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SPECIAL MEETING OF PANEL A (SEALS) - DECEMBER 1975<br>The impact of current management policies on stocks of western Atlantic harp seals, Pagophilus groenlandious

by
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## INTRODUCTION

The harp seal, Pagophilus groentandicus, has formed the basis of an historical sealing industry in the northwest Atlantic for over 200 years (Fisher 1955). From the earliest times, and up to the end of World War II, there were apparently no constraints on the manner in which this hunt was carried out, or on the number of seals taken annually. Regulations controlifing aspects of the hunt evolved slowly since that time and, in 1966, a quota system was introduced through the auspices of the International Commission for the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries (ICNAF) (Anon. 1972a).

Recently, conflicting views were expressed on the present status of western Atlantic harp seals. Some suggested that the declining trend in the harp seal population will reach a minimum level around 1976-1977, and subsequently begin to increase in numbers in response to the present quota system of management (Sergeant 1975a, 1975b; Benjaminsen and $\emptyset_{\text {rits }}$ and 1975). Others believe that the harp seal has been overexploited for many years (Pimlott 1966; Lust 1967; Davies 1970; Anon. 1972b), and at the present time is a severely threatened and endangered species (Regenstein 1975). New evidence indicates that the population has continued to decline in recent years to a present level of perhaps less than one million animals (Lavigne et al. 1975).

In view of these conflicting viewpoints, it seemed appropriate to utilize modern fisheries assessment techniques (Pope 1972; Doubleday 1975; Lett et al. 1975) to re-analyse the available data. The effects of management strategies, past, present, and future, on the population dynamics of this species were considered.

## AMALGAMATION OF DATA

The possibility of obtaining a completely representative age frequency sample from a mammalian population is small indeed (Caughley 1966), and the harp seal is no exception (Sergeant 1959, 1971). Samples of harp seals taken during the southward migration contain few immature animals, while the opposite bias tends to occur in samples of moulting seals collected after the breeding season (Sergeant 1971). However, since there was little justification for subjectively choosing only some of the available data in any given year, all annual age frequency samples collected between 1952 and 1975 were compiled from a number of sources (Sergeant 1959, 1971, 1972, personal communication; Sergeant and Fisher 1960; Øritsland 1971a; Benjaminsen and Øritsland 1975). In total, some 30,057 seals, aged from the annuli of tooth sections (Fisher and MacKenzie 1954), were considered in the present analysis.

Historical records of harp seal catch and effort statistics for the Canadian sealing industry were obtained for the period 1946-1974 (Department of Fisheries of Canada 1968; Department of the Environment 1975). Norwegian sealing efforts and catches in the western Atlantic between 1938 and 1975 were also available ( $\emptyset$ ritsland 1967, 1969, 1970, 1971b, 1972, 1973; Sergeant, personal communication). These were combined to give total catch and effort for western Atlantic harp seals in recent years.

## PRELIMINARY CALCULATIONS

A variety of techniques were, and still are used to hunt harp seals in the western Atlantic. These include the large commercial vessels from Canada and Norway which take the largest proportion of the catch, the small vessel hunt operating along the east coast of Canada, and Canadian landsmen, opportunistic hunters operating from shore when weather permits and ice conditions bring the seals sufficiently close to land. The effort involved is very different for each technique, and there is no common factor to which all effort can be reduced to calculate total effort in a standardized value for each year.

A man-day, selected as the unit of effort, was thus applied only to the large Norwegian and Newfoundland vessels operating in the western Atlantic. Since these vessels took a large proportion of the total catch of seals during the period under consideration, the attendant errors are not considered serious. The amount of effort expended hunting seals aged one and older $(1+)$, was calculated by multiplying the effort by the ratio of the catch of seals aged one and older to the catch resulting from the large vessel hunt.

The annual mean instantaneous total mortality rate ( $Z$ ) of seals was calculated between years ( $i, i+1$ ) using the equation:

for cohorts ( $N$ ) of ages ( $t$ ) from 3 to 17 , where $n$ is equal to 25 . In some years, negative mortalities were present for some cohorts, probably the result of sampling and aging problems (Gulland 1969). These values were included in the calculations of the mean total instantaneous mortality, thereby preventing biases resulting from subjectivity. Paloheimo's (1961) linear formula would perhaps
have been the best way to calculate mortality; however, the density of seals does not change as the population contracts. Thus, a unit of effort does not result in the same fraction of the population being exploited.

This change in the catchability, $q$, (Ricker 1975a) of seals is a problem of considerable importance when trying to derive the relationship between total mortality and hunting effort. Fortunately, independent estimates of harp seal production are available (Fig. 8). The continual decline in population size allows for the regression of time ( 1950 equals year one) on pup production. By making the assumption that pup production is broadly related to population size, a correction can be made for changes in the catchability by dividing effort by the population index since $q a \frac{1}{N}$, producing an estimate of effective effort ( $E / N$ ). The regression provides estimates of pup production in years when no aerial sensing was carried out.

There are further difficulties in interpreting the relationship between effective effort and total mortality. Hunting pressure was directed off adults in 1966 with the introduction of the quota system (Anon. 1972a) and onta the more valuable pups and beaters. However, with the closure of the Gulf of St. Lawrence fishery in 1972, the quota could no longer be reached by taking only a small proportion of adults. Thus, the hunt was again directed onto adults. Between 1966 and 1972 there was a substantial decrease in the response of total mortality to effective effort, although no significant difference in $\frac{d Z}{d(E / N)}$ could be noted. One possible explanation for this shift is that a directed adult fishery engenders a higher mortality due to losses from wounding and unaccounted death. This effect becomes confounded with the natural mortality rate, biasing it upwards. To alleviate this problem a "dumm" independent variable (Draper and Smith 1966) was added in the regression analysis to account for the directed fishery effect. The following table illustrates the effect of adding the dummy variable:

| Year | Total mortality ( $Z^{\prime}$ ) | Corrected total mortality (Z) | Number aged | Effort <br> man days (E) | Effective effort ( $\mathrm{E} / \mathrm{N}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1952-1953 | 0.831 | 0.831 | 968 | 232.2 | 41.46 |
| 1953-1954 | 0.260 | 0.260 | 1198 | 119.8 | 22.19 |
| 1954-1955 | 0.481 | 0.481 | 615 | 103.8 | 19.58 |
| 1955-1956 | 0.286 | 0.286 | 507 | 58.2 | 11.45 |
| 1956-1957 | 0.101 | 0.101 | 673 | 19.0 | 3.88 |
| 1959-1960 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 0.556 | 0.556 | 265 | 88.6 | 20.14 |
| 1960-1961 | 0.308 | 0.308 | 521 | 41.0 | 9.76 |
| 1961-1962 | 0.316 | 0.316 | 947 | 34.8 | 8.70 |
| 1962-1963 | 0.630 | 0.630 | 1655 | 177.6 | 45.54 |
| 1963-1964 | 0.221 b | 0.221 | 2358 | 75.0 | 20.27 |
| 1964-1965 | $0.707^{\text {b }}$ | 0.707 | 1022 | 135.7 | 38.77 |
| 1965-1966 | 0.304 | 0.595 | 844 | 154.6 | 46.85 |
| 1966-1967 | 0.106 | 0.397 | 1066 | 95.9 | 29.97 |
| 1967-1968 | 0.100 | 0.391 | 2278 | 79.9 | 26.63 |
| 1968-1969 | 0.040 | 0.331 | 1900 | 38.2 | 13.64 |
| 1969-1970 | 0.245 | 0.536 | 2388 | 73.2 | 28.15 |
| 1970-1971 | 0.293 | 0.534 | 3185 | 35.6 | 14.83 |
| 1972-1973C | 0.202 | 0.202 | 135 | 12.4 | 5.90 |
| 1973-1974 | 0.304 | 0.304 | 1581 | 33.7 | 17.74 |

[^0]The regression: of the effective effort on the corrected values of $Z$ yielded the following equation (Fig. 1):

$$
\text { (2) } \quad Z=0.0116 \mathrm{E} / \mathrm{N}=0.1610
$$

$$
r=0.84^{1}
$$


#### Abstract

However, due to the continual drop in recruitment (Ricker 1975a), the estimate of natural mortality, $M$, is biased downward. The best estimate of the annual instantaneous rate of the decline in recruitment is 0.0524 , determined from the logarithm of pup production from cohort analysis with $M=0.21$ and a starting $F=0.033$. This estimate of the rate of decrease in recruitment agrees well with Ricker's (1975b) of 0.068 . Thus, natural mortality, confounded with wounding losses, is between 15 and $19 \%$ per year. This value also corresponds well with Ricker's (1975b) estimate of 0.206 or 18.69 per year. As will be subsequently elucidated, an $M$ of 0.21 gave an almost perfect agreement between the simulation and the cohort analysis.


## SEQUENTIAL POPULATION ANALYSIS

Sequential population methods (Fry 1949; Murphy 1964;
Jones 1964; Gulland 1965; Pope 1972; Doubleday 1975) were developed to estimate fish population sizes and fishing mortalities from catch-at-age data. Although there is no example of this method being used to assess mamalian populations, no assumptions are violated by its use.

For this study, the sequential population analysis developed by Pope (1972), called cohort analysis, was utilized since it assumes that natural and hunting mortality occur somewhat independently, which is true to a great extent in the seal fishery. The method is based on the formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{i}=C_{i} \operatorname{EXP}(M / 2)+N_{i+1} \operatorname{EXP}(M) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $N_{i}$ is the population of a year-class at the $i^{\text {th }}$ birthday, $C_{i}$ is the catch of a cohort at age $i$, and $M$ is the instantaneous coefficient of natural mortality. This formula is applied sequentially, the population size in each new year depending on the population the year after.

However, some starting values are required. Thus, by expanding equation (3):

$$
\begin{align*}
N_{i}= & \left(C_{i} \operatorname{EXP}(M / 2)+C_{i} \operatorname{EXP}(3 M / 2)+C_{i+2} \operatorname{EXP}(5 M / 2)\right.  \tag{4}\\
& +\cdots \cdot+\left(N_{t} \operatorname{EXP}(t-i) M\right)
\end{align*}
$$

and assuming that hunting does not completely extirpate a particular cohort, the last term for the final year's population is:

$$
\text { (5) } \quad N_{i}=\frac{C_{i}\left(F_{i+1}\right)}{F_{i}(1-\operatorname{EXP}(-F-M))}
$$

This formula is used to calculate the population size in the initial year. Considerable care should be given in estimating

[^1]the initial hunting mortality (F) since hunting mortalities are usually low on mamals, and the analysis is sensitive to the initial $F$ in the first few iterations. However, when the data series is long, poor starting values for $F$ are considerably damped as the analysis continues.

It is acknowledged that the natural mortality level for pups may be somewhat different from the adult animals. For this reason, the analysis was modified so that pups could experience a natural mortality twice or half as high. However, the analysis was extremely insensitive to the manipulation of this parameter because of the high hunting mortalities experienced by pups.

Hunting mortalities can be calculated by the formula:
(6) $\quad F_{i}=\operatorname{LOG}_{e}\left(N_{i} / N_{i+1}\right)-M$

A much more detailed description of the method and its accuracy is given by Pope (1972).

In order to start the cohort analysis, an instantaneous total mortality was predicted from equation (2), based on the estimated effort expended in 1975 on hunting $1+$ seals. Our estimate of natural mortality, $M=0.21$, was subtracted from this value to provide a starting level of instantaneous hunting mortality on seals aged one and older, $F=0.033$. The population estimates resulting from this analysis are given in Table 1. The annual mean hunting mortalities generated by the cohort analysis, as by equation (6), were significantly correlated with the effective effort ( $\mathrm{E} / \mathrm{N}$ ) $r=0.55^{1}$, while the total calculated mortality ( 2 ) was also significantly correlated $r=0.57^{1}$ with the annual mean hunting mortality. However, it is evident from the two parallel aggregations of points in the regression of total mortality on hunting mortality that another variable is clearly missing. This missing variable remains to be elucidated; however, it is probably related to ice conditions.

According to this analysis, the harp seal population declined exponentially from 1952 to 1975 (Fig. 2). Consequently, the population is now only $15 \%$ of its size in 1952. Pup production also declined during this period from 974,309 in 1952 to 216,257 in 1975. However, this decline is not nearly as dramatic as the decline in adults' (Fig. 2).

## CONSTRUCTION OF A MODEL

It appeared that some insights into harp seal population dynamics, and possible reasons for the decline in population numbers, could be acquired by studying the structure of the system as a whole (Fig. 3). The entire western Atlantic was considered one population in the simulation, since harp seals which breed in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the Front off the coast of Newfoundland, spend much of their life together in the Arctic during the summer (Sergeant 1965). Their complete separation into Gulf and Front breeding populations is also not well documented and some mixing of the two stocks is known to occur (Sergeant 1971, 1975c), especially in the younger age classes (Sergeant 1975b).

In our model (Fig. 3), the program is initialized by entering a population of harp seals, the size of which is arbitrary, since the model will eventually stabilize itself at a particular level. These seals are then split into two groups, animals aged $1+$ and pups; each group suffers a particular form of hunting.

[^2]The catch equation (Beverton and Holt 1957)

$$
\begin{equation*}
{ }_{i} C_{t}={ }_{i} N_{t} \frac{F_{t}}{F_{t}+M}\left(1-E X P-\left(F_{t}+M\right)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{t}$ is the instantaneous rate of hunting mortality in the $t^{\text {th }}$ period, $i_{i} C_{t}$ is the catch and $i_{i} N_{t}$ is the population in the $t^{\text {th }}$ period for age $i$, is used to calculate the catch of both pups and older seals. The catch of pups estimated from this equation is somewhat biased since most of the hunting mortality takes place during the first few weeks of life shortly after whelping. However, some natural mortality also occurs at this time (Sergeant 1975d; Popov and Timoshenko 1965). Furthermore, the hunting mortality on these animals continues throughout the year, some being taken during the Greenland summer "fishery" (Kapel 1973, 1975) and this would interact to a significant extent with natural mortality. Concurrent with the hunting, the number of seals remaining in each group is calculated by the following equation:
(8) $\quad \mathrm{i} \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{t}+1}={ }_{\mathbf{i}} \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{t}} \operatorname{EXP}-\left(\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{t}}+\mathrm{M}\right)$

Of these remaining animals, the sexually mature individuals then reproduce.

During construction of the model, it was necessary to elucidate a homeostatic mechanism that would equilibrate the seal population with the carrying capacity of its environment (McLaren 1967). A series of maturity ogives which respond to population density were described by Sergeant (1966, 1973). These maturity ogives, differing somewhat between the Gulf and Front, were amalgamated and assumed to represent the reproductive state of western Atlantic harp seals for a given population size. The total population size of $1+$ seals was determined from cohort analysis (Table 1) for the appropriate years in which Sergeant's data applied. The ogives were then plotted on "probit" paper and lines were fitted by eye, giving more weight to points closer to the $50 \%$ maturity level. Values were then interpolated for each age from these lines, under the assumption they represented the best fit of the data. shese interpolated values were used to determine the following equation (Fig. 4):
(9) ARC sine $i_{i} M_{t}=20.61 A-10.23 N_{t}-21.27$
where ${ }_{i}{ }^{M} t$ is the proportion of the population mature for a particular age $i$ and population number $N_{t} \times 10^{-6}$ in year $t$, and $A$ is age in years. This model provides for density-dependent maturity, which was assumed to be linear over varying population densities, since no information was available to indicate otherwise. This probability was applied to the females in the population, assuming a sex ratio of 1:1 (Fisher 1952).

No animals less than 3 years of age were allowed to produce pups. Since the shift in the maturity ogive is linear in response to population density, the model is probably over optimistic at low population sizes. For our purposes, each mature female was assumed to produce a pup on an annual basis (A11en 1975).

The simulation was allowed to run for 100 years which was sufficient time to allow the population to stabilize. The implicit time unit of the clock was years, this unit of time being updated immediately following reproduction.

The simulation was used to generate a relationship between the number of $1+$ seals and pup production (Fig. 5). The logarithmic relationship agreed well with the values generated previously by the sequential population analysis (Table 1). Harp seals aged $1+$ were included in this relationship since the younger year-classes may compete with adult seals for available food, although only the older, mature stock is responsible for reproduction.

The maximum size to which the unexploited population grew in the model was $\approx 4.2$ million seals. At this point, the birth rate balanced the rate of natural mortality. As the population increased in size, the rate of pup production declined. This was caused by the linear shift in the maturity ogives (Fig. 4). coupled with the exponential increase in the numbers at age. The maximum population size attained in the model was very similar to the size of the 1952 population derived from cohort analysis (Fig. 5).

The effect of various hunting strategies was tested in the model. Any hunting on seals aged $1+$ had a devastating effect on population numbers. For example, the equilibrium level for the unexploited population ( 4.2 million seals), was reduced to a level of $\approx 83,000$ seals in the equilibrium condition by a small hunting effort on $1+$ seals of $F_{a}=0.075$. In reality, hunting mortalities were much higher on $1+$ seals, and the seal population never reached an equilibrium condition, but only showed a continual decline. Consequently, without a simulation model it is extremely difficult to visualize the long-term effects of exploitation, since it usually takes the seal population over 100 years to reach an equilibrium condition.

If only pups, i.e., the young of the year, are hunted, the calculated maximum sustainable yield (MSY) is highest when the catch of adults is zero (Fig. 7). This MSY of $\approx 84,000$ pups occurs at a hunting mortality $\left(F_{p}\right)$ of 0.2 which is far below past levels. Between 1952 and 1974 the hunting mortality on pups was never below 0.25 , although it was as high as 1.19 , in 1971. With the reduction of sealing activities in the Gulf of St. Lawrence in 1972, the level of hunting mortality dropped to 0.57 , still well above that which leads to maximum sustainable yield. At the MSY level, the foppulation of seals required is $\approx 1.8 \times 10^{6}$, almost three times its present level.

As the hunting mortality on $1+$ seals increases, the maximum sustainable yield of pups declines in conjunction with a decline in the optimum level of hunting mortality for pups (Fig. 6). This shift in the optimum level of hunting is quite dramatic. The MSY for pups of $\approx 84,000$ at $F_{p}=0.2$ with no hunting of $1+$ seals drops to a sustainable yield of ${ }^{p}=30,000, F_{p}=0.1$; with a hunting mortality on $1+$ seals as low as $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{a}}=0.025$. Pup production drops simultaneously from $\approx 511,000$ to $\approx 340,000$.

## DISCUSSION

Sealing regulations began to evolve slowly with the resumption of Norwegian sealing efforts in 1946. Initially, opening and closing dates were established for the hunt, and adult females were protected while on whelping patches (Anon. 1972a). The Norwegians stopped sealing in the Gulf in 1965 and, in 1966, sealing on the Front came under the jurisdiction of ICNAF. The season was then shortened and a quota system introduced (Anon. 1972a) for the first time. Finally, in 1971, Canada and Norway signed a formal agreement regarding sealing activities and the conservation of seal stocks in the northwest Atlantic (Anon. 1972a).

The heavy and persistent exploitation of harp seals in the western Atlantic has been well documented in recent years. Nearly 10 million harp seals are known to have been harvested from this population between 1895 and 1946 (Fisher 1955) and another 5.3 million were taken between 1947 and 1964 (Department of Fisheries of Canada 1968; Øritsland 1967). In 1965, the Government of Canada imposed a quota of 50,000 seals on the Gulf of St. Lawrence (Mansfield 1967) and in 1972, Canada and Norway agreed to equally share a quota of 120,000 harp seals on the Front, with an additional estimated catch of 30,000 to the shore-based "fishery" (landsmen) operating along the east coast of Canada from the Magdalen Islands north to northern Labrador (Anon. 1972a), with an additional known catch of 10,000 to the aboriginal hunt in Davis Strait. Between 1965 and 1974, another $\mathbf{2 . 3}$ million harp seals were taken by sealers in the western Atlantic (Department of Fisheries 1968; Department of the Environment 1975; 申rits1and 1967, 1969, 1970, 1971b, 1972, 1973). The flexibility of the present allottment system for landsmen was demonstrated in 1975 when their take alone exceeded 50,000, and the total kill of harp seals was in excess of 170,000 animals. None of these catch statistics include sealing activities which take place after the harp seal leaves the breeding and moulting areas and heads northward to spend the summer in the Arctic. Here, it is subjected to further sealing activities by native peoples along the east coast of Canada and in the Canadian Arceic. In addition, Greenland (Denmark) has a summer industry which at one time took an average of 50,000 harp seals per year (Fisher 1955). Greenland catches have been on the decline for the past 20 years, ranging from 15,000 to 20,000 during the early $1950^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{s}$, 16,000 to 18,000 between 1956 and 1965, dropping to between 4,000 and 7,000 animals in recent years (Kapel 1973, 1975). Thus, hunting of seals, though varied in approach, is continuous throughout the year along the complete length of the seal's migratory pathway (Anon. 1972b).

In conducting a population assessment, the critical parameter, and one of the most difficult to accurately assess, is the level of natural mortality. Our estimate of the instantaneous rate of natural mortality for western Atlantic harp seals was $0.21 \pm 0.11$ ( 2.2 S.E.), i.e., an average annual mortality rate of 19\%. This represents an average mortality rate for all age groups, since data are not now available to provide agespecific natural mortality rates for harp seals. This rate is higher than previous estimates of harp seal natural mortality. Fisher (1952) suggested that natural mortality for harp seals during the 1940's was probably not more than 15\%. Allen (1975) used a rate of 0.08, while Benjaminsen and Øritsiand (1975) assumed rates of 0.12 and 0.13 . Our mean estimate does fall within the $10-20 \%$ mortality level arrived at by the Committee on Seals and Sealing (Anon. 1972b).

In general, there is a paucity of information on rates of natural mortality for pinnipeds. Our estimate, however, is rather similar to the few estimates of natural mortality which were calculated for other species. For example, Chapman (1961) calculated annual natural mortality in northern fur seals, Callorhinus urainus, in 1958, 1959, and 1960, to be 0.18, 0.20 , and 0.25 , respectively (mean, 0.21). Annual mortality rates for Weddell seals, Leptonyohotes weddelli, were estimated at 0.17 for females and 0.24 for males (Stirling 1971), i.e., a mean annual natural mortality rate for adult Weddell seals of 0.21 . Annual mortality rates for ringed seals Phoca hispida, in the Canadian Arctic, and for harbour seals, phoca vitulina richardi, on Canada's west coast were estimated at about 0.17 (Smith 1973) and 0.20 (Bigg 1969), respectively. The latter two figures, however, include some hunting mortality. These mortality figures are all of the same order of magnitude, represented by the instantaneous rate of natural mortality of 0.20 found in many fish populations (Beverton and Holt 1957). By comparison, female Himalayan thar, Hemitragus jemlahicus, studied by Caughley (1966) have an annual natural mortality rate of 0.25 .

From a knowledge of the natural mortality rate, it is possible to calculate other populations characteristics. For example, using the equation given by Caughley (1966), mean life expectancy at birth for harp seals in the unexploited condition is only 4.76 years, even though the maximum life span would appear to be about 25 to 30 years (Fisher 1955; Sergeant 1971; Øritsland 1971a).

The use of an instantaneous rate of natural mortality is nevertheless a compromise in the absence of age-specific natural mortalities. It assumes that natural mortality takes place at a constant rate throughout the life span of the population. There is good evidence, however, that natural mortality in some mamals is initially higher in young animals, declining with age, and later increasing again after maturity is reached (Caughley 1966). This may not, however, be the case for all mammals, and does not appear to apply to all pinniped species. Bigg (1969) found that young harbour seals did not suffer appreciably higher mortality than older year-classes. Similarly, natural mortality in northern fur seals was found to be actually lower in young animals than older year-classes (Chapman 1961). It must be noted that natural mortality may be a density-dependent characteristic of a population which may change over time. Age-specific natural mortality may increase in earlier ages at high population levels, especially in some social species such as fur seals, sea lions, grey seals, Haliohoerue grypus, and elephant seals, Mirounga sp., where young may be crushed and killed in densely populated rookeries. Similarly, natural mortality rates of older animals may increase under these conditions, because of intraspecific competition for territories and limited food supplies.

Cohort analysis utilizes an estimate of the instantaneous rate of natural mortality, and catch data for specific age classes over the time sequence for which such data are available. When this type of analysis is applied to fish populations, it is not possible to truly validate the results in quantitative terms. A mammalian population, such as the harp seal, studied over a number of years, provides an opportunity to compare the findings, both qualitatively with what is known about the species' biology in general, and quantitatively with previous estimates of population size and annual production.

In the early 1950's sisher (1955) estimated that the population of harp seals in the western Atlantic numbered about 3.3 million animals, and estimated annual production to be 645,000 seals. The present cohort analysis produced a population estimate for 1952 of 4.2 million seals aged one and older, with production of about 970,000 . Fisher's (1955) estimates, however, were based on aerial survey data using black and white photography. Recently, this has been found to underestimate the number of white-coated pups on ice and show by as much as $48 \%$ because of the lack of contrast between tie animal and its background (Lavigne and Ronald 1975). It seems, on this basis alone, that Fisher's results may have underestimated production, and thus the total population numbers. Fisher (1955) also noted other possible sources of error in his estimates.

Regardless, Sergeant (1975d) concluded that the population in the early 1950's was near its asymptotic stock size. Our model supports this view, suggesting a maximum stock size under the carrying capacity existing during 1952-1975 of about 4.2 million seals, the 1952 population estimate from cohort analysis.

Furthermore, Sergeant and Fisher (1960) suggested that between 1950 and $1960^{\prime}$ the population was virtually cut in half. This, again is supported by the cohort analysis, the population declining from 4.2 million to 1.9 million seals. Similarly, Oritsland (1971a) concluded that the harp seal population declined by $60 \%$ during the period 1955 to 1970. The present cohort analysis suggests that the decline during tinis period was in the order of $75 \%$.

The drastic reduction in sealing activities between 1939 and 1946, with no sealing in 1943, is reflected in the present analysis by the strong cohorts in the 1952 population between the ages of 6 and 13. It is also evident that these strong yearclasses maintained the stock for some time (Table 1).

Estimates of annual production of western Atlantic harp seals during the period 1950-1975 have been made using a variety of techniques. These include estimates made from aerial surveys of whelping and moulting seals, capture-recapture experiments, and greatest catch (Sergeant 1975c), catch and survival estimates (Sergeant 1975c; Benjaminsen and Øritsland 1975), and recently from an aerial census using ultraviolet photography (Lavigne et al. 1975). Comparison of these estimates with those obtained from cohort analysis indicate that the latter provides higher estimates than the techniques used previously (Fig. 8).

Underestimates of annual production by photographic surveys may be attributed to the techniques used and the problems of conducting an aerial census (Fisher 1955; Sergeant 1975c, 1975d; Lavigne and Ronald 1975). The differences between our estimates and previous calculations (e.g. Sergeant 1975c; Benjaminsen and Øritsland 1975) are more difficult to explain, but may be due to the smaller, and perhaps more biased, samples used by these authors. Despite the differences, both sources of estimates for annual production indicate similar declining trends and, in fact, at the present time (1970-1975) the differences are only of an academic nature with respect to management considerations. The trend is clear. Extrapolation of either trend, which must occur if current management strategies are continued, leads to zero production in the near future.

The most recent aerial census, incorporating ultraviolet photography to detect pups (Lavigne and Øritsland 1974; Lavigne and Ronald 1975), suggests that pup production was probably less than 200,000 in 1975 (Lavigne et al. 1975). The present analysis produced a similar figure, $\approx 216,000$, and indicated that the total western Atlantic population of harp seals now numbers less than one million animals (Table 1).

Our results support the view, expressed by many in recent years, that the harp seal cannot sustain present levels of exploitation. A number of conservationists and humane groups have actively campaigned to have harp seal hunting reduced to sustainable yield levels or abolished completely (Pimlott 1966; Lust 1967; Davies 1970; Amory 1971; Regenstein 1975). A number of others have expressed concern over the continued exploitation of the harp seal (Anon. 1972a; Breummer 1975; Lavigne et al. 1975).

The Special Advisory Committee on Seals and Sealing made recommendation fora 6-year moratorium based in part on the results of a life table model for the harp seal, produced in 1971 (Allen 1975). Allen also recommended a reduction in annual harvest to stop declining trend in population numbers. The results of the Allen model were, however, somewhat more optimistic than the results of the present amalysis. The reasons for these differences are obvious. Allen's model assumes a natural mortality rate of only $8 \%$ per annum, much lower than the observed mortality rates for the few pinniped species for which comparable data exist, and less than half our calculated level of natural mortality for harp seals. In addition, the Allen model has no density-dependent self-regulating mechanisms. If unexploited, the population expands indefinitely, never reaching equilibrium with the carrying capacity of the environment.

It should be stressed thet the present model may still be on the conservative side in its predictions. Every mature female in the population, determined by the oscillating maturity ogive in response to population size, was permitted to produce a pup. In reality, only about $90 \%$ of mature females produce pups (Sergeant 1971; Øritsland 1971a). Our estimates, both of total population numbers and annual production are higher than
previous estimates throughout the period under consideration. Annual production in 1975 may thus have been less than 200,000 animals as indicated by an aerial census (Lavigne et al. 1975).

In contrast with these views, fishermen may wish to escalate the hunt to further reduce a seal population that damages fishing gear and competes with them for common food resources such as herring, clupea harengus, cod, Gadus morhua, and capelin, Mallotus villosus (Fisheries Council of Canada 1974, 1975). In addition, sealers are naturally anxious to preserve what they believe to be their traditional right to harvest a renewable natural resource. A recent analysis has, in fact, suggested that the sustainable yield of harp seals in the western Atlantic is higher than previously believed and recommended a take of 200,000 seals in 1976 (Benjaminsen and $\emptyset r i t s l a n d$ 1975).

The population numbers in the early days of the hunt may have been considerably higher than the present calculated maximum population size of 4.2 million animals. There is a suggestion that the carrying capacity of the environment has been reduced during this period. It would also appear that the harp seal in the western Atlantic, like many other exploited populations (Gulland 1971), would have been exterminated by the present time except for the ability of the population to respond and compensate for declining numbers by increasing their reproductive potential (Sergeant 1966, 1973). At the present time, it would appear that this response, the early maturation of animals, has probably reached a limit. The population will probably be unable to respond any further in this way as population numbprs continue to decline. The severity of the present situation may be attributed in part to the continued practice of taking substantial numbers of adult seals each year. In the early 1950's, Fisher (1952, 1955) warned that continued exploitation of older animals would lead to a dramatic decline in population numbers, and recommended that, if the hunt continued, it should concentrate on taking young-of-the-year. Our results suggest that, to maximizeyield, in terms of the numbers of seals taken, the exploitation rate on pups alone should be in the order of 17\% at the MSY population level, considerably less than the $30 \%$ to $45 \%$ suggested by Sergeant (1975d), but in much better agreement with Ricker's (1975b) estimate of 20\%. Any exploitation of seals aged $1+$ has a drastic effect on resultant equilibrium population size. If older animals are included in the catch, the number of pups taken must be reduced significantly (Fig. 9A, B), or the population will inevitably decline.

In summary, management of harp seal stocks in the western Atlantic has failed to protect and conserve a renewable natural resource, and to ensure sustained yields to support an historical sealing industry. Some attempt is now needed to discern the prospects for future management. With this in mind, the simulation was modified so that a specific number of pups could be removed, consistent with the present quota system of management, and hunting mortality on $1+$ seals was kept low (0.016) to approximate the incidental catch of native hunters only. The starting population was that represented by cohort analysis in 1975, and $M$ was held at 0.21 . When 150,000 pups were removed, the population reached extinction by 2,004 ; furthermore, with only 100,000 pups removed annually, it became extinct by approximately the same time (Fig. 9A). When only 50,000 were killed, the population still declined rapidly and was extinct by approximately 2015. With the removal of only 10,000 pups, the population began to build up slowly. With no pup hunt or incidental catch, the population expanded at $2 \%$ per year. At this rate, the population required $\approx 40$ years to reach the MSY level. With only the incidentaincatch $\left(F_{A}=0.016\right)$ it would take $\approx 65$ years to reach an MSY popu filion size.

If the hunting on adults is completely stopped, allowing for some aboriginal catch, the natural mortality used to predict future prospects possibly is as low as 0.16 because of no wounding mortality. In this case, the catch of 50,000 pups leads to a very slow decline in population with a catch of adults of 0.016 (Fig. 9B). When the pup catch is 10,000 the populations builds up at $4 \%$ per year; no pup catch results in a population build-up at $5 \%$ per year. The MSY level of population is reached by the year 2000, demonstrating that hunting must be stopped at the bare minimum for 25 years. In addition, it is necessary to point out that natural mortality may be densitydependent (Sergeant 1966) and, in this case, at low population sizes, natural mortality may decline, allowing for a more rapid build-up of the population. However, small changes in natural mortality resulting from density dependence would never be sufficient to rehabilitate the population at present levels of exploitation.

The continued decline of the present breeding population for the next few years is inevitable. The low escapement of pups in recent years will be insufficient to merely replace losses through natural mortality. If we have learned anything from the depletion of other marine mammal stocks (Gulland 1971; Scheville 1975), the only viable management recommendation at the present time is to abolish all harp seal hunting, excepting perhaps the aboriginal summer hunt in the eastern Canadian Arctic and off western Greenland.

In the future, continued assessments should be made to provide more data to validate the model and to ensure continued protection of this natural resource. If any future hunting of the population is permitted, it should be restricted to pups only, and be held within conservative sustainable yield predictions based on the best data available at the time.

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Table 1．The top matrix of numbers represents the catch at age of harp seals between 1952 and 1975．Cohort
starting hunting mortality，$F$ ，for 1975 was 0.033 ，while natural mortality，$M$ ，was 0.21 ．The asterisk（ ${ }^{*}$ ）
beside 1971－75 indicates the pup production was estimated by the use of a density dependent maturity ogive． starting hunting mortality，$F$ ，for 1975 was 0.033 ，while natural mortality，$M$ ，was 0.21 ．
beside $1971-75$ indicates the pup production was estimated by the use of a density depend analysis（Pope 1972）was applied to this data to yield the numbers at age in the bottom E $E$

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Figure 1. The relationship between effective effort ( $\mathrm{E} / \mathrm{N}$ ) and the total mortality (2). The intercept value of 0.161 is probably a minimum estimate of natural mortality (M) due to a bias resulting from a systematic drop in instantaneous rate of recruitment of 0.052 .


Figure 2. The decline in harp seal (Pagophilus groenlandicus) numbers in the western Atlantic between 1952 and


Figure 3. Basic flow chart of a model representing the western Atlantic harp seal (Pagophilus groenlandicus) population. Both the Gulf and Front herds were considered to be one population.

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Figure 4. The shift in the maturity ogives of female harp seals, Pagophilus groenlandicus, in relation to population density. No female seal less than 3 years of age was permitted to produce an offspring in the model.


Figure 5. A comparison of the simulated and predicted
pup production from cohort analysis in
relation to the number of seals aged one and over.


Figure 6. The response of equilibrium pup catch to varying levels of hunting mortality on both pups and adults.


Figure 7. Maximum equilibrium pup catch occurs when there is no hunting on adults and a hunting mortality (F) of 0.2 on pups. This sustains a catch of 83,000 pups from a population of $a 1.7 \mathrm{million}$ pup production. pup production.


Figure 8. Annual production of western Atlantic harp seals, Pagophilus groenlandicus, estimated by aerial survey, capture-recapture experiments, greatest catch, and catch and survival estimates (Sergeant 1975a) 0, by survival estimates (Benjaminsen and Øritsland 1975) $\Delta$, by aerial censusing using ultravoilet photographyo, with error bars designating $95 \%$ confidence intervals, and by cohort analysis



Figure 9. Estimated rates of recovery of western Atlantic harp seals, Pagophilus groentandicus, for different management strategies, based on the 1975 population size predicted from cohort analysis. FA is the hunting mortality
G 9 on $1+$ seals, representing the approximate aboriginal catch in the eastern Canadian Arctic and western Greenland during the summer. Figure 9A assumes a natural mortality of 0.21 , while $9 B$ assumes a rate of 0.16 .


[^0]:    ${ }^{\text {a }}$ 1957-1958, 1958-1959 produced low estinates (Z) for the highest estimates of effort observed; then the calculation of efforts was considered in error.
    $b_{\text {no }}$ estimate from percentage composition data, comparison of CUE's used.
    c 1971-1972, no positive estimates ( $Z$ ) were obtained from either

[^1]:    Significant at P s 0.05

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Significant at $P \leq 0.05$

