BEFORE THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR

A Petition to List the Tricolored Blackbird (*Agelaius tricolor*) as Endangered under the U.S. Endangered Species Act

Tricolored Blackbird, *Agelaius tricolor*, Dave Menke, USFWS

February 3, 2015

Sally Jewell, Secretary
U.S. Department of the Interior
1849 C Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20240

Dan Ashe, Director
U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service
1849 C Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20240

RE: PETITION TO LIST THE TRICOLORED BLACKBIRD (*AGELAIUS TRICOLOR*) AS AN ENDANGERED SPECIES AND TO DESIGNATE CRITICAL HABITAT CONCURRENT WITH LISTING

Dear Secretary Jewell and Director Ashe:

The Center for Biological Diversity formally petitions to list the Tricolored Blackbird (*Agelaius tricolor*) as an endangered species pursuant to the Endangered Species Act (ESA), 16 U.S.C. §1531 et seq. This petition is filed under 5 U.S.C. 553(e) and 50 CFR 424.14 (1990), which grant interested parties the right to petition for issuance of a rule from the Secretary of Interior. Petitioner requests that the species be considered for emergency listing at this time given its precarious status.

Under the ESA, a threatened species includes "any species which is likely to become an endangered species within the foreseeable future throughout all or a signification portion of its range." An "endangered species" is one that is in danger of extinction. The Tricolored Blackbird ("Tricolor") warrants listing as endangered because it is in danger of extinction for the following reasons: (1) the direct loss and degradation of habitat resulting from human activities in combination with other natural and anthropogenic factors; (2) its population size is plummeting precipitously; and (3) the species is not adequately protected by existing regulatory mechanisms. The primary causes of observed population declines include historical market hunting of blackbirds, poisonings and shootings to protect crops from blackbirds, pesticide use, and harvest of grain crops grown for dairy silage and routine plowing of weedy fields throughout most of its range during nesting season—which results in the destruction of thousands of Tricolor nests on dairy farms and other agricultural lands each year in the Central Valley—and the failure of voluntary measures to stem the decline in abundance.

Petitioner also requests that critical habitat be designated concurrent with the listing, pursuant to 50 CFR 424.12, and pursuant to the Administrative Procedures Act (5 U.S.C. 553).

Respectfully Submitted,

Lisa T. Belenky, Senior Attorney
Center for Biological Diversity
351 California St., Suite 600
San Francisco, CA 94104
(415) 632-5307
Fax: (415) 436-9683
lbelenky@biologicaldiversity.org

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Executive Summary

The Tricolored Blackbird ("Tricolor;" *Agelaius tricolor*) is a colonial-nesting passerine largely endemic to California. It forms the largest colonies of any passerine in North America since the extinction of the Passenger Pigeon (*Ectopistes migratorius*, Bent 1958). Colonially nesting birds are particularly vulnerable to extinction because a small number of colonies can include a large proportion of the population; thus human activities can have catastrophic effects by killing adults or chicks or destroying habitat (Cook and Toft 2005). Such was the fate of the colonial Passenger Pigeon, Carolina Parakeet (*Conuropsis carolinensis*), and Great Auk (*Pinguinus impennis*) and will be the fate of the Tricolored Blackbird if immediate action is not taken. As scientists working with the Tricolored Blackbird noted, early actions are needed to protect colonial bird species from rapid collapse.

> **"Surely the legacy of Passenger Pigeon should be our understanding of how such extinctions can occur rapidly in extremely abundant organisms because of non-linear population dynamics and thresholds caused by inverse density dependence. Failure to address the impact of habitat and human activities on reproductive success of Tricolored Blackbird may again lead to the extinction of a once-abundant bird**." (Cook and Toft 2005:86.)

Tricolored Blackbird populations are declining at an alarming rate in large part due to the direct loss and degradation of habitat from human activities. This includes historical market hunting of blackbirds, poisonings and shootings to protect crops from blackbirds, pesticide use, and harvest of grain crops grown for dairy silage and other agricultural grain crops and routine plowing of weedy fields throughout most of its range during nesting season. For example, every year, thousands of Tricolors, often entire colonies of tens of thousands of birds representing the largest known colonies in a given year, nest unsuccessfully on agricultural lands because their eggs and nests are destroyed during harvest or weed abatement activities (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Hamilton 2004, Cook and Toft 2005, Meese 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2011). The concentration of most of the known Tricolor population in a few large breeding colonies increases the risk of major reproductive failures, especially in vulnerable habitats such as active agricultural fields (Cook and Toft 2005, Meese 2013). Moreover, entire colonies are often predated by rats, egrets, herons, coyotes, and other predators, some colonies are partially or completely destroyed by storms, and insufficient insect prey in foraging areas near to nesting substrates appears to be causing widespread reproductive failure even in colonies unperturbed by harvest, predation, or storms (Meese 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2011, 2013). Because these factors are contributing annually to significant breeding failure, efforts to reduce and reverse the population decline are critically needed. Unfortunately, voluntary measures undertaken over the past decade have not stopped the decline of the species or destruction of nesting habitat. Therefore, in order to ensure survival of the species the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service ("FWS") should immediately list the Tricolored Blackbird as endangered and designate critical habitat to protect its nesting and foraging areas.

1.0 Introduction

The geographic range of Tricolors is generally restricted to California's Central Valley and surrounding foothills; Tricolors are sparsely distributed throughout coastal and inland locations north of the Central Valley and in southern California (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). California supports more than 99% of the population, but the species has also been reported in small numbers in southern Oregon and northernmost western coastal Baja California - with a single colony of 60 birds in western Nevada, and a similar number in central Washington (Beedy and Hamilton 1997, 1999, DeHaven 2000). The Tricolor's basic requirements for selecting breeding sites are open accessible water, a protected nesting substrate such as flooded or thorny or spiny vegetation, and adequate insect prey within a few kilometers of the nesting colony (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Shuford and Gardali 2008). Historically, rivers flowing into the Central Valley would flood and create extensive marshes, providing abundant high-quality breeding habitat for Tricolors and other wetland-dependent species, but much of this habitat has been obliterated. Tricolors have demonstrated some flexibility in shifting breeding from marshes to other spiny and thorny vegetation types such as non-native Himalayan blackberry and thistles as well as newly developed silage crops such as Triticale. However, none of these new nesting habitat types are given any regulatory protection, rendering entire colonies vulnerable to complete reproductive failure during the active nesting season due to agricultural activities. In addition, Tricolor colonies often switch nesting locations from year to year, substantially complicating conservation efforts.

The Tricolor is sympatric with and morphologically similar to the Red-winged Blackbird ("Red-wing;" *A. phoeniceus*). However, unlike Red-wings, Tricolors breed in dense colonies, often traveling long distances to forage for their chicks, and males defend relatively smaller territories within their colonies, mating with one to several females per year (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). The overall distribution and location of nesting sites vary from year to year, and Tricolors are itinerant breeders, i.e., they may nest more than once at different locations during the breeding season (Hamilton 1998).

Tricolors form the largest breeding colonies of any North American land bird, and breeding colonies recently consisted of tens of thousands of birds at a single site. While Tricolor colonies can consist of thousands of breeding birds, thus giving an appearance of high local abundance to casual observers, the status of the bird is of great concern because the overall population has declined dramatically over the past 70 years, a decline that appears to have accelerated in the past 6 years (Meese 2014). The geographical range of Tricolors is largely restricted to California, and their gregarious nesting behavior renders colonies vulnerable to large-scale nesting failures due to destruction of active nests in its agricultural habitats and high levels of predation in the little remaining native emergent marsh habitat, predominately cattails and bulrushes. Every year, Tricolors experience large losses of reproductive effort to crop-harvesting and other agricultural activities and predation. Tricolors suffer habitat losses to land conversions from rangeland to vineyards, orchards, and urban development. An unknown number of Tricolors are killed in autumn in rice paddies in the Sacramento Valley. Despite awareness of widespread reproductive losses over several decades, FWS, the California Fish and Game Commission, and California

Department of Fish and Wildlife ("CDFW") had failed to take any serious regulatory action to protect Tricolors. The Center for Biological Diversity ("Center") submitted a petition to list the Tricolor as an endangered species under the California and Federal Endangered Species Acts in 2004 due to the documented population decline from historical numbers and the serious threats from agricultural harvest and habitat loss, but the petition was denied and the threats continued. Consequently, the population of Tricolors continued to drop precipitously during the following decade to the point where the need for emergency action was unequivocal. In response to the latest scientific data documenting further population declines, on October 8, 2014 the Center petitioned the California Fish and Game Commission to list the Tricolor as an endangered species pursuant to Section 670.1, Title 14, California Code of Regulations (CCR) and Sections 2072 and 2073 of the Fish and Game Code relating to listing and delisting endangered and threatened species of plants and animals under the California Endangered Species Act. The petition requested emergency action to protect the species. On December 3, 2014 the California Fish and Game Commission determined the listing was warranted.

The Tricolored Blackbird was once considered one of the most abundant bird species throughout much of its range (Cook and Toft 2005). In 1859, Heermann wrote that wintering flocks of Tricolors would "darken the sky for some distance by their masses," a description similar to that of the now-extinct Passenger Pigeon (Cook and Toft 2005). Beginning in the 1930s and continuing until 2014, numerous efforts have been made to estimate abundance of Tricolors (Neff 1937, DeHaven et al. 1975, Hamilton et al. 1995, Beedy and Hamilton 1997, Hamilton 2000, Kelsey 2008, Kyle and Kelsey 2011, Meese 2014). These abundance estimates unequivocally demonstrate an extremely precipitous decline in the population of Tricolors in the Central Valley, the historical stronghold of the species, and elsewhere including the Central Coast and southern California. Tricolors in the Central Valley declined at least 50% between the 1930s and early 1970s (DeHaven et al. 1975), and an additional decline of approximately 56% of the remaining population was reported from 1994 to 2000 (Hamilton 2000). More recent statewide surveys included greatly expanded efforts with more sites, and these surveys documented additional dramatic declines: from an initial survey count of 395,000 birds in 2008, Tricolor numbers were reduced to about 145,000 in 2014—despite the fact that this was the largest effort ever expended to census the entire population of Tricolored Blackbirds, this was the smallest population ever recorded. The current situation is dire indeed.

The Center is extremely concerned about the continued destruction of active Tricolor nests on dairy farms and other agricultural lands in the Central Valley and the failure of voluntary measures to stem the decline in abundance. Other important nesting substrates, such as Himalayan blackberry, are occasionally destroyed by herbicide application (Meese 2011). Widespread reproductive failures are regularly documented even in the species' native marsh habitat, due to predation and lack of insects with which to feed young (Meese 2013). The Center is requesting that FWS list the Tricolor as an endangered species, designate its critical habitat, and, together with CDFW, curtail activities that are in large part responsible for the current precipitous decline of the species.

The FWS, CDFW, and other partners have been engaging in "public/private cooperation" to address the ongoing violations of state and federal birds protection statutes during activities that

destroy nesting colonies, and the resultant large-scale nesting failures. Through these voluntary measures, many thousands of Tricolor nests have recently been saved from destruction during crop harvest. However, these measures are only meaningful as mitigation if they are consistently negotiated and proven effective at significantly reducing Tricolor nest failures. Given the failure of past efforts to prevent nest destruction, it is unsurprising that agencies take the position that crop purchases or reimbursements for delayed harvest are not a feasible long-term solution for Tricolor habitat management on private agricultural lands. Such voluntary and cooperative methods will not be sufficient to slow or reverse the Tricolor's recent precipitous decline. For example, in 2011 (the last year for which detailed data were available on colony fates) 56% of all nests in silage fields were destroyed despite efforts to contact farmers and coordinate buy-outs of harvest delays (Meese 2011). Numerous voluntary recommendations to halt the population declines have been proposed in the reports on the 2008, 2011, and 2014 statewide surveys, but these recommendations have not been widely adopted and as a result the populations continue to plummet. In 2007 the Tricolored Blackbird Working Group set a recovery goal of 725,000 Tricolored Blackbirds - yet every year since then the population has declined, so it has rapidly become much more difficult to meet the recovery goal. Because CDFW could not demonstrate that concrete measures will be implemented immediately to protect critical nesting sites on private lands during the 2015 breeding season under the voluntary and cooperative partnerships, the Tricolor was emergency listed under CESA in December 2014. The listing of the Tricolor under the Federal Endangered Species Act is also needed as it will enable the protection of critical habitat and implementation of regulatory protective measures to reduce known sources of Tricolored Blackbird mortality.

2.0 Life History

The highly synchronous and colonial nesting behavior of the Tricolored Blackbird is likely an adaptation that increases reproductive success through predator saturation and mutual defense against predators (Cook and Toft 2005). Much has been learned about the adaptive traits of highly colonial nesting birds from studies of the Tricolor, beginning in the 1960s. The Tricolored Blackbird portal administered by U.C. Davis states:

> "In the 1960's, two graduate students from U.C. Berkeley, Gordon Orians and Robert Payne, conducted seminal research on blackbirds, including Tricolors, that focused on behavior and adaptations for marsh nesting (Orians) and reproductive physiology (Payne) and helped to provide an ecological and evolutionary context for tricolor breeding, food preferences, and habitat selection and compared and contrasted tricolors with other blackbird species.
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> "In the late 1960's, Frederick Crase, a Bureau of Reclamation biologist, and Richard DeHaven, who worked for the U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service, began working on the tricolored blackbird and studied food habits, habitat relationships, population status, and movement patterns. This work was described in a number of publications from the mid-1970's until the late 1980's. This work confirmed the continuing decline in the number of tricolored blackbirds and highlighted the dependence of food supplies, especially insect abundance, on colony productivity, and suggested that otherwise apparently

suitable nesting sites might be abandoned if surrounding foraging habitats were not sufficiently productive or extensive."

In the 1980s Ted Beedy began field investigations of Tricolors with an emphasis on estimating the abundance of the species and determining factors responsible for the observed nesting failures of colonies in the Central Valley. Shortly thereafter, Bill Hamilton began his field investigations. Hamilton's work continued for 13 field seasons, through 2005, and covered topics such as population estimation, productivity estimation, foraging ecology, and the phenomenon known as "itinerant breeding," whereby individuals breed once in one location and then fly northward to a different location to breed again. Hamilton's graduate student, Liz Cook, conducted and published important work on nesting dynamics, and his colleague Bob Meese began banding studies in 2007 and reported extensively on colony fates and productivity. These studies are described below.

2.1 Species Description

The Tricolor is medium-sized and sexually dimorphic, breeding in dense colonies largely in California's Central Valley, Coast Ranges, and southern California (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Total length ranges from 18-24 cm, and body mass ranges from 40–70 g depending on the season (Beedy and Hamilton 1999).

The sexes of the Tricolor differ in size, plumage and behavior. Beedy and Hamilton (1999) offered a detailed description of the species:

> "In general, males are larger than females; have striking red, white, and black plumage; and display when breeding. Adult males are entirely black with a blue gloss in full sunlight, with bright brownish-red lesser wing coverts forming a red patch on the epaults (wing shoulder), and median coverts buffy (August-February) to pure white (February-July), depending on the season. Adult females are mostly black with grayish streaks, relatively whitish chin and throat (rarely with faint pinkish or peach wash), and small but distinct reddish shoulder patch. Immature males are similar to adult males but with duller black plumage mottled with gray (August-March), becoming almost entirely dull black (April-June), and with shoulder patch mixed with black (August-March only). Immature females are similar to adult females but the wing lacks the reddish patch. Immatures of both sexes usually retain some brownish or grayish underwing coverts, which contrast with newer adjacent black feathers. Juveniles of both sexes (April-August) are similar to adult females, but much paler gray and buff."

The plumage of the Tricolor and Red-wing are so similar that museum specimens are sometimes misidentified (Orians 1961a). The adult male Tricolor has a bluish luster to its black plumage, and the red of the epaulets is bright scarlet in contrast to the dull orange-red of the male Redwing (Orians 1961a). Both sexes of Tricolors are distinguished from Red-wings by bill shape, tail shape, and primary feathering formula; the outermost primary (P9) is longer than P6 in Tricolors and shorter in Red-wings (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). In addition, Tricolors have longer outer primaries, creating a narrower and more pointed wing shape than other blackbirds (Beedy and

Hamilton 1999). The most conspicuous feature of the male plumage is the broad white border to the middle wing coverts (Orians 1961a).

In most races of the Red-wing these feathers are tipped with buffy, but in those races occupying the central Coast Ranges and Central Valley of California, where the Tricolor is most abundant, these feathers are black so that the wing lacks the light-colored stripe (Orians 1961a). Orians (1961a) noted that "[t]his plumage difference between males is not only conspicuous to the human observer, it is the most important means of species identification used by the birds themselves. Occasional Red-wings in a flock of Tricolors are singled out for special attack by a resident male Redwing in whose territory the flock lands." Orians (1961a) also described the difference between female Tricolors and Red-wings: "[i]n general, female Tricolors are more uniformly sooty than female Redwings, there being less contrast between throat and breast. In the autumn, female Redwings are strongly tinged with rusty on the back, a feature never shown by the female Tricolor." Females of both species are more difficult to distinguish because, although female Tricolors are darker than most races of the female Red-wing, female Red-wings are actually the darkest in the region of distributional overlap. Interestingly, there appears to be a convergence of female plumage where the two species overlap, in contrast to a divergence of plumage in the males (Orians 1961a).

Sexual dimorphism in size is less in the Tricolor than in the Red-wing. Male Tricolors are smaller than male Red-wings in wing, tail, tarsus, and bill depth, but are larger in culmen, whereas female Tricolors are larger than female Red-wings in wing, tail, tarsus, and culmen, but are smaller in bill depth (Orians 1961a). This longer, narrow bill of the Tricolor is one of the most reliable morphological differences between the species (Orians 1961a).

Flight of the Tricolor consists of long, shallow undulations and flocks tend to be compact (Beedy and Hamilton 1999).

2.2 Taxonomy and Population Genetics

Mitochondrial DNA (cytochrome *b*) studies indicate that the nine *Agelaius* species are a polyphyletic assemblage of ecologically similar species (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). "Within *Agelaius sensu lato*, *A. tricolor* clusters with four species, what might be called the true *Agelaius* (i.e., *sensu stricto*): *A. phoeniceus* (the Red-winged Blackbird of North and Central America), *A. assimilis* (the Red-shouldered Blackbird of western Cuba), *A. humeralis* (the Tawny-shouldered Blackbird of Hispaniola and Cuba), and *A. xanthomus* (the Yellow-shouldered Blackbird of Puerto Rico) (Lowther et al. 2004)." (Meese et al. 2014).

Behavioral difference between the Central Valley and southern California populations and an absence of exchange of individual banded birds between the two areas suggests the Tehachapi Mountains may act as a potential dispersal barrier (Berg et al. 2010). Elena Berg and colleagues at U.C. Davis used two complementary molecular markers, nuclear DNA microsatellites and mitochondrial DNA sequences, to examine the genetic structure of seven colonies of Tricolored Blackbirds in the Central Valley. Microsatellites evolve rapidly and are highly variable, and therefore are effective at determining the amount of gene flow among populations. In contrast,

maternally inherited mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) does not recombine, thus allow the description of historical changes in population size (by detecting maternal bottlenecks) and temporal variation in gene flow. The researchers found no evidence for population structuring within the seven areas, suggesting that the Central Valley colonies are a single population at the genetic level.

Berg and colleagues then used similar techniques to determine whether gene flow occurred between northern and southern populations, and whether there was population structuring within the southern populations (Berg et al. 2010). Microsatellite and sequencing results revealed no evidence of significant population structuring between the southern California and Central Valley Tricolor populations, indicating either considerable movement and genetic exchange between regions and few if any isolated populations, or that any isolation is very recent and not yet reflected in the population genetic signatures. Furthermore, the higher allelic diversity of the southern California population, despite its smaller overall population size compared to the Central Valley population, suggests that the southern California population is an important reservoir of genetic variation for the species overall (Berg et al. 2010). Berg et al. (2010) noted however that "the genetic signature of a recent and dramatic decrease in effective population size in southern California is of high concern, since it suggests that despite the lack of evidence for recent bottlenecks in this species, there are many fewer birds breeding in southern California than in the recent past."

2.3 Reproduction and Growth

Males begin singing as early as late February. Nesting is initiated in late March to early April, primarily in the San Joaquin Valley, and again in May to June in the rice-growing region of the Sacramento Valley and foothill areas (Hamilton 1998, Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Male Tricolors may arrive before females at the colony sites, but sometimes by less than one day, and sometimes both sexes arrive together and begin breeding activity the same day (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Dense concentrations of birds will gather and suddenly fly to another place, changing locations frequently and then returning to potential nest sites. This is described as "prospecting behavior" (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Requirements for breeding colony sites are accessible water, protected nesting sites such as flooded or spiny, stinging, or otherwise armored or protective vegetation, and adequate amounts of suitable foraging areas within a few kilometers of the nesting colony (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Most adults at a colony site begin nesting 2–3 days after prospecting begins. When Tricolors arrive at a breeding site, previously established breeding Red-wings and Yellow-headed (*Xanthocephalus xanthocephalus*) blackbirds may be excluded from territories by extremely large numbers of Tricolors.

Females construct their nest within the small territory of the male, and one male will breed with 1–4 females (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Extreme synchrony is characteristic of most colonies of Tricolors—even in colonies of up to 100,000 nests, all eggs may be laid within one week (Orians 1961a). Males do not assist with nest construction or incubation, but do assist with food gathering and feeding of the young.

During the breeding season, Tricolors exhibit itinerant breeding whereby individuals often move

after their first nesting attempts and breed again at a different geographical location (Hamilton 1998). At some colonies a second wave of nesting follows fledging of the initial cohort (Beedy and Hamilton 1999).

2.4 Diet and Foraging Ecology

Tricolors are opportunistic foragers, taking any locally abundant insect including grasshoppers (Orthoptera), beetles and weevils (Coleoptera), caddis fly larvae (Trichoptera), moth and butterfly larvae (Lepidoptera), dragonfly larvae (Odonata), and lakeshore midges (Diptera), as well as grains, snails, and small clams (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). In earlier studies Tricolors were described as grasshopper followers (Orians 1961b; Payne 1969) and losses of grasslands and reduced grasshopper abundance may have contributed to the decline of the Tricolor population observed between the 1930s and 1970s (Crase and DeHaven 1977). Recently, however, grasshoppers have been abundant enough locally to support some large Tricolor colonies (Meese 2013).

Tricolors forage in all seasons in pastures, dry seasonal pools, agricultural fields including alfalfa with continuous mowing schedules, rice fields, feedlots, and dairies (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). The birds will also forage in riparian scrub, saltbush (*Atriplex* spp.) scrub, borders of marshes, and grasslands. They do not forage regularly in weed-free row crops and intensively managed orchards and vineyards (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Rangeland that is not heavily grazed is also important foraging habitat for Tricolors in some portions of their range (Cook 1996).

Adult Tricolors, when foraging for themselves, will consume the most easily obtained food; in many agricultural settings, this means the utilization of feed grains provided to livestock in feeding troughs and/or stored silage (e.g., cracked corn, sometimes available in huge quantities). Where such animal feeds are not available, as in colonies situated outside of livestock rearing areas, adults typically foraged close to the colony on abundant and easily-obtained foods such as spilled rice and unharvested grains (Hamilton and Meese 2006).

The hatching of eggs results in an immediate shift to foraging for animal prey. Foraging behavior exploits the most abundant and easily obtained foods that meet immediate dietary needs of nestlings. Animal matter is essential for 0–9 day-old nestlings but grains and seeds are utilized by adults and > 9-day-old nestlings. Animal prey fed to nestlings is diverse, including caterpillars of several Lepidopteran species, grasshoppers, aquatic larvae of water scavenger beetles (Coleoptera: Hydrophilidae), midges, beetles, and other invertebrates (Hamilton and Meese 2006).

Hamilton and Meese (2006) found that when foraging for themselves, adults rarely travel more than 3 km from breeding colonies, and frequently take advantage of super-abundant food resources at or near dairies (e.g., stored grains, cracked corn, livestock feed) but will travel greater distances, occasionally more than 8 km, in search of animal prey with which to feed their young. Occasional forays of up to 13 km from the colony have been documented (Beedy and Hamilton 1997), although sustained short-distance foraging within sight of the colony is also observed (Cook 1996). There are some indications that the size of the foraging arena may

correlate to nestling starvation as adults travel longer distances to find food (Liz Cook, pers. comm.).

Only a portion of the area within commuting distance from the nest is used for foraging. Many unsuitable areas, including cultivated row crops, orchards, vineyards, and heavily grazed grasslands, are associated with high-quality Tricolor foraging habitat such as irrigated pastures, lightly grazed rangelands, dry seasonal pools, mowed alfalfa, fields, feedlots, and dairies (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Hamilton and Meese 2006). Wintering Tricolors in the Sacramento Valley appear to forage heavily on the seeds of plants such as rice, grains, and weeds (Crase and DeHaven 1978).

Orians (1961a) demonstrated that the Tricolor's colonial social structure is more energetically demanding than the territorial structure of the Red-wing due to the high energetic requirements of flying back and forth from distant feeding sites when foraging for young. Tricolors require food supplies that can be rapidly exploited once they reach the feeding site. Thus, the species has an unpredictable breeding distribution and poorer reproductive success than the Red-wing in unfavorable years (Orians and Collier 1963).

2.5 Mortality and Population Regulation

Band recovery data suggest that Tricolors live at least 13 years, although data are currently insufficient to estimate survival rates. Bob Meese of U.C. Davis initiated a number- and color-banding program in 2007. The color-banding continued until 2009 and the banding with USGS aluminum bands has continued through 2014 and has resulted in the banding of nearly 57,000 birds and the recapture of over 1,100 unique individuals. His band and re-sight samples of birds with number bands have been used to estimate an average annual adult survival of 60% (Meese unpub.).

Known causes of mortality include exposure to inclement weather (see "Other Natural or Anthropogenic Factors"); predation (see "Disease and Predation"); starvation (Meese 2010) and possible brood reduction via removal of live chicks from nests by females (Hamilton et al. 1995); competition with other species, including Great-tailed Grackles (*Quiscalus mexicanus*) which are aggressive towards Tricolors and may represent a serious future threat (Beedy and Hamilton 1999); agricultural contaminants and shooting for crop protection (see "Other Natural or Anthropogenic Factors"); widespread destruction of nesting substrate during the nesting season that results in direct mortality of nestlings, as well as historical and ongoing loss of nesting and foraging habitat (see "Present Or Threatened Destruction, Modification, or Curtailment of Habitat or Range").

3.0 Range and Distribution

3.1 Species' Range

More than 99% of Tricolors live in California, with just a few scattered populations in Oregon, Washington, coastal Baja California, Mexico and a single breeding colony in western Nevada

(Beedy and Hamilton 1999). The range of the Tricolor is largely restricted to southernmost Oregon and the Modoc Plateau of northeastern California, south through the lowlands of California west of the Sierra Nevada to northwestern Baja California (Neff 1937, Orians 1961a, DeHaven et al. 1975, Beedy and Hamilton 1999) with some rare reports from Nevada and Washington (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). The elevational range of the Tricolor is documented to extend from sea level to approximately 1220 meters (4,000 feet) in Shasta County to 1280 meters (4,200 feet) on Klamath Lake (Neff 1937). Although most of the Tricolor population and the largest colonies are currently found in the San Joaquin and Sacramento valleys, the species also breeds in several southern California counties where, a century ago, it was considered to be the most abundant bird species (Baird in Cooper 1870).

The range of the Tricolored Blackbird is similar to that reported early in the previous century although contractions in some areas, particularly southern California, are apparent as discussed below. Shuford and Gardali (2008: 438–439) describe the historical and recent range of the Tricolored Blackbird as follows:

> "The Tricolored Blackbird's known historical breeding range in California included the Sacramento and San Joaquin valleys, the foothills of the Sierra Nevada south to Kern County, the coastal slope from Sonoma County south to the Mexican border, and, sporadically, the Modoc Plateau (Dawson 1923, Neff 1937, Grinnell and Miller 1944). Historical surveys, however, did not include large areas of the species' currently known breeding range and consequently did not document its full extent at the time (see below)…
>
> "The overall range of the species is little changed since the mid-1930s (Beedy and Hamilton 1999), though more recent surveys have documented occurrence in some areas lacking extensive prior coverage that likely were occupied historically (Hamilton et al. 1995; Beedy and Hamilton 1997; Hamilton 2000, 2004; Green and Edson 2004). This mostly includes documentation of local populations at the periphery of the range, such as those on the coast north to Humboldt County, in northeastern California, and in the western Mojave desert, and of new colony sites within the overall historic range (see map). Since 1980, active breeding colonies have been observed in 46 California counties; all of the largest (>20,000 adults) were in the Central Valley or at the Toledo Pit, Riverside County [*sic*: Toledo Pit is in Tulare County]."

The southern California population (in the Los Angeles Basin, Inland Empire/Riverside, and San Diego regions south of the Transverse Range) appears to have been geographically isolated since the 1970s-1980s (R. Cook pers. comm.). There are no recent records from Santa Barbara or Ventura Counties and relatively small numbers in coastal Los Angeles and Orange County. While there have been from time to time colonies of as many as 5,000 birds in the very northern part of Los Angeles and San Bernardino Counties, those are undoubtedly due to migrations of flocks from the Central Valley (R. Cook pers. comm.).

Within its range, the species is nomadic and highly colonial; large flocks appear suddenly in areas from which they have been absent for months, they breed and then quickly withdraw

(Orians 1961a). In one season nesting colonies have been found widely scattered, and in another there have been great concentrations in relatively restricted districts (Neff 1937). The size and location of colonies vary from year to year, although certain sites are regularly used (Orians 1961a, Hamilton et al. 1995, Cook 1996, Hamilton 2000, Kelsey 2008, Kyle and Kelsey 2011, Meese 2014).

Wintering Tricolored Blackbird populations move extensively throughout their range during the non-breeding season. Major wintering concentrations occur in and around the Sacramento–San Joaquin River Delta and coastal areas, including Monterey and Marin counties, where they are often associated with dairies (Shuford and Gardali 2008). Small flocks also may appear at scattered coastal locations from Sonoma County south to San Diego County, and sporadically north to Del Norte County (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Unitt 2004). They are rare in winter in the southern San Joaquin Valley and in the Sacramento Valley north of Sacramento County (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). In Riverside County Tricolor populations appear to be residential with similar numbers of birds observed in winter in the same areas where they breed in the spring (R. Cook; unpublished data).

3.2 Historical Distribution

The Tricolor's requirements for selecting breeding sites are open accessible water; a protected nesting substrate, including either flooded or thorny or spiny vegetation; and a suitable foraging space providing adequate insect prey within a few kilometers of the nesting colony (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Shuford and Gardali 2008). Historically, rivers flowing into the Central Valley would flood and create extensive marshes, providing abundant breeding habitat for Tricolors and other wetland-dependent species. In the 19th century, autumn flocks of thousands of Tricolors were described in the Shasta area, and a wintering flock was observed in Solano County "...numbering so many thousands as to darken the sky for some distance by their masses," (Baird 1870 in Beedy and Hamilton 1999). J. G. Cooper noted that the Tricolor was "the most abundant species near San Diego and Los Angeles, and not rare at Santa Barbara," (Baird 1870 in Beedy and Hamilton 1999).

The first systematic range-wide surveys of the population status and distribution of the Tricolor were conducted by Neff (1937). These surveys found Tricolor breeding colonies in at least 26 counties in California, although the survey of the range was still incomplete. Neff (1937) estimated abundance at 252 colonies, mostly associated with freshwater emergent wetlands in rice-growing areas of California, and numerous very large colonies were reported.

Population surveys and banding studies carried out from 1969–1972 by DeHaven et al. (1975) found 168 breeding colonies at 113 locations, each at least 1.6 km apart. About 78% (131) of the colonies were in the Central Valley, with 80 in the Sacramento Valley and 51 in the San Joaquin Valley. The remaining 22% (37) of colonies were in other parts of California and in southern Oregon. The counties where the most colonies were found in a single season were Sacramento, Merced, Stanislaus, Glenn, and Colusa.

The survey results from DeHaven et al. (1975) indicated that the geographic range and major breeding areas of the species had not changed since the first surveys were conducted by Neff in 1937. However, DeHaven et al. (1975) found fewer breeding colonies, fewer non-breeding Tricolors, no nesting areas even approaching the size of some of the previously reported colonies, fewer birds in the largest colonies, and fewer total Tricolors.

It is worth noting that even the earliest surveys had been conducted after most of the Central Valley's wetlands were already lost. Thus, the historical distribution and population abundance of Tricolors prior to the profound and widespread loss of their native wetland and grassland habitats are unknown.

3.3 Current Distribution

Overall, a comparison of the historical and current distribution of the species shows that in some portions of their range, Tricolors have declined or been eliminated (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Local near or complete extirpation has occurred in portions of the Central Valley where the species was once abundant, and in many historical sites in coastal southern California counties, including Santa Barbara, Ventura, Los Angeles, Orange, and San Diego Counties (Beedy and Hamilton 1997, Meese 2014). Thus the species has been extirpated or nearly extirpated in portions of its former range.

Since 1980, active Tricolor breeding colonies have been observed in 46 counties in California, and most of the largest colonies are still located in the Central Valley (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). The species currently breeds throughout the Central Valley west of the Cascade Range and west of the Sierra Nevada (into the foothills), and from Humboldt and Shasta Counties, south to extreme southwestern San Bernardino County, western Riverside County, and western and southern San Diego County. Breeding also occurs in marshes of the Klamath Basin in Siskiyou and Modoc Counties, Honey Lake Basin in Lassen County and in some central California coastal counties.

Outside California, the Tricolor has bred in Oregon in southern Klamath and southern Jackson Counties and in northeast Portland (Multnomah County), near Clarno and Wamic (Wasco County), at the John Day Fossil Beds National Monument (Wheeler County), near Stanfield (Umatilla County), and at Summer Lake (Lake County). A small colony reportedly nested in Grant County, Washington in 1998, and small colonies were identified in Douglas County, Nevada and in northern Baja California (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Several small colonies totaling fewer than 500 birds were reported in Baja California in 2013 (Feenstra 2013).

In 1991 researchers at U.C. Davis initiated a large-scale study of Tricolors, investigating size and location of colonies, nesting habitat characteristics, behavior, reproductive success as correlated with habitat type and patterns of land ownership. This study was expanded in 1994 to include a FWS and CDFW sponsored range-wide population census led by the U.C. Davis researchers and including a volunteer base of experienced local ornithologists. The results of this census and additional season long survey data are reported in Hamilton et al. (1995). In 1994 census participants located Tricolors nesting in 74 colonies in 32 California counties, with breeding

occurring in 26 counties. In 1994, the largest Tricolor colonies were found in Merced, Colusa, Tulare, Glen, Kern, Sacramento, and Yuba Counties (Beedy and Hamilton 1997).

Annual population censuses were attempted in 1995 and 1996 but efforts and methods were not comparable to those of 1994. A second comparable census and additional season-long surveys were conducted in 1997 using the same coverage, methods, and surveyors as in 1994 (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). 1997 census results reported individual Tricolors in 32 California counties, including 50 non-breeding adults in Klamath County, Oregon, and 950 breeding adults in northwestern Baja California.

In 1997, the largest Tricolor colonies were found in Colusa, Tulare, Kings, Riverside, Kern, Sacramento, and San Joaquin Counties (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). The two largest observed colonies during the 1997 breeding season were found in Colusa and Tulare Counties. The Colusa County colony formed in May, after the volunteer survey ended, by birds that probably nested elsewhere earlier on in the season. One of the largest colonies found in 1997, of about 23,300 nests, was found at a wetland created in 1994 in San Jacinto, Riverside County. "Although Riverside remains the stronghold for the species in southern California, numbers have declined by 89% since 1997 and 66% since 2005." (R. Cook, 2014).

During the 2000 census, 25 colonies were located, with the largest colonies occurring in Tulare, Merced, Riverside, and Colusa counties. It is notable that the large colonies that formed in Sacramento county in the early 1990s (including 1994) were absent in surveys conducted between 1997 and 2003.

During the 2008 survey, 135 breeding colonies were documented, with the largest "mega" colonies in Merced, Tulare, and Kern counties, all in the San Joaquin Valley. Again, very large colonies were absent from Sacramento county (Kelsey 2008). In 2011 the three largest concentrations of birds also were found in Merced, Kern, and Tulare counties, with 65% of the population consolidated into only six colony sites in these three counties (Kyle and Kelsey 2011). In 2014, the largest nesting colonies occurred in Tulare, Madera, and Merced counties, but these colonies all supported drastically fewer numbers of Tricolors than in the previous two census surveys (Meese 2014). However, Placer and Sacramento counties saw a marked increase in the number of birds (Meese 2014).

The number of birds observed differed markedly by bioregion in 2014; Southern California (Ventura, the far southern part of Kern, Los Angeles, Orange, San Bernardino, Riverside, and San Diego counties) had 12,386 birds; the San Joaquin Valley (from Kern County in the south to San Joaquin County in the north) had 73,412 birds; coastal locations (from Alameda County to Santa Barbara County) had 1,732 birds; the Sierra foothills (Amador, Calaveras, El Dorado, Placer, and Sacramento counties) had 25,717 birds; and the Sacramento Valley (from Yolo County in the south to Tehama County in the north) had 31,531 birds.

Table 1 below shows the locations surveyed, locations occupied, number of birds, and proportion of total from the most recent statewide census survey in 2014 (Meese 2014:8).

Table 1: Locations Surveyed and Occupied, Number of Tricolored Blackbirds, and Proportion of Total by County (Meese 2014 Table 1:8)

County	Locations Surveyed	Locations Occupied	Number of Birds	Proportion of Total
Alameda	27	1	50	0.034
Amador	6	2	5500	3.793
Butte	6	1	60	0.041
Calaveras	9	5	404	0.279
Colusa	23	0	0	0
El Dorado	9	5	1375	0.948
Fresno	25	1	6	0.004
Glenn	29	1	300	07207
Kern	64	12	3977	2.743
Kings	15	1	5000	3.448
Lake	6	1	150	0.103
Lassen	2	1	232	0.16
Los Angeles	11	6	4707	3.246
Madera	10	2	27166	18.735
Mariposa	1	1	13	0.009
Mendocino	5	1	100	0.069
Merced	46	5	10532	7.263
Monterey	22	6	399	0.275
Napa	11	1	70	0.048
Orange	17	1	14	0.01
Placer	20	4	17600	12.138
Riverside	28	9	4368	3.012
Sacramento	98	19	29272	20.188
San Benito	13	1	80	0.055
San Bernardino	10	6	1380	0.952
San Diego	30	6	1417	0.977
San Joaquin	9	2	515	0.355
San Luis Obispo	29	5	98	0.068
Santa Barbara	18	7	935	0.645
Santa Clara	6	0	0	0

Santa Cruz	8	0	0	0
Shasta	15	1	250	0.172
Solano	15	3	610	0.421
Sonoma	4	0	0	0
Stanislaus	36	10	8852	6.105
Sutter	18	1	8	0.006
Tehama	5	2	300	0.207
Tulare	30	5	18259	12.592
Tuolumne	8	3	825	0.569
Yolo	33	2	81	0.056
Yuma	25	3	268	0.185

The largest numbers of breeding Tricolors were historically found in the Central Valley; Orians (1961a) and DeHaven et al. (1975) reported that the species' center of breeding abundance and the largest colonies were in this region. In 1994 and 1997, more than 75% of all breeding adults were located there (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). In 2000 approximately 70% of the population was located in the Central Valley (Hamilton 2000). In 2008, 86.4% of the population was found in the San Joaquin Valley, and in 2011, 89% of the population occurred in the San Joaquin Valley and Tulare Basin. However, in the 2014 census only 50% of the population was documented in the San Joaquin Valley, with more birds counted in the Sacramento Valley than at any time since the 1990s. Meese (2014:10) stated "the 29,272 birds seen in Sacramento County exceeded the total seen in any statewide survey since 1997, when 31,338 birds were seen in the county (Beedy and Hamilton 1997)." Yet the numbers of birds counted in the Sacramento Valley are still a fraction of the hundreds of thousands of birds documented in the 1930s by Ness.

A detailed distribution map for the Tricolored Blackbird is provided below in the Appendix.

4.0 Population Status and Trend

> **If a flock of goldfinches is called a "charm," and a flock of crows, a "murder," what is a flock of Tricolored Blackbirds (*Agelaius tricolor*) called? Whatever the word, it could not possibly be adequate to describe the mind-boggling energy and excitement generated by a flock of over 50,000 Tricolors settling at a colony. Whether an avid birder or weekend naturalist, you can't help but be amazed by this sight, for it is one of the Central Valley's most spectacular natural phenomena. (**Edson and Green, Central Valley Bird Club Bulletin 2004:Volume 7.)

Tricolored Blackbirds form the largest breeding colonies of any North American land bird, a distinction once held by the now-extinct Passenger Pigeon. In the 1800s and early 1900s, the Tricolored Blackbird was considered one of the most abundant bird species throughout much of its range, which consists of low-elevation wetlands and grasslands of Central, Coastal, and

Southern California (Cook and Toft 2005). In 1859, Heermann wrote that wintering flocks of Tricolors would "darken the sky for some distance by their masses," a description notably similar to that of the Passenger Pigeon (Cook and Toft 2005). However, a history of market hunting and massive loss of native marshland habitat drastically reduced the population by the mid-twentieth century. The majority of the population, with the last statewide survey counting fewer than 150,000 birds, can still breed in colonies of tens of thousands, but there remain few such large nesting colonies and those that remain are extremely vulnerable to human activities such as crop harvesting while nests are still active and loss or degradation of suitable foraging habitats (Cook and Toft 2005). This species is on a clear trajectory towards extinction.

Much information is readily and publicly available regarding historical and current population status and trend of the Tricolored Blackbird. The best source of information is from the Tricolored Blackbird Portal that is maintained by the University of California, Davis and available at: tricolor.ice.ucdavis.edu. The Portal provides on-line data entry to hundreds of users and provides access to field data, reports, and published articles about the Tricolored Blackbird. The Portal provides a history of research on population status and trend of the Tricolored Blackbird, which is paraphrased below. (The references from tricolor.ice.ucdavis.edu and others are provided on a disc submitted with this petition.)

Although the Tricolored Blackbird is mentioned in several articles and books dating to the mid-20th century, the first field work that was focused on Tricolors was conducted by Johnson Neff, a biologist who worked for the Bureau of Biological Survey, the forerunner of today's U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service. Neff's work was primarily focused on the Sacramento Valley, but he also worked at sites in the San Joaquin Valley and in southern California in conjunction with other state and federal biologists and volunteers. After widespread reports of the birds' disappearance from coastal locations, Neff conducted six years of field surveys (from 1931–1936), and additional banding of nestlings until 1940, to determine the status of the birds in the Central Valley.

After 1940, perhaps in response to Neff's finding of fairly large numbers of remaining birds (e.g., over 736,000 adults in eight counties and 282,000 nests at one site in Glenn County in 1934), there followed a more than 20-year period of relatively little research into Tricolor status and biology. Then, during the 1970s, Richard DeHaven of FWS conducted surveys for Tricolors in first the Central Valley and then the entire breeding range (excluding Baja California). These efforts were undertaken to determine changes in the population status of the Tricolor since the last surveys in the 1940s.

In the 1980s Edward (Ted) Beedy began field investigations of Tricolors with an emphasis on estimating the abundance of the species and determining factors responsible for the observed nesting failures of colonies in the Central Valley. Shortly thereafter, William (Bill) Hamilton of U. C. Davis began his field investigations. Hamilton's work extended for 13 field seasons, through 2005, and covered a wide range of topics, including population estimation, productivity estimation, foraging ecology, and the phenomenon known as "itinerant breeding," whereby individuals breed once in one location and then fly northward to a different location to breed

again. Beedy and Hamilton wrote the *Birds of North America* treatment of the Tricolored Blackbird (Beedy and Hamilton 1999).

Beedy and Hamilton suggested using volunteers to conduct a statewide survey during a 3-day interval in April to best estimate the global population of the species. Early attempts at statewide surveys to assess population status and trend were conducted in 1994, 1997, 2000, 2001, and 2005. Of these, surveys conducted in 1994, 1997, and 2000 were similar enough in scope and effort to enable the detection of a significant downward trend in the population during this period (Cook and Toft 2005).

Beginning in 2008, the triennial statewide survey was revamped to include a strict new hierarchical coordination structure to standardize methodology and ensure more equal survey effort and thus more comparable results. The statewide survey, which occurs in mid-to-late April, is a volunteer effort with participants from most lower-elevation regions of California within the range of the Tricolor, and directed by a statewide coordinator. The 2008 survey was the first to use county coordinators—local experts with extensive experience with Tricolors on the local level—and this new hierarchical protocol (statewide coordinator, county coordinators, local participants) was used in the 2008, 2011, and 2014 surveys. The survey protocol is designed to document both presence and absence at a site, along with an estimate of the number of Tricolors and characteristics of occupied sites (nesting substrate, distance to water, presence of stored grains). These three most recent statewide surveys provide current, relatively more reliable information on the numbers and distribution of Tricolored Blackbirds throughout California and are a means to document trends in the population. These surveys also complement more intensive field efforts that provide insights into the factors causing the observed population decline.

The historical and more recent survey methodology and results are described below.

4.1 Historical Population Estimates

The first surveys and population estimates for Tricolors were instigated by Neff in the early 1930s. During the 1960s, other researchers focused their studies on ecology and behavior of the species (e.g., Orians 1960, 1961a, 1961b,Orians and Collier 1963, Payne 1969), but did not provide range-wide population estimates. DeHaven et al. (1975) conducted a second set of more comprehensive range-wide surveys to determine changes in the population status of Tricolors since Neff's work in the 1930s.

From 1930 to 1936, Neff (1937) estimated the population of Tricolors using several methods. The author and cooperators checked the active population of colonies numerous times by conducting flight-line counts (i.e., counting the birds flying in or out across a base line for five minutes); checking distance from base line to feeding ground or nesting site, and estimating probable time required for each trip. Nests were counted by walking nest transects: detailed observations in a randomly-chosen subset of a colony that counted all nests within a 6-foot wide strip and extrapolating from this sample to estimate the total number of nests. Generally, the number of nests rather than the number of breeding adults was reported.

Based on number of nests reported and multiplying by 1.5 (mean estimated sex ratio of 2 females breeding with each male), Beedy and Hamilton (1997) calculated that the surveyors in the 1930s observed as many as 736,500 adults per year in just 8 counties. Neff (1937) documented numerous large colonies, including one in 1934 in Glenn County that contained about 200,000 nests (300,000 breeding adults), over an area greater than 24 ha. Several other colonies in Sacramento and Butte Counties contained more than 100,000 nests. Hamilton et al. (1995) calculated that Neff observed about 1,105,100 individual Tricolors. Neff, however, concentrated most of his effort in the Sacramento Valley so most likely underestimated total population size at the time.

In 1969 and 1970, DeHaven et al. (1975) surveyed the Central Valley Tricolor breeding range by car, and in 1971, the entire breeding range (excluding Baja California) was surveyed. In 1972, the authors surveyed from the northern San Joaquin Valley to southern Oregon. Additional information was provided to the authors by volunteer ornithologists. Population estimates were made by counts and by projections based on research findings that each Tricolor female attends one active nest and that males mate with on average two females.

DeHaven et al. (1975) estimated the number of breeding birds at 157 colonies. Of these, 40 colonies (25%) had fewer than 1,000 birds, 97 colonies (62%) had from 1,000 to 10,000 birds, and 20 colonies (13%) had more than 10,000 birds. All colonies outside the Central Valley contained fewer than 10,000 Tricolors. They found fewer colonies, fewer non-breeding Tricolors, no nesting areas even approaching the size of some of the previously reported colonies, fewer birds in the largest colonies, and fewer total Tricolors than Neff (1937). Overall, DeHaven et al. (1975) concluded that the population of Tricolors had likely been reduced by more than 50% below levels reported in the 1930s, and that the downward population trajectory was continuing.

Beedy et al. (1991) summarized all historical and recent breeding accounts, including unpublished observer reports from a variety of sources. Based upon this information they concluded that the Tricolor had declined further from population estimates by DeHaven et al (1975), and that this decline was coincident with continuing losses of wetland habitats in the Central Valley. They reported a range of about 35,000–110,000 breeding adults per year in the 1980s, with an approximate average of 52,000 breeding adults reported per year in that decade (from Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Unfortunately their population estimates were not based well enough on field surveys and so cannot be considered adequate for evaluating the population for the period addressed. For example, Beedy et al. (1991) estimated a 76% decline in colony size between the 1930s and 1970s, whereas Graves et al. (2013), using a more comprehensive database, documented a 63% decline in mean colony size specifically from 1935 to 1975. Further, Beedy et al. (1991) documented a 62% decline in average colony size from the 1970s to the 1980s and Cook and Toft (2005) demonstrated a decline in average colony size from 1994 to 2000. Although Graves et al. (2013) found no decline from the 1970s to 2009, that study appears to have combined data that were not truly comparable. Since 2009, there has been a well documented marked decline in average colony sizes (Meese 2014), discussed below.

Three even more comprehensive surveys were conducted in 1994, 1997, and 2000 (Hamilton et al. 1995, Beedy and Hamilton 1997, Hamilton 2000). These surveys were co-sponsored by FWS and CDFW to document the Tricolor's population status, including investigating size and location of colonies, nesting habitat characteristics, behavior, reproductive success as correlated with habitat type, patterns of land ownership, and total population size and distribution. The surveys were coordinated by experienced Tricolor researchers at U.C. Davis and included these researchers in addition to numerous local volunteer ornithologists and agency personnel as participants. U.C. Davis researchers often provided follow-up confirmation of the larger volunteer-reported colonies.

The total number of Tricolors counted during the 1994 statewide survey was estimated to be 369,359 individuals. This suggests a decrease in population abundance of at least 50% (and probably more) based on Neff's (1937) results between the 1930s and early 1990s and a clear downward trend in the population. The ten largest colonies located during the survey and additional full season range-wide surveys in 1994 included 60.5% of all breeding individuals, pointing to the importance of protecting large breeding colonies and their nesting and foraging habitat, if the species is to be conserved. Importantly, full season survey results indicated that 70% of all Tricolor nests and 86% of all foraging by nesting birds occurred on private agricultural land in 1994 (Hamilton et al. 1995). Approximately 54% of all observed Tricolor nesting efforts were associated with agricultural crops, primarily grain crops grown for silage at dairies (Beedy and Hamilton 1997).

The total number of Tricolors counted during the 1997 survey was estimated to be 232, 960 individuals. This suggests a decrease in the population by approximately 37% between 1994 and 1997. Population declines were most apparent in the species' historical stronghold in the Central Valley, including Sacramento, Fresno, Kern, and Merced Counties. Approximately 75% of all breeding adults located during the survey were concentrated within the 10 largest colonies.

The total number of Tricolors located during the 2000 survey was estimated to be 162,508 individuals. This suggests an additional decrease in the population by approximately 30% between 1997 and 2000 and an overall decline of approximately 56% between 1994 and 2000. Fewer colonies were located in 2000 than in 1994 (Hamilton 2000) and colonies were smaller on average in 2000 compared to 1994 (Cook and Toft 2005). These data likely underestimate the true magnitude of change that occurred during this time period. The reliability of the censuses to estimate the Tricolor population likely increased over time because the number of participants grew and participants were better informed about colony locations in each succeeding year Hamilton (2000) states "…the method of the Census and the survey, to reinvestigate all known breeding places and to search for new ones, has become an increasingly complete assessment of Tricolored Blackbird distribution and abundance. The 2000 Census probably located a greater proportion of the entire population that did censuses in previous years."

More than 40% of all Tricolor reproductive effort in 2000 was associated with dairies in the San Joaquin Valley and southern California (Hamilton 2000). Hamilton (2000) pointed out that conditions were more favorable for breeding Tricolors in 2000 than 1999, including the buy-out of the Tevelde and George Colonies in Tulare County and the success of the Delevan NWR and

Hills Duck Club (Colusa County) and Merced NWF (Merced County) colonies. However, at least four large colonies, one in Fresno County, two in Kings County, and one in Tulare County, were lost to crop harvest in 2000.

Despite the favorable conditions in 2000, Hamilton (2000) stated that "...the central conclusion of the census and survey is that tricolors are continuing to decline precipitously in numbers … The conclusion that tricolor numbers are plummeting is based not only upon these data, but also on the collective experience of local experts throughout California who have observed tricolors over long intervals." One of the participants in the 2000 survey was DeHaven, who surveyed the same area in the 1970s, and who wrote in a FWS white paper "[e]vidence of habitat loss, from urban expansion and agricultural conversions from such high-value (for Tricolors) uses as livestock forage production, to low- or no-value uses such as vineyards and orchards, was widespread." He further noted "[t]hese present observations support a conclusion of another large population decline between the 1970s and today."

In 2001, the Point Reyes Bird Observatory (PRBO) coordinated the Tricolored Blackbird survey in California. The PRBO effort did not entail a robust count, but rather cited reports submitted by participants over several months (Humple and Churchwell 2002). The survey included season-long coverage instead of just 2–3 days in April to include colonies that might be completely missed if depredation or draining occurred prior to the visit date. However, this methodology is problematic because as itinerant breeders some of the birds were probably double-counted. Data were available for a total of 48 sites visited: 142,045 breeding birds were counted and the largest colony size was approximately 30,000 (Humple and Churchwell 2002).

In sum, survey results from 1994 to 2001 show that the number of Tricolors counted plummeted from an estimated 370,000 in 1994, to 240,000 in 1997, to 162,000 in 2000, to 142,045 in 2001. Numbers are unknown from the 2005 survey. These population data suggest a decline of 62% in less than a decade. Fewer colonies were located in 2000 than in 1994 (Hamilton 2000) and colonies were smaller on average in 2000 compared to 1994 (Cook and Toft 2005). The earlier surveys were important in assessing general trends in population and colony sizes in different regions, but starting in 2008 the surveys provided even more comprehensive coverage of the state, and utilized a means for the public to input data with the advent of the Tricolored Blackbird Portal. Taken together, the available data and information shows a clear and alarming downward trend of the Tricolored Blackbird population in California.

4.2 Recent Population Estimates

The 2008 statewide survey was coordinated by Audubon California (Kelsey 2008). The goal of the survey was to "develop the best statewide population estimate possible, using volunteers across the state." Audubon California placed particular emphasis on expanding overall geographic coverage and on thoroughly surveying southern California counties. The survey used a three-tiered system:

1st tier is a statewide coordinator,
2nd tier is county coordinators, and

3rd tier is volunteer participants.

This three-tiered structure allowed for increased recruitment of volunteers, improved survey coverage, and was more thoroughly based on the local knowledge embodied in the county coordinators. The 2008, 2011, and 2014 surveys all were conducted using the same three-tiered structure and same survey protocols for recruiting and training volunteers and conducting the surveys (e.g., identifying birds, estimating colony size, and recording colony attributes such as nesting substrates, distance to open water, and presence of stored grains). And significantly, the USFWS funded the development of the Tricolored Blackbird Portal prior to the 2008 survey, which enabled for the first time the on-line entry of records of observations of breeding birds.

The 2008 survey was carried out April 25 to 27. However, during this time several large colonies nesting in silage were harvested, thus complicating the count (Kelsey 2008). In response, the 2011 survey was conducted April 15 to 17, earlier than previous surveys to better avoid the harvest time of silage crops. The 2014 survey was conducted from April 18 to 20. The three-day window captures as many birds as possible on colonies during their first breeding attempt of the year while using a narrow window to ensure birds are not double-counted, as colonies and individual birds can shift locations over relatively short periods of time during the breeding season. Below are the population results.

2008—A total of 155 volunteers participated in the 2008 survey, visiting 361 historical and new sites in 38 counties within California. The census total was 394,858 birds at 180 sites. During the survey, 135 sites were documented as breeding colonies with an estimated 392,581 breeding birds. Out of 38 counties surveyed, there were 32 in which Tricolored Blackbirds were detected.

Regional distribution was similar to that reported from previous surveys, with the vast majority of birds (86.4%) occurring in the San Joaquin Valley. Nine of the top 10 and 15 of the top 20 colonies were in the San Joaquin Valley, with 63% of the population occurring at only five colony sites in Merced, Tulare, and Kern counties. In southern California, 5,487 birds were counted at 24 sites. Several known historical sites occurred on private land and volunteers were unable to gain access. As a result, this may be an underestimate of the number of birds, but Kelsey (2008) noted that there is no reason to suspect that a large number of birds were left uncounted in southern California.

2011—A total of 100 volunteers participated in the 2011 statewide survey, visiting 608 historical and new Tricolored Blackbird colony sites in 38 counties. The statewide population estimate was 259,322 birds at 138 sites in 29 counties.

The majority of Tricolored Blackbirds (89%) again were counted in the San Joaquin Valley and Tulare Basin, matching the results in prior surveys. The three largest concentrations of birds occurred in Merced (54%), Kern (24%), and Tulare (9%) counties. The top 10 largest colonies for 2011 were found in these three counties and 16 of the top 22 were from the San Joaquin Valley or Tulare Basin. Notably, 65% of the population was consolidated into only six colony sites in Merced, Kern, and Tulare counties. The southern California subpopulation was estimated to be 5,965 individuals at 32 sites in three counties, with a total of 74 sites visited.

2014—Overall, 38 county coordinators and 143 volunteers participated in the survey. A total of 145,135 birds were counted in 37 counties, out of 41 counties and 802 locations surveyed. Tricolored blackbirds were observed at a total of 143 locations. This represents a near-quadrupling of the number of locations surveyed since the 2000 statewide survey, when only 206 sites were surveyed (Hamilton 2000).

4.3 Summary

In 2014, 75 new location records were added by 27 different Portal users as result of the statewide survey. This is the same number of new location records that were added as a result of the 2011 statewide survey. In 2008, 180 sites were visited, while in 2011, 608 sites were visited and in 2014, 802 sites were visited. Despite this substantial increase in sites that were visited, the total number of birds counted declined dramatically, from 394,858 birds in 2008 to 259,322 birds in 2011 to just 145,135 birds in 2014.

Every major study of *A. tricolor* published since the 1970s has sounded the alarm bell regarding the precipitous conservation status of the species:

> "Further research is needed to determine whether this downward trend, which may have reduced the Central Valley population by more than 50%, is continuing, and whether it has yet reached the point of concern.…" (DeHaven et al. 1975)

> "Reported tricolor colony size estimates in 1994 compared to the total count in 1997...indicated that the total tricolor population declined by about 37%, and the greatest declines occurred in Sacramento, Fresno, Kern, and Merced Counties, which hosted about 72% of the total adults observed in April 1994...In some portions of their range, tricolors have definitely declined or been eliminated, including local extirpation in portions of the Central Valley where they were once abundant...and many historical sites in coastal southern California counties." (Beedy and Hamilton 1997)

> "The central conclusion of the Census and survey is that tricolors are continuing to decline precipitously in numbers, from millions in the 1930s...to an estimated 750,000 in 1975..., 370,000 as of the 1994 Census and 162,000 in this account for 2000. The conclusion that tricolor numbers are plummeting is based not only upon these data, but also on the collective experience of local experts throughout California...Tricolors are a diminished natural spectacle in the Central Valley and in Southern California, the former strongholds of this species." (Hamilton 2000)

> "The long-term population trends and patterns in reproduction reported in this study reveal that the Tricolored Blackbird possesses most of the traits that ultimately led to the extinction of the Passenger Pigeon in the same ecological circumstances. These factors include the loss of vast areas of native wetland along with the increasing loss of upland, non-native vegetation favorable for nesting, the trend of decreasing colony size in a

highly social breeder, a habit of itinerant breeding, and wholesale mowing down of the largest breeding colonies in agricultural harvest." (Cook and Toft 2005)

"We interpret our results to provide clear evidence that extinction is imminent for Tricolored Blackbird if current land-use trends continue, as they certainly will, and if measures are not implemented immediately to protect breeding colonies in non-native nesting substrates. Overall the current decline of the population is strongly correlated with its persistent use and re-use of attractive habitats where reproduction often fails, combined with continuing losses of productive nesting substrates of all kinds… The protection of native emergent marshes is not the solution to reverse the declining population because this habitat provides attractive population sinks. Under current protections, Tricolored Blackbird may therefore be falling through the policy "cracks", because it is not targeted directly as an officially endangered species and protecting its native breeding habitat under current environmental policy is not sufficient to reverse the declining population." (Cook and Toft 2005)

"In 1994 and 2000 the top 10 colonies accounted for 60% and 59% of the total population estimate, respectively. In 2008, this has increased to 77.5%. This increase in concentration of individuals at fewer colonies increases the chances of reproductive failure for a significant proportion of the population in any given year." (Kelsey 2008)

"This year's population estimate represents a substantial decrease from 2008 of approximately 135,000 birds, or a 34% decline (far more than would have been missed by any gaps in coverage). This number is more similar to the population estimate in 2005. One important probable cause of this decline is low reproductive success that has been documented in reports over the past three years (Meese 2008, 2009a, 2010). Several of the largest colonies in recent years have had an average nest success rate of 0.25 young fledged per nest and the reproductive success of these colonies has been declining for several years... This may be a major factor in the observed population decline despite continued conservation efforts (Meese 2009a)." (Kyle and Kelsey 2011)

"The 2014 statewide survey is believed to have been the most thorough ever conducted. Concerned citizens have entered dozens of new location records into the Portal, resulting in a rapid increase in knowledge of where the birds breed, and the number of locations surveyed increased from 361 in 2008 to 802 this year. Yet despite this rapid increase in knowledge, the number of birds in California as estimated by the Statewide Survey again declined sharply." (Meese 2014)

"Bird numbers were down markedly from the two previous statewide surveys in the San Joaquin Valley, especially in Kern and Merced counties, where the breeding birds had recently been most concentrated... Overall, the number of breeding birds in the San Joaquin Valley dropped 78% in 6 years, from 2008 to 2014…, and the number of birds seen in counties along the Central Coast was less than 10% of that seen in 2008..." (Meese 2014)

Graves et al. (2013) analyzed a dataset comprising 2,463 records of the size of breeding colonies from 1907 to 2009. The resulting database included 1,964 records of breeding or non-breeding birds from 1,183 sites in 46 counties. The authors conducted a systematic statistical evaluation of trends for Tricolors to determine the magnitude of overall decline and whether it is continuing, whether trends were apparent across regions, whether trends varied among different types of breeding habitats, whether the geographic distribution of the species has changed, and if so whether distributional changes were linked to changes in habitat used for breeding.

Statewide, colony size, as indexed by the number of birds per record, declined significantly and substantially from 1935 to 1975 (Graves et al. 2013). The authors did not detect a decline in average colony size from 1980 to 2009, however, this may have been due to attempts to combine data that were not comparable. On a regional basis, both the number of birds per breeding site (colony) and total birds per region decreased drastically before and after 1980 (Figure 1). Regions included Central Coast, North Coast, Northeast Interior, Sacramento valley, San Francisco Bay, San Joaquin Valley, and Southern California.

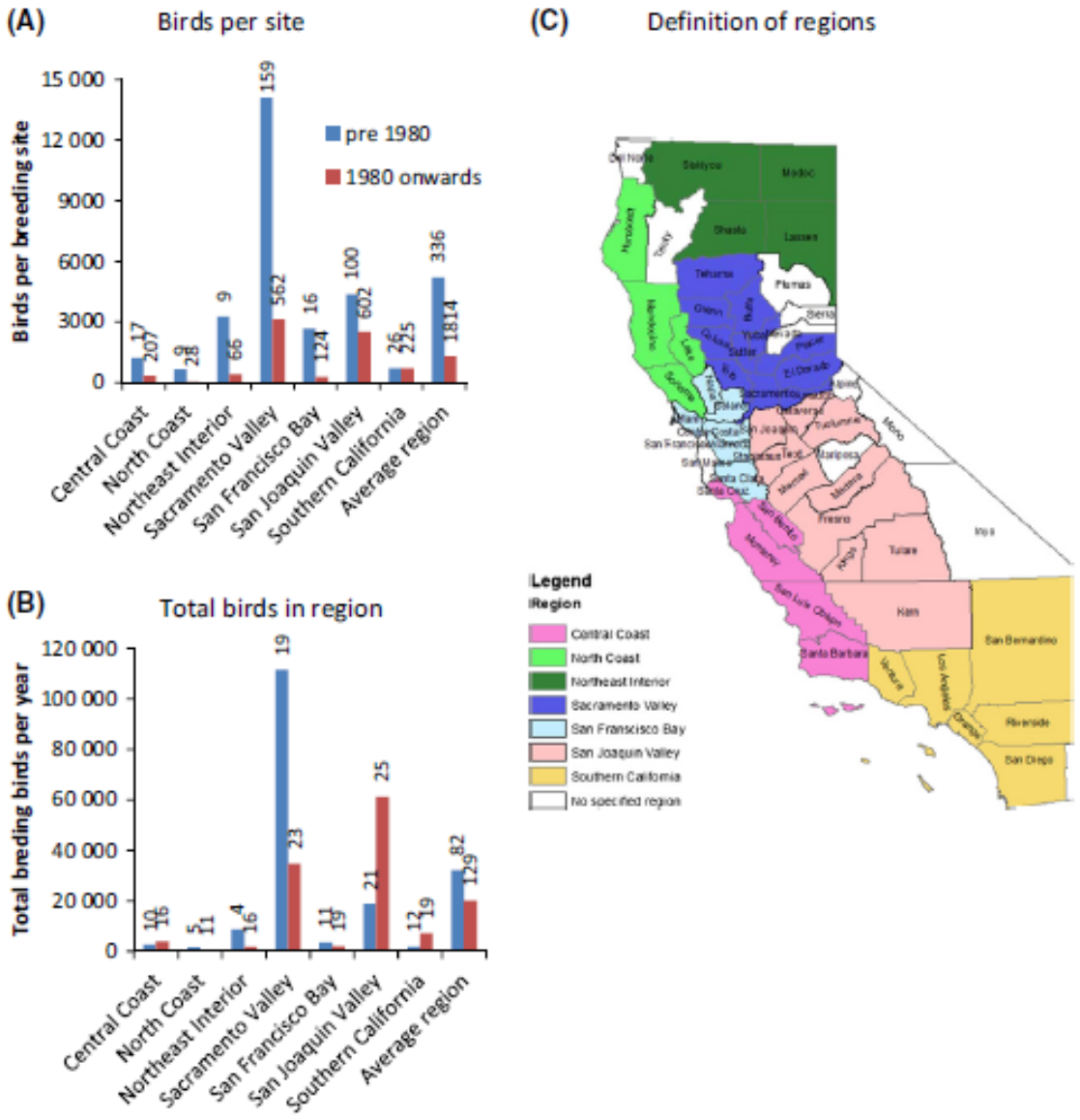

Figure 1: Number of Tricolored Blackbirds Per Breeding Site and Total Number of Breeding Birds Per Year Before and After 1980 By Region

There was evidence for geographical variation in the average size of breeding colonies over time. Prior to 1980, the Sacramento Valley supported far larger populations than any other region, while after 1980 the San Joaquin Valley held that distinction. One of the most hard-hit regions appeared to be the Central Coast. The authors noted on page 4: "In 1935 the Central Coast had 72% larger colonies than the average across all regions but subsequent to this these sites declined 80% more rapidly than colonies in other regions." Results of the 2014 statewide census survey showed continuing drastic declines in the Central Coast region, with the number of birds counted in that region were only 10% of those counted in 2008 (Meese 2014).

Since 2009 (the last year in the Graves et al. dataset), two more state-wide census surveys were conducted, and additional data were recorded during intervening years regarding colony sizes. The 2014 census reported a substantial downward trend in the sizes of the largest colonies over the past decade. Meese (2014:11) stated "A total of 93,000 birds was seen in the 10 largest colonies, 64% of the total. This is a much lower percentage of the total than was seen in the 10 largest colonies in 2011, when 208,800 birds, or 81% of the total, were seen in the 10 largest colonies, and in 2008, when 306,00 birds, 77.5% of the total, were seen in the 10 largest colonies." Figure 2 below shows the 10-year trend in the sizes of the largest colonies, from Meese (2014:11).

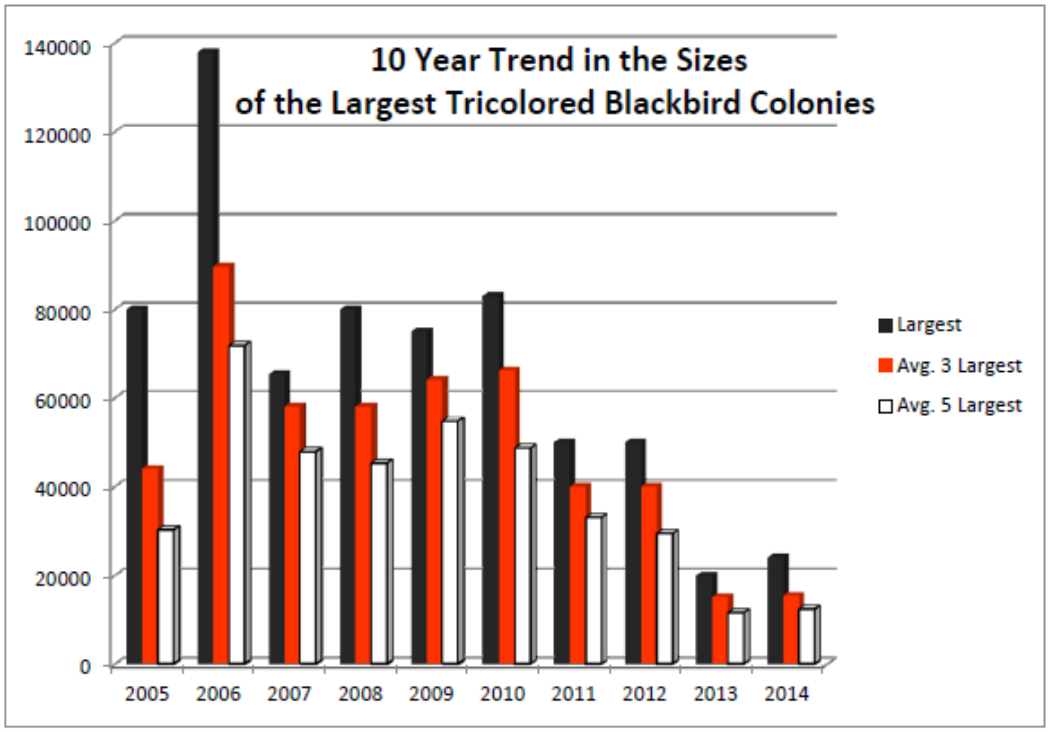

Figure 2: 10-Year Trend in Sizes of Largest Tricolored Blackbird Colonies

In addition to average colony size, the size of the largest colony has declined precipitously since the first reported surveys. Neff (1937) documented numerous large colonies, including one in 1934 in Glenn County that contained about 300,000 breeding adults over an area greater than 24 ha. Several other colonies in Sacramento and Butte Counties contained more than 100,000 nests. In stark contrast, Bob Meese reported that in 2014 the numbers of birds seen at occupied locations ranged from 1 to just 24,000, with only a single colony in Madera County (Road 12 Avenue 24) consisting of more than 20,000 birds and only 3 colonies consisting of 10,000 or more birds. This is a dramatic and extremely troubling decline in the size of the largest nesting colonies compared with historical data, even incorporating the recently described phenomenon of "mega" colonies nesting in silage crops, because forming large colonies is likely an adaptive trait against predation and colony size is positively correlated with reproductive success (Meese

2013). For a species such as the Tricolored Blackbird, bigger colonies are more successful for breeding.

In sum, extensive range-wide surveys for the Tricolor provide clear and unequivocal evidence that the species has experienced and is continuing to experience a precipitous population decline. Total numbers of birds counted, average colony sizes, and size of the largest colony all decreased over time. Further, as documented below, there is no evidence that many of the factors implicated in this decline are being prevented or alleviated, including ongoing destruction of grain silage colonies, failure to protect highly productive nesting substrates (i.e. Himalayan blackberry thickets, thistles, and other productive upland breeding habitats), permanent loss of nesting and foraging habitat due to increasing urbanization and vineyard and orchard deployment in the Central Valley and southern California, continued high levels of predation in marsh nesting habitats by herons and other predators, spraying of agricultural contaminants throughout the range of the species, and shooting of birds in rice fields in the Central Valley. As detailed below in section 7.2, without the legal protection offered by the Federal Endangered Species Act, current trends are likely to continue and the Tricolor is likely to become extinct in the foreseeable future.

5.0 Abundance

5.1 Historical Abundance

Shuford and Gardali (2008: 438) describe the historical abundance of the Tricolored Blackbird as follows:

> "Few 19th-century accounts exist of the abundance of Tricolored Blackbirds in California. Heermann (1859:53) described fall flocks of thousands in the Shasta region and a wintering flock in Solano County "numbering so many thousands as to darken the sky for some distance by their masses." Belding (1890) observed an "immense" colony in San Joaquin County. According to J. G. Cooper, the Tricolored Blackbird was "the most abundant species near San Diego and Los Angeles, and not rare at Santa Barbara" (Baird 1870:266; Baird et al. 1874:166). Grinnell (1898) reported them in "considerable numbers" throughout the year in Los Angeles County.
>
> "Neff (1937) conducted the first systematic surveys of the species' population status and distribution. In 1934, he observed as many as 736,500 adults in just eight Central Valley counties. From 1931 to 1936, he found 252 colonies in 26 California counties. The largest colony, in Glenn County, contained >200,000 nests (about 300,000 adults) and covered almost 24 ha; several others in Sacramento and Butte counties contained >100,000 nests (about 150,000 adults). Most large colonies were associated with freshwater emergent wetlands in rice-growing areas of the Sacramento Valley."

5.2 Current Abundance

Meese (2014) noted that "the rate of decline in the number of tricolors appears to be increasing. From 2008 to 2011 the number of tricolors dropped by 34%, from 395,000 to 258,000 birds

(Kyle and Kelsey 2011), but from 2011 until this year the number of tricolors dropped by 44%, from 258,000 to 145,000 birds." Figure 3 below shows the downward trend in abundance during the three recent statewide surveys, from Meese (2014:7). The total number of Tricolors counted was down 44% in 3 years, and 64% in 6 years.

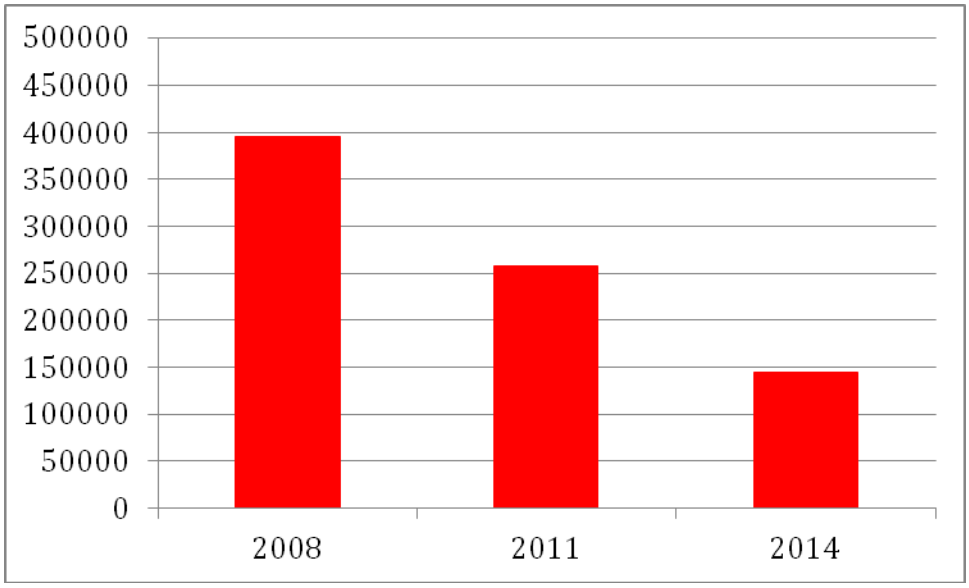

Figure 3: Trends in Abundance of Tricolored Blackbirds from Census Surveys

Meese (2014:12) summed the troubling results of the three most recent statewide surveys, which represent the best estimates of the abundance of Tricolored Blackbirds over the past decade:

> "The results of the 2014 Tricolored Blackbird Statewide Survey show that there are far fewer birds now than in the recent past. The results of the past 3 statewide surveys (2008, 2011, and 2014) are most directly comparable due to similar methods and levels of effort . . . . And the development of the Tricolored Blackbird Portal in 2008 provided a previously unavailable public resource that has met the needs of concerned citizens and encouraged their participation in tricolored blackbird conservation efforts while greatly improving data quality and management.
>
> "The rate of decline in the number of tricolors is alarming and appears to be accelerating: a comparison of the results of the 2008 to 2011 interval shows that the number of tricolors declined by 34%, from 395,000 to 258,000 birds. But from 2011 to 2014 the number of birds declined by 44%, from 258,000 to 145,000 birds…Thus, conservation efforts to date have been insufficient to stem the decline in the number of tricolors and the rate of decline is increasing."

6.0 Habitat Use

The Tricolored Blackbird forms the largest breeding colonies of any North American land bird (Cook and Toft 2005). As many as 20,000 to 30,000 nests have been recorded in cattail (*Typha*

spp.) marshes of 4 hectares or less, with individual nests <0.5 meters from each other (Neff 1937, DeHaven et al. 1975b). Nest heights range from a few centimeters to about 1.5 meters above water or ground at colony sites in freshwater marshes (Neff 1937) and up to 3 meters in the canopies of willows (*Salix* spp.) and other riparian trees; rarely, they are built on the ground. The Tricolor's basic requirements for selecting breeding sites are open accessible water; a protected nesting substrate, including either flooded or thorny or spiny vegetation; and a suitable foraging space providing adequate insect prey within a few kilometers of the nesting colony (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Shuford and Gardali 2008).

Tricolors are nomadic and highly colonial, and males defend relatively small territories within the colony (Orians and Collier 1963). Territories average about 35 square feet, or 1.8 m^2 to 2.35 m^2 in size, and one to three females construct nests within these small territories (Orians and Collier 1963, Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Unlike Red-wing Blackbirds, who gather food on and adjacent to their territories which average about 500–30,000 square feet in size, Tricolors do not forage on their territories but exploit the area around the colony (Orians and Collier 1963).

Historically most Tricolored Blackbird colonies were in the extensive native marshlands, riparian shrubs, upland shrubs, and grasslands of California, but the loss of these native habitats has forced a shift in nesting to largely non-native vegetation. Shuford and Gardali (2008:439–440) stated:

> "The colonial breeding system of the Tricolored Blackbird probably evolved in the Central Valley, where the locations of surface waters and rich sources of insect food were ephemeral and varied annually (Orians 1961). Before its rivers were dammed and channelized, the Central Valley flooded in many years, forming a vast mosaic of seasonal wetlands, freshwater marshes, alkali flats, native grasslands, riparian forests, and oak savannas. Virtually all these habitats once supported nesting or foraging Tricolored Blackbirds. The evolution of a colonial breeding system enabled this species to assess changing local conditions rapidly and exploit outbreaks of locusts and other ephemeral insects over large areas to meet their food demands. Nomadic, colonial social organization in birds evolves most frequently in semiarid areas with great annual fluctuations in climate (Orians 1961).
>
> "With the loss of a natural flooding cycle and most native wetland and upland habitats in the Central Valley, Tricolored Blackbirds now forage primarily in artificial habitats. Ideal foraging conditions for this species are created when shallow flood-irrigation, mowing, or grazing keeps the vegetation at an optimal height (<15 cm). Preferred foraging habitats include crops such as rice, alfalfa, irrigated pastures, and ripening or cut grain fields (e.g., oats, wheat, silage), as well as annual grasslands, cattle feedlots, and dairies (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). These blackbirds also forage in remnant native habitats, including wet and dry vernal pools and other seasonal wetlands, riparian scrub habitats, and open marsh borders. Vineyards, orchards, and row crops (tomatoes, sugar beets, corn, peas, beets, onions, etc.) do not provide suitable nesting substrates or foraging habitats for Tricolored Blackbirds."

Most Tricolored Blackbirds forage within 5 km of their colony sites (rarely up to 13 km; Orians 1961, Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Proximity to suitable foraging habitat may be a determinant in the establishment of colony sites, as Tricolored Blackbirds often forage, at least initially, in the field containing the colony site (Cook 1996). However, often only a minor fraction of the area within the commuting range of a colony provides suitable foraging habitat (Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Hamilton and Meese 2006).

Itinerant breeding of Tricolors suggests that they may be philopatric to more than one nesting site (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Hamilton et al. (1995) found that 19 of 72 (26%) colonies used the same nesting sites during surveys conducted between 1992 and 1994. Eleven (15%) colonies in 1994 repeated either their 1992 or 1993 nesting location but not both. These results may indicate a low to moderate degree of site tenacity and/or that suitable breeding habitat is limited (Cook and Toft 2005). The yearly shifts in breeding distribution of Tricolors are likely related to insect supplies and other unknown breeding requirements (DeHaven et al. 1975).

Wintering Tricolored Blackbirds often congregate in huge, mixed-species blackbird flocks that forage in grasslands and agricultural fields with low-growing vegetation and at dairies and feedlots (Shuford and Gardali 2008). In February, however, this species segregates into pure Tricolored Blackbird flocks, which may subdivide further into age- and sex-specific flocks (Shuford and Gardali 2008). At this time, foraging flocks roam across the landscape until they find a suitable nesting substrate with an abundant insect source nearby.

Historically, nesting substrate consisted mostly of native emergent marsh vegetation dominated by cattails *(Typha* spp.) or tules (*Scirpus* spp; Neff 1937). Neff (1937) documented about 93% of nests (n = 252 colonies) in cattails, bulrushes and willows (*Salix* spp.) with some in nettles (*Urtica* spp.) and thistles (*Cirsium* spp.). However, Tricolors have been flexible in their choice of nesting substrates and have shown an increasing trend towards use of upland substrates for nesting following the 1930s, and many of these new substrates consisted of non-native plant species that would not have been present in the California landscape prior to the arrival of Europeans (Cook and Toft 2005). As noted by Cook and Toft (2005), the apparent shift from using wetland to upland habitats is "surely due to the loss of 96% of California wetlands over the last 150 years from 1,500,000 ha before European settlement." The use of freshwater marshes as breeding colony sites decreased from 93% in the 1930s (Neff 1937) to 54% (n = 158 colonies) in the 1970s (DeHaven et al. 1975b). Orians (1961a) found 64% of colonies in the Sacramento Valley nesting in cattails and other emergent vegetation; other nests were in agricultural fields, and one colony nested in trees along a river. DeHaven et al. (1975) reported that about 69% of colonies had nests built in marsh vegetation including cattails, bulrushes, willows, or some combination, and 49% were in cattails only.

Within the Central Valley, DeHaven et al. (1975) also documented breeding colonies in the rice-growing regions of the Sacramento Valley and in the pasturelands of the lower Sacramento Valley and San Joaquin Valley. In the rice lands, the annually flooded rice was the dominant crop, but small grains, hay, safflower, sugar beets, corn, and beans were also grown. The pasturelands consisted largely of irrigated fields of introduced grasses, alfalfa, hay, and small grains. In both areas, insects in flooded fields probably provide the primary food for breeding

Tricolors. Colonies outside the Central Valley were found in a diverse array of habitat types, including within chaparral covered hills (Riverside and Colusa Counties), orange and avocado groves interspersed with grass-covered hills (San Diego County), sagebrush grasslands (Siskiyou County), and salt-marsh habitat of San Francisco Bay (Alameda County) (DeHaven et al. 1975).

An increasing percentage of colonies since the 1970s have been reported in Himalayan blackberry (*Rubus armeniacus*) and thistles (DeHaven et al. 1975b, Hamilton et al. 1995, Cook 1996). The most commonly used substrates today include native emergent marshes, grain silage at dairies, and Himalayan blackberry. Other less commonly used nesting substrates include safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius*), tamarisk (*Tamarix* spp.), elderberry/Western Poison Oak (*Sambucus* spp. and *Toxicodendron diversilobum*), Giant Reed (*Arundo donax*), and riparian scrublands and forests (e.g., *Salix* spp., *Populus* spp., *Fraxinus* spp.; Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Shurford and Gardali 2008).

In recent decades some of the largest Tricolor colonies have been found in triticale and other grain fields in the San Joaquin Valley (many of which are planted for silage) (Collier 1968, Hamilton et al. 1995, Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Meese 2006). The largest colonies occur in fields of triticale, a wheat-rye hybrid the name of which is an acronym of *Triticum* [wheat] and *Secale* [rye]. These fields of triticale are frequently harvested while nests are still active (Cook and Toft 2005, Meese 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2011). In 1994 approximately 40% of all breeding birds located throughout the nesting season were found in silage grain fields while approximately 47% nested in native emergent marshes and 31% in thickets of the introduced Himalayan blackberry (Cook and Toft 2005). In 2000, 17% of the breeding effort occurred in silage grain fields, while 54% of nesting was in emergent marsh and 12% in Himalayan blackberry, and additional colonies nested in other flooded and upland habitats. In 2014, 41% of nesting substrate was Himalayan blackberry and 38% was triticale, with cattails making up only 8.8% (Meese 2014:9; Table 2 below).

Graves et al. (2013) examined records from all surveys conducted from 1907 until 2009, portrayed in Table 2 below. For all records, the dominant breeding habitat was cattails, which comprised 48% of breeding records and 65% of breeding birds. Triticale was also important, with 9% of birds but only 1% of records due to the very large colony sizes (and only appearing as a substrate in recent years since it was not planted in earlier years). Bulrushes contained 7% of breeding birds and 9% of records. Other important upland breeding vegetation included Himalayan blackberry with 6% of breeding birds and 11% of records, and thistles with 5% of birds and 9% of records.

Table 2: Number of Records and Total Number of Breeding and Non-breeding Tricolored Blackbirds in Different Vegetation Types, 1907–2009 (Graves et al. 2013 Appendix A1:14)

	Total		Breeding		Non breeding	
Habitat	Records (%)	Total birds (%)	Records (%)	Total birds (%)	Records (%)	Total birds (%)
Cattails	400 (34%)	2,848,874 (53%)	326 (48%)	1,843,704 (65%)	74 (14%)	1,005,170 (43%)
Unknown	209 (18%	238,137 (5%)	19 (3%)	74,968 (2%)	190 (35%)	163,169 (7%)
Blackberry	157 (13%)	648,137 (12%)	72 (11%)	175,518 (6%)	85 (16%)	472,619 (20%)
Bulrush or tule	95 (8%)	380,706 (7%)	63 (9%)	202,550 (7%)	32 (6%)	178,156 (8%)
Thistles	83 (7%)	227,486 (4%)	59 (9%)	142,850 (5%)	24 (4%)	84,636 (4%)
Stinging nettle	47 (4%)	65,263 (1%)	32 (5%)	19,000 (1%)	15 (3%)	46,263 (2%)
Grassland	36 (3%)	8085 (0.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (7%)	8085 (0.3%)
Grain fields						
Triticale	14 (1%)	437,300 (8%)	8 (1%)	261,650 (9%)	6 (1%)	175,650 (7%)
Rice paddy	13 (1%)	8027 (0.2%)	5 (1%)	3150 (0.1%)	8 (2%)	4877 (0.2%)
Barley	5 (0.4%)	15,540 (0.3%)	1 (0.1%)	4000 (0.1%)	4 (1%)	11,540 (1%)
Wheat	6 (0.4%)	78,775 (2%)	6 (1%)	45,500 (2%)	0 (0%)	33,275 (1%)
Other grain fields	4 (0.3%)	6625 (0.1%)	1 (0.1%)	6000 (0.2%)	3 (1%)	625 (0.03%)
Agricultural fields						
Pasture	22 (2%)	37,801 (1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	22 (4%)	37,801 (2%)
Mustard	18 (2%)	106,667 (2%)	6 (1%)	65,250 (2%)	12 (2%)	41,417 (2%)
Feedlot	6 (1%)	3713 (0.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	6 (1%)	3713 (0.2%)
Alfalfa	5 (0.4%)	5300 (0.1%)	1 (0.1%)	1000 (0.03%)	4 (1%)	4300 (0.2%)
Other ag. fields	3 (0.2%)	65,600 (1%)	1 (0.1%)	65,000 (2%)	2 (0.4%)	600 (0.03%)
Trees/Orchards						
Willows	26 (2%)	70,984 (1%)	23 (3%)	51,079 (2%)	3 (1%)	19,905 (1%)
Riparian trees	4 (0.3%)	8050 (0.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (1%)	8050 (0.3%)
Tamarisk	2 (0.2%)	2787 (0.1%)	2 (0.3%)	2787 (0.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other trees/orchards	10 (1%)	12,948 (0.2%)	2 (0.3%)	2200 (0.1%)	8 (2%)	10,748 (1%)

Shrubs and herbs						
Giant reed	5 (0.4%)	5651 (0.1%)	2 (0.3%)	3900 (0.1%)	3 (1%)	1751 (0.1%)
Atriplex or salt bush	7 (1%)	6536 (0.1%)	7 (1%)	4536 (0.2%)	0 (0%)	2000 (0.1%)
Other shrubs/herbs	1 (1%)	47,565 (1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.2%)	47,565 (2%)
Other habitats						
Marsh	1 (0.1%)	1050 (0.02%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.2%)	1050 (0.04%)
Wildflower field	1 (0.1%)	450 (0.01%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.2%)	450 (0.02%)

Graves et al. (2013) documented that since 1980 the majority of nesting birds were recorded in upland nesting substrate types, 29% of breeding birds were recorded in cattails, 21% in triticale, 13% in Himalayan blackberry, 7% were in unknown habitat types, 5% in bulrush, 5% in prickly lettuce (*Lactuca serriola*), 4% in wheat, 4% in thistle, 3% in mustard, 3% in willows, 1% in stinging nettles, 1% in saltbush, and <1% in alfalfa, barley, giant reed, citrus groves, rice paddy, tamarisk, and wild rose. (*See also* Cook and Toft 2005.) Average colony sizes declined for all habitat types except for colonies in native stinging nettles, although nettles did not support large number of either breeding or non-breeding Tricolors. Mean colony size in cattails was 34% larger in the early years of records as compared to those in blackberry, bulrush, and thistle, but declined 38% more rapidly than in those other substrates (Graves et al. 2013:6).

The proximity of breeding sites to nearby quality foraging areas is an important determinant of whether a colony will settle in an area for nesting, as described in "Diet and Foraging Ecology" section above.

Another important indicator of breeding-site selection for Tricolor colonies is the presence of young, rapidly and vigorously growing nesting substrates such as cattails, bulrush, and milk thistle (Meese 2007). The plants must be strong enough to support nests for the duration of the breeding period. Thus, not just any spiny or thorny substrate will provide suitable breeding habitat.

The number of birds or colonies nesting in a particular substrate is an important indicator of the value of that habitat, but even more insightful is the reproductive success in different habitat types. Both Cook and Toft (2005) and Meese (2013) reported on reproduction of Tricolored Blackbirds in different nesting substrates using multiple years of data. Cook and Toft (2005) found mean number of chicks per nest varied among nesting substrates, with nests in non-native vegetation fledging significantly more offspring than those in native vegetation. Table 3 below (from Cook and Toft 2005:82) shows mean reproductive success (number of chicks per nest at 8 days after first egg hatched) of colonies by substrate and study region from 1992–2003.

Table 3: Reproductive Success of Tricolored Blackbirds by Nesting Substrate

	Number of chicks per nest		
	n	Mean	SE
Nesting Substrate			
Emergent marsh	40	0.5	0.09
Himalayan blackberry	23	2.0	0.16
Silage – all	26	0.2	0.08
Silage [a]	4	1.0	0.26
Other flooded plants	6	1.2	0.51
Other upland plants	7	1.2	0.37
Total native plants	46	0.6	0.11
Total non-native plants [a]	34	1.7	0.15

[a] *Excluding colonies that were lost to crop harvesting.*

Tricolors nesting in Himalayan blackberry had greater reproductive success than those nesting in grain silage, but colonies in grain silage were far larger than those in any other upland nesting substrate, and where nests were not destroyed by silage harvest, number of fledglings per nest was higher than in native marsh habitat (Table 3; Cook and Toft 2005). These results suggest that the annual loss of nests due to harvest of grain silage during the Tricolor breeding season is a significant factor contributing to the decline of the species.

Meese (2013) documented reproductive success of 870,000 nests from 11 colonies over a 6-year period from 2006 to 2011. He found that only 11% of colonies studied fledged an average of one or more young per nest, revealing chronically low (below-average from previous studies) reproductive success throughout the Central Valley. Importantly, the abundance of insects was positively correlated with reproductive success. The colony with the highest reproductive success of 1.44 fledglings per nest was in milk thistle in Merced County in 2010, surrounded by open rangeland where grasshoppers were super-abundant.

Suitable Tricolor habitat therefore can be more than meets the human eye: factors such as insect availability in proximity to nest sites, age of vegetation, or other currently unknown habitat characteristics provide crucial breeding requirements for Tricolors in addition to suitable nesting substrates (Meese 2013). While many colonies are found in the same location year after year, colonies often move, nesting a second time in one breeding season in a different location, and in different locations in subsequent years. Therefore, it is critical at present to protect the habitat that is documented to be used by Tricolors (each year or occasionally), rather than assuming that protecting habitat that superficially appears suitable but is not actually used (i.e., relying solely

on currently protected public lands that do not at present support breeding Tricolors) will be sufficient to conserve the species.

7.0 Threats

Under the federal ESA 16 U.S.C. § 1533(a)(1), the FWS is required to list an organism for protection if it is in danger of extinction or threatened by possible extinction in all or a significant portion of its range. In making such a determination, FWS must analyze the Tricolor's status in light of five statutory listing factors:

(A) the present or threatened destruction, modification, or curtailment of its habitat or range;

(B) the inadequacy of existing regulatory mechanisms;

(C) overutilization for commercial, recreational, scientific, or educational purposes;

(D) disease or predation; and,

(E) other natural or manmade factors affecting its continued existence.

For each factor, we provide the following analysis in support of our petition:

7.1. Present or Threatened Destruction, Modification, or Curtailment of Habitat or Range

The greatest threats to Tricoloreds are the direct loss and degradation of habitat from human activities (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Most native habitats that once supported nesting and foraging Tricolored Blackbirds in the Central Valley have been replaced by urbanization and agricultural croplands unsuited to their needs. In Sacramento County, a historical breeding center for this species, the conversion of grassland and pastures to vineyards expanded from 3,050 hectares in 1996 to 5,330 hectares in 1998 (DeHaven 2000) to 6,762 hectares in 2003 and the total vineyard lands in the County expanded further from over 16,500 acres in 2005 to over 21,200 in 2013 (Calif. Agri. Statistics Serv..; Cal. Dept. Food & Ag., 2014, p. 40, Table 10). Conversions of pastures and grasslands to vineyards in Sacramento County and elsewhere in the species' range in the Central Valley have resulted in the recent loss of several large colonies and the elimination of extensive areas of suitable foraging habitat for this species (Cook 1996, DeHaven 2000, Hamilton 2004, Cook and Toft 2005).

DeHaven et al. (1975) pointed out that many marshes and other "apparently suitable" nesting sites were unused by Tricolors each year. Graves et al. (2013) documented a decline of breeding populations in the Sacramento Valley including both a reduction in average colony size and the total breeding population, and hence the number of sites occupied, from 1907 until 2009. These colonies declined in average size despite the fact that many of the marsh (cattail and bulrush/tule) sites in this region were in wildlife refuges and protected from modification. Increased management for wintering waterfowl may have altered the marshes from their

historical conditions, or something other than absolute amount of breeding substrate may be affecting breeding populations, such as insect abundances in foraging habitat (e.g., Meese 2013). The 2014 census documented a resurgence of breeding Tricolors in Sacramento County, which supported 20% of the population, but the overall population for the entire species was so low that this only amounted to fewer than 30,000 birds (Meese 2014). In another example, the coastal population of Tricolors declined 91% in 6 of the last years, yet there has been no direct loss of nests due to agricultural harvests, again suggesting other unknown factors such as lack of sufficient insect prey base to support successful reproduction.

In contrast to Cook and Toft (2005) which found a correlation between nesting substrate and reproductive success, Meese (2013) documented widespread reproductive failures of entire colonies from 2006 to 2011 that appeared unrelated to nesting substrate. Instead, Meese found that insect abundance around these colonies was insufficient to support successful breeding, resulting in nestling starvation and failure of females to lay eggs. Meese (2014:110) states "[t]his loss of foraging habitat may result in a decline in productivity over a period of years that is difficult to detect, but that decline may ultimately lead to the situation where, despite the availability of suitable nesting substrate, tricolors abandon colonies or decline to extinction in an area where they formerly were abundant." If this is correct, then colonies adjacent to dairies, which recently represent the largest colonies of breeding Tricolors, may appear to be ecological traps, fledging relatively few young in most years even when not lost to silage harvest (Meese 2013).

Cook and Toft (2005) note that in earlier studies, colony settlement was reported to be sporadic and unpredictable (Neff 1937, Orians 1961) and banded nestlings were only somewhat philopatric (DeHaven et al. 1975b). More recent data, however, indicate repeated settlement of many sites despite poor breeding outcomes. The recent losses of known breeding sites were concomitant with the decline in local breeding populations despite an abundance of what appear to be other suitable sites which do not become used. This trend toward apparent increased philopatry probably reflects the now extremely limited availability of suitable nesting habitat.

7.1.1 Destruction of Native Habitats

Destruction of Tricolor breeding habitat has been documented as far back as the first published population studies on the species. Neff (1937) stated "...the destruction of nesting habitats by man is of most importance. Reclamation and drainage have destroyed many favorable habitats. Areas in the vicinity of San Francisco and Los Angeles are now so highly developed that it is doubtful whether or not any colonies could exist there. Other habitats have been destroyed by the dredging or cleaning of reservoirs, marshes, and canals in order to destroy the growths of cattails and tules." The surveyors documented specific instances of destruction of known colony sites, including draining and burning of some surveyed localities.

DeHaven et al. (1975) also noted the loss of breeding habitat leading to the loss of colonies where they formerly occurred. Colonies studied near Davis in Yolo County during the 1960s were not located again due to the near-complete loss of nesting habitat. No nesting habitat was

found near Riego Road in Sacramento County where Orians (1961a) found colonies, and at Cache Creek in Kern County where Collier (1968) found colonies.

The vast majority of the native habitat for Tricolors has been lost or degraded. Only 560,500 of an original 4,000,000 acres (about 14%) of wetlands in the Central Valley were extant in 1939 (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). By the mid-1980s, an estimated 480,000 acres of freshwater emergent marshes, or 85% of the total remaining freshwater wetlands in 1939, were reduced by one-half to about 243,000 acres (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Graves et al. (2013) found declines in sizes of colonies in the Central Coast resulted from four early records, and three of these came from cattails in which declines were rapid: remaining marsh nesting habitat has been reduced to small isolated patches of habitat that also support high densities of Tricolor predators. Further, native perennial grasslands—prime Tricolor foraging habitat—have been reduced by more than 99% in the Central Valley and surrounding foothills (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). Many former agricultural areas within the range of the Tricolor are now being urbanized, and the trend is projected to continue (Beedy and Hamilton 1997).

7.1.2 Colony Destruction by Agricultural Activities

The relatively recent phenomenon of Tricolors nesting in grain silage fields at dairies was not mentioned by DeHaven et al. (1975) (but see Collier 1968), however silage is well-documented as a primary attribute of present-day Tricolor nest site selection (Beedy and Hamilton 1997, Beedy and Hamilton 1999, Cook and Toft 2005, Meese 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2011). Harvest of grain silage is conducted in relation to moisture content of the forage, the timing of which coincides with Tricolors using the crops for nesting (USFWS 2000). This causes nest destruction and direct mortality, which in turn is threatening much of the remaining breeding population of the species (USFWS 2000).

Dairy grain silage consists of varieties of wheat, often triticale, but also barley, oats, and other crops. Crops can be monocultures or mixtures of grain plants and may also be infested with weeds such as prickly lettuce (*Lactuca serriola*) and thistles (*Cirsium* spp.). These plants may grow to 3–4 feet in height and appear to provide some protection against predators on Tricolor nests because of their dense growth, somewhat spiny/irritating character, and typically monotonous relief in the landscape.

Silage fields around dairies are probably highly attractive to breeding Tricolors because of relative protection from predators but also because crops at a single location may cover tens of acres or more. Because they are intensely colonial, tens of thousands of Tricolors can potentially occupy a silage field as small as 20–40 acres in size. Nest densities in these fields are often not as great as in some other upland substrates but approximately one nest per square meter is not uncommon (Liz Cook, pers. comm.). In addition to providing a suitable nesting substrate, dairies typically provide abundant grain sources at their feedlots for adult Tricolors, large amounts of nearby foraging habitat for insects (e.g. alfalfa), and reliable water supplies.

Silage is grown to be an early cut green feed. Crops are planted in late winter/early spring and mature to harvest stage usually between about mid-April and the first week in May. Harvest

stage occurs when the plants contain the highest amount of moisture in their seed heads (milk stage). This stage may last about a week within which time the plants are most valuable as silage feed. The crop is chopped, often in a single day, into fine pieces and allowed to ferment into the final product that is fed to dairy cows. Fields that grow silage are almost immediately turned over to a second crop such as corn (Liz Cook pers. comm. with David Hardt, refuge manager, Kern National Wildlife Refuge).

Tricolors begin establishing nesting colonies in grain silage in late March/April when the plants are tall and sturdy enough to support nests. This means that the timing of silage harvest usually coincides closely with the late nestling/early fledgling stage of Tricolor offspring. The timing of silage harvest and the Tricolor nesting cycle is such that colonies in silage are always lost unless there is intervention on their behalf or for some other unlikely reason the crop is not harvested (Liz Cook, pers. comm.).

The concentration of most of the Tricolor reproductive effort into a few large colonies that are selecting grain silage as a nesting substrate has greatly increased the risk of extinction should the annual destruction of such a large proportion of nests continue unabated (Cook and Toft 2005). In 2014, Meese (2014) reported 38% of all nesting substrate was in silage (triticale) although data are not available as to how many colonies or individual birds were lost to harvest during that year. This underscores the heavy reliance on this nesting substrate by these imperiled birds concurrent to the decimation of other suitable breeding habitats such as vast areas of cattail marshes that occurred earlier in the 20th century.

Table 4 below provides examples of breeding failures because of harvest of grain silage from 1993 to 2011. For example, approximately half of the estimated Tricolor population nested in two silage fields in 2003, and the vast majority of this breeding effort was destroyed. In 2008, 45% of all nests in silage were destroyed, amounting to 140,000 nests in Tulare, Madera, Merced, and Fresno counties. As late as 2011—seven years after the formation of the Tricolored Blackbird Working Group and two years after the updated *Conservation Plan for the Tricolored Blackbird* was published—56% of all nests in silage were still destroyed by harvest. Meese (pers. comm.) reported more colonies lost to harvest in both 2013 and 2014 despite efforts to financially compensate landowners to prevent or delay harvest. Hundreds of thousands of additional nests would certainly have been lost over the years without the concerted effort of a handful of dedicated individuals, who monitored Tricolor colonies and attempted to coordinate buy-outs or harvest delays of the biggest colonies. From 1993 to 2011, more than one million nests were documented to have been destroyed by harvest and certainly many more undocumented nests have been obliterated over the years on private lands.[1] Sources for Table 4 below include Hamilton 1993, Hamilton et al. 1995, Beedy and Hamilton 1997, Hamilton et al. 1999, Hamilton 2000, Hamilton and Meese 2005, Meese 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2011, and Liz Cook unpublished data. This is not a complete summary of all colonies that nested in silage, only a sample of monitored sites.

[1] There were likely tens if not hundreds of thousands of nests destroyed by harvest over the years for which there is no data due to their locations on private property.

Table 4: Tricolor Blackbirds Breeding in Silage by County, Estimated Number of Nests Saved by Crop Buy-out or Harvest Delay, and Estimated Number of Nests Destroyed

Year	County	Number of Breeding Birds	Number Saved by Buy-out or Harvest Delay	Estimated Nests Destroyed)
1993	Tulare	48,000		48,000
1994	Fresno	70,000		70,000
1994	Kern	11,600		11,600
1994	Tulare	50,000		50,000
1995	Fresno	50,000		50,000
1995	Tulare	50,000		50,000
1996	Fresno	50,000		50,000
1996	Tulare	50,000		50,000
1997	Fresno	52,500		52,500
1997	Tulare	40,000		40,000
1998	Fresno	40,000		40,000
1998	Tulare	40,000		40,000
1999	Tulare	14,000		14,000
2003	Tulare	20,000		20,000
2003	Kern	50,000	20,000	30,000
2006	Kern	158,000	138,000	20,000
2006	Tulare	76,000		76,000
2006	Merced	110,824	70,824	40,000
2007	Tulare	122,870		106,750
2008	Tulare	140,000	110,000	30,000
2008	Madera	10,000		10,000
2008	Merced	55,000		55,000
2008	Fresno	45,000		45,000
2008	Kern	60,000	60,000	0
2009	Merced	20,000		20,000
2009	Fresno	35,000		Unknown
2009	Madera	15,000		Unknown
2009	Kern	18,000	18,000	0
2009	Tulare	144,000	31,500	Unknown
2011	Kern	50,000		30,000
2011	Fresno	20,000		20,000
2013	Riverside	2000		1330
TOTAL				**≥1,000,000**

Prior to 1980, the Sacramento Valley held the largest number of birds, whereas from 1980 onwards the San Joaquin Valley supported the largest total breeding populations of Tricolored Blackbirds (Graves et al. 2013). Graves et al. (2013) postulated one reason for the decline in

average colony size in the San Joaquin Valley and decline in total breeding population was that colonies in triticale were all within the San Joaquin Valley (or Sacramento County), all during the last 20 years, and they were >40 times larger than colonies in other habitats during this period. These are the very colonies that were often destroyed.

Other agricultural activities such as sheep grazing can destroy Tricolor colonies. At Owens Creek in Merced County in 2010, a colony of 15,000 birds nesting in milk thistle and mustard produced only 1,500 fledglings after intensive grazing of the vegetation by domestic sheep (Meese 2010).

7.1.3 Destruction of Other Suitable Upland Breeding Substrates and Surrounding Habitats

Cook and Toft (2005) found that Himalayan blackberry supported the highest densities of nesting Tricolors among all used substrates and reproductive success was significantly higher in these than other most commonly used substrates (emergent marsh and silage), using data from 1992 to 2003 (Table 4). However, Himalayan blackberry nesting sites are currently not protected and many important traditionally used sites have been lost in recent years (Cook and Toft 2005).

Other important upland nesting substrates, including thistles and prickly lettuce, are likewise not protected because they are non-native plants and often occur on private property. For example, the 2010 Owens Creek colony in milk thistle and mustard described above was destroyed by grazing sheep. In Merced County in 2011, two large colonies were reported in milk thistle; Owens Creek with 20,000 birds and South of Childs with 10,000 birds. Both of these colonies were entirely destroyed by cutting of the thistle (Meese 2011). That same year, Meese (2011:12) also noted that at least four colony sites in Himalayan blackberry substrates on private property were all apparently sprayed with herbicides since 2010. These included Hulen Levee in Merced County, Central American 1 in Stanislaus County, Openshaw Road in Butte County, and Ostrom Road in Yuba County. A colony of 50,000 Tricolors at Sandy Mush and 99 in Merced County in 2011 was reduced to just 15,000 due to harvest of the fava bean crop in which they were nesting.

7.2 Inadequacy of Existing Regulatory Mechanisms

The Tricolored Blackbird is not adequately protected by existing regulatory mechanisms.[2] In response to the latest scientific data documenting further population declines, on October 8, 2014

[2] Although protections for the species were sought for more than two decades under the state and federal Endangered Species Acts, protections have only just been put in place at a time when the species is declining precipitously. The Yolo Audubon Society submitted a petition to the Commission to list this species as endangered under the state Endangered Species Act in 1991, but the petition was withdrawn in 1992 (Beedy and Hamilton 1997:19-20). Based on concerns about the Tricolor's population status, FWS included this species as a Category 2 candidate for federal listing as either threatened or endangered. *See, e.g.,* 59 Fed. Reg. 58992 (November 15, 1994).[2] However, FWS later decided to discontinue the practice of maintaining a list of Category 2 candidates. 61 Fed.Reg. 64,481 (December 5, 1996). The Center for

the Center for Biological Diversity ("Center") petitioned the California Fish and Game Commission to list the Tricolor as an endangered species pursuant to Section 670.1, Title 14, California Code of Regulations (CCR) and Sections 2072 and 2073 of the Fish and Game Code relating to listing and delisting endangered and threatened species of plants and animals under the California Endangered Species Act. The petition requested emergency action to protect the species. On December 3, 2014 the California Fish and Game Commission determined the listing was warranted. This emergency listing will remain in place for 180 days (and could be extended another 180 days) while the Commission considers the petition for a full listing.

The California ESA emergency listing provides some new interim protections for the species, however, due to the differences in State and Federal law, the California ESA emergency listing (or even a full listing) does not provide the same level of protection as under the Federal ESA. The California ESA prohibits "take" of endangered species (*see* Cal. Fish & Game Code § 2080), and requires permits for incidental take resulting in mortality (Cal. Fish & Game Code 2081). However, "take" is more narrowly defined under the California ESA than under the Federal ESA and does not include impacts to a listed species due to habitat modification. Cal. Fish & Game Code § 86 ("'Take' means hunt, pursue, catch, capture, or kill, or attempt to hunt, pursue, catch, capture, or kill.") Indeed, the California ESA has no provision for critical habitat to be designated or protected and does not generally require permits for habitat destruction. While it is the policy of the state to avoid permitting projects that would "result in the destruction or adverse modification of habitat essential to the continued existence of the species" and to prevent "jeopardy" (Cal. Fish & Game Code 2053), that policy reflects the Federal definition of critical habitat. Without critical habitat having been designated by FWS, implementation of the habitat protection goals under California law remains vague and uncertain.

Currently, the Tricolored Blackbird is only considered a FWS non-game bird of management concern (species are of concern because of (1) documented or apparent population declines, (2) small or restricted populations, or (3) dependence on restricted or vulnerable habitats) and a California Endangered Species Act listed species by CDFW. The Federal designation does not provide any specific legal protection to the bird. The California ESA listing will prohibit lethal "take" and require that projects requiring a CEQA review must analyze the impacts of the proposed action on the Tricolor and obtain an incidental take permit from CDFW. *See, e.g.,* 14 Cal. Code Regs.§§ 15065, 15380; Cal. Fish & Game Code § 2081. However, for activities that do not trigger CEQA review or other permits, such as harvesting in grain fields, it remains unclear whether and how CDFW will act to prevent "take" rather than penalizing any such activities after the fact. Indeed, while the nests and eggs of this species have been protected under the California Fish & Game Code § 3503 for decades, *see supra*, CDFW has consistently failed to enforce the law to end the devastating annual "take" by private property owners during Tricolor nesting season.

Biological Diversity submitted a petition to emergency list the species as endangered under the state and federal Endangered Species Acts in 2004, but this was denied.

7.3 Overutilization for Commercial, Recreational, Scientific, or Educational Purposes

Neff (1942) reported that:

> "Market hunting of blackbirds in the interior valleys of California became a thriving business in about 1928 or 1929, and a dependable market for them was developed largely through Italian produce firms in the larger cities. During the depression years the number of men so engaged increased markedly, but decreased by 1936 or 1937. Using automatic shotguns and firing into dense masses of blackbirds feeding on rice stubble, these market hunters killed large numbers of all species of blackbirds; one group of market hunters shipped nearly 400,000 dressed blackbirds from one Sacramento Valley shipping point in five seasons, and during the winter season of 1935-1936 they shipped about 88,000 birds."

There are not currently any known threats to Tricolors from utilization for commercial, recreational, scientific or educational purposes.

7.4 Disease or Predation

Historical accounts documented the destruction of nesting colonies by a diversity of avian, mammalian, and reptilian predators (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). Historically, terrestrial predators have probably included wolves (*Canis lupus*), coyotes (*Canis latrans*), gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), raccoons (*Procyon lotor*), mink (*Mustela vison*), striped skunks (*Mephitis mephitus*) and spotted skunks (*Spilogale gracilis*), gopher snakes (*Pituophis catenifer*), non-native rats (*Ratus ratus*), western rattlesnakes (*Crotalus viridis*), and king snakes (*Lampropeltis getulus*). Avian predators are reported to be Black-crowned Night-Herons (*Nycticorax nycticorax*), Great Blue Herons (*Ardea herodias*), Common Ravens (*Corvus corax*), Cooper's Hawks (*Accipter cooperii*), Burrowing Owls (*Athene cunicularia*), American Crows (*Corvus brachyrhynchos*), Swainson's Hawks (*Buteo swainsoni*), Northern Harriers (*Circus cyaneus*), Barn Owls (*Tyto alba*), Short-eared Owls (*Asio flammeus*), Yellow-billed Magpies *(Pica nuttalli*), and Merlins (*Falco columbarius*). Predation by feral cats (*Felis catus*; Beedy and Hamilton 1997), rats (*Rattus* spp.; Meese 2010) and Cattle Egrets (*Bubulcus ibis*; Meese 2013), has recently been reported. Tricolors respond to predators by sitting silently rather than attempting to attack them, as do Red-wings (Beedy and Hamilton 1997, 1999).

Predation is a major cause of large-scale nesting failures in many Tricolor colonies, especially those nesting in native emergent marshes (Hamilton et al. 1995, Beedy and Hamilton 1997; Hamilton 2000). Cook and Toft (2005) found that reproductive success was significantly lower in native emergent marshes than other substrates, excluding silage that was not lost to harvesting operations (Table 3). Heron and raccoon predation upon colonies nesting in marshes, especially, can destroy all or nearly all nests within colonies (Hamilton et al. 1995, Hamilton 2000). For example, Tricolor nesting at Kern NWR in Kern County and at Maxwell I and Maxwell II colonies in Colusa County failed due to night-heron predation. Black-crowned Night Heron predation—which often results in the nest failure of an entire colony —is particularly troubling

at national wildlife refuges, which are becoming increasingly important nesting sites for both Night Herons and Tricolors as private range and dairy lands are converted to vineyards and orchards or urban uses, and as grain silage fields are subject to harvest during nesting season. Some large Tricolor colonies (up to 100,000 adults) may lose >50% of nests to coyotes (*Canis latrans*), especially in silage fields, but also in freshwater marshes when water is withdrawn (Hamilton et al. 1995). Thus, water management by humans often has the effect of increasing predator access to active colonies (Shuford and Garaldi 2008).

Nesting over water provides some protection from predators (Weintraub and George 2012), but the reduction of native wetlands to less than 4% of their original extent has probably concentrated predator populations in the remaining wetlands more than was true historically (Cook and Toft 2005). As noted above, water management in some areas results in reduced water, and because cattails do not have armaments such as thorns or stinging hairs, nesting blackbirds are exposed to higher rates of predation (Meese 2013). Cook and Toft (2005) found that from 1992 to 2003, a larger proportion of colonies in native wetlands than in upland substrates suffered complete reproductive failure attributable primarily to predation. In particular, some of the largest breeding colonies in wetlands, such as those in the Sacramento Valley, failed completely despite the fact that colonial nesting is considered an adaptation against predation.

More recent studies have documented wholesale reproductive failure of entire colonies due to predation by Cattle Egrets (Meese 2013). Since 2006, predation by Cattle Egrets on eggs and nestlings has caused nearly complete reproductive failures of even very large colonies, but this currently is limited to Tulare County.

7.5 Other Natural or Anthropogenic Factors

7.5.1 Storms and Droughts

Severe storms are documented to cause near-complete reproductive failures of colonies. At the Plumas Arboga colony in Yuba County in 2009, a colony of 20,000 Tricolors nesting in cattails produced fewer than 1,000 fledglings after a severe storm (Meese 2009a). Colony monitoring in 2010 reported hundreds of dead nestlings found on the ground beneath nests in milk thistle at the 2,000-bird colony on San Felipe Ranch in Merced County after a severe storm; this colony ultimately produced only 200 young (Meese 2010). Also during 2010 a second colony of 10,000 birds nesting in mustard and milk thistle at Merced NWR was destroyed by storm, with only 500 fledglings produced.

Meese (2010:11) wrote: "[s]pring storms, and especially the winds associated with storms, played a major role in limiting the productivity of several colonies in 2010, especially those established in milk thistle in Merced County. The second settlement at Merced National Wildlife Refuge Duck Slough appeared to be nearly wiped out due to a storm with high winds on May 20, affecting a colony visually estimated to consist of 15,000 breeding birds. The nearby San Felipe Ranch colony was affected by the same storm, and when surveyed on May 27 was visually estimated to have suffered a greater than 50% mortality of nestlings, as hundreds of dead

nestlings were observed on the ground beneath the milk thistle nesting substrate. The Bear Creek colony, also established in milk thistle, was not as severely impacted but hundreds of nests were observed to have been affected, most apparently shaken sideways during strong winds. The eggs in these nests were likely spilled out on to the ground while the nestlings were either ejected or forced to cling precariously to horizontal nest cups."

Drought also may have adverse effects on Tricolored Blackbird populations, but no empirical data are available (Bob Meese, pers. comm.) Beedy (2014:3) wrote that "the recent drought and effects of climate change have noticeably reduced the extent of suitable nesting and foraging habitat in the Central Valley compared to conditions when I first began my intensive studies of this species in the mid-1980s. The effects of the drought on the available wetlands and moist, insect-producing agricultural fields, was especially apparent during this year's Statewide Survey—in the third year of a severe drought." However, the Tricolored Blackbird population had been steadily declining from 2008 to 2014, so drought cannot be implicated in the decline for the entire time period.

The Tricolored Blackbird evolved over millennia in a region (California) that is naturally susceptible to periodic drought and severe storms. However, their population size and available habitat has been so reduced by humans over the past century that natural weather events now have a more pronounced effect on the overall population—this is precisely the problem when small, endangered populations with little remaining habitat are faced with large-scale natural stochastic (unpredictable) events such as droughts and severe storms. Drought and severe storms may have adverse effects on reproductive success, but this only makes protecting active nesting colonies from damaging human activities such as harvest, pesticides, grazing sheep, or poor water management all the more critical.

7.5.2 Poisons and Contaminants

Various poisons and contaminants have caused mass mortality of Tricolored Blackbirds (Shuford and Garaldi 2008). McCabe (1932) described the strychnine poisoning of 30,000 breeding adults as part of an agricultural experiment. Neff (1942) considered poisoning to regulate numbers of blackbirds preying upon crops (especially rice) to be a major source of mortality. This practice continued until the 1960s, and thousands of Tricolored Blackbirds and other blackbirds were exterminated by poisoning to control damage to rice crops in the Central Valley.

Beedy and Hayworth (1992) observed a complete nesting failure of a large colony (about 47,000 breeding adults) at Kesterson Reservoir, Merced County, and selenium toxicosis was diagnosed as the primary cause of death. Hosea (1986) attributed the loss of at least two colonies to aerial herbicide applications.

Beedy and Hamilton (1997) documented more evidence of Tricolor mortality due to contaminants. A large Tricolor breeding colony of nearly 50,000 birds at Kesterson Reservoir in Merced County experienced a complete nesting failure in 1986 (Beedy and Hayworth 1992). Some of the dead nestlings had club feet; other shorebirds and water birds collected at the reservoir had similar deformities. Pathological examinations of the Tricolor nestlings indicated

heart muscle degeneration, and liver sampled showed higher concentrations of selenium than in Red-wing nestlings collected in an uncontaminated area at Merced NWR (Beedy and Hayworth 1992). The cause of the 1986 Tricolor nestling deaths was suspected to be selenium toxicosis (Beedy and Hamilton 1997). A recent incident reported to CDFW was the death of Tricolors in Riverside County that were poisoned by bait left out for ground squirrels (R. Cook, pers. comm.).

Hamilton observed a colony sprayed by mosquito abatement operators in Kern County, and all sprayed eggs failed to hatch, and the loss of at least two Tricolor colonies was attributed to herbicide applications (Beedy and Hamilton 1999). The Tricolors are also threatened by pesticides use in agricultural fields used for nesting and foraging as pesticides may affect the birds both through direct toxicity and effects on their insect food base (see USFWS 1995). While the link between environmental contaminants and nesting failure of Tricolors is largely unstudied, enormous amounts of chemicals are introduced into the environment every year by the California agriculture industry, particularly in the Central Valley, which is the historical stronghold of the Tricolor and the most intensive agricultural region in the state. Table 5 shows amount and type of pesticides applied in 2012 in five of the counties that support the some of the greatest numbers of breeding Tricolors.

Table 5. Type and Amount of Pesticides Used in Fresno, Merced, Sacramento, San Joaquin, and Tulare Counties (California Department of Pesticide Regulation 2012)

County	Chemical	Pounds Applied	Chemical	Pounds Applied
Fresno	Aluminum Phosphide	24,171	Metam-Sodium	2,110,938
	Bacillus Thuringiensis I	30,884	Methoprene	185
	Chlorophacinone	negligible	Methyl Bromide	48,115
	Chlorpyrifos	204,423	Oryzalin	87,301
	Copper Sulfate	280,822	Petroleum Oil	3,329,977
	Diazinon	3,676	Phosmet	9,761
	Diphacinone	negligible	Pyrethrins	278
	Malathion	37,178	Strychnine	34
	Mancozeb	128,057	Zinc Phosphide	191
Merced	Aluminum Phosphide	3,158	Metam-Sodium	49,175
	Bacillus Thuringiensis I	4,727	Methoprene	368
	Chlorophacinone	negligible	Methyl Bromide	151,546
	Chlorpyrifos	37,794	Oryzalin	36,686
	Copper Sulfate	108,440	Petroleum Oil	353,637
	Diazinon	1,125	Phosmet	84
	Diphacinone	negligible	Pyrethrins	742
	Malathion	26,439	Strychnine	92
	Mancozeb	8,182	Zinc Phosphide	32
Sacramento	Aluminum Phosphide	310	Metam-Sodium	no data
	Bacillus Thuringiensis I	1,122	Methoprene	332

	Chlorophacinone	negligible	Methyl Bromide	no data
	Chlorpyrifos	4,833	Oryzalin	9,338
	Copper Sulfate	8,020	Petroleum Oil	27,947
	Diazinon	3,585	Phosmet	71
	Diphacinone	negligible	Pyrethrins	394
	Malathion	3,425	Strychnine	negligible
	Mancozeb	34,590	Zinc Phosphide	142
San Joaquin	Aluminum Phosphide	7,349	Metam-Sodium	37,989
	Bacillus Thuringiensis I	10,185	Methoprene	180
	Chlorophacinone	negligible	Methyl Bromide	208,516
	Chlorpyrifos	44,337	Oryzalin	37,829
	Copper Sulfate	73,267	Petroleum Oil	146,539
	Diazinon	5,090	Phosmet	5,100
	Diphacinone	50	Pyrethrins	727
	Malathion	31,792	Strychnine	55
	Mancozeb	84,748	Zinc Phosphide	127
Tulare	Aluminum Phosphide	1,944	Metam-Sodium	50,208
	Bacillus Thuringiensis I	23,576	Methoprene	negligible
	Chlorophacinone	negligible	Methyl Bromide	23,741
	Chlorpyrifos	182,209	Oryzalin	58,196
	Copper Sulfate	404,984	Petroleum Oil	2,006,998
	Diazinon	500	Phosmet	9,551
	Diphacinone	negligible	Pyrethrins	277
	Malathion	10,768	Strychnine	213
	Mancozeb	18,339	Zinc Phosphide	3

While Tricolors were not studied directly, many of the chemicals used within the breeding range of the Tricolor are known to be highly toxic to birds. Mineau et al. (2001:71) provides reference values for pesticide acute toxicity in birds and found that of the 34 pesticides identified as having the highest toxicity to birds, 24 were cholinesterase-inhibiting insecticides, 2 included chlorfenapyr, 2 were fungicides, and 6 were rodenticides (including 3 anticoagulant products). Sanchez-Bayo (2012:7) also found that birds are very sensitive to neurotoxic compounds such as cholinesterase inhibitors (carbamates and organophospates). For example, malathion, chylorpyrifos, and diazinon are organophosphorus pesticides that bind with cholinesterase in animals and disrupt neural functioning. Chlorpyrifos is moderately to very highly toxic to birds (EXTOXNET 2004). Birds are quite susceptible to diazinon poisoning: in 1988, the EPA concluded that the use of diazinon in open areas poses a "widespread and continuous hazard" to birds. Bird kills associated with diazinon use have been reported in every area of the country and at all times of the year. Birds are significantly more susceptible to diazinon than other wildlife (EXTOXNET 2004).

Malathion is moderately toxic to birds. The reported acute oral LD50 values are 167 mg/kg in blackbirds and starlings (EXTOXNET 2004). Acute values lower than 10 mg/kg for birds have

been reported for many other insecticides (Sanchez-Bayo 2012:7). The precise oral or inhalation median lethal doses for aluminum phosphide or phosphine in birds are not known, but exposure of turkeys and hens to 211 and 224 mg/meters cubed for 74 and 59 minutes respectively resulted in labored breathing, swelling of organs, tonic-clonic convulsions and death (EXTOXNET 2004).

Methoprene is slightly toxic to birds, but non-lethal effects that may affect survival of the birds appeared at acute oral doses of 500 mg/kg, and included slowness, reluctance to move, sitting, withdrawal, and incoordination (EXTOXNET 2004). These effects may decrease bird survival by making them temporarily more susceptible to predation (EXTOXNET 2004).

Phosmet is documented to be highly toxic in Red-wings, with a reported acute oral LD50 of 18 mg/kg (EXTOXNET 2004). Zinc phosphide is highly toxic to wild birds, although blackbirds were found to be less sensitive than other taxa (EXTOXNET 2004).

7.5.3 Killing Blackbirds for Crop "Protection"

Historically, blackbirds were reportedly shot in great numbers by ranchers in order to drive the flocks away from crops, or by pleasure hunters utilizing blackbirds for target practice, and use of poison to regulate blackbird damage to crops was a major source of adult mortality (Neff 1942). Beedy and Hamilton (1997) noted that this practice continued until the 1960s, during which thousands of Tricolors were killed in the Central Valley. Reduction in numbers of blackbirds and improved harvesting methods has resulted in a decrease in blackbird extermination programs in the region, but the practice of shooting blackbirds has not ended. A history of widespread persecution of blackbird species has contributed to the Tricolor population decline documented over the past century, and may account for some of the ongoing population decline.

The killing of blackbirds in autumn in paddies of ripening rice in the Sacramento Valley is a known but unquantified source of mortality to post-breeding adult Tricolored Blackbirds. Due to the similarity in appearance to Red-wings, rice farmers who shoot blackbirds kill both species, and perhaps others (Bob Meese, pers. comm.). As noted by Meese (2009a:16):

> "Colonies in the Sacramento Valley are much less dependent upon ephemeral substrates than are those in the San Joaquin Valley, but Sacramento Valley birds have their own serious threats. This year, two birds that I banded in 2008 were shot by a rice farmer outside Richvale in Butte County and subsequently reported to me by staff at Sacramento National Wildlife Refuge. Although only two Tricolors were confirmed killed, these were apparently turned in to federal wildlife officials because of the bands that were found on their legs and serve to suggest a potentially much larger problem. One wonders how many Tricolors are shot each summer in the Sacramento Valley? Previously, in 2006, I was told by two Colusa County staff that flocks of blackbirds were annually shot in Colusa County and that such shooting did not require a permit. This is true for most blackbird species, but not for Tricolors, which are protected under the Migratory Bird Treaty Act. Additionally, a rice farmer in Yuba County told me in July, 2008 that he

knows of several rice farmers who annually "herd" and then shoot blackbirds. The shooting of blackbirds during the breeding and post-breeding seasons is in all probability a source of additive mortality, that is, mortality in addition to that which would normally occur due to other factors (starvation, disease, etc.), as it involves primarily breeding and post-breeding adults, and thus may be especially important as a limiting factor in population growth in Tricolors."

7.5.4 Allee Effect of Small Population Size

As noted above, small populations, especially those that are squeezed into ever-smaller areas of suitable habitat, are more vulnerable to stochastic (unpredictable) events such as storms and droughts. Cook and Toft (2005) also raised an alarm bell about the effects of a small population size to a species such as the Tricolor with socially facilitated breeding. With these species, reduced populations may become extinct through Allee effects, or "inverse density dependence," defined as a positive relationship between population density and survival and reproduction (Allee 1931, Stephens and Sutherland 1999). Conversely, as population density and colony size decreases, so too does survival and reproduction, even if there may remain several hundred thousand individual birds. The Passenger Pigeon, once the most abundant bird in North America, may have ultimately succumbed to extinction following widespread hunting and habitat loss because it could not survive at low population densities (Stephens and Sutherland 1999).

Cook and Toft (2005:85) stated:

> "Like Passenger Pigeons, Tricolored Blackbirds breed colonially and are now adapted to the patchy distribution of a habitat that was widespread before European immigration to North America. The extinction of the Passenger Pigeon has been attributed to a combination of highly social and nomadic breeding, the fragmentation of the mast forests that provided abundant forage, and intense commercial hunting (Stephans and Southerland 1999). Together these factors pushed the population past a lower threshold of inverse density dependence (the Allee effect) and on to the alternative stable state of global extinction (Stephans and Southerland 1999). Importantly, Passenger Pigeon was once the most abundant bird species in North America, with flocks reported to darken the skies for hours (Wilcove 1999), similar to descriptions of flocks of Tricolored Blackbird in California's Central Valley in the mid-1800s (Heermann 1859)."

Cook and Toft pointed out that because local populations of Tricolored Blackbirds are still found in dense breeding colonies, they can leave a false impression of abundance upon casual observers. The long-term population trends and patterns in reproduction show that the Tricolored Blackbird possesses most of the traits that ultimately led to the extinction of Passenger Pigeon in the same ecological circumstances. These factors include the loss of vast areas of native wetland along with the increasing loss of upland, non-native vegetation favorable for nesting, the trend of decreasing colony size in a highly social breeder, a habit of itinerant breeding (Hamilton 1998), and wholesale slaughtering of the largest breeding colonies in agricultural harvest.

8.0 Degree and Immediacy of Threat

The San Joaquin Valley and Sacramento Valley have historically been the heart of the Tricolor's range and supported the largest populations. The recent population decline has been most severe in the San Joaquin Valley and along the Central Coast. The number of birds counted in the San Joaquin Valley plummeted 78% in 6 years, from 340,700 to about 73,500 birds, and the decline in especially alarming in Kern and Merced counties (Meese 2014). Efforts to provide water in private duck clubs adjacent to dairies in Kern and Tulare counties have been largely ineffective at halting the steep decline in the number of breeding birds in Kern County over the past 3 years, to an all-time low (Bob Meese, pers. comm). Along the Central Coast, the number of birds is down 91% in 6 years, from 7,014 to 627 birds. For many years few birds were recorded nesting in their historical stronghold of Sacramento County where once single colonies of 100,000 birds were observed (Neff 1937); in 2014 fewer than 30,000 total birds were recorded in the entire county. Active nesting colonies of Tricolors continue to be destroyed by crop harvest, grazing sheep, pesticide use, and poor water management, all of which have caused failures of entire of nearly entire colonies in recent years (Meese 2007, 2008, 2009a, 2010, 2011). Further, an unknown number of Tricolors are shot and killed each year while foraging in rice paddies in the Sacramento Valley during autumn.

The population in southern California remains highly endangered as well, with an average of fewer than 6,000 birds observed during springtime breeding surveys conducted since 2005. Although Meese (2014) reported an increase of 126% in southern California over the 2008 census, as R. Cook (2014) explained: "this magnitude of change cannot be accounted for by local reproduction and recruitment. On closer examination, it is apparent that the increase occurred predominantly in Los Angeles County, and specifically the Mojave Desert area between the San Gabrielle Mountain range and the Kern County border. In 2014, 4,500 birds were reported from Holiday Lake alone versus 840 in all of Los Angeles County in 2011. Holiday Lake is only 45 linear miles from the city of Bakersfield in the southern San Joaquin Valley and only slightly further through the Tehachapi Pass. The number of birds in this area has varied between survey years from approximately 600 to 5,000. However, the data reflect no concomitant changes elsewhere in southern California - which suggests that these fluctuations are local and do not impact population dynamics in the rest of southern California. The most plausible explanation for the apparent increase this year and the changes observed in Los Angeles County throughout the life of the surveys is occasional and temporary influx of birds from the Central Valley."

Currently the entire global population of Tricolored Blackbirds counted during surveys is less than half the size of a single colony that was reported in 1934 (Neff 1937, Meese 2014). The travesty is that the dire situation of the Tricolor has been known for the past two decades by state and federal agencies, and despite heroic efforts of several dedicated individuals, the trajectory towards extinction has not been reversed. It is time for immediate regulatory action to ensure the conservation of nesting and foraging areas known to be important to Tricolored Blackbirds, to prevent the direct killing of blackbirds at rice paddies, and to provide funding for habitat improvement projects such as those proposed by Lowell Young and the Yosemite Area Audubon Society (see "Recommended Management and Recovery Actions.") If such actions are not

taken, the Tricolored Blackbird will follow the Passenger Pigeon into the dark abyss of extinction.

9.0 Existing Management Efforts

9.1 Silage Buy-outs and Harvest Delays

The two main grain-field specific conservation actions include silage buy-outs or harvest delays (Meese 2009b). Silage buy-outs involve the payment to landowners of the full market value of the triticale in the portion of the field occupied by nesting Tricolors. Harvest delays are financial compensation to landowners for the reduction in the value of their crop from the delay in its harvest until the young Tricolors have fledged from their nests. Meese (2009b) explains that the key difference between a harvest delay and a silage buy-out is the timing of the harvest of the crop following the fledging of the young Tricolors. In the silage buy-out, the farmer agrees to wait until essentially all birds, including the breeding adults plus the newly fledged young, have departed and are fully independent of the field. In a harvest delay, the farmer agrees to delay the harvest only until the young have fledged (left the nests). Thus, in a harvest delay, the young are still present in the field on the day of harvest, being fed by adults during the day and roosting there at night. This difference may be due to the desire to minimize the impact of the harvest delay on the yield and nutritional quality of the crop.

The practice of buying out farmers or delaying harvest of silage to prevent nest destruction during active breeding undoubtedly has saved hundreds of thousands of birds. From 2005 to 2009, these efforts resulted in the conservation of the breeding efforts of a low of 16% in 2007 to a high of 86% in 2005 of the birds nesting in silage fields, thus contributing to Tricolor productivity (Meese 2009b:5). Over the five years from 2005 to 2009, payments totaling $331,921 were made to conserve 11 breeding colonies consisting of 546,000 birds which subsequently produced 396,025 young (Meese 2009b:6). However, this practice has not always been reliable and depends upon the volunteer cooperation of the farmer and available funds. As evidenced in Figure 4 below (from Meese 2009b:4), in some years the vast majority of breeding effort was not conserved.

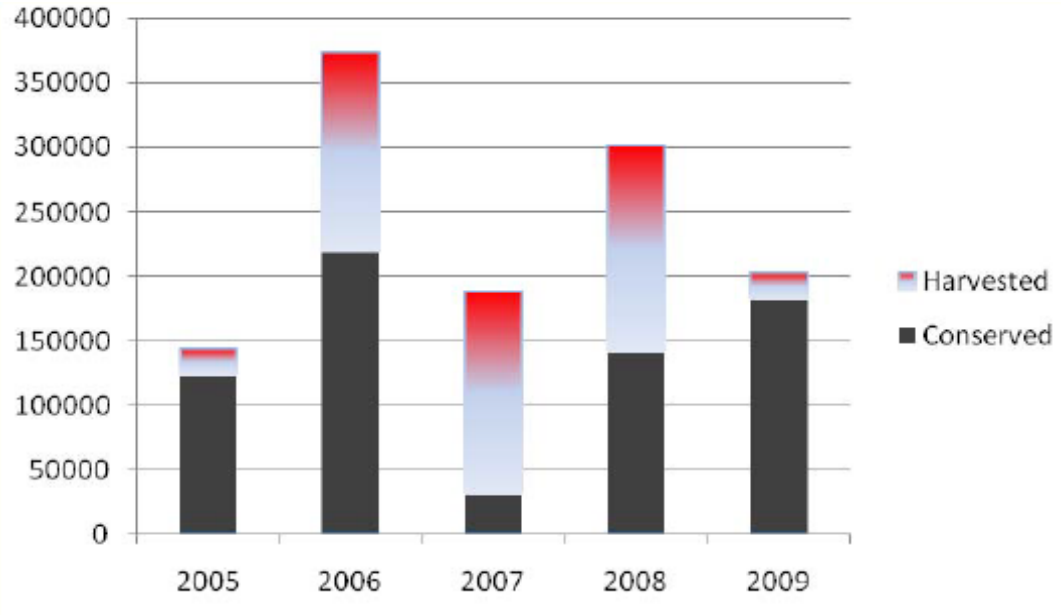

Figure 4: Fates of Tricolored Blackbirds in Silage Fields, 2005 to 2009

Many of the most important recent colonies have been destroyed before it was too late to save them, despite concerted efforts to do so by Tricolor biologists and the FWS. For example, Meese (2006:5-6) noted: "Deer Creek Dairy, Tulare County, was destroyed days after the owner told Scott Frazer, USFWS biologist, that he would not cut the field until after the birds had fledged. This harvest was reported to the Fresno Field Office, Enforcement Division of the USFWS, and harvest was halted by direct intervention by the USFWS officer but not until an estimated 60% of the colony had been harvested, including a single pass through the center of the colony."

In 2011, the year for which the most recent data are available on the Tricolor portal regarding specific colony fates, many instances of nest destruction by crop harvesting were documented, with many colonies destroyed, seemingly willfully:

> "Colonies from Kern County to Merced County were destroyed by harvest or the cutting of the nesting substrate in 2011. The West Poso colony in Kern County was destroyed by harvest just as the young had begun to fledge from their nests. The Producer's Dairy colony in Fresno County was destroyed a week after it was discovered. The owner had preferentially harvested the portion of his triticale field that was occupied by the breeding tricolors as only this portion of this field had been harvested when the site was observed on April 12. The Owens Creek and South of Childs colonies in Merced County were destroyed when the weedy fields in which they were situated were cut. The Sandy Mush and Highway 99 colony, also in Merced County, was cut in half despite on-going conversations with the farmer that sought to conserve the colony through a harvest delay whereby the farmer was to be compensated for his lost revenue that would have resulted from the delay in the harvest of his field of fava beans. Only 10-15,000 birds out of an original colony of 50,000 birds remained after half of the field was harvested." (Meese 2011:12)

Efforts to protect partial colonies have failed to save the nesting effort, even with the cooperation of the farmer, such as this example from 2007: "[n]egotiations between the Service and the landowner, who had prior experience with nesting tricolors and the silage buy-out process, resulted in the signing of a contract to sell the silage occupied by the nesting birds while allowing the farmer to harvest the triticale not occupied. The harvest of the unoccupied triticale proceeded as scheduled, but the day following harvest in excess of 90% of the tricolors deserted the site. The landowner was immediately contacted to inform him of the departure of the birds and to request that the contract be canceled." (Meese 2007:17).

In 2013, four silage colonies were destroyed due to harvest, including the largest colony in southern California in Riverside County. This harvest occurred despite the fact that the landowner had been contacted and an agreement for financial compensation apparently was in its final stages, yet he harvested his field without informing anyone (R. Cook, pers. comm). In 2014, at least two silage colonies were lost to harvest in Merced County, and an additional is suspected (Bob Meese, pers. comm).

Meese (2009b:6) noted that "a permanent solution to the dilemma between the needs of the nesting birds and the needs of the farmers does not consist of annual negotiations between U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service staff and San Joaquin Valley farmers; rather, it consists of the provision of permanent nesting habitats surrounded by productive foraging habitats that provide a secure alternative to nesting in triticale fields (Tricolored Blackbird Working Group 2007). Previous attempts to create such alternative nesting habitats (e.g., ECLA Pond in Kern County, Toledo Pit in Tulare County) have met with limited success, but unless the tricolor modifies its breeding distribution, this is the only realistic resolution to the conflicts. Recent changes including intense predation by cattle egrets (*Bubulcus ibis*) and the loss of formerly productive alfalfa foraging habitats to conversion to orchards and vineyards may be reducing the suitability of the southern San Joaquin Valley to tricolor breeding (Meese 2009a), only complicating future attempts to increase the abundance of the species."

Clearly, however any such voluntary measures to buy-out silage crops or delay harvest over the past decade have not worked. The Tricolor population has declined precipitously despite all efforts to date, and the global population is currently less than half that of a single colony that was reported in 1934 in Glenn County. The species unequivocally warrants immediate listing under the California Endangered Species Acts.

9.2 Tricolored Blackbird Working Group and Conservation Plan

The Tricolored Blackbird Working Group is a voluntary group of state and federal agency biologists, non-governmental organizations, industry representatives, and academic scientists who "share concern for the Tricolored Blackbird and a desire to work cooperatively to help to enhance and sustain the birds and their habitats."

The Tricolored Blackbird Working Group meets twice per year to discuss both long-term, strategic efforts as well as short-term immediate actions necessary to conserve Tricolors. The

Working Group (1) assesses the needs for and effectiveness of strategies and efforts that are already implemented, and (2) identifies steps yet to be taken that are necessary to conserve breeding colonies and surrounding foraging habitats. Generally, a spring meeting emphasizes the needs for the upcoming breeding season, while the fall meeting reviews results of the breeding season and sets priorities for next steps. The Working Group crafted the *Conservation Strategy for the Tricolored Blackbird* from 2004 to 2007 (Tricolored Blackbird Working Group 2007), and designed and prepared for distribution a pamphlet describing the Tricolored Blackbird and efforts underway to try to conserve it. Numerous, less formal communications and meetings occur among Working Group members year-round.

The Tricolored Blackbird Working Group includes: Audubon California; California Association of Resource Conservation Districts; California Farm Bureau Federation; California Cattlemen's Association; California Department of Fish and Game; California Department of Food and Agriculture; Central Valley Bird Club; Central Valley Joint Venture; Natural Resources Conservation Service; Pacific Gas and Electric Company; PRBO Conservation Science; Sonoran Joint Venture; Sustainable Conservation; University of California, Agriculture and Natural Resources; Western Riverside County MSHCP; U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service; U.S. Geological Survey; and the Western United Dairymen.

There are a number of scientific efforts underway by agency and non-agency groups that are part of the Tricolored Blackbird Working Group to monitor the population of Tricolored Blackbirds and understand natural and anthropogenic factors correlated to breeding-site selection and reproductive success. These efforts include:

- annual field work to detect and monitor (i.e. document the fates of) the largest colonies in the Central Valley and Southern California to help to prioritize colonies for conservation actions, to estimate the numbers of breeding adults, to estimate the numbers of young produced (i.e. derive an estimate of colony productivity), and to attempt to identify the factors responsible for observed patterns of productivity
- annual banding of primarily adults birds at several breeding colonies to help to document spatial and temporal movements, estimate life history parameters, and to evaluate patterns of site fidelity
- education and outreach, including the production and distribution of a brochure to describe the efforts being made on behalf of the tricolored blackbird and to encourage agency field personnel and birders to report observations of banded birds
- development of the web portal to provide information on the Tricolored Blackbird and to accumulate, document, and disseminate data on colonies and observations of banded birds and aggregations, both breeding and non-breeding.

These scientific efforts have provided a vast literature documenting population size by region, colony locations and fates, and variables correlated with reproductive success and selection of breeding sites. These intensive scientific efforts have provided clear and unequivocal evidence of severe population declines and confirm the significant adverse effects of silage harvest, water management, depredation by rats and Cattle Egrets, and other factors that are implicated in the Tricolor's current predicament.

Science is important but on-the-ground action is needed. However, it is abundantly clear that volunteer efforts to save active nesting colonies have failed in recent years. The *Conservation Plan* was developed in 2007 and updated in 2009, but few conservation efforts to actually improve habitat on the ground have been implemented, and as noted above, numerous efforts to save colonies from silage harvest were shunned by the landowners and the nestlings were mowed down despite funding available to prevent it. Meese (2013) emphasized the importance of high-quality foraging habitats close to nesting colonies that provide abundant insect prey for high reproductive success, but these habitats have continued to be eliminated, which likely led to the chronic very low reproductive success of colonies documented in recent years (Meese 2013). Habitat-improvement efforts including ideas to lure birds to protected high-quality nesting sites have been suggested, but no funding has been provided to support these efforts.

10.0 Recommended Management and Recovery Actions

Meese (2014) provided the following recommendations for management and recovery of the Tricolored Blackbird:

1. Eliminate all known sources of mortality, including the losses of eggs and young via harvest of their nesting substrate and adults in autumn when causing depredations in rice.

2. It is essential to develop a mechanism for conserving at-risk colonies. A mechanism is required that consists of (1) field workers who *detect settlements* of birds in ephemeral nesting substrates (e.g., triticale fields), (2) a person or persons to whom the field worker *reports the presence of birds in ephemeral, at-risk locations* and who has the responsibility of contacting landowners and informing them of the protected status of the birds and of funding available to compensate them, (3) a cooperative extension specialist or other independent expert who *estimates the loss in value* of the crop as a result of the harvest delay, (4) a field worker who *monitors and documents the results* of conservation actions (successful delay until a week past average date of fledging, an estimate of the number of young fledged, a description of the process of harvest in those cases where fledglings are still present in the field when it is being harvested with an emphasis on the effects on the behavior of the fledglings post-harvest). (5) All of these *actions should be documented and then be reported* to a meeting of the Working Group and provided in a report that is posted to the Portal.

3. A legislative fix to eliminate exemption of protection under the MBTA is needed for Red-winged Blackbirds in California. If Red-wings cannot be shot and shooting stops in autumn in rice, this will also save the lives of an unknown number of post-breeding adult Tricolors that are shot by "mistake" as Tricolors and Red-wings are superficially nearly identical in appearance and flock together during autumn.

4. Better document conditions which result in relatively high reproductive success. Examine patterns in reproductive success to determine whether, on a time-averaged basis, there is relatively higher reproductive success in colonies in some geographic regions or that are

established in different nesting substrates. Use these insights to make recommendations for management actions.

5. Study the effects of harvest on populations of fledglings in crèches that persist on nesting substrates until moments before they are harvested to best document effects on birds. In some situations, fledglings persist on the original nesting substrates until moments before the substrates are harvested. Study these colonies and document where the birds go when the harvester shows up and what do they do when they return to the just-harvested field.

6. Take an 'all hands on deck' approach to Tricolored Blackbird conservation that includes representation by all industries that may be affected by a listing and all systems of protected areas, including the National Wildlife Refuge System, State Wildlife Areas, DOD installations, and private preserves.

7. Work with landowners in foothill and other locations with extensive rangelands where the availability of nesting substrate may be limiting reproduction; add nesting substrates where they are lacking, enhance nesting substrates where they are limiting, and protect nesting substrates where necessary. Fund landowners who want to conserve Tricolors but who incur a cost in doing so.

8. Provide supplemental insect foods (meal worms, possibly others) to investigate whether supplemental feeding may increase reproductive success.

9. Provide meal worms or other insects to settling birds at desired locations to see whether the supplemental foods may influence breeding site selection.

10. Focus efforts on regions with a recent history of successful reproduction (e.g., Sierra Nevada foothills) and, where appropriate, seek to create additional breeding sites.

11. Expand monitoring and research into regions which have historically been under-studied (central Sierra foothills, coastal locations) and suggest strategies to sustain or increase reproductive output in these regions. Perhaps fund a volunteer effort by reimbursing volunteers for food and mileage costs for monitoring efforts.

12. Encourage and/or provide monetary incentives to farmers to grow alfalfa, sunflowers, and rice within 3 miles of active Tricolored Blackbird colonies without insecticides or to delay their use until after the young have fledged and left the area.

13. Investigate the relative abundance of insects in rice paddies under organic culture to that in commercial rice paddies to document whether organic rice provides a better foraging substrate than does commercial rice (as has been suggested by relatively high reproductive success at the Conaway Ranch in Yolo County, where both organic and commercial rice is grown).

14. Provide additional funding and guidance for landowners to provide essential resources for nesting Tricolors on private property.

15. Actively maintain all wetlands recently used by breeding Tricolors, and especially those in coastal locations, to provide the youthful conditions preferred by nesting birds.

16. Develop and disseminate via the Portal handbooks that illustrate best practices for maintaining wetlands and other nesting substrates for breeding by Tricolored Blackbirds.

17. Conduct threat assessments of all areas currently used by breeding Tricolors and work with local officials to identify these threats and seek ways to reduce or eliminate them.

18. Assess the concentrations of neonicotinoid insecticides in regions with the lowest insect abundances and highest rates of decline in Tricolored Blackbirds.

Beedy (2014) offered additional suggestions specifically regarding cattle ranching:

1. Recognize that cattle ranching and most other range management activities have mostly beneficial effects on this species and do not result in incidental take;

2. Consider authorizing limited incidental take consistent with typical cattle ranching and range management activities;

3. Establish financial incentive programs to encourage ranchers and farmers to voluntarily create and manage suitable habitats in the context of their normal operations;

4. Educate ranchers, farmers, and other members of the public about the benefits of this species in the control of harmful insect pests that damage agricultural crops.

The Tricolored Blackbird Action Group of the Yosemite Area Audubon Society has created a database of shovel-ready projects to lure Tricolored Blackbirds to secure breeding habitat. These sites include an assessment of the availability of insect-rich foraging habitat and water sources. Similar projects could be expanded to other areas as well outside of the Sierra Nevada foothills.

In addition, efforts are needed by the State and Federal agencies to enhance breeding habitat on wildlife areas and other public lands.

Funds should be made available for the highest-priority of these projects, along with funding for scientific monitoring of results.

11.0 Request for Critical Habitat Designation

When the FWS lists a species as endangered or threatened under ESA it must concurrently designate critical habitat for that species "to the maximum extent prudent and determinable." The ESA defines the term "critical habitat" to mean: i. the specific areas within the geographical area occupied by the species, at the time it is listed . . . on which are found those physical or biological features (I) essential to the conservation of the species and (II) which may require

special management considerations or protection; and ii. specific areas outside the geographical area occupied by the species at the time it is listed . . . upon a determination by the Secretary [of Interior] that such areas are essential for the conservation of the species.

Critical habitat designation for the Tricolor is prudent and determinable. Critical habitat is needed to ensure that federal actions avoid jeopardizing the species and help promote its conservation. Designation of critical habitat would inform both federal and state governments and private landowners on conservation planning, habitat management, and other actions needed to secure habitat, and help address conflicts that undermine its protection and restoration.

Given the precarious status of the species, the FWS should designate critical habitat that includes all of the remaining occupied breeding habitat and wintering foraging habitat within the Tricolor's range. While there are challenges associated with designating critical habitat areas for a nomadic species with itinerant breeding, following recommendations 6, 7, 10, and 11 in Section 10.0 "Recommended Management and Recovery Actions" - the FWS should work with Tricolor biologists to assess reproductive success in current breeding sites on public and private lands as well as identify important wintering foraging grounds. Efforts should be made to determine which breeding sites are used repeatedly and have relatively high reproductive success, and the reasons why, including examining factors such as nesting substrates and insect abundance and availability. Efforts should also be made to determine factors associated with successful foraging at wintering sites. To the extent possible, FWS should emphasize designating breeding-site critical habitat on protected public lands associated with high reproductive success and former breeding-sites that may be restored to natural functions.

12.0 Availability and Sources of Information

Literature cited in this petition is listed below. A disk with the available documents is provided to the FWS along with a paper copy of the petition.

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APPENDIX: Distribution of Tricolored Blackbirds (Meese et al. 2014)