|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| logo_color_large | Avian Risk Assessment for South Farallon Islands, California |
| RISK ASSESSMENT FOR WESTERN GULL EXPOSURE TO THE RODENTICIDES BRODIFACOUM OR DIPHACINONE ON THE SOUTH FARALLON ISLANDS |
|  | 10 December 2012 |

**Avian Risk Assessment for South Farallon Islands, California:**

**RISK ASSESSMENT FOR WESTERN GULL EXPOSURE TO THE RODENTICIDES BRODIFACOUM OR DIPHACINONE ON THE SOUTH FARALLON ISLANDS**

*Prepared for*:

Island Conservation

**100 Shaffer Rd**

**LML, UCSC**

**Santa Cruz, CA 95060**

*Prepared by:*

*Dr. Dwayne R.J. Moore, Intrinsik Environmental Sciences (US)*

*Dr. Kerrie J. Beckett, Stantec Consulting Services*

*Stantec Project Number: 19560659*

*Intrinsik Project Number: ME60285*

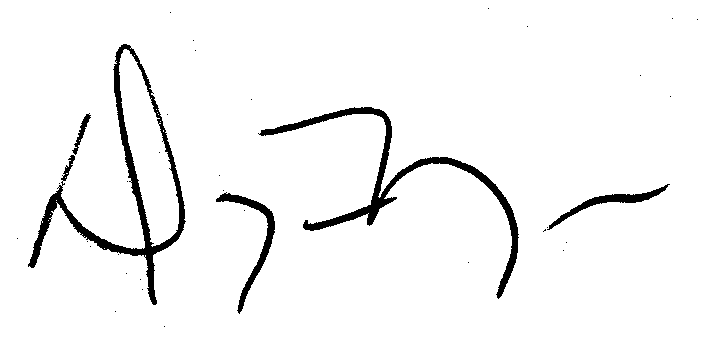
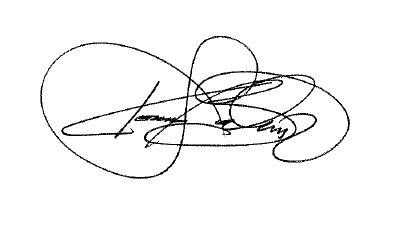
logo_color_large 

Stantec Consulting Services Intrinsik Environmental Sciences (US)

30 Park Drive 41 Campus Drive, Suite 202

Topsham, ME 04274 New Gloucester, ME 04260

*This report was prepared and submitted by:*



\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

Dwayne R.J. Moore, Ph.D. Kerrie J. Beckett, Ph.D.

Intrinsik Environmental Sciences (US), Inc. Stantec Consulting Services, Inc.

Senior Vice President, Senior Scientist Senior Scientist, Ecotoxicologist

Project #19560659

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The application of bait pellets containing either brodifacoum or diphacinone is being considered along with a range of other techniques to eradicate non-native house mice (*Mus musculus*) from South Farallon Islands (SFI), California. Of concern is the risk that these rodenticide products could have to western gulls (*Larus occidentalis*) that occur on the islands. Because western gulls are gregarious omnivores, they could be at risk of exposure by ingestion of baits or exposed mice should the gulls be present on the island when the bait is present. Given this concern, we undertook a probabilistic assessment of the risks posed by the application of bait containing either brodifacoum or diphacinone to western gulls on SFI.

There are three primary techniques for the application of rodent bait on islands for eradication of rodents, bait stations, hand broadcast and aerial broadcast application of bait pellets. The latter is the approach proposed for the South Farallon Islands.

Given the diet and behavior of western gulls and the fate of brodifacoum and diphacinone following bait application, there are two major routes of exposure to gulls: ingestion of rodenticide pellets (primary uptake), and ingestion of rodenticide-contaminated mice (secondary uptake). We used a probabilistic model known as the western gull risk model to estimate the effects of applications of brodifacoum and diphacinone to western gulls at SFI. The exposure portion of the western gull risk model includes both the primary and secondary routes of dietary exposure. The model estimates daily intake of rodenticide from ingestion of pellets and mice for each of 90 days following initial application. The whole body tissue concentration in gulls on any given day is the total daily intake for that day plus the tissue concentration remaining from the previous day. The model runs for a total of 90 days to account for the possibility of two or three applications depending on the toxicant with an interval of up to several weeks apart. The second and third applications could result in pellets being in the environment for a substantial period of time given that there will be few mice available to consume them. However, by 90 days, a combination of weathering and consumption by gulls should have removed all or very nearly all rodenticide pellets from the environment. The exposure metric chosen by the model for comparison to the effects metric is the maximum tissue concentration in gulls during the 90-day simulation.

The western gull risk model determined the fate (i.e., alive or dead) of 11,000 gulls, which is the peak number of gulls expected on the South FI during the November to March timeframe. Each simulation of the model determines the fate of a western gull. At the outset of a simulation, the characteristics of the gull are randomly chosen (i.e., sex, body weight, life stage). At the same time, the model determines whether the gull will be present on SFI to forage on pellets and/or mice. As a mitigation measure, gull hazing would be implemented as part of the rat eradication to reduce the number of gulls on SFI immediately following bait application. Thus, the probability of a gull being present is equal to the user selected value for expected hazing success. Gulls that are not responsive to repeated hazing will be present each day to forage on SFI.

Most gulls will not be present on SFI if initial application occurs in early to mid-November. Thus, for each gull, a starting date for its appearance on the island is determined by the model. Once a gull appears on SFI, it remains in the area until at least mid-February though only unhazed gulls are assumed to forage on the island.

Availability of rodenticide pellets at any given time step is a function of initial availability (i.e., initial application rate) and the rate at which pellets disappear from the environment (e.g., due to consumption by mice, weathering). Subsequent rodenticide applications increase availability of pellets. The probabilities of an unhazed gull consuming pellets and mice over time were calculated using observational data from SFI in 2010. If by random chance pellets and/or mice are consumed at a time step, then the numbers of pellets and/or mice consumed are determined by the model based on the energetic requirements of western gulls and availability of pellets and mice on the island. Primary exposure for each time step is a function of the number of pellets consumed multiplied by rodenticide concentration in each pellet. A similar approach is used for secondary exposure.

The availabilities of pellets and mice change over time in the western gull risk model. Subsequent time steps account for the relative availabilities of pellets and mice by assuming that consumption rates are linearly related to availabilities (i.e., gulls do not increase or decrease their search efforts in response to declining availabilities of pellets and mice). In the case of pellets, availability declines rapidly after the initial rodenticide application because of consumption by mice, gulls and weathering if a significant rainfall event occurs shortly after application. For subsequent applications, however, pellet availability remains constant until a significant rainfall event occurs which causes the pellets to break down over the next couple of days. In the case of mice, availability declines rapidly from the time they experience symptoms to their death several days to less than two weeks later. After that, mice are not part of the gull diet and thus there is no further secondary exposure.

Gulls learn over time and thus the model assumes conditional probabilities for primary and secondary exposure. That is, if a gull consumes pellets by random chance in the preceding time step, then there is an increased probability of consuming pellets in the subsequent time step. Conversely, if a gull does not consume pellets in the preceding time step, then there is a reduced probability of consuming pellets in the subsequent time step. The same logic is used for gulls consuming mice.

At each daily time step in the model, a tissue concentration is calculated for the gull of interest. The model then searches for the maximum tissue concentration that occurred during the simulation. The maximum tissue concentration is the exposure metric for the gull of interest.

The maximum tissue concentration in each western gull is compared with a randomly chosen gavage dose (in units of mg active ingredient/kg body weight to match the units of the exposure metric) from the dose-response curve for a gull or surrogate species. If the exposure dose for the gull exceeds the randomly chosen effects dose, the bird is considered dead. Otherwise, the bird is assumed to have survived the rodenticide applications. The model then proceeds to simulate the next gull. The process repeats for the number of model simulations selected by the user. The net result over many simulations is that the entire dose-response curve is sampled thus capturing the expected range of sensitivities in the gull population at SFI. Thus, the analysis is not biased conservative, as would be the case with selecting a no observed effect level or low percentile on the dose-response curve (e.g., LD5), nor are potential effects to sensitive birds missed, as would be the case with relying on the LD50.

Model runs were conducted to determine how different application options (e.g., different application dates, differing rates of hazing success, etc.) for brodifacoum and diphacinone affected predictions regarding mortality of western gulls. An analysis conducted by Nur et al. (2012) for western gulls on SFI indicated that a one-time mortality event of 1700 individual gulls would not result in a detectably significant change in the population trend of the western gull on the Farallones over a 20-year period. We compared our model predictions to this benchmark.

It was clear from the modeling analyses that brodifacoum poses a higher risk to non-target western gulls than does diphacinone. The modeling analyses further indicated that an early application date, high hazing success, and an early rainfall event after the last application significantly reduce predicted gull mortality. Assuming an early initial application date (November 1) and hazing success of 90% or higher, neither rodenticide is likely to cause a population level impact as defined by a gull population viability analysis (PVA). The modeling analyses also demonstrated that the primary route of exposure was, by far, the most important route of exposure for western gulls for both rodenticides. Consequently, to minimize gull mortality, it is recommended that an effective gull hazing program, an early start date, and other measures to reduce gull exposure to bait are investigated.

Table of Contents

[1.0 Introduction 9](#_Toc343007907)

[1.1 Description of the FARALLON ISLANDS 9](#_Toc343007908)

[1.2 The Western Gull (*Larus occidentalis*) 9](#_Toc343007909)

[1.3 Project Background 10](#_Toc343007910)

[2.0 PROBLEM FORMULATION 12](#_Toc343007911)

[2.1 Brodifacoum 12](#_Toc343007912)

[2.2 DIPHACINONE 13](#_Toc343007913)

[2.3 Focal Species 14](#_Toc343007914)

[2.4 Exposure Routes 14](#_Toc343007915)

[2.5 Protection Goal and Assessment Endpoint 14](#_Toc343007916)

[2.6 Measurement Endpoints and Analysis Plan 15](#_Toc343007917)

[3.0 EXPOSURE MODEL 16](#_Toc343007918)

[3.1 Overview of Exposure Model 16](#_Toc343007919)

[3.2 Detailed Description of Exposure Model INPUTs and COMPONENTS 23](#_Toc343007920)

[3.2.1 Application of Rodenticide 23](#_Toc343007921)

[3.2.2 Date of Initial Application 23](#_Toc343007922)

[3.2.3 Removal of Pellets 23](#_Toc343007923)

[3.2.4 Number, Sex and Life Stage of Western Gulls on SFI 25](#_Toc343007924)

[3.2.5 Size of Western Gulls 27](#_Toc343007925)

[3.2.6 Hazing Success 27](#_Toc343007926)

[3.2.7 Primary Exposure Route Variables 27](#_Toc343007927)

[3.2.8 Secondary Exposure Route Variables 29](#_Toc343007928)

[4.0 Effects Characterization 34](#_Toc343007929)

[4.1 Effects metrics for brodifacoum 34](#_Toc343007930)

[4.2 effects metrics for diphacinone 36](#_Toc343007931)

[4.3 oral Gavage versus Dietary Exposure studies 37](#_Toc343007933)

[5.0 risk Characterization 39](#_Toc343007934)

[5.1 Model Stability 39](#_Toc343007935)

[5.2 Model Results for Brodifacoum 41](#_Toc343007936)

[5.2.1 Initial Application Date 41](#_Toc343007937)

[5.2.2 Proportion of Gulls Removed From SFI by Hazing 43](#_Toc343007938)

[5.2.3 Time to Significant Rainfall Event 45](#_Toc343007939)

[5.2.4 Number of Applications 46](#_Toc343007940)

[5.2.5 Removal of Dead Mice 48](#_Toc343007941)

[5.3 Model Results for Diphacinone 49](#_Toc343007942)

[5.3.1 Initial Application Date 49](#_Toc343007943)

[5.3.2 Proportion of Gulls Removed From SFI by Hazing 51](#_Toc343007944)

[5.3.3 Time to Significant Rainfall Event 53](#_Toc343007945)

[5.3.4 Number of Applications 54](#_Toc343007946)

[5.3.5 Removal of Dead Mice 56](#_Toc343007947)

[5.4 Sensitivity Analysis 57](#_Toc343007948)

[5.4.1 Brodifacoum 59](#_Toc343007949)

[5.4.2 Diphacinone 63](#_Toc343007950)

[5.4.3 Data Gaps 66](#_Toc343007951)

[5.5 Comparison of Effects of Brodifacoum and Diphacinone on Western Gull Mortality 67](#_Toc343007952)

[6.0 CONCLUSIONS 70](#_Toc343007953)

[7.0 REFERENCES 71](#_Toc343007954)

[APPENDIX A – MODELING RESULTS FOR WESTERN GULLS EXPOSED TO BRODIFACOUM ON THE FARALLON ISLANDS 78](#_Toc343007955)

[APPENDIX B – MODELING RESULTS FOR WESTERN GULLS EXPOSED TO DIPHACINONE ON THE FARALLON ISLANDS 83](#_Toc343007956)

[APPENDIX C – SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR BRODIFACOUM MODEL 88](#_Toc343007957)

[APPENDIX D – SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR Diphacinone MODEL 90](#_Toc343007958)

# Introduction

The natural balance and ecology of the South Farallon Islands has been altered due to human presence and the introduction of pest species. Disruption of native biological resources, such as predation of seabirds, has occurred as a result of infestation by non-native house mice (*Mus musculus*). Along with other methods, application of one of two rodenticides, brodifacoum or diphacinone, is being considered to eradicate mice from the South Farallon Islands.

The goals of this assessment were to determine the relative risks of brodifacoum and diphacinone to western gulls (*Larus occidentalis*) and, for each rodenticide, to assist in determining what mitigation measures would be the most effective at reducing risk. Western gulls were the focal species of this risk assessment because it is one of the only resident seabird species of the Farallones that could be present during the proposed mouse eradication period that is not strictly piscivorous. As an omnivore, some western gulls could be at risk of exposure by ingestion of pellets or mice if any gulls are on the island when rodenticide bait is present. The remainder of this chapter provides background information on the South Farallon Islands, the bird species found there, and on the proposed mouse eradication project.

## Description of the FARALLON ISLANDS

The Farallon Islands is a group of islands located 28 miles west of San Francisco in the Pacific Ocean. As a declared National Wildlife Refuge, the Farallon Islands are under the jurisdiction of the United States Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS). The surrounding waters are a National Marine Sanctuary and are under the jurisdiction of the National Oceanographic Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). The Farallon Islands, as a group, are also called the "Farallones" which means "rocks out of the sea".

Southeast Farallon Island (SFI) is the largest island in the Farallones group, having an area of 0.31 km² or 310,406 m². The island is pyramidal in shape and is approximately 109 meters above sea level at its peak. SFI is the only inhabited island of the group. The public is no longer allowed access to the islands.

## The Western Gull (*Larus occidentalis*)

The western gull (*Larus occidentalis*) is a white-headed, medium-sized gull. Like most gulls, the western gull is sexually dimorphic in body size. Adult males measure 60-66 cm in total length, with body mass ranging from 1050-1250 g. Adult females are about 20 percent smaller with a total length of 56-62 cm, and mass of 800-980 g (Pierotti 1981; Pierotti and Annett, 1995). Like most gulls, the western gull is an opportunistic feeder that often forages on live prey (e.g., marine invertebrates, fish, eggs and chicks of other seabird species), scavenges carrion and refuse, and steals food from others.

The western gull is a familiar and well-known species on the Pacific Coast. However, the range and distribution of the species is limited (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). The total worldwide population of western gulls is about 40,000 pairs with 30 percent or more nesting on SFI (Sowls et al., 1980; Penniman et al., 1990). PRBO Conservation Science has been monitoring western gulls and other seabirds and wildlife on the South Farallon Islands daily for over 45 years and this set of data and knowledge, along with that of the USFWS Refuge biologists, has helped inform many of the parameter estimates of this model.

## Project Background

Female mice reach sexual maturity at about 6 weeks and males at about 8 weeks, but both can breed as early as 5 weeks. The reproductive potential of mice is staggering. They have a short gestation period of about 19-21 days. Females can produce 5-10 litters per year ranging in size from 3-12 pups per litter. Thus, a single female can produce between 15 and 168 pups in a single year (Musser and Carleton, 2005). Mice are relatively short-lived with a lifespan of usually less than 1 year in the wild. This short lifespan is often the result of predation and/or harsh environmental conditions.

Rodenticide application is being considered as a potential technique(s) for mouse eradication on SFI. Two registered rodenticides are being proposed for the eradication of mice from the Farallones: brodifacoum and diphacinone. There are three primary techniques of application, bait stations, hand broadcast and aerial broadcast application of bait pellets. The latter is the approach proposed for SFI. Aerial broadcast application would be conducted by helicopter, which is currently the most frequently used bait delivery technique for rodent eradications on large islands (Howald et al., 2007; Parkes et al., 2011). For additional background information on the use of rodenticides to eliminate rodents on islands, see Howald et al. (2007), Witmer et al. (2007), Mackay et al. (2007), Keitt et al. (2011), and Parkes et al. (2011).

As one of the proposed methods of eradication includes the use of a vertebrate toxin additional assessment is required to determine the degree to which non-target biota could be affected by exposure to brodifacoum or diphacinone.

The risks posed by exposure to brodifacoum are expected to be limited for nearly all non-target species (FWS, 2012). Because marine birds and pinnipeds typically feed exclusively on marine organisms and do not feed while on land, exposure to rodenticides in pellets is unlikely. The likelihood of secondary exposure through consumption of contaminated prey is also expected to be negligible.

Western gulls would likely be at risk from exposure to rodenticide due to their omnivorous and aggressive foraging habits. Risks to gulls from exposure to diphacinone are expected to be lower than for brodifacoum because the former is less toxic to birds (Erickson and Urban, 2004). The purpose of this assessment is to assist in estimating the likelihood and magnitude of western gull mortalities arising from aerial application of either brodifacoum or diphacinone pellets on SFI. This report is organized to follow the standard paradigm for ecological risk assessment: problem formulation, exposure assessment, effects assessment, and risk characterization.

# PROBLEM FORMULATION

For this report, the timing of the aerial broadcast of rodenticide was forecast to occur in the late fall or early winter (i.e., November or December). This time of year is when the lowest numbers of non-target species are present on the island. Timing the operation for this period would provide the least risk to the island’s native biota. The months of November and December occur after the summer breeding season for seabirds, sea lions, and fur seals and before female northern elephant seals have started giving birth in the early winter (PRBO unpublished data).

There are two general groups of anticoagulants used as rodenticides: the hydroxycoumarins (e.g., warfarin) and the indandiones (e.g., pindone, valone, diphacinone, and chlorophacinone). The second generation anticoagulants (e.g., bromadiolone, brodifacoum, and difethialone) are closely akin to the hydroxycoumarin group (ICWDM, 2005). Second generation anticoagulant rodenticides (SGARs) are much more potent than are first generation anticoagulants, making them effective for rodent eradications (ICWDM, 2005). When formulated at their current concentrations, they have the ability to kill a high percentage of individuals after a single feed. The effects of these compounds are also cumulative and often result in death after several feedings of even small amounts. These properties make SGARs effective primary rodenticides and they have become extremely important for rodent control worldwide (e.g., in New Zealand: Taylor and Thomas, 1989, 1993, Imber et al., 2000; in Canada: Howald, 1997; in the United States: Ebbert et al., 2007, Howald et al., 2009; in Antigua: Daltry, 2006; in Mexico: Samaniego-Herrera et al., 2009). Of the rodenticides, brodifacoum has been the most extensively used for rodent eradication from islands (Howald et al., 2007). Indeed, Parkes et al. (2011) reported that brodifacoum was used in 396 of 546 rodent eradication efforts that were attempted worldwide from 1971 to 2011. Diphacinone was used in 50 of those eradication efforts.

In this chapter, the environmental fate and toxicity of the two rodenticides under consideration, brodifacoum and diphacinone, are briefly reviewed. We then review the foraging behavior and diet of the focal species for this assessment, the western gull, to determine potential routes of exposure. The remainder of the problem formulation describes the assessment and measurement endpoints and analysis plan for the assessment.

## Brodifacoum

Brodifacoum elicits acute toxicity by inhibiting the synthesis of vitamin K, which leads to increased coagulation times, followed by lethal internal hemorrhage (Erickson and Urban, 2004). A lethal dose is generally achieved after a single feeding, but mortality is usually delayed for 5 or more days (Erickson and Urban, 2004). Given that, vitamin K also plays a role in bone metabolism (Weber, 2001). Studies have been conducted to assess the hypothesis that exposure of non-target species to sub-lethal concentrations of SGARs may exhibit decreased bone density and bone strength. Such effects place non-target species at risk of bone fractures (Mineau et al., 2005; Knopper et al., 2007) in addition to hemorrhaging.

The high acute toxicity of SGARs and persistence in tissues create the potential for secondary exposure in predatory birds and mammals that feed upon exposed rodents. Erickson and Urban (2004) stated that brodifacoum poses a greater risk to birds and non-target mammals than diphacinone. Mortality incidents have been documented for many non-target predators exposed to brodifacoum (Stone et al., 1999; Howald et al., 1999; Eason et al., 2002; Erickson and Urban, 2004).

Following application, brodifacoum pellets are either consumed or break down as a result of rainfall, humidity, mechanical grinding and other factors. Once in soil, brodifacoum degrades at rates that vary with soil type (EPA, 1998a). The mechanisms and pathways of brodifacoum degradation in soil are not well described but appear related to moisture, temperature and soil type (Fisher, 2010). The half-life of brodifacoum in soil ranges from 12-25 weeks (EPA, 1998a). In leaching studies, only 2% of brodifacoum added to the soil leached more than 2 cm from its source in the four soil types tested (World Health Organization, 1995; soil type was not defined).

Brodifacoum is highly insoluble in water (Ogilvie et al., 1997). In field studies, freshwater samples were collected and brodifacoum concentrations determined after aerial applications of cereal pellet bait containing 20 mg ai/kg bait. The field studies were conducted at Red Mercury Island (Morgan and Wright, 1996), Lady Alice Island (Ogilvie et al., 1997), Maungatautari, Little Barrier Island and Rangitoto/Motutapu Islands (Fisher et al., in press). No detectable concentrations of brodifacoum in water were found in any of the studies.

## DIPHACINONE

Diphacinone was first registered for use in the United States in 1960 (EPA, 1998a). It is a first generation indandione anticoagulant, a group that includes other pesticides such as pindone, calone, and chlorophacinone. As a first generation rodenticide, diphacinone is less acutely toxic to birds than are second generation rodenticides such as brodifacoum (EPA, 1998a; Erickson and Urban, 2004; Rattner et al., 2010). Control of rodent populations requires multiple feedings (Ashton et al., 1987). As a result, there is a higher risk of eradication efforts failing with diphacinone than is the case with brodifacoum (Parkes et al., 2011).

Diphacinone is quickly absorbed through the gut of animals, inhibits vitamin K, and uncouples oxidative phosphorylation (EPA, 2011). Studies with birds and mammals have documented increased blood coagulation time, external bleeding, and mortality following consumption of as few as one diphacinone-exposed prey item per day for 3 days (Erickson and Urban, 2004).

Diphacinone pellets or bait blocks can be broken down by rainfall, humidity, weather, mechanical grinding, and other factors. Diphacinone has a low solubility in water of 0.3 mg/L (EPA, 1998a). It has a low potential for volatilization, with a Henry’s Law constant of 2 x 10-10 atm-m3/mol. The potential for leaching is low, but diphacinone is expected to be moderately mobile in soil (EPA, 2011). The half-life of diphacinone in soil is 30 days (EPA, 2011).

## Focal Species

The western gull is found predominantly on coastal islands, including major offshore islands, rocky islets, abandoned piers, channel markers, and dikes in commercial salt flats (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). On SFI, gull nests tend to be found in the greatest density on the rocky marine terraces (Pierotti, 1976, 1981). Roosting western gulls can be found on SFI nearly year round, as well as in adjacent offshore waters, but the greatest concentrations occur during the spring breeding season (which begins in April) with fewest gulls present in late summer/fall. They are monogamous seabirds with bi-parental care, site and mate fidelity, and a maximum lifespan of 25 years (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). Highest breeding success of western gull pairs is achieved in either rocky or vegetated areas with adequate cover from both weather and predation for semi-precocial young (Pierotti, 1976, 1981). Studies have shown that reproductive success is sensitive to changes in pelagic fish abundance

Like most gulls, the western gull is an opportunistic scavenger on fish, carrion, and human refuse, and a generalist predator, capturing its own live prey, as well as stealing food from seals and other gulls (Hunt and Butler, 1980; Pierotti, 1976; Annett and Pierotti, 1989; Ainley et al., 1990). They capture food near the water’s surface and on shore.

## Exposure Routes

Given the diet and behavior of western gulls and the fates of brodifacoum and diphacinone following application, there are two major routes of exposure: ingestion of rodenticide pellets (primary poisoning), and ingestion of rodenticide-contaminated mice (secondary poisoning) (Eason et al., 2002; Erickson and Urban, 2004; Bowie and Ross, 2006). The low solubility of brodifacoum and diphacinone in water precludes significant exposure via drinking water. Dermal exposure will be minimal for western gulls given the non-liquid nature of the pellet formulation, and infrequency of contact (except for ingestion). The nature of the formulation (i.e., pellets) and low vapor pressures for both compounds preclude inhalation exposure.

## Protection Goal and Assessment Endpoint

Protection goals are defined by scientific knowledge and societal values, describe the overall aim of a risk-based decision making and are used as the basis for defining assessment endpoints. The protection goal for the SFI mouse eradication project is the long-term maintenance of non-target wildlife species.

Assessment endpoints are ecological characteristics that are deemed important to evaluate and protect. They guide the assessment by providing a basis for assessing potential risks to receptors. Factors considered in selecting assessment endpoints include mode of action, potential exposure pathways, and sensitivity of ecological receptors. Assessment endpoints can be general (e.g., maintenance of bird populations) or specific (e.g., survival of western gulls) but must be relevant to the ecosystem they represent and susceptible to the stressors of concern (Suter et al., 1993). The assessment endpoint for this analysis is the survival of juvenile and adult western gulls following application of rodenticide pelletized bait on SFI.

## Measurement Endpoints and Analysis Plan

Measurement endpoints are the attributes used to quantify potential risks to an assessment endpoint (Suter et al., 1993). The challenge for risk assessors is to select measurement endpoints that will provide sufficient information to evaluate potential risks to the assessment endpoint. EPA (1998b) groups measurement endpoints into three categories. Measures of effect are measurable changes in an attribute of the assessment endpoint, or a surrogate, in response to the stressor (e.g., results of oral gavage studies on birds). Measures of exposure (e.g., daily dose, tissue residues) account for the presence and movement of the stressor in the environment and co-occurrence with the assessment endpoint. Measures of ecosystem and receptor characteristics consider the influence that the environment (e.g., rainfall events), and organism behavior and life history (e.g., diet, timing of nesting) will have on exposure and response to the stressor (EPA, 1998b).

A probabilistic model known as the western gull risk model was used to generate estimates of total intake of rodenticide by western gulls following the applications on SFI. The model included exposure from consumption of pellets and consumption of mice that have consumed pellets. The corresponding measures of effect are dose-response curves for bird species that have been tested for sensitivity to brodifacoum and diphacinone in laboratory exposure tests. The model is described in detail in chapters 3 and 4 of this report.

# EXPOSURE MODEL

We used a probabilistic model known as the western gull risk model to estimate the effects of applications of brodifacoum and diphacinone to western gulls at SFI. The following sections provide an overview of the model, followed by a detailed description of the model inputs and components.

## Overview of Exposure Model

The exposure portion of the western gull risk model includes both the primary and secondary routes of dietary exposure (Figure 3-1). Once ingested, brodifacoum and diphacinone accumulate and are persistent in tissues of birds, particularly the liver (Erickson and Urban, 2004; Fisher, 2009). The western gull risk model estimates daily intake of rodenticide from ingestion of pellets and mice for each of 90 days following initial application. The whole body tissue concentration on any given day is the total daily intake for that day plus the tissue concentration remaining from the previous day,



where *Cgull* is the whole body tissue concentration in mg/kg body weight (bw), *TDI* is total daily intake of rodenticide (mg/kg bw/day), and *RME* is the daily rate of metabolism and elimination (d-1). The model runs for a total of 90 days to account for the possibility of two or three applications with an interval of up to several weeks apart. The second and third applications could result in pellets being in the environment for a substantial period of time given that there will be few mice available to consume them. However, by 90 days, the combination of weathering and consumption by gulls should have removed all or very nearly all rodenticide pellets from the environment (Howald et al., 2001). The exposure metric chosen by the model for comparison to the effects metric is the maximum *Cgull, day i*estimated during the 90-day simulation. In practice, concentrations in gull tissues stop increasing a few days after the first significant rain event following the last application of rodenticide.

**Figure 3-1. Components of western gull risk model for SFI.**

The number of western gulls simulated by the model is selected by the user. In the assessment described herein, the number of western gulls included in each simulation was 11,000 gulls which is the peak number of gulls expected on SFI during the November to March timeframe. See section 3.2.4 for details on how this number was determined. The results are used to determine percent mortality. To determine expected number of dead gulls from applications of rodenticide, percent mortality is multiplied by the maximum number of gulls on SFI in the November to March timeframe, assuming an initial application in the month of November or December).

Each simulation of the model determines the fate of a western gull (Figure 3-1). At the outset of a simulation, the characteristics of the gull are randomly chosen (i.e., sex, body weight, life stage). At the same time, the model determines whether the gull will be present on SFI to forage on pellets and/or mice, based on the expected number of gulls each day over time. As a mitigation measure, gull hazing would be implemented as part of the mouse eradication to reduce the number of gulls on SFI immediately following bait application. Thus, the probability of a gull being present was determined based on the selected value for expected hazing success. The probability of hazing success is entered in a binomial distribution with a sample size of one to determine if the gull will be present to forage by random chance. The model assumes that hazing will occur each day and that gulls responsive to hazing will be absent throughout the 90-day exposure duration. Gulls not responsive to hazing will be present each day to forage on SFI.

Few gulls would be present on SFI if the initial application occurs in early to mid-November, based on PRBO data. Thus, for each gull, a starting date for its appearance on the island must be determined. This is done by randomly selecting from a binomial distribution for each week that has been parameterized with a probability equal to the fraction of the maximum number of gulls present during that time step. Once a gull appears on SFI by random chance, it remains in the area until at least mid-February, though the model assumes that hazed gulls will not forage on the island. The probability of the gull leaving after mid-February is a function of the overall population remaining relative to the maximum number of gulls present on SFI in the fall and winter.

At time zero (day of initial application), pellet availability in the environment is a function of the initial application rate. If a lag time is specified before unhazed gulls begin consuming pellets (data collected at SFI indicate that pellet consumption by gulls is a behavior learned over time), then no consumption takes place on day zero. Similarly, mice are not consumed on day zero because they are not normally part of the western gull diet and are only likely to be consumed once they become easy to capture because of rodenticide intoxication. For brodifacoum and diphacinone, there is a lag time of several days before mice exhibit signs of intoxication (Erickson and Urban, 2004; Fisher et al., 2009). Consumption of pellets and mice can begin at the time steps at which the lag times for the primary and secondary routes of exposure expire assuming that the gull has appeared on SFI (otherwise, there can be no consumption). The number of pellets consumed by an unhazed western gull at the initial time step following expiration of the lag time is a function of availability of pellets and probability of the gull consuming pellets. Availability of pellets at any given time step is a function of initial availability (i.e., initial application rate) and the rate at which pellets disappear from the environment (e.g., due to consumption by mice, weathering). Subsequent rodenticide applications increase availability of pellets according to the application rate plus pellets remaining from previous applications. The probability of an unhazed gull consuming pellets is a function of observational data from SFI in 2010 in which the proportion of gulls consuming non-toxic pellets was determined (Grout 2012). The observed proportion of unhazed gulls consuming pellets is entered in a binomial distribution with a sample size of one to determine by random chance whether that particular gull consumes pellets on the day at which the lag time for consuming pellets expires. An analogous methodology is used to determine whether the unhazed gull will consume mice following expiration of the lag time for consuming mice. If by random chance pellets and/or mice are consumed at a time step, then the numbers of pellets and/or mice consumed must be determined for the gull of interest. Observational data indicate that once an unhazed gull learns to consume pellets, it may consume many pellets. To determine number of pellets consumed at a given time step, a value is randomly chosen from a Poisson distribution that has been parameterized to ensure that the maximum number of pellets consumed does not exceed the daily energetics requirements of a western gull. Primary exposure for that time step is then a function of the number of pellets randomly selected multiplied by rodenticide concentration in each pellet. A similar approach is used for secondary exposure except that the number of mice consumed cannot exceed the daily energetic requirements of a western gull given the number of pellets already consumed (i.e., model assumes that pellets are a preferred dietary choice over mice). Secondary exposure for that time step is then a function of the number of mice randomly selected multiplied by rodenticide concentration in each mouse. The latter is a randomly chosen value from a lognormal distribution parameterized with measured data from field studies conducted elsewhere. Primary and secondary exposures are summed for each time step to determine total daily intake. As noted above, the tissue concentration in the unhazed gull on any given day is the total daily intake for that day plus the tissue concentration remaining from the previous day.

The availabilities of pellets and mice change over time in the western gull risk model. Subsequent time steps account for the relative availabilities of pellets and mice by assuming that consumption rates are linearly related to availabilities. In the case of pellets, availability declines rapidly after the initial rodenticide application because of consumption by mice, gulls and weathering if a significant rainfall event occurs shortly after application. For subsequent applications, however, pellet availability remains constant until a significant rainfall event occurs, which causes the pellets to break down over the next couple of days. In the case of mice, availability declines rapidly from the time they experience symptoms to their death several days to less than two weeks later. After that, mice are not part of the gull diet and thus there is no further secondary exposure.

Once the lag times have expired for consumption of pellets and/or mice, the model assumes conditional probabilities for primary and secondary exposure. That is, if a gull consumes pellets by random chance in the preceding time step, then there is an increased probability of consuming pellets in the subsequent time step and vice versa. The same is true for mice. As before, a binomial distribution with a sample size of one is used to determine whether a dietary item is consumed in subsequent time steps. However, the probability entered into the binomial distribution is updated to reflect the conditional probability coefficient. If a dietary item is consumed in a time step, the number of dietary items consumed is randomly selected from a Poisson distribution as before. However, the randomly chosen value from the Poisson distribution is multiplied by relative availability to account for changing availability over time for each dietary item.

At each daily time step in the model, a tissue concentration is calculated for the gull of interest. The model then searches for the maximum tissue concentration that occurred during the simulation. The maximum tissue concentration is the exposure metric for the gull of interest.

The maximum tissue concentration in each western gull is compared with a randomly chosen gavage dose (in units of mg ai/kg bw to match the units of the exposure metric) from the dose-response curve for a gull or surrogate species. If the exposure dose for the gull exceeds the randomly chosen effects dose, the bird is considered dead. Otherwise, the bird is assumed to have survived the rodenticide applications. The model then proceeds to simulate the next gull. The process repeats for the number of model simulations selected by the user.

The input values and distributions for the brodifacoum and diphacinone models are summarized in Table 3-1 and discussed in detail in the subsequent section.

| **Table 3-1. Input values used in western gull risk models for brodifacoum and diphacinone.** | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | **Value** | **Units** | **Source** | **Notes** |
| Application date | User choice of Nov 1, Nov 8, Nov 15, Nov 22, Nov 29, Dec 6, Dec 13 or Dec 20 | | | |
| 1st application rate (brodifacoum) | 18 | kg bait/ha | EPA, 2008 | Maximum recommended application rates on label. |
| 2nd application rate (brodifacoum) | 9 |
| Number of applications (brodifacoum) | 2 |  | EPA, 2008 | Label recommends 2 applications to ensure efficacy. |
| Applications interval (brodifacoum) | 12 | days | R. Griffiths, pers. comm. | Based on preliminary assessments and previous eradications, interval would likely be 10-14 days. |
| Brodifacoum concentration | 25 | mg ai/kg pellet | EPA, 2008 | Label states 0.0025% active ingredient in pellet formulation. |
| Application rate (diphacinone)1 | 48 | kg bait/ha | R. Griffiths, pers. comm., based on average rate of bait uptake during 2010 bait trial (Grout, 2012) | Because an uninterrupted supply of this rodent bait is required for up to 21 days to ensure mortality in rats, more applications and a shorter interval between applications will be required to minimize the risk of bait being unavailable to mice. |
| Number of applications (diphacinone) | 3 |  |
| Applications interval (diphacinone) | 7 | days |
| Diphacinone concentration | 50 | mg ai/kg pellet | Ramik Green Label | Label states 0.005% active ingredient in pellet formulation. |
| Pellet weight | 1.1 | g ww | Island Conservation, unpubl. data (Grout 2012) | Mean pellet weight determined from a sample of 100 placebo 3/8-inch diameter pellets. |
| Pellet half life (1st application) | 1 | day | Island Conservation, unpubl. data (Grout 2012) | Nov 2010 trials showed that most pellets from 1st application had disappeared after 5 days. Assuming a half-life of 1 day leaves 3.13% of pellets after 5 days. |
| Time to significant rainfall event following 2nd application | 4, 28 or 117 | days | 1972-2010 rainfall dataset for SEFI (PRBO) | Time to median significant rainfall (>2" in 3 d) is 28 days. Best case scenario is 4 days and 95th percentile is 117 days. |
| Time to removal of bait following significant rainfall event | 4.5 | days | Mosher et al., 2007; Howald et al. 2001, 2004; Gregg Howald, pers. obs. | Pellets generally degrade within 2-7 days of a significant rainfall event. Model assumes average value. |
| Mean brodifacoum concentration in mice | 4.9 | mg/kg ww | Howald et al., 1999, 2001 | Mean of 2.71 mg/kg cited in Howald et al. (2001). Mice were exposed for 4-9 days to 25 mg ai/kg bait. Howald et al. (1999), found mean concentration of 4.9 mg/kg in mice. Assumed underlying lognormal distribution in model. |
| Standard deviation for brodifacoum concentration in mice | 1.26 |
| Mean diphacinone concentration in mice | 51.5 | mg/kg ww | Pitt et al., 2011 | Tables 1-3 list bait consumption and weights of mice killed by diphacinone-treated pellets (50 mg/kg). Upper bound residue concentrations were calculated for each mouse and a mean and standard deviation determined. Assumed underlying lognormal distribution in model. |
| Standard deviation (SD) for diphacinone concentration in mice | 13.0 |
| Proportion of gulls removed by hazing | User choice. In this assessment, model runs were conducted for hazing success rates of 75-98% | | | |
| Proportion western gull females | 0.5 |  | Pierotti and Annett, 1995 | In the south California Bight, sex ratios have been near equity since 1970s and 1980s. |
| Proportion western gull juveniles | 0.46 |  | Nur et al., 2012 | There are ~32,200 individuals of which 46% are subadults and non-breeding adults. |
| Mean western gull adult body weight (BW) - female | 879 | g | Pierotti, 1981 | Measurements taken on SEFI with sample sizes of 21 and 15 for males and females, respectively. Model assumes underlying normal distribution. |
| SD of western gull adult BW - female | 78 |
| Mean western gull adult BW - male | 1,136 |
| SD of western gull adult BW - male | 47 |
| Juvenile western gull BW relative to adult body weight | 0.875 |  | Penniman et al., 1990 | See Table 7.5 in source. Model assumes underlying normal distribution. |
| Daily probability of gull consuming mice (unhazed gulls) | 0.125 |  | Proportion of gulls consuming dead/dosed mice is estimated to vary between 0.01-0.25 (model assumes 0.125) assuming 100% mice availability for unhazed gulls. | |
| Daily probability of gull consuming pellets (unhazed gulls) | 0.25 |  | 2010 SEFI field study | Observational and fecal count data indicated an average of 22-25% of unhazed gulls had foraged on pellets. Initial daily rates are much lower, ranging from 0 to 29% during first five days and thus this analysis was conservative. |
| Conditional probability for consuming mice | 0.9 |  | Once birds learn to consume pellets, they will be more likely to consume pellets on subsequent days. No data are available, however, to quantify this behavior. | |
| Conditional probability for consuming pellets | 0.9 |  | Once birds learn to consume pellets, they will be more likely to consume pellets on subsequent days. No data are available, however, to quantify this behavior. | |
| If mice consumed, Poisson rate | 0.2 |  | This value is used as a rate in a Poisson distribution. By adding 1 to the Poisson randomly generated value with a rate of 0.2 suggests an upper limit of 3 mice/gull, which is approximately the maximum value suggested by daily energetic requirements. | |
| If pellets consumed, Poisson rate | 15 |  | A Poisson rate of 15 suggests an upper limit of 30 pellets/gull, which is approximately the maximum value suggested by daily energetic requirements. Western gulls foraging on pellets are highly unlikely to eat just one. A rate of 15 would make this outcome unlikely. | |
| Lag time for consuming mice | 5 | days | Fisher, 2009 (Trial 3 data) | Mice are not normally part of the gull diet on SFI. However, once symptoms of exposure begin (5 days), mice are easier prey. |
| Lag time for consuming pellets | 1 | day | Grout, 2012 | Trial showed no consumption on day of application but consumption began 1 day later. |
| Proportion intoxicated mice below ground - brodifacoum | 0.87 |  | Taylor, 1993; Howald, 1997; Buckalew et al., 2008 | Mice generally retreat to burrows following onset of symptoms stemming from exposure to brodifacoum. |
| Proportion intoxicated mice below ground – diphacinone2 | 0 |  |  | No information was available for diphacinone.. |
| Gull LD50 for brodifacoum | 0.588 | mg/kg bw | Wildlife International, 1979a,b | Values generated from probit regression conducted on raw data for laughing gulls in the reports. Laughing gull should be a reasonable surrogate for western gulls. |
| Probit slope for brodifacoum | 2.32 |
| Gull LD50 for diphacinone | 97.0 | mg/kg bw | Rattner et al., 2010 | Values generated from log-probit regression conducted by study authors for most sensitive species tested to date, the American kestrel. |
| Probit slope for diphacinone | 6.69 |
| Half-life for elimination from gull- brodifacoum | 217 | days | Erickson and Urban, 2004 | Calculated mean retention time in the liver from available studies. |
| Half-life for elimination from gull - diphacinone | 90 | days |

1. The application rate for diphacinone was revised upward after the contract was awarded for this project.

2 A different value could be used for this input parameter in future model simulations. The results of the sensitivity analyses described in Section 5.4 of this report, however, indicate that the value assumed for this input parameter has a negligible influence on predicted mortality of western gulls.

## Detailed Description of Exposure Model INPUTs and COMPONENTS

There are a large number of input parameters in the western gull risk model. In general, variables of minor importance and/or that have little uncertainty and variability are treated as deterministic variables (i.e., one value per variable). Those variables that are variable or have high uncertainty are either treated as distributions or considered in the sensitivity analysis to determine their importance to model predictions. Each of the model input parameters for the western gull risk model are discussed below (also see Table 3-1).

### Application of Rodenticide

For brodifacoum, the model assumes two applications on SFI in November-December. The first application rate will likely be 18 kg bait/ha, the maximum rate allowed on the Brodifacoum 25-D label (EPA, 2008). The second application will likely be at a rate of 9 kg bait/ha, which is also the maximum rate allowed on the label (EPA, 2008). The Brodifacoum 25-D formulation consists of grain-based pellets that weigh 1.1 g on average and have a target brodifacoum concentration of 25 mg ai/kg pellet (i.e., 0.0025% active ingredient in the formulation). The interval between applications was assumed to be 12 days.

For diphacinone, the model assumes three applications on SFI in November-December, with an application rate for each application of 32 kg bait/ha. The diphacinone formulation consists of grain-based pellets that weigh 1.1 g on average and have a target diphacinone concentration of 50 mg ai/kg pellet (i.e., 0.005% active ingredient in the formulation). The planned interval between applications is 7 days.

### Date of Initial Application

Bird counts in previous years on SFI indicate that western gulls occur in low numbers in early November and increase gradually to peak winter numbers in early to mid-December. The number of gulls on SFI declines slightly beginning in February. Given this information, date of initial application could influence the number of affected gulls because fewer gulls will be present for the initial application if it takes place in early November. To explore the influence of date of initial application, separate model runs were conducted for each rodenticide assuming initial application dates of November 1, 8, 15, 22 and 29, and December 6, 13 and 20.

### Removal of Pellets

Generally, cereal-based pellets disappear rapidly from the environment due to degradation from rainfall, humidity, etc. and from consumption by target organisms, i.e., mice in the case of SFI (Buckelew et al., 2005). Trials conducted at SFI in November 2010 demonstrated that non-toxic pellets (i.e., pellets without rodenticide) disappeared in 3-5 days after the first application (Grout, 2012). Such a range suggests a pellet half-life following the first application of 1 day. Near total removal of pellets within a few days has also been observed on other islands with high densities of rodents (e.g., Round Island, Merton, 1987; Anacapa Island, Howald et al., 2001; Gough Island, Wanless et al., 2009). Thus, a half-life of 1 day for removal of pellets following initial application was assumed in this assessment.

Mice are not expected to be present in significant numbers at the time of the second application of brodifacoum or third application of diphacinone. As a result, the likely major removal mechanism for pellets from the SFI environment following the final rodenticide applications will be disintegration following a significant rainfall event (Howald et al., 2001; Gregg Howald, pers. comm.). A significant rainfall event is one sufficient to initiate pellet degradation, which according to manufacturer and applicator experience, was defined as at least 2 inches (5 cm) of rain occurring over a period of 1-3 days. Merton (1987) previously observed that pellet effectiveness is eliminated with rainfall events of 4 cm (1.6 in) or greater. Daily rainfall data have been collected at SFI since 1972. We isolated the rainfall data for the months of November and December for each year that data had been compiled (1972-2010). We then calculated 3-day running averages and determined the probability of a significant rainfall event for any 3-day period at SFI in November and December. The probability of such an event is 2.58%. Based on information provided from preliminary planning, application of brodifacoum would only occur if little or no precipitation was forecast for at least 4 days. Thus, the best case scenario is for rain to occur 4 days after the final application of rodenticide. Assuming a 2.58% probability of a significant rainfall event for any given 3-day period and an underlying binomial distribution, the resulting median (i.e., most likely) estimate of time to first significant rainfall event is 28 days. The worst case value was assumed to be the corresponding 95th percentile which is 117 days (i.e., rainfall event does not occur within 90-day model simulation). In this assessment, model runs were conducted assuming a first significant rainfall event after the final application of 4, 28 and 117 days[[1]](#footnote-1). The 117 day data point likely overestimates the risk associated with bait being present for this duration because rainfall probabilities increase considerably in the months of January and February.

A significant rainfall event will not lead to immediate disintegration of rodenticide pellets. Based on observations of pellets during the SEFI trials in November 2010, Dan Grout of Island Conservation cited a range of 2-7 days for removal of pellets via disintegration following a significant rainfall event (see also Moser et al., 2007; Howald et al., 2001, 2004). Howald et al. (2004) showed that 2 g brodifacoum pellets (dry formulation) were disintegrating within 3 days when there was 1 inch of rain per day. Even with small rainfall events, much of the annual vegetation growth on SFI likely would obscure many if not most bait pellets, which would further limit rodenticide exposure for gulls. In our analyses, we used the average value of the 2-7 day range observed on SFI (i.e., 4.5 days) for time to removal of pellets following a significant rainfall event.

### Number, Sex and Life Stage of Western Gulls on SFI

The western gull has a total worldwide breeding population of approximately 40,000 pairs of which more than 30% occur on SFI (Penniman et al., 1990; Pierotti and Annett, 1995). Ainley and Lewis (1974) similarly estimated that there are 25,000 individuals present on SFI, of which about 20,000-22,000 of these birds are breeders. The remaining gulls are excess adults because of a lack of nesting areas. Numbers are lowest, perhaps a few thousand birds, during early fall. The numbers increase during November and reach peak numbers in the spring (Ainley and Lewis, 1974).

The number of western gulls on SFI is variable, both seasonally and between years. Observational data collected in November to March 2010-11 and 2011-12 were used to estimate numbers of western gulls on SFI on a weekly basis (Table 3-2). For the western gull model, the two years of data were combined and approximate values generated for each two week period from November to March. These data were used to determine probabilities of a given bird being present (i.e., Model Assigned Value in Table 3-2/Maximum Possible Value of 11,000 birds) for each week through November to March assuming that once a bird appears on SFI in November or December, it does not leave until mid-February at the earliest. A bird can be present but not foraging on SFI, as would be the case with birds that are successfully hazed each day. The general pattern indicates that the probability of a given bird being present in early November is relatively low and then increases to a probability of 1 by mid-December (Table 3-3). The probability of the bird being present on SFI begins to decline in mid-February (Table 3-3).

| **Table 3-2. Western gull counts on SFI in 2010-11 and 2011-12.** | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Month** | **Day** | **Mean Gull Count** | | **Two-Year Mean** | **Two-Week Average** | **Model Assigned Value** |
| **2010-11** | **2011-12** |
| Nov | 0 | 2080.25 |  | 2080 | 2333 | 2300 |
|  | 6 | 2584.75 |  | 2585 |
|  | 13 | 1265.14 |  | 1265 | 2317 |
|  | 20 | 1206.5 | 5530 | 3368 |
| Dec | 27 | 2873 | 5486.67 | 4180 | 6948 | 7000 |
|  | 34 | 6716.67 | 12,716.25 | 9716 |
|  | 41 | 7402.43 | 13410 | 10,406 | 11,480 | 11,000 |
|  | 48 | 11,074.38 | 14,034.29 | 12,554 |
| Jan | 55 | 12,914.5 | 14198 | 13,556 | 12,114 |
|  | 62 | 10,669.2 | 10,673.33 | 10,671 |
|  | 69 | 10,960 | 8546.67 | 9753 | 10,448 |
|  | 76 | 12,500.67 | 9782.86 | 11,142 |
| Feb | 83 | 12,420 | 8182.857 | 10,301 | 10,391 |
|  | 90 | 10,070.29 | 10,890.5 | 10,480 |
|  | 97 | 7405.67 | 4770 | 6088 | 5441 | 8500 |
|  | 104 | 6818.67 | 2770 | 4794 |
| Mar | 111 | 8787.75 | 5224 | 7006 | 7852 |
|  | 118 | 10,566.17 | 6830 | 8698 |
|  | 125 | 12,620.6 |  | 12621 | 12,344 |
|  | 132 | 12,067 |  | 12,067 |

| **Table 3-3. Probability of an individual western gull being present on SFI according to initial application date and simulation day.** | | | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Day** | **Initial Application Date** | | | | | | | |
| **Nov 1** | **Nov 8** | **Nov 15** | **Nov 22** | **Nov 29** | **Dec 6** | **Dec 13** | **Dec 20** |
| 0 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.636 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 |
| 7 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.636 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 14 | 0.209 | 0.209 | 0.636 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 21 | 0.209 | 0.636 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 28 | 0.636 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 35 | 0.636 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 42 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 49 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 |
| 56 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 | 0.773 |
| 63 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 |
| 70 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 |
| 77 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 |
| 84 | 1 | 1 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 | 0.773 |

No information was found on the numbers of females and males present on SFI in November and December. In the Southern California Bight, sex ratios have been near equity since chemical companies stopped disposing waste to the Bight in the 1970s and 1980s (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). On SFI, the sex ratio may be skewed slightly in favor of females during the breeding season (Spear, 1988; Pierotti and Annett, 1995). Given the available information and minor importance of the sex ratio variable we assumed a ratio of males to females on SFI in November and December of 50:50.

According to Nur et al. (2012.), the total SFI population of western gulls of all age classes is about 32,200 birds. Of the 32,200 western gulls, about 17,400 are breeding individuals and about 14,800 are immatures and non-breeding adults. Assuming the latter to be immatures, 46% of the western gulls are immatures. No information was available to determine how the percentage of immature gulls varies seasonally. Thus, in the absence of other information, we assumed that 46% of western gulls present on SFI during November to March are immatures.

### Size of Western Gulls

Based on measurements taken at SFI, the mean body weight of female western gulls is 879 g (standard deviation=78, n=15) (Pierotti, 1981). The corresponding mean body weight for males is 1,136 g (standard deviation=47, n=21) (Pierotti, 1981). In the western gull risk model, these values were used to parameterize normal distributions for males and females. Immature males and females were assumed to weigh 87.5% of their respective adult counterparts based upon data presented in Table 7.5 of Penniman et al. (1990).

### Hazing Success

A number of studies have shown that gull species (i.e., *Larus* sp.) can be prevented from foraging and loafing in areas where their presence is not desired (e.g., airports, landfills) (Curtis et al., 1995; Slate et al., 2000; Chipman et al., 2004). The most common technique is to use non-lethal pyrotechnics (Chipman et al., 2004). This technique can be quite effective and has been observed to remove all or nearly all gulls if used on a daily basis. As such, daily hazing is being considered as a management technique on SFI to reduce the number of gulls exposed to the rodenticide following application. Although daily hazing has been an effective management tool at airports and landfills, it’s effectiveness as a tool on SFI is unknown at this time. Thus, in this assessment we conducted model runs for each rodenticide for a range of possible hazing successes, i.e., 75%, 90%, 95% and 98%. Hazing trials conducted in January, 2011 confirmed that gulls could be effectively hazed from Southeast Farallon using standard avian hazing methods (Pott and Grout, 2012). A more extensive and longer gull hazing trial is being planned for the fall of 2012 at SFI to confirm and quantify the expected hazing effectiveness rates for western gulls on the island and to determine which hazing techniques are most effective at dispersing gulls.

### Primary Exposure Route Variables

Cereal grains such as those found in the rodenticide pellet formulation are not found on SFI and thus are not normally part of the diet of western gulls. In general, western gulls are predators that forage on pelagic and intertidal marine fishes and invertebrates (Hunt and Hunt, 1976; Hunt and Butler, 1980; Pierotti, 1980; Ainley et al., 1990; Pierotti and Annett, 1995; Snellen et al., 2007). However, western gulls are opportunistic and will forage on other items that are readily available (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). During the SEFI trials in November, 2010, western gulls were observed feeding on non-toxic pellets. Pellet consumption was infrequent immediately after first application but increased as more gulls became aware of the food source (IC, 2011). Data from the SEFI trials indicated that 22% of unhazed gulls in the bait zone were observed or suspected of foraging on grain pellets. Further, approximately 25% of gull fecal pellets had a green dye that had been incorporated in the pellets. To be conservative, we assumed a 25% daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming at least one pellet when pellets are readily available (i.e., shortly after application). A binomial distribution was assumed for this variable for each day of the model simulation.

In the western gull risk model, consumption of pellets was assumed to decline in direct relation to the decline in availability of pellets relative to the day of initial application. Thus, the daily probability of consuming pellets is adjusted to account for the availability of pellets. For example, if the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming pellets on day zero is 25% and the availability of pellets on the surface compared to day of initial application is 3.1% on day 5 (the case when the pellet half-life is 1 day), then the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming pellets on day 5 is 0.73%. Pellet availability increases with subsequent applications of rodenticide.

Observational data at SEFI suggest that once gulls learn of the pellet food source, they are more likely to return to that food source in successive days. We incorporated a conditional probability for daily probability of consuming pellets to account for this learned behavior. Quantitative data to parameterize the conditional probability, however, are lacking. A value of 90% was assigned to this variable. Although we assumed that most gulls, once they ate bait, would eat it again the next day, we assumed a 10% daily turnover rate of western gulls in the fall (a very conservative estimate). Thus, the probability of a gull consuming pellets on day 1 doing so on day 2 is thus ~90%. The conditional probability essentially adjusts the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming pellets given the result from the previous day. Thus, consumption of one or more pellets the previous day increases the probability of consuming one or more pellets the following day (i.e., to 90%). If a gull does not consume any pellets on the previous day, it will be less likely to consume pellets the following day. The higher the conditional probability, the more likely that there will be long strings of days with pellet consumption and long strings of days without pellet consumption. There are no scientific data available from the Farallones or elsewhere upon which to base this 90% input parameter, but it was considered best to conservatively assume a relatively high likelihood of a gull consuming bait on a day subsequent to initial bait consumption. A rate of 90% was considered to be a high end estimate, given the high rate of learned foraging behavior observed in Farallon western gulls. In addition, the daily return rate of western gulls on the Farallones may not be 100%. It is likely a relatively high value, due to lack of extreme daily migratory behavior observed in western gulls, as well as observed movement of banded birds from this population.

In addition to determining whether an unhazed gull feeds on pellets in each day of the model simulation, we need to determine the number of pellets consumed on days when consumption occurs. Observations during the SEFI trials in November, 2010 indicated that when pellets are readily available, unhazed gulls are unlikely to consume just one pellet once consumption begins. To determine the daily maximum number of pellets that could be consumed, we determined the number of pellets required to meet the metabolic needs of adult gulls. The metabolizeable energy in cereal grain baits consumed by birds is 14.0 kJ/g dw bait (Nagy, 1987). Assuming a moisture content of 14% (Nagy, 1987) and a pellet mass of 1.1 g as determined in SEFI field measurements of 100 placebo pellets, the metabolizeable energy in each pellet is 13 kJ/pellet ww. Adult western gulls require approximately 12 (females) to 14 (males) kJ/hour for normal maintenance during the non-breeding season (Pierotti and Annett, 1995). Thus, daily energy requirements are 288 and 336 kJ/day for female and male western gulls, respectively, similar to the values estimated for herring gulls (Pierotti and Annett, 1991; EPA, 1993). The upper bound for pellets consumed per day to meet daily energetic requirements for male western gulls would be 26 (336/13 = 26). We rounded this figure to 30 pellets/day to be conservative and because gulls may consume more food than required to meet typical daily energetic requirements on some days. A Poisson distribution with a rate of 15 for daily number of pellets consumed results in a distribution for which low (e.g., 1-3 pellets/day) and high values (i.e., 28-30 pellets/day) are rare events, but values in between are more common.

Finally, the western gull risk model assumes a 1 day lag time for consuming pellets because the SFI trials in November demonstrated that pellet consumption did not begin until the day after application.

### Secondary Exposure Route Variables

Birds have the potential to consume live rodents or carrion containing brodifacoum or diphacinone residues (Eason et al., 2002; Erickson and Urban, 2004; Bowie and Ross, 2006). As with consumption of pellets, the western gull risk model estimated daily probability of consuming mice and, should consumption occur, the number of mice consumed per day.

Few data are available to determine the daily probability of consuming mice by western gulls. Stomach contents analyses show that consumption of rodents by gulls is low and typically in the range of 0-2% (Ainley et al., 1990; Pierotti and Annett, 1995). However, unhazed gulls are expected to change their behavior following rodenticide application on SFI because intoxicated or dead mice are easier to capture. Scavenging of trapped mice was observed during the SFI trials in November, 2010, with a maximum estimated scavenging rate of 25%, although most of this scavenging was likely done by other mice. Some of the mouse carcasses could have been scavenged by gulls, however, though it is also possible that none of the mouse carcasses were scavenged by gulls (Grout, 2012; Pott and Grout, 2012). Given the range of 0-25% of rodents in the diet of unhazed gulls, we selected an average probability of 12.5% for daily probability of consuming mice when they are intoxicated and readily available. A binomial distribution was assumed for this variable for each day of the model simulation.

The availability of mice for consumption by western gulls declines following exposure to brodifacoum. In a study by Fisher (2009), rats exposed to brodifacoum in their diet showed few symptoms for the first 5 days following initial exposure after which symptoms began to appear. All rats died 6-13 days following initial exposure. Eighty-seven to 100% of rodents generally retreated to burrows to succumb following onset of symptoms stemming from exposure to brodifacoum (Taylor, 1993; Howald, 1997; Buckalew et al., 2008). These mice would not be available for consumption by unhazed western gulls on SFI. We used the Trial 3 data from Fisher (2009) and the worst case value of 87% for mice retreating to burrows to estimate the proportion of the mouse population available for consumption on SFI as a fraction of pre-exposure abundance. Based on data from Fisher (2009), symptoms were assumed to precede death by 2 days. The fitted regression model for the worst case scenario is shown in Figure 3-2. In the western gull risk model, once mice are dead, they are no longer available. Intoxicated mice on the surface, however, are available for consumption. The regression model for the worst case scenario is:



Model fit for the worst case scenario was excellent with a correlation coefficient of 0.99. Thus, we have high confidence in the parameterization of the regression model. In the western gull risk model, consumption of mice was assumed to decline in direct relation to the decline in availability of mice relative to pre-application conditions. Thus, the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming mice is adjusted to account for the availability of mice compared to pre-exposure. For example, if the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming mice on day zero is 12.5% and the availability of mice on the surface compared to pre-exposure is 79.7% on day 5, then the daily probability of consuming mice on day 5 is 9.96% (i.e., 12.5% x 79.7% = 9.96%).

The availability of mice following application of diphacinone is not as well understood as is the case with brodifacoum. EPA (1998) noted that mice may experience severe symptoms as early as 3 days after exposure to diphacinone and are generally all dead following 9 days of continuous exposure. For this assessment, we assumed that an equal percentage of mice died on each day from day 3 to day 9. Because there were no data on the percentage of intoxicated and dead mice that remain above ground, we assumed the worst case scenario that all mice remained above ground following exposure to diphacinone. Assuming that all intoxicated and dead mice remain above ground means that they are available for consumption, which is not the case with mice that are below ground.

Figure 3-2. Proportion of mice available for consumption by western gulls following application of brodifacoum on SFI. Raw data are from Fisher (2009). The fitted model is a 2nd order polynomial model. Symptoms begin 5 days after initial application with death following 2 days after onset of symptoms.

As with pellets, once unhazed western gulls are aware of intoxicated mice as an easy food source, they are more likely to return to that food source on successive days. We incorporated a conditional probability for daily probability of consuming mice to account for this learned behavior. Quantitative data to parameterize the conditional probability, however, are lacking. As with pellets, we assumed a conditional probability of 90% for mice based on discussions with Dan Grout from Island Conservation. The conditional probability essentially adjusts the daily probability of an unhazed gull consuming mice given the result from the previous day.

In addition to determining whether an unhazed gull feeds on mice in each day of the model simulation, we need to determine the number of mice consumed on days when consumption occurs. We determined the number of mice required to meet the metabolic needs of adult gulls. The gross energy of mice is 8.4 kJ/g ww and they are assimilated by birds with an efficiency of 78% (EPA, 1993). Thus, the metabolizeable energy of mice is 6.55 kJ/g ww. Assuming an average body weight of 15.5 g for the house mouse (calculated from 278 samples during 2010 SFI field trials), the metabolizeable energy of each mouse is 102 kJ/mouse. Adult western gulls require approximately 288 and 336 kJ/day for female and male western gulls, respectively (Pierotti and Annett, 1991; EPA, 1993). Thus, the upper bound for mice consumed per day to meet daily energetic requirements for male western gulls would be 3 (336/102 ≈ 3). By adding 1 to a value drawn randomly from a Poisson distribution with a rate of 0.2 generates an upper bound of 3 mice/gull/day. It is possible for gulls to exceed their daily energetic requirements on any given day but such a situation is not possible, on average, over many days.

Unhazed gulls could conceivably ingest both pellets and mice on the same day. To ensure that the model does not allow for exceedance of daily energetic requirements, the number of mice that could be consumed daily was limited to 0 if number of pellets consumed daily was >25, 1 if number of pellets consumed daily was >15-25, 2 if number of pellets consumed daily was >5-15, and 3 if number of pellets consumed daily was 5 or less.

To determine rodenticide concentration in unhazed gulls via consumption of mice requires data on expected concentration in mice. For brodifacoum, Howald et al. (2001) cite a mean concentration in mice exposed for 4-9 days to 25 mg ai/kg bait (i.e., same concentration as Brodifacoum-25D) of 2.71 mg ai/kg ww (standard deviation=0.7). Howald et al. (1999), however, cite a mean concentration of 4.9 mg ai/kg ww in exposed mice. We selected the worst case mean concentration in mice of 4.9 mg ai/kg ww. The coefficient of variation (CV) determined in the Howald et al. (2001) study (CV = 0.7/2.71 x 100 = 25.8%) was used to derive the standard deviation of 1.26 for the worst case scenario. Concentrations in mice were assumed not to change over time given the persistence of brodifacoum in tissues (Erickson and Urban, 2004) and the short period of time that mice remain after initial rodenticide application. For each mouse consumed in the brodifacoum model, a value was randomly chosen from a lognormal distribution parameterized with the mean concentration and associated standard deviation.

Little information is available on concentrations of diphacinone in mice following exposure to bait. Pitt et al. (2011) exposed mice to diphacinone in pellets at the same concentration as proposed for SFI (i.e., 50 mg ai/kg bait). Although the authors did not measure the resulting concentrations of diphacinone, they did determine mouse body weights and pellet ingestion rates in six mice that died during the course of the study (see Tables 1-3 in Pitt et al., 2011). Assuming that the mice did not metabolize or eliminate any of the ingested diphacinone, a worst case assumption, the resulting mean concentration in mice was 51.5 mg ai/kg bw. The corresponding standard deviation was 13.0. As with brodifacoum, diphacinone concentrations in mice were assumed not to change over time given the persistence of this pesticide in tissues (Erickson and Urban, 2004) and the short period of time that mice remain after rodenticide application. For each mouse consumed in the diphacinone model, a value was randomly chosen from a lognormal distribution parameterized with the mean concentration and associated standard deviation.

The western gull risk model assumes a 5 day lag time for consuming brodifacoum-contaminated mice because this is the length of time required for mice to become intoxicated and thus easily captured (Fisher, 2009). The corresponding value for diphacinone is 3 days (EPA, 1998).

Although the rates of metabolism and elimination of brodifacoum and diphacinone are slow in birds, we incorporated this variable in the western gull model because of the length of the model runs (i.e., 90 days following initial application). Erickson and Urban (2004) reviewed the available literature for birds and determined a tissue half-life of 217 days for brodifacoum and 90 days for diphacinone. Assuming first-order kinetics, the resulting fractions of brodifacoum and diphacinone retained in gull tissues on a daily basis are 0.997 and 0.992, respectively.

# Effects Characterization

In this chapter, we derive effects metrics (i.e., dose-response curves) for gulls or surrogate species exposed to brodifacoum and diphacinone. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the pros and cons of using effects metrics from oral gavage studies versus dietary studies because the latter are much more available for rodenticides but are generally considered to be of low relevance in avian risk assessments for pesticides.

## Effects metrics for brodifacoum

The available information on the acute toxicity of brodifacoum to various bird species is summarized in Table 4-1. Avian LD50s range over nearly two orders of magnitude from 0.26 mg ai/kg bw for the mallard (*Anas platyrhynchos*) to 20 mg ai/kg bw for the Paradise shelduck (*Tadorna variegata*). By comparison, Erickson and Urban (2004) noted that the warfarin LD50 for the mallard is 620 mg ai/kg bw.

| **Table 4-1. Acute toxicity of brodifacoum to avian species (modified from Erickson and Urban, 2004; Godfrey, 1985; Eason et al., 2002; Bowie and Ross, 2006).** | | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Species** | **LD50 (mg ai/kg bw)** | **Reference** |
| Mallard | 0.26 | EPA, 1998a |
| Canada goose | <0.75a | Godfrey, 1986 |
| Southern black-backed gull | <0.75a |
| Purple gallinule | 0.95 |
| Pukeko | 0.95 | Eason et al., 2002 |
| Blackbird | >3b | Godfrey, 1986 |
| Hedge sparrow | >3b | Godfrey, 1985 |
| California quail | 3.3 |
| Mallard | 4.6 |
| Black-billed gull | <5a |
| House sparrow | >6b |
| Silvereye | >6b | Eason et al. 2002 |
| Ring-necked pheasant | 10 | Godfrey, 1986 |
| Australasian harrier | 10 |
| Paradise shelduck | >20b | Eason et al., 2002 |
| a the lowest concentration tested  b the highest concentration tested | | |

Because this assessment focused on consumption of pellets and mice over a long period of time, the preferred effects metric would be from a dietary exposure study. The dietary route of exposure is preferred over oral gavage exposures (i.e., acute oral tests) because gavage exposures are generally relevant to situations where active ingredients are ingested rapidly and in large doses (e.g., consumption of pesticide granules) (ECOFRAM, 1999; EPA, 2004).

In our assessment, we assumed that sensitivity of western gulls to brodifacoum exposure was in the range demonstrated for other gull species. Based on reviews conducted by Godfrey (1985), Eason et al. (2002), Erickson and Urban (2004) and Bowie and Ross (2006), LD50s for gull species ranged from <0.75 mg ai/kg bw for the southern black-backed gull (*Larus dominicanus*) to <5 mg ai/kg bw for the black-billed gull (*Larus bulleri*). For both species, however, the lowest dose tested caused greater than 50% mortality. Thus, there were insufficient data for deriving dose-response curves. Although not included in the above reviews, dietary toxicity data of sufficient quality were available to derive a dose-response curve for the laughing gull (*Larus atricilla*). The toxicity data were from two studies conducted by Wildlife International (1979a,b). Birds were acclimated for two weeks at which point they were randomly assigned to either a control diet consisting of toxicant-free masticated rodent tissue or one of ten treatment diets (both studies combined) consisting of spiked masticated rodent tissue. Five birds were placed in each dietary treatment. Exposure continued for 5 days followed by an additional 5-week exposure period in which all birds were maintained on a diet of Southern States cat food.

For the statistical analysis, daily treatment dose was calculated by multiplying treatment concentration by the corresponding average measured food intake rate. The daily treatment doses were then normalized to average gull body weight (average of 5 gulls/treatment on days 0 and 6). Finally, the doses were summed across the 5 days of exposure. The latter step assumes that metabolism and elimination of brodifacoum during the 5-day exposure period would have been minimal, an assumption that has been verified elsewhere (Fisher, 2009; see also Erickson and Urban, 2004). The statistical analysis was carried out in SAS using PROC PROBIT with dose log10 transformed. The fitted LD50 was 0.588 mg ai/kg bw and the probit slope was 2.32 (Figure 4-1). The LD50 of 0.588 mg ai/kg bw derived for laughing gulls is the lowest bounded LD50 reported for gull species (or indeed any bird species) exposed to brodifacoum.

**Figure 4-1. Dose-response relationship for effects of brodifacoum on laughing gulls.**

## effects metrics for diphacinone

## Relatively few avian toxicity studies have been conducted for diphacinone and none have involved gull species (EPA, 1998a; Erickson and Urban, 2004; Rattner et al., 2010). A reliable LD50 for northern bobwhite (*Colinus virginianus*) could not be estimated by Campbell et al. (1991) because dosages were separated by a factor of 5. EPA (1998a), however, suggested that the LD50 for northern bobwhite fell between 400 and 2000 mg ai/kg bw. A subsequent study by Rattner et al. (2010) estimated an LD50 of 2014 mg ai/kg bw for northern bobwhite which is close to the upper bound estimated by EPA (1998) and reasonably close to the LD50 of 3158 mg ai/kg bw reported for mallards (*Anas platyrhynchos*) (Erickson and Urban 2004). Based upon data from avian species commonly used in pesticide registration tests (i.e., northern bobwhite, mallards), diphacinone appears to be far less toxic to captive birds than is brodifacoum (see Table 4-1). However, a recent diphacinone acute toxicity test with American kestrels (*Falco sparverius*) resulted in an LD50 of 97 mg ai/kg bw, indicating that kestrels are over 20 times more sensitive than northern bobwhite, and over 30 times more sensitive than mallards. In addition, the results of a study in which diphacinone-poisoned mice (*Peromyscus maniculatus*) were fed to great-horned owls (*Buto virginianus*) and a saw-whet owl (*Aegolius acadicus*) suggests that owl species are more sensitive than northern bobwhite (Mendenhall and Pank 1980). Given the lack of diphacinone toxicity data for gull species and the high uncertainty regarding toxicity to untested species, we used the results for American kestrels from Barnett and Rattner (2010) as a surrogate for the western gull. A log-probit regression analysis conducted by the study authors indicated an LD50 of 97 mg ai/kg bw with a probit slope of 6.69. These parameters were used in the western gull model for diphacinone.

## oral Gavage versus Dietary Exposure studies

Often oral gavage studies such as used to estimate diphacinone toxicity to American kestrels overestimate toxicity when compared to dietary studies. In dietary studies, metabolism and excretion over the course of the study can reduce accumulation of the pesticide thus reducing toxicity compared to oral gavage studies (EPA, 2004). However, in the case of brodifacoum, metabolism and excretion are unlikely to mediate toxicity when ingested over an extended period because the compound is highly persistent (Eason et al., 2002). The mean liver retention time for brodifacoum in birds is 217 days, respectively (Erickson and Urban, 2004). Diphacinone is also persistent in the liver with a mean retention time of 90 days (Erickson and Urban, 2004). As a result, there may be no significant difference between toxicity results from oral gavage and dietary exposure studies (Erickson and Urban, 2004).

To compare effects metrics from oral gavage and dietary exposure studies, the units have to be the same (i.e., mg ai/kg bw). For this analysis the LC50 value was utilized, which is the concentration of a chemical in air or water that is expected to cause death in 50% of test animals. This requires multiplying the LC50 from the dietary exposure study by the daily food intake rate normalized to body weight multiplied by the number of exposure days (the assumption being that metabolism and excretion are minimal). Long et al. (1992) determined an LC50 of mg ai/kg diet for mallards. The food consumption rate for birds in the treatment group closest to the LC50 (i.e., 1000 mg ai/kg diet) during the treatment period was 0.064 kg diet/bird/day. The average body weight (*BW*) during the treatment period of birds in the 1,000 mg/kg-diet treatment group was 0.236 kg. Thus, the median lethal daily dose is 246 mg ai/kg bw/day. Assuming that diphacinone is not metabolized or excreted to any significant extent over the exposure period, the daily dose is multiplied by the exposure period (5 d) to determine an LD50 of 1,231 mg ai/kg bw. For mallards exposed to diphacinone, the dietary exposure LD50 is lower (i.e., more toxic) than the corresponding oral gavage LD50 of 3,158 mg ai/kg bw cited by Erickson and Urban (2004). No other species have the required information to determine the relative toxicity of oral gavage and dietary exposure studies for diphacinone. Based on the limited evidence for mallards and the expected persistence of diphacinone in birds, we assume that it is reasonable to use the results of an oral gavage study in deriving the avian effects metric for this pesticide.

# risk Characterization

Model runs were conducted to determine how different application options (e.g., different application dates, differing rates of hazing success, etc.) for brodifacoum and diphacinone affected predictions regarding mortality of western gulls. The following sections describe the results of an analysis conducted to determine how many simulations were required to produce consistent model predictions. Subsequent sections describe the results of the model analyses conducted for brodifacoum and diphacinone. An analysis conducted by Nur et al. (2012) for western gulls on SFI indicated that a one-time mortality event of up to 1700 individual gulls would not result in a detectably significant change in the population trend of the western gull on the Farallones over a 20-year period. We compare our model predictions to this benchmark in this chapter.

## Model Stability

A model stability analysis was performed on the western gull risk model to determine the number of model simulations required to produce estimates of proportion mortality that are consistent from one model run to the next. The baseline scenario for this analysis assumed an initial application date of November 29 for brodifacoum, a hazing success rate of 90%[[2]](#footnote-2), and the time to the first significant rainfall event after the second and final application of 28 days. All other input parameters are those listed in Table 3-1. We ran the model for simulation sizes ranging from 100 to 100,000 simulations, and the model was run 10 times for each simulation size. As expected, variability in predictions regarding proportion mortality decreased as the number of simulations increases (Figures 5-1 and 5-2). The proportion gulls at SFI experiencing mortality had a wide range of 0.0780 to 0.0.106 for 100 simulation model runs but a much narrower range of 0.0894 to 0.0902 for 100,000 simulation model runs. Further, the coefficients of variation for 100 and 100,000 simulation model runs were 10.3 and 0.287, respectively. Clearly, the more simulations, the lower the coefficient of variation and the increased likelihood that model runs will produce consistent predictions. For this assessment, 30,000 simulations were conducted for each model run because the coefficient of variation was quite low (0.603) with this number of simulations. In addition, little was gained in terms of model stability by increasing the number of simulations to 100,000 (Figures 5-1 and 5-2).

**Figure 5-1. Results of the model stability analysis for proportion of dead western gulls exposed to brodifacoum in relation to the number of simulations. The analyses assumed a start date of November 29, a hazing success rate of 90%, and a time to first significant rainfall event after the final application of 28 days. All other assumptions are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-2. Results of the model stability analysis for the coefficient of variation of proportion of dead gulls exposed to brodifacoum in relation to number of simulations. The analyses assumed a start date of November 29, a hazing success rate of 90%, and a time to first significant rainfall event after the final application of 28 days. All other assumptions are listed in Table 3-1.**

## Model Results for Brodifacoum

The results of all model runs conducted for brodifacoum can be found in Appendix A. The following sections summarize the results for each of the major factors considered potentially important in designing an application and risk management strategy for brodifacoum. Results are presented as the proportion and number of western gulls present at some point on SFI during the period November 1 to end of March that experience mortality based on various modifications of the input parameters. The text and figures below provide examples from the various possible scenarios.

### Initial Application Date

Model runs were performed to determine how initial application date of brodifacoum affected the proportion of dead western gulls (Figure 5-3, Appendix A) and number of dead western gulls (Figure 5-4, Appendix A) on SFI. The results shown in Figures 5-3 and 5-4 involved a scenario where hazing was assumed to be 90% effective, and the first significant rainfall occurred 28 days after the second application. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The results from other scenarios are shown in Appendix A. As shown in Figures 5-3 and 5-4, western gull mortality increases with later initial application dates, coinciding with the increased numbers of gulls being present on SFI. Predicted mortality did not change substantively with initial application date after approximately November 22nd.

**Figure 5-3. Model results for proportion of dead western gulls as a result of varying initial application date for brodifacoum, assuming 90% hazing effectiveness and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-4. Model results for number of dead gulls as a result of varying initial application date for brodifacoum, assuming 90% hazing effectiveness and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls, the number considered the maximum possible without affecting long-term population viability.**

### Proportion of Gulls Removed From SFI by Hazing

The utility of hazing in reducing gull mortality was investigated by varying hazing success from 75% to 98%. For the results shown in Figures 5-5 and 5-6, the date of initial application was November 29th, and there were 28 days until the first significant rainfall following the second application (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). The results of other scenarios are shown in Appendix A. As expected, there was a strong negative relationship between gull mortality and hazing success (Figures 5-5 and 5-6) and the threshold of 1700 dead gulls was surpassed with 75% hazing success (Figure 5-6). The results in Appendix A indicate that 90% hazing success is required to ensure that the threshold of 1700 gulls is not surpassed for all possible initial application dates and to cover the range of possible dates over which the first significant rainfall event occurs following the second application of brodifacoum.

**Figure 5-5. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of hazing success, assuming November 29th date of first application and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-6. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of hazing success, assuming November 29th date of first application and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Time to Significant Rainfall Event

A significant rainfall event is one in which sufficient rain falls to degrade remaining bait pellets (i.e., at least 2 inches in 1-3 day time span). Dates of historic rainfall events were compiled and analyzed to determine a best, worst, and most likely scenario. The model was then run to determine the proportion (Figure 5-7) and number (Figure 5-8) of dead birds following each length of time until the rainfall event. The scenario shown in Figures 5-7 and 5-8 assumed an initial application date of November 29th and that hazing success was 90% (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). The results indicate that the proportion and number of dead birds increased with increasing time until the rainfall event. However, the quantity of dead birds was below the threshold of 1700 dead birds for all scenarios with 90% hazing success (Appendix A).

**Figure 5-7. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of time to significant rainfall after the second application, assuming November 29th date of first application and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-8. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of time to significant rainfall after the second application, assuming November 29th date of first application and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

The worst case scenario of 117 days elapsing until the first significant rainfall event is likely unrealistic for SFI. The value was derived using November-December rainfall data from 1972-2010. Most of the Farallones annual rain falls in January and February, however, which would mean that the likelihood of going 117 days (or nearly 4 months) without a significant rainfall event from the time of the final brodifacoum application in November or December would be extremely low. Thus, the model predictions for 4 or 28 days to the first significant rainfall event after the final brodifacoum application are likely to be closer to reality.

### Number of Applications

Although standard practice, and not a likely option for SFI, it is clear that reducing the number of brodifacoum applications to a single application significantly reduces expected gull mortality (Figures 5-9 and 5-10). The results shown in Figure 5-9 and 5-10 assumed an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall for the scenario involving two applications (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). Over 5 times more gulls died when two applications took place. Applying only one application, would not be best practice, and would likely compromise the effectiveness of the mouse eradication, which requires 100% lethal exposure to all mice.

**Figure 5-9. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of number of applications of brodifacoum, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-10. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of number of applications of brodifacoum, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Removal of Dead Mice

One possible management option to reduce mortality of western gulls is to remove dead mouse carcasses as they are discovered. Assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first rainfall (see Table 3-1 for other inputs), the results indicate no differences in the proportion and number of dead gulls as a result of not removing or removing dead mice (Figures 5-11 and 5-12). For brodifacoum, it appears that removal of dead mice would accomplish little in terms of reducing mortality of western gulls.

**Figure 5-11. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of whether dead mice are removed, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-12. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of whether mice are removed, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

## Model Results for Diphacinone

The results of all model runs conducted for diphacinone can be found in Appendix B. The following sections summarize the results for each of the major factors considered potentially important in designing an application and risk management strategy for diphacinone. Results are presented as the proportion and number of western gulls present at some point on SFI during the period November 1 to end of March that experience mortality based on various modifications of the input parameters. The text and figures below provide examples from the various possible scenarios.

### Initial Application Date

Possible application dates for diphacinone were modeled to determine if the initial application date impacted the proportion (Figure 5-13) and number (Figure 5-14) of dead gulls. The results presented in Figures 5-13 and 5-14 assumed a hazing effectiveness of 90% and that the first rainfall event after the second application occurred 28 days later (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). Although the proportion of dead gulls was very low, it did increase with later initial application dates until approximately November 22nd (Figure 5-13). Likewise, Figure 5-14 shows that the number of dead gulls increased with later initial application dates, but that the threshold of 1700 dead gulls was never reached.

**Figure 5-13. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a result of varying initial application date for diphacinone, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-14. Model results for number of dead gulls as a result of varying initial application date for diphacinone, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Proportion of Gulls Removed From SFI by Hazing

The utility of hazing in reducing gull mortality was investigated by varying hazing success from 75 to 98%. The results shown in Figures 5-15 and 5-16 assumed an initial application date of November 29th and that the first significant rainfall event occurred 28 days after the second application of diphacinone (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). As expected, the proportion and number of dead gulls decreased as hazing effectiveness increased. At 75% hazing effectiveness, the number of dead gulls was below the threshold of 1700.

**Figure 5-15. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of hazing success, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-16. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of hazing success, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Time to Significant Rainfall Event

The impact of time to a significant rainfall event after the second application on gull mortality was much more apparent for diphacinone than for brodifacoum. The results shown in Figures 5-17 and 5-18 assumed an initial application date of November 29th and 90% hazing effectiveness (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). The proportion and number of dead gulls increased with increasing time until the rainfall event. However, the quantity of dead gulls was well below the threshold of 1700 for this scenario.

The worst case scenario of 117 days elapsing until the first significant rainfall event is likely unrealistic for SFI. The value was derived using November-December rainfall data from 1972-2010. Most of the Farallones annual rain falls in January and February, however, which would mean that the likelihood of going 117 days (or nearly 4 months) without a significant rainfall event from the time of the final diphacinone application in November or December would be extremely low. Thus, the model predictions for 4 or 28 days to the first significant rainfall event after the final diphacinone application are likely to be closer to reality.

**Figure 5-17. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of time to significant rainfall after the second application, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-18. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of time to significant rainfall after the second application, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Number of Applications

The effect on number of applications was modeled for 1, 2 and 3 applications of diphacinone. The results shown in Figures 5-19 and 5-20 assumed an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall event after the second application (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). The results indicate that gull mortality would be near zero with only 1 or 2 applications of diphacinone but that a 3rd application greatly increases gull mortality.

**Figure 5-19. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of number of applications, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 28 days to first significant rainfall, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-20. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of number of applications, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 28 days to first significant rainfall, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1. The dash line represents 1700 dead gulls.**

### Removal of Dead Mice

Removal of dead mice was modeled to determine if this mitigation practice would reduce gull mortality. The results shown in Figures 5-21 and 5-22 assumed an initial application date of November 29th, 90% hazing effectiveness, and 28 days until the first significant rainfall event after the second application (see Table 3-1 for other inputs). As with brodifacoum, removing dead mice did not significantly improve the survival of western gulls for diphacinone.

**Figure 5-21. Model results for proportion of dead gulls as a function of whether mice are removed, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 28 days to first significant rainfall, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

**Figure 5-22. Model results for number of dead gulls as a function of whether mice are removed. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls, assuming an initial application date of November 29th, 28 days to first significant rainfall, and 90% hazing effectiveness. All other input values are listed in Table 3-1.**

## Sensitivity Analysis

The purpose of the sensitivity analysis is to identify how variation in the output of a model (e.g., number of dead birds) is influenced by uncertainty in the input variables. If the output variability precludes effective decision making, sensitivity analysis may be used to identify the input variables that contribute the most to the observed output variability. Subsequently, research efforts may be initiated to reduce uncertainty in those input variables.

Uncertainty and sensitivity analyses both focus on the output of a model and are therefore closely related. However, the purposes of the two types of analyses are different. An uncertainty analysis assesses the uncertainty in model outputs that derives from uncertainty in the inputs. A sensitivity analysis assesses the contributions of the inputs to the total uncertainty in the output.

Sensitivity analysis methods may be classified into three groups: screening methods, methods for local sensitivity analysis, and methods for global sensitivity analysis. Screening methods are generally used to separate influential input variables from non-influential ones, rather than quantify the impact that an input variable has on the output of the model. Screening methods are useful for models with large numbers of input variables. They are able to identify important input variables with little computational effort, but at a cost of losing quantitative information on the importance of the input variables. In contrast, local and global sensitivity measures provide quantitative estimates of the importance of each input variable. The difference between them is that the former focuses on estimating the impact of small changes in input variable values on model output, while the latter addresses the contribution to model output variance over the entire range of each input variable distribution.

Most screening methods revolve around the idea of “what if” analyses. That is, how would the outputs change if the value of a selected input variable was changed? With large models, this exercise needs to be systematic to be useful. Factorial designs, for example, are used to measure the influence of input variables on the output by taking into account both additive effects and interactions. The design involves selecting combinations of input variable values that provide the most information on the relationships between input and output variables. However, with a factorial design and a large model, the number of model runs (*nk*, where *k* is the number of input variables, and *n* is the number of levels for each variable) quickly becomes unmanageable. Given the complexity of the western gull risk model, this approach was infeasible for this assessment.

One way to overcome the difficulties of a factorial design method is to set all input variable values to achieve the most likely response and only increase or decrease one input variable at a time (Cotter, 1979). The sensitivity analyses for the western gull risk models for brodifacoum and diphacinone relied on “what if” analyses using a “one-at-a-time” design. The baseline scenarios for brodifacoum and diphacinone assumed the input values in Table 3-1 except for the variable being investigated. Each variable being investigated was altered one at a time to explore the influence on the model outputs. The inputs values selected for the sensitivity analyses are listed in Table 5-1. Some of these values could be adjusted in future model simulations as, for example, new data become available.

| **Table 5-1. Values of input parameters varied in one at-a-time sensitivity analyses for western gull risk models for brodifacoum and diphacinone.** | | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | **Values** | **Notes** |
| First application date | Nov 1, 8, 15, 22, 29 and Dec 6, 13 and 20 | This is the range of possible application dates being considered for SFI. |
| Applications interval - brodifacoum | 5, 21 days | Label does not permit intervals of <5 days. An interval of 21 days or more will increase the likelihood that all individuals are exposed to the technique (Griffiths and Towns, 2008) |
| Application rate - diphacinone | 32, 48 kg bait/ha per application | Application rate of 48 kg bait/ha is the current proposed rate for SFI whereas the rate of 32 kg bait/ha modeled elsewhere in this report is thought to be the minimum effective rate to ensure mouse eradication. |
| Applications interval - diphacinone | 3, 10 days | No need for interval of less than <3 days to ensure availability of pellets. Mice could recover if pellets not available for a period of time which suggests upper bound of 10 days. |
| Number of applications - brodifacoum | 1, 2 | 2 applications is maximum indicated in FWS (2012). 1 application is likely to be ineffective at eradicating mice. |
| Number of applications - diphacinone | 1, 3 | 3 applications is maximum indicated by Island Conservation. 1 application is likely to be ineffective at eradicating mice. |
| Hazing effectiveness | 0.75, 0.98 | Range suggested by Island Conservation |
| Pellet half life (1st application) | 0.5, 2 days | 2010 SFI field trial and available literature indicate this approximate range. |
| Time to significant rainfall event after 2nd application | 4, 117 days | Time to median significant rainfall at SFI (2" in 3 days) is 28 days. Best and worst case scenarios are 4 and 117 days, respectively given available rainfall data from 1972-2010. |
| Time to pellet removal after rainfall event | 2, 7 days | Pellets generally degrade within 2-7 days of a significant rainfall event. |
| Mean concentration in mice - brodifacoum | 2.71, 4.9 mg/kg bw | Range cited in Howald et al. (1999, 2001). Standard deviation adjusted to ensure same coefficient of variation. |
| Mean concentration in mice - diphacinone | 30, 51.5 mg/kg bw | Upper value is upper bound calculated from Pitt et al. (2011). Lower value is somewhat arbitrary but approximately the lower bound value if there was some initial rapid elimination of diphacinone from the exposed mice in Pitt et al. (2011) study. |
| Daily probability of consuming mice | 0.01, 0.15 | Lower value reflects fact that mice are not normally part of the western gull diet. Upper value is arbitrary but kept generally low because gulls normally feed on other food items. |
| Daily probability of consuming pellets | 0.22, 0.25 | Highest average rate suggested by data collected during 2010 SFI field trial. Initial daily rates are much lower, ranging from 0 to 29% during first five days. |
| Conditional probability for consuming pellets | 0.5, 0.9 | Observational data from 2010 SFI field trial suggest that once a gull learns that pellets are a food source, they will continue to consume them as long as they are available. No data are available to quantify this variable and thus a wide range was selected. The same rationale was used for consumption of mice. |
| Conditional probability for consuming mice | 0.5, 0.9 |
| Proportion of intoxicated mice below ground | 0.87, 1 (brodifacoum)  0, 1 (diphacinone) | Data from literature suggests that at least 87% of brodifacoum-intoxicated mice will go below ground. No comparable information is available for diphacinone. |
| LD50 - brodifacoum | 0.588, 5 mg/kg bw | Toxicity studies available for gull species indicate a range of 0.588 to <5 mg/kg bw (Wildlife International, 1979a,b; Godfrey, 1985, 1986). |
| LD50 - diphacinone | 97, 3158 mg/kg bw | No gull toxicity studies are available. Most sensitive value is for American kestrel (Rattner et al., 2010) and most tolerant value is for mallards (Erickson and Urban, 2004). |

### 

### Brodifacoum

Figures 5-23 to 5-25 show the results of the sensitivity analyses for brodifacoum for maximum gull tissue concentration, proportion mortality of gulls, and number of dead gulls. The results of the sensitivity analysis for maximum gull tissue concentration indicate that the three most important variables influencing exposure of western gulls to brodifacoum are the number of applications, hazing effectiveness and time to significant rainfall event following the second application (Figure 5-23). Hazing effectiveness is the most important variable, as it determines how many birds are foraging on the island during bait application and could, therefore, potentially consume the bait. Although hazing has been shown to be highly effective (~90-98%) at airports and landfills (Curtis et al., 1995; Slate et al., 2000; Chipman et al., 2004), it is unknown whether it would be similarly effective at SFI. A fall, 2012 trial is underway to investigate hazing effectiveness at SFI.

Time to the first significant rainfall event following the second application is also significant because rain removes the pellets from the environment, particularly after the second application when few, if any, mice are available to remove pellets. As a result, if there is an extended period of time to the first rainfall event after the second application, gulls will have much higher exposure doses due to the long-term availability of pellets. Although time to first significant rainfall event is a critical input variable, there is no need to conduct additional research on this variable. Thirty-eight years of data on daily rainfall at SFI are currently available (1972-2010), which is sufficient for determining best case, most likely case and worst case values for this variable.

The number of applications is a significant input variable because there will likely be very few mice available following the second application to consume the pellets. This increases the likelihood that the remaining pellets will be consumed by gulls. It is important that measures be taken to reduce the availability of pellets to gulls. This could be done by hazing, as the sensitivity analysis shows that effective hazing greatly reduces the dose ingested by the gulls. Overall, the most effective way to reduce exposure to gulls would be to enhance the hazing effort.

Varying pellet half-life after the first application from 0.5 to 2 days had only a modest influence on gull exposure to brodifacoum. The available data suggest that this is a reasonable range for this variable (e.g., Howald et al., 2001; FWS, 2012) and thus further research would not significantly reduce model uncertainty. Varying the daily probability of gulls ingesting pellets from 0.22 to 0.25 also had only a modest influence on gull exposure. Although data from the 2010 SFI trial were used to define this narrow range, the dataset was clearly limited and thus there is uncertainty regarding this input parameter. The 0.22-0.25 range was at the maximum end of the range actually observed at SFI using two different methods (proportion fecal pellets with dye and observations of foraging gulls). The conditional probability for ingesting pellets is also highly uncertain. However, varying this parameter value from 0.5 to 0.9 had little impact on predicted gull exposure. This result suggests that further research is not required for the conditional probability for ingesting pellets. The time required for pellets to break down following a significant rainfall event had a modest influence on gull exposure. There are several studies that indicate a fairly rapid breakdown and molding of pellets when moisture levels are high (e.g., following a significant rainfall event) (e.g., Merton, 1987; Howald et al., 2001). As such, no further research is recommended for this variable. A site-specific bait degradation study is being conducted on SFI, however, during the fall 2012 season to determine how quickly the two bait pellet types would degrade during a normal fall/winter rainfall season, using non-toxic formulations.

Variables related to the secondary route of exposure (e.g., concentration in mice, probability of consuming mice, conditional probability for consuming mice, proportion of intoxicated mice below ground) had little influence on predicted exposure to western gulls. As shown in Figures 5-11 and 5-12, total removal of dead or intoxicated mice would do little to reduce gull mortality. Clearly, exposure to pellets is a far more important contributor to gull exposure than is exposure to mice. Thus, no research is recommended to reduce uncertainty in the parameters related to the secondary route of exposure.

**Figure 5-23. Results of sensitivity analysis for brodifacoum for maximum tissue concentration in western gulls exposed to brodifacoum.**

The results of the sensitivity analysis for proportion and number of dead gulls were similar to the results for gull exposure except that the gull LD50 was also demonstrated to be important (Figures 5-24 and 5-25). The range between the best and worst case gull LD50s is quite wide (5 mg ai/kg bw and 0.588 mg ai/kg bw, respectively). The worst case LD50 is based upon probit analysis of the results of toxicity studies conducted by Wildlife International (1979a,b) on the laughing gull (*Larus atricilla*). The best case LD50 is from Godfrey (1986) who found that the black-blacked gull (*Chroicocephalus bulleri*) had an LD50 of <5 mg ai/kg bw. No toxicity data are available for western gulls, thus there is no information available at this time to tighten the bounds on the gull LD50. Conducting a toxicity test specific for western gulls would reduce the uncertainty inherent in the LD50 values currently used for analyses.

**Figure 5-24. Results of sensitivity analysis for proportion of dead western gulls exposed to brodifacoum.**

**Figure 5-25. Results of sensitivity analysis for number of dead western gulls exposed to brodifacoum.**

### Diphacinone

Figures 5-26 to 5-28 show the results of the sensitivity analyses for diphacinone for maximum tissue concentration, proportion mortality of gulls, and number of dead gulls. The results of the sensitivity analysis for diphacinone are highly similar to those for brodifacoum but with three notable differences. First, number of applications has a profound impact on gull exposure and mortality. In particular, having a third application of diphacinone dramatically increases gull exposure and mortality. The reason that gull impacts are greater with more than 2 applications of diphacinone is due to the cumulative nature of diphacinone exposure. That is, a lethal dose requires many days to weeks of constant ingestion because diphacinone is metabolized at the same time that it is being consumed. For similar reasons, increasing the application rate to 48 kg bait/ha substantially increases expected dose and gull mortality. The application rate of 48 kg bait/ha is the current proposed rate for SFI whereas the rate of 32 kg bait/ha modeled elsewhere in this report is thought to be the minimum effective rate to ensure mouse eradication. The third highly influential variable was the LD50 assumed for the analysis. No toxicity tests have been carried out on gull species for diphacinone. As a result, the sensitivity of western gulls to this rodenticide is unknown. Assuming the worst case LD50 of 97 mg ai/kg bw for American kestrels (Rattner et al., 2010), led to predictions of significant mortality for western gulls (Figures 5-27 and 5-28). However, assuming the LD50s for northern bobwhite (2,014 mg ai/kg bw; Rattner et al., 2010) or mallards (3,158 mg ai/kg bw; Erickson and Urban, 2004) resulted in predictions of no mortality of diphacinone to western gulls. Conducting a toxicity test specific for western gulls is recommended to reduce the uncertainty of using LD50 values from unrelated bird species.

**Figure 5-26. Results of sensitivity analysis for diphacinone for maximum tissue concentration in western gulls exposed to diphacinone.**

**Figure 5-27. Results of sensitivity analysis for diphacinone for proportion of dead gulls exposed to diphacinone.**

**Figure 5-28. Results of sensitivity analysis for diphacinone for number of dead gulls exposed to diphacinone.**

### Data Gaps

Based on the results of the sensitivity analyses, we identified several data gaps for which more information would be beneficial to reduce uncertainty:

* Hazing effectiveness
* LD50s for western gull for brodifacoum and diphacinone
* Daily probability of western gulls ingesting pellets

In most other projects involving application of rodenticides, gull populations have not been significantly affected. For example, a western gull colony on Anacapa Island in southern California (approximately 2,500 birds; Sowls et al., 1980) was not significantly affected by a rat eradication project involving application of brodifacoum. In that project, there was a loss of only 2 gulls documented (Howald et al. 2004). Eason et al. (2002) reported individual gull mortalities in relation to brodifacoum-based rodent eradication projects, but there were no significant population-level effects In fact, there has never been a reported population level effect to any gull species from a rodent eradication using a rodent bait. A number of factors could explain the discrepancy between the predictions of the western gull risk model and the general lack of gull incidents with previous rat eradication projects:

* Other island eradication projects often relied on use of bait stations instead of aerial broadcast of brodifacoum pellets. Gulls are unable to access pellets in bait stations which would eliminate the most important route of exposure, the primary route of exposure.
* Because rats are much larger than mice, gulls may have been more reluctant to prey upon rats on other islands even if they were intoxicated.
* Other islands may have had more frequent rainfall events which led to rapid breakdown and removal of pellets. Time to a significant rainfall event after the second application is a key variable in the western gull risk model affecting predicted exposure of gulls.
* The western gull population on SFI is much larger than most gull populations on other islands, which increases the likelihood of gulls learning from each other on SFI versus other islands. It also increases the likelihood of higher gull mortalities.
* One or more assumptions in the western gull model could be incorrect. Data were limited on several key components of the model (e.g., hazing effectiveness, daily probabilities of consuming pellets, LD50s). Although the use of best and worst case values attempted to bracket the uncertainty, there clearly is a need to conduct additional research to reduce uncertainty where possible in the model.

In the event that additional research is carried out on key input parameters, the western gull risk model can be updated and additional runs undertaken to refine model predictions of mortality of western gulls on SFI.

## Comparison of Effects of Brodifacoum and Diphacinone on Western Gull Mortality

One of the objectives of this assessment was to determine the relative risks of brodifacoum and diphacinone to western gulls on SFI. It is somewhat difficult to compare the results presented in Appendices A and B because the diphacinone assessment was more conservative than the brodifacoum assessment. For example, because of limited data, the western gull risk model assumed that intoxicated mice do not go below ground after exposure to diphacinone whereas the brodifacoum model assumed that 87% of intoxicated mice go below ground. The LD50 assumed for diphacinone was based on a species unrelated to western gulls (i.e., American kestrel) and was highly conservative relative to other tested bird species. For brodifacoum, a conservative LD50 was also used but it was based on a gull species (i.e., laughing gull) and was reasonably close to the two other LD50s available for gull species (i.e., black-billed gull, southern black-backed gull).

In spite of the higher conservatism in the diphacinone model, the results from the western gull risk model clearly show that diphacinone poses a lower risk to western gulls on SFI than does brodifacoum (Appendices A and B). Assuming an early initial application date (November 1) and 75% hazing effectiveness, applications of diphacinone should not cause greater than 1700 gull mortalities (Figure 5-29). This would only be the case with brodifacoum if a significant rainfall event occurs shortly after the second application (Figure 5-29). If hazing success is 90% or higher, neither rodenticide is likely to cause 1700 or greater gull mortalities irrespective of initial application date or time to first significant rainfall event after the final application (Figure 5-30; Appendices A and B).

Figure 5-29. Effects of time to significant rainfall event on predicted gull mortality for brodifacoum and diphacinone assuming an initial application date of November 1 and 75% hazing success. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.

Figure 5-30. Effects of time to significant rainfall event on predicted gull mortality for brodifacoum and diphacinone assuming an initial application date of November 1 and 90% hazing success. The dashed line represents 1700 dead gulls.

# 

# CONCLUSIONS

The likelihoods of brodifacoum and diphacinone applications achieving total eradication of mice on SFI were not considered in this assessment. It is also clear that brodifacoum poses a higher risk to non-target western gulls than does diphacinone. To most effectively reduce gull mortalities, it would be advisable to consider having an effective gull hazing program, an early start date, and other measures to reduce gull exposure to bait, including some use of bait stations or possibly hand removal of bait pellets after several weeks, if any remain. Because the western gull risk model used conservative input parameters when exact values were unknown, it is likely that the model overestimated expected gull mortalities. Further, several important parameters that could affect uptake of rodenticide by gulls were not included in the model. For example, if plant cover is higher than usual at the time of application, gulls could have more trouble locating pellets, thus reducing exposure. Similarly, use of bait stations in some areas (e.g., where terrain is relatively flat and accessible) would reduce gull exposure. Use of bait stations on portions of SFI was not included in the model.

# REFERENCES

Ainley, D.G. and T.J. Lewis. 1974. The history of Farallon Island marine bird populations 1843-1972. *Condor*, 76:432-446.

Ainley, D.G., C.S. Strong, T.M. Penniman and R.J. Boekelheide. 1990. The feeding ecology of Farallon seabirds. In: D.G. Ainley and R.J. Boekelheide, Eds, Seabirds of the Farallon Islands: Ecology, Dynamics, and Structure of an Upwelling System Community. Stanford University Press, Palo Alto, CA.

Annett, C.A. and R. Pierotti. 1989. Chick hatching as a trigger for dietary switches in western gulls. *Colonial Waterbirds*, 12:4-11.

Ashton, A.D., W.B. Jackson and H. Peters. 1987. Comparative evaluation of LD50 values for various anticoagulant rodenticides. In: Control of Mammal Pests, Eds, C.G.J Richards and T.Y. Ku. Taylor and Francis, London, U.K. pp. 187-198.

Bowie, M.H. and J.G. Ross. 2006. Identification of weta foraging on brodifacoum bait and the risk of secondary poisoning for birds on Quail Island, Canterbury, New Zealand. New Zealand *Journal of Ecology*, 30:219-228.

Buckelew, S., G.R. Howald, A. Wegmann, J. Sheppard, J. Curl, P. McClelland, B. Tershy, K. Swift, E. Campbell and B. Flint. 2005. Progress in Palmyra Atoll restoration: Rat eradication trial 2005. Report to the US Fish and Wildlife Service by Island Conservation, Santa Cruz, CA.

Buckelew, S., G. Howald, S. MacLean, S. Ebbert and T.M. Primus. 2008. Progress in restoration of the Aleutian Islands: Trial rat eradication, Bay of Islands, Adak, Alaska, 2006. Report to the US Fish and Wildlife Service by Island Conservation, Santa Cruz, CA.

Campbell, S., K.A. Hoxster and G. J. Smith. 1991. Diphacinone technical: An acute oral toxicity study with northern bobwhite. Wildlife International, Easton, MD. Project No. 284-103. Submitted by Bell Laboratories, Inc., Madison WI. EPA MRID 422452-01.

Chipman, R.B., R.A. Dolbeer, K.J. Preusser, D.P. Sullivan, E.D. Losito, A.L. Gosser and T.W. Seamans. 2004. Emergency wildlife management response to protect evidence associated with the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center, New York City. *Proceedings of the 21st Vertebrate Pest Conference*, 21:281-286.

Cotter, S.C. 1979. A screening design for factorial experiments with interactions. *Biometrika*, 66:317-320.

Curtis, P.D., C.R. Smith and W. Evans. 1995. Techniques for reducing bird use at Nanticoke landfill near E.A. Link Airport, Broome County, New York. *Sixth Eastern Wildlife Damage Control Conference*, 6:67-78.

Daltry, J.C. 2006. Control of the black rat *Rattus rattus* for the conservation of the Antiguan racer *Alsophis antiguae* on Great Bird Island, Antigua. *Conservation Evidence*, 3:28-29.

Eason, C.T., E.C. Murphy, G.R.G. Wright and E.B. Spurr. 2002. Assessment of risks of brodifacoum to non-target birds and mammals in New Zealand. *Ecotoxicology*, 11:35-48.

Ebbert, S., A. Sowls and V. Byrd. 2007. Alaska’s rat spill response program. In: Managing Vertebrate Invasive Species Proceedings of an International Symposium. USDA, APHIS, WS, National Wildlife Research Center, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA. pages 3332–3337.

ECOFRAM (Ecological Committee on FIFRA Risk Assessment Methods). 1999. Terrestrial Draft Report. <http://www.epa.gov/oppefed1/ecorisk/terrreport.pdf>

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 1993. Wildlife Exposure Factors Handbook. Office of Research and Development, Washington, DC. EPA/600/R-93/187a.

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 1998a. Reregistration Eligibility Decision (RED): Rodenticide Cluster. Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, D.C. EPA738-R-98- 007.

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 1998b. Guidelines for Ecological Risk Assessment. Risk Assessment Forum, Washington, D.C. EPA/630/R-95/002F.

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 2004. Overview of the Ecological Risk Assessment Process in the Office of Pesticide Programs, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: Endangered and Threatened Species Effects Determination. Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, D.C.

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 2008. Pesticide Product Label, Brodifacoum-25D Conservation. Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, D.C. EPA Reg. No. 56228-37.

EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency). 2011. Risks of Diphacinone Use to the Federally Threatened Alameda Whipsnake (*Masticophis lateralis euryxanthus*), California Tiger Salamander (*Ambystoma californiense*), and the Federally Endangered Salt Marsh Harvest Mouse, California Tiger Salamander (*Ambystoma californiense*) Sonoma County Distinct Population Segment and Santa Barbara County Distinct Population Segment, and San Joaquin Kit Fox (*Vulpes macrotis mutica*). Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, D.C.

Erickson, W. and D. Urban. 2004. Potential Risks of Nine Rodenticides to Birds and Nontarget Mammals: A Comparative Approach. Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, Office of Pesticide Programs, Washington, D.C.

Fisher, P.M. 2009. Residual Concentrations and Persistence of the Anticoagulant Pesticides Brodifacoum and Diphacinone in Fauna. Ph.D. Thesis, Lincoln University, Lincoln, New Zealand.

Fisher, P.M. 2010. Environmental fate and residual persistence of brodifacoum in wildlife. *Envirolink,* 884-HBRC131.

Fisher, P.M., R. Griffiths, C. Speedy and K. Broome. In press. Environmental monitoring for brodifacoum residues after aerial application of baits for rodent eradication. In: Turning the Tide II. Gland, Switzerland, ISSG.

FWS (United States Fish and Wildlife Service). 2012. House mouse eradication from the South Farallon Islands: Draft environmental impact statement. San Francisco Bay National Wildlife Refuge Complex, Newark, CA.

Godfrey, M.E.R. 1985. Non-target and secondary poisoning hazards of “second generation” anticoagulants. *Acta Zoologica Fennica,* 173:209-212.

Godfrey, M.E.R. 1986. An evaluation of the acute-oral toxicity of brodifacoum to birds. Proceedings of the Vertebrates Pesticides Conference, 12:78-81.

Griffiths, R. and D. Towns. 2008. The Rangitoto and Motutapu pest eradication – A feasibility study. Department of Conservation, Wellington, New Zealand.

Grout, D. 2012. Report of the 2010 mouse removal field trial on the Farallon Islands. Unpublished Report for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

Howald, G.R. 1997. The risk of non-target species poisoning from brodifacoum used to eradicate rats from Langara Island, British Columbia, Canada. M.Sc. Thesis. University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC. 159 pp.

Howald, G.R., J.C. Donlan, K.R. Faulkner, S. Ortega, S., H. Gellerman, D.A. Croll and B.R. Tershy. 2009. Eradication of black rats *Rattus rattus* from Anacapa Island. *Oryx*, 44:30-40.

Howald, G., C. Donlan, J. Galvan, J. Russel, J. Parkes, A. Samaniego, Y. Wand, D. Veitch, P. Genovesi, M. Pascal, A. Saunders and B. Tershy. 2007. Invasive rodent eradication on islands. *Conservation Biology*, 21:121-124.

Howald, G.R., P. Mineau, J.E. Elliott and K.M. Cheng, K.M. 1999. Brodifacoum poisoning of avian scavengers during rat control on a seabird colony. *Ecotoxicology*, 8:431-447.

Howald, G.R., A. Samaniego, S. Buckalew, P. McClelland, B. Keitt, A. Wegmann, W.C. Pitt, D.S. Vice, E. Campbell, K. Swift and S. Barclay. 2004. Palmyra Atoll rat eradication assessment trip report August 2004. Unpublished report.

Howald, G.R., B.R. Tershy, B.S. Keitt, H. Gellerman, S. Ortega, K. Faulkner, C.J. Donlan and D.A. Croll. 2001. Progress in rat eradication, Anacapa Island, Channel Islands National Park, California. Unpublished report submitted to United States Environmental Protection Agency by the National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, Washington, DC.

Hunt, G.L. and J.L. Butler. 1980. Reproductive ecology of western gulls and Xantus’ murrelets with respect to food resources in the Southern California Bight. CalCOFI Report, Volume XXI.

Hunt, G.L. and M.W. Hunt. 1976. Exploitation of fluctuating food resources by western gulls. *Auk*, 93:301-307.

ICWDM (Internet Center for Wildlife Damage Management). 2005. Description of Active Ingredients. Accessed online at: http://icwdm.org/handbook/pestchem/active.asp

Imber, M., M. Harrison and J. Harrison. 2000) Interactions between petrels, rats and rabbits on Whale Island, and effects of rat and rabbit eradication. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 24:153-160.

Keitt, B., K. Campbell, A. Saunders, M. Clout, Y. Wang, R. Heinz, K. Newton and B. Tershy. 2011. The Global Islands Invasive Vertebrate Eradication Database: A tool to improve and facilitate restoration of island ecosystems. In: C.R.Veitch, M.N. Clout and D.R. Towns, Eds, Island Invasives: Eradication and Management. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland. Pages 74-77.

Knopper, L.D., P. Mineau, L.A. Walker and R.F. Shore. 2007. Bone density and breaking strength in UK raptors exposed to second generation anticoagulant rodenticides. *Bulletin of* *Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, 78:249-251.

Long, R., J. Foster, K. Hoxter, et al. 1992. Diphacinone technical: A dietary LC50 study with the mallard. Wildlife International, Ltd., Easton, MD. Project No. 284-102B.

Macdonald, D.W. and M.G. Fenn. 1994. The natural history of rodents: Preadaptations to pestilence. In: A.P. Buckle and R.H. Smith, Eds, Rodents Pests and Their Control. CAB International, Wallingford, U.K. Pages 1-21.

Mackay J.W.B., J.C. Russell and E.C. Murphy. 2007. Eradicating house mice from islands: Successes, failures and the way forward. In: G.W. Witmer, W.C. Pitt and K.A. Fagerstone, Eds, Managing Vertebrate Invasive Species: Proceedings of an International Symposium. National Wildlife Research Center, Fort Collins, CO.

Mendenhall, V.M. and L.F. Pank. 1980. Secondary poisoning of owls by anticoagulant rodenticides. *Wildlife Society Bulletin*, 8:311-315.

Merton, D. 1987. Eradication of rabbits from Round Island, Mauritius: A conservation success story. *Dodo, Journal of Jersey Wildlife Preservation Trust*, 24:19-43

Mineau, P., S. Trudeau, L.D. Knopper, J. Smits, S.P. Gallagher, J.B. Beavers and J.B. Jaber. 2005. Consequences in birds of sub lethal exposure to second generation anti-coagulant rodenticides. 26th Annual SETAC North America Meeting, Baltimore, MD.

Morgan, D.R. and G.R. Wright. 1996. Environmental effects of rodent Talon baiting: Part I. Monitoring for toxic residues. *Science for Conservation*, 38:5-11.

Mosher, S., A. Hebshi, K. Swift, P. Dunlevy, D. Vice, A. Wegmann, B. Jacobs, P. McClelland, B. Thomas, K. Mate Traps and J. Gilardi. 2007. Rat eradication feasibility study 29 September - 27 October 2007. Draft report summarizing the work conducted to determine the feasibility and approach for a full eradication of rats from Wake Atoll.

Musser, G.G. and M.D. Carleton. 2005. Superfamily Muroidea. In: Wilson, D.E. and D.M. Reeder, Eds, Mammal Species of the World: A Taxonomic and Geographic Reference, 3rd edition. The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, MD. pages 894–1531.

Nagy, K.A. 1987. Field metabolic rate and food requirements scaling in mammals and birds. *Ecological Monographs*, 57:111-128.

Nur, N., R.W. Bradley, D.E. Lee, P.M. Warzybok and J. Jahncke. 2012. Population Viability Analysis of Western Gulls on the Farallon Islands in Relation to Potential Mortality Due to Proposed House Mouse Eradication. Unpublished report to the US Fish and Wildlife Service. PRBO Conservation Science, Petaluma, California. PRBO Contribution Number 1868.

Ogilvie, S.C., R.J. Pierce, G.R.G. Wright, L.H. Booth and C.T. Eason. 1997. Brodifacoum residue analysis in water, soil, invertebrates, and birds after rat eradication on Lady Alice Island. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 21:195-197.

Parkes, J., P. Fisher and G. Forrester. 2011. Diagnosing the cause of failure to eradicate introduced rodents on islands: brodifacoum versus diphacinone and method of bait delivery. *Conservation Evidence*, 8: 100-106.

Penniman, T.M., M.C. Coulter, L.B. Spear and R.J. Boekelheide. 1990. Western gull. In: D.G. Ainley and R.J. Boelkelheide, Eds, Seabirds of the Farallon Islands: Ecology, Dynamics and Structure of an Upwelling System Community. Stanford University Press, Palo Alta, CA. Pages 218-244.

Pierotti, R. 1976. Sex roles, social structure, and the role of the environment in the western gull. Master’s thesis, California State University, Sacramento, CA.

Pierotti, R. 1980. Spite and altruism in gulls. *American Naturalist*, 115:290-300.

Pierotti, R. 1981. Male and female parental roles in the western gull under different environmental conditions. *Auk*, 98:532-549.

Pierotti, R. and C.A. Annett, 1991. Diet choice in the herring gull: Effects of constraints imposed by reproduction and ecology. *Ecology*, 72:319-328.

Pierotti, R.J. and C.A. Annett. 1995. Western gull (*Larus occidentalis*). In: A. Poole, Ed, The Birds of North America Online. Cornell Lab of Ornithology, Ithaca, NY. <http://bna.birds.cornell.edu/bna/species/174>

Pitt, W.C., L.C. Driscoll and R.T. Sugihara. 2011. Efficacy of rodenticide baits for the control of three invasive rodent species in Hawaii. *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, 60:533-542.

Pott, M, and D. Grout. 2012. Results of a pilot gull hazing trial on the Farallon National Wildlife Refuge. Unpublished report for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

Rattner, B.A., K.E. Horak, S.E. Warner, D.D. Day, and J.J. Johnston. 2010. Comparative toxicity of diphacinone to northern bobwhite (*Colinus virginianus*) and American kestrels (*Falco sparverius*). *Proceedings of the 24th Vertebrate Pest Conference*, 24:146-152.

Samaniego-Herrera, A., A. Aguirre-Muñoz, G. Howald, M. Felix-Lizarraga, J. Valdez-Villavicencio, R. Gonzalez-Gomez, F. Mendez-Sanchez, F. Torres-Garcia, M. Rodríguez-Malagón, and B. Tershy. 2009. Eradication of black rats from Farallon de San Ignacio and San Pedro Martir Islands, Gulf of California, Mexico. In: Proceedings of the 7th California Islands Symposium. Institute for Wildlife Studies, Arcata, CA. Pages 337-347.

Slate, D., J. McConnell, M. Barden, R. Chipman, J. Janicke and C. Benuy. 2000. Controlling gulls at landfills. *Proceedings of the 19th Vertebrate Pest Conference*, 19:68-76.

Snellen, C.L., P.J. Hodum and E. Fernandez-Juricic. 2007. Assessing western gull predation on purple sea urchins in the rocky intertidal using optimal foraging theory. *Canadian Journal of* *Zoology*, 85:221-231.

Sowls, A.L., A.R. Degange, J.W. Nelson and G.S. Lester. 1980. Catalog of California seabird colonies. United States Fish and Wildlife Service, Slidell, LA. FWS/OBS 80/37.

Spear, L.B. 1988. Dispersal patterns of western gulls from Southeast Farallon Island. *Auk*, 105:128-141.

Stone, W.B., J.C. Okoniewski and J.R. Stedelin. 1999. Poisoning of wildlife with anticoagulant rodenticides in New York. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases*, 35:187-193.

Suter, G.W., L.W. Barnthouse, S.M. Bartell, T. Mill, D. Mackay and S. Patterson. Ecological Risk Assessment. Lewis Publishers, Chelsea, MI.

Taylor, R.H. 1993. The feasibility of rat eradication on Langara Island, British Columbia, Canada. Report to the Canadian Wildlife Service, Ottawa, ON. 30 pp.

Taylor, R.H. and B.W. Thomas. 1989. Eradication of Norway rats (*Rattus norvegicus*) from Hawea Island, Fiordland, using brodifacoum. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 12:23-32.

Taylor, R.H. and B.W. Thomas. 1993. Rats eradicated from rugged Breaksea Island (170 ha), Fiordland, New Zealand. *Biological Conservation*, 65:191-198.

Wanless, R.M., P. Fisher, J. Cooper, J. Parkes, P.G. Ryan and M. Slabber. 2008. Bait acceptance by house mice: An island field trial. *Wildlife Research*, 35:806-811.

Weber, P. 2001. Vitamin K and bone health. *Nutrition*, 17:880-887.

Wildlife International. 1979a. Forty-day LC50 - Laughing Gull, Technical Brodifacoum, Final Report. Submitted to ICI Americas, Inc., Goldsboro, NC. Submitted by Wildlife International, Inc., Easton, MD.

Wildlife International. 1979b. Forty-day Dietary LC50 - Laughing Gull, Masticated Rodent Tissue Containing PP581, Final Report. Submitted to ICI Americas, Inc., Goldsboro, NC. Submitted by Wildlife International, Inc., Easton, MD.

Witmer, G., J.D. Eisemann and G. Howald. 2007. The Use of Rodenticides for Conservation Efforts. In: D.L. Nolte, W.M. Arjo and D.H. Stalman, Eds, *Proceedings of the 12th Wildlife Damage Management Conference*, 12: 160-167.

World Health Organization. 1995. Anticoagulant rodenticides. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland. Environmental Health Criteria 175.

# APPENDIX A – MODELING RESULTS FOR WESTERN GULLS EXPOSED TO BRODIFACOUM ON THE FARALLON ISLANDS

| **Date of Application** | **Proportion of Gulls Removed by Hazing** | **Time to Significant Rainfall Event (d)** | **Number of Applications** | **Dead Mice Removed?** | **Mean Total Ingested Dose (mg ai/kg bw)** | **Proportion of Dead Gulls** | **Number of Dead Gulls (#/11,000 Gulls)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.608 | 0.177 | 1942 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.726 | 0.203 | 2229 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.787 | 0.213 | 2345 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.848 | 0.226 | 2486 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.865 | 0.226 | 2480 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.877 | 0.229 | 2523 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.869 | 0.226 | 2483 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.863 | 0.226 | 2487 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.241 | 0.0695 | 764 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.285 | 0.0793 | 872 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.317 | 0.0859 | 945 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.330 | 0.0882 | 970 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.339 | 0.0892 | 980 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.355 | 0.0924 | 1016 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.341 | 0.0902 | 992 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.345 | 0.0905 | 995 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.118 | 0.0342 | 376 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.155 | 0.0432 | 475 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.159 | 0.0429 | 472 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.167 | 0.0439 | 483 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.168 | 0.0443 | 486 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.170 | 0.0439 | 483 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.168 | 0.0437 | 481 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.180 | 0.0476 | 523 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.048 | 0.0138 | 151 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0556 | 0.0152 | 167 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0622 | 0.0166 | 182 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0656 | 0.0173 | 190 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0663 | 0.0177 | 194 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0656 | 0.0174 | 191 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0730 | 0.0190 | 209 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 28 | 2 | No | 0.0666 | 0.0178 | 195 |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.110 | 0.0346 | 380 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.112 | 0.0353 | 388 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.348 | 0.108 | 1192 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.362 | 0.113 | 1244 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.492 | 0.157 | 1729 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.516 | 0.161 | 1771 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.527 | 0.167 | 1837 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.540 | 0.170 | 1871 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0489 | 0.0153 | 167 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0475 | 0.0152 | 166 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.135 | 0.0431 | 474 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.146 | 0.0445 | 489 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.204 | 0.0641 | 704 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.208 | 0.0658 | 723 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.212 | 0.0678 | 745 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.212 | 0.0672 | 739 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0254 | 0.00770 | 84 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0246 | 0.00740 | 81 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0677 | 0.0213 | 234 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0716 | 0.0220 | 242 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.102 | 0.0321 | 353 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.106 | 0.0326 | 358 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.106 | 0.0327 | 360 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.108 | 0.0344 | 378 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.00864 | 0.00267 | 29 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.00789 | 0.00240 | 26 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0244 | 0.00727 | 79 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0300 | 0.00910 | 100 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0412 | 0.0132 | 145 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0425 | 0.0126 | 138 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0432 | 0.0136 | 149 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 4 | 2 | No | 0.0433 | 0.0134 | 147 |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.997 | 0.238 | 2612 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.04 | 0.243 | 2674 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.06 | 0.245 | 2695 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.07 | 0.245 | 2690 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.05 | 0.244 | 2680 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.04 | 0.240 | 2644 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.03 | 0.239 | 2626 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 117 | 2 | No | 1.02 | 0.237 | 2611 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.412 | 0.0967 | 1063 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.404 | 0.0942 | 1036 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.409 | 0.0949 | 1044 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.430 | 0.0989 | 1087 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.412 | 0.0955 | 1050 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.422 | 0.0975 | 1072 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.411 | 0.0945 | 1039 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.415 | 0.0968 | 1064 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.199 | 0.0469 | 516 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.205 | 0.0476 | 523 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.204 | 0.0469 | 515 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.203 | 0.0466 | 512 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.202 | 0.0465 | 511 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.210 | 0.0483 | 530 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.211 | 0.0484 | 532 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.203 | 0.0474 | 521 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0823 | 0.0194 | 213 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0799 | 0.0188 | 206 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0858 | 0.0200 | 220 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0829 | 0.0192 | 210 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0815 | 0.0193 | 212 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0821 | 0.0192 | 210 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0762 | 0.0177 | 194 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 117 | 2 | No | 0.0854 | 0.0200 | 220 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 28 | 1 | No | 0.0316 | 0.0144 | 158 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 28 | 2 | Yes | 0.340 | 0.0894 | 984 |

# APPENDIX B – MODELING RESULTS FOR WESTERN GULLS EXPOSED TO DIPHACINONE ON THE FARALLON ISLANDS

| **Date of Application** | **Proportion of Gulls Removed by Hazing** | **Time to Significant Rainfall Event (d)** | **Number of Applications** | **Dead Mice Removed?** | **Mean Total Ingested Dose (mg ai/kg bw)** | **Proportion of Dead Gulls** | **Number of Dead Gulls (#/11,000 Gulls)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 13.8 | 0.0666 | 732 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 19.1 | 0.0910 | 1001 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 22.3 | 0.110 | 1215 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 23.6 | 0.121 | 1332 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 24.2 | 0.122 | 1337 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 24.1 | 0.122 | 1339 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 24.6 | 0.123 | 1355 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | No | 24.3 | 0.123 | 1349 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 5.42 | 0.0254 | 279 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 7.52 | 0.0371 | 407 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 8.72 | 0.0441 | 485 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 9.28 | 0.0460 | 506 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 9.88 | 0.0500 | 549 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 9.87 | 0.0482 | 530 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 9.78 | 0.0485 | 533 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 28 | 3 | No | 9.74 | 0.0494 | 543 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 2.72 | 0.0124 | 136 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 3.94 | 0.0190 | 209 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.46 | 0.0226 | 248 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.80 | 0.0236 | 259 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.79 | 0.0247 | 271 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.55 | 0.0221 | 243 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.68 | 0.0241 | 265 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 28 | 3 | No | 4.90 | 0.0243 | 267 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 0.99 | 0.00477 | 52 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 1.50 | 0.00723 | 79 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 1.82 | 0.00940 | 103 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 1.90 | 0.00957 | 105 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 1.84 | 0.00927 | 101 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 2.03 | 0.0104 | 114 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 2.02 | 0.0101 | 111 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 28 | 3 | No | 1.96 | 0.0100 | 110 |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.80 | 0.0052 | 56 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.85 | 0.0053 | 58 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 5.56 | 0.0175 | 192 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 6.16 | 0.0184 | 202 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 8.23 | 0.0255 | 280 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 8.85 | 0.0246 | 270 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 8.61 | 0.0241 | 265 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 4 | 3 | No | 8.80 | 0.0249 | 273 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.740 | 0.00190 | 20 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.745 | 0.00237 | 26 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 2.49 | 0.00777 | 85 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 2.48 | 0.00800 | 88 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 3.46 | 0.0101 | 111 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 3.45 | 0.0106 | 116 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 3.64 | 0.0112 | 123 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 4 | 3 | No | 3.53 | 0.0104 | 114 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.384 | 0.00110 | 12 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.325 | 0.000933 | 10 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.07 | 0.00343 | 37 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.26 | 0.00337 | 37 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.70 | 0.00577 | 63 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.82 | 0.00513 | 56 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.78 | 0.00467 | 51 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 4 | 3 | No | 1.75 | 0.00550 | 60 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.149 | 0.000367 | 4 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.142 | 0.000433 | 4 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.447 | 0.00137 | 15 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.482 | 0.00117 | 12 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.715 | 0.00203 | 22 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.740 | 0.00217 | 23 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.664 | 0.00170 | 18 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 4 | 3 | No | 0.650 | 0.00157 | 17 |
| Nov 1 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 30.6 | 0.168 | 1852 |
| Nov 8 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 32.2 | 0.177 | 1941 |
| Nov 15 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.5 | 0.173 | 1900 |
| Nov 22 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.8 | 0.174 | 1913 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.8 | 0.177 | 1942 |
| Dec 6 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.7 | 0.175 | 1921 |
| Dec 13 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.5 | 0.174 | 1911 |
| Dec 20 | 0.75 | 117 | 3 | No | 31.1 | 0.169 | 1864 |
| Nov 1 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.4 | 0.0685 | 753 |
| Nov 8 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.9 | 0.0707 | 778 |
| Nov 15 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 13.0 | 0.0722 | 794 |
| Nov 22 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.6 | 0.0704 | 774 |
| Nov 29 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.6 | 0.0696 | 765 |
| Dec 6 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.8 | 0.0704 | 774 |
| Dec 13 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.9 | 0.0708 | 778 |
| Dec 20 | 0.9 | 117 | 3 | No | 12.5 | 0.0688 | 757 |
| Nov 1 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.07 | 0.0332 | 364 |
| Nov 8 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.31 | 0.0352 | 386 |
| Nov 15 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.27 | 0.0346 | 380 |
| Nov 22 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.22 | 0.0345 | 379 |
| Nov 29 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.31 | 0.0352 | 386 |
| Dec 6 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.27 | 0.0350 | 385 |
| Dec 13 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.40 | 0.0347 | 381 |
| Dec 20 | 0.95 | 117 | 3 | No | 6.10 | 0.0331 | 363 |
| Nov 1 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.28 | 0.0130 | 142 |
| Nov 8 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.53 | 0.0147 | 161 |
| Nov 15 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.59 | 0.0142 | 156 |
| Nov 22 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.35 | 0.0131 | 143 |
| Nov 29 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.45 | 0.0143 | 157 |
| Dec 6 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.46 | 0.0133 | 146 |
| Dec 13 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.43 | 0.0131 | 143 |
| Dec 20 | 0.98 | 117 | 3 | No | 2.49 | 0.0130 | 143 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 28 | 1 | No | 0.345 | 0 | 0 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 28 | 2 | No | 12.7 | 0.000515 | 6 |
| Nov 29 | 0.75 | 28 | 3 | Yes | 48.2 | 0.121 | 1332 |

# APPENDIX C – SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR BRODIFACOUM MODEL

| **Varied Parameter** | **Value** | **Units** | **Mean Total Ingested Dose (mg ai/kg bw)** | **Proportion Dead Gulls** | **Number of Dead Gulls (#/11,000 Gulls)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Application Date | Nov 1 |  | 0.244 | 0.070 | 771 |
| Nov 8 |  | 0.288 | 0.080 | 880 |
| Nov 15 |  | 0.316 | 0.0852 | 936 |
| Nov 22 |  | 0.33 | 0.0878 | 966 |
| Nov 29 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| Dec 6 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 987 |
| Dec 13 |  | 0.344 | 0.0904 | 993 |
| Dec 20 |  | 0.346 | 0.0906 | 997 |
| Applications Interval | 5 | days | 0.33 | 0.088 | 967 |
| 12 | days | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 21 | days | 0.34 | 0.090 | 992 |
| Number of Applications | 1 |  | 0.032 | 0.0144 | 158 |
| 2 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| Hazing Effectiveness | 0.75 |  | 0.865 | 0.226 | 2480 |
| 0.9 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 0.95 |  | 0.168 | 0.0443 | 486 |
| 0.98 |  | 0.0663 | 0.0177 | 194 |
| Pellet Half-life | 0.5 | days | 0.36 | 0.0914 | 1005 |
| 1 | days | 0.34 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 2 | days | 0.34 | 0.089 | 980 |
| Time to Significant Rainfall Event After 2nd Application | 4 | days | 0.20 | 0.0636 | 698 |
| 28 | days | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 117 | days | 0.424 | 0.0976 | 1073 |
| Time to Removal of Bait Following Significant Rainfall Event | 2 | days | 0.178 | 0.058 | 638 |
| 4.5 | days | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 7 | days | 0.23 | 0.069 | 756 |
| Mean (SD) Concentration in Mice | 2.71 (0.7) | mg/kg ww | 0.34 | 0.091 | 996 |
| 4.9 (1.26) | mg/kg ww | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| Daily Probability of Consuming Mice Prior to Brodifacoum Application | 0.01 |  | 0.34 | 0.089 | 982 |
| 0.125 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| 0.15 |  | 0.34 | 0.090 | 994 |
| Daily Probability of Consuming Pellets Following Brodifacoum Application | 0.22 |  | 0.31 | 0.085 | 931 |
| 0.25 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| Conditional Probability for Consuming Mice | 0.5 |  | 0.34 | 0.089 | 977 |
| 0.7 |  | 0.34 | 0.090 | 991 |
| 0.9 |  | 0.342 | 0.0898 | 988 |
| Conditional Probability for Consuming Pellets | 0.5 |  | 0.31 | 0.092 | 1011 |
| 0.7 |  | 0.31 | 0.090 | 990 |
| 0.9 |  | 0.34 | 0.090 | 988 |
| Proportion of Mouse Population Below Ground Following Onset of Symptoms | 0.87 |  | 0.34 | 0.090 | 988 |
| 0.935 |  | 0.34 | 0.089 | 980 |
| 1 |  | 0.34 | 0.090 | 993 |
| LD50 | 0.588 | mg/kg bw | 0.34 | 0.090 | 988 |
| 2.79 | mg/kg bw | 0.35 | 0.055 | 600 |
| 5 | mg/kg bw | 0.34 | 0.034 | 369 |

# APPENDIX D – SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR Diphacinone MODEL

| **Varied Parameter** | **Value** | **Units** | **Mean Total Ingested Dose (mg ai/kg bw)** | **Proportion Dead Gulls** | **Number of Dead Birds (#/11,000 birds)** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Application Date | Nov 1 |  | 5.54 | 0.0267 | 294 |
| Nov 8 |  | 7.65 | 0.0366 | 402 |
| Nov 15 |  | 8.92 | 0.0448 | 493 |
| Nov 22 |  | 9.44 | 0.0468 | 514 |
| Nov 29 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| Dec 6 |  | 9.72 | 0.0490 | 539 |
| Dec 13 |  | 9.75 | 0.0490 | 539 |
| Dec 20 |  | 9.69 | 0.0478 | 525 |
| Application Rate | 32 | kg bait/ha | 9.68 | 0.049 | 538 |
| 48 | kg bait/ha | 22.7 | 0.0876 | 963 |
| Applications Interval | 5 | days | 12.3 | 0.0661 | 726 |
| 12 | days | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 21 | days | 9.35 | 0.0463 | 510 |
| Number of Applications | 1 |  | 0.0689 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 |  | 2.53 | 0.000207 | 2 |
| 3 |  | 9.68 | 0.049 | 538 |
| Hazing Effectiveness | 0.75 |  | 72.2 | 0.366 | 4022 |
| 0.9 |  | 48.4 | 0.245 | 2691 |
| 0.95 |  | 24.2 | 0.122 | 1337 |
| 0.98 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 540 |
| Pellet Half-life | 0.5 | days | 4.79 | 0.0247 | 271 |
| 1 | days | 1.84 | 0.00927 | 101 |
| 2 | days | 11.4 | 0.0604 | 664 |
| Time to Significant Rainfall Event After 2nd Application | 4 | days | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 28 | days | 9.68 | 0.0487 | 536 |
| 117 | days | 3.37 | 0.00995 | 109 |
| Time to Removal of Bait Following Significant Rainfall Event | 2 | days | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 4.5 | days | 12.9 | 0.0706 | 777 |
| 7 | days | 9.24 | 0.0463 | 510 |
| Mean (SD) Concentration in Mice | 30 (7.5) | mg/kg ww | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 51.5 (13) | mg/kg ww | 9.93 | 0.0499 | 549 |
| Daily Probability of Consuming Mice Prior to Diphacinone Application | 0.01 |  | 9.69 | 0.0487 | 536 |
| 0.125 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 0.15 |  | 9.77 | 0.0493 | 542 |
| Daily Probability of Consuming Pellets Following Diphacinone Application | 0.22 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 0.25 |  | 9.69 | 0.0488 | 537 |
| Conditional Probability for Consuming Mice | 0.5 |  | 9.62 | 0.0480 | 528 |
| 0.7 |  | 9.66 | 0.0485 | 534 |
| 0.9 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| Conditional Probability for Consuming Pellets | 0.5 |  | 8.91 | 0.0401 | 441 |
| 0.7 |  | 8.83 | 0.0410 | 451 |
| 0.9 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| Proportion of Mouse Population Below Ground Following Onset of Symptoms | 0 |  | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 0.87 |  | 9.64 | 0.0483 | 531 |
| 1 |  | 9.70 | 0.0490 | 539 |
| LD50 | 97 | mg/kg bw | 9.68 | 0.0490 | 538 |
| 2014 | mg/kg bw | 9.67 | 0 | 0 |
| 3158 | mg/kg bw | 9.72 | 0 | 0 |

1. Future model simulations may consider January-February rainfall patterns and additional periods of time to the first significant rainfall event - as January-February rainfall historically encompasses the majority of the annual winter rainfall on the island. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. The inputs chosen for the model stability analysis are unimportant in determining how many simulations are required to ensure a stable output (i.e., a consistent answer). Thus, readers should not interpret the inputs chosen for this analysis as being in any way relevant to the actual analyses of risk to western gulls. For example, in the actual analyses of risk to western gulls, we varied hazing success from 75 to 98% and application dates from November 1 to December 20. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)