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THE ANALYSIS OF AGE DISTRIBUTIONS

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November, 1979

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ABSTRACT

The stable age distribution of a life table reflects survivorship discounted by population growth rate. Graphical techniques may be employed to estimate the growth rate of the population from partial information on a population's age distribution and mortality rates for a few age classes. When a time varying harvest or some other perturbation causes departures from the stable age structure, stable population theory no longer applies, but a kind of convergence can still be demonstrated. We develop a formula which may be used to estimate vital rates by comparison of an observed and a predicted age distribution when the history of the absolute (not per capita) harvests is known.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Portions of this research were carried out under NOAA contract 79-ABC-00118 and NSF grant DEB-78-22785.

KEY WORDS

age distribution, census, harvest, life table, stable age distribution, transient age distribution

INTRODUCTION

A population's age distribution reflects a history of the population birth rates corrected for the history of age specific survival rates. The presence of an individual aged x at time t arises through birth at time t-x coupled with survival at least until age x. Relative abundances of individuals in age classes x and y must, therefore, indicate relationships between the birth rates at times t-x and t-y and the probabilities of survival till ages x and y at those times. Accordingly, appropriate analysis of an age distribution should shed some light on other aspects of the population's dynamics—notably birth rates and death rates.

This fact is of significance in wildlife or fisheries management, and in certain areas of field ecology, because relative measures, such as age distributions are more readily estimated from samples than are absolute measures, such as direct estimates of population size.

Some of the internal relationships involving age distributions and various population parameters and age specific parameters in a stable population are well known. For example, chapters 2 and 4 of Coale's (1972) monograph develop the mathematics in a very clear fashion. That examination of a population structure may yield practical

information about a population is an established idea in fisheries and wildlife work. Relative abundances of young animals are loosely interpretted as indices of the growth or decline of populations. The relationship between certain mortality rates and population composition is exploited in the ingenious survey-removal method of population assessment (Chapman and Murphy, 1965). And, of course, many of the same phenomena are at the heart of various sorts of widely used sequential analyses of population structures, termed virtual population analysis, in fisheries management (Gulland, 1965; Pope, 1972).

Many existing applications of the analysis of age structures employ notation which obscures the relationship to the formulations of mathematical demography. Indeed, some of the methods introduce inaccuracies through neglect of one or the other of population growth rate, natural mortality rates, or transients in the population age distribution. The purposes of this paper are to review the problem from a general demographic perspective, to demonstrate the unappreciated power of the methods in some otherwise conventional applications to stable population analysis, and to break new ground in the analysis of age structures under a fluctuating realized life table.

Two examples—framed in the context of commonly encountered practical problems—will be explored. One is the estimation of population growth rate from sparse knowledge of survival rates and age structure in a population in stable age distribution. The second is the reconstruction of some missing elements of the life table from knowledge of the current age distribution and a history of variable harvests.

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I. ASSESSING POPULATION STATUS IN THE ABSENCE OF FECUNDITY DATA

The two obvious means of assessing the growth rate of a population are by direct measurements of population size over a suitable time interval, or by calculation from the fecundity and survivorship schedule of the applicable life table. The two methods, in principle will yield the same answer, provided the population's age distribution has converged to a distribution reasonably close to the stable age distribution associated with the life table. Often enough, neither method can be satisfactorily applied to populations of interest, notably, stocks of pelagic animals.

The usual method of estimating population size in a fishery is by calculation from data on the catch rate per unit of fishing effort. The results, of course, are confounded by changes in fishing technology, changes in the economics of the fishery, and changes in the availability of fish to the fishery (as distinct from changes in numbers). The method is reviewed by Gulland (1969).

A second method of estimating population size in a population that is inaccessible to direct census is by calculation from the rate of recapture of a known number of marked individuals relative to the capture of unmarked ones. This method, which is more usually applied to terrestrial animals, assumes uniform mixing of the marked individuals into the population at large. Furthermore, the results are confounded by the rate of mortality during the period intervening between release and recapture. Indeed, where the marked individuals can be aged, this method serves better as a means of calculating mortality rates over the respective age classes, than as a means of estimating population. The method is reviewed by Seber (1973).

Growth rate may be calculated from the life table according to Lotka's equation

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-rx} l_{(x)} M_{(x)} dx = 1, \qquad (1)$$

where r is the per capita population growth rate, m(x) is the age specific schedule of fecundity (usually female births per female, the male segment of the population is modeled differently), and 1(x) is the rate of survival from birth to age x. The classic development of this formula is reviewed by Lotka (1939). In practise, a discrete time analog is employed in place of the continuous functions, for real data. When reproduction is seasonal, a discrete time model may, in any case, be more appropriate.

A thorough, modern treatment of demographic methods is given in Keyfitz (1969).

It is only rarely that birth rate data might readily be gathered for a pelagic population. Usually, measures of pregnancy rates or egg burden are the most that can be expected. The survivorships of the younger age classes are almost always beyond reach of feasible measurement. So much so, in fact, that it is common to fill in this missing element in a life table by assuming that r is some particular value (usually 0), and then calculating the rate of immature survivorship that is consistent with this value, given the rest of the life table. Little of practical significance is gained by this exercise, other than perhaps a test of internal consistency or plausibility, for the growth rate is the more telling statistic.

Interestingly, the internal relationships connecting age specific parameters to population parameters permit calculation of r from an incomplete life table, provided at least some elements of the stable age distribution are known. The purpose of this section is to develop the calculation for the realistic case where neither birth rates nor early survival rates are available, and where only certain age classes are accesible to reliable sampling.

THE STABLE AGE DISTRIBUTION

The stable age distribution is an expression of the survivorship schedule, distorted exponentially with age according to the rate of increase of the population.

That is, the frequency of age class x is proportional to the simple product of the survivorship to age x and the population's birth rate at the time x units ago. If the population has been growing exponentially at rate r, the birth rate at time (t-x) must be e^{-rx} times the present population birth rate. Upon normalization, therefore, we obtain as the formula for c(x), the frequency of age class x,

$$C^*(x) = \frac{e^{-rx}l_{(x)}}{\int_{e}^{-ry}l_{(y)}dy}.$$
 (2)

The denominator in this expression, incidentally, must be the inverse of the mean percapita birth rate in the population. For this reason, it is not necessary to measure births directly.

From (2) we see that the growth rate, r, is determined uniquely by the survivorship schedule, l(x), and the stable age distribution c(x). Given l(x) and c(x), r may be computed iteratively from equation (2). Alternatively, as

noted by Bourgeois-Pichat (1957), r may be obtained from the coefficient of the exponential regression of (c(x)/l(x)) against age. Here we will show that even less information than the complete c(x) and l(x) schedules will suffice.

The age class specific mortality rates acting over some span may be estimated from a feasible mark and recapture program. Consider, for example, an age stratified extension of the multiple mark-recapture method of Seber (1965) and Jolly (1965). Minimally, this requires two marking episodes separated by the span of one age class, followed by one census an equivalent interval later.

At time t a set of individuals are marked and released in the population, and the ages and numbers of individuals are recorded. Let the number of individuals marked and released, classified in age categories spanning a unit time interval, be given by the vector $\underline{\mathbf{v}}_{+}$.

At time t+l a second set of individuals is marked in a manner that will be distinguishable from the first, and aged and released. Let the number of individuals, by age class, in this release be given by the vector $\underline{\mathbf{v}}_{t+l}$.

It is not necessary that the distribution of ages in either of these sets of marked individuals be the same, or that they be representative of the actual age distribution in the population. Neither must all age classes be represented. Let us assume that age classes a through z are reliably sampled by the available gear, and that these age classes are included in the release.

At time t+2 the population is sampled in a fashion that will not bias the relative capture rates among age classes a through z. The numbers of individuals marked at time t+1 and captured at time t+2, grouped according to their current ages at time t+2 are recorded in the vector $\underline{\mathbf{u}}_{t+1}$. The numbers of individuals recaptured from among those marked at time t are recorded similarly in vector $\underline{\mathbf{u}}_t$.

The fraction of the $v_{x,t+1}$ individuals marked at age x at time t+1 that are recaptured as one age class older individuals at time t+2, and tallied as $u_{x+1,t+1}$, depends on the efficiency of the recapture procedure (as influenced by such factors as effort and dispersal) and on the mortality q_x prevailing between age class x and x+1. Thus

$$U_{x+1,t+1} = V_{x,t+1} \leq (1-9x)$$

and

where s is an unknown proportionality constant depending on the recapture efficiency.

The fraction of the $v_{x,t}$ individuals marked at age x at time t and recaptured as two age class older individuals at time t+2, and tallied as $u_{x+2,t}$,

depends on the mortality over age classes x and x+1 as well as the recapture effeciency. Thus

$$U_{x+2,\pm} = V_{x,\pm} \circ (1-q_x)(1-q_{x+1})$$
 (5)

Since both sets of marked individuals are recaptured in the same sampling, there is no question that the effort component of the recapture efficiency is the same in equation (5) as in (3) and (4). We also require, however, that the dispersion component be the same in order for s to have the same value for both sets of equations. This may be assured in a variety of ways.

If mixing of the released individuals into the population is essentially complete after one time interval has elapsed, then both releases will be equally dispersed by the time of the recapture. This would be rather too much to assume for almost any pelagic stock (and it is just this problem that poses a major obstacle to the use of mark and recapture programs for estimates of population size). In special cases one might be able to estimate the difference in dispersal in the two releases and correct accordingly, but this information will not usually be available.

Alternatively, if the recapture program is conducted over a sufficiently extensive area, we may disregard dispersal altogether, for then the individual's position becomes irrelevant to the probability of recapture. This will hold true for the raw recapture data if the recapture effort is well distributed over stations. If certain regions are over-represented in the recapture program, a measure of relative effort per station may readily be used to normalize the recapture data. Note that now we need not assume that the marked individuals are perfectly mixed into the population, for we are concerned only with the relative recapture rates of the different age classes, and not with the capture rates of marked relative to unmarked individuals.

Dividing equation (5) by (4), we obtain after rearrangement

$$(1-9_{x}) = \frac{\nu_{x+2,t} \nu_{x+1,t+1}}{\nu_{x+2,t+1} \nu_{x,t}}, \qquad (6)$$

where all the terms on the right hand side of the equation are measured quantities. Thus, the mark and recapture program provides sufficient information to calculate

the mortality rates from one age class to the next, for all age classes from a through (z-1).

Now, for all integer valued age classes older than a, the survivorship is given by

$$\ell_{(x)} = \ell_{(a)} \prod_{j=a}^{x-1} (1-\ell_j)$$
 (7)

Thus for any integer valued age between a and z, we can, on the basis of the mortality data obtained from the mark and recapture program, calculate the relative survivorship. The value of 1(a) remains an unknown proportionality constant.

CALCULATION OF THE GROWTH RATE

The relative abundances of age classes a through z in the sampling at time t+2 may be used as an estimate of the relative age distribution over these age classes. Let n be the vector of abundances of individuals, by age class, in the sampling. Then, for integer valued ages between a and z, if the sampled population is in stable age distribution we may write

$$C^*(x) = g n_x, \qquad (8)$$

where g is an unknown proportionality constant which absorbs the ratio between the segment of the population that is between ages a to z and the total population, and includes also a normalization factor.

Substituting equations (8) and (7) into equation (2)

$$gn_{x} = \frac{e^{-rx} l_{(a)} \int_{j=a}^{x-1} (1-q_{j})}{\int_{e}^{-ry} l_{(y)} dy}.$$
 (9)

Rearranging, and taking the logarithm of both sides yields

Values of the left hand side of the equation, for integer valued ages between a and (z-1), may be calculated from the mark and recapture results. Values in the logarithm on the right hand side of the equation are independent of x. Accordingly, regression of values for the left hand side of the equation against age will yield a straight line with a slope of negative r, the parameter we wished to calculate; the various unknown scale factors get collected into one product, the value of which is determined by the intercept.

Departures of the actual age distribution from the stable age distribution will be detectable as departures of the actual points from a straight line. Errors in the calculation of mortalities arising from year to year variations in mortality rates of all age classes will compound geometrically in the denominator of the left hand side of the equation and the error will thus appear in the slope of the regression, but will not, in itself

distort the shape of the line. If, for example, all the apparent survival fractions, $(1-q_j)$ are off by a multiplicative factor ϵ , the calculated r will be off by an additive factor $\ln(\epsilon)$.

Of course, actual fluctuations in mortality rates over time will cause the population age distribution to deviate from the stable age distribution. If these fluctuations are short term, and are random in time, they will merely introduce a scatter about the straight line without throwing off the slope by much. Systematic trends in time, however, will cause the shape of the line to change. Keyfitz, Nagnur and Sharma (1967) discuss the analysis of age distributions in populations where the per capita birth rate has been changing either linearly or quadratically over time.

CONSTANT MORTALITIES

If, for the span of age classes considered, the mortality rate does not change with age, a further simplification is possible. Then, all the q are identical, so equation (10) becomes

$$\ln (n_x) = \chi \left(\ln (1-q) - r \right) - \ln \left(\frac{a \ln (1-q)}{l(a)} \int_0^{-r y} l_{yy} dy \right)$$

$$= \chi \ln \left(\frac{1-q}{\chi} \right) - \ln \left(\frac{a \ln (1-q)}{l(a)} \int_0^{-r y} l_{yy} dy \right)$$

where q is the age independent mortality rate applying to this span of age classes, and λ is the annual factor of increase, obtained as e^r . Equation (11) shows that the regression of $\ln(n_\chi)$ against x should yield a straight line, with a slope of $\left(\frac{1-q}{\lambda}\right)$.

Here the linearity displayed in the actual data will serve as a test both of the assumption of stable age distribution and of the assumption of constant mortality rates within

the span of ages considered. Such plots have been utilized in wildlife management as a means to estimate the mortality rate q where the factor of increase is assumed equal to one, corresponding to zero population growth (Chapman and Robson, 1960). Obviously, if q were estimated independently, we need not make assumptions about λ , but instead would calculate it from the observed slope.

When neither λ nor q are known, there is still useful information residing in the measurable ratio $\left(\frac{1-\xi}{\lambda}\right)$ obtains from the log plot. Let us assume that the span of ages for which the constant mortality rate applies includes the ages within which all (or almost all) reproduction occurs. Assume further that fecundity during these ages is fairly constant with age, so that we may utilize the geometric series approximation to the characteristic equation of the Leslie matrix:

$$\lambda^{\alpha} - (1-9)\lambda^{\alpha-1} - ml_{\alpha} = 0 \tag{12}$$

where m is the mean fecundity, \angle is the age at first reproduction, and ℓ_{α} is the survivorship until the age at first reproduction. This may be rearranged to

$$\lambda = \left[\frac{Ml_{\alpha}}{1 - \left(\frac{1-\xi}{\lambda}\right)}\right]^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \tag{13}$$

Thus we see that the ratio $\left(\frac{1-q}{\lambda}\right)$ is utilizeable even if we cannot initially separate the mortality from the growth component. Data on & and m are often available, but admittedly it will be a rare situation where $\;\mathcal{L}_{_{\!arphi}}\;$ is known with sufficient precision to complete the calculation is equation (13). Nevertheless, even the ability to compute values of the factor of population increase contingent upon an unknown value of survivorship to first reproduction may be useful: we can generally at least set plausible limits on the value for $\ell_{\!\scriptscriptstylef Q}$ and this will then yield the plausible range of λ from equation (13). For example, in assessing the sustainability of a harvest, this method could be used to determine whether the presumed replacement yield is within the limits of known constraints on the dynamics of the population.

II. ESTIMATING LIFE HISTORY PARAMETERS FROM TRANSIENT AGE DISTRIBUTIONS

When a populations total birth rate is not following an exponential trajectory through time, whether because of variations in the realized vital rates, or because of some past perturbations of the age structure, the simple formula, eq (2), relating survivorships to elements of the age distribution vector, via the population growth rate, no longer applies. It will remain true, however, that the age distribution provides information concerning the vital rates; but that information is now more difficult to extract.

Two important theorems bear on the interpretation of age distributions. The classic proof of convergence of age distributions under a constant life table (Sharpe and Lotka, 1911) implies that once this convergence has been achieved, the age distribution can be calculated from just the fecundity and survivorship schedules. This relationship gives rise, for example, to our equation (2). The second theorem proves that populations experiencing the same history of time-varying life tables will converge in their age distributions, though these age distributions will themselves be time dependent (Lopez, 1961).

The second theorem is less widely known than the first among ecologists and wildlife managers, though it has an important consequence that is identical to a feature that follows from the classic theorem. In fact, the classic theorem is a special case of Lopez' proof. The noteworthy property demonstrated in either case is that the initial age distribution becomes essentially irrelevant to the current age distribution, as time progresses. Thus, even with time varying life tables, a sufficiently long time sequence of vital rates—age specific fecundity and mortality schedules—will suffice to determine the age distribution.

Accordingly, mathematical manipulation of the age distribution must reveal some constraints on the sequence of vital rates. If enough properties of the sequence of vital rates are already known, the constraints provided by the analysis of the age distribution can finally yield a solution for the vital rates themselves.

The convergence properties exhibitted by continuous time population models do not invariably carry over to the analogous discrete time Leslie matrix models. The precise condition for convergence of age structure in the matrix version is that there be no common divisor greater than one for the set of ages at which reproduction

occurs (Lopez, 1961; Sykes, 1969). This condition is almost certain to be met in annual Leslie matrix models for long lived, repeatedly breeding organisms. For example, if any two successive age classes are reproductively active, these two ages must be relatively prime.

CONVERGENCE OF AGE DISTRIBUTION UNDER A VARIABLE HARVEST

Consider a population subject to schedules of natural mortality and fecundity which are encapsulated in the Leslie matrix, A, which is constant over time. In the usual notation

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} M_1 & M_2 & M_3 & M_4 & M_6 \\ P_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P_3 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & P_6 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(14)

where m_i is the effective fecundity of age class i, and p_i is the probability of survival from age i to age i+1.

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Beginning at some time 0 imagine that an annual harvest is instituted, and that the number of individuals harvested in year t, by age class, is recorded in the vector $\underline{\mathbf{h}}_{t}$, which may vary from year to year. Thus the realized vital rates in year t, which project the population vector to time t+1, are encapsulated in the matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_{t}$, where the fecundity vector is related to the fecundity vector of A, the harvest vector $\underline{\mathbf{h}}_{t}$, and the

population vector \underline{n}_t , according to

$$\ddot{n}_{i,t} = M_i \left(1 - \frac{h_{1,t}}{\omega}\right)$$
 $\sum_{j=1}^{M_i n_{j,t}} j_{j,t}$
(15)

and the survival rate vector is related to the survival rate vector of A, the harvest vector, and the population vector, according to

$$\hat{P}_{i,t} = \frac{p_i n_{i,t} - h_{i,t}}{n_{i,t}}$$
(16)

assuming that the harvest is taken at the end of each time interval.

We might project the population vector from time 0 to time t by multiplying by the succession of matrices:

$$\underline{N}_{t} = A_{t}, A_{t-2}A_{t-3}....A_{oN_{o}}$$
(17)

but this would be very awkward, owing to the involvement of all the intermediate population vectors in the succession of matrices, and it seems unlikely that the initial population vector will be known in many important practical cases.

Alternatively, we may note that in each time interval the population grows according to A and then is reduced by the current harvest:

$$\bar{\nu}^{k+1} = A\bar{\nu}^k - \bar{\nu}^k \tag{18}$$

Thus, applying this formula recursively from time 0 to t, we have

$$\underline{n}_{t} = A^{t} \underline{n}_{s} - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} A^{(t-k-1)} \underline{h}_{k}$$
(19)

Intuitively, we see that the final population vector is a sum of as many component vectors as there were harvests. The initial vector is projected through t applications of the constant matrix of natural vital rates, A. We subtract from this vector the respective harvests, where the final effect of each harvest is given by projecting this phantom population through the number of time units that elapsed since it was taken.

We observe that the initial population vector figures only once in the expansion in equation (19), and that is in the term where the constant projection matrix is applied to

it t times. From classical stable population theory, we know that as t becomes sufficiently large, the vector projected by A^tno-will converge on the stable age distribution associated with the matrix A, regardless of the age distribution in the initial vector. Formally

$$A^{t}\underline{N}_{s} = V\underline{C}^{*}$$
(20)/

where \underline{c}^* is the stable age distribution of A (it is the eigenvector associated with the dominant eigenvalue of A) calculated as the discrete time equivalent of equation (2), and v is a scalar multiplier. Only the value of the scalar is determined by the initial population: it may be calculated as the summed reproductive value in the initial population, multiplied by λ^{t} , where λ is the dominant eigenvalue of matrix A.

Thus the w variables that would be unknown if the initial population were unknown, collapse to a single unknown in their effect on the present population vector:

$$\underline{N}_{t} = V\underline{C}^{*} - \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} A^{(t-k-1)} \underline{h}_{k}$$
 (21)

CALIBRATING THE LIFE TABLE FROM THE AGE DISTRIBUTION OF A HARVESTED POPULATION

It is often very difficult to obtain estimates of population size, for the reasons discussed in section I, but reliable estimates of the relative abundances of several age classes may be readily available. Similarly, programs of mark and recapture may reveal patterns of relative survival rates, and examination of the frequencies of pregnancy in aged samples may reveal relative fecundities (but not the crucial rate of survival from birth until the first census).

Let us then imagine that we have trustworthy estimates for the relative magnitudes of all the elements of a Leslie matrix of natural vital rates, so the entire Leslie matrix is known except for a proportionality constant β . Thus where B is the matrix of relative rates, the actual Leslie matrix A is given by

$$A = \beta B \tag{22}$$

And let the population vector \underline{n}_t be known only to a proportionality constant g; and then perhaps only for some age classes:

$$\underline{N}_{t} = 9 \subseteq_{t} \tag{23}$$

where the vector of age distribution is available from data, but the multiplier g is unknown.

For a number of commercially cropped populations we have good estimates of the history of the magnitudes and age compositions of the harvests. Indeed, the estimates of harvest may be the most secure knowledge we have about many of these populations.

Substituting in equation (21) we have

Now, the stable age distribution \underline{c}^* must be the eigenvector of A, but since multiplying a matrix by a scalar does not alter its eigenvectors, \underline{c}^* may be calculated simply as the dominant eigenvector of the known matrix B.

Thus, equation (24) contains but three unknowns: these are the scalars g, v, and β . If the estimated values for the age distribution at time t are reliable for at least three age classes, then we will have enough equations to solve for the unknown, provided the equations are

linearly independent. If there has been at least some harvest, this condition is satisfied.

The form of the solution is easily seen, for example, by treating $v\beta^{t}$ as one unknown and g as another. Simple algebraic manipulation of three equations of the form

$$gc_{i,t} = (v/s^{t}) a_{i} - (b_{s,t}|s^{t-1}|b^{t-2}+\cdots+b_{t-1}|t)$$
(25)

(where a_i , $c_{i,t}$ and all the b's are knowns) will leave us with one polynomial equation of order t-1 in β , and with the other unknowns canceled out.

From Descartes' rule of signs, there will be only one real positive root for the polynomial. This root may readily be obtained by a simple iterative technique, such as Newton's method, yielding the value ß that completes our knowledge of the life table. Where more equations than necessary are in hand, the overdetermined system may be "fit" statistically, much as we fit a straight line to the data in the method of section I, rather than simply solving for the unknown. The degree of fit will then provide some estimate of internal consistency.

In general, the missing parameter in an otherwise known Leslie matrix probably will not be a multiplier that is applied to the entire matrix. This case was explored here merely for the algebraic convenience which permitted explicit formulation of equation (24). In real cases it is more likely that survival rates will be known, but that a proportionality constant to be applied to the fecundity vector, or perhaps to the survival rates of just the immatures, will be missing. Then the mathematics will be less esthetic, and the steps past equation (21) will require recourse to iterative computer techniques, but the logic of the solution remains the same.

The key feature is the step in equation (20) which replaces the w unknowns of the initial population vector with one, freeing up the remaining equations to determine unknowns which are of greater interest. Indeed, if the relative abundances of a sufficient number of age classes in \underline{c}_{t} can reliably be estimated, it becomes possible, by this means, to solve simultaneously for more than one missing parameter of the Leslie matrix.

Two assumptions of the calculations outlined in this section may not fully be met in some applications.

One is that the time span of the history of the harvests

is long enough to guarantee the convergence of the contribution of the initial population vector to stable form. In practise, it appears that convergence is quite rapid, most especially since the initial vector may not be terribly far from stable form. Should any doubts arise on this score in a particular application, the validity of the identity in equation (20) may be explored in simulations by initializing n with a plausible range of age distributions, and examining the divergence of Atn from some multiple of c*. The propagation of the resultant error through the ensuing calculations is easily traced, allowing some estimates of confidence intervals on the final parameter that is solved for.

A second problem arises if the natural component of the vital rates, that is A, varies significantly over time. Provided enough is known about the time sequence of the $\left\{A_{t}\right\}$, the essential point, that the initial age distribution need not be known remains true. That is, the formulation, while not so simple as equation (19), still will include the initial population vector in a single term only, namely $A_{t-1}A_{t-2}\cdots A_{1}A_{0} - 0 \quad , \text{ and}$ the age distribution of the ensuing contribution is essentially a property of the sequence of A's rather than of \underline{n}_{0} , as per Lopez' proof. Accordingly, carefully

constructed computer algorithms, even in this less favorable situation, can extract information about vital rates from the current age distribution and a record of harvests.

If there is suspicion of a slow systematic change in A_t, as would cour with density dependent changes if the populations size is gradually changing, it may be advantageous to truncate the population history so as to Minimize the degree of change or to restrict the change to a period when the consequences on A_t are best understood. Then the new time 0 will not be the onset of exploitation but simply the starting time of the analysis sequence. Since the initial population is in any case treated as an unknown, this shift is unimportant. What is important is that the sequence remain long enough for convergence of the initial population vector's contribution to the age distribution. Reflection on this strategy shows, incidentally, that the most recent harvest records will tend to be most critical in the calculations.

RELATED METHODOLOGIES

The estimation of population parameters from a time sequence of harvests may be carried out via techniques of comparing observed and predicted age compositions in the harvests themselves (Doubleday, 1975; Free and Beddington, 1979). In these analyses, no a priori knowledge of actual age distributions in the population is presumed. Instead. where there are k recorded harvests of a w age class population, the harvests constitute a set of k-w observations, which are fit by adjusting a set of population parameters and a set of selectivity parameters. The selectivity parameters for a given year form the vector that converts the age distribution of the harvest to the age distribution in the actual population. If the selectivity changes over time, in response for example to market and gear changes, there can, at worst, be a total of k.w selectivity parameters, which would leave no degrees of freedom for the fitting of population parameters. In practise, it is assumed that selectivity is constant for some period of time, or for some blocks of age classes, thus restoring a more favorable relation between the number of observations and the number unknowns.

If these assumptions about the selectivity of the historical harvests are valid, this technique of fitting the harvest record is superior to the method developed in this paper in that each harvest contributes additional

degrees of freedom, whereas we propose only one final comparison of an observed versus a predicted age distribution. If, on the other hand, the assumptions about historical harvest selectivities seem dubious (or inaccessible to evaluation), the method proposed in this paper permits the information content of the historical harvests to contribute to the calculation, without incorporation of objectionable assumptions, provided we can obtain an independent estimate of the final age distribution (equivalent to obtaining an independent estimate of the harvest selectivities applying to the final harvest).

It has been observed in numerical exploration of the method of simulataneously fitting selectivities and population parameters that the residual is insensitive to the age composition of the initial population (Free and Beddington, 1979). We can now understand this as a consequence of the same convergence proposerty noted in equation (18). The similarity of the underlying mathematics in the two techniques suggests a hybrid approach for situations where there is a long historical record of harvests alone, and a shorter more recent record of information (such as independent assessments of actual population composition) bearing on selectivities. Then we could use the theoretical convergence argument developed in this paper to get the population from the begining of the period of recorded harvests to the onset

of the period of availability of selectivity or age composition data, and begin accumulating residuals at that point after the manner of models that attempt to fit selectivity parameters as well.

CONCLUSIONS

Age distributions contain information about the history of birth and death rates in the population. Where the per capita age specific rates are independent of history, the age distribution converges to a characteristic form which may be calculated directly from the life table. This dependence, alternatively, permits computation of some life table parameters from the observed age distribution. Two examples are presented to illustrate the calculation of population growth rate from some minimal data including a partial age distribution.

Where the vital rates are history depedent, the age distribution of the population depends on that history, though certain convergence properties remain. For the case where the history dependence arises via a known history of time varying harvest (known only as absolute rather than per capita rates) we develop a model which utilizes the consequent partial convergence to calculate life table parameters from the record of harvests and a final observed partial age distribution. This method is related to another technique of sequential population analysis which proceeds via comparison of observed and expected harvest structures. The latter technique is preferable where harvest selectivities are understood; our new method is the only option where the history of harvest selectivities is questionable, but one

independent assessment of the population age distribution is available. In the interdediate situation where the record of harvest information is longer than the record of selectivity information, a hybrid analysis can be constructed.

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