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2 **eastern coastal area of Hokkaido, Japan**

3 **Running page head: Spatial niche partitioning among three**
4 **cetaceans**

5

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Spatial niche partitioning of marine mammals is thought to be caused
15 by dietary differences. However, due to the difficulty of conducting
16 simultaneous marine predator and prey distribution surveys at the same
17 scale, marine mammals have not been studied alongside their prey
18 distribution. To understand the spatial niche overlap between three small
19 cetaceans observed in the eastern coastal waters of Hokkaido, Japan (Pacific
20 white-sided dolphin *Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*, Dall's porpoise
21 *Phocoenoides dalli*, and harbor porpoise *Phocoena phocoena*), and the
22 mechanisms behind the differences in their distributions, visual and
23 hydroacoustic surveys, using a quantitative echosounder, were concurrently
24 conducted. A clear spatial niche overlap was observed between the Pacific

25 white-sided dolphin and Dall's porpoise, whereas the spatial overlap was
26 moderate between the harbor porpoise and the other two species. In areas
27 where Pacific white-sided dolphins were observed, potential prey was
28 abundant in a shallower layer, at approximately 80-90 m depth. On the other
29 hand, potential prey was more abundant in deeper layers in areas where
30 Dall's and harbor porpoises were observed. Water depth affected the potential
31 prey abundance at all depth layers (0-300 m), as potential prey were more
32 abundant in areas with a shallower water depth. Additionally, potential prey
33 were more abundant in shallower layers (3-200 m) than in deeper layers (200-
34 300 m), where the maximum water depth was 3000 m. The differences in
35 spatial niche among the Pacific white-sided dolphin, Dall's porpoise, and
36 harbor porpoise might cause their dietary differences, as they are epipelagic
37 feeders, midwater feeders, and both epipelagic and midwater feeders,
38 respectively.

39

40 **Keywords**

41 Spatial niche partitioning, small cetaceans, prey distribution, echosounder,
42 Pacific white-sided dolphin, Dall's porpoise, harbor porpoises

43

44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45 **1.1. Niche partitioning**

46 When species that require similar resources occur in the same
47 habitat, they must differ to some degree in their ecological requirements, or
48 niches, to avoid interspecific competition (Roughgarden 1976, Friedlaender
49 et al. 2009). Such niche partitioning affects the abundance and/or
50 distribution of animals (e.g., Litvaitis & Harrison 1989, Arlettaz 1999,
51 Nicholls & Racey 2006, Harrington et al. 2009, Stewart et al. 2010).
52 Therefore, it is important to understand the mechanisms of niche
53 partitioning among species. An example of spatial resource competition is
54 reported between two barnacle species: *Balanus balanoides* and *Chthamalus*
55 *stellatus*. When they occur sympatrically, *B. balanoides* occupies the lower
56 zone of intertidal rocky shores, where both barnacles can survive, and force
57 *C. stellatus* to the upper zone. However, once *B. balanoides* are removed, *C.*
58 *stellatus* can expand to the lower zone (Connell 1961).

59 To understand the drivers of species coexistence, it is necessary to
60 elucidate species-specific preferred conditions as well as the effects of
61 interspecific interactions at various temporospatial scales (Kadowaki 2016).
62 Some species have been observed to interact differently at different
63 temporospatial scales, for example, the foraging ranges of seabird species
64 show a large overlap at a regional scale (1000s km), but segregation in the
65 environmental factors was found at a smaller scale (100s km) (Pinaud &
66 Weimerskirch 2007).

67

68 1.2. Niche partitioning among top marine predators

69 One approach for understanding the mechanisms that allow the
70 coexistence of multiple species is finding some order from their distribution
71 patterns and analyzing the mechanisms behind those patterns (Kadowaki
72 2016). For apex predators in marine ecosystems, it is particularly difficult to
73 reveal these mechanisms experimentally, as can be done in a laboratory, e.g.
74 by changing the environmental conditions of two algal species (e.g. Tilman et
75 al. 1981). Thus the distribution patterns of multiple species have been studied
76 instead (e.g. Gowans & Whitehead 1995, Kasamatsu et al. 2000, Gross et al.
77 2009). Integrated analyses of the spatial distribution patterns and habitats
78 of small cetacean species, some of the top marine predators, have revealed
79 that they are linked with abiotic factors, such as water depth, slope, distance
80 from land, and water temperature. These differences may be related to the
81 different feeding habits of each species (Bearzi 2005, Parra 2006).

82 For example, white-beaked dolphins (*Lagenorhynchus albirostris*)
83 occur further from the shore and in significantly deeper water than short-
84 beaked common dolphins (*Delphinus delphis*) in the Minch, Scotland (Weir
85 et al. 2009). Their habitat partitioning could be related to differences in
86 their diets, as white-beaked dolphins are predominantly a demersal
87 predator, while short-beaked common dolphins are epipelagic predators
88 (Weir et al. 2009). However, in small cetaceans overlapping spatiotemporal
89 niches are difficult to evaluate and discuss in terms of differences in diet,
90 because to do this it is necessary to conduct cetacean sighting surveys
91 simultaneously with direct prey sampling such as by net tows or fishing, in

92 a broad area, at the same fine scale. This may lead to a lack of scientific
93 evidence supporting the hypothesis that cetacean habitat partitioning
94 occurs due to prey distribution, which is affected by the marine
95 environment. One possible solution is spatially surveying prey distributions
96 using an echosounder and net sampling alongside cetacean visual surveys,
97 as conducted by Friedlaender et al. (2009). This study made it possible to
98 understand the relationship between whale distribution and krill
99 abundance. Thus, echosounders can be used for a variety of studies on the
100 distribution and ecology of cetaceans, because of the ability to estimate prey
101 abundance concurrently with cetacean visual surveys (e.g., Tynan et al.
102 2005, Doksæter et al. 2008).

103 Most habitat partitioning studies evaluate what differences there are
104 in parameters of habitats utilized by sympatric species, such as the distance
105 from the shore, water depth, and sea surface temperature (e.g., Weir et al.
106 2009). However, few quantifiable studies have examined the extent to which
107 the spatial niches of sympatric species overlap (Friedlaender et al. 2009). The
108 quantitative evaluation of spatial niche overlap will provide information for
109 the evaluation of regional and seasonal differences of interspecific
110 relationships and allow us to forecast future dynamics in cetacean ecology.

111

112 **1.3. Probability of niche overlap among the 3 small cetaceans in the eastern** 113 **coastal area of Hokkaido**

114 The eastern coast of Hokkaido is a highly productive feeding area for
115 several top predators, such as killer whales (*Orcinus orca*) and minke whales

116 *(Balaenoptera acutorostrata)*. Small cetaceans such as the Pacific white-sided
117 dolphin (*Lagenorhynchus obliquidens*) and Dall's porpoise (*Phocoenoides*
118 *dalli*) migrate from the southern coast of Japan and are frequently observed
119 on the eastern coast of Hokkaido in the fall. Harbor porpoises (*Phocoena*
120 *phocoena*) are also observed in the fall, although compared to the former
121 species, they are difficult to observe from ships. These three species are
122 considered to feed in this area. They use a similar range of sea surface
123 temperatures (7-22 °C, 7-18 °C, and 3-22 °C, respectively), and have a broad
124 diet of surface and mesopelagic prey (Wilke et al. 1953, Miyazaki et al. 1991,
125 Gaskin et al. 1993, Ohizumi et al. 2000, Matsuda & Matsuishi 2012, Matsuda
126 2017). Although the Pacific white-sided dolphin and Dall's porpoise were
127 divided as a different habitat group at a broad scale (1° × 1° grid) in the north
128 Pacific (Kanaji et al. 2016), they coexist in coastal areas, such as the eastern
129 coast of Hokkaido, western coast of Canada, and Californian coast (Yen et al.
130 2004, Tynan et al. 2005, Miyashita 2013). Therefore, the spatiotemporal
131 niches of these three species could potentially overlap in coastal areas.

132

133 **1.4. Objectives**

134 Our goal was to understand the mechanisms behind the distribution
135 of the Pacific white-sided dolphin, Dall's porpoise, and harbor porpoise around
136 the eastern coast of Hokkaido. In this study, we conducted on-board sightings
137 and hydroacoustic monitoring surveys to (1) understand the habitat
138 characteristics of the three cetaceans, (2) generate a presence probability map
139 and calculate the spatial overlap index among the three species, and (3)

140 understand the potential prey distribution and environment.

141

142 **2. MATERIALS & METHODS**

143 **2.1. Field study**

144 Visual surveys were conducted from the T/S Ushio-maru (Hokkaido
145 University, 286 Gross tonnage) around the eastern coastal area of
146 Hokkaido, in September and October of 2009 and 2011-2015 (Table 1, Fig.
147 1). The southern part of the survey area was the Pacific coast of southeast
148 Hokkaido, which is an area with a gentle continental slope (Kagami 1990).
149 The central part of the survey area was Nemuro Bay, which has a shallow
150 water depth of less than 50 m. The northern part of the survey area was the
151 coastal area of the Shiretoko Peninsula, a UNESCO World Heritage site,
152 which has a submarine canyon with a water depth greater than 2000 m
153 (Yamaji 1985).

154 Visual surveys were conducted from the vessel's upper bridge
155 (approximately 6 m above sea level) while the vessel was moving, from one
156 hour after sunrise until one hour before sunset, weather permitting (Beaufort
157 scale <5 and visibility >1 km). During the survey, two observers, at least one
158 of which had previous experience in identifying marine mammals, including
159 the three study species, constantly scanned the ocean's surface using 8-power
160 binoculars.

161 In the survey area, two color morphs of Dall's porpoise are present:
162 *dalli* and *truei* types (Amano and Hayano 2007). However, we did not
163 distinguish between these two types due to time constraints for identification
164 purposes.

165 Positions in latitude and longitude were recorded whenever the visual

166 survey was started or stopped. When the observers detected cetaceans, the
167 species name, time, position in latitude and longitude, distance from the ship,
168 angle from the front of the ship, and number of individuals were recorded.
169 Distance from the ship was estimated by eye. Each researcher trained to
170 estimate distance using ship radar or laser rangefinder (NIKON, Laser
171 1200S) outside of survey hours. In principle, the ship did not approach any
172 sightings.

173 Hydroacoustic data was recorded to estimate prey distribution, using
174 a Simrad EK 60 quantitative echosounder (38 kHz, Simrad, Norway) (Table
175 2), concurrently with the visual survey. The echosounder transducer was
176 installed on the bottom of the ship and the beam pointed downward. We used
177 38 kHz backscatter as an approximate measure of fish (Tynan et al. 2005).
178 Although fish species were not identified in our study, acoustic studies of
179 walleye pollock (*Gadus chalcogrammus*) and California headlightfish
180 (*Diaphus theta*) have been previously conducted in this survey area (Honda
181 et al. 2004, Yasuma et al. 2010). Additionally, Japanese anchovy (*Engraulis*
182 *japonicus*), Japanese sardine (*Sardinops melanostictus*), chum salmon
183 (*Oncorhynchus keta*), Pacific saury (*Colobabis saira*), walleye pollock, Pacific
184 cod (*Gadus microcephalus*), and Japanese flying squid (*Todarodes pacificus*)
185 were caught by a local fishery (Hokkaido Government Office 2015). All of
186 these species, except chum salmon, were known to be detected by 38 kHz
187 echosounder (Kawabata 1999, Fujino et al. 2010, Murase et. al. 2012,
188 Weinberg et al. 2016). There are not published data describing the acoustic
189 characteristics of chum salmon at 38 kHz, but unpublished data suggests they

190 can also be detected by 38 kHz echosounder (Minami et al. unpublished data)
191 and previous studies demonstrate that salmonid fish can be detected at 28~70
192 kHz (Suzuki and Sonoda 1972, Anma and Sano 1975, Mukai and Iida 1996,
193 Sawada et al. 2012). Therefore, these fishes were considered to be potential
194 prey that the echosounder might detect.

195 In recent years, increasing levels of anthropogenic noise in the marine
196 environment, including echosounders, have led to concern about the impact
197 upon marine animals. The impact of echosounders upon Pacific white-sided
198 dolphins and Dall's porpoises has not been studied, but we observed bow-
199 riding in most groups of Pacific white-sided dolphins and some groups of
200 Dall's porpoises while the acoustic surveys were conducted. Harbor porpoises
201 seem to avoid ships due to ship noise, not due to the presence of an
202 echosounder (Dyndo et al. 2015). The ship did not approach any sightings
203 during sighting surveys, therefore the effect of the echosounder and ship noise
204 upon the three cetaceans was considered to be minimal.

205

206 **2.2. Measuring the spatial niche overlap**

207 Presence probability maps were generated using Maxent software
208 (Ver. 3. 3. 3, Philips et al. 2006). Presence-only modelling, such as Maxent and
209 ecological niche factor analysis (Hirzel et al. 2002, Phillips et al. 2006), can
210 estimate presence probability using presence-only data or using background
211 data as pseudo-absence, and thus is suited for data in which absence data is
212 not available or is of questionable value. Visual survey cannot observe all
213 cetaceans perfectly even on the survey line because cetaceans spend almost

214 time underwater. Therefore, we used presence only modelling in this study.
215 Additionally, Maxent performs better using smaller sample sizes than other
216 algorithms (Wisz et al. 2008). Therefore, this algorithm is suitable for the
217 harbor porpoise, which has a small sample size. Those contributed to our
218 choice to use Maxent, a presence-only model. The positions of each species
219 during the survey period were the response variables, with the water depth,
220 slope, and distance from land included as the explanatory variables. Mesh
221 bathymetric data from an average water depth of 500 m was obtained from
222 the Japan Oceanographic Data Center (<http://www.jodc.go.jp>). The slope was
223 calculated from the water depth using the Generic Mapping Tools software
224 (Wessel and Smith 1998). Explanatory variables were averaged in 4 km grids using
225 ArcGIS 10 (ESRI).

226 We repeated the bootstrapping and Maxent procedure 100 times for
227 each species, with 25% of the presence data used as the test data. The results
228 are presented as an average of the 100 Maxent models. The area under the
229 curve (AUC) was used to evaluate the model performance (Manel et al. 2001).
230 AUC values of 0.5–0.7 were interpreted as indicating low accuracy, while
231 values of 0.7–0.9 indicated useful applications, and values >0.9 indicated a
232 high accuracy (Swets 1988).

233 A spatial niche overlap index, Schoener's D (Schoener 1968), was
234 calculated for the three species from each presence probability map, using the
235 ENM tool (ver. 1. 3) (Warren et al. 2008). This index ranged from 0 to 1, with
236 0 indicating that species have completely discordant ecological niche models
237 and 1 indicating that species have identical ecological niche models.

238 In addition to creating a presence probability map using Maxent, we
239 compared the three environmental parameters among the cells in which the
240 three species were present using the Steel-Dwass test. The Steel-Dwass test
241 is used to verify the difference among values in three or more groups (e.g.
242 Honda et al. 2013, Inoue et al. 2017).

243

244 **2.3. Overlap between each small cetacean and their potential prey**

245 The hydroacoustic data was analyzed with Echoview 5.0 software
246 (Myriax, Australia). The volume backscatter strength (Sv:dB) was calculated
247 every 50 m along the survey line, at depth intervals of 10 m, to estimate the
248 potential prey abundance. Sv indicates the strength of backscatter per unit
249 volume, so the higher the Sv value, the more fish are present.

250 Due to noise caused by waves near the sea surface and sea floor, only
251 backscatter between 3 m below the sea surface and 2 m above the sea floor
252 was used. The maximum depth of calculation was defined as 300 m, in
253 accordance with the maximum diving depth of the three cetaceans (Hall 1970,
254 Westgate et al. 1995, Otani et al. 1998). We then averaged the Sv for every 10
255 m depth within a 2 km radius from the positions where cetaceans were
256 observed.

257 We generated statistical models to understand the relationships
258 between prey abundance and depth for each cetacean species, using
259 generalized additive mixed models (GAMM) with a smooth spline function.
260 GAMMs were chosen because they can express non-linear relationships. For
261 all models a Gaussian distribution was used for error structures and the link

262 function was identity. The response variable was the averaged Sv and the
263 explanatory variable was the depth layer. Each observation as categorical
264 data was included as a random effect.

265

266 **2.4. Environmental factors influencing the potential prey distribution at each** 267 **depth layer**

268 The Sv data was partitioned into depth layers (L1-L6) as follows: L1:
269 3-<50 m; L2: 50-<100 m; L3: 100-<150 m; L4: 150-<200 m; L5: 200-<250 m;
270 and L6: 250-<300 m. Layer thickness was defined as 50 m according to the
271 most frequent diving depth layer of Dall's porpoises and harbor porpoises
272 (Hanson and Baird 1998, Otani et al. 1998, Teilmann et al. 2007). The diving
273 behavior of the Pacific white-sided dolphin has not been well-studied, but they
274 were found at depths shallower than 50 m in this survey. This further
275 supported our decision to choose 50 m bins. Environmental data, water depth,
276 slope, and distance from land, were then obtained at every 50 m using ArcGIS
277 v.10 (ESRI).

278 We generated statistical models to understand the relationships
279 between prey abundance and each of the environmental factors, using
280 GAMMs. GAMMs were chosen as they can express non-linear relationships
281 and include the random effect of month. In all models a Gaussian distribution
282 was used for error structures and the link function was identity link function.
283 The response variable was the averaged Sv and the explanatory variables
284 were water depth, slope, and distance from the land. Multicollinearity among
285 the explanatory variables was checked using the variance inflation factor

286 before modelling. Variable selection was performed using the Akaike
287 information criterion (AIC).

288

289 **3. RESULTS**

290 **3.1. Visual survey**

291 In total, we observed 230 Pacific white-sided dolphins in 147 schools,
292 1282 Dall's porpoises in 266 schools, and 55 harbor porpoises in 24 schools
293 (Table 1, Fig. 2). Pacific white-sided dolphins were mainly observed in
294 Nemuro Bay and the coastal waters of southeast Hokkaido, whereas Dall's
295 porpoises were found off southeast Hokkaido and in the coastal waters of the
296 Shiretoko Peninsula. Harbor porpoises were observed sparsely across the
297 entire survey area.

298

299 **3.2. Environmental factors influencing the three cetaceans**

300 Pacific white-sided dolphins were observed in the shallowest areas,
301 where the water depth was shallower than approximately 100 m, whereas
302 Dall's porpoises were observed in the deepest areas (Fig. 3a). There were
303 significant differences in the water depths at which the different species were
304 observed, including between Dall's porpoise and Pacific white-sided dolphins
305 (Steel-Dwass test, $P < 0.05$, Table 3) and between Dall's porpoise and the
306 harbor porpoise (Steel-Dwass test, $P < 0.05$, Table 3).

307 Harbor porpoises were found significantly closest to land (Steel-Dwass
308 test, $P < 0.05$, Table 3), whereas Dall's porpoises were found furthest from
309 land (Fig. 3b). Pacific white-sided dolphins were observed in the areas with
310 the shallowest slope, but no significant difference was found between the
311 Pacific white-sided dolphin and harbor porpoise (Fig. 3a). Dall's porpoises
312 were observed in the steepest areas (Fig. 3c), but there was no significant

313 difference between Dall's porpoise and the harbor porpoise.

314 The presence probability of the Pacific white-sided dolphin was high
315 in areas that were close to land with shallow water (Table 4, Fig. 4-5). In
316 particular, the presence probability was >0.6 in Nemuro Bay (Fig. 5a). On the
317 other hand, the presence probability of Dall's porpoise was high in areas
318 where the water depth was greater; for example, the presence probability was
319 >0.7 in the coastal waters of the Shiretoko Peninsula (Fig. 5b). The presence
320 probability of the harbor porpoise was approximately 0.5 in areas close to land
321 (Fig. 5c). The AUC of all habitat models were higher than 0.8. The habitat
322 model of the Pacific white-sided dolphin had the highest accuracy (AUC > 0.9 ,
323 Table 4). The spatial niche overlap index, Schoener's D, was low between the
324 Pacific white-sided dolphin and Dall's porpoise (0.32), higher between Dall's
325 porpoise and the harbor porpoise (0.51), and highest between the Pacific
326 white-sided dolphin and harbor porpoise (0.70).

327

328 **3.3. Differences in depths of potential prey where the 3 cetaceans were** 329 **observed**

330 In areas where Pacific white-sided dolphins were observed, potential
331 prey were abundant in the shallower layers, being most abundant at
332 approximately 80-90 m depth (Fig. 6a). On the other hand, potential prey
333 were more abundant in the deeper layers in areas where Dall's and harbor
334 porpoises were observed (Fig. 6b, c).

335

336 **3.4. Environmental factors influencing the distribution of potential prey at**

337 **each depth layer**

338 Water depth was included in all models under model selection as were
339 all depth layers (L1-L6) (Table 5). The potential prey were more abundant in
340 areas with shallower water than in areas with deeper water (Fig. 7). Potential
341 prey were more abundant in areas with shallower (<1000 m) and deeper (4500
342 m) water depth than middle (3000 m) water depth in the upper depth layers
343 (L1-2) (Fig. 7a, 7b). Where the slope was steeper, the potential prey were
344 detected more abundantly in the deeper depth layers (150-200, 200-250, and
345 250-300 m) (Fig. 7). Potential prey were more abundant in the shallower
346 layers (L1-4: 3-200 m) than in the deeper layers (L5-6: 200-300 m).

347 4. DISCUSSION

348 4.1. Distribution of the three cetaceans

349 Although our study was conducted to understand the spatial niche
350 overlap among three small cetacean species, their spatial distribution and
351 habitat is essential information around Japan, where few studies on the
352 habitats of small cetaceans have been conducted. Therefore, we also
353 discussed the spatial distribution and habitat of the three cetaceans.

354 Our study revealed that Pacific white-sided dolphins used shallower
355 areas. However, this tendency is rare in other regions. For example, in the
356 Tsugaru Strait, which was previously the only area where the distribution
357 and habitat of Pacific white-sided dolphins were studied around Japan, there
358 was no clear relationship between water depth and dolphin distribution
359 (Maezawa et al. 2014, Iwahara et al. 2017). On the West Coast of North
360 America, in the California Current region, Pacific white-sided dolphins were
361 observed at a depth of 200-1000 m or on the continental slope, rather than at
362 shallower depths (Gowans & Whitehead 1995, Yen et al. 2004, Tynan et al.
363 2005). In this region, deeper waters are also areas of high productivity due to
364 upwelling (Tynan et al. 2005). Therefore, Pacific white-sided dolphins were
365 considered to use greater depths in the western coastal area of North America,
366 compared with our survey area.

367 In addition to prey availability, breeding might be another reason why
368 Pacific white-sided dolphins use shallower depths in our study area. The
369 reproductive success of female Indian Ocean bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops*
370 sp.) in Australia can be predicted by water depth (Mann et al. 2000).

371 Shallower depths might allow mothers and calves to detect and avoid
372 predatory sharks. The birth period of Pacific white-sided dolphins is thought
373 to be from May to September (Black 1994, Ferrero & Walker 1996, Ishikawa
374 et al. 2013), and a group including a mother-calf pair was observed in this
375 area (Iwahara personal observation). Killer whales, a potential predator of
376 the Pacific white-sided dolphin, were also observed in this area, especially in
377 the 200 m isobath and at depths of 300-500 m (Sato et al. 2006, Sasamori et
378 al. 2013, Miyamoto et al. 2017). Therefore, Pacific white-sided dolphins might
379 use shallower areas to avoid predatory killer whales. Our results that Pacific
380 white-sided dolphins use shallower areas also suggest that they could be
381 impacted by human activity, such as coastal fisheries.

382 Dall's porpoises were observed in deeper areas, but they were found
383 near the coastal area of the Shiretoko Peninsula. The coastal area is steep,
384 with a water depth of more than 3000 m. Dall's porpoise was likely observed
385 here as it is mainly a mesopelagic predator.

386 The breeding area of Dall's porpoise is considered to be the Okhotsk
387 Sea, which is located north of our study area (Amano & Kuramochi 1992,
388 Amano & Hayano 2007, Fig. 1), and mother-calf pairs are rarely observed in
389 our survey area (Kasuya 2011). Therefore, Dall's porpoise may not need to
390 remain in shallower areas for breeding.

391 The distribution and habitat of harbor porpoises is critically
392 important information, because harbor porpoises are frequently bycaught by
393 fisheries (e.g., Barlow & Hanan 1995, Vinther & Larsen 2004). Whilst their
394 abundance has been estimated in the North Atlantic Ocean and Northeast

395 Pacific Ocean (e.g., Stenson 2003, Hobbs & Waite 2010), their abundance and
396 habitat use have not been well studied around Japan. Their seasonal
397 migration around Japan was presumed from stranding data (Taguchi et al.
398 2010), because they were rarely observed from ferries or dolphin-watching
399 tour boats aimed at the study of cetacean distributions (Ichimori et al. 2013).
400 Therefore, our study provides valuable information for understanding the
401 distribution and habitat of harbor porpoises around Japan. Our study reports
402 that harbor porpoises were observed in areas close to land. The results
403 indicate that harbor porpoises could be impacted by human activity, such as
404 coastal fisheries (Taguchi et al. 2010).

405

406 **4.2. Spatial niche overlap among the three species**

407 Our results show that the spatial niche overlap between the Pacific
408 white-sided dolphin and the Dall's porpoise was comparatively low, with
409 Pacific white-sided dolphins observed in shallower waters (< 100 m), while
410 Dall's porpoises were found in deeper waters. Although the diets of the two
411 species have not been studied in the eastern coastal area of Hokkaido in
412 recent years, Pacific white-sided dolphins mainly feed on epipelagic prey and
413 Dall's porpoises mainly feed on mesopelagic prey in the western and
414 southwestern coastal areas of Hokkaido (Matsuda 2017). Ohizumi et al.
415 (2000) also reported that Dall's porpoises feed on mesopelagic prey, like the
416 walleye pollock and magistrate armhook squid (*Berryteuthis magister*), in the
417 northwestern and northeastern coastal areas of Hokkaido where epipelagic
418 prey is not abundant. However, Dall's porpoises also feed on epipelagic prey

419 if they are available (Ohizumi et al. 2000).

420 The shallow water depths, where Pacific white-sided dolphins were
421 observed, had higher prey abundance than greater depths, where Dall's
422 porpoises were observed. In areas with deep water, where Dall's porpoises
423 were observed, potential prey were more abundant in the shallower layers
424 (L1-3) than the deeper layers (L4-6). Therefore, differences in Pacific white-
425 sided dolphin and Dall's porpoise diet may explain the difference in spatial
426 niche.

427 Potential prey were more abundant in shallower areas than deeper
428 areas in all depth layers (L1-L6). Potential prey were more abundant in the
429 surface layers (L1-2) in areas where the water depth reached deeper than
430 3000 m, than in the areas where water depth was approximately 2000 m. In
431 areas where the water depth was 2000 m, the potential prey in the shallower
432 layers (L1-4) was more abundant than in the deeper layers (L5-6). Therefore,
433 our results suggested that Dall's porpoises use deep water areas where
434 epipelagic and mesopelagic prey are available. In terms of physiology, Dall's
435 porpoises can dive for a longer duration than Pacific white-sided dolphins due
436 to the differences in their blood volume, hemoglobin, heart weight, and
437 hematocrit (Ridgway & Johnston 1966, Reed et al. 2000). Therefore, Dall's
438 porpoises may feed on prey in deeper layers where there is less competitive
439 with large groups of Pacific white-sided dolphins. Dall's porpoises may even
440 avoid Pacific white-sided dolphins in shallow areas, although potential prey
441 are abundant. However, further study is needed to validate this hypothesis.

442 The spatial overlap between the harbor porpoise and both the other

443 two species was moderate. Harbor porpoises were observed in areas close to
444 the shore and their distribution was mostly not influenced by water depth,
445 while the distribution of the other two species was. Although harbor porpoises
446 have a varied diet, they have a higher tendency to feed on benthic prey
447 compared to the other two species (Otani 1999, Matsuda 2017). The
448 distribution and abundance of benthic animals are difficult to measure using
449 an echosounder; therefore, the relationship between harbor porpoises and
450 their prey might not have been assessed properly if they feed on benthic prey
451 in shallower areas. A varied diet including benthic prey probably allows
452 harbor porpoises to coexist with the other two species.

453 In addition to diet partitioning, the eastern coast of Hokkaido is a
454 highly productive area (Yasuma et al. 2010); therefore, this potential
455 abundance of prey might allow them to coexist in the same areas. Additionally,
456 a low number of harbor porpoises might explain why their spatial niche
457 overlapped more with the other two species. Although the distribution of
458 harbor porpoises is not well-understood, Kanaji et al. (2017) reported that
459 harbor porpoises were more abundant in the Okhotsk Sea than in our survey
460 area from July to September. In the northwest Atlantic Ocean, seasonal
461 movement of harbor porpoises has been observed; harbor porpoises are
462 usually observed in shallow nearshore waters, but they migrate offshore in
463 winter (Read et al. 1996). Therefore, our study area might not be the primary
464 distribution area of harbor porpoises in the fall, which may be why a low
465 number of harbor porpoises were observed.

466 In this study, we examined the distribution of three cetacean species

467 and their potential prey only during daylight hours. Differences in behavior
468 and depth between day and night have been observed in many cetaceans (e.g.
469 Henderson et al. 2011, Ishii et al. 2017), and potential prey fishes also conduct
470 vertical migration (e.g. Yasuma et al. 2010, Honda et al. 2004). Therefore, to
471 understand the entire mechanism behind the distribution of these three small
472 cetacean species we must study the distribution and diving depth of cetaceans
473 at night, for example by using satellite tracking and bio-logging methods (e.g.
474 Saijo et al. 2017, Ishii et al. 2017).

475 Acoustic surveys are the standard method to estimate the distribution
476 and abundance of fish and zooplankton and are valuable in estimating the
477 occurrence of potential prey at the same time as visual surveys from ships.
478 However, the impact of echosounders upon marine mammals is not well
479 understood. The vocalization behavior of beaked whales did not differ in
480 periods before, during, or after echosounder deployment (Vires 2011). On the
481 other hand, short-finned pilot whales (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*) changed
482 their heading more frequently when an echosounder was active (Quick et al.
483 2016). Although echosounders usually generate lower-level sound than
484 military sonar or airguns used in marine geological surveys, which stranding
485 events have been linked with (Taylor et al. 2004, Filadelfo et al. 2009, Lurton
486 and DeRuiter 2011), the impact upon marine mammals, such as the risk of
487 auditory system damage or interference with their echolocation, must be
488 studied. In addition, whether echosounders attract or repulse marine
489 mammals is not understood (Doksæter et al. 2009, Quick et al. 2016). Future
490 research should investigate the effect of echosounders on the detection of

491 marine mammals when conducting visual and acoustic surveys
492 simultaneously.

493 Our study investigated the distribution of three small cetaceans
494 with overlapping spatial niches, by quantification of the spatial niche
495 overlap and comparing the potential prey distribution and habitat using an
496 echosounder. Based on our findings we postulated that despite broad spatial
497 overlap, habitat partitioning is evident with respect to distance to shore,
498 bottom depth, slope, and vertical prey distribution, likely reflecting
499 differences in foraging strategies and diet. Our study also provided
500 important information relevant to the conservation and management of
501 three small cetaceans in the eastern coastal area of Hokkaido, where
502 fisheries are thriving.

503

504

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800

801 Table 1. Details of the surveys for the 3 small cetaceans around Hokkaido, and the results of the visual survey

802

Year	Month	Days	Period (day)	Distance (km)	Time (hr:min)	Pacific white- sided dolphin	Dall's porpoise	Harbor porpoise
						(Individuals per100 km/Groups per 100 km)		
2009	9	5-6, 8-11, 14-17	10	1028	65:42	230/25 22.37/2.43	735/131 71.50/12.74	6/4 0.58/0.39
2009	10	1-7	7	776	39:25	492/27 63.40/3.48	207/59 26.68/7.60	3/1 0.39/0.13
2011	10	4-10	7	502	19:46	- -	111/25 22.11/4.98	- -
2012	9	19-23, 26	6	726	38:25	166/21 22.87/2.89	88/19 12.12/2.62	1/1 0.14/0.14
2012	10	10, 12-14	4	233	12:05	200/1 85.84/0.43	16/7 6.87/3.00	- -
2013	9	15, 18-23	7	552	29:36	145/8 26.27/1.45	35/9 6.34/1.63	10/4 1.81/0.72
2013	10	19-20, 23, 26	4	108	11:55	- -	1/1 0.93/0.93	- -
2014	9	13-19	7	746	41:05	363/39 48.66/5.23	20/2 2.68/0.27	25/9 3.35/1.21
2015	10	14-17, 19	5	695	36:11	402/26 57.84/3.74	69/13 9.93/1.87	10/5 1.44/0.72
Total						1998/147 37.23/2.74	1282/266 23.89/4.96	55/24 1.02/0.45

803 Table 2. Parameters of the quantitative echosounder (EK60)

Parameter	Value
Frequency (kHz)	38
Pulse duration (ms)	1.024
Minor axis beam width (°)	7.40
Major axis beam width (°)	7.65

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807 Table 3. Results of the Steel-Dwass tests for the three species and each of the
 808 environmental factors. PWD: Pacific white-sided dolphin; HP: harbor
 809 porpoise; DP: Dall's porpoise. *p < 0.05

Combination	t value	p value
Depth		
PWD vs. HP	0.615	8.11×10^{-1}
PWD vs. DP	7.661	* 7.34×10^{-14}
DP vs. HP	4.032	* 1.64×10^{-4}
Distance from land		
PWD vs. HP	3.977	* 2.06×10^{-4}
PWD vs. DP	1.189	4.60×10^{-1}
DP vs. HP	4.202	* 7.83×10^{-5}
Slope		
PWD vs. HP	2.030	1.05×10^{-1}
PWD vs. DP	7.706	* 5.64×10^{-14}
DP vs. HP	2.096	9.07×10^{-2}

810

811 Table 4. Results of the Maxent mapping. AUC: Area under the curve, PC:
 812 Percent contribution, and PI: Permutation importance. Dland indicates
 813 distance from the land.

814

815

	Dall's porpoise (AUC 0.820)		Pacific white-sided dolphin (AUC 0.912)		Harbor porpoise (AUC 0.826)	
	PC	PI	PC	PI	PC	PI
Depth	40.2	45.3	70.7	84.8	12.2	12.6
Slope	37.2	42.0	22.9	7.3	4.7	13.5
Dland	22.6	12.7	6.5	7.9	83.1	73.9

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818 Table 5. Model selection results of the GAMM.

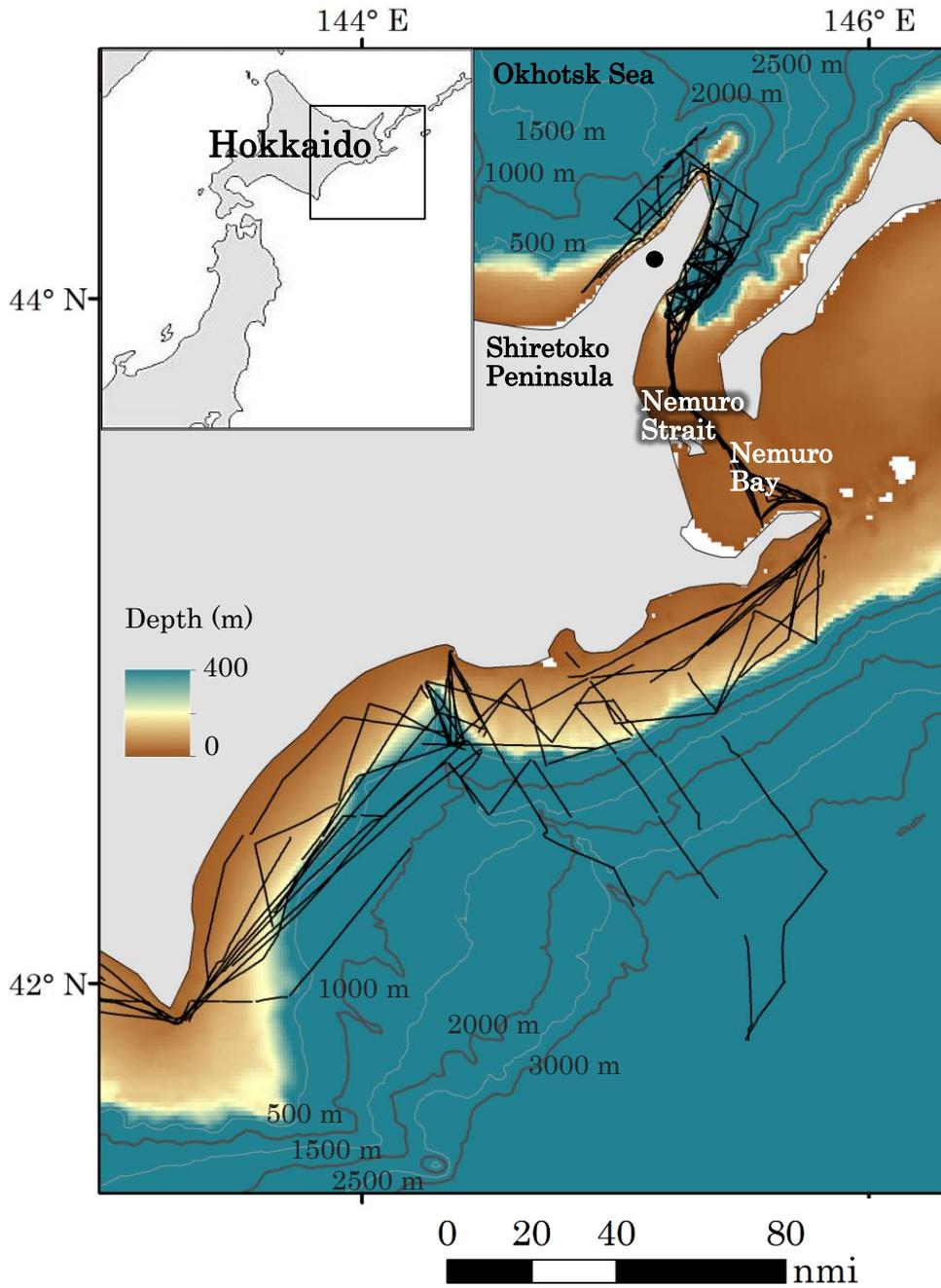
Layers	Depth	Dland	Slope	AIC	Delta AIC
L1 (3~50m)					
	+	+		10640.31	-
L2 (50~100m)					
	+		+	7543.36	-
	+	+	+	7543.45	0.09
L3 (100~150m)					
	+	+	+	6201.19	-
L4 (150~200m)					
	+	+	+	5031.99	-
L5 (200~250m)					
	+	+	+	3861.12	-
L6 (250~300m)					
	+	+	+	3410.19	-

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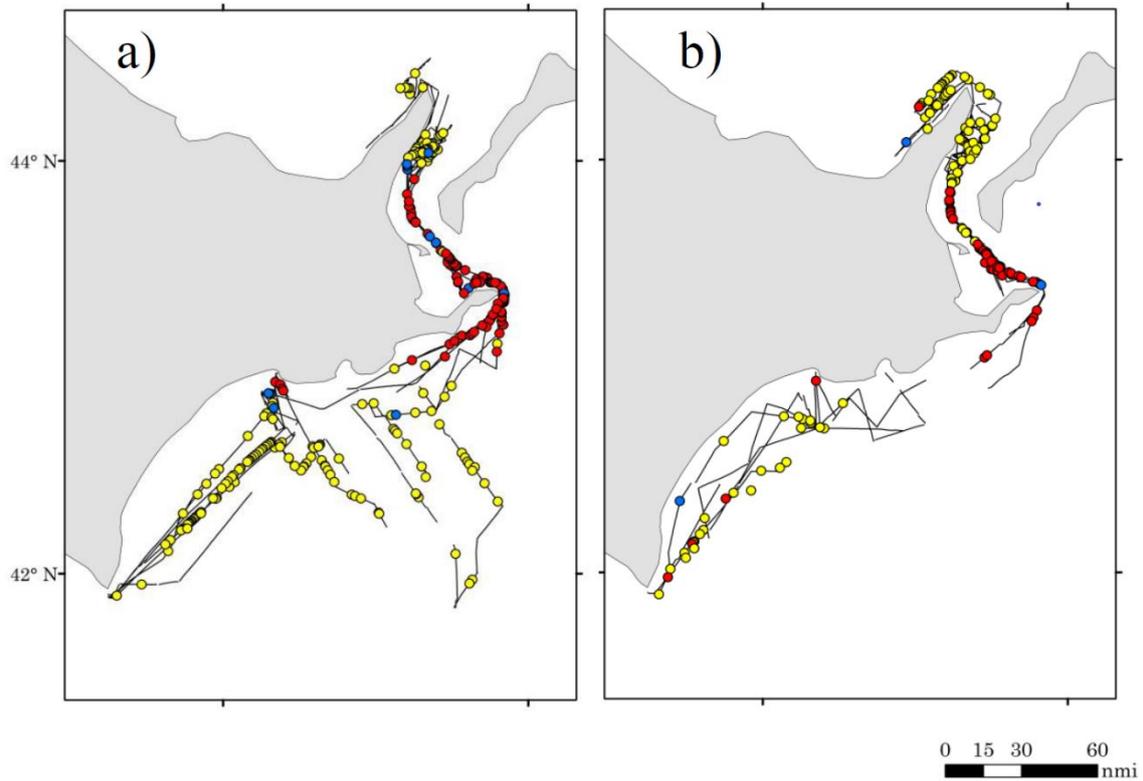
820 The lowest AIC model and models competing with the lowest AIC model

821 ($\Delta AIC \leq 2$) are presented. Selected explanatory variables were indicated “+”.

822 Dland indicated distance from the land.



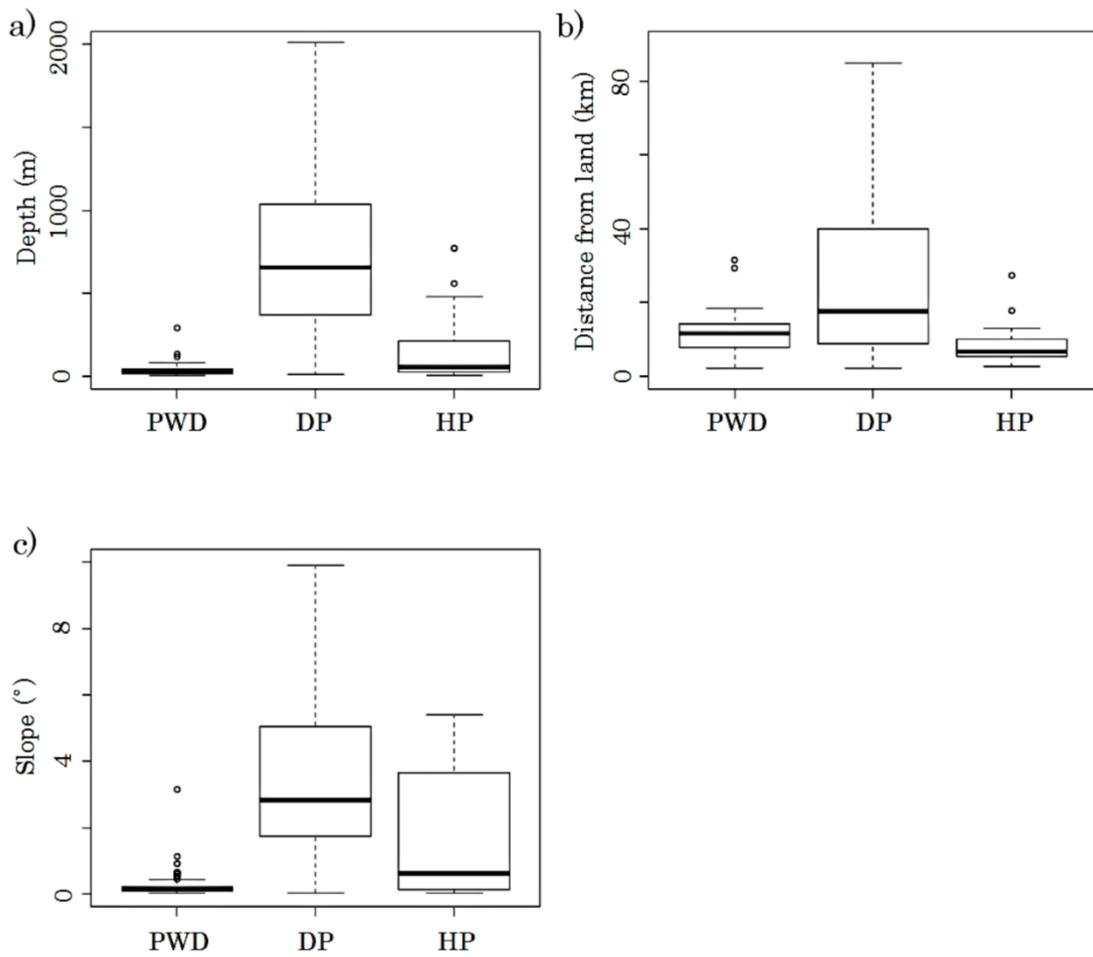
824 Fig. 1 Survey area of the eastern coastal waters of Hokkaido. The black lines
 825 indicate the survey lines and gray lines indicate isobaths.



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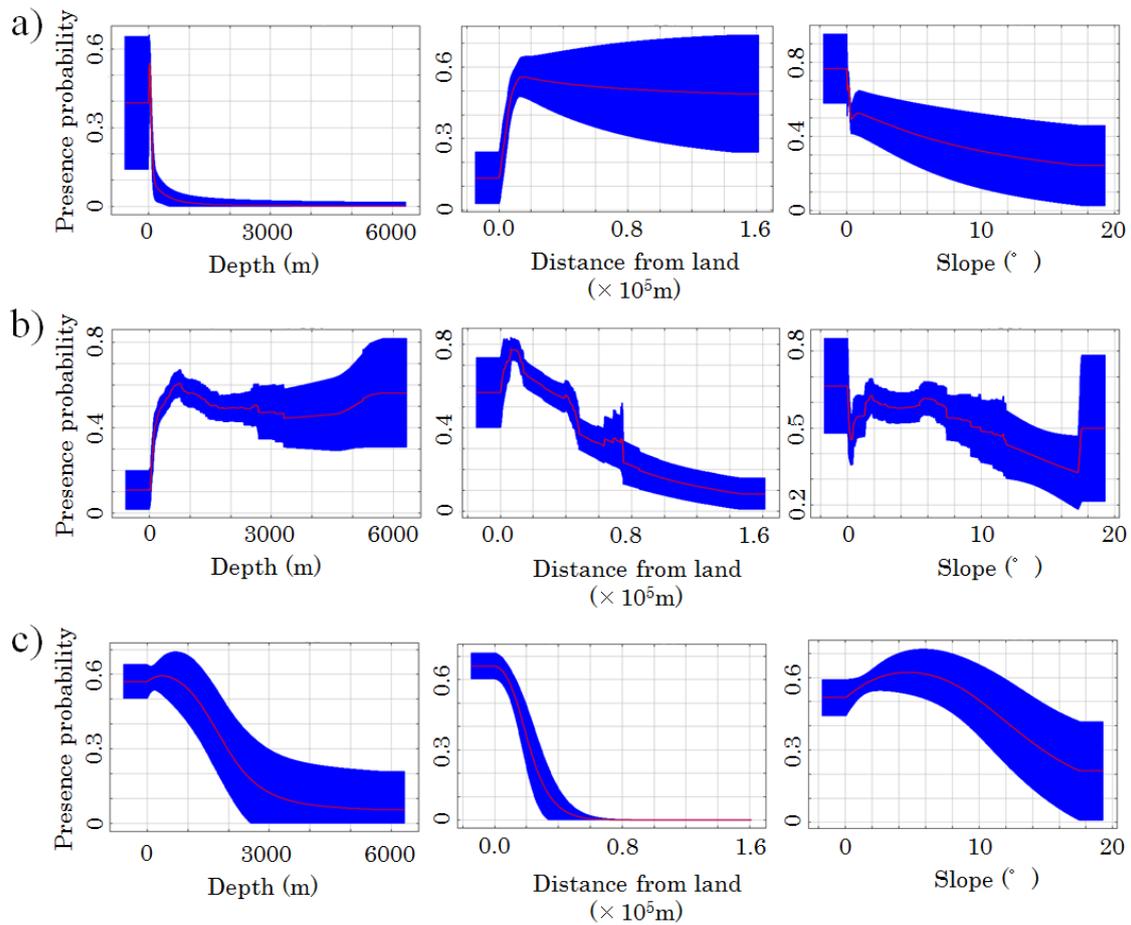
828 Fig. 2 Visual survey for small cetaceans in the eastern coastal area of
829 Hokkaido in a) September in 2009, 2012, 2013 and 2014, and b) October in
830 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2015. The black line indicates the survey line; red
831 circles indicate the Pacific white-sided dolphin; yellow circles indicate Dall's
832 porpoise; blue circles indicate harbor porpoises.

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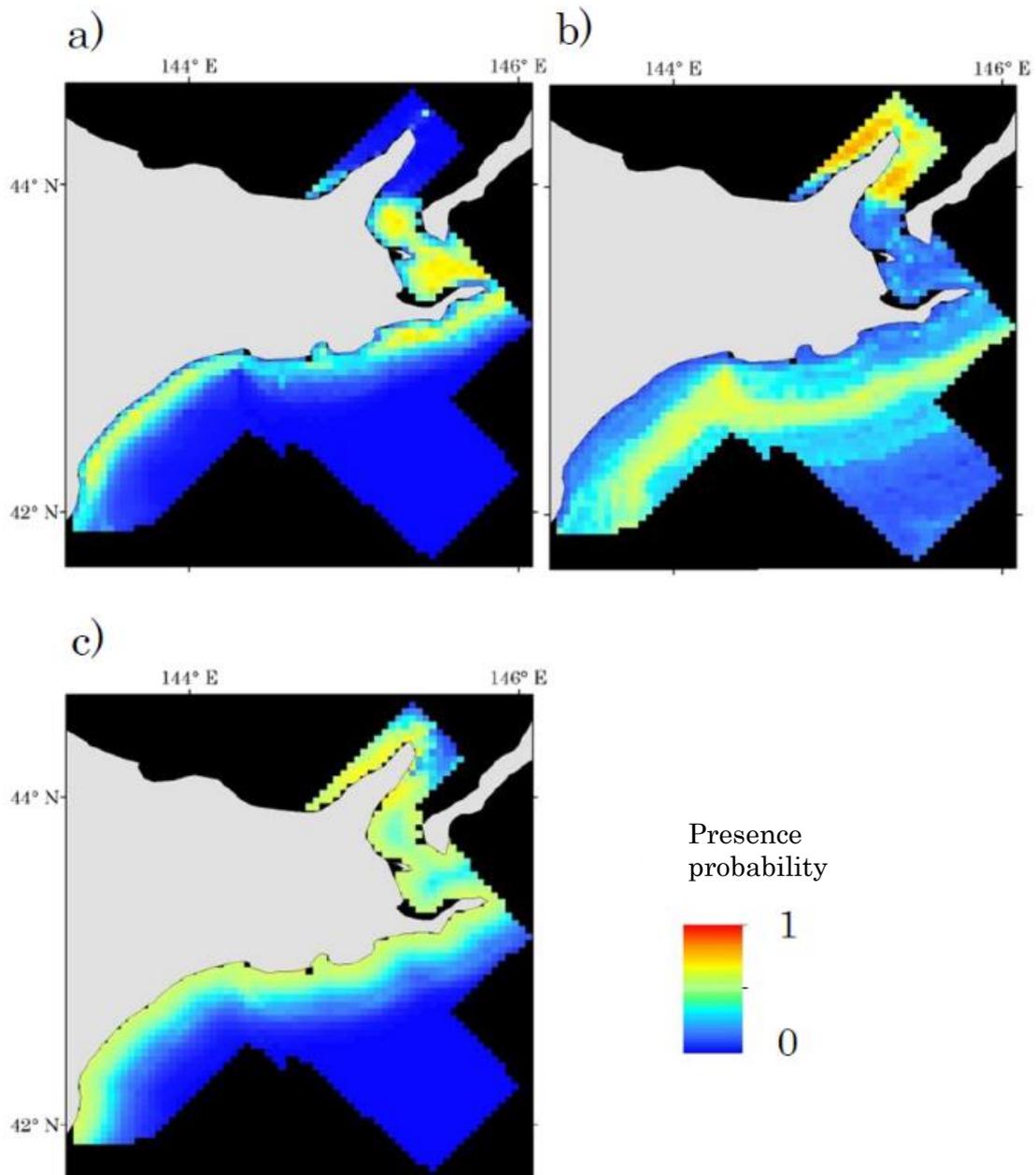
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836 Fig. 3 Boxplot of the environmental data for the locations where each of the
 837 cetaceans were observed: a) water depth, b) distance from land, and c) slope.
 838 PWD, Pacific white-sided dolphin; DP, Dall's porpoise; and HP, Harbor
 839 porpoise. Upper and lower whisker indicate maximum and minimum value
 840 without outliers. Top and bottom of box indicate upper and lower quartile.
 841 Heavy line in the box indicate median. Open circles out of whisker range
 842 indicate outliers.



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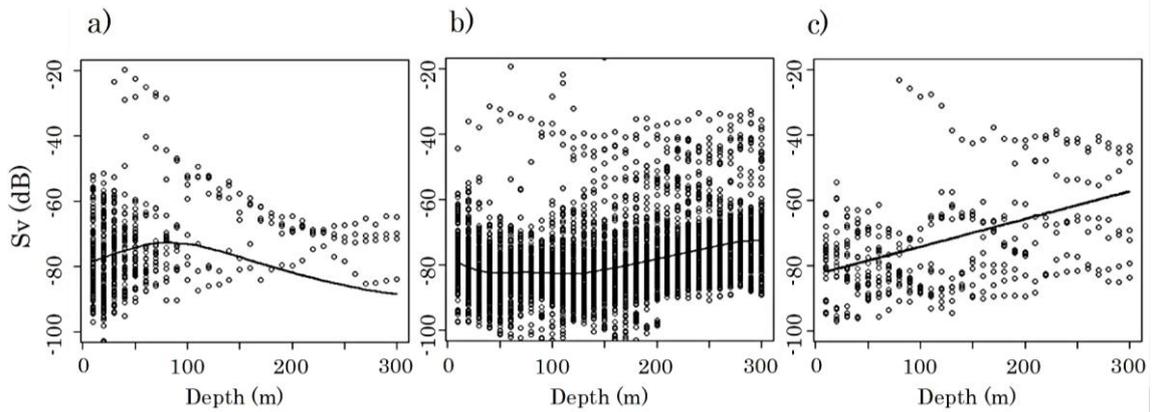
845 Fig. 4 Relationships between the presence probability of the cetaceans and
846 environmental factors using Maxent software. a) Pacific white-sided dolphin,
847 b) Dall's porpoise, and c) harbor porpoise. Red lines indicate average and blue
848 ranges indicate one standard deviation of 100 Maxent models.



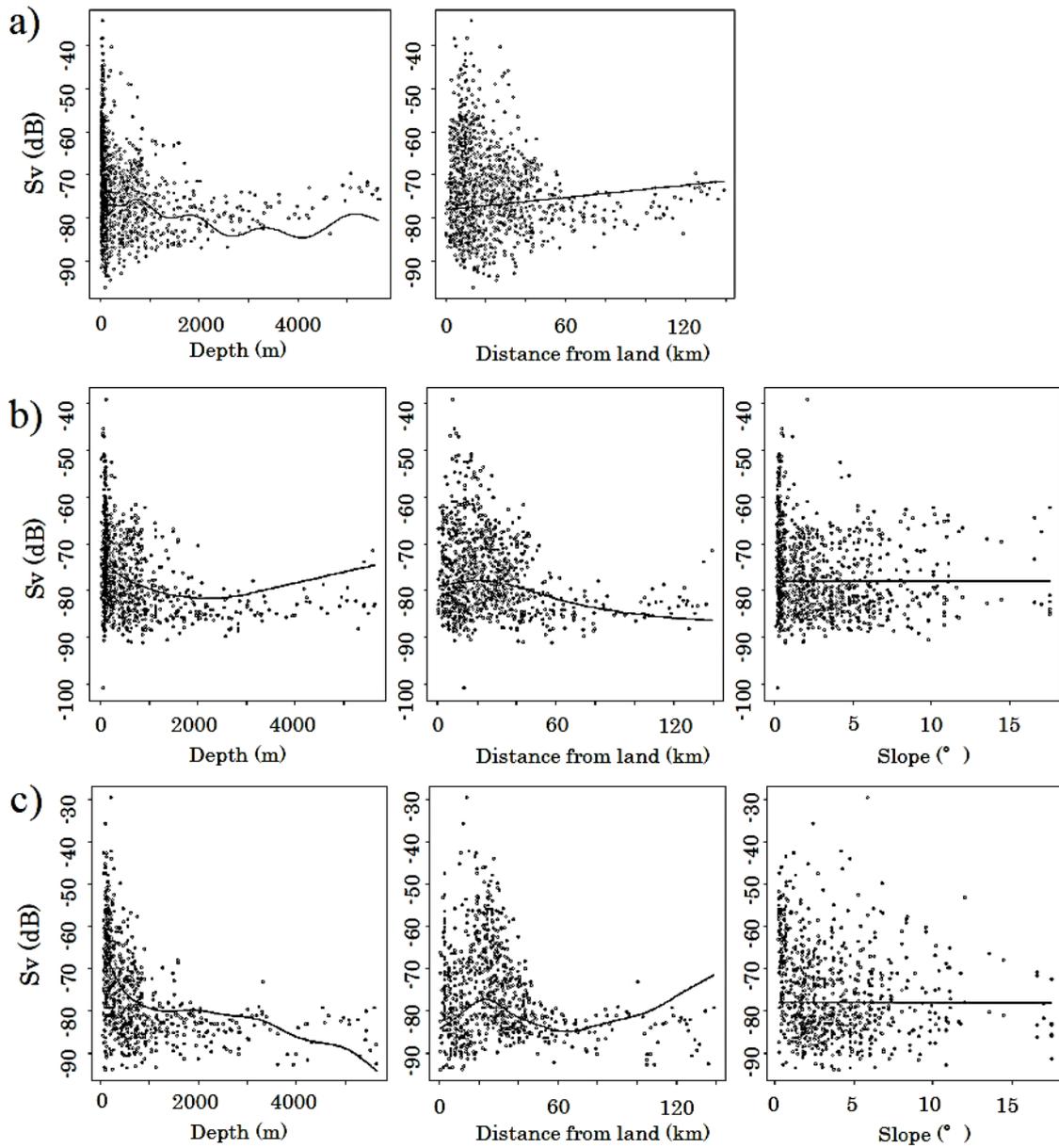
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850 Fig. 5 Presence probability map of the three cetaceans predicted by Maxent
 851 software. a) Pacific white-sided dolphin, b) Dall's porpoise, and c) harbor
 852 porpoise. The black color indicates that the location is not in the survey area

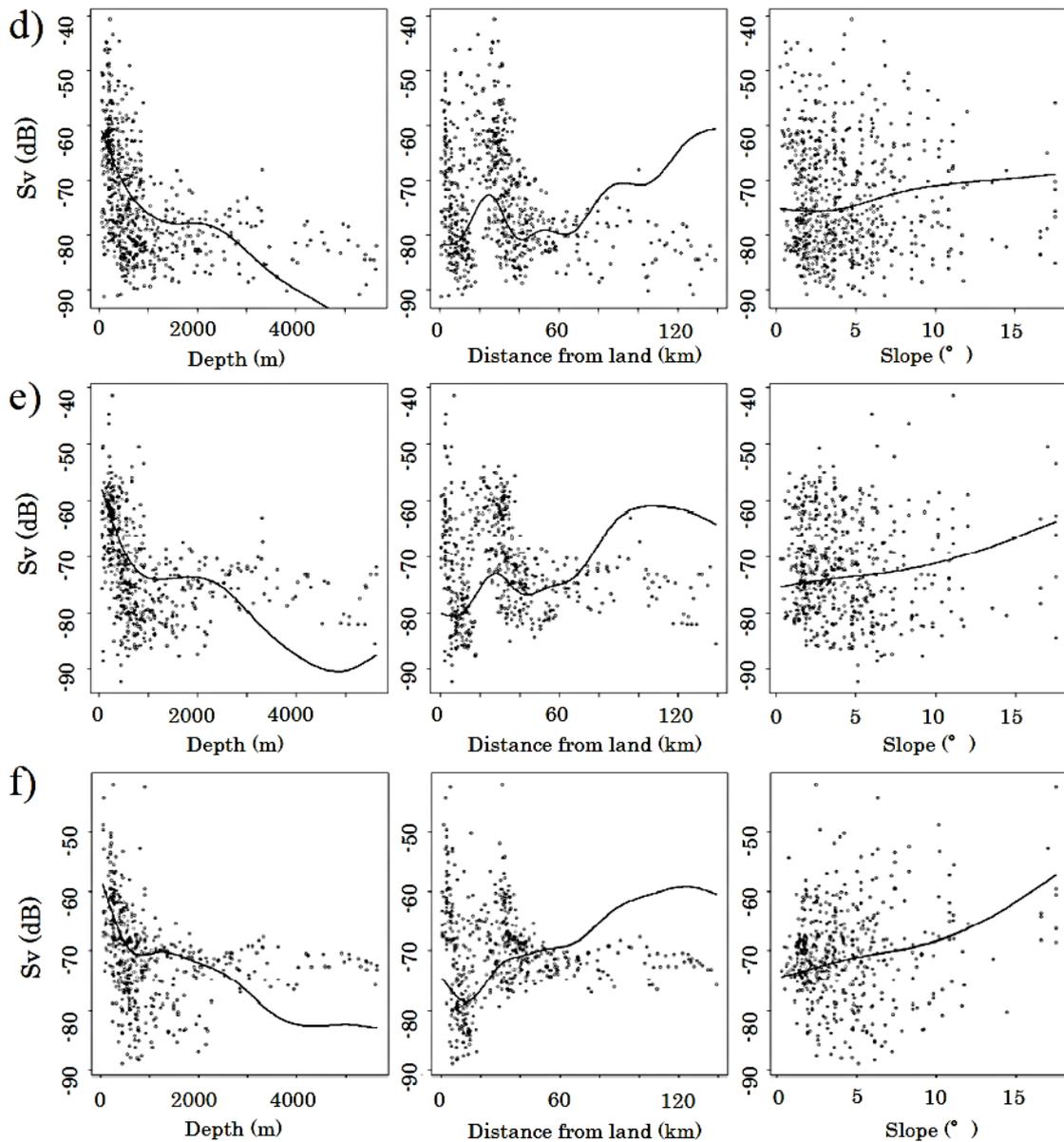
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 855 Fig. 6 Relationships between the volume backscatter strength (Sv: dB) and
 856 depth at the positions where each cetacean was observed. a) Pacific white-
 857 sided dolphin, b) Dall's porpoise, and c) harbor porpoise. Open circles indicate
 858 measured values and lines indicate the predictions made by the GAMM
 859



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 861 Fig. 7-1 Potential prey abundance (as volume backscatter strength; S_v) versus
 862 each environmental factor at different depth levels: (a) L1: 3-50 m, (b) L2: 50-
 863 100 m, (c) L3: 100-150 m, (d) L4: 150-200 m, (e) L5: 200-250 m, (f) L6: 250-300
 864 m. Environmental factors were selected using Akaike's information criterion.
 865 Circles: measured values; lines: predictions made by the generalized additive
 866 mixed model.



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Fig. 7-2 Potential prey abundance (as volume backscatter strength; Sv) versus

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each environmental factor at different depth levels: (a) L1: 3-50 m, (b) L2: 50-

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100 m, (c) L3: 100-150 m, (d) L4: 150-200 m, (e) L5: 200-250 m, (f) L6: 250-300

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m. Environmental factors were selected using Akaike's information criterion.

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Circles: measured values; lines: predictions made by the generalized additive

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mixed model.