

1 **Effect of kelp gull harassment on southern right whale calf survival: a long-term**
2 **capture-recapture analysis**
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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Kelp gulls (*Larus dominicanus*) commonly feed on the skin and blubber of surfacing southern
25 right whales (SRW, *Eubalaena australis*) in the nearshore waters of Península Valdés (PV),
26 Argentina. Mothers and especially calves respond to gull attacks by changing their swimming
27 speeds, resting postures and overall behaviour. Gull-inflicted wounds per calf have increased
28 markedly since the mid-1990s. Unusually high mortality of young calves occurred locally after
29 2003, and increasing evidence points to gull harassment as a factor contributing to the excess
30 deaths. After leaving PV, calves undertake a long migration with their mothers to summer
31 feeding areas; their health during this strenuous exertion is likely to affect their probabilities of
32 first-year survival. To explore the effects of gull-inflicted wounds on calf survival, we analysed
33 44 capture-recapture observations between 1974 and 2017, for 597 whales photo-identified in
34 their years of birth between 1974 and 2011. We found a marked decrease in first-year survival
35 associated with an increase in wound severity over time. Our analysis supports recent studies
36 indicating that gull harassment at PV may impact SRW population dynamics.

37 **Keywords:** *Eubalaena australis*; gull-inflicted lesions; mortality; population dynamics

38

39 BACKGROUND

40 Southwest Atlantic southern right whales (SRW, *Eubalaena australis*) migrate every winter to
41 raise their calves along the coasts of Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay [1-5]. The breeding
42 population that gathers at Península Valdés (PV), Argentina, has been studied closely since 1971
43 [6]. At this site, kelp gulls (*Larus dominicanus*) feed on the skin and blubber of SRW as they
44 surface, creating wounds of various sizes (Fig. 1a) and primarily attacking mother-calf pairs
45 which interrupts lactation and affects the whales' behaviour [7]. This harassment was first
46 reported at Golfo San José (Fig. 1b) in the 1970s [8] and described as a parasitic interaction in
47 the 1980s [9]. By the 1990s, it had spread to the adjacent Golfo Nuevo (see Fig. 1b) where it
48 rapidly increased during the 2000s [10,11]. The percentage of mothers and calves with lesions
49 caused by gulls increased from 2% in the 1970s to 99% in the 2000s. Initially, calves were rarely
50 attacked by gulls but, since the mid-1990s, calves have become the main targets of attacks and
51 their average wound severity has increased [12].

52 At PV, whales spend a significant portion (at least 24%) of daylight hours fleeing from gull-
53 induced disturbance [10], which has been shown to affect their physiology and overall health
54 [12-17]. Physiological stress from injuries and an increase in energy demand resulting from gull
55 harassment could be contributing to calf deaths in this population [7,13,14]. Unexplained local
56 high mortality occurred at PV between 2003 and 2013; of 672 dead whales, 91% were calves
57 less than three months old [18,19]. A recent study based on long-term behavioural observations
58 shows a positive relationship between gull harassment and the number of dead calves registered
59 at PV each year (Piotto et al., in prep.). First-year survival probabilities of individual SRW
60 exposed as calves to different severities of gull wounding has not been estimated. In an attempt
61 to connect gull-attack behaviour to SRW population dynamics, we used capture-recapture
62 methods to test the hypothesis that wounding decreases calf survival.

63

64 METHODS

65 (a) Study area and database

66 Photo-identification aerial surveys were conducted along the shoreline of PV (Fig 1b). Whales
67 inhabit PV from April to December [20; 21]. Individuals without calves stay a mean of 52 days
68 (range 8-145), while mothers with calves stay longer (77 days, range 15-170) [20]. In the 1970s
69 the area was surveyed repeatedly within each calving season, but since the 1980s it has been
70 surveyed once a year in September or October, close to the peak of whale abundance [20]. We
71 followed aerial survey procedures and methodology previously reported [6,20,22]. Right whales
72 are individually identified from photographs of their callosity patterns and dorsal pigmentation
73 markings [6]. The reference catalogue up to 2017 includes 3,777 photo-identified individuals, of
74 which 773 were identified in their year of birth. The total number of calves recorded during
75 aerial surveys is much higher than this, but only identifiable individuals—those with a developed
76 callosity pattern and/or a distinct skin pigmentation pattern—can be added to the catalogue.
77 Individual sightings were pooled into annual sampling occasions to create a presence-absence
78 matrix of individual yearly sightings.

79

80 (b) Variation of gull-inflicted lesions among years

81 To investigate gull-attack effects, we used the data provided by [12] of the area of gull-inflicted
82 lesions (hereafter referred to as a *lesion index*) on calves born between 1974 and 2011. The
83 lesion index represents the number of extra-small sized lesions that, when summed, is equivalent
84 to the total wounded area—considering that each extra-small lesion represents 0.13% of the
85 individual's back area (see [12] for details). Data included the lesion indices of 740 individuals,
86 either photo-identified calves (N=192) or unidentified calves with known mothers (N=548). The
87 lesion index was calculated from aerial survey pictures obtained during the peak of whale
88 abundance (September and early October), during which gull attack rates are also highest [23].
89 Wounding severities estimated for calves photographed in aerial surveys from the 1980s onwards
90 are considered to be representative for that particular year because the area of a calf's back
91 carrying lesions tends to reach its maximum by October [12].

92

93

94 The years 1991, 1992, 1994, 1997, 1998, and 2001 were excluded because of a lack of enough
95 information about gull wounding in those years. We used the lesion index estimated for a calf in
96 its year of birth, and did not include information about gull-inflicted lesions present in
97 subsequent years when it was photographed as juvenile or adult. We fitted a Generalised Linear
98 Model (GLM) of the lesion index (a count) as a function of the year of birth with a negative
99 binomial error structure, to allow for overdispersion, and log link function [24]. Predicted values
100 from this model were later used as a temporal covariate (hereafter referred to as the lesion index
101 covariate) in the capture-recapture analysis. All analyses were performed in R with packages
102 stats and MASS [25, 26].

103

104 (c) Modelling calf survival: the effect of gull-inflicted lesions

105 We used a subset of the data comprising the encounter histories from 1974 to 2017 of 597
106 whales identified at PV in their year of birth between 1974 and 2011. We used the encounter
107 histories up to 2017 so that individuals that entered the dataset in recent years (in 2011 or just
108 before that year) had a chance to return to PV and be recaptured. To investigate the influence of
109 gull-inflicted lesions on calf survival, we used Cormack-Jolly-Seber (CJS) mark-recapture
110 models. First, goodness-of-fit (GOF) tests were performed to assess the quality of fit of CJS
111 models. GOF tests indicated a lack of fit of the CJS model resulting from a difference in
112 recapture probability between newly and previously captured individuals (Test 3.SR: $\chi^2 =$
113 149.71, $df = 37$, $p < 0.001$). This lack of fit is often attributed to transient individuals (captured
114 only once) and is conventionally accommodated by modelling two time-since-marking classes
115 for survival probability (first year after marking; all subsequent years). In our dataset all
116 individuals were marked in their year of birth, so implementing this formulation provided an age
117 class model for first year (calf) survival and age 1+ year (non-calf) survival. There was no
118 indication of overdispersion in the dataset ($\hat{c} = 0.95$).

119 Recapture probability was modelled as constant over time, or as a function of: the year (t) to test
120 for time-dependent effects; a temporal trend (T), as a continuous integer variable to test whether
121 the recapture rate increased or decreased over time; and a period, defined as either 1974 to 1995,
122 when the main gull attack target was the mothers, or 1996 to 2011, when the main target
123 switched to calves [12].

124 Survival probability was modelled as constant for calves and non-calves, or with only calf
125 survival varying with t, T, period, and lesion index covariate. Models with additive effects
126 between the lesion index covariate and period for calves were also fitted. Model selection was
127 based on Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) [27], as a measure of the support from the data
128 for each model among the set of models considered. If more than one model had support, a
129 model average was constructed based on the models' AIC weights. We used the R [28] package
130 RMark [29] to build models in software MARK [WhiteBurnham1999], and package R2ucare
131 [30] to perform GOF tests. Additionally, we estimated mean calf survival for each period by
132 using delta methods to estimate standard errors [31].

133

134 RESULTS

135 Of all calves (identified: n=192 and unidentified, n=548), 483 (65.3%) had gull-inflicted lesions.
136 Of 192 identified calves, individuals with no lesions (n=77) were all identified prior to 1995 after
137 which all calves showed one or more lesions. Most identified calves (77.4%, n=89) with gull-
138 inflicted lesions were not seen again at PV. In contrast, less than half (44.2%, n=34) of calves
139 without lesions were not seen again.

140 The area of gull-inflicted lesions on a calf's back varied with year of birth ($z = 28.55$; $p < 0.001$).
141 Mean calf lesion index was 1.72 (range 0 - 28) between 1974 and 1995, increasing to 17.0 (range
142 0 -147) between 1996 and 2011 (Figure 2a). These values represent an increase in the average
143 injured back area from 0.2% (range 0 - 3.6%) to 2.2% (range 0 - 19.1%).

144

145 Calf survival decreases with increasing gull-inflicted lesions

146 Of the twenty-four candidate models considered, the best model included calf survival
147 probability as a function of the lesion index covariate ($\beta = -0.09$, CI 95% -0.06 – -0.13),
148 allowed a time-varying recapture probability, and was well supported by the data (81% of the
149 AIC weight, Table 1). Other models with some support included those with an additive effect
150 between period and lesion index, and a trend in calf survival (Δ AIC of 3.81 and 4.86; 12% and
151 7% support, respectively).

152 Following model averaging, estimated apparent calf survival showed a marked decrease after
153 1995, even though the recapture probability remained low but stable since the 1980s (Figure 2b
154 and 2c). Results showed a clear relationship between calf survival and lesion index. Calf survival
155 decreased from 0.659 (CI 95%: 0.570 – 0.737) for calves without lesions to nearly zero (0.026,
156 CI 95%: 0.007 – 0.093) for calves with a lesion index of 45 (Figure 2d), which was close to the
157 mean number of lesions per calf registered in 2011 (46.92 ± 0.08). Between 1974 and 1995—the
158 period when mothers were the main targets of gull attacks—mean calf survival was 0.622 (CI
159 95%: 0.346 – 0.898), while between 1996 and 2011—when calves were the main targets—it
160 dropped markedly to 0.291 (CI 95%: 0.198 – 0.394) (Table 2). After surviving the first year,
161 mean non-calf survival was estimated to be 0.959 (CI 95%: 0.944 – 0.970).

162

163 DISCUSSION

164 Our results provide evidence that gull harassment has a negative impact on the survival of SRW
165 calves born at PV, Argentina. Most calves showed a relatively lower lesion index between the
166 1970s and 1990s than in the 2000s. When SRW mothers were the target of gull attacks, calf
167 survival remained stable. Individual calf survival probabilities varied as a function of their
168 wounding severity; when the lesion index increased, apparent calf survival probability decreased,
169 and calves that suffered greatly elevated gull harassment were unlikely to be resighted in the PV
170 area. These findings are consistent with recent research about the increasing local mortality—
171 based on carcass recovery—of calves at PV that has followed an increase in gull attack
172 frequency and pressure over the last two decades (Piotto *et al.*, in prep.). In addition, mortality of
173 calves less than three months old reaches its maximum at PV in September [18, Piotto *et al.*, in
174 prep], which is also the time of highest gull attack rates [23]. Thus, most calves identified during
175 aerial surveys in Sep-Oct are likely to survive at least until leaving PV to migrate to the feeding
176 grounds.

177 Recapture probabilities of SRWs identified in their year of birth at PV appear to be lower since
178 the 1980s, when the frequency of aerial surveys was reduced to just once per year, during the
179 peak of whale abundance. However, if the lower calf survival probability was only a result of a
180 drop in recapture probability, a marked decrease in calf survival would be expected from the
181 1980s, instead of from the mid-1990s as estimated, when calves became the main targets of gull

182 attacks. Ongoing studies are incorporating new techniques that may provide important
183 information about the life histories of the whales that visit PV.

184 In particular, two new sources of images have recently been developed to photograph individuals
185 for later identification: citizen science photos taken during whale-watching trips and UAV
186 (Unmanned Aerial Vehicle) drone surveys [7, 32-34]. In contrast to single annual aerial survey
187 data, these additional sources of data cover most of the whale season and have contributed to
188 expansion of the database. The analysis of photos taken by citizen scientists during whale-
189 watching tours throughout the calving season from 2003 to 2007 added 105 new individuals and
190 new sightings of 45 previously known individuals to the reference catalogue [32]. Drone surveys
191 add around 300-400 whales per year to the catalogue. Thus, future analyses are expected to show
192 higher rates of recapture.

193 The calf survival probabilities estimated here must be considered with caution, especially since
194 the mid-2000s. Without additional information, it is not possible to distinguish between death
195 and permanent emigration in estimates of survival probability [35]. If whales abandon PV and
196 emigrate permanently to other areas, such as southern Brazil, calf survival estimated in this study
197 will be underestimates of true survival. However, a recent comparison of the photo-id catalogues
198 for Argentina and Brazil, between 1971 and 2017, documented just 124 individuals seen in both
199 calving grounds; in particular, only ~3% of whales in the Argentine catalogue were seen off
200 Brazil [36].

201 In the present study, of 773 individuals identified as calves at PV, 553 have not been recaptured
202 and only six have been seen off Brazil but not at PV. Efforts are underway to estimate movement
203 rates between both breeding grounds, which may help us better understand the effect of gull
204 harassment, calf mortality and density-dependence processes [37]. For example, a shift in the
205 population distribution along the Argentine coast may be a response to increased density.
206 Mother-calf pairs have continued wintering at PV, while other age groups have expanded their
207 distribution range [38]. Golfo San Matías, 300 km to the north of PV, has been recolonised by
208 solitary individuals and mating groups since 2013 [5]. Catalogue comparisons with other areas in
209 Argentina are under way or planned. Even during periods of a constant low recapture probability,
210 our results showed that calf survival decreased over time at PV together with increased levels of
211 gull-inflicted lesions. Previous studies have suggested that gull harassment is a local stressor that

212 may reduce calf survival [7,10,13,14]. The endocrine response of calves to gull harassment has
213 been analysed using glucocorticoids and thyroid hormone levels. Despite no post-mortem
214 evidence of malnutrition [39], high glucocorticoid levels suggested that calves with severe gull
215 lesions suffered elevated physiological stress before death [13]. Calves increase their respiration
216 rates during attacks and gulls focus their attacks on previously wounded calves, enlarging the
217 lesions [7]. Our results provide further evidence that gull attacks are contributing to calf
218 mortality. Whether calves abandoned their breeding area or actually died during their first year,
219 our analysis suggests that gull harassment may affect future adult recruitment, female
220 reproductive success, and consequently local population growth [40].

221 In light of the high calf mortality recorded in some years at PV [18, 41] and the conservation
222 challenges the population faces due to climate change [42], our results strongly suggest a need to
223 include gull harassment in measures of habitat quality used by wildlife managers and
224 government officials. Effective reduction of anthropogenic food subsidies may help to control
225 kelp gull population growth [43]. Our results add detail to an emerging picture in which the
226 southwest Atlantic SRW population, although continuing to grow, is increasingly burdened by a
227 number of stressors whose combined effects could threaten its future viability.

228

229 **Data accessibility.** All data needed to reproduce the analyses, including the R code, is available at Dryad
230 Repository at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.c59zw3rb3> [44].

231 **Author contributions.** M.A., C.F.M., F.G.D-J., P.C.S-L. and S.N.I. planned this study. V.J.R., F.O.V.,
232 C.F.M. and J.S. analysed ID photos and curated the database. C.F.M., M.S. and V.J.R. provided the
233 individual gull-inflicted lesion data. V.J.R. and M.S. directed the Right Whale Program at Península
234 Valdés. M.A., F.G.D-J and P.S.H. carried out statistical analyses. M.A., F.G.D-J. and P.C.S-L wrote the
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251

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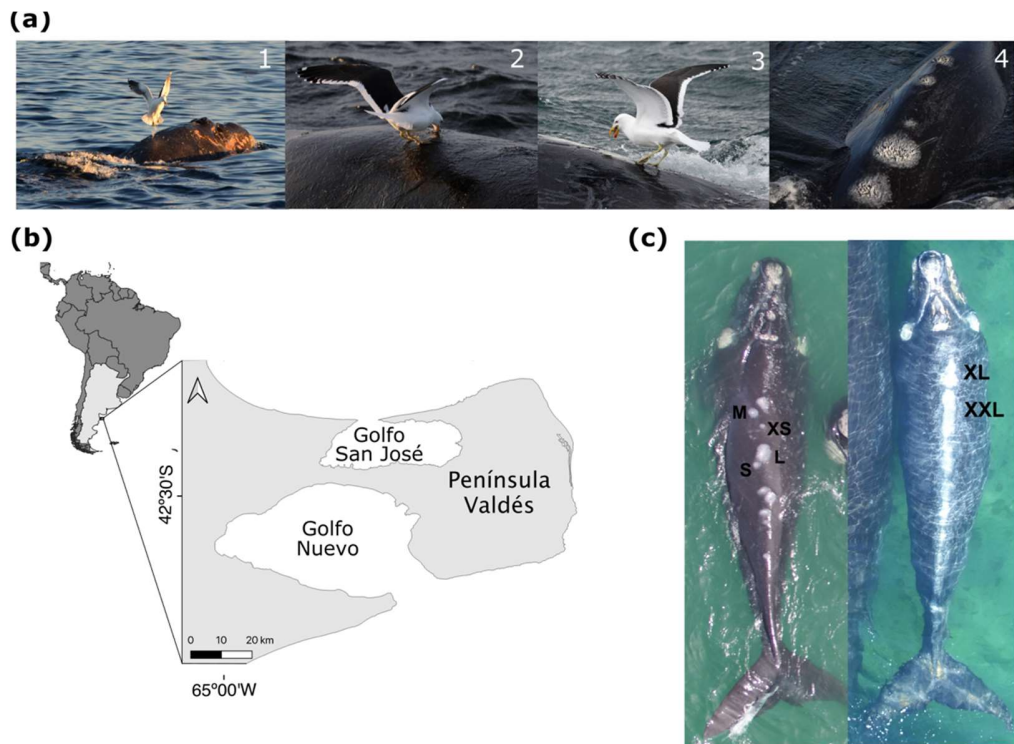
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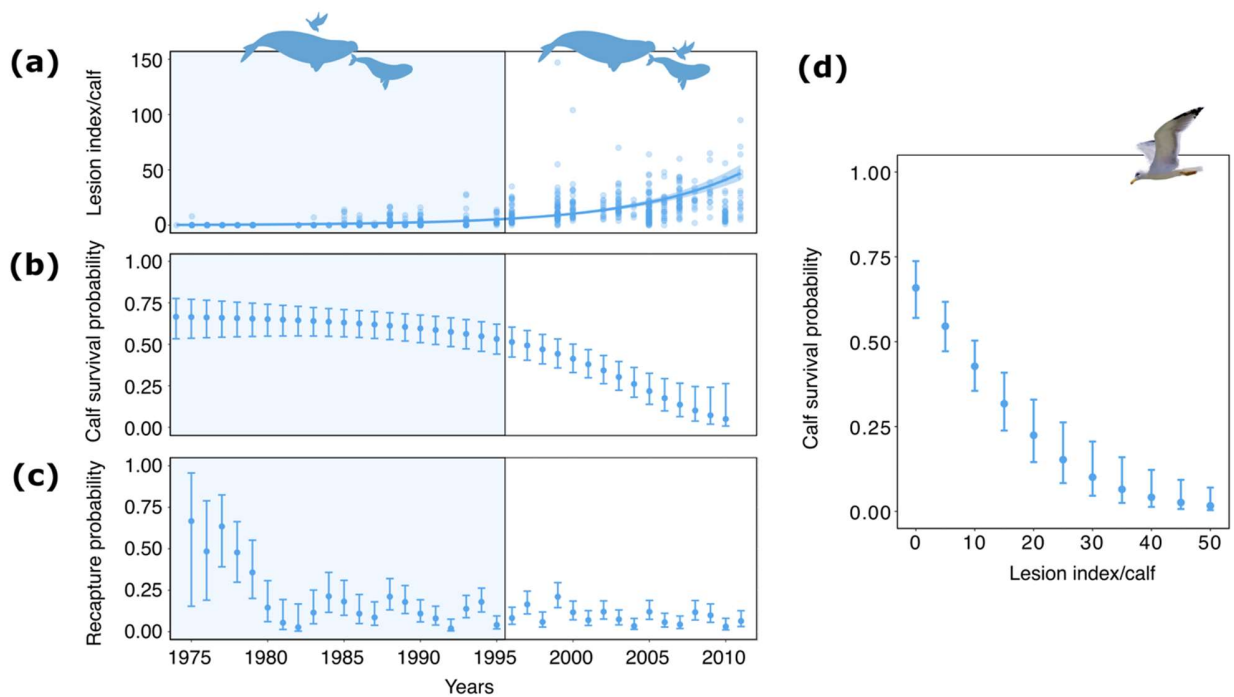
387 Table 1. CJS modelling of calf survival and recapture probabilities fitted for SRW identified in
388 their year of birth between 1974 and 2011 at Península Valdés, Argentina. The models are
389 presented in ascending order based on their Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Number of
390 parameters (k), recapture probability (p), survival probability (ϕ), calves (c), non-calves
391 (juveniles and adults) (a), constant calf and non-calf survival (ca), time-dependent (t), temporal
392 trend (T), period-dependent (period), lesion index covariate (lesions). The best model with 81%
393 of support is highlighted in bold.

<i>Survival probability</i>	<i>Recapture probability</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>AICc</i>	<i>DeltaAICc</i>	<i>AICc weight</i>
ϕ (a + c:lesion)	p (t)	46	3204.16	0	0.81
ϕ (a + c:period + c:lesion)	p (t)	48	3207.98	3.81	0.12
ϕ (a + c:T)	p (t)	46	3209.02	4.86	0.07
ϕ (a + c:period)	p (t)	47	3220.59	16.43	0
ϕ (a + c:t)	p (t)	83	3226.33	22.17	0
ϕ (ca)	p (t)	45	3236.81	32.64	0
ϕ (a + c:lesion)	p (T)	5	3262.44	58.28	0
ϕ (a + c:period + c:lesion)	p (T)	7	3266.25	62.09	0
ϕ (a + c:T)	p (T)	5	3266.46	62.29	0
ϕ (a + c:t)	p (T)	42	3273.51	69.35	0
ϕ (a + c:period)	p (T)	6	3276.55	72.38	0
ϕ (a + c:lesion)	p (period)	5	3286.05	81.89	0
ϕ (ca)	p (T)	4	3288.47	84.3	0
ϕ (a + c:T)	p (period)	5	3288.6	84.43	0
ϕ (a + c:period + c:lesion)	p (period)	7	3289.08	84.92	0
ϕ (a + c:t)	p (period)	42	3295.94	91.78	0
ϕ (a + c:T)	p (.)	4	3301.8	97.64	0
ϕ (ca)	p (period)	4	3303.07	98.91	0
ϕ (a + c:lesion)	p (.)	4	3303.26	99.1	0
ϕ (a + c:period + c:lesion)	p (.)	6	3305.5	101.33	0
ϕ (a + c:period)	p (period)	6	3305.52	101.36	0
ϕ (a + c:t)	p (.)	41	3311.99	107.83	0
ϕ (a + c:period)	p (.)	5	3325.69	121.52	0
ϕ (ca)	p (.)	3	3376.61	172.45	0



395
 396 Fig. 1. (a) Images 1 to 3 show the sequence of a gull attack: 1- gull landing on the whale's back,
 397 2- skin gouging, and 3- feeding on the whale's skin and/or blubber. Image 4 shows an open gull-
 398 inflicted lesion as a result of several attacks. (b) Map of the study area: Península Valdés,
 399 Argentina. (c) Lesion sizes on the back of SRW calves: extra-small (XS), small (S), medium
 400 (M), large (L), extra-large (XL), double XL (XXL). The lesion index used in the current study is
 401 represented by the equivalent number of XS lesions provided by [12] and represents the area of
 402 the whale's back affected by gull lesions. Photos by Macarena Agrelo (a1), Rodrigo A. Martínez
 403 Calatalán (a2-a4) and Fredrik Christiansen (c).

404



405
 406 Fig. 2. (a) Lesion index (area of lesions on the whale's back) per calf from 1974 to 2011 fitted by
 407 GLM model. Points indicate observed values per calf. Data obtained from [12] (b) SRW calf
 408 survival probability. (c) Recapture probability for SRWs identified in their year of birth. (d)
 409 Relationship between calf survival probability and the lesion index per calf. Estimate of (b), (c)
 410 and (d) are shown with 95% CI (error bars). Shadows indicate the period when the main target of
 411 gull attacks were mothers (from 1974 to 1995, blue) and calves (from 1996 to 2011, white).
 412

413 Table 2. Summary table of gull wounding effect on SRW calf survival at Península Valdés,
414 Argentina. Two periods were considered: when the main target of gull attacks were mothers
415 (from 1974 to 1995) and when the main target switched to calves (from 1996 to 2011). Calf
416 survival is shown with the mean and 95% CI; lesion index is shown with the mean and the range
417 of lesions.

418

<i>N = 597</i>	<i>1974 - 1995</i>	<i>1996 - 2011</i>
Mean calf survival	0.62 (0.35-0.90)	0.29 (0.19-0.39)
Gull attack main target	Mothers	Calves
Identified calves	281	316
Recaptures	133	49
Percentage of recaptures	47.3	15.5
Mean lesion index/calf	1.72 [0-28]	17 [0-147]

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