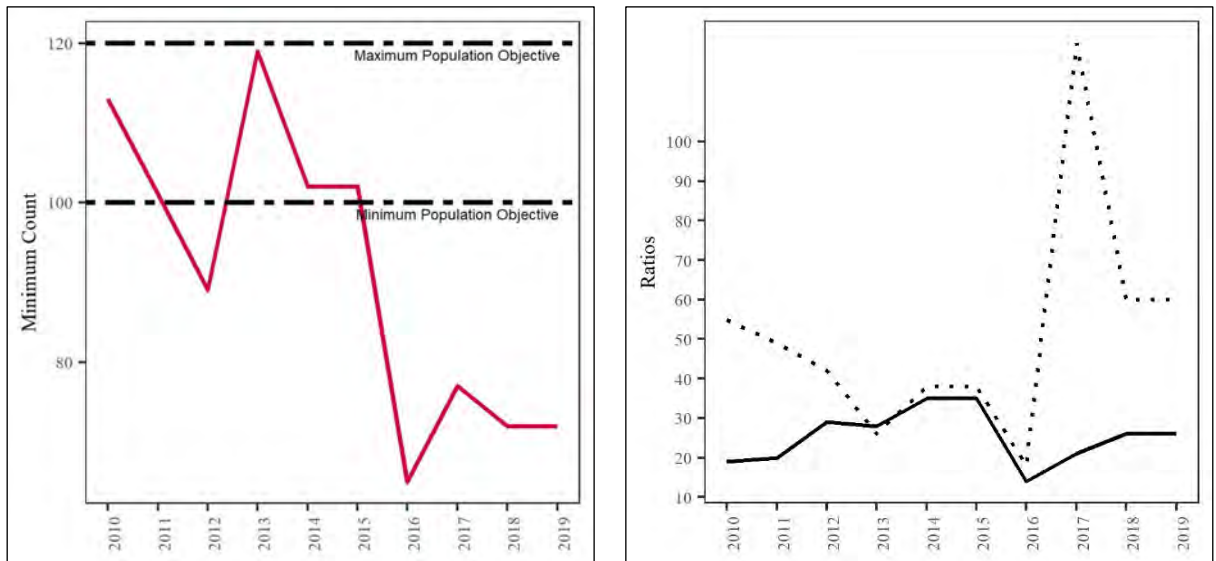


Figure 2: (a) Minimum population counts of the Manson herd 2010-2019, dashed lines represent short-term population objectives from the 2015 Game Management Plan. (b) Observed ram:100 ewe ratios (dotted line) and lamb:100 ewe ratios (solid line).

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

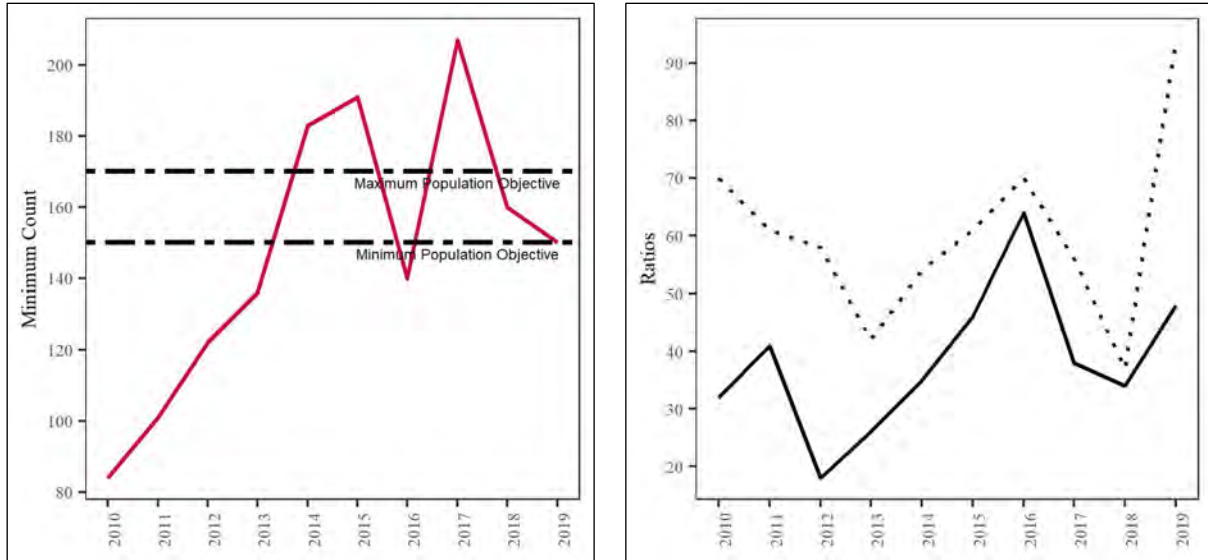


Figure 3: (a) Minimum population counts of the Chelan Butte herd 2010-2019, dashed lines represent short-term population objectives from the 2015 Game Management Plan. (b) Observed ram:100 ewe ratios (dotted line) and lamb:100 ewe ratios (solid line).

Table 1A: 10 Yr. Summary of Ram Harvest: Swakane

| Year | Permits | Harvest | Comments |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|--|
| 2011 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2012 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2013 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2014 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2015 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2016 | 3 | 3 | Includes harvest by auction tag holder |
| 2017 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2018* | 2 | 3 | Tribal harvest unknown |
| 2019* | 2 | 3 | Tribal harvest unknown |
| 2020 | 2 | 2 | |
| Total | 16 | 18 | |

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1B. 10-year Summary of Ram Harvest: Manson

| Year | Permits | Harvest | Comments |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|--|
| 2011 | 2 | 4 | Includes additional auction/raffle tag harvest |
| 2012 | 2 | 3 | Includes additional auction/raffle tag harvest |
| 2013 | 2 | 3 | Includes additional auction/raffle tag harvest |
| 2014 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2015 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2016 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2017 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2018 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2019 | 2 | 2 | |
| 2020 | 2 | 2 | |
| Total | 20 | 24 | |

Table 1C. 10-year Summary of Ram and Ewe Harvest: Chelan Butte

| Year | Permits | Disabled Hunt Permits | Harvest | Comments |
|--------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|--|
| 2011 | 1 | - | 1 | |
| 2012 | 1 | - | 1 | |
| 2013 | 1 | - | 1 | |
| 2014 | 1 | - | 1 | |
| 2015 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 1st ewe tag offered |
| 2016 | 6 | 4 | 7 | Includes additional auction/raffle tag harvest |
| 2017 | 6 | 4 | 5 | |
| 2018 | 13 | 5 | 15 | Includes additional auction/raffle tag harvest |
| 2019 | 13 | 5 | 12 | |
| 2020 | 13 | 5 | 11 | Includes additional raffle harvest |
| Total | 59 | 26 | 59 | |

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report: Region 3

Quilomene, Cleman Mountain, Umtanum/Selah Butte, and Tieton

JEFFREY BERNATOWICZ, Wildlife Biologist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The statewide goals for bighorn sheep are:

1. Preserve, protect, perpetuate, and manage bighorn sheep and their habitats to ensure healthy, productive populations.
2. Manage bighorn sheep for a variety of recreational, educational, and aesthetic purposes including hunting, scientific study, cultural and ceremonial uses by Native Americans, and wildlife viewing and photography.
3. Manage for sustained yield.
4. Numerical goals for each herd are provided in Tables 2-5.

Population Surveys

The Quilomene herd was surveyed via helicopter in October and November 2020. The Yakima Canyon Herd was surveyed during captures in February 2021. The Cleman herd was surveyed from the ground at the feed site in February 2021 (Tables 2-5).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Cleman Mountain, Umtanum/Selah Butte, and Quilomene are currently permitted for ram harvest. Ewe permits have been issued for Cleman since 2016 and Umtanum/ Selah Butte was permitted for ewes or juvenile rams since 2019. The number of permits (WDFW only) and harvest are given in Table 1. The Yakama Nation (YN) typically matches WDFW permits one to one for all sheep herds. The Muckleshoot Indian Tribe also issues permits for the Cleman Mountain and Umtanum/Selah Butte herds. YN does not report harvest, but their hunters are often encountered by the public/WDFW enforcement. When YN harvest is available to WDFW, it is included in Table 1.

In 2020, WDFW issued 22 herd-specific ram permits, one raffle (any herd), and 51 ewe permits. A total of 33 rams and 42 ewes were known to be harvested (Table 1). There were 12 hunters who did not submit reports. In a few cases, harvest was known via disease sampling. All rams harvested need to be pinned. Historically the pinning database was used to determine actual harvest. Due to a switch in systems and employees working remotely, the 2020 pinning database was not easy to access and was incomplete.

Herd History and Status

Bighorn sheep were native to Region 3 but had been eliminated by over hunting and disease by the early 1900s. All existing populations are the result of reintroductions.

The Quilomene reintroduction was the first in the region (early 1960s) and the population was estimated at over 100 animals by the late 1960s. The population then crashed in the early 1970s.

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

The cause of the decline was unknown, but the population had reportedly died out by 1990. Reintroduction occurred again in 1993. By 1996, 41 bighorns had been released in the area. The Quilomene population quickly grew to over 160 sheep (Table 2). Poor recruitment, observations of coughing sheep, and reports of mortalities indicated a disease outbreak circa 2004-2006. Adult ewe counts had been declining and reached lows in 2014. In 2013, a large, fast-moving fire went through the northern portion of the herd area. Following the fire, sheep were difficult to find. This was apparently due to a shift in range, as numbers rebounded to expected levels in 2015. Lamb recruitment has been low, and the population was below objective. The herd was augmented with eight ewes, seven lambs, and six rams obtained from the Cleman's Mountain herd in January 2017. The augmentation and recent recruitment/survival boosted Quilomene sheep to the short-term objective. A domestic ewe was spotted with Quilomene sheep in September 2020. The domestic tested positive for *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* (*M.ovi*). Nine rams and three ewes were lethally removed from the immediate area for testing. None tested positive for *M. ovi*. Three aerial surveys were done to look for sheep showing signs of pneumonia. All Quilomene bighorn looked healthy. It appears *M. ovi*. was not transferred from the domestic to the bighorns.

The Cleman Mountain population was established in 1967 with the release of eight animals. The herd remained relatively stable for over 20 years. A portion of the population was captured, tested, and treated with antibiotics in 1990. Augmentation included 27 animals during 1989-96. Production increased after 1996, and the population exceeded 150 animals by 2000 (Table 2). Almost 200 animals have been relocated from Cleman to establish/augment numerous herds since 2001. Recreational harvest has also been the highest in the state here. The Cleman Mountain herd continues to produce a large number of lambs and continues to be above objective. The Cleman herd was known to be at high risk of contracting *M.ovi* due to the proximity to USFS domestic sheep grazing leases. In fall 2020, WDFW detected *M.ovi* in several bighorns from the Cleman herd and the department received subsequent reports of coughing or dead bighorn within the herd area. Five additional ram permits were issued in expectation of a die-off. The die-off was relatively minor and concentrated on rams and lambs. The impact to 2021 lamb recruitment is not known.

The Umtanum herd was established in 1970 with the release of eight bighorns west of the Yakima River. Within 15 years, the population grew to an estimated 200 animals, and some sheep crossed the Yakima River. Originally, sheep on the east side of the river were considered a separate herd (Selah Butte). Surveys have shown that animals cross the river in both directions, and it is now considered a single herd (termed the Yakima Canyon herd). In 2001, 11 sheep were released at the south end of the canyon near Roza Dam.

Population estimates for Umtanum/Selah Butte (i.e., Yakima Canyon) varied between 170 and 200 animals until 2002. Dispersal, winter mortality, and the removal of 52 sheep for augmenting other populations probably kept the numbers stable. The increase to over 300 animals after 2002 was largely due to the establishment of the Roza Dam sub-herd and subsequent increase in lamb production. Harvest was increased during this period to maintain a stable population.

In December 2009, an outbreak of pneumonia was discovered at the north end of Umtanum. Disease loss and culling removed approximately 50% of the Umtanum herd by April 2010. The bacterial pneumonia jumped east of the river (Selah Butte) in summer 2010, but no significant adult mortality was noted. By August 2010, low lamb survival was apparent on both sides of the

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

river. Lamb and adult survival was very high in 2011 and 2012. It appeared the herd had recovered and was back at objective. However, testing of 31 animals in February 2013 found *M. ovi* in one young ram. Adult survival has been high since 2013, but lamb recruitment was low from 2013 through 2017. Samples were collected from sheep on both sides of the river. Pneumonia was confirmed, as was the same strain of *M. ovi* that evidently entered the population in 2009. Bernatowicz et al. (2016) provides a full accounting of the experience with pneumonia in the Umtanum/Selah herds. In early fall 2015, there was also an apparent outbreak of bluetongue virus. Two ram carcasses tested positive, as did one road-killed ewe.

There has been evidence of cougars hunting sheep on the Umtanum side of the river. Counts on the Umtanum side have been lower than expected and the sheep more difficult to find as their habits have changed. Umtanum sheep also produce few lambs (probably *M. ovi* related) and the herd is declining. Lamb production on the Selah Butte side of the river has been better, but sub-herd specific and sporadic. Most lambs have been male. This anomaly was also documented during culling in early 2010 when 82% of fetuses were male.

Low recruitment and few females have resulted in a declining and aging reproductive segment of the population. A plan was adopted to reduce the population through harvest to around 100, then test and cull any animals shedding *M. ovi*. In February 2021, the first phase of “test-cull” was implemented. Eighty bighorns were captured and tested. Eight tested positive for *M. ovi* and seven were subsequently lethally removed. The one animal not removed was a juvenile ram that was incidentally caught during the targeted capture of adults. Of the seven animals removed, six were re-tested for *M. ovi*. Only one was still positive and two indeterminate. Testing of roughly 180 animals to date indicates that about 10% might be “shedders” on a given day. However, if most are intermittent shedders, clearing *M. ovi* from the population will be nearly impossible. Data collected from the ground in July indicated low lamb recruitment in most sub-herds. A further test and cull operation is planned for winter 2021-2022.

The Tieton herd was established with the release of 54 sheep during 1998-2002. Subsequent radio-telemetry indicated relatively low mortality and high lamb recruitment. An aerial survey in 2008 confirmed the population was over objective. Sixty-five animals were removed for translocation during 2009-2012. During the captures, crews confirmed population estimates, and the herd was found to be disease free (last capture March 2012). Harvest removed 49 animals during 2009-2012 to keep the population near population objectives. In March 2013, a pneumonia outbreak was confirmed. Mortality appeared to be high, and a decision was made to euthanize the remaining animals to prevent spread to the nearby healthy Cleman Mountain herd. A total of 57 bighorns were euthanized. Pneumonia and *M. ovi* were confirmed in all samples. The strain of *M. ovi* in the Tieton herd was different from that found in the Yakima River Canyon sheep. The current Game Management Plan calls for re-establishing the Tieton Herd if risk from nearby domestic grazing allotments can be eliminated.

Habitat

Forage resources vary annually with moisture. Precipitation had been near or above average 2010-2012, undoubtedly increasing forage production. Drought conditions returned in 2013-2016. A significant portion of the north Quilomene range burned in 2013. The impact of that fire is unclear. In forested areas, fires can decrease cover and increase browse. In more arid climates,

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

fires can reduce plant diversity. Moisture was high in fall of 2016 through spring 2018, increasing total forage for all herbivores. Late winter moisture in 2018-19 was again higher than average. Most of 2021 has been dry.

Population Augmentation

The Quilomene herd received 21 sheep from the Cleman's Mountain herd in January 2017. This augmentation was more driven by opportunity than necessity. The Cleman's herd had been over objective and easy to trap at the winter feed site. There was also a desire to learn more about Quilomene sheep via GPS collar data. That augmentation did have a positive effect.

No habitat enhancement projects have been funded for bighorn sheep in the region. In general, bighorn habitat is difficult to manipulate, and success of any habitat projects would be limited due to shallow soils and arid conditions. Sheep at Cleman Mountain are fed during the winter, mostly to make periodic trapping easier.

The most beneficial projects to bighorn populations would be to reduce/eliminate contact risk with domestic sheep/goats. In 2006, a large private ranch in Quilomene was purchased by WDFW, and domestic sheep grazing was subsequently eliminated. Similar efforts have secured habitat and reduced risk of domestic/bighorn interactions within the Cleman Mountain herd range.

Management Conclusions

The main threat to bighorn sheep in the region is bacterial pneumonia caused by contact with domestic sheep/goats. The Tieton herd was eliminated, and current plans call for delaying reintroduction until the risk of contact with domestic sheep or goats is substantially reduced. The Yakima Canyon herd initially rebounded from die-offs during winter 2009-10, but currently suffers from low lamb recruitment most years and is decreasing. Data from across the range of Bighorns in North America indicate few herds recover on their own. Removing an entire herd and starting over has social and political challenges. "test-cull" may be a viable option.

Disease outbreaks are expected because domestic sheep and/or goats have been documented near bighorns in every herd in the Region. Completely eliminating risk of contact between bighorns and domestics is unlikely. Efforts are needed to reduce risk as well as develop viable management options once *M. ovi* enters a population.

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Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Summary of bighorn sheep harvest in Region 3 since 2008.

| Area | Year | Permits | Harvest | Comments |
|---------------------|------|------------------------------|----------------|--|
| Cleman Mountain | 2010 | 6 | 8 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2011 | 6 | 13 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2012 | 12 | 24 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2013 | 10 | 18 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2014 | 8 | 11 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2015 | 6 | 6 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2016 | 6 ram,10 ewe | 8 ram,11 ewe | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2017 | 3 ram. 10 ewe | 5 ram, 7 ewe | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2018 | 3 ram,20 ewe | 3 ram, 13 ewe | |
| | 2019 | 4 ram, 20 ewe | 9 ram, 15 ewe | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2020 | 10 ram, 21ewe | 15 ram, 21 ewe | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| Umtanum/Selah Butte | 2010 | 10 | 15 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2011 | 8 | 12 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2012 | 5 | 11 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2013 | 5 | 9 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2014 | 6 | 8 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2015 | 5 | 8 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2016 | 4 | 8 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2017 | 4 | 8 | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| | 2018 | 4 | 5 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2019 | 8 ram, 46 juv. ram/ewe | 39 ram, 14 ewe | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2020 | 6 ad ram, 8 juv. ram, 30 ewe | 13 ram, 21 ewe | Harvest includes raffle hunter, tribal |
| Quilomene | 2010 | 4 | 4 | |
| | 2011 | 4 | 5 | Harvest includes auction hunter |
| | 2012 | 3 | 4 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2013 | 3 | 4 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2014 | 3 | 3 | |
| | 2015 | 2 | 2 | |
| | 2016 | 2 | 2 | |
| | 2017 | 2 | 3 | Harvest includes tribal |
| | 2018 | 2 | 3 | Harvest includes raffle hunter |
| | 2019 | 5 | 5 | |
| | 2020 | 6 | 5 | Harvest includes tribal |

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2. Quilomene Population Composition.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Total Rams | Adult Rams | Total Count | Estimated Population | Short-term Objective |
|------|-------|--------|------------|------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 2010 | 25 | 57 | 20 | 14 | 102 | 160 | |
| 2011 | 11 | 48 | 15 | 15 | 74 | 150 | |
| 2012 | 41 | 65 | 43 | 37 | 149 | 160 | |
| 2014 | 18 | 34 | 28 | 20 | 83 | 100 | |
| 2015 | 20 | 93 | 47 | 44 | 160 | 160 | |
| 2016 | 17 | 73 | 72 | 54 | 162 | 170 | |
| 2017 | No | Survey | | | | | |
| 2018 | 23 | 95 | 69 | 58 | 187 | 190 | 200 |
| 2019 | No | Survey | | | | | |
| 2020 | 29 | 116 | 71 | 36 | 216 | 220 | |
| 2021 | | | | | 201 | 210 | |

Table 3. Cleman Mt. Population Composition.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Total Rams | Adult Rams | Total Count | Estimated | Short-term Objective |
|------|-------|------|------------|------------|-------------|-----------|----------------------|
| 2010 | 35 | 83 | 60 | 48 | 201 | 201 | |
| 2011 | 34 | 83 | 88 | 65 | 205 | 205 | |
| 2012 | 30 | 78 | 59 | 59 | 167 | 180 | |
| 2013 | 45 | 101 | 60 | 50 | 206 | 210 | |
| 2014 | | | | | | 235 | |
| 2015 | 50 | 129 | 80 | 60 | 259 | 260 | |
| 2016 | 30 | 145 | 40 | 30 | 215 | 215 | |
| 2017 | 42 | 152 | 46 | 35 | 240 | 250 | 170-220 |
| 2018 | 45 | 145 | 55 | 40 | 245 | 250 | 170-220 |
| 2019 | | | | | | | |
| 2020 | 22 | 131 | 37 | 12 | 190 | 210 | 170-220 |

Bighorn Sheep Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 4. Umtanum/Selah Butte Population Composition.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Total Rams | Adult Rams | Total Count | Estimated | Short-term Objective |
|------|-------|------|------------|------------|-------------|-----------|----------------------|
| 2010 | 23 | 90 | 63 | 60 | 176 | 210 | |
| 2011 | 33 | 109 | 53 | 50 | 195 | 220 | |
| 2012 | 65 | 155 | 68 | 57 | *288 | 270 | |
| 2013 | 42 | 80 | 13 | | 135 | 270 | |
| 2014 | 14 | 168 | 85 | 58 | 267 | 270 | |
| 2015 | 13 | 168 | 57 | 49 | 238 | 265 | |
| 2016 | 33 | 144 | 30 | 26 | 233 | 260 | |
| 2017 | 11 | 160 | 46 | 40 | 217 | 240 | |
| 2018 | 11 | 121 | 31 | 26 | 152 | 230 | 250-300 |
| 2019 | 14 | 94 | 26 | 23 | 134 | 150 | 100 |
| 2020 | 14 | 64 | 41 | 32 | 119 | 130 | 100 |
| | | | | | | | |

* Probable double count of ewes and lambs

Table 5. Tieton Maximum June Population.

| Year | Lambs | Ewes | Total Rams | Adult Rams | Total Count | Estimated Population | Long-term Potential |
|------|-------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| 2000 | 11 | 24 | 11 | | 46 | 46 | |
| 2001 | 13 | 35 | 19 | | 67 | 67 | |
| 2002 | 10 | 30 | 8 | 8 | 48 | 70 | |
| 2003 | 10 | 40 | 20 | 11 | 70 | 80 | |
| 2004 | 19 | 33 | 5 | | 57 | 90 | |
| 2005 | 20 | 88 | 4 | 3 | 112 | 110 | 250 |
| 2006 | 35 | 55 | 40 | 37 | 130 | 135 | 250 |
| 2007 | 23 | 63 | 7 | 0 | 93 | 160 | 250 |
| 2008 | 54 | 81 | 32 | 16 | 167 | 200 | 250 |
| 2009 | | | | | | 200 | 250 |
| 2010 | 40 | 72 | 89 | 48 | | 200 | 250 |
| 2012 | 33 | 66 | 24 | 16 | 125 | 150 | 250 |
| 2013 | Herd | Eliminated | | | | | 250 |

Moose

Moose Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

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Introduction

Moose (*Alces alces*) apparently migrated on their own accord into eastern Pend Oreille County, Washington in the 1950s. The first official state documentation of moose in Washington occurred in 1954 (Poelker 1972), although the literature reports a bull moose that was taken by hunting on the Colville Indian Reservation in 1929 (Scheffer and Dalquest 1944). In the decades since, moose have increased both in numbers and distribution. They are now common in northeast Washington, can be found in smaller populations in the Okanogan and Blue Mountains, and a few scattered individuals have colonized the east slopes of the Cascades. Moose have been documented to wander into many other places throughout the state including the high desert country of the Columbia Basin (WDFW 2014).

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The statewide goals for moose (WDFW 2014) are to:

1. Preserve, protect, perpetuate, and manage moose and their habitats to ensure healthy, productive populations.
2. Manage moose for a variety of recreational, educational, and aesthetic purposes including hunting, scientific study, cultural and ceremonial uses by Native Americans, wildlife viewing, and photography.
3. Manage statewide moose populations for a sustained yield.
4. Manage moose populations with a rigorous, data-based system.

Population Surveys

Prior to 2013, helicopter surveys were conducted at the District level annually and generally occurred between December and February. These surveys assisted district biologists in crafting permit level recommendations and generally supported information from hunts indicating a continued positive trend in the moose population in northeastern Washington (Harris et al., 2015). However, population estimates based on these surveys were found to produce highly variable estimates with large confidence intervals.

A more rigorous aerial survey protocol that covered the entire northeastern Washington moose population was initiated in winter 2013/14 and continued through the winter of 2015/16. The intent of this survey was to provide a baseline population estimate from which future trends will be assessed. A full report appears as Oyster et al. (2018). No surveys were completed in 2019 because mild winter conditions persisted throughout winter, and adequate survey conditions (i.e., snow cover) did not occur. Aerial surveys did not occur in 2020 due to poor survey conditions

as well as COVID-19 restrictions.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Moose hunting opportunities in Washington are by permit only. Most moose hunting seasons were October 1-31, November 1-30, or both months; auction and raffle, hunts began September 1st. The “any moose” permit category was changed into an “antlered bull moose” permit only category in 2018. Hunters having successfully taken a moose under an “antlered bull moose” permit or the old “any moose” permit are prohibited from applying for another “antlered bull moose” permit. Permit availability (and therefore hunter opportunity) has steadily increased since the late 1990s (Fig. 1), peaking in 2016. Since then, antlerless permit numbers have been reduced due to concerns about population declines.

In 2020, there were a total of 140 moose permits available. Of these, 120 permit holders reported hunting activity, with 104 moose reported harvested. The following were permit types available in 2020, followed in parenthesis by the number offered / minimum number harvested; this is minimum harvest because not all permittees report. “Antlered bull” moose (103/79), antlerless only (28/20), youth antlerless (1/1), 65-and-over antlerless (4/1), disabled antlerless (4/2), statewide raffle (2/2), Northeast Washington multi-species raffle (1/0), and statewide auction (1/1). Of the 104 moose reported harvested, 78 were male and 2 were female. For information on hunting moose in Washington (e.g., number of permits, success rates, hunt units, access, etc.) please see the Hunting Prospects for Districts 1 and 2 ([Hunting Prospects](#)).

Habitat

Moose prefer 10-20 year old clear-cuts, burned areas, or thinned stands on mesic sites. Forested cover is important during summer heat and deep winter snow (Costain 1989). As timber harvest has declined on public lands, private industrial timberlands have come to provide a large portion of moose range in Washington. Forest regeneration in these areas tends to produce dense stands of willow, serviceberry, ceanothus, and other shrubs which are preferred browse. However, recently private industrial forests have begun using herbicides to control shrubs to reduce competition for regenerating coniferous trees. Moose can be found at any elevation in Washington but are most likely found in the 3,000 to 5,000 foot elevation band and are commonly drawn to north slopes or east flowing drainages, which are cool and moist.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Individual moose can create human safety or nuisance concerns, especially within the metropolitan area of Spokane. The procedure for addressing moose within the urban/suburban area is outlined in the WDFW Dangerous Wildlife Policy. WDFW’s Enforcement Program takes the lead on moose incident reports in and near the city. Incidents range from single moose sightings in semi-rural areas resulting in dissemination of literature and discussion on living with wildlife; to moose in dangerous situations requiring immobilization and translocation or euthanasia. The number of moose incidents per year has been as high as 87 in 2001, and as low as 16 in 2009.

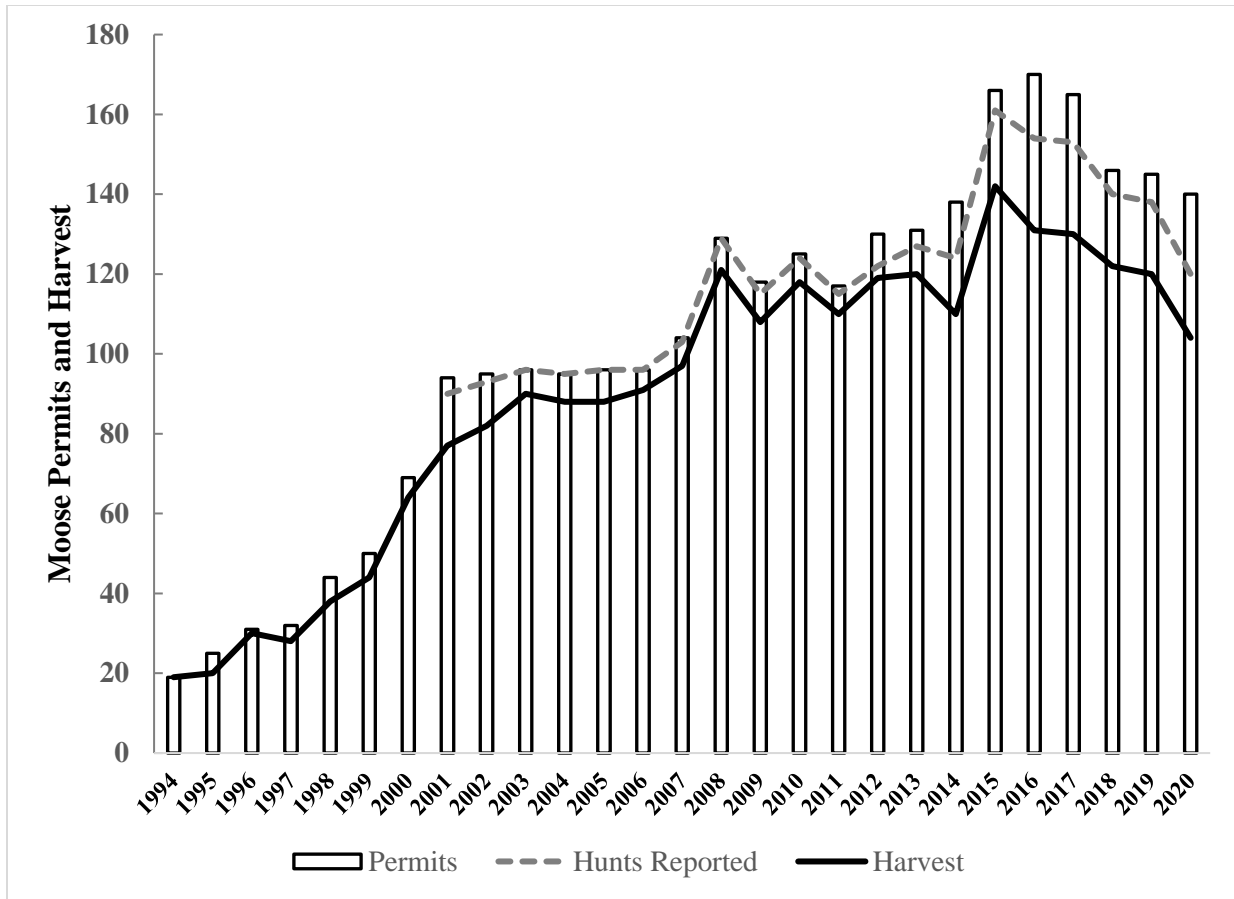


Figure 1. Moose permit numbers (open bars, not including Master Hunter and Hunter Educator Incentive moose permits), hunts reported (dashed line) and harvest reported (solid line) for moose in Washington, 1994-2020.

Research

With financial and logistic support from WDFW, the University of Montana (UM) took the lead in understanding factors controlling demographic parameters of moose in 2 study areas north of Spokane. A total of 74 cow moose were fitted with radio-collars during December 2013, 2014, and 2016. Results from the study were published in two articles in *Alces* in 2021 (Harris et al. 2021 and Cook et al. 2021). In general, the moose populations in both study areas were found to be declining due to both top-down effects of predation and bottom-up effects of nutrition.

Management Concerns

Fire suppression, reduced timber harvest, herbicide treatment of broadleaf shrubs in regenerating forest, and human development continue to degrade moose foraging habitat. Moose are adapted to colonize forested areas post-disturbance. They can persist at low densities in Washington’s forested areas without disturbance, but we expect to see a tempering of population increase unless early seral habitats (e.g., shrub-fields) can be sustained in a mosaic with mature forest (as needed for cover).

Climate change may pose challenges for moose populations in the future, both from the direct energetic effects (moose are adapted to cold climates and become heat stressed, both in summer

Moose Status and Trend Report 2021

and winter, when temperatures exceed their thermo-neutral tolerances), and indirect effects (if parasites typically harbored by moose become excessively numerous).

From 2014 through 2017, WDFW also monitored for the presence and prevalence of the arterial worm *Eleaophora schneideri*, whose typical host is mule deer but has been documented in moose elsewhere in the lower 48 US states. A total of 126 carcasses were inspected, of which we were able to determine presence or absence of *E. schneideri* in 80. *E. schneideri* was detected in the arteries of 3 of these 80 moose; however, none of these moose showed outward signs of infection. Histology performed at the Washington Disease Diagnostic Laboratory at Washington State University detected additional damage to the carotid artery of a number of moose, but whether or not these animals were infected with *E. schneideri* remains unclear. Moose are susceptible to morbidity and mortality from the brain worm *Parelaphostrongylus tenuis*, whose normal host is the white-tailed deer. *P. tenuis* has not yet been documented in or west of the Rocky Mountains.

Management Conclusions

In contrast to many areas along the southern extent of their North American distribution, moose have done well in Washington over the past few decades (WDFW 2015, Base et al. 2006, Nadeau et al. 2017). Hunter demand continues to far exceed supply, thus even if permit levels are increased, moose hunting will be a rare (and generally once-per-lifetime) experience for Washingtonians. Although the new aerial survey protocol is showing promise, recent surveys have been limited (i.e., poor survey conditions, Covid-19 restrictions) and tracking moose population trends long-term over large areas will likely always be approximate, and prone to time-lags. Moose may continue to increase outside of their base in Northeastern Washington, and it is possible that in the future hunting opportunities can be developed in other parts of the state. Moose abundance appears to have declined, possibly due to moose populations exceeding the capacity of available forage and as other natural factors (e.g., predators, parasites, climate change) respond to their abundance.

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Cougar

COUGAR STATUS AND TREND REPORT

STATEWIDE

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Introduction

Cougars (*Puma concolor*) are a native species in Washington and occupy all forested areas as well as some parts of the Columbia basin where vegetation provides adequate cover (Figure 1). They typically do not occur on the island archipelago of Puget Sound. Cougars are predominantly active at dawn and dusk but can be active at all times of the day, so it is not uncommon for humans to see cougars moving through the landscape. Generally solitary by nature, cougar only come together in family groups (females with offspring), to mate, and when males challenge each other for territory. Cougars are a density-dependent species, meaning the number of resident cougars on the landscape is limited by the amount of available space and prey. As an apex carnivore, cougars help to maintain ecosystem health and diversity. Their diet contributes to healthy ecosystems by providing food for other scavenging mammalian and avian species, including insects which deposit nutrients and enrich soils for future plant growth.

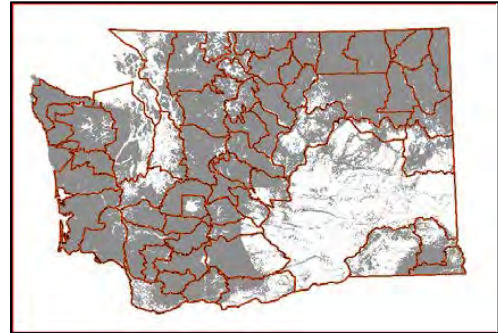


Figure 1. Population management unit boundaries in Washington, 2021.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

For management purposes, the state is divided into fifty population management units (PMUs) (Figure 1). Like many other wildlife agencies in western North America, Washington's hunt structure includes harvest guidelines which are applied to specific areas with identifiable boundaries. Most PMUs are approximately 1,750 km² in size, except for the PMU that encompasses the Columbia Basin, and 45 of the 50 PMUs have harvest guidelines. Harvest guideline considerations begin Jan 01 (late season) and hunting closures may be initiated within these PMUs when the harvest guideline is reached which the agency monitors via a mandatory hunter reporting/sealing requirement. Only hunter harvest applies towards these closures to achieve the cougar management objectives as outlined in WDFW's Game Management Plan (WDFW 2015). The benefits of this cougar management structure include:

- provides ample recreational harvest opportunity
- harvest is fair and equitable across the landscape
- older-aged animals on the landscape thus a better-quality hunt
- smaller PMUs reduces large area closures that could hinder hunter opportunity
- maintains the integrity of cougar social structure and ecosystem function
- inexpensive to implement
- scientific, transparent, and defensible process
- satisfies agency and multi-stakeholder interests

Population Surveys

Cougars are among the most challenging species to obtain population estimates. Washington does not have any formal cougar population monitoring surveys. However, the Department relies on long term research to set the guidelines described above. WDFW has funded decades of long-term cougar research (1998-2020) in collaboration with other agencies and universities to generate 39 annual density estimates from 9 research areas within Washington (Figure 2). Cougar density estimates are primarily derived using three estimation techniques: 1) capture-collar using GPS data to define proportional contribution within a defined study area, 2) spatially explicit capture-recapture, and 3) population abundance divided by a generalized study area. Estimates in Washington have been derived using all three of these techniques (Table 1). Most of this research has been conducted in eastern Washington but also includes the southeast, central, and western portions of the state. Research estimates were focused on independent-aged animals (≥ 18 months) to calculate densities and subsequently develop harvest guidelines. Kittens were not included in density estimates or harvest guidelines because they are protected by law, which if incorporated into estimates may by default mask an inflated harvest rate on independent-aged cougars and increase management risk. All density variations observed throughout Washington were used estimate likely population sizes and the likelihood of achieving management objectives in each PMU. Currently, the independent-aged statewide cougar population is estimated at 2,300 cougars.

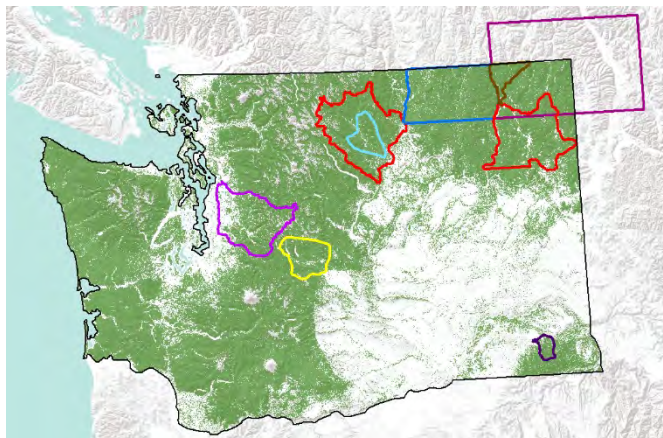


Figure 2. Cougar research areas in Washington, where density estimates were derived, 1998-2021. Areas in red have not yet been completed. Green indicates cougar habitat.

Table 1. Independent-aged (>18 months) cougar density estimates from 7 counties in Washington, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife 2021.

| Study Area County | Years Conducted | Average Independent-Aged Density /100km ² (>18 months) | Source |
|-------------------|-----------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| Okanogan | 2003-2013 | 1.55 | Beausoleil et al. 2021 |
| Columbia | 2009-2013 | 2.79 | Beausoleil et al. 2021 |
| King | 2008-2016 | 2.34 | Beausoleil et al. 2021 |
| Ferry | 2003-2011 | 1.79 | Beausoleil et al. 2016 ^a |
| Kittitas | 2002-2006 | 2.37 | Cooley et al. 2009 ^b |
| Stevens | 2002-2006 | 1.96 | Cooley et al. 2009 ^b |

^a Estimate was for >12 months so modified to include only ≥ 18 months of age for consistency

^b Estimate was for >24 months so modified in Beausoleil et al. 2021 to include only ≥ 18 months of age for consistency

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The cougar hunting season is currently 242 days and occurs statewide in all 50 PMUs. Approximately 53,000 Washington state cougar licenses are sold annually (Table 2). Tribal entities

Cougar Status and Trend Report 2021

have their own hunting seasons and do not fall under WDFW management authority; thus off-reservation harvest by hunters licensed under Tribal governments in WDFW GMUs is unknown. Washington uses an early and a late general season. During the early season (September 1 – December 31), harvest guidelines do not apply, thus even if harvest exceeds the guideline, PMUs will not close until December 31. In the late season, (January 1 – April 30) harvest guidelines apply with only hunter harvest counting towards that guideline. Since 2004, the agency has provided hunters with updates on the status of open and closed PMUs via a toll-free hotline or by checking the agency’s website. Over the past 5 years, an average of 66% of PMUs remained open to hunters through April 30. Closures occur on the PMU level, resulting in less impact to hunter opportunity. In 2020, the Washington Fish and Wildlife Commission voted to modify the harvest guidelines. The modified harvest guidelines: (1) use prior harvest levels, which exceeded previous guidelines; and (2) uses only the adult cougars (>24 months old) rather than independent-aged cougars (>18 months) when considering PMU closure. Outcomes of these changes are presently unknown but resulting effects may include leaving PMUs open longer during the season due to a higher allowable guideline for closure in select areas.

Table 2. Cougar licenses sold 2011 through 2020, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife.

| | License Year | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 2011- 2012 | 2012- 2013 | 2013- 2014 | 2014- 2015 | 2015- 2016 | 2016- 2017 | 2017- 2018 | 2018- 2019 | 2019- 2020 | 2020- 2021 |
| Licenses | 54,321 | 49,118 | 50,878 | 50,874 | 53,196 | 54,636 | 55,636 | 56,785 | 57,421 | 46,391 |

The most recent five-year average for cougar hunter harvest mortality is 213 animals annually. The 5-year average for all mortality types (roadkill, agency removals, poaching, etc.) is 312 animals. This is an increase over the previous 5-year average of 152 for hunter harvest and 196 for total mortality. The overall 10-year average cougar hunter harvest is 183 annually and total mortality is 254 animals annually.

Washington has a mandatory reporting system for cougars. Hunters are required to present the hide and skull (with proof of sex attached) to the agency for sealing within 5 days of the harvest being made. Harvest location is typically recorded at a fine scale within a GMU, sex and age characteristics are collected from harvested cougars, and a tooth is pulled for ageing.

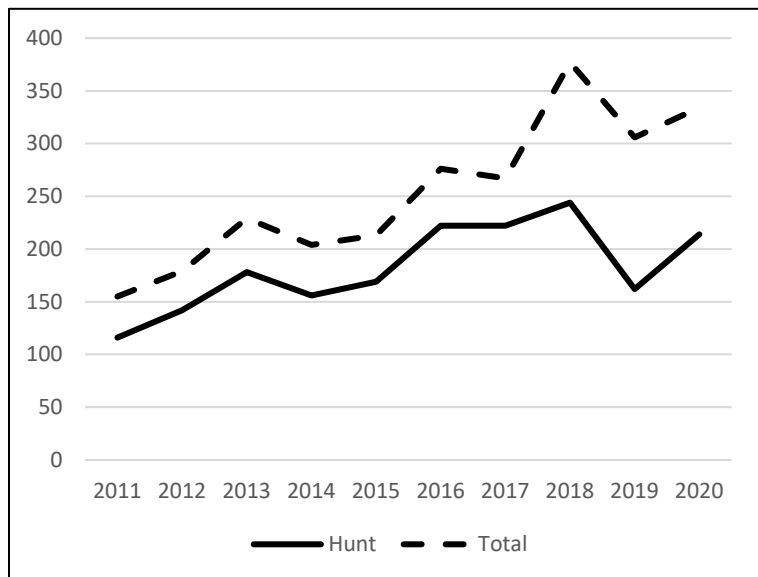


Figure 3. Cougar hunter harvest and total mortality from 2011-2020, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. Tribal harvest and natural mortality is unknown and not included.

Survival and Mortality

Hunting is the main source of mortality for cougar populations across Washington. Hunting mortality averages 68% of the known human-caused mortalities over the most recent 5-years, compared to 78% for the previous 5-year average and 72% for the previous 10-year average. Other human caused mortalities include agency removals, which have increased in recent years, as well as landowner kills, vehicle collisions, and poaching (Figure 3).

Since Initiative 655 (I655) banned the use of hounds as a hunting aid in 1996, license sales have increased from approximately 2,500 to 35,000 annually, seasons have expanded from approximately 75 days to 242 days, and harvest has increased significantly. Along with changes to the hunt structure and harvest levels came a considerable increase in female harvest. Martorello and Beausoleil (2003) first described this change with a 6-year pre-and post-Initiative analysis that showed female harvest went from an average of 42% to 59%, respectively.

Habitat

Cougar habitat was reassessed in 2018 using research data on habitat use and the current habitat estimate encompasses approximately 104,500 km² throughout Washington; 91,000 km² of which WDFW manages for hunting opportunity (Figure 1). The National Parks and tribal lands were included in this assessment but do not fall under WDFW's management authority. Washington is the smallest of the western states and has the least amount of available cougar habitat. Idaho has approximately 99% more habitat than Washington. There is 84% more habitat in Montana and 61% more habitat in Oregon. In Washington, forested corridors are contributors for facilitating cougar movements, maintaining landscape connectivity, and preserving gene flow (Warren et al. 2016). As human populations expand, preserving these connective corridors may be an essential management need in the future and tools have been created specifically for use in Washington (Maletzke et al. 2017) which can aid in that endeavor.

Human-Wildlife Interactions

Minimizing human-wildlife conflict is a management priority for WDFW. The human population in Washington is currently estimated at almost 8 million people, double what it was in the 1970's, and is expected to increase. With more people comes more recreationists in cougar habitat, more small livestock farms around residences, and more intentional and unintentional feeding of wildlife around homes. Therefore, it is imperative WDFW uses a comprehensive outreach and information program to reduce negative human-wildlife interactions. Overwhelmingly, the common causes of interactions identified by staff include the feeding of deer and turkey which brings cougars closer to human development and husbandry practices of livestock and domestic animals. Understanding how to reduce ungulate attractants and installing affordable electric fencing for goats, sheep, and fowl is the best approach to avoiding or minimizing potential interactions. Information and outreach materials are a mandatory component of staff response to potential conflict events. Current outreach materials include a cougar brochure and several videos (Figure 4); these items are available at WDFW regional offices and on the WDFW website. The videos provide information on 1) Cougar territoriality, 2) Tips for cougar encounters, and 3) Hiking in Washington cougar country. In 2021, WDFW collaborated with external organizations on a manual to help small livestock owners minimize conflict, which should be available in 2022. Agency staff have also reported on interaction rates and ways to reduce human-cougar interactions (Kertson et al.

2011, Kertson et al. 2013, Maletzke et al. 2017). Kertson and Keren (2021) reported on human-cougar interaction rates between a declining (due to a disease outbreak) and subsequently increasing cougar population, but interaction rates were similar. This exemplifies the focus for long-term strategies that encompass all pre-emptive recommendations outlined in the materials referenced in this section including improving husbandry practices of small livestock raising activities and eliminating ungulate feeding activities.

Population Augmentation

No population augmentation takes place for cougars in Washington.

Research

In the 22 consecutive years that WDFW has funded or co-funded cougar research projects, almost 30 peer-reviewed manuscripts have been published in top tier journals. Research topics include density and abundance, population demographics, social organization, growth rate, habitat and space use, resource selection, genetic structure, prey use, effects of hunting, harvest rates, and using DNA to evaluate agency and hunter ability to determine sex ID. The most recently concluded project involving cougars is a predator-prey research project which started in 2016 and recently ended in 2020; analysis is underway. The goal of the research is to assess how hunting and predation may affect Washington's ungulate population dynamics as well to document wolf-cougar interactions and assess survival and causes of mortality.

Management Concerns

Exceeding harvest beyond management objectives can be a concern in certain areas and has a potential to reduce cougar populations at the PMU level. On average, 29% of PMUs within a given hunt season close (range = 16-50%) and of the 45 PMUs with harvest guidelines, 14% on average go beyond the upper end of the guideline. Over half of the overages occur prior to January 1, when harvest limits do not yet apply, and the remaining occur after harvest guidelines take effect and hunters must call within 72 hours, which causes a lag time in closure. Percent female harvest should be monitored closely as changes in adult female and kitten survival are the most influential parameters to population growth (Martorello and Beausoleil 2003). Over the past 10 years, female harvest averaged 54%, but little is known about how that affects the population. Also, because PMUs close based on estimated field age of harvested animals, correctly categorizing age class in the field is necessary. Currently approximately 67% of harvests are aged correctly, with most of the inconsistency being adults that are classified as younger aged animals (Table 4). It is currently unknown how the 2020 change in the calculation of density (19 PMU's) and implementation of harvest guidelines (48 PMUs) will affect cougar harvest, but monitoring for overharvest is a primary focus (Beausoleil et al. 2021). Continued monitoring and efforts to provide training and improve age accuracy or adjust harvest guidelines to appropriately compensate for any aging errors are necessary. Finally, harvest that occurs outside of WDFW's management authority remain largely unknown and is not accounted for in the current harvest guidelines. These additional harvests are an additive source of take, particularly in the northeast and Olympic peninsula regions



Figure 4. The “Discover Washington’s Cougars” brochure was developed in 2018 in cooperation with Western Wildlife Outreach.

of Washington. Accounting for that unknown additional harvest and evaluating its effect is difficult without accurate harvest and removal records.

Table 4. Results of comparing estimated field age at time of harvest to tooth age determined from cementum analysis, 2014-2020.

| | | Field Age | | | % Correct |
|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-------|-----------|
| | | Kitten | Subadult | Adult | |
| Tooth Age | Kitten | 38 | 46 | 1 | 44.71% |
| | Subadult | 27 | 211 | 130 | 57.34% |
| | Adult | 16 | 222 | 635 | 72.74% |
| | | | | | 66.67% |

Management Conclusions

WDFW is in the process of updating and revising the Game Management Plan. The previous cougar management structure, outlined in the 2015-2021 Game Management Plan, allowed the Department to address concerns of various constituencies. For hunters, it provided older aged animals on the landscape thus better-quality hunt, it allowed harvest to be equitable across the entire jurisdiction, and when closures occurred, it did not impact a large-scale landscape forcing hunters to travel long distances. For non-hunting users, it recognized their values by maintaining population stability, social structure, and ecosystem integrity. For managers, it was defensibly based in science, ensured credibility, it was simple for multiple user groups to understand, inexpensive to implement, and satisfied multi-stakeholder interests. Having a hunt structure that is responsive to hunting conditions would improve the Department’s ability to manage harvest overages and direct hunters to nearby open PMUs during optimal hunting conditions. Potential considerations to avoid exceeding harvest guidelines are: 1) revert to a single season structure with a designated call-in hotline, both successfully used prior to 2015; and 2) re-establish the 24-hour closure rule when harvest guidelines are met. Additionally, attempting to attain all tribal-related mortality of cougar through cooperative agreements, would improve the ability to assess if we are meeting management objectives. Further developing a cougar outreach and information program focused on pre-emptive techniques is crucial to decreasing human-cougar interactions.

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Black Bear

Black Bear Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

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Introduction

Black bears (*Ursus americanus*) are a native species in Washington and occupy the forested areas throughout Washington. Only the northern island counties within the Puget Sound archipelago and the shrub-steppe habitat of the Columbia Basin do not support resident black bear populations. Black bears are active at all times of the day, so it is not uncommon for humans to see bears moving through the landscape. Black bears are generally solitary by nature, except females with young, and only come together to mate or feed at abundant seasonal food sources. The ecological importance of bears is significant as they are crucial seed dispersers and play a vital role in plant distribution. Overall, black bears in Washington predominantly consume vegetation with the remaining composed of insects, animals, fish and birds. Their diet contributes to healthy ecosystems by providing food for other mammalian and avian species, including insects which deposit nutrients and enrich soils for future plant growth. Bears are also scavengers of dead animals which adds to those benefits.

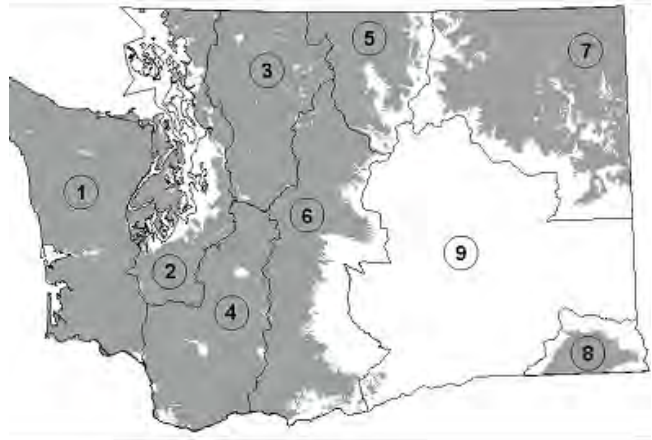


Figure 1. Black bear distribution (in gray) and 9 black bear management units in Washington 2021.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Black bears are an important game species in Washington and agency objectives include managing for a variety of recreational, educational, and aesthetic purposes (WDFW 2015). Management to preserve, protect, and perpetuate black bears and their habitats to ensure healthy productive populations, while minimizing conflict with people, are goals outlined in WDFW's Game Management Plan (WDFW 2015). WDFW has made acquiring a better understanding of bear abundance, density, and growth rate, a management priority which will improve our harvest management.

For management purposes, the state is divided into 9 black bear management units (BBMUs, Figure 1) consisting of the Olympic Peninsula or Coastal (1), Puget Sound (2), North Cascades (3), South Cascades (4), Okanogan (5), East Cascades (6), Northeast (7), Blue Mountains (8) and Columbia Basin (9) units. These BBMUs are based on ecoregions and WDFW game management units (WDFW, 1997).

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021

WDFW monitors hunter effort, median ages of harvest, and sex of kill to infer population size and trend (Table 1) (Beecham and Rohlman 1994). The Department also uses the percent females of hunter harvest to monitor trends within 9 Black Bear Management Units (BBMUs, Table 2) throughout the State (WDFW 2015). Unfortunately, median ages and percent female metrics may not accurately detect population trajectory (Beston and Mace 2012, McLellan et al. 2017). As management objectives and guidelines are revised in the upcoming Game Management Plan, using empirically derived black bear density estimates to calculate harvest rates may become more prominent in defining management criteria, with sex and age data being used more as supplementary information. Black bear density is not uniform across the landscape and can vary based on a variety of factors including habitat quantity and quality, development, and levels of hunting and non-hunt mortality (Welfelt et al. 2019). Utilizing density and abundance information will further inform and improve management.

Table 1. Current black bear harvest guidelines in Washington which are derived for each Black Bear Management Unit (BBMU).

| Parameter | Harvest | | |
|---------------------------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| | Liberalize | Acceptable | Restrict |
| % Female in the harvest | < 35% | 35-39% | > 39% |
| Median age of harvested females | >6 years | 5-6 years | < 5 years |
| Median ages of harvested males | >4 years | 2-4 years | <2 years |

Table 2. Percent female black bear mortality, by year and BBMU in Washington, 2011-2020. Gray areas show where management objective was exceeded.

| | Percent Female Mortality | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----------|----------|
| | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 10-yr Avg | 5-yr Avg |
| BBMU 1 | N/A | 30 | 32 | 28 | 27 | 29 | 35 | 36 | 31 | 36 | 31 | 33 |
| BBMU 2 | N/A | 36 | 42 | 39 | 34 | 43 | 35 | 33 | 26 | 24 | 35 | 32 |
| BBMU 3 | N/A | 36 | 32 | 38 | 31 | 42 | 26 | 40 | 27 | 29 | 33 | 33 |
| BBMU 4 | N/A | 31 | 31 | 44 | 24 | 37 | 35 | 40 | 27 | 33 | 34 | 34 |
| BBMU 5 | N/A | 33 | 27 | 32 | 27 | 32 | 36 | 38 | 31 | 36 | 32 | 35 |
| BBMU 6 | N/A | 27 | 30 | 34 | 34 | 35 | 31 | 34 | 27 | 34 | 32 | 32 |
| BBMU 7 | N/A | 33 | 31 | 33 | 34 | 32 | 37 | 33 | 27 | 31 | 32 | 32 |
| BBMU 8 | N/A | 35 | 29 | 29 | 38 | 37 | 29 | 43 | 42 | 29 | 34 | 36 |
| BBMU 9 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |

Population Surveys

No recent population estimate for black bears in Washington exists, the Department is working to gather better density information throughout the state. The Department has completed field work for black bear density monitoring projects in 9 of the 15 Districts throughout the State (WDFW 2021, Figure 2) where black bears occur. Of these, 6 Districts have density estimates that have already been derived; 3 additional estimates are pending with DNA samples currently under lab analysis. Recent density estimation originated in the North Cascade Mountains in 2013 using 2 detection methods, non-invasive DNA collection using barbed-wire hair collection and physical capture and deployment of global positioning system (GPS) collars. Results showed that while

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021

density varied by human development and habitat productivity, it averaged 20 bears/100 km² in western Cascades and 19 bears/100 km² in eastern Cascades (Welfelt et al. 2019). Because these results showed that density could vary widely by habitat types within limited areas, it was determined that they should not be extrapolated to a statewide or even region-wide black bear density given the variability of habitats.

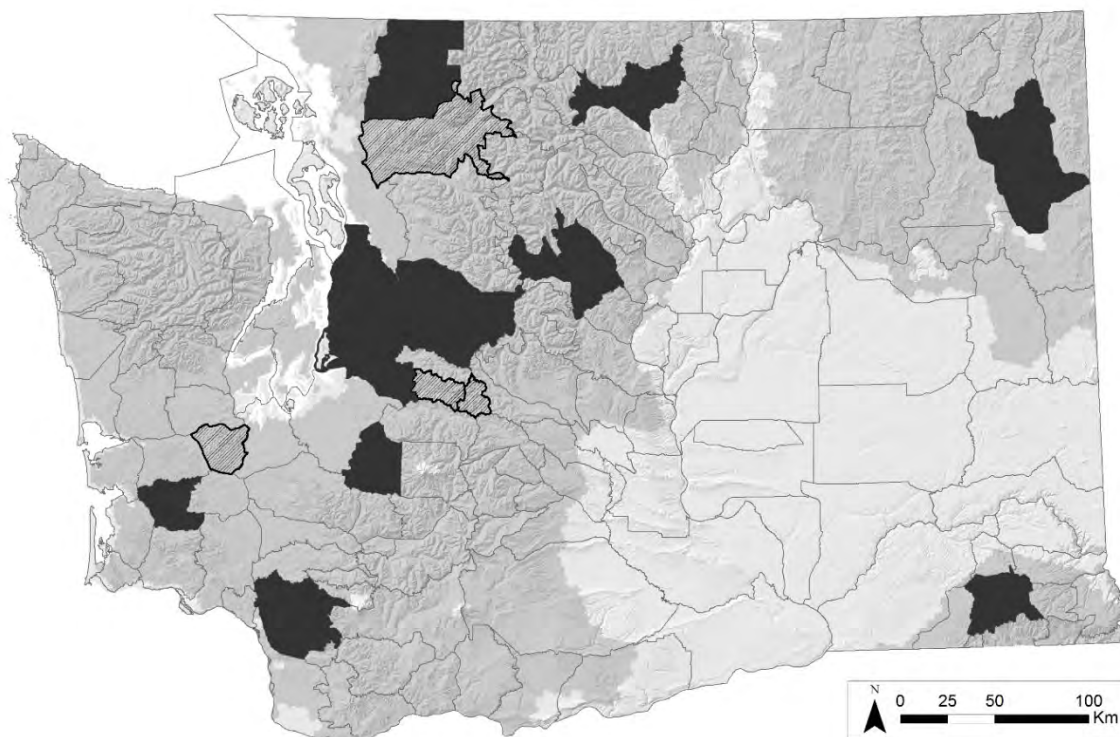


Figure 2. State of Washington with black bear habitat (dark gray) and Game Management Units (GMUs) shown. Highlighted GMUs (117, 162, 166, 218, 245, 418, 454, 460, 550, 556, 654, and 672) in Districts 1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, and 17 show where black bear density research was conducted. Additional density research areas (GMUs 437, 466, and 485) conducted by Tribal entities using similar protocols and work in Capitol State Forest (GMU 663) are also shown and depicted with hashmarks. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2021.

After refining DNA-derived density estimation methods from Welfelt et al. (2019), WDFW biologists performed simulations to establish a sampling design and protocol that could be applied at a broader scale to obtain accurate black bear density estimates throughout the state with the least amount of staff time, materials, and expense to the agency. In 2019, two areas were selected to conduct this monitoring, one in northeast Washington around Chewelah (District 1), and one in southwest Washington between Chehalis and Grays Harbor (District 17). That effort concluded in August 2019 and 1,625 samples were collected and sent to an independent lab for individual and sex identification. After analysis of the genetic data, total density (including cubs) was estimated at approximately 31 bears/100 km² in the northeast study area and 8 bears/100 km² in the southwest study area. In 2020, this effort was continued in two areas of the western Cascades, one west of Mt. St. Helens (District 10) and one west of Mt. Rainier (District 11). That sampling concluded in August 2020 with 1,331 samples collected. Analysis of the genetic results generated

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021

a total density of approximately 8 bears/100 km² west of Mt. St. Helens and 17 bears/100 km² west of mt. Rainier. In the summer of 2021, the work continued with study areas west of Mt. Baker (District 14), the eastern North Cascades near Winthrop (District 6), and the Blue Mountain in southeast Washington (District 3). Almost 3,500 samples were collected from these 3 areas, and DNA results are expected in spring 2022; additional density estimates will be generated using this data. This monitoring project is anticipated to be replicated across the state into the foreseeable future. With multiple density estimates in a variety of habitats, WDFW can examine what habitat and human factors are associated black bear density across Washington. Continued monitoring will also allow for appropriate inferences to be made regarding harvest levels and the effects of management actions.

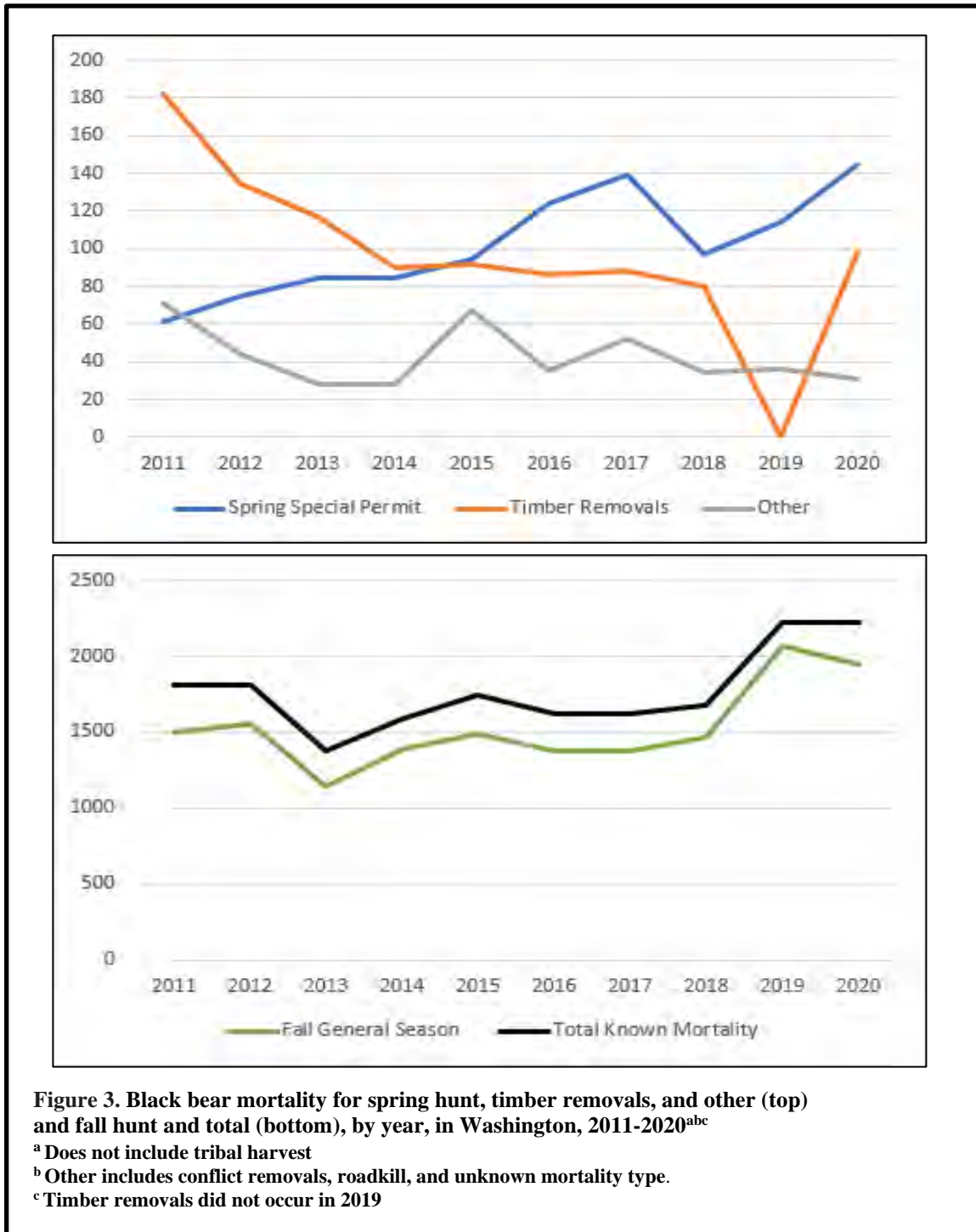
Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The Department provides a total of 184 hunt-days for spring and fall recreational hunting opportunity for black bears and roughly an average of 60,000 licenses are sold annually (Table 3). Spring hunting is by special permit only and authorized in specified areas for a limited number of permits, whereas fall hunting allows hunters to hunt anywhere hunting is legal. Fall tags can be purchased over the counter and there is no limit on the number of licenses that can be sold; however only 2 black bears may be harvested by each hunter per year. In 2019, WDFW increased the bag limit of bears from 1 to 2 in eastern Washington and standardized season length across the state (August 1-November 15) which increased season length in some areas. A mandatory carcass check for Spring special permit hunts was initiated in 2020, however due to concerns over the spread of COVID-19 it was not implemented until 2021.

Table 3. Black bear licenses sold 2011-2020, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife

| | License Year | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| 1 st Bear | 60,357 | 56,393 | 57,832 | 58,291 | 60,864 | 62,032 | 62,861 | 63,720 | 64,743 | 56,561 |
| 2 nd Bear | 569 | 452 | 376 | 423 | 497 | 433 | 418 | 415 | 1,023 | 785 |
| Total | 60,926 | 56,845 | 58,208 | 58,714 | 61,361 | 62,465 | 63,279 | 64,135 | 65,766 | 57,346 |

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021



Over the past 10 years (2011-2020), Washington’s average annual black bear mortality was 1,771. The average fall harvest over the past 5 years (2016-2020) was 1,874 and spring harvest was 124. The previous 5-year (2011-2015) averages were 1,417 and 80, respectively. Fall general season harvest increased approximately 50% statewide in 2019 from the average of the previous 5 years (2014-2018; Figure 3) it is unclear how the liberalization of the bag limit and season length effected the population. Although the number of days available for hunting increased, the harvest data did

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021

not show an increase in hunter numbers or the number of days hunted. Hunters averaged of 8 days of hunting which is the same number of days as the long-term average. Effort as measure by days per kill decreased which can be an indicator of increasing populations when the number of hunting days remain static. This trend continued into 2020, but to a lesser degree.

When viewed by mortality type at a statewide level over the past 10 years, most black bear mortality occurs in fall hunting season (86%), followed by spring special permit hunts (6%), and timber removals (4%) (Figure 3). Tribal black bear harvest occurs statewide, and reporting varies by tribe, thus is not included in WDFW reports. For example, in 2020 the Northwest Indian Fisheries Commission reported an additional 38 bear harvests split between BBMUs 1, 2, 3 and 4.

WDFW collects hunt fall statistics via online reporting. Currently, the reporting rate is about 65%. This mandatory report is followed up with a non-response bias survey to make sure that the data collected are statistically sound. The Department uses those data to determine the number of harvests, sex of harvests, number of days hunted, and GMUs hunted to calculate hunter success. Mortality from hunters mistaking threatened grizzly bears for black bears is a concern for grizzly bear recovery in the Western US. To reduce potential impact in Washington, hunters that choose to hunt in GMUs located in areas identified as grizzly bear recovery by WDFW must successfully complete an annual online bear identification test and score 80 or higher. Agency staff also created a bear identification video in 2020 which is located on the WDFW website. Although not currently prohibited by law, WDFW urges hunters not to shoot cubs or a female with cubs.

Survival and Mortality

Research projects conducted in Washington demonstrate that non-harvest mortality can be an important factor in overall survival rates (WDFW 2018). In the ongoing North Cascades black bear research project (2013-current) where 260 individual bears have been GPS collared to date, nearly all documented mortality was human-related. On the west slope of the North Cascades, 50% of mortalities were hunter kills, 17% were conflict kills, 10% were poached, 8% were wounding loss, 8% were roadkill, and 7% from natural causes. On the east slope of the North Cascades 68% were hunter kills, 17% were natural causes, 7% were conflict kills, 4% were from wounding loss, and 4% were roadkills.

Habitat

Black bears occupy forested areas, which translates to 48% of the land area throughout Washington. The northern island counties within the Puget Sound archipelago, the shrub-steppe habitat of the Columbia Basin, and developed areas do not support resident black bear populations. Washington is the smallest of the western states and has the least amount of potential bear habitat at 108,000 km², with 93,000 km² within WDFW's management authority (Scheick and McCown 2014). Approximately 43% of potential bear habitat is under state or federal ownership, while 32% is owned by industrial private timber companies, resulting in variable land management practices. Because a variety of habitat and human factors can affect bear numbers, population density varies widely in different habitats throughout the state. It is important to note that while large tracts of forested habitat may provide security for bear populations, areas with timber harvest activities or adjacent to human populated areas where human access and disturbance is high, may have lower black bear densities.

Human-Wildlife Interaction

Human-bear conflict activity reflects the variability of environmental conditions and the availability of human-provided attractants and is therefore not a good indicator of population status (Spencer et al. 2007). For example, annual human-bear conflict numbers could rise simply due to a late spring with poor natural forage conditions, followed by a poor fall huckleberry crop. The human population in Washington is currently estimated at 7.5 million and most human-bear interactions take place in King County, which is Washington's most densely human populated area with 2.2 million people. Nonetheless, human-bear conflict can occur statewide given the distribution of people and bears in Washington and the prevalence of high calorie attractants like garbage, bird feeders, and fruit trees. Managers agree that garbage management and the removal of attractants is the single best way to reduce bear-human interactions; to that end, entities intentionally or unintentionally feeding bears may be fined under state law (RCW 77.15.790, 77.15.792). Additionally, homeowners are advised to practice good animal husbandry, including using enclosures and/or electric fencing for chickens and other small-medium sized livestock (e.g., goats and sheep) and keeping enclosures away from forest edges. The Department continues to print and distribute information and outreach pocket guides to further information sharing (Figure 4).



Figure 4. Black bear pocket guides developed for Washington in 2016 in a partnership with *Living with Bears* author Linda Masterson.

Population Augmentation

No population augmentation takes place for black bears in Washington.

Research

Welfelt et al. (2019) is the first in a series of manuscripts that will be compiled from a long-term research project (2013-current) in the North Cascade Mountains. Future manuscripts will include growth rates (survival and reproduction), bear denning ecology, and stable isotope analysis to examine impacts of human foods on black bears and human-bear interactions. Since the North Cascades bear project was concurrent with an ongoing cougar research project, WDFW, in cooperation with the University of Washington, is partnering with a Ph.D. student to compare GPS collar data from black bears and cougars and examine resource selection and interactions between these two species in western Washington.

Management Concerns

Updating and improving the criteria used for evaluating harvest objectives would improve agency management considerably. Some wildlife management agencies have moved away from using median ages and percent females in the harvest and use specific harvest rates based on density estimates and management objective as it is well documented that black bear densities can vary

Black Bear Status and Trend Report 2021

considerably. Using density estimates from ongoing research conducted throughout the state to derive abundance will allow staff to evaluate harvest rates at more localized scale.

Table 4. Results of black bear density research and subsequent estimates of harvest rate in Game Management Units (GMU) in Washington, 2013-2020, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife.

| Study Area GMU | Bear Habitat (km ²) | Average Total Density (bears/100km ²) | Estimated Abundance >1 year old | 5-Year Average* Annual Harvest | Estimated 5-Year Average Harvest Rate |
|----------------|---------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 117 | 2450 | 31.1 | 610 | 58 | 10% |
| 245 | 1504 | 19.2 | 231 | 20 | 9% |
| 454 | 1091 | 18.7 | 163 | 25 | 15% |
| 460 | 2401 | 25.4 | 487 | 25 | 5% |
| 550/556 | 1468 | 7.6 | 89 | 9 | 10% |
| 654 | 842 | 16.9 | 114 | 23 | 20% |
| 672 | 662 | 7.7 | 41 | 5 | 12% |

* 5-year average harvest includes the 5 years prior to the study

Improving response rates for hunter reporting (~65%) and mandatory tooth collection (~25%) remains a focal point for WDFW. A mandatory pelt and skull inspection requirement for spring black bear special permit hunters was adopted and began in 2021, with high compliance rates. This will serve as a test of hunter responsiveness as well as agency staff workload for managers to evaluate. Collecting teeth from harvested black bears is one of the least expensive and time efficient tools managers have available to aid in harvest evaluation, and it fosters a working relationship with the hunting public, through engaging partners in management.

Overwhelmingly, human-bear conflicts involve attractants being provided by people including garbage, bird feeders, and fruit trees. While staff conduct presentations and news releases disseminate information, working with city councils on contract renewals for garbage management and expanding the options for bear-resistant containers and dumpsters for residents and businesses would be the most impactful. Second, working with homeowners' associations on developing focused ordinances and covenants that restrict the use of seed and liquid bird feeders has been shown to be highly effective in reducing human-bear conflict. Finally, informing and training orchardists on disposal of unmarketable fruit is needed as it is a significant and rewarding attractant to a bear, and often brings bears closer to developed areas.

Management Conclusions

Density estimates are the most notable addition available to managers in Washington, which will be useful and relevant in developing updated management objectives and strategies. Therefore, the current priority for advancing and improving black bear management in Washington is to continue monitoring densities statewide and incorporating those densities and other bear demographic information into updating WDFW's black bear management strategies.

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Band-Tailed Pigeon
and
Mourning Dove

Band-Tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

KYLE A. SPRAGENS, Waterfowl Section Manager

Introduction

Pacific Coast band-tailed pigeons and mourning doves are managed cooperatively with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) and western states through the Pacific Flyway Council (PFC). The PFC has developed management plans for these populations, and in 1994 established a population objective for band-tailed pigeons in Washington based on the WDFW call-count survey (PFC 1994). Since that time, PFC has revised the population objective and established closure thresholds based on a new mineral site survey (PFC 2010). Population objectives for mourning doves are being developed as part of the national mourning dove harvest strategy, but with coordinated banding efforts estimates of absolute abundance are available since 2003 (USFWS 2017, Seamans 2020b).

Population Surveys

Methods

Band-tailed Pigeon call-count Survey

The WDFW band-tailed pigeon call-count survey was initiated in 1975 and was patterned after the mourning dove survey. A total of 50 routes, 5.7 miles in length comprised the survey, conducted in western Washington below 1,000 ft. elevation. Surveys were completed during a 16-day period beginning the Saturday closest to June 21, as designed by Jeffrey (1989). Data were sent to USGS in Laurel, MD (Bill Kendall) for analysis using route regression programs developed for the mourning dove survey (Sauer *et al.*, 2003). The WDFW call-count survey was discontinued after 2003 but is presented in this report for comparison to the mineral site survey.

Band-tailed Pigeon Mineral Site Survey

In 2001, USGS-BRD (California Science Center) received a grant from USFWS to design a population index survey for use throughout the range of the Pacific Coast population of band-tailed pigeons. USGS conducted mineral site surveys at 8 western Washington locations in 2001-03 (Overton and Casazza 2004). These included two in Region 4 (Oyster Creek - Pigeon Point and Sumas Springs), one in Region 5 (Cedar Creek), and five in Region 6 (Lilliwaup, McAllister Creek, Mud Bay, Potlatch, and Red Salmon Creek). As part of an earlier grant, USGS-BRD evaluated several population survey techniques, and found that an optimally timed mineral site survey offered statistical advantages over other surveys, including the WDFW call-count survey.

A final report on the mineral site survey was completed in 2004, and coastal states adopted the new mineral site survey as the official index for this population. In 2004, WDFW expanded surveys to 15 sites, as specified under protocols developed for the Pacific Flyway (Overton and Casazza 2004). The 15 sites included the 8 locations established in 2001, along with two in Region 4 (Lake Cavanaugh Rd.-Pefley and Warm Beach), four in Region 5 (Altoona, Newaukum River, St. Martin's Hot Springs, and Upper Kalama) and one in Region 6

Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

(Willapa Estuary). Since 2004, the site list has been modified due to access restrictions or other changes in status. In 2016, the Naselle River mineral site was added as operational to the index as it met the minimum criteria of a known naturally occurring mineral site and at least 2 annual counts (Table 2). In 2019, the main perch tree at Warm Beach was cut down causing birds to scatter in distribution and logistics of future counts at this site uncertain. In 2020, WDFW staff initiated marking studies to identify potential mineral sites, in regions of no historic records, with the use of GPS-quality transmitters, piloting the effort in the Chehalis River watershed in consultation with USGS and USFWS.

Mourning Dove call-count Survey

The mourning dove survey was discontinued by USFWS after the 2013 survey (Seamans and Sanders 2014). WDFW staff in Districts 1, 3, 4, 9, and 17 participated in evaluation of a new point-distance sampling method during 2015, but results are not yet available.

Results

Band-tailed Pigeon call-count Survey

Past call-count survey results are presented in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Band-tailed Pigeon Mineral Site Survey

Cooperators from WDFW and USFWS completed 16 surveys during the July 10-20, 2021 survey period, including an initial count at a potential new mineral site located using marked pigeons. Mineral site survey raw data summaries are presented in Table 2 and Figure 1. Complete 2020 survey results are available through USFWS (Seamans 2021a).

Figure 1 and Table 1 show that based on the call-count survey, the band-tailed pigeon population generally increased from 1975-2003. The route regression method was less precise in determining

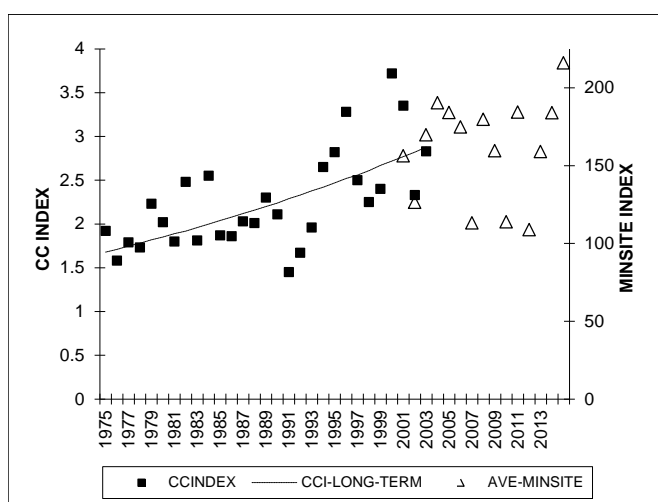


Figure 1. Band-tailed pigeon call-count results and mineral site raw data summaries.

short-term trends than long-term trends, as evidenced by the large confidence intervals for the two-year trends in Table 1. The large spans of these intervals are caused by low sample size due to changing observers from year to year.

The mineral site survey in 2001-2003 exhibited the same general trend as the call-count survey when the two surveys were run concurrently (Figure 1). This rough correlation can be used in the future to develop population objectives for WA consistent with the PFC management plan (PFC 2010).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The band-tailed pigeon season was closed in Washington from 1991-2001. A limited season was reopened in 2002 and has continued since then, with current season dates of September 15-23 and bag/possession limits of 2/6. The mourning dove season was September 1-15 from 1980 through 2007. Current season frameworks allow for the Western Management Unit to allow up to 60 days, with Washington selecting September 1 – October 30 with a bag/possession limits of 15/45.

Methods

Band-tailed Pigeon Harvest Survey

Band-tailed pigeon harvest is estimated annually using mandatory harvest reporting. Written authorization and harvest reports have been required of band-tail hunters in western Washington since the season reopened in 2002. Hunters were required to return a harvest report card by September 30 to avoid a \$10 penalty the following year. Reminders were sent out prior to the reporting deadline. Harvest reports returned by the deadline were included in the analysis as the ‘first wave’ of respondents. A special follow-up survey of non-respondents was conducted via a telephone survey through Washington State University. Responses from this survey were included as the ‘second wave’ and then the harvest estimates were computed accounting for the non-response bias.

Mourning Dove Harvest Estimation

Mourning dove harvest was estimated as part of the statewide hunter survey conducted by WDFW (WDFW 2020).

Banding and Harvest Recoveries

Mourning dove season regulations are informed by harvest rates from annually deployed banded birds, since 2003 (Seamans 2021b). WDFW staff have deployed bands on mourning doves at varying levels of effort since 1954, but most consistently since 2003 to assist in harvest management informed by derivation of annual survival and harvest rates for the Western Management Unit (WMU). These efforts are guided by the Mourning Dove National Strategic Harvest Management Plan, with the endorsement from all four flyways (USFWS 2017). Banding quotas for ‘known age’ mourning dove are distributed within the states by Bird Conservation Regions (BCRs). As part of the Western Management Unit for mourning dove, Washington is tasked with banding in the three BCRs, with the Great Basin (BCR-9) responsible for 82% (229 of 279 known After Hatch Year, and 182 of 221 known Hatch Year) of the statewide expectation (Otis 2009).

Results

Band-tailed Pigeon Harvest

Harvest and hunter activity for the 2002-2020 seasons are summarized in Figures 2 and 3 and Table 3.

Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

Mourning Dove Harvest

As measured by WDFW (2020) small game surveys, harvest in 2020 was estimated at 48,624 doves, up 16.4% from 2019, and 4.2% below the recent 10-year average (Figure 4). Hunter numbers were estimated at 4,147, up 25.3% from 2019 and 4.5% above the recent 10-year average. Number of days hunted was estimated to be 12,953, up 24.6% from 2019. Despite long-term declines and depressed participation compared to the 1970s, harvest, the number of hunters and hunter days afield all increased compared to 2019 estimates, likely influenced by the COVID-19 pandemic, but in line with long-term averages recorded for dove hunting. When the number of dove harvest per hunter is considered, the 2020 estimate of 11.7 dove per hunter is below the recent five-consecutive high estimates, however is still above the long-term average of 10.9 dove per hunter success rate since 1970 (Figure 4). The highest value was recorded in 2015 at 15.2 dove per hunter. This level of harvest per hunter consistently places Washington third among Pacific Flyway states with mourning dove harvest, behind only Arizona and California (Seamans 2021b).

A total of 578 mourning doves were banded statewide, with 572 being used in analysis of survival and harvest rates (Seamans 2021b, Table 4). A total of 32 banded mourning dove recoveries were reported by hunters during the 2020-2021 season. Most of the reported harvest recoveries were reported from Washington (31), and one (1) recovery report from Mexico (Figure 5). Within Washington, the majority of harvest recoveries were reported from the Columbia Basin and Yakima Valley, and no recoveries reported from western Washington (Figure 5 inset).

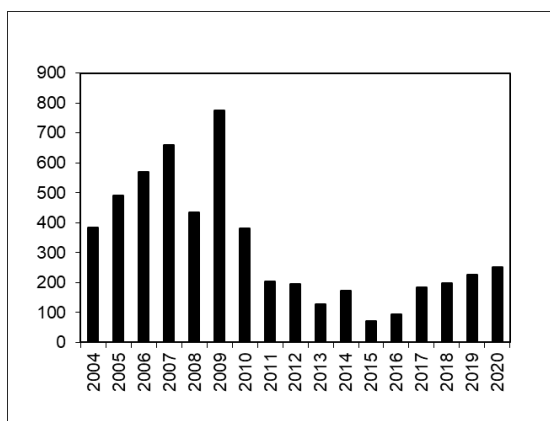


Figure 2. Band-tailed pigeon total harvest since 2004 when a season re-opened per Pacific Flyway Management Plan.

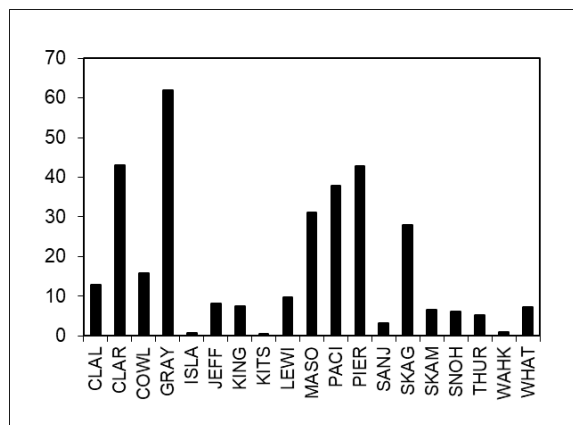


Figure 3. Band-tailed pigeon 2002-2020 average annual harvest by county.

Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

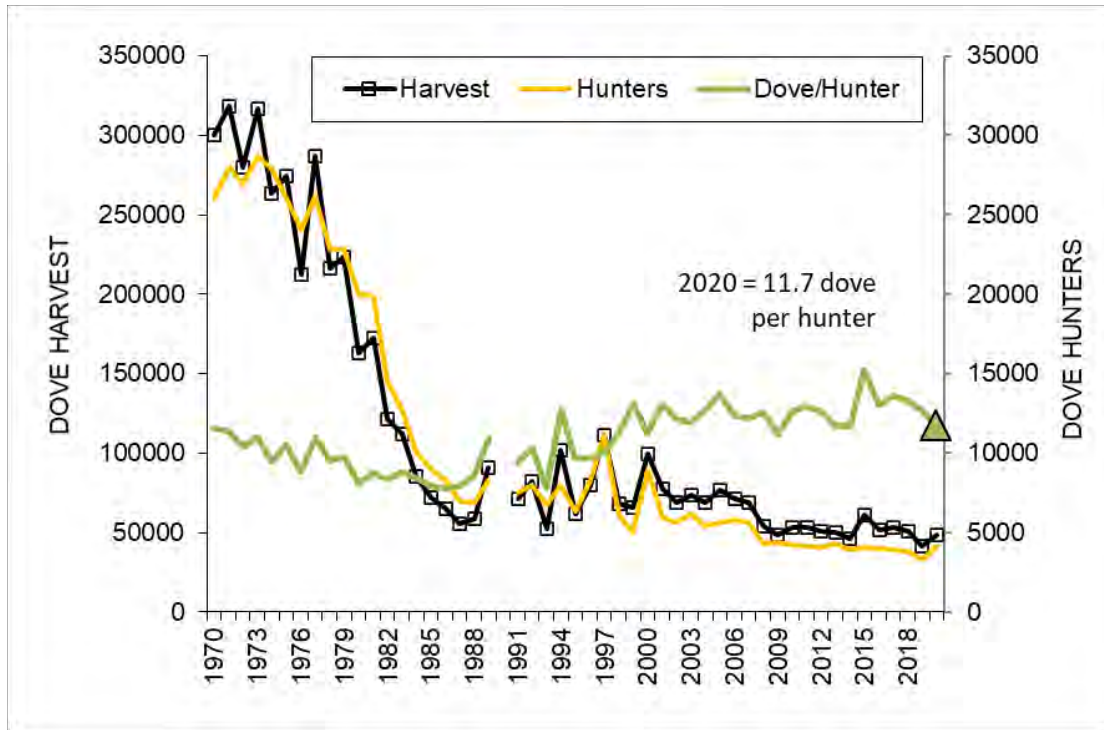


Figure 4. Mourning dove statewide harvest and hunter numbers 1970-2020.

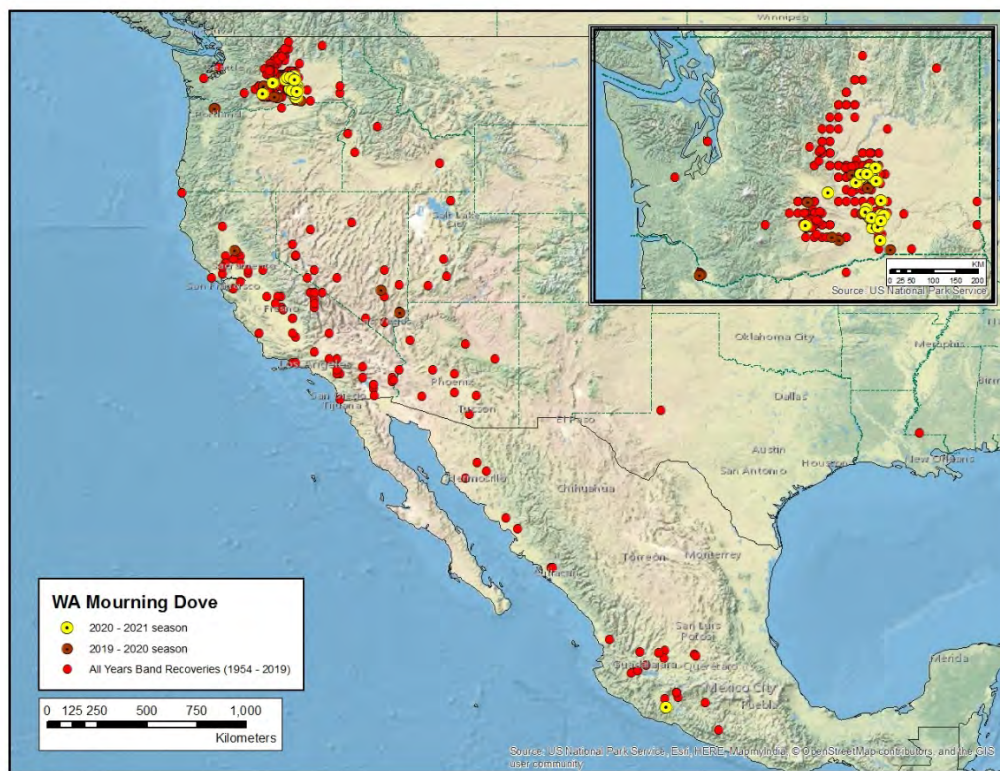


Figure 5. Mourning dove harvest recoveries from birds banded in Washington. Harvest recoveries from the 2020 season (n = 32; yellow dots) in comparison to harvest distribution patterns dating back to 1954.

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Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Band-tail call-count survey results - route regression method.

| Start Year | End Year | Change | Lower 90% CI | Upper 90% CI | Routes Used | Sig. level |
|------------|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| 1975 | 1992 | -7.8% | -14.0% | -2.0% | 63 | p<0.05 |
| 1991 | 1992 | 10.1% | -50.0% | 75.0% | 11 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 1993 | -6.0% | -11.0% | -1.0% | 65 | p<0.05 |
| 1992 | 1993 | 44.0% | -49.0% | 152.0% | 13 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 1994 | -3.4% | -8.2% | 1.4% | 69 | n.s. |
| 1993 | 1994 | 71.0% | 1.4% | 141.0% | 24 | p<0.05 |
| 1975 | 1995 | -2.7% | -9.8% | 4.5% | 70 | n.s. |
| 1994 | 1995 | 12.1% | -31.3% | 55.3% | 12 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 1996 | -0.8% | -6.5% | 4.9% | 59 | n.s. |
| 1992 | 1996 | 24.3% | 10.4% | 38.2% | 30 | p<0.01 |
| 1995 | 1996 | 36.4% | -35.9% | 108.7% | 18 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 1997 | -0.8% | -6.0% | 4.3% | 62 | n.s. |
| 1993 | 1997 | 8.9% | 0.2% | 17.6% | 32 | p<0.10 |
| 1996 | 1997 | -14.3% | -35.4% | 6.7% | 18 | n.s. |
| 1975 | | -1.5% | -5.5% | 2.4% | 65 | n.s. |
| 1994 | 1998 | 2.1% | -8.7% | 13.0% | 34 | n.s. |
| 1997 | 1998 | -11.0% | -45.8% | 23.9% | 11 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 1999 | -0.1% | -4.1% | 3.8% | 67 | n.s. |
| 1995 | 1999 | -3.3% | -11.5% | 4.9% | 38 | n.s. |
| 1998 | 1999 | 26.7% | -19.7% | 73.1% | 14 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 2000 | -0.3% | -6.2% | 5.5% | 70 | n.s. |
| 1996 | 2000 | 5.9% | -2.3% | 14.1% | 41 | n.s. |
| 1999 | 2000 | 21.1% | -12.5% | 54.8% | 24 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 2001 | 1.7% | -2.3% | 5.7% | 70 | n.s. |
| 1997 | 2001 | 15.8% | 8.0% | 23.6% | 44 | p<0.01 |
| 2000 | 2001 | 1.8% | -16.6% | 20.2% | 36 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 2002 | 0.7% | -3.7% | 5.0% | 71 | n.s. |
| 1998 | 2002 | 9.4% | 2.6% | 16.2% | 45 | P<0.05 |
| 2001 | 2002 | 0.9% | -27.5% | 25.8% | 32 | n.s. |
| 1975 | 2003 | 1.8% | -1.7% | 5.4% | 71 | n.s. |
| 1999 | 2003 | 0.6% | -4.8% | 5.9% | 48 | n.s. |
| 2002 | 2003 | 5.2% | -30.5% | 40.8% | 25 | n.s. |

Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2: WA band-tailed pigeon mineral site survey raw data 2004-2021.

| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2021 |
|-------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Altoona | 64 | 0 | 5 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cedar Cr. | 215 | 185 | 231 | 191 | 312 | 163 | 154 | | 142 | 181 | 267 | 207 | 306 | 246 | 145 | 308 | 187 | 190 |
| Cosmopolis* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 664 |
| L. Cavanaugh - Pefley | 108 | 172 | 76 | 71 | 117 | 70 | 89 | 113 | 146 | 156 | 110 | 98 | 149 | 148 | 83 | 67 | | |
| Lilliwaup | 199 | 143 | 273 | 141 | 89 | 110 | 123 | 167 | 74 | 210 | 197 | 178 | 251 | 143 | 292 | 390 | 285 | 350 |
| McAllister | 124 | 174 | 87 | 25 | 136 | 46 | 134 | 107 | 102 | 77 | 78 | 90 | 105 | 111 | 78 | 44 | 96 | 97 |
| Morse Creek^ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| Mud Bay | 134 | 371 | 294 | 95 | 203 | 130 | 70 | 175 | 87 | 214 | 136 | 297 | 208 | 187 | 349 | 594 | 264 | 263 |
| Oyster Cr. – Pigeon Pt. | 474 | 542 | 293 | 157 | 331 | 314 | 190 | 344 | 121 | 51 | 39 | 14 | | 6 | 226 | 75 | 188 | 126 |
| Naselle River | | | | | | | | | | | | 184 | 115 | 37 | 42 | 292 | 107 | 199 |
| Newaukum | 634 | 167 | 335 | 309 | 219 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 486 |
| Potlatch | 297 | 285 | 306 | 168 | 295 | 480 | 129 | 297 | 288 | 333 | 254 | 506 | 406 | 396 | 556 | 718 | 465 | 474 |
| Red Salmon | 179 | 103 | 64 | 33 | 107 | 41 | | 0 | 47 | 5 | | 93 | | 43 | | 180 | 162 | 291 |
| Soda Springs | | | | | | | | | 58 | 112 | | 193 | 259 | 246 | 106 | 101 | 89 | 220 |
| St. Martins | 220 | 128 | 191 | 189 | 141 | 210 | 214 | 439 | 180 | 308 | 354 | 435 | 507 | 83 | 279 | 283 | 126 | 313 |
| Sumas | 46 | | 68 | | | | | 78 | 17 | 82 | 74 | 78 | | 96 | 152 | 64 | 101 | 91 |
| U. Kalama | 110 | 225 | 327 | 120 | 350 | 317 | 111 | 368 | 258 | 245 | 187 | 322 | 321 | 243 | 471 | 539 | 476 | 704 |
| Totten -Oyster Bay | | | | | | | 119 | 53 | 101 | 192 | 332 | 486 | 388 | 308 | 221 | 443 | 365 | 424 |
| Warm Beach | 48 | 58 | 62 | 83 | 36 | 29 | 29 | 72 | 10 | 60 | | 33 | 223 | 57 | 16 | | | |
| Willapa | 3 | 24 | 10 | 3 | 0 | 5 | 5 | | 2 | | | | | | | | | |

Uncorrected Totals 2855 2577 2622 1585 2336 1915 1367 2213 1633 2226 2028 3214 3238 2350 3016 4098 3397 4531

* = Cosmopolis (potential); located by 3 marked individual pigeons, site sampled for mineral concentration, count not official.

^ = Morse Creek (previously identified); revisited site identified by USGS report, but no pigeons were recorded during survey attempt.

Band-tailed Pigeon/Mourning Dove Status and Trend Report 2021

| Table 3: WA band-tailed pigeon harvest report summary | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|--------------|
| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 2004-20 AVG. |
| NUMBER OF PERMITS ISSUED | 766 | 809 | 909 | 894 | 917 | 567 | 632 | 178 | 237 | 244 | 266 | 249 | 253 | 212 | 220 | 98 | 206 | 450 |
| TOTAL DAYS | 209 | 382 | 315 | 364 | 247 | 548 | 362 | 151 | 195 | 85 | 191 | 96 | 112 | 192 | 222 | 266 | 269 | 247 |
| TOTAL HARVEST | 383 | 492 | 569 | 661 | 434 | 776 | 381 | 205 | 196 | 129 | 172 | 72 | 94 | 183 | 198 | 226 | 253 | 319 |
| HARVEST BY COUNTY | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CLAL | 14 | 25 | 35 | 37 | 5 | 0 | 39 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 |
| CLAR | 29 | 35 | 60 | 51 | 56 | 94 | 18 | 48 | 29 | 12 | 44 | 19 | 26 | 57 | 67 | 55 | 36 | 43 |
| COWL | 4 | 2 | 3 | 32 | 24 | 39 | 12 | 18 | 15 | 0 | 4 | 9 | 4 | 11 | 17 | 9 | 6 | 12 |
| GRAY | 104 | 76 | 71 | 145 | 103 | 129 | 83 | 47 | 55 | 26 | 55 | 2 | 18 | 31 | 50 | 20 | 49 | 63 |
| ISLA | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| JEFF | 31 | 26 | 14 | 29 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 |
| KING | 13 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 9 | 43 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| KITS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| LEWI | 11 | 34 | 5 | 22 | 13 | 19 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 9 | 4 | 14 | 1 | 9 |
| MASO | 48 | 62 | 63 | 84 | 59 | 126 | 19 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 18 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 30 |
| PACI | 37 | 35 | 73 | 80 | 82 | 136 | 56 | 1 | 47 | 33 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 22 | 18 | 16 | 20 | 39 |
| PIER | 30 | 62 | 85 | 63 | 32 | 85 | 43 | 14 | 34 | 42 | 36 | 28 | 28 | 34 | 34 | 17 | 20 | 40 |
| SANJ | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| SKAG | 15 | 97 | 74 | 65 | 31 | 30 | 42 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 22 |
| SKAM | 0 | 10 | 16 | 21 | 11 | 27 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| SNOH | 3 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 10 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| THUR | 8 | 2 | 24 | 10 | 0 | 5 | 13 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 5 |
| WAHK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 1 |
| WHAT | 24 | 6 | 14 | 4 | 0 | 28 | 6 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 6 |

Waterfowl

Waterfowl: Breeding Populations and Production Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

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KYLE A. SPRAGENS, Waterfowl Section Manager

Introduction

This report summarizes waterfowl productivity data collected during 2020 and 2021 in Washington State, including information on breeding waterfowl populations, duck broods, and goose nest surveys. The Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW), U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS), Yakama Indian Nation, Colville Confederated Tribes, Washington Waterfowl Association, and Chelan County Public Utility District contributed data. Due to the ongoing COVID-19 (SARS-CoV-2) pandemic, several activities including the aerial breeding surveys conducted by Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife were again canceled in spring 2021, with limited field work allowed following social distancing protocols in compliance with the Washington Governor's Stay Home, Stay Healthy order, and Safe Start plan. Monitoring indices, figures and tables reflect the most recent information available, and have been updated where field logistics allowed.

Population Surveys

Duck Breeding Population Survey Methods

Historical surveys to estimate breeding duck populations in eastern Washington were conducted annually within seven strata in eastern Washington: West Okanogan Potholes, Omak-Douglas Potholes, Far East Potholes, Northeast, and Palouse Streams, Columbia Basin Irrigated, and Yakima Valley Irrigated (Fig. 1). Surveys were conducted by ground counts of transects or sections, except helicopter counts were used for the 1/4-sections in the Desert Wildlife Area (Frenchman and Winchester Wasteways) within the Columbia Basin Irrigated strata (Fig. 1). Samples were multiplied by weighting factors to provide an index to the total number of breeding ducks and coots within the defined areas (Tables 1-3). Weighting factors were determined from the proportion of areas within the strata that were sampled. Observations were treated as complete counts within sampling units (transects or quadrats) with no corrections for visibility bias.

Due to concerns about design of past surveys (lack of random sample selection and variance estimates), WDFW began the process of redesigning the eastern Washington waterfowl breeding population survey in 2008, in conjunction with staff from the USFWS Pacific Flyway office formerly in Portland, OR, and the USFWS Branch of Population and Habitat Assessment in Laurel, MD. The new design consists of randomly selected 1/4 mile helicopter transects to replace the past survey design. The goal of the new survey is to provide breeding population indices (with variance estimates) comparable to surveys conducted in other parts of the Pacific Flyway, for inclusion in the western mallard management protocols adopted by USFWS in 2008. The new and old survey designs were run concurrently for three years (2009-11), and the old design was discontinued after the 2011 survey. The new survey design (including the Irrigated, Potholes, and Northeast

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Highlands strata) was modified in 2012 to address continued safety and efficiency concerns for the Northeast Highlands stratum (Fig. 2). As a result, transects in this stratum were placed at 10-mile intervals on an east-west orientation across major river valleys. In addition, minor boundary adjustments were made to other stratum boundaries, including elimination of Saddle Mountain from the Irrigated stratum. Overall, in eastern Washington, observers surveyed approximately 1,688 transect miles over a 5-day period between May 6-10, 2019.

Beginning in 2010, line-transect surveys, similar to the new eastern Washington survey, were developed and flown for the new western Washington breeding waterfowl population survey (Fig. 3). Observers surveyed approximately 984 transect-miles between April 29–May 2, 2019.

The modifications to survey design and areas during the initial years of the aerial survey created difficulties in comparing results across years. To address this issue, survey results from 2009-2012 were reevaluated and standardized by matching strata boundaries to the surveys boundaries used in 2013. Transects and observations from 2009-2012 that fell outside 2013 strata boundaries were dropped from analyses. Data from the Highlands in 2010 and 2011 were also excluded from analyses due to different survey methods.

Methods for estimating total number of breeding ducks follow the Standard Operating Procedures of Aerial Waterfowl Breeding Ground Population and Habitat Surveys in North America (USFWS & CWS 1987). Breeding populations are estimated by multiplying the number of pairs, lone drakes, and flocked drakes (<5 male birds) by 2, and grouped birds (mixed or >5 males) by 1. Lone hens are multiplied by 1 for redhead, scaup, ring-necked duck, and ruddy duck only. These diver species are known to be late nesters and males significantly outnumber females. Observations of mallards (Fig. 4) during the 2019 breeding population survey show wide distribution with varying density across all strata.

Results

The most recent total breeding duck counts numbered 194,092 (*SE* 14,672) within three eastern Washington strata (Table 4). The most recent total mallards numbered 89,675 (*SE* 11,270). Gadwall was the second most numerous species on the survey (22,142, *SE* 4,132), followed by Cinnamon Teal (15,780 *SE* 3,008), Redhead (12,886 *SE* 3,838), and Northern shoveler (9,484 *SE* 2,796, Fig. 5).

The Potholes stratum comprised 63.0% of the total duck count in 2019, followed by the Irrigated stratum (20.2%) and the Highlands stratum (16.7%). Compared to the 2018 survey, 2019 total breeding duck counts decreased 12.0% in eastern Washington (Fig. 6, Table 4).

The most recent revised survey design for western Washington estimated the total breeding duck population at 54,240 (*SE* 5,163). Mallards numbered 36,568 (*SE* 4,442), followed by wood duck 4,916 (*SE* 678), Green-winged teal (4,374 *SE* 2,060), and Gadwall (2,037 *SE* 1,059; Fig. 7, Table 5). The North Puget Lowlands stratum held the majority of breeding ducks in 2019 (45.7%), followed by the South Puget Lowlands (28.8%), Hood Canal (12.2%), Chehalis River Valley (7.6%), and Dungeness (5.8%; Fig. 8, Table 5).

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Statewide, the total breeding duck counts decreased 11.7% compared to the previous year and are up 51.5% over the most recent 3-year average. Mallards increased 1.1% (+50% 3-year average), American wigeon decreased 7.9%, but remain above the 3-year average (5.6%); gadwall decreased 14.9% (54% 3-year average). Wood ducks decreased 40.5% (+145% 3-year average) since last season (Fig. 9). Northern shovelers decreased 44.5% (+0.1%) but remain very high over the long-term (+107%), as well as Blue-winged teal (+645%), and ruddy ducks (+131%, Fig. 9). Decreases were again noted in Northern pintail (-60.8%, +3% long term). However, bufflehead increased 17% over 2018 and green-winged teal increased 31.5% (6% long term). These sustained increases above the long-term averages were driven largely by average snowpack and continued uncommon water abundance in eastern Washington.

Duck Production Survey (Brood Survey)

Methods

The same sampling transects used for historic breeding duck surveys are used for brood surveys in the Potholes, Palouse, and Northeast strata (Fig. 1). These surveys are conducted in late June to early July. All broods observed are recorded by species. The numbers of broods observed are multiplied by the weighting factors for each stratum to provide an index to duck production. Average brood size is very difficult to estimate. Historic surveys in the Irrigated strata were designed to estimate average brood size. As a result, the survey effort varied somewhat among years. To provide more consistency, the surveys in the Columbia Basin were redesigned in 1995 by using six sample sites to provide an index to production.

Broods for most species are highly secretive and difficult to observe. The current year's growth of emergent vegetation is more developed than during breeding population surveys in May. Production surveys should be viewed as a rough estimate of production with greater value for long-term trends than for year-to-year changes. In 2020, WDFW initiated a survey re-design with three primary objectives; first, to better align brood production data with aerial survey strata statewide, second, to include wetland-types (by seasonality of water) as a component of stratification to account for landscape and environmental changes being documented across Washington, and finally, to design the survey protocol to allow a broader suite of partners and volunteers to participate expanding our coverage both spatially and temporally. These redesign efforts are being undertaken in an effort to better describe status and pressures on waterfowl broods and their wetland habitats in Washington. This new survey protocol will be piloted in spring 2022.

Results

The brood survey is undergoing an evaluation to determine feasibility of sampling design, efficiency, and repeatability. For 2021 only two brood observation routes were completed due to staffing shortages and issues with observability. Data were averaged for comparisons to previous years under the current weighting factors, and do not provide enough data to update 2021 numbers. In 2020, the Potholes, Palouse, and Northeast strata dropped 65% from 2019 averages and remains 14% below the long-term for all combined duck species (Fig. 10, Table 6). Brood production increased 38% in the Okanogan strata and 21% in the Palouse. However, the Columbia Basin stratum decreased 42% and remains at 72% of the long-term average. The Channeled Scablands decreased 6% remaining about 66% below the long-term average for the stratum and the Northeast stratum decreased 5%, to fall to 6% below the long-term average (Table 7).

Canada Goose Breeding Population Survey

Methods

Canada goose breeding populations are indexed for 1974-2018 from nest searches conducted within four major geographic areas, mainly along the Snake and Columbia rivers (Table 8). Surveys were conducted annually, biennially, or periodically. The total number of goose nest attempts was used as an index of the goose breeding population, and surveys were focused on areas with high densities of nesting geese. Some areas with relatively recent goose population expansions were not surveyed. Total geese observed during historic and new aerial breeding duck surveys also provide an index to the goose population in those areas not surveyed during nest searches. Beginning in 2019, there were no ground-based nest searches conducted. The aerial index for breeding geese is being used to monitor breeding geese throughout Washington consistent with the extent of harvest management strategies considered for this population.

Results

The most recent, 2019 Canada goose breeding index decreased about 1% statewide compared to last year, remaining 23% above the 1974-2018 average. The total eastern Washington index decreased about 1.6% compared to last year, remaining 23% above the 1974-2018 average (Fig. 11, Table 9). Nest indices remained unchanged in the upper Columbia (0%), and in the mid-Columbia (0%) due to variable year survey efforts. (Fig. 12, Fig. 13, Table 9). Counts have been carried over in any strata that was in a non-count year or due to access limitations. The lower Columbia section of this stratum is only surveyed every 5-years and was last surveyed in 2012. Therefore, counts from the previous year were used. Aerial breeding goose surveys replace the routine surveys intermittently conducted. Over 21 surveys were conducted according to the variable survey schedule. Most strata in the state are above their long-term averages (1974-2017) except for the Upper Columbia River stratum, which began a steep decline starting in 2003 (-9%, Fig.12, Table 9).

The number of geese observed during the breeding duck surveys is presented in Figure 14 and Table 9. This index provides information about the expansion of Canada geese into areas of Washington outside of our traditional goose nest index areas, and in general, shows an increasing trend over the complete survey period. Observations of Canada geese (Fig. 15) in 2019 demonstrate variable density with lower distribution across strata.

Waterfowl Banding

Methods

The use of banding as a tool to derive demographic estimates for survival, harvest distribution and derivation, and harvest rate in Washington has been implemented at varying levels of effort since 1946, with emphasis on mallard (1947) and Canada goose (1949). In March 1990, the Pacific Flyway Council endorsed the Pacific Flyway Study Committee's banding project with the objective to conduct sufficient and representative summer banding to obtain adequate band-recovery data as a necessary element for assessing the distribution and derivation of mallard and other waterfowl harvest in the Pacific Flyway (Bartonek and Bales 1995). In 1995, the USFWS implemented the adaptive harvest management (AHM) program for setting duck hunting regulations in the United States. The AHM approach provides a framework for making objective

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

decisions in the face of incomplete knowledge concerning waterfowl population dynamics and regulatory impacts (USFWS 2020a). Since 2010, both the Breeding Population Survey and pre-season mallard banding to inform harvest regulations in Washington (USFWS 2020b).

Capture of Western Canada geese is conducted during June – July when non-breeding birds and family groups typically undertake flightless molt, allowing the use of a corral trap. A crew, consisting of WDFW staff and volunteers, is used to herd the flock of flightless geese into a capture pen. Capture of dabbling ducks, with emphasis on mallards, is conducted during July-September using one of three typical methods: 1) baited swim-in trap, 2) baited floating trap, or 3) rocket-net. Configuration of the capture site, accounting for constraints in the surrounding landscape, determine the most appropriate capture technique (Batt 1992). Each captured individual is assessed, at a minimum for species, age, and sex, then marked with an appropriately sized aluminum butt-end band issued by the Bird Banding Laboratory and released. Following field efforts, banding data was compiled using Bandit software (BBL: usgs.gov/software/bandit-software).

Results

The summer banding of Western Canada geese was conducted under compliance with COVID-19 restrictions on group size and involvement of volunteers. A total of 580 goose bands were deployed in western Washington, while banding was cancelled in eastern Washington due to extreme daytime heat indexes for the second half of June. The most recent 3-year average for Western Canada goose is 1,062 (range: 842-1,279) goose bands deployed by WDFW staff and volunteers. Due to smaller crew sizes and individual processing logistics, summer (pre-season) duck banding was able to follow social distancing protocols. A total of 1,863 ducks were banded between July and September 2021, with 1,517 being mallard bands. Other species banded during capture efforts included wood duck, and all three teal species. The previous 3-year average is 1,107 (range: 1,014-1,305) mallard bands deployed by WDFW staff and volunteers.

Potential Improvements to Waterfowl Breeding and Production Surveys

- Provide visualization tool for breeding survey data available on WDFW website.
- Evaluate ways to combine goose nest surveys and aerial surveys into a more representative goose breeding population index to inform September season harvest strategies.
- Develop an operational standardized survey related to productivity, which may be integrated with banding efforts.

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Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

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Figure 1. Historic waterfowl breeding survey areas.

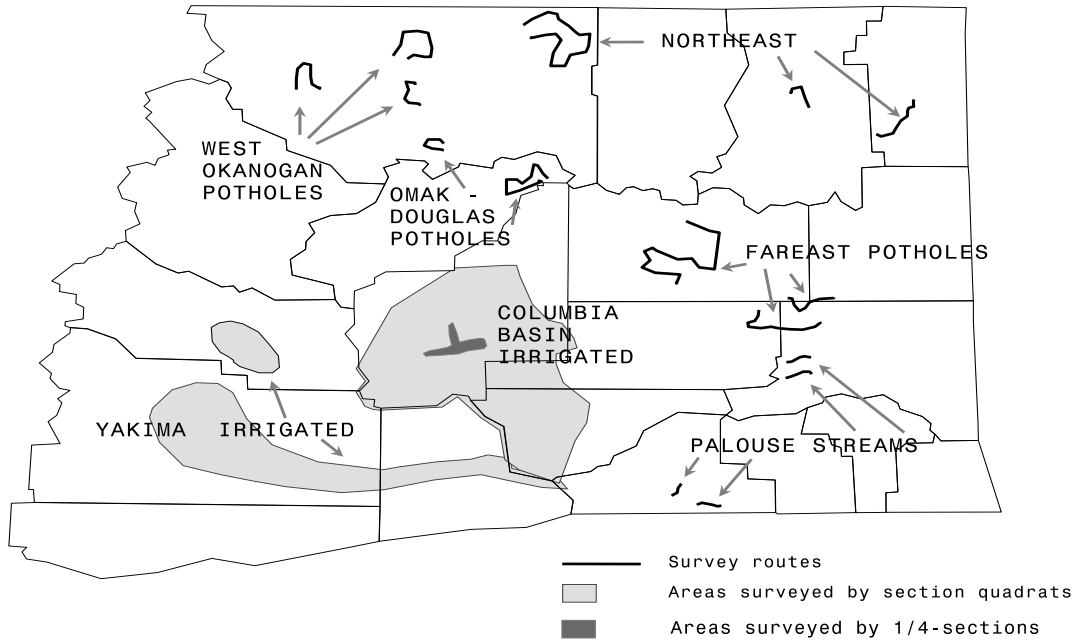


Figure 2. Eastern Washington aerial breeding waterfowl survey transects flown in 2019.

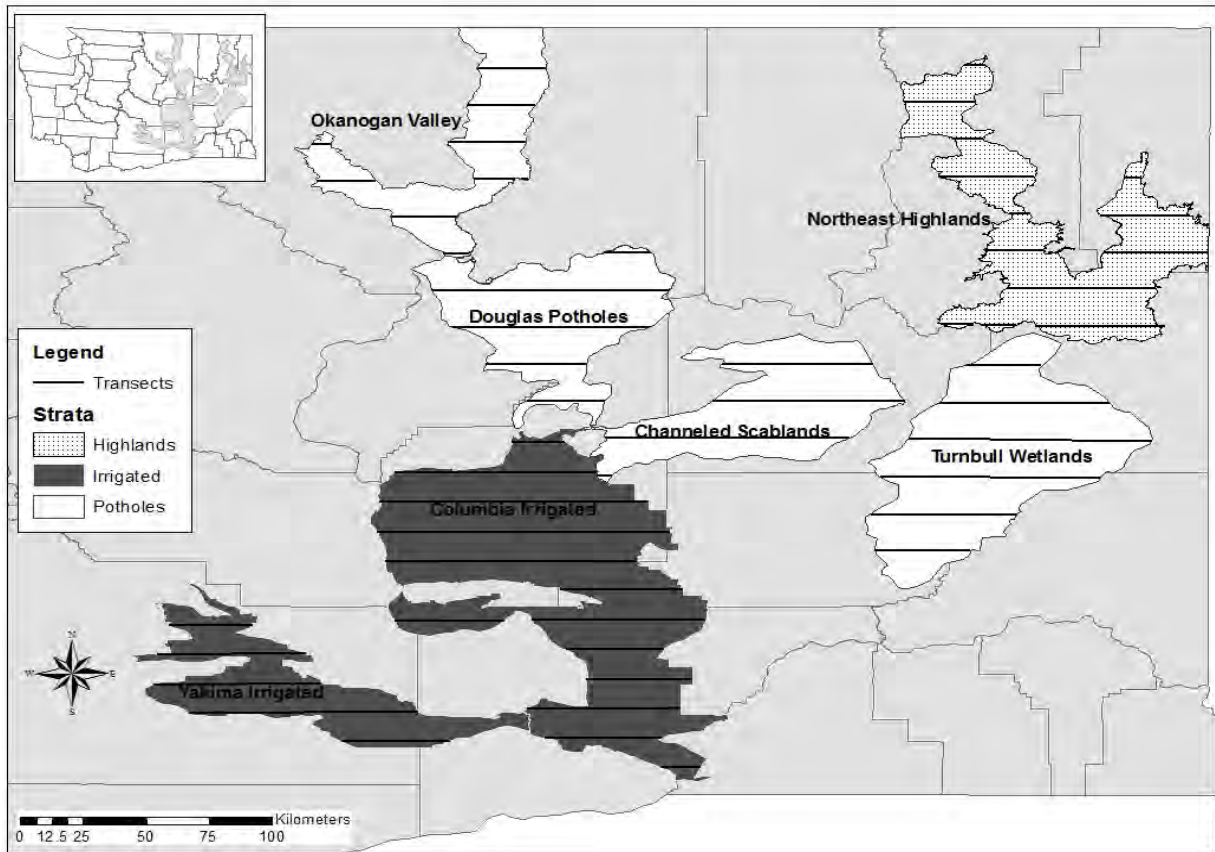


Figure 3. Western Washington aerial breeding waterfowl survey transects flown in 2019.

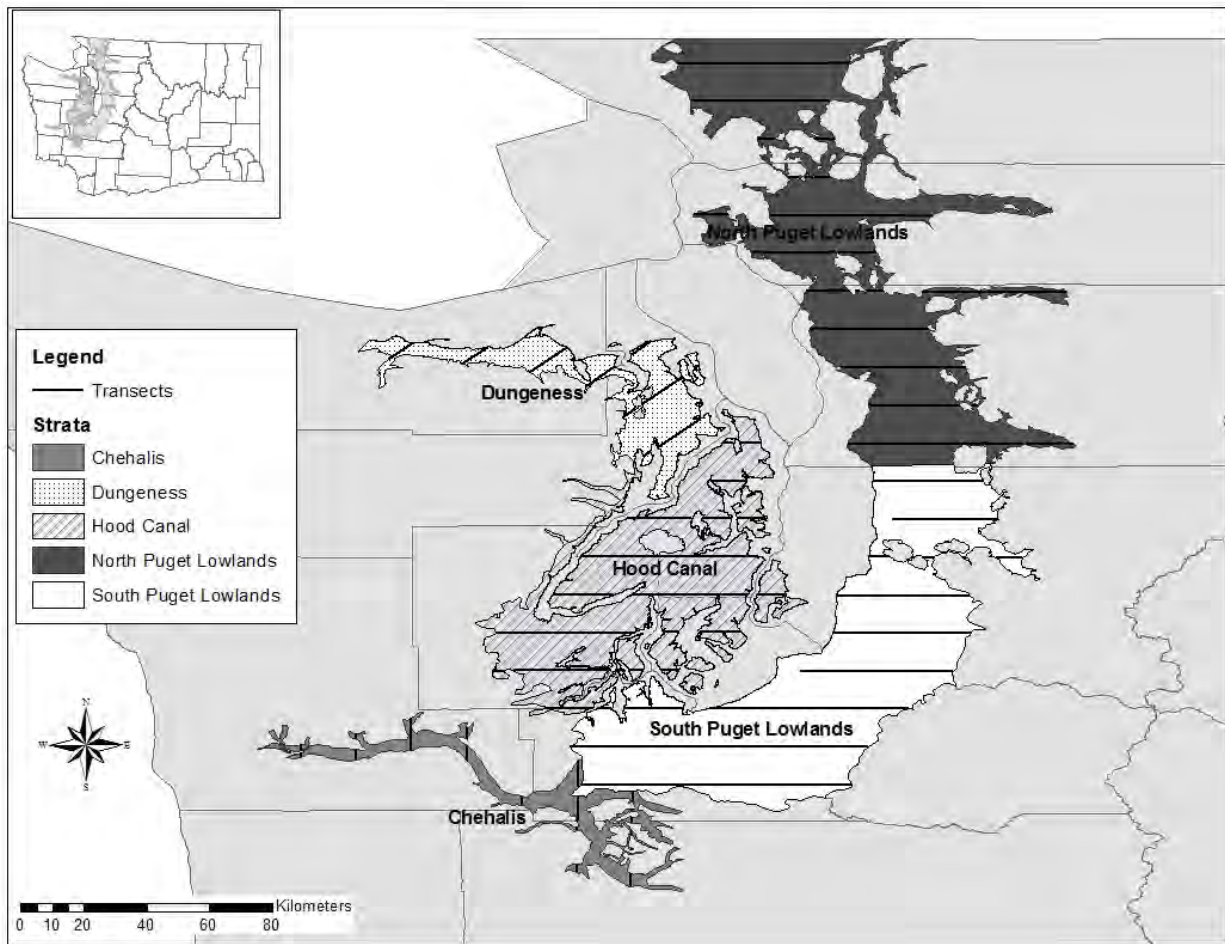
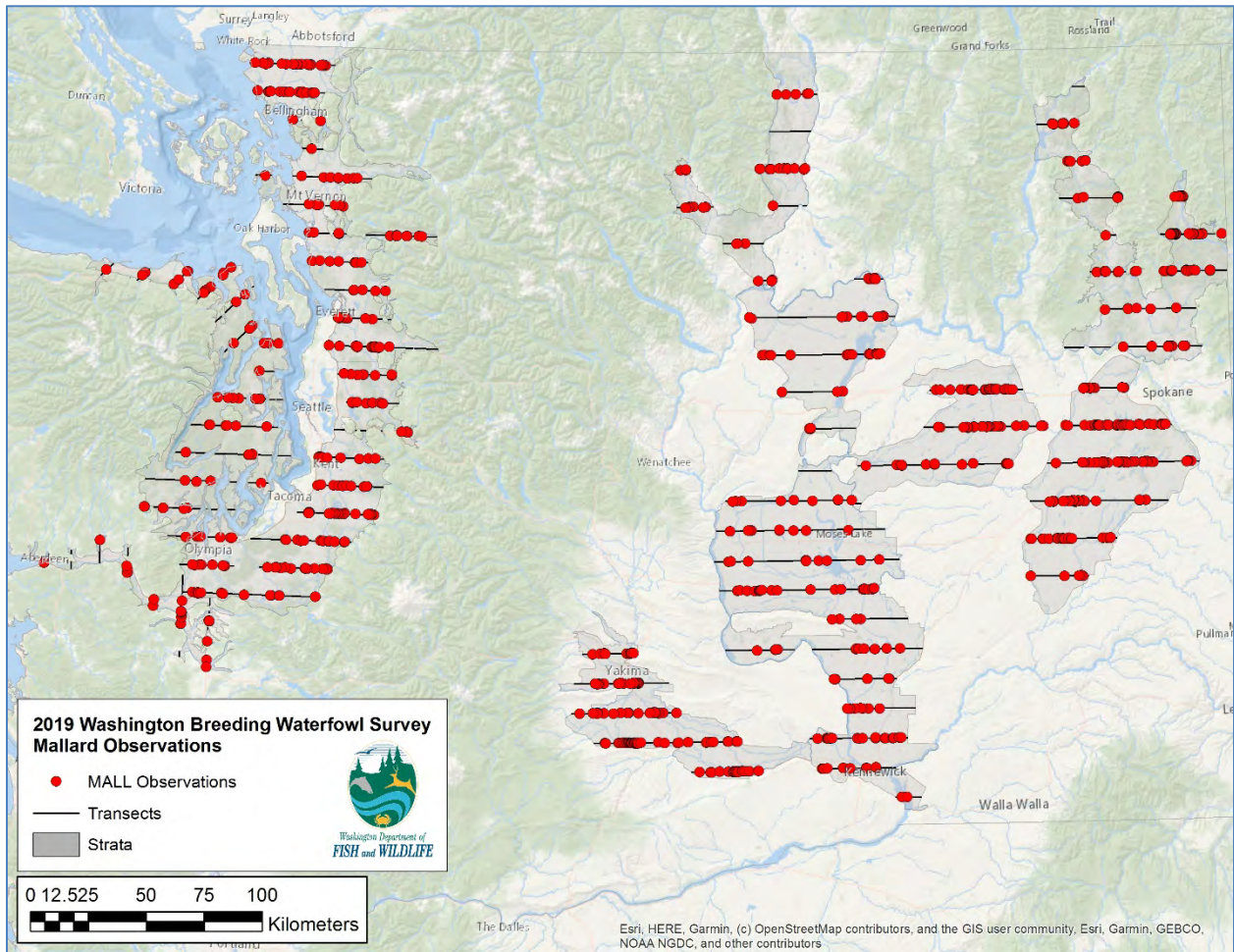


Figure 4. Mallard observation across strata during breeding waterfowl survey in 2019.



Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Figure 5. Eastern Washington duck breeding population survey results by species, 2014-19.

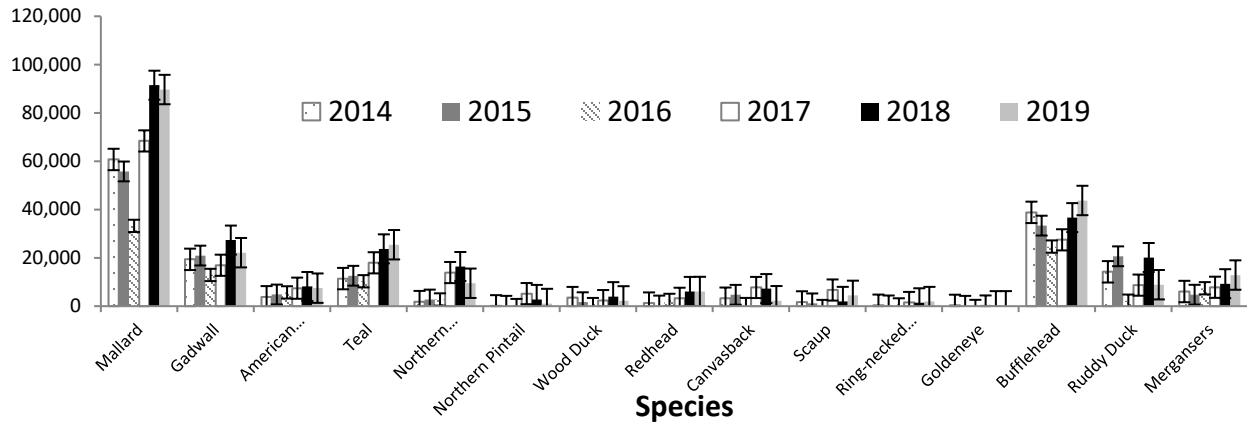


Figure 6. Eastern Washington duck breeding population survey results by species and strata, 2019.

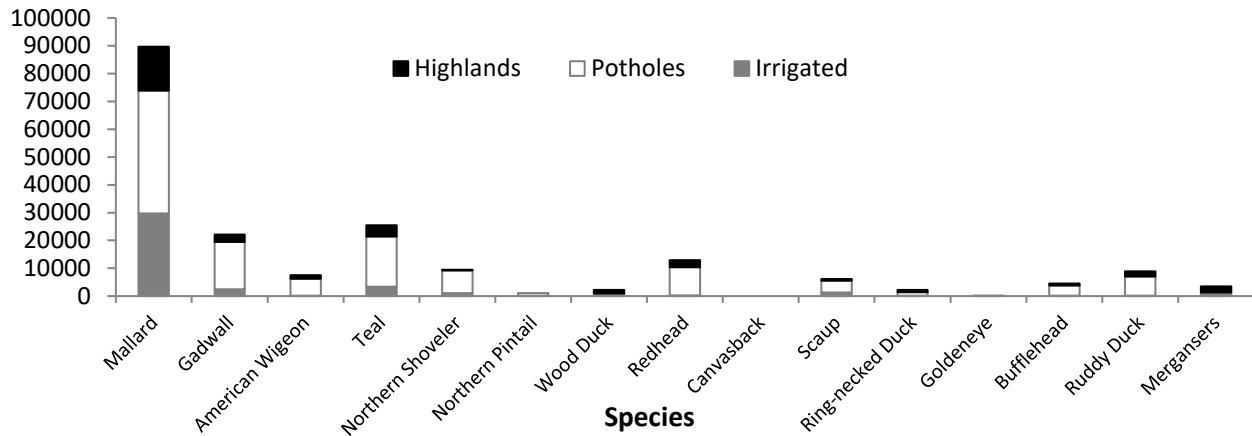
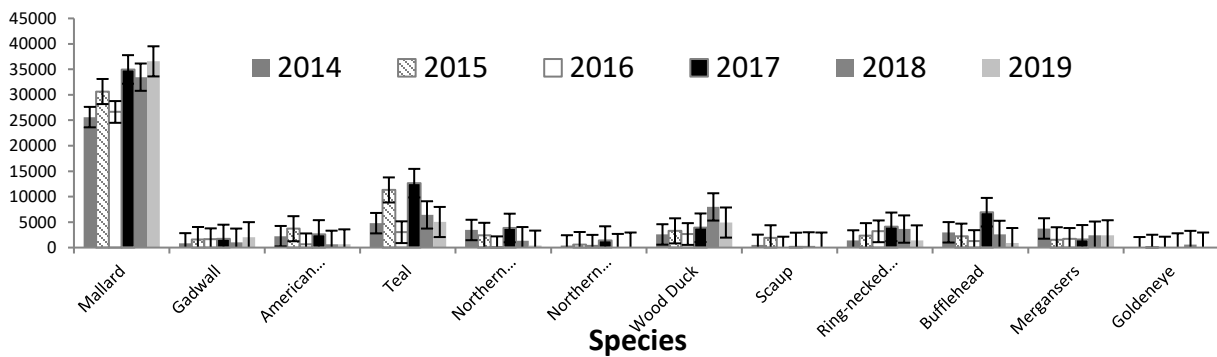


Figure 7. Western Washington duck breeding population survey results by species, 2010-19.



Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Figure 8. Western Washington duck breeding population survey results by species and strata, 2019.

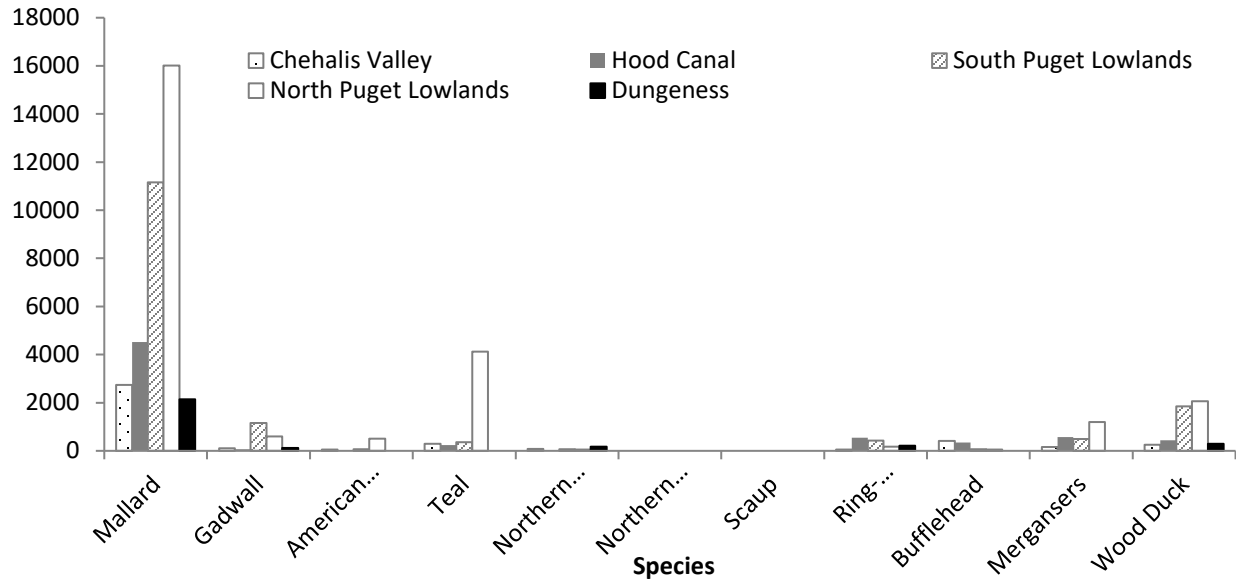


Figure 9. Statewide duck breeding population survey results by species, 2014-19.

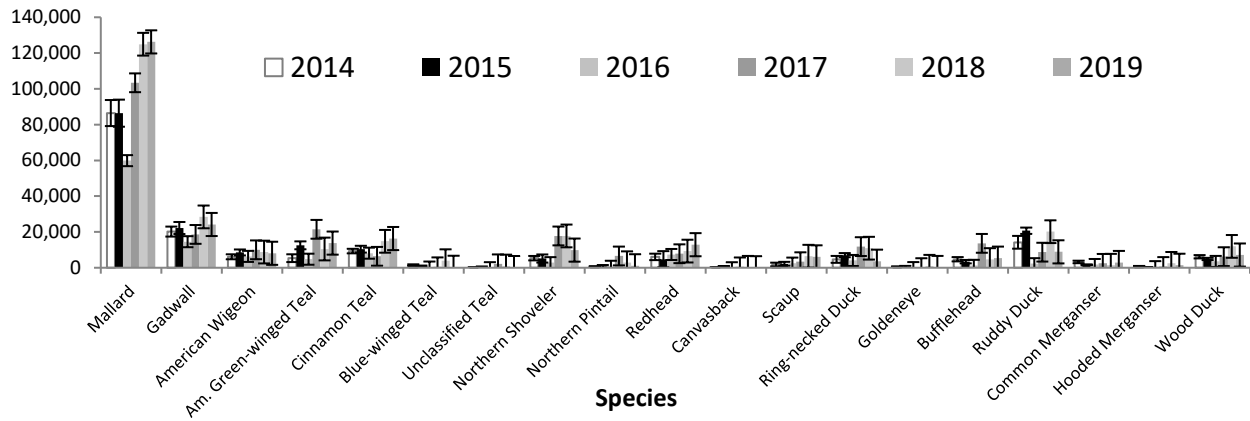


Figure 10. Brood index: Potholes, Palouse, Northeast Strata. 1979-2019.

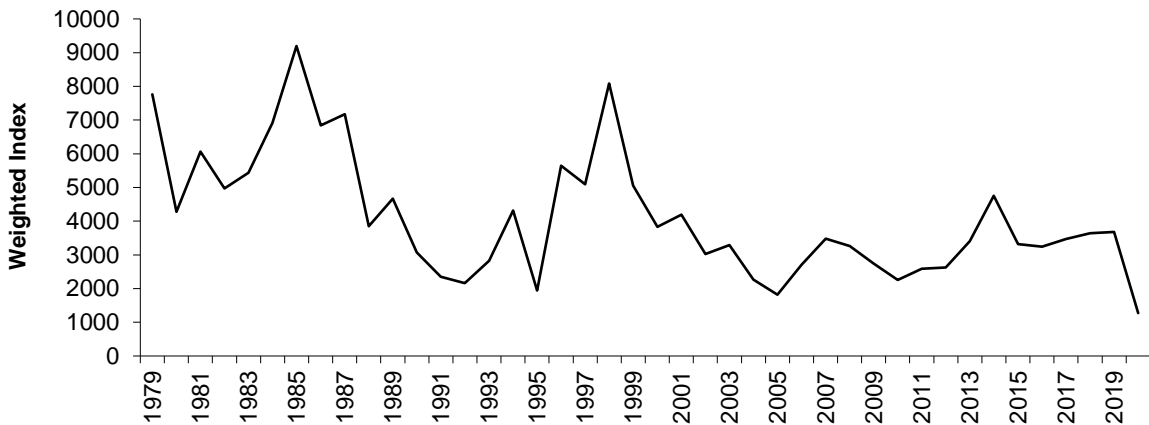


Figure 11. Total Canada goose nests counted in in eastern Washington, 1982-2019.

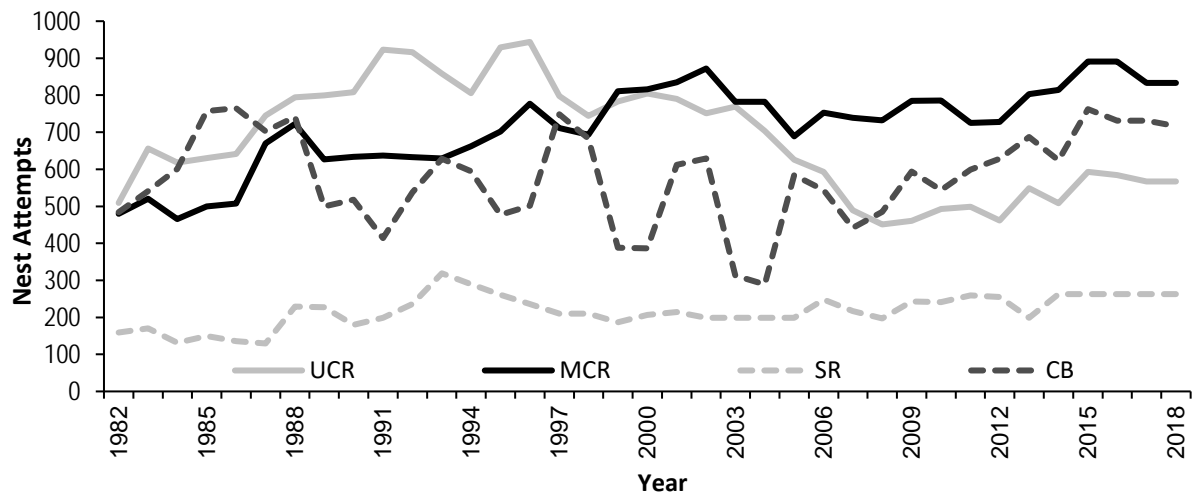
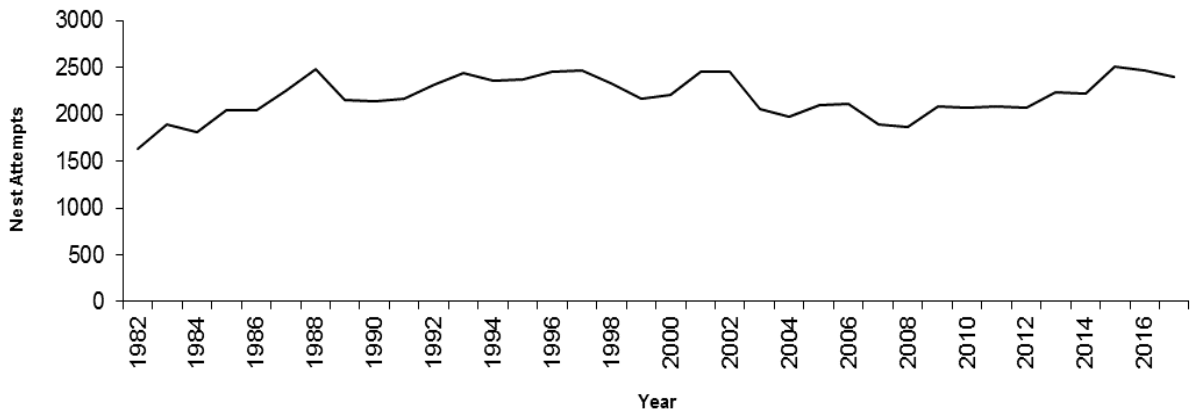
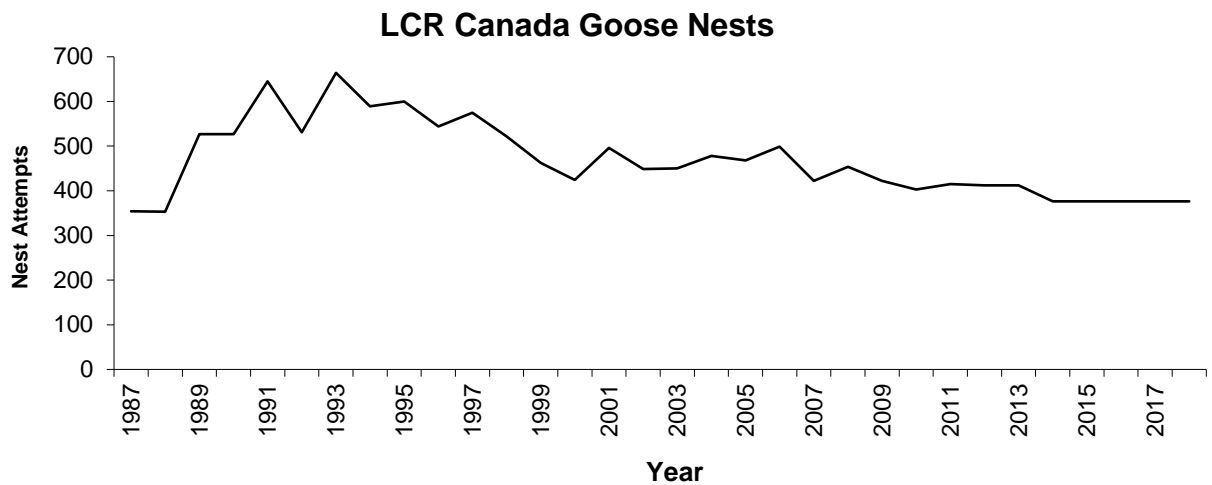


Figure 13. Total Canada goose nests in the lower Columbia River stratum, 1987-2018. No nest counts in 2019.



Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Figure 14. Breeding Canada goose index from breeding duck surveys, 1979-2011 historic, 2011-2019 aerial.

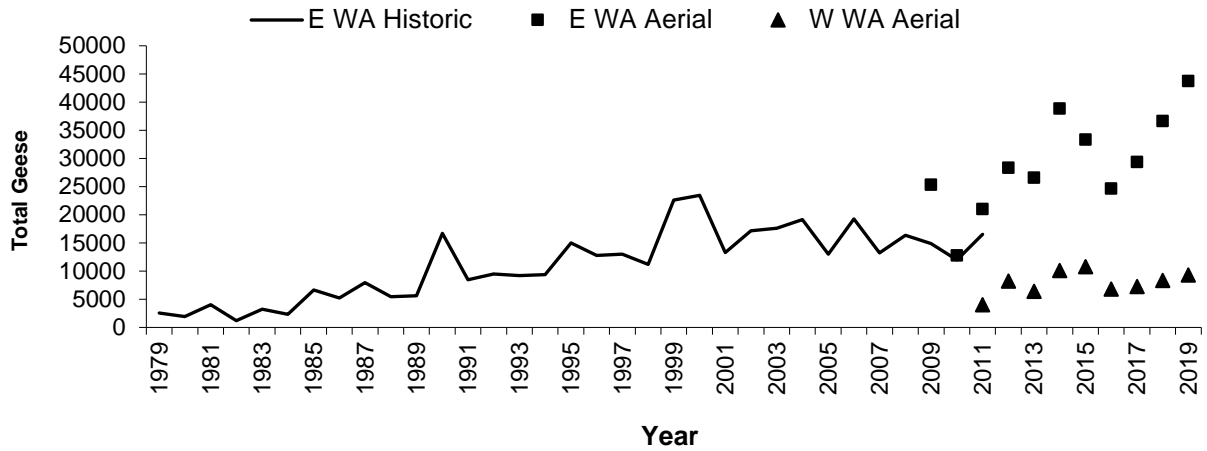
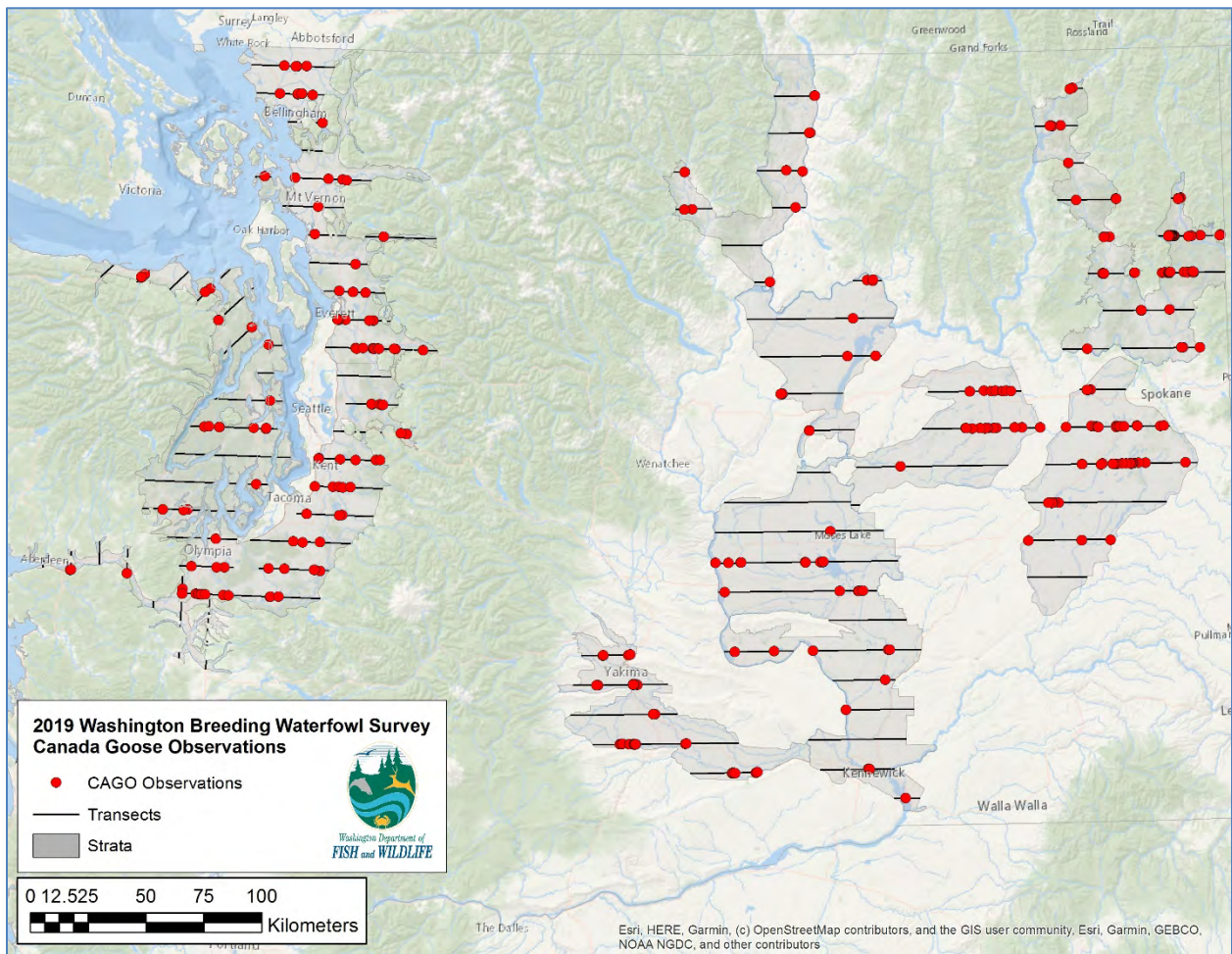


Figure 15. Canada goose observation across strata during breeding waterfowl survey in 2019.



Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Areas and subareas historically surveyed with weighting factors for pond indices, and duck and goose breeding surveys.

| Area | Subarea | Survey | Weighting Factor | % of Total Area Sampled |
|-------------------|---|-------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| Potholes | West Okanogan | Methow Valley | 14.06 | 7.1 |
| | | Salmon Creek | | |
| | | Sinlahekin | | |
| | Omak Lake | 9.83 | 10.2 | |
| | Douglas County | 15.26 | 6.5 | |
| Far East Potholes | Lincoln County | Ewan-Revere | 18.69 | 5.3 |
| | | Sprague-Lamont | | |
| | | | | |
| | | 47.59 | 2.1 | |
| Highland | Northeast | Colville | 25.53 | 3.9 |
| | | Cusick | | |
| | | Molson-Sidley | | |
| | Palouse Streams | Union Flat | 32.52 | 3.1 |
| | | Palouse River | | |
| | | Walla Walla River | | |
| | | Touchet River | | |
| Irrigated | Columbia Basin – 65 sections | | 37.25 | 2.7 |
| | Wasteways ^a – 19 ¼ -sections | | 10.05 | 9.9 |
| | Yakima – 35 sections | | 24.49 | 3.9 |

^aSurveyed by helicopter beginning in 1994

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2. Weighted breeding duck population indices by species for eastern Washington historic survey areas (2002-2011).

| Species | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2002-2011 average |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| Mallard | 44676 | 39843 | 39958 | 40794 | 45485 | 46053 | 50647 | 47977 | 49160 | 54940 | 45953 |
| Gadwall | 18527 | 15353 | 15185 | 15665 | 17995 | 17165 | 14065 | 10277 | 10277 | 11735 | 14624 |
| Am. Wigeon | 6501 | 5028 | 5442 | 3439 | 6012 | 6240 | 2618 | 4283 | 2844 | 3248 | 4566 |
| Am. green-winged teal | 2673 | 1749 | 1477 | 2406 | 4095 | 4060 | 1590 | 1612 | 1844 | 1905 | 2341 |
| Blue +cinnamon teal | 13717 | 11274 | 14619 | 12404 | 9544 | 11999 | 11921 | 9282 | 8657 | 6645 | 11006 |
| Northern shoveler | 5968 | 7794 | 6293 | 4477 | 6581 | 5409 | 4898 | 5555 | 4199 | 6249 | 5742 |
| Northern pintail | 395 | 608 | 1096 | 644 | 1089 | 723 | 450 | 1198 | 542 | 2489 | 923 |
| Wood duck | 1863 | 616 | 1553 | 1375 | 1549 | 1870 | 1781 | 1327 | 2409 | 1527 | 1587 |
| Redhead | 11831 | 8117 | 8365 | 4978 | 8492 | 8265 | 7757 | 7156 | 6466 | 6072 | 7750 |
| Canvasback | 1507 | 919 | 618 | 610 | 1460 | 756 | 1132 | 873 | 385 | 765 | 903 |
| Scaup spp. | 9289 | 12722 | 4807 | 5741 | 9709 | 6530 | 4244 | 5982 | 2484 | 3429 | 6494 |
| Ring-necked duck | 1405 | 3063 | 850 | 2525 | 3640 | 2732 | 2995 | 2521 | 2381 | 2136 | 2425 |
| Goldeneye spp. | 4036 | 4713 | 3255 | 3567 | 2847 | 2837 | 3841 | 3686 | 3495 | 3121 | 3540 |
| Bufflehead | 1606 | 3034 | 1280 | 2425 | 6361 | 2809 | 3728 | 949 | 2701 | 6838 | 3173 |
| Ruddy duck | 9023 | 12175 | 9624 | 10150 | 10464 | 9538 | 8262 | 8378 | 6400 | 9306 | 9332 |
| Merganser spp. | 327 | 757 | 463 | 304 | 121 | 1279 | 969 | 1095 | 794 | 1848 | 796 |
| Total ducks | 133343 | 127764 | 114883 | 111503 | 135442 | 128265 | 120897 | 115663 | 105036 | 122254 | 121505 |
| American coot | 18171 | 19328 | 19085 | 12346 | 22151 | 33763 | 22069 | 25521 | 20511 | 16834 | 20978 |
| Canada goose | 17179 | 17596 | 19137 | 13022 | 19253 | 13244 | 16342 | 16023 | 12014 | 16511 | 16032 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 3. Weighted breeding duck population indices by area for eastern Washington historic surveys (1979-2011).

| Year | Irrigated | Potholes | Palouse | Northeast | Total |
|----------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|--------------|
| 1979 | 28948 | 57784 | 1951 | 9960 | 98643 |
| 1980 | 36870 | 58752 | 3057 | 15063 | 113742 |
| 1981 | 74711 | 58026 | 2341 | 13173 | 148252 |
| 1982 | 66161 | 63150 | 4455 | 12663 | 146429 |
| 1983 | 84969 | 48044 | 3545 | 12969 | 149527 |
| 1984 | 101486 | 73478 | 4618 | 16697 | 196278 |
| 1985 | 94789 | 95463 | 5984 | 19990 | 216226 |
| 1986 | 97901 | 79899 | 3837 | 22135 | 203771 |
| 1987 | 72503 | 80100 | 5073 | 25887 | 183564 |
| 1988 | 78137 | 103452 | 7068 | 53143 | 241799 |
| 1989 | 73411 | 50663 | 2341 | 35908 | 162323 |
| 1990 | 77838 | 56462 | 5138 | 29474 | 168912 |
| 1991 | 65698 | 50293 | 3382 | 21420 | 140793 |
| 1992 | 69547 | 22581 | 3252 | 20884 | 116264 |
| 1993 | 75969 | 42335 | 3577 | 27955 | 149836 |
| 1994 | 64537 | 43502 | 2699 | 13173 | 123912 |
| 1995 | 71513 | 46068 | 2472 | 26934 | 146987 |
| 1996 | 73364 | 62221 | 1691 | 25658 | 162933 |
| 1997 | 68589 | 85137 | 2667 | 16058 | 172451 |
| 1998 | 65503 | 96982 | 2341 | 20424 | 185251 |
| 1999 | 72697 | 101140 | 3089 | 23283 | 200210 |
| 2000 | 61126 | 70072 | 2537 | 22594 | 156328 |
| 2001 | 47438 | 70106 | 2537 | 26321 | 146402 |
| 2002 | 52341 | 59958 | 1106 | 19939 | 133342 |
| 2003 | 52648 | 49794 | 1170 | 24151 | 127764 |
| 2004 | 55098 | 39393 | 1041 | 19351 | 114883 |
| 2005 | 58339 | 35014 | 585 | 17564 | 111503 |
| 2006 | 72138 | 46672 | 1626 | 15650 | 135442 |
| 2007 | 63349 | 42119 | 2211 | 20271 | 128265 |
| 2008 | 62230 | 38710 | 1756 | 17999 | 120109 |
| 2009 | 50846 | 44020 | 1496 | 19301 | 115078 |
| 2010 | 55631 | 30351 | 1106 | 17948 | 105036 |
| 2011 | 71399 | 36352 | 1048 | 13454 | 122254 |
| 1979-2011 avg. | 67204 | 58730 | 2812 | 21133 | 149834 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 4. Summary of eastern Washington helicopter surveys for breeding waterfowl (2014-2019).

| Region | Year | Species | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | TOTAL DUCKS | American Coot | Canada Goose | | |
|----------------------------|------|---------|---------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|---------|------------|-------|------------------|-----------|------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | Mallard | Gadwall | American Wigeon | Green-winged Teal | Cinnamon Teal | Blue-winged Teal | Northern Shoveler | Northern Pintail | Redhead | Canvasback | Scaup | Ring-necked Duck | Goldeneye | Bufflehead | Ruddy Duck Common | Merganser Hooded | | | | Merganser | Wood Duck |
| Irrigated | 2014 | 25,815 | 4,902 | 1,464 | 764 | 3,247 | 382 | 637 | 127 | 1,114 | 0 | 382 | 127 | 0 | 382 | 0 | 127 | 0 | 446 | 39,915 | 7,830 | 7,639 |
| | ±SE | 5,350 | 1,707 | 469 | 349 | 1,768 | 254 | 454 | 69 | 420 | 0 | 175 | 59 | 0 | 181 | 0 | 71 | 0 | 171 | 5,963 | 3,075 | 1,696 |
| | 2015 | 21,581 | 4,520 | 1,210 | 318 | 1,973 | 64 | 318 | 0 | 637 | 32 | 191 | 477 | 0 | 318 | 668 | 159 | 0 | 764 | 33,231 | 3,247 | 5,570 |
| | ±SE | 3,292 | 1,055 | 948 | 139 | 608 | 50 | 104 | 0 | 188 | 26 | 150 | 263 | 0 | 160 | 449 | 136 | 0 | 252 | 3,700 | 1,927 | 1,071 |
| | 2016 | 15,406 | 3,024 | 509 | 828 | 2,228 | 382 | 796 | 127 | 1,305 | 0 | 859 | 191 | 0 | 64 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 382 | 26,133 | 2,515 | 3,024 |
| | ±SE | 2,145 | 683 | 175 | 333 | 456 | 137 | 529 | 69 | 838 | 0 | 373 | 87 | 0 | 54 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 165 | 2,569 | 1,348 | 1,010 |
| | 2017 | 29,634 | 4,966 | 1,528 | 3,438 | 1,910 | 127 | 1,942 | 255 | 446 | 0 | 1,687 | 1,146 | 64 | 1,814 | 414 | 64 | 0 | 1,082 | 50,515 | 3,565 | 5,348 |
| | ±SE | 6,820 | 2,016 | 491 | 2,155 | 1,120 | 124 | 993 | 139 | 250 | 0 | 632 | 407 | 67 | 1,176 | 271 | 65 | 0 | 408 | 7,745 | 1,176 | 1,518 |
| | 2018 | 32,351 | 4,966 | 668 | 1,241 | 3,310 | 509 | 1,337 | 0 | 700 | 0 | 1,432 | 796 | 64 | 64 | 0 | 477 | 0 | 987 | 49,083 | 3,438 | 8,913 |
| | ±SE | 6,425 | 1,691 | 247 | 591 | 1,223 | 295 | 613 | 0 | 494 | 0 | 687 | 507 | 62 | 62 | 0 | 303 | 0 | 394 | 6,909 | 2,625 | 2,113 |
| | 2019 | 29,666 | 2,419 | 127 | 573 | 2,801 | 0 | 1,082 | 191 | 286 | 0 | 1,273 | 95 | 64 | 127 | 95 | 127 | 0 | 382 | 39,311 | 764 | 8,085 |
| | ±SE | 6,319 | 748 | 127 | 215 | 1,450 | 0 | 488 | 185 | 293 | 0 | 997 | 71 | 63 | 130 | 92 | 90 | 0 | 173 | 6,639 | 408 | 2,249 |
| Potholes | 2014 | 24,212 | 10,952 | 2,098 | 0 | 5,119 | 755 | 1,007 | 0 | 3,525 | 0 | 168 | 1,091 | 0 | 168 | 11,372 | 0 | 84 | 1,511 | 62,061 | 13,721 | 17,246 |
| | ±SE | 5,842 | 2,805 | 708 | 0 | 1,696 | 334 | 527 | 0 | 1,267 | 0 | 111 | 634 | 0 | 114 | 9,417 | 0 | 86 | 871 | 11,715 | 7,770 | 5,354 |
| | 2015 | 24,367 | 13,895 | 3,463 | 1,649 | 6,350 | 495 | 1,484 | 165 | 3,876 | 0 | 82 | 3,834 | 82 | 330 | 19,626 | 0 | 0 | 247 | 79,946 | 7,092 | 19,337 |
| | ±SE | 5,809 | 4,863 | 2,355 | 442 | 1,840 | 334 | 571 | 162 | 1,235 | 0 | 85 | 2,278 | 85 | 263 | 17,031 | 0 | 0 | 169 | 19,075 | 5,642 | 7,525 |
| | 2016 | 12,940 | 7,359 | 4,878 | 1,612 | 4,382 | 0 | 1,984 | 331 | 4,837 | 0 | 1,571 | 207 | 0 | 0 | 1,323 | 165 | 0 | 165 | 41,756 | 9,343 | 12,403 |
| | ±SE | 1,823 | 1,478 | 2,662 | 690 | 1,068 | 0 | 463 | 193 | 1,654 | 0 | 1,102 | 135 | 0 | 0 | 596 | 120 | 0 | 107 | 4,337 | 3,477 | 3,962 |
| | 2017 | 27,913 | 10,308 | 5,278 | 7,257 | 3,628 | 82 | 10,390 | 4,783 | 6,391 | 165 | 1,567 | 4,370 | 0 | 4,041 | 7,422 | 742 | 165 | 660 | 95,160 | 13,853 | 15,049 |
| | ±SE | 5,175 | 1,462 | 1,408 | 1,469 | 1,492 | 81 | 2,329 | 1,520 | 1,702 | 162 | 1,268 | 1,027 | 0 | 1,850 | 3,322 | 445 | 115 | 316 | 7,961 | 3,469 | 4,494 |
| | 2018 | 44,323 | 20,574 | 6,679 | 5,896 | 9,236 | 412 | 11,916 | 2,721 | 7,380 | 247 | 4,288 | 5,937 | 0 | 1,690 | 19,832 | 247 | 247 | 1,690 | 143,318 | 27,583 | 17,647 |
| | ±SE | 6,087 | 4,248 | 1,726 | 967 | 1,888 | 335 | 3,461 | 759 | 1,966 | 131 | 2,150 | 1,567 | 0 | 1,055 | 17,068 | 191 | 184 | 768 | 19,475 | 7,187 | 7,127 |
| | 2019 | 44,240 | 17,028 | 6,143 | 8,040 | 9,730 | 247 | 8,164 | 907 | 10,143 | 0 | 4,247 | 1,361 | 82 | 3,670 | 6,968 | 577 | 247 | 577 | 122,372 | 17,069 | 24,491 |
| | ±SE | 7,516 | 3,660 | 1,378 | 1,471 | 2,191 | 172 | 2,749 | 278 | 3,111 | 0 | 1,773 | 662 | 85 | 1,594 | 4,764 | 276 | 131 | 242 | 11,183 | 4,522 | 8,249 |
| Highlands | 2014 | 10,697 | 3,526 | 317 | 0 | 832 | 317 | 238 | 0 | 1,426 | 79 | 713 | 2,060 | 317 | 1,189 | 2,853 | 158 | 0 | 1,585 | 26,308 | 10,539 | 13,946 |
| | ±SE | 2,994 | 1,527 | 160 | 0 | 341 | 210 | 157 | 0 | 785 | 52 | 362 | 560 | 121 | 249 | 1,831 | 61 | 0 | 494 | 4,031 | 6,230 | 4,323 |
| | 2015 | 9,826 | 2,536 | 158 | 1,109 | 634 | 0 | 951 | 0 | 238 | 713 | 0 | 396 | 79 | 515 | 357 | 158 | 0 | 634 | 18,304 | 1,902 | 8,439 |
| | ±SE | 2,608 | 1,009 | 64 | 394 | 420 | 0 | 574 | 0 | 130 | 472 | 0 | 184 | 55 | 301 | 236 | 110 | 0 | 124 | 2,989 | 701 | 1,795 |
| | 2016 | 4,884 | 2,541 | 318 | 0 | 874 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,271 | 0 | 159 | 476 | 79 | 0 | 913 | 556 | 0 | 318 | 12,389 | 1,112 | 9,252 |
| | ±SE | 1,132 | 868 | 130 | 0 | 263 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 809 | 0 | 78 | 240 | 49 | 0 | 638 | 325 | 0 | 140 | 1,837 | 464 | 3,151 |
| | 2017 | 10,865 | 1,664 | 634 | 634 | 792 | 79 | 1,585 | 158 | 991 | 317 | 0 | 2,219 | 0 | 832 | 872 | 396 | 158 | 555 | 22,742 | 5,983 | 8,994 |
| | ±SE | 3,251 | 1,271 | 413 | 370 | 637 | 81 | 1,050 | 107 | 751 | 245 | 0 | 1,122 | 0 | 554 | 847 | 280 | 106 | 402 | 4,144 | 5,856 | 3,241 |
| | 2018 | 14,620 | 1,823 | 792 | 911 | 2,060 | 158 | 3,170 | 79 | 1,228 | 0 | 396 | 555 | 158 | 238 | 317 | 79 | 357 | 1,268 | 28,209 | 4,913 | 10,103 |
| | ±SE | 3,274 | 1,038 | 463 | 397 | 773 | 149 | 2,376 | 81 | 671 | 0 | 403 | 318 | 161 | 156 | 170 | 71 | 280 | 520 | 4,426 | 4,253 | 4,102 |
| | 2019 | 15,769 | 2,694 | 1,189 | 792 | 3,249 | 0 | 238 | 0 | 2,456 | 0 | 555 | 792 | 0 | 674 | 1,823 | 872 | 79 | 1,228 | 32,409 | 2,536 | 11,173 |
| | ±SE | 5,530 | 1,767 | 783 | 278 | 1,465 | 0 | 156 | 0 | 2,229 | 0 | 276 | 214 | 0 | 315 | 1,853 | 396 | 80 | 550 | 6,791 | 1,653 | 5,135 |
| Total - Eastern Washington | 2014 | 60,724 | 19,380 | 3,879 | 764 | 9,198 | 1,454 | 1,881 | 127 | 6,065 | 79 | 1,263 | 3,279 | 317 | 1,738 | 14,224 | 286 | 84 | 3,541 | 128,284 | 32,091 | 38,832 |
| | ±SE | 8,469 | 3,621 | 864 | 349 | 2,474 | 469 | 713 | 69 | 1,549 | 52 | 417 | 848 | 121 | 328 | 9,594 | 93 | 86 | 1,016 | 13,750 | 10,423 | 7,088 |
| | 2015 | 55,774 | 20,950 | 4,831 | 3,077 | 8,957 | 558 | 2,753 | 165 | 4,750 | 745 | 273 | 4,708 | 162 | 1,163 | 20,651 | 318 | 0 | 1,645 | 131,482 | 12,240 | 33,347 |
| | ±SE | 7,168 | 5,077 | 2,540 | 608 | 1,983 | 337 | 816 | 162 | 1,256 | 473 | 173 | 2,301 | 101 | 430 | 17,039 | 175 | 0 | 328 | 19,659 | 6,003 | 7,810 |
| | 2016 | 33,230 | 12,924 | 5,705 | 2,440 | 7,484 | 382 | 2,780 | 458 | 7,413 | 0 | 2,589 | 874 | 79 | 64 | 2,268 | 721 | 0 | 865 | 80,278 | 12,970 | 24,678 |
| | ±SE | 3,034 | 1,845 | 2,671 | 766 | 1,191 | 137 | 704 | 205 | 2,023 | 0 | 1,166 | 289 | 49 | 54 | 873 | 346 | 0 | 241 | 5,365 | 3,758 | 5,162 |
| | 2017 | 68,403 | 16,937 | 7,439 | 11,328 | 6,331 | 289 | 13,917 | 5,196 | 7,827 | 482 | 3,254 | 7,735 | 64 | 6,687 | 8,707 | 1,202 | 323 | 2,297 | 168,417 | 23,401 | 29,390 |
| | ±SE | 9,157 | 2,796 | 1,548 | 2,634 | 1,972 | 169 | 2,741 | 1,530 | 1,877 | 294 | 1,417 | 1,574 | 67 | 2,260 | 3,439 | 530 | 156 | 654 | 11,855 | 6,907 | 5,745 |
| | 2018 | 91,473 | 27,362 | 8,140 | 8,049 | 14,606 | 1,080 | 16,422 | 2,800 | 9,309 | 247 | 6,117 | 7,288 | 222 | 1,992 | 20,149 | 804 | 604 | 3,945 | 220,610 | 35,934 | 36,662 |
| | ±SE | 9,437 | 4,688 | 1,804 | 1,201 | 2,379 | 470 | 4,242 | 764 | 2,135 | 131 | 2,293 | 1,677 | 173 | 1,069 | 17,069 | 365 | 335 | 1,007 | 21,133 | 8,754 | 8,491 |
| | 2019 | 89,675 | 22,142 | 7,459 | 9,405 | 15,780 | 247 | 9,484 | 1,098 | 12,886 | 0 | 6,075 | 2,249 | 146 | 4,470 | 8,886 | 1,576 | 327 | 2,187 | 194,092 | 20,369 | 43,749 |
| | ±SE | 11,270 | 4,132 | 1,590 | 1,513 | 3,008 | 172 | 2,796 | 334 | 3,838 | 0 | 2,053 | 976 | 106 | 1,630 | 5,113 | 491 | 153 | 626 | 14,672 | 4,832 | 9,974 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 5. Summary of western Washington breeding waterfowl population survey (2014-2019).

| Region | Year | Species | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | TOTAL DUCKS | American Coot | Canada Goose | | | |
|----------------------|--------|---------|---------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|---------|------------|-------|------------------|-----------|------------|------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|------------------|-----------|
| | | Mallard | Gadwall | American Wigeon | Green-winged Teal | Cinnamon Teal | Blue-winged Teal | Unclassified Teal | Northern Shoveler | Northern Pintail | Redhead | Canvasback | Scaup | Ring-necked Duck | Goldeneye | Bufflehead | Ruddy Duck | | | | Common Merganser | Hooded Merganser | Wood Duck |
| Chehalis Valley | 2014 | 2,091 | 52 | 1,575 | 310 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 568 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 207 | 129 | 0 | 258 | 0 | 258 | 0 | 103 | 5,550 | 0 | 826 |
| | ±SE | 473 | 50 | 1,400 | 182 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 476 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 234 | 98 | 0 | 125 | 0 | 89 | 0 | 65 | 1,593 | 0 | 382 |
| | 2015 | 2,281 | 53 | 610 | 212 | 159 | 0 | 0 | 159 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 796 | 133 | 0 | 159 | 0 | 371 | 0 | 159 | 5,093 | 0 | 875 |
| | ±SE | 790 | 51 | 554 | 151 | 153 | 0 | 0 | 105 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 903 | 89 | 0 | 128 | 0 | 239 | 0 | 59 | 1,375 | 0 | 266 |
| | 2016 | 2,014 | 258 | 155 | 929 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 129 | 0 | 52 | 0 | 310 | 0 | 361 | 4,208 | 0 | 258 |
| | ±SE | 1,015 | 248 | 149 | 893 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 65 | 0 | 42 | 0 | 313 | 0 | 231 | 1,439 | 0 | 154 |
| | 2017 | 2,866 | 103 | 258 | 3,253 | 0 | 0 | 2,194 | 2,530 | 955 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 929 | 0 | 1,058 | 0 | 52 | 0 | 568 | 14,766 | 0 | 181 |
| | ±SE | 672 | 107 | 204 | 1,806 | 0 | 0 | 1,562 | 1,710 | 918 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 263 | 0 | 499 | 0 | 52 | 0 | 126 | 3,211 | 0 | 110 |
| | 2018 | 2,891 | 207 | 207 | 336 | 52 | 361 | 52 | 929 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 207 | 929 | 0 | 258 | 0 | 52 | 52 | 310 | 6,841 | 0 | 1136 |
| ±SE | 888 | 149 | 157 | 208 | 50 | 347 | 50 | 755 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 234 | 504 | 0 | 42 | 0 | 42 | 52 | 98 | 1,377 | 0 | 355 | |
| 2019 | 2,139 | 119 | 0 | 119 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 178 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 208 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 297 | 3,060 | 0 | 1188 | |
| ±SE | 606 | 128 | 0 | 128 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 192 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 170 | 686 | 0 | 903 | |
| Hood Canal | 2014 | 3,466 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 126 | 63 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 32 | 63 | 189 | 0 | 0 | 378 | 189 | 4,380 | 0 | 1008 | |
| | ±SE | 1,022 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 129 | 64 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 58 | 120 | 0 | 0 | 153 | 127 | 1,052 | 0 | 423 | |
| | 2015 | 2,822 | 0 | 127 | 127 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 190 | 0 | 190 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 761 | 4,090 | 0 | 380 |
| | ±SE | 576 | 0 | 116 | 116 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 182 | 0 | 126 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 319 | 704 | 0 | 308 | |
| | 2016 | 3,963 | 0 | 63 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 412 | 0 | 507 | 0 | 0 | 190 | 285 | 5,422 | 63 | 666 |
| | ±SE | 458 | 0 | 65 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 194 | 0 | 261 | 0 | 0 | 121 | 116 | 590 | 61 | 358 |
| | 2017 | 4,159 | 0 | 347 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 662 | 0 | 819 | 0 | 63 | 126 | 441 | 6,617 | 0 | 284 |
| | ±SE | 922 | 0 | 354 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 302 | 0 | 427 | 0 | 63 | 141 | 132 | 1,136 | 0 | 198 |
| | 2018 | 6,217 | 64 | 157 | 208 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 446 | 64 | 128 | 0 | 64 | 765 | 2,200 | 10,074 | 0 | 1116 |
| ±SE | 958 | 58 | 128 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 298 | 63 | 120 | 0 | 63 | 271 | 596 | 1,216 | 0 | 398 | |
| 2019 | 4,521 | 64 | 0 | 64 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 542 | 0 | 351 | 0 | 64 | 510 | 446 | 6,631 | 0 | 797 | |
| ±SE | 785 | 63 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 268 | 0 | 212 | 0 | 63 | 184 | 185 | 904 | 0 | 333 | |
| Dungeness | 2014 | 3,162 | 716 | 0 | 1,581 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 627 | 0 | 1,074 | 0 | 0 | 239 | 60 | 7,518 | 0 | 1581 |
| | ±SE | 908 | 611 | 0 | 1,541 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 381 | 0 | 527 | 0 | 0 | 230 | 64 | 2,014 | 0 | 1128 |
| | 2015 | 2,495 | 119 | 59 | 2,228 | 0 | 178 | 30 | 59 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 0 | 119 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 5,466 | 0 | 743 |
| | ±SE | 665 | 84 | 57 | 2,278 | 0 | 120 | 32 | 64 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 83 | 0 | 115 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 66 | 2,384 | 0 | 537 |
| | 2016 | 2,228 | 475 | 0 | 891 | 178 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 564 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 0 | 4,397 | 0 | 683 |
| | ±SE | 777 | 393 | 0 | 847 | 132 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 269 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 1,252 | 0 | 440 |
| | 2017 | 1,961 | 59 | 238 | 178 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 267 | 0 | 178 | 0 | 59 | 0 | 297 | 3,238 | 0 | 208 |
| | ±SE | 790 | 64 | 129 | 182 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 176 | 0 | 123 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 109 | 860 | 0 | 116 |
| | 2018 | 1,872 | 59 | 0 | 267 | 0 | 2,377 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 208 | 59 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 475 | 5,317 | 0 | 386 |
| ±SE | 592 | 61 | 0 | 137 | 0 | 2,430 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 114 | 57 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 298 | 2,526 | 0 | 383 | |
| 2019 | 2,139 | 119 | 0 | 119 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 178 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 208 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 297 | 3,060 | 0 | 1188 | |
| ±SE | 606 | 128 | 0 | 128 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 192 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 170 | 686 | 0 | 903 | |
| South Puget Lowlands | 2014 | 7,359 | 0 | 493 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 92 | 954 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 431 | 0 | 985 | 0 | 185 | 62 | 1,293 | 11,854 | 31 | 3664 |
| | ±SE | 932 | 0 | 392 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 600 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 227 | 0 | 417 | 0 | 109 | 61 | 182 | 1,291 | 28 | 878 |
| | 2015 | 9,347 | 302 | 60 | 484 | 423 | 0 | 60 | 393 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,025 | 938 | 0 | 726 | 0 | 181 | 181 | 1,119 | 15,245 | 151 | 4295 |
| | ±SE | 1,680 | 208 | 63 | 374 | 433 | 0 | 64 | 260 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 627 | 307 | 0 | 249 | 0 | 101 | 132 | 315 | 1,986 | 106 | 924 |
| | 2016 | 9,962 | 484 | 363 | 61 | 182 | 0 | 30 | 61 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,998 | 0 | 545 | 0 | 121 | 242 | 1,029 | 15,079 | 30 | 3179 |
| | ±SE | 1,271 | 266 | 344 | 57 | 140 | 0 | 33 | 63 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 789 | 0 | 256 | 0 | 68 | 100 | 336 | 1,627 | 33 | 637 |
| | 2017 | 11,874 | 0 | 182 | 1,458 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 182 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2,156 | 0 | 2,976 | 0 | 182 | 121 | 1,033 | 20,165 | 61 | 3189 |
| | ±SE | 1,576 | 0 | 128 | 690 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 127 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,700 | 0 | 1,193 | 0 | 169 | 113 | 223 | 2,719 | 56 | 1330 |
| | 2018 | 12,190 | 363 | 121 | 0 | 60 | 60 | 907 | 363 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 1,633 | 0 | 1,422 | 0 | 302 | 423 | 3,267 | 21,174 | 60 |
| ±SE | 1,295 | 222 | 124 | 0 | 56 | 57 | 585 | 211 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 62 | 978 | 0 | 763 | 0 | 169 | 212 | 1,234 | 2,296 | 56 | 531 |
| 2019 | 11,159 | 1,152 | 61 | 121 | 243 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 425 | 0 | 61 | 0 | 243 | 243 | 1,850 | 15,617 | 0 | 3396 | |
| ±SE | 1,152 | 998 | 62 | 124 | 256 | 0 | 0 | 62 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 225 | 0 | 63 | 0 | 193 | 106 | 431 | 2,200 | 0 | 792 | |
| North Puget Lowlands | 2014 | 9,664 | 60 | 180 | 2,693 | 120 | 0 | 0 | 1,885 | 359 | 0 | 0 | 329 | 180 | 0 | 509 | 0 | 2,513 | 120 | 957 | 19,567 | 0 | 3022 |
| | ±SE | 1,955 | 59 | 92 | 2,594 | 75 | 0 | 0 | 695 | 312 | 0 | 0 | 266 | 147 | 0 | 283 | 0 | 1,956 | 114 | 344 | 3,908 | 0 | 1238 |
| | 2015 | 13,673 | 1,107 | 2,992 | 6,403 | 838 | 60 | 120 | 1,795 | 598 | 0 | 0 | 120 | 987 | 60 | 1,047 | 30 | 778 | 30 | 1,137 | 31,773 | 0 | 4488 |
| | ±SE | 3,393 | 517 | 1,581 | 3,689 | 433 | 56 | 83 | 955 | 504 | 0 | 0 | 113 | 319 | 60 | 524 | 29 | 541 | 29 | 312 | 5,481 | 0 | 1379 |
| | 2016 | 8,467 | 419 | 60 | 449 | 299 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 359 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 0 | 180 | 0 | 658 | 120 | 987 | 12,087 | 0 | 2005 |
| | ±SE | 419 | 268 | 60 | 251 | 310 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 301 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 64 | 0 | 122 | 0 | 494 | 73 | 376 | 2,427 | 0 | 673 |
| | 2017 | 14,121 | 1,526 | 1,556 | 5,266 | 60 | 239 | 0 | 1,137 | 419 | 0 | 0 | 120 | 60 | 0 | 1,915 | 0 | 898 | 120 | 1,556 | 28,991 | 180 | 3411 |
| | ±SE | 2,682 | 828 | 1,012 | 3,207 | 61 | 157 | 0 | 842 | 359 | 0 | 0 | 122 | 62 | 0 | 653 | 0 | 469 | 79 | 320 | 4,563 | 130 | 1695 |
| | 2018 | 10,292 | 359 | 180 | 1,825 | 60 | 60 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 419 | 479 | 778 | 0 | 180 | 598 | 1,735 | 17,083 | 0 | 2184 |
| ±SE | 2,734 | 259 | 183 | 820 | 58 | 62 | 0 | 62 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 330 | 317 | 350 | 0 | 75 | 196 | 438 | 2,971 | 0 | 559 | |
| 2019 | 16,006 | 598 | 509 | 3,889 | 239 | 0 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 180 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 957 | 239 | 2,064 | 24,802 | 0 | 3800 | |
| ± | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 6. Weighted duck brood indices by species for the Potholes, Palouse, and Northeast strata, 2004-2020.

| Species | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 | 79-19 | | % change from | |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|---------------|------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Avg | 2020 | Average | 2020 |
| Mallard | 1284 | 1221 | 1200 | 1786 | 1419 | 1416 | 1035 | 1042 | 966 | 1597 | 2706 | 1017 | 1812 | 1620 | 1750 | 1781 | 559 | 1639 | -69% | 9% | |
| Gadwall | 116 | 15 | 107 | 132 | 292 | 87 | 87 | 379 | 274 | 284 | 204 | 383 | 255 | 281 | 281 | 281 | 76 | 359 | -73% | -22% | |
| Wigeon | 95 | 146 | 54 | 54 | 48 | 43 | 10 | 35 | 26 | 26 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 15 | 26 | 15 | 0 | 232 | -100% | -94% | |
| Green-winged teal | 14 | 26 | 118 | 94 | 151 | 183 | 176 | 233 | 272 | 244 | 204 | 179 | 51 | 190 | 174 | 160 | 51 | 152 | -68% | 5% | |
| Blue-winged teal | 92 | 26 | 15 | 0 | 42 | 48 | 0 | 30 | 47 | 101 | 26 | 51 | 26 | 51 | 51 | 47 | 0 | 493 | -100% | -90% | |
| Cinnamon teal | 24 | 40 | 14 | 103 | 91 | 14 | 138 | 30 | 82 | 0 | 13 | 102 | 0 | 39 | 39 | 39 | 102 | 89 | 162% | -56% | |
| Northern shoveler | 63 | 0 | 29 | 15 | 59 | 44 | 49 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 0 | 25 | 0 | 12 | 19 | 19 | 0 | 149 | -100% | -87% | |
| Northern pintail | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 108 | -100% | -100% | |
| Wood duck | 42 | 33 | 82 | 107 | 28 | 28 | 42 | 33 | 112 | 141 | 153 | 77 | 255 | 148 | 155 | 158 | 51 | 45 | -68% | 248% | |
| Redhead | 40 | 0 | 121 | 211 | 252 | 154 | 94 | 184 | 210 | 205 | 383 | 383 | 204 | 277 | 290 | 307 | 0 | 395 | -100% | -22% | |
| Canvasback | 26 | 15 | 65 | 26 | 90 | 0 | 32 | 0 | 77 | 14 | 51 | 51 | 0 | 39 | 39 | 39 | 0 | 33 | -100% | 19% | |
| Scaup | 0 | 0 | 20 | 14 | 21 | 94 | 17 | 34 | 0 | 26 | 102 | 76 | 26 | 46 | 55 | 61 | 102 | 46 | 67% | 33% | |
| Ring-necked duck | 85 | 0 | 108 | 26 | 50 | 14 | 86 | 23 | 14 | 26 | 51 | 77 | 0 | 34 | 38 | 41 | 51 | 47 | 24% | -13% | |
| Goldeneye | 266 | 163 | 438 | 444 | 412 | 331 | 275 | 391 | 231 | 138 | 332 | 255 | 204 | 232 | 232 | 251 | 76 | 180 | -70% | 39% | |
| Bufflehead | 0 | 26 | 0 | 40 | 14 | 24 | 43 | 14 | 26 | 179 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 41 | 41 | 14 | 0 | 16 | -100% | -14% | |
| Scoter | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 26 | 13 | 0 | 6 | -100% | 104% | |
| Ruddy duck | 86 | 110 | 201 | 222 | 219 | 183 | 104 | 86 | 218 | 298 | 332 | 492 | 179 | 304 | 321 | 326 | 179 | 221 | -45% | 48% | |
| Merganser | 15 | 0 | 128 | 204 | 77 | 77 | 65 | 56 | 40 | 82 | 102 | 154 | 204 | 116 | 132 | 142 | 26 | 51 | -82% | 178% | |
| TOTAL BROODS | 3166 | 1819 | 4085 | 3477 | 3265 | 2741 | 2253 | 2588 | 2626 | 3402 | 4749 | 3322 | 3242 | 3468 | 3637 | 3684 | 1273 | 4263 | -65% | -14% | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 7. Weighted duck brood indices for E.WA strata and total unweighted brood counts for Columbia Basin.

| Year | Channeled Scablands | Okanogan | Northeast | Palouse | Total Broods | Columbia Basin |
|---------------|----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1979 | 6274 | 420 | 868 | 195 | 7757 | |
| 1980 | 2598 | 936 | 715 | 33 | 4281 | |
| 1981 | 4435 | 1041 | 485 | 98 | 6059 | |
| 1982 | 2296 | 1131 | 1123 | 423 | 4973 | |
| 1983 | 3349 | 1080 | 715 | 293 | 5437 | |
| 1984 | 4806 | 1123 | 791 | 195 | 6915 | |
| 1985 | 6133 | 1614 | 1123 | 325 | 9196 | |
| 1986 | 4743 | 965 | 842 | 293 | 6843 | |
| 1987 | 4574 | 1206 | 1072 | 325 | 7177 | |
| 1988 | 1557 | 1112 | 749 | 434 | 3851 | |
| 1989 | 2395 | 1023 | 894 | 358 | 4669 | |
| 1990 | 1099 | 946 | 894 | 130 | 3068 | |
| 1991 | 246 | 472 | 1506 | 130 | 2355 | |
| 1992 | 317 | 434 | 1021 | 390 | 2163 | |
| 1993 | 1232 | 590 | 613 | 390 | 2825 | |
| 1994 | 2587 | 672 | 928 | 130 | 4316 | |
| 1995 | 555 | 504 | 689 | 195 | 1943 | 160 |
| 1996 | 3922 | 554 | 945 | 228 | 5649 | 218 |
| 1997 | 1703 | 1345 | 1864 | 184 | 5095 | 179 |
| 1998 | 5193 | 1837 | 894 | 163 | 8086 | 279 |
| 1999 | 2816 | 1362 | 715 | 163 | 5055 | 170 |
| 2000 | 2898 | 239 | 536 | 163 | 3836 | 192 |
| 2001 | 2993 | 423 | 715 | 65 | 4196 | 167 |
| 2002 | 2360 | 139 | 460 | 65 | 3024 | 137 |
| 2003 | 2011 | 295 | 919 | 65 | 3291 | 164 |
| 2004 | 440 | 905 | 791 | 130 | 2266 | 147 |
| 2005 | 328 | 482 | 945 | 65 | 1819 | 178 |
| 2006 | 450 | 986 | 1200 | 65 | 2701 | No survey |
| 2007 | 435 | 984 | 1864 | 195 | 3477 | 160 |
| 2008 | 945 | 1413 | 842 | 65 | 3265 | 61 |
| 2009 | 860 | 1160 | 689 | 33 | 2741 | 64 |
| 2010 | 703 | 854 | 664 | 33 | 2253 | 51 |
| 2011 | 1155 | 890 | 511 | 33 | 2588 | 61 |
| 2012 | 1018 | 731 | 842 | 98 | 2626 | 78 |
| 2013 | 1111 | 1376 | 817 | No Survey | 3402 | 47 |
| 2014 | 759 | 1633 | 918 | No Survey | 3310 | 76 |
| 2015 | 357 | 1889 | 970 | 26 | 3242 | 81 |
| 2016 | 859 | 787 | 868 | 195 | 2709 | 13 |
| 2017 | 690 | 860 | 895 | 176 | 2341 | 14 |
| 2018 | 635 | 1179 | 911 | 132 | 2764 | 36 |
| 2019 | 728 | 942 | 891 | 168 | 2605 | 21 |
| 2020 | 684 | 1302 | 842 | 204 | 3032 | 204 |
| LTA | 2030 | 948 | 894 | 176 | 4029 | 118 |
| 2020 vs. 2019 | -6% | 38% | -5% | 21% | 16% | -42% |
| 2020 vs. LTA | -66% | 37% | -6% | 16% | -25% | 72% |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 8. Goose nest survey areas in Washington.

| Survey Area | Year Survey Initiated | Agency Conducting Survey | Frequency of Survey |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| UPPER COLUMBIA | | | |
| Hanford | <1974 | WDFW | Biennial |
| Priest Rapids | <1974 | WDFW | Biennial |
| Wanapum | <1974 | WDFW | Periodic |
| Rocky Reach | 1975 | Chelan Co. PUD | Annual |
| Rock Island | <1974 | Chelan Co. PUD | Annual |
| Wells | 1980 | WDFW | Annual |
| F.D.R. | 1981 | WDFW | Periodic |
| Rufus Woods | 1981 | Army Corps | Annual |
| Mouth of Yakima | <1974 | WDFW | Biennial |
| SNAKE RIVER | | | |
| Snake River | 1975 | Army Corps | Annual |
| Snake River Cliff | 1979 | Army Corps | Discontinued |
| MID COLUMBIA | | | |
| McNary | <1974 | USFWS | Discontinued |
| John Day | <1974 | Umatilla NWR | Biennial |
| Dalles | <1974 | Army Corps | Periodic |
| Bonneville | 1982 | Army Corps | Periodic |
| Tri-Cities | 1982 | WDFW | Biennial |
| COLUMBIA BASIN | | | |
| Moses Lake | 1981 | WDFW | Biennial |
| Potholes Res. | 1981 | WDFW | Biennial |
| Lenore, Alkali, Park | 1981 | WDFW | Periodic |
| LOWER COLUMBIA | | | |
| I-5 to Bonneville | 1981 | Army Corps | Periodic |
| I-5 to Puget Island | 1981 | WDFW | Annual, Biennial starting in 2012 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 9. Number Canada goose nest counted per region (1974-2018), and total Canada geese observed on duck surveys. *2019 was first year with no goose nest counts conducted from the ground.

| Year | Canada Goose Nests | | | | | | | Total Geese observed during breeding duck surveys | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|-------------|--------------|----------------|-----------|----------------|-------|---|--------------|-------------|
| | Upper Columbia | Snake River | Mid Columbia | Columbia Basin | EWA Total | Lower Columbia | TOTAL | EWA Ground | EWA Aerial | W WA Aerial |
| 1974 | 279 | | 363 | | 642 | | 642 | | | |
| 1975 | 297 | 50 | 344 | | 691 | | 691 | | | |
| 1976 | 310 | 51 | 345 | | 706 | | 706 | | | |
| 1977 | 358 | 51 | 384 | | 793 | | 793 | | | |
| 1978 | 329 | 51 | 330 | | 710 | | 710 | | | |
| 1979 | 303 | 87 | 292 | | 682 | | 682 | 2570 | | |
| 1980 | 393 | 112 | 339 | | 844 | | 844 | 1925 | | |
| 1981 | 500 | 145 | 318 | 249 | 1212 | 14 | 1226 | 4053 | | |
| 1982 | 509 | 160 | 480 | 484 | 1633 | 15 | 1648 | 1203 | | |
| 1983 | 656 | 171 | 520 | 541 | 1888 | 15 | 1903 | 3225 | | |
| 1984 | 618 | 132 | 466 | 601 | 1817 | 15 | 1832 | 2305 | | |
| 1985 | 630 | 150 | 500 | 757 | 2037 | 131 | 2168 | 6674 | | |
| 1986 | 641 | 136 | 507 | 765 | 2049 | 73 | 2122 | 5225 | | |
| 1987 | 745 | 130 | 670 | 702 | 2247 | 354 | 2601 | 7938 | | |
| 1988 | 794 | 229 | 723 | 742 | 2488 | 353 | 2841 | 5426 | | |
| 1989 | 799 | 227 | 627 | 500 | 2153 | 527 | 2680 | 5605 | | |
| 1990 | 808 | 180 | 634 | 518 | 2140 | 527 | 2667 | 16695 | | |
| 1991 | 923 | 199 | 637 | 414 | 2173 | 645 | 2818 | 8483 | | |
| 1992 | 916 | 236 | 633 | 538 | 2323 | 531 | 2854 | 9483 | | |
| 1993 | 858 | 319 | 629 | 628 | 2434 | 664 | 3098 | 9190 | | |
| 1994 | 806 | 290 | 662 | 595 | 2353 | 589 | 2942 | 9396 | | |
| 1995 | 929 | 261 | 702 | 477 | 2369 | 600 | 2969 | 15017 | | |
| 1996 | 944 | 236 | 777 | 501 | 2458 | 544 | 3002 | 12758 | | |
| 1997 | 798 | 210 | 711 | 676 | 2395 | 575 | 2970 | 13019 | | |
| 1998 | 744 | 210 | 693 | 610 | 2257 | 522 | 2779 | 11199 | | |
| 1999 | 783 | 187 | 811 | 315 | 2096 | 462 | 2558 | 22598 | | |
| 2000 | 797 | 207 | 816 | 313 | 2133 | 424 | 2557 | 23449 | | |
| 2001 | 790 | 214 | 835 | 539 | 2378 | 496 | 2874 | 13307 | | |
| 2002 | 751 | 199 | 872 | 629 | 2451 | 449 | 2900 | 17179 | | |
| 2003 | 793 | 199 | 782 | 374 | 2148 | 450 | 2598 | 17596 | | |
| 2004 | 728 | 199 | 782 | 350 | 2059 | 478 | 2537 | 19137 | | |
| 2005 | 626 | 199 | 689 | 584 | 2098 | 468 | 2566 | 13022 | | |
| 2006 | 593 | 248 | 753 | 544 | 2138 | 499 | 2637 | 19253 | | |
| 2007 | 489 | 217 | 734 | 442 | 1882 | 422 | 2304 | 13244 | | |
| 2008 | 451 | 197 | 727 | 485 | 1860 | 454 | 2314 | 16342 | | |
| 2009 | 461 | 243 | 749 | 594 | 2047 | 422 | 2469 | 14858 | 25364 | |
| 2010 | 493 | 241 | 750 | 544 | 2028 | 403 | 2431 | 12014 | 12782 | |
| 2011 | 499 | 259 | 725 | 599 | 2082 | 415 | 2497 | 16511 | 20993 | 4045 |
| 2012 | 462 | 255 | 728 | 628 | 2073 | 412 | 2485 | | 28347 | 8231 |
| 2013 | 549 | 199 | 803 | 687 | 2238 | 412 | 2650 | | 26577 | 6394 |
| 2014 | 508 | 263 | 814 | 624 | 2209 | 376 | 2585 | | 38832 | 10101 |
| 2015 | 593 | 263 | 891 | 762 | 2509 | 376 | 2885 | | 33347 | 10782 |
| 2016 | 584 | 263 | 891 | 731 | 2469 | 376 | 2845 | | 24678 | 6791 |
| 2017 | 567 | 263 | 833 | 731 | 2394 | 376 | 2770 | | 29390 | 7272 |
| 2018 | 567 | 263 | 833 | 717 | 2380 | 376 | 2756 | | 36662 | 8331 |
| 2019 | * | * | * | * | * | * | * | 2019 Aerial | 43749 | 9310 |
| 2018 vs. 2017 | 0% | 0% | 0% | -2% | -1% | 0% | -1% | 2018 vs. 2018 | 19% | 12% |
| Long Term Avg. | 623 | 194 | 643 | 561 | 1927 | 402 | 2265 | LTA | 27697 | 7743 |
| 2018 vs. LTA | -9% | 36% | 30% | 28% | 24% | -6% | 22% | 2018 vs. LTA | 58% | 20% |

Waterfowl: Winter Populations and Harvest Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

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Introduction

This report summarizes the 2020-21 Washington winter waterfowl surveys, hunting regulations, harvest, and hunter trends. This summary compares current data with data collected over the past 35 years in the state as well as the Pacific Flyway. These data are part of a long-term database archived by the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) Waterfowl Section. Several of the data sets extend back to the late 1940s.

Population Surveys

Methods

Traditionally, the primary assessment to determine status of wintering waterfowl throughout the Pacific Flyway was the January Midwinter Waterfowl Survey (MWS). This was a coordinated, comprehensive survey of the most important waterfowl wintering areas, using a combination of standardized surveys from fixed-winged aircraft and ground observation locations. The MWS combined efforts among several agencies: Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife (ODFW), California Department of Fish and Wildlife, Yakama Nation, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS), and Canadian Wildlife Service. WDFW continues to conduct a portion of the MWS in Washington.

WDFW also conducts special winter surveys focused on sea ducks during December and January, initially as part of the Puget Sound Ecosystem Monitoring Program (PSEMP). Consistent winter aerial surveys of greater Puget Sound began in 1993-94 and have been conducted each subsequent year (except for 2006-07 and 2017-18, due to funding limitations). Survey methods have been peer reviewed by a science panel as part of PSEMP. These surveys sample the entire marine shoreline and open water areas using six depth strata. The transects annually cover 7% to 8% of the marine waters in Puget Sound and the Strait of Juan de Fuca, totaling 6,400-7,100 km of transects. Population estimates from these surveys represent minimum estimates as observers are not able to detect all birds present within the transect, due to environmental conditions (e.g., glare, waves,) and reactions of some species to aircraft (e.g., diving, flight).

Because the MWS does not capture migration peaks or patterns of habitat use throughout the fall/winter, additional fixed-wing and ground surveys take place in key wintering areas from October–March when feasible. Specific age structure surveys also take place in the north Puget Sound area for snow geese, brant, and swans, along standard ground observation routes.

Midwinter Waterfowl Survey Results

As of 2016, the USFWS discontinued the Pacific Flyway MWS for total waterfowl. Changes in operational priorities for USFWS created the need for states to conduct surveys individually, leaving Washington, California, and Montana as the only Pacific Flyway states to conduct portions of these original mid-winter surveys.

WDFW suspended the traditional mid-winter surveys in January 2018. However, in western Washington, WDFW staff continue to focus efforts on expanded snow goose, swan, and brant counts. In eastern Washington, WDFW staff conducted the synchronized roost fly-off survey in coordination with ODFW and USFWS-refuges for wintering snow geese in the Columbia Basin. The statewide midwinter index for total waterfowl is summarized for 2007-2018 (Table 1).

Ducks – In Washington, the most recent 10-year average for total wintering duck population was 639,930, but this value does not account for declining effort in certain regions of the state. For example: 2018 included a limited number of sites traditionally surveyed, 155 in western Washington, but was 43% below the most recent 10-year average. Traditionally, the Washington total duck count has represented 13.5% of the 10-year average from 2005-15. The 1991 MWS represents the highest proportion of Washington ducks to total ducks recorded in the Pacific Flyway (28.6%).

The most recent 10-year average for total number of mallards counted in Washington was 297,666 and on average comprises 47% of the total duck composition in Washington (Table 1). Washington typically holds a high percentage of the Pacific Flyway mallard population with a 10-year average from 2005-15 of 41%.

Results for special Puget Sound aerial winter surveys (referred to as Puget Sound Ambient Monitoring Program, PSAMP), provides status and trend for the eleven species of sea duck that are regularly recorded during these surveys including (most recent estimate; long-term averages) bufflehead (60,433; 65,625), surf scoter (35,481; 44,259), red-breasted merganser (23,955; 12,699), common goldeneye (14,319; 18,262), white-winged scoter (14,132; 15,742), Barrow's goldeneye (9,656; 13,044), harlequin duck (4,772; 4,570), long-tailed duck (4,378; 5,257), common merganser (3,884; 4,696), hooded merganser (2,928; 1,708), and black scoter (1,447; 1,299) representing the six most abundant species based on the most recent counts (Table 2). The most recent 3-year average for all three species of scoters is 61,074, which represents a 41% decline in total scoters in the Puget Sound compared to the 1999-2001 average of 103,839.

Canada geese – Canada geese are not well represented in mid-winter surveys as they forage in widespread agricultural areas, making them difficult to locate during aerial surveys. Wintering Canada goose numbers began to build in the 1990s, when the MWS first indexed over 400,000 geese. The number of Canada geese wintering in Washington has been variable over the past 20 years. Canada geese numbered over 90,000 during the winter of 1998-99 and 2000-01. The most recent 10-year average of total Canada geese is 39,498, but there continues to be high variability in annual counts (Table 1).

Snow geese – The northern population of snow geese that over-winter in Skagit, Snohomish, and Island counties of NW Washington and the Fraser River Delta, B.C. nest almost exclusively on

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Wrangel Island, Russia. Juvenile snow geese comprised a minimum estimate of 30% of the wintering population in the Fraser and Skagit River Deltas in December 2020, indicating another exceptional breeding pulse during the 2020 nesting season. MWS snow goose aerial photo counts by WDFW were conducted on December 10, 2020, with a total estimate of 133,306 (3,466 SE) representing a 9.2% annual (constant rate over two years) increase from the 109,993 counted in December 2018. This represents the single highest winter count recorded for this flock, with the most recent 3-year average for adult geese of 84,624, remaining above the upper threshold identified by Pacific Flyway management plan (Table 3, Fig. 1). Reports from the Wrangel Island Tundra River colony indicated exceptional above-average juvenile recruitment and survival in 2019, 2020, and is similarly anticipated in 2021. This was the fourth year of a coordinated effort to document the growing number of wintering snow geese in the Columbia Basin in both Oregon and Washington. The Columbia Basin Snow Goose Fly-off Survey is a synchronized roost fly-off assumed to be a minimum count. This survey was conducted on December 8, 2020 with a minimum count of 153,690 white geese, presumed to be almost exclusively lesser snow geese. This represents a similar minimum count as in 2019 (160,825), which was a nearly 300% increase compared to the December 2018 count of 52,841, driven by an exceptional, but unquantified presence of juvenile (gray) geese, and 4.83-times greater than the December 2017 count of 33,274, both of which were conducted as roost fly-off counts. This is the first documented count of the Columbia Basin winter flock that exceeded the Fraser-Skagit winter flock.

Brant – The preliminary number of brant counted in 2020-21 during the Washington-portion of the Pacific Flyway Winter Brant Survey was 9,961, a 34.8% increase from 2019-20, and 22.2% below the most recent 10-year average (Table 1, Fig. 2). The number of brant counted at Willapa Bay during the ground-based winter survey was 2,587, a decrease of 25.6% from 2019-20. The number of brant counted during the northern Puget Sound component (Skagit County) of the aerial survey on January 7, 2021 was 3,430, which was 32.3% above the 2019-20 count, and the second lowest recorded count since 1982 (2,105). Since 2006, breast feather color measurements taken from brant at Skagit County check stations show an annual gray-bellied (WHA = Mansell 4-8) composition between 21% to 79%, requiring a more restrictive harvest management strategy, as defined by the Pacific Flyway management plan for the population. Since opening in 2018, hunter bag checks in Clallam County have assessed 148 brant, with 9 brant classified as WHA (6%), falling below the threshold considered a WHA-site (>25% WHA in harvest). In Whatcom County WHA status remains difficult to assess, however, in 2020-21 WDFW staff implemented a photo submission request that generated 37 photo submissions of 20 unique individual brant, and a preliminary estimate of 15% (3 of 20) WHA in harvest, below the 25% threshold.

Swans – The 2020-21 northern Puget Sound (Skagit, Whatcom, Snohomish, King, and Island counties) trumpeter swan MWS totaled 12,475 (Table 3), a 6.6% decrease from the 2019-20 count of 13,355, but an additional 3,365 swans were not speciated. Juveniles accounted for 14.4% of the trumpeter swans observed (Table 3). An additional 298 trumpeter swan, including 60 juveniles (20.1%) were counted in Clallam County. The 2020-21 northern Puget Sound tundra swan midwinter index was 701, 71.4% above the 2019 index (409). Juveniles represented 10.4% (73), up from 3.7% of the population in 2019 (Table 3). A total of 2,989 adult swans and 440 juvenile swans could not be classified to species in these western Washington counties. Due to logistical constraints presented by the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, no mid-winter survey efforts were

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

attempted along the Columbia River. Together the minimum total swan MWS was 18,115 swans in western Washington during January 2021.

Since 1999, trumpeter swans and, to a lesser degree, tundra swans wintering in northwestern Washington and southwestern British Columbia have experienced documented mortality due to ingestion of lead shot pellets. Of the 2,332 carcasses collected from 2000-2011, the majority of deaths were lead-related (66%). An average of 18 lead and 7 steel pellets were recovered per gizzard of lead-exposed swans ($n=1,736$ gizzards, 43,767 pellets). From 2001-2005, a total of 315 trumpeter and tundra swans were trapped, and blood samples collected for lead residue analysis. Trumpeter swans were outfitted with VHF radio transmitters ($n=243$) or satellite transmitters ($n=6$); 61 tundra swans were fitted with neck collars. Locations of radio-tagged swans were used to identify primary forage and roosting areas. Judson Lake, a major roost site on the Washington/British Columbia border, was identified as a potential source of lead shot ingestion. During the winters of 2006-2009, active hazing activities discouraged swans from using the lake, which coincided with an approximate 70% reduction in lead-caused swan mortalities during the first 3 winters (average 67 lead-related mortalities in 2006-09) when compared to the average of 227 lead-related mortalities per year over the previous five years (2001-06).

Starting in 2009, hazing at Judson Lake focused on the area of highest lead shot concentration. Bamboo poles and fencing prevented swans from landing in the exclusion area, while allowing them use of about 50% of the lake. The barrier system was successful in excluding swans without an appreciable increase in lead related swan mortality or any swan injuries due to the barrier system. However, known trumpeter swan mortalities increased to 374 in 2014-15 with 203 (54%) showing signs of lead poisoning. This prompted a revamping of the exclusion area in November 2016. Winter 2020-21 represented the fourth-year post-revamp of the exclusion area related to monitoring efforts and resulted in 500 encountered mortalities in the long-term monitoring region (including Sumas Prairie, BC; $n=480$) and other counties ($n=20$), of which 208 (43%) were confirmed lead poisoning, but with 167 (35%) undetermined-cause mortalities. This brings the total confirmed lead mortality to 2,696 swans. Evaluation of the logistics (longevity, practicality, and alternatives) of the exclusion zone given the past three seasons of elevated encounter have corresponded with lake levels that preclude pre-season access to the site. Given the increased number of responses, in June 2021, a complete revamp of Judson Lake was completed by WDFW staff, with bamboo poles supplied by partners with the Canadian Wildlife Service. Monitoring of mortality cause and source of lead exposure in gizzard and liver samples will continue to be documented and spatial extent mapped.

Periodic Aerial Survey Results

Aerial waterfowl surveys in northern Puget Sound were suspended due to WDFW staff turnover. Emphasis was again placed on training observers and to focus efforts on the PSAMP winter sea duck survey flights and analysis. Surveys in the Columbia Basin are no longer conducted due to changes in funding and waterfowl survey design throughout the Pacific Flyway. Without USFWS assistance it is not logistically feasible to maintain these flights, and therefore these surveys have lost contextual relevance on the landscape (Table 3).

Willapa Bay – No Willapa Bay flight was attempted in 2020 due to logistical constraints caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The average January winter dabbling duck count for this area is 5,962

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

(1981-2002). Mallards are the most prevalent duck species with 4,801 (58% of all dabbling ducks) counted. Willapa Bay consistently supports higher numbers of dabbling ducks, dominated by American wigeon. During migration periods, mallard are consistently the highest proportion of the winter count.

Eastern Washington – Results of other periodic surveys in the Columbia and Yakima basins, if available, are presented in Table 3.

Long-term monitoring of small Canada geese (Lesser Canada and Taverner's cackling geese) staging on Stratford (Brooke) Lake and Round Lake has taken place since the early 1970s. These lakes are located near the town of Stratford in central Grant County. Both lakes are on private property and are not hunted. Population trends of Washington's small Canada geese have not been well documented because they forage in widespread agricultural areas and are mixed with other subspecies, making them difficult to survey from the air. October staging surveys were originally aerial counts but switched to ground counts in 2006. Survey dataset has spanned 1976-2015, with 9,338 counted in 2015. The highest historical count was 80,050 in 1984. This population is of concern due to past high harvest return rates of geese in the Columbia Basin that were banded in Alaska. It is thought the very low counts in 2014 and 2015 are a result of the implementation of a new water feed route through the lakes that has eliminated many of the preferred staging areas for small Canada geese. Currently, it is not known at this time where these populations may have shifted and strategies for assessing this change are being considered and partnership projects throughout the Pacific Flyway were initiated during the summer of 2021.

Hunting Season Regulations

The 2020-21 waterfowl harvest was regulated under Washington State regulations following federal framework recommendations (Table 4). The federal framework allowed the maximum number of days (107 days) under the Migratory Bird Treaty Act. Washington's season length was 105 days statewide with two additional days for the statewide Youth Hunt on Sept. 26 in western Washington and Oct. 3 in eastern Washington, and a statewide Youth, Veteran, and Active Military Hunt held Saturday, February 6, 2021. The daily bag-limit was 7 ducks, to include not more than 2 hen mallard, 1 pintail, 2 scaup, 2 canvasback, and 2 redhead statewide; and to include not more than 1 harlequin (season limit), 2 scoter, 2 long-tailed duck, and 2 goldeneye in western Washington (Table 4).

Relatively stable and robust waterfowl populations in the Pacific Flyway over the last 25 years have allowed for liberal seasons and bag limits (Table 5). The season lengths between 1988-89 and 1993-94 were the most restrictive since 1950. Current regulations are among the most liberal ever offered in Washington. Beginning with the 2014-15 season, hunters could retain three times the daily bag in their possession for most waterfowl (Table 5).

WDFW instituted a new license format for the 1999-2000 hunting season. A small game license and big game license replaced a general hunting license. For people who hunted a variety of small game species, there was little change in total costs. For people who hunted waterfowl exclusively, the new format resulted in an increase in cost. Before the 2002-03 hunting season, the cost of a migratory bird validation increased from \$6.00 to \$10.00 (excluding transaction and dealer fees). A 10% surcharge was added to all WDFW licenses in 2009-10 and 2010-11. The physical stamp

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

validation was replaced with a printed migratory bird permit in 2011, and the cost was \$15.00 in 2011, before administrative costs were approved to be included in the cost raising it to \$17.00 in 2012 and has remained through the current season. Beginning in 2011-12, hunters of brant and snow geese in Goose Management Area 1, sea ducks in western Washington, and all geese in SW Washington were required to purchase a special \$13.20 migratory bird authorization to obtain harvest record cards for these species (harvest record cards were free before then). The federal migratory bird stamp increased to \$25.00 in 2015 (Table 5).

Goose hunting regulations are structured to protect declining populations of certain regionally predictable Canada goose subspecies, increase recreational opportunities on expanding populations of Canada geese, simplify regulations, and address damage/nuisance complaints through the prioritization of regulated harvest. The number of goose management areas became 6 during the 2019-20, with Area 2 being divided into Coast and Inland to allow for differential seasons dates to accommodate differences in distribution and opportunity related to Cackling goose subspecies, but Goose Management Area 2 (GMA2) continues to prioritize the conservation of Dusky Canada geese (Fig. 3). Additionally, this zone adjustment required SW Canada Goose hunters to record the number of geese taken on the mandatory harvest report card to provide more accurate estimation of harvest in this diverse opportunity goose zone and to emphasize identification and avoidance of Dusky Canada geese most prevalent in this region.

Prior to 1984, the goose season length in southwest Washington was 93 days, with bag/possession limits of 3/6. Since that time, the season has evolved to 1) conserve the dusky Canada goose subspecies, which has declined in numbers since the 1970s; 2) provide control of agricultural damage resulting from higher numbers of other Canada geese in the area; and 3) provide greater recreational opportunity. Significant changes to the SW goose season in 2015-16 began with the closure of dusky Canada goose hunting. Check stations were expensive to operate, and it was believed that significant numbers of hunters failed to report to check stations. Other major changes included: more season days and longer hunting hours, elimination of harvest recording, hunting hours extended to 30 minutes after official waterfowl hunting hours to 30 minutes before the end of official waterfowl hunting hours, and the inclusion of Clark and Grays Harbor counties in permit zones 2A and 2B, respectively. Historic season regulations for SW Washington are presented in Table 6. A special late season addressing agricultural depredation concerns initiated in 1995-96 was continued in Area 2A and initiated in Area 2B during 2015-16. Beginning in 2016-17 Area 2A and 2B were combined into GMA2. Since 2018-19, Goose Management Area 2 has been divided into Coast (including Pacific County and the portion of Grays Harbor County west of highway 101) and Inland (including Clark, Cowlitz, and Wahkiakum counties, and the portion of Grays Harbor County east of highway 101). Season structures and specific dates are summarized in Table 4.

Beginning with the 2015-16 season, the Aleutian goose daily bag limit was eliminated, and Aleutians could be hunted as part of the normal Canada goose limit. Previously listed as both a federal and state endangered species, Aleutian Canada goose populations have experienced strong population growth in recent years and have caused crop and pasture depredation complaints in coastal agricultural areas, mainly in Oregon and California. Daily bag limits and possession limits during the September goose season were 5 and 15, respectively, for the Coast and Inland zones to address a localized goose management consideration.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Agricultural depredation by snow geese in Skagit County led to the development of the Snow Goose Quality Hunt Program on Fir Island. Presently, thousands of acres were available through the Private Lands Feel Free to Hunt or Register to Hunt programs, but these lands accommodate all waterfowl hunting opportunities and was renamed the Waterfowl Habitat and Access Program prior to the 2021-22 season. Numerous public safety concern complaints due to unethical snow goose hunting led to special restrictions in Skagit County. Hunters were restricted from discharging a firearm within 100 feet of any paved public road for the purpose of hunting snow geese anywhere in Skagit County. Violation of these rules, trespass, exceeding the snow goose bag limit, or shooting across a paved road resulted in invalidation of the hunter's snow goose authorization for the remainder of the current waterfowl season and the subsequent season.

The January-only brant season took place in 2021, with 14 hunt days in Pacific County, 3 days in Clallam and Whatcom Counties, and a restricted 3 days in Skagit County (Table 4). The Skagit County brant hunt is dependent on a pre-season count of at least 3,000 brant, allowing a 3-day season, or more than 6,000 brant, allowing an 8-day season. Piloted during the 2019-20 season in Skagit County, the previous 3-year average was used to determine if a "known" opening weekend was warranted, and the results of the aerial survey informed expanded opportunity. In January 2021, the Skagit County aerial direct count estimated 3,430 brant. This triggered a restricted 3-day season in Skagit County that mirrored the dates of Clallam and Whatcom county.

Harvest Surveys

Methods

Harvest estimates were traditionally based on the Small Game Harvest Questionnaire sent to 10% of the hunting license buyers. Hunters were asked to report the numbers of ducks and geese they harvested by county. Prior to 2017, the species composition of the waterfowl harvest was derived from a Daily Waterfowl Harvest Report Card Survey. In this survey, cards were sent to over 2,500 waterfowl hunters prior to the start of the season to record the species of the birds they bagged. These data were used to tabulate the species composition of the waterfowl harvest. This survey was discontinued in 2017, and instead emphasis has been placed on sending a minimum of 3 biologists (4 WDFW staff in 2020) to participate in the Pacific Flyway Wingbee to assist in species, age, and sex composition information that allows for incorporation into state-specific estimates. This data also provides data at county-level but has the added benefit of providing better training for personnel that participate in operational pre-season duck banding efforts each year.

Because statewide surveys are not accurate enough to measure harvest of several priority waterfowl species, special surveys have been developed that utilize written hunting authorizations and mandatory reporting. The sea duck (harlequin, scoter and long-tailed duck), brant (four open counties), and snow goose (in northwest Washington) harvest is estimated annually using a mandatory harvest report card for each species-group. Written authorization and harvest reports have been required of sea duck hunters in all western Washington counties, since 2004, brant hunters in all hunt areas since 1990, snow goose hunters in the primary harvest area (Skagit, Island, Snohomish counties) since 1993, and Goose Management Area 2 Coast and Inland (Clark, Cowlitz, Wahkiakum, Pacific and Grays Harbor counties closed to dusky Canada goose harvest that require an identification test and authorization) since 2018. Hunters must return a harvest

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

report card in order to be included in the permit mailing the following year. Starting in 2012-13, hunters failing to turn in their harvest reports were charged a \$10 administrative fee to obtain a harvest report card the following year. Harvest reports returned by the deadline are included in the analysis as the 'first wave' of respondents. Reminder notices are sent out to hunters with email addresses available, reminding them to return reports. Responses received after the reporting deadline are included as the 'second wave', and then the harvest estimates are computed accounting for non-response bias. Hunters were required to report harvest by species and county with mandatory harvest report cards by March 20th following each waterfowl season.

The harvest of dusky Canada was closed beginning with the 2015-16 season in Goose Management Area 2 during October through March (see above) in agreement and coordination with ODFW and USFWS. With removal of check stations, law enforcement checked hunter bags in Area 2 in order to determine compliance and were assisted by WDFW personnel specifically trained in determining goose species. WDFW uses standardized criteria for classifying duskys, where a dusky was classified as a dark-breasted Canada goose (Munsell ≤ 5) with a culmen length of 40-50 mm.

WDFW continued enhanced goose hunter training for people who wish to hunt geese in Goose Management Area 2. The training program was initially developed in 1996 and revised in 1997 in conjunction with ODFW. In this program, hunters study a goose identification workbook and are advised to view a training video. The study materials, including the video are available from the WDFW website. The workbook is also available through regular mail from WDFW, and the video can be purchased from a vendor. Originally, hunters took a 40-question written test at one of eight testing locations and could choose from several testing dates. In 2007-08, WDFW provided the opportunity to take tests online and by appointment at WDFW offices. Hunters are required to pass the test with a minimum score of 80%. Hunters who fail the test are required to wait 28 days before retesting. The test was updated in 2015 to reflect the dusky Canada goose season closure. And prior to the 2017-18 season the online test was modified to make it easier for hunters to purchase their license upon successfully passing the identification test. If a hunter takes a dusky Canada goose, or does not comply with field check requirements, the authorization will be invalidated, and the hunter is not allowed to hunt geese in Goose Management Area 2 Coast or Inland for the remainder of that waterfowl season.

Waterfowl Harvest Survey Results

The 2020-21 Washington duck harvest of 426,092 was 20.9% increase compared to the 2019-20 harvest of 352,347 which was the lowest since the 2004-05 season. The duck harvest in Washington declined steadily from over 1,000,000 in the late 1960s, to a low of 242,516 in 1993-94 (Fig. 4). However, duck harvest rates in Washington have stabilized over the past 10 years, averaging approximately 438,170 ducks annually.

Based on 2020-21 results from the Pacific Flyway Wingbee (Parts Collection Survey), mallards comprised 49% of Washington's statewide duck harvest, followed by American wigeon (17.2%), American green-winged teal (10.5%), and northern pintail (5.1%), cumulatively accounting for 81.8% of total duck harvest, with 23 other species of duck constituting the remaining 18.2% of harvest (Table 7).

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

A total goose harvest (excluding brant) was estimated at 83,848 geese, with a composition of 56,763 (63.3%) Canada and cackling geese, 26,753 (36.3%) white geese (including lesser snow and Ross' geese), and 331 (<1%) greater white-fronted geese. The total Canada goose harvest for 2020-21 was 49,011 during the regular season, with an additional 7,752 Canada geese taken during the September season, an increase of 3.6% compared to 2019-20 September Canada goose season. These 2020-21 goose harvest estimates set new records compared to the previous high 2017-18 goose harvest estimates of 83,492, with 75,782 total geese combined taken during the regular season and 7,710 during the September Canada goose season. A record low harvest of 26,479 occurred in 2004-05. During recent years, Washington's breeding-segment of Western Canada geese has increased across Washington, which has contributed to an overall increasing trend in harvest (Fig. 5), but total goose harvest increase has been driven by the rapid increase in statewide white goose harvest. Washington statewide goose harvest has averaged 73,440 geese annually over the past 10 years.

The estimated harvest of cackling geese (formerly, small Canada geese including Taverner's, Aleutian, and "minima or cacklers" subspecies) in 2020-21 (16,664) is consistent with the most recent long-term average (Fig. 5). The highest recorded harvest of small Canada geese in Washington was 47,270 in 1979-80. The lowest harvest (8,880) took place in 2003-04. The reasons for the dynamic small Canada goose harvest are uncertain, but concerns continue related to the complex of lesser Canada goose and Taverner's cackling goose particularly in the Columbia Basin (Goose Management Area 4).

Waterfowl harvest is summarized by WDFW administrative regions in Table 8. Region 2 traditionally represents the highest percentage of the state's waterfowl harvest. However, during the 2020-21 season, Region 4 accounted for 28.6% of the harvest followed by Region 2 (21.9%) and Region 3 (19.1%). The proportion of duck harvest was highest in Region 4 (30.2%), followed by Regions 2 (20.4%) and 3 (19.1%). Though Region 2 continued to account for the highest proportion of goose harvest (28.6%), followed by Region 1 (22.8%), and Region 4 (21.1%), however Region 4 accounted for the highest proportion of September Canada goose harvest (24.2%).

Mandatory Harvest Reporting Results

Restrictive bag limits for most sea ducks were maintained for western Washington in 2020-21. Concerns about low recruitment rates in sea ducks, increasing interest in sea duck hunting, and the unknown impact of reduced sea duck bag limits on compensatory species, particularly Barrow's goldeneyes, led to the measure. The harvest survey indicated a total harvest of 1,729 sea ducks representing a 32.6% decrease from the 2019-20 season. Notably, the number of hunter days was estimated at 2,153 days afield, which would be the third highest estimate since mandatory harvest reporting began in the 2004-05 season. Species composition, based on compliant and non-compliant harvest report components, was estimated as: 1,001 scoters, 183 long-tailed ducks, 165 harlequin ducks and 427 goldeneyes (Table 9). The reported goldeneye harvest included 53% Barrow's goldeneye. Primary harvest areas included Island (38.9%), Clallam (12.4%), and Whatcom (10.4%) counties.

The 2020-21 pre-season count of brant in Padilla/Samish/Fidalgo Bays was below the threshold of 6,000, and below the 3,000 closure threshold, allowing the 3-day January brant season in Skagit County. The previous 3-year average of 4,196, was used to provide a "known" opening Saturday,

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

and results of the pre-season survey of 3,430 brant, allowed additional days to follow the open dates of Clallam and Whatcom county in an effort to disperse hunter days. An estimated 666 brant were harvested from the four counties statewide during the 2020-21 brant season, a 271% increase over the 2019-20 brant season. This statewide harvest estimate included the addition of the February 1, 2020 Youth, Veterans, and Active Military Personnel (YVMP) special hunt date that included brant as a legal species. Skagit County brant harvest was estimated at 295 brant, 284% over the 2019-20 (2-day restricted, plus YVMP special hunt) season estimate. Brant hunting was maintained as a 14-day season in Pacific County resulting in an estimated harvest of brant was 106, 156% above the 2019-20 estimate of 68 (Table 10). Additionally, for the fourth consecutive year, harvest was allowed in Whatcom and Clallam counties resulting in 78 and 156 brant harvested, new records for both counties, respectively. These two counties opened in 2017-18 after winter counts had consistently placed the 3-year average above the 1,000 brant winter population threshold required to consider opening a county to potential harvest, per WDFW Game Management Plan objectives.

The 2020-21 snow goose harvest was estimated at 5,240, a 18.1% decrease from the 2019-20 harvest of 6,398 (corrected for non-compliance). Snow goose harvest in Washington is historically variable (Table 11) depending on several factors including age and production of the Wrangel Island snow goose flock. In addition, the harvest of snow geese in northern Puget Sound is weather dependent, with high wind events leading to greater harvest. This factor, as well as proportion of juveniles, may be of greater importance to harvest than total abundance, because the erratic annual harvest does not follow the number of geese counted in Washington during the MWS (Fig.1). These geese have recently expanded their wintering range in northwestern Washington to portions of Whatcom, Snohomish and King counties. Additionally, continued reports and coordinated survey efforts suggest that growing numbers of snow geese are being documented in the Lower Columbia River near Vancouver, Washington and in the mid-Columbia River stretch between Burbank, Washington, Umatilla and Boardman Oregon. Recent changes to the bag-limit configurations for goose seasons, including season dates into February-March in Goose Management Areas 1 and 4, has resulted in significant increases in total white geese (lesser snow and Ross' geese) in the statewide harvest, evident by these geese now accounting for 26,753 (36.3%) of the total goose harvest in Washington, up 11.5% from the 2019-20 statewide estimate of 23,985 white geese (Table 7).

In the southwest Washington goose season, hunters who passed the identification test in 1996-2020 and did not take a dusky Canada goose in 2019-20 were authorized to hunt in 2020-21. New hunters and those that illegally harvested a dusky in 2019-20 were required to take a new test to obtain an authorization. Beginning in 2019-20 seasons, goose hunters in Goose Management Area 2 were required to record harvest of Canada and cackling geese to generate a better harvest estimate from these five counties. A combination of uniformed and undercover officers documented hunter compliance through individual field checks throughout the regular and late seasons. Additionally, biological staff has conducted field checks to determine subspecies composition in the reported harvest, as reliable identification requires measurements and would not be feasible to ask of hunters. Of 286 geese classified during bag checks (Table 12), 6 dusky Canada geese were recorded. The number and species of geese brought to check stations 1969-2015 varied annually, but the presence of “minima” cackling geese is an important component of the composition.

Hunter Numbers and Success

The Washington small game hunter survey was used to estimate the number of waterfowl hunters in the state. During the 2020-21 season, an estimated 24,541 duck hunters, up 20.9%, and 11,953 goose hunters, up 17.6%, participated in the Washington waterfowl season (Fig. 6), accounting for an estimated 199,663 (28.1%) days afield for duck hunting and 77,474 (35.1%), with an additional 5,774 (4.4%) September goose days afield for goose hunting. These significant single season increases are largely attributed to increased participation in waterfowl hunting during the COVID-19 pandemic. Following a steep decline in 2002, there had been a stable to slightly decreasing number for approximately fifteen years, although waterfowl stamp and permit sales have been stable, if not increasing, since the early 1990s. Prior to that, there was a steady decline in hunters through the 1980s (Fig. 6). The 2004-05 estimate of Washington waterfowl hunters (23,078) was the previous lowest on record.

The estimated average number of ducks harvested per hunter in 2020-21 was 17.4, identical to the 2019-20 season, even with significant increases in duck harvest, hunters, and days. In contrast to recent depressed hunter numbers, hunter success when defined as ducks harvested per hunter per year, has been on an upward trend since the mid-1990s (Fig. 7). This suggests that the downward trend in total duck harvest (Fig. 4) is more related to hunter numbers (Fig. 6) than decreased annual hunter success. The high success rate may indicate that the state has retained many avid and successful waterfowl hunters but may be struggling to retain hunters that may hunt only a handful of days each season or are failing to recruit new waterfowl hunters due to perceived or real competition in the field. WDFW continues to evaluate ways of better understanding this discrepancy.

Members of the hunting public often believe the decline in hunter numbers is a result of the restrictive regulations that began in the mid-1980s (Table 5). This may have contributed to the reduced hunter participation (Fig. 6), but the downward trend in hunter numbers began in the early 1980s when there was a 7-duck daily bag limit, no special restrictions on mallards and pintails, and season lengths were 93 days in the west zone and 100 days in the east zone (Table 5), and since diverged from waterfowl population status which improved to recorded highs during 2015-16. The decline in hunter numbers is likely more attributable to a lack of recruitment or retention of new waterfowl hunters and changes in social views on hunting.

The quality, when defined by average harvest per hunter of waterfowl hunting opportunities in Washington is fair to excellent for the majority of the season and is largely driven by winter weather patterns in relation to water and forage availability (bioenergetic supply) on the landscape. But, certainly the diversity of waterfowl hunting styles (e.g., dabbling ducks, diving ducks, sea ducks, geese, and brant) present challenges in accessibility and educating traditional hunting style traditions (e.g., sea ducks and brant). Decreased hunter numbers result in lower hunter densities in the field and overall success has remained stable to increasing. In addition, the state is holding a large percentage of the Pacific Flyway's ducks. Urban encroachment in traditional hunting areas will be one of the biggest challenges faced by waterfowl hunters and managers. Regardless, the

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

value of Washington's waterfowl resources remains high and provides unique and enjoyable hunting recreation for the state's waterfowl hunting population.

WDFW has recognized a decline of "quality" hunting opportunities found on public hunting areas. In response, WDFW has developed initiatives to address public hunting opportunities on public and private lands. In 2018-19 there were 6 regulated access areas (RAA) on WDFW lands, including Winchester Ponds, Frenchman Ponds, and North Potholes in Region 2, and Bailie Youth Ranch, Mesa Lake, and Windmill Ranch in Region 3. In April 2021, the Fish and Wildlife Commission adopted regulations that expanded the number of Waterfowl RAAs to ten. WDFW also continued the private land access program, now referred to as the Waterfowl Habitat and Access Program in Region 4 and maintained and expanded a private lands access program for waterfowl hunting in Regions 2, 3, 4, and 6. Some of these programs featured limited access designed to reduce hunter crowding and/or limit waterfowl disturbance. However, there is continued recognition that habitat enhancements are key to achieving improved hunting experiences and will be emphasized over "quality", in the upcoming seasons. Finally, there is acknowledgement, but not widespread acceptance, that waterfowl hunters define "quality" very differently dependent up on which of the five (or six) stages of hunter development one affiliates themselves with as to the characteristics of "quality" that they desire. Better understanding of these differences would help guide efforts and efficiencies on the ground to target more equitable access to opportunities.

Washington Banded Waterfowl Harvest Recoveries

During the 2020-21 a total of 329 harvested band recoveries for mallards banded in Washington, with 302 (91.8%) recovered in Washington state (Figure 8). Reported Washington mallard harvest encounters occurred in October (84; 25.5%), November (73; 22.2%), December (81; 24.6%), January (87; 26.4%), with the other 4 harvested during special hunt dates: one during September, and three during February. During the 2020-21 goose season, a total of 282 harvested band recoveries were reported for Western Canada geese banded in Washington, with 217 (77.2%) recovered in Washington state (Figure 9). Reported Washington Western Canada harvest encounters occurred in September (49; 17.4%), October (50; 17.8%), November (30; 10.7%), December (57; 20.3%), January (92; 32.7%) and three reported during limited late season segments in February and March.

Recommendations

- Attempt to minimize harvest regulation adjustments over the next three-year period and continue to evaluate harvest opportunities and access limitations.
- Evaluate trends in sea duck harvest, particularly the significant increase in harvest days afield.
- Re-evaluate harvest strategy in both sea ducks and brant.
- Prepare a minimum of one peer-reviewed manuscript from the updated PSAMP sea duck dataset.
- Prioritize winter brant survey count of Whatcom and derive estimates from the 2 previous seasons using available PSAMP data (evaluate years with overlap for comparability).
- Continue the Columbia Basin Snow Goose Fly-off Survey in coordination with ODFW.
- Initiate a collaborative effort to investigate the concerns around the “small Canada goose” complex of Taverner’s cackling geese and lesser Canada geese, involving USFWS, ADFG, and Pacific Flyway partners.
- Derive harvest rate estimates for Washington breeding mallards and provide comparison against expected values derived for the Western Mallard AHM model.
- Provide a more detailed summary of mallard and Canada goose band returns in future reports, including temporal patterns in harvest.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Fig. 1. Washington MWS - Snow Geese (Skagit-Fraser winter flock)

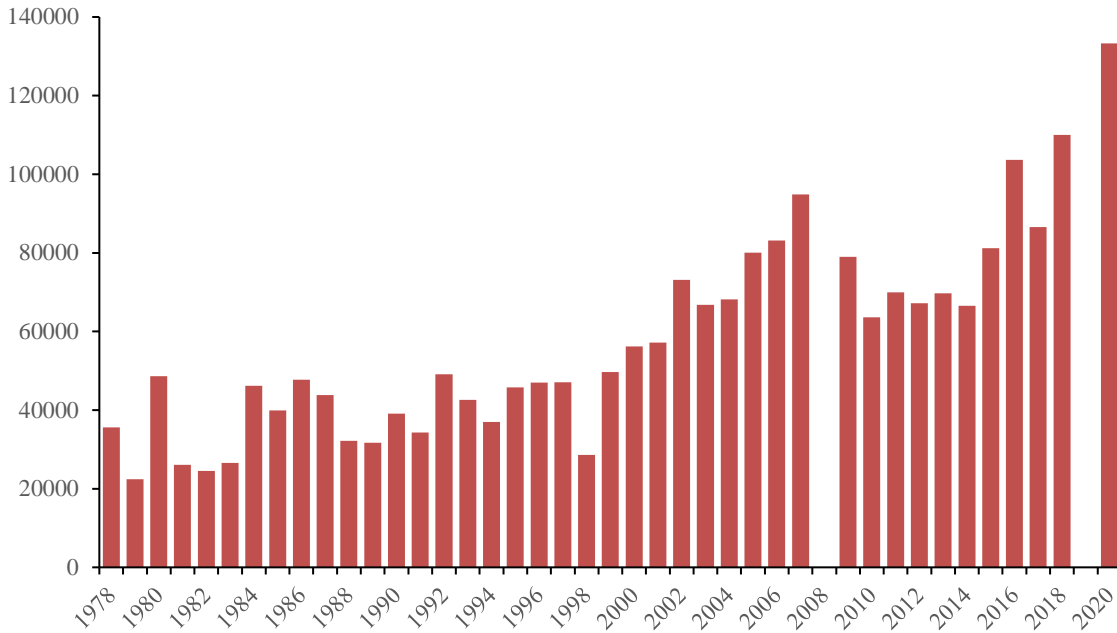


Fig. 2. Washington MWS - Brant

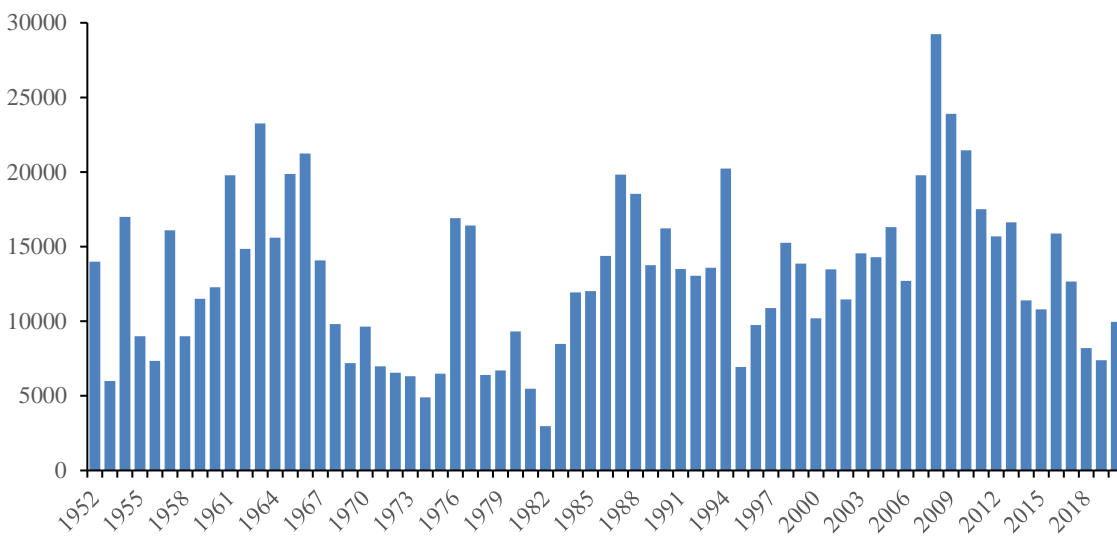
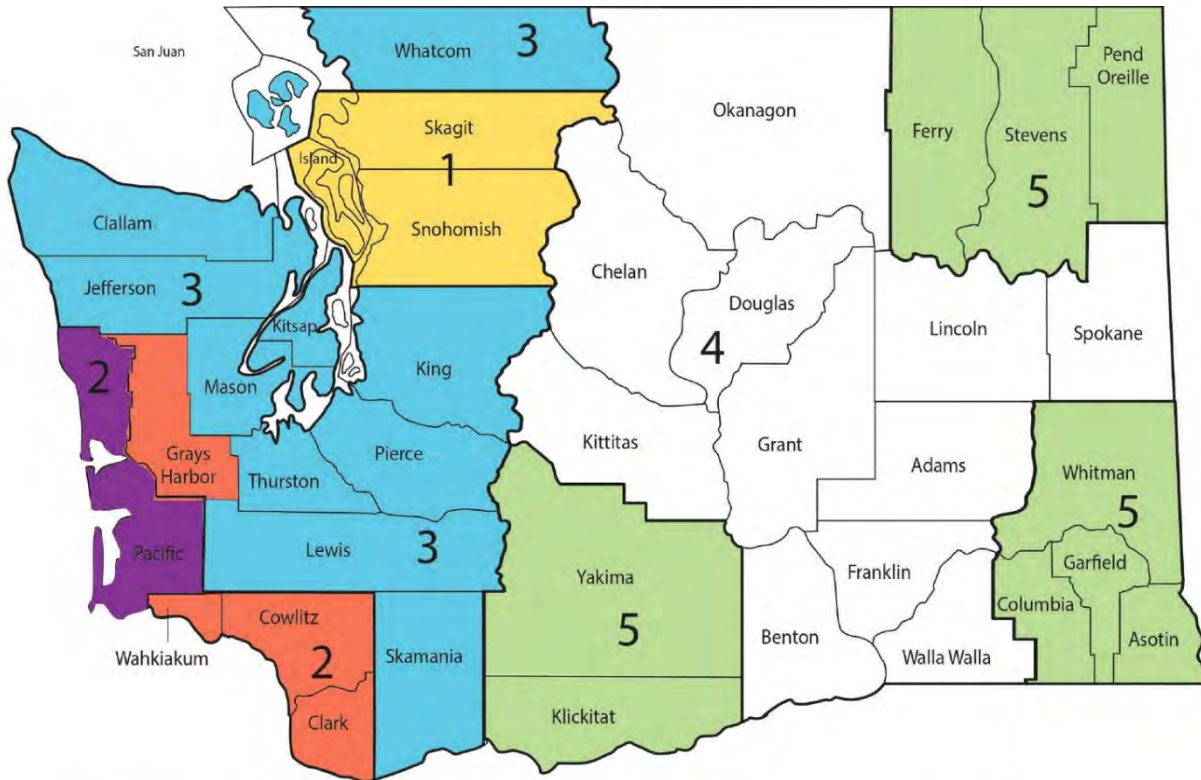


Figure 3. Washington Goose Management Areas.



- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goose Management Area 1 Island, Skagit, and Snohomish counties. Goose Management Area 2 - Inland Clark, Cowlitz, Wahkiakum counties and that portion of Grays Harbor county east of Hwy 101 Goose Management Area 2 - Coast Pacific county and that portion of Grays Harbor county west of Hwy 101 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goose Management Area 3 All other parts of western Washington not included in Goose Management Areas 1 and 2. Goose Management Area 4 Adams, Benton, Chelan, Douglas, Franklin, Grant, Kittitas, Lincoln, Okanagon, Spokane, and Walla Walla counties. Goose Management Area 5 All other parts of eastern Washington not included in Goose Management Area 4. |
|---|--|

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

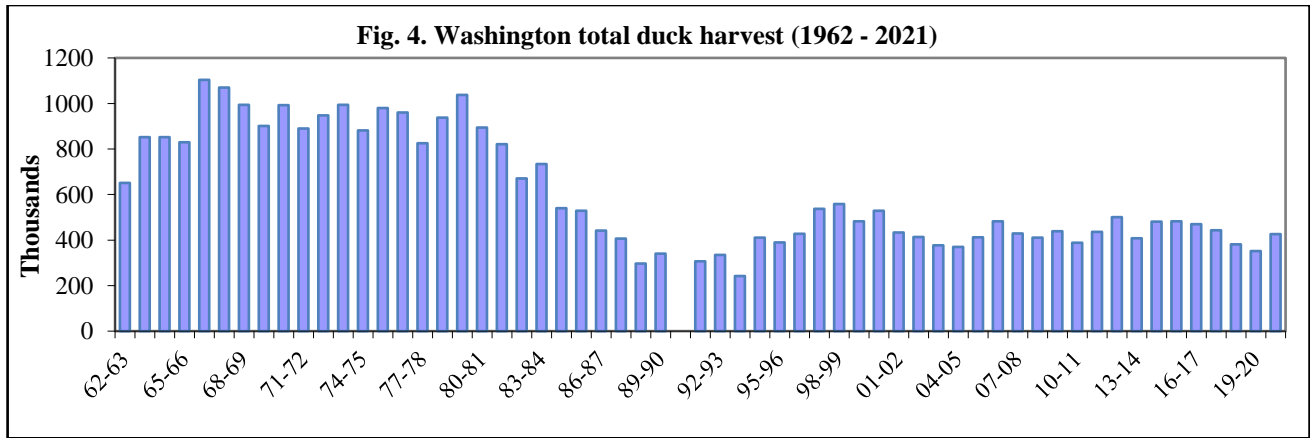


Figure 5. Small and large Canada goose harvested in Washington (1962-2021).

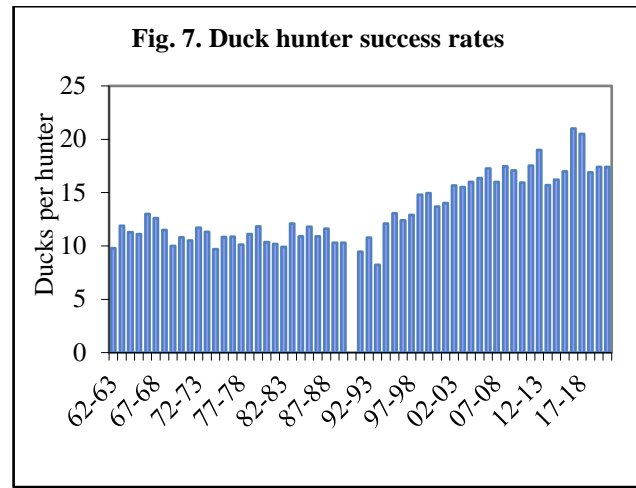
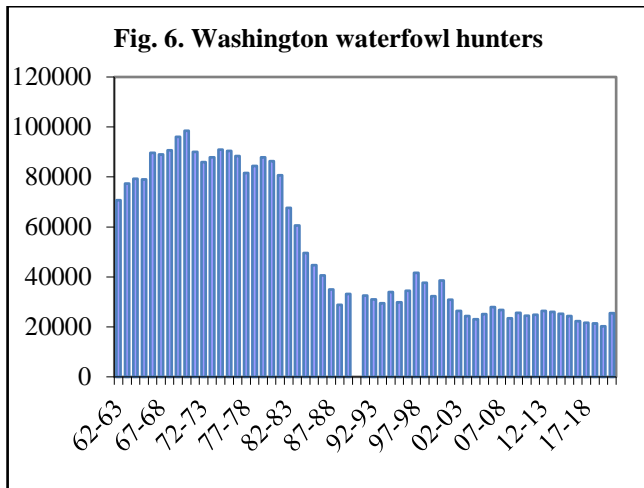
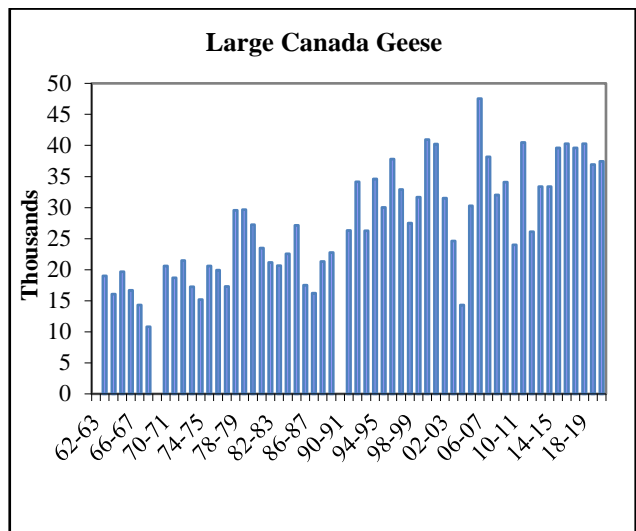
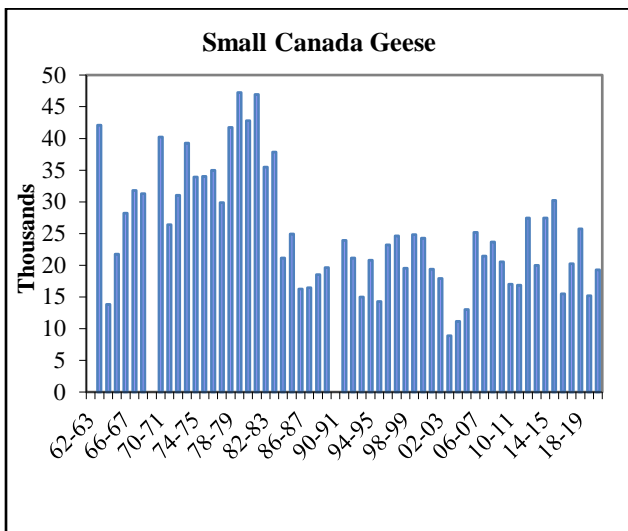


Figure 8. Reported harvest recoveries of mallard banded in Washington from deployments occurring between 1947 – summer 2020. Orange markers indicate reported harvest recoveries during the 2020-21 duck hunting season.

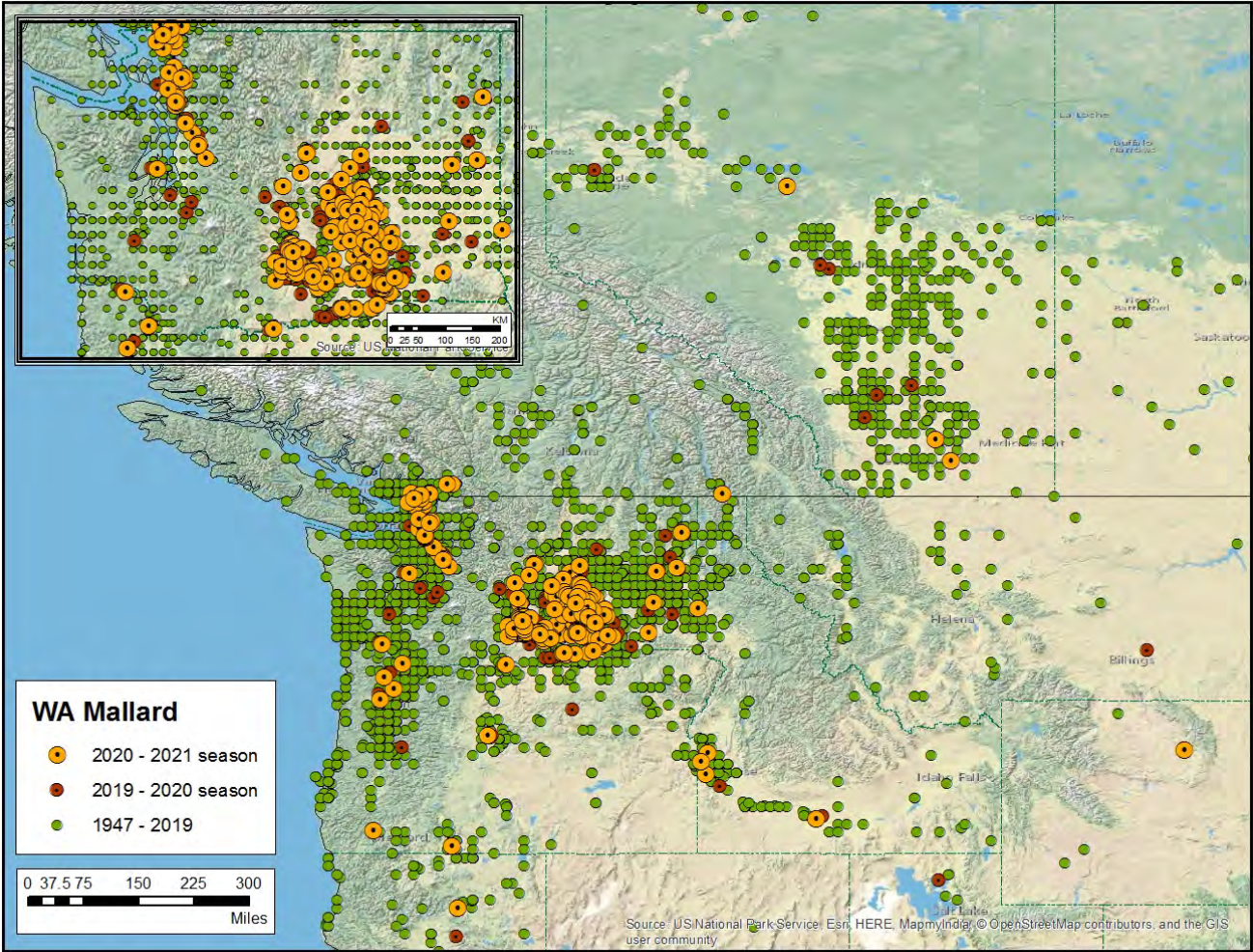
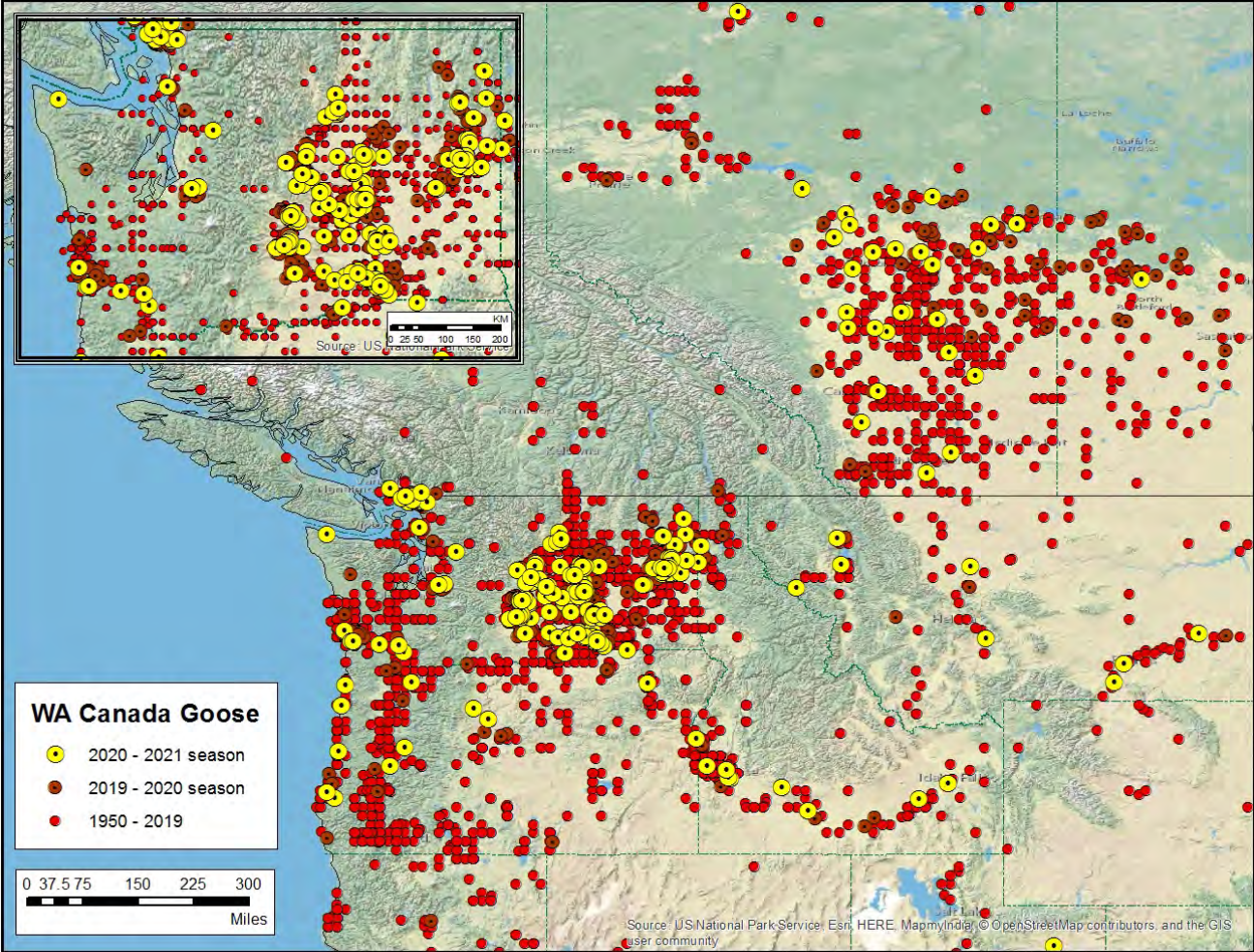


Figure 9. Reported harvest recoveries of Western Canada geese banded in Washington from deployments occurring between 1950 – summer 2020. Yellow markers indicated reported harvest recoveries during the 2020-21 goose seasons, including special September season dates.



Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife Midwinter Waterfowl Survey (MWS) – January 2007 - 2018.

| Species | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 18 vs 17 | 18 vs. 10yr | 09-18avg. |
|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|----------|-------------|-----------|
| Mallard | 494,597 | 313,871 | 254,655 | 405,604 | 349,790 | 282,601 | 254,057 | 529,671 | 381,428 | 227,894 | 194,071 | 96,885 | -50% | -67% | 297,666 |
| Gadwall | 5,314 | 5,854 | 5,324 | 6,877 | 4,149 | 3,790 | 4,236 | 2,209 | 2,845 | 3,148 | 2,498 | 861 | -66% | -76% | 3,594 |
| Wigeon | 90,734 | 89,614 | 207,236 | 126,059 | 106,149 | 101,072 | 102,264 | 112,831 | 123,440 | 132,633 | 115,949 | 84,451 | -27% | -30% | 121,208 |
| Green-winged Teal | 30,947 | 15,506 | 15,175 | 11,554 | 18,795 | 16,225 | 8,559 | 14,196 | 22,277 | 36,805 | 12,728 | 16,986 | 33% | -2% | 17,330 |
| B.W. & Cinn. Teal | 272 | 2 | 12 | 20 | 335 | 9 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 19 | 2 | 3 | 50% | -93% | 41 |
| Shoveler | 8,763 | 2,210 | 2,671 | 2,474 | 919 | 5,419 | 2,793 | 3,872 | 2,121 | 3,110 | 3,807 | 2,964 | -22% | -2% | 3,015 |
| Pintail | 113,949 | 45,848 | 117,235 | 40,787 | 71,083 | 73,635 | 66,024 | 71,339 | 109,825 | 100,585 | 73,239 | 63,035 | -14% | -20% | 78,679 |
| Wood Duck | 99 | 378 | 309 | 1,406 | 501 | 380 | 150 | 9,796 | 220 | 149 | 340 | 55 | -84% | -96% | 1,331 |
| Redhead | 3,645 | 2,443 | 4,668 | 3,550 | 4,015 | 2,501 | 3,226 | 1,132 | 761 | 1,731 | 1,377 | 25 | -98% | -99% | 2,299 |
| Canvasback | 1,501 | 3,790 | 3,239 | 3,789 | 3,148 | 2,157 | 1,528 | 462 | 1,489 | 3,437 | 719 | 641 | -11% | -69% | 2,061 |
| Scaup | 29,711 | 35,052 | 40,306 | 43,003 | 31,118 | 49,304 | 52,394 | 41,984 | 42,610 | 67,746 | 59,098 | 16,957 | -71% | -62% | 44,452 |
| Ringneck | 12,642 | 16,568 | 19,740 | 8,763 | 5,192 | 5,415 | 3,937 | 5,327 | 8,552 | 12,625 | 19,682 | 3,180 | -84% | -66% | 9,241 |
| Goldeneye | 13,973 | 15,106 | 15,976 | 14,578 | 14,457 | 11,599 | 13,570 | 10,700 | 10,507 | 13,813 | 8,260 | 572 | -93% | -95% | 11,403 |
| Bufflehead | 17,511 | 21,230 | 25,510 | 21,609 | 19,451 | 24,019 | 19,830 | 29,131 | 23,964 | 22,594 | 15,261 | 3,242 | -79% | -84% | 20,461 |
| Ruddy Duck | 2,179 | 3,096 | 1,508 | 1,428 | 1,180 | 2,026 | 1,744 | 2,353 | 2,626 | 4,755 | 1,695 | 2,373 | 40% | 9% | 2,169 |
| Eider | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 0% | 0% | 0 |
| Scoter | 15,307 | 16,742 | 12,585 | 10,445 | 11,944 | 13,432 | 13,677 | 13,287 | 14,799 | 14,320 | 922 | 294 | -68% | -97% | 10,571 |
| Long-tailed Duck | 804 | 504 | 547 | 439 | 663 | 652 | 722 | 867 | 872 | 690 | 95 | 13 | -86% | -98% | 556 |
| Harlequin | 733 | 902 | 670 | 839 | 692 | 1,067 | 918 | 961 | 1,019 | 1,101 | 78 | - | -100% | -100% | 735 |
| Merganser | 7,443 | 6,377 | 6,523 | 7,894 | 8,775 | 8,302 | 8,262 | 8,771 | 8,834 | 10,239 | 6,303 | 1,953 | -69% | -74% | 7,586 |
| Unidentified Ducks | 4,731 | 2,515 | 9,981 | 13,440 | 5,507 | - | 2,765 | 9,180 | 2,846 | 5,959 | 885 | 4,783 | 440% | -14% | 5,535 |
| Snow Goose* | 75,141 | 82,583 | 55,016 | 66,176 | 38,976 | 49,699 | 56,973 | 50,354 | 52,023 | 71,714 | 103,617 | - | -100% | -100% | 60,505 |
| White-fronted Goose | 82 | 42 | 119 | 22 | 113 | 36 | 47 | 24 | 41 | 48 | 35 | 11 | -69% | -78% | 50 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife Midwinter Waterfowl Survey (MWS) – January 2007 - 2018. (Continued)

| Species | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 18 vs 17 | 18 vs. 10yr | 09-18avg. |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|----------------|
| Canada Goose | 42,759 | 60,131 | 28,629 | 53,259 | 26,999 | 45,641 | 42,686 | 82,347 | 33,564 | 34,445 | 24,863 | 22,544 | -9% | -43% | 39,498 |
| Brant | 12,712 | 19,775 | 29,243 | 14,895 | 21,457 | 17,502 | 16,454 | 17,485 | 10,706 | 11,811 | 15,878 | 12,652 | -20% | -25% | 16,808 |
| Tundra Swan** | 3,548 | 3,570 | 3,380 | 3,211 | 2,544 | 2,247 | 1,652 | 1,171 | 1,767 | 3,654 | 2,108 | 2,403 | 14% | 0% | 2,414 |
| Trumpeter Swan** | 9,104 | 7,747 | 9,852 | 9,457 | 9,984 | 7,603 | 11,043 | 11,623 | 14,225 | 14,201 | 18,334 | 18,404 | 0% | 48% | 12,473 |
| Unknown Swan** | 842 | 292 | 1,100 | 540 | 221 | 1,775 | 2,381 | 3,609 | 2,929 | 1,823 | 826 | 1,123 | 36% | -31% | 1,633 |
| Total Waterfowl | 999,043 | 771,748 | 871,209 | 872,118 | 758,157 | 728,108 | 691,895 | 1,034,686 | 876,294 | 801,049 | 682,670 | 356,410 | -48% | -54% | 767,260 |
| Coot | 72,265 | 69,305 | 101,951 | 84,543 | 54,017 | 48,978 | 51,996 | 43,827 | 69,030 | 146,899 | 122,302 | 5,993 | | | 72,954 |
| B.C. Snow Geese | 8,007 | 12,276 | 2,495 | 7,788 | 24,285 | 22,265 | 10,225 | 19,633 | 17,309 | 11,954 | | | | | 14,494 |

**Comprehensive western Washington swan surveys in 1989, 1991, 1996, 2001, 2006, 2011, 2016. 2018 data includes only western Washington.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2. Puget Sound long-term winter survey estimates for sea ducks.

| Species | 2020 Estimate | % change from 2019 | Long Term Average | % change from LTA | 3-year Winter Index | % above Harvest Closure Threshold | Current Regulation Package |
|---|----------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| All Scoters | 59552 | 0.8 | 73903.7 | -19.4 | 61073.7 | 35.7 | Restrictive - 2 |
| Surf Scoter | 35481 | -4.2 | 44259.3 | -19.8 | | | |
| White-winged Scoter | 14132 | 45.4 | 15742.0 | -10.2 | | | |
| Black Scoter | 1447 | -8.1 | 1298.9 | 11.4 | | | |
| All Goldeneyes | 39111 | -12.1 | 41318.2 | -5.3 | | | |
| Common Goldeneye | 14319 | -2.8 | 18261.8 | -21.6 | | | |
| Barrow's Goldeneye | 9656 | -2.4 | 13043.6 | -26.0 | | | |
| Bufflehead | 60433 | -2.6 | 65625.0 | -7.9 | | | |
| Harlequin Duck | 4722 | 21.1 | 4570.2 | 3.3 | | | |
| Long-tailed Duck | 4378 | -15.4 | 5257.4 | -16.7 | | | |
| Red-breasted Merganser | 23955 | 2.8 | 12698.5 | 88.6 | | | |
| Common Merganser | 3884 | -32.4 | 4696.3 | -17.3 | | | |
| Hooded Merganser | 2928 | -7.0 | 1707.9 | 71.4 | | | |
| Total Sea Ducks | 196815 | -13.7 | 211488.2 | -6.9 | | | |
| All Washington Salish Sea Basins | | | | | | | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 3. 2020-21 Limited waterfowl surveys conducted in the Columbia Basin and North Puget Sound; snow goose photo counts, aerial brant surveys, swan age-ratio counts.

| North Columbia Basin | | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. |
|------------------------------|--|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| Mallards | | | | | |
| Total Ducks | | | | | |
| Total Geese | | No | No | No | No |
| Total Swans | | Survey | Survey | Survey | Survey |
| Total Coots | | | | | |
| SURVEY TOTAL | | | | | |
| South Columbia Basin | | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. |
| Mallards | | | | | |
| Total Ducks | | | | | |
| Total Geese | | No | No | No | No |
| Total Swans | | Survey | Survey | Survey | Survey |
| Total Coots | | | | | |
| SURVEY TOTAL | | | | | |
| Yakima Basin | | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. |
| Mallards | | | | | |
| Total Ducks | | | | | |
| Total Geese | | No | No | No | No |
| Total Swans | | Survey | Survey | Survey | Survey |
| Total Coots | | | | | |
| SURVEY TOTAL | | | | | |
| Northern Puget Sound | | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. |
| Mallards | | | | | |
| Northern pintail | | | | | |
| American wigeon | | No | No | No | No |
| Green-winged teal | | Survey | Survey | Survey | Survey |
| TOTAL DABLERS | | | | | |
| Snow Goose Counts | | Date | Estimate (min. count) | Survey Type | % Young |
| Skagit-Fraser flock | | 12/10/2020 | 133,306 (3,466 SE) | Aerial – Photo Count | 30 |
| Columbia Basin flock | | 12/8/2020 | 153,690 | Ground – Fly-off | N/A |
| Brant Winter Surveys | | Date | Count | Survey Type | |
| Skagit | | 1/7/2021 | 3,430 | Aerial – Visual | |
| Whatcom | | 2/3/2021 | 2,441 | Boat-based - Visual | |
| Clallam | | 12/14/2020 | 1,503 | Ground – Visual | |
| Willapa | | 1/7/2021 | 2,587 | Ground – Visual | |
| Swan Age Ratios | | | | | |
| Species | | Sample size | Juveniles | % Young | |
| Trumpeter Swan – North Puget | | 12,475 | 1,796 | 14.4% | |
| Trumpeter Swan - Clallam | | 238 | 60 | 20.1% | |
| Tundra Swan | | 701 | 73 | 10.4% | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 4. 2019-20 Washington migratory bird season regulations.

| SPECIES | AREA | SEASON DATES | DAILY BAG LIMIT, | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------|
| Duck | Western Washington Youth | Sept. 26 ^a | 7 ^b , 7 ^b | | |
| | Eastern Washington Youth | Oct. 3 ^a | 7 ^b , 7 ^b | | |
| | Youth, Veterans & Active Military (Statewide) | Feb. 6 | 7 ^b , 7 ^b | | |
| | Statewide | Oct. 17 – 25 & Oct. 28 – Jan. 31, except Scaup season closed Oct. 17 – Nov. 6 | 7 ^b , 21 ^b | | |
| Coot | Western Washington Youth | Sept. 26 and Feb. 6 ^a | 25, 25 [^] | | |
| | Eastern Washington Youth | Oct. 3 and Feb. 6 ^a | 25, 25 | | |
| | Statewide | Oct. 17 – 25 & Oct. 28 – Jan. 31 | 25, 25 | | |
| Canada Goose September Seasons | Goose Management Areas 1 & 3 | Sept. 5 - 10 | 5 ^c , 15 ^c | | |
| | Goose Management Area 2 Coast and Inland | Sept. 5 - 13 | 5 ^{c,d} , 15 ^{c,d} | | |
| | Goose Management Areas 4 & 5 | Sept. 5 - 6 | 5 ^c , 10 ^c | | |
| Goose (except Brant) | Note: Canada Geese are all types of Canada geese including cackling, Taverner's and Aleutian geese. White geese are snow and Ross' geese. Dusky Canada goose season is closed. | | Canada Geese | White-Fronted Geese | White Geese |
| | Western Washington Youth (Goose Mgmt. Areas 1,2, & 3) | Sept. 21 (Canada and White-fronted Goose only) | 4, 4 | 10, 10 | N/A |
| | Eastern Washington Youth (Goose Mgmt. Areas 4 & 5) | Sept. 28 (Canada and White-fronted Goose only) | 4, 4 | 10, 10 | N/A |
| | Youth, Veterans & Active Military (Statewide) | Feb. 1 | 4, 4 | 10, 10 | 6, 6 |
| | Goose Mgmt. Area 1 ^e | Regular Season: Oct. 12 – Dec. 1 and Dec. 14 – Jan. 26 | 4, 12 | 10, 30 | 6, 18 |
| | | Late Season (white goose only): Feb. 8 – 18. | N/A | N/A | 6, 18 |
| | Goose Mgmt. Area 2 – Coast ^f (includes Pacific County and Grays Harbor County west of Hwy 101) | All areas except Willapa National Wildlife Refuge: Everyday Oct. 17 – Nov. 1 Saturdays, Sundays, & Wednesdays only Nov. 4 – Dec. 6, Dec. 23 – Jan. 24, and Feb. 13 – 24. During Feb. 13 – 24, National Wildlife Refuges and WDFW Wildlife Areas are closed to goose hunting in this | 4 ^g , 12 ^g | 10, 30 | 6, 18 |
| | | Willapa National Wildlife Refuge: Wednesday, Saturday, & Sunday only Oct. 17 – Nov. 1, Nov. 4 – Dec. 6, Dec. 23 – Jan. 24. | | | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|--------|-------|
| | Goose Mgmt. Area 2 – Inland ^f (includes Clark, Cowlitz, Wahkiakum and Grays Harbor County east of Hwy 101) | All areas except Ridgefield National Wildlife Refuge: Everyday Oct. 17 – Nov. 1 Saturdays, Sundays, & Wednesdays only Nov. 25 – Jan. 17, and Feb. 13 – Mar. 10. During Feb. 13 – Mar. 10, National Wildlife Refuges and WDFW Wildlife Areas are closed to goose hunting in this | 4 ^g , 12 ^g | 10, 30 | 6, 18 |
| | | Ridgefield National Wildlife Refuge: Tuesdays, Thursdays, & Saturdays only Oct. 17 – Nov. 1 and Nov. 25 – Jan. 16. | | | |
| | Goose Mgmt. Area 3 | Oct. 17 – 29 & Nov. 7 – Jan. 31 | 4, 12 | 10, 30 | 6, 18 |
| | Goose Mgmt. Area 4 (delayed white goose opener) | Canada and White-Fronted Goose Only: Saturdays, Sundays, & Wednesdays only during: Oct. 17 – Nov. 4. | 4, 12 | 10, 30 | N/A |
| | | All goose types: Saturdays, Sundays, & Wednesdays only during: Nov. 7 – Jan. 31; Everyday Jan. 25 – 31. Additional hunt days include: Nov. 26, 27 Dec. 24, 25, 28, 29, & 31; and Jan. 1 and 18. White Goose | 4, 12 | 10, 30 | 6, 18 |
| | | White Goose Only: Feb. 13 – Mar. 3 | N/A | N/A | 6, 18 |
| Goose Mgmt. Areas 5 | Oct. 17 – Nov. 2 & Nov. 7 – Jan. 31 | 4, 12 | 10, 30 | 6, 18 | |
| | | | DAILY BAG LIMIT, POSSESSION LIMIT | | |
| Brant | Skagit County | Jan. 16 and 23, additional season dates determined by aerial survey results. Season updates provided by WDFW news release (no additional days approved in 2021 season) | 2, 6 | | |
| | Clallam & Whatcom | Jan. 16, 20, and 23 | 2, 6 | | |
| | Pacific County | Jan. 9, 10, 12 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 28, 30, and 31 | 2, 6 | | |
| | Youth, Veterans & Active Military (Skagit, Clallam, Whatcom & Pacific) | Feb. 6 | 2, 2 | | |
| <p>a. Special youth hunting days open to hunters under 16 years of age (must be accompanied by an adult at least 18 years old who is not hunting).</p> <p>b. Daily bag limit: 7 ducks, to include not more than 2 hen mallard, 1 pintail, 2 scaup, 2 canvasback, and 2 redhead statewide; and to include not more than 1 harlequin (see season limit). 2 scoter, 2 long-tailed ducks, & 2 goldeneye in western Washington. Possession limit (youth hunting days): Same as daily bag limit. Possession limit (Regular Season): 21 ducks, to include not more than 6 hen mallard, 3 pintail, 6 scaup, 6 canvasback, and 6 redhead statewide; and to include not more than 1 harlequin (season limit), 6 scoter, 6 long-tailed duck, and 6 goldeneye in western Washington. Season limit: 1 harlequin in western Washington.</p> <p>c. Daily bag and possession limits: to include Canada geese only.</p> <p>d. Daily bag and possession limits in Pacific County are 15/45 during the September Canada goose season.</p> <p>e. Skagit County Special Restrictions: While hunting snow geese, if a hunter is convicted of 1) trespass, 2) shooting from across or along the maintained part of any public highway, 3) discharging a firearm for the purpose of hunting waterfowl within 100 feet of any paved public road on Fir Island or discharging a firearm for the purpose of hunting snow geese within 100 feet of any paved public road in other areas of Skagit County, or</p> | | | | | |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

- 4) exceeding the daily bag limit for snow geese, written authorization will be invalidated for the remainder of the current snow goose season and an authorization will not be issued for the subsequent snow goose season.
- f. In Goose Management Area 2, legal hunting hours for geese are 30 minutes after the start of the official waterfowl hunting hours to 30 minutes before the end of the official waterfowl hunting hours.
- g. Dusky Canada goose season closed. A dusky Canada goose is defined as a dark breasted (Munsell 10 YR, 5 or less) Canada goose with a culmen (bill) length of 40-50 mm.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 5. Significant historical changes in duck hunting regulations.

| Year(s) | Season | | Bag Limit | | Special Limits | | Stamp Fees | | Hunting License | Steel shot Regulation |
|---------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------|------|----------------|-----------------|------------|---------|--------------------|--|
| | East | West | East | West | Mallard | Pintail | State | Federal | | |
| 73-74 | 100 | 93 | 6 | 5 | - | 2 extra | - | \$5.00 | \$6.50 | - |
| 74-75 | 100 | 93 | 6 | 5 | - | - | - | 5.00 | 6.50 | - |
| 75-76 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 5.00 | 6.50 | - |
| 76-77 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 5.00 | 7.50 | - |
| 77-79 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 5.00 | 7.50 | 3 zones ¹ |
| 79-80 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 7.50 | 7.50 | " " |
| 80-82 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 7.50 | 7.50 | 1 zone ² |
| 82-84 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 7.50 | 10.50 | " " |
| 84-85 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | - | 4 | - | 7.50 | 10.50 | " " |
| 85-86 | 84 | 79 | 5 | 5 | 5 (1 ♀) | 5 (1 ♀) | - | 7.50 | 12.00 | " " |
| 86-87 | 86 | 79 | 5 | 5 | 4 (1 ♀) | 4 (1 ♀) | 5.00 | 7.50 | 12.00 | Large zones ³ |
| 87-88 | 86 | 79 | 5 | 5 | 4 (1 ♀) | 4 (1 ♀) | 5.00 | 12.00 | 12.00 | " " |
| 88-91 | 66 | 59 | 4 | 4 | 3 (1 ♀) | 1 | 5.00 | 12.00 | 12.00 | " " |
| 91-94 | 66 | 59 | 4 | 4 | 3 (1 ♀) | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | Steel statewide |
| 94-95 | 76 | 69 | 4 | 4 | 3 (1 ♀) | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | " " |
| 95-96 | 100 | 93 | 6 | 6 | 6 (1 ♀) | 2 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | Bismuth-tin added |
| 96-97 | 100 | 93 | 7 | 7 | 7 (1 ♀) | 2 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | " " |
| 97-98 | 106 ⁵ | 106 ⁵ | 7 | 7 | 7 (2 ♀) | 3 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | Tungsten-iron added |
| 98-99 | 106 ⁵ | 106 ⁵ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 15.00 | Tungsten-polymer added |
| 99-00 | 106 ⁵ | 106 ⁵ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 ⁴ | Tungsten-matrix added |
| 00-01 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | " " |
| 01-02 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 6.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | Tungsten-nickel-iron added |
| 02-03 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 ⁷ | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | TINT ⁸ added |
| 03-04 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 ⁹ | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | " " |
| 04-05 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 ¹⁰ | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | Tungsten-bronze & tungsten-Tin-bismuth added |
| 05-06 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | " " |
| 06-07 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | Tungsten-iron-copper-nickel, Tungsten-tin-iron added |
| 07-08 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | Tungsten-tin-iron-nickel added |
| 08-09 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 30.00 | |
| 09-10 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 11.00 | 15.00 | 36.00 | |
| 10-11 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 11.00 | 15.00 | 36.00 | |
| 11-12 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 15.00 | 15.00 | 38.00 | |
| 12-13 | 105 ⁶ | 105 ⁶ | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 17.00 | 15.00 | 40.50 | |
| 13-14 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 17.00 | 15.00 | 40.50 | |
| 14-15 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 17.00 | 15.00 | 40.50 | |
| 15-16 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 17.00 | 25.00 | 40.50 | Copper-clad iron added |
| 16-18 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | " " | 1 | 17.00 | 25.00 | 40.50 | |
| 18-19 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | " " | 2 | 17.00 | 25.00 | 40.50 | |
| 19-21 | 105 ^{6,a} | 105 ^{6,a} | 7 | 7 | 7 (2 ♀) | 1 | 17.00 | 25.00 | 40.50 | |

¹Non-toxic shot zones were established at Barney Lake, Skagit Bay, and the Columbia River flood plain.

²Only Barney Lake was retained as a non-toxic shot zone.

³Steel shot in progressively larger zones from 86-87 through 91-92 when steel shot was required statewide.

⁴New small game license format.

⁵Youth hunt one additional day

⁶Youth hunt two additional days

⁷pintail season limited to 62 days (Sept. 21-22; Oct.5-11; Oct 26-Dec. 17)

⁸tungsten-iron-nickel-tin shot

⁹pintail season limited to 62 days (Sept. 20-21; Oct. 11-15, Dec. 2-Jan. 25)

¹⁰pintail season limited to 62 days (Sept. 18-19; Oct. 16-20; Dec. 7-Jan. 30)

^ascaup (lesser and greater) season limited to 86 days (first Sat. in Nov.; day 23, no split, an additional 2 special hunt days)

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 6. History of southwest Washington Canada goose season regulations.

| Year | Season | ID Class | Quota | Scheduled Dates (# days) | Closure (# Days Hunted / Sched.) |
|---------|---------|----------|-------|--|--|
| 2002-03 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 27-Jan. 26 (25-27) 2B: Nov. 9-Dec. 29 (23) | 2A: RF (9/25)*, Others (27/27) 2B: No (23/23) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 1-Mar. 9 (17) – 2A* only | No (17/17) |
| 2003-04 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Dec. 9-Jan. 24 (19) 2B: Nov. 15-Jan. 4 (15) | 2A: RF (9/19)*, Others (19/19) 2B: No (15/15) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Jan. 31- Mar. 10 (12) – 2A* only | No (12/12) |
| 2004-05 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 27-Jan. 22 (15, RF 25) 2B: Oct. 16-Jan. 15 (14) | 2A: No (15/15, RF 25/25) 2B: No (14/14) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 5 - Mar. 9 (10) – 2A* only | No (10/10) |
| 2005-06 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 12-27, Dec. 7-Jan. 29 (30, RF 25) 2B: Oct. 15-Jan. 14 (27) | 2A: No (30/30, RF 25/25) 2B: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 5 - Mar. 9 (10) – 2A* only | No (10/10) |
| 2006-07 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 11-26, Dec. 6-Jan. 28 (32, RF 25) P: Oct. 15-Jan. 14 (27) | 2A: No (32/32, RF 25/25) P: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 3 - Mar. 7 (10) – 2A* only | No (10/10) |
| 2007-08 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 10-25, Dec. 5-Jan. 27 (32, RF 25) P: Oct. 13-Jan. 12 (27) | 2A: No (32/32, RF 25/25) P: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 2 - Mar. 5 (10) – 2A* only | No (10/10) |
| 2008-09 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 8-23, Dec. 3-Jan. 25 (32, RF 26) P: Oct. 11-Jan. 10 (27) | 2A: No (32/32, RF 26/26) P: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 7 – Mar. 7 (9) | No (9/9) |
| 2009-10 | Regular | New | 40 | 2A: Nov. 14-20, Dec. 9-Jan. 31 (31, RF 28) P: Oct. 17-Jan. 16 (27) | 2A: No (31/31, RF 28/28) P: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | Feb. 6 – Mar. 10 (10) | No (10/10) |
| 2010-11 | Regular | New | 40 | 2A: Nov. 13-28, Dec. 8-Jan.30 (30, RF 27) P: Oct. 16-Jan 15 (26) | 2A: Yes (30/30, RF 5/27) P: No (26/26) |
| | Late | New | 5 | 2A: Feb. 5 – Mar. 9 (10) | No (10/10) |
| 2011-12 | Regular | New | 40 | 2A: Nov. 12-27, Dec. 7-Jan.29 (30, RF 29) P: Oct. 15–26 and Nov. 5-Jan 21 (26) | 2A: Yes (30/30, RF 16/29) P: No (26/26) |
| | Late | New | 5 | 2A: Feb. 4 – Mar. 7 (10) | No (10/10) |
| 2012-13 | Regular | New | 40 | 2A: Nov. 10-25, Dec. 5-Jan. 27 (30, RF 28) P: Oct. 13-24, Nov. 3-Jan. 19 (27) | 2A: No (30/30, RF 28/28) P: No (27/27) |
| | Late | New | 5 | 2A: Feb. 2-Mar. 6 (10) | No (10/10) |
| 2013-14 | Regular | New | 40 | 2A: Nov. 9 – Dec. 1, Dec. 11-Jan. 26 (30, RF 29) P: Oct. 12-23, Nov. 2-Jan. 26 (31) | 2A: No (30/30, RF 28/28) P: No (28/28) |
| | Late | New | 5 | 2A: Feb. 1-Mar. 5 (10) | No (10/10) |
| 2014-15 | Regular | New | 80 | 2A: Nov. 8 – 30 & Dec. 10 – Jan. 25 (32, RF 28) P: Oct. 11-25, Nov. 1-Jan. 17 (30) | 2A: No (32/32, RF 28/28) P: No (30/30) |
| | Late | New | 5 | 2A: Feb. 4-Mar. 8 (10) | No (10/10) |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 6. History of southwest Washington Canada goose season regulations (Continued).

| Year | Season | ID Class | Quota | Scheduled Dates (# days) | Closure (# Days Hunted / Sched.) |
|---------|------------------|----------|-------|--|--|
| 2015-16 | Regular | New | N/A** | 2A: Nov. 14 – Dec 6; Dec. 16- Jan. 31 (32, RF 30) 2B: Oct. 17 – 25; Nov. 14 – Jan. 10 (32) | 2A: No (32/32, RF 30/30) 2B: No (32/32) |
| | Late | New | N/A** | 2A and 2B: Feb. 10 – Mar. 9*** (13/13) | 2A/2B: No (13/13) |
| 2016-17 | Regular | New | N/A** | 2: Oct. 15 – 23; Nov. 26 – Jan. 22 (31, RF 32) | 2: No (31/31, RF 32/32) |
| | Late | New | N/A** | 2: Feb. 11 – Mar. 8*** (12/12) | 2: No (12/12) |
| 2017-18 | Regular | New | N/A** | 2: Oct. 14 – 29; Nov. 26 – Jan. 22 (31, RF 29) | 2: No (39/39, RF 29/29) |
| | Late | New | N/A** | 2: Feb. 10 – Mar. 10*** (13/0) | 2: No (13/13) |
| 2018-19 | Regular – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Oct. 13 – 28; Nov. 3 – Dec. 2, Dec. 22 – Jan. 20 (44, WB 35) | 2: No (38/38, WB 35/35) |
| | Late – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Feb. 2 – Feb. 16*** (7) | 2: No (7/7) |
| | Regular – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Oct. 13 – 28; Nov. 24 – Jan. 13, (38, RF 30) | 2: No (38/38, RF 30/30) |
| | Late – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Feb. 9 – Mar. 9*** (13) | 2: No (13/13) |
| 2019-20 | Regular – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Oct. 12 – 27; Nov. 2 – Dec. 1, Dec. 21 – Jan. 19 (44, WB 35) | 2: No (38/38, WB 35/35) |
| | Late – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Feb. 8 – Feb. 22*** (7) | 2: No (7/7) |
| | Regular – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Oct. 12 – 27; Nov. 23 – Jan. 12, (38, RF 30) | 2: No (38/38, RF 30/30) |
| | Late – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Feb. 8 – Mar. 7*** (13) | 2: No (13/13) |
| 2020-21 | Regular – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Oct. 17 – Nov 1; Nov. 4 – Dec. 6, Dec. 23 – Jan. 24 (44, WB 35) | 2: No (41/41, WB 38/38) |
| | Late – Coast | New | N/A** | 2C: Feb. 13 – Feb. 24*** (6) | 2: No (6/6) |
| | Regular – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Oct. 17 – Nov 1; Nov. 25 – Jan. 17, (38, RF 30) | 2: No (39/39, RF 31/31) |
| | Late – Inland | New | N/A** | 2I: Feb. 13 – Mar. 10*** (12) | 2: No (12/12) |

* 2A=Clark, Cowlitz, Wahkiakum; 2B=Grays Harbor, Pacific; 2C=Pacific, Grays Harbor west of highway 101; 2I=Clark, Cowlitz, Wahkiakum, Grays Harbor east of highway 101. C=Clark Private; CC=Clark-Cowlitz Private Lands; CSC=Clark/S. Cowlitz Private Lands; P=Pacific; WNC=Wahkiakum/N. Cowlitz; PW=Pacific-Wahkiakum; PWNC=Pacific/Wahkiakum/N. Cowlitz; RF=Ridgefield; SC=S. Cowlitz; WB=Willapa Bay National Wildlife Refuge

**Dusky harvest closed

***Public lands closed

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 7. Waterfowl harvest by species in Washington during 2020-21)¹.

| Species | Harvested | Composition (%) |
|--|----------------|-----------------|
| Mallard | 208,647 | 49 |
| Northern pintail | 21,903 | 5.1 |
| American wigeon | 73,116 | 17.2 |
| Green-winged teal | 44,819 | 10.5 |
| Total ducks | 426,092 | |
| Large Canada (Sept Season ²) | 40,099 (7,752) | 57.1 |
| Small Canada | 16,664 | 19.9 |
| White goose (Snow + Ross') | 26,753 | 36.3 |
| Total geese | 83,848 | |
| Total waterfowl | 512,335 | |

¹The number of each species harvested is estimated from the proportions derived from the Pacific Flyway Wingbee parts collection survey. The total number of ducks and geese harvested is estimated from the Small Game Harvest Questionnaire which differentiates September Canada Goose season from the Regular Canada Goose season.

²The September season is assumed to be only Large Canada geese and is considered in the composition of Large Canada goose to the total goose harvest statewide, but is excluded from deriving small Canada goose.

Table 8. Waterfowl harvest by region during 2020-21.

| Region | Ducks Harvested | % of State Total Ducks Harvested | Geese Harvested ¹ | % of State Total Geese Harvested |
|----------|-----------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Region 1 | 55,347 | 13% | 19,116 | 23% |
| Region 2 | 87,106 | 20% | 22,989 | 27% |
| Region 3 | 81,409 | 19% | 15,714 | 19% |
| Region 4 | 128,539 | 30% | 17,944 | 21% |
| Region 5 | 32,915 | 8% | 5,171 | 6% |
| Region 6 | 40,776 | 10% | 3,027 | 4% |

¹Goose harvest estimates include: September Canada Goose harvest, regular season goose harvest, and mandatory harvest report card estimates from Region 5 and Region 6 (Southwest Washington Canada goose harvest estimate).

Table 9. Estimated number of sea ducks harvested in 2020-21.

| Species ¹ | Harvest Estimate ² |
|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Scoters | 1,001 |
| Black Scoter | 61 |
| Surf Scoter | 786 |
| White-winged Scoter | 154 |
| Harlequin Duck | 165 |
| Long-tailed Duck | 136 |
| Barrow's Goldeneye | 227 |
| Common Goldeneye | 200 |
| TOTAL | 1,729 |

¹Species composition is derived from mandatory harvest reports.

²These estimates are derived from mandatory reports, corrected for non-response bias.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 10. Brant harvest report summary¹.

| YEAR | MONTH | PERMITS ISSUED | SUCCESSFUL HUNTERS | HUNTER DAYS | SEASON DAYS BY COUNTY | SKAGIT CO. HARVEST | WHATCOM CO. HARVEST | CLALLAM CO. HARVEST | PACIFIC CO. HARVEST | TOTAL HARVEST |
|------|-------|----------------|--------------------|-------------|--|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| 1990 | DEC | 490 | 338 | 763 | 11 | 808 | 0 | 0 | 73 | 881 |
| 1991 | DEC | 654 | 330 | 647 | 11 | 790 | 3 | 0 | 52 | 845 |
| 1992 | DEC | 747 | 319 | 709 | 11 | 950 | 9 | 0 | 18 | 977 |
| 1993 | DEC | 1194 | 496 | 765 | 11 | 1347 | 7 | 0 | 53 | 1407 |
| 1994 | DEC | 1069 | 287 | 484 | 9 | 825 | 0 | 0 | 23 | 848 |
| 1995 | DEC | 1207 | 343 | 552 | 11 | 918 | 0 | 0 | 44 | 962 |
| 1996 | DEC | 1445 | 254 | 549 | 11 | 1493 | 0 | 0 | 41 | 1534 |
| 1997 | JAN | 1331 | 197 | 326 | 5 | 597 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 656 |
| 1998 | JAN | 1348 | 243 | 350 | 5 | 570 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 588 |
| 1999 | JAN | 1336 | 218 | 386 | 9 | 581 | 0 | 0 | 86 | 667 |
| 2000 | JAN | 1295 | 39 | 59 | 5* | 0 | 0 | 0 | 108 | 108 |
| 2001 | NOV | | | | 5 | 56 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 76 |
| 2001 | JAN | | | | 5 | 347 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 364 |
| 2001 | ALL | 1436 | 187 | 277 | 10 | 403 | 0 | 0 | 37 | 440 |
| 2002 | NOV | | | | 5 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 27 |
| 2002 | JAN | | | | 5* | 0 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 33 |
| 2002 | ALL | 1387 | 27 | 277 | 10 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 42 | 60 |
| 2003 | NOV | | | | 5 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 35 |
| 2003 | JAN | | | | 5 | 235 | 0 | 0 | 64 | 299 |
| 2003 | ALL | 1187 | 152 | 200 | 10 | 257 | 0 | 0 | 77 | 334 |
| 2004 | NOV | | | | 5 | 36 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 47 |
| 2004 | JAN | | | | 5 | 308 | 0 | 0 | 34 | 342 |
| 2004 | ALL | 1612 | 126 | 209 | 10 | 344 | 0 | 0 | 45 | 389 |
| 2005 | JAN | 1707 | 220 | 336 | 5 | 504 | 0 | 0 | 53 | 557 |
| 2006 | JAN | 1793 | 199 | 272 | 7 | 367 | 0 | 0 | 74 | 441 |
| 2007 | JAN | 1795 | 166 | 243 | 7 | 341 | 0 | 0 | 112 | 453 |
| 2008 | JAN | 2116 | 191 | 262 | 7S/10P | 328 | 0 | 0 | 81 | 409 |
| 2009 | JAN | 1681 | 232 | 510 | 8S/10P | 545 | 0 | 0 | 31 | 576 |
| 2010 | JAN | 1030 | 200 | 387 | 8S/10P | 253 | 0 | 0 | 125 | 378 |
| 2011 | JAN | 1232 | 214 | 502 | 8S/10P | 638 | 0 | 0 | 80 | 718 |
| 2012 | JAN | 1362 | 254 | 604 | 8S/10P | 541 | 0 | 0 | 63 | 604 |
| 2013 | JAN | 1364 | 192 | 651 | 8S/10P | 479 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 505 |
| 2014 | JAN | 1352 | 14 | 76 | 10P | 0 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 40 |
| 2015 | JAN | 1366 | 193 | 236 | 3S/10P | 165 | 0 | 0 | 34 | 199 |
| 2016 | JAN | 1358 | | 548 | 8S/10P | 538 | 0 | 0 | 46 | 584 |
| 2017 | JAN | 1450 | 130 | 388 | 3S/3W/ 3C/10P | 170 | 28 | 90 | 58 | 346 |
| 2018 | JAN | | | | 3S/3W/ 3C/10P | 241 | 48 | 90 | 72 | 451 |
| 2019 | JAN | | 243 ^a | 519 | 2S/3W/ 3C/14P/ 1YVM ^b | 104 | 28 | 46 | 72 | 246 |
| 2020 | JAN | 3,471 | 344 | 563 | 3S/3W/ 3C/14P/ 1YVM ^b | 295 | 78 | 156 | 106 | 666 |

¹Figures based on mandatory report returns, corrected for non-response bias, days hunted estimate from 1990-08 include successful hunters only.

^a 2019 estimate likely reflects number of individual hunters that went out a min. of 1-day, not successful-only.

^bYVM = Youth, Veterans, and Active Military special hunt date first Sat. of February, which included brant as allowable species.

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 11. Snow goose harvest report summary.

| YEAR | PERMITS ISSUED | SUCCESSFUL HUNTERS | DAYS HUNTED* | ISLAND CO. HARVEST | SKAGIT CO. HARVEST | SNOHOMISH CO. HARVEST | TOTAL HARVEST** |
|------|----------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 1993 | 2298 | 572 | 1096 | 58 | 677 | 1124 | 1859 |
| 1994 | 2588 | 433 | 664 | 60 | 496 | 522 | 1078 |
| 1995 | 2313 | 221 | 373 | 57 | 99 | 331 | 487 |
| 1996 | 2363 | 427 | 996 | 39 | 381 | 1400 | 1820 |
| 1997 | 2795 | 424 | 812 | 38 | 545 | 749 | 1332 |
| 1998 | 3086 | 341 | 585 | 29 | 678 | 262 | 969 |
| 1999 | 3061 | 445 | 777 | 71 | 815 | 598 | 1484 |
| 2000 | 3076 | 460 | 1039 | 18 | 1058 | 919 | 1995 |
| 2001 | 3144 | 407 | 953 | 4 | 753 | 696 | 1453 |
| 2002 | 3196 | 442 | 1217 | 18 | 1419 | 1084 | 2522 |
| 2003 | 3013 | 530 | 1155 | 20 | 1465 | 889 | 2374 |
| 2004 | 3333 | 474 | 1075 | 37 | 1267 | 893 | 2160 |
| 2005 | 3546 | 895 | 2665 | 50 | 4588 | 2154 | 6792 |
| 2006 | 4068 | 1061 | 2566 | 7 | 3780 | 1876 | 5663 |
| 2007 | 4859 | 1662 | 5528 | 53 | 11462 | 4175 | 15690 |
| 2008 | 5583 | 1253 | 2912 | 117 | 6295 | 3743 | 10155 |
| 2009 | 4015 | 1370 | 9840 | 8 | 9979 | 2959 | 12946 |
| 2010 | 4830 | 770 | 5078 | 0 | 3388 | 1032 | 4420 |
| 2011 | 2776 | 1113 | 6011 | 0 | 6924 | 4079 | 11003 |
| 2012 | 2811 | 966 | 4359 | 0 | 3903 | 1956 | 6859 |
| 2013 | 2884 | 861 | 4013 | 126 | 4016 | 1579 | 5721 |
| 2014 | 3010 | 1110 | 4499 | 6 | 2069 | 683 | 2758 |
| 2015 | 3005 | 1099 | 4704 | 6 | 2373 | 1067 | 3446 |
| 2016 | 3240 | | 6680 | | | | 6742 |
| 2017 | 3494 | | 6705 | | | | 6426 ^a |
| 2018 | NA | NA | NA | 12 | 4867 | 2621 | 7922 ^a |
| 2019 | NA | 1628 ^b | 9819 | 32 | 3916 | 2450 | 6398 ^a |
| 2020 | 6,302 | 1644 | 5148 | NA | 3003 | 2035 | 5176 |

*days hunted 1993-08 include successful hunters only **harvest estimate does not include wounding loss

^a Corrected for non-compliant reports

^b 2019 estimate likely reflects number of individual hunters that went out a min. of 1-day, not successful-only

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 12. Southwest Washington Canada goose harvest summary.

| Season | Period | Aleutian | Cackler | Dusky | Lesser | Taverner | Vancouver | Western | Other | Total CAGO | Snow | Whitefront | Total |
|---------|----------------|----------|---------|-------|--------|----------|-----------|---------|-------|------------|------|------------|-------|
| 2000-01 | Regular Season | | 1310 | 30 | 130 | 1236 | 82 | 583 | 34 | 3405 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 140 | 2 | 105 | 6 | 13 | 104 | 1 | 371 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 1450 | 32 | 235 | 1242 | 95 | 687 | 35 | 3776 | | | |
| 2001-02 | Regular Season | | 664 | 22 | 130 | 601 | 87 | 430 | 11 | 1945 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 94 | 1 | 0 | 43 | 25 | 66 | 0 | 229 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 758 | 23 | 130 | 644 | 112 | 496 | 11 | 2174 | | | |
| 2002-03 | Regular Season | | 1183 | 37 | 152 | 836 | 88 | 551 | 60 | 2907 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 108 | 1 | 1 | 60 | 5 | 40 | 1 | 216 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 1291 | 38 | 153 | 896 | 93 | 591 | 61 | 3123 | | | |
| 2003-04 | Regular Season | | 598 | 24 | 102 | 470 | 73 | 372 | 19 | 1658 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 76 | 4 | 2 | 13 | 5 | 41 | 0 | 141 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 674 | 28 | 104 | 483 | 78 | 413 | 19 | 1799 | | | |
| 2004-05 | Regular Season | | 989 | 25 | 123 | 576 | 105 | 424 | 49 | 2291 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 90 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 17 | 37 | 4 | 169 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 1079 | 25 | 123 | 597 | 122 | 461 | 53 | 2460 | | | |
| 2005-06 | Regular Season | | 948 | 30 | 155 | 823 | 106 | 558 | 28 | 2648 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 89 | 1 | 2 | 40 | 2 | 26 | 4 | 164 | | | |
| | Season Total | | 1037 | 31 | 157 | 863 | 108 | 584 | 32 | 2812 | | | |
| 2006-07 | Regular Season | 8 | 1085 | 26 | 141 | 580 | 110 | 410 | 44 | 2404 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 127 | 1 | 2 | 48 | 14 | 40 | 1 | 233 | | | |
| | Season Total | 8 | 1212 | 27 | 143 | 628 | 124 | 450 | 45 | 2637 | | | |
| 2007-08 | Regular Season | 2 | 1160 | 21 | 108 | 684 | 113 | 292 | 49 | 2429 | | | |
| | Late Season | | 122 | 1 | 5 | 45 | 12 | 31 | 2 | 218 | | | |
| | Season Total | 2 | 1282 | 22 | 113 | 729 | 125 | 323 | 51 | 2647 | | | |
| 2008-09 | Regular Season | 4 | 1636 | 43 | 154 | 887 | 195 | 406 | 41 | 3366 | 88 | 27 | 3481 |
| | Late Season | | 87 | 2 | 4 | 59 | 3 | 52 | 0 | 207 | | | 207 |
| | Season Total | 4 | 1723 | 45 | 158 | 946 | 198 | 458 | 41 | 3573 | 88 | 27 | 3688 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 12. Southwest Washington Canada goose harvest summary. (Continued)

| Season | Period | Aleutian | Cackler | Dusky | Lesser | Taverner | Vancouver | Western | Other | Total CAGO | Snow | Whitefront | Total |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|----------|---------|-------|--------|----------|-----------|---------|-------|------------|------|------------|-------|
| 2009-10 | Regular Season | 13 | 1301 | 28 | 73 | 706 | 75 | 358 | 41 | 2595 | 8 | 19 | 2622 |
| | Late Season | | 111 | 4 | 3 | 30 | 12 | 25 | 1 | 186 | | | 186 |
| | Season Total | 13 | 1412 | 32 | 76 | 736 | 87 | 383 | 42 | 2781 | 8 | 19 | 2808 |
| 2010-11 | Regular Season | 4 | 1245 | 17 | 94 | 525 | 57 | 297 | 37 | 2276 | 26 | 65 | 2367 |
| | Late Season | 1 | 100 | 3 | | 22 | 2 | 25 | | 153 | | | 153 |
| | Season Total | 5 | 1345 | 20 | 94 | 547 | 59 | 322 | 37 | 2429 | 26 | 65 | 2520 |
| 2011-12 | Regular Season | 1 | 1150 | 25 | 121 | 505 | 35 | 180 | 21 | 2038 | 16 | 60 | 2114 |
| | Late Season | | 154 | 3 | 4 | 20 | 3 | 43 | | 227 | | | 227 |
| | Season Total | 1 | 1304 | 28 | 125 | 525 | 38 | 223 | 21 | 2265 | 16 | 60 | 2341 |
| 2012-13 | Regular Season | 16 | 1168 | 17 | 101 | 503 | 25 | 231 | 1 | 2062 | 33 | 64 | 2159 |
| | Late Season | | 125 | | 1 | 23 | 13 | 33 | | 195 | 2 | | 197 |
| | Season Total | 16 | 1293 | 17 | 102 | 526 | 38 | 264 | 1 | 2257 | 35 | 64 | 2356 |
| 2013-14 | Regular Season | 4 | 1247 | 18 | 96 | 257 | 17 | 287 | 8 | 1934 | 35 | 17 | 1990 |
| | Late Season | | 160 | 2 | 1 | 12 | 12 | 54 | | 241 | 1 | 3 | 245 |
| | Season Total | 4 | 1407 | 20 | 97 | 269 | 29 | 341 | 8 | 2175 | 40 | 20 | 2235 |
| 2014-15 | Regular Season | 16 | 1424 | 42 | 137 | 431 | 20 | 249 | 14 | 2333 | 7 | 37 | 2377 |
| | Late Season | | 155 | 3 | 1 | 14 | 3 | 43 | | 219 | 3 | | 222 |
| | Season Total | 16 | 1579 | 45 | 138 | 445 | 23 | 292 | 14 | 2552 | 10 | 37 | 2599 |
| 2015-16 ^a | Regular Season ^b | 0 | 397 | 14 | 13 | 75 | 14 | 67 | 37 | 604 | 5 | 1 | 610 |
| | Late Season ^b | 0 | 154 | 5 | 5 | 29 | 6 | 26 | 15 | 235 | 2 | 1 | 238 |
| | Season total ^c | 0 | 551 | 19 | 18 | 104 | 20 | 93 | 52 | 839 | 7 | 2 | 844 |
| 2016-17 ^a | Regular Season ^b | 7 | 71 | 4 | 4 | 36 | 0 | 40 | 0 | 152 | 0 | 0 | 152 |
| | Late Season ^b | 10 | 93 | 5 | 4 | 35 | 0 | 51 | 0 | 199 | 0 | 0 | 199 |
| | Season total ^c | 17 | 164 | 9 | 8 | 61 | 0 | 91 | 0 | 351 | 0 | 0 | 351 |
| 2017-18 ^a | Regular Season ^b | 2 | 122 | 4 | 5 | 29 | 1 | 27 | 1 | 188 | 0 | 0 | 188 |
| | Late Season ^b | 2 | 113 | 4 | 5 | 27 | 1 | 25 | 1 | 175 | 0 | 0 | 175 |
| | Season total ^c | 3 | 234 | 7 | 9 | 56 | 1 | 51 | 1 | 362 | 0 | 0 | 362 |

Waterfowl Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 12. Southwest Washington Canada goose harvest summary. (Continued)

| Season | Period | Aleutian | Cackler | Dusky | Lesser | Taverner | Vancouver | Western | Other | Total CAGO | Snow | Whitefront | Total |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|------------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------|----------|------------|------------|
| 2018-19 ^a | Season total ^{c,d} | 6 | 407 | 16 | 37 | 86 | 0 | 60 | 5 | 617 | 17 | 17 | 651 |
| 2019-20 ^a | Season total ^{c,d} | 3 | 335 | 12 | 10 | 59 | 4 | 56 | 5 | 482 | 0 | 21 | 503 |
| 2020-21^a | Season total^{c,d} | 0 | 238 | 6 | 3 | 13 | 0 | 23 | 0 | 283 | 1 | 2 | 286 |

Note: Mandatory check stations initiated in 1984-85 season, prior estimates from USFWS harvest survey. ^aCheck stations discontinued in 2015.

^bNumbers derived from percentage of subspecies identified during physical bag checks and extrapolated to regular and late season.

^cTotal includes only measured birds from bag checks.

^dNo estimate derived for early and late season.

Wild Turkey

Wild Turkey Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

SARAH GARRISON, Statewide Small Game, Furbearer, and Resident Game Bird Specialist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Wild turkeys were first successfully introduced in Washington in 1960. Population augmentation from 1984 through 2003 expanded their distribution and increased hunting and wildlife viewing opportunities (WDFW 2005).

In January 2006, the Department adopted a statewide [Turkey Management Plan](#) (WDFW 2005) as a supplement to the Game Management Plan in response to increasing populations and topics related to turkey management. Population management strategies from this plan were included and updated in the 2015-2021 [Game Management Plan](#) (WDFW 2014). The statewide management goals for wild turkeys are to:

1. Preserve, protect, perpetuate, and manage wild turkeys and their habitats to ensure healthy, productive populations.
2. Manage wild turkeys for a variety of recreational, educational and aesthetic purposes including hunting, scientific study, wildlife viewing cultural and ceremonial uses by Native Americans, and photography.
3. Manage statewide wild turkey populations for a sustained harvest.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Hunter effort and harvest of wild turkeys are estimated based on the analysis of mandatory hunter reports. Hunters owe reports on all turkey tags, including tags they did not use. Successful hunters are required to submit the date, location, and sex of harvested birds. This mandatory reporting system has allowed for better estimates of harvest and hunter participation than estimates made prior to the reporting requirement.

Within Washington State, Game Management Units (GMUs) have been grouped to define seven turkey Population Management Units (PMUs, Table 1, Figure 1). Changes in harvest have been tracked at the PMU level, as an indicator of population trend. Improvements were made to the turkey harvest data analysis routine in 2011 and 2016, which could account for some variations in estimates and should be considered when comparing data across years.

Table 1. Game Management Units (GMUs) included in each Population Management Unit (PMU).

| PMU | PMU Name | GMUs Included |
|-----|---------------|---|
| 10 | Northeast | 101-136 |
| 15 | Southeast | 139-186 |
| 20 | North Central | All 200 GMUs |
| 30 | South Central | All 300 GMUs EXCEPT GMU 382 & 388 |
| 35 | Klickitat | GMUs 382, 388, 568-578 |
| 40 | Northwest | All 400 GMUs PLUS GMUs 601-627 |
| 50 | Southwest | All 500 GMUs EXCEPT 568-578 PLUS GMUs 633-699 |

Wild Turkey Status and Trend Report 2021

The statewide spring general season from April 15 to May 31 has been in place since 2008. The general season is preceded by a 2-day youth season. The spring season is for male turkeys and turkeys with visible beards only. The spring season limit is three birds with some area restrictions. In 2020, the spring season was delayed and the youth season was cancelled due to health and safety concerns during the early outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Instead of the usual April 15th open, the spring season opened on May 5th, 2020. During the shortened season, hunters were encouraged to hunt locally to reduce the risk of spreading the disease to rural communities.

Fall opportunities have varied and generally expanded over the years. In 2018, the fall general season in GMUs 101-154 and 162-186 expanded to run continuously from September 1 to December 31. Also in that year, the permit hunt in Klickitat County changed to a fall general season opportunity. The fall seasons allow harvest of either sex with a bag limit of four birds with some area restrictions as outlined in the WDFW hunting regulations pamphlets.

Two permit hunts were available in fall 2020. These occurred in Okanogan County (Methow, GMUs 218-231 and 242) and Kittitas County (Teanaway, GMU 335). Fall permit hunts allow harvest of either sex with a bag limit of one bird.

Turkey hunting is open to shotgun, archery, and crossbow hunting during the spring and fall seasons. Dogs, baiting, electronic decoys, and electronic calls are not legal in Washington. Non-electronic decoys are permitted. In 2006, the Fish and Wildlife Commission adopted a regulation permitting falconers to hunt turkeys during the fall and winter.

Current regulations are considered relatively conservative. Spring season timing results in harvest of gobblers after peak breeding. The season ends before most nests hatch, so disturbance is minimized. Fall seasons have been expanded in certain areas to increase hunting pressure in response to increased complaints regarding turkey damage and human-wildlife conflict.

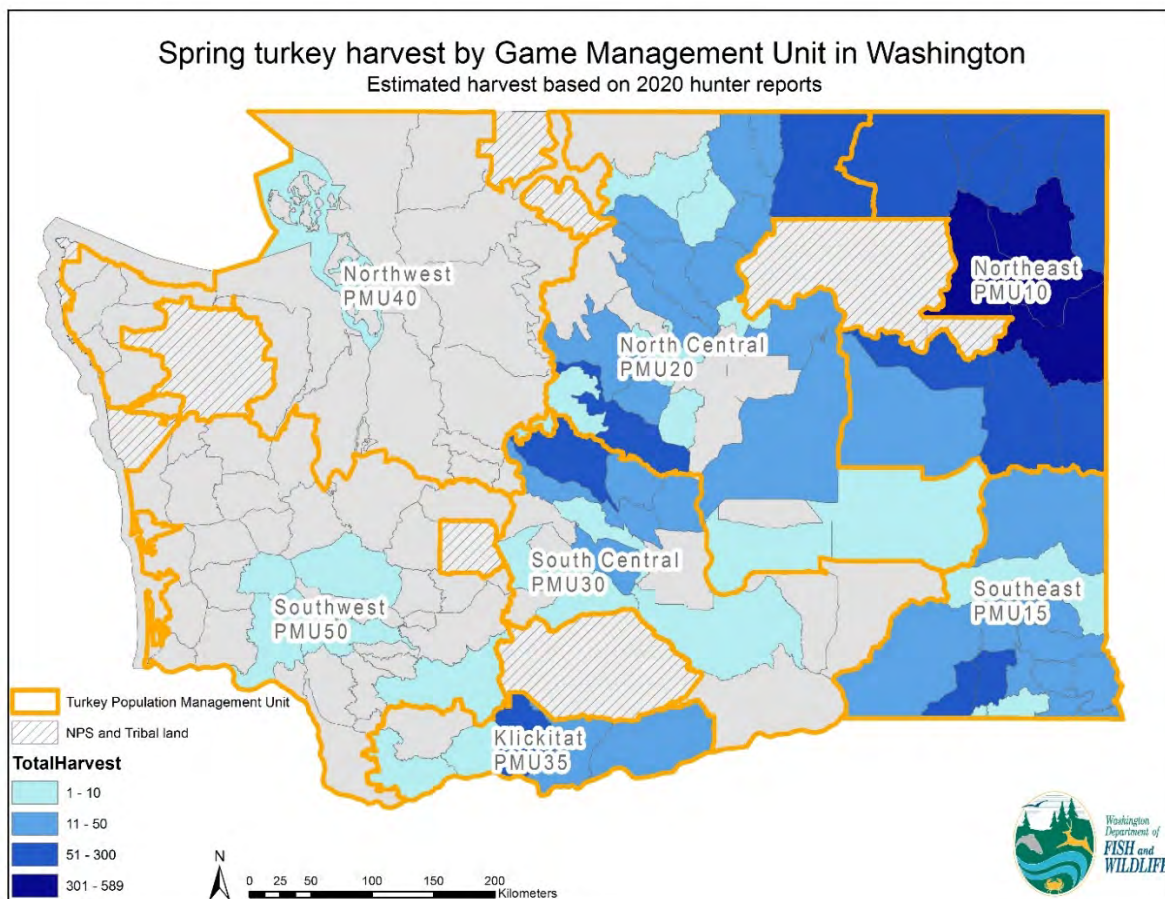


Figure 1. Estimated spring turkey harvest in each Game Management Unit based on 2020 hunter reports.

Statewide participation in spring turkey hunting has varied around an average estimate of 10,988 hunters since 2012 (Figure 2). In 2020, participation was 13% below this average at 9,535 hunters. Estimated harvest had shown a fairly steady increase over the same period, though 2020 harvest (4,706 birds) decreased 19% from 2019 to just 2% above the average of 4,611.

Recently, depredation on agricultural land caused by turkeys and conflicts with humans has increased in parts of eastern Washington. Liberal fall general seasons are in place here to help address these issues. Participation in fall hunting continues to increase, with fall harvest following suit (Figure 3). In examining these data, it’s important to consider that while the spring season has remained constant, the fall season has expanded over the last several years. Since 2012, an average of 3,678 hunters have pursued turkey each fall. In 2020, hunter participation was 36% above this average at 4,988 hunters. Fall harvest in 2020 (3,189 birds) was 65% above the nine-year average of 1,930 birds. Permit hunters reported an additional 12 birds taken during fall permit hunts.

While spring participation decreased in 2020 likely due to the season delay during the COVID-19 pandemic, fall participation increased. The pandemic catalyzed increased interest in multiple forms of outdoor activities, including hunting. Additionally, WDFW has increased outreach regarding resident game birds for species relevancy and awareness and to promote hunter recruitment, retention, and reactivation.

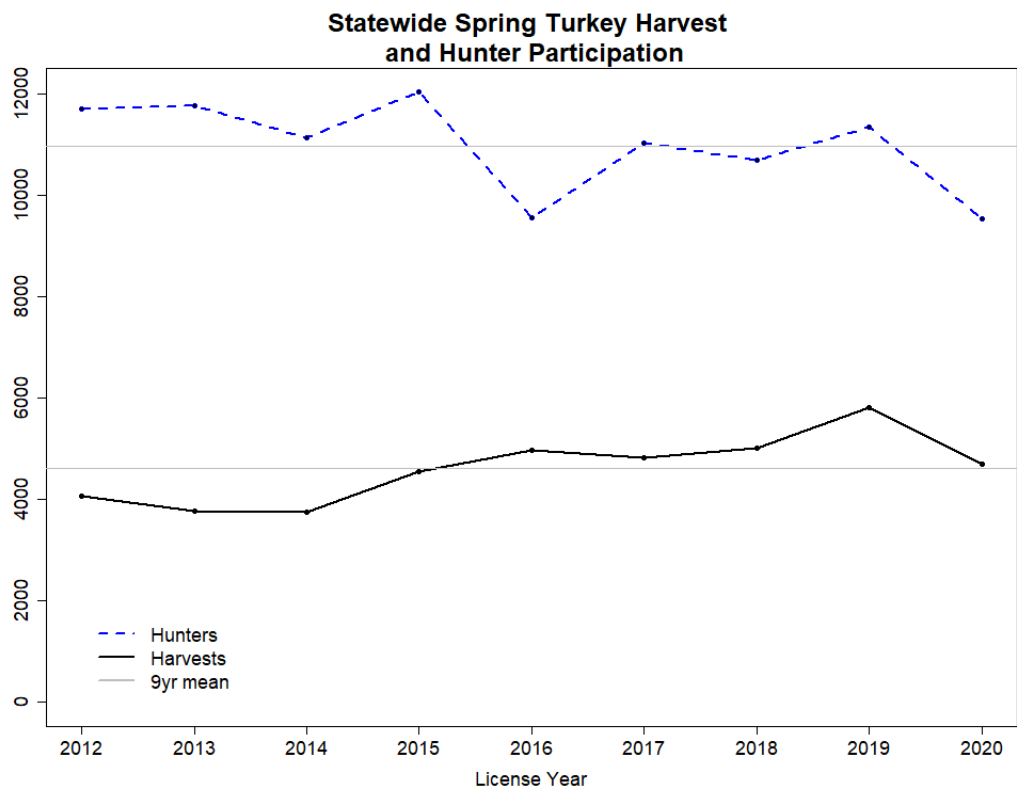


Figure 2. Estimated statewide spring turkey harvest and hunter participation, 2012-2020, with 9-year means.

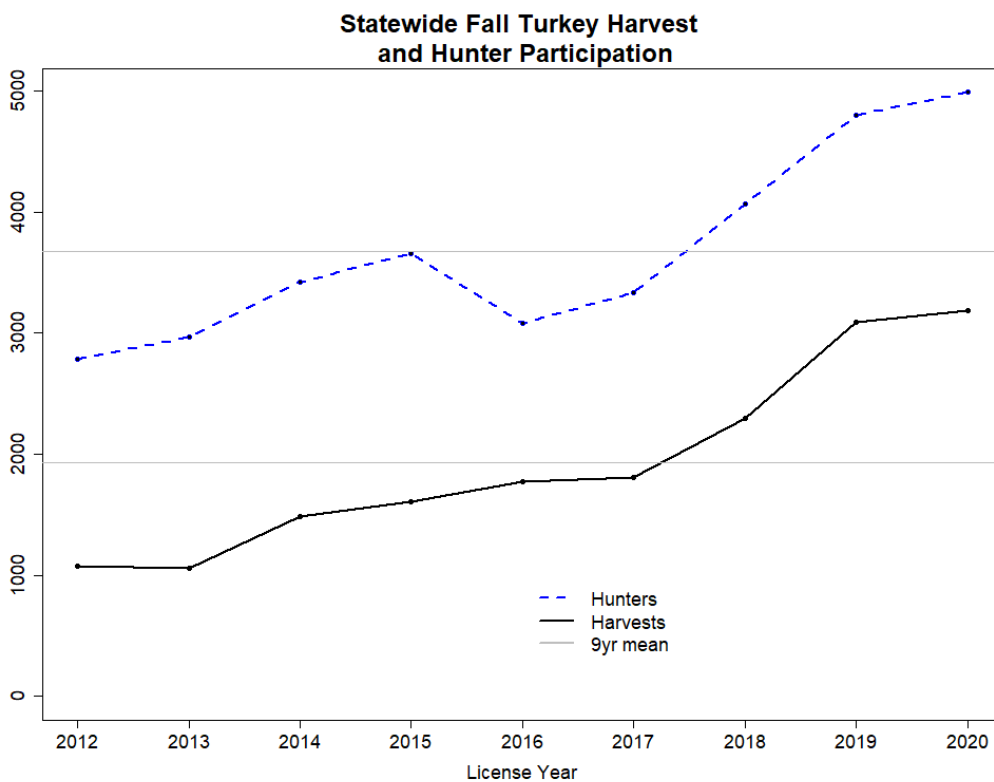
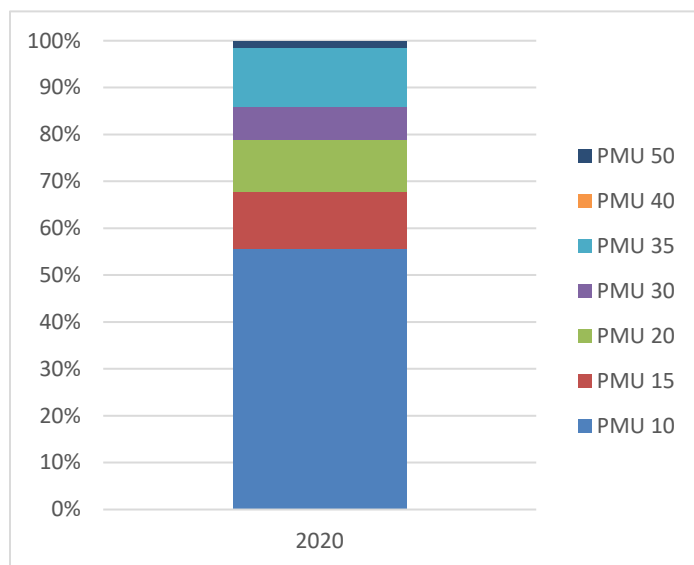


Figure 3. Estimated fall turkey harvest and hunter participation, 2012-2020, with 9-year means.

Wild Turkey Status and Trend Report 2021



The majority of spring turkey hunting activity occurs in the northeast (PMU 10; Table 2). In 2020, spring harvest in this PMU represented 68% of the total statewide spring harvest. The remaining hunting activity is largely distributed through eastern Washington, with little hunting in western Washington (PMU 40 and 50) where turkey populations are less robust.

Figure 4. Proportion of days hunted in each Population Management Unit (PMU) out of the total number of days hunted statewide in the 2020 spring season.

Table 2. Estimated spring turkey harvest in each turkey Population Management Unit (PMU) 2012-2020.

| PMU | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|
| P10 | 2,512 | 2,400 | 2,461 | 3,097 | 3,421 | 3,331 | 3453 | 3847 | 3177 |
| P15 | 642 | 533 | 500 | 531 | 590 | 499 | 563 | 643 | 461 |
| P20 | 203 | 188 | 181 | 260 | 270 | 331 | 326 | 480 | 427 |
| P30 | 162 | 143 | 137 | 157 | 208 | 175 | 172 | 186 | 156 |
| P35 | 514 | 474 | 436 | 475 | 461 | 417 | 456 | 598 | 461 |
| P40 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 23 | 12 | 0 |
| P50 | 30 | 25 | 25 | 38 | 28 | 56 | 25 | 39 | 24 |

Population Monitoring

Harvest and hunter effort data are used as an index to population trends. Standardizing harvest estimates by the amount of hunter effort expended to achieve that level of harvest can provide some indication of whether populations are increasing, decreasing, or stable.

Since 2012, hunter success has averaged 42% during the spring season (Figure 5). In 2020, spring hunter success remained well above this average, despite decreasing to 49% from 51% in 2019. The fall season had similarly shown an increasing trend, likely influenced by the expanded opportunity (increasing season length) during those years. In the 2020 season, fall success was equal to the previous year at 64%.

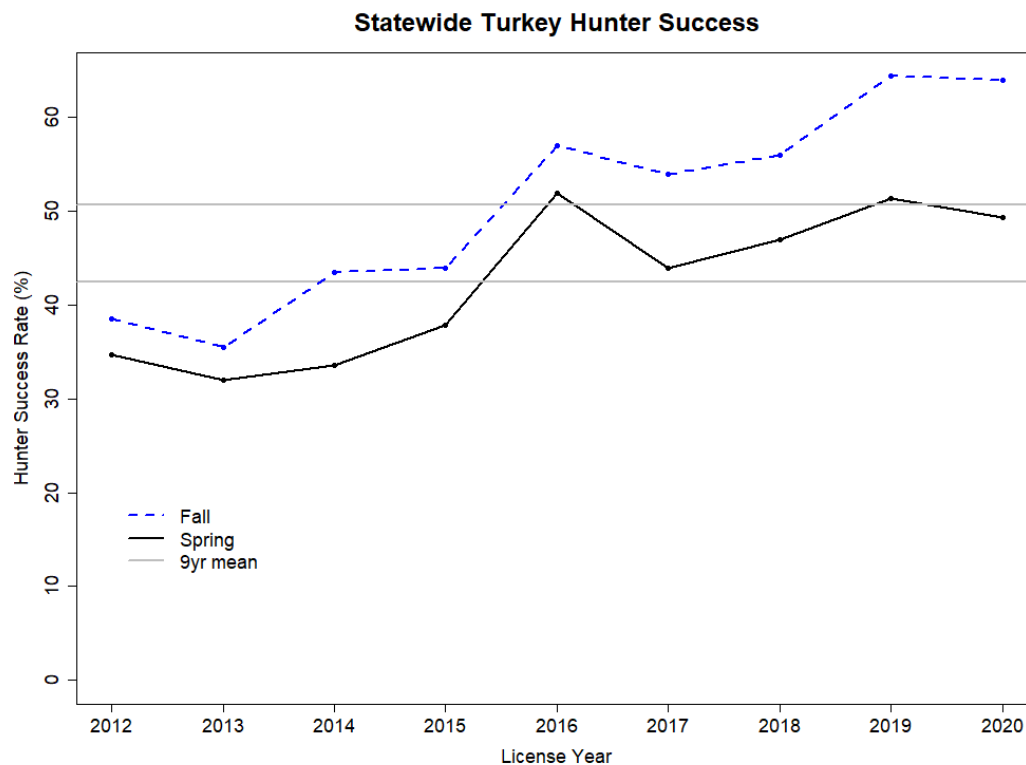


Figure 5. Hunter success rate (harvests per hunter) for the spring and fall seasons, 2012 – 2020 with 9-year means.

Within each PMU, the number of days hunted per harvest is variable, but all units show a stable to decreasing trend, indicating that populations at the PMU level are stable to increasing, with the exception of northwestern Washington (PMU 40; Figure 6). Very little hunting activity occurs in this unit, so small sample sizes make any assessment of trends difficult.

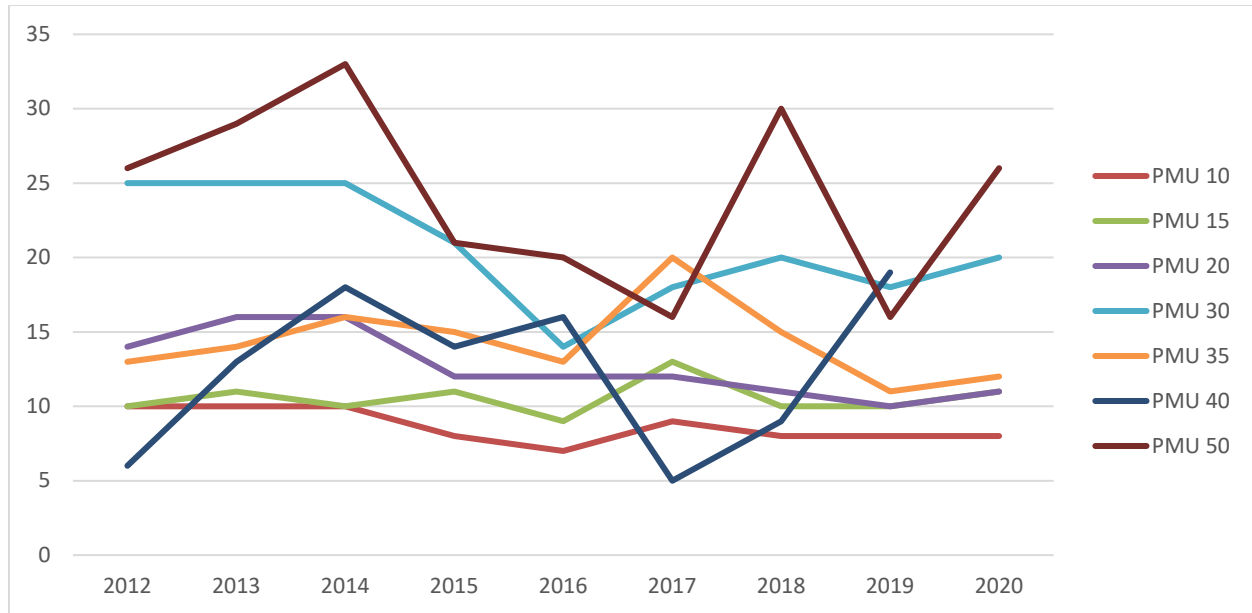


Figure 6. Number of days hunted per successful harvest during the spring season in each PMU, 2012-2020.

Habitat

Habitat enhancement priorities are identified in the 2015-2021 Game Management Plan (WDFW 2014). Of special interest are habitat improvements that increase habitat values for a variety of wildlife species in addition to turkeys. The Klickitat Oak Habitat Initiative began in May 2009 focusing on improving oak stand health and understory habitat on the Klickitat Wildlife Area and surrounding lands in Klickitat County. Other efforts have focused in northeast Washington to provide enhanced food resources through weed control, agricultural manipulation, and forest improvements. WDFW works closely with the National Wild Turkey Federation (NWTf) on efforts to promote, fund, and implement habitat enhancement work.

Population Augmentation

There were no new releases of turkeys in any PMU across the state and none are planned in the future. Turkeys are present in most of the areas that would be considered suitable habitat. Concerns related to human-wildlife conflict have precluded introductions in the recent past. WDFW management plans identify trapping and translocation as a potential response to damage and complaints, but in these cases, turkeys are only being moved to areas where turkey populations already exist. Few translocation activities have occurred in recent years.

Management Conclusions

Turkey populations across the state appear to be stable to increasing with the largest concentrations in eastern Washington. The slight decline in statewide spring hunter success rate is likely due to pandemic-related hunting impacts in 2020. It will be important to continue close monitoring to ensure increased fall seasons are not adversely impacting populations. Turkey damage and complaints are being reported from eastern Washington, especially Spokane County. Additional hunting opportunities have been created in these areas to help address these complaints. WDFW will be reviewing ways to focus hunter effort and other management tools in areas with private

Wild Turkey Status and Trend Report 2021

lands experiencing damage. Management decisions will seek to maintain high hunter success rates in the spring while also addressing human conflict issues. Please see the Wildlife Conflict report for more information.

Determining population trends for wild turkey in western Washington is limited by available data. Wild turkeys are likely reproducing at low levels but maintaining a viable population in PMU 50. Low harvest in this area may be further limited by restrictive access policies put in place by private landowners.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2005. [Wild Turkey Management Plan](#). Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, Washington, USA.

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2014. 2015-2021 Game Management Plan. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, Washington, USA. [2015-2021 Game Management Plan](#)

Pheasant

Pheasant Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

SARAH GARRISON, Statewide Small Game, Furbearer, and Resident Game Bird Specialist

Population Guidelines and Objectives

Management objectives for upland birds, including pheasant, are outlined in the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife's (WDFW) [Game Management Plan](#) (WDFW 2014). Goals are to bolster pheasant numbers through habitat enhancement to ensure healthy, productive populations for recreation. Additional strategies are described in the [National Wild Pheasant Conservation Plan](#) (Midwest Pheasant Study Group 2013), which focuses on maximizing the values of permanent herbaceous cover to enhance brood success. Washington-specific strategies are also outlined in the meeting summary from the [2003 Pheasant Workshop](#) (WDFW 2003).

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The pheasant harvest season in 2020 began in September with a 2-day statewide youth season followed by a 5-day season for hunters 65 and older and hunters with disabilities. The general pheasant season ran 87 days from mid-October to mid-January in eastern Washington and 66 days from late September to the end of November in western Washington, with a 15-day early December extended season in some areas of western Washington.

Nearly all wild pheasant (i.e., not pen-raised) populations occur in eastern Washington due to unsuitable climate and habitat in western Washington. In western Washington, a pheasant release program exists to provide an upland bird recreational opportunity to western Washington hunters.

In 2020, approximately 37,500 pheasants were released at designated sites in western Washington and 4,604 licenses were sold for this opportunity. For more information about the pheasant release program, see wdfw.wa.gov/hunting/locations/pheasant-release.

Harvest, number of pheasant hunters, and number of days hunted are estimated based on a survey for multiple small game species mailed to a stratified random sample of 25,000 hunters. Estimates of harvest and hunter participation for this report include the following counties: Adams, Asotin, Benton, Chelan, Columbia, Douglas, Ferry, Franklin, Garfield, Grant, Kittitas, Klickitat, Lincoln, Okanogan, Pend Oreille, Spokane, Stevens, Walla Walla, Whitman, and Yakima.

Participation in pheasant hunting has declined from highs in the 1960s and 1970s, with an average year-to-year loss of more than 2,000 hunters per year since 1985. In recent years that decline has slowed, with three of the last five years showing an increase in hunter participation at a statewide level. In 2020, an estimated 16,924 hunters pursued pheasant in eastern Washington, which is 19% above the 10-year average (Figure 1). Over the past ten years, eastern Washington pheasant hunters each spent an average of 5 days afield. Hunters harvested an estimated 47,197 pheasants in 2020, a 12% increase from 2019 and 11% above the 10-year mean. Increased participation in the 2020 season was likely due to the COVID-19 pandemic which catalyzed increased interest in multiple forms of outdoor activities, including hunting. Additionally, WDFW has increased outreach regarding resident game birds for species relevancy and awareness and to promote hunter recruitment, retention, and reactivation.

Pheasant Status and Trend Report 2021

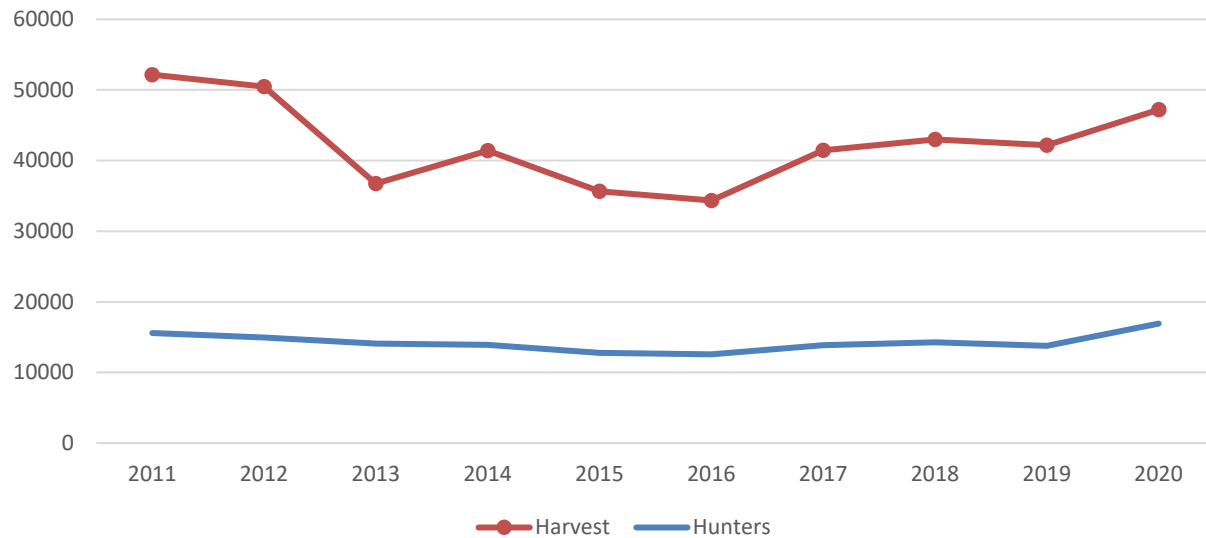


Figure 1. Estimated annual pheasant harvest (pen-raised and wild) and hunter participation in eastern Washington 2011 - 2020.

A primary pheasant management zone was established in Washington where populations have been historically high. Within this primary zone, WDFW has delineated a southeast Washington pheasant focus area that includes portions of Columbia, Garfield, Walla Walla, and Whitman counties to focus pheasant management efforts where adequate rainfall (i.e., 14-inches and over) is most conducive to supporting desirable plant communities (Figure 2).

Since 1997, rooster pheasants have been released in the fall as part of the state-funded Eastern Washington Pheasant Enhancement Program (EWPEP). Harvest estimates have included both released and wild birds. Therefore, the harvest of wild pheasants is lower than depicted in Figure 1.

In 2009, the EWPEP was audited at the request of the Legislature. The findings confirmed that WDFW was fulfilling its legislative mandate to release pheasants. Auditors concluded that pheasant populations continued to decline primarily due to loss of habitat and that releasing pen-raised pheasants was not effectively sustaining or improving pheasant populations in eastern Washington. In 2009, the Legislature rescinded the requirement for the program to use 80% of EWPEP funding for purchasing domestically reared pheasants for wild release in order to devote more funding to habitat enhancement projects on public and private lands.

In 2020, WDFW released 6,448 pheasants in eastern Washington and are planning to release a similar number in the fall of 2021. Funding that is allocated to habitat enhancements will help address objectives identified in the 2015-2021 Game Management Plan (WDFW 2014) to increase the amount of quality pheasant habitat in the pheasant focus area.

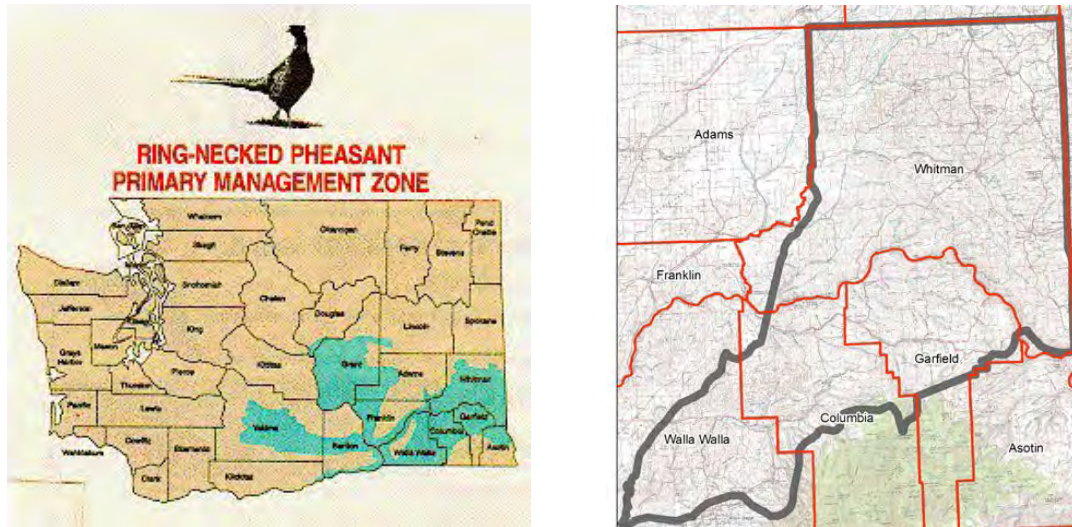


Figure 2: Washington state ring-necked pheasant primary management zone (left) and the southeast Washington Pheasant Focus Area (right).

Population Monitoring

In addition to long-term declines in pheasant harvest, crow counts and brood counts also declined during surveys in the primary management zone from 1982 through 1998. Though these are coarse measures of population trend, they suggest population declines in the range of 5-10% per year in that zone during that period (Rice 2003). Rice (2003) found that crow and brood surveys were only likely to detect large population changes in the short term. Therefore, these surveys were not considered cost-effective and were discontinued.

North American Breeding Bird Survey (BBS) data also indicate population declines over the past three decades, with stabilization in the last 10 years (Figure 3, Sauer et al. 2020).

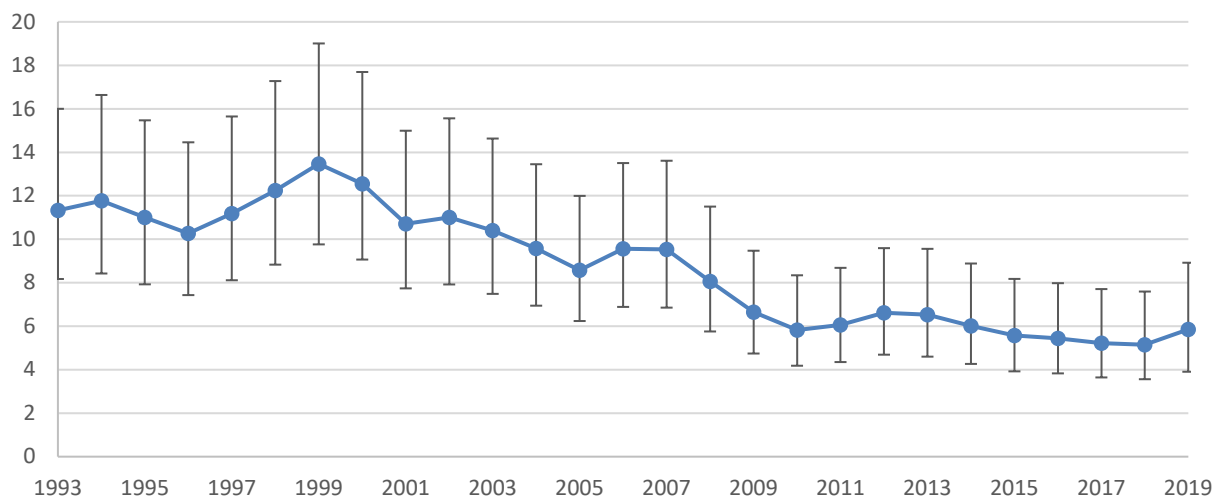


Figure 3. North American Breeding Bird Survey annual indices for pheasant in Washington, 1993-2019.

Pheasant Status and Trend Report 2021

Harvest and hunter effort data can also provide a coarse index to population trends. Standardizing harvest estimates by the amount of hunter effort expended to achieve that level of harvest can offer some indication of whether populations are increasing, decreasing, or stable. Harvest estimates for the Columbia, Snake River, and Yakima Basins have been used to monitor trends within the primary pheasant management zone.

For this report, the “Yakima River Basin” consists of Yakima and Benton counties, the “Snake River Basin” is made up of Asotin, Garfield, Columbia, Walla Walla, and Whitman counties, and the “Columbia River Basin” includes Lincoln, Adams, Grant, Douglas, and Franklin counties.

In all three basins, both the estimated number of harvests and days hunted increased from 2019. In the Snake River Basin, the number of harvests increased proportionately with the number of days hunted (25% increase in harvests and 23% increase in days). In the Yakima and Columbia River Basins, the increase in harvests (3% and 6%, respectively) was less than the increase in days (12% and 28%, respectively). The estimated number of days hunted per harvested bird for each of these basins, however, indicates relatively stable populations since 2002 (Figure 4). With some variation among years, days per harvest averages between 1 and 2 days in the Snake and Columbia River Basins and just over 2 days in the Yakima River Basin.

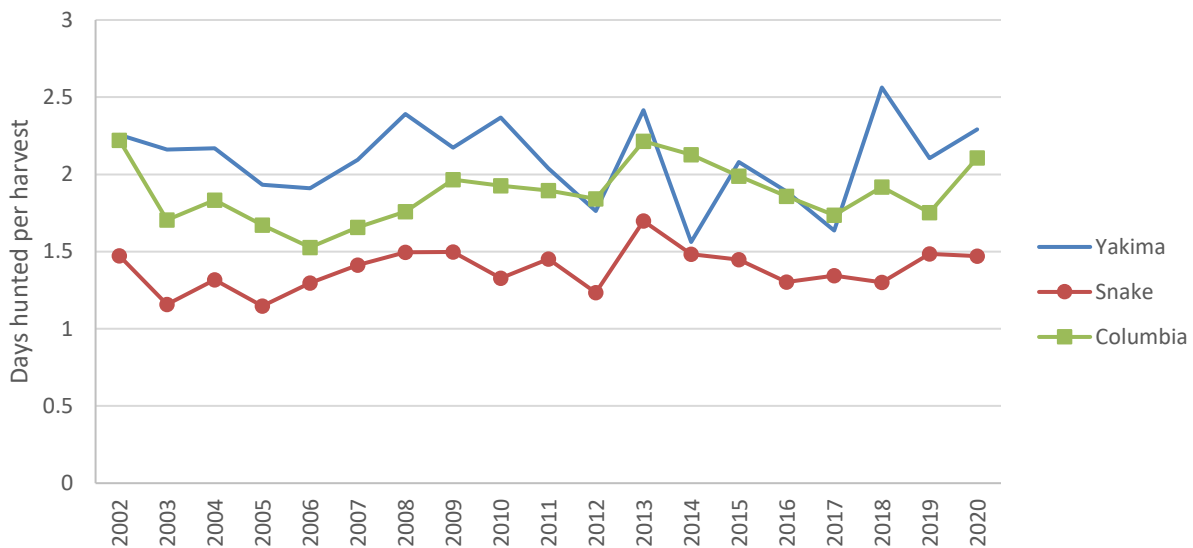


Figure 3. Estimated number of days hunted per harvest in each river basin, 2002-2020.

In 2019-2021, Washington is participating in a pilot brood survey as part of a multi-state research effort led by the National Pheasant Technical Committee and Iowa State University. District biologists survey routes in southeast Washington to contribute data to this project. Project objectives are to account for variable weather conditions during surveys and assess whether corrections may be applied to historical data to improve long-term monitoring. Results will be available upon completion of the project.

Habitat

Permanent cover is critical to pheasant production, particularly where the stands consist of a diverse mix of grasses and broadleaf, flowering plants (forbs). Diverse vegetation can produce more suitable nesting and brood-rearing habitat (Midwest Pheasant Study Group 2013). Research in many parts of the United States indicates that loss of habitat is the primary factor for declining pheasant populations (Labisky 1976, Warner et al. 1984). Of particular importance is the loss of nesting and brood-rearing habitat, winter cover, and escape cover to elude predators (Warner 1979). Most of eastern Washington pheasant habitat is heavily influenced by agriculture and as a result, CRP is a critical component of contiguous pheasant habitat.

WDFW leverages multiple programs to improve habitat quality for pheasant and other upland game birds including the State Acres for Wildlife Enhancement (a CRP program), Natural Resources Conservation Service's Voluntary Public Access and Habitat Improvement Program, the Environmental Quality Incentive Program, and others. Private lands biologists provide technical assistance to landowners concerning the installation and enhancement of wildlife habitat. Private Lands biologists also assist with planting of high-diversity mixes of grasses and forbs, shrub cover plots, and food plots across eastern Washington that benefit upland birds and other wildlife.

Evolving farming practices, pesticide and herbicide use, and urban sprawl can contribute to declines in pheasant populations. Herbicide application to wheat stubble and reduced stubble height are considered a primary cause of pheasant population decline on the central High Plains (Rodgers 2002). In some areas of eastern Washington, wheat stubble may be the only cover available to pheasants at certain times of the year. The shorter stubble height increases a predator's ability to see pheasants, thus making pheasants more vulnerable. Pesticide use in early spring reduces early germinating plants that are important food resources at that time of year (De Snoo, G. R. and J. De Leeuw 1996). Some insecticides, organophosphates for example, can have a direct effect on individual pheasants by sickening them and/or by killing them (Blus, L. J. and C. J. Henny 1997). Herbicide use reduces overall plant diversity, which is a crucial component of high-quality pheasant habitat. Across all agricultural states, pesticides are used on an increasingly broader scale, and have negatively impacted pheasant habitat quality throughout the introduced range. Additionally, houses now occupy many of the areas where pheasants were abundant. This trend is especially apparent within the Columbia Basin and southwest Washington.

Upland game bird fall population densities and related harvest also depend on spring weather conditions. Recently hatched chicks are vulnerable to cold rains before they are sufficiently feathered, but spring rains are needed to provide early plant growth for nesting cover while consistent warm early summer rains create insect-rich environments for pheasant chicks. Early spring drought conditions, even with normal temperatures, may decrease insect availability. A large portion of pheasant chick diets consist of calorically dense, high protein insects (Savory, C. J. 1989).

Management Conclusions

Harvest and historic survey data indicate that eastern Washington pheasant populations and hunter participation have experienced a long-term decline. Recent harvest data indicate that populations may have stabilized, though these data only allow for coarse interpretation and more rigorous surveys would be beneficial. It is not fully understood whether limitations on hunting access,

Pheasant Status and Trend Report 2021

economic changes, or other factors might be playing a role in declining hunter participation. Maintaining hunters who were either new or reactivated in the 2020 season will be important for addressing this trend.

Causes for the population declines are not clearly understood, but habitat loss and land use changes are likely primary drivers. Suitable habitats are becoming increasingly fragmented and isolated or have been severely degraded. Diligent monitoring is needed in combination with increased efforts to improve habitat, especially nesting cover and brood-rearing habitat to sustain viable pheasant populations in eastern Washington.

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**Chukar
and
Gray Partridge**

Chukar and Gray Partridge Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

SARAH GARRISON, Statewide Small Game, Furbearer, and Resident Game Bird Specialist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Harvest management for chukar partridge (*Alectoris chukar*) and gray partridge (*Perdix perdix*) is designed to provide maximum recreation opportunity without negatively impacting populations. Management goals and objectives are outlined in the WFDW [Game Management Plan](#) (WFDW 2014). Additional strategies for enhancing chukar and gray partridge populations are outlined in the [Western States Chukar and Gray Partridge Management Guidelines](#) (Knetter et al. 2017) which were developed through a collaboration among western states.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

Chukar and gray partridge hunting seasons have varied in length over the years and by regions. In the early 1960s and 1970s, Region 1 had a split early and late season while the rest of eastern Washington was regulated with one general season. Beginning in 1997, one standardized season started October 1 and ended the second Sunday in January. The season was changed again in 2003 to start on the first Saturday of October and extend to mid-January which remains in effect through the 2020 season. Additionally, a 2-day youth season occurs in late September. Daily bag limits are six chukar and six gray partridge with 18 of each in possession during the general season.

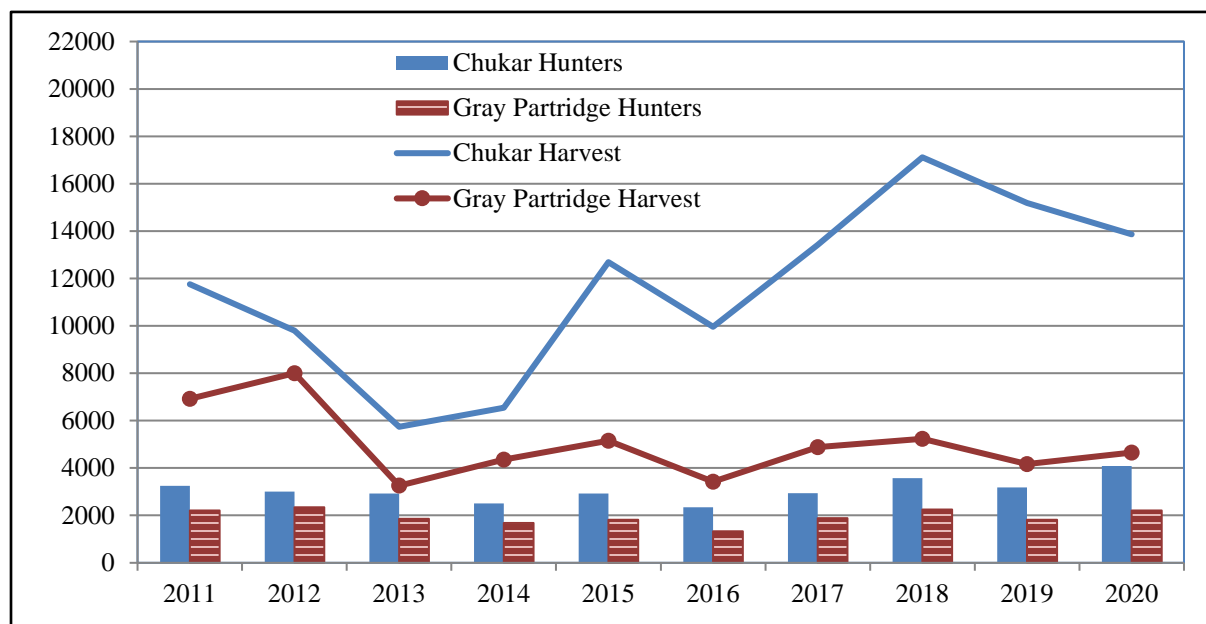


Figure 1. Estimated statewide chukar and gray partridge hunters and harvest, 2011 – 2020.

Chukar hunting was a major recreational pursuit in southeastern Washington during the 1970s when harvest averaged more than 66,000 birds in Region 1 alone. Since the 1970s, hunter participation and harvest have steadily declined. Harvest and hunter participation have been estimated based on a survey mailed to a stratified random sample of 25,000 hunters for the past

Chukar and Gray Partridge Status and Trend Report 2021

two decades. In 2020, an estimated 4,091 hunters pursued chukar while 2,216 pursued gray partridge (Figure 1). This is a 29% increase in chukar hunters since 2019, which is 33% above the 10-year average. Chukar harvest declined from 2019 (9%) but remains 19% above the 10-year average at 13,858 harvests in 2020. The most productive counties for chukar harvest in 2020 were Asotin (4,248), Chelan (3,373), and Douglas (1,487) counties. Gray partridge harvest remains 7% below the 10-year average though hunter participation was 14% above the 10-year average in 2020.

Population Monitoring

Chukar populations were surveyed by helicopter from 1987 to 1997, when aerial surveys were terminated due to budget constraints. Harvest and hunter effort are used as an index to population trends. Standardizing harvest estimates by the amount of hunter effort expended to achieve that level of harvest can provide some indication of whether populations are increasing, decreasing, or stable.

Despite long-term declines in the total number of chukar harvested, the number of chukar harvested per hunter shows no increasing or decreasing trend since 1984 (Figure 2). The 35-year average number of harvests per hunter is between 3 and 4 birds. Similarly, the number of gray partridge harvested per hunter has been relatively stable since 2004, averaging between 2 and 3 birds (Figure 2). A decreasing trend in the past five years suggests closer monitoring may be warranted.

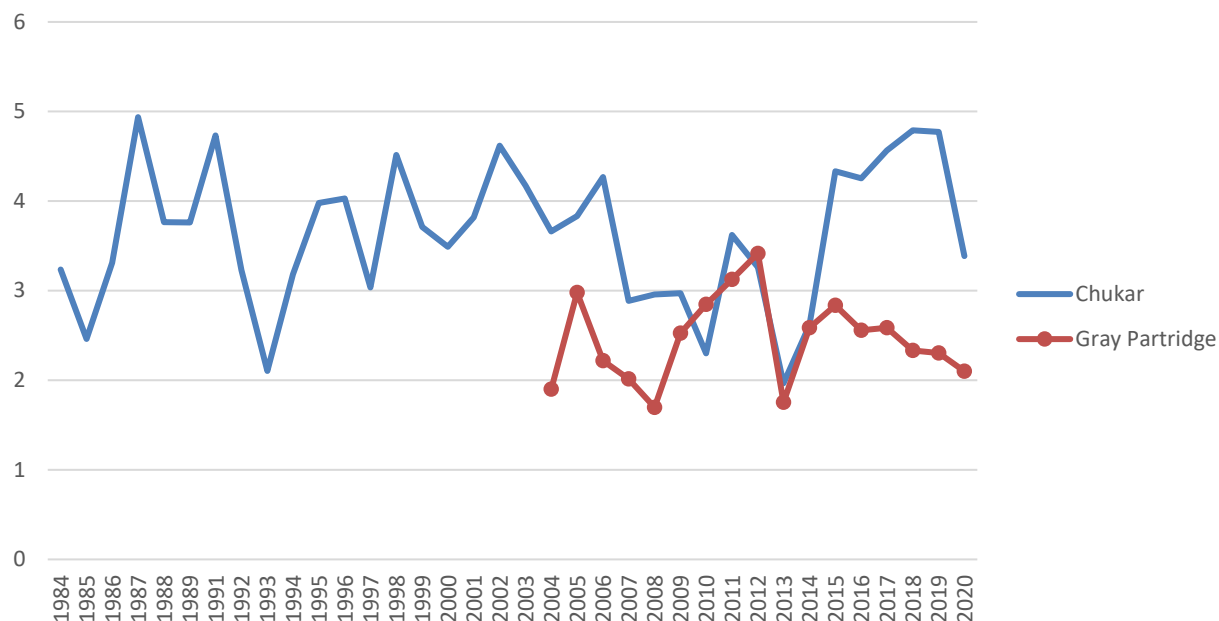


Figure 2. Estimated number of chukar (1984-2020) and gray partridge (2004-2020) harvested per hunter.

Increased participation in the 2020 season was likely due to the COVID-19 pandemic which catalyzed increased interest in multiple forms of outdoor activities, including hunting. Additionally, WDFW has increased outreach regarding resident game birds for species relevancy and awareness and to promote hunter recruitment, retention, and reactivation. An increase in new hunters may explain why harvest didn't increase proportionally to the increase in participation. New hunters with less experience are likely harvesting at lower rates than more experienced

hunters, reducing the rate of harvests per hunter.

Habitat

Chukar habitat comprises arid areas with steep slopes, deep valleys, and rocky outcrops. This habitat type can be found where topography, combined with shallow soils, has prevented extensive agriculture and/or development. Cheatgrass is a staple of the chukar diet during spring and fall, and the availability of cheatgrass can have a significant impact on their populations. Encroachment of invasive plants such as yellow star-thistle (*Centaurea solstitialis*), along with fires that eliminate shrub habitat, may be contributing to long-term population declines.

Gray partridge habitat can be found along the “margins” where agricultural fields and native shrub-steppe habitat meet. Their diet consists of cultivated grains, weed seeds such as cheatgrass, and clover. Due to “clean” farming conditions their habitat is decreasing. The Farm Bill and state habitat programs should be investigated and applied to areas where gray partridge and other upland birds would benefit the most.

The 2020 wildfire season saw multiple catastrophic fires in shrubsteppe habitat, most notably the Pearl Hill and Cold Springs fires in Okanogan and Douglas counties, the Whitney fire in Lincoln County, and the Evans Canyon fire in Yakima and Kittitas counties.

Management Conclusions

Chukar and gray partridge populations in Washington have declined from the highs of half a century ago. These long-term declines are likely due to diminishing habitat quality. For example, the invasion of yellow star-thistle has taken over thousands of acres of quality habitat in southeastern Washington reducing available food resources for chukars. Habitat quality in some portions of the state may have actually improved in recent years with the abundance of wildfires that influenced the spread of annual grasses. However, the concurrent loss of shrub habitat due to fires may be detrimental.

Chukar and gray partridge populations can be expected to fluctuate annually in response to weather variability and associated habitat quality. A continued focus on habitat enhancement should benefit these populations into the future.

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Quail

Quail Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

SARAH GARRISON, Statewide Small Game, Furbearer, and Resident Game Bird Specialist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Three species of quail occur in the wild in Washington. California quail (*Callipepla californica*) is the most abundant, while northern bobwhite (*Colinus virginianus*) occurs in low numbers remnant from past releases. Mountain quail (*Oreortyx pictus*) persists in small populations in its native eastern Washington habitats where hunting is closed, and also occurs in introduced western Washington populations. The objectives for quail in Washington are to maintain healthy sustainable populations in all suitable habitats within the state and to maximize recreational opportunities, as outlined in the [Game Management Plan](#) (WDFW 2014). In the case of mountain quail, the primary objective is to recover populations in the Blue Mountains and potentially other parts of eastern Washington where significant declines have occurred. Additional guidelines are outlined in the [Western Quail Management Plan](#) (Zornes and Bishop 2009), which was collaboratively produced through the Association of Fish and Wildlife Agencies.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

In eastern Washington, the general hunting season for California quail and northern bobwhite was open 108 days from 3 October 2020 through 18 January 2021. A special youth-only hunting weekend occurred on 26 and 27 September. The general season has a mixed bag limit of 10 per day with a possession limit of 30. In western Washington, the general season for California quail, bobwhite quail, and mountain quail ran 66 days from 26 September through 30 November. Bag limits are the same as eastern Washington, except mountain quail have a daily bag limit of two and a possession limit of four. Mountain quail hunting is closed throughout eastern Washington.

Harvest, number of quail hunters, and number of days hunted are estimated based on a survey for multiple small game species mailed to a stratified random sample of 25,000 hunters. This survey collects data for all quail species combined. The vast majority of quail harvested are California quail, so harvest data are most useful for inferences about California quail populations and have limited utility for monitoring other quail species.

Participation in quail hunting has declined over the long term, with an average loss of about 270 hunters per year since 1985. In 2020, an estimated 10,974 hunters pursued quail (Figure 1). This is a 20% increase in participation from 2019 and 12% above the 10-year average. An estimated 66,212 quail were harvested in 2020, which is a 12% increase from 2019 and 10% below the 10-year average. Approximately 96% of the statewide total harvest occurred in eastern Washington in 2020, which is consistent with, though slightly less than, past years.

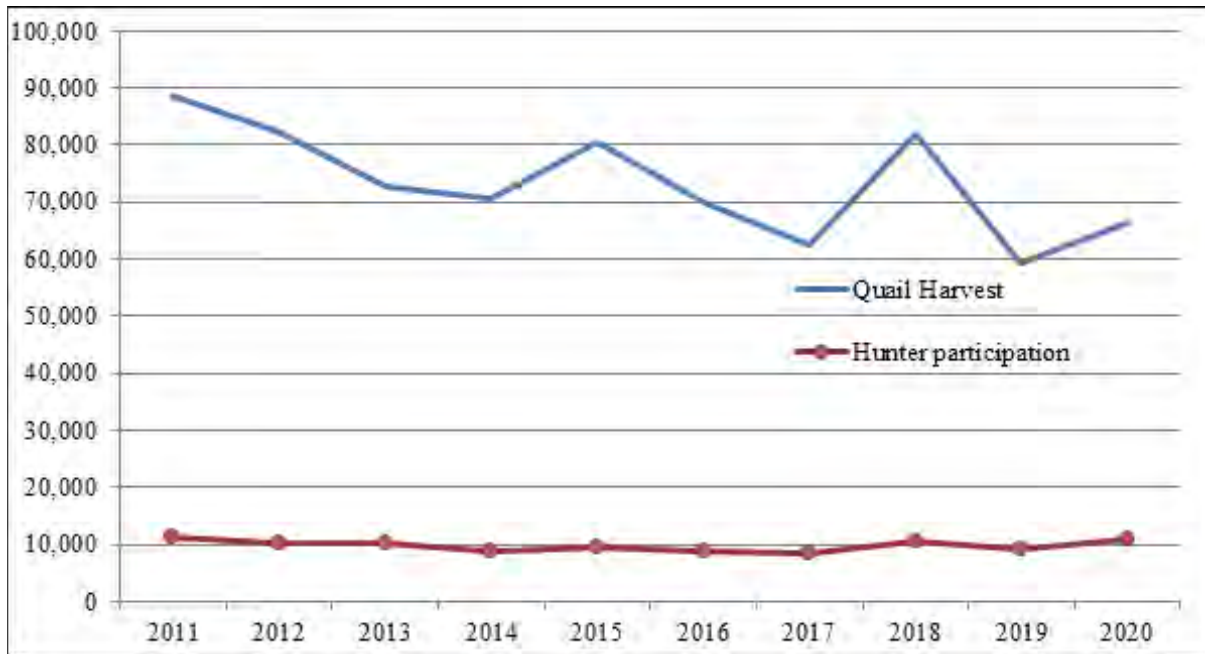


Figure 1. Estimated quail harvest and hunter participation, 2011-2020.

Population Monitoring

All population and production surveys were discontinued in 1999 due to limited time and funding for district biologists. Harvest and hunter effort data are used as an index to population trends. Based on harvest, quail populations in Washington appear much lower than they were half a century ago when statewide harvest exceeded 200,000 quail. This long-term decline is most likely related to “clean” farming practices introduced in the early 1980s that encouraged the removal of shrubby cover along fence lines and draws. In addition, the decline in harvest is related to a decline in hunter participation. To account for this, the number of quail harvested per hunter can serve as an alternative index to population trend. Standardizing harvest estimates by the amount of hunter effort expended to achieve that level of harvest can provide some indication of whether populations are increasing, decreasing, or stable.

The number of quail harvested per hunter has declined slightly over the past two decades, from an average of 8-9 quail per hunter in the 2000s to an average of 7-8 quail per hunter in the 2010s (Figure 2). In 2020, the average number of harvests per hunter, estimated at 6, was the lowest since 2000 and 20% below the 10-year average.

Increased participation in the 2020 season was likely due to the COVID-19 pandemic which catalyzed increased interest in multiple forms of outdoor activities, including hunting. Additionally, WDFW has increased outreach regarding resident game birds for species relevancy and awareness and to promote hunter recruitment, retention, and reactivation. An increase in new hunters may explain why harvest didn’t increase proportionally to the increase in participation. New hunters with less experience are likely harvesting at lower rates than more experienced hunters, reducing the rate of harvests per hunter.

The breeding bird survey (BBS, US Geological Survey) information for Washington suggests an increasing trend for California quail populations over the last three decades (1993-2019, Sauer et

Quail Status and Trend Report 2021

al. 2020, Figure 3). Quail populations are highly dependent on weather, leading to high annual variability. Given the right environmental conditions, quail can be very productive, allowing populations to rebound quickly.

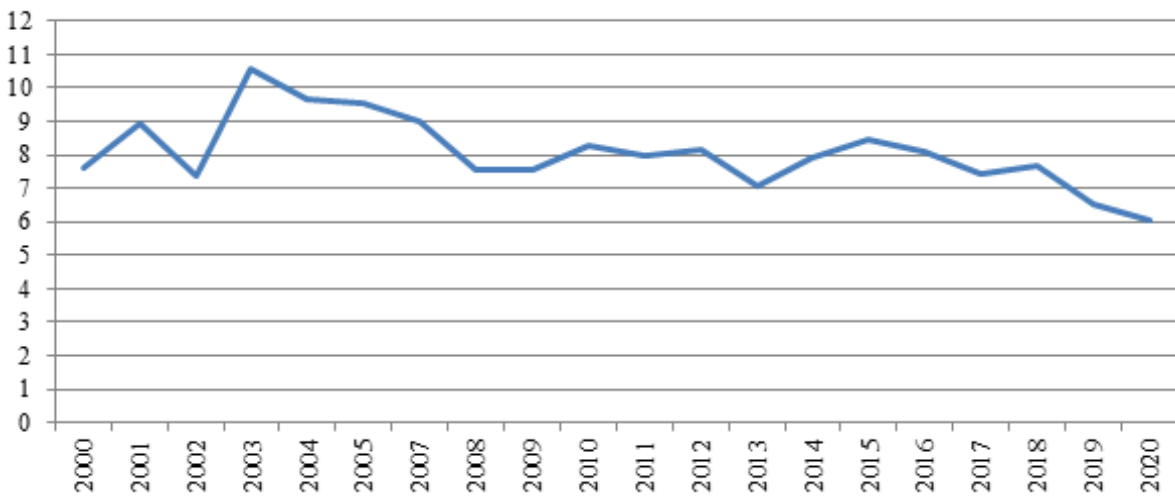


Figure 2. Estimated number of quail harvested per hunter, 2000-2020.

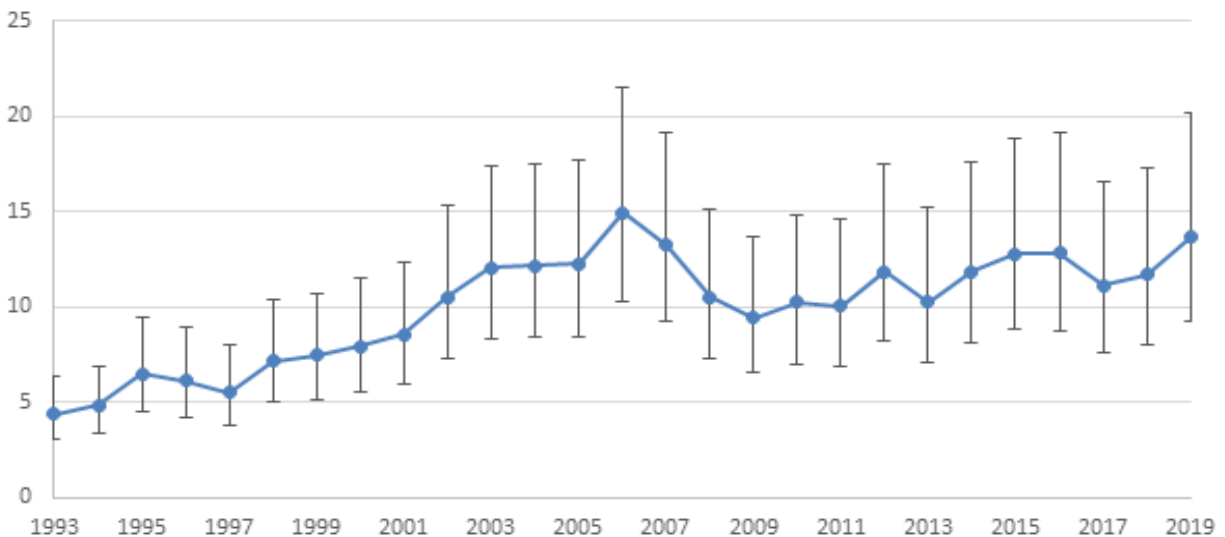


Figure 3. BBS annual indices for California quail, 1993-2019.

Habitat

As with other agriculturally-associated wildlife, the quantity and quality of quail habitat has been declining for decades. Breeding habitat (including nesting and brood-rearing habitat), wintering habitat, and habitat that can provide escape cover are important for sustaining quail populations. Land development and “clean” farming practices have dramatically reduced and fragmented suitable habitat for all upland game birds.

A study looking at the food habits of quail was conducted in southeastern Washington (Anthony 1970). The study analyzed 157 California quail crops from March – September. The results showed that male and female quail were selective in their feeding habits, preferring leafy green

Quail Status and Trend Report 2021

plants in the spring and then transitioning to insects and seeds in the summer (Anthony 1970). The timing of herbicide use in agriculture often corresponds to the “spring green-up” and flushes of undesirable weeds which can reduce the abundance of those early season leafy greens that quail rely on which subsequently impacts quail populations.

The Conservation Reserve Program (CRP) has benefited Washington upland bird species. The program provides financial incentives to producers to establish perennial vegetation. However, dense vegetation, litter accumulation, and decreased species diversity of older CRP fields most likely limits the habitat value for some species (Rodgers 1999). Recently, CRP programs have been encouraging landowners to diversify their CRP lands through State Acres for Wildlife Enhancement (SAFE), Environmental Quality Incentives Program (EQIP), and simply requiring more diverse plantings to be reenrolled in the general CRP program. Flowering plants are very beneficial to upland birds because of the insects they attract. The insects in turn serve as an important food resource for newly hatched chicks allowing for greater brood rearing success. Continuation of these programs is vital for the enhancement of upland bird habitat in eastern Washington.

Mountain Quail Population Augmentation

A three-year project to enhance mountain quail populations in southeast Washington was implemented in March 2005. Mountain quail were trapped in southwest Oregon for release in the Asotin Creek watershed. A subset of birds were fitted with transmitters for monitoring. Results are documented in a master’s thesis (Stephenson 2008) and publication (Stephenson et al. 2011). The mountain quail augmentation effort was reinitiated in 2012. A new holding facility was constructed and 143 birds from western Oregon were released in southeast Washington over two years.

Surveys on the small, dispersed populations of mountain quail are not cost effective. Therefore, it is difficult to assess whether the augmentation effort was successful in reestablishing a viable population. Prior to any further releases, a full evaluation of the reintroduction effort will need to take place. WDFW has initiated a contract with Washington State University (WSU) for a five-year research project to inform future management of these mountain quail populations.

Management Conclusions

Quail are an important upland game bird species and of significant interest to wildlife viewers. Habitat improvements, including the various Farm Bill programs, are vital to WDFW’s ongoing efforts to enhance upland game bird populations across the state.

A full evaluation of the mountain quail augmentation project in southeastern Washington is needed to determine whether the methods are helping to reestablish a viable population or whether alternative strategies are needed. Habitat enhancements may be needed in conjunction with future releases or as a next step in the recovery effort. Improved survey methods would be valuable to inform needs and areas of focus. The research contracted through WSU will provide critical information regarding mountain quail status, limiting factors, and habitat use to guide management decisions.

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Grouse

Forest Grouse Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

SARAH GARRISON, Statewide Small Game, Furbearer, and Resident Game Bird Specialist

Management Guidelines and Objectives

Forest grouse in Washington include dusky grouse (*Dendragapus obscurus*), sooty grouse (*Dendragapus fuliginosus*), ruffed grouse (*Bonasa umbellus*), and spruce grouse (*Falciennis canadensis*). Dusky and sooty grouse were considered a single species, blue grouse, in the past and are still colloquially referred to as blue grouse today. Management objectives and strategies for forest grouse are outlined in the WDFW [Game Management Plan](#) (WDFW 2014) which identifies the following goals:

1. Preserve, protect, perpetuate, and manage forest grouse and their habitats to ensure healthy, productive populations.
2. Manage for a variety of recreational, educational and aesthetic purposes including hunting, scientific study, wildlife viewing, cultural and ceremonial uses by tribes, and photography.
3. Manage statewide populations for sustained harvest.

Hunting Seasons and Recreational Harvest

The current September 1st to December 31st hunting season structure has been in place since 1973. A daily bag limit of three of any of the three species was in place from 1952 to 2009 when the bag limit was raised to four. The decision to increase the bag limit was made to increase opportunity, not due to an increase in grouse populations. Hunters had been taking approximately 0.4 grouse per day hunted for the past 50 years. Based on this average, management determined that increasing the bag limit would not detrimentally impact populations. The harvest per day has been approximately 0.3 birds per day since the bag limit was increased. Beginning in 2015, the bag limits were changed again to address hunter concern regarding reduced numbers of grouse being seen by hunters. The regulation at this time is a daily limit of four forest grouse to include not more than three blue grouse (dusky or sooty), three spruce grouse, and three ruffed grouse.

In 2020, the Fish and Wildlife Commission approved changing the grouse season to September 15th through January 15th, beginning with the 2021 season. Delaying the start of the season by two weeks (without reducing the total season length) is intended to increase grouse abundance and availability to hunters by protecting breeding-aged females (hens) while they are still caring for their broods. Forest grouse broods typically become independent of the hen in mid-September. In the early season before broods break up, hens appear to be at higher risk of harvest than breeding-aged males based on hunter-submitted wing and tail samples. Increasing hen survival should lead to an increase in population abundance and hunter opportunity.

Harvest, number of grouse hunters, and number of days hunted are estimated based on a survey for multiple small game species mailed to a stratified random sample of 25,000 hunters. This survey has been in place since 2001. Developing estimates of forest grouse hunter effort and harvest is challenging due to the licensing structure which impacts hunter sample stratification by allowing forest grouse harvest with either a big game or small game license.

Grouse Status and Trend Report 2021

Participation in grouse hunting has declined from historic highs in the 1970s when an average of 112,000 hunters pursued grouse each year. More recently, the number of hunters dropped sharply in 2010 and 2011 but has since stabilized, with a 10-year average of 22,463 hunters per year (Figure 1). On average, each hunter spends about 8 days hunting grouse in a season. In 2020, an estimated 22,300 hunters pursued grouse for an estimated 174,132 days. This is a 24% increase in hunters from the 2019 season and less than 1% below the 10-year average. Though participation increased, harvest decreased 13% in 2020, with an estimated 48,010 grouse harvested statewide.

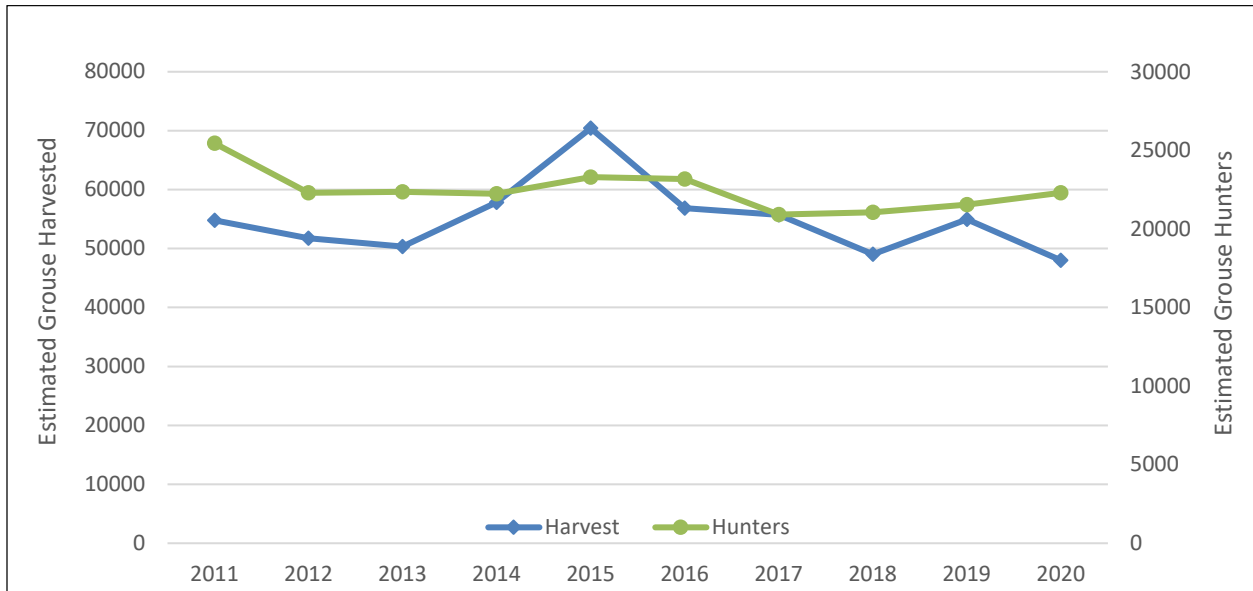


Figure 1. Estimated forest grouse harvest and hunter numbers, 2011-2020.

Estimated hunter participation increased from 2019 levels in the North Puget Sound (27%), Coastal (13%) and Southwest (21%) Regions. Conversely, hunter participation decreased in the South Central (9%), North Central (5%) and Eastern (7%) Regions. For a map of WDFW Regions, see wdfw.wa.gov/about/regional-offices.

Population Monitoring

WDFW has not developed survey methods to estimate forest grouse abundance. Instead, harvest and hunter effort data are used as an index to population trends. This is done by standardizing harvest estimates by the amount of hunter effort expended to achieve that level of harvest.

Harvests per hunter have declined from historic highs half a century ago, indicating that the decline in total harvests is not solely due to declining hunter effort (Figure 2). Harvests per day, though only available through 1985, follow a similar slow downward trajectory. While it's not clear to what extent this downward trend might be cause for concern, it does clarify a need for continued and closer monitoring. In examining these data, it's important to note that over the years, changes in bag limits, seasons, and survey methods (1984, 1998-2001) impact interpretation of long-term trends.

Grouse Status and Trend Report 2021

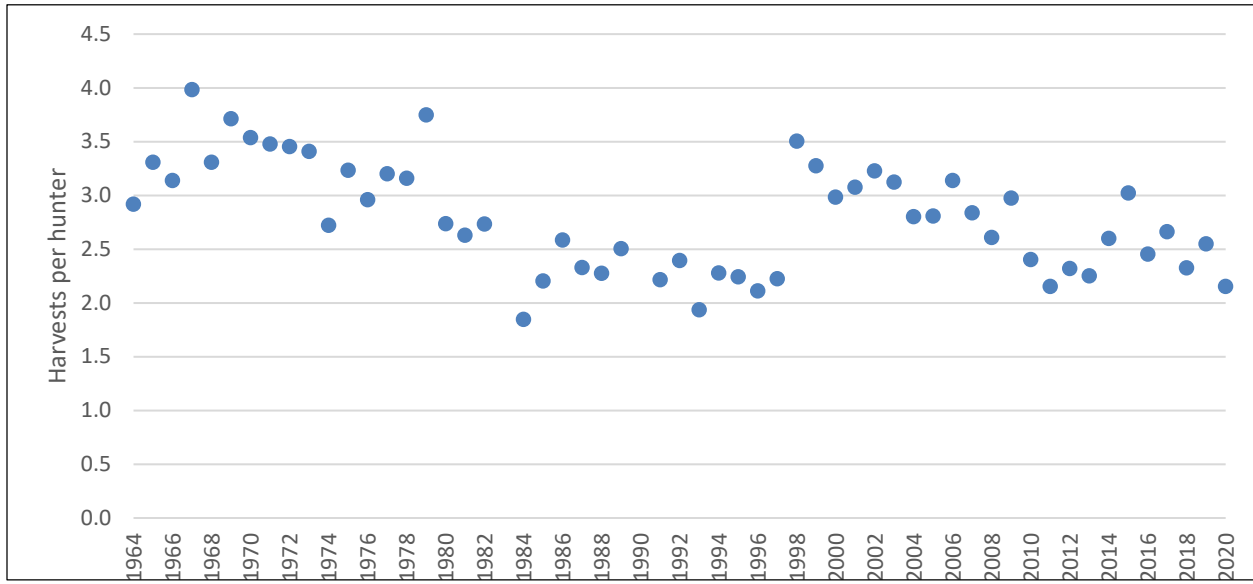
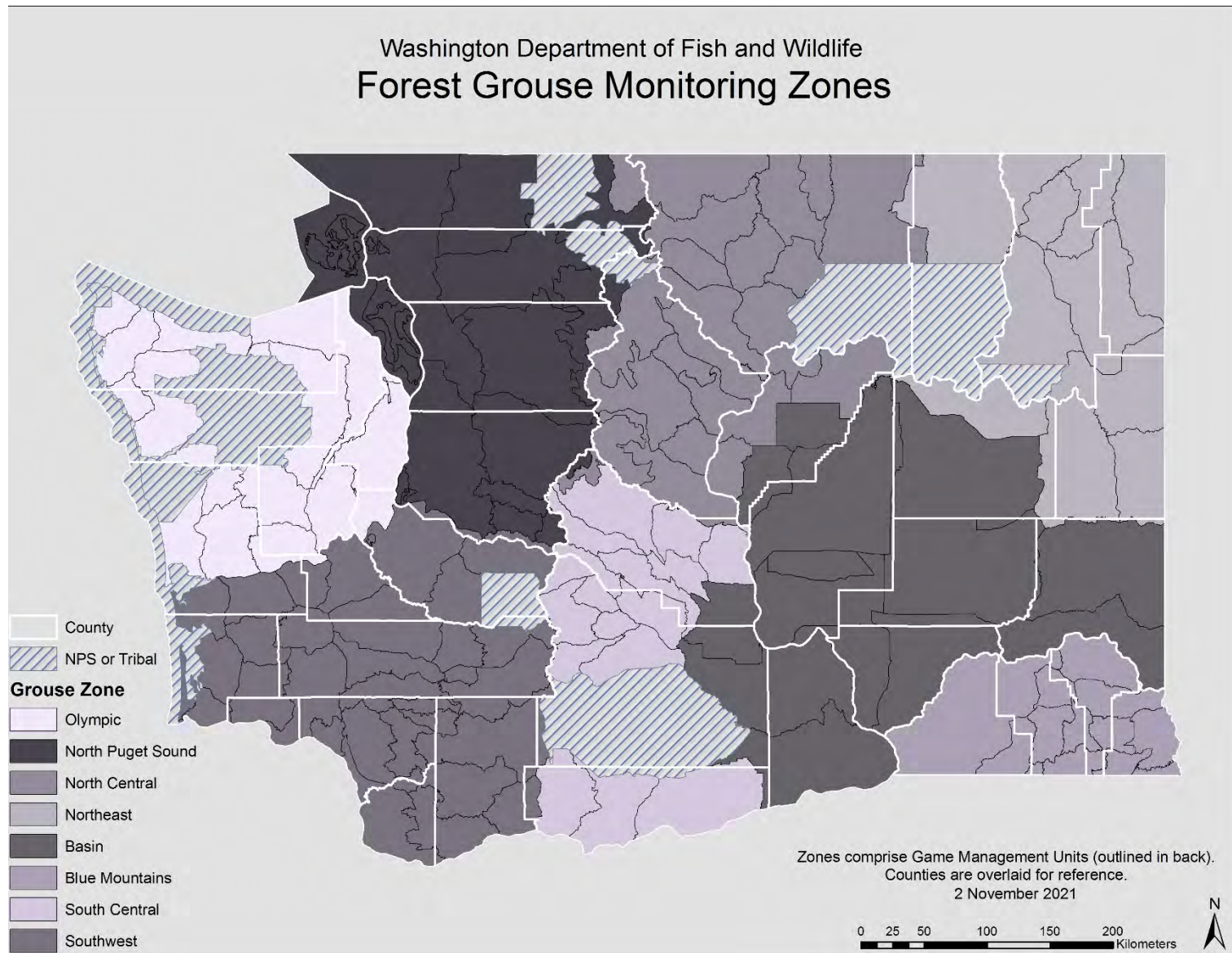


Figure 2. Estimated number of grouse harvested per hunter in Washington 1964-2020. Note that survey methods changed in 1984 and 1998-2001.

Samples collected from grouse hunters provide an additional metric for monitoring forest grouse population trends. A wing and tail from a harvested grouse can provide the information necessary to identify species, sex, and age of the bird. For more information about voluntary collections from hunters see wdfw.wa.gov/hunting/requirements/upland-birds/grouse-wing-tail-collection. Forest grouse wings were collected in north-central Washington between 1993 and 2014 when collections ended due to limited time and resources. We initiated a pilot grouse wing and tail collection effort in eastern Washington in the fall of 2016, which has since expanded into all six WDFW Regions. In 2020, zones were established to guide future sampling efforts and analysis (Figure 3).

Species composition data are lacking from the hunter harvest survey, which lumps all forest grouse species into a single category. Wing and tail collections have shown that of 4,890 samples from 2016 – 2020, 51% are dusky or sooty grouse, 41% are ruffed grouse, and 8% are spruce grouse (Table 1).



Grouse Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Number of forest grouse sample collections by zone, 2016 – 2020. Blue includes both sooty and dusky grouse. A sample consists of either a wing or a wing-tail pair.

| Zone | Year | BLUE | RUFFED | SPRUCE | UNKNOWN |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| Blue Mountains | 2016 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue Mountains | 2017 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue Mountains | 2018 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue Mountains | 2019 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Blue Mountains | 2020 | 26 | 11 | 0 | 0 |
| North Central | 2016 | 203 | 90 | 56 | 0 |
| North Central | 2017 | 307 | 82 | 69 | 0 |
| North Central | 2018 | 266 | 56 | 46 | 0 |
| North Central | 2019 | 231 | 96 | 29 | 1 |
| North Central | 2020 | 221 | 55 | 56 | 0 |
| North Puget Sound | 2016 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| North Puget Sound | 2017 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| North Puget Sound | 2018 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| North Puget Sound | 2019 | 6 | 35 | 0 | 0 |
| North Puget Sound | 2020 | 73 | 101 | 2 | 0 |
| Northeast | 2016 | 11 | 118 | 19 | 0 |
| Northeast | 2017 | 17 | 162 | 11 | 0 |
| Northeast | 2018 | 13 | 104 | 28 | 0 |
| Northeast | 2019 | 23 | 88 | 29 | 0 |
| Northeast | 2020 | 20 | 113 | 43 | 0 |
| Olympic | 2016 | 10 | 22 | 0 | 0 |
| Olympic | 2017 | 103 | 66 | 0 | 0 |
| Olympic | 2018 | 74 | 26 | 0 | 0 |
| Olympic | 2019 | 71 | 102 | 0 | 0 |
| Olympic | 2020 | 62 | 81 | 0 | 0 |
| South Central | 2016 | 71 | 19 | 0 | 0 |
| South Central | 2017 | 156 | 24 | 0 | 0 |
| South Central | 2018 | 114 | 49 | 0 | 0 |
| South Central | 2019 | 99 | 26 | 1 | 0 |
| South Central | 2020 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Southwest | 2016 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Southwest | 2017 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Southwest | 2018 | 112 | 122 | 0 | 0 |
| Southwest | 2019 | 84 | 176 | 0 | 0 |
| Southwest | 2020 | 78 | 144 | 0 | 0 |
| Unknown | 2016 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Unknown | 2017 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Unknown | 2018 | 24 | 19 | 0 | 0 |
| Unknown | 2019 | 5 | 12 | 0 | 0 |
| Unknown | 2020 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 |

Analysis of wing collection data from 1993-2008 showed a significant decline in hunting pressure throughout the first month of the hunting season (Schroeder 2010). Therefore, current seasons that extend through December probably have very little impact on grouse populations in the later

Grouse Status and Trend Report 2021

months. Data from recent collections support this, with 35% of 2016-2020 samples harvested in the first two weeks of September.

Age data obtained from wing samples (proportion of juveniles relative to adults) can serve as an index to monitor trends in productivity of the forest grouse population. Hansen et al. (2011) found that age ratios from the first two weeks of the season were the best index to annual reproduction for forest grouse. From 2016 – 2020, the proportion of juveniles in harvested samples from 1 – 15 September are shown in Figure 4 and Table 2. For all species, the proportion of juveniles decreased in 2020.

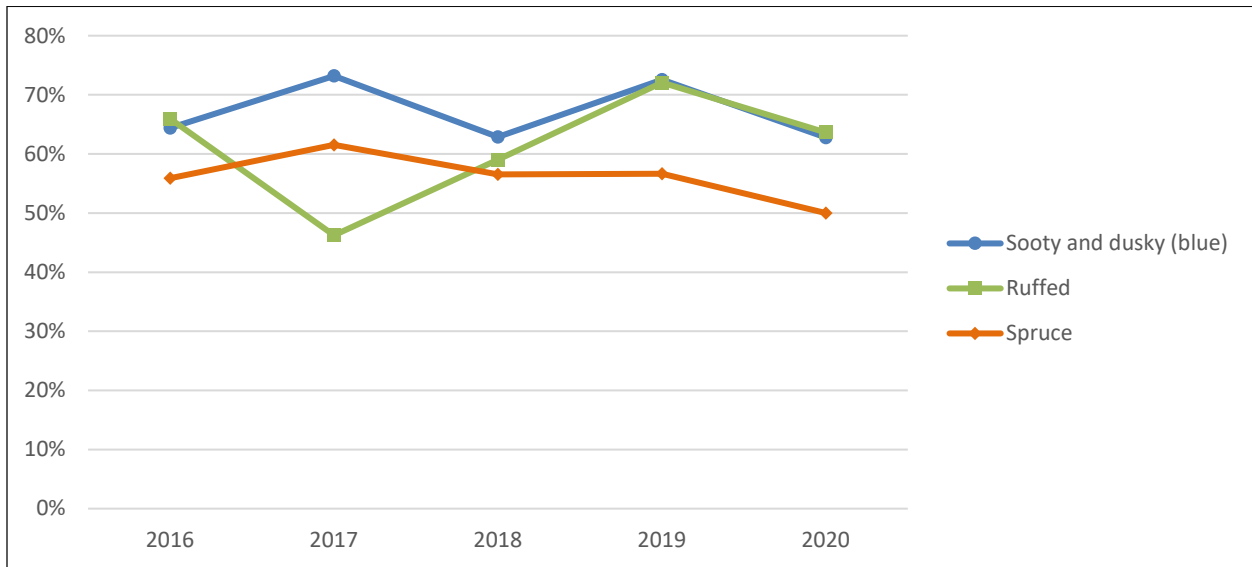


Figure 4. Proportion of juveniles relative to breeding-aged (adult) forest grouse in wing and tail samples submitted by hunters, 2016-2020. Samples were harvested between 1 – 15 Sep.

Breeding-aged females are an important demographic when monitoring the productivity of a population. For sooty, dusky, and spruce grouse, a wing sample is sufficient for identifying sex, however for ruffed grouse, both a wing and a tail are required. Due to low submissions of tails from hunters, sex data for ruffed grouse are limited. For dusky and sooty grouse, sex ratios are consistently skewed towards females, however data show a notable decrease in females from the early part of the season (1-15 Sep.) compared to the full season (Table 2). Schroeder (2010) found a similar pattern with longer-term data in Okanogan County: among blue grouse (mostly dusky), the sex ratio was 1.76 females:male during the first half of September and 1.04 females:male during the rest of the season. Among breeding-age spruce grouse, the sex ratio was 2.01 females:male during the first half of September and 0.80 females:male during the rest of the season. This indicates a disproportionate vulnerability of females to harvest during early September before broods have broken up.

Grouse Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 2. Sex and age ratios of harvested forest grouse from wing and tail collections, 2016-2020. Blue includes both sooty and dusky grouse. Early term is 1 – 15 Sep.; Full term is 1 Sep. – 31 Dec. Adults are breeding age (yearling or older); juveniles are young-of-year. Where sample size is insufficient (<30), results are not applicable, indicated by NA. Ruffed grouse cannot be identified by sex without a tail sample. Since tail submissions are few, sex-based metrics for ruffed grouse are excluded, indicated by NA.

| Year | Species | Term | Breeding age (adult) | | | JUVENILE | ADULT | % JUVENILE | JUVENILE: ADULT FEMALE |
|------|---------|-------|----------------------|------|----------|----------|-------|------------|------------------------|
| | | | FEMALE | MALE | % FEMALE | | | | |
| 2016 | BLUE | EARLY | 27 | 20 | 57% | 85 | 47 | 64% | 76:24 |
| 2016 | BLUE | FULL | 53 | 46 | 54% | 197 | 99 | 67% | 79:21 |
| 2017 | BLUE | EARLY | 39 | 24 | 62% | 172 | 63 | 73% | 82:18 |
| 2017 | BLUE | FULL | 87 | 79 | 52% | 415 | 166 | 71% | 83:17 |
| 2018 | BLUE | EARLY | 47 | 28 | 63% | 127 | 75 | 63% | 73:27 |
| 2018 | BLUE | FULL | 123 | 88 | 58% | 391 | 211 | 65% | 76:24 |
| 2019 | BLUE | EARLY | 36 | 31 | 54% | 177 | 67 | 73% | 83:17 |
| 2019 | BLUE | FULL | 84 | 76 | 53% | 357 | 160 | 69% | 81:19 |
| 2020 | BLUE | EARLY | 42 | 25 | 63% | 113 | 67 | 63% | 73:27 |
| 2020 | BLUE | FULL | 106 | 73 | 59% | 306 | 179 | 63% | 74:26 |
| 2016 | RUFFED | EARLY | 7 | 4 | NA | 64 | 33 | 66% | NA |
| 2016 | RUFFED | FULL | 9 | 7 | NA | 148 | 101 | 59% | NA |
| 2017 | RUFFED | EARLY | 13 | 3 | NA | 43 | 50 | 46% | NA |
| 2017 | RUFFED | FULL | 25 | 11 | NA | 185 | 152 | 55% | NA |
| 2018 | RUFFED | EARLY | 8 | 9 | NA | 62 | 43 | 59% | NA |
| 2018 | RUFFED | FULL | 12 | 22 | NA | 205 | 170 | 55% | NA |
| 2019 | RUFFED | EARLY | 6 | 4 | NA | 80 | 31 | 72% | NA |
| 2019 | RUFFED | FULL | 41 | 46 | NA | 312 | 218 | 59% | NA |
| 2020 | RUFFED | EARLY | 4 | 12 | NA | 49 | 28 | 64% | NA |
| 2020 | RUFFED | FULL | 39 | 70 | NA | 336 | 174 | 66% | NA |
| 2016 | SPRUCE | EARLY | 9 | 6 | NA | 19 | 15 | 56% | NA |
| 2016 | SPRUCE | FULL | 22 | 16 | 58% | 37 | 38 | 49% | 63:37 |
| 2017 | SPRUCE | EARLY | 10 | 5 | NA | 24 | 15 | 62% | 71:29 |
| 2017 | SPRUCE | FULL | 18 | 12 | 60% | 50 | 30 | 63% | 74:26 |
| 2018 | SPRUCE | EARLY | 6 | 4 | NA | 13 | 10 | NA | NA |
| 2018 | SPRUCE | FULL | 20 | 15 | 57% | 38 | 36 | 51% | 66:34 |
| 2019 | SPRUCE | EARLY | 6 | 7 | NA | 17 | 13 | 57% | NA |
| 2019 | SPRUCE | FULL | 11 | 17 | NA | 31 | 28 | 53% | 74:26 |
| 2020 | SPRUCE | EARLY | 12 | 7 | NA | 19 | 19 | 50% | 61:39 |
| 2020 | SPRUCE | FULL | 31 | 22 | 58% | 48 | 53 | 48% | 61:39 |

Habitat

Forest management and wildfire are the most significant factors influencing habitat condition and habitat losses for forest grouse populations statewide. Historically, timber harvest activities have been considered beneficial for most species of forest grouse. Recent changes to silviculture techniques such as using herbicide to control broadleaf species, which are considered important food resources for grouse, may play a significant role in the degree to which commercial forests

provide benefits. Future benefits from timber harvest will depend on the manner in which regenerating forests are managed. Regeneration techniques that include extensive broad leaf tree and shrub control, reduced stocking rates and cover density, and replanting with tree species that provide fewer habitat benefits can negatively impact grouse populations.

Wildfires are an important factor influencing grouse habitat in eastern Washington. Several large fires have occurred in forested areas of Region 2 since the early 1990s. Early successional shrub communities resulting from these fires will be beneficial to grouse for several years to come but this may be offset by loss of mature forest stands important to winter survival.

Supplementation of forest grouse populations is generally considered unnecessary in Washington. No large-scale efforts have been made to enhance habitat for forest grouse. However, WDFW Habitat Program staff frequently respond to Forest Practice Applications with recommendations to mitigate forest management impacts on wildlife. These recommendations commonly include the following: leaving large down logs in timber harvest areas as drumming logs for ruffed grouse; retaining large, “wolf-tree” Douglas-fir trees on ridge tops for blue grouse winter foraging and roosting, and seeding skid roads and log landings with clover and other grouse forage plants.

Management Conclusions

The effect of spring weather on chick production and survival is a well-known factor influencing variation in populations across regions and years. During the peak of hatching (late May-early June), wet and windy weather reduces chick survival due to exposure as well as reducing insect populations at the time when young grouse need a high-protein diet. Conversely, drought conditions can also reduce forage opportunities. Loss or changes in forest habitat may also be affecting populations and harvest opportunities.

Many factors influence forest grouse harvest which historically has been used as the primary population status indicator. A decline in hunter success rates indicates that the decline in harvest is not solely a result of declining hunter participation. The collection of grouse wings and tails provides some insights into population structure. Though the proportion of juveniles in the harvest is within the range documented by Schroeder (2010), hen vulnerability to harvest in early September may be a factor limiting production, especially in the areas most accessible to hunters. Limited inference is possible with only five years of data, but continued monitoring will improve our understanding of population trends.

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Private Lands Access

Private Lands Access Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

CIERA E. STRICKLAND, Private Lands Access Program Manager

Introduction

The Department's Private Lands Program promotes cooperation with landowners across the state to provide public access to private property while emphasizing hunting, fishing, wildlife viewing, endangered species conservation and habitat enhancement. One of the top goals is to encourage landowners to provide public access while addressing the costs that landowners incur when allowing the public on their property. A variety of incentives are available to landowners depending upon the property location, habitat(s), and current management of the property. These incentives can include monetary payments, land/habitat improvements, hunter management strategies, or Farm Bill technical assistance. The Private Lands Biologists assist the landowners through this process by serving as the program specialists for both the Private Lands and the Federal Farm Bill programs.

There are several funding sources that help fund the current private lands program. The work conducted within the private lands program is vast and aids in our ability to acquire a wide variety of funding sources. Currently, we work with both state and federal funding. The majority of current funding comes from the following sources; USFWS Pittman Robertson (PR) funds, State General Fund, species specific funds that come from hunting license sales, and funding from the Natural Resources Conservation Service through the Voluntary Public Access and Habitat Incentive Program (VPA-HIP) Grant. The latter provides most of the operational funding for the Private Lands Program over a three-year period. Much of this report will be addressing the specific objectives within that grant and the future direction of the program. It is important to note that the success of the program relies on partnerships with private landowners, sportsman's groups, and volunteers. Washington has several unique challenges when it comes to public access to privately owned land, and the program is constantly changing and adapting new ways to serve both private landowners and the public.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

The majority of enrolled landowners have a formal agreement with the Department; however, some industrial timber managers and/or large land parcel owners often work closely with field staff to facilitate public access for hunters without formal agreements.

The Private Lands Access Program operates and promotes the following five components of hunting access agreements:

- ***Feel Free to Hunt*** – This includes private lands where the Department has a management agreement with the landowner or organization to provide public access for hunting with minimal restrictions. This type of agreement provides the most open and unrestricted type of access for the public.

Private Lands Status and Trend Report 2021

- ***Register to Hunt*** – This includes private lands where the Department has a management agreement with the landowner or organization to regulate hunting access by on-site registration. Hunters are required to sign in using a registration slip found at the designated parking area. Parking is usually limited for these properties, to limit the number of hunters.
- ***Hunt by Reservation*** – This component of the private lands program launched in 2013. It is attractive to many landowners and organizations because it allows access to specific reservation and hunter information via a landowner portal. The Hunt by Reservation program is managed through an online registration system where hunters create an account in order to reserve available properties. The Hunt by Reservation program allows landowners to manage hunting on their lands, without direct contact with hunters.
- ***Hunt by Written Permission*** – This includes private lands where a landowner or organization voluntarily opens their land to public hunting on a contact-for-permission basis. Hunt by Written Permission requires the hunter to contact the Landowner directly, usually by phone, and usually meet in person to obtain written permission to hunt that property. Written permission is validated by the possession of a written slip, provided to the hunter by the landowner. The Department provides these slips to the landowner at the beginning of the hunting season, and we collect them at the end of the hunting season. The Hunt by Written Permission program allows for the greatest flexibility for landowners and is the most widely used access program.
- ***Landowner Hunting Permit (LHP)*** – This includes private lands where WDFW negotiates public hunting access to unique and/or hunting opportunities that would otherwise not exist. There is a formal application process that occurs every three years along with the 3-year season setting cycle. Landowners must apply, qualify, be accepted by program and regional staff, and then approved by the Wildlife Commission prior to being considered an LHP Landowner. Once approved by the Commission, landowners will work with regional WDFW staff to set customized hunting season opportunities on their property. During the three years, landowners must follow the standard operating procedure for the LHP Program and provide annual reports. These opportunities are also advertised annually in the Big Game Hunting Regulations and open to the public by special permit.

In early 2018, it was determined that the current system that contains the private lands data and information is no longer able to meet both the growing needs of the program and the needs of the public. The Department has plans to migrate the current system and the corresponding program data into a new and improved platform that will be maintained through a centralized system. There have been several hurdles which has prevented this new system being built. The system requirements are extremely intricate and involve numerous divisions within WDFW. This combined with the expected cost of production have presented WDFW with numerous challenges. In 2020, during the latter part of the initial development phase, total estimated costs of implementing a new system exceeded what funds were available to the Department at that time. New funding sources are now being investigated and discussions on attempting a phased-approach are being explored. As the Department moves out of the initial development phase and searches for other funding sources, staff continue to document and identify all necessary system

Private Lands Status and Trend Report 2021

requirements and upgrades. WDFW understands that this system is both beneficial and a source of frustration for users and continues to work hard to move forward with implementing a new system. WDFW anticipates the new system should be in production by Fall 2023.

In 2018, the Department introduced an initiative that focused on developing strategies to work with large industrial timber companies to acquire access for hunting and other forms of outdoor recreation. The Department is examining existing relationships and analyzing areas with limited private lands access. After the 2021 hunting season, the Department was successful in acquiring more than 750,000 acres of private industrial timber access across the state. It is the Department's goal to continue pursuing new opportunities for the public regarding access onto private industrialized timberland. The Department will also continue its focus on the development of new relationships and maintaining current relationships with timber companies across the state. Efforts regarding this initiative are ongoing.

In 2020, efforts began to further expand the Private Lands Access Program to include access opportunities for fishing and wildlife viewing on privately owned land. In the years leading up to this decision, the Department witnessed a desire from the public to provide opportunities for non-hunting related recreation on privately owned land. The Department also encountered many landowners who expressed a growing concern with the public requesting to access their lands for fishing or other forms of recreation. Fishing and wildlife viewing access are two major components in the 2020 VPA-HIP grant. We are actively searching for landowners interested in these types of opportunities, as well as continuing to expand on our existing hunting opportunities.

Landlocked public acreage has become a highlighted issue across the nation in the past year. WDFW is working with both internal and external partners to identify landlocked public lands throughout the state. In many cases, these public lands are landlocked by private land. Local WDFW staff continue to assist in negotiating access to these landlocked areas across the state. Over the next few years, this will be a priority for staff. Interagency cooperation will be crucial as we determine the best ways to acquire access to landlocked public lands across the state.

In early 2021, the Private Lands Access Program acquired management of the ADA Road Access Entry Program which was previously managed under a different group in the Wildlife Program. During the first year, the intent was to maintain the program under the status quo. However, as the program was implemented, it was determined that there would be many necessary changes in the upcoming years. One of the biggest concerns was the lack of outreach and communication to the ADA community regarding this program. There were also concerns on how to incorporate the necessary technological updates, while also providing the necessary level of assistance to those wanting to participate. The ADA Road Access Entry Program is multi-faceted and requires a lot of time and involvement from staff. Within the next few years, program staff hope to continue to improve communication and access opportunities available to the ADA community across the state.

Regional Information and Trends

Program objectives and priorities vary by region. The priorities are dependent on available habitat, species emphasis, and hunter access needs.

Conservation Reserve Program (CRP)

The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Farm Service Agency (FSA) held a general Conservation Reserve Program (CRP) signup from January 4th, 2021, to June 23rd, 2021. During the general sign up 623 contracts were enrolled into CRP for almost 110,000 acres statewide. As part of this signup, FSA moved State Acres for Wildlife Enhancement (SAFE) whole field practices (grasses and trees) back to Continuous CRP (CCRP) from the recent change to general CRP. During the sign up, producers enrolled 36 contracts into the SAFE program for more than 4,800 acres. Of note, in Douglas County, FSA cannot offer a CRP signup until enough contracts expire to get under the 25 percent county cropland acreage cap. There are a large amount of CRP contracts expiring this year in Douglas County and other SAFE heavy counties, so we are expecting a big SAFE signup there. WDFW's private lands biologists provided technical assistance to producers with new SAFE contracts as well as producers with prior SAFE contracts.

Region 1

Region 1 is one of the most diverse regions due to the latitudinal range of the region. This diversity encompasses many different landscapes, which provide unique hunting opportunities throughout the region. Region 1 continues to be a popular area for both upland bird hunting and big game hunting and possesses the largest acreage within the program. Region 1 also holds a significant amount of industrial timber land open to public access. Under the current 2020 VPA grant, the focus for this region is on big game and upland bird hunting opportunities, but new funding is also available to expand opportunities in waterfowl, turkey/dove, fishing, and wildlife viewing.

Region 2

Region 2 holds the second highest number of enrolled acreages in the state behind Region 1 and is one of the state's most popular areas for waterfowl and upland bird hunters. The Department is constantly exploring other opportunities to expand both waterfowl and upland hunting acreage in this region. Under the current 2020 VPA grant, the top three priority species for this region are big game, waterfowl, and upland bird hunting. There is also funding available for turkey/dove, and wildlife viewing in certain areas of the region.

Region 3

A large portion of the acres available in Region 3 are signed up through the Feel Free to Hunt program, primarily for deer and elk hunting. Within Kittitas County, just over 10,000 acres are available through the Hunt by Reservation program on the Puget Sound Energy Wild Horse Wind Facility in Ellensburg. There are also additional large acreage properties available for waterfowl hunting in the Register to Hunt program. Under the current 2020 VPA grant, the top priority species in this region are waterfowl, upland bird hunting, and big game. There are limited funds available for some fishing and wildlife viewing enhancement throughout the region.

Region 4

Efforts in this region are largely focused on waterfowl and industrial timber hunting access. Staff also work with landowners to improve access for deer, elk, and bear hunting. In Fall 2016, the Department extended recreational opportunities by signing agreements with landowners for wildlife viewing, which will be continued under the current 2020 VPA grant. The majority of

Private Lands Status and Trend Report 2021

contracts with large acreage parcels are with timber companies to facilitate deer, elk, and spring bear hunting access. Some of the waterfowl sites in Region 4 are in the Hunt by Reservation Program and can be extremely popular and hard to reserve. Hunters wishing to reserve these properties are encouraged to do research early. Some private land contracts in the northern part of the region also help landowners address crop damage problems posed by large numbers of snow geese migrating through the area. Waterfowl hunting is the largest priority for this region. However, under the 2020 VPA grant there is also funding available to expand big game, fishing, and wildlife viewing opportunities.

Region 5

The program in Region 5 has primarily focused on Klickitat County where the majority of the acreage has been enrolled in the Feel Free to Hunt program providing deer and turkey hunting opportunities. Other agreements within this region also provide upland bird hunting opportunities. Being previously understaffed, the region now has a full-time private lands biologist, and we expect to see some expansion for the program in this region in the upcoming years. As in regions 4 and 6, there is a good portion of land that is owned by private industrial timber companies. Regional staff have been successful working with several local companies to negotiate no fee access for the general public, especially for big game hunting. In the past year, there have been some significant expansions to the industrial timber acreage available to the public in this region. Under the current 2020 VPA grant, opportunities are vast in this region. There are funds available to aid expansion in big game, waterfowl, upland bird hunting, turkey/dove, fishing, and wildlife viewing.

Region 6

As in Region's 4 and 5, opportunities in Region 6 are vast. The large focus for acreage includes waterfowl hunting and industrial timber hunting access. Region 6 also has a few private properties that are popular for pheasant hunting. As in Region 4, a great deal of effort in Region 6 was devoted to working with large industrial timber companies that may not be enrolled in formal contracts. The relationships built between the private land's biologists and private landowners and industrial timber companies have facilitated public access and assisted the landowners with managing public recreation. Work in this area relies heavily on directing volunteer efforts to monitor use, discourage abuse of private lands, conduct cleanup of illegal dump sites, and maintain signage and gates. Much of the private industrial timberland acreage in Region 6 has landowner fee access requirements or is being privately leased. A few of these permit programs have limited hunter numbers. This trend is a growing concern for hunters who are finding it increasingly difficult to locate places to hunt, or they are not willing or able to pay fees for access. Under the current 2020 VPA grant, the top priority species for this region is waterfowl. However, there is also funding available for big game, fishing, and wildlife viewing opportunities.

The Department's Private Lands Access Program continues to be a valuable asset to the hunting public and to the landowners that choose to participate. Urban development and changing land uses have continued to reduce the amount of land available to hunters. The implementation of fee permits, exclusive leases, or access policies by industrial timberland owners is fast becoming a norm in Washington. As a result of the fee permits, the Department has continued to engage communication efforts with those large landowners. Most of the fee-based permit programs that have been implemented are of relatively high cost and have limited the ability of some hunters to acquire those permits. Presently, the Department does not have the resources to match the income

Private Lands Status and Trend Report 2021

potential of these programs. In some instances, the Department has been successful at encouraging landowners to increase the number of low-cost permits to allow additional hunters to access those properties. Hunters who are unwilling or unable to obtain permits are still forced to look elsewhere for hunting access, which will increase pressure on other private and public lands.

The Department is determined to increase public access and hunter opportunity. As situations and opportunities arise, the Department will continue to pursue funding sources and/or no cost agreements to improve recreational access for the public across the state of Washington.

Landowners or landholders interested in the Private Lands Program should visit WDFW's [Private Lands Program](#) webpage and contact your local Private Lands Biologist by referencing the work areas [map](#).

Access to private land is a privilege, not a right.

Literature Cited

Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2014. 2015-2021 Game Management Plan. Wildlife Program, Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife, Olympia, Washington, USA. [2015-2021 Game Management Plan](#)

| Timber acreage currently under negotiation or under non-formal agreements | | |
|---|----------|--------------------------------|
| Cooperators | Acreage | County |
| 4 | 45,000 | Pacific |
| 2 | 7,500 | Jefferson |
| 1 | 75,000 | Mason |
| 6 | 122,500 | Grays Harbor |
| 2 | 250,000* | Stevens, Pend Oreille, Spokane |

*Combined acreage across counties

| Feel Free to View | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|-------|-------|
| Cooperators | County | Acres | Sites |
| 1 | Grays Harbor | 1,349 | 1 |
| 3 | Skagit | 177 | 3 |

| Register to View | | | |
|------------------|----------|-------|-------|
| Cooperators | County | Acres | Sites |
| 1 | Franklin | 40 | 1 |
| 1 | Whitman | 4,512 | 1 |

| Feel Free to Fish | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------|-------|
| Cooperators | County | Acres/Feet | Sites |
| 2 | Chelan | 89 | 2 |
| 1 | Columbia | 1,795 feet | 1 |
| 5 | Walla Walla | 32,727 feet | 5 |
| 1 | Whitman | 167 | 1 |
| 1 | Grays Harbor | 70 | 1 |

| Region | Cooperators | Acres |
|----------|-------------|-----------|
| Region 1 | 283 | 468,840 |
| Region 2 | 129 | 302,398 |
| Region 3 | 39 | 175,090 |
| Region 4 | 42 | 21,347 |
| Region 5 | 12 | 80,210 |
| Region 6 | 9 | 182,067 |
| TOTALS | 514 | 1,229,952 |

Private Lands Status and Trend Report 2021

| County | Feel Free to Hunt | | Hunt by Reservation | | Register to Hunt | | Hunt by Written Permission | | Landowner Hunt Permit | | County Totals | |
|---------------|-------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------|---------------|----------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|
| | Cooperators | Acres | Cooperators | Acres | Cooperators | Acres | Cooperators | Acres | Cooperators | Acres | Cooperators | Acres |
| Adams | 8 | 6,428 | 8 | 3,447 | 1 | 960 | 44 | 94,331 | 0 | 0 | 61 | 105,166 |
| Asotin | 3 | 3,530 | 6 | 1,127 | 2 | 4,218 | 10 | 12,105 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 20,980 |
| Benton | 2 | 4,760 | 1 | 286 | 2 | 5,250 | 3 | 16,161 | * | 43,453 | 8 | 69,910 |
| Chelan | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Clallam | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Clark | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Columbia | 18 | 20,310 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 17,501 | 0 | 0 | 25 | 37,811 |
| Cowlitz | 2 | 315 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 315 |
| Douglas | 6 | 13,640 | 1 | 2,255 | 0 | 0 | 25 | 57,260 | 0 | 0 | 32 | 73,155 |
| Ferry | 2 | 36,206 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 2,873 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 39,079 |
| Franklin | 7 | 6,886 | 3 | 3,445 | 3 | 7,600 | 7 | 12,865 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 30,796 |
| Garfield | 9 | 8,476 | 1 | 649 | 1 | 1,837 | 13 | 24,160 | 0 | 0 | 24 | 35,122 |
| Grant | 6 | 10,126 | 3 | 18,564 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 57,847 | 1 | 37,540 | 36 | 124,077 |
| Grays Harbor | 2 | 87,793 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 143 | 1 | 353 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 88,289 |
| Island | 5 | 1,964 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1,964 |
| Jefferson | 0 | 0 | 1 | 118 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 118 |
| King | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kitsap | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kittitas | 0 | 0 | 2 | 11,520 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 11,520 |
| Klickitat | 3 | 60,634 | 2 | 708 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 40 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 61,382 |
| Lewis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5,400 | 1 | 5,400 |
| Lincoln | 5 | 4,909 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 22,005 | 0 | 0 | 24 | 26,914 |
| Mason | 3 | 87,845 | 1 | 415 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 88,260 |
| Okanogan | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pacific | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Pend Oreille | 4 | 46,408 | 1 | 238 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 46,646 |
| Pierce | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| San Juan | 0 | 0 | 5 | 186 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 186 |
| Skagit | 2 | 118 | 3 | 345 | 8 | 819 | 2 | 7,667 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 8,949 |
| Skamania | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Snohomish | 0 | 0 | 2 | 119 | 5 | 712 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 831 |
| Spokane | 2 | 33,005 | 2 | 2,191 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 6,950 | 1 | 2,878 | 14 | 45,024 |
| Stevens | 2 | 36,206 | 2 | 1,349 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 8,655 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 46,210 |
| Thurston | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | * | 5,400 | 0 | 5,400 |
| Wahkiakum | 1 | 12,854 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 259 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 13,113 |
| Walla Walla | 29 | 54,886 | 4 | 10,890 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 20,458 | 0 | 0 | 54 | 86,234 |
| Whatcom | 0 | 0 | 2 | 654 | 7 | 2,033 | 1 | 6,730 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 9,417 |
| Whitman | 7 | 5,248 | 49 | 49,979 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 29,593 | 0 | 0 | 86 | 84,820 |
| Yakima | 3 | 2,938 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 7,746 | 2 | 52,180 | 9 | 62,864 |
| Totals | 131 | 545,485 | 99 | 108,485 | 32 | 23,831 | 247 | 405,300 | 5 | 146,851 | 514 | 1,229,952 |

* Some landowners have acreage that spans multiple counties. For these situations, landowners are represented in EACH county that they own property, however, the overall acreage is split equally amongst the counties for the analysis. LHP is the one exception since there are only 5 landowners. These are represented in a single county and denoted by an (*).

Human- Wildlife Interaction

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report

STATEWIDE

Anis Aoude, Game Division Manager

Introduction

In recent years, the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) renewed its focus on human-wildlife conflict management. This report is intended to illustrate efforts to meet the Game Management Plan objectives while creating a historical account of human-wildlife conflict management actions. WDFW has implemented programs to provide opportunities for improved knowledge in developing specific strategies and tools for mitigating negative human-wildlife interactions in Washington for long-term sustainability of wildlife resources.

Social tolerance can be a limiting factor for species recovery and maintaining sustainable wild animal populations. Negative human-wildlife interactions decrease social tolerance of wildlife populations using otherwise available habitat. Through the application of integrated wildlife management techniques designed to prevent or mitigate negative human-wildlife interactions, WDFW can improve social tolerance of wild animals. By doing so, wildlife managers can increase wildlife populations by increasing use of existing habitat on heavily human influenced landscapes.

The convergence of human population expansion, nature-based tourism, and escalating interest in outdoor recreation is likely to result in increased frequency of negative or unwanted human-wildlife interactions. Maintaining a healthy ecosystem for humans and wildlife will require innovative approaches to minimize these conflicts. These approaches must include science-based decision making that incorporates public opinion for social context. WDFW is committed to informing and assisting the public to employ proactive measures and to provide a quick and effective response once unwanted interactions and property damage occur (Conover 2001).

WDFW conducted an opinion survey that identified 29% of the Washington public as having experienced negative situations or problems associated with wildlife (Duda et al. 2014). Deer and raccoons were the most commonly named species causing problems (35% and 25%, respectively), followed by bear (14%), geese (13%), and coyotes (10%; Duda et al. 2014).

WDFW has not always conducted formal assessments of negative human-wildlife interaction complaints. Current trends indicate that human-wildlife conflict resolution in Washington is a necessity, and traditional recreational harvest is not always effective in resolving negative interactions.

Management Guidelines and Objectives

In December 2014, WDFW published the Game Management Plan (WDFW 2014) which outlined three goals and 10 human-wildlife conflict management objectives with strategies designed to create an integrated system of management actions, data collection, and information sharing.

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report 2021

The goals for human-wildlife conflict management in Washington are to:

- 1) Improve our understanding and ability to predict human-wildlife conflict issues;
- 2) Enhance proactive measures to prevent negative human-wildlife interactions and improve agency response to interaction events; and
- 3) Minimize, mitigate, and manage negative human-wildlife interactions to maintain/increase human tolerance and perpetuate healthy and productive wildlife populations.

Management Actions

WDFW management actions are designed to minimize negative human-wildlife interaction and assist landowners with prevention, mitigation, and when necessary, compensation for property damage or loss (as provided by law). An effective strategy for managing negative human-wildlife interactions is to allow employees a degree of flexibility to test and implement new techniques while improving existing preventative and mitigation tools. WDFW Wildlife Conflict Specialists assess each scenario and use their professional judgment to determine the best course of action for interaction resolution.

In addition to accounting for negative human-wildlife interaction issues when setting recreational harvest seasons and limits, WDFW deploys other tools when traditional recreational harvest cannot resolve the issue. WDFW has used hunters to assist with deer, elk, and turkey damage issues and hound handlers, trappers, and hunters to assist with bear and cougar depredation events. In each case, there are criteria that must be met, and restrictions that direct the final disposition of the animal harvested.

WDFW continues to use a three-category system to respond to human-wildlife interaction issues: 1) public safety response, 2) non-public safety requiring assistance, and 3) self-help. Self-help involves referring a customer to the WDFW web site to obtain an answer to a wildlife-related damage problem, directing the customer to a list of certified Wildlife Control Operators available for hire, or directing the customer to contact the United States Department of Agriculture Wildlife Services for help in solving a conflict situation. Often the self-help tools are used to assist with damage situations involving small game, furbearers, and unclassified species (e.g., raccoons, beavers, coyotes, etc.). The WDFW Law Enforcement Program is primary for interactions affecting public safety that involve bear, cougar, moose, and wolves. Non-public safety wildlife interactions, including depredations involving deer, elk, turkey, black bear timber damage, and wolves, are generally resolved through the WDFW Wildlife Program.

Deer, elk, and turkey damage prevention and kill permits

Depending upon the circumstances, landowners may enter into a Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreement with WDFW to use non-lethal mitigation tools for damage caused by deer, elk, and turkey. If these mitigation tools are ineffective, a Wildlife Conflict Specialist may issue a damage prevention permit (DPP) or a kill permit (KP) to a landowner that allows for the removal of one or more offending animals through the use of licensed hunters or agency kill authority. During the 2020 damage season (April 2019–March 2020), a total of 2,395 permits were issued to remove offending deer, elk, and turkey (Table 1).

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 1. Total damage prevention (DPP) and kill permits (KP) issued by Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife Region for deer, elk, and turkey, April 2019–March 2020.

| Permit | Region 1 | Region 2 | Region 3 | Region 4 | Region 5 | Region 6 | Total |
|--------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------|
| DPP Deer | 295 | 8 | 84 | 29 | 1 | 23 | 440 |
| KP Deer | 123 | 27 | 16 | 15 | 2 | 38 | 221 |
| DPP Elk | 91 | 8 | 502 | 27 | 61 | 151 | 840 |
| KP Elk | 247 | 21 | 34 | 49 | 45 | 118 | 514 |
| DPP Turkey | 5 | - | - | - | - | - | 5 |
| KP Turkey | 335 | 40 | - | - | - | - | 375 |
| Total | 1096 | 104 | 636 | 120 | 109 | 330 | 2,395 |

Licensed hunters with a DPP must purchase a Damage Tag to participate in a deer or elk damage resolution hunt and can retain the deer or elk. Hunters purchased 305 deer Damage Tags and 539 elk Damage Tags during the 2020 damage season; of those Damage Tag holders who reported (403 tag holders reported), 274 deer and elk were harvested for an estimated success rate of 68% statewide (Table 2).

Table 2. Total reported successful harvest by hunters with deer and elk Damage Tags for each Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife Region, April 2019–March 2020.

| Damage Tag Type | Region 1 | Region 2 | Region 3 | Region 4 | Region 5 | Region 6 | Total |
|-----------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Deer | 104 | 1 | 31 | 1 | - | 1 | 138 |
| Elk | 21 | 1 | 55 | 8 | 13 | 38 | 136 |
| Total | 125 | 2 | 86 | 9 | 13 | 39 | 274 |

Black Bear Timber Damage

Black bears emerge from winter dens when food sources are relatively scarce and may strip bark off certain species of trees to access the carbohydrate-rich cambium. Bark stripping or "peeling" may hinder the growth of the tree or kill it, causing the potential for financial loss to commercial timber growers. The damage period occurs from approximately April through June and ends once other food sources, such as berries, become more abundant.

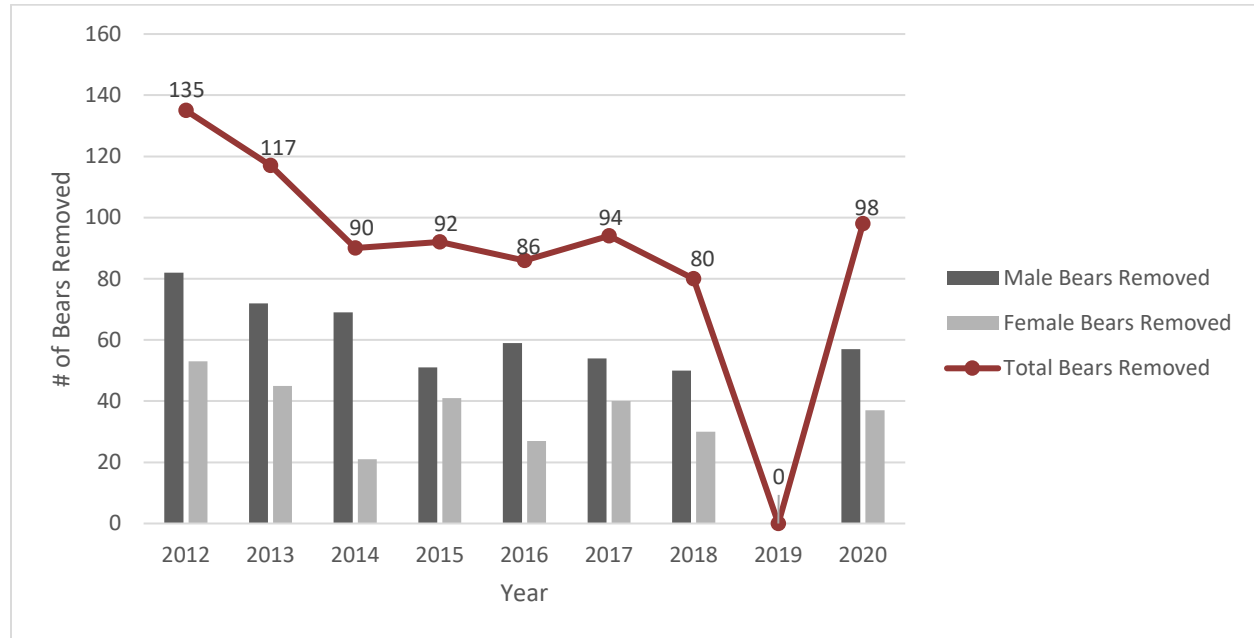
Commercial forest landowners and managers experiencing timber damage caused by black bears may request a black bear timber damage depredation permit. This permit request requires evidence of damage from the landowner/manager, typically in the form of a date-stamped photograph, and must specify the damage location, requested removal method, and who will participate on the permit. The number of bear timber damage depredation permits issued (123 permits in 2012 and 84 permits in 2018) and the number of bears removed (Table 3) varied from 2012–2018 but have generally declined.

Due to litigation resulting in an injunction against the State of Washington (*Center for Biological Diversity v. WDFW, Thurston Co. Superior Court*), no depredation permits were issued during 2019 season. After the courts ruled in favor of the Department, issuance of depredation permits

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report 2021

resumed for the 2020 season with 76 permits issued with 98 bears removed. The following information is provided to illustrate historical trends.

Table 3. Number of male and female black bears removed annually during the bear timber damage period, 2012–2020.



A total of 98 bears were removed during the 2020 timber damage period, including 59 males (58.2%) and 37 females (37.8%).

The 2020 black bear harvest total, which includes the total recreational harvest, the spring permit hunt, and bear timber damage removals was 2,144 bears statewide. Black bear timber damage removals represented 4.6% of the total statewide harvest.

Carnivore (black bear, cougar, and wolf) depredation on livestock

Accounts of managing and response to livestock losses and injury caused by black bears and cougars are described under those sections. Please see the Wildlife Damage Claims section below for detail regarding compensation claims during fiscal year 2020.

Cost-share and Prevention measures for livestock losses

WDFW offers cost-sharing with livestock producers for deploying conflict prevention measures to minimize livestock loss to wolves. Producers who sign a Damage Prevention Cooperative Agreement for Livestock (DPCA-L) may receive cost-share funds to assist them with installing and using non-lethal conflict prevention tools. The agreements can last up to one-year. They may be signed at any time during a fiscal year and end at the close of the fiscal year. Potential prevention measures that may be included in a DPCA-L include: Sanitation (fencing bone yards, surrounding carcasses with fladry, or removing carcasses), providing deterrence tools (screamers, range riders, guard dogs, radio-activated guard boxes, fladry, predator fencing, electric fencing, bio fencing), and protecting livestock rearing areas. The most common measures deployed by

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report 2021

producers under DPCA-Ls are range riding and sanitation. Cost-share amounts can vary depending on the livestock operation, location of the livestock herd in relation to wolves, proactive measures selected, and duration. During fiscal year 2020 (July 1, 2019 – June 30, 2020), there were 29 DPCA-Ls written with livestock producers statewide.

In addition to DPCA-Ls, WDFW also contracted range riders to assist ranchers in an effort to minimize livestock losses caused by wolves. Range riders are skilled at assessing potential wolf presence within the vicinity of livestock and provide consistent human presence with livestock while on grazing allotments. Range rider duties include, but are not limited to: monitoring the health and behavior of a herd; seeking out signs of wolf or other carnivore activity in the area; implementing tools and techniques that minimize predation risk; deploying non-lethal hazing techniques; trying more intensive livestock management, or any number of other techniques or combination of techniques; and frequent communication with the livestock producer and WDFW staff regarding planned livestock movements and grazing plans. During fiscal year 2020, WDFW had 10 range rider contracts which utilized up to 17 different riders throughout the year.

Wildlife Damage Claims

Agriculture

Commercial agriculture producers who meet the definition of “eligible farmer” (Revised Code of Washington 82.08.855), have cooperated with WDFW prior to claim initiation, and experience crop damage from deer and elk may be eligible for compensation from the state. Funds for compensation are appropriated through legislation. The payment of a claim is conditional on meeting specific criteria [Washington Administrative Code (WAC) 220-440-140 and 220-440-150] and the availability of specific funding for this purpose. Reimbursement for damage claims is not guaranteed. The total compensation paid for deer and elk crop damage claims in fiscal year 2021 (July 1, 2020 – June 30, 2021) was \$175,138.00.

Livestock

Commercial livestock producers who experience livestock loss caused by bear, cougar, or wolf may be eligible for compensation under WAC 220-440-170 and WAC 220-440-180. Similar to the deer and elk claims, payment is conditional upon meeting specific criteria and the availability of specific funding for this purpose. Reimbursement for damage claims is not guaranteed. The total compensation paid for direct livestock losses (i.e., losses determined by WDFW to be confirmed or probable) caused by wolves in fiscal year 2021 was \$45,887.85. The total compensation paid for direct livestock losses caused by cougars in fiscal year 2021 was \$7,306.33.

In the latter part of fiscal year 2016, the WDFW established an independent, five-member Livestock Review Board (LRB) to evaluate claims and make recommendations to WDFW for indirect livestock losses due to harassment by wolves, including greater than normal losses, reduced weight gains, and reduced pregnancy rates in livestock. The LRB consists of two livestock producers, two members from the environmental community, and a rangeland scientist. The Department carefully evaluates and considers the recommendation from the LRB when considering settlement of an indirect livestock loss claim.

Wildlife Control Operators

Wildlife Control Operators (WCO) are private individuals who are certified by WDFW to assist landowners in the prevention or control of wildlife-related damage, for a fee. A WCO is allowed to harass, control, and/or trap various small game, furbearer species, unclassified wildlife, and predatory birds. WCOs are not certified to handle nuisance issues involving deer, elk, cougar, bear, moose, wolf, bighorn sheep, mountain goat, turkey, or protected or endangered wildlife.

The WCO program is administered through the statewide Wildlife Conflict Management and Prevention Section at the WDFW office in Olympia. Classes for WCO certification were originally held four times per year, alternating between the Olympia and Spokane WDFW offices. As of August 2020, the training transitioned to a virtual platform in response to COVID-19. With increased capacity for statewide attendance, the virtual trainings have been hosted twice in the last year. Once a person meets all the requirements for becoming a WCO (WAC 220-440-100), completes the WCO training and passes the qualifying exam, they are presented with a certificate valid for three years that allows the individual to handle specific nuisance wildlife issues year-round and statewide. Twenty-one (21) people completed training and were certified as WCOs in 2020 compared to 15 people in 2019. Currently, there are 237 people in Washington State with valid WCO certificates.

Special Trapping Permit

Property owners who are experiencing wildlife-related damage to their property are allowed to mitigate the problem by capturing and/or removing the species responsible, with exceptions. In some cases, when nonlethal measures have been deemed ineffective, a property owner may apply for a special trapping permit (STP), valid for 30 days, authorizing the use of one or more body-gripping traps. Body-gripping traps that may be authorized under a STP include a Conibear-type trap in water, a padded-jaw leg-hold trap, and a non-strangling foot snare.

During 2020, 531 STPs were issued statewide which allowed for removal of certain wildlife causing damage to public or private property. The 2020 value is a decrease from the 629 permits issued in 2019. The most common authorization requested was for trapping mountain beaver within industrial timberlands.

In 2020, requests for STPs and corresponding wildlife removals were variable by month, but the highest numbers generally occurred fall through spring. Special Trapping Permit requests and the number of animals removed using STPs were highest in western Washington counties.

Human-Wildlife Interaction Status and Trend Report 2021

Table 4. Total number of individual animals reported trapped for the six most common wildlife species removed using Special Trapping Permits in 2020.

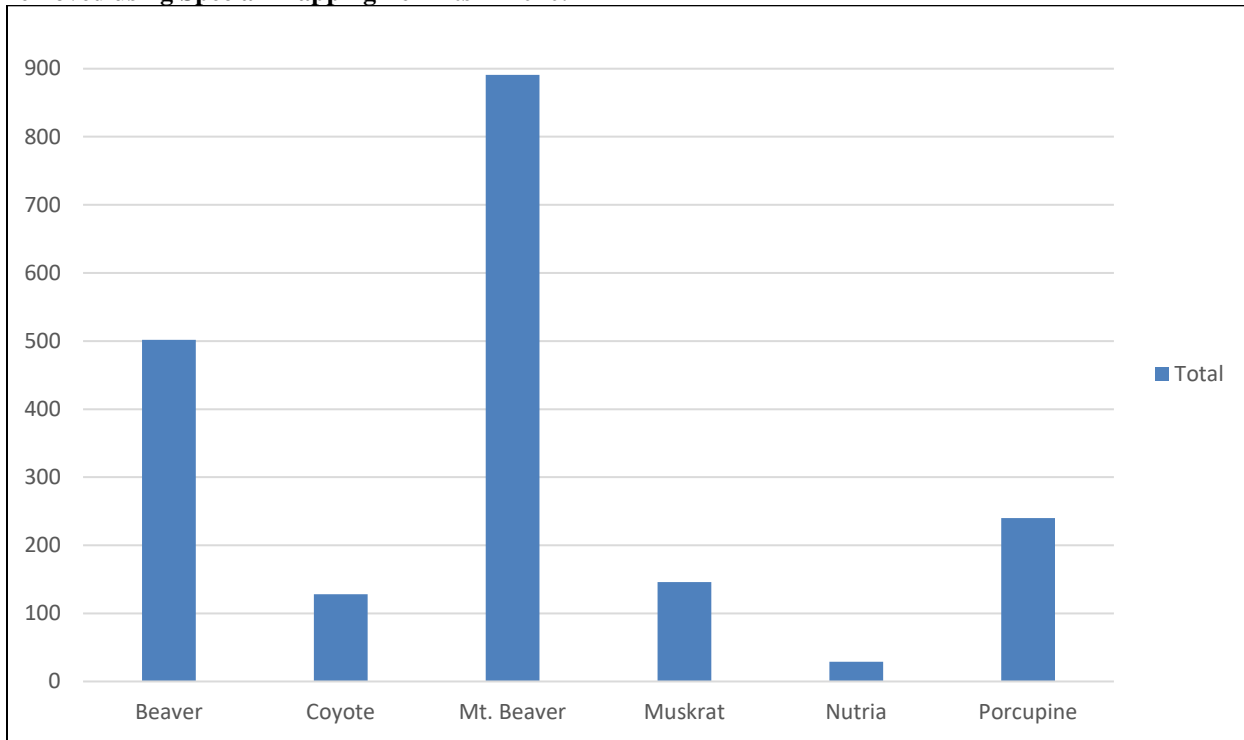
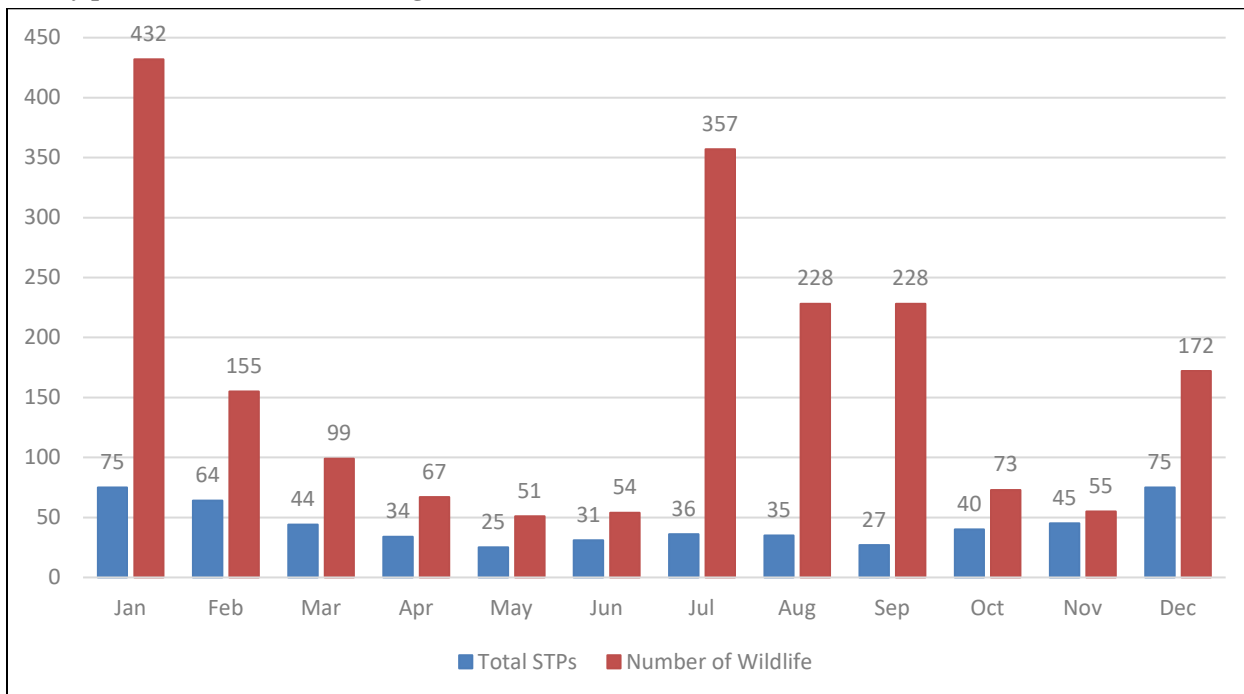


Table 5. Total number of wild animals reported trapped with Special Trapping Permits (STP) and the total STPs in each month, 2020. The number of wildlife reported trapped in each month is based on reporting for 30-day permits that ended within a given month.



Management Conclusions

Minimizing the potential for negative human-wildlife interaction is a critical key to North American wildlife management in the 21st century. Doing so increases the social tolerance for wildlife living in habitat that might otherwise be unavailable to many species including big game. Managing and preventing wildlife conflict requires the use of a variety of adaptable tools and techniques to ensure sustainable wildlife populations without negatively impacting our natural resources or the livelihoods of Washington residents. Food resources, such as agriculture crops, livestock, or unnatural attractants in the vicinity of residences can lead to potential conflict.

During 2020, WDFW improved data collection methods, increased response to conflict issues, deployed new methods and techniques for managing conflict, and increased information sharing for mitigating negative encounters. The WDFW Wildlife Conflict Management and Prevention section is committed to continued improvement in managing negative human-wildlife interactions using a combination of best science and best business practices. Some of the remaining challenges for effective human-wildlife conflict management include: 1) improving rules that address the primary conflict issues, 2) developing policies and procedures that facilitate a smooth process by which actions can be deployed, 3) furthering appropriate data collection to direct management activities, and 4), testing new and evaluating existing wildlife management techniques targeted to mitigate or prevent conflict. An additional challenge and objective for the upcoming years is to improve outreach and information sharing through the use of multimedia approaches (e.g., print, audio, visual, and social media platforms).

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