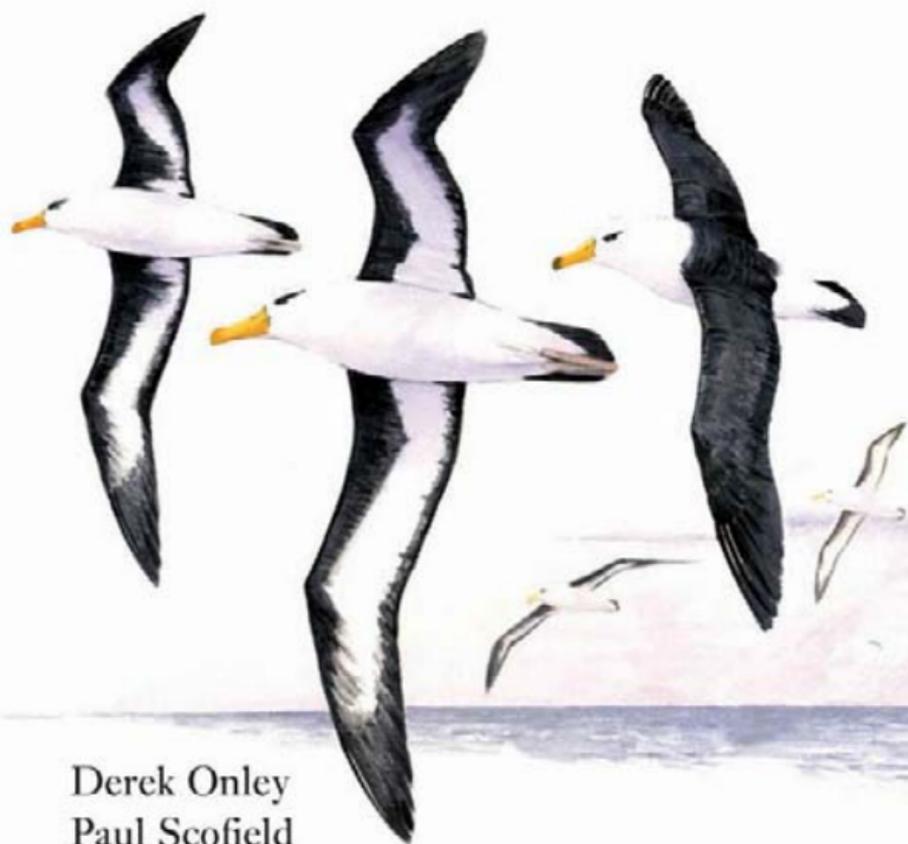




HELM FIELD GUIDES

Albatrosses, Petrels and Shearwaters of the World



Derek Onley
Paul Scofield

FIELD GUIDE TO THE
Albatrosses, Petrels and Shearwaters
of the World

Derek Onley and Paul Scofield



CHRISTOPHER HELM
LONDON

Like so many ocean sailors, I have a huge respect for these incredible birds, which circle Antarctica over the most inhospitable oceans in the world. I hope that through the images and information in this book those of you who have felt the sheer presence of these birds can re-live it, and those who haven't can begin to experience it.

Dame Ellen MacArthur

Published 2007 by Christopher Helm, an imprint of A&C Black Publishers Ltd, 36 Soho Square, London W1D 3QY

Reprinted 2008
Electronic edition 2010

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ISBN (print) 978-0-7136-4332-9
ISBN (e-pub) 978-1-4081-0877-2
ISBN (e-pdf) 978-1-4081-3579-2

A CIP catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

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LIST OF SPECIES AND SUBSPECIES

The species within the families are generally listed in the same sequence as in Dickinson (2003). However, a number of taxa treated as subspecies there have been raised to species level, bringing the total number of procellariiform species illustrated and discussed in this book to 137. The figure on the right shows the relevant plate in each case. For polytypic species, races are listed in small type. Abbreviated ranges are given for all taxa. Subspecies are generally listed in order of publication. The order used here within the pterodromas and shearwaters is artificial and is designed simply to help identification.

Family DIOMEDEIDAE (albatrosses)

plate no.

a) Wandering albatrosses

***Diomedea exulans* Snowy Albatross** (Wandering Albatross) 1, 2
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on higher-latitude islands of Southern Ocean except New Zealand.

***Diomedea dabbenena* Tristan Albatross** 1, 2
 Tristan da Cunha and Gough I., ranging at sea through South Atlantic.

***Diomedea antipodensis* New Zealand Albatross** 1, 2
D. a. antipodensis (Antipodean Albatross) Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on Antipodes I. and in small numbers on Campbell I. and Chatham Is.
D. a. gibsoni (Gibson's Albatross) Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on Auckland Is.

***Diomedea amsterdamensis* Amsterdam Island Albatross** 1
 Amsterdam I. (Indian Ocean). Ranges at sea across southern Indian Ocean.

b) Royal albatrosses

***Diomedea sanfordi* Northern Royal Albatross** 1, 3
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere; breeds mainly on Chatham Is.

***Diomedea epomophora* Southern Royal Albatross** 1, 3
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere; breeds mainly on Campbell Is., with smaller population on Enderby I., Auckland I.

c) North Pacific albatrosses

***Phoebastria irrorata* Waved Albatross** 5
 Tropical E Pacific; breeding confined to the Galápagos Is.; range to adjacent seas as far as S America.

***Phoebastria albatrus* Short-tailed Albatross** 4
 NW Pacific. Breeds mainly on Tori-shima (Japan), ranges S and E.

***Phoebastria nigripes* Black-footed Albatross** 4
 Central and western N Pacific. Most breed on NW Hawaiian Is. with some in S Japan. Ranges SE to equator.

***Phoebastria immutabilis* Laysan Albatross** 7
 Central N Pacific and off Baja California. Ranges from Japanese seas N to Bering Sea, E to Pacific coast of N America.

d) Mollymawks

***Thalassarche melanophris* Black-browed Albatross** 7, 9
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on higher-latitude islands of Southern Ocean.

***Thalassarche impavida* Campbell Albatross** 7, 9
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding only on Campbell I.

***Thalassarche cauta* Shy Albatross** 6
T. c. cauta Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on islands off Tasmania.
T. c. steadi (White-capped Albatross) Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on islands off New Zealand.

***Thalassarche eremita* Chatham Islands Albatross** 6
 S Pacific. The Pyramid in Chatham Is. provides sole breeding ground. Migrates to Chilean and Peruvian waters in winter.

***Thalassarche salvini* Salvin's Albatross** 6
 S Pacific. Breeds on Bounty and Snares Is., migrates to Chilean and Peruvian waters in winter.

***Thalassarche chrystostoma* Grey-headed Albatross** 8, 9
 Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on higher-latitude islands of Southern Ocean.

<i>Thalassarche chlororhynchos</i> Atlantic Yellow-nosed Albatross	8, 9
Circumpolar S Hemisphere, Tristan da Cunha group and Gough I., ranging at sea through S Atlantic.	
<i>Thalassarche carteri</i> Indian Yellow-nosed Albatross	8, 9
Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeding on lower-latitude islands of S Indian Ocean.	
<i>Thalassarche bulleri</i> Buller's Albatross	8, 9
<i>T. b. bulleri</i> (Southern Buller's Albatross) Circumpolar S Hemisphere, breeds on the Snares and Solander around Stewart Is.	
<i>T. b.</i> ssp. nov. (Northern Buller's Albatross) Breeds on Sisters and Forty-Fours in Chatham Is. and on Three Kings Islands north of New Zealand. Subspecies yet to be formally named.	
e) Sooty albatrosses	
<i>Phoebastria fusca</i> Sooty Albatross	10
Circumpolar S Hemisphere, warmer subantarctic waters of S Atlantic and Indian Oceans.	
<i>Phoebastria palpebrata</i> Light-mantled (Sooty) Albatross	10
Circumpolar S Hemisphere. Ranges at sea in colder Antarctic waters as far south as ice edge.	
Family PROCELLARIIDAE (petrels)	
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Circumpolar Southern Ocean; restricted to Antarctic waters in winter.	
<i>Macronectes halli</i> Northern Giant Petrel	11
Circumpolar Southern Ocean; ranges to subtropics in winter.	
<i>Fulmarus glacialis</i> Northern Fulmar	12
<i>F. g. auduboni</i> Low Arctic and temperate N Atlantic.	
<i>F. g. glacialis</i> High-arctic N Atlantic.	
<i>F. g. rogersii</i> Colder waters of N Pacific and Bering Sea.	
<i>Fulmarus glacialoides</i> Southern Fulmar	12
Circumpolar Southern Ocean; cold-water species of Southern Ocean and Antarctic.	
<i>Thalassoica antarctica</i> Antarctic Petrel	13
Circumpolar Southern Ocean; cold-water species of Southern Ocean and Antarctic.	
<i>Daption capense</i> Cape Petrel	13
<i>D. c. capense</i> Circumpolar Southern Ocean; occurs in subtropics in winter	
<i>D. c. australe</i> New Zealand waters	
<i>Pagodroma nivea</i> Lesser Snow Petrel	13
Antarctic waters, rarely far from ice.	
<i>Pagodroma confusa</i> Greater Snow Petrel	13
Eastern Antarctic waters, rarely far from ice.	
<i>Lugensa brevirostris</i> Kerguelen Petrel	14
Circumpolar Southern Ocean; a cold water species.	
<i>Halobaena caerulea</i> Blue Petrel	27
Circumpolar Southern Ocean; a cold water species.	
b) Prions	
<i>Pachyptila vittata</i> Broad-billed Prion	26
New Zealand and SE Atlantic, in warmer subantarctic waters just north of subtropical convergence.	
<i>Pachyptila salvini</i> Salvin's Prion	26
Breeds SW Indian Ocean, occurs throughout cooler circumpolar waters except SE Pacific in winter.	
<i>Pachyptila macgillivrayi</i> MacGillivray's Prion	26
Endemic to St Paul Is. Range at sea unknown.	
<i>Pachyptila desolata</i> Antarctic Prion	26
Circumpolar Southern Ocean, in colder waters but rarely reported in central S Pacific.	
<i>Pachyptila belcheri</i> Slender-billed Prion	26
Circumpolar Southern Ocean, dispersive in colder waters.	

<i>Pachyptila turtur</i> Fairy Prion	27
<i>P. t. turtur</i> Circumpolar species of warmer subantarctic and subtropical waters.	
<i>P. t. subantarctica</i> Breeds on Antipodes, Snares and Macquarie Is.	
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Tropical waters of N Pacific and N Atlantic.	
<i>Bulweria fallax</i> Jouanin's Petrel	15
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Réunion I. in W Indian Ocean.	
<i>Pseudobulweria becki</i> Beck's Petrel	17
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<i>P. r. rostrata</i> Marquesa Is. and Society Is.	
<i>P. r. trouessarti</i> New Caledonia.	
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SW Pacific, breeding only on Chatham Is.	
<i>Pterodroma nigripennis</i> Black-winged Petrel	23
Tropical and subtropical S Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma inexpectata</i> Mottled Petrel	23
Pacific Ocean; breeds in S New Zealand, foraging south to ice edge; migrates to NW Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma hypoleuca</i> Bonin Petrel	23
Subtropical west and central N Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma leucoptera</i> Gould's Petrel	24
<i>P. l. leucoptera</i> Cabbage Tree I., Australia; SW and C Pacific.	
<i>P. l. caledonica</i> (New Caledonia Petrel) New Caledonia; E Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma cookii</i> Cook's Petrel	22
Hauraki Gulf and Stewart Is., New Zealand; migrates to NE and central E Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma pycrofti</i> Pycroft's Petrel	22
N New Zealand islands; migrates to NE and central E Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma brevipes</i> Collared Petrel	24
Islands of SW Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma defilippiana</i> De Filippi's Petrel (Mas a Tierra Petrel)	22
Islands of E Pacific.	
<i>Pterodroma longirostris</i> Stejneger's Petrel	22
Alejandro Selkirk I. (Mas Afuera), Juan Fernández Is. Range at sea in Pacific poorly known.	
ii) The large, subtropical <i>Pterodroma</i> petrels	
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<i>Pterodroma heraldica</i> Herald Petrel	16, 17, 25
Tropical and subtropical Pacific.	
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Tropical W Atlantic and W Indian Oceans.	

<i>Pterodroma atrata</i> Henderson Petrel	16
Henderson Island, central E Pacific.	
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<i>P. n. juana</i> Juan Fernández Is. and Desventuradas.	
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SW Pacific, N Vanuatu.	
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Central and SW Indian Ocean, breeding only on Réunion I.	
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Central N Pacific, breeds on higher Hawaiian Islands.	
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Central E Pacific; breeds on higher Galápagos Islands.	
<i>Pterodroma cahow</i> Cahow (Bermuda Petrel)	21
Breeds on Bermuda; moves N into the Atlantic.	
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N Caribbean and western N Atlantic. Breeds on higher C Caribbean Islands; moves up Gulf Stream as far as North Carolina.	
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<i>Pterodroma gouldi</i> Grey-faced Petrel	14
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S Atlantic; breeds on Tristan da Cunha Is. and Gough I.	
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Circumpolar Southern Ocean; breeds in colder waters, moving north in winter.	
<i>Procellaria conspicillata</i> Spectacled Petrel	28
SW Atlantic, breeding only on Inaccessible I. (Tristan da Cunha Is.).	

<i>Procellaria parkinsoni</i> Parkinson's Petrel (Black Petrel)	29, 30
Little and Great Barrier Is., New Zealand; winters in E tropical Pacific.	
<i>Procellaria westlandica</i> Westland Petrel	29
West coast of South Island, New Zealand; migrates E temperate Pacific.	
<i>Procellaria cinerea</i> Grey Petrel	29, 32
Circumpolar in colder subantarctic waters.	
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<i>Calonectris edwardsii</i> Cape Verde Shearwater	33
Cape Verde Is.	
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NW Pacific, migrating to central W Pacific, Indonesia and E tropical Indian Ocean.	
<i>Puffinus pacificus</i> Wedge-tailed Shearwater	15, 30, 32
Tropical Pacific and Indian Ocean.	
<i>Puffinus bulleri</i> Buller's Shearwater	32
Warmer waters of Pacific except SE Pacific. Breeds only on Poor Knights I. near New Zealand; migrates to N Pacific.	
<i>Puffinus carneipes</i> Flesh-footed Shearwater	29, 30
Subtropical Indian and SW Pacific Oceans; migrates to N Pacific and NW Indian Oceans.	
<i>Puffinus creatopus</i> Pink-footed Shearwater	32
E Pacific; migrates to N Pacific.	
<i>Puffinus gravis</i> Great Shearwater	32
Atlantic and Indian Oceans; breeds only on Tristan da Cunha and Gough I. Migrates north.	
<i>Puffinus griseus</i> Sooty Shearwater	14, 31
Circumpolar in warm and subantarctic waters; migrates north mainly into Pacific and Atlantic Oceans.	
<i>Puffinus tenuirostris</i> Short-tailed Shearwater	31
Circumpolar in colder waters; breeds only in Tasmania; migrates north into arctic Pacific and Bering Sea.	
<i>Puffinus nativitatis</i> Christmas Island Shearwater (Kiritimati Shearwater)	30
Tropical and subtropical Pacific.	
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Atlantic Ocean; breeds in cooler N waters and winters in C and SW Atlantic.	
<i>Puffinus yelkouan</i> Yelkouan Shearwater	35
Breeds throughout Mediterranean except Balearic Is., mostly migrating to Black Sea.	
<i>Puffinus mauretanicus</i> Balearic Shearwater	35
Breeds on Balearic Is., dispersing into W Atlantic.	
<i>Puffinus opisthomelas</i> Black-vented Shearwater	34
Pacific off Mexico, dispersing NW.	
<i>Puffinus gavia</i> Fluttering Shearwater	36
Northern New Zealand and Tasman Sea.	
<i>Puffinus huttoni</i> Hutton's Shearwater	36
Central E New Zealand; migrates to Australia.	
h) Little/Audubon's Shearwater complex	
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Colder waters of SW Pacific, and Gough I. and Tristan da Cunha Is. in Atlantic.	
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<i>P. a. assimilis</i> SW Pacific, Lord Howe Island and Norfolk Island.	

<i>P. a. kermadecensis</i>	SW Pacific. Kermadec Island.	
<i>P. a. hawakiensis</i>	SW Pacific. Islands off North Island, New Zealand.	
<i>P. a. tunneyi</i>	SE Indian Ocean. Amsterdam and St Paul Is. and W Australia.	
<i>Puffinus baroli</i> Macaronesian Shearwater		35, 37
	The Azores, Madeira, Canary Is., Desertas and Salvage Is.	
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<i>P. l. lherminieri</i>	Bahamas and West Indies.	
<i>P. l. loyemilleri</i>	Caribbean Islands to Venezuela	
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	Galapagos Is.	
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<i>P. n. newelli</i>	Central N Pacific Ocean. Main Hawaiian Is.	
<i>P. n. myrtae</i>	Rapa Island in the Austral Group (possibly elsewhere in French Polynesia).	
<i>Puffinus auricularis</i> Townsend's Shearwater		34
	Eastern N Pacific. Clarión, San Benedicto and Socorro Is., Revillagigedo Is.	
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<i>P. u. chathamensis</i>	S New Zealand (not subantarctic) and Chatham Is.	
<i>P. u. dacunhae</i>	Tristan da Cunha Is. and Gough I.	
<i>P. u. berard</i>	Falkland Is.	
<i>P. u. coppingeri</i>	S Chile.	
<i>P. u. exsul</i>	Remainder of subantarctic.	
Family HYDROBATIDAE (storm-petrels)		
Subfamily OCEANITINAE (southern storm-petrels)		
<i>Oceanites oceanicus</i> Wilson's Storm-petrel		39
<i>O. o. oceanicus</i>	Breeds on high-latitude subantarctic islands; migrates to N Pacific and Atlantic.	
<i>O. o. exasperatus</i>	Breeds on the Antarctic mainland; migrates to N Pacific and Atlantic.	
<i>O. o. chilensis</i>	Breeds in Chilean fjords; may migrate to N Pacific.	
<i>Oceanites gracilis</i> Elliot's Storm-petrel (White-vented Storm-petrel)		40, 45
<i>O. g. galapagoensis</i>	(Galápagos White-vented Storm-petrel) Galapagos Islands.	
<i>O. g. gracilis</i>	N Chile and Peru.	
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	New Zealand waters	
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	Circumpolar subantarctic.	

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<i>P. m. eadesi</i> Central W Atlantic. Cape Verde Is.	
<i>P. m. hypoleuca</i> Central W Atlantic. Salvages Is.	
<i>P. m. maoriana</i> SW Pacific. New Zealand (other than Kermadec Is.).	
<i>P. m. albicunis</i> SW Pacific. Kermadec Is.	
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<i>F. t. tropica</i> Circumpolar subantarctic.	
<i>F. t. melanoleuca</i> S Atlantic. Tristan da Cunha Is.	
<i>Fregetta grallaria</i> White-bellied Storm-petrel	41, 45
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<i>F. g. leucogaster</i> S Atlantic. Tristan da Cunha Is.	
<i>F. g. segethi</i> SE Pacific, Juan Fernández Is.	
<i>F. g. titan</i> Central Pacific. Rapa Is.	
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Central S Pacific Ocean.	
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N Atlantic; migrates to S. Atlantic.	
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Mexican Pacific coast; migrates south.	
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Tropical and subtropical Atlantic and Pacific.	
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<i>O. l. leucorhoa</i> N Pacific, N Atlantic and Pacific (except central NE Pacific).	
<i>O. l. chapmani</i> Central NE Pacific. Baja California.	
<i>O. l. cheimomnestes</i> Pacific Mexican coast. Guadalupe I. (winter breeder).	
<i>O. l. socorroensis</i> Pacific Mexican coast. Guadalupe I. (summer breeder).	
<i>Oceanodroma monorhis</i> Swinhoe's Storm-petrel	43
NE Pacific; migrates into N Indian Ocean.	
<i>Oceanodroma macrodactyla</i> Guadalupe Storm-petrel	
Central NE Pacific. Guadalupe I., probably extinct.	
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NE Pacific. S. Japanese Is.	
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Waters of Humboldt current.	
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NE Pacific, Iwo Jima; migrates to N Indian Ocean.	
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Central NE Pacific. Baja California.	
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Central NE Pacific. Islands off California coast and Baja California.	
<i>Oceanodroma hornbyi</i> Hornby's Storm-petrel (Ringed Storm-petrel)	44
Waters of Humboldt current.	
<i>Oceanodroma furcata</i> Fork-tailed Storm-petrel	42
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<i>O. f. plumbea</i> Alaska to N California.	

PREFACE

This book covers the 137 currently accepted species of the avian order Procellariiformes, ubiquitous denizens of the oceans of the world. The common name for the entire group is 'tubenoses', a reference to their external tubular nostrils, which are often very evident on the upper mandible. The order is usually divided further into four families: the albatrosses, Diomedidae; petrels and shearwaters, the Procellariidae; the storm-petrels, Hydrobatidae; and the diving-petrels, Pelecanoididae.

The Procellariiformes are an ancient group that have been recognisable in the fossil record for more than 35 million years. The order includes some of the world's commonest birds, such as Wilson's Storm-petrel. Yet the group's very existence is scarcely known to the general public, due mainly to the fact that petrels and albatrosses are almost exclusively marine birds, spending the majority of their lives at sea and only coming to land in order to breed.

Before the 1980s, observation and identification of petrels had been limited mostly to those who lived and worked at sea, and was hampered by the absence of a good field guide. The landmark publication of Peter Harrison's *Seabirds: an identification guide* by Croom Helm in 1983 began the 'rush to sea'. In recent years, the advent of 'pelagic' birdwatching trips and eco-tourism that reaches the poles and the Southern Oceans has seen the identification of seabirds become a frontier of birding. Many questions have been answered since the publication of Harrison's guide, but a number of identification issues remain unresolved, and there are cases in this book where we had to admit that separation of a species at sea is extremely difficult or even impossible given our current knowledge of the group. Indeed, even our understanding of what constitutes a species is still in a state of flux. Bird taxonomy cycles through periods of 'lumping' and 'splitting' of species. The current trend is to split, stimulated by enthusiastic use of genetic research, and nowhere is this more apparent than among the albatrosses; the 14 traditionally accepted species have been split, by some, into as many as 27 separate species. In this book we have tended to be conservative and have leant toward the adage that if you can't recognise it at sea then don't separate it.

This book is for birders, birdwatchers and others who go to sea and who wish to find and identify the birds that they see there, whether flying alone through storms, feeding *en masse* in the sun with dolphins, tuna and gannets, or paddling around at the back of a boat waiting for a handout. It is aimed mainly at identifying flying birds and we concentrate on those aspects of plumage, moult, morphometrics and biology that help with this. For example, we include features such as egg-laying dates to give an indication of the time of year the species can be found near land, but we omit details of incubation shifts by males and females. At times we have to discuss plumage in some detail, but we do not go into the meticulous feather-by-feather detail that may enable identification of birds in the hand. We include descriptions of characteristic flight styles but rarely mention voice. Most petrels are silent during the day at sea except when they congregate in groups; in our experience, voice is not useful in the separation of any species of albatross or petrel. We recommend that if you wish to find out more about the lives of albatrosses and petrels you take a look at Warham (1990, 1996) or Brooke (2004).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank the following people who helped in many ways, by providing such things as accommodation, money, cups of tea, pub lunches, information, photographs, references, permission, discussion, opinions and encouragement, and for doing so cheerfully and generously: Sandy Bartle, Kevin Bartram, Sharon Birks, Mike Carter, George Chance, Joanna Cooper, Robert Prys-Jones, Rose Delany, Euan Dunn, David Eades, Jim Enticott, Dominique Filippi, Brian Gill, Judy Grindell, Mike Imber, David James, Robert Kirk, Mary LeCroy, Douglas J. Long, Dick Newell, Gary Melville, Colin Miskelly, Gwenda Pulham, Tim Reid, Chris Robertson, Ilka Sochle, Paul Sagar, Sav Saville, Larry Spear, Brent Stephenson, Paul Sweet, Graeme Taylor, Alan Tennyson, Caz Thomas, Kath Walker, Dick Watling, Eric Woehler, and J. Weick; to all the others we are sure we have forgotten over the last six years, our apologies.

Special thanks to Nigel Redman and Jim Martin at Christopher Helm for their help and advice, and for guiding the book skillfully to publication; thanks also to editors Tim Harris and John Jackson, and to designer Julie Dando. We would also like to thank the following museums and their staff for allowing us access to their collections and providing us with space in which to work: The Museum of New Zealand Te Papa Tongarewa; Auckland, Canterbury and Otago Museums, New Zealand; The Natural History Museum, Tring; The California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco; The American Museum of Natural History, New York; and Burke Museum, Seattle.

We would like to point out that many texts in this book do not agree with the 'conventional wisdom' and contradict published identification texts that many birders accept as the 'truth'. These differences of opinion are based on many hours of observation at sea and detailed examination of museum specimens. We may be wrong in some cases and we accept that any inaccuracies here are our own. We would love to hear from anyone (c/o the publishers) who disagrees with us and welcome a vigorous debate. That is the only way field identification can progress.

TAXONOMY AND THE SPECIES DEBATE

The classification of birds is traditionally based on an assessment of similarities in morphology, with measurements and plumage being the main considerations, together with additional input from less conveniently studied aspects, such as behaviour, calls, distribution and even lice. Those birds that exhibit the least differences are deemed to be the most closely related, and with the study of the fossil record conclusions are possible about their evolutionary history. Before dealing with criticisms of this approach, it should be remembered that for 95% of the time this gives a reasonably clear idea of what constitutes a species and of the relationships between them, and for many birders this is quite adequate.

GENETIC RESEARCH

Data of a molecular nature, mainly the analysis and comparison of nuclear and mitochondrial DNA, became commonplace about 15 years ago and have added to the information available from traditional methods. It should be stressed, however, that these molecular techniques do not mean that a researcher can clip off a bit of a bird, whether alive, recently dead on the tideline, or long dead in a museum tray, stick it in a machine and get a printout of the species. The technique essentially involves comparing genetic material, much as traditional taxonomists compared morphological data, and coming up with a measure of the degree of separation. Then, employing some vigorously debated figures about the rate of molecular evolution, statistical techniques are used to arrive at a phylogenetic tree. Or, to be honest, several trees; the techniques are a long way from being as cut-and-dried as some biologists would suggest. However, genetic research has unquestionably made valuable contributions to our understanding of seabird phylogeny; we now recognise the importance of convergent evolution in the group, for example, where birds have evolved similar morphologies and behaviours in response to similar environmental cues, but do not share a recent common ancestor. It is also possible, using genetic material such as mitochondrial DNA that mutates at a known rate over the course of millions of years, to quantify the degree of genetic difference between two samples. This allows us to date with a degree of confidence major events in the seabird lineage, such as the divergence of the ancestors of modern storm-petrels and albatrosses some 10 million years ago.

Both traditional and molecular techniques come up with measures of the degree of relationship between the birds in question. Traditional taxonomists might arrive at what appears to be a complex array of features such as bill measurements, foot colour, and timing of moult and breeding, compared with the apparently neat percentage distances of molecular researchers (e. g. genetic distances within the genus *Thalassarche* range from 1.66% to 3.15%), but the next step is essentially the same; they have to decide on a degree of difference that will be used to define genera, species, super- and subspecies, and, indeed, whether they are even going to recognise all of these categories. At this point, having perhaps plodded through a number of user-unfriendly scientific papers in order to understand the intricacies of molecular techniques, it would seem quite legitimate for the ordinary birder to quietly despair or yell out loud in anger – biologists can't even agree on what a species is!

SPECIES CONCEPTS

There are several opinions as to what constitutes a species. Perhaps the simplest in concept, if not in name, is the Phylogenetic Species Concept, as summarised by Cracraft (1983). It gives species status to any group of birds that are morphologically distinguishable. In this scheme of things the pale-faced subantarctic race of Fairy Prion would become a full species, *Pachyptila subantarctica*, equal in status to the big, dark-billed Broad-billed Prion *P. vittata*; but for its English name, all trace of the closer relationship with Fairy Prion would be lost. Thus the PSC conceals a lot of useful information; several authors have tried to deal with this problem and subsequently added to the confusion.

An alternative approach is the Biological Species Concept, as advocated by Ernst Mayr, which maintains that 'Species are groups of interbreeding natural populations that are reproductively isolated from one another'. At first glance, this seems a more sensible point of view as a statement of what everyone understands as a species; albatrosses are obviously different from storm-petrels. In molecular terminology, there is no gene flow between the populations. For the majority of cases the BSC works well. It does, however, run into difficulties with populations that have recently diverged and may still interbreed, or are morphometrically or genetically similar but have ranges that do not overlap, a frequent occurrence with albatrosses and petrels that nest on isolated islands. This problem led biologists to expand the BSC into a Multidimensional Biological Species Concept (MBSC), which allows the combination of similar populations into polytypic species.

There is a 'political' element to this debate. In developed countries, conservation funding has been forthcoming for endangered species, especially if they can be shown to be endemic. For example, the promotion of the Shy Albatross that breeds in Bass Strait to full species status (as White-capped Albatross *T. cauta*) would allow the Australian government to fund research and conservation efforts. This is much less likely to happen if

the taxon remains a subspecies of Shy Albatross, which also nests in New Zealand. According this taxon specific status would be an understandable and worthy move given the dearth of conservation funding, but it would not necessarily reflect well on scientific integrity, nor would it help our understanding of the debate.

It was the adoption of the narrowest PSC that led Robertson and Nunn (1998) to increase the number of albatross species from 13 to 24, and to happily accept nucleotide distances of less than 1% as indicative of specific species. Recent workers and reviewers, however, have tended to view the same albatrosses through fuzziest MBSC glasses, and have rejected any distances of less than 1% as indicative of specific status, ending up with 13 to 22 species.

Even when there is agreement on the definition of a species, the criteria for raising a group of birds to species status vary considerably between authors. For example, for many years the Atlantic members of the genus *Calonectris* have been lumped together under the name Cory's Shearwater (*C. diomedea*). This despite the fact that the birds from the Cape Verdes are obviously a lot smaller, have slimmer, greyish rather than yellow bills, and breed later and entirely separately from the rest. Most authors now accept that Cape Verde Shearwater should be raised to species status (*C. edwardsii*), though Brooke (2004) is not entirely convinced. There are also differences between those populations of Cory's Shearwater that breed in the Mediterranean and those that breed on the Atlantic Islands; those from the Mediterranean are smaller on average, with paler underwings and paler heads. Most authors accept that these populations warrant subspecific status, but only the most enthusiastic 'splitters' make a case for full species status. The only genetic work carried out so far on this group is by Penhallurick and Wink (2004) and unfortunately they did not include the Cape Verde birds. They interpreted their results for the Atlantic and Mediterranean populations as not warranting specific status but other workers in the field have used what appears to be the same or even a lesser degree of genetic difference as evidence to support such status.

CONCLUSIONS

There is no doubt that genetic work has added new information to the taxonomic debate, but interpretations of the data still remain a matter of opinion; some have been dogged by poor science, and are far from being the revolution that enthusiasts have claimed. The debate is not over, but it is also worth remembering that the taxonomic status of the majority of albatrosses and petrels had remained much the same for 70 years, and those that have changed have, in most cases, been recognised as different species or as a subspecies for some time. There have not been that many surprises!

Amidst all this debate we had to make some broad decisions on taxonomy and on which taxonomic sources to follow – after all, field guides are about identifying birds to species. So for much of this book we have followed Brooke (2004), only departing substantially when we get to the smaller shearwaters, where we have adopted many of the recommendations of Austin *et al.* (2004).

THE FOUR FAMILIES: CHARACTERISTICS AND TAXONOMIC RELATIONSHIPS

A combination of evidence from molecular studies and the fossil record suggests that petrels emerged from a common ancestor (with penguins and divers) in the mid-Eocene, some 40–45 million years ago, and the four modern families, Diomedidae, Procellariidae, Hydrobatidae and Pelecanoididae, were present 10 million years later in the Oligocene. Storm-petrels diverged first, then albatrosses, so storm-petrels are thus rather surprisingly more closely related to the albatrosses than to the petrels, shearwaters or diving-petrels.

ALBATROSSES (DIOMEDEIDAE)

Albatrosses are big, far bigger than all other procellariiforms bar the giant petrels. They weigh between 2 and 9kg and have wingspans of between 1.8 and 3.5m. Unlike the other three families, they have separate nostrils on either side of the bill.

The long, narrow wings with low wing-loading (low weight-to-wing area ratio) are ideal for extended gliding flights, and they fly huge distances in search of food. Albatrosses feed by landing on the sea and grabbing prey at or near the surface, and all but the sooty albatrosses are attracted to fishing boats. Rather than occupying burrows, they nest on the surface.



Following molecular studies by Nunn *et al.* (1996) and Nunn & Stanley (1998), it is now generally accepted that the albatrosses can be divided into four genera. These are the North Pacific albatrosses (*Phoebastria*), the great albatrosses (*Diomedea*), the mollymawks (*Thalassarche*), and the sooty albatrosses (*Phoebastria*).

It is also generally agreed that the genus *Phoebastria* consists of four species, Laysan, Waved, Short-tailed and Black-footed Albatrosses, while *Phoebastria* contains just two, the Sooty and Light-mantled Albatrosses. However, the make-up of the other two genera is more contentious. Robertson and Nunn (1998) suggested increasing the number of species in *Diomedea* and *Thalassarche* from 10 to 18. This scheme was widely adopted despite the fact that supporting evidence remained unpublished for some time. In this guide we have accepted six species in *Diomedea*; Snowy, New Zealand, Tristan, Amsterdam Island and Northern and Southern Royal Albatrosses, and nine in *Thalassarche*: Black-browed and the very similar but yellow-eyed Campbell Albatrosses, Shy, Salvin's and Chatham Islands Albatrosses, and both Indian and Atlantic Yellow-nosed Albatrosses. However, we treat Buller's Albatross and the darker-headed birds from the Chatham Islands as one species. Grey-headed Albatross remains, as always, as one species.

STORM-PETRELS (HYDROBATIDAE)

Storm-petrels are the smallest of all the oceanic birds, weighing from 20g (a third less than a House Sparrow) to just over 100g, with wingspans of 32–56cm. They have relatively short inner wings, a large area of primaries and a low wing-loading so they can glide well yet remain manoeuvrable. They feed by picking small prey off the surface of the sea, fluttering and swooping low over the sea, and often pattering their feet upon the surface. Most breed in natural holes and crevices rather than digging burrows, and all but the Wedge-rumped Storm-petrel on the Galápagos visit their breeding grounds only at night.

The family is divided into two subfamilies:

Oceanitinae (southern hemisphere), 8 species in 6 genera

- Wilson's Storm-petrel (*Oceanites oceanicus*)
- Elliot's Storm-petrel (*Oceanites gracilis*)
- New Zealand Storm-petrel (*Pealeornis maoriana*)
- Grey-backed Storm-petrel (*Garrodia nereis*)
- White-faced Storm-petrel (*Pelagodroma marina*)
- Black-bellied Storm-petrel (*Fregatta tropica*)
- White-bellied Storm-petrel (*Fregatta grallaria*)
- Polynesian Storm-petrel (*Nesofregatta fuliginosa*)

Grey-backed Storm-petrel



Hydrobatinae (northern hemisphere), 14 species in 2 or 3 genera but with 13 species often placed in one genus, *Oceanodroma*

- European Storm-petrel (*Hydrobates pelagicus*)
- Least Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma (Halocybena) microsoma*)
- Wedge-rumped Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma tethys*)
- Madeiran Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma castro*)
- Leach's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma leucorhoa*)
- Swinhoe's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma monorhis*)
- Tristram's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma tristrami*)
- Markham's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma markhami*)
- Matsudaira's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma matsudairae*)
- Black Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma melania*)
- Ashy Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma homochroa*)
- Hornby's Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma hornbyi*)
- Fork-tailed Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma furcata*)
- Guadalupe Storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma macrodactyla*)

Leach's Storm-petrel



Recent molecular data has supported the retention of all the species and the southern-hemisphere genera, but more work is required.

DIVING-PETRELS (PELECANOIDIDAE)



Common Diving-petrel

A group of four very similar, small, southern-hemisphere species that in many ways are more like the auks of the northern hemisphere than the rest of the petrels. They weigh between 100 and 200g, have two small nostril openings on top of the bill, and have small, rounded wings with a high wing-loading. They fly directly with rapid, whirring wings, and feed by diving, propelling themselves underwater with half-closed wings. Unlike many other petrels they tend to live and feed near their nesting areas and appear to have relatively short lifespans. Diving-petrels dig burrows or nest in natural holes and only visit breeding colonies at night.

There are four species in one genus, *Pelecanoides*. Darwin, amongst others, wondered about their affinities with the auks but nowadays they are taxonomically uncontroversial.

PETRELS AND SHEARWATERS (PROCELLARIIDAE)

Compared with the other three families, the Procellariidae are a rather diverse assemblage. The 80 or so species (there is considerable taxonomic debate) are usually divided into four subfamilies: the fulmarine petrels, the prions, gadfly petrels and shearwaters.

Fulmarine petrels

The fulmarine petrels are a small but diverse group ranging in size from the 250g Snow Petrel to the 5kg giant petrels, which are smaller only than the larger albatrosses. Fulmarine petrels exhibit a wide range of plumages, from the entirely white Snow Petrel, through the grey, gull-like fulmars and chequered black-and-white Cape Petrel to the variably brownish giant petrels. Fulmarine petrels all have prominent nasal tubes on top of the bill. They feed by landing on the sea and seizing prey near the surface. Northern Fulmars, Cape Petrels and giant petrels feed around fishing boats; uniquely among procellariiforms, giant petrels may feed on land, scavenging around seabird and seal colonies. Snow Petrels nest in crevices, but all the others nest on the surface or on cliff ledges, and all visit the breeding grounds by day.

Taxonomically, the Antarctic and Cape Petrels and the two fulmars are relatively uncontroversial, although there is some debate over subspecies of the Northern Fulmar, which exhibits several colour morphs and has separate populations in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. Taxonomic debate continues as to whether the Snow Petrel should be split into two species, Greater and Lesser, and whether it is more closely related to the Kerguelen Petrel than to the fulmarines. The two giant petrels are normally recognised as distinct species

Northern Giant Petrel



Cape Petrel

Prions

The prions are a distinctive group of small, blue-grey petrels of the cooler Southern Oceans. They weigh between 90 and 240g. All have distinctive bills with fine filters called lamellae along the edge of the upper mandible, and a gular pouch. These are used to filter out plankton in the manner of a baleen whale. Prions feed by sitting on

the sea or by flying low over the surface, often using their feet to bounce off waves not unlike a storm-petrel. At sea, all but Slender-billed and Fulmar Prions are often highly gregarious and can be seen in huge flocks, but they rarely follow ships or feed around fishing vessels. Prions nest in burrows and crevices. Fulmar Prions can be seen on the breeding grounds during the day but all others visit only at night.

Most authors accept that Fairy and Fulmar Prions form a separate grouping from the rest but taxonomists agree about little else. The situation is complex; morphometric measurements overlap a lot and each island population of the 'same species' is slightly different, so much so that earlier authors regularly named prions by the island the specimens came from. The situation may become clearer when good samples of genetic and morphometric data are available from known breeding birds on a wider range of islands, and more details of breeding biology (notably of hybridisation) are better known. For this book, we recognise seven species in one genus, *Pachyptila*, and mention seven further subspecies.

Slender-billed Prion



Broad-billed Prion



Gadfly petrels

The term gadfly petrel has been used to describe a diverse group of long-winged, fast flying, medium-to-small, highly pelagic species of temperate and tropical oceans. All feed on the wing, and they can even catch flying fish. They also alight on the sea and scavenge or grab prey at or near the surface. Species that breed in the cooler oceans tend to nest in burrows or crevices and visit their colonies by night, while those in the tropics are more likely to nest on the surface and be active at the colony during the day. Gadfly petrels rarely feed around fishing vessels.

We have used the term gadfly petrel to refer solely to species in the genus *Pterodroma* but other authors also include the genera *Lugensa*, *Pseudobulweria* and *Bulweria*. The genus *Lugensa* consists of only one species, Kerguelen Petrel, which, despite being only relatively recently removed from *Pterodroma*, appears to be quite distinct and with no obvious close affinities.

The genus *Bulweria* has been recognised as distinctive for a fair while and contains two species, Bulwer's and Jouanin's Petrels. Both are dark, long-winged and long-tailed tropical species that have characteristic bills with less obvious tubular nostrils than the *Pterodroma* petrels.

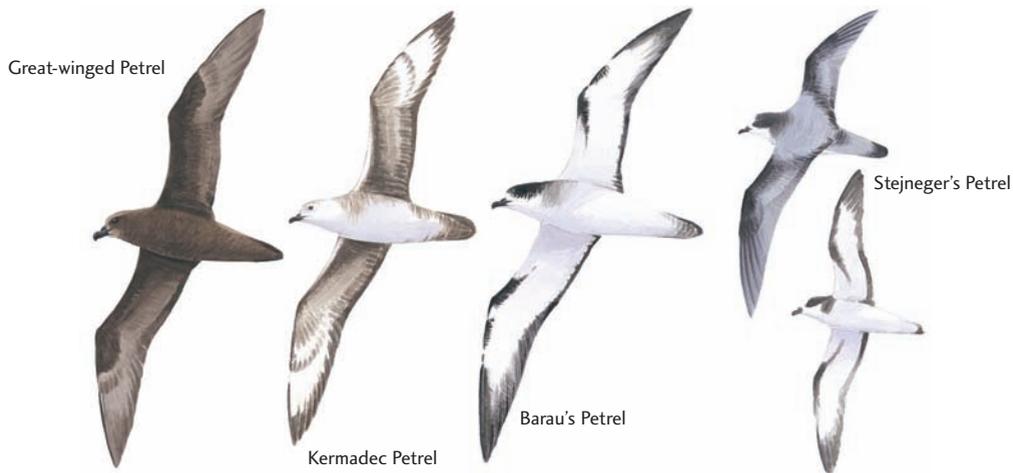
Like *Bulweria*, the genus *Pseudobulweria* occurs in warmer seas, and its species are long-winged and long-tailed, with deep, heavy bills. The genus includes four species, Fiji and Mascarene Petrels, the larger Tahiti Petrel, and the very similar but smaller Beck's Petrel.

The genus *Pterodroma* contains 30–35 species, all of which have relatively short, strong bills with prominent nasal tubes and a hooked tip. They range in plumage from entirely dark, through several species that have dark and light phases, to a distinctive group that are white underneath and pale grey above with a dark M mark across the open wings. The smaller members of this distinctively marked group are often collectively called the cookiliarias.



Bulwer's Petrel

Tahiti Petrel



Great-winged Petrel

Kermadec Petrel

Barau's Petrel

Stejneger's Petrel

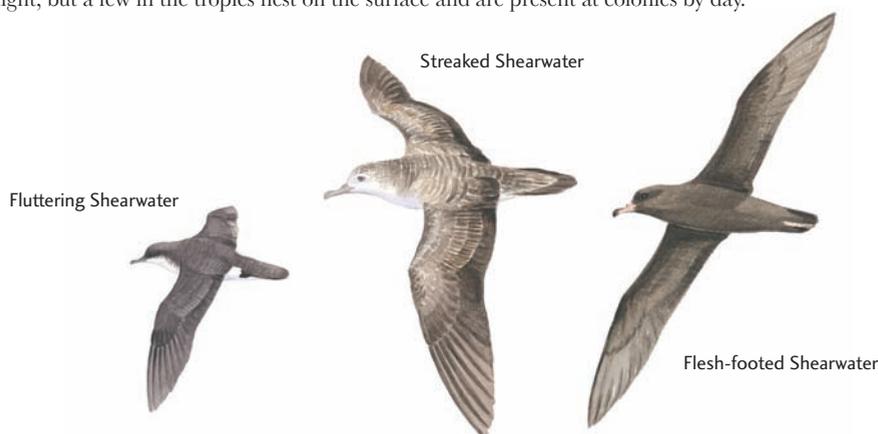
The pterodromas, especially those from the warmer oceans, are neither well-known nor well-studied, and several new species have recently been 'discovered' rather than promoted purely on the basis of molecular and taxonomic re-evaluation. These include the Henderson Petrel, ostensibly a dark form of Herald Petrel but which breeds separately from all the light forms on Henderson atoll in the Pitcairn Group, and a small form of White-necked Petrel, Vanuatu Petrel, which was described from old museum specimens and a more recent storm-blown corpse from Australia.

Current taxonomic discussion centres on the long-assumed relationship between the North Atlantic Fea's and Zino's Petrels with the Southern Ocean Soft-plumaged Petrel (Fea's actually seems to be more closely related to Cahow than Soft-plumaged Petrel), and the specific status of the polymorphic Herald/Trindade group that breeds on widely separated islands in the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans. We have accepted all the recent 'splits' and recognise a total of 35 species in the genus *Pterodroma*.

Brooke (2004) includes the five members of the genus *Procellaria* among the shearwaters, but although they possess the ability to dive, their bills are deep and strong with large hooked tips and prominent nasal tubes, more like the pterodromas. The *Procellaria* are the largest of the burrowing petrels, ranging in weight from 600–700g for Parkinson's Petrel to 1.5kg for White-chinned Petrel.

Shearwaters

The two genera of shearwaters, *Calonectris* and *Puffinus*, are small to medium-sized shearwaters with relatively long, slim bills that have less prominent nostril tubes and shallower hooks on the tips than the pterodromas. The smallest shearwaters weigh 150g and the largest more than 1kg, with many species being in the 300–400g range. All dive for food to some extent; Cory's Shearwater rarely reaches 5m under the surface, but Sooty and Short-tailed Shearwaters are capable of depths of 70m and swim well underwater, propelling themselves on half-open wings. Those that dive well, especially the smaller *Puffinus* species, have compressed, water-resistant plumage, narrower, more streamlined bodies, flattened tarsi, and short, narrow wings with stiffer, stronger primaries. These adaptations all facilitate swimming and chasing prey underwater. The larger species, especially Wedge-tailed and Buller's Shearwaters and those in the genus *Calonectris*, have broader wings and longer tails, are much more manoeuvrable, and take much of their food on the wing or by shallow plunge-diving. Many of the shearwaters feed around fishing boats. Shearwaters that breed in temperate areas dig burrows and visit colonies by night, but a few in the tropics nest on the surface and are present at colonies by day.



A version of the smaller, Manx-like, brown or black-and-white *Puffinus* shearwater occurs throughout the world's temperate and tropical oceans, nesting on many oceanic islands and archipelagos and on islands on continental shelves. They have provided taxonomists with many hours of amusement, caused much constructive discussion and bitter controversy, and even generated a little in the way of research funds. One set of labels on a brownish, rather faded and admittedly intermediate looking specimen (in a well-known museum that should perhaps remain nameless) had no fewer than seven pencilled amendments culminating in '*atrodorsalis?*'.

Once everyone, more or less, agreed that there was a relatively easy-to-identify Manx-type group of species, discussion moved on to centre around what became known as the Little/Audubon's Shearwater complex. The 'Little' end of the spectrum was characterised by black upperparts, a short tail, white undertail, smallish bill and steep forehead; the 'Audubon's' end by brown upperparts, long tail, dark undertail, biggish bill and sloped forehead. It was the intermediates, notably from the Atlantic islands, plus poorly studied representatives from far-flung Pacific and Indian Ocean islands, distant from the centres of taxonomic debate in Europe and the USA, that caused the controversy. Recent molecular studies, especially those by Austin *et al.* (2004), suggest that this emphasis on the characters differentiating Little from Audubon's was misleading, as were many of the island species and subspecies, and that the group was better looked upon as three biogeographic groups – from the North Atlantic, Southern Oceans including Australasia, and the tropical Indian and Pacific Oceans respectively. Intriguingly, one of the consequences of this research is that Little Shearwater characteristics (black upperparts, short tail etc.) appear to have evolved separately and convergently in the northern and southern hemispheres, and are not an indication of a close relationship.





The Little/Audubon group. Left – Little characteristics; centre – intermediate; right – Audubon's. Genetic studies have shown that these morphometric characteristics do not truly reflect specific status.

We agree with many of Austin *et al.*'s (2004) recommendations; see the main text for details. We have decided to include a total of 10 species from the former Little/Audubon's Shearwater complex. Together with the Manx-type group this makes 16 smaller *Puffinus* shearwaters, and 28 species of shearwaters in total (three in *Calonectris* and the rest in *Puffinus*).

IDENTIFICATION

Away from their breeding grounds, from the shore or at sea, the usual view of an albatross or petrel is fleeting and in flight. Things get a little easier if members of the species are attracted to ships, and an outing on a fishing boat or, even better, a pelagic birding trip will bring many species in close enough to allow excellent views of birds in flight and on the water. This is especially true of many of the albatrosses and a fair number of the shearwaters, but many of the storm-petrels and gadfly petrels, especially those from warmer seas, are rarely attracted to ships and remain elusive. In the main text we mention those species that are attracted to boats and to 'chum', that enticing concoction of oily, smelly, fishy stuff thrown off the back of boats by pelagic birders to attract seabirds close enough to allow identification.

In this guide we concentrate on the identification of birds in flight. This section deals with some of the problems and pitfalls associated with assessing a bird at sea. Identification of many albatrosses and petrels is not easy and there is no simple substitute for comparative experience. The best observers often identify a bird by jizz, a term birders use to describe the general impression created by a bird's outstanding features, shape and relative proportions. It can be looked upon as the 'arty' side of birding. It is the aspect of a bird that allows an experienced birder to identify a species from a brief glance out of the corner of their eye without quite knowing how they do it. Equally, it allows the less scrupulous to mumble 'jizz' and claim an identification based on the most fleeting of glimpses and on the slightest of pretexts.

PHOTOGRAPHS AND VIDEO

There is no doubt that photography, and especially the recent rapid rise of digital technology, has contributed enormously to our knowledge of seabird identification; it would have been much more difficult to produce the illustrations for this book without hundreds of reference photographs. Looking over the day's crop of photos and videos in the evening has even led to the discovery of rare and unusual species that were not noticed at the time among all the activity around the boat. The first indication that the New Zealand Storm-petrel was not long-extinct came from the discovery in this manner of an otherwise unnoticed, white-rumped storm-petrel in a set of photographs.

On the other hand, photographs (especially single ones) can be very misleading. Most birders realise that a single shot can capture a bird in an uncharacteristic pose; this is especially true of seabirds in flight and many birders are now aware of the problems of assessing size in photographs. Not only is there often nothing that can be used as a reference point in a closely cropped view of a bird, but photos taken through a telephoto lens create the impression that objects further away are larger than they actually are. Telephoto images are now so commonplace that we automatically compensate for this compression of perspective, but look closely at many