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Pacific green turtle observed nesting on Hermosa Beach, Uvita de Osa, Costa Rica. See pages 25-27.
Photo: Felipe Thomas.

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Substantial Reduction in Annual Production of Kemp's Ridley Sea Turtle Hatchlings on Beaches of Tamaulipas, Mexico May Allow Abundance of Adults to Increase

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This perspective urges Mexico's Comisión Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas (CONANP), US Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) and National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) to consider possible negative effects of continuing annual translocations of most Kemp's ridley sea turtle (*Lepidochelys kempi*) nests (clutches of eggs laid) to protective hatcheries (corrals and polystyrene boxes) on western Gulf of Mexico (GoM) beaches of Tamaulipas, Mexico. Such translocations, combined with reductions in at-sea mortality of neritic (post-pelagic) juveniles and adults, appear to have led unintentionally to excessive abundance of neritic juveniles (Caillouet 2019). Excessive abundance of neritic juveniles, combined with reduced carrying capacity for the Kemp's ridley population within the GoM, may have contributed in part to the 2010-2020 nesting setback and prevented post-2009 increase in abundance of adults, especially females (Caillouet *et al.* 2018; Caillouet 2019). Because of Tamaulipas's coastal waters and beaches predominance in Kemp's ridley reproductive effort and output (Caillouet *et al.* 2016a; Caillouet & Gallaway 2020), their contribution to excessive abundance of neritic juveniles may also have suppressed nesting of secondary (Veracruz, Mexico) and tertiary (Padre Island National Seashore, Texas) nesting colonies. There has been close correspondence between trends in annual nests in Tamaulipas and Texas (Dixon & Heppell 2015; Shaver *et al.* 2016b). Despite providing evidence of pre-2010 slowing of the rate of increase in the Kemp's ridley population, Caillouet *et al.* (2016a) stated that conservation practices that enhance annual hatchling production on nesting beaches of Tamaulipas, Veracruz, and Texas probably would be the most expedient ways to restore population growth. Caillouet (2019) nuanced that suggestion by concluding instead that such practices are essential to maintenance and enhancement of secondary and tertiary nesting colonies on the coasts of Veracruz and Texas, respectively, which contribute to the population's diversity and resilience, while being essential on Tamaulipas beaches "at a level to be determined".

To test the hypothesis of excessive abundance of neritic juvenile Kemp's ridleys, Caillouet (2019) recommended that age-structured modeling be used to estimate post-1984 annual numbers of neritic juveniles and adults, so that a post-1984 time series of the quotient derived from annual number of adults divided by annual number of neritic juveniles could be examined. If this quotient declined, the decline would support the hypothesis. However, even if such analyses supported the hypothesis and annual hatchling production on Tamaulipas beaches were reduced substantially, it could take 10 yrs or more before effects could be detected, because of the time lag related to age at sexual maturity (Avens *et al.* 2017, 2020; Caillouet 2019). This lends urgency to implementing the as-yet unfulfilled age-structured modeling and examination of the post-1984 time series of the quotient. Recommendations by Caillouet (2019) are consistent

with previous extensive uses of age-structured modeling to assess effects of conservation interventions and other factors affecting status and trends of the Kemp's ridley population (Márquez-M. *et al.* 1982; Heppell *et al.* 1996, 2005, 2007; Heppell & Crowder 1998; TEWG 1998, 2000; Crowder & Heppell 2011; NMFS *et al.* 2011; Gallaway *et al.* 2013, 2016a, b; NMFS & USFWS 2015; Kocmoud *et al.* 2019; Ramirez 2019). Theoretical papers by Schröder *et al.* (2014) and DeRoos (2018) discuss juvenile versus adult abundances and their effects on population dynamics.

Translocation of nests to on-beach hatcheries is considered highly manipulative (Meylan & Ehrenfeld 2000), but it was necessary, in combination with conservation interventions that reduced at-sea mortality of neritic life stages, to prevent Kemp's ridley's extinction and to put this species on a course toward recovery (Marquez-M. 1994; Heppell *et al.* 2005, 2007; Márquez-M. *et al.* 2005; Gallaway *et al.* 2013, 2016a, b; Márquez-Millán & Garduño-Dionate 2014; Burchfield & Peña 2015; Caillouet *et al.* 2015, 2016a; Kocmoud *et al.* 2019; Wibbels & Bevan 2019). Egg-to-hatchling survival is lower for nests left *in situ*, even when *in situ* nests are protected in various ways (Marquez M. 1987; Pritchard 1990, 2007; TKRRT 1992; Marquez-M. 1994; Márquez *et al.* 1999; Márquez-M. *et al.* 2005; Bevan *et al.* 2014, 2016; Márquez-Millán & Garduño-Dionate 2014; Burchfield & Peña 2015; Burchfield *et al.* 2020).

Pritchard (2007) questioned whether "the more turtles the better" conservation philosophy applied to Kemp's ridleys on Tamaulipas beaches should be abandoned. By 2004, the annual number of nests had increased to levels exceeding capabilities to translocate most of them to on-beach hatcheries (Bevan *et al.* 2014; Caillouet *et al.* 2016a; Gallaway *et al.* 2016a, b; Kocmoud *et al.* 2019). Therefore, a decision was made to reduce numbers of nests translocated to on-beach hatcheries and thus increase annual numbers of nests left *in situ*. However, *in situ* nests have continued to be protected in various ways on Tamaulipas beaches (Burchfield *et al.* 2020) and annual hatchling production has not been substantially reduced.

Arribada nesting on Tamaulipas beaches is the biogeographical norm for Kemp's ridley (Hildebrand 1963, 1982; Pritchard 2007; Wibbels & Bevan 2019). In the distant past, Kemp's ridley arribadas overwhelmed predators with ephemeral oversupplies of food, thereby perpetuating the species (Pritchard 2007). However, arribada nesting was disrupted primarily by exploitation of eggs on Tamaulipas beaches and mortality in neritic juveniles and adults caught unintentionally in shrimp trawls (Carr 1963, 1967, 1977; Hildebrand 1963; Marquez-M. 1994; Heppell *et al.* 2005, 2007; Gallaway *et al.* 2013, 2016a, b; Márquez-Millán & Garduño-Dionate 2014; Burchfield & Peña 2015; Caillouet *et al.* 2015, 2016a; Kocmoud *et al.* 2019; Wibbels & Bevan 2019).

Kemp's ridley population status and trends have been measured by annual numbers of nests (N_t , where t is calendar year) and

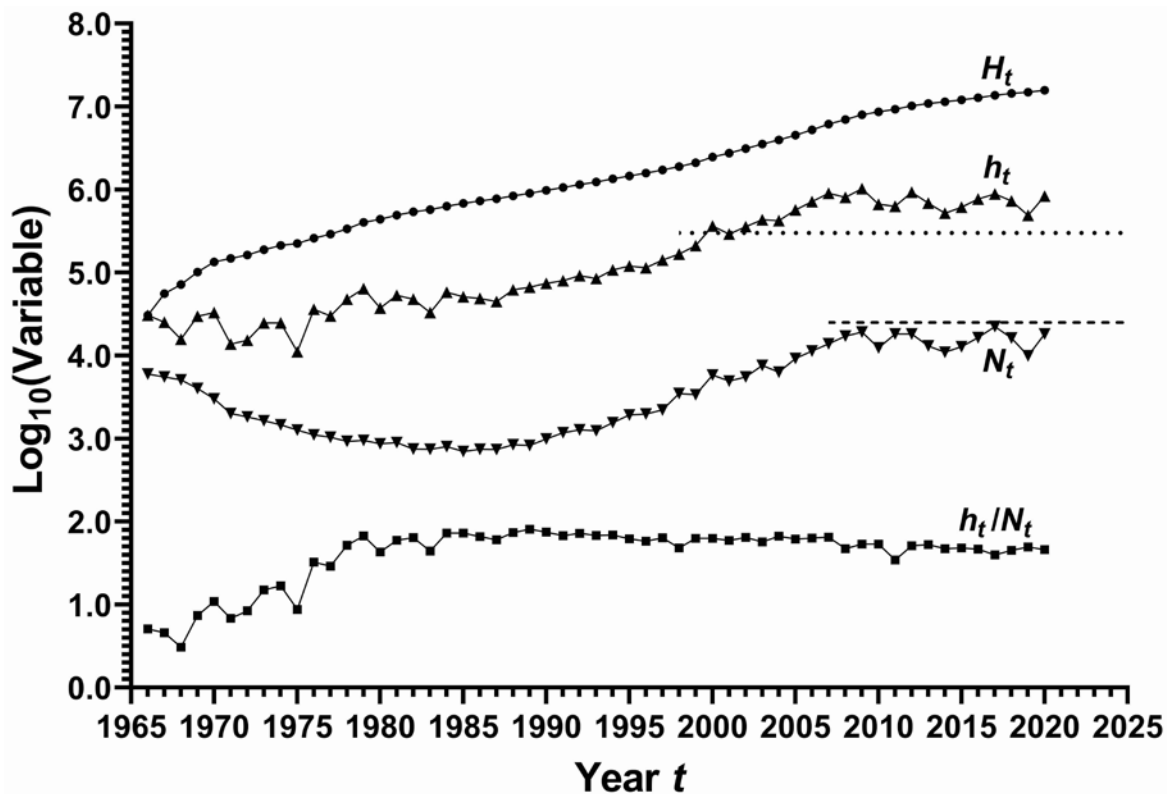


Figure 1. Trends in Log_{10} -transformed H_t , h_t , N_t and h_t/N_t (where t = calendar year) on the index beach, Tamaulipas, Mexico, 1966-2020, compared to Log_{10} -transformed downlisting thresholds for h_t (horizontal dotted line) and N_t (horizontal dashed line).

hatchlings released (h_t) into the GoM from the Tamaulipas index beach (Rancho Nuevo, Tepehuajes and Playa Dos beach segments combined) (Fig. 1; NMFS *et al.* 2011; NMFS & USFWS 2015). I emphasize that N_t and h_t comprise most but not all of the nests and hatchlings documented annually on Tamaulipas beaches (Heppell *et al.* 2007; Burchfield *et al.* 2020). The US-Mexico recovery plan (NMFS *et al.* 2011; NMFS & USFWS 2015) provided N_t and h_t thresholds for downlisting Kemp's ridley from endangered to threatened status; *viz.*, $N_t = 25,000$ nests (equivalent to 10,000 adult females nesting in a season) and $h_t = 300,000$ hatchlings released in a season (Fig. 1). The downlisting threshold for h_t was exceeded during 2000-2020, except for 2001 when it was 291,268, while N_t remained below its downlisting threshold (Fig. 1).

Also shown in Fig. 1 are trends in two derived variables; *viz.*, cumulative numbers of hatchlings released (H_t ; Caillouet *et al.* 2016a) and numbers of hatchlings released per nest (h_t/N_t ; Caillouet 2014). The variable H_t reflects total numbers of hatchling ever released from Tamaulipas beaches, beginning in 1966. The variable h_t/N_t reflects annual fecundity of nesters and hatch rates, which are influenced by many factors (Caillouet 2014; Caillouet *et al.* 2016a). In any year, h_t is determined for the most part by N_t , but it has also been affected by the post-1989 decline in h_t/N_t (Caillouet 2014; Caillouet *et al.* 2016a). Fecundity of nesters declined as the annual proportion of neophyte (first time) nesters increased (Marquez-M. 1994; Heppell *et al.* 2005, 2007; Witzell *et al.* 2005; Caillouet 2014; Caillouet *et al.* 2016a, 2018; Shaver *et al.* 2016b), and this may have contributed to the decline in h_t/N_t . Intentional increases in numbers of nests left in situ (Bevan *et al.* 2014) also could have contributed to the post-2003 decline in h_t/N_t . A mark-recapture study of Tamaulipas

nesters during 2014-2015 found that 86% were putative neophytes (Burchfield & Peña 2015).

For years 1986–2014, Caillouet *et al.* (2016a) detected pre-2010 slowing of rates of increase in (1) the relationship between N_t and H_{t-10} , and (2) the times series of N_t/H_{t-10} . Caillouet *et al.* (2018) detected pre-2010 slowing of the rate of increase in N_t (Fig. 1). The finite multiplication rate (N_t/N_{t-1}) reached a temporary peak in 2000 (Fig. 2; see also Fig. 1B in Caillouet *et al.* 2018) and its maximum level in 2020 (Fig. 2). Assuming 10 yrs to maturity, its most recent surge may be a response to the 2009 hatchling release (indexed by $h_t = 1,025,027$), which was the highest on record (Fig. 1). This recent surge may also provide optimism that population growth has resumed; however, the highest N_t within the 1966-2020 time series was 22,415 in 2017, which is 4,239 (23%) higher than its 18,176 level in 2020. Only time will tell whether the nesting setback has ended.

Five years before the Deepwater Horizon (DWH) oil spill occurred in the northern GoM, Heppell *et al.* (2005) raised concerns that carrying capacity had changed and could prevent Kemp's ridley from reaching original levels. In 2006, Peter C.H. Pritchard suggested that carrying capacity might be exceeded because of intensive conservation efforts applied over the years (Caillouet 2014). GoM ecosystem alteration and degradation were underway long before the DWH oil spill (Heppell *et al.* 2007; Jackson 2008; Peterson *et al.* 2011; Walker *et al.* 2012; Yasuhara *et al.* 2012; Karnauskas *et al.* 2013; Shepard *et al.* 2013; Benitez *et al.* 2014; DWH NRDA Trustees 2016; Davis 2017; Hu *et al.* 2017; Scavia *et al.* 2017; Ward 2017; Wallace *et al.* 2020). Gallaway *et al.* (2013) mentioned the possibility that the assumption of density-independent

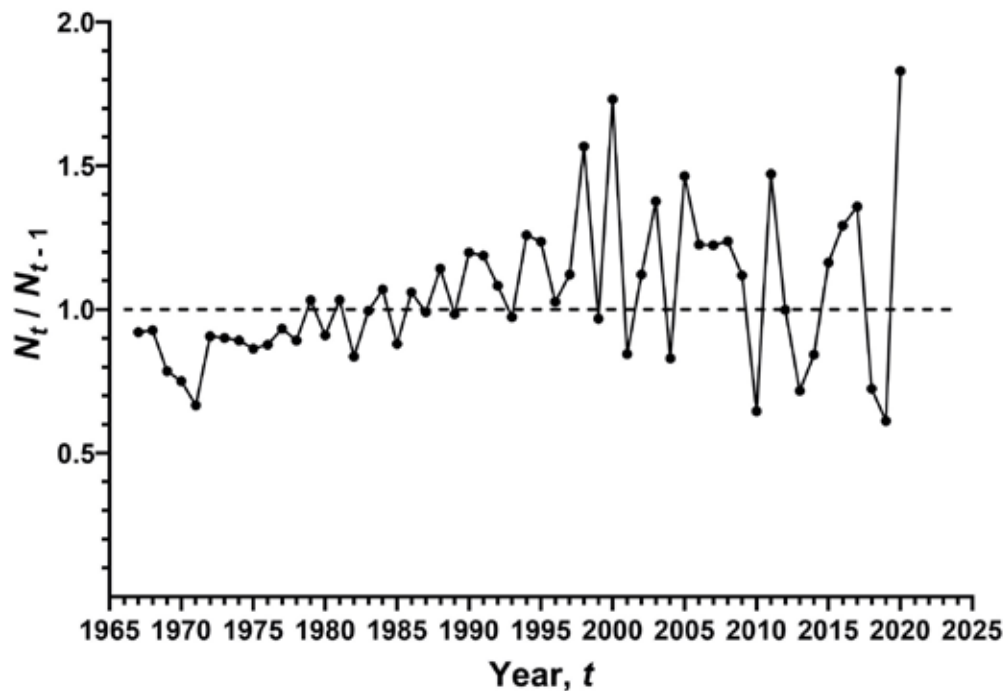


Figure 2. Trend in finite multiplication rate, N_t/N_{t-1} , for the Kemp’s ridley index beach, Tamaulipas, Mexico, 1967-2020. The horizontal dashed represents $N_t = N_{t-1}$ (no change between consecutive years $t-1$ and t). Values of N_t/N_{t-1} above the horizontal dashed line indicate increases ($N_t > N_{t-1}$), and those below the line indicate decreases ($N_t < N_{t-1}$).

mortality in age-structured modeling of the Kemp’s ridley population may no longer be valid due to limits imposed by carrying capacity, but Gallaway *et al.* (2016b) considered density-dependent mortality unlikely for benthic-stage (neritic) Kemp’s ridleys. Kocmoud *et al.* (2019) suggested that environmental factors caused the remigration interval for nesting females to increase. Avens *et al.* (2017, 2020) and Ramirez *et al.* (2020, 2021) compared Kemp’s ridleys in the GoM and western North Atlantic Ocean with regard to age, growth, and maturity as related to environmental factors.

If age-structured modeling shows abundance of neritic immatures to be excessive, then consideration should be given to translocating excess clutches from Tamaulipas to other beaches throughout the northern GoM, to bolster the existing nesting colony on the coast of Padre Island National Seashore, and to establish new ones. Nesting on GoM beaches north and east of Tamaulipas, and along the eastern coast of North America may eventually become more important to Kemp’s ridley population growth, recovery, resiliency, diversity and sustainability as climate warms and sea level rises (Heppell *et al.* 2007; Poloczanska *et al.* 2009; Putman *et al.* 2010a, b; Caillouet 2012, 2019; Pike 2013a, b; Shaver *et al.* 2013; 2016a, b; Caillouet *et al.* 2016b, 2018; Bevan *et al.* 2019; Butler 2019; Fuentes *et al.* 2019; Griffin *et al.* 2019; Innis *et al.* 2019; Reid *et al.* 2019; Dubois *et al.* 2020). However, Kemp’s ridley may not be capable of adjusting rapidly enough to climate warming and sea level rise because of its fidelity to reproducing predominantly along the Tamaulipas coast (*ibid.*). Currently, it is unlikely that many if any Kemp’s ridley hatchlings that enter the western NAO from rare nestings on the US east coast survive (Ramirez, M.D., pers. comm.; Caillouet & Gallaway 2020). Coastal currents and configurations and widths of continental shelves of the GoM and western NAO also influence locations of Kemp’s ridley reproductive and foraging

areas (Carr 1980; Rudloe & Rudloe 2005; Putman *et al.* 2010a, b; Shaver *et al.* 2013, 2016b; Caillouet & Gallaway 2020). In addition, river inflows (especially that of the Mississippi River) are greater along the GoM coast than along the east coast of North America, and they are essential to sustaining coastal estuaries that support life cycles of key Kemp’s ridley prey species such as blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) (Hildebrand 1982; Vanderkooy 2013; Perry & Vanderkooy 2015; Gallaway *et al.* 2016b; O’Connell *et al.* 2019). In addition, restoration of the GoM ecosystem should increase carrying capacity for the Kemp’s ridley population (Caillouet *et al.* 2018; Caillouet 2019).

Kemp’s ridley’s largest documented single-day arribada occurred on 18 June 1947, and it has been adopted as a benchmark for this species’ recovery (Bevan *et al.* 2016; Wibbels & Bevan 2019). Therefore, consideration should be given by CONANP, USFWS and NMFS to examining existing daily nest counts during 1966-2020 to find the largest single-day nest count in each of those seasons. The trend in largest single-day nest counts would be informative as an index of single-day arribada size and progress toward recovery. My guess is that it would show the Kemp’s ridley population to be far from recovery, even though its downlisting criterion for females nesting in a season has been approached, while that for hatchlings has been exceeded in 20 of the last 21 years (Fig. 1).

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War on Polyethylene Terephthalate. Liechtenstein Post's Anti-plastic Campaign

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Landlocked Liechtenstein, a Central European nation located in the Alps, is renowned as a winter sport destination. Thus, conservation biologists looked on with interest when, on 7 September 2020, the Principality issued an unusual stamp, as part of the philatelic issues by Liechtensteinische Post AG, the official postal authority of the country (Fig. 1). The stamp draws attention to the dangers posed by plastic pollution on marine life, as highlighted on the cover (Fig. 2), and a marine turtle consuming a piece of plastic is depicted in the maximum card (Fig. 3).

Plastic pollution in natural environments has been widely documented, and by one estimate, of the 275 million metric tonnes of waste generated in 2010, 4.8 to 12.7 million metric tonnes were released into the world's oceans (Jambeck *et al.* 2015). The accumulation of plastic material, often symbolised by the Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) bottle, is known to have affected ecosystems and species for decades. Harm brought to marine turtles has been suggested to include mortality following ingestion (Nelms *et al.* 2015), with pelagic stages of species more prone to consuming plastic (Clukey *et al.* 2017).

The goal of the new issue from Liechtenstein is to draw attention to environmental protection and the recovery of recyclable materials. The stamp was embroidered by the firm, Hämmerle & Vogel in Lustenau, Austria from polyester yarn thread derived from 3,100 recycled Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) bottles of 600 ml volume. The three million meters of recycled polyester thread used

is sufficient to encircle the border of Liechtenstein forty times. Hämmerle & Vogel is familiar to many for its other innovative stamps, such as the cotton-embroidered issues from Austria, including "Petit Point" (Eidelweiss flowers) issued 17 September 2010 (Stanley Gibbons catalog number, SG 3054), "Dirndl" (showing traditional Austrian ladies wear) issued 22 September 2016 (SG 3417), and the merino sheep wool thread used in the manufacture of the "Styrian Hat," issued 22 September 2018 (SG 3533). The firm also produced two souvenir sheets for Liechtenstein, issued to commemorate 300 Years of the Principality, on 12 January 2019. Shaped like crowns, they are cloth-embroidered, the special edition with a 24 carat gold thread, in addition to showing eight embedded Swarovski crystals. The 2,019 units (representing the year of issue) issued were distributed via a lottery (the catalog number SG 1864 was attributed to the regular version).

The current issue of interest is a near-circular, self-adhesive, blue (water) and green (land) stamp, of face value €6.30, and shows an embroidered globe in the center and three green leaves to the left, thus incorporating a natural motif. Not only can it be used as a postage stamp, the same can be attached to clothes and other accessories as an appliqué. The embroidered letterings (also from recycled plastic) indicate "Fürstentum Liechtenstein," or 'Principality of Liechtenstein,' on the outer edge of the globe, with the face value indicated within. The unusual stamp was produced using an automated process (Fig. 4).



Figure 1. A mint, plastic thread embroidered stamp from the 'PET Recycling' issue from 7 September 2020 (SG 1917).



Figure 2. A stamp on a first day cover, showing a Vaduz, Liechtenstein, cancellation.

The value of postage stamps in public education is recognized widely, topics as diverse as the social sciences (Kirman & Jackson 2000), medicine (Andrews 1956), politics (Raento 2006), and other fields. Yeung (2018) argued the cost-efficiency of postage stamps for conservation education, nature-themed stamps having the potential as a powerful tool for advocacy.

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Figure 3. A stamp on a maximum card, showing one possible effect of plastic in marine environments.



Figure 4. Production of the PET-bottle-based embroidered stamp required over a million revolutions to produce the output of 40,000 sheetlets. On the other hand, a single embroiderer, using manual tools, would take an estimated 25 years to produce these.

Occurrence of Sea Turtles on Niterói City Beaches, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

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Sea turtles have been threatened throughout their existence, with the main threats being caused by anthropogenic factors, such as bycatch in fisheries, urban beach development, reduction of coastal nesting areas, and chemical or debris pollution/litter (Wyneken *et al.* 1988; Epperly *et al.* 1996; Lutcavage *et al.* 1997; Gallo 2001; Domingo *et al.* 2006). Currently, all species are included in the IUCN Red List of Endangered Species (www.redlist.org), as well as in the Brazilian Ministry of Environment Red List (ICMBIO 2018). These threats create an imbalance in sea turtle populations, in which replacement rates occur below mortality rates, causing decreases in population viability (Lutz & Musick 1996; Lutz *et al.* 2002).

Green sea turtles (*Chelonia mydas*, Linnaeus 1758) inhabit many coastal habitats, entering bays and estuaries and, consequently, are highly vulnerable to anthropogenic pressures (Bugoni *et al.* 2001; Rodrigues 2012). As coastal juveniles, they display a preference for an herbivorous diet, and they begin to look for areas with the presence of rocky shores, where they can find their preferred food (Balazs 1980; Hirth 1997; Rodrigues 2012). In Brazil, this species' feeding areas are distributed along the coast. However, priority nesting areas are located on the oceanic islands of Atol das Rocas, in the state of Rio Grande do Norte, Fernando de Noronha, in the state of Pernambuco, and Ilha de Trindade, in the state of Espírito Santo (Almeida *et al.* 2011).

A first step in identifying important areas of sea turtle occurrence is using the head counting technique through observations carried out from a fixed point. This technique is used in several activities that have the potential risk of interacting with sea turtles, such as in oil and gas exploration. It is also common in management plans for port dredging operations, in which the observation regarding the presence of marine animals is necessary both before and during operations (Gitschlag & Herczeg 1994; Santos *et al.* 2011; Goldberg *et al.* 2015; Santos *et al.* 2015; Sforza *et al.* 2017). In Brazil, studies that documented the occurrence of sea turtles in regions undergoing seismic surveys have also applied this methodology (Gurjão *et al.* 2005; Parente *et al.* 2006). In the city of Niterói, Brazil, studies carried out by the Aruanã Project have used this methodology as an auxiliary tool to identify periods with the highest number of sightings and thus to inform conservation strategies. In this methodology, the exact number of individuals cannot be estimated, but relative abundance indicates the main areas of occurrence.

Considering there have been regular sightings of these animals by the local community in several beaches in Guanabara Bay and surrounding areas, our study goal was to identify the areas of greatest sea turtle occurrence along the coast in the municipality of Niterói, in the state of Rio de Janeiro. We also wanted to analyze if there temporal variation in daily observations of turtles. These results are important for providing information that could be used in local

conservation actions and could contribute to the development of future management plans for the protection of the sea turtles that live in the region.

The observations were carried out at the beaches of Itaipu (22.97083 °S, 43.04638 °W), Icaraí (22.90548 °S, 43.11972 °W), Jurujuba (22.92750 °S, 43.11803 °W), Adão (22.92771 °S, 43.12285 °W) and Eva (22.93000 °S, 43.12277 °W), located in Niterói, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The selection of these beaches was based on sea turtle occurrence reports from the local community. Except for Itaipu, the beaches are located within the Guanabara Bay, and are characterized as semi-enclosed coastal ecosystems, with an entrance that protects its waters from waves (Amador 1980). As an estuarine system, it presents a complex environment with high environmental variability, determined by factors like salinity and variations in the wave height and water circulation patterns, mainly governed by tides (Amador 1997). The bay's central region exhibits greater oceanic circulation, reflecting water quality and sediment type and aquatic biota distribution (Mayr *et al.* 1989; Amador 1997; Soares 2010; Amador 2012).

Due to its central and strategic location in the metropolitan region of the state of Rio de Janeiro, the second largest metropolis in the country, Guanabara Bay is used for various commercial activities. It is surrounded by large port centers, landfills, fishing piers, public roads, fishing activities, and several domestic sewage and industrial effluents dumping sites. Thus, the region suffers from the intense anthropogenic activity, being considered one of the most polluted bays along the Brazilian coast (Amador 1997; Valentin *et al.* 1999).

Icaraí beach is located inside Guanabara Bay, and it is approximately 1,400 m long. Adão and Eva are small nearby beaches, adjacent to each other, 250 m and 150 m long, respectively (Guia de Niterói 2014). Jurujuba beach is about 300 m long and is characterized by calm waters with significant influence of pollution ejected from Guanabara Bay (Guia de Niterói 2014). At Jurujuba beach, there is a traditional community of fishermen who, due to the collapse of artisanal fishing, organized and implemented mussel farms in the region to increase their income and reduce dependence on fishing (Capello & Brotto 2016).

Itaipu Beach, by contrast, is the only oceanic beach included in this study (Fig. 1), although the Bay may influence it due to its proximity. It is approximately 700 m long and continuously receives contributions from continental waters, through Itaipu Lagoon (Salvador & Silva 2002). Itaipu beach is located in a cove that is characterized by its fairly calm waters and has a set of three coastal islands that act as partial protection from waves; it also serves as a port for numerous boats that come from the city of Rio de Janeiro (Salvador & Silva 2002; Monteiro-Neto *et al.* 2008). Moreover, there is the presence of rocky banks, a rocky slab in the middle

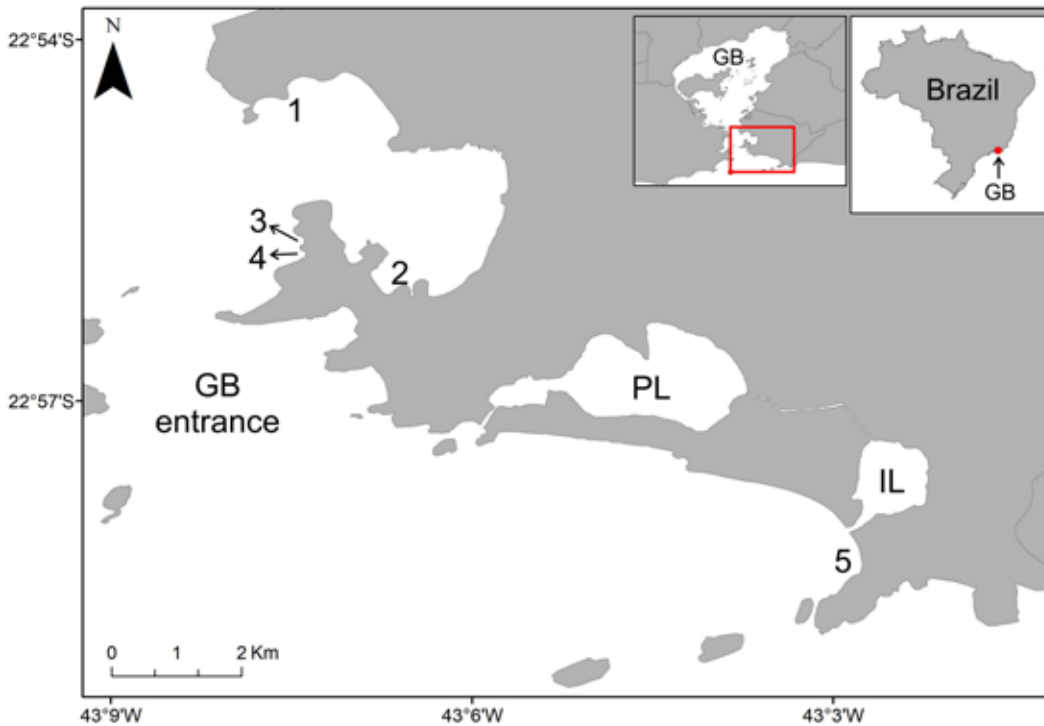


Figure 1. Map of the study area showing the five beaches in the municipality of Niterói, in the state of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. 1: Icaraí Beach, 2: Jurujuba Beach, 3: Adão Beach, 4: Eva Beach and 5: Itaipu Beach. GB: Guanabara Bay; PL: Piratininga Lagoon; IL: Itaipu Lagoon.

part closest to the beach, and an artificial canal constructed with rocks in which algae are abundant (Braga *et al.* 2014; Nunes 2016).

Data were collected from August 2016 to February 2017, through *in situ* observations, by Projeto Aruanã trainees at Itaipu, Icaraí, Jurujuba, Adão and Eva Beaches in Niterói, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. During this time, the same group of trainees collected the field data. Six months was considered a long enough timeframe for the purpose of the study. A total of 31 weeks and 276 observation days were carried out from August 2016 to February 2017 (57 days in Itaipu, 72 in Icaraí, 73 in Jurujuba, 45 in Adão and 20 in Eva).

The observations took place once a week at each beach from 08:00 to 16:00 h, divided into shifts and the same shifts were not necessarily completed on the same day. The morning shift was covered from 08 to 11 h and the afternoon shift was covered from 13 to 16 h. Except for Adão, the beaches were sectioned in smaller areas to reduce the chances of not seeing a turtle when it came up to breathe. These sections were made according to the beach size. Eva beach had two sections, Itaipu and Jurujuba beaches had three sections and Icaraí beach had four sections. The extension of each volunteer's observing area was subjective. Each section had the same designated trainees to avoid observer errors. Each trainee carried out headcounts at a fixed observation point at each beach. The maximum distance for observation was approximately 50 m from the observation point. As the animals emerged to breathe, one sighting was counted for each turtle head observed, with no effort to identify individual animals. For this study, the total number of sightings per beach was considered. Analysis of differences between sectors was not conducted.

To compile a descriptive analysis, an average index of heads counted by the number of hours per month at each beach was calculated. The analysis was also made per shift, considering the data that took exactly one hour of turtle sightings to maintain the effort and to make it possible to compare the number of turtle heads themselves. Data for December, January and February for Eva Beach

were excluded due to a lack of observations in the afternoon shift.

To standardize the turtle observation effort between the beaches, we considered the corresponding median monthly observation index using the following formula:

$$\text{Average index} = \frac{\text{Number of sea turtle heads counted}}{\text{Number of hours per month}}$$

To standardize the turtle observation effort between the shifts at each beach, the analysis considered variables of four periods (8h-10h, 10h-12h, 12h-14h and 14h-16h).

The normality of the data was verified by the Shapiro Wilk test and Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test. The significance of the monthly observation between the beaches and the difference between the day shift by each beach (morning and afternoon) was verified using the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test and the Dunn *post hoc* test. The analyses were carried out using the statistical software R (version 3.4.1, R Core Team 2020).

The average index of turtle observations on each beach with standard deviations is shown in Table 1. In the Kruskal-Wallis test, the average index differed significantly between beaches ($p < 0.05$). In Dunn's *post hoc* test, the average index of turtle observations recorded in Icaraí differed significantly from that recorded in Adão, Itaipu and Jurujuba ($p < 0.05$), but did not differ significantly from the index recorded in Eva ($p = 0.0543$). Despite the test showing that Icaraí and Eva do not differ in terms of number of sightings, the index found Eva beach had a similar value to other beaches, with a p -value almost equal to 0.05.

The considerable number of sightings at Icaraí may be due to the plentiful presence of rocks with ample algae cover, used by green turtles as a food source. Moreover, the area features calm and warm waters, which is typical of bays (Nunes 2016; Guimarães 2017). This demonstrates the importance of this beach for these animals. Although Icaraí exhibits several factors that favor the presence of these animals, the area suffers from high pollution

Beach	Average index	Standard deviation
Itaipu	9.12	4.38
Icarai	56.79	23.56
Jurujuba	6.99	3.93
Adão	4.25	1.58
Eva	13.84	7.15

Table 1. The average index of turtle observations on each beach (turtles per hour) with standard deviation.

rates from pipes that release raw sewage directly onto the beach. During the observations, several individuals were sighted with fibropapillomatosis, a disease caused by a type of herpesvirus that has pollution as one of the promoting agents. Even though studies on the presence of sea turtles at Guanabara Bay are scarce, it is known that juvenile green turtles widely use this estuary as a foraging and developmental area (Rodrigues 2012; Projeto Aruanã 2017 pers. comm.).

In the Kruskal-Wallis test, the median number of turtle observations differed significantly between hours ($p < 0.05$) at all beaches, but with the Dunn's test, we found that the period of 12-14 h did not differ significantly from 14-16 h ($p = 0.1305$) and the 8-10 h period did not differ significantly from the 10-12 h ($p = 0.3320$). The period of 8-12 h (morning) differed in the number of sightings compared to the period of 12-16 h (afternoon), at all beaches, except for Itaipu. The period of 12-16 h was the peak time for turtles in Adão, Eva, Icarai, and Jurujuba beaches. At Itaipu beach, the Dunn's test shows that the 12-14 h period did not differ significantly from 14-16 h ($p = 0.1335$) and that 10-12 h did not differ significantly from 8-10 h ($p = 0.0631$) or 12-14 h ($p = 0.0735$). Therefore, the period of 10-16 h was the peak time for turtles in Itaipu.

Araújo (2008) reported the highest occurrence of sea turtles in the afternoon at Arraial do Cabo, Rio de Janeiro. The greatest sea turtle occurrence in the afternoon shift may be explained by the physiology of the food items. Large herbivores have a longer period of activity in the afternoon, and this is related to the higher nutritional value (starch) of algae in this period. Zemke-White *et al.* (2002) corroborated this hypothesis, showing that the content of starch and floridoside, that are main sources of edible energy for herbivorous fishes, gradually increases after the initiation of photosynthesis in the morning and reaches high values in the afternoon. It has been observed that most herbivorous coral-reef fish feed more slowly in the morning than in the afternoon. This may be due to the selectivity in feeding on green algae that are rarely found, which increases energy expenditure on demand, resulting in lower bite rates. This behavior may also explain the more significant number of green turtles feeding in the afternoon. (Khait *et al.* 2013). In Itaipu, we observed no peak time; rather the turtles are always there. The Itaipu beach has been previously reported as a feeding, foraging, development, and residence area for juvenile turtles (Guimarães *et al.* 2009; Nunes 2016). According to Guimarães *et al.* (2009), this environment attracts many green turtle individuals due to good foraging habitats and due to its location in a coastal environment protected by islands and enriched by the presence of

a lagoon complex. The study carried out by Nunes (2016) in Itaipu beach reported that the high number of turtles located near the shoreline may be due to the disposal of fish thrown into the water by fishermen during fish cleaning. This activity starts after the arrival of fishermen, which occurs in the late morning, between 10 and 12 hours, coinciding with the beginning of turtle peak observations near the beach. Other studies reported that greater resource availability in certain areas leads to individuals prioritizing these areas for certain activities, such as food and rest (Bjorndal 1980; Mendonça 1983; Ogden 1983; Fuentes *et al.* 2006; Makowski *et al.* 2006; Seminoff & Jones 2006; Mendonça 2009). Previous studies indicate that certain locations have higher sea turtle occurrence due to both presence and abundance of food and physical conditions, such as bathymetry (Mendonça *et al.* 1982; Bjorndal 1997). This may be happening at Itaipu, as there was no significant difference in activity between 10-12 and 12-14 hours, as observed on the other beaches.

In the present study, only green turtles were observed. The results of this study thus encourage the implementation of management plans and actions to raise awareness among the local population and to stimulate sea turtle conservation and protection, as well as preserve their habitat and the bay ecosystem. The creation of extractive reserves (RESEX), as in the case of Itaipu beach, could be one of the solutions. The RESEX use plan was introduced with two rules of use regarding sea turtles. There is an area of exclusion of fishing around a slab of stones that occurs about 50 meters from the beach and there is also removal of nets along the rocky shore to avoid the incidental capture of sea turtles. By understanding peak times for sea turtles in the region, perhaps it would be possible to include a time restriction for fishing in the future. At Icarai beach, the practice of gillnet fishing is common. With the confirmation of the presence of sea turtles and their peak times at that beach, a mitigation plan with areas and times for fishing exclusion may be proposed.

We identified areas of significant sea turtle occurrence throughout Niterói beaches, Rio de Janeiro, with the highest number of sightings recorded at Icarai. The time the day was correlated with sea turtle sightings at the beaches of Icarai, Jurujuba, Adão and Eva. These results provide scientific knowledge for conservation actions and the continuity of these surveys can serve as tools for developing future sea turtle management and protection plans in the region, with the goal of conserving this habitat and the species that make use of it.

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Juvenile Loggerhead (*Caretta caretta*) Head-started in Cuba Recaptured in Florida

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Captive breeding of juvenile sea turtles for a specific period of time with the goal of releasing the turtles after they have developed (*i.e.*, are no longer hatchlings) and are better able to escape natural predators is a common conservation technique used for these imperiled species (Mrosovsky 1981). This technique, commonly referred to as head-starting, removes the dangers hatchlings face with the hope that the juvenile sea turtles will grow to adulthood, increasing the overall wild sea turtle population (Burke 2015). A head-started juvenile loggerhead (*Caretta caretta*) was tagged and released on 31 March 2020 at Cayo Largo (Canarreos Archipelago), Cuba. The turtle was observed a few months later in southwest Florida (Fig. 1) and reported to Mote Marine Laboratory's Stranding Investigations Program (SIP) on 12 July 2020. The loggerhead was originally tagged with a Monel tag # CB373 by the Tagging Program (subsequently referred to as the Program) of the Fisheries

Research Center (CIP-Cuba). The Program has been tagging sea turtles since 1989 at different nesting and foraging areas around the Cuban Archipelago. The Program also head-starts hatchlings born in hatcheries. CB373 was raised for nineteen months from a hatchling, tagged, and released on Cayo Largo (21.3723 °N, 81.3347 °W) on 31 March 2020.

Cayo Largo is located at the eastern end of the Canarreos Archipelago. It is the most important nesting site for green (*Chelonia mydas*) and loggerhead turtles in the Cuban Archipelago and is one of the main nesting sites in the Caribbean Sea (Medina *et al.* 2009; Nodarse *et al.* 2010). The Marine Turtle Rescue Center head-starts between 50 and 100 green and loggerhead hatchlings (mostly green turtles) per year. Hatchlings are reared under human care and released before they reach two years of age (Fig. 2). The recaptured loggerhead came from a clutch that hatched on 5 July 2018 at Cayo Largo. When released, the loggerhead measured 39.5 cm curved carapace length from notch to tip (CCLnt; Bolten 1999) and weighed 6.8 kg.

A citizen first reported a lethargic sea turtle occupying a residential canal off Sarasota Bay (27.421781 °N, 82.584880 °W) for a week. The nearshore waters of Sarasota are not typical habitat for loggerheads of this age class, which raised significant concern (Witherington 2002; Witherington *et al.* 2012). Upon arrival of the SIP staff at the reported location, the turtle could not be located. Subsequent reports described a possible missing flipper and anecdotal evidence that the turtle had been seen in the area for one month, although whether it was CB373 could not be confirmed. The

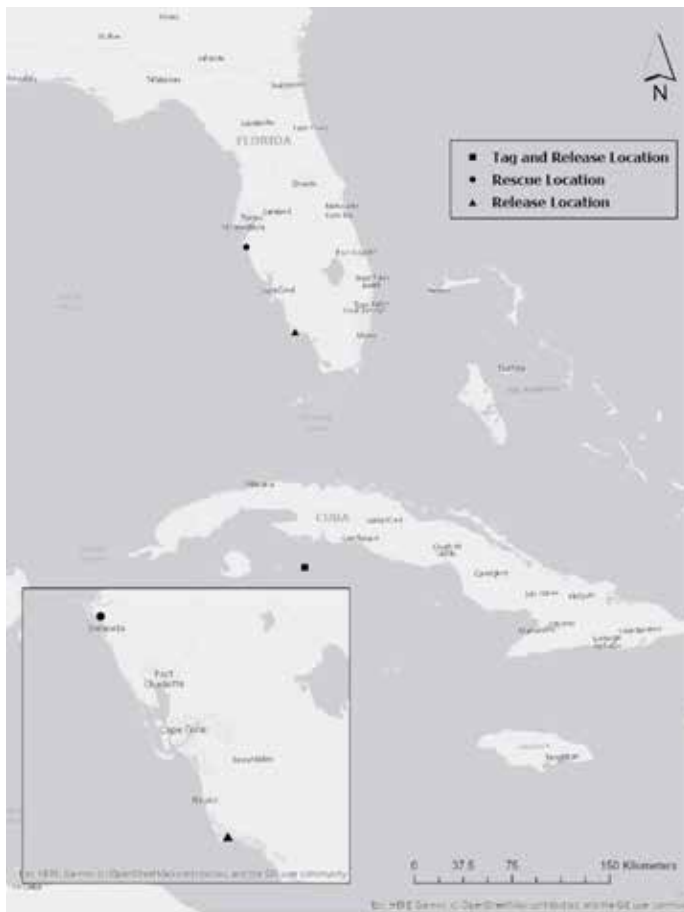


Figure 1. Initial tag and release (Cayo Largo, Cuba), rescue (Sarasota Bay, FL), and release (Ten Thousand Islands, FL) locations.



Figure 2. Hatchling sea turtles at the Marine Turtle Rescue Center, Cayo Largo.



Figure 3. Intake photos of Mango at Mote Marine Laboratory.

turtle was re-sighted on 15 July 2020 by SIP staff, who noted that it was not missing any flippers but had a small barnacle load (Fig. 3), which is common in healthy loggerhead sea turtles. The turtle was eating mangos that had fallen from a tree overhanging the canal and the turtle was also approaching vessels. These two behaviors are not typically seen in juvenile sea turtles. The turtle was positively buoyant, especially in the caudal section. Rescue attempts on 15 July 2020 were unsuccessful. Two days later, SIP received a report of a turtle in the same canal system swimming in circles. Recent data published by Narazaki *et al.* (2021) indicated that sea turtles may swim in circles as a navigational aid. The SIP team successfully caught the turtle on 17 July 2020 and transported it back to Mote's Sea Turtle Rehabilitation Hospital for evaluation. A patch of blue paint was on the carapace, suggesting that the turtle had been hit by a boat. The turtle's CCLn-t measured 42.6 cm and its weight was 8.4 kg on arrival at Mote, indicating that it had grown 3.1 cm and gained 1.6 kg in the few months since release from Cuba on 31 March 2020. Based on these growth data, the estimated annual growth rate for this turtle was 10.5 cm/yr in the wild, after growing 35.4 cm under human care. For comparison, Bjorndal *et al.* (2000) reported an average growth rate of 12 cm/yr in the first six months from six loggerhead turtles in the Atlantic, and Casale *et al.* (2009) a growth rate of about 11 cm in the first 1.5 years of life in early juvenile loggerhead sea turtles in the Mediterranean. Bolten *et al.* (1990) reported a much lower growth rate of 5.1 cm /yr (SCL) for a loggerhead released from captivity in Brazil recaptured in Azores.

The turtle (nicknamed Mango), was rehabilitated at Mote for 24 days and was released on 10 August 2020. During the rehabilitation period, Mango was observed carrying rocks in its mouth (Fig. 4). This is a common behavior that has been witnessed previously at Mote as sea turtle patients, across species and age class, explore and interact with their environment. On the day before release (9



Figure 4. Mango interacting with a rock from its tank.

August 2020), Mango measured 43.3 cm CCLn-t and weighed 8.6 kg, indicating growth of 0.7 cm and a weight gain of 0.2 kg in the less than a month that it had been at Mote. A passive integrated transponder (PIT) tag was inserted intramuscularly in the left front flipper prior to release. Mango was released in the Ten Thousand Islands (25.88830° N, 81.62937° W), Collier County, Florida. The Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission (FWC) determines the release site for all rehabilitated sea turtles in the state and chose this site because of its remote nature and cleanliness of the water.

The time interval between the release in Cuba and the capture in Florida was 108 days, which indicated that the turtle traveled between the Cuban Archipelago and Florida in a very short time, moving at an average speed of 9.6 km/day. It is important to note that two other loggerheads from the same age class tagged and released from Cayo Largo, Cuba in 2017 also swam outside of the Cuban shelf but to the south. One was recaptured after 59 days in Colombian waters (Moncada *et al.* 2019). The other had been fitted with a satellite tag by the National Company for the Protection of Flora and Fauna in Cuba and traveled near the Nicaraguan coast. These two loggerheads that were hatched, head-started and released at the same location appear to have migrated in opposite directions with different travel durations in relation to Mango. Sizes and weights of the three suggest that they were not adversely affected by being reared under human care, although two were found to have buoyancy problems. By contrast, the different behavior patterns throw into question whether head-started sea turtles are able to continue their life cycle as wild animals, including their migration patterns and/or survivorship in the wild (Allen 1981; Woody 1991; Mortimer 1995). Although Okuyama *et al.* (2010) found that head-started hawksbill turtles (*Eretmochelys imbricata*), after adjusting to feeding in the wild, had less predictable dispersal directions than wild turtles. It is possible that the dispersal behavior of the two head-started loggerheads from Cayo Largo had been similarly impacted by human care. Mango's arrival in Florida may also have been due to it becoming entrained in the Gulf of Mexico current, taking into account that turtles migrating in oceanic waters of that area may be influenced by eddies of the Loop Current (Foley *et al.* 2013). To

date, only loggerheads (post-nesting) tagged in Florida recaptured in Cuba waters were known (Moncada *et al.* 2010). Therefore, Mango constitutes the first recapture of loggerhead from Cuba recaptured in Florida waters.

Similar to other recent reports of turtles tagged in Cuba and recaptured in areas far from nesting and release sites (Moncada *et al.* 2019, 2020), this new recapture indicates the importance of cooperative regional and international efforts for conservation and management of sea turtles in the Wider Caribbean. In addition, this confirms the practical value of tagging sea turtles prior to release as an indispensable complement to other tools, such as genetic analyses and satellite tracking, to enhance our understanding of these species' movements over time.

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Southernmost Record of an Immature Green Turtle *Chelonia mydas* in the Maracaibo Lake System, Venezuela

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The Maracaibo Lake System, which is an extensive coast depression (9-12° N, 70-72° W) in the west of Venezuela (Rodríguez 2001), covers four interconnected aquatic ecosystems: (1) the Gulf of Venezuela, (2) “El Tablazo” Bay, (3) The Maracaibo Strait, and (4) Maracaibo Lake (Rodríguez 2000a, 2001) (Fig. 1). Historically, records of marine turtles were restricted to the Gulf of Venezuela and “El Tablazo” Bay (Viloria & Barros 2000), which have unique environmental conditions and ecosystems such as seagrass beds, coral reef patches, sandy grounds, and rocky shores, that support both marine and estuarine fauna (Espinoza-Rodríguez *et al.* 2015, 2019; Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2020a). Contrarily, the Maracaibo Strait and Maracaibo Lake are predominantly freshwater ecosystems, where muddy bottoms, coastal lagoons, floodplain and mangrove forests cover most of its coastline (Medina & Barboza 2003, 2006).

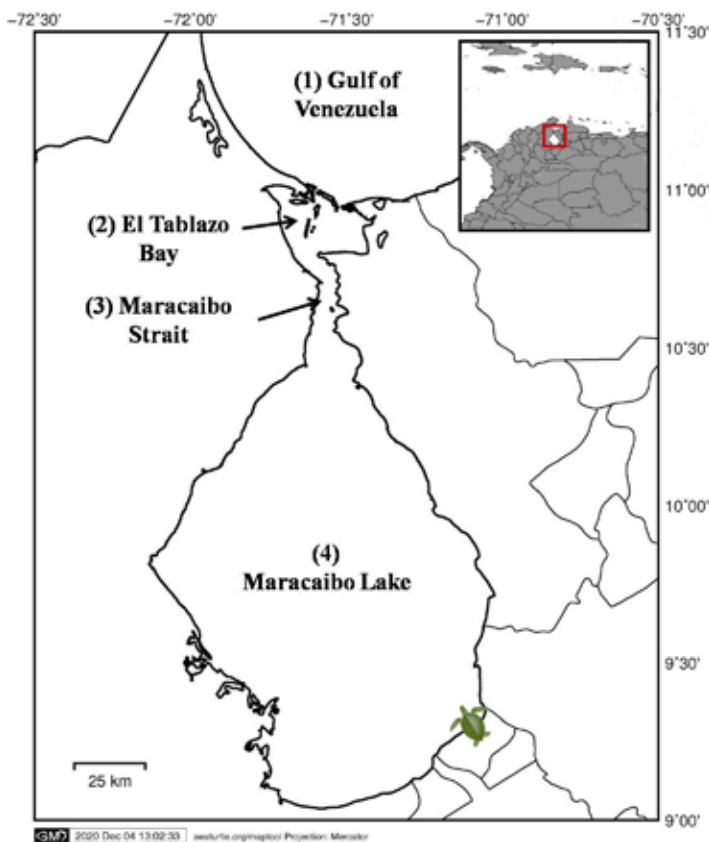


Figure 1. Maracaibo Lake System indicating its four aquatic ecosystems. The marine turtle icon indicates the location where the juvenile green turtle was found and rescued (Source: MapTool - seaturtle.org).

Both estuarine and freshwater animals are commonly found in the previously mentioned ecosystems (Montiel-Villalobos & Barrios-Garrido 2005; De Turrís *et al.* 2010).

The Gulf of Venezuela is largely influenced by salt water supplied from the Caribbean Sea (Rodríguez 2000a). Previous studies have shown the presence of five marine turtle species in the Gulf of Venezuela, where the green turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) is the most frequently observed with more than 80% of the total observations including direct sightings, incidental by-catch, direct fishing, strandings, among others (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2020a; Rojas-Cañizales *et al.* 2020). It is also common to find a wide distribution of sizes (juveniles, sub-adults, to adults) all year-round (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2020a,b). Previous authors have indicated through tag reports and genetic studies, that marine turtles from different populations (such as Isla de Aves-Venezuela, Tortuguero-Costa Rica, Panama, Florida, etc.) use the Gulf of Venezuela as a feeding and development area (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2020a,b; Rojas-Cañizales *et al.* 2020). This note reports on the southernmost record of an immature green turtle, *Chelonia mydas*, in the Maracaibo Lake System, Venezuela.

Records and reports on marine megafauna in the Maracaibo Lake System have been documented following the Opportunistic Notification Network (RAO, by its Spanish acronym) methodology (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2012). In the case of marine turtles, when an individual is captured or is found stranded by community members and documented in the RAO protocol, it is measured for curved carapace length (CCL), curved carapace width (CCW), weighed (kg), and head profiles are photographed when possible. If the turtle is alive, the attending veterinarian has to conduct a preliminary examination, and decide whether the turtle needs rehabilitation or not (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2012; Espinoza-Rodríguez & Barrios-Garrido 2012; Conde *et al.* 2019).

On 6 November 2008, an immature green turtle was captured by artisanal fishers in Boscan village (9.301444 °N, -71.083611 °W) (Fig. 1). Biometric measurements of the specimen were made using a flexible measuring tape graduated in millimeters and it was weighed using a portable 110lb/50kg hanging scale. The specimen had a total curved carapace length of 24.9 cm, curved carapace width of 21.5 cm, and weighed 1.7 kg (Fig. 2). The turtle was then transported to a rehabilitation facility and kept under observation for two days, due to its poor body condition and signs of physical fatigue, which might be due to the time it spent in the area before being captured by local fishers (Thomson *et al.* 2009). Once the turtle's physical appearance showed improvement and the veterinarian approved its release, the turtle was released on 8 November 2008.



Figure 2. Immature green turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) recorded on the 8 November 2008, Southern Maracaibo Lake, Venezuela. Photos taken by: N. Espinoza-Rodriguez 2008.

This is the first and only record of a marine turtle inside Maracaibo Lake in our database. We confirmed the identification of the specimen by the number and arrangement of lateral scutes in the carapace, the number of prefrontal scales, and the characteristic color patterns for the species. This event was considered an unusual record and might have occurred due to various causes such as the local currents in the Maracaibo Strait, changes in the salinity concentration while foraging, or some other unexpected situation preventing the individual to return to the marine ecosystem northern Maracaibo Lake System.

These unusual records are important in order to understand green turtle's habitat use of the Maracaibo Lake System (Barrios-Garrido *et al.* 2020a,b). During informal interviews to several local fishers regarding green turtle presence in the area, they affirmed that they know of this species but it is rarely seen, with one or two individuals per year maybe found deceased in their nets, and only during the rainy season (July-November). They also indicated that there is no local consumption of this species. They believe that its presence in the area is a consequence of the navigation channel opened in 1958 (Morillo Diaz & Salas Cohen 2009), which marine fauna use to enter Maracaibo Lake (Febres & Masciangioli 2000; Morillo Diaz & Salas Cohen 2009).

It is known that marine turtles occur in tropical and subtropical saltwater or brackish environments (Meylan & Meylan 2000; Bolten 2003). However, there is little research about marine turtles using freshwater bodies like delta rivers and estuarine lagoons (Carr 1965; Costas Campos *et al.* 2013). The area where the specimen was found is characterized by low salinities (ranging between 1-4 psu), calm waters, average depths not more than 5 m, with muddy substrates (Febres & Masciangioli 2000; Medina & Barboza 2003). In addition, this region is a very important oil reserve, and has caused several environmental disruptions due to daily small oil spills and frequent use by vessels and oil ships (Rodriguez 2000b). These conditions are not considered as healthy settings for the recruitment and development of marine turtles (Carr 1965; Bjorndal & Jackson 2003). This record of an immature green turtle inside the Maracaibo Lake might indicate their tolerance to lower salinity systems, and

how this species potentially uses the navigation channel that would allow local migrations to these freshwater and /or estuarine areas (Carr 1965; Costas Campos *et al.* 2013). Nevertheless, we cannot confirm the latter suggestions mainly because it is impossible for us to know the specimen's exact trajectory before the encounter and if it was an active or passive migration toward this southern region. It still remains unclear how and if green turtles use all four water bodies that make up the Maracaibo Lake System.

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Evaluation of Marine Debris Ingestion in Sea Turtles around Okinawa Island, Japan

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Green turtles (*Chelonia mydas*), loggerhead turtles (*Caretta caretta*), and hawksbill turtles (*Eretmochelys imbricata*) nest on the sandy beaches of Okinawa Island (Kikukawa *et al.* 1999; Komesu *et al.* 2016). These species are recognized as facing extinction in the wild by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN 2020). Due to several challenges, including loss of suitable nesting habitat (Crain *et al.* 1995) and bycatch in fisheries (Lewison *et al.* 2004), these species continue to decline at many locations. In Okinawa Island, any surveys (*e.g.*, nesting, stranding, bycatch) of sea turtles have been vigorously conducted, including by private volunteers. Therefore, the ecology of populations inhabiting around the Okinawa Island is becoming clear (*e.g.*, Kawazu *et al.* in press). On the other hand, a number of sea turtles have been affected by human life, such as nesting on sandy beaches that are lost sand by construction of coastline (Komesu *et al.* 2016) and being caught any number of times by set net at mating season (Takahashi *et al.* 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to consider a long-term conservation plan for these sea turtles.

Marine debris is a global problem and has been shown to affect many marine animals (Gall & Thompson 2015). Some previous studies on sea turtles have reported that accidental ingestion of marine debris may prevent survival and growth by causing perforations or blockages of the digestive system (Schuyler *et al.* 2012), reducing nutrient absorption (McCauley & Bjorndal 1999), and increasing absorption of harmful substances into the body (Teuten *et al.* 2009). Moreover, it suggests that higher concentrations of plastic items in the gastro-intestinal tract leads to a higher probability of mortality (Wilcox *et al.* 2018). Therefore, it is important to characterize the current levels of marine debris ingested

by sea turtles to formulate an effective conservation plan for these species (Hamann *et al.* 2010). The extent of marine debris ingestion in sea turtles has been studied in the main islands and Yaeyama Islands in Japan (Kameda & Ishihara 2009; Fukuoka *et al.* 2016); however, there is a paucity of data from around Okinawa Island. In this study, we dissected the gastrointestinal tracts of stranded, dead sea turtles to determine the extent of marine debris ingestion by sea turtles around Okinawa Island, through analysis of frequency and type of marine debris ingested.

Between October 1990 and July 2019, 383 specimens of green turtles, 63 specimens of hawksbill turtles, and 38 specimens of loggerhead turtles were found on the beaches of Okinawa Island and the small islands at its periphery (Fig. 1). The mean (\pm SD) for the standard carapace length (SCL) of turtles were measured; the SCL was 572.2 ± 180.6 mm (range: 309-1020 mm) for green turtles, 424.1 ± 161.8 mm (201-800 mm) for hawksbill turtles and 821.3 ± 78.3 mm (655-955 mm) for loggerhead turtles.

The marine debris found in the gut was removed from all specimens, and classified as hard plastic, soft plastic, Styrofoam, fishing line/rope, fishing hook, rubber, or other (Fig. 2), as described by Fukuoka *et al.* (2016). The occurrence rate of ingestion (%) for each category of marine debris in each turtle species were calculated using the following equation, as described by Schuyler *et al.* (2012):

$$\left(\frac{\text{Turtles that ingested a particular type of marine debris}}{\text{Turtles that ingested any marine debris}} \right) * 100$$

A total of 17.4% (n = 84) of the examined specimens were found to have ingested marine debris. The percentage of specimens with marine debris in their guts was 14.9% for green turtles, 28.6% for hawksbill turtles, and 23.7% for loggerhead turtles (Table 1). The most common categories of ingested debris were soft plastic (54.4%) and fishing line/rope (36.8%) for green turtles, hard plastic (44.4%) and soft plastic (33.3%) for hawksbill turtles, and hard plastic (44.4%) and Styrofoam (33.3%) for loggerhead turtles (Table 2).

To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to provide viable information on marine debris ingested by sea turtles distributed around Okinawa Island. These findings will aid in formulating conservation programs and improving our understanding about the feeding ecology of sea turtles. In particular, approximately 15% to 30% of green turtles, hawksbill turtles, and loggerhead turtles accidentally ingested marine debris. This rate was assessed to be relatively low when compared with other rates worldwide. For example, the frequency of marine debris ingestion is 60.5% for green turtles in southern Brazil (Bugoni *et al.* 2001), 68.8% for hawksbill turtles in northern Brazil (Macedo *et al.* 2015), and 79.6% for loggerhead turtles in the Western Mediterranean (Tomas *et al.* 2002). Some previous studies have reported high ingestion rates of soft plastic and fishing line/rope in green turtles

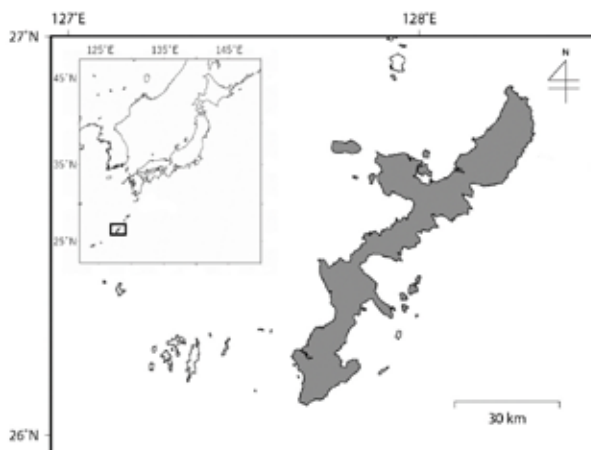


Figure 1. A map of Okinawa Island and small islands in its periphery. We collected samples from the islands shaded gray.

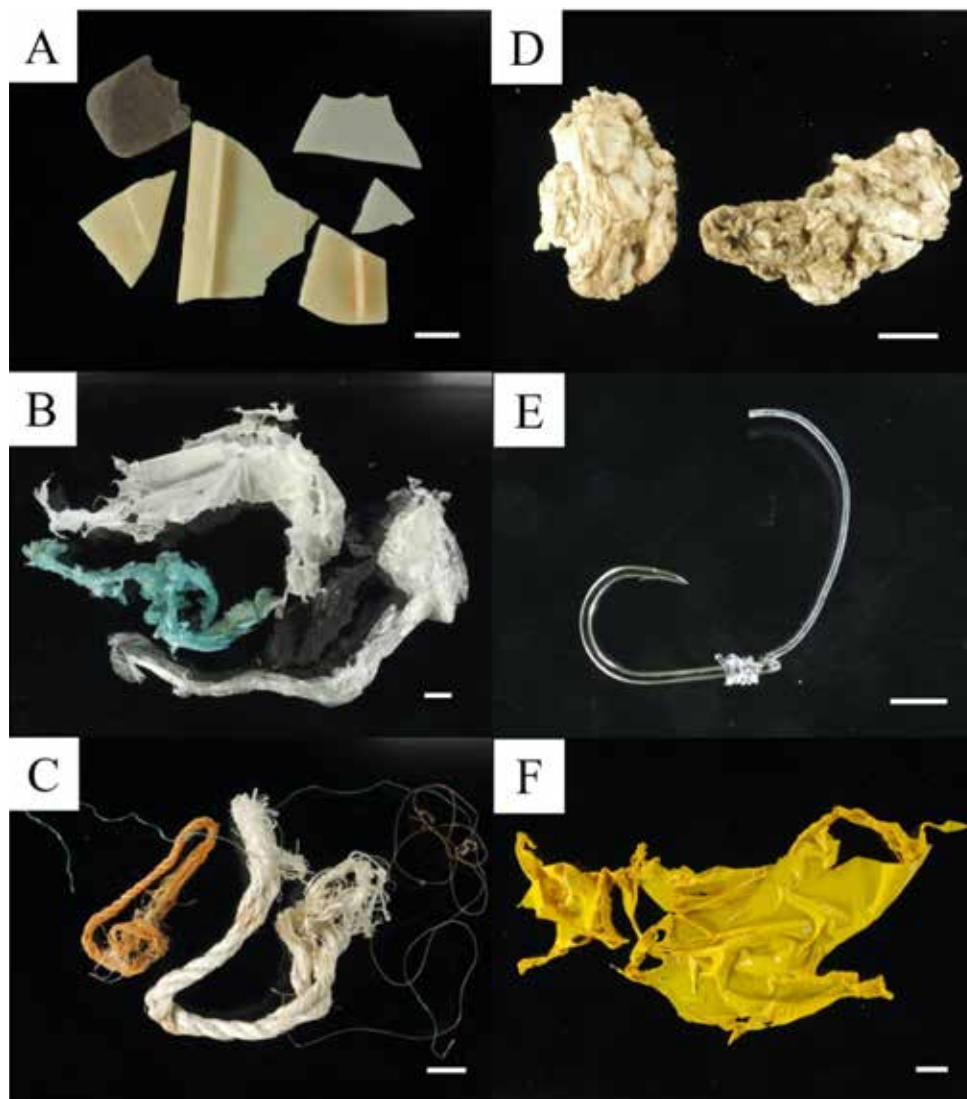


Figure 2. Marine debris ingested by sea turtles; A: Hard plastic, B: Soft plastic, C: Fishing line/rope, D: Styrofoam, E: Fishing hook, F: Rubber. White bars represent 10 mm.

	N	NTD	Occurrence (%)
<i>Chelonia mydas</i>	383	57	14.9
<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>	63	18	28.6
<i>Caretta caretta</i>	38	9	23.7
Total	484	84	17.4

Table 1. Occurrence of marine debris ingestion by sea turtles. N is the number of turtles examined, NTD is the number of turtles found with ingested debris, and occurrence is the percentage of individuals that had ingested marine debris.

	N	Hard plastic	Soft plastic	Fishing line/rope	Styrofoam	Fishing hook	Rubber	Others
<i>Chelonia mydas</i>	57	17 (29.8)	31 (54.4)	21 (36.8)	4 (7.0)	5 (8.8)	2 (3.5)	3 (5.3)
<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>	18	8 (44.4)	6 (33.3)	6 (33.3)	3 (16.7)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)	1 (5.6)
<i>Caretta caretta</i>	9	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	2 (22.2)	3 (33.3)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)
Total	84	30 (35.7)	40 (47.6)	28 (33.3)	10 (11.9)	3 (3.6)	3 (3.6)	9 (10.7)

Table 2. Number (and percentage) of sea turtles that ingested different categories of debris.

(Bugoni *et al.* 2001; Fukuoka *et al.* 2016). A similar trend was observed among the green turtles of Okinawa Island in this study.

In some previous studies on the main islands of Japan, the occurrence of marine debris in green turtles showed high rates; 100% for the Japan Sea (Kameda & Ishihara 2009) and the Iwate coast (Fukuoka *et al.* 2016), and 52.3% for Shikoku and Kii (Kameda & Ishihara 2009). However, the occurrence of marine debris ingested by green turtles in the Yaeyama Islands was extremely low (2.8%) (Kameda & Ishihara 2009). The frequency of marine debris in green turtles in Okinawa Island (14.9%) is closest to that of the Yaeyama Islands. Hence, the frequency of marine debris in green turtles was lower in the southern region, including around Okinawa Island and Yaeyama Islands, and higher in the northern region, including the main islands of Japan. Such differences between regions in Japan could be attributed to differences in feeding ecology, and feeding preferences may also affect the types of debris that turtles encounter (Schuyler *et al.* 2014).

Foraging green turtles are distributed around the Yaeyama Islands in a small area between their feeding grounds and a neighboring rest point (Okuyama *et al.* 2013). Kameda *et al.* (2013) reported that during a foraging period, green turtles were distributed in a narrow area of approximately 16.3 km² near the Yaeyama Islands, based on a mark-recapture method. On Okinawa Island, additional studies using the mark-recapture method have recorded some migrations between the east and west coasts of Okinawa Island (Hayashi & Nishizawa 2015; Nakanishi *et al.* 2017). In contrast, green turtles found in the Iwate Coast visit to forage during summer only, when they seasonally migrate a few hundred kilometers (Fukuoka *et al.* 2015). Fukuoka *et al.* (2016) demonstrated that green turtles confuse marine debris with gelatinous prey near the water surface during long-term migrations. Consequently, we suggest that the migration area for foraging has an effect on the encounter and ingestion rates of marine debris within sea turtle populations. These findings support the hypothesis that pelagic and neritic sea turtles exhibit significant differences in their likelihood of ingesting debris (Schuyler *et al.* 2012).

The gut contents of loggerhead turtles in Japanese Pacific temperate waters were recently studied by Fukuoka *et al.* (2016). Fukuoka and colleagues reported that 11 of the 13 loggerhead turtles found off the coast of Iwate of mainland Japan had marine debris. In contrast, 23.7% of the loggerhead turtles from Okinawa Islands had marine debris in their guts. Such variation in the occurrence of marine debris in gut contents might be explained by the difference in sexual maturity and appetite of loggerheads. Adult sea turtles reduce food intake during the reproductive season (Bjorndal 1985). The loggerhead turtles captured in Okinawa waters (nesting area)

were mostly mature (Kawazu *et al.* 2013), while those in Iwate (foraging area) were immature (Fukuoka *et al.* 2016). Hence, we suggest that the frequency of marine debris ingestion is driven by appetite, which is related to sexual maturity.

We evaluated the levels of marine debris ingested by sea turtles distributed around Okinawa Island. This rate was assessed to be relatively low compared to certain other regions Japan and around the world. In recent years, ocean contamination by microplastics has become an increasingly global concern (Caron *et al.* 2018), requiring further study to improve our understanding of marine debris impacts on sea turtles.

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First Nesting Report for Pacific Green Turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) in Hermosa Beach, Uvita de Osa, Puntarenas, Costa Rica

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The green sea turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) is a highly migratory species found in tropical waters across the globe. Their populations are classified as Endangered on the IUCN Red List (IUCN 2020). In the Eastern Pacific, this species is commonly known as the black turtle (*Chelonia mydas agassizii*) because of their phenotypic, geographic, and reproductive differences compared to the green turtle in other parts of the world (Pritchard 1999); but genetic studies demonstrate that both the green and black turtle are members of one species (Karl & Bowen 1999).

Chelonia mydas is distributed along the west coast of the American Continent, in Eastern Pacific waters, from Baja California (Eguchi *et al.* 2010; Macdonald *et al.* 2012) to Chile (Guerra-Corraea, 2007; Quiñones *et al.* 2010), including the Revillagigedo Islands (Juarez-Ceron *et al.* 2002) and Galapagos Islands (Green 1984). Major rookeries in Mexico are found in Michoacán (Raygadas-Torres & Delgado-Trejo 2008) and the Islas Revillagigedo Archipelago (Awbrey 1984; Juarez-Ceron *et al.* 2002; Holroyd & Trefry 2010). In the Eastern Pacific, two major rookeries have been described; the Galapagos Islands (Green 1984; Zarate *et al.* 2002) and the Pacific coast of Costa Rica at Cabuyal (Santidrián Tomillo *et al.* 2014), Isla San José beaches (Fonseca *et al.* 2014) and Nombre de Jesús beach. Recently, Fonseca *et al.* (2018) indicated that San José Island is the most important nesting site for Pacific green sea turtles in Central America.

Hermosa Beach is located on the south Pacific coast of Costa Rica, in the canton of Osa, in the northern sector of the Osa

Conservation Area (9.182243 °N, 83.76671 °W). The site is located between the Ballena Marine National Park (PNMB) to the south and Puerto Nuevo Beach to the north. Hermosa Beach currently is 5.88 km long (Fig. 1). It is characterized by having moderate to heavy rainfall, with an annual rainy season between 3000-3500 mm, and a dry season from December to March. Average temperatures range from 23-27 °C (Alvarado *et al.* 2005).

Sea turtle nest monitoring efforts began at Hermosa Beach in August 2020. No conservation research related to sea turtles had been undertaken on this beach before this date. Monitoring efforts consisted of walking the beach four days per week, starting at 05:00 h. The entire length of beach, from Punta Achiote in north to the Morete River in the south, was surveyed for nesting activity once per patrol. Morning surveys were led by a variety of individuals, including Reserva Playa Tortuga staff, lifeguards, local volunteers, and PNMB Rangers.

Nesting activity by a single green turtle was documented twice in December 2020. The turtle first laid 77 eggs on 06 December, then 26 days later on 31 December laid 82 eggs 100 m south of the first nest. Eggs from both nests were collected in a clean, disinfected bucket and transferred to the Reserva Playa Tortuga hatchery. During the first encounter, the female was making the body pit (9.191525 °N, 83.777323 °W; see front cover).

The curved carapace length measured notch to notch was 86.6 cm and the curved carapace width measured 84.5 cm. Once the turtle finished the first nesting process, a metal tag was attached

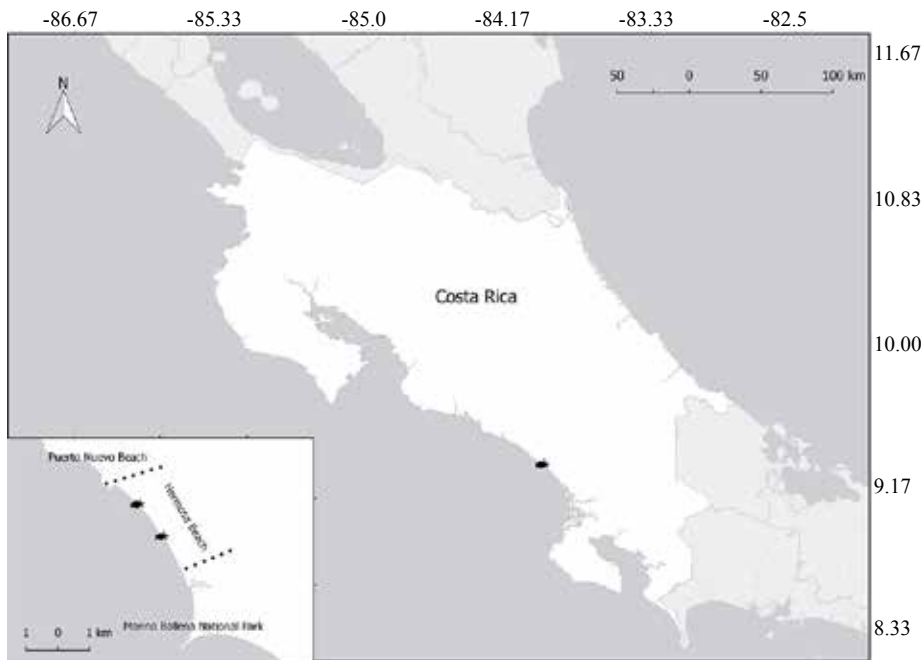


Figure 1. Map of Costa Rica and location of Hermosa Beach, Uvita de Osa. Inset map is of Hermosa Beach showing the location of *Chelonia mydas* nest locations.



Figure 2. Metal tag on the left front flipper of *Chelonia mydas*.

to the trailing edge of each front flipper, with the following codes: TGD0623 (right flipper) and TGD0622 (left flipper; Fig. 2).

Although green sea turtle nesting in Pacific Costa Rica has been documented since the late 1970s (Cornelius 1982), there is still much to learn about the species nesting preferences in the country. Chacón *et al.* (2007) indicated that the nesting period for *C. mydas* in the Pacific coast of Costa Rica lasts from September to March. There have been a few recent publications relating to green turtle nesting in the northwestern province of Guanacaste (Blanco *et al.* 2012b; Santidrián Tomillo *et al.* 2014). Fonseca *et al.* (2018) reported a nesting population of East Pacific green turtles in northwest Costa Rica at San José Island, Murciélago Archipelago. They observed year-round nesting; the lowest nest totals were observed in May and highest nesting occurred from November to February, with a distinct peak in January. On the Osa Peninsula, nesting has been described from July to December. (Govan 1998; Barquero-Edge 2013). Our report of a nesting green turtle at Hermosa Beach coincides with the nesting pattern observed in northwestern Costa Rica, but more efforts are needed to determine the temporal distribution of nesting on Hermosa Beach.

Long term conservation efforts have shown a positive impact in the nesting population trend of the green turtle nesting on the Caribbean coast of Costa Rica (Troëng & Rankin 2004). The continuity of monitoring nesting beaches is key to understanding the use of habitat, the seasonality and periodicity of nesting. Knowing the temporal and spatial distribution of nesting is important for establishing timely management measures and advising monitoring and conservation efforts. Finally, the participation of the community is essential in order to maintain the monitoring program. Without community support, the information needed to manage and conserve green sea turtles would not exist.

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Establishment of Mersin University Sea Turtle Application and Research Center (Me.U.DEKUYAM) in Mersin, Turkey

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Mersin University, located on the eastern Mediterranean coast of Turkey, first began its sea turtle research projects when two members of the Department of Biology, with support from the RAC/SPA (Regional Activity Center/Special Protected Areas), established the green turtle nesting monitoring programme during the 2001 nesting season in Kazanlı beach, Mersin (Aureggi 2001). In later years, subsequent studies on marine turtles were conducted at other beaches, including Kazanlı, Davultepe 100. Yıl, Alata, Göksu Delta and Anamur beaches around Mersin. In 2009, a proposal was made to bring all sea turtle research activities the region of Mersin under a single corporate roof, called the Mersin University Sea Turtle Application and Research Center (Me. Ü. DEKUYAM). On 26 May 2009, the Higher Educational Council of Turkey officially recognized the application and the research center, and its constitution was published in the Official Gazette of Turkey (numbered: 27239).

The principal objectives of Me. Ü. DEKUYAM include (a) research, (b) conservation, (c) education (especially environmental awareness), and (d) supporting of rehabilitation efforts of marine turtles. In 2015, a complementary group named Mediterranean Turtles and Nature Conservation Association (Akdeniz Kaplumbağaları ve Doğa Koruma Derneği - AKKAP) was established in Mersin. Currently, Me. Ü. DEKUYAM and AKKAP

work together. There are other centers working on sea turtles in Turkey, including at Mustafa Kemal University (in Hatay), Pamukkale University (in Denizli) and Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (in Çanakkale). Additional, there is Mersin Sea Turtle Rescue, Rehabilitation and Information Center which is supported by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

Along the Mediterranean coast of Turkey, important nesting grounds for both *Caretta caretta* (loggerhead turtle) and *Chelonia mydas* (green turtle) sea turtles have been identified by various studies conducted on the beaches (Türkozan & Kaska 2010) (Fig. 1). In the Mersin region, the important nesting beaches include Alata (Aymak 2004; Aymak *et al.* 2005; Ergene *et al.* 2006a, 2009; Türkozan & Kaska 2010), and Davultepe 100. Yıl (Ergene *et al.* 2010; Ergene *et al.* 2016a). The beaches of Mersin are important sites because both green and loggerhead turtle regularly nest here (Fig. 1).

One of our priority actions is to survey marine turtle nesting activity along the Mersin coasts. Since 2002, our research team in Mersin University has conducted studies on green turtle, loggerhead turtle and Nile soft-shelled turtle (*Trionyx triunguis*) on several beaches around Mersin, except for 2006, when survey data were collected only in Demre (Kale) beach, Antalya (Ergene 2006c; Ergene *et al.* 2007a).

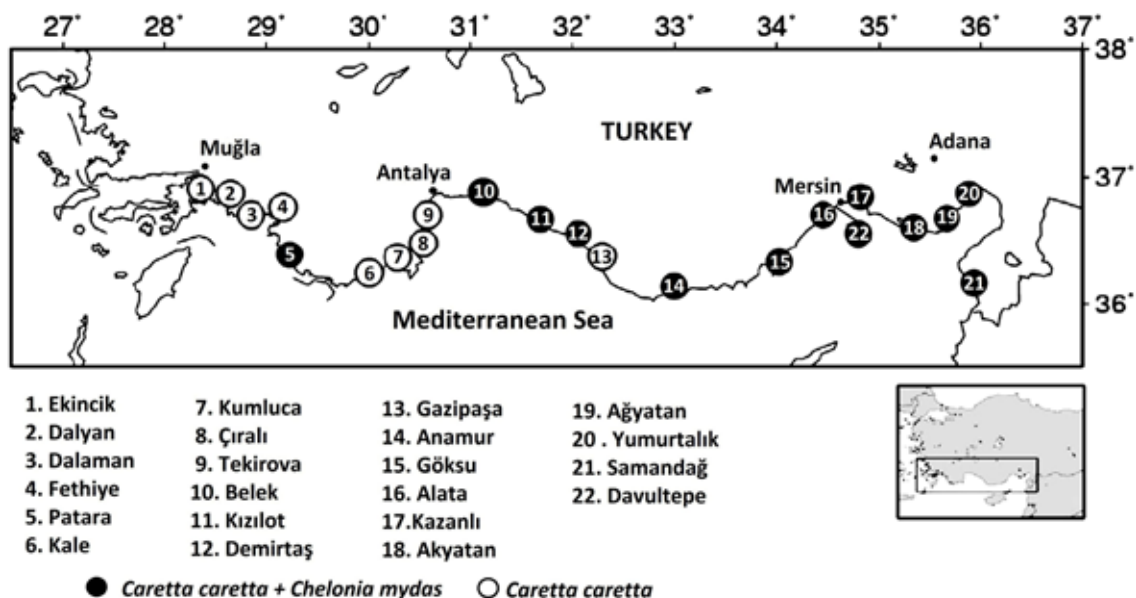


Figure 1. The important nesting beaches for marine turtles in Turkey (modified from Türkozan & Kaska 2010).

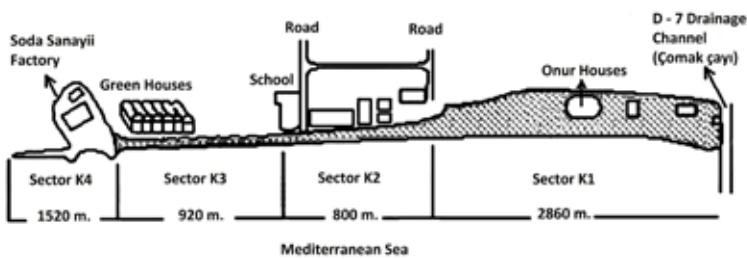


Figure 2. A sketch map of Kazanlı Beach with its sectors and the back structure (modified from Elmaz & Kalay 2006; not to scale).

Beaches regularly surveyed for nesting activities

Kazanlı beach: This 6.1 km long beach is an important site for green turtle nests in Turkey (Fig. 1). Additionally, loggerhead turtles regularly nest in small numbers here, and this beach is designated as a Natural SIT (protected) area (Türkozan & Kaska 2010). This beach is in the southern Mediterranean coast of Turkey, approximately 12 km from the center of Mersin. D-7 Drainage channel (Çomak) (36.8044 °N, 34.7882 °E) is located at the most eastern part of Kazanlı beach and Soda Sanayii A.Ş. and Kromsan Factory (36.8113 °N, 34.7238 °E) at the western end of the beach (Fig. 2). The most suitable part of the beach for sea turtle nesting is the eastern 4.7 km portion (Uçar *et al.* 2020; Aymak *et al.* 2020). We started monitoring and conservation studies on sea turtles in 2006 during the nesting season (Ergene *et al.* 2006b, 2013). Then, between 2009 and 2016, our studies continued for eight nesting seasons without interruption (Şengezer 2012; Ergene *et al.* 2012b, 2015, 2016b; Uçar *et al.* 2018a). Additional studies include: the age distributions of dead stranded loggerhead turtles collected from Kazanlı beach, determined by skeletochronology (Yaşar 2010); the haematological, biochemical and genotoxic properties of loggerhead and green turtles (Kaya 2011); and invertebrate infestation on green turtle nests on this beach (Aymak *et al.* 2020).

Davultepe 100. Yıl beach: This beach, 2.8 km in length, is another important nesting area for green turtles in Turkey, and also has a small number of loggerhead turtle nests laid annually (Ergene *et al.* 2010, 2012a, 2016a,b; Ergene 2014) (Fig. 3). Davultepe is located between Kandak Stream (36.7241 °N, 34.5056 °E) in the northeast and Onur Resort (36.7089 °N, 34.4735 °E) in the southwest of Mersin, and includes Davultepe public beach, the picnic area and Gümüşkum (100. Yıl) Natural Park (Ergene *et al.* 2016a, Fig. 3). The Gümüşkum Natural Park, designated on 7 November 2011, is 1.8 km long and located between Kandak Stream in the northeast and Kuğu Resort (36.7168 °N, 34.4882 °E) in the southwest (Fig. 3). The

Park is administered by Mersin Sea Turtle Rescue, Rehabilitation and Information Center and the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs, 7th Regional Directorate, Section of Mersin (Ergene *et al.* 2016a). Initial surveys began in 2006, when 23 nests were documented on this beach (Ergene 2006). Subsequently, seasonal surveys on green and loggerhead turtle nests have been conducted since 2009 without interruption (Ergene *et al.* 2010; 2012a,b; 2016a,b; Ergene 2014). As a result of our monitoring studies, the Sea Turtles Science Commission in Turkey declared this beach as a sea turtle nesting area in 2019.

Alata beach: This beach is another important nesting site for green turtles, and also has a small number of loggerhead turtle nests laid annually (Fig. 1). This beach is 30 km from the center of Mersin and is located within the borders of Alata Horticultural Research Institute, which is a 1st degree natural site. It extends over 3 km from the marine resorts in the east of the Research Institute (36.6322 °N, 34.3531 °E) to the Topraksu camping site, which belongs to the Research Institute (36.6145 °N, 34.3285 °E), at the western end of the beach (Aymak *et al.* 2017; Fig. 4). Alata nesting beach was first surveyed in 2002, and was subsequently registered as an official sea turtle nesting beach of Turkey in 2005. Monitoring and conservation studies on green and loggerhead sea turtles have been conducted since 2002 by our research team (Aymak 2004; Aymak *et al.* 2005; Ergene *et al.* 2006a,b, 2009, 2012b, 2016b). Other research projects based on this study beach include: genetic polymorphism of green turtle hatchlings using mtDNA-RFLP analysis (Hançer 2010); microsatellite locus analysis on green turtles (Kaçar 2011); age distributions of dead stranded loggerhead turtle individuals using skeletochronology (Yaşar 2010); haematological, biochemical and genotoxic properties of loggerhead and green turtles (Kaya 2011); carapacial scute variation of green and loggerhead turtle hatchlings (Ergene *et al.* 2011); and invertebrate infestation in green and loggerhead turtles nests (Aymak *et al.* 2017).

Göksu Delta beach: The Göksu Delta, nearly 35 km in length, is an important nesting area for loggerhead turtles in Turkey (Fig. 1) and the beach is designated as Special Environmental Protection Area (Durmuş *et al.* 2011). This area is recognized as a 'Reproduction and Conservation Zone for Water Birds' as well as included in RAMSAR and 1st degree Natural Site (Durmuş *et al.* 2011). The Göksu Delta (36.2647 °N, 33.9766 °E) is located at 80 km west of Mersin (Durmuş *et al.* 2011) (Fig. 5). The Turkish Authority for the Specially Protected Areas coordinates regular monitoring of the Göksu Delta for nesting activities of sea turtles by providing financial support for researchers from different Turkish universities. We participated in field studies on sea turtle nests during 2004 nesting season. Subsequently, nesting activity of loggerhead

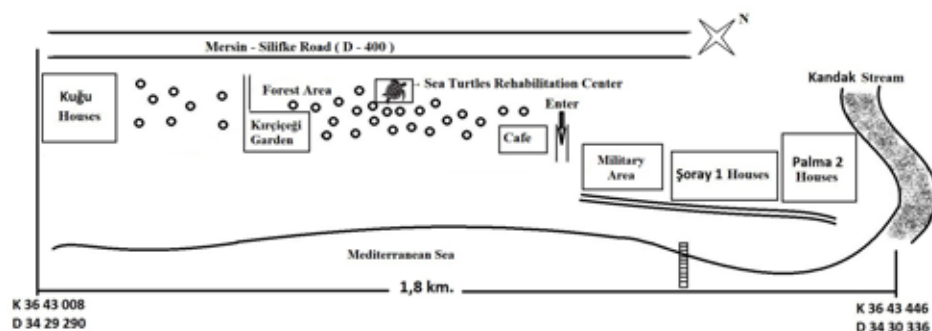


Figure 3. A sketch map of Gümüşkum Natural Park of Davultepe 100. Yıl Beach with its sectors and the back structure (not to scale, modified from Ergene *et al.* 2010).

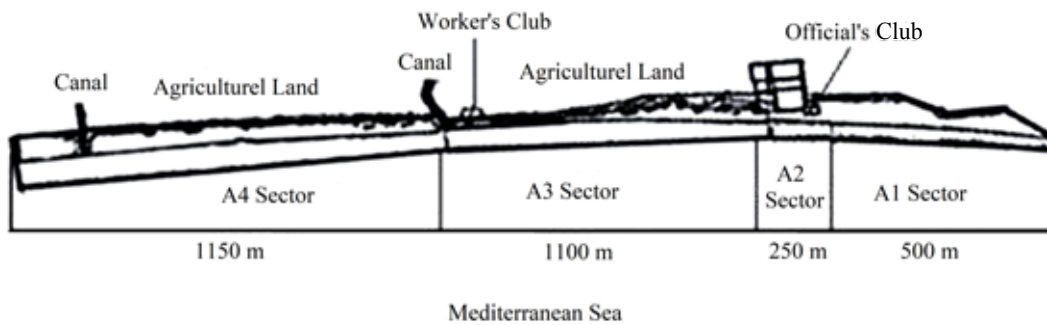


Figure 4. A sketch map of Alata beach with its sectors and the back structure (Aymak *et al.* 2017; not to scale).



Figure 5. A sketch map of Göksu Delta with its subsections of dense nesting sites (from Durmuş *et al.* 2011).

turtles has been observed in cooperation with Dokuz Eylül and Mersin Universities in this beach.

Anamur beach: Anamur Beach, 12.7 km long, is located in the south of Anamur, Mersin, Turkey and is an important nesting area for loggerhead turtles. The historic town of Ören (Anamurium) (36.0200 °N, 32.8036 °E) is located at the most western part of the beach and Pullu Forest Camp (36.0877 °N, 32.9145 °E) at the eastern end of the beach. The beach is divided into 5 sectors from southeast to northeast by Sultansuyu (Sultançayı, rivulet), İskele (the wharf), Dragonçayı (Kocaçay, rivulet) and Mamure Castle (Uçar 2009; Fig. 6). During the 2006 and 2007 nesting seasons, the populations of loggerhead turtle, green turtle and Nile soft-shelled turtle, which all nest on Anamur beach, were investigated (Uçar 2009). In addition, estimates of loggerhead hatchling sex ratios were generated, based on gonad histology of dead hatchlings and late stage embryos collected from this beach (Uçar *et al.* 2012).

Demre (Kale) beach: This beach, located between Beymelek lagoon and Kale town in Antalya province, is almost 8.5 km in length and consists of five subsections: Çayağzı (36.2300 °N, 29.9398 °E), Sülüklü, Taşdıbi, Beymelek-Sıfat beach and Beymelek-Dalyan beach (36.2593 °N, 30.0697 °E) (Ergene *et al.* 2007a; Fig. 7). The nesting activity of loggerhead turtles on this beach was investigated only during 2006 by our group (Ergene 2006c; Ergene *et al.* 2007a).

To successfully monitor the Mersin beaches for sea turtle nesting activities, Me.U.DEKUYAM accepts volunteers from different departments of our university and all other universities. Additionally, the center conducts public awareness campaigns in Mersin. Towards this end, our center participates in various public events, including science festivals, nature education and science support programs at public schools, various activities with different associations such as the annual Caretta bicycle festival, beach cleaning campaigns, etc. Furthermore, our center participated in “Social Responsibility Activities” program of the Introduction to University Life (ÜYG) course, which targeted students from different departments who were newly enrolled in the university, in order to inform both them about studies on research, conservation, education on sea turtles and nesting beaches. The center hopes to raise awareness of sea turtle conservation needs in fishermen, and perhaps recruit them in protection and data collection activities. In terms of postgraduate education at Mersin University Institute of Science that focused on sea turtles, four M.Sc. theses (Aymak 2004; Yaşar 2010; Kaya 2011; Şengezer 2012) and one Ph.D. dissertation (Uçar 2009) were completed under the supervision of Prof. Dr. S. Ergene and two M.Sc. theses (Hançer 2010; Ergene 2014) were completed under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Y. Kaçar and Prof. Dr. B. Cıçık, respectively.

In addition to our efforts in research, conservation, education on sea turtles in Mersin, we also participate in rehabilitation efforts. We started in 2007 when we received an injured loggerhead turtle with large-scale fractures and fragment loss on its skull. We engaged specialists from Mersin University, including a veterinarian, a doctor from the Department of Orthopedics and Traumatology, a doctor from the Department of Neurosurgery, and three biologists from Department of Biology to treat and care for this turtle. Despite our best efforts, it was unable to recover from its injuries and died after 41 days (Ergene *et al.* 2007b; Fig. 8).

Later, in 2010, the Mersin Sea Turtles Rescue, Rehabilitation and Information Center was established in Gümüşkum Natural Park of Davultepe Beach, with initial support from the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Environment and Forestry, Section of Mersin and subsequently from the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. This rehabilitation center and Me. Ü. DEKUYAM work in collaboration. When injured sea turtles are found on the beach during regular field observations in the nesting seasons, initial interventions are performed at the beach, then the injured turtles are taken to the rehabilitaiton center in Davultepe 100. Yıl beach for further medical treatment and rehabilitation.

Overall, Me. Ü. DEKUYAM greatly benefits from being located close to nesting beaches in Mersin and coordinates

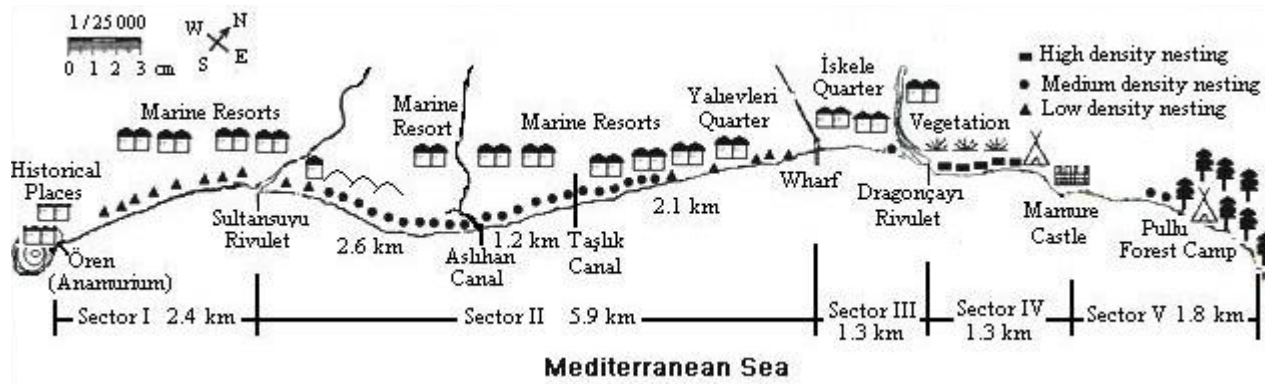


Figure 6. A sketch map of Anamur Beach showing the sub-sectors, beachstructures, and nest density (from Uçar *et al.* 2012; not to scale).



Figure 7. A satellite imagine of Demre (Kale) beach showing the sub-sectors: 1. Demre Çayağzı Beach, 2. Demre Sülüklü Beach, 3. Demre Taşdıbi Beach, 4. Beymelek-Sıfat Beach, 5. Beymelek-Dalyan Beach (modified from Google Earth Pro, 29 October 2020).



Figure 8. The operation from the head trauma of loggerhead sea turtle in veterinary clinic.

regular monitoring of beaches in Mersin for nesting activities, engaging volunteers from Turkey and all around the world. Me. Ü. DEKUYAM has also engaged in collaborative research (Güçlü *et al.* 2009; Türkozan *et al.* 2013, 2018; Uçar *et al.* 2018b), and is interested in pursuing more collaborative projects with both national and international researchers. Organizations interested in receiving information about Me. Ü. DEKUYAM and AKKAP may follow us on the our social media addresses below:

Me. Ü. DEKUYAM:

www.mersin.edu.tr/akademik/deniz-kaplumbagalari-uygulama-ve-arastirma-merkezi

www.instagram.com/dekuyam/

AKKAP:

www.facebook.com/groups/998103066896385

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This section consists of publications, books, reports, and academic theses that feature subject material relevant to marine turtles. Most references come from major search engines, and the editors encourage authors to submit their publications directly by email to the Recent Publications editor: mntrecentpubs@gmail.com.

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Nesting crawl made by leatherback sea turtle, Culebra Island, Puerto Rico. Photo: M. Godfrey.

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