# A review of Killer Whale interactions with other marine mammals: predation to co-existence 

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#### Abstract

Killer Whales are well-known as predators of other marine mammals, including the large Sperm and baleen whales. Members of all marine mammal families, except the river dolphins and manatees, have been recorded as prey of Killer Whales; attacks have been observed on 20 species of cetaceans, 14 species of pinnipeds, the Sea Otter, and the Dugong. Ecological interactions have not been systematically studied and further work may indicate that the Killer Whale is a more important predator for some populations than previously believed. Not all behavioural interactions between Killer Whales and other marine mammal species result in predation, however. Some involve 'harassment' by the Killer Whales, feeding by both species in the same area, porpoises playing around Killer Whales, both species apparently 'ignoring' each other, and even apparently unprovoked attacks on Killer Whales by sea lions. These non-predatory interactions are relatively common. We conclude that interactions between Killer Whales and marine mammals are complex, involving many different factors that we are just beginning to understand.

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## INTRODUCTION

The diverse feeding habits of Killer Whales Orcinus orca have fascinated biologists and laymen for centuries. Like other odontocete cetaceans, Killer Whales are known to feed
on a wide variety of fish and cephalopods (see reviews in Perrin, 1982; Hoyt, 1984). But, unlike other cetaceans, they also regularly consume other prey, including seabirds (Taverner, 1943; Condy, Van Aarde \& Bester, 1978; Straneck, Livezey \& Humphrey, 1983; Stacey \& Baird, 1989a) and marine turtles (Caldwell \& Caldwell, 1969). They have even been seen feeding on a deer (Odocoileus sp.) carcass (Pike \& MacAskie, 1969), and recently remains of a pig (Sus sp.) were recovered from the throat of a stranded animal (R. W. Baird and P. J. Stacey, unpubl.). Killer Whales are perhaps best known, however, for their habits of attacking, killing, and eating other marine mammals, including the large mysticetes and Sperm Whales.

This is not to say that other marine mammals do not also occasionally prey on their warm-blooded relatives. In fact, ten species have been implicated as marine-mammal feeders: Polar Bears Ursus maritimus (Freeman, 1973; Stirling \& Archibald, 1977), Steller or Northern Sea Lions Eumetopias jubatus (Gentry \& Johnson, 1981), New Zealand Sea Lions Phocarctos hookeri (Mattlin, 1987), Southern Sea Lions Otaria flavescens (Majluf, 1987; Harcourt, 1989), Walruses Odobenus rosmarus (Fay, 1960; Lowry \& Fay, 1984), Leopard Seals Hydrurga leptonyx (Hamilton, 1939; Siniff \& Bengston, 1977), Short-finned Pilot Whales Globicephala macrorhynchus (Perryman \& Foster, 1980), Pygmy Killer Whales Feresa attenuata (Perryman \& Foster, 1980), False Killer Whales Pseudorca crassidens (Perryman \& Foster, 1980; Hoyt, 1983), and Sperm Whales Physeter macrocephalus (Lambertsen \& Kohn, 1987). However, with the exception of the Leopard Seal and Polar Bear, these species appear to pursue marine mammal prey 'as a hobby'. Some Killer Whales, on the other hand, 'make a living' feeding on marine mammals.

Several studies in different parts of the world have identified the existence of two forms of Killer Whale, and have suggested that one feeds primarily on marine mammals, and the other mainly on fish (Berzin \& Vladymirov, 1983; Bigg et al., 1987). In the eastern North Pacific, these two forms have been termed 'transients' and 'residents', respectively (Bigg, 1982). As Guinet (1990a) notes, these terms are not as accurate in describing the movement patterns and site tenacity of the two forms as they were originally thought to be, but they are still in common use, due to their entrenchment and the lack of appropriate alternative designations. From Washington State through Alaska, resident fish eaters and transient marine-mammal eaters are sympatric, but can be distinguished by differences in behaviour, morphology, and mitochondrial DNA (Bigg, 1982; Bigg et al., 1987; Baird \& Stacey, 1988a,b; Stevens et al., 1989). It is important to distinguish between these two types, and their analogues elsewhere in the world, when examining relationships between Killer Whales and their potential prey species.

This paper reviews what is known about how Killer Whales interact with other species of marine mammals and identifies behavioural trends apparent in the literature. The term 'interaction' is here used loosely to denote any occurrence of two or more species in close proximity, whether or not a change in behaviour of either species was observed. It deals primarily with behavioural interactions (as opposed to ecological interactions, e.g. Baird, Abrams \& Dill, 1990). Little work has been undertaken on ecological interactions between Killer Whales and their prey, such as the influence of predation on prey populations, co-evolution of predator and prey, or competition for resources. Such work is needed to understand more fully the role Killer Whales play in their ecosystem.

Sources of information were the published and unpublished literature, unpublished records of many colleagues, and personal observations by the authors. Some of the
records come from reports of whalers and other untrained observers, and so must be viewed with caution. Appendices I and II summarize the records of interactions assembled. We do not imply that species not listed in the appendix tables do not interact with Killer Whales. On the contrary, although more common in colder nearshore waters, the Killer Whale is a cosmopolitan species (Leatherwood \& Dahlheim, 1978; Heyning \& Dahlheim, 1988) and we presume that interactions occur with virtually all species, at least occasionally. Such interactions have yet to be observed or reported for other species, however. We hope that this paper will guide the interpretation of future observations and promote their publication in the scientific literature.

## PREDATION AND HARASSMENT OF MARINE MAMMALS

## Cetaceans

Killer Whales have been observed attacking or harassing 20 species of cetaceans (Table 1, Appendix I). Five additional species are represented by stomach contents, but have not been directly observed being attacked: Pygmy Sperm Whale Kogia breviceps, Baird's Beaked Whale Berardius bairdii, Short-finned Pilot Whale, Striped Dolphin Stenella coeruleoalba, and Finless Porpoise Neophocaena phocaenoides (Nishiwaki \& Handa, 1958; Perrin, 1982). Also, beaked whales of the genus Mesoplodon have been suggested as victims of Killer Whale attacks, based on scars that appear to correspond to Orcinus or Pseudorca tooth marks (Mead, 1989). Hoyt (1984) cited Nishiwaki \& Handa (1958) as the source of a record of Pacific White-sided Dolphin Lagenorhynchus obliquidens remains in Killer Whale stomach contents, but this is apparently a mistake, as this species is not specifically mentioned by Nishiwaki \& Handa.

Included among the victims are members of every cetacean family except Platanistidae (river dolphins), although Castello (1977) mentions the Franciscana Pontoporia blainvillei, which is commonly found in marine waters, as a possible prey item. Killer Whales are known to ascend rivers (e.g. Scammon, 1874; True, 1904; Shepherd, 1932; Tomilin, 1957), but do so uncommonly and almost never in the tropical and subtropical regions where river dolphins are concentrated. Conspicuously absent from Appendix I are the vast majority of the some 31 species in the family Delphinidae. Many delphinids are tropical, open-ocean species, and this may explain their absence. On the other hand, certain species, such as Lagenorhynchus spp. and Lissodelphis spp., have distributions that overlap areas of Killer Whale abundance, so their absence from the list is surprising and somewhat puzzling.

Fin Whales Balaenoptera physalus, Minke Whales Balaenoptera acutorostrata, Humpback Whales Megaptera novaeangliae, Bowhead Whales Balaena mysticetus, and Grey Whales Eschrichtius robustus, Narwhals Monodon monoceros and Dall's Porpoises Phocoenoides dalli are the most commonly recorded cetacean prey species, with over 10 records of predation or harassment each (Table 1).

Killer whale group sizes during predation or harassment episodes are shown graphically in Fig. 1 for various groupings of cetacean prey types. Somewhat surprisingly, most reported attacks on large whales have been by small groups of one to five killer whales. This is somewhat at odds with the findings of Felleman (1986). Attacks on large herds of dolphins or small whales show a tendency to have involved the largest groups of Killer Whales, most commonly six to ten animals, and often used some type of herding (see Brown \& Norris, 1956; Rice, 1968; W. F. Samaras \& S. Leatherwood, unpubl.). Attacks on single Minke Whales or small pods of medium-sized whales have mostly involved six to ten Killer Whales. Finally, predation on small groups of dolphins or

Table 1
Interactions between Killer Whales Orcinus orca and other marine mammals. Number of reported incidents by marine mammal species (details given in Appendices I (predatory) and II (nonpredatory), see pp. 173-180

| Family | Species | Interaction |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Predatory | Non-predatory |
| Cetaceans |  |  |  |
| Balaenopteridae | Blue Whale | 4 | 2 |
|  | Fin Whale | 15 | 22 |
|  | Sei Whale | 2 | 14 |
|  | Bryde's Whale | 1 | 1 |
|  | Minke Whale | 17 | $56+$ |
|  | Humpback Whale | $21+$ | $22+$ |
| Balaenidae | Bowhead Whale | 12 | - |
|  | Northern Right Whale | 1 | - |
|  | Southern Right Whale | $8+$ | 1 |
| Eschrichtiidae | Grey Whale | $24+$ | $7+$ |
| Physeteridae | Sperm Whale | $6+$ | $33+$ |
| Ziphiidae | Arnoux's Beaked Whale | - | 1 |
|  | Northern Bottlenose Whale | 2 | 2 |
|  | Southern Bottlenose Whale | - | 6 |
|  | Cuvier's Beaked Whale | 1 | - |
| Monodontidae | Narwhal | 19 | - |
|  | White Whale | 8 | 1 |
| Delphinidae | Long-finned Pilot Whale | 5 | 4 |
|  | False Killer Whale | - | 1 |
|  | Risso's Dolphin | - | $3+$ |
|  | Common Dolphin | 3 | 1 |
|  | Spinner Dolphin | - | 1 |
|  | Dusky Dolphin | 1 | 8 |
|  | White-beaked Dolphin | - | 6 |
|  | Atlantic White-sided Dolphin | - | 3 |
|  | Pacific White-sided Dolphin | - | 1 |
|  | Bottlenose Dolphin | - | 2 |
|  | Indo-Pacific Humpback Dolphin | - | 1 |
| Phocoenidae | Dall's Porpoise | $16$ | $46+$ |
|  | Harbour Porpoise | 12 | $7+$ |
| Pinnipeds |  |  |  |
| Phocidae | Northern Elephant Seal | 3 | - |
|  | Southern Elephant Seal | $250+$ | - |
|  | Grey Seal | $3+$ | - |
|  | Hooded Seal | 1 | - |
|  | Harbour Seal | $68+$ | $8+$ |
|  | Harp Seal | 3 | 2 |
|  | Crabeater Seal | 2 | 1 |
|  | Weddell Seal | 2 | $2+$ |
|  | Leopard Seal | 1 | - |
| Odobenidae | Walrus | $12+$ | 1 |
| Otariidae | California Sea Lion | $16+$ | 1 |
|  | Steller Sea Lion | $21+$ | $10+$ |
|  | Southern Sea Lion | $200+$ | - |
|  | Northern Fur Seal | $3+$ | - |
| Sirenians |  |  |  |
| Dugongidae | Dugong | 3 | - |
| Carnivores |  |  |  |
| Mustelidae | Sea Otter | 1 | 5 |



Fig. 1. Killer Whale group sizes involved in predation and harassment of (a) large whales (Sperm Whales and all mysticetes except Minke Whales), (b) large herds of dolphins or small whales ( 10 or more prey), (c) Minke Whales or small pods of medium-sized whales, and (d) small groups of dolphins or porpoises (nine or fewer prey).
porpoises generally has required only one to five Killer Whales, and large groups appear never to have been reported.

## Pinnipeds

Pinnipeds appear to comprise a regular and substantial portion of the diet of some populations of Killer Whales. There is evidence of predation from throughout the world, with more documented cases from sub-polar and polar latitudes where Killer Whales (and seasonally, pinnipeds) are most abundant. Included as prey species are all families and most major groups of pinnipeds: elephant seals, Antarctic seals, Northern Hemisphere seals, sea lions, fur seals, and the Walrus. Individuals of nine of the 18 or 19 species of phocids, four of the 14 species of otariids, and the single odobenid, have been observed being attacked (Table 1, Appendix I). Two other phocids, the Bearded Seal Erignathus barbatus and Ringed Seal Phoca hispida are known as Killer Whale prey only from stomach contents (Zenkovich, 1938; Tomilin, 1957; Nishiwaki \& Handa, 1958; Reeves \& Mitchell, 1988).

Monk Seals (Monachus spp.) are the only major group not known to be preyed on by Killer Whales, and these are tropical animals. Sharks appear to replace Killer Whales as significant predators in warmer waters, taking species such as Hawaiian Monk Seals Monachus schauinslandi and Mediterranean Monk Seals M. monachus (Kenyon, 1981). Killer Whales were noted by Bonner (1981) as probable predators of the eight species of southern fur seals (Arctocephalus), although no attacks are known to us. It is probable that seals of all of the remaining species, except the inland Baikal Seal Phoca sibirica and the Caspian Seal P. caspica, have been victims of Killer Whale predation at one time or another. Of the pinnipeds, Southern Elephant Seals Mirounga leonina and Harbour Seals Phoca vitulina, Walruses and Steller, Southern and California Sea Lions


Fig. 2. Killer Whale group sizes involved in predation and harassment of (a) eared seals or Walruses, and (b) true seals.

Zalophus californianus have been most commonly recorded as Killer Whale prey species (Table 1).

Killer Whales attacked pinnipeds both offshore and near the haul-out sites where they concentrate. Prey handling time has varied from less than 1 minute (W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.) to several hours, although once the prey is killed, consumption can be very rapid (Anonymous, 1975). Pinnipeds are attacked by Killer Whales as singles and in groups of up to 30 whales, although the vast majority of reported attacks are by groups of 10 or fewer (Fig. 2).

Most events in Appendix I are incidental observations at a wide variety of locations, mainly cases of the observer being at the right place at the right time. Because of this lack of systematic study of Killer Whale predation, there is generally little information available on ecological importance, and this has led to the belief that Killer Whales are not significant predators of most species of pinnipeds. In two locations, Killer Whale predation on pinnipeds has been studied over a period of years. In both locations, southern Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Canada (Baird \& Stacey, 1988b; Baird, Dill \& Stacey, 1990) and Peninsula Valdes, Argentina (Lopez \& Lopez, 1985; Hoelzel, 1989), Killer Whales were found to target certain marine mammal species. 'Preselection' of a particular species of available prey may be a general feature of social carnivores (see Kruuk, 1972a). In Argentina, Killer Whales have developed a strategy of beach stranding, sliding up on the beach and then wriggling back into the water (a behaviour also regularly seen in the Crozet Islands; Guinet, 1990b), which allows them to be more successful at capturing prey on gently sloping beaches (Lopez \& Lopez, 1985). In nine years, 181 successful attacks on Southern Elephant Seals and Southern Sea Lions were observed (Lopez \& Lopez, 1985). In the British Columbia study, Harbour Seals are preyed upon almost exclusively, with a total of over 50 kills observed in four years (Baird, Dill \& Stacey, 1990; Fig. 3).

## Other marine mammals

Of other marine mammals, only the Dugong Dugong dugon and the Sea Otter Enhydra lutris have been recorded as Killer Whale prey species (Table 1, Appendix I). Manatees (Trichechus spp.) are large, slow and fat, and would thus seem to be ideal prey for Killer Whales. They probably escape frequent predation, however, by being distributed primarily in inshore (and often freshwater) areas of the tropics, regions where Killer Whales are rare. Other 'marine' species are occasionally attacked, such as the River Otter Lutra canadensis (Campbell, 1985; Morton, 1987, 1990).


Fig. 3. Transient Killer Whale with live Harbour Seal pup in mouth, off southern Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Canada.

## NON-PREDATORY INTERACTIONS

## Cetaceans

Associations between Killer Whales and other marine mammals, with no evidence of predatory intent by the Killer Whales, have been recorded for 26 species of cetaceans, most of which have also been documented as prey species (Table 1, Appendix II). Here, as in the case of predation, all families except Platanistidae are represented. Interestingly, several species of dolphins not known as prey of Killer Whales have been seen interacting with Killer Whales in non-predatory contexts, including four species of Lagenorhynchus.

These interactions have included 'mixed groups' of the two species, both species being in close proximity with no observed response by either, concurrent feeding with both species in close proximity, apparent avoidance or flight from Killer Whales (despite no apparent attempts at predation by the whales), and apparent attraction to Killer Whale groups. Perhaps most interesting are incidents of the last type, including a report of several Humpback Whales closely approaching a group of Killer Whales that were attacking a Steller Sea Lion (Dolphin, 1987), and the many reports of Dall's Porpoises approaching Killer Whales apparently to play (Scheffer, 1949; Jacobsen, 1986; Jefferson, 1987). Estes \& Goddard (1967) and Kruuk (1972a) discussed the phenomenon of 'curiosity' of ungulates toward their terrestrial predators.

## Pinnipeds

Individuals of at least seven pinniped species have been recorded in association with Killer Whales in non-predatory contexts (Table 1, Appendix II). In most such cases, interactions consisted of Killer Whales passing by pinnipeds hauled-out or in the water, without any change in behaviour to indicate they noticed the potential prey. In one instance, the Killer Whales were busy feeding on cormorants (Phalacrocorax sp.) (Rice \& Saayman, 1987). In many other cases, the pinnipeds appeared aware of the presence of the predators, but did not react noticeably.

## Other marine mammals

Only the Sea Otter, among other marine mammals, has been recorded interacting with Killer Whales in non-predatory contexts (Table 1, Appendix II). In fact, such reports appear to be more common than reports of attacks. Otters may be less desirable prey items for Killer Whales, given that they are relatively small and furry, with no blubber layer.

## DISCUSSION

## Indirect evidence of interactions

Although we have discussed primarily observations of behavioural interactions between Killer Whales and other marine mammals, we recognize that there are other types of evidence for such interactions (especially predation). Stomach-content studies of Killer Whales have added several species of marine mammals to the list of known prey, but in such cases one can never be sure if the animal was killed by the predators or fed upon as carrion.

Several authors have described injuries to marine mammals that they attribute to Killer Whale attacks (e.g. Andrews, 1914; Bertram, 1940; Voison, 1972; Shevchenko, 1975; Morejohn, 1979; Best, 1982; Fay, 1982). These injuries are typically tooth rakes and punctures, various external wounds, mutilated extremities, blood in the body cavity, contusions, or broken bones (especially ribs and scapulae), sometimes with few or no external injuries visible. The lack of external wounds adjacent to internal injuries generally indicates that the victim was struck by a large blunt object, and this is consistent with the observed behaviour of Killer Whales leaping upon and striking marine mammals with their snouts (Scheffer \& Slipp, 1948; Norris \& Prescott, 1961; Rice, 1968; Fay, 1982). Such aggressive behaviour towards other species may also be used in non-feeding circumstances. It should be kept in mind that some marine mammals that escaped from attacks by Killer Whales may have sustained extensive internal injuries that later resulted in death, and as Samaras \& Leatherwood (1974) noted, not all prey killed are eaten.

## Ecological interactions

Piscivorous forms of Killer Whale may compete with other marine mammals for food, but the degree of this potential interaction is not known at present (Baird, Abrams \& Dill, in press). For most species and populations, there is little evidence that Killer Whale predation is a major mortality factor affecting prey populations, but this may largely reflect inadequate information. Predation can have far-ranging effects on the behaviour of prey species, such as on grouping behaviour in Walruses (Taggart, 1987) and Harbour Seals (da Silva \& Terhune, 1988). Killer Whale predation on Harbour Seals in North America has been regarded as incidental (Food and Agricultural Organization, 1976). However, Fisher (1952) considered Killer Whales the most important natural predators of the Harbour Seal. According to Fay (1982), mortality from attacks by Killer Whales may have a greater impact on the Walrus population than 'just the removal of a few calves'. Laws (1977) noted that young Crabeater Seals Lobodon carcinophagus are subject to heavy predation by Killer Whales, and in fact Killer Whale attacks are probably the chief cause of mortality for this species (Bertram, 1940). For most species of marine mammals, the Killer Whale may, in fact, play a more important role as a predator than is commonly suspected.

Zenkovich (1938, p. 4 of translation), based on observations in the western North Pacific, concluded that the Killer Whale is a 'rapacious beast of prey, causing great
damage to our fur seal industry at the Komandorski Islands and exterminating herds of pinnipeds in all of our seas, especially along the Chukchi coast.' Although many authors have claimed that Killer Whales take great numbers of Northern Fur Seals Callorhinus ursinus (Turner, 1886; Hanna, 1922; Ognev, 1935; Zenkovich, 1938), we were able to find very few actual descriptions of attacks (see Appendix I).

In the case of a rare or depleted species, such as the Bowhead Whale, Killer Whales could be an important source of mortality even with low absolute levels of predation (Mitchell \& Reeves, 1982; Reeves \& Mitchell, 1988; Finley, 1990). Populations of more abundant species that spend most of their life within the home range of a locally abundant population of predatory Killer Whales may be significantly affected by the predation. Such may be the case with the resident population of Harbour Seals off southern Vancouver Island. Members of the transient community of Killer Whales in the area appear to specialize in feeding on this species (Baird, Dill \& Stacey, 1990b).

## Questions about Killer Whale predation on marine mammals

Do Killer Whales successfully attack healthy adult baleen whales? Jonsgard (1968a,b) suggested that Killer Whales are incapable of attacking and feeding on healthy adult baleen whales under normal circumstances. Although many of the incidents listed in Appendix I involve uncertain kills (of course, Killer Whales can successfully feed on a large whale without killing it) or attacks on young or sick animals, there is ample evidence that, at least occasionally, healthy non-calf baleen whales are fed upon (Eschricht, 1866; Bullen, 1898; Cummings, Fish \& Thompson, 1972; Cummings \& Wolman, 1977; Tarpy, 1979; Whitehead \& Glass, 1985; Silber, Newcomer \& Perez-Cortes, 1990).

Do Killer Whales attack Sperm Whales? If the Killer Whale has a most formidable adversary among the marine mammals, it is surely the Sperm Whale. Sperm Whales are larger than Killer Whales, possess teeth and powerful tails, and usually live in groups. None of the incidents listed in Appendix I involved documented kills and all referred to attacks on Sperm Whale groups with calves (and in one case, on a group with a female apparently giving birth) or wounded animals. Schevchenko's (1975) report of Killer Whale bite marks on $65 \%$ of Southern Hemisphere Sperm Whales taken by whalers must be viewed with caution, because he did not mention how he discriminated marks made by Killer Whales from those by conspecifics (Rice, 1989). Thus, the evidence supports Berzin's (1972, p. 273) conclusion that attacks are 'too rare for us to brand killer whales as serious enemies of the sperm whale'.

Are large groups required to attack large whales successfully? That there should be a relationship between group size and prey body size seems intuitive, i.e. the larger the predator's group size, the larger the prey that can be captured, and more food can be divided among the group. But one may well wonder whether small groups of Killer Whales are capable of subduing large whales, for instance. Although not all attacks on large whales by large groups of Killer Whales (over five animals) were seen to be successful, most instances in which a kill or feeding took place involved relatively large groups of predators. There is some evidence, however (much of it from the whaling literature), to suggest that singles or groups of two or three Killer Whales can, at times, overcome and kill large baleen whales (Eschricht, 1866; Bullen, 1898; D. L. Kelly, unpubl.; Reeves \& Mitchell, 1988). It is possible, however, that larger Killer Whale groups may have split up in some of these instances to feed on several whales. Killer

Whales specializing on certain types of marine mammal prey may be expected to optimize group size, thereby maximizing food intake. Recent work on transient Killer Whales around southern Vancouver Island indicates that such optimization of group sizes may help explain group size differences between transients and residents in that area (Baird, Watts \& Stacey, 1989; Baird, Dill \& Stacey, 1990).

Do Killer Whales cooperate in hunting marine mammals? There is abundant evidence that groups of Killer Whales use coordinated techniques to hunt large whales (Baldridge, 1972; Tarpy, 1979; Whitehead \& Glass, 1985; Silber et al., 1990), small cetaceans (Brown \& Norris, 1956; Jonsgard, 1968a; Steltner, Steltner \& Sergeant, 1984; Hall \& Cornell, 1986; King, 1989), and pinnipeds (Norris \& Prescott, 1961; Samaris \& Leatherwood, 1974; Smith et al., 1981; Lopez \& Lopez, 1985; Felleman, 1986; Baird \& Stacey, 1988b). This cooperation often takes the form of some Killer Whales biting the flukes and flippers of large whales presumably to slow or stop their movement, striking pinnipeds with their bodies or extremities, lunging or leaping onto the backs of large whales to impede their progress (or possibly to drown them), or encircling or herding groups of smaller marine mammals to prevent their escape. In the Antarctic, Killer Whales have been seen to tip over ice floes and devour seals that are thus dumped into the water (Smith et al., 1981). An analogue in the Northern Hemisphere may be the report of Killer Whales in Washington ramming a $\log$ boom to knock off hauled-out Harbour Seals (Scheffer \& Slipp, 1948). Killer Whales have also been seen coralling small numbers of pinnipeds out of a larger group, then attacking the isolated animals (W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.). It is possible that cooperation was occurring, but was not noticed or reported, in many of the briefly observed instances, listed in Appendix I.

Of particular interest here is the case of human-Killer Whale 'cooperation' that apparently existed for at least 80 years at Twofold Bay, New South Wales, Australia (Dakin, 1938; Wellings, 1944; Mead, 1986). During the mid-1800s, an association developed between a group of about 30 Killer Whales and local shore whalers, both hunting Humpback and Right Whales Eubalaena australis. The reports tell of cooperation between the predators and the whalers, with the Killer Whales sometimes actively attracting the attention of shore lookouts when a baleen whale was detected. After the kill, which involved the coordinated actions of the humans and Killer Whales, the whalers allowed the predators to feed, unmolested, on the tongue and lips of the sinking large whale. The following day, the whalers returned to the refloated carcass, and claimed their prize, complete except for the less commercially valuable tongue and lips. This practice finally died out as, over the years, the Killer Whales apparently died or moved elsewhere, and the technique became less profitable for the whalers. Such apparent cooperation between humans and wild animals is not unprecedented; Isack $\&$ Reyer (1989) described the apparently symbiotic relationship between the Greater Honeyguide Indicator indicator and the Boran people of Kenya and there are several reports of dolphins cooperating with fisherman to herd fish (Busnel, 1973; Pryor et al., 1990).

Several hypotheses might account for cooperative hunting in Killer Whales. Hunting cooperatively may increase net energy intake or decrease risk of injury. In one study of transient Killer Whale predation on Harbour Seals, it was shown that benefits occur from group hunting of marine mammals, because the predators were most efficient, in terms of individual food intake, in groups of three (Baird, Dill \& Stacey, 1990b). Conversely, coordinated hunting may in some cases be an artifact of other benefits of
group living. It is important to distinguish between group hunting and cooperative hunting, as not all group behaviour need be cooperative (e.g. Packer \& Ruttan, 1988). For instance, resident Killer Whales in the coastal waters of the eastern North Pacific live in groups, but during foraging often spread out and feed more or less individually on fish.

Lamprecht (1981) argued that in most social terrestrial carnivores, the primary function of social hunting is not to increase the ability to overcome larger and faster prey (the 'hunting hypothesis'), but rather more effectively to defend a kill from other predators, or alternatively that it is a side-effect of other benefits of sociality. The fact that most attacks on large whales involve small groups of Killer Whales suggests that the 'hunting hypothesis' may not be as important as commonly believed for this marine carnivore either. Another benefit of foraging in groups, termed the 'skill pool effect' by Graldeau (1984), allows individuals with different skills or abilities to forage together and thus increase the types of prey available to the group. Some 'division of labour' by age/sex class has been noted in Killer Whales (see below), but this potential function of group foraging warrants further study.

Are young or weak marine mammals preferred as prey? Many of the attacks listed in Appendix I involved as prey calves or pups, or animals injured or debilitated in some way (e.g. Jonsgard, 1968a; Gaskin, 1972; Bloch \& Lockyer, 1988). Young animals or those weakened by illness or injury are certainly more vulnerable to attack, and Killer Whales (like other predators-see Schaller, 1972) would be expected to take advantage of this. There are several reports of apparent preference for pinniped young (Scammon, 1874; W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.), and many instances in which cetacean calves were apparently singled out for attack (Scammon, 1874; Baldridge, 1972; Berzin, 1972; D’Vincent, Haley \& Sharpe, 1989). In some areas, Killer Whales may frequent pinniped rookeries during the time of year when breeding takes place, or when the young enter the water for the first time (Tomilin, 1957; Voison, 1972; Condy et al., 1978; Lopez \& Lopez, 1985; Guinet, 1990b; R. W. Baird and P. J. Stacey, unpubl.), preying selectively on pups. We suggest that many occurrences of 'harassment' by Killer Whales actually represent attempts by the predators to check for young or weakened animals, which would make easier prey. Such 'testing' of prey has been reported in Wolves Canis lupus (Mech, 1970) and Spotted Hyenas Crocuta crocuta (Kruuk, 1972a).

Is hunting of marine mammals done only by Killer Whale adults or adult males? Although there is some evidence that marine mammals form a more important part of the diet of large adult Killer Whales than of younger animals (Nishiwaki \& Handa, 1958; Rice, 1968; Jonsgard \& Lyshoel, 1970; W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.), all age and sex classes, including juveniles and calves, have been observed to participate in attacks on marine mammals and subsequent feeding (Budylenko, 1981; P. J. Stacey and R. W. Baird, unpubl.; J. D. Hall, in litt.). On the other hand, Silber et al. (1990) and Finley (1990) reported that the adult males did not participate in the attacks they observed on Bryde's Whales Balaenoptera edeni and Bowhead Whales, and in several attacks on Harbour Seals observed by R. W. Baird and P. J. Stacey (unpubl.) single adult males were not seen to participate in killing the prey, although on one occasion a
male did share in feeding. It has been suggested that adults in some areas may teach young how to capture pinnipeds (Lopez \& Lopez, 1985; S. Leatherwood, pers. comm.).

Is there evidence of cannibalism? Stomach contents of two male Killer Whales from the Southern Hemisphere contained Killer Whale remains (Schevchenko, 1975). However, it is not known if these animals were dead or alive when they were fed upon. The only other known record of cannibalism is Gaskin's (1972, p. 120) report of a bleeding Killer Whale that had been shot being 'turned on by its companions and savagely attacked'.

Killer Whales form tight social bonds that apparently last for life, and both nurturant and succorant behaviour are known in this species (Caldwell \& Caldwell, 1966). Thus, it seems likely that such incidents of cannibalism are examples of anomalous behaviour, rather than part of the normal feeding pattern of Killer Whales.

Do Killer Whales prefer the tongue and lips of baleen whales? The whaling literature indicates that Southern Hemisphere Killer Whales prefer to feed on the tongue and lips of baleen whales (Turner, 1886; Bullen, 1898; Dakin, 1938; Wellings, 1944; Gaskin, 1972). Killer Whales in the Northern Hemisphere have also been reported to favour the tongue, lips, and throat region of mysticetes (Bullen, 1898; Andrews, 1914; Hancock, 1965; Baldridge, 1972; Lowry, Nelson \& Frost, 1987). Silber et al. (1990) suggested that Killer Whales may focus their attacks on the head region of baleen whales, at least partially, to avoid the danger of being struck by the flukes of the victim. Terrestrial predators similarly avoid the most dangerous parts of their victims' bodies during attacks (Estes \& Goddard, 1967; Schaller, 1967; Mech, 1970).

Do Killer Whales always eat the prey they've killed? Surplus killing is seen in many terrestrial carnivores (Kruuk, 1972b; Breault \& Cheng, 1988). Eschricht (1866) observed Killer Whales in Greenland kill many more White Whales Delphinapterus leucas than were eaten, and Samaras \& Leatherwood (1974, unpubl.) watched Killer Whales kill an elephant seal but apparently not feed on it. Fay and colleagues (Fay \& Kelly, 1980; Fay, 1982) observed several Walrus carcasses with extensive internal injuries, and attributed the injuries to Killer Whale attacks, but there was no evidence of Killer Whales having fed upon them. Many attacks on large whales resulted in only a minimal amount of feeding on the carcass (Tarpy, 1979; Silber et al., 1990), which is in contrast to the situation in many terrestrial carnivores, where generally the entire carcass is eaten (e.g. Mech, 1970; Schaller, 1972).

Mueller \& Hastings (1977) discussed the definition of surplus killing. They stated that a predator must kill an animal that is regularly taken by that species, and yet not eat part of the carcass, despite the fact that there is free access to it. Based on these criteria, we conclude that, for as yet unknown reasons, Killer Whales probably do engage in surplus killing of seabirds (Stacey \& Baird, 1989a) and marine mammals (see above), although this warrants further investigation.

Aggressive killing, caching, playing, and teaching have all been offered to explain why animals may not always consume a prey immediately, or at all. Apparent teaching of young has been observed in Killer Whales (Lopez \& Lopez, 1985) and Killer Whales have often been observed apparently 'toying' with prey items (e.g. Norris \& Prescott, 1961; Felleman, 1986; Baird \& Stacey, 1988b). Although confounded by many factors, another possible explanation for the observed practice of Killer Whales eating only portions of their prey may be within the framework of optimal-patch-use models. Sih
(1980) used such models to explain partial consumption of prey, noting that after consuming the most energy-rich parts of a large prey, it may be more beneficial for predators, in terms of maximizing net energy intake, to forage for other prey.

## Marine-mammal responses to Killer Whales

Potential prey species have a number of options when threatened with the prospect of a Killer Whale attack. An obvious response is to fight back, and this may be a viable option, especially for the large whales, which use their flukes to strike at their attackers (Eschricht, 1866; Chittleborough, 1953; Cummings et al., 1972; Best, Canham \& MacLeod, 1984; Whitehead \& Glass, 1985; D’Vincent et al., 1989). Sperm Whales have been observed to form a 'spoke', with heads in and tails out and flailing, in response to being attacked by whalers (Nishiwaki, 1962). Because this same response has been observed to Killer Whale attacks on Right Whales (Payne, in press), it seems likely that this 'marguerite formation' may have evolved as a defense against Killer Whale (and shark) attacks. Although the effectiveness of fighting back is not always apparent, it can at times be successful. For example, Eschricht (1866) reported an instance in which a Bowhead Whale hit an attacking Killer Whale on the head with the edge of its flukes, apparently killing it. Large pinnipeds, such as Steller Sea Lions and Walruses, may be especially formidable prey, as they are very strong and manoeuvrable, and possess teeth capable of inflicting serious wounds (see Fay, 1982; Stirling, 1984; Bigg et al., 1987; Hubbard-Morton, 1990). Matkin (in litt.) has even observed Steller Sea Lions attacking and nipping resting resident Killer Whales in south-east Alaska, a phenomenon similar to that observed between Lions Panthera leo and Buffalo Syncerus caffer by Prins \& Iason (1989). Felleman (1986) has suggested that the large Killer Whale pod size involved in an attack on 200 Narwhals (Steltner et al., 1984) was required by the danger involved in attacking these tusked small whales.

Large whales may not defend themselves, but instead turn belly-up in the event of an attack, presumably to protect their delicate undersides (Andrews, 1914; Zenkovich, 1938; Lockley, 1979; D'Vincent et al., 1989) or may hold their flukes, rostrum, or flippers above the surface to restrict Killer Whale access to these appendages (Sharpe, D'Vincent \& Nilson, 1990). Similar lack of active defense by ungulates has been observed in response to attacks by terrestrial predators (Kruuk, 1972a; Schaller, 1972).

Most marine mammal species are gregarious to some extent, a pattern likely related partially to predator avoidance and protection, through increased vigilance and the 'encounter', 'dilution' and 'confusion' effects (see Landau \& Terborgh, 1986; Inman \& Krebs, 1987; Norris \& Schilt, 1988). For small odontocetes, Wells, Irvine \& Scott (1980) identified predation as an important pressure toward evolution of group-living, with those species that have the least predation pressure (i.e. riverine species) also tending to be the most solitary of the small toothed whales. Some beaked whales are also more or less solitary, but little else is known of their ecology.

Bunching-up, or tightening of inter-individual distances is a common response to stress or danger in many species of cetaceans (McBride \& Hebb, 1948; Norris \& Dohl, 1980), and grouping on haul-out sites appears to be related to predator avoidance in at least some pinnipeds (da Silva \& Terhune, 1988). Grouping together during an attack has been observed in large whales (Ljungblad \& Moore, 1983; Best et al., 1984; Whitehead \& Glass, 1985; Arnbom et al., 1987), small cetaceans (Brown \& Norris, 1956) and pinnipeds (W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.; T. A. Jefferson, unpubl.). This may sometimes, however, result more from herding by the Killer Whales than
from defensive manoeuvres by the prey, especially for smaller species (W. F. Samaras and S. Leatherwood, unpubl.). Young Walruses will reportedly ride on the mothers' backs during Killer Whale incidents (Scammon, 1872; Nikulin, 1941).

If possible, the intended prey may try to escape by fleeing from the predators (Saayman \& Tayler, 1979; Würsig \& Würsig, 1979; Jacobsen, 1986; Rice \& Saayman, 1987; Baird \& Stacey, 1989; Silber et al., 1990) or by exhibiting conspicuous 'pursuit invitation' behaviour, thereby alerting the predator that it has been detected and that the element of surprise has been lost (Smythe, 1970; Jacobsen, 1986). It has been suggested that Killer Whales may sometimes vocalize to induce prey flight, and then use the noise of the fleeing animals to locate the prey (Mate, 1975). Killer Whales appear to be capable of chasing down and capturing even such fast-swimming species as Dall's Porpoise (Jacobsen, 1986; M. A. Bigg, in litt.). Even so, flight may be an effective strategy at times, because even though Killer Whales may be able to catch up, they may choose not to expend the energy required. This 'decision' would presumably depend on the predators' condition at the time, including when they had last eaten, the potential energetic value of the prey, and the availability of alternative prey.

Attempts to avoid or hide from Killer Whales in shallow water, kelp beds, river mouths, the surf zone (where the sound of the surf may help to 'acoustically hide' the animal), or among ice floes have been observed for many species. Large whales (Burrage, 1964; Morejohn, 1968; Baldridge, 1972; Poole, 1984; Finley, 1990), small cetaceans (Scheffer \& Slipp, 1948; Saayman \& Tayler, 1979; Würsig \& Würsig, 1980; Rice \& Saayman, 1987; Bloch \& Lockyer, 1988; Campbell, Yurick \& Snow, 1988), and pinnipeds (Zenkovich, 1938) all appear to use these tactics on occasion, and pinnipeds sometimes have the additional option of hauling out on shore to avoid Killer Whales (Moran, 1924; Tomilin, 1957). On the other hand, Killer Whales may intentionally herd cetaceans into coves to prevent their escape (Hancock, 1965; Hall \& Cornell, 1986; Lowry et al., 1987). The superior diving capabilities of Sperm and Beaked whales and some pinnipeds (such as elephant seals, Mirounga spp.-see Le Boeuf et al., 1989) may provide these species with an additional escape option when they are not limited by the presence of young calves or shallow water. This would probably only be effective if they were far away from the predators or had not been detected yet, as Killer Whales may otherwise be able to corral the animals and thus prevent their escape, or chase and tire them, reducing their diving capabilities.

Marine mammals under attack have been observed hiding behind boats (Branson, 1971; Hoyt, 1984; Hall, 1986; T. A. Jefferson, unpubl.), and pinnipeds have even climbed or attempted to climb aboard vessels, buoys, or other floating objects for protection (Turner, 1886; Stacey \& Baird, 1989b). The effects of such human influences on Killer Whale predation should be considered in these cases.

If the potential prey has not yet been detected, it may become silent and motionless to avoid detection (Tomilin, 1957; Schevill, 1964; Ljungblad \& Moore, 1983; Arnbom et al., 1987; Thomas et al., 1981; Thomas, Ferm \& Kuechle, 1987; Stacey \& Baird, 1989b), a response also noted from Grey and White Whales to playback of Killer Whale sounds (Cummings \& Thompson, 1971; Fish \& Vania, 1971). Another method, apparently used by large whales to avoid detection, is to blow less often, exhale less forcefully, or exhale underwater (Hubbs, 1965; Poole, 1984; Vidal \& Pechter, 1989; S. Leatherwood, pers. comm.). In these ways, the blow may be made less visible or harder to detect acoustically.

Sea Otters and pinnipeds may become more alert (Kenyon, 1975; Beckel, 1980; Jacobsen, 1986; Baird \& Stacey, 1989), and large whales may spy-hop (Cummings \&

Thomspon, 1971) to assess the danger visually. Because transient Killer Whales generally are silent during foraging (Ford \& Fisher, 1982; Hubbard-Morton, 1990), it is likely that marine mammals use vision more than hearing to detect and avoid Killer Whales (Baird \& Stacey, 1989). As first suggested by Andersen \& Amundin (1976), Dall's and Harbour Porpoises produce mostly high-frequency sounds ( $>100 \mathrm{kHz}$ ) and may thus be largely 'acoustically invisible' to Killer Whales, which have their greatest sensitivity at lower freqencies (Hall \& Johnson, 1971; D. Bain, pers. comm.).

There are many incidents in the literature which involve non-predatory interactions between Killer Whales and other marine mammal species. Certainly, as noted by Ydenberg \& Dill (1986), the reaction of an animal to a potential predator should depend on its perceived risk. In general, transient Killer Whales prey on marine mammals and residents do not. Thus, there would be a selective advantage to a prey's ability to distinguish the two types where they are sympatric. In the eastern North Pacific, where dialect differences allow the two types to be distinguished (see Ford \& Fisher, 1982; Ford, 1984), sound may be very important in mediating interactions between Killer Whales and other marine mammals. Potential prey would be expected to pay little attention to the discrete calls of the common resident pods, which vocalize often, especially when foraging for fish. However, when marine mammals detect the presence of Killer Whales (through active echolocation, passive listening, or other cues) without hearing resident calls, they would be expected to exhibit increased alertness or avoidance behaviour (Stacey \& Baird, 1989b). Transients are generally silent during foraging (Ford \& Fisher, 1982; Ford, 1984), and potential prey could be 'fooled' by resting resident killer whales, which produce very few calls. This may explain some of the cases of apparent avoidance of residents by porpoises, which may mistake resting resident Killer Whales for transients.

Transient and resident Killer Whales can also be distinguished visually by experienced human observers (Bigg et al., 1987; Baird \& Stacey, 1988a), and it is likely that marine mammals resident to certain areas frequented by Killer Whales can do the same. The importance of vision in predator recognition is suggested by the observations of Baird \& Stacey (1989).

The 'dangerous transient/friendly resident' rule breaks down at times. There are several reports of southern residents (those in southern British Columbia and Washington State) attacking Dall's and Harbour Porpoises and Harbour Seals, all apparently involving a portion of L-pod (Balcomb et al., 1980; Felleman, 1986; Heimlich-Boran, 1988; Felleman, Heimlich-Boran \& Osborne, 1991).

There are also several reports of Dall's and Harbour Porpoises near known transients with no response by the potential prey (R. W. Baird and P. J. Stacey, unpubl.). In certain cases, the predators may not have been detected, but there is certainly the possibility that, even within the transient form, marine mammals can distinguish between hunting and non-hunting Killer Whales. Many ungulate prey species can apparently pick up on subtle cues (most importantly postures) the intent of terrestrial predators, such as Wolves and Wild Dogs (Estes \& Goddard, 1967; Walther, 1969; Mech, 1970; Kruuk, 1972a; Schaller, 1972). We agree with Dolphin (1987) that behavioural interactions between Killer Whales and marine mammals resemble those between terrestrial predators and their prey, with the normal existence of an 'uneasy truce' and wariness on the part of the potential prey. Fleeing at the appearance of every potential predator would be a waste of energy for both terrestrial and marine species. Instead, increased alertness toward the behaviour of the predator would generally allow for the normal pursuit of activities until there is evidence of real danger. As well, it is possible
that in areas with high abundance of more profitable prey (higher energy gain per handling cost), less preferable prey may be taken only infrequently, if at all. The use of 'prey'or 'diet models' (see Stephens \& Krebs, 1986) may be a valuable tool in interpreting such observations.

## CONCLUSION

Dolphin's (1987) classification of predator-prey interactions is helpful as a starting point in examining relationships between Killer Whales and other marine mammals, but does not cover all types of interactions reviewed in this paper. His comparative approach, using examples of better-known terrestrial mammal predator-prey interactions, cannot fail to provide insight into the complex interactions between Killer Whales and other marine mammals. This paper provides an attempt to assess the behavioural interactions between all marine mammals and their potential predator, the Killer Whale. It has previously been pointed out that not all interactions between Killer Whales and other species involve predation (Dolphin, 1987). As is the case with terrestrial predator-prey interactions, complicated and often subtle signs and signals appear to mediate the interactions. Prey species have much to lose by not detecting and responding to cues that a predator may give (whether deliberate or not) regarding its intentions. Marine mammals use their eyes and ears both above and below water to assess the danger in such situations. So far, human observers have looked almost exclusively from above the surface, with eyes from a distance. Now that we can recognize Killer Whales in many parts of the world as individuals, detailed observations including acoustic recordings and underwater observations, may begin to clarify the 'blurry' picture we have provided here.

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## Appendix I

Interactions between Killer Whales (KWs) and other marine mammals involving harassment, chases, attacks, or presumed attacks by the Killer Whales

| Date | Location | Description | Cooperation? | Kill? | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cetaceans |  |  |  |  |  |
| Blue Whale Balaenoptera musculus |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1925 | Antarctica | 5 KWs attack adult Blue Whale | Y | Y | Villiers (1925) |
| December 1943 | Port MacDonnell, S. Australıa | 11 KWs chasing Blue Whale cow-calf pair | ? | ? | Cotton (1944) |
| 1977 | Baja, California, Mexico | c. 30 KW s attack a young Blue Whale | Y | ? | Tarpy (1979) |
| 23 September 1986 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A | Second-hand report of a single Blue Whale attacked by KWs | ? | N | Baldridge (1986) |
| Fin Whale Balaenoptera physalus |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 March 1884 | Strait of Gibraltar, W. Mediterranean | About 12 KW sattacking single Fin Whale | 2 | ? | Ferguson \& Starr (1936) |
| Pre-1886 | Tigalda Island, AK, U.S.A. | 2 KW s attack a large Fin Whale | Y | ? | Turner (1886) |
| 6 July 1908 | Sukkertoppen, W. Greenland | Whaler record of 2 KW s killing a Fin Whale* | 2 | Y | Reeves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| 14 June 1960 | Marble Island, B.C., Canada | Attack on a Fin Whale | ? | ? | Pike \& MacAskie (1969) |
| August 1979 | New Hampshire, U.S.A. | $12-30 \mathrm{KW}$ s attack 3 Fin Whales | ? | ? | Gormley (1990) |
| 2 March 1982 | Gulf of Californa, Mexico | 3 KW s attack pair of Fin Whales-no kill observed | 2 | 2 | Vidal \& Pechter (1989) |
| 1983-87 | Greenland | 8 observations of chases or attacks (Involving 4-5, 8-10, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2-4 KWs) | ? | , | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| 7 July 1984 | Faroe Islands | 2 KW s attack a Fin Whale (report from fishermen)* | ? | ? | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| Sei Whate Balaenoptera borealis |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1962-74 | Southern Hemisphere | 2 KW s pursue single Sei Whale | ? | ? | Shevchenko (1975) |
| 1967 | Antarctica | 2-3 KWs harass Sei Whales cow-calf pair | ? | ? | Gaskın(1972, 1982) |
| Bryde's Whale Balaenoptera edeni |  |  |  |  |  |
| May 1988 | Gulf of California, Mexico | Single Bryde's Whale chased, attacked and killed by 15 KWs | Y | Y | Perez-Cortes, Silber \& Newcomer (1988), Silber el al. (1990) |
| Minke Whale Balaenoptera acutorostrata |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1940-87 | Greenland | 6 observations of attacks on Minkes (Involving 30, 40-50, 6 KWs ) | ? | Y | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| 26 May 1964 | Barkley Sound, B.C., Canada | 7 KW s kill and eat a Minke | ? | Y | Hancock (1965) |
| 15 September 1971 | Off Durban, S. Africa | About 10 KW s observed attacking a single Minke | ? | Y | Best (1982) |
| 5 August 1975 | Amaknak Island, Berıng Sea | 7 KWs chase a Minke, which chen stranded and died | 2 | Y | Lowry et al. (1987) |
| 29 April 1976 | Gulf of Alaska, U.S.A. | 6 KWs attack and kill a Minke | , | Y | Fiscuset al. (1976), Anonymous (1976) |
| Winter 1977 | Yakutat, AK, U.S.A. | 6-7 KWs attacking a Mınke, which was killed by ramming | , | Y | Hall (1986) |
| January 1980 | Ross Island, Antarctica | Second-hand report of an attack on a Minke | , | ? | Leatherwood, Thomas \& Awbrey (1981) |
| February 1980 | Antarctica | Possible attack on Minkes by 15-20 KWs | , | , | Horwood (1990) |
| 14 August 1980 | Port Hardy, B.C., Canada | Presumed attack-partial carcass of Minke discovered near I pod (residents) | , | ? | Ford \& Ford (1981) |
| Pre-1981 | Southern Hemisphere | Attack observed | ? | ? | Mikhalev el al (1981) |
| 1982 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | 10-15 KW s attack and kill Minke | 2 | Y | Mehlberg (1986) |
| 16 September 1984 | Gulf of Sı Lawrence, Canada | 3 KW s attack and kill a single Minke | , | Y | Wenzel \& Sears (1988), Gormley (1990) |
| Pre-1988 | Gulf of S1 Lawrence, Canada | 10 KW s kill and eat a Minke | 2 | Y | Gormley (1990) |
| Humpback Whale Megaptera novaeang hae |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1830 | Narparsok, Greenland | I Humpback killed by single KW (whaler record)* | N | Y | Eschrıcht (1866) |
| Mid 1800s-early 1900s | Twofold Bay, N.S.W., Australia | Many accounts of KWs aiding whalers in taking Humpbacks | Y | Y | Dakın (1938), Wellings (1944), Mead (1986) |
| 1940-86 | Greenland | 4 observations of chases or attacks by KW s (one involving 90 KWs ) | ? | ? | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| October 1951 | Exmouth Gulf, Western Australia | 4-5 KWs attack 3 Humpbacks, one beat KWs with flukes (second-hand report) | ? | N | Chittleborough (1953) |
| 8 March | Santa Isabela Island, Baja, Mexico | Single KW' (later joined by 5 others) encounters 2 Humpbacks-no attack observed, but KW's appear to give chase | Y | N | E. D. Asper (in litt.) |
| Pre-1979 | Southern AK, U.S.A. | 9 KW s attack 2 Humpbacks | Y | N | Lockley (1979) |
| 16 September 1979 | Halibut Point, MA, U.S.A. | KWs attacking small Humpback | ? | 2 | Katona et al. (1988), Gormley (1990) |
| 4 July 1982; 25, 26 June 1983 | Newfoundland, Canada | 3 attacks on Humpbacks by groups of 10-12, 17, and 17 KW s | Y | N | Whitehead \& Glass (1985) |
| August 1983 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | KW's attack a juvenile Humpback, defended by 2 adults | Y | ? | D'Vincent ct al. (1989) |
| June 1985 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | 5 KW s following 3 Humpbacks apparent attack on one | ? | 2 | P. Folkens (in litt.) |
| Summer 1987 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | 2 KW sattempt to attack a Humpback calf | ? | N | D'Vincent et al. (1989) |
| Pre-1988 | Western North Atlantic | Whaler record of about 5 KW s attacking a cow and calf Humpback* | $?$ | ? | Katona clal. (1988) |
| 3 July 1988 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | 7 KWs harass at least 7 Humpbacksno attack | N | N | T. A Jefferson (unpubl.), D'Vincent et al. (1989) |
| Pre-1990 | Brandt $\mathrm{Pt}, \mathrm{MA}, \mathrm{U} . \mathrm{S} . \mathrm{A}$. | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \text { reported attacks on Humpback } \\ & \text { Whales } \end{aligned}$ | ? | 2 | Gormley (1990) |

Appendix I
(Continued)

| Date | Location | Description | Cooperation? | Kill? | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cetaceans (Contd.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bowhead Whale Balaena mysticetus |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1800s | Sea of Okhotsk | 3 KWs attack and mortally-wound a large Bowhead* | Y | Y | Bullen (1898) |
| 1830s(?) | Holsteinsborg, Greenland | KWs attacking Bowhead-one KW hit on head and apparently killed (second-hand report) | , | N | Eschricht (1866) |
| Mid-1800s-1956 | Eastern Canadian Arctic | 4 second-hand or whaler reports of chases or attacks on Bowheads* | , | Y | Reeves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| 1922-75 | Eastern Canadian Arctic | 4 second-hand reports of attacks by KWs on Bowheads | 2 | Y | Mitchell \& Reeves (1982) |
| 11 September 1984 | Baffin Island, eastern Canada | 2 KW s presumably attack sıngle Bowhead, while 12 other Bowheads socialize nearby | ? | ? | Finley (1990) |
| 17 September 1985 | Baffin Island, eastern Canada | Possible attack on Bowheads involving 22 KW s | ? | ? | Finley (1990) |
| Northern Right Whale Eubalaena glactalis |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1982 | British Columbia, Canada | Second-hand report of an attack | ? | , | Gaskin(1982) |
| Southern Right Whale Eubalaena australis |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mid-1800)-carily 1900 s | Twofold Bay, N.S.W., Australia | Many accounts of KWs aiding whalers in taking RWs | Y | Y | Dakin (1938), Wellıngs (1944), Mead (1986) |
| 22 September 1965 | Algoa Bay, S. Africa | 3 KW s closely circle and harass RW/ | N | N | Donnelly (1967) |
| Early 1970s | Peninsula Valdes, Argentına | Second-hand report of KWs attacking 3 RW, which fled at high speed, almost ramming a small boat | ? | N | B. Würsig (pers comm.) |
| 4 July 1971 | Golfo San Jose, Argentına | 5 KW sattack 2 RWs | , | N | Cummingset al. (1971), Cummings et al.(1972) |
| Pre-1972 | Peninsula Valdes, Argentına | Second-hand report of an attack by 5 KWs | ? | Y | Cummingser al. (1972) |
| 24 September 1972 | Penınsula Valdes, Argentina | 5 KW sharass a group of RWs, which formed a protective group | ? | N | Payne (in press) |
| December 1978 | Southern Hemisphere | 4-5 KWs attack a RW which stranded | ? | 2 | C. Guinet (in litt.) |
| Grey Whale Eschrichtius robustus |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Spring } 1858 \\ & \text { Early 1900s } \end{aligned}$ | Baja Californa, Mexico Korea | 3 KW s attack a cow-calf-calf killed Several whaler records of KW attacks on GWs (one involved 7 Greys and | $\begin{aligned} & Y \\ & ? \end{aligned}$ | Y | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Scammon (1872, 1874) } \\ & \text { Andrews (1914) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 1950 | San Diego, CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand report of 6 KW s attacking 2 Greys | ? | N | Gilmore (1961) |
| 9 March 1952 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand report of 6 KWs attackıng 3 Greys | ? | N | Rice \& Woiman (1971) |
| 10 September 1960 | Langara Light, B.C., Canada | KW attack on a pair of Greys | N | ? | Pike \& MacAskie (1969) |
| November 1961 | Southern CA, U.S.A | Second-hand report of single KW attacking and killing single Grey | N | Y | W. F. Samaras and <br> S. Leatherwood (unpubl.) |
| 26 January 1964 | San Diego, CA, U. S.A. | 5 KWs 'chase' 6 Greys, which move close to shore | N | N | Burrage (1964) |
| February 1966 | Southern CA, U.S.A | Second-hand report of $2-3 \mathrm{KWs}$ attacking 3 Greys, killing 1 | ? | Y | W. F Samaras (in litt.) |
| 2 May 1967 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | 7 KWs attack 3 Greys including a calf | ? | N | Morejohn (1968) |
| 12, 18 May 1967 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | 5-6 KWs attack cow-calf-calf killed; second-hand report of an attack on a Grey | Y | Y | Baldridge (1972) |
| 4-6 January 1969 | Central CA, U.S.A. | At least 6 KW s attack a large Grey, which disappeared | N | ? | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| August 1975 | Point Hope, AK, U.S.A. | 7 KW s attack a young Grey | Y | Y | Marquette (1978) |
| 18 July 1980 | St Lawrence Island, Bering Sea | 10-12 KWs attack and kill a Grey | ? | Y | Liungblad \& Moore (1983) |
| 20 May 1981 | St Lawrence Island, Bering Sea | 16 KW s chase several Greys | ? | N | Ljungblad \& Moore (1983) |
| 8 March 1982, 7 March 1983 | Southern CA, U.S.A. | 2 second-hand reports of $K W$ attacks on Greys (involving 1 and 6 KWs ) | ? | Y | D. L. Kelly (unpubl.) |
| 20 August 1983 | Bering Strait | Presumed attack-carcass found near KW | ? | ? | Lowry et al. (1987) |
| 25 July 1984 | North-east Chukchi Sea | 8 KW s observed feeding on Grey (presumed attack) | ? | ? | Lowry et al. (1987) |
| 17 January 1987 | California coast, U.S.A | 2 second-hand reports of attacks by 2 and 5 KWs (in one, a calf was killed) | ? | Y | Baldridge (1987), Jones \& Swartz (1989) |
| 12 January, 23 April 1988 | Monterey Bay area, CA, U.S.A. | 2 second-hand reports of attacks by 6 and 3 KW s (in one, a calf was killed) | ? | Y | Baldridge (1988) |
| Unidentified baleen whale Mysticeti |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 February (year unknown) | Culebra Island, Caribbean | Second-hand report of 25 KWs attacking a large whale | ? | ? | Erdman (1970) |
| 1912 | Komandorskıye Islands, U.S.S.R. | Several KWs attack and kill whale | ? | Y | Tomilin (1957) |
| Pre-1957 | Near Berıng Island | Second-hand report of $10-15 \mathrm{KWs}$ attacking large whale | Y | ? | Tomilin (1957) |
| 20 October 1989 | Southern Hemisphere | At least 10 KW s attack a possıble Sei Whale | ? | ? | C. Guinet (in lut.) |
| Sperm Whale Physeter macrocephalus |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1961 | Southern Hemısphere | KWs 'harrying a wounded sperm whale' (probably harpooned) | ? | N | Gaskin (1972) |
| 1962-74 | Southern Hemisphere | Report of KW attack on Sperm Whale group, incl. calves | ? | ? | Schevchenko (1975) |
| 6 April 1971 | Off Durban, S. Africa | KWs circling pod of Sperm Whales, incl. one giving birth (many sharks also present) | ? | N | Best et al. (1984) |
| Pre-1972 | Kuril Islands, U.S.S.R. | Second-hand reports of KWs attacking Sperm Whale newborns | ? | ? | Berzin (1972) |
| Pre-1975 | Southern Hemisphere | Second-hand observation of KW attack on Sperm Whale pod with calves | ? | ? | Yukhov, Vinogradova \& Medvedev (1975) |
| 18 April 1985 | Galapagos Islands, Ecudaor | 15-25 KWs attack at least 20 Sperm Whales | ? | N | Arnbom et al. (1987) |
| Northern Bottlenose Whale 1960s(?) | yperoodon ampullatus Jan Mayen, Norway | KWs attack 2 harpooned (alive) Bottlenoses, later killed by whalers | Y | N | Jonsgard (1968a) |
| June 1963 | Spitsbergen, Norway | KWs kill and eat Bottlenose | ? | Y | Jonsgard (1968a) |
| Cuvier's Beaked Whale Zip 1 October 1985 | cavirostris <br> Mediterranean Sea | Single KW feeding on fresh carcass (probably killed by KW) | N | ? | Notarbotolo-di-Scıara (1987) |

## Appendix I

(Continued)

| Date | Location | Description | Cooperation? | Kill? | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cetaceans (Contd.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Narwhal Monodon monoceros 1885-1963 | Eastern Canadian Arctic | 9 second-hand or whaler records of KW chases, attacks, or kills of Narwhals* | ? | Y | Reeves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| 1976-85 (exact dates unknown) | Greenland | 7 observations of chases or kills by KWs (incl. 15 KW s chasing 20-40 Narwhals) | ? | ? | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| 30 August 1980 | Ectipse Sound, N.W.T., Canada | Several hundred Narwhals attacked by $30-40 \mathrm{KWs}$ | Y | Y | Steltner et al. (1984) |
| 15-20 August 1985 | Canadian Arctic | 12 KW attack Narwhals, which swam into shallows | ? | Y | Newman \& Cavanaugh (1986) |
| 20 August 1985 | Pond Inlet, eastern Canadian Arctic | 3 groups of Narwhals in shallow water-one group likely attacked by 9 KWs | ? | ? | Campbell et al. (1988) |
| White Whale Delphinapterus leucas |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1827 | Godhaven, Greenland | KW attack on a pod of White Whales (second-hand report) | ? | Y | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Scammon }(1872,1874), \\ & \text { Eschricht }(1866) \end{aligned}$ |
| $1911-56$ | Eastern Canadian Arctic | 3 second-hand or whaler records of chases or attacks on White Whales* | ? | Y | Reeves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| Pre-1930 | Greenland | Attack observed | ? | ? | Degerbel \& Nielsen (1930) |
| Pre-1952 | Western Pacific | 8 KW s attack White Whales | Y | ? | Sleprsov (1952) |
| 1985 | Greenland | KW s 'hunting belugas' | ? | ? | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| April 1989 | Bristol Bay, AK, U.S.A. | 8 KW sattack about 50 White Whales, killing 3-4* | Y | Y | King (1989), |
| Long-finned Pilot Whale Globicephala melas |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1950 | New England, U.S.A. | KW 'feeding on a pod of pilot whales' | $\xrightarrow{N}$ | ? | Clark (1950) ${ }_{\text {Heide }}$ |
| 1980, 1986 | Greenland | 2 observations of chases by KWs (in one instance by a single KW) | ? | ? | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| 1984, date unknown | Faroe Islands | 2 attempts by 10 and 50 KW s to attack <br> Pilots (one successful) | ? | Y | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| Common Dolphın Delphinus delphrs |  |  |  |  |  |
| Fall 1947 | Baja Californa, Mexico | $15-20 \mathrm{KW}$ s attack 100 Common Dolphins | Y | Y | Brown \& Norris (1956) |
| 2 May 1973 | Robbe Berg Pt, S. Africa | About 1000 Common Dolphins flee from 3 pursuing KWs | ? | ? | Saayman \& Tayler (1979) |
| 8 March 1982 | Southern CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand report of 6 KWs chasing large school (species ID of dolphins not positive) | ? | ? | D. L. Kelly (unpubl.) |
| Dusky Dolphin Lagenorhynchus otscurus |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1980 | Peninsula Valdes, Argentina | Second-hand report of an apparent attack | ? | ? | Würsig \& Würsig (1980) |
| Unidentified dolphin (Delphinidae) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1968-80 | Eastern tropical Pacific | 3 reports of KW sattacking or chasıng unidentified dolphins (probably Stenella or Delphinus) | ? | ? | Perryman \& Foster (1980) |
| 1979 | Near Cape Town, S. Africa | Second-hand report of 5 KWs killing dolphin in small school* | ? | Y | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
| 17 October 1982 | Cape Town, S. Africa | 2 KW s hunting a school of fleeing dolphins | ? | ? | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
| 11 April 1986 | False Bay, S. Africa | Second-hand report of apparent attack on 12 dolphins by 1 KW * | ? | ? | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| May 1962, 1963 | British Columbia, Canada | 2 observatıons of attacks on Dall's (one by 12 KW s) | Y | ? | Pike \& MacAskie (1969) |
| 30 October 1971 Summer 1982 | South-east AK, U.S.A. Johnstone Strait, B.C., Canada | 2 KWs attack single Dall's <br> Single transient KW lunges on top of fleeing Dall's | $\stackrel{?}{\mathrm{~N}}$ | ? | Barr \& Barr (1972) Jacobsen (1986) |
| Dall's Porpoise Phocoenoides dalli (Contd.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| July 1982 | Greater Puget Sound, WA, U.S.A. | L pod subgroup (residents) attack Dall's | Y | ? | Felleman (1986), Heımlich-Boran (1988), Felleman et al. <br> (1991) |
| July 1983 | Johnstone Strait, B.C., Canada | O pod KW (transient) attacks a Dall's calf | N | ? | J. Jacobsen (pers. comm.) |
| 27 May 1984 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | Dall's disappeared near KWspresumed attack | N | ? | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 1984-88 } \\ & \text { 6 August, } 7 \text { September } \\ & 1985 \\ & 9 \text { February } 1987 \end{aligned}$ | Britısh Columbia, Canada Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. <br> Vancouver Island, B.C., | Transient KWs pursuc Dall's <br> 2 attacks (first involved 2 transients <br> and 1 resident, second 4 transuents) <br> 8 transtents attack several Dall's | ? | $\stackrel{\mathrm{N}}{\mathrm{Y}}$ | Morton (1990) Hall \& Cornell (1986) |
| 9 February 1987 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | 8 transients attack several Dall's | ? | ? | M. A. Bigg (in litt.) |
| Summer 1987 | South-east AK, U.S.A. | 2 transtent KWs attack a Dall's | ; | ${ }_{2}^{N}$ | D'Vincent et al. (1989) F Sharpe (pers comm) |
| July 1988, date unknown | South-east AK, U.S.A. | 2 observations of KWs attacking several Dall's | ? | ? | P. Folkens ( (2 litt.) |
| Harbour Porposse Phocoena phocoena |  |  |  |  |  |
| September 1962 | Haro Strant, WA, U.S.A. | 2 KWs chase a Harbour Porpoise (second-hand report) | ? | ? | Hoyt (1984) |
| August 1976 | Haro Strait, WA, U.S.A. | L pod cubgroup (residents) attack single Harbour Porpoise | Y | ? | Balcomb ct al. (1980), Felleman (1986), Heimlich-Boran (1988), Felleman et al. (1991) |
| Pre-1980 | SW Ireland | ${ }^{\mathrm{KW}}$ s pursue porpoises ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ? | ? | Evans (1980) |
| 1984-88 | British Columbia, Canada | 5 attacks by transient KWs on Harbour Porpoises | ? | Y | Morton (1990) |
| 11 June, 5 August 1985 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | 2 observations of 6 and 2 transient KWs killing single Harbour Porpoises | Y | Y | Hall \& Cornell (1986) |
| 7 August 1987 | Faroe 1slands | Single bull KW eats single Harbour Porporse (second-hand report) | N | ? | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| Unidentified small cetacean (Delphinidae or Phocoenidae) $\dagger$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| May 1949 <br> November 1964 | Southern CA, U.S.A. Near Napier, New Zealand | 3 KW s attack 8 porpoises <br> At least 4 KW s attack a school of dolphins | $\stackrel{?}{\mathrm{Y}}$ | $\dot{?}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Norris \& Prescott (1961) } \\ & \text { Robson (1976) } \end{aligned}$ |
| Unidentified cetacean (Cetacea) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Summer 1976 | Barrow, AK, U.S.A. | 3-4 KWs attack an unidentified cetacean | 2 | ? | Marquette (1978) |
| Pre-1982 | Wainwright, AK, U.S.A. | 2 second-hand reports of attacks on whales* | Y | ? | Nelson (1982) |

## Appendix I

(Continued)

| Date | Location | Description | Cooperation? | Kill? | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pinmpeds |  |  |  |  |  |
| Northern Elephant Seal Mirounga angustirostris |  |  |  |  |  |
| 28 December 1973 | Islas San Benitos, Baja, Mexico | 2 KW sattack and kıll Elephant Seal, not eaten | Y | Y | Samaras \& Leatherwood (1974) |
| 26 October 1987 | Cypress Pt, CA, U.S.A. | Presumed attack-KWs breachıng, tail-slapping around area where an Elephant Seal submerged (bloody cloud seen and pink tissue seen in KW mouth) | ? | ? | N. A. Black (pers. comm.) |
| 20 September 1988 | Victoria, B.C., Canada | Attack by M1 pod (3 transients) on an Elephant Seal | Y | Y | Stacey \& Baird (1989a) |
| Southern Elephant Seal Mirounga leonina |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1966 | Possession Island, southern Indian Ocean | Reports of KWs 'patrolling' the surf, hunting for seals | N | N | Voison (1972) |
| Early 1970s | Marion Island, southern Indian Ocean | Several attacks by 4 and 3 KWs | ? | Y | Condy et al. (1978) |
| 1975-85 | Punta Norte, Argentuna | 33 attacks by a solitary male ( 17 successful) and 535 attacks by groups ( 164 successful) on ether Southern Elephant Seals or Southern Sea Lions | Y | Y | Lopez \& Lopez (1985) |
| Summer 1982 | Crozet Islands, southern Indian Ocean | KWs noted several times feeding on Elephant Seals | ? | Y | Rıdoux (1987) |
| 1987-88 | Punta Norte, Argentina | Many attacks on Southern Elephant Seals | Y | Y | Hoelzel (1989) |
| November 1987December 1988 | Crozet Islands, southern Indian Ocean | 10 kills of weaned Elephant Seal pups | ? | Y | Guinet (1990b) |
| Grey Seal Halichoerus grypus |  | Autacks observed | ? | ? | Evans (1990) |
|  | coast of Scotland |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1988 | Faroe Islands | Second-hand report of KW attack on a Grey Seal | N | ? | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| Hooded Seal Cystophora cristatus |  |  |  |  |  |
| July 1940 | Greenland | 30 KW s eat a Hooded Seal | ? | Y | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| Harbour Seal Phoca vitulina May 1919 | Green Island, B.C., Canada | About 6 KW s attack 1 Harbour Seal, | ? | N | Moran(1924) |
|  |  | which hauled-out to escape |  |  |  |
| July 1939 | Dean Channel, B.C., Canada | Second-hand report of KWs chasing seals to shore | ? | N | Fisher (1952) |
| Pre-1940s | Estero de Punta, Baja, Mexico | Small groups of KWs seen feeding on seals (second-hand report) | ? | Y | Norris \& Prescott (1961) |
| Pre-1948 | Washington, U.S.A | 4 attacks observed | Y | Y | Scheffer \& Slipp (1948) |
| 1970s | Brıtish Columbia, Canada | Transtent M1 observed to eat a Harbour Seal | N | Y | Balcomb et al. (1980) |
| 1980s | Near San Juan Island, WA, U.S.A. | 4 attacks by transienı KW/ | Y | Y | Felleman (1986), Felleman et al. (1991) |
| 1982-84 | Glacier Bay, AK, U.S.A. | 2 observations of predation or attempted predation near land haulout sites, also second-hand reports | ? | ? | Calambokıdis et al. (1987) |
| 1984-88 | Brıtish Columbia, Canada | Attack on a Harbour Seal by transient KWs | ? | Y | Morton (1990) |
| 11 June 1985 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | 2 attacks by 6 transients | ? | Y | Hall \& Cornell (1986) |
| 1986-89 | Victoria, B.C., Canada | Over 50 kills of Harbour Seals by transient KWs | Y | Y | Baird \& Stacey (1987, 1988b), Bard, Dill \& Stacey (1990) |
| Summer 1987 | Near San Juan lsland, WA, U.S.A. | 2 resident killer whales (from L pod) attack a Harbour Seal | ? | Y | Fellemanet al.(1991) |
| Harp Seal Phoca groenlandica |  |  |  |  |  |
| May 1950 | Greenland | $4-5 \mathrm{KW}$ s following Harp Seals | ? | N | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| April 1977 | Newfoundland, Canada | KWs seen 'feeding on harp seal pups and other seals' | ? | ? | N. Oien (ın litt.) |
| 23 September 1979 | Lancaster Sound, Canada | KW's seen chasıng many Harp Seals | ? | ? | Koski \& Davis (1980) |
| Crabeater Seal Lobodon carcinophagus |  |  |  |  |  |
| January 1973 | Antarctic | 8 KW s attack seal on ice floe | Y | ? | Yukhov et al. (1975) |
| 12 November 1979 | Gerlache Strait, Antarctica | 7 KW s attack seal on ice floe, wash seal off ice | Y | ? | Smith et al. (1981) |
| Weddell Seal Leptonychotes weddell. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 January-5 February 1981 | Ross Sea, Antarctica | Single case of a chase by KWs of a Weddell | ? | ? | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| January 1957 | Antarctica | $6-7 \mathrm{KW}$ s pull a seal off the ice | ? | Y | Crome (1963) |
| Leopard Seal Hydrurga leptonyx |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30 October 1975 | Antarctica | Attack by at least 2 KW s | ? | Y | Siniff \& Bengtson (1977) |
| Walrus Odobenus rosmarus Pre-1866 | Norsuak, Greenland | Second-hand report of an attack on a Walrus | Y | ? | Eschrichi (1866) |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pre-1872 } \\ & 1933,1936 \end{aligned}$ | Bering Sea <br> Anadyr Zaliv and Bering Stratt | Many attacks, espectally on young <br> Several attacks on Walruses observed | ? | $Y$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Scammon (1872, 1874) } \\ & \text { Zenkovich (1938) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 1935 | Kolyuchinski Bay, U.S.S.R. | 2 reports of KWs pursuing Walrus (one instance involved 2 KWs ) | ? | 2 | Nikulin (1941) |
| September 1936 | Cape Providence, U.S.S.R. | 15 KWs attack small group spht off from larger group of 60-70 Walrus | , | ${ }^{2}$ | Zenkovich (1938) |
| 20 August 1983 | Bering Stratt | Presumed attack-Walrus remans tound near KWs | \% | Y | Lowry et al. (1987) |
| 18 July 1985 | Cape Pierce, AK, U.S.A. | 4 KW s attack 3 Walrus, from group moving towards shore | Y | , | Mazzone (1987) |
| Californa Sea Lion Zalophus californanus |  |  |  |  |  |
| Date unknown | Santa Catalina Island, CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand reports KWs jumping onto rocks to get al Sea Lions* | 2 | Y | W F. Samaras (in hitt.) |
| April 1952 (?) | Magdalena Bay, Baja, Mexico | 5-7 KWs attack 10-15 Sea Lions | Y | Y | Norris \& Prescott (1961) |
| August 1955 | Near Santa Barbara lsland, CA, U.S.A. | Attack by 6 KW ¢, played with prey | 2 | ? | Norris \& Prescott (1961) |
| 1959 | Californa, U.S.A | 4 KW s attack a Sea Lion | Y | Y | W F. Samaras and <br> S. Leatherwood (unpubl.) |

## Appendix I

 (Continued)| Date | Location | Description | Cooperation? | Kill? | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pınnipeds (Contd.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| California Sea Lion (Cont'd) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1959 or 1960 | Santa Catalina Island, CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand report of 50-60 Sea Lions attacked by $12-15 \mathrm{KW}$ s | Y | 2 | W. F. Samaras and |
| 1960 | Santa Barbara Island, CA, U.S.A. | KW's seen to 'jump up onto the rocks' to grab Sea Lions (second-hand report)* | ? | Y | W F. Samaras (in litt.) |
| 25 May 1965 | Farallon Islands, CA, U.S.A. | 8 KWs attack a male Sea Lion (second-hand report) | Y | ? | Rice (1968) |
| 9 February 1967 | Islas San Benitos, Baja, Mexico | At least 6 KW s attack a Sea Lion | ? | ? | Rice (1968) |
| Autumn 1973 | Los Angeles, CA, U.S.A. | $7-8 \mathrm{KW}$ s kill 4 of a group of $10-12$ Sea Lions | Y | Y | W. F Samaras and S. Leatherwood (unpubl.) |
| 14 February 1982 | Coronado Island, Baja, Mexico | 6 KW s seen eatıng Sea Lions | Y | Y | D. L. Kelly (unpubl.) |
| 8 March 1982 | Southern CA, U.S.A | 6 KW s eat 2 Sea Lions | ? | Y | D. L. Kelly (unpubl.) |
| 2 November 1986 | Near Pt Reyes, CA, U.S.A. | 10 KWs attack a Californıa Sea Lion (second-hand report) | ? | ? | Baldrıdge (1986) |
| 3 December 1986 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | 4 transient KWs attack a California Sea Lion | Y | N | Bigg et al. (1987) |
| 20 May 1988 | Monterey, Bay, CA, U.S.A. | Second-hand report of 2 KW s 'breaching, feeding on, or playing with sea lion', probably a California Sea Lion* | ? | ? | Baldridge (1988) |
| 14 January 1989 | Point Piños, CA, U.S.A. | 4 KW s attack 5-6 Sea Lions, killing 1 | Y | Y | Jefferson (unpubl.) |
| Steller Sea Lion Eumetopras Jubatus |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1886 | Bering Sea | Group of KWs chases 5 Sea Lions, tearing throat from 1 | ? | ? | Turner (1886) |
| Pre-1872 | Brıtish Columbia, Canada or Alaska, U.S.A. | 4 KW s seen eating Sea Lions | ? | Y | Scammon(1872) |
| June 1933 | Cape Shipunskiy, Bering Sea | Approach by several dozen KWs to rookery, attacking those in water | ? | ? | Zenkovich (1938) |
| 9 May 1959 | Triangle Island, B.C., Canada | Group of KWs toying with wounded SeaLion | ? | ? | Pike \& MacAskie (1969) |
| 20 August, 4 September 1960 | Langara Light, B.C., Canada | 2 KW attacks on Sea Lions | ? | ? | Pike \& MacAskie (1969) |
| 23 January 1971 | Bering Sea | 7 KW pursue 20-25 Sea Lions | ? | ? | Branson(1971) |
| 13 March 1975 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | Attack by 3 KW s | ? | Y | Harbo (1975) |
| Pre-1981 | North Pacific Ocean | KW's seen feeding on Steller Sea Lions | ? | Y | Mikhalev et al. (1981) |
| 1982 | Shelikof Strait, AK, U.S.A. | About 150 Sea Lions hauled-out onto small islet as KWs circled | Y | ? | Leatherwood, Bowles \& Reeves (1983) |
| August 1983 | Frederick Sound, AK, U.S.A. | KWs attacking bull Sea Lion | Y | ? | D'Vincent et al. (1989) |
| 13 August 1983 | Frederick Sound, AK, U.S.A. | Attack by 6 KW s | Y | ? | Dolphin (1987) |
| Pre-1984 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | KWs attacking Sea Lions forced into water by tide | ? | Y | Hoyt (1984) |
| 1984-88 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | 3 attacks by transient KWs on Steller Sea Lions | ? | Y | Morton (1990) |
| Pre-1986 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | Second-hand reports of numerous attacks | ? | Y | Hall (1986) |
| Pre-1987 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | 6 transient KWs attack a Steller Sea Lion | 2 | Y | Bigg et al. (1987) |
| Southern Sea Lion Otaria fazescins |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1970-85 | Punta Norte, Argentina | 33 attacks by a solitary male (17 successful) and 535 attacks by groups ( 164 successful) on either Southern Elephant Seals or Southern Sea Lions | Y | Y | Lopez \& Lopez (1985) |
| Pre-1975 | Peninsula Valdes, Argentına | More than 20 attacks on pups in I hour, also second-hand report of thousands taken* | 2 | Y | Anonymous (1975) |
| Pre-1976 | Peninsula Valdes, Argentina | Several attacks on Sea Lions observed | $?$ | Y | Bartlett \& Bartlett (1976) |
| 21 January 1981 | Isla Marta | Sungle KW chases young Sea Lion onto shore | N | N | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| 1987-88 | Punta Norte, Argentına | Many attacks on Southern Sea Lions | Y | Y | Hoelzel (1989) |
| Northern Fut Scal Callorhinus ursinus |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1922 | Prıbılof Islands, Bering Sea | Second-hand reports of attacks each spring and autumn, first-hand observation of attack on pups | 2 | Y | Hanna (1922) |
| 16 June 1964 | Tyuleniy Island, U.S.S.R. | 5 KW s attack a Fur Seal colony | ? | 2 | Bychkov (1967) |
| Unıdentified scation (Otarıdac) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Summer 1974 | Long Beach, B.C., Canada | Second-hand report of an attack by 5 KW s on sea lions | Y | 2 | Ford \& Ford (1981) |
| Unıdentified pinniped (Pinnıpedia) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1872 | Santa Barbara Island, CA, U.S.A. | KWs seen pursuing seals | Y | 2 | Scammon (1872) |
| 19-29 August 1943 | Lancaster Sound, Canada | Second-hand report of about 20 KW s terrorizing seals | ? | 2 | Reeves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| 7 August 1954 | Greenland | 6 KW s chased but did not catch a seal | ? | N | Herde-Jorgensen (1988) |
| Pre-1979 | Alaska, U.S.A. | 4 KW s attack a seal | ? | ? | Lockley (1979) |
| 13 February 1986 | Namibia, Africa | Second-hand report of a KW eatung 4 seals | N | Y | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
| Sirenians ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Dugong Dugong dugon } \\ & 20-26 \text { May 1983 } \end{aligned}$ | Western Australia | 3 incomplete observations or second-hand reports of KW/s attacking Dugongs | ? | ? | Anderson \& Prince (1985) |
| Carnivores |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sea Otter Enhydra lutris Spring 1962 | Kuril Islands, U.S.S.R. | Report of a KW catching a Sea Otter | ? | ? | Nikolaev (1965) |

+Baird \& Stacey (1988) reported a porpoise kill, but subsequent observations convinced the authors that it was a Harbour Seal, not a porporse

Appendix II
Interactions between Killer Whales (KWs) and other marine mammals involving no apparent aggressive actions by the Killer Whales

| Date | Location | Description | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Celacrans |  |  |  |
| Bluc Whale Balasmopiera musculus |  |  |  |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemisphere | 2 observanons of 'mixed groups' of KWs and Blue Whales | Mikhalcy er al (1981) |
| Fin Whate Balacroptera physalus |  |  |  |
| August 1933 | Cape Olyutorsky, Bering Sca | Fin Whales feeding peacefully with Humpbacks and KWs on large school of herring | Zenkovich (1938) |
| 7 October 1948 | Western North Pacific | 20 Fin Whales near KWs hunting herring | Sleptsov (1961) |
| 1061-79 | Southern Hemisphere | 11 obscrvations of mixed groups' of KWs and Fin Whales | Mikhalev et al (1981) |
| 19-28 June 1970 | Newfoundland, Canada | 4 reperts of KWs 'associated with' Fin whales being hunted, presence of $K W$ 'made whales very wild | Mitchell \& Reeves (1988) |
| 5 Sepiember 1979 | Ipswich Bay, MA, U.S.A. | $40-50 \mathrm{KW}$ s scen withon 20 mof 2 Fin Whalen | Gormley (1990) |
| 10 Sepicmber 1984 | Gulf of Si Lawrence, Canada | Single 1 'in Whale passes by 3 KW , ult $\mathrm{e}^{-k}$ ing a Minke Whaleno apparent response by fin | Gormicy (1990) |
| 23 Ocrober 1985 | New Scantum Ledge, NH, U.S.A. | Single $K W$ approaches $2 \mathbf{F}$ in W'hules- Win Whales not noticeably disturbed | Gormley (1990) |
| 1980s | Cape Cod, MA, U.S.A. | KWs and Fin Whales pass through euth orher's ranks-no ageression observed | Gormley (1900) |
| Pre-1990 | Ipswich Bay, MA, U.S.A. | Fin Whale travelling with over 100 KW s | Gormbey (1990) |
| Sei Whale Balaenopiera borealis |  |  |  |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemispherc | 14 observations of 'mixed groups' of KW's and Sei Whales | Mikhalev et al (1981) |
| Bryde's Whale Balaeropiera edent |  |  |  |
| 8 January 1987 |  | - |  |
| Minke Whalc Balaenoptera acutorostrata |  |  |  |
| April 1955 | Graham Land, Antarctica | For several months, abour $60 \mathrm{KWs}$,120 Minke Whales, and 1 Arnoux's Beaked Whate were trapped in a peol in the sea ice-no aggresston observed | 'Taylor (1957) |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemisphere | 34 observations of 'mixed groups' of KWs and Minke Whales | Mikhakev et al. (1981) |
| 1979-82 | Johnstone Strait, B.C., Canada | 12 observations of non-predatory interactions bet ween the two species | Jacobsen (1986) |
| Pre-1981 | Vanoouver island, B.C., Canada | Several observations of Minke Whales near and among KW's | Ford \& liord (1981) |
| 20 January-5 licbruary 1981 | Ross inland, Antarctica | Scueral observations of KW W and Minke Whales in close proximity, somermes sharing the same breathing holes and in near physical contact | Leatherwood ©ial.(1981), S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| Pre-1984 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | Several observations of KWs near Minkes | Hoys (1984) |
| Pre-1986 | Greater Puget Sound, wA, U.S.A. | Resident KWs in vicinity of Minkes on several occasionsno attacks | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Felleman (1986), Heimlich-Boran } \\ & \text { (1988), Felleman el al. } \\ & \text { (1991) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 14 August 1988 | Camano Sound, B.C., Canada | 2 Minkes pass by 5 KW s-no noncrable reaction | P. Axhorn (pers comm.) |
| Humpback Whale Megaptera novaeanghar |  |  |  |
| August 1933 | Cape Olyutorsky, Bering Sea | Humpbacks feeding peacefully with Fin Whates and KW's on large scheol of herring | Zenkovich (1938) |
| 1952 | Wessern Australia | 4 reports of $K$ W', and Humpbacks in the same area, with no attack | Chutleborough (1953) |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemisphere | 5 observations of 'muxed groups' of $K W$ v and Humpback Whales | Mikhalev eral. (1981) |
| Summer 1970 | Johnstone Srath, B.C., Canada | Several observations of a liumpback Whate near KWs | Speng, Bradford \& White (1970) |
| 14-28 June 970 | Newfoundiand, Canada | 4 reports of $K W$ s 'associated with' Humpbacks being hunted by whaters, presence of KWs 'made whales very wild' | Mitchell \& Reeves (1988) |
| 1982-83 | South-cast AK, U.S.A. | 3 observations of Humpbacks and $K W$ s in same area tonce KW's were attacking a sea ton) | Dolphin (1987) |
| August 1983 | Off Sanra Cruz, CA, U.SA. | 3 Humpbacks 'cavorting with' single juvenilc KW | Dohteral. (1983) |
| 7 March 1987 | Cape Hatteras, SC, U.S.A. | 3 KW s seen near single Humpback | Gormley (1990) |
| January 1989 | 1sla Socorro, Mexico | Appron. 4 KW's pass singing Humpback, Humpback stops singing, surfaces among passing KWs | J. Jacobsen (in/ir.) |
| Southern Right Whale Eubalacna australis |  |  |  |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemisphere | Oncobservalion of a 'mixed group' of KW's and Right Whales | Mikhaler efal (1981) |
| Grey Whale Eichrichius roburius |  |  |  |
| Pre- ${ }^{\text {96] }}$ | San Diego, CA, U.S.A. | Several reports of Grey Whalss and KW's in same area with no aggression | Gilmore (1961) |
| 6-17 January 1963 | Santa Barbara, CA, U.S.A. | 2 Grey Whales using 'sncaking behaviour' with no visible blows and slower respirations as they pasied KW's | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| Pre-1965 | North Pacitic | Grey Whales using underwater exhatations to avoid KWs | Hubbs (1965) |
| 19 Augusi 1979 | Chukokka, Berrng Sea | 14 KW ( in separate subgroups) near Grey Whales | Tvashin \& Votrogov (1981) |
| 21 April 1980 | Central CA, U.SA. | 2 Grcy Whales apparently yoid 5 KWs , and exhale underwater | Prole (1984) |
| 27 February 1983 | Southern CA, U.S.A. | Sccond-hand report of KW following 2 Greys-no aggression reported | D. L. Kelly (unpubl.) |
|  |  |  |  |
| 1961-79 |  | 31 obvervations of a 'mixed groups' of KWs and Sperm Whales | Mikhalev er at ( 1981 ) |
|  | South Africa | 'Mulli-species assemblages' of KWs, Sperm Whales, and Risso's Dolphins | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| Arnoux's Beaked Whale Berardius arnuxii |  |  |  |
| Aprill 1055 | Graham Land, Antarctica | For several months, about $60 \mathrm{KWs}, 120$ Minke Whales, and 1 Arnoux's Beaked Whale were trapped in a pool in the sea ice-no aggression observed | Taylor (1957) |
| Northern Butrienose What April 1893, 1977 | ypercodon ampullarus Eastern Canadian Arctic | 2 second-hand or whaler records of Botalenose Whales in the same vicinity as KW/s* | Recves \& Mitchell (1988) |
| Southern Bortienose Whal $1961-79$ | yperoodon planifrons Southern Hemisphere | 6 observations of 'mixed groups' of $K W_{s}$ and Botulenose Whales | Mikhalev er al. (1981) |
| Whut Whale Delphinapterus lcucas |  |  |  |
| Long-hinned Pilor Whate $C$ | icephala melas |  |  |
| $1961-79$ | Sourhern Hemisphere | One observation of a 'mixed group' of KWs and Pilot Whales | Mikhalev er al (1981) |
| 10 September 1962 | Smith Sound, cassern Canadian Árctic | Sccond-hand repert of possible Pilor Whate with KWS (species ID uncer(ain)* | Recves \& Mirchell (1988) |
| 15 September 1975 | Mr Desert Rock, ME, U.S.A. | 5 'blackfish' being foliowed by KW | Gormle) (1990) |
| 7 July 1987 | Faroe Islands | Pilor Whales and KWs in mixed groups | Bloch \& Lockyer (1998) |
| False Killer Whate Pseudor 1970s | crassidens <br> Eshany Lagoon, AK, U.S.A. | Report of a single False Killer Whale staying with 7 KW 's for several days | C. O. Matkin (in lot to S. Leatherwood) |

Appendix II
(Continued)

| Date | Location | Description | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cetaceans (Contd.) |  |  |  |
| Rısso's Dolphin Grampus griseus |  |  |  |
| Pre-1988 | South Africa | 'Multi-species assemblages' of KWs, Sperm Whales, and Risso's Dolphins | Bloch \& Lockyer (1988) |
| 27 November 1988 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | Single KW moving with group of 8 Risso's Dolphins and 10 Pacific White-sided Dolphins | N. A. Black (pers. comm.) |
| Common Dolphin Delphinus delphrs |  |  |  |
| 19 March 1989 | Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | About 1200 Common Dolphins turn 180 and flee suddenly from 3 KW s | Jefferson (unpubl.) |
|  |  |  |  |
| Pre-1973 | Hawail, U.S.A. | Report of a single KW that escaped from captivity associatıng with Spinners | Pryor (1973) |
| Dusky Dolphin Lagenorhynchus obscurus |  |  |  |
| 1973-76 | Penınsula Valdes, Argentina | 6 instances of Dolphins moving in tight groups away from KWs in area, in 3 instances especially close to shore | Wursig \& Würsig (1980) |
| Pre-1987 | Karkoura, New Zealand | Dusky Dolphins suddenly move north, very close to shore, as group of KWs moved into area | B. Wursig (pers. comm.) |
| Pre-1989 | Otago Penınsula, New Zealand | 5 Dusky Dolphıns following 5 KWs-no aggression | Hawke (1989) |
| White-beaked Dolphin Lagenorhynchus albirostris |  |  |  |
| August 1977 | Pentland Firth, Scotland | At least 15 KW s associated with Dolphins | Evans (1980) |
| 1986 | Iceland | 5 observations of both species in the same area (once they fed together) | Sigurjonsson et al. (1988) |
| Atlantic White-sided Dolphin Lagenorhynchus acutus |  |  |  |
| 8 April 1978 | Of Labrador, eastern Canada | Second-hand report of 2 KW s 'accompanied by' a dolphin (dolphin species ID uncertain)* | Mitchell \& Reeves (1988) |
| June 1982 | Isle of Shoals, ME, U.S.A. | Single KW 'swimming with White-sided Dolphins' | Gormley (1985), Katona et al. (1988) |
| 15 October 1985 | Iceland | KWs 2-5 miles from White-sided Dolphins, which were taking flighr (possible coincidence) | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| Pacific Whute-sided Dolphin 27 November 1988 | Lagenorhynchus obliquidens <br> Monterey Bay, CA, U.S.A. | Single KW moving with group of 8 Risso's Dolphins and 10 Pacific White-sided Dolphins | N. A. Black (pers. comm.) |
| Bottlenose Dolphin Tursiops iruncatus |  |  |  |
| 1974-76 | Penınsula Valder, Argentina | 2 instances of Dolphins moving away from KW groups in area, towards open sea | Würsig \& Würsig (1979) |
| Indo-Pacific Humpback Dolphin Sousa chinensis |  |  |  |
| Pre-1979 | Algoa Bay, S. Africa | About 20 Dolphıns apparently avoid 3 KW , by swimming very close to shore | Saayman \& Tayler (1979) |
| Unıdentified dolphin (Delphinıdae) |  |  |  |
| 1961-79 | Southern Hemisphere | One observation of a 'mixed group' of KWs and unidentified dolphins | Mikhalev et al. (1981) |
| March 1974 | Southern CA, U.S.A. | 6-7 KWs follow a school of dolphins at about I mile-no aggression observed (second-hand report) | W. F. Samaras (in litt.) |
| 9 March 1976 | ${ }_{\text {Brazil }}$ | $4-5 \mathrm{KW}$, in same vicinity as a school of und. dolphins | Notobartolo-di-Sciara (1977) |
| Pre-1987 | South Africa | Several observations of KWs in same vicinity as dolphins, with no aggression | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
| Dall's Porpone Phecoenordes dalli |  |  |  |
| 4 August 1947 | Cape Uyak, AK, U.S.A. | 5-6 Dall's play near 5 KW s | Scheffer (1949) |
| 4 November 1054 | Southern CA, U.S.A. | 2 Dall's feeding together on anchovies with 2 KWs | Brown \& Norris (1956) |
| $\underset{1971}{\text { June-September 1970, }}$ | Johnstone Stratt, B.C., Canada | Several observations of Dall's and KWs feeding in the same area, and 2 reports of Dall's swimmıng with pods of KWs | Spong et al. (1970), Spong, Michaels \& Spong (1972) |
| 1979-82 | Johnstone Stratt, B.C., Canada | 4 observations of Dall's Porpoises playing around KW's | Jacobsen (1986) |
| Pre-1981 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | Numerous instances of Dall's approaching and swimming with KWs | Matkin (1981) |
| Pre-1981 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | Several observations of Dall's near KWs, with no aggression | Ford \& Ford (1981) |
| Pre-1982 | Alaska, U.S.A. | Several reports of Dall's 'seen near and occasionally directly interacting' with KWs | Braham \& Dahlherm (1982) |
| Pre-1984 | Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | Several observations of Dall's and KWs in close proxımity | Hoyt (1984) |
| $\begin{aligned} & 20 \text { April-10 September } \\ & 1984 \end{aligned}$ | South-east AK, U.S.A. | Several observations of Dall's swimming across the path of KWs and travelling in front of KW/s | S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) |
| $\underset{1984}{\text { 20-July-23 September }}$ | Prince Willıam Sound, AK, U.S.A. | Single Dall's swam with resident pod of KWs, acted like a KW | C. O. Matkin (in litt.) |
| Summer 1984 | Johnstone Strait, B.C., Canada | 10 observations of Dall's and resident KWs the same area; observation of 5 Dall's playing around resident KWs | Jefferson (1987) |
| 29 July 1984 | Johnstone Strant, B.C., Canada | Lone Dall's avoids 4 resting resident KW's | Jefferson (1987) |
| $\begin{aligned} & 28 \text { August } 1984 \\ & \text { Pre-1986 } \end{aligned}$ | Kodiak Island, AK, U.S.A. Greater Puget Sound, WA, U.S.A | Several Dall's in close proximity to at least 103 KW s Resident KW/s and Dall's seen in close proxımity several times | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S. Leatherwood (pers. comm.) } \\ & \text { Felleman (1986) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 22 August 1987 | Boundary Pass, B.C., Canada | Several Dall's appear to avoid K pod (residents) | L. Fontaine (pers. comm.) |
| 24 June 1988 | Boundary Pass, B.C., Canada | Two groups of Dall's amıdst J pod (residents)-no apparent reaction | L. Fontane (pers. comm.) |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 13-May-19 August } \\ & 1989 \end{aligned}$ | Victoria, B.C., Canada | 2 observations of Dall's avoiding transient KWs, onc of restdents | R. W. Baird (unpubl.) |
| $\begin{aligned} & 3 \text { September 1988-26 } \\ & \text { August } 1989 \end{aligned}$ | Vtctoria, B.C., Canada | boccurrences of Dall's near transient KWs, and once with residents-no behavioural interactions | $\underset{\text { R. Whpubl.) }}{\text { W. Baird and P. J. Stacey }}$ |
| Harbour Porpoise Phococna phecoena |  |  |  |
| Pre-1948 | Nisqually River, WA, U.S.A. | Harbour Porpoises apparently taking refuge from hunting KWs in a river (second-hand report) | Scheffer \& Slipp (1948) |
| Pre-1986 | Greater Puget Sound, WA, U.S.A. | Resident KWs and Harbour Porpoises seen in close proximity several times | Felleman (1986) |
| 7 April-26 August 1989 | Victoria, B.C., Canada | 4 instances of porporses within a few hundred metres of transient KWs-no reaction | R. W. Baird and P. J. Stacey (unpubl.) |
| Pinnipeds |  |  |  |
| Harbour Seal Phoca vitulina 1970s | British Columbia, Canada | Numerous accounts of pods passing close to hauled-out seals, with no reaction | Ford \& Ford (1981) |
| 1979-82 | Johnstone Stratt, B.C., Canada | 3 reports of KWs and Harbour Seals in same area, with little reaction by seals | Jacobsen (1986) |
| 1980ヶ | Southern Vancouver Island, B.C., Canada | Resident KWs passing by hauled out Harbour Seals | R. W Baird and P. J. Stacey (unpubl.) |
| Pre-1986 | Greater Puget Sound, WA, U.S.A. | Harbour Seals and resident $K W$ s in same area (often $<50 \mathrm{~m}$ away) | $\underset{(1991)}{\text { Felleman (1986), Felleman et al. }}$ |

Appendix II
(Continued)

| Date | Location | Description | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pinnipeds (Conta) |  |  |  |
| Harp Scal Phosu grocnlardica |  |  |  |
| $\text { May } 1950$ | Grecnland | 4-5 KW ${ }^{*}$ 'following harp seals' | Heide-Jorgensen (1988) |
| Crabcater Scai Lobodon varcimophagus |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| April-Novernber | Graham Land, Antarctica | KW's trapped in sea-ice pool made no apparent attempts to attack seals present | Taylor (1957) |
| Weddell Seal Lepionycholes weiddill |  |  |  |
| January 1981 | Hoss Sea, Antarcuica | Several reports of K Ws and Weddeth Seals in same area | T'bomas at at (1981) |
| Walrus Odobonus romaru 2b June 1922 | Bering Strait | KW's following Walruses-no aggression reported | Bailey \& Hendee (1926) |
| Calitormia Sca Lion Zalophus califormanus |  |  |  |
| 12 October 1987 | Victoria, B.C., Canada | Lone adult male KW' swims within group of Steller and Californa Sea Lions, wath nu reacion by sea lions | Baird \& Stacey (1989) |
| Steller Sea Lion Ermeropias jubahus |  |  |  |
| June 1922 | Green Island, B.C., Canada | 2 sea lions (presumably Sreilers) observed group of $15 \mathrm{KW} / \mathrm{s}$ at close range, as whales were lobtailing | Moran (1924) |
| 1979-82 | Johnsrone Strait, B.C., Canada | 5 reports of $K W$ s and Siellers in same atea, with no evidence of avordance (in one case, sca lions entered water as KWs passed) | Jacubsen (1986) |
| Prc-1982 | Alaska, U.S.A. | Several observatiuns of Stellers'seen near and on occasion directly interacting with killer whales' with no aggression | Braham \& Dahlheim (1982) |
| 17 September 1984 | Prince $W^{\prime}$ illiam Sound, AK, U.S.A | 3 Stellers feeding on herring with about 35 resident KWS. 2 sea lions artacked and bit KW/s (unprovoked) | C. O. Matkin (en /her.) |
| 12 October 1987 | Victoria, B.C., Canada | Lone adule male KW swims within group of Seeller and Califomia Sea Lions, with no reaction by sea lions | Bard \& Staccy (1989) |
|  |  |  |  |
| 2 Augus 1983 | Cape Point, S. Africo | Hundreds of seals in area feeding, upon appearance of $K$ Ws they disappeared | Rice \& Saayman (1987) |
| 14 I'ebruary 1986 8 April 1980 | Namibia, S. Africa Namibia, S. Africa | KWs swimming around rocks near seals <br> 2 KW leeding on seabirds and ignoring seals in the water | Rice \& Sazyman (1987) <br> Ruce \& Saayman (1987) |
| Cammores |  |  |  |
| Sea Otter Enhydralutris |  |  |  |
| 1 March, 9 April 1959 | Amehitka Island, $A K$, U.S.A. | 2 observatrons of $K \mathbf{W}$ s near otters, otters 'sensed' $K W$ s, bur now alarmed | Kenyon (1975) |
| $1960(\%)$ | Rat Island, AK, U.S.A. | 6 KW 's ncar at lease 200 utters | Kenyon(1975) |
| 19,26 July 1978 | Prince William Sound, AK, U.S.A. | 2 observations of $K W$ s and otters in same area, otters become alert and alarmed (respectively) | Beckel (1980) |

