Executive Summary

Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis canadensis*) occupy open, mountainous habitat either above timberline or in open canyons and slopes below forests and woodlands. They are characterized by low reproductive rates, long life spans, and populations that can be bottom-up regulated by nutritional constraints (i.e., populations are limited by food availability) or top-down limited by predation (i.e., populations are limited primarily by mountain lion predation). Two of 3 alpine populations are currently at carrying capacity and require trapping and removal to keep herds below carrying capacity (Hacker et al. 2000). Declines in the 3 low-elevation populations in New Mexico are associated with habitat loss resulting from fire suppression and livestock grazing (Huddleston-Lorton 2000), increased predation from mountain lions (*Puma concolor*) (Ahlm 2001, Huddleston-Lorton 2000, Rominger and Dunn 2000), train-strike kills (NMDGF files), and disease (Ahlm 2001). Other factors influencing bighorn sheep populations include: recreation use, roads, fences, exotic ungulates, poor range conditions, feral dogs, and illegal harvest.

Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep are thought to have never been widespread in New Mexico, with historical evidence for just 4 populations in Wheeler Peak, Pecos Wilderness, White Rock Canyon, and Manzano/Los Pinos Mountains (Bailey 1931, Leopold 1933). However, pre-Columbian populations are hypothesized to have been more widespread than recent historical accounting. In 2004, there are an estimated 950 Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in 3 alpine and 3 low-elevation populations (Figure 1). In 2004 all 3 alpine populations are estimated to be > 100 and each of the 3 low-elevation populations are estimated to be < 100. Populations with more than 100 bighorn sheep have an increased probability of long-term persistence (Berger 1990) and New Mexico Department of Game and Fish (The Department) is working to increase all populations above 100.

About the Plan

In this long-range plan, issues and strategies are identified that will guide the Department from 2005 through 2014 in effectively managing Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep and in satisfying the public’s interest in this species. Specific actions/protocols relative to habitat improvement, predator control, translocations, surveys, etc. will be detailed in an action plan. In this long-range plan a four-fold approach will be used to guide the management of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep.

1. Involve the public in creating, evaluating, and implementing the plan: A period of public review was included in the development of this plan. The Department will seek further advice from affected publics on implementation of the plan. A biennial review of this plan will be implemented to keep the document current.
(2) Establish and maintain viable populations: The Department will continue to trap bighorn sheep out of populations that reach carrying capacity. These bighorn sheep will be: (a) translocated within New Mexico to augment extant populations or to fill vacant historical habitats, (b) traded to Arizona for desert bighorn sheep, and (c) offered to other western states if not required in New Mexico (Appendix B). The opportunity to manage populations by harvesting excess ewes must also be considered. The Department will continue to monitor extant populations annually, enforce laws against illegal harvest, and work with land management agencies and private landowners to minimize disease outbreaks and the adverse affects of human impacts.

(3) Increase public awareness of and support for bighorn sheep: Wildlife Management Division will continue to work with the Conservation Education Section within The Department to develop educational programs for presentation to schools and other interested groups and work to establish a zoo display.

(4) Increase consumptive and non-consumptive recreational opportunities: The Department will continue to provide quality hunting and provide bighorn sheep viewing opportunities.

Draft Status

This is the final draft of the document, completed on November 23, 2004. This draft was reviewed by external publics, and agency personnel. All comments received during the public review process have been acknowledged and considered for incorporation into the final draft.

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Natural History and Ecology

Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (Ovis canadensis canadensis) are even-toed ungulates (grazing mammals) native to North America in the family Bovidae. Northern races or subspecies of bighorn sheep (O. c. canadensis, O. c. californiana, O. c. auduboni) were extirpated from Arizona, New Mexico, Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Washington (Toweill and Geist 1999). Populations in other western states and provinces of the United States and Canada probably declined to fewer than 10,000 individuals (Toweill and Geist 1999).

Today Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep are found in all western states and provinces with historical records, from New Mexico to British Columbia. Bighorn sheep are characterized by low reproductive rates, long life spans, and populations adapted to live near carrying capacity in relatively stable environments (Geist 1975). Bighorn sheep are a sexually dimorphic species and ewes may weigh 190 pounds (86 kg) and rams may weigh >300 pounds (136 kg). One of the most prominent characteristics of bighorn sheep are the very large horns of adult males. Large-horned, older rams do much of the breeding, though younger rams will breed opportunistically (Hogg and Forbes 1997). Rams may breed several ewes, however they are not territorial nor do they form harems, but rather are serial polygynists (Geist 1971). Ewes generally first breed at 2.5 years and give birth to 1 lamb after a gestation period of 180 days (Lawson and Johnson 1983). In populations with high quality forage, ewes may breed at 1.5 years and give birth at the age of 2. Although twinning has been documented in both wild and captive bighorn sheep it occurs infrequently (Eccles and Shackleton 1979). Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep generally breed in December and January with most lambs born in June and July when the climate is relatively mild and forage is becoming abundant (Hass 1993). Bighorn sheep generally have a life span of 10-14 years, although exceptions as old as 18 have been reported (Geist 1975, Goldstein 2001). Mortality tends to be high the first year, low from ages 2-8, and then increases after age 9 (Lawson and Johnson 1983).

Bighorn sheep are social animals that live in groups most of the year. Ewe groups (comprised of adult ewes, yearling ewes, lambs, and young rams) generally are larger than ram groups especially during late spring and early summer when nursery bands may contain 25-100 animals (Lange 1978, NMDGF files). Mature rams generally remain solitary or in bachelor groups except during the pre-rut and rut periods (November-January), when rams and ewes gather on the same range. Bighorn sheep rely on keen vision to detect predators, and on rapid mobility on steep terrain as the principal predator evasion strategy (Geist 1971). Thus, open, steep terrain is the defining component of bighorn sheep habitat (McQuivey 1978, Risenhoover et al. 1988, Krausman and Shackleton 2000).

Bighorn sheep eat a wide variety of plants and their diets vary seasonally and throughout their geographic range (Todd 1975, Cooperrider and Hansen 1982, Johnson 1980, Rominger et al. 1988). Forbs generally dominate the diet, followed by grasses, and lastly browse (Krausman and Shackleton 2000). However, some low-elevation Rocky
Mountain bighorn sheep populations have diets dominated by the leaves of browse species, particularly true mountain-mahogany (*Cercocarpus montanus*) (Rominger et al. 1988). Bighorn sheep diets in the Pecos Wilderness were dominated by graminoids during winter and forbs and graminoids were codominant during summer (Johnson 1980). Bighorn sheep also use mineral licks, especially during summer when green, potassium-rich forage may cause an imbalance in the potassium-sodium ratio of the intracellular fluids (Weeks and Kirkpatrick 1976). An alternate hypothesis is that sodium is a required element in the biochemical pathway used by ruminants to metabolize secondary plant compounds that are often present in forbs and the leaves of shrubs (Foley et al. 1995).

Unlike other ungulates in which young disperse to new areas, bighorn sheep pass knowledge of home ranges and migration routes from 1 generation to the next (Geist 1971). Therefore bighorn sheep do not typically recolonize ranges where they have been extirpated. Translocations are generally required to establish new populations (Singer and Gudorf 1999). The minimum size for a population to be considered viable and self-sustaining is 100, although several hundred are recommended to maintain a high level of genetic diversity (Soule 1980, Soule and Simberloff 1986, Berger 1990, Goodson 1994, Krausman et al. 1996, Wehausen 1999). Populations with fewer than 100 animals are susceptible to extinction from catastrophic events such as disease outbreaks or density independent effects including weather or predation (Thomas 1990). An additional concern of small populations is the loss of genetic diversity and the relationship to long-term persistence (Franklin 1980).

Some bighorn sheep populations smaller than 100 animals have survived for more than 50 years (Krausman et al. 1993, Goodson 1994, Wehausen 1999). However, most of these populations were: (1) below carrying capacity and had enough habitat to increase to more than 100 bighorn sheep (Krausman et al. 1993, Goodson 1994); (2) had been augmented with additional animals (Goodson 1994); or (3) were part of an interbreeding group of populations, known as a metapopulation (Lande and Barrowclough 1987, Wehausen 1999). The potential for interbreeding among neighboring populations is positively related to population size and proximity to neighboring populations (Gilpin 1987). Intermountain movements of 10 miles by ewes and 15-20 miles by rams have been documented for bighorn sheep (Festa-Bianchet 1986, Dunn 1993, Ramey 1993). Translocated bighorn sheep have been documented to move between 80-100 miles (NMDGF files, AZGF files, Torres 2000). In this plan, populations are considered viable if they have at least 100 animals, or are within 15 miles of other populations with which they could interbreed and the size of the resulting metapopulation would be more than 100 animals.

**Parasites and Diseases**

A variety of parasites and diseases can adversely affect bighorn sheep. Many of these diseases have been documented in New Mexico bighorn sheep.
**Pneumonia**, triggered either by the bacteria *Pasteurella/Mannheimia spp.* or the virus Parainfluenza 3, is the major cause of all age die-offs in bighorn sheep populations (Foreyt and Jessup 1982, Goodson 1982, Jessup 1985, Foreyt 1990). In Colorado, about 1 bighorn sheep population each year contracts pneumonia resulting in a loss of 25-100% of the individuals (M. Miller, Colorado Div. Wildlife, pers. commun.). Contact with domestic sheep has been unequivocally determined to be a cause of pneumonia dieoffs (Foreyt et al. 1990a). Domestic goats are known to carry the ‘hot’ biotypes of *Pasteurella spp.* and have also been implicated in pneumonia dieoffs of bighorn sheep (Cassierer et al. 1996). However, not all pneumonia dieoffs have been associated with domestic livestock contact (Bailey 1986). It is hypothesized that lungworms (*Protostrongylus spp.*) contribute to the susceptibility of bighorn sheep (particularly juveniles) to pneumonia (Foreyt et al. 1990a), but no conclusive evidence has been offered to support this hypothesis (Samson et al. 1987, Goldstein 2001). Pneumonia die-offs, following contact with domestic sheep, resulted in failed Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep translocations in the Latir Wilderness (Sandoval 1988), Wheeler Peak Wilderness (Larson 1968, Larson 1970), and are suspected to have caused a substantial population decline in the San Francisco River population (Ahlm 2001).

**Lungworms**, (*Protostrongylus spp., Muellerius capillaris*) are strongyle parasites that inhabit the lungs of nearly all wild bighorn sheep in northern latitudes (Fougere-Tower and Onderka 1988). Lungworms may block airways, result in dissemination of bacteria, or reduce immunological response of a host (Demartini and Davies 1977). Adult lungworms lay eggs in the lungs, and the hatched first stage larvae are coughed up, swallowed and passed out in the feces. The larvae enter an obligatory secondary host, a land snail, which is incidentally consumed by bighorn sheep while grazing. The larvae travel back to the lungs where they reach maturity (Anderson 1992). Currently, all drugs available to treat lungworms are only effective against the adult stage, not the larvae. Therefore multiple drug treatments will be necessary to eradicate an infection, but it will not be possible to prevent them from reinfecting themselves from the range. Infections are measured by larval load per gram of fecal matter, but it is unknown how this correlates to adult lungworm density in the lungs, what level of infection is hazardous to a bighorn sheep, or how lungworm contributes to mortality risks.

**Bluetongue**, a viral disease transmitted by gnats (*Culicoides spp.*), produces ulceration of the nasal and oral cavities, tissue death in the mouth and tongue, and may cause abortions (DeForge et al. 1982, Osburn et al. 1983, Singer et al. 1998). The gnat is prevalent when conditions are warm and moist, breeding in shallow water contaminated by fecal material (Osburn et al. 1983). In 1991, the sudden death of 10% of the adults and 5% of the lambs in the captive population of desert bighorn sheep at Red Rock was attributed to bluetongue (NMDGF files).

**Contagious ecthyma**, a parapox virus that produces lesions on the lips, anus, genitalia, and hooves of bighorn sheep has been reported in Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (Blood 1971, Samuel et al. 1975, Merwin 2000). While the disease can cause mortality, bighorn

Psoroptic scabies, caused by the parasitic mite Psoroptes ovis, is a contagious skin disease that can affect bighorn sheep populations (Sandoval 1980, Foreyt et al. 1990b). The mite causes pelage to loosen and slough off and extensive lesions to develop in ears and around the head. For bighorn sheep, this results in weight loss, loss of hearing and balance, and potentially death through secondary bacterial infections or environmental stress (Lange et al. 1980, Clark and Jessup 1992).

Chronic sinusitis, a bacterial infection resulting from decaying larval stages of nasal bot flies (Oestrus ovis) trapped in sinus cavities, produces deterioration of bone in sinuses and horn cores and may be fatal (Bunch 1980). Chronic sinusitis has contributed to substantial declines in some desert bighorn sheep populations (Jessup 1985). Presence of the nasal bot fly is generally associated with sympatric domestic sheep. The disease is especially prevalent in dry environments.

Elaeophorosis, a disease first discovered in New Mexico Rocky Mountain and desert bighorn sheep (Boyce et al. 1998), is caused by the nematode Elaeophora schneideri. This disease requires a Tabanid fly vector to feed on blood infected with the microfilaria life-stage. This disease was documented in a Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep ewe that died in the Turkey Creek population near the Gila River and in a desert bighorn sheep ram collected after being observed in debilitated health in the Fra Cristobal population (Boyce et al. 1999). These are the only 2 cases of Elaeophorosis of which we are aware. To date there does not appear to be a population level impact of this disease.

Competitors

Bighorn sheep can be adversely affected by poor range conditions where the quality, quantity, and diversity of forage are low (Stoddart et al. 1975, Dodd and Brady 1986, Jorgenson et al. 1993). Poor range conditions in bighorn sheep habitat generally are restricted to foothills where cattle grazing also occurs. These areas can be especially important to low-elevation bighorn sheep because this is where new growth of forage is first available in spring. Livestock grazing can result in direct competition with bighorn sheep. Livestock grazing also results in the removal of the fine fuels necessary to carry fire which is requisite to maintain open habitats used by bighorn sheep at lower elevations. During winter, alpine populations of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep can overgraze the windswept tundra sites and potentially may damage these sites. Large numbers of elk (Cervus elaphus) graze above timberline in all 3 alpine ranges occupied by bighorn sheep during summer and fall. Cattle also graze above timberline in the 3 alpine bighorn sheep ranges and in portions of the 3 low-elevation bighorn sheep ranges. The effect of this potential competition is unknown.
Deer and elk generally use more gentle and more heavily vegetated habitat than bighorn sheep, but may use the same salt licks and water sources if they are not in very steep areas. Deer and elk occur sympatrically in all New Mexico Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep ranges. Deer are generally the primary prey of mountain lions in North American ecosystems without elk (Logan et al. 1996). However, where elk are present they are generally the most prevalent diet item, particularly calves (Spreadbury 1989, Murphy 1998, D. Freddy, Colorado Division of Wildlife, pers. commun.). Water units installed for bighorn sheep may contribute to range overlap between bighorn sheep and deer (Smith and Krausman 1988). Elk occupy the same alpine habitat as bighorn sheep during summer and autumn. Large groups of elk (>100 individuals) foraging above timberline may potentially overgraaze foraging areas important to bighorn sheep during winter.

Barbary sheep also known as aoudads (*Ammotragus lervia*) have been observed with Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in the Manzano Mountains (NMDGF files). Like bighorn sheep, Barbary sheep occupy open, steep terrain and probably would out compete bighorn sheep because of a higher reproductive rate and a greater ability to subsist on low quality forage (Seegmiller and Simpson 1979). Barbary sheep have been observed tending bighorn sheep ewes during the rut and apparently are able to dominate smaller bighorn sheep rams (NMDGF files). The potential for Barbary sheep to cause an asynchronous rut by defending ewes throughout an estrus cycle is of concern and therefore the removal of Barbary sheep from bighorn sheep range is considered imperative. Barbary sheep euthanized in bighorn sheep ranges have been necropsied at the New Mexico State Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory and have not been found to carry scabies nor have the ‘hot’ *Pasteurella* biotypes, known to cause pneumonia, been cultured from tissue samples (NMDGF files).

**Predators**

In New Mexico Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep are preyed upon by mountain lions, coyotes (*Canis latrans*), bobcats (*Lynx rufus*), and golden eagles (*Aquila chrysaetos*) (Hass 1995, NMDGF files). Lion populations that primarily prey on deer and elk are able to prey-switch to bighorn sheep. If bighorn sheep populations are at carrying capacity, such as in the alpine habitats, predation is thought to be compensatory (the mortality would occur due to some other cause if not predation) rather than additive (the mortality would be additive to base-line mortality) and has not been documented to have an effect on a population level. However, if populations are small and below carrying capacity, as in the 3 low-elevation Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep populations, mountain lion predation can become additive mortality and profoundly influence bighorn sheep population dynamics (Wehausen 1992, Hayes et al. 2000, Rominger and Weisenberger 2000). Although mountain lion predation is the primary cause of mortality for desert bighorn sheep in New Mexico (Rominger et al. 2001), no mountain lion predation has been documented on more than 85 radiocollared Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in alpine ranges. In the 3 low-elevation Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep ranges mountain lions are the primary predator (NMDGF files). Between 1997 and 2002, 15 of 50 radiocollared
Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were killed by mountain lions in the 3 low-elevation populations.

Human Disturbance

Although considerable research has been conducted on the effect of human disturbance on bighorn sheep, the results have been ambiguous (Leslie and Douglas 1980, Cambell and Remington 1981, Hamilton et al. 1982, Krausman and Hervert 1983, Miller and Smith 1985, Weisenberger et al. 1996, Papouchis et al. 1999). Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in New Mexico occur in areas with substantial human presence including hikers, skiers, dogs, off-road vehicles, trains, military and civilian aircraft, and researchers and managers. Considerable human interaction, driven primarily by a craving for salt (Hass 1992), has been reduced in the Pecos Wilderness population by consistently providing trace element salt blocks to Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (NMDGF files).

Historical Perspective

Although no genetic or skeletal materials remain from bighorn sheep extirpated from northern New Mexico, it is assumed that these bighorn sheep, particularly those found in alpine ecosystems up to 13,000 feet, were similar to other Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep. Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were never widespread in New Mexico, with historical evidence for just 4 populations in Wheeler Peak Wilderness, Pecos Wilderness, White Rock Canyon, and Manzano/Los Pinos Mountains (Buechner 1931, Leopold 1933). Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were extirpated in New Mexico during the early part of the 20th century (Buechner 1931). The extirpation of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep has been attributed to several anthropogenic events related to the arrival of Europeans including market hunting, direct competition with introduced livestock, and perhaps most importantly, the introduction of diseases from domestic livestock (Beuchner 1960).

The restoration of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in New Mexico began in 1932 with a translocation of 6 bighorn sheep from Canada (Appendix A). This translocation was unsuccessful, and Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were not established in New Mexico until 1940 in the Sandia Mountains. Additional translocations with bighorn sheep from Canada and the Sandia population resulted in the establishment of herds in the Pecos Wilderness, San Francisco River, and Turkey Creek prior to 1966. The first translocations to the Latir and Wheeler Peak Wildernesses resulted in failure because of contact with domestic sheep and resulting pneumonia dieoffs. However, both areas currently have viable bighorn sheep populations with persistence for 10 years in the Wheeler Peak Wilderness and 2 years in the Latir Wilderness (Appendix A).

Population trends

Pecos Wilderness
Bighorn sheep were extirpated from the Sangre de Cristo Mountains in the early 1900's (Bailey 1931, Barker 1976). Restoration efforts began with a translocation from Canada
in 1932, but no bighorn sheep survived past the mid-1930's (Lange 1978). A second
translocation of 24 bighorn sheep in 1965-66 from Banff National Park, Alberta and from
the now extinct Sandia population was successful (Appendix A). In 2002 this herd was
estimated to have 340 bighorn sheep based on results of a helicopter survey, hunter-guide
reports, and mathematical modeling (Table 1).

Smith and Johnson (1979) estimated the carrying capacity of the Pecos Wilderness to be
175-330 based on forage availability during winter. The population increased to ~400 in
1982 and has since fluctuated between 300 and 400 with little between year difference in
the number of adults in the population. Annual variation is primarily a function of first-
winter lamb survival and lamb production. The population becomes more susceptible to
mortality with increasing length and severity of winter. This density-dependent
relationship is consistent with classic `bottom-up` regulation, where populations are
limited by forage biomass (Rominger 2003). The density on winter range is ~23 bighorn
sheep/km² when the population is 400 and is ~17 bighorn sheep/km² when the population
is 300. The density of the Pecos population is perhaps the best metric for estimating
potential carrying capacity of the other 2 alpine populations (Rominger 2000b).

Herds that remain at carrying capacity are not at optimum herd size (Jorgenson et al.
1993). Individuals in populations with stable numbers tend to be physically smaller,
preumably from a reduction in the per capita availability of resources, and have lower
lamb:ewe ratios due to high lamb mortality (Geist 1971). Populations at carrying
capacity produce mature rams with smaller horns, and animals in poor condition are more
susceptible to a variety of mortality risks (Owen-Smith 1990, Gulland 1992, Crete and
Huot 1993).

Until 2003, the Pecos Wilderness population has been the only New Mexico source of
Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep for translocations since the 1966 translocation from the
Sandia Mountains (Appendix A). Since the initial translocation from the Pecos herd in
1977, > 191 bighorn sheep have been captured in the Pecos Wilderness. The number of
bighorn sheep removed during each trap ranged from 16 to 63 and represented between
3% and 17% of the estimated population (NMDGF files). Since 1993, the 3 traps in the
Pecos Wilderness have removed an average of 45 bighorn sheep or 12.4% of the pre-trap
population. Average number of ewes removed (mean = 28) has been approximately 21%
of the estimated ewe population during the last 3 traps (NMDGF files). Average number
of rams removed/trap (mean = 9) has been approximately 6% of the estimated ram
population during the last 3 traps (NMDGF files). Since 1996, annual harvest (mean =
8.8) has averaged 6 % of the ram population.

The Pecos population has returned to pretrap numbers within 2 years of each of these
traps (NMDGF files). Jorgenson et al. (1993) recommended the removal of 12-24% of
ewes annually, based on conservative estimates of the population. The long-term
estimate (1989-2002) of the number of ewes in the Pecos population has been 137. A
conservative biennial removal of ~24% of the ewe population would require the capture
of approximately 33 ewes. A consistent biennial removal of at least 24% of the ewe
population, combined with a similar removal of rams through harvest and trapping will
probably be required to keep the population below carrying capacity. An understanding of distinct subpopulations within herds is necessary when implementing captures (Stevens and Goodson 1993). An alternative to translocation of ewes would be the initiation of annual ewe harvests as is conducted in several other western states and provinces.

**Wheeler Peak Wilderness**

Bighorn sheep occupied Wheeler Peak until the late 1800's (Bailey 1931). Reintroductions have been attempted 3 times (Appendix A). Ten bighorn sheep were released in February 1968. During the following summer, 600 domestic sheep grazed in bighorn sheep habitat and by fall, no bighorn sheep were observed in the area (Larsen 1968). Nineteen bighorn sheep were released in January 1970, but the following summer, 300 domestic sheep grazed in bighorn sheep habitat and few bighorn sheep survived (Larsen 1970). Thirteen observations of bighorn sheep or their sign were made in the Wheeler Peak area between 1978 and 1991 (Dunn 1993), but there was no indication of a viable population. In August 1993, 33 bighorn sheep from the Pecos Wilderness population were released in the Wheeler Peak area (Mabe 1994). At least 4 resident bighorn sheep were observed following the translocation (Mabe 1994). By 2000, the population had grown to an estimated 180 (Rominger et al. 2001). Census data from the summer of 2004 suggest that the population is about 300 (Table 1).

The Wheeler Peak herd is divided into 2 subpopulations using habitat on the Wheeler Peak complex and the Gold Hill area. Gold Hill appears to have a carrying capacity of < 60 bighorn sheep. The population of ewes and lambs peaked in 2000, at 59 but has not increased since then (Rominger and Goldstein 2002c). Monitoring radiocollared ewes between 1993 and 1999 never documented movement of ewes between the 2 subherds. However, rams observed during the summer on Vallecitos and Frazer Mountains, have been observed on Goldhill during the rut. We believe that this subpopulation is currently at carrying capacity because it has not grown for several years. As with the Pecos herd, it is important to manage this herd below carrying capacity to have rams with large horns and to lower the risk of a catastrophic die-off from a disease outbreak. The removal of ~24% of ewes in a biennial trapping operation would require capturing approximately 25 ewes.

**Latir Wilderness**

No available historic records document a resident bighorn sheep population in the Latir Wilderness. However, it is probable that bighorn sheep historically occupied the area because it is only 9 miles north of Wheeler Peak and 12 miles south of the Colorado portion of the Culebra Range, both are historic habitat. Bighorn sheep have the ability to move through the 9-12 miles of broken timber to the Latir Wilderness from the north or south and bighorn sheep were observed in the Latir Wilderness prior to the translocation in 2001 (NMDGF files).
In 1978, 20 Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were translocated from Pecos Wilderness to Latir Wilderness (Lange 1978). The population grew to 36, but during July 1981, 115 domestic sheep were grazed in bighorn sheep habitat (Saiz 1981). In 1983, only 1 ewe was observed during a population survey. The die-off was caused by pneumonia attributed to association with domestic sheep (Sandoval 1988). The U. S. Forest Service (USFS) domestic sheep grazing allotment was converted to cattle in 2000. In 2001, 56 bighorn sheep, comprised of 11 lambs, 8 rams, and 37 ewes, were translocated from the Pecos Wilderness to the Latir Wilderness (Appendix A). High survival (only 1 over-winter mortality) and high recruitment resulted in an increase to ~ 90 bighorn sheep the first year post-translocation and an estimate of 115 in 2004 (Table 1).

San Francisco River
Although no specimens exist from the historical population, desert bighorn sheep are assumed to be the subspecies present until the mid-1800's (Buechner 1960). In 1964-65 18 Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were translocated to Sheridan Ridge in the Mogollon Mountains from the Sandia Mountains (Appendix A). However, these bighorn sheep moved west to the San Francisco River drainage within a year. Although no rams were released in the translocation that occurred before the rut, a mature ram appeared during the rut and all the mature ewes were apparently bred (A. Ford, pers. commun.). This ram is assumed to have come from the Turkey Creek population, and therefore, the potential for a metapopulation link exists between these herds (see below).

The population grew to an estimated 140-170 (Hayes 1982), but suffered a die-off about 1994 that was likely caused by disease (Ahlm 2001). The herd declined to <40 individuals and experienced low lamb recruitment for several years after, which are characteristic trends of a pneumonia outbreak. Four bighorn sheep from the Pecos Wilderness were released into the Alma Box in 1998. The population has increased since 1998 and in 2004 is estimated to have 75-90 individuals in the New Mexico portion of the habitat (Table 2).

The Arizona portion of the San Francisco River population has not increased in recent years and is thought to number <50 (D. Cagle, Arizona Department Game and Fish (AZDGF), pers. commun.). Domestic sheep are raised on a ranch that is contiguous with bighorn sheep habitat in the Arizona portion of the San Francisco River. The San Francisco River herd is part of a metapopulation currently comprised of about 750 bighorn sheep which includes Arizona populations in Eagle Creek, Bear Canyon, Fotte Creek, Black River, and Nantek Rim (D. Cagle, AZDGF, pers. commun.).

Turkey Creek
The population is divided into 2 distinct subpopulations that are generally found on Watson Mountain along the Gila River and within Hells Half Acre about 7 miles southeast of Watson Mountain (Huddleston-Lorton 2000). As in the San Francisco River, the bighorn sheep reported until the mid-1800's, in the Turkey Creek area, were probably the desert bighorn sheep subspecies (Buechner 1960). In 1964, 10 Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep
from Banff National Park, were translocated to Turkey Creek (NMDGF files). This population was augmented with 5 bighorn sheep from the Pecos Wilderness in 1998. In 2004 the population was estimated to be 40 (Rominger and Goldstein 2004).

Movements of Turkey Creek bighorn sheep to the San Francisco River population in 1964 suggests that interchange between these populations is possible (Hayes 1982). However, none of >30 bighorn sheep radiocollared between 1987 and 1998 moved between these populations during >10 years of monitoring (Huddleston-Lorton 2000, NMDGF files).

**Manzano/Los Pinos**

Bighorn sheep existed in the Manzano and Los Pinos mountains until the 1880's and were observed from Hell’s Canyon in the central Manzano Mountains to Yeso Mesa at the southern end of the Los Pinos Mountains (Leopold 1933).

Because of the location of this population it is probable that bighorn sheep typically considered to be the Rocky Mountain subspecies from the Sangre de Cristo Mountains and bighorn sheep that are typically considered to be the desert subspecies from the San Andres Mountains could have interbred. The existence of this ‘cline’ within bighorn sheep populations is a more accurate reflection of the potential for genetic mixing although it conflicts with the traditional taxonomic concept of subspecies. Because no specimens of the original bighorn sheep exist, any speculation would be just that. A radiocollared ewe and young ram moved from Sand Canyon south to Stallion Gate following their release in 1998 and 2 bighorn sheep also were observed to move north to I-40 in eastern Albuquerque. These locations are approximately 100 miles apart (NMDGF files).

In 1977-78, 32 bighorn sheep were translocated from the Pecos Wilderness to the Manzano Mountains (Donaldson 1978). The herd was never determined to increase above 30 and by 1998 had declined to fewer than 20 individuals (Rominger 1997). A translocation of 23 bighorn sheep from the Pecos Wilderness temporarily increased the herd above 30, however in 2002 it declined to 20-22 individuals (Rominger and Goldstein 2002b). Bighorn sheep occur almost exclusively in the Sand Canyon and Abo Canyon drainages in the southern portion of the Manzano Mountains. However, rams and ewes are occasionally seen in the Los Pinos Mountains, south of Highway 60 on the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge (NMDGF files).

Mountain lion predation and trainstrikes are the primary cause of bighorn sheep mortality in the Manzano population. Between 1998 and 2003, 7 radiocollared bighorn sheep were killed by mountain lions (Rominger and Goldstein 2002b). Between 1998 and 2004, 8 radiocollared bighorn sheep were killed by trainstrike and another 9 uncollared bighorn sheep were killed (NMDGF files). An additional 6 bighorn sheep were reported to have been hit and killed but no carcasses were recovered (Burlington Northern Santa Fe (BNSF) train employees, pers. commun.). Therefore 17 bighorn were confirmed train-strike mortalities with 23 suspected train-strike mortalities during a period when the
population declined to fewer than 30 individuals. Bighorn sheep also are vulnerable to illegal harvest because of access provided by roads.

BNSF intends to double track the Abo Canyon section between 2005-2007. NMDGF has negotiated with BNSF to have the track double-fenced during this construction project to mitigate this high train-strike mortality. NMDGF will assess the need to augment this population following the completion of the fencing. If the population in San Francisco River continues to increase, the possibility to translocate bighorn sheep from a low-elevation population rather than, or in addition to, using bighorn sheep from alpine habitats will be considered.

Habitat trends

Bighorn sheep habitat in New Mexico, as in most of the west, has been reduced due to encroachment of woody vegetation (Wakelyn 1987, Dick-Peddie 1993, Huddleston-Lorton 2000). Increased woody vegetation decreases visibility within habitats and results in behavioral exclusion of bighorn sheep and increased levels of predation when using habitats with poorer visibility. Exclusion of fire over the past 100 years has allowed shrubs and pinyon pine (*Pinus* spp.) and juniper (*Juniperus* spp.) trees to encroach into once open habitat (Wright and Bailey 1982, Wakelyn 1987, Huddleston-Lorton 2000), thereby decreasing the amount of usable bighorn sheep habitat. Although fire suppression policies of land management agencies over the past 80 years has contributed to the lack of fires, livestock grazing is the primary factor leading to the absence of fire. Grazing reduces fine fuel loads so that fires cannot carry in these habitats. The reduction in fine fuels in habitat surrounding bighorn sheep habitat precludes fires that might initiate away from bighorn sheep habitat but burn into bighorn sheep habitat. Increased density, size, and percent canopy cover of pines, junipers, and oaks (*Quercus* spp.) have decreased visibility for bighorn sheep, and provide additional cover for predators (Huddleston-Lorton 2000). Reduced visibility inhibits ability of bighorn sheep to detect predators and reach escape terrain in time to avoid predation. As a result, mountain lions are a primary source of mortality in these habitats. The encroachment of pinyon pine and juniper is a concern primarily in low-elevation habitats (Risenhoover et al. 1988).

Alpine habitat in New Mexico is primarily restricted to sites above 12,000ft (3,658m). Because Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in alpine habitats are restricted to alpine habitat during winter, the continued presence of this ecosystem will be required to maintain populations. One predicted effect of global warming is the loss of alpine habitat due to the increased elevation of timberline.

Habitat Assessment

Because of the need for open vegetation, bighorn sheep are limited mostly to areas above (i.e., alpine habitat) or below (i.e., low-elevation habitat) forests and woodlands. Rocky slopes greater than 60% are considered steep enough to be escape terrain (Hansen 1980, McCarty and Bailey 1994). Escape terrain is especially important for ewe-lamb groups because of the high vulnerability of lambs to predation (Sandoval 1979, Holl and Bleich...

During winter, habitat use of bighorn sheep in alpine ecosystems is restricted by deep snow to areas above timberline. Many alpine populations of bighorn sheep migrate to low-elevation winter ranges (Geist 1971, Festa-Bianchet 1986), but in New Mexico, bighorn sheep remain on windswept, snow-free slopes within alpine habitat (Smith and Johnson 1979). Most mortality in alpine populations occurs during winter when weather is severe and forage quality and availability is low (Hass 1993).

Unlike alpine populations, low-elevation populations generally do not have distinct seasonal ranges (McCarty and Bailey 1994). However, these populations may restrict their ranges to areas near water during hot, dry weather when water requirements are high. Ewes with lambs generally remain within 2 miles of water sources that are in open habitat and close to escape terrain (Leslie 1978, Leslie and Douglas 1979, Sandoval 1979, Bleich 1997).

Areas evaluated for their potential as Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep habitat by Dunn (1993) are discussed below in the order of their suitability. Alpine areas such as Touch-Me-Not Mountain, Baldy Mountain, and Little Costilla Peak, and low-elevation areas such as Cimarron Canyon and Rio Chama were not evaluated because they contained little open habitat. Bighorn sheep are occasionally reported in these ranges. Bighorn sheep were observed from the air on Baldy Mountain in 1999 (D. Jones, NMDGF pers. commun.). A Class II ram, possibly a remnant from the 1978 translocation, was captured near the town of Cimarron in 1999 and translocated to the Manzano Mountains.

Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep currently occupy 6 ranges in New Mexico (Figure 1). Six additional ranges are currently unoccupied by breeding populations of bighorn sheep (Figure 2).

**Occupied Alpine Habitats**

**Pecos Wilderness.** The vast majority of the habitat of the Pecos bighorn sheep population occurs within the Pecos Wilderness boundary. The Pecos Wilderness is managed by the U. S. Forest Service, Santa Fe and Carson National Forests and contains the most bighorn sheep habitat (64.4 km²) of all alpine areas in New Mexico (Dunn 1993). During summer, most ewe-lamb groups reside in the area of the 2 major lambing sites: Pecos Baldy complex and the Truchas complex. Sexual segregation occurs in this population with most rams using habitat from Chimayosas Peak to Jicarita Peak in the northwest portion of the range. Winter range occurs within 25% of the summer range (17.5 km²), and is centered on windswept slopes that provide foraging sites (Johnson 1980, Dunn 1993).

The Pecos receives a high amount of recreation use, but bighorn sheep do not appear to be adversely affected. Most recreational use occurs during a limited period (80% from
July through September) and in a limited area (mostly at Pecos Baldy Lake and Truchas Lakes). However, despite a ban on goats in all 3 alpine bighorn sheep ranges (USFS 1996a, USFS 1996b, USFS 2002), pack goats have been reported in the Pecos Wilderness bighorn sheep habitat (NMDGF files). In the past, Pecos bighorn sheep have exhibited very tame behavior, approaching people for food or salt and consuming charcoal in fire pits. A sodium deficiency in their diet was the suspected cause of this behavior (Montgomery 1991, Hass 1992). An analysis of plant samples suggested that the summer diet of bighorn sheep was probably adequate for all macro-elements except sodium. Since 1991, salt blocks have been horse-packed to specific sites and bighorn sheep-human interactions have decreased substantially (Hass 1991, 1994, 1995). The use of trace mineral blocks, rather than just sodium chloride blocks, seems to have reduced the daily intake of salt by bighorn sheep.

**Wheeler Peak.** The Wheeler Peak population inhabits lands managed by the Carson National Forest, Taos Pueblo, and privately held tracts. Much of the Carson National Forest lands are within the Wheeler Peak Wilderness Area and the Columbine-Hondo Wilderness Study Area. Total bighorn sheep habitat is less than that in the Pecos Wilderness (52.2 km²), but contains more escape terrain (Dunn 1993). Winter range occurs within 18% of the summer range (10.6 km²). Using the carrying capacity estimates from the Pecos population (Rominger 2000b) the Wheeler Peak population carrying capacity would be 243 based on the higher density and 180 based on the lower density (Rominger 2000b).

Wheeler Peak is heavily used by recreationists during summer and occasionally used by cross-country skiers and snowshoers during winter (Dunn 1993). Bighorn sheep salt sites have been maintained since 1993 to reduce the interaction with humans. However, there has been considerable interface of bighorn sheep and humans at Goose Lake at the base of Goldhill.

**Latir Wilderness.** Bighorn sheep habitat in the Latir Peaks area is managed primarily by Carson National Forest, but 15% is owned by Rio Costilla Cooperative Livestock Association (RCCLA), a 175 member grazing cooperative, and another small portion is managed by Dharma Properties, Inc. All of the public bighorn sheep habitat occurs within the Latir Wilderness Area. Bighorn sheep habitat in the Latir Wilderness is 28% as large (18.2 km²) as the Pecos Wilderness (Dunn 1993). Based on the Dunn (1993) analysis, winter range encompasses just 18% of the summer range (3.3 km²). Using the carrying capacity estimates from the Pecos population (Rominger 2000b) the Latir population carrying capacity would be 76 based on the higher density and just 56 based on the lower density (Rominger 2000b). Dunn (1993) predicted a potential population size of 75-150, using a summer habitat ratio with the Pecos population and adjusting for the quality of the habitat. This herd will need to be monitored closely to minimize the possibility of overshooting carrying capacity.
Currently the recreational impacts in the Latir Wilderness are light compared with Wheeler Peak Wilderness and Pecos Wilderness. There are 2 maintained trails within bighorn sheep habitat and designated campsites at Latir and Heart Lakes (Dunn 1993). This population will become part of a metapopulation potentially totaling more than 800 bighorn sheep that would include the Wheeler Peak and the Culebra (New Mexico/Colorado) populations (Dunn 1993).

**Unoccupied Alpine Habitats**

**Culebra Range.** The Culebra Range extends from southern Colorado, at State-line Peak, south to Big Costillo Peak in New Mexico (Figure 2). The alpine portion of this range is 100% privately owned by The Vermejo Ranch (Turner Enterprises), and RCCLA. No available historic records document bighorn sheep in the New Mexico portion of this range. However, bighorn sheep were found around Culebra Peak in Colorado until the early 1900's (Bailey 1931), so it is probable that they used the New Mexico part of the range occasionally. Bighorn sheep rams have been observed in helicopter surveys in 2000 and 2001 (Rominger 2000a, Rominger and Goldstein 2001). A ewe-lamb group (n=10) was photographed in 2001 (B. Long, pers. commun.). It is assumed that these bighorn sheep are from Colorado where the population has continued to expand and may be >400 (C. Wagner/B. Holder, Colorado Division of Wildlife, pers. commun.), although they could have been from Wheeler Peak.

Alpine habitat is steep and rugged in the Colorado portion of the range. The Culebra Range contains the third largest amount of alpine habitat in New Mexico (30 km²), but it is a large, rolling, west-facing mesa. Escape terrain is limited mostly to an east-facing escarpment that parallels the mesa. Winter range comprises just 19% of the summer range (5.6 km²), but in the Dunn (1993) analysis does not contain escape terrain for bighorn sheep. Aerial observation of this habitat during winter suggests that winter range adjacent to escape terrain may be limited but the juxtaposition does occur (NMDGF photos). Based on the Pecos Wilderness winter carrying capacity estimate (Rominger 2000b), alpine habitat in the New Mexico portion of the Culebras could support approximately 95 bighorn sheep. Bighorn sheep translocated to the Culebra range might move to better habitat in Colorado. However, the Culebra Range in New Mexico will be critically important as a movement corridor for the Wheeler Peak-Latir Wilderness-Culebra Range (Colorado) bighorn sheep metapopulation. Given its location between the Colorado Culebra and the Latir bighorn sheep populations, it is likely that there will eventually be a self-starting herd in the New Mexico portion of the Culebra Range.

**Santa Fe Baldy.** Santa Fe Baldy is in the Santa Fe National Forest. Barker (1976) reported a ewe killed in this area in 1902, but it probably was a remnant of the Pecos Wilderness population. The majority of 11 bighorn sheep trapped on Pecos Baldy in 1976 and transported in saddle-horse panniers to Jicarita Peak returned to Pecos Baldy within 6 weeks (Lange 1977). It is therefore unlikely that bighorn sheep from the Pecos population could be used to start a subpopulation on Santa Fe Baldy. Bighorn sheep from
the current Pecos Wilderness population are occasionally reported on Santa Fe Baldy, but it is unlikely that this area could support a viable population. Santa Fe Baldy has the least amount of habitat of 5 alpine areas analyzed by Dunn (1993) and is heavily used by recreationists. No bighorn sheep have been observed on Santa Fe Baldy during the 7 most recent helicopter surveys (1998-2004; NMDGF files).

**Occupied Low-elevation Habitats**

**San Francisco River.** San Francisco River canyon is mostly within the Gila National Forest and contains the most bighorn sheep habitat of all low-elevation ranges in New Mexico. However, the total amount of escape terrain is moderate compared with large alpine habitats in New Mexico (Dunn 1993).

Poor range conditions, primitive roads, fences, and high human activity at the hot springs impact about 20% of bighorn sheep habitat in the New Mexico portion of the San Francisco River habitat (Dunn 1993). Recent efforts to enforce laws regulating the number of days individuals may camp on USFS lands may decrease human disturbance of this population. Since 1998, the majority of observations of bighorn sheep in the San Francisco River drainage have been from the Alma Box to the Dry Creek tributary (Ahlm 2001, NMDGF files).

**Turkey Creek.** Most habitat used by the Turkey Creek population is within the Gila National Forest and BLM lands, with some use of private property along Bear Creek. This area has a relatively large amount of habitat, but the least contiguous and smallest amount of escape terrain of all low-elevation ranges in New Mexico (Dunn 1993).

Impacts to bighorn sheep include poor range conditions and off-road vehicle activity (Dunn 1993). Dunn (1993) found a large amount of range in poor condition, but the Nature Conservancy subsequently purchased a ranch and grazing allotment on Watson Mountain and cattle have been removed from some key bighorn sheep habitat. An increase in the fine fuel production may allow a wildfire or prescribed burn to reduce the density of woody vegetation. Reduced habitat in Turkey Creek might not support more than 75 bighorn sheep because of limited escape terrain and woody vegetation encroachment (Dunn 1993, Huddleston-Lorton 2000). A stand replacing wildfire in the upper reaches of Turkey Creek occurred in 2003. The potential for bighorn sheep to use this area may expand the current range of this herd.

**Manzano and Los Pinos Mountains.** The Manzano and Los Pinos mountains contain the second greatest amount of habitat and escape terrain of all low-elevation ranges in New Mexico (Dunn 1993). This habitat could potentially support 150 bighorn sheep (Dunn 1993). About 43% of bighorn sheep habitat in the Manzano Mountains is managed by Cibola National Forest and 57% is privately-owned. The Los Pinos Mountains are entirely within the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, a long-term ecological research
Habitat of the 2 mountain ranges is visually different with the more xeric Los Pinos Mountains having less woody vegetation and a more open mosaic and the more mesic Manzano Mountains having more woody vegetation with forested habitats at higher elevations. Based on historical photos of these habitat types in New Mexico, both mountain ranges are assumed to be lower quality bighorn sheep habitat than existed historically because of vegetation encroachment (Huddleston-Lorton 2000). Restoration of a fire regime or mechanical manipulation will be required for bighorn sheep to use much of the potential habitat in the Manzano Mountains.

Unoccupied Low-elevation Habitats

Rio Grande Gorge. Most bighorn sheep habitat in Rio Grande Gorge, between Pilar and the Red River confluence is managed by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) and Taos Pueblo, although a small amount is privately owned. No historic records document bighorn in the Rio Grande Gorge, although the presence of bighorn sheep down-river in White Rock Canyon would suggest that they could have been present. The Rio Grande Gorge has slightly less habitat (77 km²) than San Francisco River, but substantially more escape terrain. This area potentially could support 150 bighorn sheep (Dunn 1993) (Table 2), but a major effort would have to be undertaken to remove domestic sheep allotments and feral sheep from the area. When bighorn sheep come into contact with domestic sheep, invariably bighorn sheep contract pneumonia and suffer a large-scale die-off (See Disease Section). Historically, at least 2 domestic sheep herds have been graze adjacent to Rio Grande Gorge annually. One herd was moved across the gorge in spring and fall, and feral sheep have been observed in the gorge (R. Maggio, BLM, pers. commun.). A complete assessment of the risk of domestic sheep must be conducted prior to a translocation.

White Rock Canyon. Bighorn sheep habitat in White Rock Canyon occurs within Bandelier National Monument, Santa Fe National Forest, Los Alamos National Laboratory, San Ildefonso Pueblo, Cochiti Pueblo, and on private land. Bighorn sheep occupied White Rock Canyon until the 1880's (Bailey 1931). This area contains a moderate amount of bighorn sheep habitat, but large patches of escape terrain and abundant water. White Rock Canyon could potentially support approximately 125 bighorn sheep. Although NMDGF was involved assessing the potential for a translocation to this area in 2000, the unexpected availability of the Latir Wilderness negated this action. DGF concerns about hunting opportunity, combined with the large number of stakeholders, will require a substantial effort to reinitiate this project.

Sandia Mountains. No available historic records document bighorn sheep in the Sandia Mountains despite use of the foothills by Spaniards for grazing as early as the 1600's (Baisan and Swetnam 1995). However, it is possible that bighorn sheep from the
Manzano-Los Pinos population occupied the Sandias occasionally. Nine Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep were translocated from Canada to the Sandia Mountains between 1939-41 (Freeman 1959). Intensive pre-release mountain lion control was conducted by 2 hunters, prior to the release of these bighorn sheep (F. Hibbens (deceased), pers. commun.). The population was estimated to be greater than 100 in the early 1960's (Freeman 1961) and bighorn sheep were trapped from this population for translocations between 1964 and 1966. However, the population began to decline in the mid-1970's (Donaldson 1978) and was considered extinct soon after the last recorded sighting in 1992. The causes of this extinction are unknown.

Bighorn sheep habitat in the Sandias is impacted by trails and picnic areas, recreational use of the crest, and houses at the base of the western escarpment. Recreational use in the Sandia Ranger District has increased from about 1 million visitor days per year in the 1960's to 2 million visitor days per year in the 1990's (L. Cosper, Cibola Natl. For., pers. commun.). Intense year-round recreational use, activity both at the crest and in residential areas at the base of the mountain, and the presence of feral dogs (NMDGF files) leaves little open, steep habitat where bighorn sheep would not be disturbed. A consensus of bighorn sheep biologists believes that the current habitat on USFS lands in the Sandia Mountains would not support a viable population of bighorn sheep.

The Sandias have the smallest amount of habitat and second smallest amount of escape terrain of all low elevation ranges in New Mexico (Dunn 1993). Most of the western escarpment is covered by vegetation considered to be too dense for bighorn sheep. Dense patches of mountain mahogany and associated species occur at lower elevations whereas dense Gambel oak (*Quercus gambelii*) with some patches of ponderosa pine (*P. ponderosa*) and Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) occur at higher elevations. The absence of fire for more than 200 years may have contributed to an increase in dense vegetation, although Baisan and Swetnam (1994) suggest that fire starts from lightning on the western escarpment may have always been rare and that fire had difficulty spreading across the rugged terrain.

**Dry Cimmaron.** Although the Dry Cimmaron area of extreme northeastern New Mexico was not assessed by Dunn (1993), pictographs and petroglyphs found in southeastern Colorado suggest that bighorn may have been present historically (J. Yost, CDOW pers. commun.). Colorado Division of Wildlife translocated 20 Rocky Mountain bighorn to the Carrizo Sheep Unit, just north of the Dry Cimmaron, in 1980. A small herd, estimated to be 40-50, has persisted since the translocation although they have not expanded into large areas of what appears to be good bighorn sheep habitat (J. Yost, CDOW pers. commun.). Bighorn sheep, primarily rams, have been sighted in the Dry Cimmaron country in New Mexico on numerous occasions (M. Catanach, NMDGF, L. Sims, Rancher, pers. commun.).
Management Assessment

Supply and Demand Assessment

Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep have been hunted in New Mexico since 1959 with a total of 320 rams harvested through the 2003 hunting season. This includes 89 permits for the Sandia Mountains population from 1959-74 (25 rams harvested; 28% success), 122 permits for the San Francisco River population from 1970-2000 (114 rams harvested; 93% success), 16 permits for the Turkey Creek population from 1989-1994 and 2001-2003 (11 rams harvested; 73% success), 15 in the Wheeler Peak Wilderness population since 1999 (100% success), and 272 permits for the Pecos Wilderness population since 1970 (145 rams harvested; 53% success; 94% success since 1990).

Prior to 1978, hunt strategies were quite liberal. For example, 60 of the 89 permits for the Sandia Mountains population were granted between 1959-61 and 102 of the 272 permits for the Pecos Wilderness were issued between 1974-1978. The current hunting strategy is much more conservative and designed to ensure a quality hunt (i.e., low hunter pressure, high success rate, and good opportunity for harvesting trophy quality rams). The number of permits issued is based on population trend, ram to ewe ratio, total number of rams, and ram age structure. In recent years the ram harvest from the Wheeler Peak herd and the Pecos Wilderness herd has been calculated as 5% and 9% of the estimated ram population, respectively.

The demand to hunt Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in New Mexico is high. For example, 1,441 hunters applied for 11 permits (8 for Pecos Wilderness, 1 for Turkey Creek, 2 for Wheeler Peak Wilderness) in 2002. These are the highest demand hunting licenses in New Mexico and therefore have the longest draw-odds. To maintain a high quality hunting experience, it is unlikely that the Department will issue permits for more than 20 rams per year even if the Latir Wilderness and San Francisco River populations are hunted. Between 1998 and 2003, hunter success for Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep has been 95% (73 of 74) and 52% (38 of 73) of the harvested rams scored more than 170 Boone and Crockett (B&C) points. These include new state record Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep for archery (189 4/8 B&C), harvested in the Pecos population, and for rifle (195 2/8 B&C) harvested in the Wheeler Peak population. Both of these rams won the Gold Medals at the 2004 Foundation for North American Wild Sheep (FNAWS) convention for the largest rams harvested in North America the previous year.

Economic Impact Assessment

Currently the 11 public-draw Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep tags generate ~$18,000 in license and application fees ($99 resident/$3,016 nonresident; $6 non-refundable application fee). In 1989, the New Mexico Legislature authorized the sale of 1 bighorn sheep hunting permit to the highest bidder. This tag has been auctioned at the annual
FNAWS convention. Winning bids for a Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep license in New Mexico have been as high as $157,500. Between 1990-2003, $1,086,300 were raised through the sale of this permit and monies have been used exclusively for bighorn sheep restoration and management in New Mexico. In 1999 the New Mexico Legislature authorized the sale of 1 bighorn sheep hunting permit via a public raffle. This raffle has been organized by the New Mexico Chapter of FNAWS and has raised ~$170,000 in the first 3 years. The level of demand is expected to continue to be high, especially because New Mexico has harvested such quality rams in recent years.

Between 1991 and 2003, >$2,365,000 has been spent on bighorn sheep research and management projects in New Mexico using auction and raffle funds. Seventy-five percent of the cost of the majority of restoration and management projects are reimbursed with Federal Aid in Wildlife Restoration monies (funds derived from federal excise taxes on sporting arms and ammunition).

In addition, to monies generated for the New Mexico Department of Game and Fish, many hunters hire guides to assist them when hunting bighorn sheep. Although relatively few hunters are lucky enough to hunt bighorn sheep, the monies spent by these hunters for guides, taxidermists, travel, food, and accommodations in New Mexico is substantial. No data are available on the nonconsumptive user expenditures. Negative economic impacts are minimal with traffic accidents or depredation reported very rarely.

**Special Considerations**

The susceptibility of bighorn sheep to diseases and parasites transmitted during contacts with domestic sheep and goats and the continuing loss of low elevation habitat constitute circumstances to which this plan must give special consideration.

**Summary and Conclusions**

The Department has worked since 1932 to restore Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep to historical habitats in New Mexico. Populations have increased from zero to approximately 950. The high value of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep as hunting trophies, as a highly visible wildlife species, and as integral components of many ecosystems will require continued management effort.
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Long Range Plan

Management Strategy Section

GOAL: To restore Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep into all available habitat in New Mexico to maximize the ecological, economic, recreational, and aesthetic interests of majority of New Mexico residents.

OBJECTIVE: Use strategies developed in the plan to mitigate impediments to the restoration of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep by 2014 to facilitate the maximum ecological, economic, recreational, and aesthetic goals of the majority of New Mexico residents.

Issues and Strategies

ISSUE 1. The diverse and sometimes conflicting interests of land management agencies, Indian tribes, private landowners, and other affected groups or individuals may complicate attaining increased public satisfaction.

*Strategy 1.1* Involve those who may be affected by this plan in evaluating and implementing bighorn sheep management strategies.

ISSUE 2. The current distribution and abundance of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep are inadequate to satisfy New Mexican’s ecological, economic, and recreational interests.

*Strategy 2.1* Establish and maintain healthy self-sustaining herds of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep in 90% of suitable habitats in accordance with the following objective parameters, the attainment of which may be expected to satisfy New Mexican’s ecological, economic, and recreational interests.

*Strategy 2.2* Monitor population dynamics, distribution, and health of bighorn sheep herds.

*Strategy 2.3* Thoroughly census all bighorn sheep populations annually.

*Strategy 2.4* Investigate population declines and implement management strategies to reverse them.

*Strategy 2.5* Establish translocation rates that ensure protection of the source population.
Strategy 2.6  Establish harvest levels that will not adversely affect population viability or the number of mature rams.

Strategy 2.7  Consider initiation of ewe harvests in populations that are above carrying capacity and surplus individuals are not needed for translocations.

Strategy 2.8  Incorporate management approaches used by other wildlife agencies to maintain alpine populations within carrying capacity.

Strategy 2.9  Cooperate with other western states to trade excess bighorn sheep that are not required in New Mexico.

Strategy 2.10  Mitigate limiting factors to allow populations to increase to a minimum of 100 individuals with at least 50 ewes.

Strategy 2.11  Recognize and evaluate the tradesoffs between translocations to restore bighorn sheep, hunting and hunter opportunity, and disturbance to wilderness values during translocation activities.

ISSUE 3. Diseases and parasites carried by domestic and feral sheep, and possibly by domestic goats or exotic wild ungulates, can cause widespread die-offs of bighorn sheep, thereby impeding restoration of bighorn sheep populations.

Strategy 3.1  Work with land management agencies and private landowners to prevent contact between bighorn sheep and domestic sheep, goats, and exotic wild ungulates, using agency guidelines for separation of domestic sheep and wild sheep (Schommer and Woolever 2001).

Strategy 3.2  Work with land management agencies and private landowners to convert domestic sheep and goat allotments in potential bighorn sheep habitat to allow for the reintroduction of bighorn sheep.

Strategy 3.3  Work with the private sector to retire domestic sheep and goat allotments that are in potential bighorn sheep habitat.

Strategy 3.4  Ensure that all domestic sheep, goats, and exotic wild ungulates have been removed before translocating bighorn sheep into former allotments.

Strategy 3.5  Eliminate feral sheep, goats, and exotic wild ungulates from potential and occupied bighorn sheep range.

Strategy 3.6  Permanently remove and examine any bighorn sheep that has contacted or potentially contacted domestic or feral sheep to reduce the probability
of disease transmission to the remainder of the bighorn sheep population.

**Strategy 3.7**  
Continue to prohibit the use of goats as pack animals in alpine bighorn sheep habitats and work to prohibit their use in low-elevation habitats as well.

**Strategy 3.8**  
Review the most recent literature on diseases of other domestic livestock including any ungulates that might come into contact with bighorn sheep.

**ISSUE 4.** Livestock operators concerns for the potential transmission of diseases and parasites from bighorn sheep to domestic livestock may create opposition to establishing the bighorn sheep populations necessary to meet ecological, economic, and recreational interests.

**Strategy 4.1**  
Sample all captured bighorn sheep for the presence of diseases of mutual concern to the Department and the livestock industry.

**Strategy 4.2**  
Share any new scientific evidence, regarding risk of disease transmission from bighorn sheep to domestic livestock, with producers.

**Strategy 4.3**  
Do not release bighorn sheep of questionable health.

**Strategy 4.4**  
Thoroughly investigate and, if feasible, treat disease outbreaks.

**Strategy 4.5**  
Design and place water units and salt stations to reduce overlap of bighorn sheep and cattle.

**ISSUE 5.** Brush encroachment and lack of water may restrict habitat use by bighorn sheep and preclude the recovery of this species in historical habitat.

**Strategy 5.1**  
Coordinate with land management agencies and private landowners to control tree/brush encroachment by using techniques including control burns, and mechanical and/or chemical treatments to create a more open landscape for bighorn sheep in currently occupied and potential translocation sites.

**Strategy 5.2**  
Coordinate with land management agencies and private landowners to ensure optimum water distribution and identify areas where the absence of water may limit bighorn sheep distribution. Consider the potential adverse impacts of attracting predators, livestock, and deer with additional water units.
**ISSUE 6.** Human related disturbances may negatively affect the viability of bighorn sheep populations and preclude the recovery of this species in historical habitat.

**Strategy 6.1** Work with land management agencies, private landowners, and the state legislature to:

(a) maintain unfragmented habitat (including travel corridors between populations),

(b) limit disturbance during periods critical to the welfare of bighorn sheep populations,

(c) modify fences to ensure safe crossing by bighorn sheep,

(d) establish and maintain salt stations where needed to reduce human-bighorn sheep interactions,

(e) minimize mining and construction activities during critical seasons (e.g., rut and lambing),

(f) mitigate road or railway mortality,

(g) develop authority for DGF employees to euthanize dogs that attack bighorn sheep.

**ISSUE 7.** Successful implementation of planned strategies is dependent upon public understanding and support.

**Strategy 7.1** Develop educational programs about bighorn sheep biology, behavior, and habitat requirements for presentation to schools, wildlife organizations, sportsmen groups, and other interested groups.

**Strategy 7.2** Establish viewing sites where they won't be detrimental to bighorn sheep.

**Strategy 7.3** Provide quality hunting when monitoring indicates that a population can sustain hunting without adversely affecting population viability.

**ISSUE 8.** Poor range conditions adversely affect bighorn sheep populations by reducing the quality of bighorn sheep diets and by the elimination of fine fuels required to carry fire.

**Strategy 8.1** Coordinate with land management agencies to create basic monitoring program for bighorn sheep ranges to ensure that fine fuels are available for control burn programs.
Strategy 8.2 Encourage grazing management that will maintain high quality forage for livestock, bighorn sheep, and other wildlife species.

ISSUE 9. Predation can be a significant mortality factor for bighorn sheep populations and may delay or inhibit the restoration of populations.

Strategy 9.1 Translocate a minimum of 30 bighorn sheep to compensate for initial high predation rates and supplement with additional animals if predation is a major cause of mortality and the population has not grown to 50 bighorn sheep within 5 years.

Strategy 9.2 In habitat where substantial lion predation is anticipated, pre-treat these ranges to reduce lion density prior to translocating bighorn sheep.

Strategy 9.3 Remove offending lions that prey upon bighorn sheep until populations become self-sustaining with a minimum of 100 individuals.

Strategy 9.4 If high mortality rates, documented from radiocollared bighorn sheep, implicate predation as a limiting factor in Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep populations, implementation of a predator control strategy similar to that used in endangered desert bighorn sheep herds must be considered.

Strategy 9.5 Recognize that during the next decade, the reintroduction of Mexican wolves (*Canis lupus baileyi*) may have an impact on some Rocky Mountain sheep populations.

Strategy 9.6 Implement habitat improvement projects (See Strategy 5.1) to reduce risks of predation by ambush predators.

ISSUE 10. Illegal harvest may adversely affect population viability and recreational opportunities.

Strategy 10.1 Reduce illegal harvest through increased law enforcement and public education.

Strategy 10.2 Continue the ban on private possession of pick-up skulls and the requirement of sealing hunter harvested ram horns and ram horns brought into New Mexico.

Strategy 10.3 Continue to PIT-tag all captured rams to enhance positive identification of these animals.
ISSUE 11. Because of competing management needs, Game Protection funds may be inadequate for achieving the plan goal.

Strategy 11.1 Continue the auction of 1 bighorn sheep permit and the raffle of 1 bighorn sheep permit.

Strategy 11.2 Use additional sources of funding and volunteer assistance available from the federal government agencies, Habitat Stamp Fund (Sikes Act), private foundations, environmental and sportsmen’s groups.

ISSUE 12. Tribal lands are not under the Department jurisdiction, but contain habitat important for bighorn sheep populations.

Strategy 12.1 Develop cooperative agreements with tribal authorities that enhance management of bighorn sheep habitats and populations on adjoining tribal and non-tribal lands.

ISSUE 13. Without future public input, the Department will not know if the goal of this plan is being met.

Strategy 13.1 Develop a plan to assess public satisfaction using public meetings, commission meeting, public polling, or related mechanisms.
Appendix A. History of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis canadensis*) translocations in New Mexico.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>TRANSLOCATION HISTORY</th>
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*escaped to Zuni Reservation, assumed to be extinct.*
Appendix B. History of out of state translocations of Rocky Mountain bighorn sheep from New Mexico.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Year</th>
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Appendix C. Public involvement in the development of the Long Range Plan.

The first draft of this plan was constructed following consultation regarding shared bighorn sheep populations with Arizona Department of Game and Fish and Colorado Division of Wildlife. The first draft was reviewed from April – November, 2003 by 6 NMDGF employees in the Wildlife Management Division, Conservation Services Division, Administration, Northwest Area, Northeast Area, and Southwest Area offices. The second draft was posted on the Department website and public involvement included asking 21 Federal entities, 3 State agencies, the State Game Commission, 6 County Commissions, 6 Pueblos, 18 Special Interest Groups, and 21 Individuals listed below to provide comments. Hard-copies were mailed to individuals without computer access. An “X” indicates a response was received.

Federal Agencies

U. S. Forest Service—Regional Office--X

Carson National Forest
  Questa R.D.
  Penasco R.D.

Cibola National Forest
  Sandia R.D.
  Mountainair R.D.

Gila National Forest
  Glenwood R.D.
  Silver City R.D.

Santa Fe National Forest
  Pecos R.D.
  Espanola R.D.

BLM State Office
  Albuquerque District Office, BLM
    Taos Resource Area

National Park Service Regional Office
  Bandelier National Monument

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Regional Office
  Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge

Los Alamos National Laboratory
**State Agencies**

New Mexico Department of Game and Fish Area Offices  
Arizona Game and Fish  
Colorado Division of Wildlife

**State Game Commissioners (at time of review)**

Guy Riordan—Chair  
Alfredo Montoya—Vice-Chair  
Dave Henderson  
Peter Pino  
Dr. Tom Arvas  
Leo Sims  
Jennifer Atchley-Montoya

**County Commissions**

Bernalillo County  
Catron County  
Grant County  
Santa Fe County  
Taos County  
Valencia County

**Pueblos**

Cochiti  
Isleta  
Picuris  
San Ildefonso  
Sandia  
Taos

**Special Interest Groups**

National Chapter of The Foundation for North American Wild Sheep—X  
New Mexico Chapter of The Foundation for North American Wild Sheep  
New Mexico Chapter of Safari Club International  
Southwest Consolidated Sportsmen  
United Bowhunters  
New Mexico Wildlife Foundation
New Mexico Council of Outfitters and Guides
Rocky Mountain Bighorn Sheep Society
Tierra Grande Improvement Association
The Nature Conservancy
Rio Costillo Cooperative Livestock Association
Vermejo Park Ranch
Turner Endangered Species Fund
Dharma Properties
Taos Ski Valley
El Salto Livestock Association
Burlington-Northern Santa Fe Railroad
Animal Protection of New Mexico--X

**Individuals**

Darrel Allred
Mickey Blake
Mick Chapel--X
Allen/Debbie Eggelston
John Gunlogson
Dr. V. W. Howard--X
Dave Heft
Al Johnson
Tom Klumker--X
Huey Ley
Ric Martin--X
Tito Naranjo--X
John Nichols--X
Dr. Michael and Becky O’Connor
Buel Pattison
Lanny Rominger
Eric Roybal
Dr. Kent Schauer
Terrell Shelly
Dick Weaver--X
Ortho Woodrow
Appendix D

Approvals


_______________________________   __________________
Division Chief        Date

_______________________________   __________________
Ass’t Director, NMDGF     Date

_______________________________   __________________
Director, NMDGF      Date

_______________________________   __________________
Chairman, State Game Commission  Date