

1 **Status of pinnipeds on mid-Atlantic ridge islands, South Atlantic Ocean**

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11
12 **Abstract**

13
14 The status of pinnipeds on mid-Atlantic ridge islands is reviewed to detect trends that may
15 relate to climate change. Small numbers of southern elephant seals *Mirounga leonina* breed
16 on Gough Island (40°S, 10°W) and at Bouvetøya (54°24'S, 03°21'E) where numbers
17 remained small over ~68 years. Vagrant southern elephant seals wandered farther north to
18 tropical Saint Helena Island (15°57'S, 5°41'W) in historical times but have not been
19 recorded there more recently. This suggests a contraction of their distributional range, as
20 manifested in the decline in numbers to imminent extinction at Gough Island. At Gough
21 Island and at Tristan da Cunha (37°05'S, 12°17'W) leopard seals *Hydrurga leptonyx* and
22 Antarctic fur seals *Arctocephalus gazella* are occasional seasonal transients from Antarctic
23 and sub-Antarctic islands and the circumpolar sea ice farther to the south. Large
24 populations of Antarctic fur seals *A. gazella* and sub-Antarctic fur seals *A. tropicalis* breed
25 at Bouvetøya and Gough Island respectively. The current state of both populations is
26 uncertain as other populations of conspecifics in the South Atlantic and South Indian
27 oceans, are in decline ostensibly contingent upon reduced food availability, likely
28 precipitated by climate change.

29
30 Keywords: Leopard seal, Southern elephant seal, Fur seals, Saint Helena and Ascension
31 islands, Tristan da Cunha Islands, Bouvetøya

34 **Introduction**

35

36 The Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR) is a mid-ocean ridge located along the floor of the South
37 Atlantic Ocean, equidistant to Africa and South America. Portions of it extend above sea
38 level to form islands in the South Atlantic (Fig. 1): Ascension Island (07°59'S, 14°25'W),
39 Saint Helena Island (15°57'S, 5°41'W), Tristan da Cunha Islands (37°05'S, 12°17'W),
40 Gough Island (40°20'S, 10°00'W) and Bouvetøya (54°24'S, 03°21'E). These islands are
41 variously inhabited and/or visited by pinnipeds for which the population states are
42 uncertain.

43

44 The Southern Ocean is undergoing substantial changes associated with anthropogenically
45 driven climate change (Turner et al. 2014; Gutt et al. 2015). In the Southern Ocean, rapid
46 climate change is expressed through various pathways, e.g. westerly wind stress is
47 increasing and shifting poleward, sea-surface temperatures are increasing and sea-surface
48 temperature isotherms, previously associated with oceanic fronts, are shifting towards the
49 pole, and the sea ice extent is decreasing (Young et al. 2011; Bracegirdle et al. 2013;
50 Meijers et al. 2019; Hindell et al. 2020). These substantial changes increasingly impact
51 Southern Ocean predator species' numbers, distribution, diet, behaviour, and life-history
52 (Forcada and Trathan 2009; Younger et al. 2016; Cristofari et al. 2018; Weimerskirch et
53 al. 2018; Rodríguez et al. 2019; Ropert-Coudert et al. 2019; Bestley et al. 2020; Rogers et
54 al. 2020; Strycker et al. 2021).

55

56 Sentinel species that indicate an ecosystem response to changing environmental conditions
57 are often very wide-ranging and noticeable within an ecosystem, integrating environmental
58 information and responding to environmental changes in a way that might be otherwise
59 unmeasurable (Hazen et al. 2019). With the Southern Ocean ecosystems under pressure
60 from resource exploitation and climate change (Chown and Brooks 2019), tracking the
61 ranging behaviour of marine predators may provide information to assist with protection
62 of such ecosystems (Hindell et al. 2020; Requena et al. 2020). It may also be useful for
63 testing the projected outcomes of predicted environmental change on Antarctic seals (Siniff

64 et al. 2008). Understanding temporal patterns of marine mammal occurrence is also
65 important for establishing conservation strategies (Prado et al. 2016).

66

67 The responses to climate change by seals utilising islands of the South Atlantic MAR are
68 unknown. Climate change is likely to have impacts at all trophic levels and in seabirds and
69 marine mammals, most responses will be evident as changes in behaviour, phenotypic
70 expression or in genotype (Trathan et al. 2007). These may result in, amongst others,
71 changes in distribution (Forcada and Trathan 2009; Strycker et al. 2021), which at its
72 simplest, may present as a pole-ward shift in ranges (Trathan et al. 2007; Péron et al. 2014;
73 Cristofari et al. 2018). This study investigates the population states and possible range
74 shifts of pinnipeds as sentinel species that breed and/or visit MAR islands in the South
75 Atlantic Ocean that may relate to climate change.

76

77 **Methods**

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79 Antarctic seal literature within the Mammal Research Institute (MRI) collection, as well as
80 those sourced from the University of Pretoria's Merensky library were scrutinised. The
81 library at the Port Elizabeth Museum at Bayworld, South Africa was a valuable source of
82 research papers that are difficult to come by. A Google Scholar internet search was done
83 using various key words, some of which are included in the listing after the abstract
84 (above).

85

86 **Results and Discussion**

87

88 *Arctocephalus gazella*

89 The second largest breeding population of Antarctic fur seals occurs at Bouvetøya, where
90 pup numbers increased (mean annual rate) by 30.6 % from 1989 to 1996 (estimated 15,523
91 births), perhaps due in part to significant immigration. This population has been stable over
92 the period 1996 to 2001 (Hofmeyr et al. 2005), but another population of *A. gazella* in the
93 South Atlantic, beyond the MAR at South Georgia (Fig. 1), has shown decline due to
94 climate driven fluctuations in prey availability (Forcada and Hoffman 2014). Elsewhere on

95 the southern MAR, Antarctic fur seals are occasional seasonal vagrants on the Tristan da
96 Cunha Islands (Bester et al. 2014). Outside of the MAR they can range from the Antarctic
97 continent to the Falkland Islands (Fig. 1) and South America (Forcada and Staniland 2018).

98

99 *A. tropicalis*

100 The largest population of sub-Antarctic fur seal occurs on Gough Island (some 63% of the
101 world population - Hofmeyr et al. 2016a). Although the populations on the northern group
102 of the Tristan da Cunha Islands (Tristan da Cunha, Inaccessible and Nightingale) have
103 increased over the last 40 years (Bester et al. 2019), the status of the population at Gough
104 Island (GI) is uncertain. The population has possibly recovered to pre-exploitation levels,
105 approaching carrying capacity (Bester et al. 2006), numbering some 300,000 animals with
106 an estimated 60,000 pups born around 2005/2006 (Bester and Ryan 2007). Recent counts
107 of pups (in 2017) at a number of (but not all) beaches on the leeward eastern coast of GI
108 showed marked increases over 40 years on some beaches, but negligibly on other largely
109 open boulder beaches (Bester et al. 2019).

110

111 As central-place foragers, the foraging success of fur seal mothers determines the growth
112 and vitality of their offspring. The negative trend in the weaning mass of pups at GI
113 between 1993 and 2014 suggests a rise in limiting factors that is hypothesized to relate to
114 population size increases (Oosthuizen et al. 2016). Given the low weaning mass of GI fur
115 seal pups (Bester and Van Jaarsveld 1997; Oosthuizen et al. 2016), continued population
116 growth there seems unlikely (Oosthuizen et al. 2016). At Marion Island in the South Indian
117 Ocean, weaning mass of *A. tropicalis* pups has also been in decline, and although average
118 mass at weaning there still remains above the physiological limits of growth (Oosthuizen
119 et al. 2016), the population recently started to decline in numbers (Wege et al. 2016).

120

121 Vagrant sub-Antarctic fur seals appear at Bouvetøya (Hofmeyr et al. 2006), likely from the
122 closest population at GI some 1,750 km to the northwest on the MAR. Genetic profiling of
123 vagrant sub-Antarctic fur seals found on the Atlantic seaboard of Brazil suggested that the
124 majority of the vagrant individuals came from GI (Ferreira et al. 2008), the closest breeding
125 site to the Brazilian coast (Fig. 1). The only seal ever recorded at Ascension Island, an adult

126 male sub-Antarctic fur seal in 2010, was located some 3,587 km to the north of GI, a likely
127 source, on the MAR (Bester 2021). The nearest confirmed sighting to Ascension Island of
128 another vagrant *A. tropicalis* was in Gabon at 03°41'S, 10°56'E (Zanre and Bester 2011),
129 almost 2,844 km due east on the West African coast.

130

131 *Mirounga leonina*

132 The first record of southern elephant seals breeding at Bouvetøya was one adult male with
133 six females, of which four had pups (Riiser-Larsen 1930 in Kirkman et al. 2001). A small
134 breeding population still existed in 1998 based on the presence of weaned pups (Kirkman
135 et al. 2001). Southern elephant seals were formerly abundant at Tristan da Cunha (Wace
136 and Holdgate 1976), where it was thought that 1,000 pups were born in 1811, and 'as many
137 more on the other two', i.e. Inaccessible and Nightingale islands, according to Jonathan
138 Lambert (Holdgate 1958, page 19). The southern elephant seal populations of the Tristan
139 da Cunha Islands (TdCI) were eventually decimated by sealing for oil extraction (Wace
140 and Holdgate 1976). Only a small breeding population occurs at GI where 30 pups were
141 born in 1973 (Shaughnessy 1975), which then slowly declined to 18 pups by 1998 (Bester
142 et al. 2001) and became practically extinct by 2019 (Jones et al. 2020).

143

144 Much further north from Tristan da Cunha (2,430 km) at Saint Helena Island, a presumed
145 female 'sealioness' was found ashore (and killed) in 1656 (Temple and Anstey 1936).
146 Various called '*manati*, or *manatee*, sea-cow, or sea-lion' from which 'a considerable
147 quantity of oil may be obtained', it 'sometimes visits the shores' (Barnes 1817). Barnes
148 (1817) quotes a person, late of the island, that 'There is also here the manatee, commonly
149 called the sea-cow, though it certainly is the sea-lion, mentioned by Lord Anson in his
150 Voyage around the World' (Barnes 1817). The drawing and description by Peter Mundy
151 of the 'sealioness' (Temple and Anstey 1936) was of a southern elephant seal (Fraser
152 1935). Similarly 'sea-lyons' of Lord Anson (Anson 1748), sighted at the Juan Fernandez
153 Islands off the west coast of Chile, turned out to be southern elephant seals, from a detailed
154 description of their physical appearance and behaviour.

155

156 The claim that southern elephant seals historically bred on Saint Helena Island (SHI)
157 (https://wiki2.org/en/Manatee_of_Helena), erroneously attributed to Alava and Carvajal
158 (2005), has no substance. Neither is there evidence that historically SHI was largely
159 populated by semi-aquatic manatees which often came onto land like seals (Retching
160 1936). The nearest point (northern Angola) on the tropical African coast where the aquatic,
161 shallow water, mainly herbivorous West African manatee *Trichechus senegalensis* occur
162 (Reeves et al. 2002), is approximately 2,200 km distant. SHI is therefore completely
163 beyond the range of *T. senegalensis*.

164

165 *Hydrurga leptonyx*

166 Leopard seals breed in the Antarctic pack ice, where they were now and then observed
167 during the cruises of the *Norvegia* (Sivertsen 1954). Scheffer (1958) claims that
168 ‘specimens’ were collected on Bouvetøya during the *Norvegia* expedition in 1928-1929
169 (Scheffer 1958, page 122), while Holdgate et al. (1968) thought this to have been only one
170 individual. Sivertsen (1954) clearly states that only one leopard seal was collected on 15
171 January 1929, but ‘near Bouvetøya’. Therefore, leopard seals have never been recorded
172 ashore on Bouvetøya. None was recorded during six summer expeditions to Bouvetøya
173 (December to February) in the period 1996/97 to 2017/18 (G. Hofmeyr and C. Oosthuizen,
174 pers. comm.). Leopard seals might be expected to occur year-round there such as at Heard
175 Island (Gwynn 1953) in similar latitudes (53°S, 73°30’E) in the Southern Indian Ocean.
176 However, they may turn up as seasonal transients during winter and spring (April to
177 October) as observed at Bird Island, South Georgia (Jessop et al. 2004). Unfortunately, the
178 timing of the summer expeditions to Bouvetøya (see above) did not include the period of
179 seasonal terrestrial haulout of leopard seals.

180

181 Further north on the MAR only two leopard seals were seen at GI, the first on an unreported
182 date (Bester 1987) and the second in 2005 (Wilson et al. 2006). At Tristan da Cunha, a
183 positively identified leopard seal, a rare visitor to Tristan, was killed on 5 September 1910.
184 Only two earlier sightings were recorded by the islanders (Barrow 1910). In 1942, islanders
185 mentioned ‘sea-leopards with spotted coats’ (Booy 1957). Elliott (1953) also mentioned
186 unidentified large spotted seals of fierce disposition that were previously seen very

187 occasionally by the Tristan islanders. He considered these to perhaps be leopard seals, or
188 Weddell seals (*Leptonychotes weddellii*). Therefore, a number of confirmed records of
189 leopard seals come from Tristan da Cunha, the most recent in 2016 (Bester et al. 2017) and
190 2019 (L. Ferreira, pers. comm.). Leopard seals at the TdCI are non-breeding vagrants as
191 they breed towards the outer reaches of the circumpolar Antarctic pack ice in spring (Joiris
192 1991; Reeves et al. 2002). They largely remain within this outer region as the pack ice
193 retreats during the austral spring and summer (Bester et al. 1995).

194

195 The TdCI sightings are the northernmost for leopard seals at the MAR islands. More
196 northern records for the species in the eastern Atlantic Ocean comes from, for example,
197 Hout Bay (34°01'S) South Africa (Best 1971; Vinding et al. 2013) and off Rio de Janeiro
198 (21°40'S), Brazil (Rosas et al. 1992) in the western Atlantic Ocean. Elsewhere, the
199 northernmost island sighting of a leopard seal was at ~21°14'S on Rarotonga, Cook Islands
200 (Berry 1960), and another a little more south at 25°04'S latitude on Pitcairn Island (Stewart
201 and Grove 2014) in the Pacific Ocean. Although it is therefore unsurprising that none has
202 been recorded much further north (in the Atlantic Ocean) at SHI (15°57'S), it is not
203 implausible as another true Antarctic phocid, the Weddell seal (*L. weddellii*) that breeds
204 even further south on the fast ice of Antarctica, made the journey to tropical Trindade Island
205 (Fig. 1) at 20°31'S, 29°19'W, Brazil, by July 9, 2015 (Frainer et al. 2017).

206

207 **Conclusions**

208

209 It is moot whether the lack of southern elephant seal sightings on SHI in recent times
210 signifies a contraction of its distributional range. Extralimital sightings of marine predators
211 may simply be due to navigational errors acting independently or in concert with other
212 factors (Woehler 1992; Carpenter-Kling et al. 2017). However, the imminent extinction of
213 the southern elephant seal population at GI (Jones et al. 2020) is in concert with a reduction
214 in numbers at the northern extent of the range of other Southern Ocean marine predators
215 (Péron et al. 2012; Prado et al. 2016; Cristofari et al. 2018). Such reductions in numbers of
216 the marine predators are ostensibly precipitated by climate-driven foraging habitat and

217 ecosystem changes (Learmonth et al. 2006; Crawford et al. 2014; Forcada and Hoffman
218 2014; de Bruyn et al. 2016; Cristofari et al. 2018; Weimerskirch et al. 2018).

219

220 The vast north-south distances between MAR islands and low frequency of seal stranding
221 events (this study) make inferences based on extralimital sightings about range contractions
222 of seals in the South Atlantic difficult. On the other hand, extralimital sightings of hundreds
223 of seals of various species (Procksch et al. 2020) along the continuous, north-south
224 orientated South American continental coastline (e.g. Oliveira et al. 2011; Prado et al.
225 2016, Procksch et al. 2020), suggested that the slight decrease in frequency of
226 temperate/polar marine mammals and the increased occurrence of subtropical/tropical
227 species on the Brazilian coast since the late 1990s might be associated with environmental
228 changes linked to climate change (Prado et al. 2016). The Antarctic fur seal population in
229 the South Atlantic Ocean at Bird Island, South Georgia (Forcada and Hoffman 2014) and
230 the sub-Antarctic fur seal population in the South Indian Ocean at Marion Island (Wege et
231 al. 2016) are declining, ostensibly contingent upon reduced food availability, precipitated
232 by climate change (Hofmeyr et al. 2016a, b). The reduction in frequency of extralimital
233 sightings of temperate/polar seals along the western seaboard of the South Atlantic Ocean,
234 and the observed declines in Antarctic fur seals and sub-Antarctic fur seal numbers, begs
235 an update of the state of the large populations of fur seals on the MAR at Bouvetøya and
236 Gough Island.

237

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245 southern MAR and other islands. Michel Raynal (Paris, France) alerted me to the fact that
246 I was in error with the claim of a first ever sighting of a leopard seal at Tristan da Cunha
247 (Bester et al. 2017), and then plied me with historical records of marine mammal sightings

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255

256 **Compliance with ethical standards**

257

258 Conflict of interest: I declare that I have no conflict of interest.

259

260 Ethical approval: Past field procedures on which this review is based were cleared by the
261 University of Pretoria Animal Ethics Committee (Project Number EC077-15), executed
262 under an Environmental Research Permit, including the Wildlife and Protected Areas
263 Research Permit, of the Tristan da Cunha Government.

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- 1 **Fig. 1** Location of the islands in the South Atlantic Ocean which are mentioned in the
- 2 text. Islands on the mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR) are indicated with black triangles, and
- 3 those outside of the MAR are indicated with black dots.

