

1 **Multi-scale analysis reveals changing distribution patterns and the influence**  
2 **of social structure on the habitat use of an endangered marine predator, the**  
3 **sperm whale *Physeter macrocephalus* in the Western Mediterranean Sea.**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 The habitat use of marine megafauna emerges from the complex interplay between access to  
20 patchy and variable food resources and several intrinsic biological factors, such as the interaction  
21 with conspecifics and offspring care, resulting in dynamic distribution patterns. Quantifying  
22 species' relationships with the underlying environment is further complicated by the scale-  
23 dependent nature of these processes. Multi-scale analyses that incorporate aspects of a species'  
24 biology and build on large datasets are therefore required to understand long-term distribution  
25 and inform appropriate management measures. In this study, we use monitoring data collected  
26 over two study periods (2003-2008 and 2012-2018) to assess the habitat use, trend in local  
27 occurrence, and change in distribution of sperm whales, *Physeter macrocephalus*, around the  
28 Balearic Islands (Spain), one of the few recognised breeding and feeding grounds for the  
29 'Endangered' population in the Mediterranean Sea. Moreover, we investigate the differences in  
30 the habitat use of single animals and groups, to explore intra-specific niche partitioning in this  
31 highly social but behaviourally dimorphic species. Results suggest that overall the occurrence of  
32 sperm whales in the area has been increasing over time. Animals were found to associate with  
33 distinct bathymetric features, but the mechanisms generating these relationships, and the  
34 underlying oceanographic processes within this habitat, remained uncertain. Sperm whale  
35 distribution also underwent a significant shift between the two study periods, with an increased  
36 occurrence in the Mallorca channel and north of Menorca, which further points towards a  
37 dynamic use of the broader bathymetric range preferred around the archipelago. Finally, our  
38 analyses highlighted that single animals and groups used areas with different characteristics, with  
39 groups preferring deeper, warmer waters characterised by lower sea level anomaly, which  
40 resulted in some fine-scale spatial segregation. The results of this study shed light on the

41 mechanisms underpinning the biogeography and complex social system of the species, and  
42 support the design of targeted conservation measures in this important breeding and feeding  
43 ground.

44

45 **Keywords:** Habitat modeling, Distribution shift, Long-term monitoring, Sperm whale,  
46 Mediterranean Sea, Balearic archipelago.

47

## 48 **1. Introduction**

49 Quantifying the relationships between spatio-temporal patterns of animal occurrence and the  
50 underlying environment is central to the understanding of a species' ecology (Guisan and  
51 Thuiller, 2005). However, habitat modelling generally relies on data that have been collected  
52 within a limited time frame and therefore only provides a snapshot of the distribution of a  
53 species, unless multiple surveys are combined (Yates et al., 2018). Moreover, both habitats and  
54 habitat use can be dynamic, and therefore the importance of different areas can change over time  
55 (Roshier and Reid, 2003). This is particularly true for marine megafauna, which can often adjust  
56 their habitat use as intrinsic (e.g., population size, habitat knowledge) and extrinsic (e.g.,  
57 environmental quality) conditions change (Runge et al., 2014). For these species, data collection  
58 tends to be constrained to short spatial and temporal windows by logistic and financial  
59 limitations (Yates et al., 2018), which restricts our ability to appropriately describe their  
60 distribution and complicates the development of effective conservation measures (Lewison et al.,  
61 2015; Wilson, 2016). Understanding the dynamic nature of a species' distribution and the degree  
62 of plasticity is particularly important as the marine environment is undergoing unprecedented  
63 change as a result of climate change (Hazen et al., 2013).

64 Mechanistically, the availability and abundance of prey resources is one of the major drivers of  
65 the movements and distribution of marine predator populations, including marine mammals  
66 (Sequeira et al., 2018). Often, prey cannot be sampled at appropriate resolutions (Redfern et al.,  
67 2006), but marine mammal occurrence tends to associate with the oceanographic features that  
68 affect prey patterns, which can in turn be used in statistical models as proxies of the underlying  
69 processes (Elith and Leathwick, 2009). However, identifying the relevant spatio-temporal scale  
70 for representing these indirect relationships is challenging (Scales et al., 2017), and the dynamic

71 nature of predator and prey distribution may mean that suitable proxies change over space and  
72 time. Intrinsic biological drivers also play a role in determining the observed use of space  
73 (Cañadas and Hammond, 2008; Guisan and Thuiller, 2005; Palacios et al., 2014). For example,  
74 marine mammals may adjust their distribution to ensure safety for their offspring, interact with  
75 members of the same social group, or in response to intra-specific competition for food  
76 resources. Intrinsic drivers expressed in behaviour therefore add a layer of complexity that  
77 further confounds the relationships with concurrent environmental features. The investigation of  
78 intra-specific differences in habitat use could shed light on the forces that regulate interactions  
79 with conspecifics and, potentially, the evolution of current biogeographical patterns.

80 The sperm whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*) is a cosmopolitan cetacean species found across the  
81 world in deep waters beyond the shelf edge, where bathymetric and oceanographic features  
82 interact to promote upwelling, nutrient mixing and, ultimately, secondary productivity and prey  
83 concentrations (Whitehead, 2018). As a result, sperm whales are often encountered in association  
84 with steep continental slopes, submarine canyons and seamounts, as well as frontal systems and  
85 other mesoscale features such as cyclonic eddies (e.g., O'Hern and Biggs, 2009; Skov et al.,  
86 2008; Waring et al., 2001; Wong and Whitehead, 2014), but relationships can be obscured by  
87 analyses at inappropriate scales that do not match the spatial and temporal scale at which these  
88 oceanographic processes occur (Jaquet, 1996). This species is also characterised by a complex,  
89 sexually dimorphic social system, whereby females form strong social units that remain at lower  
90 latitudes ( $< 40^\circ$ ), while males become increasingly solitary as they grow older, migrating to  
91 higher latitudes to find food resources that can support their larger size (Whitehead 2003). The  
92 evolution of sperm whale social structure may have been promoted by intra-specific competition  
93 between males and females, as suggested by observations of lower feeding success of males in

94 areas where they co-occur with females (Whitehead 2003). In turn, strong female social bonds  
95 are believed to be the basis for the development of one of the recognized examples of non-human  
96 culture (Rendell and Whitehead, 2003; Whitehead and Rendell, 2014), which can also affect  
97 patterns of spatial distribution (Eguiguren et al., 2019; Whitehead and Rendell, 2004).

98 A small, genetically isolated population of sperm whales inhabits the Mediterranean Sea  
99 (Rendell and Frantzis, 2016). This population is subject to intense pressure from the extensive  
100 human activities in the basin, leading to ship strikes, entanglement in driftnets, and ingestion of  
101 plastic, as well as exposure to noise, and chemical pollution. Consideration of both the size of the  
102 population and the threats it faces has prompted its classification as ‘Endangered’ in the  
103 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List (Rendell and Frantzis, 2016).

104 Previous studies have identified a bimodal distribution in the Mediterranean, characterised by the  
105 association with topographic singularities close to the coast, and thermal fronts in offshore areas  
106 (Azzellino et al., 2012; Frantzis et al., 2014; Gannier and Praca, 2007; Pirotta et al., 2011; Praca  
107 et al., 2009; Tepsich et al., 2014). The latitudinal segregation between sexes is much reduced  
108 owing to the limited available latitudinal range in the Mediterranean Sea for the more mobile  
109 males to explore (Drouot-Dulau and Gannier, 2007). The Balearic archipelago (Spain) is one of  
110 the few areas in the Mediterranean Sea where females and calves as well as single males are  
111 regularly observed (Rendell and Frantzis, 2016). This led to its recent identification as an  
112 Important Marine Mammal Area (IMMA; [https://www.marinemammalhabitat.org/portfolio-](https://www.marinemammalhabitat.org/portfolio-item/balearic-islands-shelf-slope/)  
113 [item/balearic-islands-shelf-slope/](https://www.marinemammalhabitat.org/portfolio-item/balearic-islands-shelf-slope/); Corrigan et al., 2014), which was informed by some of the  
114 data presented here. In this area, female groups and single males appear to segregate at a fine  
115 spatial scale (Jones et al., 2016).

116 Pirotta et al. (2011) analysed monitoring and encounter data collected over six consecutive years  
117 (2003-2008) around the Balearic archipelago to describe the distribution patterns of the species  
118 in this important breeding and feeding ground. In this study, we complement the original dataset  
119 with data collected over a subsequent study period of seven years (2012-2018), to evaluate sperm  
120 whale medium-term habitat use in the area and assess changes in their occurrence and  
121 distribution over time. In addition, we use information on social grouping to investigate the  
122 environmental variables associated with the occurrence of groups (mostly females and young  
123 individuals) and single animals (likely males), and shed light on the processes that regulate the  
124 observed fine-scale segregation. Our results can inform effective management strategies in the  
125 region, and support the conservation of the population in the Mediterranean Sea.

126

## 127 **2. Material and methods**

### 128 *2.1 Data collection*

129 Data collection methods followed the procedures described in Pirotta et al. (2011). Briefly,  
130 dedicated research cruises were carried out in the summer months over two study periods, 2003-  
131 2008 and 2012-2018 (Table 1 and Fig. A.1), from 11- to 15-m-long motor-sailing yachts  
132 travelling at a speed of approximately 6 knots. Sperm whale presence was monitored acoustically  
133 every 30 min using, in 2003, a single dipping hydrophone (Sensor Technology of Canada;  
134 frequency response 0.1–22 kHz) and, from 2004 onward, a dual-element towed hydrophone  
135 (Benthos AQ4; frequency response 0.1–22 kHz) towed at 100 m. Hydrophones deployed at  
136 similar speeds and from similar vessels typically settle at around 10 m depth. Transects were not  
137 systematically designed, but extensively covered the shelf-break waters around the archipelago

138 (Fig. 1). Detection range was unknown, but previous work in the Mediterranean has estimated an  
 139 effective strip half-width of 10 km (Lewis et al., 2007). Whenever sperm whales were heard,  
 140 dedicated software (RainbowClick by the International Fund for Animal Welfare (IFAW) before  
 141 2012; [http://www.marineconservationresearch.co.uk/downloads/logger-2000-rainbowclick-  
 software-downloads/](http://www.marineconservationresearch.co.uk/downloads/logger-2000-rainbowclick-<br/>
  142 software-downloads/); and PAMGuard <https://www.pamguard.org/> from 2012 onward) was used  
 143 to track and, during daylight hours, approach the animals. An encounter was defined as a period  
 144 of continuous acoustic contact with the animals, from initial detection to a loss of contact greater  
 145 than 1 h (either inadvertent or deliberate once all desired data were collected). Searching effort  
 146 was then generally resumed along the previous route. Encounters with single individuals were  
 147 distinguished from encounters with groups, defined as individuals (often including young  
 148 animals) engaging in direct interaction or ‘moving together in a coordinated fashion over periods  
 149 of at least hours’ (Whitehead, 2003).

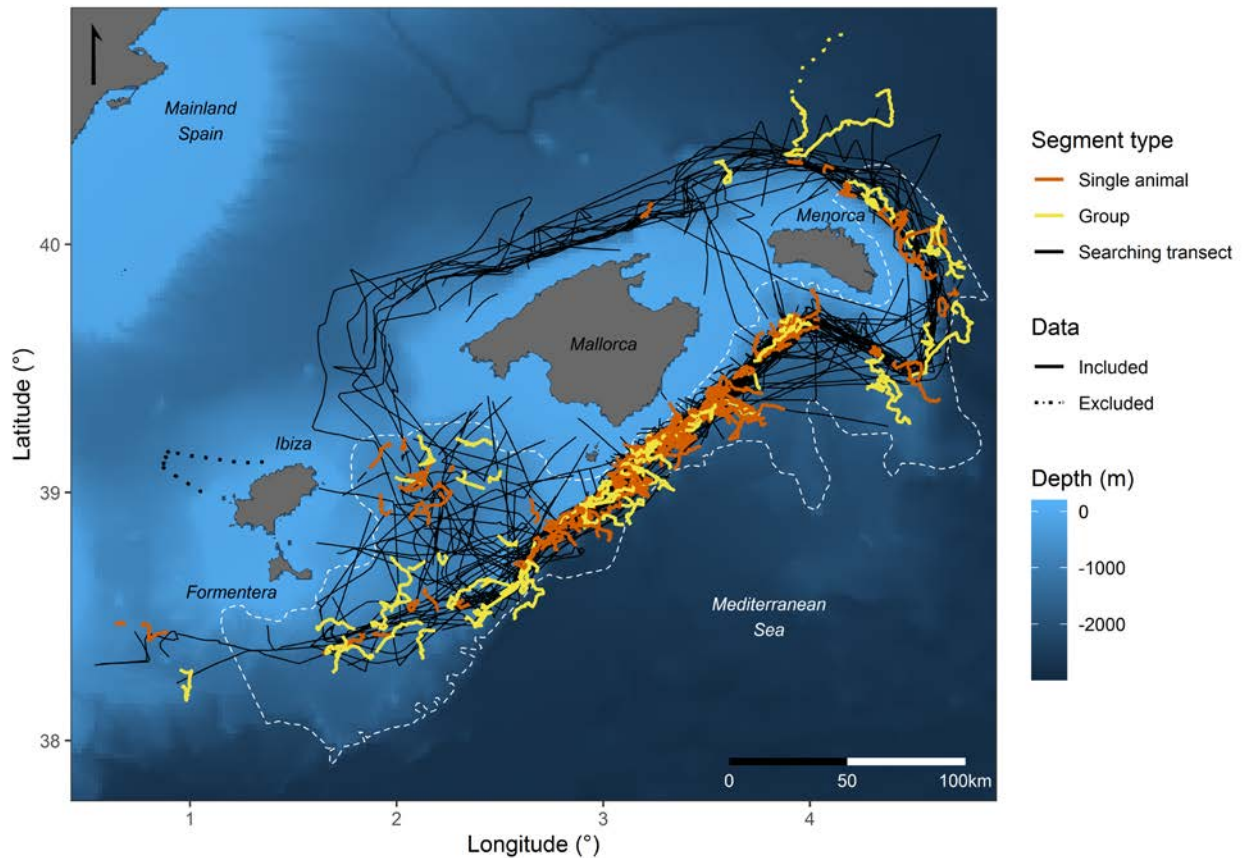
Year	Study period	Research period (on-effort)		Searching effort (km)	Encounters (km)	Encounters with groups	Encounters with single animals
2003	1	03-Aug	26-Aug	2467	141	2	1
2004		11-Jul	05-Aug	2070	310	3	6
2005		10-Jul	04-Aug	1992	392	5	7
2006		16-Jul	27-Jul	1702	270	2	7
2007		06-Jul	28-Jul	1835	374	0	11
2008		15-Jul	27-Jul	1033	233	6	6
2012	2	01-Aug	14-Aug	1224	57	1	3
2013		06-Jul	09-Aug	1460	451	7	18
2014		05-Jul	15-Aug	1046	432	16	7
2015		18-Jul	06-Aug	1559	407	3	18
2016		05-Jul	26-Aug	2340	601	7	26
2017		01-Jul	24-Sep	2463	592	5	24
2018		15-May	23-Sep	2379	591	12	11

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151

Table 1. Summary of survey effort and encounters per year.





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153 Figure 1. Study area, acoustic searching effort and encounters with group and single sperm whales in the  
 154 period 2003-2018. Dotted segments indicate data that were excluded from subsequent analyses. The  
 155 white, dashed line indicates the boundaries of the Important Marine Mammal Area (IUCN-MMPATF,  
 156 2017).

157 *2.2 Data processing*

158 For consistency with previous analyses, data were processed following the procedure described  
 159 in Pirotta et al. (2011). When the hydrophone was not in the water or no systematic acoustic  
 160 monitoring was conducted, corresponding GPS locations were discarded as off-effort. After  
 161 preliminary data exploration, we also excluded the limited survey effort north-west of the island  
 162 of Ibiza and truncated one encounter on 2 August 2004, when whales moved into an area that

163 was never surveyed otherwise, to avoid biasing model results (Fig. 1). On-effort locations were  
164 regularised to 20 min intervals using package adehabitatLT (Calenge, 2006) for R (R Core Team,  
165 2019). Points were classified as presences when in acoustic contact with the animals, or absences  
166 when no animal was heard, and then grouped into either a follow (that is, a series of consecutive  
167 presence points corresponding to an encounter with sperm whales) or a searching transect (that  
168 is, a series of consecutive absence points between two follows or off-effort intervals).

169 Each point was associated with a set of static and dynamic variables, which were chosen to  
170 represent the bathymetric and oceanographic processes that characterise sperm whale habitat,  
171 and on the basis of their documented relationship with the species' occurrence. These included  
172 depth, slope gradient (hereafter slope), slope aspect (hereafter aspect), standard deviation of  
173 depth (hereafter rugosity), topographic position index (the difference between depth in a cell and  
174 the mean value of the eight surrounding cells; TPI), sea surface temperature (SST), SST  
175 deviation from monthly median (to allow whale presence to respond to relative temperatures,  
176 because the median SST varied between years, thus better reflecting the choices available to the  
177 animals; hereafter SST deviation), SST slope gradient (that is, the steepness of the SST surface,  
178 representing potential frontal systems), standard deviation of SST, sea level anomaly (sea surface  
179 height above the mean in a twenty-year reference period; SLA), and absolute dynamic  
180 topography (instantaneous sea surface height above the geoid; ADT). Depth, slope and aspect  
181 were considered at four spatial scales (30 arc-sec, 2.5 arc-min, 5 arc-min, 10 arc-min), while SST  
182 was included at two spatial (4 km and 20 km) and two temporal scales (8-day and monthly  
183 composites). A description of the available covariates, units, spatio-temporal scales and  
184 corresponding datasets is reported in Table 2. Other commonly used environmental variables,

185 such as chlorophyll-a surface concentration, were not included because previous work suggested  
 186 they were not related to sperm whale occurrence at this scale (Pirodda et al., 2011).

187 The heterogeneous distribution of searching effort around the archipelago and the variability  
 188 among years could result in different habitats being surveyed with varying intensity over time,  
 189 which may confound the relationship between sperm whale occurrence and the underlying  
 190 environment. To account for this heterogeneity, we developed an effort covariate that  
 191 summarized the amount of time spent in different sections of the study area in each year.  
 192 Specifically, we counted the total number of regularised on-effort points that occurred within  
 193 0.5° x 0.5° grid cells in each year, and associated each presence and absence point with the effort  
 194 value for the grid cell it was located in.

195

<b>Covariate</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Origin</b>	<b>Spatial scales</b>	<b>Temporal scales</b>
Depth	m	Depth of the seabed	Obtained from the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans dataset (GEBCO; <a href="http://www.gebco.net">http://www.gebco.net</a> ), and aggregated at multiple scales (x1, x5, x10, x20) using package raster for R (Hijmans, 2016)	30 arc-sec, 2.5 arc-min, 5 arc-min, 10 arc-min	-
Slope	rise over run	Slope gradient, indicating the maximum rate of change in depth	Calculated from GEBCO dataset using package SDMTools for R (VanDerWal et al., 2014)	30 arc-sec, 2.5 arc-min, 5 arc-min, 10 arc-min	-
Aspect	°	Slope aspect, indicating the	Calculated from GEBCO dataset using package SDMTools for R	30 arc-sec, 2.5 arc-min,	-

		compass orientation of the slope	(VanDerWal et al., 2014)	5 arc-min, 10 arc-min	
Rugosity	m	Standard deviation of depth	Calculated from GEBCO dataset using package raster for R (Hijmans, 2016)	2.5 arc-min	-
TPI	m	Topographic position index, i.e. the difference between the value of depth in a cell and the mean value of the eight surrounding cells	Calculated from GEBCO dataset using package raster for R (Hijmans, 2016)	30 arc-sec	-
SST	°C	Sea surface temperature	Extracted from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data from NASA's Aqua satellite, processed by the Ocean Biology Processing Group of the Ocean Ecology Laboratory at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (available at <a href="http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/">http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/</a> )	4 km, 20 km	Monthly and 8-day composites
SST deviation	°C	Deviation of the sea surface temperature in each cell from the monthly median	Calculated from MODIS-Aqua data using package raster for R (Hijmans, 2016)	4 km	Monthly

SST slope gradient	rise over run	Rate of maximum change in sea surface temperature	Calculated from MODIS-Aqua data using package SDMTools for R (VanDerWal et al., 2014)	4 km	Monthly and 8-day composites
Standard deviation of SST	°C	Variation in SST across a window of five cells	Calculated from MODIS-Aqua data using package raster for R (Hijmans, 2016)	20 km	Monthly and 8-day composites
SLA	m	Sea level anomaly, i.e. sea surface height above the mean sea surface in a twenty-year reference period (1993-2012)	Obtained from the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS), operated by the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasting on behalf of the European Union ( <a href="https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/">https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/</a> )	0.125°	Daily
ADT	m	Absolute dynamic topography, i.e. the instantaneous height above the geoid	Obtained from the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS), operated by the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasting on behalf of the European Union ( <a href="https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/">https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/</a> )	0.125°	Daily

196 Table 2. Description of environmental variables used for the analysis of sperm whale habitat use,  
197 including units, origin of the data, and spatio-temporal scales.

198 *2.3 Statistical analysis*

199 We structured the statistical analysis in three parts. First, we investigated the relationships  
200 between sperm whale overall distribution and available environmental covariates, modelling

201 sperm whale acoustic presence or absence at each location. Secondly, we assessed whether there  
202 was any evidence of a change in distribution between the two study periods using a geographical  
203 surface, that is, a two-dimensional smooth of latitude and longitude. While the overall habitat use  
204 analysis could also highlight changes in distribution over time, this second model allowed us to  
205 explicitly test whether the animals were using different portions of the study area in the two  
206 periods. Finally, we evaluated any difference in the habitat used by single animals compared to  
207 groups. All analyses were carried out using package MRSea for R (Scott-Hayward et al., 2015),  
208 which uses a Spatially Adaptive Local Smoothing Algorithm (SALSA) with cross-validation to  
209 fit one-dimensional B-splines and Complex Region Spatial Smoothers (CReSS) (Scott-Hayward  
210 et al., 2014; Walker et al., 2011). In all analyses, locations spaced every 20 min were used as the  
211 unit of analysis, and the response variable had a binary distribution, which was modelled using a  
212 logit link function. Data from 2003-2008, which have already been presented in Pirotta et al.  
213 (2011), were reanalysed under the updated modelling framework to ensure that results could be  
214 compared between the two study periods.

### 215 2.3.1 Overall habitat use

216 All explanatory variables were standardised to facilitate model convergence. Potential issues of  
217 multicollinearity among available covariates were assessed using the variance inflation factor  
218 (VIF) and pairwise correlation plots, with values of  $VIF \geq 2$  and correlation  $\geq 0.6$  taken to  
219 indicate collinearity. Separate models including each of the collinear variables were fitted in  
220 MRSea, and the Akaike information criterion (AIC) used to compare model pairs. The same  
221 procedure was used for variables available at multiple spatial or temporal scales. The full model  
222 then included all non-collinear environmental variables, as well as the effort covariate and year.  
223 Aspect was included as a cyclic spline, to reflect the circular nature of this angular measurement.

224 For each one-dimensional smoother, SALSA uses cross-validation to identify the optimal  
225 number and location of knots. The algorithm also evaluates whether the model is improved by  
226 alternatively including each variable as a linear term (rather than smooth), or by removing it  
227 altogether.

228 The autocorrelation function (ACF) plot was used to assess the degree of autocorrelation in  
229 model residuals, and the final model was refitted as a working independence model in a  
230 Generalised Estimating Equations (GEE) framework (Hardin and Hilbe, 2003), where follows  
231 and searching transects represented blocks of correlated data points. Under this framework, a  
232 sandwich variance estimator provides robust estimates of precision that account for the observed  
233 degree of autocorrelation within each block (Hardin and Hilbe, 2003). The significance of  
234 retained smooths was evaluated using Wald's tests based on robust standard errors, and the  
235 performance of the final model was assessed using a confusion matrix, comparing predicted to  
236 observed sperm whale occurrence at each location. The area under the receiver operating  
237 characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC), calculated using package ROCR for R (Sing et al., 2005),  
238 offered an additional measure of goodness-of-fit.

239 The estimated relationships between retained explanatory variables and the binary occurrence of  
240 sperm whales were visualized using partial residuals plots, where 95% confidence intervals were  
241 calculated using a parametric bootstrap of the GEE results (Pirodda et al., 2011; Scott-Hayward et  
242 al., 2015); retained covariates were back-transformed to the original scale for ease of  
243 interpretation. Model predictions were mapped for each study period using a regular grid of  
244  $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$  cells, cropped to the geographical area covered by survey effort in those years.  
245 Values of retained explanatory variables were extracted at the centroid of each cell, and  
246 standardised according to the mean and standard deviation in the original data. For dynamic

247 variables, the mean in the month of July (i.e., the median month in each period, and the most  
248 consistently data-rich month across the study period) across the years in each of the two study  
249 periods was used for predictions. Uncertainty in model predictions was plotted using 95%  
250 confidence intervals obtained from a parametric bootstrap of the GEE results.

### 251 2.3.2 Change in distribution in the two study periods

252 The change in distribution of sperm whales between the two periods was investigated using the  
253 interaction between a CReSS smooth (that is, a bi-dimensional surface of geographic  
254 coordinates) and a categorical variable for study period, effectively fitting two separate spatial  
255 surfaces. A range of starting knots for the CReSS surface (4, 8, 12 or 16) was tested, which is  
256 advised to avoid the algorithm converging on local minima or maxima (Scott-Hayward et al.,  
257 2015). Standardised effort was also included as a one-dimensional smooth term. A similar  
258 procedure to the one described for the overall habitat model was followed for model selection,  
259 validation and prediction. Due to computing limitations related to the calculation of the distance  
260 matrix required by CReSS, spatial predictions were visualised on a coarser grid of  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$   
261 cells.

### 262 2.3.3 Differences between groups and single animals

263 The third part of the analysis focused on presence points only. Encounter locations with groups  
264 were classified as 1s, while encounter locations with single animals were classified as 0s. The  
265 binary occurrence of groups (versus single animals) was then modelled as a function of  
266 environmental covariates following the same analytical procedure described for the analysis of  
267 sperm whale overall habitat use.



268 We then assessed the extent of the spatial overlap between groups and single animals using  
269 Bhattacharyya's affinity (BA), where 0 corresponds to no overlap and 1 to complete overlap  
270 (Bhattacharyya, 1943; Grecian et al., 2018). Following Grecian et al. (2018), the bivariate kernel  
271 utilization distribution of groups and singletons was calculated (package `adehabitatHR` for R),  
272 with smoothing parameter equal to 10 km and a grid of 1 x 1 km cells. BA for the two utilization  
273 distributions was compared to a null distribution obtained by randomly reassigning encounters to  
274 the two groupings and recalculating the utilization distributions 1000 times. This procedure  
275 generated the expected distribution of BA values in the absence of segregation between groups  
276 and singletons.

277 Finally, for each follow, we calculated the bearing (that is, the angle measured from the north)  
278 between the location of first acoustic contact and the last location, which provided a proxy for  
279 the direction of the whales' movements during that encounter. The resulting angles were plotted  
280 for all encounters, as well as separately for encounters with single animals and groups, using rose  
281 diagrams (package `circular` for R; Agostinelli and Lund, 2017). We used the Rayleigh test to  
282 assess whether angles were uniformly distributed (Ruxton, 2017). Analysis code is available via  
283 the Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/x5afs/>).

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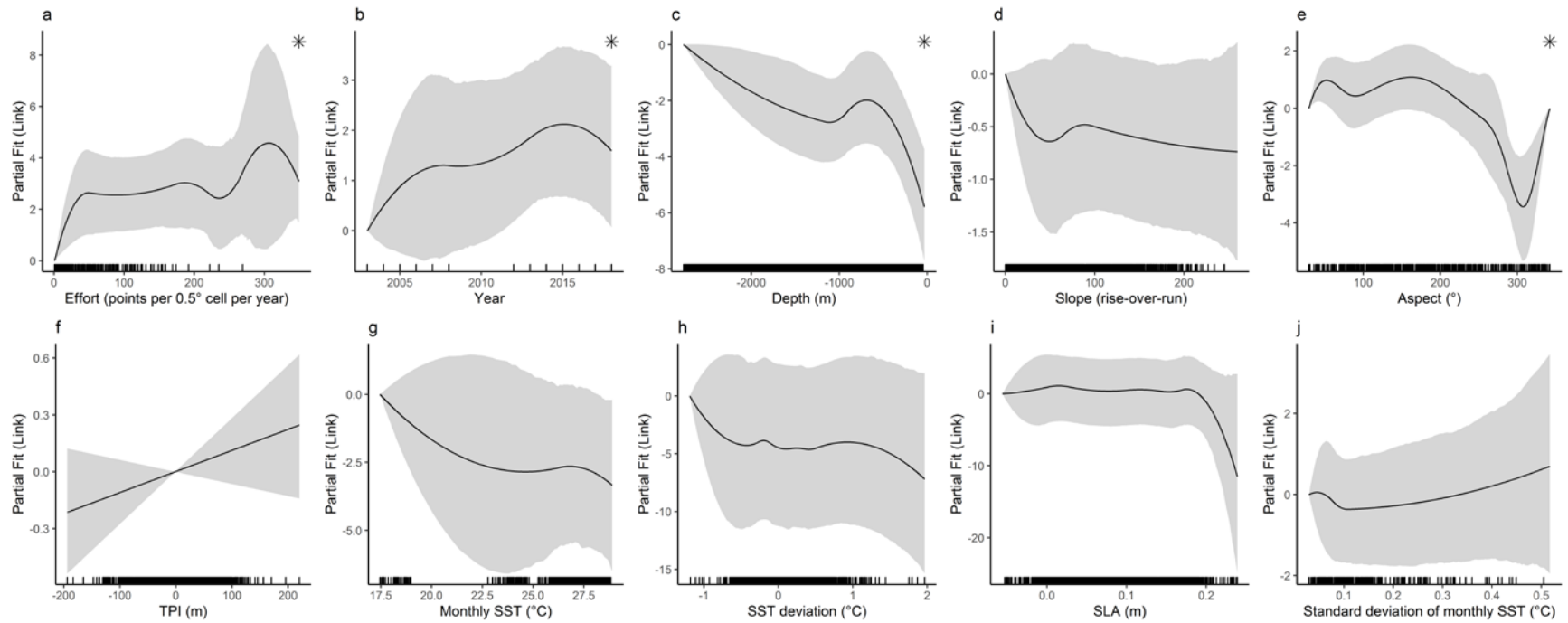
### 285 **3. Results**

286 Over the course of 13 research seasons, 23,570 km were covered looking for sperm whales  
287 (11,099 km in the first study period, and 12,471 km in the second; Table 1). Sperm whales were  
288 encountered acoustically on 214 occasions (56 in the first study period, 158 in the second), for a  
289 total of 4,851 km travelled following animals.

### 290 3.1 Overall habitat use

291 Multicollinearity was identified for slope and rugosity, SLA and ADT, SST slope gradient and  
292 the standard deviation of SST, as well as between the same environmental variables at different  
293 spatial or temporal scales. Comparison of models including each of the collinear variables in a  
294 pair led to an initial full model that included effort, year, depth (30 arc-sec), slope (2.5 arc-min),  
295 aspect (5 arc-min), TPI, monthly SST (4 km), SST deviation, SLA, and the standard deviation of  
296 monthly SST. The SALSA algorithm retained all variables as smooth terms, with the exception  
297 of TPI, which was retained as a linear term. The splines for all other variables were characterised  
298 by 4, 2, 2, 2, 6, 2, 6, 5, and 2 internal knots, respectively. The ACF plot suggested that there was  
299 large autocorrelation in model residuals, and that the variable identifying searching transects and  
300 follows was suitable to separate blocks of correlated residuals. Once accounting for the observed  
301 degree of autocorrelation within blocks using a robust sandwich variance estimator, the Wald's  
302 tests indicated that only the relationships with effort, depth, aspect and year were significant ( $p <$   
303 0.05). The probability of encountering sperm whales initially increased with increasing effort,  
304 but then stabilized at larger effort values (Fig. 2a), and there was a general increase in the  
305 probability of occurrence over the years (Fig. 2b). Moreover, occurrence increased in deeper  
306 waters, with a second peak around 800 m (Fig. 2c). Finally, sperm whales occurred with a lower  
307 probability where the slope was directed towards West-Northwest (Fig. 2e). SALSA also  
308 estimated that sperm whale probability of occurrence was associated with lower slope gradient,  
309 larger TPI, colder (and colder than the median) waters, lower SLA and larger SST variability  
310 (Fig. 2), but these relationships were not significant under the Wald's test. The confusion matrix  
311 suggested that the final model correctly predicted, on average, 70.8% of presence and absence  
312 location. The area under the ROC curve was 0.79, confirming a satisfactory goodness-of-fit.

313 Model predictions highlighted the areas south, east and north-east of the archipelago as being  
314 characterised by a higher probability of encountering the animals in the first period (Fig. 3). In  
315 the second period, the probability of sperm whale occurrence was overall greater, illustrated by  
316 the effect of year. This intensification also resulted in new areas emerging as relevant for sperm  
317 whales, such as the channel between the islands of Mallorca and Ibiza, and areas north of  
318 Mallorca and Menorca. For both study periods, the prediction maps showed some edge-effects,  
319 predicting high probabilities of sperm whale occurrence in regions of the study area that were  
320 poorly surveyed (due to encounters occurring in these low-effort regions, as well as values of the  
321 explanatory variables at the extremes of the observed range). Maps of the upper and lower  
322 confidence intervals of model predictions derived from the bootstrapping procedure highlighted  
323 a moderate degree of uncertainty in the predicted distribution, which reflects the consequences of  
324 the large autocorrelation in model residuals (Fig. A.2).



325

326

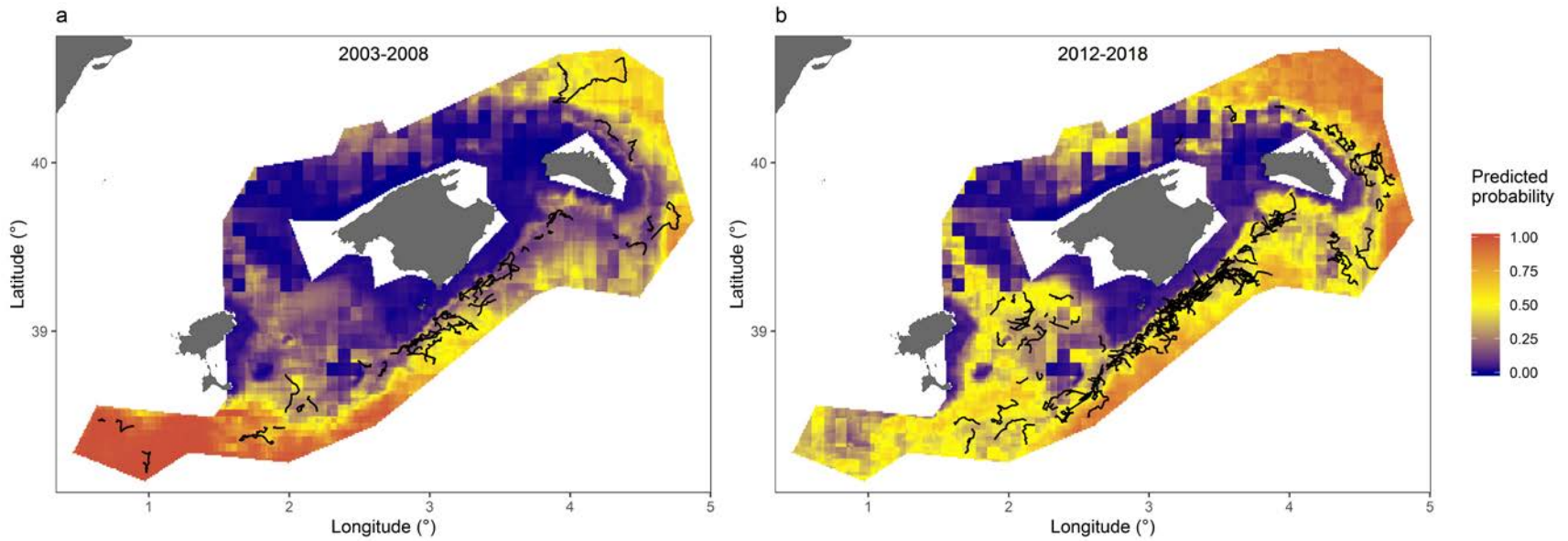
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330

Figure 2. Estimated smooth relationships (on the link scale) between the probability of sperm whale occurrence and survey effort (a), year (b), depth (c), slope (d), aspect (e), topographic position index (TPI; f), monthly sea surface temperature (SST; g), SST deviation from the monthly median (h), sea level anomaly (SLA; i), and the standard deviation of monthly SST (j). Grey shaded areas represent robust, GEE-based 95% confidence intervals. A rug plot of the values of the covariates in the original data is shown at the bottom of each plot. Significant relationships are indicated with the star symbol (\*) at the top right of the plot.



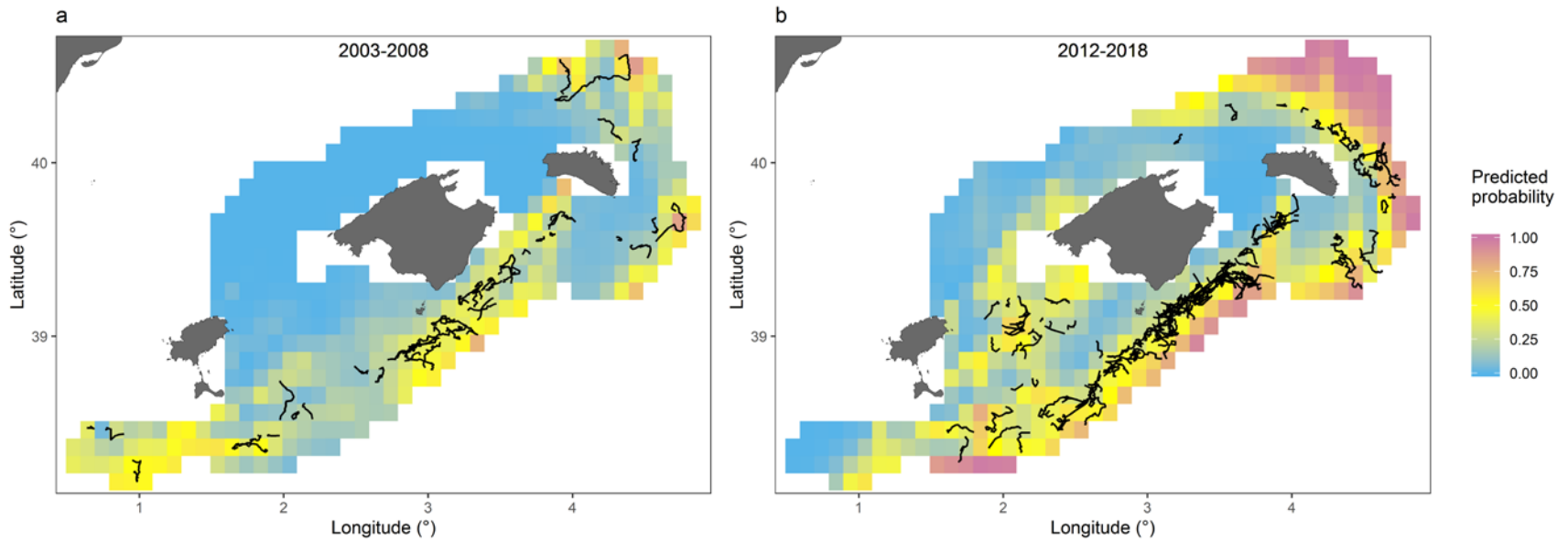
331

332 Figure 3. Predicted probability of sperm whale occurrence in the first (2003-2008; a) and second (2012-2018; b) study period, derived from the  
333 final model of overall habitat use. In black, the encounters with sperm whales in the corresponding study period.

### 334 3.2 Change in distribution in the two study periods

335 As for the overall habitat use model, the SALSA algorithm retained effort as a smooth term,  
336 highlighting an initial increase of the probability of encountering the animals for increasing  
337 effort, which stabilised for larger values (Fig. A.4). The CReSS bi-dimensional smooth was  
338 estimated to have 20 knots (chosen from a starting value of 12). The ACF plot confirmed the  
339 need to correct for autocorrelation within blocks, and the Wald's test suggested that effort, the  
340 CReSS surface, and the interaction between the CReSS surface and the study period were all  
341 significantly associated with sperm whale occurrence ( $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, model results  
342 suggested a significant change in geographic distribution between the two study periods. Spatial  
343 predictions mimicked the results of the overall habitat use model: in the second study period,  
344 animals were repeatedly encountered in the channel between Mallorca and Ibiza, and were also  
345 found to the north of the island of Menorca, overall occurring across a wider area (Fig. 4). The  
346 model correctly classified 68.9% of sperm whale presences and absences on average, a  
347 goodness-of-fit that was confirmed by the area under the ROC curve (0.76). As for the overall  
348 habitat use model, there was moderate uncertainty in the predicted distribution (Fig. A.3).

349



350

351 Figure 4. Predicted probability of sperm whale occurrence in the first (2003-2008; a) and second (2012-2018; b) study period, derived from the  
352 final model of geographic distribution. In black, the encounters with sperm whales in the corresponding study period.

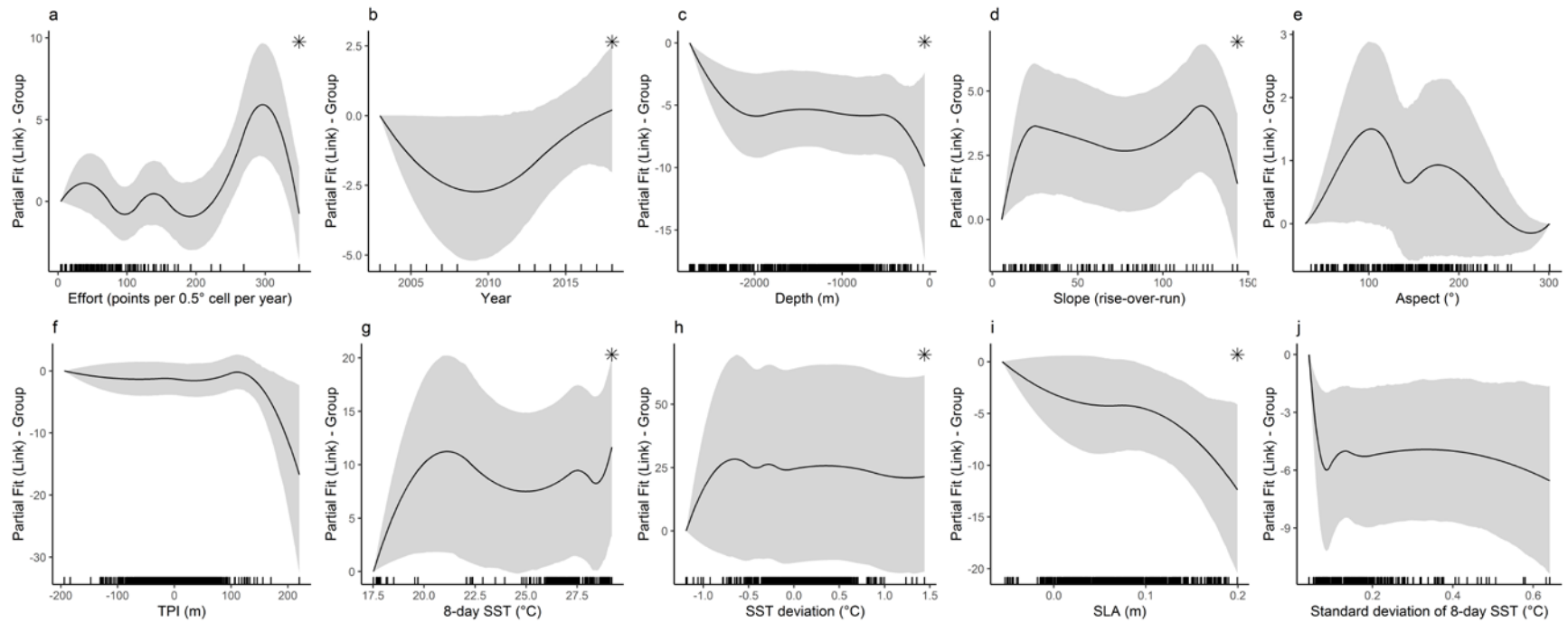
### 353 3.3 Differences between groups and single animals

354 The patterns of multicollinearity highlighted by the VIF and pairwise correlations were the same  
355 as described for the overall habitat use model. The models for each collinear variable in a pair  
356 suggested the full initial model should include effort, year, depth (2.5 arc-min), slope (10 arc-  
357 min), aspect (5 arc-min), TPI, 8-day SST (20 km), SST deviation, SLA, and the standard  
358 deviation of 8-day SST. SALSAs retained all covariates as smooth terms, selecting 4, 1, 3, 3, 3, 3,  
359 3, 5, 1, and 3 internal knots, respectively. The relationships of group occurrence (versus single  
360 animals) with effort, depth, slope, year, 8-day SST, SST deviation and SLA were found to be  
361 significant under the Wald's test using robust standard errors, corrected for the observed degree  
362 of correlation within blocks. Specifically, groups were found in deeper, warmer waters (and  
363 warmer than the monthly median), with two peaks in slope gradient, and in association with  
364 smaller values of SLA (Fig. 5c, d, g-i). There was also a greater probability of occurrence of  
365 groups in the first and last years of the survey period, while the relationship with effort showed a  
366 peak around high effort values, but was otherwise wiggly (Fig. 5a and b). Some of these  
367 relationships had large confidence intervals and should therefore be interpreted with caution. The  
368 SALSAs algorithm also retained non-significant relationships of group occurrence with greater  
369 TPI, slopes oriented towards east and south, and lower variability in SST (Fig. 5). The final  
370 model showed high goodness-of-fit (83% of correct grouping classifications, on average, and  
371 area under the ROC curve equal to 0.9).

372 The BA value between group and single animal encounters was 0.835, suggesting a high degree  
373 of spatial overlap. However, the distribution of BA values obtained from randomly reassigning  
374 encounters to groups or singletons showed that the observed BA value was substantially lower



375 than the null expectation (Fig. A.5), which suggests the existence of some geographic  
376 segregation between the two groupings.

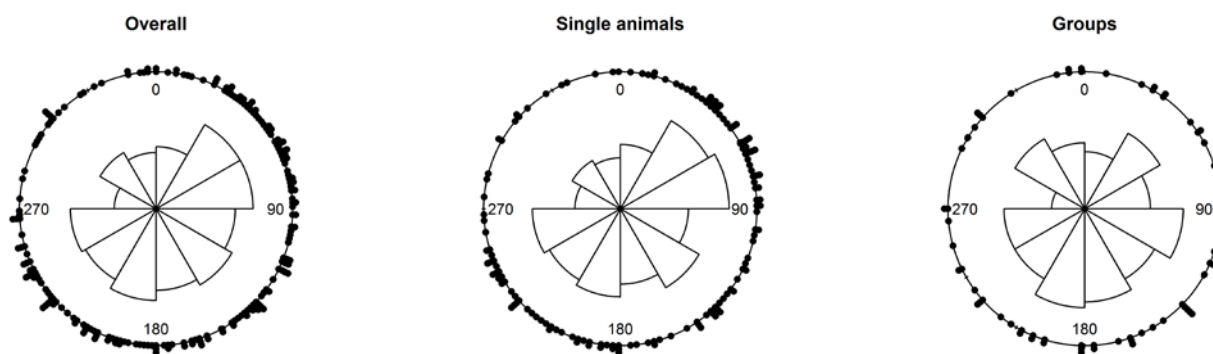


377

378 Figure 5. Estimated smooth relationships (on the link scale) between the probability of encountering sperm whale groups (as opposed to single  
 379 animals) and survey effort (a), year (b), depth (c), slope (d), aspect (e), topographic position index (TPI; f), monthly sea surface temperature (SST;  
 380 g), SST deviation from the monthly median (h), sea level anomaly (SLA; i), and the standard deviation of monthly SST (j). Grey shaded areas  
 381 represent robust, GEE-based 95% confidence intervals. A rug plot of the values of the covariates in the original data is shown at the bottom of  
 382 each plot. Significant relationships are indicated with the star symbol (\*) at the top right of the plot.

383

384 The rose diagram for the approximate direction of the whales' movements over the course of  
385 each encounter showed some tendency to preferentially move towards north-east, south-west and  
386 south-east, with a lower occurrence of movements towards north and north-west (Fig. 6). These  
387 angles broadly reflect the direction of the continental slope south and east of the islands. The  
388 Rayleigh test suggested that observed angles were not uniformly distributed ( $p < 0.01$ ). There  
389 were some subtle differences between groups and single animals (Fig. 6), which may reflect the  
390 greater occurrence of groups around the island of Menorca, where the continental slope has a  
391 different orientation.



392  
393 Figure 6. Rose diagrams of the bearing between the first and last location of each follow for all  
394 encounters, and separately for encounters with single animals and groups. Black dots on the plot margins  
395 represent the actual bearing values.

396

#### 397 4. Discussion

398 We used acoustic monitoring data collected over 13 research seasons to characterise the summer  
399 habitat of sperm whales around the Balearic archipelago and its variation over the medium term.  
400 Even though estimated relationships with environmental proxy variables showed moderate levels

401 of uncertainty and complexity, they offer the opportunity to generate hypotheses about the  
402 potential mechanisms that determine sperm whale distribution. In line with results from previous  
403 studies in this area, the Mediterranean Sea and globally, sperm whales were found to associate  
404 with bathymetric features, such as depth and continental slopes with specific orientation  
405 (Azzellino et al., 2012; Pirota et al., 2011; Roberts et al., 2016; Rogan et al., 2017; Skov et al.,  
406 2008; Tepsich et al., 2014; Virgili et al., 2019; Waring et al., 2001; Whitehead, 2003). The  
407 coupling of these features with water circulation is known to promote local upwelling and  
408 increased productivity, which ultimately creates predictable feeding opportunities for top  
409 predators like sperm whales (Moors-Murphy, 2014). The preference for the habitat associated  
410 with the continental slope south and east of the archipelago was also supported by the broad  
411 orientation of the encounters highlighted by the rose diagrams, which indicated that whales  
412 tended to move along the direction of the slope. In addition, sperm whales were frequently  
413 encountered in the channel between Mallorca and Ibiza during the second study period, an area  
414 characterised by the presence of three seamounts (Aguilar et al., 2010). The importance of these  
415 submarine structures for sperm whales has been previously documented in other regions (Hann  
416 et al., 2016; Wong and Whitehead, 2014). In contrast, the characterisation of the dynamic  
417 processes that underpin sperm whale distribution in this area remains incomplete, although the  
418 final model provided some indication that colder waters, with lower sea level anomaly and larger  
419 temperature variability were preferred (Davis et al., 2002; Gannier and Praca, 2007; Virgili et al.,  
420 2019). These relationships were highly uncertain (and non-significant once accounting for  
421 residual autocorrelation), which could indicate a relative flexibility in habitat use within the  
422 broader bathymetric range that the animals appeared to select in this region. Our analyses also  
423 confirm the importance of a multi-scale approach for the evaluation of sperm whale habitat

424 (Jaquet, 1996), with different environmental characteristics being related to animal occurrence at  
425 different spatial and temporal scales (e.g., Cotté et al., 2009; Jaquet and Whitehead, 1996; Pirotta  
426 et al., 2014). The scale at which oceanographic processes operate and the temporal lags between  
427 these processes and the concentration of sperm whale prey thus present an additional  
428 complication to the functional description of the habitat of this species (Guisan and Thuiller,  
429 2005), especially when the survey effort concentrates where expected encounter probability is  
430 high, like in this case.

431 Even after accounting for the increasing effort over the research period, sperm whale occurrence  
432 in the waters around the Balearic Islands was found to be overall increasing over time. This  
433 finding supports the critical role of the area as a breeding and feeding ground for the Endangered  
434 Mediterranean population (Rendell and Frantzis, 2016), and reaffirms its identification as an  
435 Important Marine Mammal Area under the IUCN IMMA initiative (Corrigan et al., 2014). The  
436 abundance and trend of the genetically isolated Mediterranean population is unknown, but  
437 numbers are believed to be low (Rendell et al., 2014; Rendell and Frantzis, 2016). A local  
438 increase in occurrence does not necessarily imply that the population as a whole is increasing,  
439 but reinforces the need to protect sperm whales from recognised threats in this region where they  
440 predictably and increasingly occur during the summer months, such as collisions with boats and  
441 entanglement in drift nets, and to extend the research and monitoring effort to other periods of  
442 the year. The frequent occurrence of calves within groups encountered around the islands (J.M.  
443 Brotons, pers. obs.) highlights the importance of these conservation requirements.

444 Our analyses also highlighted a significant change in the overall geographic distribution of the  
445 animals around the islands between the two study periods. Habitat characteristics and increased  
446 occurrence over time partly explain this change in spatial distribution, as reflected by the ability

447 of the overall habitat model to capture the emergence of new areas of intense use (e.g. the  
448 channel between Mallorca and Ibiza). Further investigation of the oceanography of the area  
449 across the study period could elucidate some of these trends. However, this change, together with  
450 the lack of clear relationships with dynamic, oceanographic variables, could be an additional  
451 indication of the flexible nature of the distribution of the animals within the preferred  
452 bathymetric range around the islands, particularly in a phase where local density is increasing.  
453 This dynamism may imply that food resources are available across the whole area, and that  
454 individuals can plastically adjust their habitat use in response to other intrinsic drivers. Marine  
455 mammals have been shown to dynamically alter their habitat use over time, for example in  
456 response to changes in density and as a result of social dynamics (Arso Civil et al., 2019; Cantor  
457 et al., 2016; Carroll et al., 2014; Mobley et al., 1999).

458 In highly social species, such as the sperm whale, intrinsic biological factors strongly influence  
459 the distribution of individuals in space and time (Cañadas and Hammond, 2008; Guisan and  
460 Thuiller, 2005; Palacios et al., 2014). Interactions with members of the same group, sexual  
461 segregation and the need to care for the young are expected to contribute to movement decisions.  
462 Here, we highlighted that the habitat used by single animals (likely males) and groups (mostly  
463 females and young) differed. Encounters with groups occurred in deeper waters, which is  
464 consistent with existing evidence from other areas (Gregs and Trites, 2011), characterised by  
465 specific slope gradients. Groups were also associated with warmer locations (and warmer than  
466 the monthly median), which is in contrast with results of previous analyses on a subset of these  
467 data (Pirotta et al., 2011). This contradiction may be partly reconciled by the fact that surface  
468 temperature is highly correlated with month (see the corresponding rug plot in Fig. 2g and 5g),  
469 and earlier or later months were only surveyed in more recent years; the relationship with

470 temperature (but not with SST deviation) may therefore mask a seasonal trend in the relative  
471 occurrence of the two groupings. Finally, group occurrence was related to smaller values of  
472 SLA, which could be associated with cyclonic circulation or confluence zones and higher  
473 productivity (Davis et al., 2002), supporting the hypothesis that groups exploit better foraging  
474 patches (Whitehead, 2003). These differences resulted in some degree of fine-scale spatial  
475 segregation, as indicated by Bhattacharyya's affinity, reinforcing the findings of previous work  
476 on the differential distribution of single males and social units in this and other areas (Gregg and  
477 Trites, 2011; Jones et al., 2016; O'Hern and Biggs, 2009; Whitehead, 2003). Further clarifying  
478 patterns of habitat segregation will allow quantifying differences in exposure rate and  
479 susceptibility to anthropogenic stressors in the region. Being one of the few recognised breeding  
480 ground for the population (Rendell and Frantzis, 2016), the risk of calves being struck by vessels  
481 or separated from the females should be minimised, for example by delineating and protecting  
482 areas specifically selected by groups (e.g., via restrictions on vessel speeds).

483 In general, the dynamic nature of sperm whale distribution in the area complicates management  
484 efforts, because the whole bathymetric range may require some form of protection, while the  
485 exact location of these mobile, social animals may be hard to identify at any moment in time.  
486 The increasing use of the Mallorca channel is particularly worrying, as it exposes individuals to  
487 the high levels of maritime traffic occurring between the islands (e.g. Fig. A.6). Quantifying the  
488 distribution overlap and individual encounter rate with various human activities operating in the  
489 region (e.g. via dedicated tagging studies) will therefore also be crucial (e.g., Pirota et al., 2018).  
490 Passive acoustics is an effective tool for the assessment of sperm whale distribution. While  
491 detection range could vary depending on ambient noise levels and environmental conditions, we  
492 do not expect systematic biases in certain areas or times. Animals could have also been missed

493 along the line if they were not vocalizing, although sperm whales spend 80% of their time  
494 foraging (Watwood et al., 2006), and in a joint visual and acoustic survey sperm whales were  
495 always detected acoustically first (Barlow and Taylor, 2005). Future research should continue  
496 monitoring the presence and habitat use of sperm whales in this important area. In light of the  
497 dynamic distribution highlighted by our results, other areas of the archipelago to which limited  
498 effort has been dedicated so far should be targeted by future surveys (e.g., the north of Ibiza and  
499 waters further to the north and south of the islands), which would also address some of the edge  
500 effects emerging in model predictions. Extending the effort to a wider region will also support  
501 additional multi-scale analyses of sperm whale habitat use, which could help clarify the  
502 underlying ecological processes. Moreover, given the differences between social groupings, the  
503 area offers the unique opportunity to investigate the mechanisms that underpin the social system  
504 of the species and how this influences distribution patterns; further studies of sex-specific diet  
505 and group-specific habitat use could provide additional evidence towards such understanding.  
506 More broadly, the trends in encounter rate and change in distribution in this region should be  
507 considered in the context of local variation in other key areas of the basin, to understand the  
508 wider dynamics of the population and design effective, integrated measures that can support its  
509 conservation.

510

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523

#### 524 **Data availability statement**

525 The dataset and code to run the analysis are available on the Open Science Framework repository  
526 (<https://osf.io/x5afs/>).

527

#### 528 **Author contributions**

529 L.E.R conceived the original study, which was further developed in collaboration with J.M.B.  
530 and E.P.; L.E.R, J.M.B., M.C. and E.P. collected the data; E.P. conceived and carried out the  
531 data analysis, with the help of S.B.; E.P. wrote the manuscript, and all authors contributed to  
532 revisions.

533

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