INTRODUCTION

The hawksbill turtle *Eretmochelys imbricata*, like other sea turtles, has a complex life cycle that makes use of various terrestrial and marine habitats, including beaches, shallow coastal waters, coral reefs and oceanic waters. These turtles are also long-lived, taking decades to reach sexual maturity. Together, this spatial and temporal complexity exposes them to increasing anthropogenic threats on critical nesting, feeding, mating and resting habitats, rendering them highly vulnerable to extinction. Particularly as a result of unsustainable exploitation for food and tortoiseshell, this pan-tropical species is listed globally as critically endangered on the International Union for Conservation of Nature Red List (IUCN 2007) and legally protected by various international (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Flora and Fauna, Protocol of Specially Protected Areas and Wildlife of the Wider Caribbean Region, Inter-American Convention for the Protection and Conservation of Sea Turtles) and national legislation (e.g. Endangered Species Act in the USA, NOM-SEMARNAT-059-2001 in Mexico).
After decades of commercial exploitation, Mexico enacted legal limits on hawksbill take in the 1970s and a complete ban on all sea turtle take in 1990. By the mid 1990s the hawksbill population that nests on the Yucatan Peninsula exhibited a dramatic increase to become the largest in the Atlantic Basin (Garduño et al. 1999, Meylan & Donnelly 1999). This increase peaked in 1999 at more than 6000 nests but by 2004 the number started to decrease to less than 30% of this figure and the decline continues. A national review in 2005 prompted by the alarming trend identified 5 factors underlying hawksbill decline in the Yucatan Peninsula requiring urgent attention: bycatch in coastal waters, persistent knowledge gaps on the whereabouts and conservation status of feeding and breeding areas, possible impacts by seismic surveys for oil in the marine habitat, degradation and loss of nesting habitats, and use of inappropriate conservation measures on the nesting beaches (Abreu-Grobois et al. 2005).

Because of severe logistic and resource limitations, little is known about the marine habitats of sea turtle species present in Mexican waters. Hawksbill conservation efforts remain primarily focused on nesting beaches, despite the fact that nesting females spend on average less than 1% of their total lifetime in such habitats.

With the current hawksbill population crisis, a high priority has been placed on locating, characterizing and evaluating the condition of critical marine habitats. Only a few of prior investigations of this type have been carried out, notably those on hawksbill in the Yucatan Peninsula (Byles & Swimmer 1994, Garduño et al. 2000a, Garduño et al. 2000b, Cuevas et al. 2007a). Researchers now recognize that it is necessary to focus efforts towards understanding which factors (natural and anthropogenic) influence hawksbill turtle life stages in the marine realm, and in what way. Such information will serve decision making and allow the development of a more integrative approach for hawksbill turtle conservation (i.e. protection and management).

The main goal of this study was to gain insight into the hawksbills’ post-nesting migratory behavior using satellite telemetry on 3 females breeding on the coast of Campeche, Mexico. Specifically we aimed at (1) identifying the location of their feeding ground(s), (2) determining the scope of their foraging home ranges, and (3) evaluating the influence of external physical factors (e.g. sea-surface temperature, geostrophic currents) on their migratory patterns. Such information is highly relevant for the identification of potential hazards at sea for hawksbill populations in this region.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Study area.** Hawksbill turtle populations nest along the entire western and northern coastline of the Yucatan Peninsula. We selected 3 of the major nesting sites in Campeche for our satellite transmitter applications: Isla del Carmen, Isla Aguada and Chenkan (Fig. 1). About 50% of the total yearly number of nests laid by hawksbills on the Campeche coast is concentrated on these 3 beaches (Cuevas et al. 2007a). The first 2 nesting beaches are contained in the Laguna de Terminos Flora and Fauna Protected Area, while Chenkan is located within this natural protected area’s zone of influence.

**Tracking.** The 3 nesting females, nicknamed Jolbej (Isla del Carmen), Ka’ansaj (Chenkan) and Xin Xinbal (Isla Aguada), were encountered by night beach patrols and all were fitted with satellite tags in July 2006 after successful nestings. The females’ sizes ranged between 83 (Ka’ansaj) and 96 cm (Jolbej) in curved carapace length (CCL), and each laid between 96 (Ka’ansaj) and 183 (Jolbej) eggs (Table 1). ST-20 model A1010 ARGOS platform transmitter terminals (PPTs; Telonics) were attached using a standard protocol (Balazs et al. 1996), with fiberglass and polyester

![Fig. 1. Eretmochelys imbricata. Migratory movements of the 3 hawksbill turtles after nesting on the Campeche coast](image-url)
resin. The PTT was placed on the highest point of the carapace, with the antenna pointing towards the animal’s rear. The process lasted around 1.5 h for each turtle, during which time we recorded morphometric data and placed flipper tags (Inconel model 681 on each front flipper) prior to release.

We employed a 24 h ON programming mode, controlled by a saltwater switch, to turn the transmission off every time the turtle submerged. The PTT locations were estimated by the conventional ARGOS system using the polar-orbiting NOAA satellites. ARGOS location data were downloaded using the Satellite Tracking and Analysis Tool (STAT) (Coyne & Godley 2005). The transmitters were equipped with a conventional temperature sensor and programmed to register mean dive time, as well as the number of dives during the 12 h prior to data transmission (dive = any submergence lasting more than 10 s). The location data were filtered to only include data from geographic location classes 3, 2, 1, and A, as suggested by Hays et al. (2001a).

As stated by previous authors (Renaud & Carpenter 1994, Hays et al. 2001a, Yasuda & Arai 2005), the conventional satellite ARGOS location system generates important spatial biases on the location fixes that can be larger than 1 km.

We obtained data on geostrophic currents and sea-surface temperature (SST) using STAT, and compiled all of the spatial information in a geographic information system (GIS) using ArcView ver.3.2, to include both environmental and sea turtle location data. This procedure enabled us to further describe the migratory movements all the way from nesting to feeding grounds.

In order to evaluate differences in the turtles’ bearings along different phases of their movements, we used ArcView to calculate their spatial orientation and only selecting data with location classes 3, 2, 1 or A. We used circular statistics to evaluate statistical differences between the turtles’ headings along their migrating phases. We applied a modified Watson’s $U^2$ test for testing angles and examined descriptive angle statistics, such as mean vector (a group of angle observations have a mean vector that can be calculated by combining each of the individual vectors; this has 2 properties: direction and concentration), concentration (the clumping level on 1 direction of the analyzed angle records), mean length ($r$) (the length will range from 0 to 1; larger $r$ values indicate that observations are clustered more closely around the mean than lower values), and the standard deviation (equivalent to its linear counterpart, but calculated from the length of the mean vector) (Zar 1999).

The ArcGIS extension Animal Movement Analysis Extension (AMAE) ver. 2.0 (Hooge et al. 1999) was used to conduct spatial analyses of the location records. We assessed the females’ site fidelity (a behavior that sea turtles normally exhibit; Carr 1980, Shaver et al. 2005) as a means to identify their inter-nesting and feeding stages and thus estimate home ranges for these 2 habitats (Spencer et al 1990).

Home ranges were estimated using 2 methods. The Minimum Convex Polygon (MCP) method was used because of its simplicity of use and interpretation but, more importantly, because it enabled comparisons between our results and previous studies (Hooge et al. 1999). Nonetheless, being sensitive to sample size and biased by outliers, it typically overestimates home ranges. We also calculated home ranges using a non-parametric fixed Kernel probabilistic method for 50% and 95% polygons (Yasuda & Arai 2005) with a specific smoothing factor (H) value for each tracked female estimated ad hoc, which closely approaches to the least-squares cross-validation via using AMAE (values of 1359.82, 1255.95 and 1822.79 for Jolbej, Ka’ansaj and Xinxinbaal, respectively). We used the 50% polygon for our analyses, since it is the least influenced by outliers (Yasuda & Arai 2005). The estimates were performed using location fixes in meters (Universal Transverse Mercator projection, WGS 1984 datum, for zones 15N and 16N for Campeche Bank and Isla Mujeres, respectively).

To evaluate the influence of oceanographic variables on turtle migratory behavior, we used Spearman correlations. As suggested by Tröeng et al. (2005) and Broderick et al. (2007), we eliminated data that implied turtle speeds higher than 5 km h$^{-1}$. We also employed an ArcView bearing extension to calculate sea turtle movement bearings along each female’s trajectory; these data were then used together with oceanographic data to determine correlations with turtle migratory patterns.

Finally, in order to identify potential sources of anthropogenic threats (e.g. fisheries, oil survey sites), we compiled historic spatial and temporal information on the turtles’ distribution in our study area.
RESULTS

We tracked the 3 females for periods lasting between 167 and 510 d. All headed northwards from the nesting beaches at the onset of their migration. Over the tracking period we received a total of 956 locations for Jolbej (EI1), 2938 locations for Ka’ansaj (EI2) and 1170 locations for Xinxinbaal (EI3). Because of location class filtering we were only able to use 19.5, 19.3 and 5.62%, respectively, of the total locations obtained (Table 2).

Characterization of migration routes

Jolbej and Ka’ansaj migrated northwards towards coralline banks located on the northwestern tip of the Yucatan Peninsula, where they appeared to pause for approximately 4 d. Both then skirted the Yucatan Peninsula coastline and continued towards the Caribbean Sea, never exceeding 60 km distance from the coast, and always remaining in areas shallower than 25 m depth (Fig. 1). Jolbej reached a zone near Isla Mujeres, Quintana Roo, where she settled. Ka’ansaj first paused for approximately 30 d in waters off Holbox Island before continuing onto an area near where Jolbej had settled, between Isla Mujeres and Isla Contoy, off the northeastern tip of the Yucatan. Both turtles traveled more than 500 km from their nesting beaches.

Ka’ansaj’s migration was the longest, even though both she and Jolbej shared the same feeding area, and the latter performed more erratic movements while the former followed a more focused path to her feeding ground. This is because Ka’ansaj stayed for approximately 30 d at her stopover (Fig. 2, Table 3).

We found statistical differences in the bearings for the 2 phases in the migratory tracks (during migration and once established at the feeding grounds) for both Jolbej and Ka’ansaj (Fig. 3, Table 4).

Table 2. Eretmochelys imbricata. Frequency of location class (as defined by Hays et al. 2001a) records for the 3 tracked post-nesting hawksbill females around the Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico. Abbreviations as in Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location classes</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EI1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>486</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The assessment of site fidelity showed that the location fixes during the inter-nesting periods for both females were random (Monte Carlo iterations = 1000, linearity = 0.15 and 0.84 for Jolbej and Ka’ansaj, respectively). In contrast, the location fixes once the turtles reached their feeding sites were significantly more spatially restricted than random movement patterns (Monte Carlo iterations = 1000, linearity = 0.04 and 0.11 for Jolbej and Ka’ansaj, respectively).

Inter-nesting movements were also analyzed. After transmitter deployment, Jolbej spent 17 d within 13 km of the coastline and laid her last nest of the season on the same beach (Isla del Carmen) where we initially

Table 3. Eretmochelys imbricata. Summary of migration movements for the 3 tracked post-nesting hawksbill females. Abbreviations as in Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turtle</th>
<th>Tag duration (d)</th>
<th>Duration of migration from nesting beach to foraging site (d)</th>
<th>Distance traveled from nesting beach to foraging site (km)</th>
<th>Total distance covered (km)</th>
<th>Foraging destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EI1</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>1694</td>
<td>Isla Mujeres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI2</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>1238</td>
<td>Isla Mujeres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI3</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Campeche Bank</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
encountered her (Fig. 4A). Ka′ansaj, on the other hand, spent 14 d within her inter-nesting range around Chenkan, after which she moved and nested at a different site 60 km southwest (Isla Aguada, Fig. 4B).

The home range analysis using the Kernel probabilistic method indicated that Jolbej had 50% feeding home range core area and MCP estimates double the size of those of Ka′ansaj (Fig. 5A,B, Table 5).

We estimated the inter-nesting home range for Jolbej and Ka′ansaj even though the assumption of site fidelity was not statistically fulfilled. We proceeded because of the management value of such information on the geographic scope of the species during the nesting season. We only estimated the MCP home range in order to minimize the error of such spatial estimations. Ka′ansaj used a larger inter-nesting area compared to Jolbej.

Once the turtles had arrived at their feeding grounds, it took them on average 50 ± 13 d (mean ± SD) to reach 100% of their total occupied feeding home range (Fig. 6). Ka′ansaj took the longest to reach her final feeding ground after deployment (126 d), and it took her 38 d to settle on her final feeding home range area (MCP), located just east of Isla Mujeres. Her core home range area was slightly larger than 10 km². For Jolbej, it took 55 d to reach her final core feeding home range area, an area larger than 23 km².

For Ka′ansaj’s swimming speed and heading we did not find any significant influence of SST (p > 0.05, N = 22, r = 0.029), current direction (p > 0.05, r = 0.07, N = 22) or current speed (p > 0.05, r = 0.45, N = 12). On the other hand, for Jolbej we did find a statistically significant relationship between SST and swimming speed, although the power of the correlation was low (p < 0.05; N = 160, r = 0.23). We found no significant correlations with current direction (p > 0.05, r = 0.1, N = 90) or current speed (p > 0.05, r = 0.1, N = 69) with Jolbej.

We found no spatially explicit evidence of current or recent anthropogenic impacts at the northeastern end of the Yucatan Peninsula (i.e. Mexican Caribbean) where we located Jolbej’s and Ka′ansaj’s home ranges. Xinxinbaal was the only female that, immediately after transmitter attachment, initiated her migration away from the breeding areas and remained within the limits of the Bank of Campeche. She exhibited the shortest traveled distance to her feeding ground

Table 4. *Eretmochelys imbricata.* Summary of circular statistics for the 3 tracked post-nesting hawksbill females at 2 different stages of their trip (migration per se and once at their feeding grounds). Abbreviations as in Table 1. **Results statistically significant between stages (p < 0.05)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turtle</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Mean vector</th>
<th>Length of mean (r)</th>
<th>Median vector</th>
<th>Concentration</th>
<th>Circular SD</th>
<th>Number of observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EI1 **</td>
<td>Migrating</td>
<td>36.21°</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>36.227°</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>65.904°</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>259.443°</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>246.516°</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>124.615°</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI2 **</td>
<td>Migrating</td>
<td>26.507°</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>26.008°</td>
<td>1.992</td>
<td>48.626°</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>238.404°</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>298.077°</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>142.488°</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI3</td>
<td>Migrating</td>
<td>321.632°</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>304.789°</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>84.267°</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>355.101°</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>34.654°</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>167.777°</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig. 3. *Eretmochelys imbricata.* Circular histograms for tracking data from 3 post-nesting hawksbill females during the 2 different phases, migrating and feeding. Solid line arches represent circular SD**
(116 km off the northern coast of Campeche), reaching it just 11 d after leaving the nesting beach (Fig. 2, Table 3). She showed no significant differences in her fixed bearing throughout the migration (Fig. 3, Table 4). Nonetheless, similar to the other 2 females, Xinxinbaal exhibited a slightly smaller circular SD, higher concentration and greater mean length (r) during the migrating stage compared to the feeding stage.

The site fidelity analysis for Xinxinbaal showed that the movements at her feeding site were more restricted than random movement patterns (Monte Carlo iterations = 1000, r = 0.03). Xinxinbaal exhibited the greatest feeding ground home range (50% polygon), followed by Jolbej (Fig. 5C, Table 5). It took Xinxinbaal around 60 d to establish her total feeding home range area, with a core home range area exceeding 26 km² (Fig. 6).

We found no significant relationships between SST (p > 0.05, N = 83, r = 0.21), current direction (p > 0.05, r = 0.1, N = 90) and speed (p > 0.05, N = 69) with Xinxinbaal’s swimming speed and heading.

DISCUSSION

The total length of the achieved tracking period is believed to be adequate to confidently cover the complete return trip of post-nesting females to their feeding grounds. While some researchers have expressed concern that having only a small number of useful location records is inadequate for accurate spatial and statistical analyses (Horrocks et al. 2001, Hays et al. 2001a), the collected data for this work are adequate to rebuild the migratory trip of the post-nesting females to their feeding grounds.

Migratory patterns

Previous studies that have measured migratory movements for post-nesting hawksbill turtles have reported short travel distances from nesting beaches to feeding grounds (Meylan 1999) with a notable exception in van Dam et al. (2007). For instance, Byles & Swimmer (1994) found that both of 2 post-nesting hawksbill females deployed with transmitters in Campeche remained within the limits of the Campeche Bank. In our study only 1 of the 3 females stayed in this area after nesting, while the other 2 migrated to Mexican Caribbean waters (Fig. 1).

Even though significant contrasts in migratory behavior of hawksbill females in different regions make comparisons difficult, scarcity on migratory information in the Mexican region forced us to take advantage of the best available information for the species, even though it comes from different regions.
Balazs et al. (1996) found that maximum post-nesting travel distances for 5 Hawaiian hawksbill turtles did not exceed 315 km, much less than the longest distance registered in this study (595 km). Nonetheless, both our and Balazs et al.’s (1996) trackings indicated that throughout the migratory trajectories, turtles remained a short distance from the coast. Likewise, a study by Tröeng et al. (2005) reported migration trajectories very close to the coast for 2 post-nesting hawksbill females from Tortuguero, Costa Rica—neither one of which traveled more than 450 km from nesting beach to feeding ground. Mortimer & Balazs (1999) found that 5 post-nesting hawksbill females did not travel more than 175 km from their nesting beach. The only exception to short-distance migrations (about 2000 km), van Dam et al. (2007) nonetheless found trajectories that remained close to the coastline.

In our study, the 2 females with foraging destinations in the Caribbean exhibited stopovers, a behavior that has been suggested to prove that migrating females do feed along their migratory periods (Broderick et al. 2007). Such stopovers were determined based on the restricted movements of the females in a relatively small area for more than 3 d; this behavior was considered here as a signal of the female stopping in a specific area along her migratory trip.

In what we consider an outstanding finding, both Jolbej and Ka’ansaj, tagged at 2 different nesting beaches on different nights, migrated to the same feeding site in the Mexican Caribbean. Based on bathymetric data, this area appears to be close to an underwater drop off, which constitutes a submarine habitat type previously reported as a typical hawksbill habitat (van Dam & Diez 1996a). This result suggests the need to gather more spatial and ecological information to substantiate the value for preserving this sea turtle feeding area and thus improving survival for hawksbills in Mexico.

The migratory behavior described in this paper fulfill the type A1 and A3 migratory patterns described by Godley et al. (2007), referring to hawksbill females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turtle</th>
<th>Migratory stage</th>
<th>Area (km²)</th>
<th>MCP area (km²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-nesting</td>
<td>87.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>23.93</td>
<td>138.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI2</td>
<td></td>
<td>282.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>415.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI3</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.70</td>
<td>618.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>51.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>278.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The migratory behavior described in this paper fulfill the type A1 and A3 migratory patterns described by Godley et al. (2007), referring to hawksbill females...
nesting in continental beaches and moving along the coastal shelf to discrete foraging areas (Jolbej and Ka’ansaj), and individuals staying in neritic areas in the vicinity of the nesting beach, migrating only short distances (Xinxinbaal), respectively.

The turtle navigation here reported and the significant differences between the migratory and foraging stages differs from a pattern expected as merely random movements, indicating that the studied hawksbills described a well-defined directional trend towards a fixed point (Moorcroft & Lewis 2006). Such specific movement patterns might aid in predicting the migratory stage at which a given turtle is located any given moment, that is, if it has already arrived at its feeding grounds or is still traveling.

The limited accuracy of satellite telemetry data (Hays et al. 2001a, Yasuda & Arai 2005) has been cited as an issue for avoiding its use for estimating fine-scale analyses and decision-making (Renaud & Carpenter 1994, Hays et al. 2001a). However, given the urgent need for spatial, ecological and behavioral information for hawksbill turtles in our region in light of their current critical condition (Godley et al. 2007) and the financial restrictions on acquiring GPS location transmitters, we feel it is justified to derive a first approximation using the available information so as to define and focus conservation planning strategies for critical habitats.

On the other hand, once at their feeding grounds the turtles also showed differences in their estimated MCP and 50% kernel home range areas, with Jolbej having the smallest feeding home range and Xinxinbaal the largest. Such differences in feeding home range might suggest differences in the quality of food items at the 2 areas (Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean). If so, one would expect to find higher-quality food at Caribbean habitats, with turtles there requiring a smaller foraging area to satisfy their nutritional needs, in contrast to the Gulf of Mexico (see Broderick et al. 2007).

In both cases, the estimated feeding ground range was larger than the inter-nesting range. The estimated MCP foraging home ranges in this study ranged from 88 to 618 km². In comparison, Renaud & Carpenter (1994) reported home ranges from 954 to 4279 km² for loggerhead turtles Caretta caretta in the northern portion of the Gulf of Mexico. The MCP home ranges reported here are much smaller and this may be explained by differences in the feeding requirements of different species, as well as the food-item availability at feeding grounds (van Dam & Diez 1996b, León & Bjørndal 2002).

When turtles arrived at their feeding grounds, the occupied area rapidly increased until reaching an asymptote, at which point the turtles progressively restricted their movements to small, specific areas. Such a spatio-temporal pattern, initially referred to as ‘the simplest home range mechanistic model’ or more recently as the ‘localizing tendency model’ (Moorcroft & Lewis 2006), has been described for different life stages of hawksbill turtles (van Dam & Diez 1996a,b, Mortimer & Balazs 1999, Houghton et al. 2003, Tröeng et al. 2005). Now that foraging sites have been located, future studies can be applied to characterize the foraging ecology of adult hawksbills. These are necessary to...
gain urgently needed insight into possible effects on breeding activity of changes in foraging quality due to environmental fluctuations.

Physical and anthropogenic factors affecting hawksbill migratory behavior

As expected with fully-grown animals, swimming behavior did not change as a function of current direction or current magnitude in the region, even with strong currents in the Yucatan channel facing Caribbean-bound turtles. As Hays et al. (2001b) found in green turtles, we found that SST had no effect on swimming behavior, even though we found a weak positive correlation between swimming speed and SST for 1 female (Jolbej). Furthermore, neither current magnitude nor current heading inside the Gulf of Mexico showed any significant influence on turtle swimming behavior. This confirms that adult females are not influenced by dominant oceanic currents (Zavala-Hidalgo et al. 2003), as they are large and strong enough to move in any direction, regardless of current magnitude and/or heading. This is in agreement with Luschi et al. (2003), who concluded that currents will have a significant effect on sea turtle movement only when they cross open-sea stretches heading towards a specific target. The latter was not the case in this study, as the 3 tracked females remained relatively close to shoreline, always within the limits of the continental shelf of the Yucatan Peninsula.

Xinixinbaal’s foraging site was the only one from this study for which information on fishing activities is available. The trawling fleet that exploited this area ceased operating in 2005 and as a result, this area is no longer exploited with such harmful fishing gear (Páramo-Romero 2006). There are currently no detailed reports on the spatial distribution of fishing efforts by minor fleets in the region and the discovery of a feeding site here highlights an urgent need for information on small-scale fishing activities in the Yucatan Peninsula’s continental shelf, especially as it has been shown that the fishing practices with some of the gear used by some of these minor fleets can affect sea turtles (Hays et al. 2003).

The impact of seismic surveys from oil explorations on sea turtles has not been well-studied. The few studies available have demonstrated the enactment of a general alarm response and a subsequent avoidance by sea turtles in response to air-gun shots, and in some cases temporal or permanent hearing loss (Moein et al. 1995, McCauley et al. 2000, U.S. Minerals Management Service 2004, Moreira de Gurjao et al. 2005).

Based on these studies, it is clear that the use of air guns represents an important anthropogenic factor potentially affecting sea turtles in the region and its impacts on hawksbill individuals and populations remains to be tested. This is especially true given that the sites where such explorations have been conducted spatially coincide with feeding grounds or migratory trajectories reported for adult hawksbills (i.e. results from this study McCauley et al. 2000).

To summarize, the present study is one of the few that has tracked hawksbill turtles in the Yucatan Peninsula, and has shown that post-nesting females (1) exhibit directional and well-defined migration trajectories towards specific feeding grounds that remain located within Mexican territorial waters, and (2) remain close to the coastline. The tracked females showed non-random movements during their migration period and exhibited a limited home range feeding area. Oceanographic features such as SST and superficial geostrophic currents had no evident influence swimming patterns and thus, the migratory behavior of the targeted hawksbills. Finally, as patterns of hawksbill migratory behavior found overlap with some human activities, such as fisheries and seismic surveys, further studies are needed to evaluate the true impact these activities have on hawksbill individuals and populations in the region.

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LITERATURE CITED


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