

Request for Incidental Harassment Authorization for the
Incidental Harassment of Marine Mammals Resulting
from Office of Naval Research Arctic Research Activities
September 2024– September 2025

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ADCP	Acoustic Doppler Current Profiler
AEWC	Alaska Eskimo Whaling Commission
AMOS	Arctic Mobile Observing System
ARA	Arctic Research Activities
AWSC	Arctic Waterways Safety Commission
BRF	Behavioral Response Function
CF	correction factor
CGC	Coast Guard Cutter
cm	centimeter(s)
CV	Coefficients of Variation
dB	decibel(s)
dB re 1 μ Pa at 1 m	decibel(s) referenced to 1 micropascal at 1 meter
EEZ	Exclusive Economic Zone
ESA	Endangered Species Act
Ft	foot/feet
FR	Federal Register
Hz	Hertz
ICMP	Integrated Comprehensive Monitoring Program
IGB	Ice Gateway Buoy
IHA	Incidental Harassment Authorization
in	inch(es)
kHz	kilohertz
km	kilometer(s)
km/day	kilometers per day
km ²	square kilometers
m	meter(s)
m/s	meters per second
MMPA	Marine Mammal Protection Act
N	population estimate
NAEMO	Navy Acoustic Effects Model
Navy	United States Department of the Navy
nm	nautical miles
NMFS	National Marine Fisheries Service
OEA	Overseas Environmental Assessment
ONR	Office of Naval Research
PBR	Potential biological removal
PL	Public Law
PTS	Permanent Threshold Shift
R/V	Research Vessel
RL	Received Level
rms	Root mean square
SEL	Sound Exposure Level
SPL	Sound Pressure Level
SPL _{rms}	Sound pressure level (root mean square)
TTS	Temporary Threshold Shift
U.S.	United States
U.S.C.	United States Code
UUV	unmanned underwater vehicle
VLf	very low frequency
WHOI	Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution

1 Description of Activities

A detailed description of the specific activity or class of activities that can be expected to result in incidental taking of marine mammals.

1.1 Introduction

The United States (U.S.) Department of the Navy (Navy) has prepared this request for an Incidental Harassment Authorization (IHA) for the incidental taking (as defined in Section 5) of marine mammals during the Office of Naval Research (ONR) Arctic Research Activities (ARA) proposed within the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas from September 2024 to September 2025.

The Navy prepared an Overseas Environmental Assessment (OEA) for the ARA Study Area to evaluate all components of the Proposed Action from September 2022 to September 2025. This OEA considered the continuation of Arctic research as previously covered by an OEA prepared in 2018 and all associated consultations. A description of the Proposed Action for which the Navy is requesting an IHA is provided in Section 1.2. A description of the Study Area and various components is provided in Section 2.

This document has been prepared in accordance with the applicable regulations of the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), as amended by the National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2004 (Public Law [PL] 108-136) and its implementing regulations. The request for IHA is based on: (1) the analysis of spatial and temporal distributions of protected marine mammals in the Study Area, (2) the review of aspects of the testing activities that have the potential to incidentally harass marine mammals, and (3) a risk assessment to determine the likelihood of effects. This chapter describes the aspects of the testing activities that are likely to result in Level B harassment under the MMPA; no Level A harassment or mortality would occur as a result of the Proposed Action. Of the Navy activities analyzed, the Navy has determined that the use of acoustic sources and noise associated with icebreaking have the potential to affect marine mammals that may be present within the Study Area, and rise to the level of harassment under the MMPA.

1.2 Proposed Action

ONR's Proposed Action, called ARA, is to conduct scientific research in the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas from September 2024 to September 2025. Overall, the Proposed Action during this time period is a modification of current Arctic research activities that reduces the effects on the environment, specifically with regards to takes of marine mammals. This research comprises cruises that would occur between September 2024 and September 2025; acoustic testing would take place during the cruises, and a multi-frequency navigation system concept test would continue to employ sources left behind previously. The next research cruise would begin on September 2, 2024, with the potential for an additional research cruise to take place in the summer of 2025 depending on research needs and vessel availability. The Proposed Action includes multiple scientific objectives that support the Arctic and Global Prediction Program. The Proposed Action constitutes the development of a modified system under the ONR Arctic Mobile Observing System (AMOS) involving very-low-, low-, and mid-frequency transmissions (35 Hertz [Hz], 900 Hz, and 10 kilohertz [kHz] respectively). The AMOS project would utilize acoustic sources and receivers to provide a means of performing under-ice navigation for gliders and unmanned undersea vehicles (UUVs). This would allow for the possibility of year-round scientific observations of Arctic environmental phenomena. As an environment particularly affected by climate change, year-round observations under a variety of ice conditions are required to study the effects of this changing

environment for military readiness, as well as the implications of environmental change to humans and animals. Very-low frequency technology is an important method of observing ocean warming, and the continued development of these types of acoustic sources would allow for characterization of larger areas. The technology also has the potential to allow for further development and use of navigational systems that would not be heard by some marine mammal species, and therefore would be less impactful overall.

The Proposed Action would occur within the Study Area (Figure 1-1), which includes both the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), the global commons, and the Canadian EEZ. The Proposed Action would primarily occur in the Beaufort Sea, but the analysis considers the drifting of active sources on buoys into the eastern portion of the Chukchi Sea. The closest point of the Study Area to the Alaska coast is 110 nautical miles (nm; 204 kilometers [km]). To allow for the equipment drift or the need to navigate around ice, small areas of the Canadian EEZ are also included in the Study Area; the appropriate permission for conducting scientific research in the Canadian EEZ would be obtained from Canada in the form of a Marine Scientific Research (MSR) permit. The map shows the positions of fixed sources. Drifting sources would only be active within the Study Area.

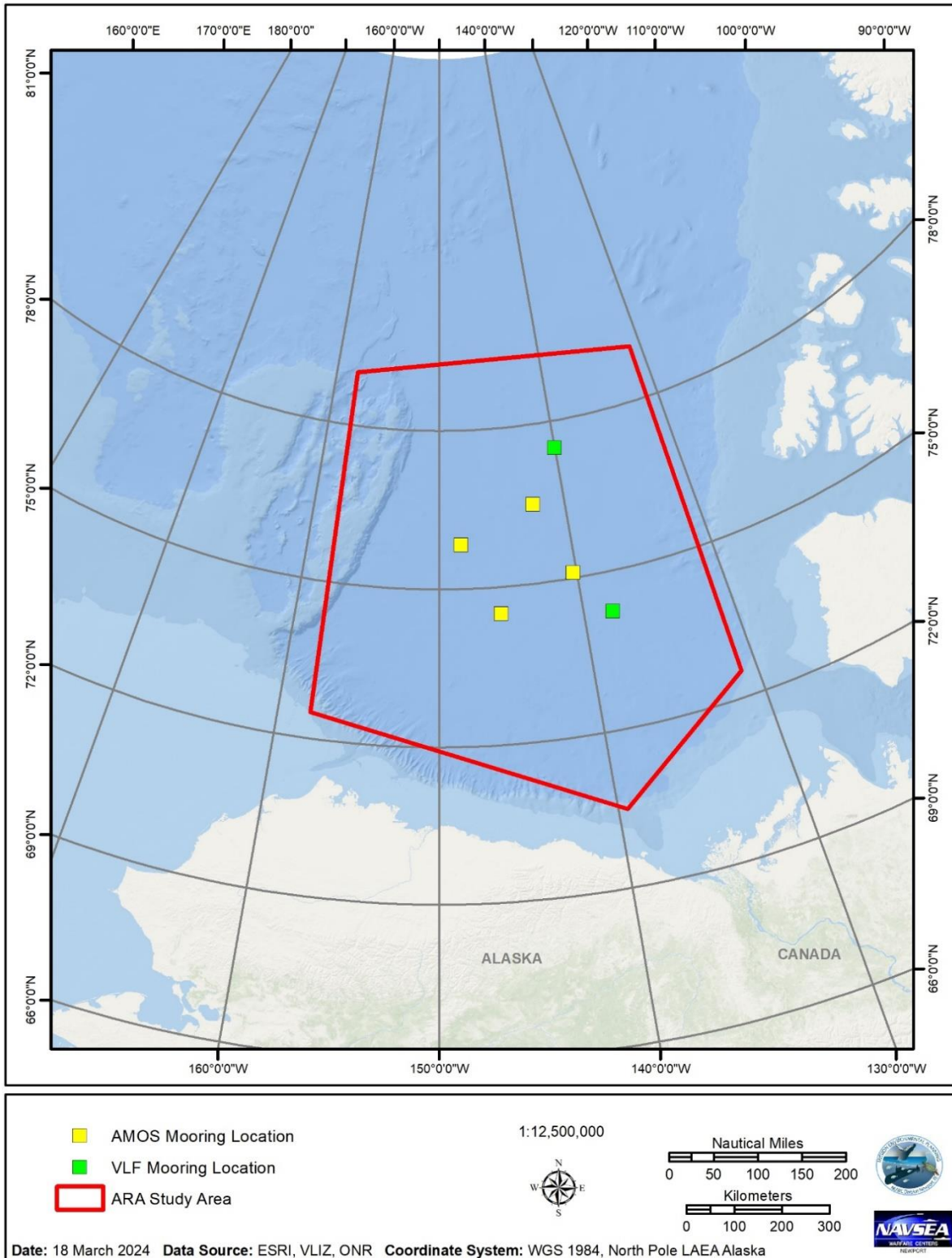


Figure 1-1. Arctic Study Area and Locations of Moored Sources (Although all moorings are considered part of the AMOS project, the moorings with only VLF sound sources are specifically denoted)

1.3 Research Equipment and Platforms

Below are the descriptions of the equipment and platforms, which would be deployed at different times during the Proposed Action.

1.3.1 Glider Surveys

Glider surveys are proposed for the research cruise. All gliders would be recovered; some may be recovered during the cruise, but the remainder would be recovered at a later date. Up to four gliders would be deployed during the research cruise as part of on-ice operations (one to two gliders would be associated with each on-ice station).

Long-endurance, autonomous seagliders (Figure 1-2) are intended for use in extended missions in ice-covered waters. Gliders are buoyancy-driven, equipped with satellite modems providing two-way communication, and are capable of transiting to depths of up to 3,280 feet (ft; 1,000 meters [m]). Gliders would collect data in the area of the shallow water sources and moored sources, moving at a speed of 0.25 meters per second (m/s; 23 kilometers per day [km/day]). A combination of recent advances in Seaglider technology would provide full-year endurance. When operating in ice-covered waters, gliders navigate by trilateration (the process of determining location by measurement of distances, using the geometry of circles, spheres or triangles) from moored acoustic sound sources (or dead reckoning should navigation signals be unavailable); they do not contain any active acoustic sources. Hibernating gliders would continue to track their position, waking to reposition should they drift too far from their target region. Gliders would measure temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen, rates of dissipation of temperature variance (and vertical turbulent diffusivity), and multi-spectral downwelling irradiance.



Figure 1-2. Example of Seagliders

1.3.2 Research Vessels

The R/V Sikuliaq would perform the research cruise in September 2024, and conduct testing of acoustic sources during the cruise, as well as leave sources behind to operate as a year-round navigation system observation. The ship to be used in a potential 2025 cruise is yet to be determined. The most probable option would be the Coast Guard Cutter (CGC) HEALY, so that ship is described here.

The R/V Sikuliaq has a maximum speed of approximately 12 knots with a cruising speed of 11 knots (University of Alaska Fairbanks 2014). The R/V Sikuliaq is not an ice breaking ship, but an ice strengthened ship. It would not be icebreaking and therefore acoustic signatures of icebreaking for the R/V Sikuliaq are not relevant. CGC HEALY travels at a maximum speed of 17 knots with a cruising speed of 12 knots (United States Coast Guard 2013), and a maximum speed of 3 knots when traveling through 3.5 feet (ft; 1.07 meters [m]) of sea ice (Murphy 2010). While no icebreaking cruise on the CGC HEALY is scheduled during the IHA period, need may arise. Therefore, for the purposes of this IHA application, an icebreaking cruise is considered.

The R/V Sikuliaq, CGC HEALY, or any other vessel operating a research cruise associated with the Proposed Action may perform the following activities during their research cruises:

- Deployment of moored and/or ice-tethered passive sensors (oceanographic measurement devices, acoustic receivers);
- Deployment of moored and/or ice-tethered active acoustic sources to transmit acoustic signals;
- Deployment of UUVs;
- Deployment of drifting buoys, with or without acoustic sources; or,
- Recovery of equipment.

1.1.1.1 Active Acoustic Sources

Active acoustic sources would be lowered from the cruise vessel while stationary, deployed on gliders and UUVs, or deployed on fixed AMOS and VLF moorings. During the research cruise, acoustic sources would be deployed from the ship for intermittent testing of the system components. The testing would take place in the vicinity of the source locations in Figure 1-1. During this testing, 35 Hz, 900 Hz, 10 kHz, and acoustic modems would be employed. No UUV use is planned during the September 2024 research cruise, but may be included in future test plans.

Up to four fixed acoustic navigation sources transmitting at 900 Hz would remain in place for a year. These moorings would be anchored on the seabed and held in the water column with subsurface buoys. All sources would be deployed by shipboard winches, which would lower sources and receivers in a controlled manner. Anchors would be steel “wagon wheels” typically used for this type of deployment. Two very-low frequency (VLF) sources transmitting at 35 Hz would be deployed in a similar manner. Two drifting Ice Gateway Buoys (IGB) would also be configured with active acoustic sources.

Autonomous vehicles would be able to navigate by receiving acoustic signals from multiple locations and triangulating. This is needed for vehicles that are under ice and cannot communicate with satellites. Source transmits would be offset by 15 minutes from each other (i.e. sources would not be transmitting at the same time). All navigation sources would be recovered. The purpose of the navigation sources is to orient UUVs and gliders in situations when they are under ice and cannot communicate with satellites.

Table 1-1. Characteristics of Modeled Acoustic Sources for the Proposed Action

<i>Platform (total number deployed)</i>	<i>Acoustic Source</i>	<i>Purpose/Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Signal Strength (dB re 1μPa @ 1 m)</i>	<i>Pulse Width/Duty Cycle</i>
REMUS 600 UUV ¹ (up to 1)	WHOI Micro-modem	Acoustic communications	900-950 Hz	NTE 180 dB by sys design limits	5 pings/hour with 30 sec pulse length.
	UUV/WHOI Micro-modem	Acoustic communications	8-14 kHz	NTE 185 dB by sys design limits	10% average duty cycle, with 4 sec pulse length
IGB (drifting) (2)	WHOI Micro-modem	Acoustic communications	900-950 Hz	NTE 180 dB by sys design limits	Transmit every 4 hours, 30 sec pulse length
	WHOI Micro-modem	Acoustic communications	8-14 kHz	NTE 185 dB by sys design limits	Typically receive only. Transmit is very intermittent.
Mooring (6)	WHOI Micro-modem (4)	Acoustic Navigation	900-950 Hz	NTE 180 dB by sys design limits	Transmit every 4 hours, 30 sec pulse length
	VLF (2)	Acoustic Navigation	35 Hz	NTE 190 dB	Up to 4 times per day, 10 minutes each.

Note: dB re 1 μ Pa at 1 m= decibels referenced to 1 micropascal at 1 meter; Hz= Hertz; IGB= Ice Gateway Buoy; kHz= kilohertz; NTE= not to exceed; VLF= very low frequency; WHOI= Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution

¹ REMUS use is not anticipated during the September 2024 cruise, but is included in case of future use during the IHA period

1.1.1.2 *De minimis* Sources

De minimis sources have the following parameters: low source levels, narrow beams, downward directed transmission, short pulse lengths, frequencies above (outside) known marine mammal hearing ranges, or some combination of these factors (Department of the Navy 2013). Additionally, any sources 200 kHz or above in frequency and 160 decibels (dB) or below in source level are automatically considered *de minimis*. Sources 200 kHz or above are considered outside of marine mammal hearing ranges. Assuming spherical spreading for a 160 decibels referenced to 1 microPascal (dB re 1 μ Pa) source, the sound will attenuate to less than 140 dB within 32 ft (10 m) and less than 120 dB within 328 ft (100 m) of the source. Ranges would be even shorter for a source less than 160 dB re 1 μ Pa source level. All of the sources described in this section are considered *de minimis* (Table 1-2).

The following are some of the planned *de minimis* sources which would be used during the Proposed Action: Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (WHOI) micromodem, Acoustic Doppler Current Profilers (ADCPs), ice profilers, and additional sources below 160 dB re 1 μ Pa used during towing operations. ADCPs may be used on moorings. Ice-profilers measure ice properties and roughness. The ADCPs and ice-profilers would all be above 200 kHz and therefore out of marine mammal hearing ranges, with the exception of the 75 kHz ADCP which has the characteristics and *de minimis* justification listed in Table 1-2. They may be employed on moorings or UUVs.

A WHOI micromodem will also be employed during the leave behind period. In contrast with the WHOI micromodem usage described in Table 1-1, which covers the use of the micromodem during research cruises, the use of the source during the leave behind period differs in nature. During this period, it is being used for very intermittent communication with vehicles to communicate vehicle status for safety of navigation purposes, and is treated as *de minimis* while employed in this manner.

Table 1-2. Parameters for De Minimis Non-Impulsive Acoustic Sources

<i>Source Name</i>	<i>Frequency Range (kHz)</i>	<i>Sound Pressure Level (dB re 1 μPa at 1 m)</i>	<i>Pulse Length (seconds)</i>	<i>Duty Cycle (Percent)</i>	<i>De minimis Justification</i>
ADCP	>200, 150, or 75	190	<0.001	<0.1	Very low pulse length, narrow beam, moderate source level
Nortek Signature 500 kHz Doppler Velocity Log	500	214	<0.1	<13	Very high frequency
CTD Attached Echosounder	5-20	160	0.004	2	Very low source level

Note: CTD = Conductivity Temperature Depth

1.3.2.1 Drifting Oceanographic Sensors

Observations of ocean-ice interactions require the use of sensors that are moored and embedded in the ice. For the Proposed Action, it will not be required to break ice to do this, as deployments can be performed in areas of low ice-coverage or free floating ice. Sensors are deployed within a few dozen meters of each other on the same ice floe. Three types of sensors would be used: autonomous ocean flux buoys, Integrated Autonomous Drifters, and ice-tethered profilers. The autonomous ocean flux buoys measure oceanographic properties just below the ocean-ice interface. The autonomous ocean flux buoys would have ADCPs and temperature chains attached, to measure temperature, salinity, and other ocean parameters the top 20 ft (6 m) of the water column. Integrated Autonomous Drifters would have a long temperate string extending down to 656 ft (200 m) depth and would incorporate meteorological sensors, and a temperature spring to estimate ice thickness. The ice-tethered profilers would collect information on ocean temperature, salinity and velocity down to 820 ft (250 m) depth.

Up to 20 Argo-type autonomous profiling floats may be deployed in the central Beaufort Sea. Argo float drift at 4,921 ft (1,500 m) depth, profiling from 6,562 ft (2,000 m) to the sea surface once every 10 days to collect profiles of temperature and salinity.

1.3.2.2 Moored Oceanographic Sensors

Moored sensors would capture a range of ice, ocean, and atmospheric conditions on a year-round basis. These would be bottom anchored, sub-surface moorings measuring velocity, temperature, and salinity in the upper 1,640 ft (500 m) of the water column. The moorings also collect high-resolution acoustic measurements of the ice using the ice profilers described above. Ice velocity and surface waves would be measured by 500 kHz multibeam sonars from Nortek Signatures (Table 1-2).

1.3.3 On-Ice Measurement Systems

On-ice measurement systems would be used to collect weather data. These would include an Autonomous Weather Station and an Ice Mass Balance Buoy. The Autonomous Weather Station would be deployed on a tripod; the tripod has insulated foot platforms that are frozen into the ice. The system would consist of an anemometer, humidity sensor, and pressure sensor. The Autonomous Weather Station also includes an altimeter that is *de minimis* due to its very high frequency (200 kHz). The Ice Mass Balance Buoy is a 20 ft (6 m) sensor string, which is deployed through a 2 inch (in; 5 centimeters [cm]) hole drilled into the ice. The string is weighted by a 2.2 lb (1 kg) lead weight, and is supported by a tripod. The buoy contains a *de minimis* 200 kHz altimeter and snow depth sensor. Autonomous Weather Stations and Ice Mass Balance Buoys will be deployed, and will drift with the ice, making measurements, until their host ice floes melt, thus destroying the instruments (likely in summer, roughly one year after deployment). After the on-ice instruments are destroyed they cannot be recovered, and would sink to the seafloor as their host ice floes melted.

2 Dates, Duration, and Geographic Region

The date(s) and duration of such activity and the specific geographical region where it will occur.

The Proposed Action would occur in the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas, as shown in Figure 1-1. The ARA Study Area encompasses an area of 639,237 square kilometers (km²). The Proposed Action would take place year round. Currently, the proposed R/V Sikuliaq cruise would occur from September 2 through September 19, 2024. A second research cruise, using R/V Sikuliaq or CGC HEALY, may occur during the summer or fall of 2025.

The Navy requests that IHA renewal text be added to the IHA.

3 Species and Numbers of Marine Mammals

The species and numbers of marine mammals likely to be found within the activity area.

The following marine mammals are managed by the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) and are expected in the Study Area during the Proposed Action: beluga whale (*Delphinapterus leucas*), bowhead whale (*Balaena mysticetus*), gray whale (*Eschrichtius robustus*), bearded seal (*Erignathus barbatus*), spotted seal (*Phoca largha*), ribbon seal (*Histiophoca fasciata*), and ringed seal (*Phoca hispida*).

Activities conducted during the Proposed Action are expected to cause harassment, as defined by the MMPA as it applies to military readiness (Section 5), to the beluga whale and ringed seal. Since there were no calculated exposures for the bowhead whale, bearded seal, gray whale, spotted seal, and ribbon seal from quantitative modeling of acoustic sources, harassment is not expected, and therefore, those species will not be discussed in this IHA.

Population estimates for the species discussed in this IHA are found in Table 3-1. Additional relevant information on the beluga whale and ringed seal status, life history, and distribution are presented in Section 4.

Table 3-1. Population Sizes of Species within Study Area

<i>Species</i>	<i>ESA Status</i>	<i>Stock</i>	<i>Population Size (Potential Biological Removal)</i>	<i>Source¹</i>
Beluga whale	Not listed	Beaufort Sea	39,258 (Undet. ²)	Muto et al. (2020b), Duval (1993)
		Eastern Chukchi Sea	13,305 (178)	Givens et al. (2020)
Ringed seal	Threatened	Arctic	171,418 (4,755)	Conn et al. (2014)

¹Abundance data and sources from the 2022 Alaska Stock Assessment Report (Young et al. 2023) and the 2019 Alaska Stock Assessment Report (Muto et al. 2020b).

²Potential biological removal for this stock is considered undetermined due to a lack of abundance estimates less than eight years old.

4 Affected Species Status and Distribution

A description of the status, distribution, and seasonal distribution (when applicable) of the affected species or stocks of marine mammals likely to be affected by such activities.

Relevant information regarding the status, life history and distribution of the beluga whale and ringed seal are presented below, as well as additional information about the number of animals anticipated to be present within the Study Area.

4.1 Beluga whale (Beaufort Sea Stock)

4.1.1 Regional and Seasonal Distribution

Beluga whales are distributed throughout seasonally ice-covered arctic and subarctic waters of the Northern Hemisphere (Gurevich 1980), and are closely associated with open leads and polynyas in ice-covered regions (Hazard 1988). Belugas are both migratory and residential (non-migratory), depending on the population. Furthermore, depending on season and region, beluga whales may occur in both offshore and coastal waters, with summer concentrations in upper Cook Inlet, Bristol Bay, the eastern Bering Sea (i.e., Yukon Delta, Norton Sound), eastern Chukchi Sea, and the Mackenzie Delta (Hazard 1988). Beluga whales are found primarily in shallow coastal waters (in depths as shallow as 3 to 10 ft [1 to 3 m]), but can be found in waters deeper than 2,624 ft (800 m) (Jefferson et al. 2012; Richard et al. 2001).

Seasonal distribution is affected by ice cover, tidal conditions, and access to prey, temperature, and human interaction (Frost et al. 1985). A 2016 study observed that irregular sea ice conditions during the spring and summer months can influence beluga whales to adjust their migratory tracks to summering areas (O'Corry-Crowe et al. 2016). There are two migration areas used by belugas that overlap the Study Area. One, located in the Eastern Chukchi and Alaskan Beaufort Sea, is a migration area in use from April to May. The second, located in the Alaskan Beaufort Sea, is used by migrating belugas from September to October (Calambokidis et al. 2015). During the winter, they can be found foraging in offshore waters associated with pack ice. When the sea ice melts in summer, they move to warmer coastal areas and Canadian waters of the Beaufort Sea (Muto et al. 2021). Annual migrations can span over thousands of kilometers (Richard et al. 2001). The residential populations participate in short distance movements within their range throughout the year. Based on satellite tags (Suydam et al. 2001) there is some overlap in distribution with the eastern Chukchi Sea beluga whale stock.

4.1.2 Population and Abundance

4.1.2.1 Status of Stock

Beluga whales from this stock are not designated as depleted under the MMPA or listed as threatened or endangered under the Endangered Species Act (ESA). The sources of information to estimate abundance for belugas in the waters of northern Alaska and western Canada have included both opportunistic and systematic observations. The most recent aerial survey was conducted in July 1992, and resulted in an estimate of 19,629 (Coefficients of Variation [CV] = 0.229) beluga whales in the eastern Beaufort Sea (Harwood et al. 1996). Duval (1993) recommended a correction factor (CF), resulting in a population abundance estimate of 39,258 (or 19,629 X 2), which was not data-based. The

1992 surveys did not encompass the entire summer range of Beaufort Sea belugas (Richard et al. 2001), thus are negatively biased.

Using the population estimate (N) of 39,258 whales and an associated CV(N) of 0.229, the minimum population estimate for this stock is 32,453 whales (Muto et al. 2021). Because the survey data are more than 8 years old, it would not be considered a reliable minimum population estimate for calculating a potential biological removal (PBR; defined by the MMPA as the maximum number of animals, not including natural mortalities, that can be removed from a marine mammal stock while allowing the stock to reach or maintain an optimum stable population) and minimum population estimate is considered unknown. However, trend data from Harwood and Kingsley (2013) indicate the stock is at least stable or increasing; therefore, the Alaska Scientific Review Group¹ recommended at the 2014 meeting that NMFS retain the minimum population estimate of 32,453 whales. Due to a lack of population estimates less than eight years old, there is no potential biological removal.

4.1.2.2 Density

The beluga whale density numbers utilized for quantitative acoustic modeling are from the Navy Marine Species Density Database (U.S. Department of the Navy 2014). Where available (i.e., June through October over the continental shelf primarily), density estimates used were from Duke density modeling based on line-transect surveys (Cañadas et al. 2020), and the remaining seasons and geographic area were based on the habitat-based modeling by Kaschner *et al.* (2006) and Kaschner (2004). Density throughout the Study Area varies geographically and monthly. The range of densities in the Study Area during September ranges from 0.000506 to 0.5176 animals per km²; density values during the warm season change based on collected data but remain near these values. Cold season densities range from 0.002277 to 0.009109 animals per km². Density is not distinguished by stock in the Arctic for beluga whales.

4.1.3 Hearing and Vocalization

In general, odontocete hearing is very broad, including low-frequency, mid-frequency, and high-frequency cetaceans. Beluga whales are members of the mid-frequency cetacean functional hearing group, which also includes 32 species of dolphins and sperm whales. Functional hearing in mid-frequency cetaceans is conservatively estimated to be between 150 Hz and 160 kHz (National Marine Fisheries Service 2018; Southall et al. 2007). Castellote et al. (2014) found that wild beluga whales can hear in the range of 4 to 150 kHz. Klishin et al. (2000) tested a single beluga whale and found its hearing to be most sensitive from 32 to 108 kHz. Mid-frequency cetaceans also generate short-duration (50-200 microseconds) specialized clicks used in echolocation with peak at frequencies between 10 and 200 kHz (Au 1993; Wartzok and Ketten 1999). Echolocation is used to detect, localize, and characterize underwater objects, including prey items (Au 1993). These clicks are often more intense than other communicative signals, with reported source levels as high as 229 decibels references to 1 micropascal (dB re 1 μ Pa) at 1 m peak-to-peak (Au et al. 1974). In addition to echolocation clicks, beluga whales also produce whistles, pulsed calls, and combined calls (Au et al. 1985; Fish and Mowbray 1962).

¹Scientific Review Group: Advise NMFS and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service on the status of marine mammal stocks (under Section 117 of the MMPA) within three areas: Alaskan waters; Atlantic Ocean, including the Gulf of Mexico; and Pacific Ocean, including Hawaii.

4.2 Beluga whale (Eastern Chukchi Sea Stock)

4.2.1 Regional and Seasonal Distribution

Beluga whales are distributed throughout seasonally ice-covered arctic and subarctic waters of the Northern Hemisphere (Gurevich 1980), and are closely associated with open leads and polynyas in ice-covered regions (Hazard 1988). Depending on season and region, beluga whales may occur in both offshore and coastal waters, with summer concentrations in upper Cook Inlet, Bristol Bay, the eastern Bering Sea (i.e., Yukon Delta, Norton Sound), eastern Chukchi Sea, and the Mackenzie Delta (Hazard 1988). Seasonal distribution is affected by ice cover, tidal conditions, and access to prey, temperature, and human interaction (Frost et al. 1985). During the winter, they occur in offshore waters associated with pack ice. Eastern Chukchi Sea belugas move into coastal areas, including Kasegaluk Lagoon (outside of the Study Area), in late June and animals are sighted in the area until about mid-July (Frost and Lowry 1990; Frost et al. 1993).

Satellite tags attached to eastern Chukchi belugas captured in Kasegaluk Lagoon during the summer showed these whales traveled 593 nm (1,100 km) north of the Alaska coastline, into the Canadian Beaufort Sea within three months (Suydam et al. 2001). Satellite telemetry data from 23 whales tagged during 1998–2007 suggest variation in movement patterns for different age and/or sex classes during July–September (Suydam et al. 2005). Adult males used deeper waters and remained there for the duration of the summer; all belugas that moved into the Arctic Ocean (north of 75°N) were males, and males traveled through 90 percent pack ice cover to reach deeper waters in the Beaufort Sea and Arctic Ocean (79–80°N) by late July/early August. Adult and immature female belugas remained at or near the shelf break in the Chukchi Sea. After October, only six tags continued to transmit, and those whales migrated south through the eastern Bering Strait into the northern Bering Sea, remaining north of Saint Lawrence Island over the winter. A whale tagged in the eastern Chukchi Sea in 2007 overwintered in the waters north of Saint Lawrence Island during 2007/2008 and moved to near King Island in April and May before moving north through the Bering Strait in late May and early June (Suydam 2009).

4.2.2 Population and Abundance

4.2.2.1 Status of Stock

Beluga whales from this stock are not designated as depleted under the MMPA or listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA. According to Muto et al. (2021) it is not possible to estimate the abundance for this stock. DeMaster et al. (1998) conducted aerial surveys in the eastern Chukchi Sea resulting in a maximum single day count of 1,172 whales, but a large number of whales were unavailable for counting and a CF does not exist for beluga whales. Frost et al. (1993) estimated a minimum size of the eastern Chukchi beluga whale stock at 1,200, based on counts of animals from aerial surveys conducted during 1989–1991. If this count is corrected for the proportion of whales submerged and not visible, as well as the proportion of newborns and yearlings not observed, the resulting abundance estimate is 3,710 whales.

Summer aerial survey data from the Beaufort Sea, after the stock migrated through the eastern Chukchi Sea, was used to derive a population abundance estimate (Clarke et al. 2018; Young et al. 2023). This was based off an area in the Beaufort Sea (140 °W to 157 °W) and time period (19 July–20 August) when the eastern Chukchi Sea and Beaufort Sea stocks did not overlap (Hauser et al. 2014; Lowry et al. 2017). Geographically stratified line-transect analysis resulted in the following population estimates of the Eastern Chukchi Sea beluga whales in the aforementioned study area for each year from 2012 to 2017, respectively: 7,355 (CV=0.47), 6,813 (CV=0.47), 16,598 (CV=0.49), 6,456 (CV=0.48), 6,965 (CV=0.49) and

13,305 (CV=0.51) (Givens et al. 2020); these estimates incorporate a CF of 1.85 for submerged whales (Lowry et al. 2017). While the assumption that the eastern Chukchi Sea stock and Beaufort Sea stock whales do not overlap in time and space in this region is flawed (O’Corry-Crowe et al. 2018; Young et al. 2023), the Givens et al. (2020) estimate of 13,305 (CV=0.51) is currently considered the best abundance estimate for the eastern Chukchi Sea stock.

4.2.2.2 Density

See Section 4.1.2.2 above, as density is not distinguished by stock in the Arctic for beluga whales.

4.2.3 Hearing and Vocalization

See Section 4.1.3 above, as hearing and vocalizations are not distinguished by stock for beluga whales.

4.3 Ringed Seal (Arctic Stock)

4.3.1 Regional and Seasonal Distribution

Ringed seals are the most common pinniped in the Study Area and have wide distribution in seasonally and permanently ice-covered waters of the Northern Hemisphere (North Atlantic Marine Mammal Commission 2004). Throughout their range, ringed seals have an affinity for ice-covered waters and are well adapted to occupying both shore-fast and pack ice (Kelly 1988b). Ringed seals can be found further offshore than other pinnipeds since they can maintain breathing holes in ice thickness greater than 6.6 ft (2 m) (Smith and Stirling 1975). Breathing holes are maintained by ringed seals’ sharp teeth and claws on their fore flippers. They remain in contact with ice most of the year and use it as a platform for molting in late spring to early summer, for pupping and nursing in late winter to early spring, and for resting at other times of the year (Muto et al. 2021).

Ringed seals have at least two distinct types of subnivean lairs: haulout lairs and birthing lairs (Smith and Stirling 1975). Haulout lairs are typically single-chambered and offer protection from predators and cold weather (Hauser et al. 2021). Birthing lairs are larger, multi-chambered areas that are used for pupping in addition to protection from predators. Ringed seals pup on both land-fast ice as well as stable pack ice. Lentfer (1972) found that ringed seals north of Barrow, Alaska build their subnivean lairs on the pack ice near pressure ridges. Since subnivean lairs were found in pack ice north of Barrow, Alaska, they are also assumed to be found within the sea ice in the Study Area. Ringed seals excavate subnivean lairs in drifts over their breathing holes in the ice, in which they rest, give birth, and nurse their pups for five to nine weeks during late winter and spring (Chapskii 1940; McLaren 1958; Smith and Stirling 1975). Snow depths of at least 20–26 in (50–65 cm) are required for functional birth lairs (Kelly 1988a; Lydersen 1998; Lydersen and Gjertz 1986; Smith and Stirling 1975), and such depths typically are found only where 8–12 in (20–30 cm) or more of snow has accumulated on flat ice and then drifted along pressure ridges or ice hummocks (Hammill 2008; Lydersen et al. 1990; Lydersen and Ryg 1991; Smith and Lydersen 1991). Ringed seals are born beginning in March, but the majority of births occur in early April. About a month after parturition, mating begins in late April and early May.

In Alaskan waters, during winter and early spring when sea ice is at its maximal extent, ringed seals are abundant in the northern Bering Sea, Norton and Kotzebue Sounds, and throughout the Chukchi and Beaufort seas (Frost 1985; Kelly 1988b). Passive acoustic monitoring of ringed seals from a high frequency recording package deployed at a depth of 787 ft (240 m) in the Chukchi Sea (65 nm) 120 km north-northwest of Barrow, Alaska detected ringed seals in the area between mid- December and late May over the four year study (Jones et al. 2014). With the onset of the fall freeze, ringed seal movements become increasingly restricted and seals will either move west and south with the

advancing ice pack with many seals dispersing throughout the Chukchi and Bering Seas, or remain in the Beaufort Sea (Crawford et al. 2012; Frost and Lowry 1984; Harwood et al. 2012). Kelly et al., (2010a) tracked home ranges for ringed seals in the subnivean period (using shore fast ice); the size of the home ranges varied from less than 1 up to 27.9 km²; (median is 0.62 km² for adult males and 0.65 km² for adult females). Most (94 percent) of the home ranges were less than 3 km² during the subnivean period (Kelly et al. 2010a). Near large polynyas, ringed seals maintain ranges, up to 7,000 km² during winter and 2,100 km² during spring (Born et al. 2004). Some adult ringed seals return to the same small home ranges they occupied during the previous winter (Kelly et al. 2010a). However, the size of winter home ranges can vary, up to a factor of 10, depending on the amount of fast ice; seal movements were more restricted during winters with extensive fast ice, and were much less restricted where fast ice did not form at high levels (Harwood et al. 2015).

4.3.2 Population and Abundance

4.3.2.1 Status of Stock

Ringed seals from the Arctic stock are designated as depleted under the MMPA and listed as threatened under the ESA. The taxonomic status of the Arctic subspecies remains unresolved (Berta and Churchill 2012). For the purposes of this analysis, the Arctic stock of ringed seals is considered the portion of the Arctic subspecies (*P. hispida hispida*) that occurs within the U.S. EEZ of the Beaufort, Chukchi, and Bering seas. In 2022, NMFS designated critical habitat for the Arctic subspecies of ringed seal (87 FR 19232; April 1, 2022). The ringed seal critical habitat includes regions of the northern Bering, Chukchi, and Beaufort Seas, but it does not overlap with the Study Area. Ringed seal population surveys in Alaska have used various methods and assumptions, had incomplete coverage of their habitats and range, and were conducted more than a decade ago; therefore, current, comprehensive, and reliable abundance estimates or trends for the Arctic stock are not available (Muto et al. 2016; Muto et al. 2020a). Although a reliable population estimate is not available for the entire stock, survey methods have been developed and applied to substantial portions of the Arctic stocks range in U.S. waters. Frost et al. (2004) conducted surveys within 21.6 nm (40 km) of shore in the Alaska Beaufort Sea during May-June 1996-1999, and observed ringed seal densities ranging from 0.81 seal/km² in 1996 to 1.17 seals/km² in 1999. Moulton et al. (2002) conducted similar, concurrent surveys in the Alaska Beaufort Sea during 1997-1999 but reported substantially lower ringed seal densities (0.43, 0.39, and 0.63 seals/km² in 1997-1999, respectively) than Frost et al. (2004). Using the most recent estimates from surveys by Bengtson et al. (2005) and Frost et al. (2004) in the late 1990s and 2000, Kelly et al. (2010b) estimated the total population in the Alaska Chukchi and Beaufort seas to be at least 300,000 ringed seals, which Kelly et al. (2010b) states is likely an underestimate since the Beaufort surveys were limited to within 21.6 nm (40 km) of shore.

A minimum population density estimate cannot be determined for the entirety of the U.S. portion of the stock (Muto et al. 2021). Conn et al. (2014) used a sub-sample of data collected from aerial abundance and distribution surveys over the ice-covered portions of the Bering Sea (Moreland et al. 2013). Conn et al. (2014) calculated an abundance estimate of 171,418 in the U.S. portion of the Bering Sea, with a minimum population estimate of 158,507 seals. Based on this estimate, the potential biological removal for the U.S. portion of the Arctic stock is 4,755 seals (Muto et al. 2021). The population abundance and minimum population abundance estimates are considered negatively biased, as the estimate is based only on the Bering Sea and does not consider ringed seals inhabiting the Chukchi and Beaufort seas, as well does not consider seals found in the water at the time of the aerial surveys (Conn et al. 2014; Kelly et al. 2010b; Laidre et al. 2015). Population trend data for the Arctic stock of ringed seals are not currently available.

4.3.2.2 Density

The density estimates for ringed seal are based on the habitat suitability modeling by Kaschner et al. (2006) and Kaschner (2004). There is no seasonal fidelity associated with ringed seal density; densities within the Study Area range from 0.1108 to 0.3562 animals per km².

4.3.3 Hearing and Vocalization

Ringed seals fall into the phocid seal hearing group. Functional hearing limits for this hearing group are estimated to be 75 Hz–30 kHz in air and 75 Hz–75 kHz in water (Kastak and Schusterman 1999; Kastelein et al. 2009a; Kastelein et al. 2009b; Møhl 1968a, 1968b; Reichmuth 2008; Terhune and Ronald 1971, 1972). Phocids can make calls between 90 Hz and 16 kHz (Richardson et al. 1995). The generalized hearing for phocids (underwater) ranges from 50 Hz to 86 kHz (National Marine Fisheries Service 2016), which includes the suggested auditory bandwidth for pinnipeds in water proposed by Southall et al. (2007), ranging between 75 Hz to 75 kHz. Based on a study by Sills et al. (2015), the best frequencies for ringed seal underwater hearing were 12.8 and 25.6 kHz at 49 and 50 dB re 1μPa at 1 m, respectively; in air, the best sensitivity was measured at 4.5 kHz at -12 dB re 1μPa at 1 m. The best hearing range for ringed seals combined was 0.4 to 52 kHz (Sills et al. 2015). Data on ringed seal hearing indicates an upper frequency limit to be 60 kHz (Terhune and Ronald 1976), which falls within the phocid hearing group.

5 Type of Incidental Taking Authorization Requested

The type of incidental taking authorization that is being requested (i.e., takes by harassment only, takes by harassment, injury and/or death), and the method of incidental taking.

5.1 Take Authorization Request

The Navy is requesting an IHA for the incidental taking of a specified number of beluga whales from the Beaufort Sea and Eastern Chukchi Sea stocks, and ringed seals from the Arctic stock, incidental to proposed 2024-2025 ARA activities in the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas. This taking would occur as a result of non-impulsive acoustic sources during these activities. The term “take,” as defined in Section 3 (16 United States Code [U.S.C.] § 1362 (13)) of the MMPA, means “to harass, hunt, capture, or kill, or attempt to harass, hunt, capture, or kill any marine mammal.” “Harassment” was further defined in the 1994 amendments to the MMPA, which provided two levels of harassment: Level A (potential injury) and Level B (potential disturbance).

The Proposed Action constitutes a military readiness activity as defined in Public Law 107-314 (Migratory Bird Treaty Act (as amended) at 16 U.S.C. § 703 note) because these proposed scientific research activities directly support the “adequate and realistic testing of military equipment, vehicles, weapons, and sensors for proper operation and suitability for combat use” by providing critical data on the changing natural and physical environment in which such materiel will be assessed and deployed. This proposed scientific research also directly supports fleet training and operations by providing up to date information and data on the natural and physical environment essential to training and operations. For military readiness activities, the relevant definition of harassment is any act that:

- Injures or has the significant potential to injure a marine mammal or marine mammal stock in the wild (“Level A harassment”); or
- Disturbs or is likely to disturb a marine mammal or marine mammal stock in the wild by causing disruption of natural behavioral patterns including, but not limited to, migration, surfacing, nursing, breeding, feeding, or sheltering to a point where such behavioral patterns are abandoned or significantly altered (“Level B harassment”) [16 U.S.C. § 1362(18)(B)(i) and (ii)].

The Preferred Alternative of the Overseas Environmental Assessment for ARA analyzed the following stressors for potential impacts to marine mammals:

- Acoustic (non-impulsive acoustic sources, noise from icebreaking vessel [“icebreaking noise”], and vessel noise)
- Physical disturbance and strikes (icebreaking impacts, vessel and in-water vehicle strike, and bottom disturbance)
- Expended material (entanglement and ingestion)

In that analysis, the Navy determined the only stressors that could potentially result in the incidental taking of marine mammals (beluga whale and ringed seal) are from non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise.

5.2 Incidental Take Request

The methods of incidental take associated with the non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise from the Proposed Action are described within Section 6. Non-impulsive acoustic source noise from research activities and icebreaking noise have the potential to disturb or displace marine mammals and may result in “take” in the form of Level B harassment. Mitigation and monitoring measures discussed in Sections 11 and 13 will be implemented to further minimize the potential for takes of marine mammals. Table 5-1 summarizes the Navy’s final take request based on quantitative acoustic modeling for the 2024-25 ARA year-round research activities. Only Level B takes are anticipated to occur from the Proposed Action. Derivation of these values is described in more detail in Section 6.

Table 5-1. Total Number of Level B Takes Requested for Marine Mammals During 2024-25 ARA

<i>Common Name</i>	<i>Takes Requested</i>	
	<i>Level B</i>	<i>Level A</i>
Beluga whale (Beaufort Sea Stock)	99	0
Beluga whale (Eastern Chukchi Sea Stock)	99	0
Ringed seal	904	0

6 Take Estimates for Marine Mammals

By age, sex, and reproductive condition (if possible), the number of marine mammals (by species) that may be taken by each type of taking identified in Chapter 5, and the number of times such takings by each type of taking are likely to occur.

The methods for estimating the number and types of takes identified in Chapter 5 are provided below. The method is consistent with that of the Phase III Atlantic Fleet Training and Testing and Hawaii and Southern California Training and Testing Environmental Impact Statements/Overseas Environmental Impact Statements (Department of the Navy 2018) marine mammal modeling and the Navy and NMFS acoustic criteria (National Marine Fisheries Service 2016). The stressors that are estimated to result in Level B harassment are non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise.

The information presented in this chapter includes a summary of the vocalization and hearing capabilities of marine mammal groups, the types of non-impulsive acoustic impacts potentially resulting from the Proposed Action, criteria and thresholds against which the types of impacts are analyzed, and a description of the quantitative analysis used to estimate impacts to marine mammals.

6.1 Vocalization and Hearing of Marine Mammals

All marine mammals that have been studied can produce sounds and use sounds to forage, orient, detect and respond to predators, and socially interact with others. Measurements of marine mammal sound production and hearing capabilities provide some basis for assessment of whether exposure to a particular sound source may affect a marine mammal behaviorally or physiologically. Marine mammal hearing abilities are quantified using live animals either via behavioral audiometry or electrophysiology (Au 1993; Houser et al. 2008; Mulsow et al. 2014; Nachtigall et al. 2007; Schusterman 1981; Wartzok and Ketten 1999). Behavioral audiograms, which are plots of animals' exhibited hearing threshold versus frequency, are obtained from captive, trained live animals using standard testing procedures with appropriate controls, and are considered to be a more accurate representation of a subject's hearing abilities. Behavioral audiograms of marine mammals are difficult to obtain because many species are too large, too rare, and too difficult to acquire and maintain for experiments in captivity.

Electrophysiological audiometry measures small electrical voltages produced by neural activity when the auditory system is stimulated by sound. The technique is relatively fast, does not require a conscious response, and is routinely used to assess the hearing of newborn humans. Hearing response in relation to frequency for both methods of evaluating hearing ability is a generalized U-shaped curve or audiogram showing the frequency range of best sensitivity (lowest hearing threshold) and frequencies above and below with higher threshold values.

Consequently, our understanding of a species' hearing ability may be based on the behavioral audiogram of a single individual or small group of animals. In addition, captive animals may be exposed to local ambient sounds and other environmental factors that may impact their hearing abilities and may not accurately reflect the hearing abilities of free-swimming animals (Houser et al. 2010). For animals not available in captive or stranded settings (including large whales and rare species), estimates of hearing capabilities are made based on physiological structures, vocal characteristics, and extrapolations from related species.

Table 6-1 provides a summary of sound production and general hearing capabilities for the beluga whale and ringed seal (note that values in this table are not meant to reflect absolute possible maximum

ranges, rather they represent the best known ranges of each functional hearing group). A detailed discussion of the functional hearing groups can be found in (National Marine Fisheries Service 2016).

Table 6-1. Marine Mammal Functional Hearing and Sound Production

<i>Functional Hearing Group</i>	<i>Species Which May Be Present in the Area</i>	<i>Sound Production</i>		<i>General Hearing Ability Frequency Range¹</i>
		<i>Frequency Range</i>	<i>Source Level dB re:1μPa at 1m</i>	
Mid frequency cetaceans	Beluga whale	Above 100 kHz	Up to 229	150 Hz to 160 kHz
Phocid pinnipeds (underwater)	Ringed seal	100 Hz to 12 kHz	103 to 180	75 Hz to 75 kHz (in water)

¹Adapted and derived from Southall (2007) and Southall et al. (2019b)

Note: dB re 1 μPa at 1 m: decibels (dB) referenced to (re) 1 micro (μ) Pascal (Pa) at 1 meter; Hz: Hertz; kHz: kilohertz

6.2 Analysis Framework

The potential impacts were analyzed in terms of potential hearing loss and behavioral reactions as a result of the Proposed Action.

6.2.1 Hearing Threshold Shifts

The most familiar effect of exposure to high intensity sound is hearing loss, meaning a shift in the hearing threshold. This phenomenon is called a noise-induced threshold shift, or simply a threshold shift (Miller 1974). The distinction between permanent threshold shift (PTS) and temporary threshold shift (TTS) is based on whether there is complete recovery of a threshold shift following a sound exposure. If the threshold shift eventually returns to zero (the threshold returns to the pre-exposure value), the threshold shift is considered a TTS. The recovery to pre-exposure threshold from studies of marine mammals is usually on the order of minutes to hours for the small amounts of TTS induced (Finneran et al. 2005; Nachtigall et al. 2004). The recovery time is related to the exposure duration, sound exposure level (SEL), and the magnitude of the threshold shift, with larger threshold shifts and longer exposure durations requiring longer recovery times (Finneran et al. 2005; Mooney et al. 2009). If the threshold shift does not return to zero but leaves some finite amount of threshold shift, then that remaining threshold shift is a PTS.

Studies of marine mammals have been designed to determine relationships between TTS and exposure parameters such as level, duration, and frequency. In these studies, hearing thresholds were measured in trained marine mammals before and after exposure to intense sounds. The difference between the pre-exposure and post-exposure thresholds indicates the amount of TTS. Kastelein et al. (2016) studied the effects of intermittent anthropogenic sounds such as sonar and the onset of TTS in harbor porpoise. The study found that relatively short intermittent sounds such as sonar had a much smaller impact on TTS than a constant anthropogenic sound such as pile driving (Kastelein et al. 2016). Other species studied include the bottlenose dolphin (total of 9 individuals), beluga (2), finless porpoise (2), California sea lion (3), harbor seal (1), and northern elephant seal (1). Some of the more important data obtained from these studies are onset-TTS levels—exposure levels sufficient to cause a just-measurable amount of TTS, often defined as 6 dB of TTS (for example (Schlundt et al. 2000)).

Although there have been no marine mammal studies designed to measure PTS, the potential for PTS in marine mammals can be estimated based on known similarities between the inner ears of marine and

terrestrial mammals. Experiments with marine mammals have revealed similarities to terrestrial mammals for features such as TTS, age-related hearing loss, ototoxic drug-induced hearing loss, masking, and frequency selectivity. Therefore, in the absence of marine mammal PTS data, onset-PTS exposure levels may be estimated by assuming some upper limit of TTS that equates to the onset of PTS, then using TTS growth relationships from marine and terrestrial mammals to determine the exposure levels capable of producing this amount of TTS.

6.2.2 Behavioral Reactions or Responses

The response of a marine mammal to an anthropogenic sound will depend on the frequency, duration, temporal pattern and amplitude of the sound as well as the animal's prior experience with the sound and the context in which the sound is encountered (i.e., what the animal is doing at the time of the exposure). The distance from the sound source and whether it is perceived as approaching or moving away can also affect the way an animal responds to a sound (Wartzok et al. 2003). For marine mammals, a review of responses to anthropogenic sound was first conducted by Richardson et al. (1995). Reviews by Nowacek et al. (2007) and Southall et al. (2007) address studies conducted since 1995 and focus on observations where the received sound level of the exposed marine mammal(s) was known or could be estimated.

Multi-year research efforts have conducted sonar exposure studies for odontocetes and mysticetes (Miller et al. 2012; Sivle et al. 2012). Several studies with captive animals have provided data under controlled circumstances for odontocetes and pinnipeds (Houser et al. 2013a; Houser et al. 2013b). Moretti et al. (2014) published a beaked whale dose-response curve based on passive acoustic monitoring of beaked whales during U.S. Navy training activity at Atlantic Underwater Test and Evaluation Center during actual Anti-Submarine Warfare exercises. This information necessitated the update of the Navy's behavioral response criteria.

Southall et al. (2007), and more recently Southall et al. (2019a), synthesized data from many past behavioral studies and observations to determine the likelihood of behavioral reactions at specific sound levels. While in general, the louder the sound source the more intense the behavioral response, it was clear that the proximity of a sound source and the animal's experience, motivation, and conditioning were also critical factors influencing the response (Southall et al. 2007; Southall et al. 2019a). After examining all of the available data, the authors felt that the derivation of thresholds for behavioral response based solely on exposure level was not supported because context of the animal at the time of sound exposure was an important factor in estimating response. Nonetheless, in some conditions, consistent avoidance reactions were noted at higher sound levels depending on the marine mammal species or group allowing conclusions to be drawn. Phocid seals showed avoidance reactions at or below 190 dB re 1 μ Pa at 1m, which is higher than their sound production source level range (Table 6-1); thus, seals may actually receive levels adequate to produce TTS before avoiding the source.

Odontocete Phase III behavioral criteria was updated based on controlled exposure studies for dolphins and sea mammals, sonar, and safety studies where behavioral responses of whales were reported after exposure to sonar (Antunes et al. 2014; Houser et al. 2013b; Miller et al. 2011; Miller et al. 2014; Miller et al. 2012). Overall exposure levels were from 70–180 dB re 1 μ Pa for the killer, pilot and sperm whales, and 115–185 dB re 1 μ Pa for the bottlenose dolphin. For the 3S study the sonar outputs included 1–2 kHz up- and down-sweeps and 6–7 kHz up-sweeps; source levels were ramped-up from 152–158 dB re 1 μ Pa at 1m to a maximum of 198–214 dB re 1 μ Pa at 1m. Sonar signals were ramped up over several pings while the vessel approached the mammals. The study did include some control passes of ships with the sonar off to discern the behavioral responses of the mammals to vessel presence alone versus active sonar. The controlled exposure studies with the Navy's trained bottlenose dolphins were exposed to

mid-frequency sonar while they were in a pen. Mid-frequency sonar was played at six different exposure levels from 125–185 dB re 1 μ Pa root mean square. It was noted bottlenose dolphins in this experiment had probably not been exposed to intense sounds such as nearby tactical sonar in the past, but due to their training may be less sensitive to noise exposure than wild animals. Responses occurred at received levels from 94–185 dB re 1 μ Pa, the means of the response data were from 126–169 dB re 1 μ Pa. In order to give equal weighting to the data from the field studies and the controlled exposure studies data for all ten exposure sessions per individual were combined into one response, such that the overall response was assumed to have occurred if the mammal responded in any single trial. The resulting behavioral response function (BRF; Figure 6-1A) has a 50 percent probability of response at 157 dB re 1 μ Pa. Additionally, distance cutoffs were applied to exclude exposures beyond which the potential of significant behavioral responses is not reasonably foreseeable (see Section 6.5.1 for specific distance cutoffs for odontocetes/mid-frequency cetaceans).

The Phase III pinniped behavioral criteria was updated based on controlled exposure experiments on the following captive animals: hooded seal, gray seal, and California sea lion (Götz et al. 2010; Houser et al. 2013a; Kvadsheim et al. 2010). Overall exposure levels were 110–170 dB re 1 μ Pa for hooded seals, 140–180 dB re 1 μ Pa for gray seals and 125-185 dB re 1 μ Pa for California sea lions; responses occurred at received levels ranging from 125 to 185 dB re 1 μ Pa. However, the means of the response data were between 159 and 170 dB re 1 μ Pa. Hooded seals were exposed to increasing levels of sonar until an avoidance response was observed, while the gray seals were exposed first to a single received level multiple times, then an increasing received level. Each individual California sea lion was exposed to the same received level ten times, these exposure sessions were combined into a single response value, with an overall response assumed if an animal responded in any single session. Because these data represent a dose-response type relationship between received level and a response, and because the means were all tightly clustered, the Bayesian biphasic BRF for pinnipeds most closely resembles a traditional sigmoidal dose-response function at the upper received levels (Figure 6-1B), and has a 50 percent probability of response at 166 dB re 1 μ Pa. Additionally, distance cutoffs were applied to exclude exposures beyond which the potential of significant behavioral responses is considered to be discountable (see Section 6.5.1 for specific distance cutoffs for pinnipeds).

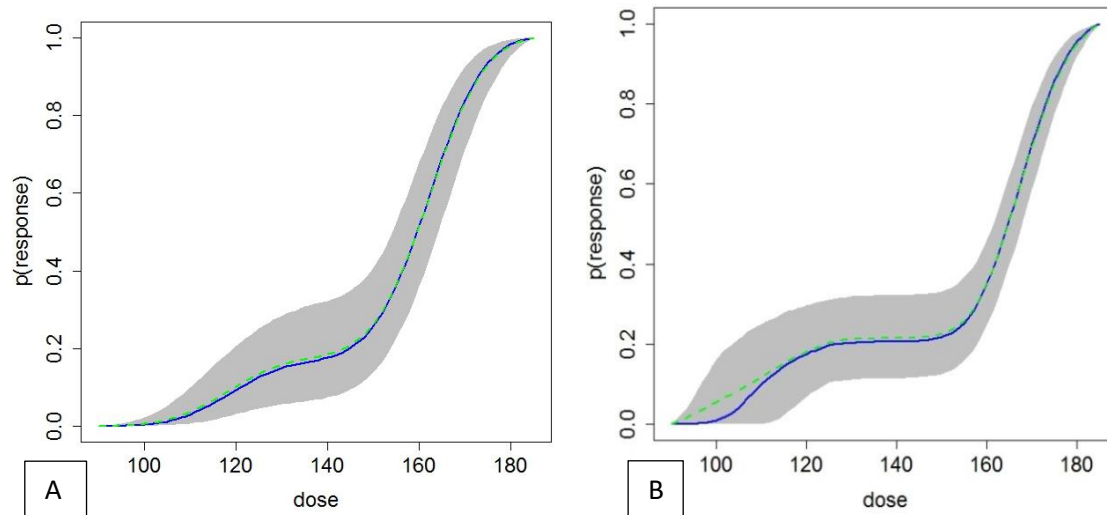


Figure 6-1. A) The Bayesian biphasic dose-response BRF for odontocetes. B) The Bayesian biphasic dose-response BRF for pinnipeds. The blue solid line represents the Bayesian Posterior median values, the green dashed line represents the biphasic fit, and the grey represents the variance. [X-Axis: Received Level (dB re 1 μ Pa), Y-Axis: Probability of Response]

Icebreaking is generally characterized as a low-frequency (10-100 Hz), non-impulsive sound. Icebreaking is a combination of the sounds made by the vessel's engine and propeller while icebreaking and the sound(s) created by the breaking of ice. As such, it is not appropriate to use the behavioral response function to evaluate potential impacts to marine mammals because the behavioral response function was derived from mid-frequency sonar sources that are narrow band (versus the broadband noise from icebreaking). Generic received levels (RL) thresholds for behavioral disturbance (120 dB re 1 μ Pa root mean square [rms]), regardless of functional hearing group, have been applied, although efforts have been made to improve data, including the addition of unique RL thresholds for behavioral disturbance specific to species (harbor porpoise and beaked whales; 80 FR 31738). Specific to the harbor porpoise, a step function and not a curve (and assuming uniform density) was applied to evaluate take from Level B harassment (80 FR 31738). Although a step function may over-estimate the effects of icebreaking, a step function at a sound pressure level (SPL) of 120 dB re 1 μ Pa was conservatively used.

6.3 Criteria and Thresholds for Predicting Acoustic Impacts on Marine Mammals from the Proposed Action

Harassment criteria for marine mammals are evaluated based on thresholds developed from observations of trained cetaceans exposed to intense underwater sound under controlled conditions (Finneran et al. 2003; Kastak and Schusterman 1996; Kastak and Schusterman 1999; Kastak et al. 2005; Kastelein et al. 2012). These data are the most applicable because they are based on controlled, tonal sound exposures within the typical sonar frequency ranges and because the species studied are closely related to the animals expected in the Study Area. Studies have reported behavioral alterations, or deviations from a subject's normal trained behavior, and exposure levels above which animals were observed to exhibit behavioral deviations (Finneran and Schlundt 2003; Schlundt et al. 2000).

Criteria and thresholds used for determining the potential effects from the Proposed Action are from NMFS technical guidance on acoustic thresholds for PTS/TTS. The behavioral criteria for non-impulsive acoustic sound was developed in coordination with NMFS to support Phase III environmental analyses

and MMPA Letter of Authorization renewals (U.S. Department of the Navy 2017a). For weighting function derivation, the most critical data required are TTS onset exposure levels as a function of exposure frequency. These values can be estimated from published literature by examining TTS as a function of SEL for various frequencies. The 120 dB re 1 μ Pa step function (unweighted) was determined to be most appropriate for icebreaking.

Table 6-2 below provides the criteria and thresholds used in this analysis for estimating quantitative non-impulsive acoustic and icebreaking exposures of marine mammals from the Proposed Action. Weighted criteria for non-impulsive acoustic sources and unweighted behavioral criteria for icebreaking are shown in the table below. Frequency-weighting functions are used to adjust the received sound level based on the sensitivity of the animal to the frequency of the sound. For weighting function derivation, the most critical data required are TTS onset exposure levels as a function of exposure frequency. These values can be estimated from published literature by examining TTS as a function of SEL for various frequencies.

To estimate TTS onset values for non-impulsive acoustic sources, only TTS data from behavioral hearing tests were used. To determine TTS onset for each subject, the amount of TTS observed after exposures with different SPLs and durations were combined to create a single TTS growth curve as a function of SEL. The use of (cumulative) SEL is a simplifying assumption to accommodate sounds of various SPLs, durations, and duty cycles. This is referred to as an “equal energy” approach, since SEL is related to the energy of the sound and this approach assumes exposures with equal SEL result in equal effects, regardless of the duration or duty cycle of the sound. It is well-known that the equal energy rule will over-estimate the effects of intermittent noise, since the quiet periods between noise exposures will allow some recovery of hearing compared to noise that is continuously present with the same total SEL (Ward 1997). For continuous exposures with the same SEL but different durations, the exposure with the longer duration will also tend to produce more TTS (Finneran et al. 2010; Kastak et al. 2007; Mooney et al. 2009).

As in previous non-impulsive acoustic effects analysis (Finneran and Jenkins 2012; Southall et al. 2007), the shape of the PTS exposure function for each species group is assumed to be identical to the TTS exposure function for each group. A difference of 20 dB between TTS onset and PTS onset is used for all marine mammals including pinnipeds. This is based on estimates of exposure levels actually required for PTS (i.e. 40 dB of TTS) from the marine mammal TTS growth curves, which show differences of 13 to 37 dB between TTS and PTS onset in marine mammals. Details regarding these criteria and thresholds can be found in National Marine Fisheries Service (2016).

Table 6-2. Non-Impulsive Acoustic Injury (PTS) and Disturbance (TTS, Behavioral) Thresholds for Underwater Sounds¹

<i>Group</i>	<i>Species</i>	<i>Behavioral Criteria</i>		<i>Physiological Criteria</i>	
		<i>Non-Impulsive Acoustic Sources</i>	<i>Icebreaking Sounds</i>	<i>Onset TTS</i>	<i>Onset PTS</i>
Mid frequency cetaceans	Beluga whale	Mid-Frequency BRF dose response function ²	120 dB re 1 μPa step function	178 dB SEL cumulative	198 dB SEL cumulative
Phocid pinnipeds (underwater)	Ringed seal	Pinniped Dose Response Function ²	120 dB re 1 μPa step function	181 dB SEL cumulative	201 dB SEL cumulative

¹The threshold values provided are assumed for when the source is within the animal’s best hearing sensitivity. The exact threshold varies based on the overlap of the source and the frequency weighting.

²See Figure 6-1

6.4 Quantitative Analysis

The Navy developed a set of software tools and compiled data for estimating non-impulsive acoustic effects on marine mammals without consideration of behavioral avoidance or Navy’s standard mitigations. These databases and tools collectively form the Navy Acoustic Effects Model (NAEMO). The Navy performed a quantitative analysis to estimate the number of mammals that could be harassed by the underwater non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking during the Proposed Action. Inputs to the quantitative analysis included marine mammal density estimates obtained from Kaschner et al. (2006) habitat suitability model and Cañadas et al. (2020), marine mammal depth occurrence distributions (U.S. Department of the Navy 2017b), oceanographic and environmental data, marine mammal hearing data, and criteria and thresholds for levels of potential effects. Densities for each species analyzed within this IHA can be found in Section 4 under each respective species density subsection. The quantitative analysis consists of computer modeled estimates and a post-model analysis to determine the number of potential animal exposures. The model calculates sound energy propagation from the proposed non-impulsive acoustic sources, the sound received by animat (virtual animal) dosimeters representing marine mammals distributed in the area around the modeled activity, and whether the sound received by a marine mammal exceeds the thresholds for effects.

In NAEMO, animats are distributed nonuniformly based on species-specific density, depth distribution, and group size information, and animats record energy received at their location in the water column. Site-specific bathymetry, sound speed profiles, wind speed, and bottom properties are incorporated into the propagation modeling process. NAEMO calculates the likely propagation for various levels of energy (sound or pressure) resulting from each source used during the testing event.

NAEMO then records the energy received by each animat within the energy footprint of the event and calculates the number of animats having received levels of energy exposures that fall within defined impact thresholds. Predicted effects on the animats within a scenario are then tallied and the highest order effect (based on severity of criteria; e.g., PTS over TTS) predicted for a given animat is assumed. Each scenario or each 24-hour period for scenarios lasting greater than 24 hours is independent of all others, and therefore, the same individual marine animal could be impacted during each independent scenario or 24-hour period. In few instances, although the activities themselves all occur within the Study Area, sound may propagate beyond the boundary of the Study Area. Any exposures occurring outside the boundary of the Study Area are counted as if they occurred within the Study Area boundary. NAEMO provides the initial estimated impacts on marine species with a static horizontal distribution.

There are limitations to the data used in the acoustic effects model, and the results must be interpreted within this context. While the most accurate data and input assumptions have been used in the modeling, when there is a lack of definitive data to support an aspect of the modeling, modeling assumptions believed to overestimate the number of exposures have been chosen:

- Animats are modeled as being underwater, stationary, and facing the source and therefore always predicted to receive the maximum sound level (i.e., no porpoising or pinnipeds' heads above water).
- Animats do not move horizontally (but change their position vertically within the water column), which may overestimate physiological effects such as hearing loss, especially for slow moving or stationary sound sources in the model.
- Animats are stationary horizontally and therefore do not avoid the sound source, unlike in the wild where animals would most often avoid exposures at higher sound levels, especially those exposures that may result in PTS.
- Multiple exposures within any 24-hour period are considered one continuous exposure for the purposes of calculating the temporary or permanent hearing loss, because there are not sufficient data to estimate a hearing recovery function for the time between exposures.
- Mitigation measures that are implemented were not considered in the model. In reality, sound-producing activities would be reduced, stopped, or delayed if marine mammals are detected within the mitigation zones around sound sources.

Because of these inherent model limitations and simplifications, model-estimated results must be further analyzed, considering such factors as the range to specific effects, avoidance, and the likelihood of successfully implementing mitigation measures. This analysis uses a number of factors in addition to the acoustic model results to predict acoustic effects on marine mammals.

NAEMO was previously used to produce a qualitative estimate of PTS, TTS, and behavioral exposures for ringed seals. For ARA 2024-2025, a new approach that utilizes sighting data from previous surveys conducted within the Study Area was used to estimate Level B harassment associated with non-impulsive acoustic sources (Section 6.4.3). NAEMO modeling is still used to provide estimated takes of beluga whales associated with non-impulsive acoustic sources, as well as provide take estimations associated with icebreaking.

6.4.1 Impacts on Marine Mammals

6.4.1.1 Cutoff Distances

For non-impulsive acoustic sources, NAEMO calculates the SPL and SEL for each active emission during an event. This is done by taking the following factors into account over the propagation paths: bathymetric relief and bottom types, sound speed, and attenuation contributors such as absorption, bottom loss and surface loss. Platforms such as a ship using one or more sound sources are modeled in accordance with relevant vehicle dynamics and time durations by moving them across an area whose size is representative of the testing event's operational area.

Empirical evidence has not shown responses to non-impulsive acoustic sources that would constitute take beyond a few km from a non-impulsive acoustic source, which is why NMFS and Navy conservatively set distance cutoffs for pinnipeds and mid-frequency cetaceans (U.S. Department of the Navy 2017a). The cutoff distances for fixed sources are different from those for moving sources, as they are treated as individual sources in Navy modeling given that the distance between them is significantly greater than the range to which environmental effects can occur; fixed source cutoff distances used

were 2.7 nm (5 km) for ringed seals and 5.4 nm (10 km) for beluga whales. As some of the on-site drifting sources could come closer together, the drifting source cutoffs applied were 5.4 nm (10 km) for pinnipeds and 10.8 nm (20 km) for beluga whales. Regardless of the RL at that distance, take is not estimated to occur beyond these cutoff distances. Range to thresholds were calculated for the noise associated with icebreaking in the Study Area. These all fall within the same cutoff distances as non-impulsive acoustic sources; range to behavioral threshold for both beluga whales and ringed seal were under 2.7 nm (5 km), and range to TTS threshold for both under 15 m.

6.4.1.2 Avoidance Behavior and Mitigation Measures

As discussed above, within NAEMO, animals do not move horizontally or react in any way to avoid sound. Furthermore, mitigation measures that are implemented during testing activities that reduce the likelihood of physiological impacts are not considered in quantitative analysis. Therefore, the current model overestimates non-impulsive acoustic impacts, especially physiological impacts near the sound source. The behavioral criteria used as a part of this analysis acknowledges that a behavioral reaction is likely to occur at levels below those required to cause hearing loss (TTS or PTS). At close ranges and high sound levels approaching those that could cause PTS, avoidance of the area immediately around the sound source is the assumed behavioral response for most cases.

In previous environmental analyses the Navy has implemented analytical factors to account for avoidance behavior and the implementation of mitigation measures. The application of avoidance and mitigation factors has only been applied to model-estimated PTS exposures given the short distance over which PTS is estimated. Given that no PTS exposures were estimated during the modeling process for this Proposed Action, the implementation of avoidance and mitigation factors were not included in this analysis.

6.4.2 Icebreaking Noise Modeling

The underwater radiated noise signature for icebreaking in the central Arctic Ocean by CGC HEALY during different types of ice-cover was characterized in Roth et al. (2013). The radiated noise signatures were characterized for various fractions of ice cover. For modeling, the 8/10 and 3/10 ice cover were used, with the assumption that the majority of icebreaking would occur in 8/10 ice cover. Icebreaking was modeled for eight days total. Since ice forecasting cannot be predicted more than a few weeks in advance it is unknown if icebreaking would be needed to deploy or retrieve the sources after one year of transmitting. Therefore, the potential for an icebreaking cruise on CGC HEALY was conservatively analyzed within this request for IHA. Figure 5a and 5b in Roth et al. (2013) depicts the source spectrum level versus frequency for 8/10 and 3/10 ice cover, respectively. The sound signature of each of the ice coverage levels was broken into 1-octave bins (Table 6-3 and Table 6-4). In the model, each bin was included as a separate source on the modeled vessel. When these independent sources go active concurrently, they simulate the sound signature of CGC HEALY. The modeled source level summed across these bins was 196.2 dB for the 8/10 signature and 189.3 dB for the 3/10 ice signature. These source levels are a good approximation of the icebreaker's observed source level (provided in Figure 4b of (Roth et al. 2013)). Each frequency and source level was modeled as an independent source, and applied simultaneously to all of the animals within NAEMO. Each second was summed across frequency to estimate sound pressure level (root mean square [SPL_{RMS}]). This value was incorporated into the behavioral response function to estimate behavioral exposures. For PTS and TTS determinations, sound exposure levels were summed over the duration of the test and the transit to the deep water deployment area. The method of quantitative modeling for icebreaking is considered to be a conservative approach; therefore, the number of takes estimated for icebreaking are likely an over-estimate and would not be expected to reach that level. Although there is not currently a research

cruise scheduled on CGC HEALY, the Navy requests take for up to eight days of icebreaking in case it is required during the IHA period.

Table 6-3. Modeled bins for 8/10 ice coverage (full power) Icebreaking on CGC HEALY

<i>Frequency (Hz)</i>	<i>Source Level (dB)</i>
25	189
50	188
100	189
200	190
400	188
800	183
1600	177
3200	176
6400	172
12800	167

Table 6-4. Modeled bins for 3/10 ice coverage (quarter power) Icebreaking on CGC HEALY

<i>Frequency (Hz)</i>	<i>Source Level (dB)</i>
25	187
50	182
100	179
200	177
400	175
800	170
1600	166
3200	171
6400	168
12800	164

6.4.3 Non-Impulsive Acoustic Analysis (Ringed Seals)

Most likely, individuals affected by acoustic transmission would move away from the sound source. Ringed seals may be temporarily displaced from their subnivean lairs in the winter, but a pinniped would have to be within 5 km of a moored source or within 10 km of a drifting source for any behavioral reaction. Any effects experienced by individual pinnipeds are anticipated to be short-term disturbance of normal behavior, or temporary displacement or disruption of animals that may be near elements of the Proposed Action.

Of historical sightings registered in OBIS-SEAMAP (Halpin et al. 2009) in the ARA Study Area, nearly all (99 percent) occurred in summer and fall seasons. However, there is no documentation to prove that this is because ringed seals would all move out of the Study Area during the cold season, or if the lack of sightings is due to the harsh environment and ringed seal behavior being prohibitive factors for cold season surveying. OBIS-SEAMAP reports 542 animals sighted over 150 records in the ARA Study Area across all years and seasons. Taking the average of 542 animals in 150 records aligns with survey data from previous ARA cruises that show up to three ringed seals (or small, unidentified pinnipeds assumed to be ringed seals) per day sighted in the Study Area. To account for any unsighted animals, that number was rounded up to 4. Assuming that four animals would be present in the Study Area, a rough estimate of density can be calculated using the overall Study Area size:

$$4 \text{ ringed seals} \div 48,725 \text{ km}^2 = 0.00008209 \text{ ringed seals/km}^2$$

The area of influence surrounding each moored source (4) would be 78.5km², and the area of influence surrounding each drifting source (2) would be 314 km². The total area of influence on any given day from non-impulsive acoustic sources would be 942km². The figure below shows the area of influence for each moored source (not to scale) to provide context for these values. The number of ringed seals that could be taken daily can be calculated:

$$0.00008209 \frac{\text{ringed seals}}{\text{km}^2} \times 942 \text{ km}^2 = 0.077 \text{ ringed seals per day}$$

To be conservative, the Navy has assumed that one ringed seals would be exposed to acoustic transmissions above the threshold for Level B take, and that each would be exposed each day of the Proposed Action (365 days total). Unlike the NAEMO modeling approach used to estimate ringed seal takes in previous ARA IHAs, the occurrence method used in this ARA IHA does not support the differentiation between behavioral or TTS exposures. Therefore, all takes are classified as Level B and not further distinguished. Modeling for all previous years of ARA activities did not result in any Level A takes. Therefore, no Level A takes are anticipated due to the Proposed Action.

6.5 Estimated Take of Marine Mammals

As discussed further in Section 7, if exposure were to occur, beluga whales and ringed seals could exhibit behavioral responses such as avoidance, increased swimming speeds, increased surfacing time, or decreased foraging. Most likely, individuals affected by non-impulsive acoustic sources or icebreaking resulting from the Proposed Action would move away from the sound source and be temporarily displaced from their foraging, migration, or breeding areas or haul-out sites within the ARA Study Area. Ringed seals would have to be within the 5 (fixed) or 10 (drifting) km cutoff from the source, while beluga whales would have to be within the 10 (fixed) or 20 (drifting) km cutoff from the source, for any behavioral reaction (e.g., flushing from a lair or avoidance response). Any effects experienced by individual species are anticipated to be limited to short-term disturbance of normal behavior, temporary displacement or disruption of animals that may occur near the Proposed Action. Therefore, the exposures requested are expected to have no more than a minor effect on individual animals and no adverse effect on the populations of the ringed seals and beluga whales.

Estimated takes were calculated separately for non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking. The breakout of take estimates is shown in Table 6-5.

Table 6-5. Estimated Take Breakout by Source Type

<i>Common Name</i>	<i>Non-Impulsive Sources</i>		<i>Icebreaking</i>	
	<i>Behavioral</i>	<i>TTS</i>	<i>Behavioral</i>	<i>TTS</i>
Odontocete				
Beluga whale	177	0	21	0
Pinniped				
Ringed seal	365	0	538	1

Table 6-6 shows the Navy’s take request based on an estimate of acoustic exposures expected for the beluga whale and ringed seal based on NAEMO modeled results. Results from the quantitative analysis should be regarded as conservative estimates that are strongly influenced by limited marine mammal population data. This overestimate of animals present likely led to an overestimate of the number of potential acoustic exposures. While the numbers generated from the quantitative analysis provide conservative overestimates of marine mammal exposures, mitigation measures would further limit actual exposures. Table 6-6 shows the Navy’s requested takes for the Proposed Action.

Table 6-6. Take Request for 2024-25 ARA Activities

<i>Common Name</i>	<i>Level B Harassment</i>		<i>Level A Harassment</i>	<i>Percentage of Stock Taken¹</i>
	<i>Behavioral</i>	<i>TTS</i>		
Odontocete				
Beluga whale (Beaufort Sea) Stock	99	0	0	0.252
Beluga whale (Eastern Chukchi Sea Stock)	99	0	0	0.744
Pinniped				
Ringed seal	903	1	0	0.527

¹ Percentage of stock taken calculated based on proportion of number of Level B takes per the stock population estimate provided in Table 3-1.

² Acoustic exposures to beluga whales were not modeled at the stock level. Take of beluga whales was evenly distributed among the two stocks present.

7 Anticipated Impact of the Activity

The anticipated impact of the activity upon the species or stock of marine mammal.

The conclusions and predicted exposures in this analysis find that overall impacts on marine mammal species and stocks would be negligible, despite the potential Level B harassment to beluga whales and ringed seals, for the following reasons:

- All estimated acoustic harassments for the Proposed Action are within the behavioral effects zones (Level B harassment).
- Marine mammal densities input into the model are also overly conservative, particularly when considering species where data is limited in portions of the Study Area and seasonal migrations extend throughout the Study Area. The assumption for mammal density assumed the maximum population size of beluga whales and ringed seals were in the area at all times.

Mitigation measures, described in Section 11, are designed to reduce sound exposure to marine mammals to minimize adverse effects on marine mammal species or stocks.

Based on the current state of science, to include behavioral response studies, it is not currently possible to distinguish between significant and insignificant behavioral reactions using the functions derived using this data. However, it is assumed for the purposes of this analysis that more intense and longer duration activities would lead to a higher probability of animals having significant behavioral reactions. Within the Navy's quantitative analysis, many behavioral reactions are estimated from exposure to a sound source that may exceed an animal's behavioral threshold for only a single ping to several minutes. It is likely that many of the estimated behavioral reactions within the Navy's quantitative analysis would not constitute significant behavioral reactions; however, the numbers of significant versus non-significant behavioral reactions are currently impossible to predict.

Consideration of negligible impact is required for NMFS to authorize incidental take of marine mammals. By definition, an activity has a "negligible impact" on a species or stock when it is determined that the total taking is not likely to reduce annual rates of adult survival or recruitment (i.e., offspring survival, birth rates).

Behavioral reactions of marine mammals to sound are known to occur but can be difficult to predict, due to the variability in the severity of the response of specific individuals. Recent behavioral studies indicate that reactions to sounds, if any, are highly contextual and vary between species and individuals within a species (Moretti et al. 2010; Southall et al. 2011; Thompson et al. 2010; Tyack 2009; Tyack et al. 2011). Depending on the context, marine mammals often change their activity when exposed to disruptive levels of sound. When sound becomes potentially disruptive, cetaceans at rest become active, and feeding or socializing cetaceans or pinnipeds often cease these events by diving or swimming away. If the sound disturbance occurs around a haul out site, pinnipeds may move back and forth between water and land or temporarily abandon the haul out area. When attempting to understand behavioral disruption by anthropogenic sound, a key question to ask is whether the exposures have biologically significant consequences for the individual or population (National Research Council 2005).

If a marine mammal does react to an underwater sound by changing its behavior or moving a small distance, the impacts of the change may not be detrimental to the individual. For example, Lusseau and Bejder (2007) have found during a study focusing on dolphins response to whale watching vessels in New Zealand, that when animals can adapt with constraint and easily feed or move elsewhere, there is

little effect on survival. On the other hand, if a sound source displaces marine mammals from an important feeding or breeding area for a period long enough to cause an impact and they do not have an alternate equally desirable area, impacts on the marine mammal could be negative because the disruption has biological consequences. Biological parameters or key elements having greatest importance to a marine mammal relate to its ability to grow, reproduce, and survive. These key elements could be defined as follows:

- Growth: adverse effects on ability to feed;
- Reproduction: the range at which reproductive displays can be heard and the quality of mating/calving grounds; and
- Survival: sound exposure may directly affect a species' ability to live.

The importance of the disruption and degree of consequence for individual marine mammals often has much to do with the frequency, intensity, and duration of the disturbance. Isolated acoustic disturbances such as acoustic transmissions from non-impulsive acoustic sources usually have minimal consequences or no lasting effects for marine mammals. Marine mammals regularly cope with occasional disruption of their activities by predators, adverse weather, and other natural phenomena. Therefore, it is also reasonable to assume that they can tolerate occasional or brief disturbances by anthropogenic sound without significant consequences.

7.1 The Context of Behavioral Disruption and TTS - Biological Significance To Populations

The exposure estimates calculated by predictive models currently available predict propagation of sound and received levels and measure a short-term, immediate response of an individual using applicable criteria. Consequences to populations are much more difficult to predict and empirical measurement of population effects from anthropogenic stressors is limited (National Research Council 2005). To predict indirect, long-term, and cumulative effects, the processes must be well understood and the underlying data available for models.

No research has been conducted on the potential behavioral responses of beluga whales and ringed seals to the type of non-impulsive acoustic sources used during the Proposed Action. However, data are available on effects of non-impulsive acoustic sources (e.g., sonar transmissions) on marine mammals. All of this available information was assessed and incorporated into the findings of this analysis.

7.1.1 Effects of Non-Impulsive Acoustic Sources on Marine Mammals

For non-impulsive acoustic sounds (i.e., similar to the sources used during the Proposed Action), data suggest that exposures of pinnipeds to sources between 90 and 140 dB re 1 μ Pa do not elicit strong behavioral responses; no data were available for exposures at higher received levels for Southall et al. (2007) to include in the severity scale analysis. Reactions of harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*) were the only available data for which the responses could be ranked on the severity scale. For reactions that were recorded, the majority (17 of 18 individuals/groups) were ranked on the severity scale as a 4 (moderate change in movement, brief shift in group distribution, or moderate change in vocal behavior) or lower; the remaining response was ranked as a 6 (minor or moderate avoidance of the sound source). Additional data on hooded seals (*Cystophora cristata*) indicate avoidance responses to signals above 160–170 dB re 1 μ Pa (Kvadsheim et al. 2010), and data on gray (*Halichoerus grypus*) and harbor seals indicate avoidance response at received levels of 135–144 dB re 1 μ Pa (Götz et al. 2010). In each instance where food was available, which provided the seals motivation to remain near the source, habituation to the signals occurred rapidly. In the same study, it was noted that habituation was not apparent in wild seals where no food source was available (Götz et al. 2010). This implies that the

motivation of the animal is necessary to consider in determining the potential for a reaction. In one study aimed to investigate the under-ice movements and sensory cues associated with under-ice navigation of ice seals, acoustic transmitters (60–69 kHz at 159 dB re 1 μ Pa at 1 m) were attached to ringed seals (Wartzok et al. 1992a; Wartzok et al. 1992b). An acoustic tracking system then was installed in the ice to receive the non-impulsive acoustic signals and provide real-time tracking of ice seal movements. Although the frequencies used in this study are at the upper limit of ringed seal hearing, the ringed seals appeared unaffected by the non-impulsive acoustic sources, as they were able to maintain normal behaviors (e.g., finding breathing holes).

In studies by Götz et al. (2010), and Kvadsheim et al. (2010), phocid seals that were exposed to non-impulsive acoustic sources with a received sound pressure level between 142–193 dB re 1 μ Pa, were shown to change their behavior by modifying diving activity and avoidance of the sound source (Götz et al. 2010; Kvadsheim et al. 2010). Although a minor change to a behavior may occur as a result of exposure to the sources in the Proposed Action, these changes would be within the normal range of behaviors for the animal (e.g., the use of a breathing hole further from the source, rather than one closer to the source, would be within the normal range of behavior) (Kelly et al. 1988).

A controlled exposure study to simulated mid-frequency sonar was conducted with U.S. Navy California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*) at the Navy Marine Mammal Program facility specifically to study behavioral reactions (Houser et al. 2013a). Animals were trained to swim across a pen, touch a panel, and return to the starting location. During transit, a simulated mid-frequency sonar signal was played. Behavioral reactions included increased respiration rates, prolonged submergence, and refusal to participate, among others. Younger animals were more likely to respond than older animals, while some sea lions did not respond consistently at any sound source level.

While not many studies have been done on odontocete responses to sonar, behavioral response studies have been conducted. In studies that examined sperm whales and false killer whales (both in the mid-frequency cetacean hearing group), the marine mammals showed temporary cessation of calling and avoidance of sonar sources (Akamatsu et al. 1993; Watkins and Schevill 1975). Sperm whales resumed calling and communication approximately two minutes after the pings stopped (Watkins and Schevill 1975). False killer whales did move away from the sound source, but returned to the area between 0 and 10 minutes after the end of the transmissions (Akamatsu et al. 1993). Many of the contextual factors resulting from the behavioral response studies (e.g., close approaches by multiple vessels or tagging) would not occur during the Proposed Action. Odontocete behavioral responses to acoustic transmissions from non-impulsive acoustic sources used during the Proposed Action would likely be a result of the animal's behavioral state and prior experience rather than external variables such as ship proximity; thus, if significant behavioral responses occur they would likely be short-term. In fact, no significant behavioral responses such as panic, stranding or other severe reactions have been observed during monitoring of actual training exercises (Department of the Navy 2011, 2014; Smultea and Mobley 2009; Watwood et al. 2012).

7.1.2 Effects of Icebreaking Noise on Marine Mammals

Marine mammals have been recorded in several instances altering and modifying their vocalizations to compensate for the masking noise from vessels, or other similar sounds (Holt et al. 2011; Parks et al. 2011). Vocal changes in response to anthropogenic noise can occur across the repertoire of sound production modes used by marine mammals, such as calling. Changes to vocal behavior and call structure may result from a need to compensate for an increase in background noise.

Icebreaking noise has the potential to disturb marine mammals and elicit an alerting, avoidance, or other behavioral reaction (Huntington et al. 2015; Pirodda et al. 2015; Williams et al. 2014). Icebreaking

in fast ice during the spring can cause behavioral reactions in beluga whales. Icebreaking associated with the Proposed Action would likely only occur during the warm season from August through October, which lessens the probability of a whale encountering the vessel (in comparison to other sources in the Proposed Action that would be active year-round).

Ringed seals on pack ice showed various behaviors when approached by an icebreaking vessel; a majority of seals dove underwater when the ship was within 0.5 nm (0.93 km) while others remained on the ice. However, as icebreaking vessels came closer to the seals, most dove underwater. Ringed seals have also been observed foraging in the wake of an icebreaking vessel (Richardson et al. 1995). In studies by Alliston (Alliston 1980; Alliston 1981), there was no observed change in the density of ringed seals in areas that had been subject to icebreaking. Alternatively, ringed seals may have preferentially established breathing holes in the ship tracks after the icebreaker moved through the area. Icebreaking would likely only occur during the warm season (August through October), at which time ringed seals are not expected to be within the subnivean lairs nor pupping (Chapskii 1940; McLaren 1958; Smith and Stirling 1975).

7.1.3 Effects on Ringed Seals Within Subnivean Lairs

Adult ringed seals spend up to 20 percent of the time in subnivean lairs during the winter season (Kelly et al. 2010a). Ringed seal pups spend about 50 percent of their time in the lair during the nursing period (Lydersen and Hammill 1993). During the warm season ringed seals haul out on the ice. In a study of ringed seal haul out activity by Born et al. (2002) ringed seals spent 25-57 percent of their time hauled out in June which is during their molting season. The non-impulsive acoustic modeling does not account for seals within subnivean lairs or seals hauled out on the ice; all animals are assumed to be in the water and susceptible to hearing the non-impulsive acoustic transmissions. Therefore, the non-impulsive acoustic modeling output likely over-states the amount of sound that individual animals would receive, given the percentage of time that ringed seals are expected to be in subnivean lairs made of snow and ice, and seals hauled out on the ice rather than in the water. Although the exact amount of transmission loss of sound traveling through ice and snow is unknown, it is clear that some sound attenuation would occur. In-air, the best hearing sensitivity for ringed seals has been documented between 3 and 5 kHz; at higher frequencies, the hearing threshold rapidly increases (Sills et al. 2015).

If the non-impulsive acoustic transmissions are heard and are perceived as a threat, ringed seals within subnivean lairs could react to the sound in a similar fashion to their reaction to other threats, such as polar bears (their primary predators), although the type of sound would be novel to them. Responses of ringed seals to a variety of human-induced noises (e.g., helicopter noise, snowmobiles, dogs, people, and seismic activity) have been variable; some seals entered the water and some seals remained in the lair (Kelly et al. 1988). However, in all instances in which observed seals departed lairs in response to noise disturbance, they subsequently reoccupied the lair (Kelly et al. 1988).

Ringed seal mothers have a strong bond with their pups and may physically move their pups from the birth lair to an alternate lair to avoid predation, sometimes risking their lives to defend their pups from potential predators (Smith 1987). If a ringed seal mother perceives the non-impulsive acoustic sources as a threat, the network of multiple birth and haul-out lairs allows the mother and pup to move to a new lair (Smith and Hammill 1981; Smith and Stirling 1975). They also are often exposed to anthropogenic noise due to the ever increasing industrialization of the Arctic (Fournet et al. 2021) However, the non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise are unlike the low frequency sounds and vibrations felt from approaching predators. Additionally, the non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise are not likely to impede a ringed seal from finding a breathing hole or lair, as captive seals have been found to primarily use vision to locate breathing holes and no effect to ringed seal vision would occur from the

non-impulsive acoustic sources (Elsner et al. 1989; Wartzok et al. 1992a). It is anticipated that a ringed seal would be able to relocate to a different breathing hole relatively easily without impacting their normal behavior patterns.

7.2 Conclusion

The Navy concludes that testing activities within the Study Area would result in Level B takes, as summarized in Table 5-1. Based on best available science, the Navy concludes that exposures to the Arctic stock of ringed seals or the Beaufort Sea and Eastern Chukchi Sea stocks of beluga whales due to the Proposed Action would result in only short-term effects to most individuals exposed and would likely not affect annual rates of recruitment or survival.

Based on the life history information of beluga whales and ringed seals, expected behavioral patterns in the Study Area, the majority of modeled exposures resulting in temporary behavioral disturbance (Table 6-6), and the application of mitigation procedures proposed in Section 11, the Proposed Action is anticipated to have a negligible impact on the Arctic stock of ringed seals and the Beaufort Sea and Eastern Chukchi Sea stocks of beluga whales within the Study Area.

8 Anticipated Impacts on Subsistence Uses

The anticipated impact of the activity on the availability of the species or stock of marine mammals for subsistence uses.

Subsistence hunting is important for many of the Alaska Native communities. A study of the North Slope villages of Nuiqsut, Kaktovik, and Barrow identifies the primary resources used for subsistence and the locations for harvest (Stephen R. Braund & Associates 2010), including terrestrial mammals (caribou, moose, wolf, and wolverine), birds (geese and eider), fish (Arctic cisco, Arctic char/Dolly Varden trout, and broad whitefish), and marine mammals (bowhead whale, ringed seal, bearded seal, and walrus). The bearded seal, ringed seal, and beluga whale would be located within the Study Area during the Proposed Action. No take of bearded seal is being requested, and the Proposed Action would be outside of hunting areas; therefore, they are not considered further herein.

Ringed seals are of lesser importance to many North Slope communities, and have historically been used as a primary source of food for dog teams; this need has lessened with the introduction of snow machines. Ringed seal meat is used to supplement bearded seal and other meat. Ringed seal hunting typically occurs during the summer months, though hunting has occurred year-round. Harvest locations for ringed seals can extend up to 40 mi (64 km) from shore including north of Barrow in the summer; the winter harvest of ringed seals typically occurs closer to shore, within several miles (Stephen R. Braund & Associates 2010). Nelson et al. (2019) collected ice seal harvest data from 1992 to 2014 for 41 of 55 communities that regularly hunt ice seals to estimate the average regional and statewide subsistence harvest. The best estimate of the average number of ringed seals harvested in 2015 in the North Slope Borough is 1,146 seals. The number of seals harvested in a given year can vary considerably, depending upon environmental (e.g., ice) conditions.

Beluga whales provide important resources for local residents, where beluga meat and outer layers of skin and blubber are used as a source of food. The subsistence of beluga whales within U.S. waters is reported by the Alaska Beluga Whale Committee (ABWC). Hunting takes place in the spring and summer, when concentrations of belugas move to coastal waters, such as Kasegaluk Lagoon near Point Lay (Suydam et al. 2001). Based on the most recent Alaska Native subsistence harvest estimates for the Beaufort Sea stock, annual subsistence take averaged 29 beluga whales landed during 2014-2018 (Muto et al. 2021). Annual subsistence take of the Eastern Chukchi Sea stock in this same period averaged 56 beluga whales landed (Muto et al. 2021). Belugas harvested in Utqiagvik (Barrow) in spring are assumed to be from the Beaufort Sea stock, while those harvested in summer are assumed to be from the Eastern Chukchi Sea stock (Young et al. 2023).

The active acoustic sources within the Study Area, whether fixed or drifting, are at least 110 nm (204 km) from land. This ensures a significant standoff distance from any subsistence hunting area. The closest distance to subsistence hunting (70 nm, or 130 km) is well beyond the largest cutoff distance (20 km) described above. Previous and current plans for scientific activity, acoustic source usage and research vessel ship tracks have been communicated to Alaska native communities that rely on subsistence harvest. In addition, the Proposed Action would not remove individuals from the population, therefore there would be no impacts caused by this action to the availability of ringed seal or beluga whale for subsistence hunting. Therefore, subsistence uses of marine mammals would not be impacted by the Proposed Action.

9 Anticipated Impacts on Habitat

The anticipated impact of the activity upon the habitat of the marine mammal populations, and the likelihood of restoration of the affected habitat.

Marine mammal habitat and prey species may be temporarily impacted by non-impulsive acoustic sources or icebreaking noise associated with the Proposed Action. The potential for non-impulsive acoustic sources or icebreaking noise to impact marine mammal habitat or prey species is discussed below.

9.1 Expected Effects on Habitat

The effects of the introduction of sound into the environment are generally considered to have a lesser impact on marine mammal habitat than the impacts from physical alteration of said habitat. Active acoustics from the Proposed Action would occur intermittently year-round for the ARA duration. Icebreaking noise would likely only occur during the warm season. Non-impulsive acoustic sources and icebreaking noise are not expected to result in long-term physical alteration of the water column, as the occurrences are of limited duration and would occur intermittently. The determination of temporary impacts to the physical environment includes minimal possible impacts to ringed seal and beluga whale habitat.

9.2 Effects on Marine Mammal Prey

Beluga whales are opportunistic feeders that vary their diets according to their location and the season. Fish (e.g., eulachon, salmon, capelin, cod, herring, smelt, flounder, sole, lamprey and lingcod), crustaceans (e.g., crab, clams, mussels and shrimp) and other deep-sea invertebrates (e.g., octopus and squid) are the main prey of beluga whales.

In general, ringed seals prey upon fish and crustaceans. Ringed seals are known to consume up to 72 different species in their diet; their preferred prey species is the Arctic cod (Ghazal 2021; Quakenbush et al. 2020). Ringed seals also prey upon saffron cod, which is particularly important during the summer months in Alaskan waters (Crawford et al. 2015; Lowry et al. 1980). Invertebrate prey seems to become prevalent in the ringed seals' diet during the open-water season and often dominates the diet of young animals (Holst et al. 2001; Lowry et al. 1980). Large amphipods (e.g., *Gammarus* spp.), krill (e.g., *Thysanoessa* spp.), mysids (e.g., *Neomysis rayii*), shrimps (e.g., *Pandalus* spp., *Eualus* spp.), and cephalopods (e.g., *Gonatus* spp.) are consumed by ringed seals (Crawford et al. 2015; Ghazal 2021).

9.2.1 Fish

The fish species located in the Study Area include those that are closely associated with the deep ocean habitat of the Beaufort Sea. Nearly 250 marine fish species have been described in the Arctic, excluding the larger parts of the sub-Arctic Bering, Barents, and Norwegian Seas (Mecklenburg et al. 2011). However, only about 30 are known to occur in the Arctic waters of the Beaufort Sea (Christiansen and Reist 2013). Largely because of the difficulty of sampling in remote, ice-covered seas, many high-Arctic fish species are known only from rare or geographically patchy records (Mecklenburg et al. 2011). Aquatic systems of the Arctic undergo extended seasonal periods of ice cover and other harsh environmental conditions. Fish inhabiting such systems must be biologically and ecologically adapted to surviving such conditions. Important environmental factors that Arctic fish must contend with include reduced light, seasonal darkness, ice cover, low biodiversity, and low seasonal productivity.

All fish have two sensory systems to detect sound in the water: the inner ear, which functions very much like the inner ear in other vertebrates, and the lateral line, which consists of a series of receptors along the fish's body (Popper and Fay 2010; Popper et al. 2014). The inner ear generally detects relatively higher-frequency sounds, while the lateral line detects water motion at low frequencies (below a few hundred Hz) (Hastings and Popper 2005). Lateral line receptors respond to the relative motion between the body surface and surrounding water; this relative motion, however, only takes place very close to sound sources and most fish are unable to detect this motion at more than one to two body lengths distance away (Popper et al. 2014). Although hearing capability data only exist for just greater than 100 of the 36,600 fish species, current data suggest that most species of fish detect sounds from 50 to 1,000 Hz, with few fish hearing sounds above 4 kHz (Fricke et al. 2024; Ladich and Fay 2013; Popper 2008; Popper 2023). It is believed that most fish have their best hearing sensitivity from 100 to 400 Hz (Popper 2003). Permanent hearing loss has not been documented in fish. A study by Halvorsen et al. (2012) found that for temporary hearing loss or similar negative impacts to occur, the noise needed to be within the fish's individual hearing frequency range; external factors, such as developmental history of the fish or environmental factors, may result in differing impacts to sound exposure in fish of the same species. The sensory hair cells of the inner ear in fish can regenerate after they are damaged, unlike in mammals where sensory hair cells loss is permanent (Lombarte et al. 1993; Smith et al. 2006). As a consequence, any hearing loss in fish may be as temporary as the timeframe required to repair or replace the sensory cells that were damaged or destroyed (Smith et al. 2006), and no permanent loss of hearing in fish would result from exposure to sound.

9.2.1.1 Non-Impulsive Acoustic Sources

Fish species in the Study Area are expected to hear the low-frequency sources associated with the Proposed Action, but most are not expected to detect sounds above this threshold. Only a few fish species are able to detect the mid-frequencies of non-impulsive acoustic sources above 1 kHz and could have behavioral reactions or experience auditory masking during these activities. These effects are expected to be transient. Fish with hearing specializations capable of detecting high-frequency sounds are not expected to be within the Study Area. If hearing specialists were present, they would have to be in close vicinity to the source to experience effects from the acoustic transmission.

Human-generated sound could alter the behavior of a fish in a manner that would affect its way of living, such as where it tries to locate food or how well it can locate a potential mate; behavioral responses to loud noise could include a startle response, such as the fish swimming away from the source, the fish "freezing" and staying in place, or scattering (Popper 2003). Auditory masking could also interfere with a fish's ability to hear biologically relevant sounds, inhibiting the ability to detect both predators and prey, and impacting schooling, mating, and navigating (Popper 2003). Auditory impacts are also highly unlikely to occur because PTS has not been documented in fish and TTS is unlikely to occur in fish (Smith and Popper 2023). If an individual fish comes into contact with low-frequency non-impulsive acoustic sources and is able to perceive the transmissions, they are expected to exhibit short-term behavioral reactions, when initially exposed, which would not significantly alter breeding, foraging, or populations. Overall effects to fish from non-impulsive acoustic sources would be localized, temporary, and infrequent.

9.2.1.2 Icebreaking Noise

Icebreaking noise has the potential to expose fish to both sound and general disturbance, which could result in short-term behavioral or physiological responses (e.g., avoidance, stress, increased heart rate). Misund (1997) found that fish ahead of a ship showed avoidance reactions at ranges of 160 to 489 ft (49

to 149 m). Avoidance behavior of vessels, vertically or horizontally in the water column, has been reported for cod and herring, and was attributed to vessel noise.

It is not anticipated that temporary behavioral reactions (e.g., temporary cessation of feeding) would harm the individual fitness of a fish as individuals are expected to resume feeding upon cessation of the sound exposure and unconsumed prey would still be available in the environment. Furthermore, while icebreaking noise may influence the behavior of some fish species (e.g., startle response, masking), other fish species can be equally unresponsive (Becker et al. 2013). The noise associated with the Proposed Action would result in insignificant and short-term reactions of fish.

9.2.2 Invertebrates

Marine invertebrates occur in the world's oceans, from warm shallow waters to cold deep waters, and are the dominant animals in all habitats of the Study Area. Although most species are found within the benthic zone, marine invertebrates can be found in all zones (sympagic [within the sea ice], pelagic [open ocean], or benthic [bottom dwelling]) of the Beaufort Sea (Josefson et al. 2013). Excluding microbes, approximately 5,000 known marine invertebrates have been documented in the Arctic; the number of species is likely higher, though, since this area is not well studied (Josefson et al. 2013).

Hearing capabilities of invertebrates are largely unknown (Lovell et al. 2005; Popper and Schilt 2008; Solé et al. 2023). Outside of studies conducted to test the sensitivity of invertebrates to vibrations, very little is known on the effects of anthropogenic underwater noise on invertebrates (Edmonds et al. 2016). While data are limited, research suggests that some of the major cephalopods and decapods may have limited hearing capabilities (Hanlon 1987; Offutt 1970), and may hear only low-frequency (less than 1 kHz) sources (Offutt 1970), which is most likely within the frequency band of biological signals (Hill 2009). In a review of crustacean sensitivity of high amplitude underwater noise by Edmonds et al. (2016), crustaceans may be able to hear the frequencies at which they produce sound, but it remains unclear which noises are incidentally produced and if there are any negative effects from masking them. Acoustic signals produced by crustaceans range from low frequency rumbles (20-60 Hz) to high frequency signals (20-55 kHz) (Henninger and Watson 2005; Patek and Caldwell 2006; Staaterman et al. 2016). Aquatic invertebrates that can sense local water movements with ciliated cells include cnidarians, flatworms, segmented worms, urochordates (tunicates), mollusks, and arthropods (Budelmann 1992a, 1992b; Popper et al. 2001). Some aquatic invertebrates have specialized organs called statocysts for determination of equilibrium and, in some cases, linear or angular acceleration. Statocysts allow an animal to sense movement and may enable some species, such as cephalopods and crustaceans, to be sensitive to water particle movements associated with sound (Goodall et al. 1990; Hu et al. 2009; Kaifu et al. 2008; Montgomery et al. 2006; Popper et al. 2001; Roberts and Breithaupt 2016; Salmon 1971). Because any acoustic sensory capabilities, if present at all, are limited to detecting water motion, and water particle motion near a sound source falls off rapidly with distance, aquatic invertebrates are probably limited to detecting nearby sound sources rather than sound caused by pressure waves from distant sources.

9.2.2.1 Non-Impulsive Acoustic Sources

Studies of sound energy effects on invertebrates are few, and identify only behavioral responses. Non-auditory injury, permanent threshold shift, temporary threshold shift, and masking studies have not been conducted for invertebrates. Both behavioral and auditory brainstem response studies suggest that crustaceans may sense frequencies up to 3 kHz, but best sensitivity is likely below 200 Hz (Goodall et al. 1990; Lovell et al. 2005; Lovell et al. 2006). Most cephalopods likely sense low-frequency sound

below 1 kHz, with best sensitivities at lower frequencies (Budelmann 2010; Mooney et al. 2010; Offutt 1970). A few cephalopods may sense higher frequencies up to 1,500 Hz (Hu et al. 2009).

Within the Study Area, marine invertebrate abundance is low within the sea ice and in the water column. The highest densities are on the seafloor, further reducing the likelihood of invertebrates hearing the frequencies of the non-impulsive acoustic sources due to the dissipation of the non-impulsive acoustic sources in the water column. In studies by Christian et al. (2003) and Payne et al. (2007), neither found damage to lobster or crab statocysts from high intensity air gun firings (which is of greater intensity than the non-impulsive acoustic sources in the Proposed Action). Furthermore, in the study by Christian et al., (2003), no changes were found in biochemical stress markers in snow crabs.

It is expected that most marine invertebrates would not sense the frequencies of the acoustic transmissions from non-impulsive acoustic sources associated with the Proposed Action. Most marine invertebrates would not be close enough to non-impulsive acoustic sources to potentially experience impacts to sensory structures. Any marine invertebrate capable of sensing sound may alter its behavior if exposed to non-impulsive acoustic sources. Although non-impulsive acoustic sources used during the Proposed Action may briefly impact individuals, intermittent exposures to non-impulsive acoustic sources are not expected to impact survival, growth, recruitment, or reproduction of widespread marine invertebrate populations.

9.2.2.2 Icebreaking Noise

Impacts to invertebrates from icebreaking noise is relatively unknown, but it is likely that some species including crustaceans and cephalopods would be able to perceive the low frequency sources generated from icebreaking that occurs during the Proposed Action, which could result in masking acoustic communication in invertebrates such as crustaceans (Staaterman et al. 2011). Avoidance behavior, short term temporary responses (such as feeding cessation, increased stress, or other minor physiological harm) may occur if invertebrates were close enough to the icebreaking (Edmonds et al. 2016; Roberts and Breithaupt 2016). Masking of important acoustic cues used by invertebrates during larval orientation and settlement may lead to maladaptive behavior that could reduce successful recruitment (Simpson et al. 2011).

Icebreaking associated with the Proposed Action would be short-term and temporary as the vessel moves through an area, and it is not anticipated that this short-term noise would result in significant harm via masking; nor is it expected to result in more than a temporary behavioral reaction of marine invertebrates in the vicinity of the icebreaking event. Icebreaking noise, if perceived by an invertebrate, would likely result in temporary behavioral reactions.

9.3 Conclusion

Based on the discussion above, the Proposed Action would not result in any permanent impact on habitats or prey sources (such as fish and invertebrates) used or consumed by ringed seals or beluga whales.

10 Anticipated Effects of Habitat Impacts on Marine Mammals

The anticipated impact of the loss or modification of the habitat on the marine mammal populations involved.

While the beluga whale and ringed seal may be encountered feeding, breeding, or migrating in the Study Area, the Proposed Action would not be expected to have any habitat-related effects that could cause significant or long-term consequences for individual beluga whales or ringed seals, or their populations. This is because deploying non-impulsive sources operated on UUVs and icebreaking would be limited in duration. In addition, the sound sources that would be left behind for a year or more have low duty cycles and relatively low source levels. There would not be any expected habitat-related effects from non-impulsive acoustic sources or icebreaking noise that could impact subnivean lairs, the primary habitat of ringed seals, during the Proposed Action. There would also be no expected beluga whale habitat-related effects from the non-impulsive acoustic sources or icebreaking noise of the Proposed Action, as beluga whale habitats are within the water column. Based on the discussions in Section 9, there will be no loss or modification of ringed seal or beluga whale prey or prey habitat, and as a result no impacts to marine mammal populations.

11 Mitigation Measures

The availability and feasibility (economic and technological) of equipment, methods, and manner of conducting such activity or other means of effecting the least practicable adverse impact upon the affected species or stocks, their habitat, and their availability for subsistence uses, paying particular attention to rookeries, mating grounds, and areas of similar significance.

Both standard operating procedures and mitigation measures would be implemented during the Proposed Action. Standard operating procedures serve the primary purpose of providing safety and mission success, and are implemented regardless of their secondary benefits (e.g., to a resource), while mitigation measures are used to avoid or reduce potential impacts.

Ships operated by or for the Navy have personnel assigned to stand watch at all times, day and night, when moving through the water (underway). Watch personnel undertake extensive training in accordance with the U.S. Navy Lookout Training Handbook or civilian equivalent, including on-the-job instruction and a formal Personal Qualification Standard program (or equivalent program for supporting contractors or civilians), to certify that they have demonstrated all necessary skills (such as detection and reporting of floating or partially submerged objects). Their duties may be performed in conjunction with other job responsibilities, such as navigating the ship or supervising other personnel. While on watch, personnel employ visual search techniques, including the use of binoculars, using a scanning method in accordance with the U.S. Navy Lookout Training Handbook or civilian equivalent. A primary duty of watch personnel is to detect and report all objects and disturbances sighted in the water that may be indicative of a threat to the ship and its crew, such as debris, or surface disturbance. Per safety requirements, watch personnel also report any marine mammals sighted that have the potential to be in the direct path of the ship as a standard collision avoidance procedure.

While underway the ships (including non-Navy ships operating on behalf of the Navy) utilizing active acoustics and towed in-water devices will have at least one watch person during activities. While underway, watch personnel are alert at all times and have access to binoculars.

The mitigation measures below only apply to sources that area used while the ship is present or during the deployment of any source. The leave-behind sources will be unobserved. The moored and drifting sources are left in place and cannot be turned off until the following year during ice free months. Once they are programmed they will operate at the specified pulse lengths and duty cycles until they are either turned off the following year or there is failure of the battery and are no longer able to operate. Due to the ice covered nature of the Arctic, it is not possible to recover the sources or interfere with their transmit operations in the middle of the permit year without the use of an icebreaking vessel.

11.1 Mitigation Measures

These measures apply to the source deployment and the use of acoustic sources while the ship is still present.

- While in transit, ships shall be alert at all times, use extreme caution, and proceed at a "safe speed" so that the ship can take proper and effective action to avoid a collision with any marine mammal and can be stopped within a distance appropriate to the prevailing circumstances and conditions.
- During mooring deployment or UUV deployment, visual observation would start 30 minutes prior to and during the deployment within a mitigation zone of 180 ft (55 m) around the deployed mooring. Deployment will stop if a marine mammal is visually detected within the mitigation zone.

Deployment will re-commence if any one of the following conditions are met: (1) the animal is observed exiting the mitigation zone, (2) the animal is thought to have exited the mitigation zone based on a determination of its course, speed, and movement relative to the sound source, or (3) the mitigation zone has been clear from any additional sightings for a period of 15 min for pinnipeds and 30 min for cetaceans.

- Ships would avoid approaching marine mammals head on and would maneuver to maintain a mitigation zone of 500 yd. (457 m) around observed whales, and 200 yd. (183 m) around all other marine mammals, providing it is safe to do so during ice free waters.
- These requirements do not apply if a vessel's safety is at risk, such as when a change of course would create an imminent and serious threat to safety, person, vessel, or aircraft, and to the extent vessels are restricted in their ability to maneuver. No further action is necessary if a marine mammal other than a whale continues to close on the vessel after there has already been one maneuver and/or speed change to avoid the animal. Avoidance measures should continue for any observed whale in order to maintain a mitigation zone of 500 yd. (457 m).
- Research vessels shall communicate with at-sea subsistence hunters to ensure impacts from vessel movement to active hunting activities are avoided or minimized. This does not preclude the research vessel from taking measures necessary for safety or security.

12 Arctic Plan of Cooperation

Where the proposed activity would take place in or near a traditional Arctic subsistence hunting area and/or may affect the availability of a species or stock of marine mammal for Arctic subsistence uses, the applicant must submit either a "plan of cooperation" or information that identifies what measures have been taken and/or will be taken to minimize any adverse effects on the availability of marine mammals for subsistence uses.

ONR, along with the cooperating and participating scientists, regularly conduct informational sessions and meetings with the communities and tribes in Alaska, including the Alaska Eskimo Whaling Commission (AEWC), the Arctic Waterways Safety Committee (AWSC), community meetings, and information sessions on Utqiagvik (Barrow) radio stations. The ONR-sponsored chief scientist for AMOS gave a briefing on ONR research planned for 2024-2025 at the AEWC meeting on December 15, 2023 in Anchorage, Alaska. No questions were asked from the commissioners during the brief or in subsequent weeks afterwards. The AEWC consists of representatives from 11 whaling villages (Wainwright, Utqiagvik [Barrow], Savoonga, Point Lay, Nuiqut, Kivalina, Kaktovik, Wales, Point Hope, Little Diomed and Gambell). These briefings have communicated the lack of any effect on subsistence hunting due to the distance of the sources from hunting areas. ONR-supported scientists attend ASWC and AEWC meetings on a regular basis to discuss past, present and future research activities.

Given the determination of no effect, the distance of the activity from subsistence hunting areas and the positive interaction with the communities at the AEWC and AWSC meetings, the Navy does not intend to prepare a formal Plan of Cooperation. If any communities express concern regarding project impacts to subsistence hunting of marine mammals, further communication between Navy and those communities will take place, including provision of any project information, and clarification of any mitigation and minimization measures that may reduce impacts to marine mammals. The North Slope communities have been generally supportive of ONR research as it has non-military applications regarding the changing Arctic environment and how these changes may affect the communities. Points of contact for at-sea communication between the ship captains and the whalers are also established so that there is no conflict of ship transit with hunting activity.

13 Monitoring and Reporting

The suggested means of accomplishing the necessary monitoring and reporting that will result in increased knowledge of the species, the level of taking or impacts on populations of marine mammals that are expected to be present while conducting activities and suggested means of minimizing burdens by coordinating such reporting requirements with other schemes already applicable to persons conducting such activity. Monitoring plans should include a description of the survey techniques that would be used to determine the movement and activity of marine mammals near the activity site(s) including migration and other habitat uses, such as feeding.

13.1 Monitoring Plan

The U.S. Navy has coordinated with NMFS to develop an overarching program plan in which specific monitoring would occur. This plan is called the Integrated Comprehensive Monitoring Program (ICMP) (U.S. Department of the Navy 2011). The ICMP has been developed in direct response to Navy permitting requirements established in various MMPA Final Rules, Endangered Species Act consultations, Biological Opinions, and applicable regulations. As a framework document, the ICMP applies by regulation to those activities on ranges and operating areas for which the Navy is seeking or has sought incidental take authorizations. The ICMP is intended to coordinate monitoring efforts across all regions and to allocate the most appropriate level and type of effort based on set of standardized research goals, and in acknowledgement of regional scientific value and resource availability.

The ICMP is focused on Navy training and testing ranges where the majority of Navy activities occur regularly as those areas have the greatest potential for being impacted. ARA in comparison is a less intensive test with little human activity present in the Arctic. Human presence is limited to the deployment of sources that would take place over several weeks. Additionally, due to the location and nature of the testing, vessels and personnel would not be within the Study Area for an extended period of time. As such, a dedicated monitoring project would not be feasible as it would require additional personnel and equipment to locate seals and a presence in the Arctic during a period of time other than what is planned for source deployment.

The research activities included in these documents will, in addition to meeting military readiness objectives, further knowledge in the areas of ice extent and characterization, oceanographic changes, acoustic propagation and scattering. As the results become published, they will be incorporated into Navy predictions of acoustic effects on marine mammals and improve their accuracy. They will provide information, such as predictions of ice cover in the future, relevant to changes in the environment that may affect the life-cycle and survival of marine mammals. While these results will not be available until sources are recovered and the data is analyzed, it does represent a monitoring of environmental conditions over time that allows us to more accurately assess the future of marine life in the Arctic.

13.2 Reporting

The Navy is committed to documenting and reporting relevant aspects of research and testing activities to verify implementation of mitigation, comply with current permits, and improve future environmental assessments. If any injury or death of a marine mammal is observed during the 2024-25 ARA activity, the Navy will immediately halt the activity and report the incident consistent with the stranding and reporting protocol in other Navy documents such as the Atlantic Fleet Training and Testing Environmental Impact Statement/Overseas Environmental Impact Statement.

14 Suggested Means of Coordination

Suggested means of learning of, encouraging, and coordinating research opportunities, plans, and activities relating to reducing incidental taking and evaluating its effects.

The Navy strives to be a world leader in marine species research and has provided more than \$100 million over the past five years to universities, research institutions, federal laboratories, private companies, and independent researchers around the world to increase the understanding of marine species physiology and behavior.

The Navy sponsors 70 percent of all U.S. research concerning the effects of human-generated sound on marine mammals and 50 percent of such research conducted worldwide. Major topics of Navy-supported research include the following:

- Gaining a better understanding of marine species distribution and important habitat areas
- Developing methods to detect and monitor marine species before and during testing
- Understanding the effects of sound on marine mammals
- Developing tools to model and estimate potential effects of sound

The Navy has sponsored several workshops to evaluate the current state of knowledge and potential for future acoustic monitoring of marine mammals. The workshops brought together acoustic experts and marine biologists from the Navy and outside research organizations to present data and information on current acoustic monitoring research efforts and to evaluate the potential for incorporating similar technology and methods into Navy activities. The Navy supports research efforts on acoustic monitoring and will continue to investigate the feasibility of passive acoustics as a potential monitoring tool. Overall, the Navy will continue to research and contribute to university/external research to improve the state of the science regarding marine species biology and acoustic effects. These efforts include monitoring programs, data sharing with NMFS from research and development efforts, and future research as previously described.

The primary focus of these efforts since the 1990s is on understanding the effects of sound on marine mammals, including physiological, behavioral and ecological effects. ONR's current Marine Mammals and Biology Program thrusts include, but are not limited to: 1) monitoring and detection research; 2) integrated ecosystem research including sensor and tag development; 3) effects of sound on marine life [such as hearing, behavioral response studies, physiology (diving and stress), Population Consequences of Disturbance (PCoD)]; and 4) models and databases for environmental compliance.

This IHA application contains new density information resulting from a Navy-funded density modeling project through a Cooperative Agreement with Duke University. The Arctic density data products produced from this Cooperative Agreement have broad applications for conservation in the marine environment beyond the Navy's uses, and as such, the project contributes to the maintenance and improvement of marine species resources as well as assisting the Navy in meeting its regulatory requirements for testing and training activities. ONR has also funded a project which is looking at the habitat-based use of ice seals in Alaska and the Bering Sea. Though not directly overlapping with the Study Area, the research gives insight to ice seal movements and habitat use in the changing Arctic environment. The results of these efforts will be published in the future and used as best available science for modeling and prediction of animal use and movement.

15 List Of Preparers

Name	Role	Education and Experience
Naval Undersea Warfare Center, Division Newport		
<i>Code 1023, Environmental Branch, Mission Environmental Planning Program</i>		
Emily Robinson	Environmental Scientist, Project Lead and Document Development	Masters of Environmental Science and Management, B.S. Integrated Science and Technology. Environmental Planning Experience: 9 years
Laura Sparks	GIS Support	Masters of Environmental Science and Management, B.A. Political Science, B.A. Marine Affairs. GIS Experience: 11 years
<i>Code 70, Ranges, Engineering, and Analysis Department</i>		
Cassandra DePietro	Mathematician, Marine Mammal Modeling and Prototyper	Masters of Applied Math, B.S. Mathematics. Modeling and Prototype Experience: 7 years
Joseph Fayton	Mathematician, Marine Mammal Modeling and Prototyper	Ph.D. of Mathematics, Masters of Applied Math, B.A. Physics and Mathematics. Modeling and Prototype Experience: 14 years
McLaughlin Research Corporation		
Makenzie Grider	Environmental Scientist, Document Development	Masters of Professional Science in Marine Biology and Ecology, B.A. Marine Biology. Environmental Planning Experience: 1 year

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