Marine Mammal Science



MARINE MAMMAL SCIENCE, 32(3): 931–944 (July 2016)

© 2016 Society for Marine Mammalogy

DOI: 10.1111/mms.12308

Short-term survival of Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) pups: Investigating the effect of health status on survival

GREY W. PENDLETON¹ and KELLY K. HASTINGS, Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Division of Wildlife Conservation, PO Box 115526, Juneau, Alaska 99811-5526, U.S.A; LORRIE D. REA, Institute of Northern Engineering, Water and Environmental Research Center, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, Alaska 99775, U.S.A; LAURI A. JEMISON, Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Division of Wildlife Conservation, PO Box 1030, Dillingham, Alaska 99576, U.S.A; GREG M. O'CORRY-CROWE, Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute, Florida Atlantic University, 5600 U.S. 1 North, Fort Pierce, Florida 34946, U.S.A; KIMBERLEE B. BECKMEN, Alaska Department of Fish and Game, Division of Wildlife Conservation, 1300 College Road, Fairbanks, Alaska 99701, U.S.A.

ABSTRACT

We estimated survival probabilities for Steller sea lion (Eumetopias jubatus) pups from 3 wk to 6 wk old and from 6 wk to 1 yr at three rookeries in southeastern Alaska. We also investigated the effect of mass, body condition, health variables, and the genetic origin on 3-6 wk survival. Survival differed substantially among rookeries and between sexes, with survival lowest at Hazy Islands, intermediate at White Sisters, and highest at Graves Rocks and survival lower for males than females. Body mass, body condition, and hematocrit were positively related to survival and blood %H₂O and haptoglobin level (for females; no relationship for males) were negatively related to survival. Taking predictor variables collectively, sea lion pups at Hazy Islands, which had the lowest survival probability, had the lowest mass, hematocrit, and hemoglobin, and had high levels of blood %H₂O, and hookworm infection. Values from Graves Rocks, which had the highest survival, were the opposite of those from Hazy Island (e.g., high mass, body condition, hematocrit, and hemoglobin), while those from White Sisters (intermediate survival) had varying means (e.g., high hematocrit and hemoglobin and low hookworms, but also low body condition); these patterns suggest that physiological factors potentially underlie rookery differences in survival.

Key words: Steller sea lion, *Eumetopius jubatus*, survival, pup, physiology, health, Alaska, branding, mark-resight.

Based on differing population trends and genetics (Bickham et al. 1996, Loughlin 1997), the National Marine Fisheries Service classifies the Steller sea lion (SSL; Eumetopias jubatus) in the United States into two Distinct Population Segments (DPS), Eastern (EDPS) and Western (WDPS) with the division at 144°W longitude. The SSL population of the WDPS (e.g., Prince William Sound, central and western Gulf of Alaska, Bering Sea, Aleutian Islands) is listed as "endangered" under the U.S.

¹Corresponding author (e-mail: grey.pendleton@alaska.gov).

Endangered Species Act (U.S. Federal Register 1997) due to a large population decline, that likely began in the late 1970s (Braham et al. 1980, Merrick et al. 1987, Trites and Larkin 1996, Fritz et al. 2013). In contrast, the SSL population in the EDPS (southeastern Alaska south through California) was initially listed as "threatened," but subsequently was removed from the U.S. Endangered Species List in December 2013 (U.S. Federal Register 2013) after verification of sustained population growth (Calkins et al. 1999, Pitcher et al. 2007, Mathews et al. 2011).

SSLs have been the focus of many studies during the past ~30 yr in an effort to understand these differing population trajectories, including studies that have estimated age-specific survival probabilities (York 1994, Pendleton *et al.* 2006, Hastings *et al.* 2011, Fritz *et al.* 2014, Maniscalco 2014). However, fewer studies have estimated survival of very young (*i.e.*, <1 yr) SSLs in Alaska (Maniscalco *et al.* 2008, Kaplan *et al.* 2008, Hastings *et al.* 2009) or examined effects of marking operations on pup survival (Hastings *et al.* 2009).

A number of factors (*e.g.*, health, body condition, weather) can affect both short-and long-term survival of SSL pups (Maniscalco *et al.* 2008; Hastings *et al.* 2009, 2011; Maniscalco 2014). Physiological parameters (*i.e.*, blood chemistry, hematology) have been used previously to determine whether SSL pups showed evidence of poor health or starvation (Castellini *et al.* 1993, Rea 1995, Rea *et al.* 1998, Lander *et al.* 2013). Haptoglobin (Hp) concentrations are positively correlated with white blood cell counts and serum globulin levels in SSLs and a sensitive indicator of inflammation response (Thomton and Mellish 2007), and thus could be an index of general health status (Zenteno-Savin *et al.* 1997). Other than mass and a rough condition index measured at branding (Hastings *et al.* 2009, 2011; Maniscalco 2014), the effects of physiological factors and genetic origin on SSL survival have not been previously studied and have rarely been studied in any pinniped. Pup body mass has been shown to be a predictor of survival for the first 1–2 yr (Hastings *et al.* 2011, Maniscalco 2014), but the association was equivocal in one study of survival of very young SSLs (Hastings *et al.* 2009).

In this study, we estimate survival probabilities of SSL pups from branding to 3 wk postbranding (~6 wk old) and from 6 wk to 1 yr to provide more fine-scale information on population processes during the first year of life. We also evaluate the relationships between early pup survival probability and mass, body condition, physiological indices of pup health, and genetic stock of origin.

METHODS

Field

In June 2005, SSL pups were captured at their natal rookeries at approximately 3 wk of age at three of the four rookeries in southeastern Alaska: Hazy Islands (HI), White Sisters (WS), and Graves Rocks (GR) (see Pitcher *et al.* 2007 and Hastings *et al.* 2011 for descriptions of locations). Pups were captured by hand in hoop nets, anesthetized using isofluorane gas (Heath *et al.* 1996), weighed using a hanging load cell, and measured (*i.e.*, standard length, axillary girth). Pups with masses >20 kg were hot-branded (Merrick *et al.* 1996) with individually unique letter-number combinations, and a skin-punch sample was collected from an interdigital web of the hind flipper for genetic analyses; skin samples were immediately placed in 90% ethanol. For a subset of the branded pups from each rookery, blood samples were collected

from the caudal gluteal vein. More detailed descriptions of pup handling, sampling, and marking procedures are described by Hastings *et al.* (2009, 2011), Lander *et al.* (2013), and O'Corry-Crowe *et al.* (2014).

Approximately 3 wk after the marking operation, we surveyed each of the three rookeries 5–6 times over 3–4 d periods, photographing each branded pup seen. In subsequent years (2006–2009), we conducted annual surveys of SSL rookeries and haul-outs in southeastern Alaska between mid-May and late July with more intense effort (~6 surveys/summer) at rookeries (Hastings *et al.* 2009, 2011; Jemison *et al.* 2013). Photographs of branded SSLs were taken from skiffs and from land; additional photographs of branded SSLs from the U.S.-Canadian SSL range (*i.e.*, Oregon to the Bering Sea) were provided by other research groups, agencies, and individuals. We only used observations of branded animals in analyses if identity was photographically confirmed.

Physiology

Blood samples were collected in tubes containing ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) or sodium heparin and were kept chilled for up to 6 h at pup capture sites until returned to the larger work vessel for processing. Hematocrit (Hct) was measured using a microhematocrit centrifuge, and hemoglobin (Hb) concentration was measured spectrophotometrically (Lander *et al.* 2013). Water content (%H₂O) and specific gravity (SG) of the heparinized plasma were measured as described by Castellini *et al.* (1993). Concentrations of blood urea nitrogen (BUN, mM/L), nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA, mM/L), and β -hydroxybutyrate (β -HBA, mM/L) were measured in heparinized plasma using commercially available assay kits (Rea *et al.* 1998). Haptoglobin (Hp, mg/mL) concentration was measured in heparinized plasma using a Phase Haptoglobin Colorimetric Assay with a SpectraMax 340PC plate reader. The assay was incubated 10 min at 30°C in triplicate against a standard curve 0–2 mg/mL, and samples were diluted if concentrations were above 1.75 mg/mL.

Parasites

Determination of hookworm infection was based on fecal samples collected from the rectums of a sample of pups at each rookery (Beckmen and Hughes 2006: appendix 1). The standard McMaster method (Henrikson and Aagaard 1976) was used to quantify the number of hookworm eggs/g in formalin-preserved fecal samples (Beckmen and Hughes 2006: appendix 1). No additional parasite samples were collected from pups in this study.

Genetics

Two rookeries, WS and GR, in the Eastern DPS, have breeding females genetically originating from each of the DPSs (Jemison *et al.* 2013, O'Corry-Crowe *et al.* 2014). That is, some SSL females, or one of their direct-line female ancestors, immigrated from the WDPS range to breed in the EDPS range. Using genetic samples from pups branded at GR, we determined mitochondrial DNA haplotypes and assigned maternal stock of origin as described by O'Corry-Crowe *et al.* (2006, 2014).

All data used for this paper, including resight observations, blood chemistry and physiology, and hookworm loads, were collected for a variety of independent studies and used opportunistically in our analyses. Consequently, the design of the study

(e.g., balanced samples, all relevant covariates measured) was not optimal with respect to definitively investigating all factors that affect early SSL pup mortality, as a study designed expressly for such a purpose would have had. But our analyses provide an initial attempt at elucidating such factors, given the available data; additional data might reveal other factors affecting SSL survival or improve estimated relationships for the variables we investigated, leading to clearer understanding of health-survival mechanisms.

Analyses

We constructed "capture" histories for each marked SSL using data from 2005 to 2009. To analyze these capture histories, we used robust design mark-resight models (Kendall et al. 1995, Williams et al. 2001) to estimate survival (\$\phi\$) and sighting (\$p\$) probabilities for the branded SSL pups. There were six primary "occasions" (hereafter "age"): branding (age ~3 wk, initial release), approximately 3 wk postbranding (age 6 wk), and at 1, 2, 3, and 4 yr. We will reference p by age and ϕ , which is survival between two ages, by the ending age (e.g., survival between branding at ~3 wk and sighting at 6 wk will be referred to as survival age-6-wk, survival from 6 wk to 52 wk is survival age-52-wk, and survival from ~3 wk to 52 wk is age-1-yr). Only the second primary occasion, age-6-wk, had true secondary capture occasions (hereafter "pup surveys"), six at HI, and five each at WS and GR. It is important to include observations of animals older than 1 yr to avoid bias in survival estimates caused by movement of branded pups (with their mothers) away from the rookery of branding (Hastings et al. 2009). Before investigating the effects of morphometric, health, and genetic variables, we modeled ϕ and p as functions of rookery, sex, age, and pup survey (p only). To reduce the number of models considered, we began with our most complex model and simplified the parameters sequentially, first considering 15 models for p, then 17 models for ϕ for each of the top two models of p (34 total, Table 1). Second, using the best model from the first series of models, we fit 14 series of eight additional models for ϕ ; each series included the effect of one covariate on ϕ age-6wk. The individual covariates, measured at branding, were mass, two condition indices (condition 1 [100*axial girth/curvilinear length], condition 2 [the residual from the regression of mass on curvilinear length]), eight hematology and blood chemistry variables (Hct, Hb, % H_2O , SG, BUN, NEFA, β -HBA, Hp), two measures of hookworm parasitization (egg abundance [hkwrm], presence/absence [hkwrm_pa]), and a genetically-based DPS assignment (i.e., EDPS or WDPS) for GR pups only. In these models, ϕ could be a function of rookery, sex, or age, in addition to the covariate (Table 2); covariates were allowed to vary by sex (e.g., ϕ -mass slopes could differ between sexes). We included covariate models that did not include rookery or sex as predictors to investigate whether "rookery" or "sex" effects were actually caused by other factors (e.g., health variables) that differed among rookeries. All of the individual covariates except mass and the condition indices were measured on only a sample (i.e., 9%-21%) of the pups. To include covariates that had missing values in the models, we centered variable values (i.e., subtracted the mean) and created indicator variables, one for each variable, which were 1 if we had a value for that variable and 0 if we did not. We then included the covariates as interactions of the centered covariate and the appropriate indicator variable (i.e., a partial interaction model). Two of the variables had skewed distributions (hkwrm, Hp), so we transformed the variables to natural logarithms prior to analyses to be consistent with our among-rookery comparison of mean covariate values.

Table 1. Model selection results for parameters p and ϕ (without covariates). ϕ -models were fit using the top two p parameterizations. Bold type model names and AICc weights indicate top-ranked models for each variable.

			AICc	weight
P models	AICc weight ^a	ϕ Models	with p(ra)	with p(rao)
Constant	0	Constant	0	0
Rookery	0	Rookery	0	0
Sex	0	Sex	0	0
Age	0.11	Age	0	0
rookery*age	0.07	age234 ^b	0	0
rookery+age	0.25	rookery+sex	0	0
[model $p(ra)$]				
sex*age	0.13	rookery*sex	0	0
sex+age	0.04	rookery+age	0.05	0.04
age*pup survey	0	rookery*age234	0	0
age+pup survey	0.08	rookery+age234	0	0
rookery+(age*pup survey)	0	sex*age	0	0
rookery+age+pup	0.28	sex+age	0	0
survey [model p(rao)]				
sex+(age*pup survey)	0	sex*age234	0	0
sex+age+pup survey	0.03	sex+age234	0	0
rookery+sex+(age*pup survey)	0	rookery+sex+age	0.50	0.40
•		rookery+sex+age234	0.01	0.01
		rookery*sex*age	0	0

^aAICc weights are within parameters.

We used program MARK (White and Burnham 1999) with the RMark interface (Laake 2013) to fit models and calculate estimates. Because there are no goodness-of-fit procedures available for robust design models, we used the median \hat{c} method (Cooch and White 2014) to evaluate a CJS model equivalent to our most complex model (p[rookery+sex+age], ϕ [rookery*sex*age]) to a simplified data set that pooled observations across pup surveys for age-6-wk. We ranked the models based on AICc weights (*i.e.*, the support for each model relative to the other models considered, Burnham and Anderson 2002). Final estimates were produced using model averaging (Burnham and Anderson 2002) of highly supported models that took into account uncertainty from model selection.

The mark-resight models produced interval survival estimates, from which we calculated additional estimates including age-1-yr survival and estimates scaled to 12 wk intervals for comparison with other studies (e.g., Hastings et al. 2009). Variances and confidence intervals of product and rescaled estimates were calculated using the delta method (Williams et al. 2001) with confidence intervals calculated on the natural log scale prior to transformation to the probability scale. We adjusted weekly age-6-wk survival estimates for the rookery-specific intervals between branding and resighting (HI: 21 d, WS: 22 d, GR: 17 d).

We used linear models to estimate means for the individual covariates and compare means among rookeries. For each variable, we fit five combinations of predictors:

^bModels with age234 estimate a common annual survival for ages 2–4.

Table 2. Model selection results for ϕ with covariates, compared to the best model (Table 1) for p and ϕ without covariates (i.e., base model). Bold type AICc weights indicate the top-ranked model for each covariate.

			A	AICc weight ^a			
Models fit	φ-mass	ϕ -cond. 1	ϕ -cond. 2	φ-Hct	$\phi ext{-Hb}$	φ-%H2O	ϕ -SG
Sample size of individuals	413	413	413	70	85	58	58
(HI/WS/GR) ^b	(223/147/43)	(223/147/43)	(223/147/43)	(26/29/15)	(35/31/19)	(20/20/18)	(20/20/18)
rookery+sex+age (base model)	0.01	0.58	0.45	0.41	0.65	0.42	0.48
ϕ -covariate models ^c							
rookery+sex+age+	0.71	0.24	0.35	0.24	0.24	0.37	0.30
(age-6-wk*covariate)							
rookery+sex+age+	0.26	0.14	0.16	0.31	60.0	0.15	0.18
(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)							
rookery+age+	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.03
(age-6-wk*covariate)							
rookery+age+	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)							
sex+age+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(age-6-wk*covariate)							
sex+age+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01
(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)							
							(Continued)

Table 2. (Continued)

				AICc weight $^{\rm a}$			
Models fit ϕ	ϕ -mass	ϕ -cond. 1	ϕ -cond. 2	ϕ -Hct	ϕ -Hp	φ-%H2O	ϕ -SG
age+(age-6-wk* covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
age+(age-6-wk* sex* covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
				AICc weight	π		
Models fit	ϕ -BUN	ϕ -NEFA	ϕ - β -HBA	$^{ m p}$ dH- ϕ	ϕ -hwkrm ^d	ϕ -hkwrm_p/a	φ-east-west
Sample size of individuals	81	80	81	(8)	(23/21/14)	75	36
rookery+sex+age (base model)	0.57	0.58	0.56	0.22	0.58	09:0	0.64
ϕ -covariate models	6	6		0	(,	(
rookery+sex+age+ (age-6-wk*covariate)	0.28	0.22	0.24	0.08	0.28	0.26	0.24
rookery+sex+age+	0.11	0.16	0.17	0.64	0.11	0.10	60.0
(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)							
rookery+age+(age-6-wk*covariate)	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.02
rookery+age+	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01
(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)							
sex+age+(age-6-wk*covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
sex+age+(age-6-wk*sex*covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
age+(age-6-wk*covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
age+(age-6-wk*sex* covariate)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

 $^{^{}a}$ AICc weights are within variables. b HI = Hazy Islands, WS = White Sisters, GR = Graves Rocks.

^cCovariate interactions contain an indicator variable (not listed) to account for missing data. ^dCovariate natural-log-transformed prior to analysis.

rookery*sex, rookery+sex, rookery, sex, mean (*i.e.*, intercept only). We selected the best model using AICc. Estimated means are marginal means (*i.e.*, SAS least-squares means, Littell *et al.* 2006), which adjust means and variances for other factors in the model. We evaluated differences among means by estimating the difference between means with a confidence interval on the differences. To account for highly skewed distributions, Hp concentrations and hookworm egg counts were transformed using natural logarithms; resulting means transformed back to the original scale are geometric means.

RESULTS

In 2005, 415 SSL pups were captured and branded: 225 at HI (223 used in the analyses), 147 at WS, and 43 at GR. Of these pups, 169 (64%) from HI were seen at least once after branding, compared with 113 (77%) from WS and 40 (93%) from GR.

We estimated $\hat{c}=1.22$ for our most complex CJS-equivalent model. Although this estimate is >1, it is not excessively so and is based on a simplified data set, consequently we did not adjust our results for lack of fit. Two models of p had very similar weight, with probabilities varying by rookery, age, and pup survey, or just by rookery and age (Table 1). We used the rookery+age+pup survey parameterization of p for evaluating ϕ models incorporating covariates. Sighting probability varied among pup surveys from 0.27 to 0.36 for HI and from 0.31 to 0.44 for the other two rookeries; estimates of annual p for ages 1–4 varied from 0.64 to 0.72 for HI and from 0.70 to 0.78 for GR and WS.

Survival probability, but not p, differed between sexes (Table 1). As expected from the results of Hastings et al. (2011), ϕ estimates varied among rookeries (Table 1) with estimates lowest at HI, highest at GR, and intermediate at WS (Table 3); sex and age effects on ϕ also were strongly supported. We also found that survival was lower for young pups (i.e., age-6-wk), increasing with age over the first year (Table 3).

Models with mass or Hp*sex effects on ϕ had higher AICc values than the base models (Table 2); for models containing condition 2, Hct, or $\%H_20$ effects, the sum of the AICc weights for the covariate and covariate*sex models also exceeded the base model AICc weight (Table 2). Mass, condition 2, and Hct were positively related to ϕ , while Hp (females only) and $\%H_20$ were negatively related to ϕ . There was no support for other covariates individually accounting for variation in ϕ (Table 2). However, sample sizes for covariates other than mass and condition were small, which does not invalidate the ϕ -covariate relationships we found, but potentially masks other patterns due to poor precision.

For the GR animals with genetic samples, 13 (6 F, 7 M) had EDPS mitochondrial haplotypes and 23 (11 F, 12 M) had WDPS haplotypes. Genetic stock of matrilineal origin was not a predictor of ϕ for this small sample (Table 2).

In the comparison of individual covariate means, "rookery" or "rookery*sex" models were the best-supported for all but two of the covariates, SG and NEFA (Table 4), but for some variables, differences between means were small and not biologically meaningful (e.g., condition 1). Means differed substantially among rookeries for several variables (Table 4). Pups from GR had high averages for mass, condition 2, Hct, and Hb (Table 4). Conversely, pups from HI had low averages for mass, Hct, and Hb, and high averages for %H₂O, Hp, and hookworms. Values for WS pups did not

Table 3. Estimates of period and weekly survival probabilities (95% CI) for Steller sea lion pups branded at three rookeries in southeastern Alaska. Ages assume that pups were approximately 3 wk old when branded.

			Period survival		Weekly survival ^a	
Rookery ^b	Sex	age-6-wk	age-52-wk	age-1-yr	age-6-wk	age-52-wk
HI	F	0.831	0.671	0.558	0.940	0.987
		(0.773-0.877)	(0.586 - 0.745)	(0.477 - 0.636)	(0.918-0.957)	(0.985-0.990)
	M	0.751	0.555	0.417	0.909	0.981
		(0.680 - 0.811)	(0.467 - 0.640)	(0.341 - 0.498)	(0.878 - 0.932)	(0.977 - 0.984)
WS	F	0.910	0.796	0.724	0.971	0.993
		(0.867 - 0.940)	(0.723-0.853)	(0.644 - 0.792)	(0.956-0.980)	(0.991-0.995)
	M	0.862	0.705	0.607	0.954	0.989
		(0.807-0.903)	(0.623-0.775)	(0.524-0.684)	(0.934 - 0.968)	(0.987-0.991)
GR	F	0.951	0.856	0.815	0.980	0.996
		(0.910 - 0.974)	(0.773-0.913)	(0.715-0.885)	(0.962 - 0.989)	(0.993-0.997)
	M	0.922	0.785	0.724	0.967	0.993
		(0.865–0.957)	(0.679-0.863)	(0.604-0.819)	(0.942-0.982)	(0.990-0.995)

^aWeekly survival estimates for age-6-wk are adjusted for the actual interval between branding and resighting (HI: 21 d, WS: 22 d, GR: 17 d).

Table 4. Mean values for morphometric, hematological, and parasite-related variables for Steller sea lion pups from three southeastern Alaska rookeries in 2005; means were adjusted for sex differences if sex was in the model. Models considered were rookery*sex, rookery+sex, rookery, sex, mean (i.e., no predictors). Means followed by the same letter have estimated differences whose 95% CI includes 0 (the estimated differences and their CIs are not shown).

Variable	Top model	HI ^a	WS ^a	GR ^a
mass (kg)	rookery*sex	26.7b (26.2, 27.2)	27.7a (27.0, 28.3)	29.0a (27.8, 30.2)
condition 1	rookery*sex	70.8a (70.4,71.2)	71.3a (70.4,72.3)	70.7a (70.2,71.2)
condition 2 (kg)	rookery*sex	0.07b (-0.23,0.38)	-0.60c (-0.99,-0.22)	1.31a (0.61,2.01)
Hct (%)	rookery*sex	31.6b (29.9, 33.4)	36.7a (35.1, 38.4)	36.4a (34.1, 38.7)
Hb (g/dl)	rookery*sex	11.2b (10.6, 11.7)	12.9a (12.4, 13.5)	12.9a (12.1, 13.6)
$%H_{2}O(%)$	Rookery	92. 9a (92.8,93.1)	92.5c (92.3,92.6)	92.7b (92.5,92.8)
SG (g/ml)	Mean	1.001a (1.0005,	1.001a (1.0005,1.0015)	1.001a (1.0005,1.0015)
		1.0015)		
BUN (mM/L)	rookery*sex	6.93a (5.68, 8.18)	6.40a (5.04, 7.76)	5.12a (3.41, 6.84)
NEFA (mM/L)	Mean	0.59a (0.52,0.65)	0.59a (0.52,0.65)	0.59a (0.52,0.65)
β -HBA (mM/L)	Rookery	0.25b (0.16, 0.34)	0.44a (0.35, 0.54)	0.22b (0.10, 0.34)
Hp ^b (mg/ml)	rookery*sex	2.70a (1.92,3.79)	1.46b (1.05,2.03)	2.18ab (1.47, 3.24)
hkwrm ^b (eggs/g)	rookery*sex	1.01a (0.27,3.78)	0.16b (0.05, 0.51)	0.52ab (0.09, 2.90)
hkwrm ^{b, c}		718 (188, 2752)	551 (45, 6696)	306 (47, 1970)
hkwrm_p/a ^d	Rookery	0.45a (0.29, 0.63)	0.09b (0.03, 0.25)	0.27ab (0.10, 0.53)

^aHI = Hazy Islands, WS = White Sisters, GR = Graves Rocks.

^bHI = Hazy Islands, WS = White Sisters, GR = Graves Rocks.

^bAnalyses performed on natural-log transformed data; means are geometric means.

^cMeans of nonzero observations.

^dPresence/absence of hookworms; estimates are proportion infected.

have as consistent a pattern (*i.e.*, high or low) across variables with high values for Hct and Hb and low values for hookworms and Hp, but they also had a high mean β -HBA and the lowest condition 2 (Table 4). Viewed as a whole, these variables suggest that pups from HI were on average in the poorest health, while those from GR and WS were much less so, paralleling the pattern of survival probability.

DISCUSSION

Other studies have shown that sex, rookery of origin, mass, and body condition affect annual survival of SSLs to 1 yr or older (Pendleton et al. 2006, Hastings et al. 2011, Fritz et al. 2014, Maniscalco 2014); this study shows that early pup survival, while pups were still on the natal rookery (i.e., age-6-wk), also was affected by these factors. In particular, lower survival of males than females, of smaller than larger pups, and lower survival of HI-born pups than WS and, especially, GR pups, as previously reported by Hastings et al. (2011), were also apparent at this very young age. These results provide more fine-scale information about first-year survival patterns. For example, Hastings et al. (2009) found no sex or age effects, and only weak support for a mass effect, on survival from 3 wk to 1 yr at Lowrie Island, part of the Forrester Island rookery (FI), the southernmost, oldest, and largest rookery in southeastern Alaska (3,060 pups in 2002, Pitcher et al. 2007). Similarly at a small rookery (~90 breeding animals) in the eastern Gulf of Alaska, Maniscalco et al. (2008) documented little variation in pup survival after 2 wk of age. Pup mortality can vary greatly among years (Maniscalco et al. 2008) and the 2005 cohort, which included all animals in our study, had the poorest survival to ages 1 and 2 yr compared with the four preceding year cohorts (Hastings et al. 2011). Therefore, particularly poor early survival at rookeries, relative to later survival during the first year, might have been especially apparent in our sample.

In addition to mass and body condition, our results suggest that health-related effects potentially affected early pup survival probability. Even with our small sample of pups with blood chemistry, hematology, and health-related measurements, we found evidence of reduced early survival based on Hct, %H20, and, for females, Hp. The association of Hp with female, but not male, survival was unexpected and should be verified with more samples. Also due to small samples, we only fit models where survival was a linear (on the logit scale) function of healthrelated covariates, rather than other, potentially more realistic, nonlinear or threshold functions (Lander et al. 2013), thus reducing our chances of detecting patterns. Other factors, including Hb and hookworm infection, that were not useful singly as predictors of individual survival varied in a manner consistent with rookery differences in survival probability. In particular, the lowest Hct, Hb, and body mass, coupled with the highest %H2O, Hp, and hookworm infection occurred in HI pups that had particularly low survival probabilities (Table 3, 4); mean Hct and Hb values for HI were at or below the lower threshold for the normal range reported for this species (Lander et al. 2014). HI is the largest and slowest growing rookery of the three in this study, and low survival probabilities and patterns in mean health covariate values are consistent with population crowding. The survival-health variable association is somewhat less clear for the other rookeries. GR and WS pups had equally high mass, Hct, and Hb means, but WS pups had low hookworm and Hp levels with GR intermediate for both of these. GR pups had high body condition and WS pups had low body condition, and WS pups had high β -HBA; survival was higher at GR than at WS. As with survival estimates for SSL ≥ 1 yr (Hastings *et al.* 2011), we found rookery effects still apparent even with strongly supported individual covariates in the models (Table 2). Of course, the rookery itself does not affect survival, but is a placeholder for proximate causes, possibly unmeasured, that vary among rookeries and affect population processes, including differences in food availability, population density, disease exposure, or exposure to storms.

Our study contributes additional estimates of early pup survival for comparison with other studies. Our age-52-wk weekly survival estimate for females at HI was very similar to those from FI (in 2001–2002, 2005; Hastings *et al.* 2009) at 0.987 with slightly higher probabilities for GR and WS female pups (>0.992). Hastings *et al.* (2009) also compared their 12 wk survival estimates for SSL pups from FI with published survival estimates (scaled to 12 wk) for unbranded pups of other otariid species. Our 12 wk estimates, averaged across sexes, ([age-6-wk weekly estimate]³* [age-52-wk weekly estimate]⁹) were 0.685 for HI, 0.823 for WS, and 0.878 for GR. The estimate for FI, 0.868 (Hastings *et al.* 2009), is intermediate between our WS and GR estimates, possibly reflecting more favorable conditions in 2001–2002 compared with 2005 when all of our data were collected (Hastings *et al.* 2011). Our estimates from all three rookeries are within the range of published values for non-branded otariid pups (Hastings *et al.* 2009: table 2); even our low estimate for HI is in the 33rd percentile of the reported values.

SSL rookeries in southeastern Alaska have grown rapidly in both pup production and nonpup attendance following the transition from haul out sites to rookeries, with slower or no growth at the larger, older rookeries (Calkins et al. 1999, Pitcher et al. 2007, Mathews et al. 2011). The time since rookery establishment of our three study sites parallels their sizes with HI the oldest and largest, WS intermediate in size and age, and GR the newest and smallest of the three (Calkins et al. 1999, Pitcher et al. 2007, Mathews et al. 2011). If competition increases as more animals use a site, this could be reflected in lower survival probability, which is consistent with our results. Mathews et al. (2011) suggest that abundant fish stocks could have been an important factor in the establishment and growth of the GR rookery, of which high pup survival might be a proximate factor in the growth of the site; this is consistent with our results of high pup mass and survival at GR. The lack of a survival difference between pups with different genetic origins should be viewed cautiously because our sample size was very small and survival probabilities at GR, the only rookery with genetic data, was so high that any difference between stocks of origin would have had to have been small, if it existed at all. In addition, our stock assignments were based only on female lineages, so EDPS and WDPS pups might be genetically more similar depending on male line parentage.

A possible confounding factor in our interpretation would be if the age of the marked pups varied systematically among rookeries, for example if GR pups were older than HI pups, their mass and survival could be increased as a result. Survival probability of SSL pups was lower at Chiswell Island during their first 2 wk than for 4–10 wk; sources of mortality also differed between the two periods (Maniscalco 2014). SSL birth dates vary among rookeries throughout their range (Pitcher *et al.* 2001), but whether current timing of births varies systematically among our study rookeries is unknown. Branding dates varied by a maximum of 6 d among sites and is unlikely to have created significant age differences in the samples, and true rook-

ery differences likely accounted for patterns in survival probability and pup body

Because our study is of branded animals only, we cannot partition the estimates between natural mortality and any mortality caused by the marking operation, including both physical effects of branding on individual pups and disturbance effects (e.g., permanent separation of mothers and pups); this is also true for Hastings et al. (2009), the only other study that estimated short-term postbranding survival. Hastings et al. (2009) found that survival in the 2 wk postbranding was very similar to those >2 wk postbranding, consequently the maximum potential marking-caused (i.e., branding+disturbance) mortality at FI was likely <1% of the pups branded. In contrast, using the same rationale we found greater differences between early (age-6-wk) and later (age-52-wk) survival in the first year, which could be a branding effect. However, our age-6-wk survival estimates are comparable to an estimate from FI in 2005 based on a small sample (n = 49) of unbranded/undisturbed pups of branded mothers (Hastings et al. 2009). In our study, all marking operations were conducted by the teams of experienced branders, veterinarians, and research staff overseen by the same leaders, further suggesting that lower early vs. later survival during the first year in our 2005 sample was likely not attributable to marking.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank individuals with the Alaska Department of Fish and Game (ADF&G) who conducted the branding operation and assisted with multiple years of brand-resighting (especially T. Gelatt, J. King, S. Lewis, D. McAllister, K. Pitcher, K. Raum-Suryan, M. Rehberg, G. Snedgen, and B. Van Burgh), and biologists with the NMML, the ASLC, Glacier Bay National Park, the University of Alaska, and the University of British Columbia that provided brand sightings. We also thank the veterinarians S. Johnson and W. Taylor and support vessel crews, who were essential to safely conducting this study for both sea lion pups and staff. This work was conducted under permits granted by Department of Fisheries and Oceans for work in Canada, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Alaska Maritime National Wildlife Refuge for work on islands within the refuge, Glacier Bay National Park, and under U.S. Marine Mammal permits issued by the National Marine Fisheries Service to ADF&G (Permit Numbers 358-1564, 358-1769, 358-1888 and 14325). Procedures for animal capture, handling, and marking were approved under ADF&G Animal Care and Use Protocol 03-002. Funding was provided through NMFS cooperative agreement number NA04NMF4390170 to ADF&G. We also thank P. Rivera, V. Stegall, and A. Hayden for laboratory assay analyses.

LITERATURE CITED

- Beckmen, K., and L. Hughes. 2006. Hookworm recovery from Steller sea lion pups. Project report, NFS7300-6-0007 (unpublished). 11 pp. Available from Alaska Department of Fish and Game, 1300 College Road, Fairbanks, AK, 99701.
- Bickham, J. W., J. C. Patton and T. R. Loughlin. 1996. High variability for control-region sequences in a marine mammal: Implications for conservation and biogeography of Steller sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*). Journal of Mammalogy 77:95–108.
- Braham, H. W., R. D. Everitt and D. J. Rugh. 1980. Northern sea lion population decline in the eastern Aleutian Islands. Journal of Wildlife Management 44:25–33.
- Burnham, K. P., and D. R. Anderson. 2002. Model selection and inference: A practical information-theoretic approach. 2nd edition. Springer, New York, NY.

- Calkins, D. G., D. C. McAllister, K. W. Pitcher and G. W. Pendleton. 1999. Steller sea lion status and trend in southeast Alaska: 1979–1997. Marine Mammal Science 15:462–477.
- Castellini, M. A., R. W. Davis, T. R. Loughlin and T. M. Williams. 1993. Blood chemistries and body condition of Steller sea lion pups at Marmot Island, Alaska. Marine Mammal Science 9:202–208.
- Cooch, E. G., and G. C. White. 2014. Program MARK: A gentle introduction. 13th edition. Available at http://www.phidot.org/software/mark/docs/book. Accessed 15 December 2014.
- Fritz, L., K. Sweeney, D. Johnson, M. Lynn, T. Gelatt and J. Gilpatrick. 2013. Aerial and ship-based surveys of Steller sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*) conducted in Alaska in June–July 2008 through 2012, and an update on the status and trend of the western distinct population segment in Alaska. U.S. Department of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-AFSC-251. 91 pp.
- Fritz, L. W., R. Towell, T. S. Gelatt, D. S. Johnson and T. R. Loughlin. 2014. Recent increases in survival of western Steller sea lions in Alaska and implications for recovery. Endangered Species Research 26:13–24.
- Hastings, K. K., T. S. Gelatt and J. C. King. 2009. Postbranding survival of Steller sea lion pups at Lowrie Island in Southeast Alaska. Journal of Wildlife Management 73:1040– 1051.
- Hastings, K. K., L. A. Jemison, T. S. Gelatt, *et al.* 2011. Cohort effects and spatial variation in age-specific survival of Steller sea lions from southeastern Alaska. Ecosphere 2(10):111.
- Heath, R. B., D. Calkins, D. McAllister, W. Taylor and T. Spraker. 1996. Telezol and isofluorane field anesthesia in free-ranging Steller's sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*). Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine 27:35–43.
- Henriksen, S. A., and K. Aagaard. 1976. En enkel flotations-og McMaster metode [A simple flotation and McMaster method]. Nord Vet Med 28:392–397.
- Jemison, L. A., G. W. Pendleton, L. W. Fritz, K. K. Hastings, J. M. Maniscalco, A. W. Trites and T. S. Gelatt. 2013. Inter-population movements of Steller sea lions in Alaska with implications for population separation. PLOS ONE 8(8):e70167.
- Kaplan, C. C., G. C. White and B. R. Noon. 2008. Neonatal survival of Steller sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*). Marine Mammal Science 24:443–461.
- Kendall, W. L., K. H. Pollock and C. Brownie. 1995. A likelihood approach to capture-recapture estimation of demographic parameters under the robust design. Biometrics 51:293–308.
- Laake, J. 2013. RMark: An R interface for analysis of capture-recapture data with MARK. AFSC Processed Report 2013-01, Alaska Fisheries Science Center, NOAA, National Marine Fisheries Service, 7600 Sand Point Way NE, Seattle, WA 98115.
- Lander, M. E., B. S. Fadely, T. S. Gelatt, L. D. Rea and T. R. Loughlin. 2013. Serum chemistry reference ranges for Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) pups from Alaska: Stock differentiation and comparisons within a north Pacific sentinel species. EcoHealth 10:376–393.
- Littell, R. C., G. A. Milliken, W. W. Stroup, R. D. Wolfinger and O. Schabenberger. 2006. SAS for mixed models. 2nd edition. SAS Institute, Cary, NC.
- Loughlin, T. R. 1997. Using the phylogeographic method to identify Steller sea lion stocks. Pages 159–171 *in* A. E. Dizon, S. J. Chivers and W. F. Perrin, eds. Molecular genetics of marine mammals. Special Publication Number 3, The Society for Marine Mammalogy.
- Maniscalco, J. M. 2014. The effects of birth weight and maternal care on survival of juvenile Steller sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*). PLOS ONE 9(5):e96328.
- Maniscalco, J. M., D. G. Calkins, P. Parker and S. Atkinson. 2008. Causes and extent of natural mortality among Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) pups. Aquatic Mammals 34:277–287.
- Mathews, E. A., J. N. Womble, G. W. Pendleton, L. A. Jemison, J. M. Maniscalco and G. Streveler. 2011. Population growth and colonization of Steller sea lions in the

- Glacier Bay region of southeastern Alaska: 1970s-2009. Marine Mammal Science 27:852-880.
- Merrick, R. L., T. R. Loughlin and D. G. Calkins. 1987. Decline in abundance of the northern sea lion, (*Eumetopias jubatus*), in Alaska, 1956–1986. Fishery Bulletin 85:351–365.
- Merrick, R. L., T. R. Loughlin and D. G. Calkins. 1996. Hot branding: A technique for long term marking of pinnipeds. U.S. Department of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-AFSC-68. 21 pp.
- O'Corry-Crowe, G., B. L. Taylor, T. Gelatt, *et al.* 2006. Demographic independence along ecosystem boundaries in Steller sea lions revealed by mtDNA analysis: Implications for management of an endangered species. Canadian Journal of Zoology 84:1796–1809.
- O'Corry-Crowe, G., T. Gelatt, L. Rea, C. Bonin and M. Rehberg. 2014. Crossing to safety, dispersal, colonization and mate choice in evolutionarily distinct populations of Steller sea lions, *Eumetopias jubatus*. Molecular Ecology 23:5415–5434.
- Pendleton, G. W., K. W. Pitcher, L. W. Fritz, et al. 2006. Survival of Steller sea lions in Alaska: A comparison of increasing and decreasing populations. Canadian Journal of Zoology 84:1163–1172.
- Pitcher, K. W., V. N. Burkonov, D. G. Calkins, B. J. Le Boef, E. G. Mamaev, R. L. Merrick and G. W. Pendleton. 2001. Spatial and temporal variation in the timing of births of Steller sea lions. Journal of Mammalogy 82:1047–1053.
- Pitcher, K. W., P. F. Olesiuk, R. F. Brown, et al. 2007. Abundance and distribution of the eastern North Pacific Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) population. Fisheries Bulletin 107:102–115.
- Rea, L. D. 1995. Prolonged fasting in pinnipeds. Ph.D. thesis, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, AK. 135 pp.
- Rea, L. D., M. A. Castellini, B. S. Fadley and T. R. Loughlin. 1998. Health status of young Alaska Steller sea lion pups (*Eumetopias jubatus*) as indicated by blood chemistry and hematology. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A 120:617–623.
- Thomton, J. D., and J. E. Mellish. 2007. Haptoglobin concentrations in free-range and temporarily captive juvenile Steller sea lions. Journal of Wildlife Diseases 43:258–261.
- Trites, A. W., and P. A. Larkin. 1996. Changes in the abundance of Steller sea lions (*Eumetopias jubatus*) in Alaska from 1956 to 1992: How many were there? Aquatic Mammals 22:153–166.
- U.S. Federal Register. 1997. Endangered and threatened wildlife and plants; change in listing status of Steller sea lion, Final Rule. FR 62(108):30772–20773 (5 June 1997). U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, DC.
- U.S. Federal Register. 2013. Delisting of the Eastern Distinct Population Segment of Steller sea lion under the Endangered Species Act; Amendment to Special Protection Measures for Endangered Marine Mammals, Final Rule. FR 78(213):66140–66199 (4 November 2013). National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA, Department of Commerce, Washington, DC.
- White, G. C., and K. P. Burnham. 1999. Program MARK: survival estimation from populations of marked animals. Bird Study 46(supplement):120–138.
- Williams, B. K., J. D. Nichols and M. J. Conroy. 2001. Analysis and management of animal populations: Modeling estimation, and decision making. Academic Press, San Diego, CA.
- York, A. E. 1994. The population dynamics of northern sea lions, 1975-1985. Marine Mammal Science 10:38–51.
- Zentino-Savin, T., M. A. Castellini, L. D. Rea and B. S. Fadely. 1997. Plasma haptoglobin levels in threatened Alaskan pinniped populations. Journal of Wildlife Diseases 33:67–71.

Received: 24 March 2015 Accepted: 30 November 2015