INTRODUCTION

Hawksbill turtles *Eretmochelys imbricata* are widely distributed throughout the tropics and are currently listed as Critically Endangered by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Redbook (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008) and by the Brazilian Red List of Threatened Species (Marcovaldi et al. 2011). One of the principal reasons for the species’ decline is the collection of its elaborate shell (i.e. tortoiseshell or bekko) for fabrication of decorative items and jewellery (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). Fishery-related mortality, the impact of unregulated tourism and the deleterious effects of debris in the marine environment may also have contributed to its reduction in numbers (Dayton et al. 1995). The species is commonly associated with coral reefs and thought to exert a positive indirect effect on maintaining coral biodiversity due to its highly specialized diet of marine sponges (Meylan 1988, León & Bjorndal 2002). Hawksbills exhibit a complex life cycle in which they inhabit different ecosystems,
from pelagic waters to coastal waters, reef systems and terrestrial beaches (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008). Genetic studies have shown, for instance, that juvenile aggregations on foraging grounds are composed of mixed stock populations (Bowen et al. 1996, Blumenthal et al. 2009). During their life cycle, the turtles disperse and migrate — traveling long distances and habitually moving between the open sea and the territorial waters of many nations (Meylan et al. 2011). The migratory routes are usually associated with movements to different foraging habitats and/or from foraging grounds to breeding areas. Females, for example, migrate from foraging areas to nesting sites every 2 or 3 yr (Witzell 1983). Satellite-tracking studies of hawksbills from different rookeries have shown that some females migrate longer distances towards foraging grounds, while others remain close to their nesting beaches (Mortimer & Balazs 2000, Horrocks et al. 2001, Troëng et al. 2005, Cuevas et al. 2008, Van Dam et al. 2008, Parker et al. 2009). It has been suggested that the different migratory patterns observed in adult sea turtles could be the result of the extent of passive dispersion experienced by hatchlings during the extended (2 to 3 yr) pelagic stage (Bass et al. 2006, Hays et al. 2010).

Knowledge of population size and postnesting movements of hawksbill turtles has been obtained mostly from flipper-tag recoveries (Meylan 1999, Troëng et al. 2005, Van Dam et al. 2008, Horrocks et al. 2011). However, the advent of satellite telemetry has allowed researchers to study marine turtle migratory, distributional and behavioural patterns at sea (Troëng et al. 2005, Godley et al. 2008). Data on hawksbill migratory patterns are scarce and mostly restricted to a few regions around the world, e.g. Caribbean (Starbird et al. 1999, Horrocks et al. 2001, Troëng et al. 2005, Cuevas et al. 2008, Van Dam et al. 2008), Seychelles (Mortimer & Balazs 2000), Hawaii (Parker et al. 2009) and Australia (Miller et al. 1998), and virtually unknown for nesting populations in the South Atlantic Ocean (Wallace et al. 2010).

The Brazilian coastline is a vast area extending for >8000 km and known as an important habitat for sea turtle populations (Marcovaldi & Marcovaldi 1999). Of the 7 sea turtle species existing in the world, 5 can be found in Brazil: loggerhead Caretta caretta, green Chelonia mydas, leatherback Dermochelys coriacea, hawksbill Eretmochelys imbricata and olive ridley Lepidochelys olivacea (Marcovaldi & Marcovaldi 1999). The main sea turtle nesting sites and foraging grounds in the country have been protected since 1980 by TAMAR (Brazilian Sea Turtle Conservation Program), a federal government initiative (ICMBio—Chico Mendes Institute of Biodiversity) co-managed by Fundação Pró-TAMAR, a non-governmental organization (Marcovaldi et al. 2005).

In Brazil, the most significant nesting grounds for hawksbills are located in the states of Bahia and Rio Grande do Norte (see Marcovaldi et al. 2007). Brazilian waters also host 2 known important feeding grounds for immature hawksbills: the Rocas atoll and the Fernando de Noronha archipelago (Marcovaldi et al. 1998, Sanches & Bellini 1999). However, there is no information regarding foraging habitats of adult individuals in Brazil. Genetic analyses of mitochondrial DNA from Bahia nesting grounds indicate that hawksbills nesting in Brazil are genetically distinct from other populations in the western Atlantic, thus representing a separate stock (Bass 1999, Bowen & Karl 2007). This distinctiveness and the fact that long-lived, late-maturing species such as the hawksbill require long-term conservation efforts, make the species a top conservation priority. Due to the scattered nature of hawksbill nesting and the species’ long history of overexploitation, hawksbill protection is considered a challenge on an international level (Mortimer & Donnelly 2008, Gaos et al. 2010, Marcovaldi et al. 2011).

The aim of the present paper is to elucidate the internesting and postnesting movements and behaviour of female hawksbills nesting in Bahia, Brazil, in order to expand data on the species’ regional spatial ecology and thus guide conservation actions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

From February to March 2005, 15 adult female hawksbills Eretmochelys imbricata were equipped with satellite transmitters (KiwiSat 101; Sirtrack) after they had nested on beaches along the northern coast of Bahia, Brazil.

After oviposition was completed, turtles were measured (curved carapace length, CCL, taken from the nuchal notch to the posterior-most marginal scute tip) tagged with inconel tags in both front flippers and sampled for genetic analysis. To attach the units, a portable wooden corral was placed around each turtle following nesting. The carapace of each turtle was prepared by scrubbing to remove epibionts, and cleaned with sandpaper and alcohol. Platform transmitter terminals (PTTs) were attached using a 2-part epoxy resin (Tubolit MEP-301) and covered with a layer of antifouling paint. For a summary of deployment information, biometrics and satellite transmitter performance for all individuals see Table 1.
Instrumented turtles were released at their capture sites <4 h later. We tracked the turtles through the Argos system (http://www.argosinc.com) with geo-locations being categorized into 7 location classes (LCs 3, 2, 1, 0, A, B and Z). Location classes 3, 2 and 1 are categorized to lie within 150, 150 to 350, or 350 to 1000 m, respectively, of the tag’s true position, while LCs 0, A, B and Z have no location error estimate (Hays et al. 2001). Routes were reconstructed using filtered Argos positions LC 3, 2, 1, 0 and A, based on a maximum rate of travel of 5 km h⁻¹.

Data were downloaded and analyzed in the Satellite Tracking and Analysis Tool (STAT; Coyne & Godley 2005), including data on bathymetry associated with the turtle’s positions.

Geographic information systems software (ArcGis 9.1, ESRI) was used to map turtle movements and calculate high-use areas. Minimum convex polygons (MCP) were calculated to determine individual internesting and foraging home range areas. We used MCPs because they are simple to generate and understand because they enabled comparisons between our results and previous studies. Nonetheless, being sensitive to sample size and biased by outliers, they typically overestimate home ranges (Burgman & Fox 2003). At foraging grounds, core areas (e.g. regions of more concentrated activity) were defined using 50% kernel-estimated utilization distributions (UD). We used the 50% polygon for our analyses, since it is the least influenced by outliers (Yasuda & Arai 2005). Individual kernel contours were delineated using an h factor of 0.05 calculated following Silverman (1986).

We assumed turtles were internesting when we observed nesting or location data indicating that nesting occurred after release. To identify presumed emergences from Argos data we utilized the following criteria: turtle movements directed onshore for nesting followed by an immediate offshore departure, location quality improvement (e.g. LC 3 or 2) within a short time span and an elapsed time span which corresponded to the expected internesting intervals for hawksbills. Postnesting migrations were deemed to have begun once movement away from the nesting beach was directional and protracted and were considered complete when movement no longer appeared to be directed for at least 3 consecutive days (Zbinden et al. 2008). Foraging areas were identified as those areas where turtles showed restricted movements (multidirectional and backtracked over previous tracks) following postnesting migrations which continued until the transmitters ceased or turtles engaged in new return migrations (Troëng et al. 2005).

**RESULTS**

Five of the 15 transmitters attached to hawksbill *Eretmochelys imbricata* females emitted signals for <2 mo (range: 15 to 57 d), the other 10 individuals were tracked for 486 ± 279 d (range: 238 to 804 d; all data are mean ±SD). Total travelled distance during the tracking period varied from 65 to 6903 km (Table 1, Fig. 1).

Tracked hawksbills (n = 15) were sampled for genetic analysis. Results showed that 6 individuals, although characterized morphologically as hawksbills, were actually hawksbill-loggehead hybrids (hereafter referred to as hybrids) (Lara-Ruiz et al. 2006). The mean CCL of the turtles tracked (Turtles a to o) ranged from 86.0 to 106.5 cm; interestingly, the CCL of the hybrid turtles was larger than that of the hawksbill turtles (t = 5.6, p <0.01).

**Internesting period**

Of the 15 female hawksbills satellite-tracked, 2 immediately departed coastal waters (Turtles f and j). The
MCP analyses revealed that individual movements of no further than 24 km from the coast, with excursions beyond it (e.g. 1000 m isobath), with cases (e.g. Turtles a, c and e) also making small mostly over the continental shelf (<200 m), in a few each turtle are summarized in Table 2. Nesting events were calculated for 10 turtles (a, b, c, e, i, k, m and o); poor signal reception provided a small number of location fixes for 2 turtles (b and g), which were excluded from the analysis (Table 2). Nesting events and number of internesting intervals identified for each turtle are summarized in Table 2. During the internesting period turtles remained mostly over the continental shelf (<200 m) in a few waters; however, 2 of them (Turtles b and g) stopped sending signals during this period. Internesting areas were calculated for 10 turtles (a, b, c, e, i, k, m and o), poor signal reception during internesting period resulted in small number of location fixes to calculate internesting areas. Abbreviations for foraging areas, see Table 2.

**Table 2. Eretmochelys imbricata.** Data collected at internesting and foraging areas and during migration of hawksbill turtles satellite-tracked from nesting beaches in northern Bahia, Brazil. Data for foraging grounds include no. of days residency, size of home range and core areas, seafloor depth and distance from shore. BA: Bahia; PA: Pará; AL: Alagoas; RN: Rio Grande do Norte; CE: Ceará; MCP: minimum convex polygon; KHR: kernel-estimated home range contour.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turtle Internesting ID</th>
<th>No. of nesting events</th>
<th>MCP internesting (km²)</th>
<th>Max. distance from shore (km)</th>
<th>Post-nesting migration (d)</th>
<th>Distance nesting - foraging grounds (km)</th>
<th>Foraging grounds (location)</th>
<th>Residency (d)</th>
<th>MCP (km²)</th>
<th>Depth range (m)</th>
<th>Core area (mean ± SD; km²)</th>
<th>Distance from shore (mean ± SD; km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>345.5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>98 BA; 11.9° S, 37.5° W</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>257.5</td>
<td>2−50</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>8−20</td>
<td>6.4 ± 6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>187.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2550 PA; 4.4° S, 47.9° W</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>493.8</td>
<td>9−21</td>
<td>113.6</td>
<td>15−20</td>
<td>23.5 ± 3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>190.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>420 BA; 16.1° S, 38.7° W</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>952.8</td>
<td>19−40</td>
<td>145.7</td>
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<td>22.5 ± 7.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>514 BA; 16.9° S, 38.5° W</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>1117.3</td>
<td>10−61</td>
<td>190.8</td>
<td>25−35</td>
<td>23.5 ± 8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>447.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>514 BA; 16.9° S, 38.5° W</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>1117.3</td>
<td>10−61</td>
<td>190.8</td>
<td>25−35</td>
<td>23.5 ± 8.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>f, b</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>g</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>480 AL; 9.6° S, 35.4° W</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>2192.3</td>
<td>6−2089</td>
<td>143.2</td>
<td>25−35</td>
<td>17.1 ± 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>196.1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>530 BA; 17.4° S, 38.7° W</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>1098.3</td>
<td>6−47</td>
<td>220.5</td>
<td>20−30</td>
<td>29.0 ± 11</td>
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<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>202.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1680 CE; 2.4° S, 40.4° W</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>1742.8</td>
<td>15−64</td>
<td>286.9</td>
<td>25−35</td>
<td>49 ± 8.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>m, b</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>97.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2400 PA; 0.4° S, 47.1° W</td>
<td>565</td>
<td>1731.5</td>
<td>11−23</td>
<td>257.7</td>
<td>15−20</td>
<td>40 ± 11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n, b</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>123.2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>740 PA; 9.6° S, 35.4° W</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>1358.1</td>
<td>11−2370</td>
<td>421.1</td>
<td>25−60</td>
<td>27 ± 13.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hybrids; *returned to the nesting beaches in Bahia after 2 yr; poor signal reception during internesting period resulted in small number of location fixes to calculate internesting areas.
sea areas occupied by the turtles varied between 43.1 and 447.9 km² (Table 2). No significant correlation was found between the size of the internesting area and (1) the number of internesting intervals included in the analysis for each turtle (r = 0.15, p = 0.70), (2) their CCL (r = −0.10, p = 0.77) or (3) the ‘species’ (i.e. hybrid or hawksbill) (r = −0.41, p = 0.21).

Two females (Turtles n and f) returned to the breeding grounds in Bahia after 2 yr for a subsequent nesting season. One of the females (Turtle n) was tracked during migration back to the nesting beach; however, transmission ceased a couple of days after arrival. The turtle followed the same migratory route displayed during her migration towards the foraging ground (Fig. 1). Turtle f, which stopped sending signals within the first month after deployment, was observed nesting on the beach of Busca Vida (<10 km away from the beach where she was first tagged) 2 yr later during nightly patrols. The transmitter was still attached to the carapace of the turtle and was removed successfully. The carapace of the turtles was in very good condition after being equipped with a PTT tag for almost 2 yr.

Postnesting migrations

During postnesting migrations 5 females migrated southward, and 8 northward. Three of the turtles (f, k and l) stopped sending signals before reaching their final destination, including 1 female (Turtle k) that moved away from the coast toward oceanic waters, along the Vitória-Trindade seamount chain; these individuals (Turtles f, k and l) travelled 623 ± 382 km (range: 243 to 1006 km) (Fig. 1).

Five hybrids migrated northward, one stopped its transmissions during migration off the state of Pernambuco (Turtle k) and the other 4 reached foraging grounds located along the northern coast of Brazil, specifically off the states of Rio Grande do Norte (Turtle j), Ceará (Turtle m) and Pará (Turtles c and n). Only 1 hybrid migrated south, reaching neritic habitats off the southern coast of Bahia (Turtle d) (Table 2, Fig. 1).

Amongst the 9 hawksbills, 2 stopped transmitting before leaving the nesting areas (Turtles b and c, see results in ‘Internesting period’), 4 moved southward and 3 moved northward; however, they all remained along the eastern coast of Brazil (see Fig. 1). Individuals reached foraging grounds located off the southern coast of Bahia (Turtles e and i), northern coast of Bahia (Turtle a) and Alagoas (Turtle h, and Turtle o after displaying an offshore migratory movement) (Table 2, Fig. 1).

Postnesting migrations were completed after reaching foraging grounds and lasted between 3 and 58 d. The direct distance between the nesting beach and the foraging areas ranged from 98 to 2550 km (mean ± SD, 1050 ± 871 km) (Table 2). Hawksbills migrated shorter distances than hybrids (458 ± 222 and 1641 ± 885 km respectively; t = 2.9, p = 0.02) before reaching foraging grounds.

Foraging areas

Upon arrival at foraging areas turtles remained resident for a period ranging between 116 and 722 d, and the mean distance from shore ranged from 6.4 ± 6.4 to 49 ± 8.5 km (Table 2). Foraging areas of hawksbills (i.e. ‘true’ hawksbills) were located along the eastern coast of Brazil within coastal reef ecosystems (9 to 17.5°S). In contrast, all hybrid turtles, except Turtle d, migrated to foraging areas along the northern coast of Brazil (0 to 5°S) (Figs. 3 & 4). Only 2 of the hybrids (Turtles d and j) remained associated (at least partially) with reef habitats (Fig. 4C,F).
Home range areas of both hawksbill and hybrid turtles at foraging grounds ranged from 225.7 to 2192.3 km², with no differences in size among the 2 groups ($t = -0.04, p = 0.9$). Core activity areas (50% UD) varied from 91.8 to 286.9 km² and were characterized by relatively shallow waters, usually between 20 and 35 m depth (Table 2, Fig. 4). There were no significant correlations between the core area size and (1) the number of days the turtles spent in foraging areas ($r = -0.05, p = 0.89$), (2) their CCL ($r = -0.20, p = 0.57$), and (3) the ‘species’ (i.e. hybrid or hawksbill) ($r = -0.11, p = 0.76$). At foraging destinations a large proportion (55%) of hawksbill location points fell within marine protected areas which encompass important coral reef ecosystems in Brazil. Even though some hybrids foraged at or near coral reef habitats, none of these areas overlapped with established coral reef protected areas.

**DISCUSSION**

The data collected from satellite-tracked *Eretmochelys imbricata* females (i.e. hawksbills and hybrids) indicate that they remained in the vicinity of the nesting beaches during the internesting period, although some moved longer distances from shore than internesting females from St. Croix, US Virgin Islands, and Yucatan nesting colonies (no further than 2.5 and 13 km offshore, respectively; Starbird et al. 1999, Cuevas et al. 2008).

Internesting home ranges of hawksbills from Bahia were similar to those reported by Cuevas et al. (2008) for hawksbills nesting on the Yucatan Peninsula (range: 87.6 to 282.1 km²). However, internesting home range sizes were much larger compared with hawksbills from St. Croix, US Virgin Islands (Starbird et al. 1999). Internesting habitats reported by Starbird et al. (2009) were identified by radio telemetry, which can be more accurate than satellite telemetry, resulting in more precise home range estimations and thus not entirely comparable with our study.

Though foraging behaviour (i.e. analysis of dive depth and duration patterns) could not be determined in the present study, several studies have suggested that extended movements during the internesting period may be associated with a search for food (Hochscheid et al. 1999, Georges et al. 2007). The northern coast of Bahia encompasses discontinuous bank reefs, including continental shelf-edge reef formations (Olavo et al. 2011); thus, it is possible that opportunistic foraging may occur during the breeding period.

Postnesting females that migrated north ($n = 6$), towards foraging grounds in north and northeast Brazil, shared a migration corridor located over the continental shelf and break. In a previous study, 10 postnesting loggerheads satellite-tracked from northern Bahia used the same migratory corridor (Marcovaldi et al. 2010), highlighting the importance of this area. Likewise, hawksbill turtles tracked in other studies (Balazs et al. 2000, Mortimer & Balazs 2000, Troëng et al. 2005, Cuevas et al. 2008) displayed migratory trajectories close to the shore.

Telemetry studies in the Atlantic have revealed that hawksbills can travel hundreds to thousands of kilometres between nesting and foraging areas (Horrocks et al. 2001, Troëng et al. 2005, Cuevas et al. 2008, Van Dam et al. 2008). Satellite-tracked hawksbills from other ocean basins, such as Seychelles in the Indian Ocean and Hawaii in the Pacific, showed postnesting movements limited to a few hundred kilometres (35 to 175 km and 90 to 345 km, respec-
This contrasting pattern between ocean basins may be related to the fact that in the latter studies the satellite-tracked females nested on isolated islands (Hawaii and Seychelles) and which were situated thousands of kilometres from major landmasses and also characterized by coral reef ecosystems (Mortimer & Balazs 2000, Houghton et al. 2003, Parker et
shelter resources. Smaller foraging areas in the sites may relate to the patchy distribution of food and the apparent differences between this and other activity areas in the present study ranged from 91.8 km²; in contrast, postnesting hawksbills in (Cuevas et al. 2008). For example, estimated core foraging grounds along the Caribbean for this species (Toscano et al. 2010). Consequent, we have started a study to verify the diet of hybrids (except for Turtle d) were located between 1150 and 2550 km away, along the northern coast of Brazil, in areas previously reported as loggerhead foraging grounds (Marcovaldi et al. 2010). It has been suggested that the selection of a permanent foraging site may be influenced by the broad geographic area that individuals previously encountered in the pelagic drift phase, and that during this initial early life phase individuals may imprint on potential predictable foraging sites (Hays et al. 2010).

The fact that loggerheads and hawksbills have specific foraging grounds and that their hybrids have migration patterns similar to one or another may indicate that migration behaviour may be influenced by genetic traits in sea turtles. Although hybrid turtles were characterized morphologically as hawksbills, we do not know their feeding behaviour, and further studies are needed to verify if they can actually exploit uncommon environments for hawksbill turtles as identified in this work. Studies of hybridization in cyprinid fishes have shown that the intermediate phenotype of hybrids might play a role in their feeding abilities, resulting in the utilization of a broader trophic spectrum than the parental species (Toscano et al. 2010). Consequently, we have started a study to verify the diet of turtle hybrids and compare it to the parental species to better understand how it could influence the reproductive output of this population.

MCPs and 50 % kernel estimated foraging areas of both hawksbills and hybrids were much larger than those reported along the Caribbean for this species (Cuevas et al. 2008). For example, estimated core activity areas in the present study ranged from 91.8 to 421.1 km²; in contrast, postnesting hawksbills in the Caribbean (Cuevas et al. 2008) showed much smaller core foraging ranges, from 10.4 to 26.7 km². The apparent differences between this and other sites may relate to the patchy distribution of food and shelter resources. Smaller foraging areas in the Caribbean might indicate a higher quality of food to satisfy nutritional needs (Cuevas et al. 2008), but this could also be a density-dependent phenomenon, i.e. a higher density of individuals in a restricted area may result in a smaller individual foraging area. It is possible that the intra-species competition is higher in the Caribbean than along the Brazilian coasts.

The Brazilian coastline stretches over >8000 km; however, only a small number of MPAs have been established. Conservation units that encompass reef communities are already distributed in practically all the main reef areas in Brazil and are divided into 2 main categories: (1) full protection, where no use of natural resources is allowed; and (2) sustainable use, which allows the sustainable use of part of their resources. Along the northern coast of Bahia a sustainable use MPA extends to 15 km offshore from the coast; thus, most of the internesting habitats utilized by the nesting turtles (i.e. hawksbills and hybrids) fell within the protected area. Therefore, the spatial extent of the established MPA offers a good opportunity to enhance the protection of these critical breeding grounds. In hawksbill (i.e. not hybrid) foraging areas a large proportion of locations (55 %) fell within MPAs declared by the state and federal government to be for sustainable use only. However, due to resource limitations, many of these sites lack monitoring and enforcement, which prevents an effective protection of these critical habitats. It is recognized that satellite telemetry can be a useful tool in determining the effectiveness of current MPA boundaries and where additional protected areas should be considered (Witt et al. 2008, Shillinger et al. 2010). Our results underscore the importance of strengthening MPA monitoring and enforcement as well as paying increased attention to issues concerning fisheries management, in order to guarantee the protection of key foraging areas of hawksbill turtles in Brazil.

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