



Foro para la Conservación
del Mar Patagónico
y Áreas de Influencia



TORTUGAS MARINAS

Primer Taller Regional de
EVALUACIÓN DEL ESTADO DE CONSERVACIÓN DE ESPECIES
para el MAR PATAGÓNICO según criterios de la Lista Roja de UICN



Primer Taller Regional de Evaluación del Estado de Conservación de Especies para el Mar Patagónico según criterios de la Lista Roja de UICN: TORTUGAS MARINAS. Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA - 2016

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INDICE:

Caretta caretta ... 4
Chelonia mydas ... 16
Dermochelys coriacea ... 30



LC – Least Concern, (IUCN version 3.1)

Assessment Rationale:

This species is present in the Patagonian Sea, throughout Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina, to the latitude of Golfo San Matias (41-42° S; 64-65° W). The vast majority of individuals registered are from the Southwest Atlantic subpopulation (Brazilian breeding sites) which is listed globally as Least Concern. This region is an important feeding area, developmental habitat and migration corridor for juveniles and adults of the species. Main threats in the Patagonian Sea include bycatch in trawl, gillnet and longline fisheries.

Since all Loggerhead turtles in the Patagonian Sea come from the Southwest Atlantic subpopulation, the species is also classified as **Least Concern (LC)** in this regional assessment.

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Taxonomic information

ANIMALIA - CHORDATA - REPTILIA - TESTUDINES - CHELONIIDAE - Caretta - caretta - South West Atlantic subpopulation – (Linnaeus, 1758)

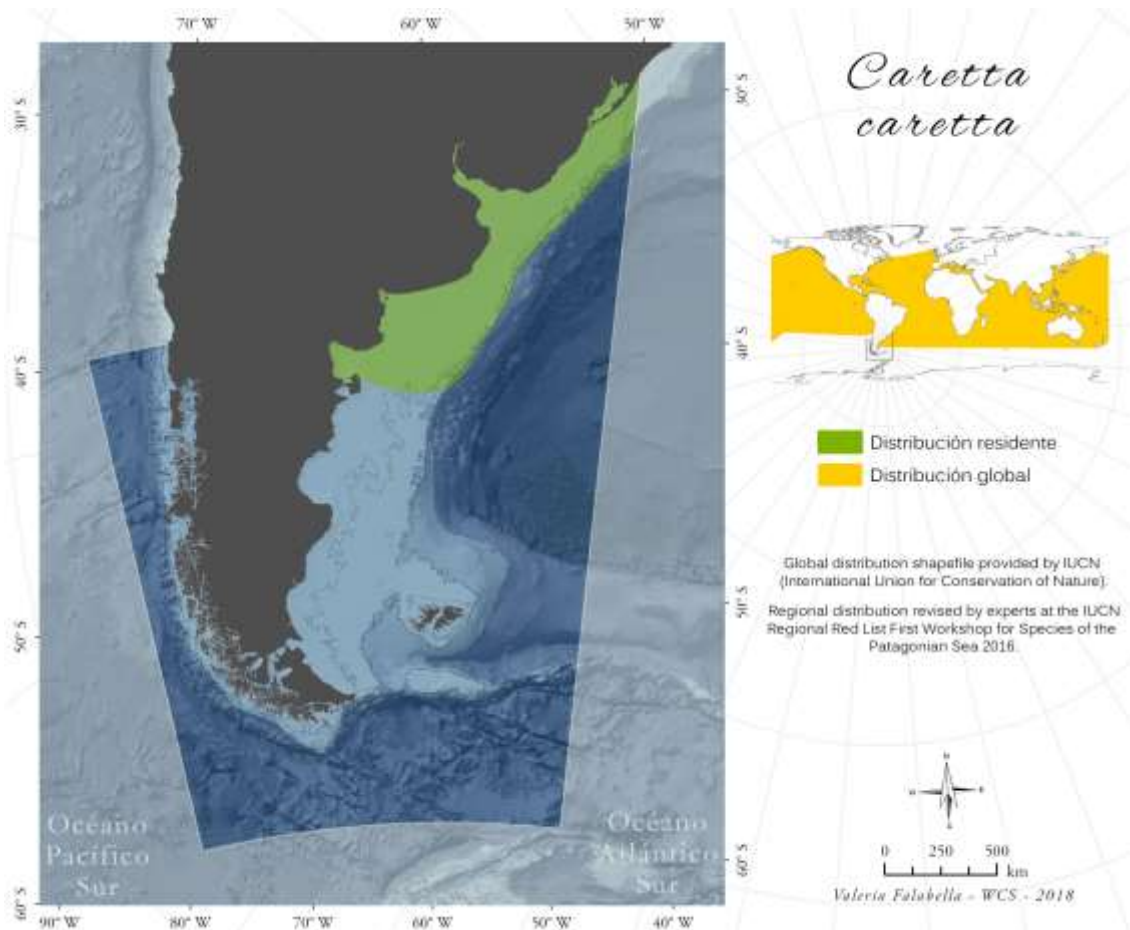
Common Names: Loggerhead Turtle (English), Caguama (Spanish; Castilian), Careba Amarela (Portuguese), Tartaruga Cabeçuda (Portuguese), Tartaruga Comum (Portuguese), Tartaruga Vermelha (Portuguese), Tortue caouanne (French), Tortuga Boba (Spanish; Castilian), Tortuga Cabezona (Spanish; Castilian), Tortuga Careta (Spanish; Castilian), Tortuga Comun (Spanish; Castilian)

Geographic Range

The Loggerhead Turtle has a worldwide distribution in subtropical to temperate regions of the Mediterranean Sea and Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic Oceans (Wallace *et al.* 2010).

The South West Atlantic subpopulation breeds along the coast of Brazil (Marcovaldi and Chaloupka 2007, Marcovaldi and Laurent 1996, Lima *et al.* 2012) and its marine habitats extend throughout most of the South West Atlantic ocean (Barceló *et al.* 2013, González Carman *et al.* 2011, 2016a, Marcovaldi *et al.* 2010, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2015, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013).

Loggerhead turtle is present in the Patagonian Sea (Álvarez-Varas *et al.* 2016; Barceló *et al.* 2013; González Carman *et al.* 2011, 2016; Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013, Marcovaldi and Marcovaldi 1999, Monteiro *et al.* 2016) where the southernmost report is in Golfo San Matias (41-42° S; 64-65° W, González Carman *et al.* 2011). The region is an important feeding area, developmental habitat and migration corridor for juveniles and adults (Barros 2010; González Carman *et al.* 2016a, Barceló *et al.* 2013, Martínez-Souza *et al.* 2013, Monteiro *et al.* 2016, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013). The origin of the individuals and the importance of the Patagonian Sea for the species have been confirmed by mark-recapture studies, satellite tracking and genetic analysis (Barceló *et al.* 2013, Caraccio *et al.* 2008, González Carman *et al.* 2011, González Carman *et al.* 2016a-b, Laporta and López 2003, Marcovaldi *et al.* 2010, Padua Almeida *et al.* 2000, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2015, Reis 2014, Reis *et al.* 2010, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013).



Population

Loggerheads are a single species globally comprising 10 biologically described Regional Management Units (RMUs, Wallace *et al.*, 2010), which describe biologically and geographically explicit population segments by integrating information from nesting sites, mitochondrial and nuclear DNA studies, movements and habitat use by all life stages. RMUs are functionally equivalent to IUCN subpopulations, thus providing the appropriate demographic unit for Red List assessments.

The Loggerhead turtle does not breed in the Patagonian region. The vast majority (all) of Loggerhead turtles in the Patagonian Sea belong to the Southwest Atlantic subpopulation (Araújo 2012, Caraccio *et al.* 2008, Cardozo *et al.* 2016, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2015, Reis *et al.* 2010, Wallace *et al.* 2010)). This subpopulation breeds on at least 15 nesting sites situated in eastern and northeastern Brazil (Marcovaldi and Chaloupka 2007), with a total number of nests estimated at ca. 7,700 per year (Casale *et al.* 2015).

Habitats and Ecology

The Loggerhead Turtle nests on insular and mainland sandy beaches throughout the temperate and subtropical regions. Like most sea turtles, Loggerhead Turtles are highly migratory and use a wide range

of broadly separated localities and habitats during their lifetimes (Bolten and Witherington 2003). Upon leaving the nesting beach, hatchlings begin an oceanic phase, perhaps floating passively in major current systems (gyres) that serve as open-ocean developmental grounds (Bolten and Witherington 2003). After 4-19 years in the oceanic zone, Loggerheads recruit to neritic developmental areas rich in benthic prey or epipelagic prey where they forage and grow until maturity at 10-39 years (Avens and Snover 2013). Upon attaining sexual maturity Loggerhead Turtles undertake breeding migrations between foraging grounds and nesting areas at remigration intervals of 1 to several years with a mean of 2.5-3 years for females (Schroeder *et al.* 2003) while males would have a shorter remigration interval (e.g., Hays *et al.* 2010, Wibbels *et al.* 1990). Migrations are carried out by both males and females and may traverse oceanic zones spanning hundreds to thousands of kilometres (Plotkin 2003). During non-breeding periods, adults reside at coastal neritic feeding areas that sometimes coincide with juvenile developmental habitats (Bolten and Witherington 2003). It is widely accepted that this species is carnivorous throughout its life, with the main difference between populations coming from the proportion of benthic or pelagic fauna in the diet (Bjorndal 1997, Jones and Seminoff 2013).

In the **Patagonian Sea**, juvenile and adult Loggerheads occur along the coast, inhabiting neritic and oceanic waters (Barceló *et al.* 2013, González Carman *et al.* 2016 a,b, Marcolvaldi *et al.* 2010). Particularly in this region, juvenile Loggerheads appear to recruit to neritic waters at about 12 years of age (Lenz *et al.* 2016), much later than the estimated average for the global population. Regarding its feeding, in Patagonia, Loggerheads prey on a wide variety of animals including salps, crabs (Malacostraca), whelks (Gastropoda), among others (Martinez-Souza *et al.* 2013).

The IUCN Red List Criteria define generation length to be the average age of parents in a population (i.e., older than the age at maturity and younger than the oldest mature individual) and care should be taken to avoid underestimation (IUCN 2016). Although different subpopulations may have different generation length, since this information is limited we adopted the same value for all the subpopulations, taking care to avoid underestimation as recommended by IUCN (2016). Loggerheads attain maturity at 10-39 years (Avens and Snover 2013), and we considered here 30 years to be equal or greater than the average age at maturity. Data on reproductive longevity in Loggerheads are limited, but are becoming available with increasing numbers of intensively monitored, long-term projects on protected beaches. Tagging studies have documented reproductive histories up to 28 years in the North Western Atlantic Ocean (Mote Marine Laboratory, unpublished data), up to 18 years in the South Western Indian Ocean (Nel *et al.* 2013), up to 32 years in the South Western Atlantic Ocean (Projeto Tamar unpublished data), and up to 37 years in the South Western Pacific Ocean, where females nesting for 20-25 years are common (C. Limpus, pers. comm). We considered 15 years to be equal or greater than the average reproductive longevity. Therefore, we considered here 45 years to be equal or greater than the average generation length, therefore avoiding underestimation as recommended by IUCN (IUCN Standards and Petitions Subcommittee 2014).

General Use and Trade Information

The South West Atlantic Loggerhead subpopulation was harvested for human consumption in the past, however this has now stopped.

Threats

Threat categories affecting marine turtles, including Loggerheads, were described by Wallace *et al.* (2011) as:

1. Fisheries bycatch: incidental capture of marine turtles in fishing gear targeting other species;
2. Take: direct utilization of turtles or eggs for human use (i.e., consumption, commercial products);
3. Coastal Development affecting critical turtle habitat: human-induced alteration of coastal environments due to construction, dredging, beach modification, etc.;

4. Pollution and Pathogens: marine pollution and debris that affect marine turtles (i.e., through ingestion or entanglement, disorientation caused by artificial lights), as well as impacts of pervasive pathogens (for example fibropapilloma virus) on turtle health;
5. Climate change: current and future impacts from climate change on marine turtles and their habitats (increasing sand temperatures on nesting beaches affecting hatchling sex ratios, sea level rise, storm frequency and intensity affecting nesting habitats, etc.).

Wallace *et al.* (2011) assessed the relative impacts of individual threats to all Loggerhead subpopulations. Fisheries bycatch was classified as the highest threat to Loggerheads globally, followed by coastal development and human consumption of eggs, meat, or other products. Due to lack of information, pollution and pathogens was only scored as affecting three subpopulations and climate change was only scored for two subpopulations. Enhanced efforts to assess and reduce the impacts of these threats on Loggerheads—and other marine turtle species—should be a high priority for future conservation efforts.

In the **Patagonian Sea**, the main threat of Loggerhead turtles is bycatch in trawl, driftnets, bottom gillnets and longlines fisheries (Domingo *et al.* 2006a, Domingo *et al.* 2006b, Pinedo and Polacheck 2004, Kotas *et al.* 2004, Giffoni *et al.* 2008, González Carman *et al.* 2011, Gallo *et al.* 2006, Fiedler *et al.* 2012, Laporta and Lopez 2003, Laporta *et al.* 2013, Sales *et al.* 2008, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013). Entanglement and marine debris ingestion have also been described as threats affecting individuals captured by the longline oceanic fishery fleet (Bugoni *et al.* 2001, Martinez Souza 2009, Martinez Souza *et al.* 2013). Egg harvest for consumption and nesting beach destruction have been successfully addressed by decades of conservation programs at nesting beaches (Marcovaldi and Chaloupka 2007, Marcovaldi *et al.* 2005).

Conservation

In the **Patagonian Sea** Loggerhead turtles have been afforded legislative protection under a number of treaties and laws (González Carman *et al.* 2012, 2015). Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay signed, approved and ratified by their national laws the following International Conventions: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (RAMSAR), Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (CONVEMAR) and Inter-American Sea Turtle Convention (CIT).

The three countries have also national legislation and regulations that directly and indirectly protect sea turtles. In 2014, the Federal Environment Council (COFEMA) of Argentina approved the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles, together with the National Programme of Action to Reduce the Interaction of Marine Turtles with marine debris. In 2011, the Chico Mendes Institute for Conservation da Biodiversidade and Projeto Tamar published the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles in Brazil.

For the South West Atlantic subpopulation, intensive conservation actions have been implemented by several projects in the last decades at nesting beaches and foraging areas through promoting adequate legislation, social inclusion and environmental education in order to stop or reduce direct use, and destruction of nesting habitats (Marcovaldi *et al.* 2005, Marcovaldi and Chaloupka 2007). Initiatives to reduce incidental capture in fisheries are also performed intensively across the region (Domingo *et al.* 2006, González Carman *et al.* 2012). This species is listed Nationally in Uruguay, Argentina and Brazil as Endangered.

Global Conservation

Loggerhead Turtles are afforded legislative protection under a number of treaties and laws (Wold 2002). Annex II of the SPAW Protocol to the Cartagena Convention (a protocol

concerning specially protected areas and wildlife); Appendix I of CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora); and Appendices I and II of the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS). A partial list of the International Instruments that benefit Loggerhead Turtles includes the Inter-American Convention for the Protection and Conservation of Sea Turtles, the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation and Management of Marine Turtles and their Habitats of the Indian Ocean and South-East Asia (IOSEA), the Memorandum of Understanding on ASEAN Sea Turtle Conservation and Protection, the Memorandum of Agreement on the Turtle Islands Heritage Protected Area (TIHPA), and the Memorandum of Understanding Concerning Conservation Measures for Marine Turtles of the Atlantic Coast of Africa.

As a result of these designations and agreements, many of the intentional impacts directed at sea turtles have been lessened: harvest of eggs and adults has been slowed at several nesting areas through nesting beach conservation efforts and an increasing number of community-based initiatives are in place to slow the take of turtles in foraging areas. In regard to incidental take, the implementation of Turtle Excluder Devices has proved to be beneficial in some areas, primarily in the United States and South and Central America (National Research Council 1990). Guidelines are available to reduce sea turtle mortality in fishing operations in coastal and high seas fisheries (FAO 2009). However, despite these advances, human impacts continue throughout the world. The lack of effective monitoring in pelagic and near-shore fisheries operations still allows substantial direct and indirect mortality, and the uncontrolled development of coastal and marine habitats threatens to destroy the supporting ecosystems of long-lived Loggerhead Turtles.

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VU - Vulnerable, (IUCN version 3.1)

Assessment Rationale:

This species is present in the Patagonian Sea, throughout Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina, to the latitude of Valdés Peninsula (42°35'S, 64°17'W). This region is an important feeding area, developmental habitat and migration corridor for juveniles. Main threats affecting this species in the area is bycatch in fisheries and ingestion of marine debris, especially plastics.

Genetic analysis shows that green turtles present in the Patagonian Sea belong to different nesting sites: Ascension Island - UK (61%), Suriname (13%), Isla de Aves - Venezuela (10%) and Ilha Trindade - Brazil (7%). Using a weighted average, based on the proportion of individuals from different nesting sites in the Patagonian Sea combined with changes in nesting females recorded at sites over the past three generation lengths (100-150 years), a 33% decline has been estimated for this species in the Patagonian Sea (from 3023 to 1998 individuals in 2001). **Therefore, this species is listed as Vulnerable A2bd.**

Current data is from the 2004 *Chelonia mydas* Global Account Analysis of Subpopulation Changes, based at 32 Index Sites distributed globally. The information on population size was extracted from Seminoff, J.A. 2004.

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Taxonomic information

ANIMALIA - CHORDATA - REPTILIA - TESTUDINES - CHELONIIDAE - Chelonia – mydas – (Linnaeus, 1758)

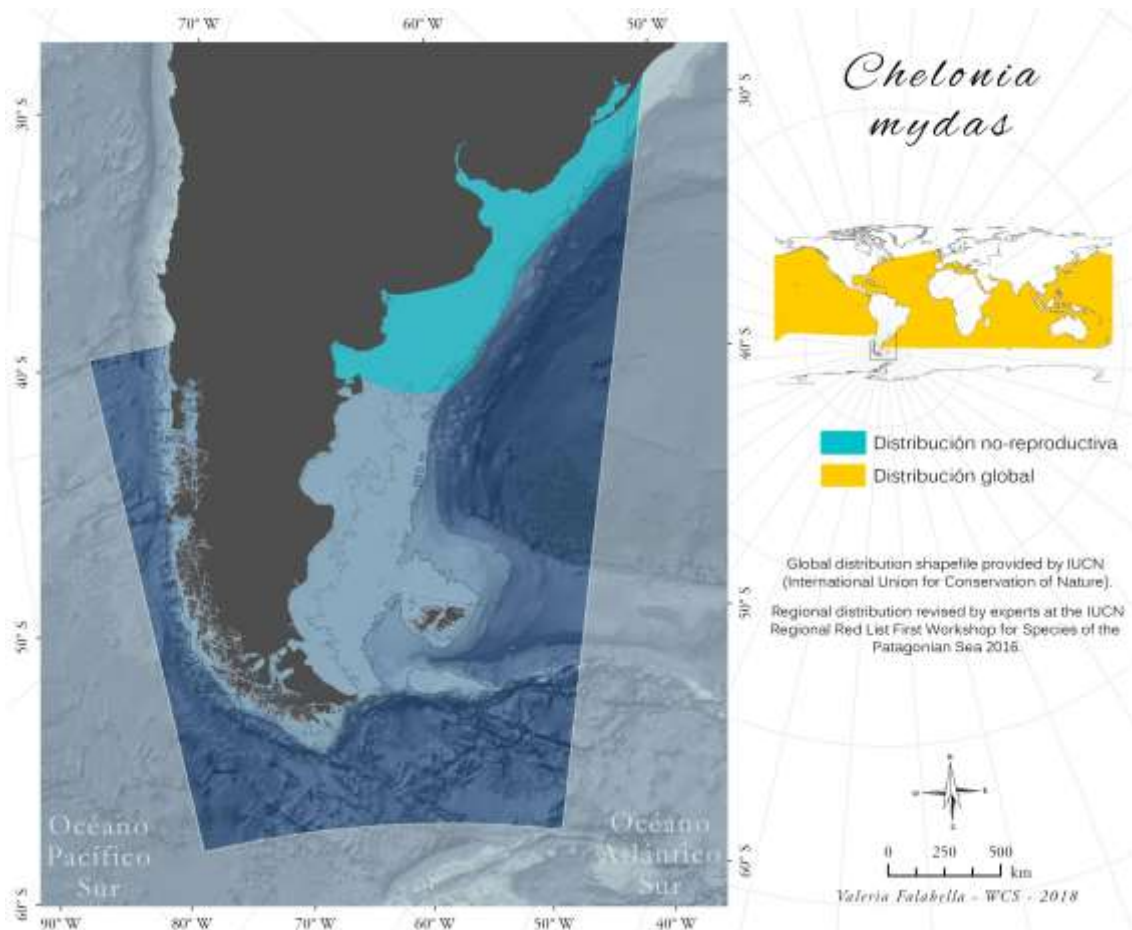
Common Names: Green Turtle (English), Aruanã (Portuguese), Tartaruga Verde (Portuguese), Tortue comestible (French), Tortue franche (French), Tortue verte (French), Tortuga Blanca (Spanish; Castilian), Tortuga Verde (Spanish; Castilian), الخضراء السلحفاة (Arabic)

Synonyms: Testudo mydas Linnaeus, 1758

Geographic Range

The Green Turtle has a circumglobal distribution, occurring throughout tropical and subtropical waters, and also temperate waters to a lesser extent (Atlantic Ocean – eastern central, northeast, northwest, southeast, southwest, western central; Indian Ocean – eastern, western; Mediterranean Sea; Pacific Ocean – eastern central, northwest, southwest, western central). Green turtles are highly migratory and they undertake complex movements and migrations through geographically disparate habitats. Nesting occurs in more than 80 countries worldwide (Hirth 1997). Their movements within the marine environment are less understood but it is believed that green turtles inhabit coastal waters of over 140 countries (Groombridge and Luxmoore 1989).

The species is present in the **Patagonian Sea** throughout Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina, where the southernmost report is in Golfo Nuevo, Península Valdés (42°35'S, 64°17'W, González Carman *et al.* 2011, Scolaro 1990). This region is an important feeding area, as well as a migration corridor for juveniles (Barata *et al.* 2016, González Carman *et al.* 2011, González Carman *et al.* 2012, Godley *et al.* 2003, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2006, Marcovaldi and Marcovaldi 1999, Monteiro *et al.* 2016, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2016, Santos *et al.* 2015).



Population

Green turtles are a single species globally comprising 17 Regional Management Units (RMUs, Wallace *et al.* 2010), which describe biologically and geographically explicit population segments by integrating information from nesting sites, mitochondrial and nuclear DNA studies, movements and habitat use by all life stages. RMUs are functionally equivalent to IUCN subpopulations, thus providing the appropriate demographic unit for Red List assessments. The majority of nesting of global population occurs at Poilão Island, Guinea Bissau (Cтры *et al.* 2002), Ascension Island, UK (Weber *et al.* 2014) and Galibi and Matapica in Suriname (Turny pers. comm.). These three countries represent >90% of the nesting populations included in this assessment. In the southern Caribbean other important nesting sites include Aves Island, Venezuela (García-Cruz *et al.* 2015), Guyana and the French Guiana (Seminoff *et al.* 2015). Significant nesting is also documented in Brazil, along its mainland coast and on its offshore islands, with the major rookeries located on the remote islands of Trindade, Atol das Rocas and Fernando de Noronha (Bellini *et al.* 2013, Moreira *et al.* 1995).

The Green turtle does not breed in the Patagonian region. Individuals in the **Patagonian Sea** region belong to both Southwest and South Central Atlantic subpopulations. Genetic analysis shows that green turtles present at the Patagonia Sea belong to different nesting sites in Ascension Islands, UK (61%), Suriname (13%), Isla de Aves, Venezuela (10%) and Ilha

Trindade, Brasil (7%) (Caraccio 2008, Costa Jordao *et al.* 2015, Proietti *et al.* 2009, Proietti *et al.* 2012, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2012).

Mixed-stock of foraging aggregations of juvenile and subadult green turtles are found throughout the Caribbean and along the coastlines and offshore islands of South America and West Africa. A small proportion of these aggregations have been monitored for over a decade (Bellini *et al.* 2013, Marcovaldi and Marcovaldi 1999, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013,), however very limited information is available on vital population parameters (e.g. survival, residency, abundance) and threats for most of these aggregations.

Habitats and Ecology

Like most sea turtles, green turtles are highly migratory and use a wide range of broadly separated localities and habitats during their lifetimes (for review see Hirth 1997). Upon leaving the nesting beach, it has been hypothesized that hatchlings begin an oceanic phase (Carr 1987), perhaps floating passively in major current systems (gyres) that serve as open-ocean developmental grounds (Carr and Meylan 1980, Witham 1991). After a number of years in the oceanic zone, these turtles recruit to neritic developmental areas rich in seagrass and/or marine algae where they forage and grow until maturity (Bolten 2003, Musick and Limpus 1997). Upon attaining sexual maturity green turtles commence breeding migrations between foraging grounds and nesting areas that are undertaken every few years (Hirth 1997). Migrations are carried out by both males and females and may traverse oceanic zones, often spanning thousands of kilometers (Carr 1986, Mortimer and Portier 1989). During non-breeding periods adults reside at coastal neritic feeding areas that sometimes coincide with juvenile developmental habitats (e.g., Limpus *et al.* 1994, Meylan *et al.* 2011, Seminoff *et al.* 2003).

In the **Patagonian Sea**, immature green turtles occur along the coast, inhabiting shallow and sheltered habitats (Barata *et al.* 2016, Duarte *et al.* 2011, Gonzalez Carman *et al.* 2011, Gonzalez Carman *et al.* 2012, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2006, Monteiro *et al.* 2016, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013, Verneti 2009). Here, juvenile Green turtles recruit to the neritic waters at an age of 2 to 3 years, remaining in this region until reaching about 7 years (Lenz *et al.* 2017). Although it is widely accepted that this species is herbivorous (Bjorndal 1997, Jones and Seminoff 2013) consuming macroalgae and seagrass (Guebert-Bartholo *et al.* 2011, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2006, Santos *et al.* 2011), in some areas of the Patagonian Sea its diet includes a high proportion of animal preys (Bugoni *et al.* 2003, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2015, Nagaoka *et al.* 2012, Santos *et al.* 2015), mainly gelatinous macrozooplankton (Gonzalez Carman *et al.* 2014a, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2016).

General Use and Trade Information

Without information for the Patagonian Sea

Threats

Turtles Subpopulations inhabiting the **Patagonian Sea**, has been particularly threatened by high bycatch (Wallace *et al.* 2011). While past threats that affected these subpopulations (such as the capture eggs or adult individuals for consumption), have been successfully addressed by decades due the work of conservation programs at nesting beaches (Broderick *et al.* 2006, Weber *et al.* 2014, Marcovaldi *et al.* 2005, Bellini *et al.* 2013), now the current and probably increasing threat is represented by fishery bycatch (Sales *et al.* 2008, Monteiro *et al.*

2016, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013, González Carman *et al.* 2012). The responsible fishing method and technique include gillnetting, drift netting, shrimp trawling, and longlining (Domingo *et al.* 2006 a,b, Fiedler *et al.* 2012, Gallo *et al.* 2006, González Carman *et al.* 2011, Laporta *et al.* 2006, Laporta *et al.* 2013, Lezama *et al.* 2013, López-Barrera *et al.* 2012, Marcovaldi *et al.* 2006, Monteiro *et al.* 2005, Monteiro *et al.* 2006, Pinedo and Polacheck 2004, Ramos and Vasconcellos 2013, Rivas 2012, Sales *et al.* 2008, Silva 2006, Vélez-Rubio 2011, Viera 2012).

Also in the region, ingestion of anthropogenic debris represents an important threat to Green turtle populations, causing them direct lethal effects as impaction or perforation of the digestive tract, or indirect effects as the reduce of its energetic reserves, causing a decrease in the growth and survival rates or a retard in the sexual maturity age (Bugoni *et al.* 2001, De Franco 2011, González Carman *et al.* 2014b, Lozoya *et al.* 2015, Murman 2011, Santos *et al.* 2015, da Silva Mendes *et al.* 2015, Teryda 2015, Tourinho *et al.* 2010). Other new threats recorded in the area are the biofouling with *Rapana venosa* (Lezama *et al.* 2012), the ports dredging (Martinez-Souza 2014), the genetic damage associated with effluents (Borrat *et al.* 2013) and the impacts of pervasive pathogens on turtles health, like fibropapilloma virus (Santos *et al.* 2010, Torezani *et al.* 2010). Uruguay has the southernmost record of a turtle infected by this virus (Ferrando *et al.* 2015, Pastorino *et al.* 2007).

Conservation

Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay have signed, approved and ratified by their national laws the following International Conventions: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (RAMSAR), Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (CONVEMAR) and Inter-American Sea Turtle Convention (CIT).

The three countries have also national legislations and regulations that directly and indirectly protect sea turtles (González Carman *et al.* 2012, González Carman *et al.* 2015). In 2014, the Federal Environment Council (COFEMA) of Argentina approved the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles, together with the National Programme of Action to Reduce the Interaction of Marine Turtles with marine debris. In 2011, the Chico Mendes Institute for Conservation da Biodiversidade and Projeto Tamar published the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles in Brazil.

It is important to highlight the value that represents, at local and regional levels, contributions made by different actors that make the ASO-Turtles Network. The role of this network has to be strengthened, as a tool for experience exchanging with other regions, as well as further qualifying protection policies to sea turtles in the respective countries (Tonelli 2005).

Global Conservation

Green turtles have been afforded legislative protection under a number of treaties and laws (e.g., Fleming 2001, Fretey 2001, Humphrey and Salm 1996, Navid 1982). Among the more globally relevant designations are those of Endangered by the World Conservation Union (IUCN; Baillie and Groombridge 1996, Hilton-Taylor 2000); Annex II of the SPAW Protocol to the Cartagena Convention (a protocol concerning specially protected areas and wildlife); Appendix I of CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora); and Appendices I and II of the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS). A partial list of the International Instruments that benefit green turtles includes the Inter-American Convention for the Protection and Conservation of Sea Turtles, the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation and Management of Marine Turtles and their Habitats of

the Indian Ocean and South-East Asia (IOSEA), the Memorandum of Understanding on ASEAN Sea Turtle Conservation and Protection, the Memorandum of Agreement on the Turtle Islands Heritage Protected Area (TIHPA), and the Memorandum of Understanding Concerning Conservation Measures for Marine Turtles of the Atlantic Coast of Africa.

As a result of these designations and agreements, many of the intentional impacts directed at sea turtles have been lessened: harvest of eggs and adults has been slowed at several nesting areas through nesting beach conservation efforts and an increasing number of community-based initiatives are in place to slow the take of turtles in foraging areas. Concerning incidental take, the implementation of Turtle Excluder Devices has proved to be beneficial in some areas, primarily in the United States and South and Central America (National Research Council 1990). However, despite these advances, human impacts continue throughout the world. The lack of effective monitoring in pelagic and near-shore fisheries operations still allows substantial direct and indirect mortality, and the uncontrolled development of coastal and marine habitats threatens to destroy the supporting ecosystems of long-lived green turtles.

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NT – Near Threatened, (IUCN version 3.1)

Assessment Rationale:

Patagonian Sea is the most important feeding ground for Leatherback turtles in the Southwest Atlantic Ocean. Population genetics studies revealed that turtles in this region belong to Southwest or Southeast Atlantic subpopulation (84% breed in West Africa, and approximately 10% in Brazil). The geographical distribution of the Southeast and the Southwest Atlantic subpopulations are identical, but both subpopulations are genetically distinct and do not exchange breeding individuals.

The total breeding area (based on nesting females in both Brazil and West Africa) is approximately 500 km² or less, across approximately 20 nesting (beach) sites (Thomé *et al.* 2007; Tiwari *et al.* 2013). There is a continuing decline in habitat quality from pollution, and decreasing numbers of mature individuals due to capture as bycatch and hunting. The combined population (Brazil and West Africa) can therefore be listed as Near Threatened under B2ab (iii,v). As the individuals observed in the Patagonian Sea are from these combined populations, the species is also listed as **Near Threatened** in this regional assessment.

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Taxonomic information

ANIMALIA - CHORDATA - REPTILIA - TESTUDINES - DERMOCHELYIDAE - Dermochelys – coriácea – (Vandelli, 1761)

Common Names: Leatherback (English), Baula (Spanish; Castilian), Canal (Spanish; Castilian), Cardon (Spanish; Castilian), Coffin-back (English), Dorso de Cuero (Spanish; Castilian), Galapagos (Spanish; Castilian), Leatherback Sea Turtle (English), Leathery Turtle (English), Lederschildkröte (German), Luth (English), Siete Lomos (Spanish; Castilian), Siete Quillas (Spanish; Castilian), Tartaruga-de-casco-mole (Portuguese), Tartaruga-de-couro (Portuguese), Tartaruga-gigante (Portuguese), Tinglada (Spanish; Castilian), Tinglar (Spanish; Castilian), Tora (Spanish; Castilian), Tortue luth (French), Tortuga Caná (Spanish; Castilian), Tortuga Laud (Spanish; Castilian), Trunk Turtle (English), Trunkback Turtle (English), المحيط سلحفاة الظهر جلدية (Arabic)

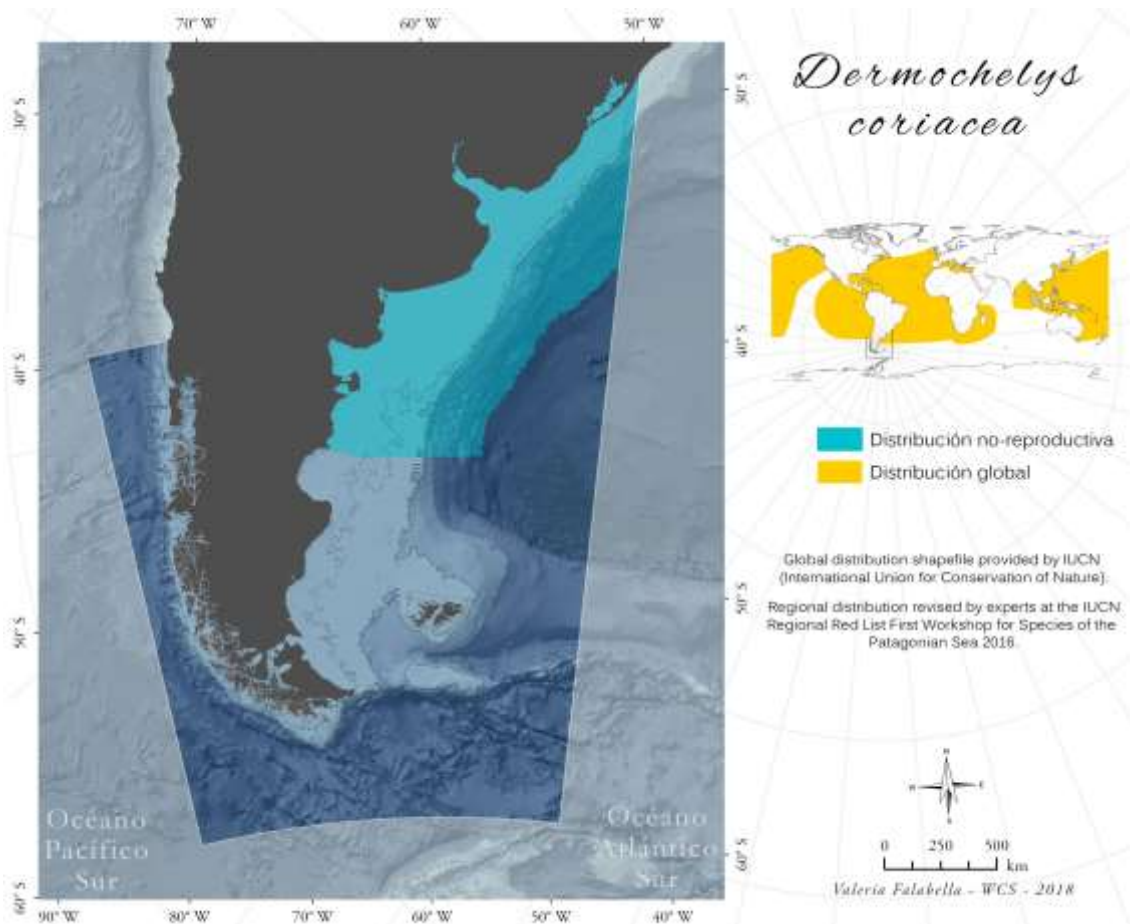
Synonyms: *Testudo coriacea* Vandelli, 1761

Geographic Range

Leatherbacks are circumglobally distributed, using tropical sandy beaches as nesting sites, and foraging ranges that extend into temperate and sub-polar latitudes. See Eckert *et al.* (2012) for more information about Leatherback's global geographic range.

In the Patagonian Sea, leatherbacks range of distribution extends throughout all the South Atlantic Ocean, inhabiting the neritic and oceanic zone. In the particular case of the South Atlantic Leatherback subpopulation, turtles nests in Espiritu Santo-Brazil (Barata *et al.* 2004, Thomé *et al.* 2007) and in East Africa (Formia *et al.* 2000, Fretey 2007, Witt *et al.* 2009).

According to investigations done with satellite telemetry, mark-recapture and strandings case studies, the **Patagonian Sea** is the most important feeding ground for Leatherback turtles in the Southwest Atlantic Ocean (Álvarez-Varas *et al.* 2016, Almeida *et al.* 2011, Billes *et al.* 2006, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2009, Fossette *et al.* 2010, González Carman *et al.* 2011, González Carman *et al.* 2016, González- Paredes *et al.* 2013, Monteiro *et al.* 2016, Vélez-Rubio *et al.* 2013). For this region, the southernmost record, for Leatherback, is registered in oceanic waters at latitude 45°S – 53°W (López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2009).



Population

The global population of Leatherback turtles comprises seven subpopulations, described as Regional Management Units (RMUs), that vary widely in population size, geographic range, and population trends (Wallace *et al.* 2010, Wallace *et al.* 2011). RMUs are functionally equivalent to IUCN subpopulations, thus providing the appropriate demographic unit for Red List assessments. Leatherback RMUs (hereafter subpopulations) are: Northwest Atlantic Ocean, Southeast Atlantic Ocean, Southwest Atlantic Ocean, Northeast Indian Ocean, Southwest Indian Ocean, East Pacific Ocean, and West Pacific Ocean.

The leatherback turtle does not breed in the **Patagonian region**. Individuals found in the Patagonian Sea region belong to both Southeast and Southwest Atlantic subpopulations (Wallace *et al.* 2010). Population genetics studies estimated that 84% of the Patagonian sea Patagonian Sea individuals breed in West Africa and approximately 10% breed in Brazil (Prosdocimi *et al.* 2014, Vargas *et al.* 2008).

The geographical distributions of the Southeast and Southwest Atlantic subpopulations are identical (Wallace *et al.* 2010), nevertheless the two subpopulations are genetically distinct and do not exchange breeding individuals (Dutton *et al.* 2013). The Southeast Atlantic subpopulation breeds in West Africa and is the largest in the world, with a total estimated of 15,730 to 41,373 breeding females (Witt *et al.* 2009). The biggest nesting site is located in Gabón (Fretey *et al.* 2007, Witt *et al.* 2009, Witt *et al.* 2011). The Southwest Atlantic

Leatherback subpopulation nests only in Espiritu Santo, southern Brazil, with a total estimated of 35 mature individuals. Annual number of nests increased at about 20.4% per year between 1995-1996 and 2003-2004 (Thomé *et al.* 2007).

Habitats and Ecology

D. coriacea is an oceanic, deep-diving marine turtle that inhabits tropical, subtropical, and subpolar seas. Leatherbacks make extensive seasonal migrations between different feeding and nesting areas. Leatherbacks feed predominantly on jellyfishes, salps and siphonophores (Bjorndal 1997, Jones and Seminoff 2013).

Females are characterized by migrating during the reproductive seasons, which occur with an interval of several years (2+), producing several clutches (3-10) of 60-90 eggs per reproductive season,. For a thorough review of Leatherback biology, please see Eckert *et al.* (2012).

Satellite tracking studies showed that coastal waters of Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina are important feeding grounds for this species at different stages of its life cycle, being the estuary of Rio de la Plata one of the most important feeding areas for large juveniles and adults (Fossette *et al.* 2010, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2007, López-Mendilaharsu *et al.* 2009). South of this area, the species occurred seasonally during austral summer, from November to May (González Carman *et al.* 2011, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2016a).

Leatherback age at maturity is uncertain, and estimates, based on skeletochronology (Zug and Parham, 1996), and inferences from mark-recapture studies (Dutton *et al.*, 2005), are imprecise (see Jones *et al.* 2011), varying widely between 9 and 15 years. Even, these become more imprecise when we consider updated skeletochronological analyses, which estimated the age at maturity between 26-32 years (mean 29 years, Avens *et al.* 2009). Extrapolations of growth curves of individuals in captivity under controlled thermal and trophic conditions suggested that size at maturity could be reached in 7-16 years (Jones *et al.* 2011). Thus, wild leatherback age at maturity remains uncertain with a high degree of variance. Likewise, leatherback lifespan is unknown. Long-term monitoring studies of leatherback nesting populations have tracked individual adult females over multiple decades (e.g. Santidrián Tomillo, *et al.* unpublished data; Nel and Hughes, unpublished data), but precise estimates of reproductive lifespan and longevity for leatherbacks are currently unavailable. The IUCN Red List Criteria define generation length as the average age of parents in a population; older than the age at maturity and younger than the oldest mature individual (IUCN, 2011). Thus, based on this definition, we estimated generation length is e 30 years, or equal to the age at maturity (estimated in 20 years), plus a conservative estimate of an average reproductive life of 10 years, as assumed by Spotila *et al.* (1996).

General Use and Trade Information

Leatherback eggs and animals are taken for human use (i.e. consumption and commercial products), eggs are also eaten by domestic animals (e.g. dogs).

Threats

Threats vary in time and space, and in relative impact to populations. Fisheries bycatch was classified as the highest global threat for all Leatherback subpopulations, followed by human

consumption of its eggs, meat, or other subproduct, and by coastal development (Wallace *et al.* 2011).

Main threat at the **Patagonian Sea** is fisheries bycatch in trawlers, longliners, driftnets, bottom gillnets, as well as ghost fishing via derelict fishing gear (Domingo *et al.* 2006a, Domingo *et al.* 2006b, Fallabrino *et al.* 2006, Fiedler *et al.* 2012, Fossette *et al.* 2014, Giffoni *et al.* 2008, Kotas *et al.* 2004, Laporta *et al.* 2006a, Laporta *et al.* 2006b, Laporta *et al.* 2013, Monteiro *et al.* 2007, Monteiro 2008, Pinedo and Polachek 2004, Prosdocimi *et al.* 2016b, Rizzi 2014, Sales *et al.* 2008, Vélez-Rubio 2011).

There is a continuing habitat quality decline due pollution, and a decreasing number of mature individuals due bycatch capture and hunt Tiwari *et al.* 2013). Mortality due to bycatch is difficult to estimate, but is inferred to be at least 100 individuals annually, based on records of stranded turtles, which are supposedly killed by fishing gear (Albareda, Prosdocimi and Fallabrino, pers. comm 2016.). Using as a basis a threat analysis, it is estimated that between 100 and 1660 animals are killed in the Southwest Atlantic, particularly due to fisheries (Prosdocimi *et al.* 2016b).

Conservation

In the **Patagonian Sea** Leatherback turtles have been afforded legislative protection under a number of treaties and laws (González Carman *et al.* 2012, González Carman *et al.* 2015). Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay signed, approved and ratified by their national laws the following International Conventions: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (RAMSAR), Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (CONVEMAR) and Inter-American Sea Turtle Convention (CIT).

The three countries have also national legislation and regulations that directly and indirectly protects sea turtles. In 2014, the Federal Environment Council (COFEMA) of Argentina approved the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles, together with the National Program of Action to Reduce the Interaction of Marine Turtles with marine debris. In 2011, the Chico Mendes Institute for Conservation da Biodiversidade and Projeto Tamar published the National Action Plan for the Conservation of Sea Turtles in Brazil.

It is important to highlight the value that represents, at local and regional levels, the contributions made by the different actors that make the ASO-Turtles Network. The role of this network has to be strengthened, as a tool for experience exchanging with other regions, as well as further qualifying protection policies to sea turtles in the respective countries (Tonelli 2005).

Global Conservation

Leatherbacks are protected under various national and international Conventions, laws, treaties, agreements, and memorandum of understanding. Some of international conservation instruments that provide legislative protection for Leatherbacks are: Annex II of the SPAW Protocol, from the Cartagena Convention (a protocol concerning specially protected areas and wildlife); the Leatherback's inclusion in Appendix I of CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora); and Appendices I and II of the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS); the Inter-American Convention for the Protection and Conservation of Sea Turtles (IAC); the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation and Management of Marine Turtles and their Habitats in the Indian Ocean and South-East Asia

(IOSEA); the Memorandum of Understanding on ASEAN Sea Turtle Conservation and Protection; and the Memorandum of Understanding Concerning Conservation Measures for Marine Turtles of the Atlantic Coast of Africa.

Long-term efforts to reduce or eliminate threats to Leatherbacks on nesting beaches have been successful in many places, (e.g. Chacón-Chaverri and Eckert 2007, Dutton *et al.* 2005, Santidrián Tomillo *et al.* 2007, Sarti Martínez *et al.* 2007) but not in all of them (e.g. Chan and Liew 1996). Reducing Leatherback bycatch has become a primary focus for many conservation projects around the world, and some mitigation efforts are showing promising results (Gilman *et al.* 2006, Gilman *et al.* 2011, Watson *et al.* 2005). However, threats to Leatherbacks—bycatch mortality and egg consumption, in particular—persist, and in some places, continue to hinder population recovery (Alfaro-Shigueto *et al.* 2011, Alfaro-Shigueto *et al.* 2012; Tapilatu *et al.* 2013; Wallace *et al.* 2013). To recover Leatherback depleted, the most prevalent and impactful threats must be reduced wherever they occur, whether on nesting beaches or in feeding, migratory, or other habitats (Bellagio Report 2007; Wallace *et al.* 2011, Wallace *et al.* 2013); a holistic approach that addresses threats at all life history stages needs to be implemented (Dutton and Squires 2011). Therefore, current conservation efforts, legal protections, and resources supporting those mechanisms must be maintained—and augmented, wherever possible—to reverse population declines and sustain stable and increasing population trends among Leatherback subpopulations. Regional and local efforts to protect Leatherbacks, their offspring, and their habitats, should be designed to address threats at appropriate scales, and implemented them with participation of appropriate stakeholders.

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