

1 Modelling harbour seal habitat by combining data from multiple tracking systems

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16

16 **Abstract**

17 Technological developments over the last 20 years have meant that telemetry studies
18 have used a variety of techniques, each with different levels of accuracy and temporal
19 resolution. This presents a challenge when combining data from these different tracking
20 systems to obtain larger sample sizes or to compare habitat use over time. In this study,
21 we used a Bayesian state-space modelling approach to integrate tracking data from
22 multiple tag types and standardize position estimates while accounting for location error.
23 Harbour seal (*Phoca vitulina*) telemetry data for the Moray Firth, Scotland, were collated
24 from three tag types: VHF, Argos satellite and GPS-GSM. Tags were deployed on 37
25 seals during 1989 to 2009 resulting in 37 tracks with a total of 2,886 tracking days and a
26 mean duration of 87 days per track. A state-space model was applied to all of the raw
27 tracks to provide daily position estimates and a measure of the uncertainty for each
28 position. We used this standardized tracking dataset to model their habitat use and
29 preference, which was then scaled by the population size estimated from haulout counts
30 to give an estimate of the absolute number of harbour seals using different parts of the
31 Moray Firth. As expected for a central place forager, harbour seals most frequently
32 occurred in areas close to their inshore haulout sites. However, our analyses also
33 demonstrated consistent use of offshore foraging grounds, typically within 30 km of
34 haulout sites in waters < 50m deep. The use of these statistical models to integrate and
35 compare different datasets is especially important for assessing longer-term responses to
36 environmental variation and anthropogenic activities, allowing management advice to be
37 based upon datasets that integrate information from all available tracking technologies.
38

39 **Keywords**

40 Density, habitat preference model, *Phoca vitulina*, spatial ecology, state-space model,

41 and telemetry.

42

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Technological developments over the last 20 years have meant that telemetry studies
44 have used a variety of techniques, each with different levels of accuracy and temporal
45 resolution (e.g. Costa et al., 2010; Hazen et al., 2012a). This presents a challenge when
46 combining data from these different tracking systems to obtain larger sample sizes or to
47 compare habitat use over time. Such studies are important for making population level
48 inferences and assessing the effects of environmental change. They are also of great
49 benefit to management for informing marine spatial planning, marine protected area
50 designations, and environmental impact assessments.

51

52 Radio and acoustic telemetry allows animals tagged with transmitters to be tracked
53 through the use of fixed or portable directional receivers. Radio signals transmit poorly in
54 saltwater, but have been used to track the movements of fish within rivers and streams
55 (David and Closs, 2002; Gocłowski et al., 2013; Peters et al., 2006). They have also been
56 used on marine species that regularly return to the surface, such as seabirds and marine
57 mammals (Culik et al., 1998; Read and Gaskin, 1985; Thompson and Miller, 1990).
58 However, these studies were constrained by the need to make contact with the tagged
59 animal at sea and tended to be limited in duration and to more coastal areas. The
60 development of satellite-monitored radio tags, which allows signals to be detected and
61 localised across the globe, has resulted in a much greater understanding of the
62 movements of marine species, particularly farther offshore (e.g. Block et al., 2011). It has
63 also revealed the wide extent of migrations, such as that of sea turtles across entire ocean
64 basins (Hays et al., 2004; Nichols et al., 2000). The low spatial accuracy, with several

65 kilometres error, for many positions at sea received through the ARGOS satellite location
66 system has hindered its use for fine-scale studies, but this is now being overcome through
67 the use of GPS (Global Positioning System) technologies, such as Fastloc and GSM
68 (Global System for Mobile Communications) GPS (Costa et al., 2010; McConnell et al.,
69 2004). These positions may be accurate to within 30 m (Cordes et al., 2011; Hazel, 2009).

70

71 Telemetry provides a valuable tool for determining spatial distributions and this can be
72 combined with information on the environment to identify the habitat characteristics
73 attracting animals to those locations. For example, a study combining electronic tagging
74 data from 23 species of marine predators in the North Pacific utilised a state-space
75 modelling framework to account for the location errors from a mixture of tag types
76 (Argos satellite, archival geolocation and pop-up satellite archival tags), which had
77 substantially different levels of spatial accuracy (Block et al., 2011; Winship et al., 2012).

78 A state-space model is a time-series model that predicts the future state of a system from
79 its previous states probabilistically and is being increasingly used in animal movement
80 studies (Jonsen et al., 2013; Patterson et al., 2008). The relative density of predator
81 species based on these modelled locations have been related to oceanographic variables
82 (Block et al., 2011) and used to assess the potential effect of climate change on their
83 distribution (Hazen et al., 2012b). Characterising habitat preferences is important for
84 identifying high-use areas and focusing management efforts for protected species (Bailey
85 and Thompson, 2009; Benson et al., 2011). It also plays a role in the development of
86 habitat-based stock assessment models for fisheries and understanding predator-prey
87 relationships (Nelson et al., 2010; Schaefer et al., 2007; Semmens, 2008).

88

89 In this study, we used the state-space model framework for analysis of movement data
90 (Jonsen et al., 2003; 2005; Jonsen et al., 2013) to integrate tracking data for harbour seals
91 (*Phoca vitulina*) from multiple tag types and standardize position estimates while
92 accounting for location error. Broad-scale surveys across Scotland have revealed that
93 harbour seals have declined significantly in most areas (Lonergan et al., 2007). They are
94 resident in the Moray Firth throughout the year, breeding and resting on inter-tidal
95 sandbanks in the inner Moray Firth (Thompson et al., 1996), and making regular foraging
96 trips into the central and outer Moray Firth (Thompson et al., 1998). Protection has
97 mainly focused on the terrestrial haulout sites, but the potential influence of food
98 availability, predation, and competition with fishermen on the population decline has led
99 to increased interest in their foraging areas and spatial distribution at sea (Cordes et al.,
100 2011; Lonergan et al., 2007). Over the last 20 years, several different studies have used
101 tracking devices to study the foraging movements of harbour seals from the Dornoch
102 Firth and Loch Fleet (Cordes et al., 2011; Sharples et al., 2009; Sharples et al., 2012;
103 Thompson et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 1997). In this study we
104 analysed the spatial distribution of harbour seals from these tracking studies (VHF, Argos
105 satellite and GPS-GSM telemetry) to determine if there were any changes over time.
106 These data were then related to environmental variables to identify the factors influencing
107 their distribution and to characterize the habitat preferences of harbour seals.

108

109 Spatial predictions that incorporate environmental data provide a valuable tool for
110 conservation by quantifying the relative or absolute abundance of animals within

111 contiguous areas that may not have been evenly surveyed or where few observations exist
112 (Cañadas et al., 2005; Forney et al., 2012). We used our habitat preference model and
113 population abundance estimate to predict densities across the Moray Firth. This is of
114 particular relevance to management because two sites have been proposed for offshore
115 wind energy development in the outer Moray Firth and harbour seals are listed under
116 Annex II of the European Commission Habitats Directive (Council Directive
117 92/43/EEC). This requires the designation of Special Areas of Conservation (SAC), and
118 an assessment of the connectivity between proposed offshore wind energy sites and
119 nearby harbour seal SACs. Our analysis of these telemetry data aimed to provide
120 information on the origin of seals that may be encountered at the proposed wind energy
121 sites, thereby informing assessments of the extent to which far-scale effects, such as
122 construction noise, may overlap with areas used by harbour seals (see Thompson et al.
123 2013).

124

125 **2. Materials and methods**

126 2.1 Telemetry data

127 Telemetry data were available from 37 individual seals that were captured in either Loch
128 Fleet or the Dornoch Firth in Scotland (Figure 1) and tagged between 1989 and 2009
129 (Table 1). Seals were captured using either hand nets or beach seine nets, and then
130 sedated with ketamine hydrochloride and diazepam or Zoletil. Standard length and girth
131 measurements were taken and the sex identified. The tags were glued to the hair on the
132 head or neck using a fast setting epoxy resin (Fedak et al., 1983). The capture and
133 handling of seals was carried out under licences issued from the Scottish Government and

134 the Home Office. The capture and handling techniques are described in Thompson et al.
135 (1992).

136

137 2.1.1 VHF telemetry

138 Between 1989 and 1991, 21 VHF (Very High Frequency) radio tags were attached to
139 harbour seals to study their behaviour (Thompson et al. 1997) and foraging ecology
140 (Thompson et al., 1998) (Table 1). Subsequent tracking of these individuals was designed
141 to collect one position per day for six days per week. Radio-fixes were made from coastal
142 vantage points with a three-element Yagi aerial using the null average method (Springer,
143 1979). The accuracy of fixes was estimated using a test transmitter, and the standard
144 deviation of the error between estimated and true bearings used to produce 95%
145 confidence limits for fixes on radio-tagged seals (Thompson and Miller, 1990).

146

147 2.1.2 Satellite telemetry

148 Between 2004 and 2007, 11 satellite relay data loggers (SRDLs) were attached to harbour
149 seals in the Moray Firth as part of a broader study of harbour seal foraging distribution
150 around the UK (Sharples et al., 2009) (Table 1). These SRDLs transmit data via the
151 Argos system (McConnell et al., 1999). Service Argos allocates all positions to one of
152 seven location classes, which describe the quality of those locations. Marine animal
153 tracking studies using Service Argos typically result in low accuracy positions and
154 location errors may be up to several kilometres (Costa et al., 2010).

155

156 2.1.3 GPS-GSM telemetry

157 In 2009, GPS-GSM tags were attached to five harbour seals in the Moray Firth to
158 determine whether recent changes in haulout distribution were linked to changes in
159 foraging area use (Cordes et al., 2011) (Table 1). These GPS-GSM tags combine a GPS
160 sensor with a mobile phone GSM modem to relay data ashore (McConnell et al., 2004).
161 As a result, they are able to produce much more frequent locations, providing a mean of
162 37 GPS positions per day compared to 10 Argos positions per day. They are also much
163 higher accuracy than Argos locations (Costa et al., 2010). The mean error of GPS
164 positions within a stationary test was 40 m (Hazel, 2009). This is approximately four
165 times greater than the best Argos location quality. Hazel (2009) reported no appreciable
166 directional bias in GPS error, and no significant difference between the latitudinal and
167 longitudinal components of the linear error. Nevertheless, occasional errors may arise,
168 and a 10 km h^{-1} speed filter was therefore applied to the tracks (Costa et al., 2010).

169

170 2.2 State-space modelling

171 The state-space modelling approach was based on the models developed for use with
172 Argos satellite telemetry data (Jonsen et al., 2005; Jonsen et al., 2007). This provides a
173 statistical framework for integrating error in the location estimates with a process model
174 of the movement (Patterson et al., 2008). The only parameters that were changed in the
175 models for each tracking method were the latitude and longitude estimation errors
176 (Winship et al., 2012). For all datasets, the state-space model (SSM) was fitted using the
177 R software package (R Development Core Team, 2008) and WinBUGS software (Lunn
178 et al., 2000). Two chains were run in parallel for each track for a total of 20,000 Markov
179 Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) samples. The first 10,000 were discarded and the remaining

180 samples were thinned, retaining every fifth sample, resulting in joint posterior
181 distributions for each parameter based on 4,000 samples. In cases where the mean
182 location estimate from the samples occurred on land (other than at haulout sites), we
183 post-processed the SSM location as recommended by Hoenner et al. (2012). We used any
184 nearby high quality Argos locations and the area within the SSM position 95% credible
185 limits to adjust the location to the nearest appropriate position at sea. The application of a
186 switching SSM also allows the animal's behaviour to be inferred (Jonsen et al., 2005;
187 Jonsen et al., 2007). However, the model does not estimate behaviours well on small
188 spatial scales when the data are not at a high temporal resolution (Breed et al., 2011). The
189 majority of our positions were classified by the SSM as area-restricted behaviour, which
190 was probably because of the timescale of the observations and model output relative to
191 the spatial scale of movement, and we therefore did not use these behavioural estimates
192 in our analysis.

193

194 For the Argos satellite telemetry data, the model by Jonsen et al. (2005; 2007) was
195 applied to all of the raw Argos satellite positions to obtain daily position estimates and a
196 measure of the uncertainty for each location given by the 95% credibility limits. In this
197 model, we used the calculated parameters of a t-distribution for the latitude and longitude
198 components of estimation by Jonsen et al. (2005). This had been based on published data
199 on Argos location errors for each location class (3, 2, 1, 0, A, B) from captive grey seals
200 tagged with SRDLs (Vincent et al., 2002). Following Jonsen et al. (2005), the estimation
201 error in latitude was $\varepsilon_{i,lat} \sim t\left(0, \tau_{lat,q_i}, \nu_{lat,q_i}\right)$ where τ_{lat,q_i} is the scale parameter and ν_{lat,q_i} is

202 the degrees of freedom for location quality class q for the i^{th} observed position, and
203 similarly for the longitude estimation error.

204

205 For the GPS-GSM data, because the rare extreme values had been removed using the
206 speed filter, the SSM error structure was modified from the t-distributions that had been
207 used for each Argos location class (Jonsen et al., 2005) to a normal distribution where
208 $\varepsilon_{i,lat} \sim N(0, \tau_{lat})$ and similarly for longitude (Breed et al., 2012). The accuracy of GPS
209 positions is higher when locations are derived from at least 6 satellites (mean = 32 m, SD
210 = 36.9 m) (Hazel, 2009), which was the case for the majority of locations from the GPS-
211 GSM tagged seals. This information was used to estimate the scale parameters for the
212 GPS errors, which were considered to be equal for latitude and longitude (Hazel, 2009).

213

214 For the VHF telemetry data, the SSM error structure was modified in a similar manner to
215 that for the GPS data. A normal distribution was used to approximate the location error
216 and the parameters were based on the error distribution of the 95% confidence limits for
217 fixes. This resulted in a mean linear error of 1.66 km (SD = 0.93 km). However, the mean
218 number of VHF positions per day was only 0.74, i.e. less than one per day. This led to
219 high uncertainty in the output SSM daily positions and we therefore only retained those
220 daily positions that had a corresponding VHF location to ensure that there were no
221 spurious SSM locations.

222

223 2.3 Habitat modelling

224 The 95% credibility limits were used to estimate the uncertainty for each SSM position.
225 Characterisation of these uncertainties was important for determining the scale at which
226 movement could be related to underlying habitat variables (Patterson et al., 2010). The
227 uncertainty in the SSM positions derived from the GPS tracks was very small because of
228 the high frequency and accuracy of the positions, and was below the resolution of the
229 available environmental data. A suitable grid size for averaging the environmental data
230 was therefore chosen based on the median width of the 95% credibility limits for the
231 Argos SSM positions (4.4 km), which had the highest uncertainty of the three tracking
232 methods. Based on this, a grid size of 4 x 4 km was applied to the environmental data and
233 associated with the seal positions in the habitat analysis. Grid cells within 2 km of a
234 haulout site were removed to reduce bias towards locations where the seals were hauled
235 out on land or resting in the water in inshore haul-out areas (Thompson et al., 1998).

236

237 The probability of harbour seal occurrence was modelled using a presence-absence
238 approach within each of the 4 x 4 km grid cells. Any cell that contained at least one seal
239 SSM position was coded as 1 for seal presence. Based on the average travel speed and
240 foraging trip duration (Thompson et al., 1998), as well as the maximum duration of the
241 tracks, all of the grid cells within the Moray Firth were considered available habitat. Cells
242 containing no locations were therefore coded as 0 for seal absence.

243

244 A generalised additive model (GAM) with a binomial error distribution and logit link
245 function was used to model these data. The environmental variables considered to be
246 likely explanatory variables of seal occurrence were water depth, seabed slope, distance

247 to the nearest haulout site, and seabed sediment type (Figure 2). Water depth and seabed
248 slope were derived from SeaZone Hydrospatial Bathymetry (grid tiles: NW25600020,
249 NW25600040, NW25600060, NW25800040) at a resolution of 6 arcsecond grid
250 (approximately 180 m) and the mean depth and slope within each 4 x 4 km grid cell were
251 calculated in ArcGIS 9.3. Similarly, seabed sediment type was obtained from SeaZone
252 Seabed Sediment (1:250,000 scale, SeaZone Solutions Ltd., UK) as a polygon shapefile
253 and the main sediment type identified within each 4 x 4 km grid cell. The sediment
254 classification derives from that proposed by Folk (1954), which groups grains into mud,
255 sand and gravel based on their size. To simplify the classification, some of the classes
256 have been merged. This resulted in the seabed sediment categories for our grid cells
257 being sandy mud, muddy sand, sand, gravelly sand, sandy gravel, and gravel in order of
258 increasing grain size. When there were small sample sizes for any of these categories
259 they were grouped with the most similar sediment category.

260

261 The water depth, seabed slope and distance to nearest haulout site were treated as
262 continuous variables and the sediment type as a categorical variable, where the most
263 common type (sand) was used as the reference level. Visual inspection of distributions
264 was used to determine whether transformations of the variables were necessary or
265 supported the removal of any outliers. Variance inflation factors were used to test for
266 collinearity between the explanatory environmental variables; values were all less than 3,
267 indicating there was no significant collinearity (Zuur et al., 2009). The smoother terms
268 for the continuous variables were derived using penalized regression splines with a
269 shrinkage term so that, for large levels of smoothing, a smoother could have 0 degrees of

270 freedom and be effectively removed from the model (Wood 2006). The model was fitted
271 using the R software (R Development Core Team 2008) and contributed package mgcv
272 (Wood 2006). The GAM output was visually checked for spatial correlation by plotting
273 the residuals against the spatial coordinates. There were no obvious clusters of negative
274 or positive residuals, and no clear clusters of large residuals indicating that there was no
275 significant spatial correlation (Zuur et al., 2009).

276

277 Habitat preference can be calculated as the ratio of the use of a habitat to its availability
278 (Aarts et al., 2008). In this second model we used a case/control approach where random
279 control points were generated to represent habitat availability. Control points were
280 generated using the equation for accessibility calculated by Matthiopoulos et al. (2004) as
281 $d^{1.98}$, where d is the distance from the haulout in units of 5 km. Since we were using grid
282 cells of 4 km, this was modified accordingly to $(0.8*d)^{-1.98}$. Each seal and control location
283 was associated with environmental data from the corresponding 4 x 4 km grid cell. The
284 same environmental variables were used in this method as in the probability of
285 occurrence model.

286

287 A generalized estimating equations (GEE) model was applied to determine habitat
288 preference (Bailey et al., 2013; Zeger and Liang, 1986). The correlation among seal
289 locations is likely to differ from the correlation among available control points (Fieberg
290 et al., 2010) and GEEs have the advantage that their parameter estimates and empirical
291 standard errors are robust to misspecification of the correlation structure (Hardin and
292 Hilbe, 2003). They also provide a population averaged inference rather than subject

293 specific (Fieberg et al., 2009). A GEE model was applied with five times the number of
294 control points as seal positions to ensure accurate representation of available habitat
295 (Koper and Manseau, 2009) and an independence working correlation to avoid biased
296 regression parameter estimators (Craiu et al., 2008). A quadratic term for water depth was
297 included following examination of the relationships visually. The model was fitted using
298 the contributed R package *geepack* version 1.0-17 (Yan and Fine, 2004).

299

300 Habitat preferences can vary among seasons as a result of changes in prey availability,
301 activity patterns, and the demands of breeding and moulting (Thompson et al., 1989). The
302 two analyses were therefore performed for both the entire dataset (including all months of
303 the year) and for the subset of the data from the summer breeding period (April to July).

304

305 2.4 Harbour seal abundance on land and at sea

306 Estimates of the size of the Moray Firth harbour seal population were taken from
307 Thompson et al. (1997). This population estimate was based upon breeding season counts
308 at haul-out sites which were then scaled to total population size using telemetry data to
309 estimate the proportion of animals not available to be counted.

310

311 To estimate the spatial distribution of harbour seals at sea within the Moray Firth, we
312 combined these abundance data with the output from the model of probability of
313 occurrence for the entire telemetry dataset. The GAM predicted the probability of seal
314 occurrence in each of the 4 x 4 km cells across the Moray Firth. These probabilities were
315 scaled to sum to one and multiplied by the total number of seals in the population, with

316 the assumption that each individual in the population is somewhere at sea within the
317 Moray Firth at any one instant in time. This resulted in an estimate of the number of seals
318 likely to occur within each grid cell. This estimate is conservative in two ways to avoid
319 underestimating the number of seals and consequently the potential impact of any
320 offshore developments. First, we used the average population abundance estimate of
321 1,653 from 1993 (from Thompson et al. (1997), when the population was at a peak
322 compared with current numbers (Cordes et al., 2011). Second, we assumed that all seals
323 might be foraging at sea at the same time. However, a proportion of the population is
324 hauled out on every low tide throughout the year, and many animals typically remain
325 around haulout sites for several days between offshore foraging trips. As a result the
326 number of seals at sea is likely only 60-90% of the total population, depending both upon
327 season and the age and reproductive status of individual seals (Thompson et al., 1998).
328 Although we do not formally incorporate uncertainty into our density estimate, we aimed
329 to determine the maximum number of seals that could be impacted by the offshore
330 development and hence used this conservative approach.

331

332 **3. Results**

333 3.1 Harbour seal locations

334 Tags were deployed during 1989 to 2009 resulting in 37 tracks with a total of 2,886
335 tracking days and a mean duration of 87 days per track (Table 1, see also Electronic
336 Supplement 1). The SSM-derived daily locations from the seal telemetry data showed a
337 high degree of overlap among the three tag types (Figure 1, see also Electronic
338 Supplement 2), indicating consistency in habitat use among tagging methods and over the

339 20 year period. The majority of locations occurred near the haulout sites where the seals
340 were tagged in the Dornoch Firth and Loch Fleet. There was also a large number around
341 and to the north of the nearby headland, which has previously been identified as foraging
342 habitat (Thompson et al., 1996; Tollit et al., 1998). The greatest dispersal was shown in
343 the Argos satellite positions, which extended into the northeast part of the Moray Firth.
344 An approximately equal number of males and females were tagged, and there was no
345 significant difference in the distances travelled from the haulout sites between the two
346 sexes (Generalised linear mixed model, with individual tracks as a random effect and
347 male as the reference level for sex: Coefficient = -6.48, SE = 4.96, DF=35, t-value=-1.30,
348 p-value=0.20).

349

350 3.2 Probability of occurrence model

351 Fitting the GAM to the full telemetry dataset revealed that the probability of harbour seal
352 occurrence was significantly related to water depth, seabed slope and distance to nearest
353 haulout , but not to sediment type (Table 2). The probability of seal occurrence was
354 highest at intermediate depths (approximately 15-50 m) and decreased with increasing
355 seabed slope (Figure 3). It was also highest within 30 km of the nearest haulout and
356 declined rapidly beyond 100 km. Predicted probabilities of seal occurrence were highest
357 in the inner Moray Firth, near the coast and in the northeastern part of the Moray Firth,
358 including the proposed offshore wind energy development sites (Figure 4, see also
359 Electronic Supplement 3).

360

361 When the GAM was fitted only to locations during the summer breeding period, the
362 probability of harbour seal occurrence was significantly related to water depth and seabed
363 slope (Table 3). Similar relationships were found to those from the year-round full dataset
364 with the probabilities being highest at intermediate depths (approximately 15-50 m) and
365 decreasing with increasing seabed slope. However, the distance to nearest haulout site
366 was no longer statistically significant. In both cases the probability of occurrence was not
367 significantly related to seabed sediment type, but for the year-round full dataset the best
368 model included this variable based on the lowest Akaike's information criterion (AIC)
369 value (Table 4). The predicted probabilities of seal occurrence were lower in the
370 northeastern part of the Moray Firth during the summer breeding period (Figure 5).

371

372 3.3 Habitat preference model

373 The results of the GEE model indicated that harbour seal habitat preference was
374 significantly related to water depth, seabed slope, distance to nearest haulout site, and
375 sediment type (Table 5). Harbour seals significantly preferred the smaller grain size
376 sediment of muddy sand than sand, and had a significantly lower preference for the larger
377 grain sizes of sandy gravel and gravel. Seals preferred mid-water depths, shallow slopes
378 and distances farther from the haulout sites compared to the distribution of control points
379 within the study area. Habitat preference was highest in the northeastern part of the
380 Moray Firth and also in small areas of the southeastern region (Figure 6).

381

382 The results of the GEE model for the summer breeding period indicated that harbour seal
383 habitat preference was similarly significantly related to water depth, seabed slope,

384 distance to nearest haulout site, and sediment type (Table 6). However, the preferred
385 sediment types differed from that identified for the year-round full telemetry dataset.
386 Seals significantly preferred sand over the smaller grain sizes of sandy mud and the larger
387 grain sizes within sandy gravel and gravel sediment. They also still preferred distances
388 farther from the haulout sites compared to the distribution of control points, but not as
389 great as for the full dataset.

390

391 3.4 Harbour seal abundance at sea

392 At-sea density estimates based on the probability of occurrence model indicate that
393 harbour seals from this population may be dispersed widely across the Moray Firth,
394 particularly over offshore sandbanks (Figure 7). These density estimates suggest that
395 there is variability in the importance of different parts of the sites identified for offshore
396 wind energy development. Using the population estimate of 1,653 from 1993, when
397 abundance was the highest over the last two decades, it was estimated that some grid cells
398 could hold up to 7 seals, representing a density approaching 0.5 individuals per km².

399

400 **Discussion**

401 Telemetry data provide spatially explicit information on animal distributions and
402 movements that can facilitate understanding their role in various ecological and
403 evolutionary processes, as well as the impacts of anthropogenic activities (Nathan et al.,
404 2008). In this study we integrated telemetry data from multiple tracking systems (VHF,
405 Argos satellite and GPS-GSM) within a state-space modelling framework (Jonsen et al.,
406 2003; 2005; Jonsen et al., 2013) to estimate habitat usage. It is typical in telemetry studies

407 that financial and logistical constraints limit the number and type of tags that may
408 deployed. Incorporating data from other sources allows a larger sample size to be
409 obtained from a greater number of individuals and over a longer time period. These larger
410 datasets may then be sufficiently representative to make inferences about the spatial
411 distribution of the entire population, which provides valuable information for
412 management and conservation (Matthiopoulos et al., 2004). Estimating spatially explicit
413 densities is a critical component of assessing the number of individuals that may be
414 impacted by anthropogenic activities and subsequently translating this into changes in
415 fecundity and survival to predict longer-term population level impacts (Thompson et al.,
416 2013). The calculation of absolute densities from telemetry data still requires an
417 assessment of population abundance from other data sources. There has also been
418 concern that the locations of tracked animals may be biased towards the tag deployment
419 location, particularly for highly mobile species. However, statistical methods for
420 accounting for this starting location bias in density estimates are now being developed
421 (Whitehead and Jonsen, 2013).

422

423 Habitat preference models have been developed for many marine mammal species and is
424 also beginning to play an important role in fisheries. This is both for the target species,
425 through the development of habitat-based stock assessment models (Bigelow et al.,
426 2002), and for non-target species by assessing bycatch risk (Žydelis et al., 2011), and the
427 development of tools for bycatch reduction (Howell et al., 2008). As the amount of
428 tracking data continues to grow, this source of data will be able to play an increasingly
429 important role in the development of such models. Such data could also provide

430 information on horizontal and vertical behaviours, that are often not available from other
431 surveying methods, further informing our understanding of marine species habitat
432 preferences and interactions with human activities.

433

434 Although different technologies have been used to track harbour seals in the Moray Firth
435 over time, the state-space modelled daily positions indicated that there was high spatial
436 overlap in habitat use among the three tracking methods (Figure 1). This suggests that
437 harbour seal habitat use at sea has remained relatively similar over the 20 year period
438 from 1989 to 2009, despite changes in abundance and distribution at breeding sites
439 (Cordes et al., 2011). The VHF fixes were collected by triangulation from receivers on
440 land and, unlike those from the Argos and GPS-GSM tags, were potentially constrained
441 in their offshore extent. However, locations were still obtained on nearly all of the days
442 for which radio fixes were attempted (Thompson et al., 1996), indicating that the seals
443 occurred mainly within the detection range (Thompson and Miller, 1990).

444

445 All three tracking technologies indicated high use off the headland near the haulout sites
446 in the Dornoch Firth and Loch Fleet. The area off this headland was previously identified
447 as a high-use area and foraging habitat during both the early VHF tracking studies
448 (Thompson et al., 1996; Tollit et al., 1998) and boat-based visual surveys (Bailey and
449 Thompson, 2009). Our study confirms that this has persisted over time as an important
450 foraging area. The currents around this headland combined with the sandy seabed
451 sediment favourable for their prey, such as sandeels, may create a consistently profitable
452 foraging ground close to the haulout site explaining its high use. The interactions between

453 tidal currents and topographic features, such as channels and headlands, can increase the
454 foraging success of marine predators (Zamon, 2001). Harbour seals in San Francisco Bay
455 mainly foraged near their primary haulout sites in a narrow, deep channel (Grigg et al.,
456 2012).

457

458 The central and northeast Moray Firth was another area of high probability of harbour
459 seal occurrence and preferred habitat. This is also a core area for another predator, the
460 harbour porpoise (Brookes et al., 2013). These offshore areas, farther from the haulout
461 sites, were used more frequently than expected. However, they have a high proportion of
462 sandy sediment with which harbour seals have been associated in other studies (e.g.
463 Grigg et al., 2012; Härkönen, 1988). This makes it suitable habitat for the prey species
464 sandeels and whiting (Atkinson et al., 2004; Holland et al., 2005; Tollit et al., 1998). A
465 strong relationship has been found between the abundance of benthic prey species and the
466 space use of harbour seals (Grigg et al., 2012). Harbour seals tracked in the western
467 Hudson Bay tended to occur in water depths of less than 50 m and 95% of their dives
468 were < 40 m deep (Bajzak et al., 2013).

469

470 Harbour seals, like several other pinniped species, are central place foragers, requiring
471 haulout sites on land for resting, moulting and breeding, and dispersing from these sites
472 to forage at sea. This limits their foraging range and, to reduce time and energy searching
473 for prey, animals are likely to travel directly to areas of previously or predictably high
474 foraging success where they will exhibit area-restricted search behaviour. Such behaviour
475 has been observed in seabirds, which tend to be central place foragers during the breeding

476 season (Pinaud and Weimerskirch, 2007). For example, northern gannets (*Morus*
477 *bassanus*) during the breeding season in the western North Sea targeted particular regions
478 for foraging, within which they searched more intensively and then commenced diving
479 indicating prey detection (Hamer et al., 2009). The requirement for females to regularly
480 return to their pups at the haulout site may have limited the distance they could travel and
481 reduced their use of the outermost parts of the Moray Firth (Figure 5a). The constraint on
482 their foraging range means that harbour seals, particularly during the breeding season,
483 will be vulnerable to changes in prey abundance or disturbance events from human
484 activities that could consequently impact their reproductive success (Hamer et al., 2007).
485

486 The probability of occurrence for both the entire year and only during the summer
487 breeding season was high in the area overlapping with the proposed sites of the offshore
488 wind energy developments. These sites were chosen in part because the wind turbines are
489 limited by the water depth with current technologies, with the maximum depth of
490 installation being approximately 40-50 m (Bailey et al., 2010). The noise from
491 construction of offshore wind farms has been identified as a potential threat to harbour
492 seals (Bailey et al., 2010; Kovacs et al., 2012) and nearshore developments have been
493 found to affect haulout behaviour (Edrén et al., 2010; Teilmann et al., 2006). However,
494 their behavioural reactions at sea to such sounds are still not well known (Southall et al.,
495 2007; Tougaard et al., 2009), and the potential longer-term effects are only just beginning
496 to be explored (Thompson et al., 2013).

497

498 In this study we used the average abundance estimate from 1993 (Thompson et al., 1997)
499 to estimate the number of seals in each grid cell. The population has declined since then
500 (Cordes et al., 2011) and our density estimates may therefore be an overestimate. The
501 approach we used allows a range of density values to be easily calculated from different
502 population abundance estimates, and for these to be updated when new abundance
503 estimates are available in the future. In this study we chose a precautionary approach as
504 the most appropriate to avoid underestimating the number of seals and consequently the
505 inferred potential impacts of any human activities. These density estimates provide
506 important information for management, and for environmental impact assessments for
507 proposed developments and activities where it is necessary to know the number of
508 animals that are expected to be in the area and that could potentially be harmed or
509 disturbed (Forney et al., 2012; Thompson et al. 2013).

510

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520

521

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770

770 **Table 1:** Summary of harbour seal telemetry data in the Moray Firth, Scotland.
 771 Telemetry techniques used were very high frequency (VHF) radio tracking, Argos
 772 satellite, and a Global Positioning System (GPS) sensor combined with a mobile phone
 773 Global System for Mobile Communications (GSM) modem to relay data ashore.
 774

Tag type	Deployment years	Number of tags	Mean duration (days)	Tracked months^a	Sex ratio (Male:Female)
VHF	1989-1991	21	58	May-Jul, Oct-Feb	12:9
Argos satellite	2004-2007	11	109	Mar-Jul, Sep-Apr	6:5
GPS GSM	2009	5	95	Apr - Aug	0:5
Total/Mean		37	87		18:19

775
 776 ^a Months for which tracking data was available beginning with the time of deployment,
 777 which occurred in the spring and autumn.
 778

778 **Table 2:** Results of the generalised additive model (GAM) for probability of harbour seal
 779 occurrence in relation to square root of water depth, square root of seabed slope, distance
 780 to nearest haulout and seabed sediment type (reference level: sand). An asterisk denotes
 781 statistical significance at 5% level and edf is the estimated degrees of freedom.

Smoother term:	edf	Chi-square	P value	Overall deviance explained
Depth	4.30	61.06	< 0.001*	
Slope	1.51	24.83	< 0.001*	
Distance to nearest haulout	6.47	16.48	0.021*	
Parametric coefficients:	Estimate	Z value	P value	35.2%
Intercept	-1.64	-6.24	< 0.001*	
Sediment - Muddy sand or sandy mud	0.16	0.39	0.693	
Gravelly sand	0.55	1.96	0.051	
Gravel or sandy gravel	-0.50	-1.41	0.160	

782

783

783 **Table 3:** Results of the generalised additive model (GAM) for probability of harbour seal
 784 occurrence during the summer breeding period (April to July) in relation to square root of
 785 water depth, square root of seabed slope, distance to nearest haulout and seabed sediment
 786 type (reference level: sand). An asterisk denotes statistical significance at 5% level and
 787 edf is the estimated degrees of freedom.

Smoother term:	edf	Chi-square	P value	Overall deviance explained
Depth	4.37	39.86	< 0.001*	37.7%
Slope	2.53	23.01	< 0.001*	
Distance to nearest haulout	4.68	10.65	0.065	
Parametric coefficients:	Estimate	Z value	P value	
Intercept	-2.82	-7.41	< 0.001*	
Sediment – Muddy sand or sandy mud	-0.15	-0.35	0.729	
Gravelly sand	0.02	-0.06	0.956	
Gravel or sandy gravel	-0.79	-1.72	0.086	

788

789

789 **Table 4:** Akaike's information criterion (AIC) values for candidate generalised additive
 790 models (GAM) for probability of harbour seal occurrence for the full year-round dataset
 791 and during the summer breeding period (April to July) in relation to square root of water
 792 depth, square root of seabed slope, distance to nearest haulout and seabed sediment type
 793 (reference level: sand). An asterisk denotes the lowest AIC value and hence the best
 794 model.

Candidate model	Full year-round dataset	Summer breeding period
s(Depth)	663.10	471.51
s(Depth)+s(Slope)	638.32	447.43
s(Depth)+s(Slope)+s(Distance to nearest haulout)	614.38	425.66*
s(Depth)+s(Slope)+s(Distance to nearest haulout)+Seabed Sediment Type	609.39*	427.69

795

795 **Table 5:** Results of generalised estimating equations (GEE) model for harbour seal
 796 foraging habitat preference in relation to square root of water depth, square root of seabed
 797 slope, logarithm (to the base 10) of distance to nearest haulout and seabed sediment type
 798 (reference level: sand). An asterisk denotes statistical significance at 5% level.

799

Term	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Statistic	P-value
Intercept	-9.43	1.41	44.54	< 0.001*
Depth	2.04	0.46	19.22	< 0.001*
Depth ²	-0.21	0.04	29.77	< 0.001*
Slope	-1.43	0.33	18.80	< 0.001*
Distance to nearest haulout	3.86	0.54	51.27	< 0.001*
Sediment –Sandy mud	-0.08	0.72	0.01	0.908
Muddy sand	0.56	0.25	5.19	0.023*
Gravelly sand	-0.36	0.23	2.38	0.123
Sandy gravel	-1.31	0.45	8.47	0.004*
Gravel	-0.96	0.31	9.39	0.002*

800

801

801 **Table 6:** Results of the generalised estimating equations (GEE) model for harbour seal
 802 foraging habitat preference during the summer breeding period (April to July) in relation
 803 to square root of water depth, square root of seabed slope, logarithm (to the base 10) of
 804 distance to nearest haulout and seabed sediment type (reference level: sand). An asterisk
 805 denotes statistical significance at 5% level.
 806

Term:	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Statistic	P-value
Intercept	-9.79	2.49	15.48	< 0.001*
Depth	2.46	0.80	9.46	0.002*
Depth ²	-0.25	0.07	13.66	< 0.001*
Slope	-1.45	0.51	8.16	0.004*
Distance to nearest haulout	3.28	0.74	19.91	< 0.001*
Sediment – Sandy mud	-39.26	2.79	198.35	< 0.001*
Muddy sand	0.57	0.31	3.36	0.067
Gravelly sand	-0.76	0.42	3.26	0.071
Sandy gravel	-2.04	0.49	17.36	< 0.001*
Gravel	-1.91	0.48	15.85	< 0.001*

807

808

808 **Figure Legends**

809 **Figure 1:** Daily harbour seal state-space model (SSM) locations derived from Argos
810 satellite (red), GPS (green), and VHF (blue) positions (circles). The haulout sites are
811 shown as black circles.

812

813 **Figure 2:** Environmental variables summarized within 4 x 4 km grid cells for a) water
814 depth, b) seabed slope, and c) seabed sediment type.

815

816 **Figure 3:** Generalised additive model (GAM) smoothing curves for square root of water
817 depth (m), square root of seabed slope (degrees), and distance to nearest haulout (km) in
818 relation to probability of seal occurrence.

819

820 **Figure 4:** a) Harbour seal presence from state-space model (SSM) daily positions in 4 x 4
821 km grid cells shown in red, and b) Generalised additive model (GAM) predicted
822 probabilities of seal occurrence (white cells indicate no data). The two proposed offshore
823 wind energy development sites are overlaid as solid black lines and the haulout sites as
824 black circles.

825

826 **Figure 5:** a) Harbour seal presence from state-space model (SSM) daily positions during
827 the summer breeding period (April to July) in 4 x 4 km grid cells shown in red, and b)
828 Generalised additive model (GAM) predicted probabilities of seal occurrence (white cells
829 indicate no data). The two proposed offshore wind energy development sites are overlaid
830 as solid black lines and the haulout sites as black circles.

831

832 **Figure 6:** a) Map of harbour seal SSM daily positions and control points in 4 x 4 km grid
833 cells, with data within 2 km of a haulout site removed from the analysis, and b)
834 Generalised estimating equations (GEE) predicted values of foraging habitat preference
835 (white cells indicate no data). The two proposed offshore wind energy development sites
836 are overlaid as solid black lines.

837

838 **Figure 7:** Predicted numbers of harbour seals from Moray Firth haulout sites within 4 x 4
839 km grid cells across the Moray Firth. The two proposed offshore wind energy
840 development sites are overlaid as solid black lines and the haulout sites as black circles.

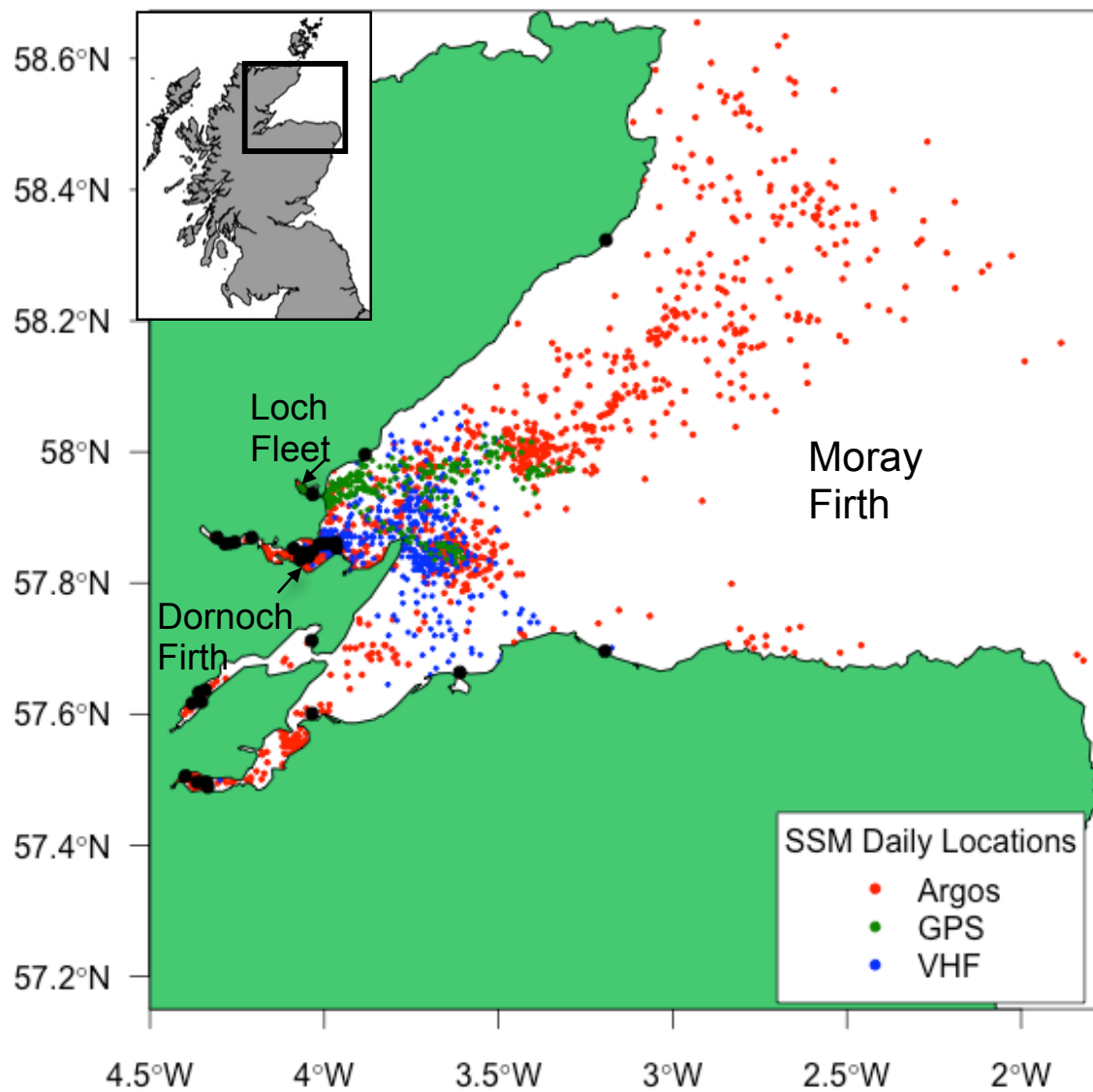
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843

843 **Figure 1**

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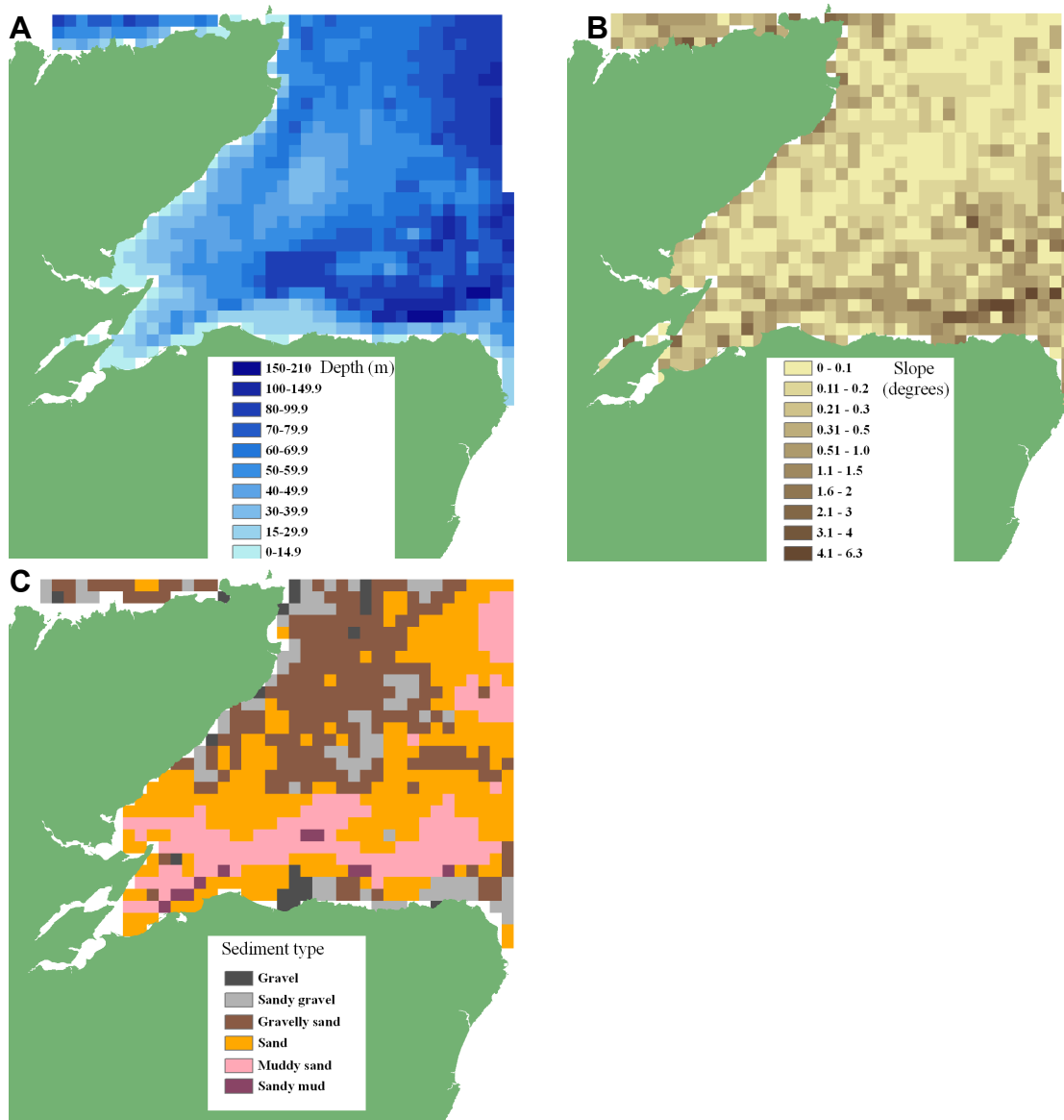


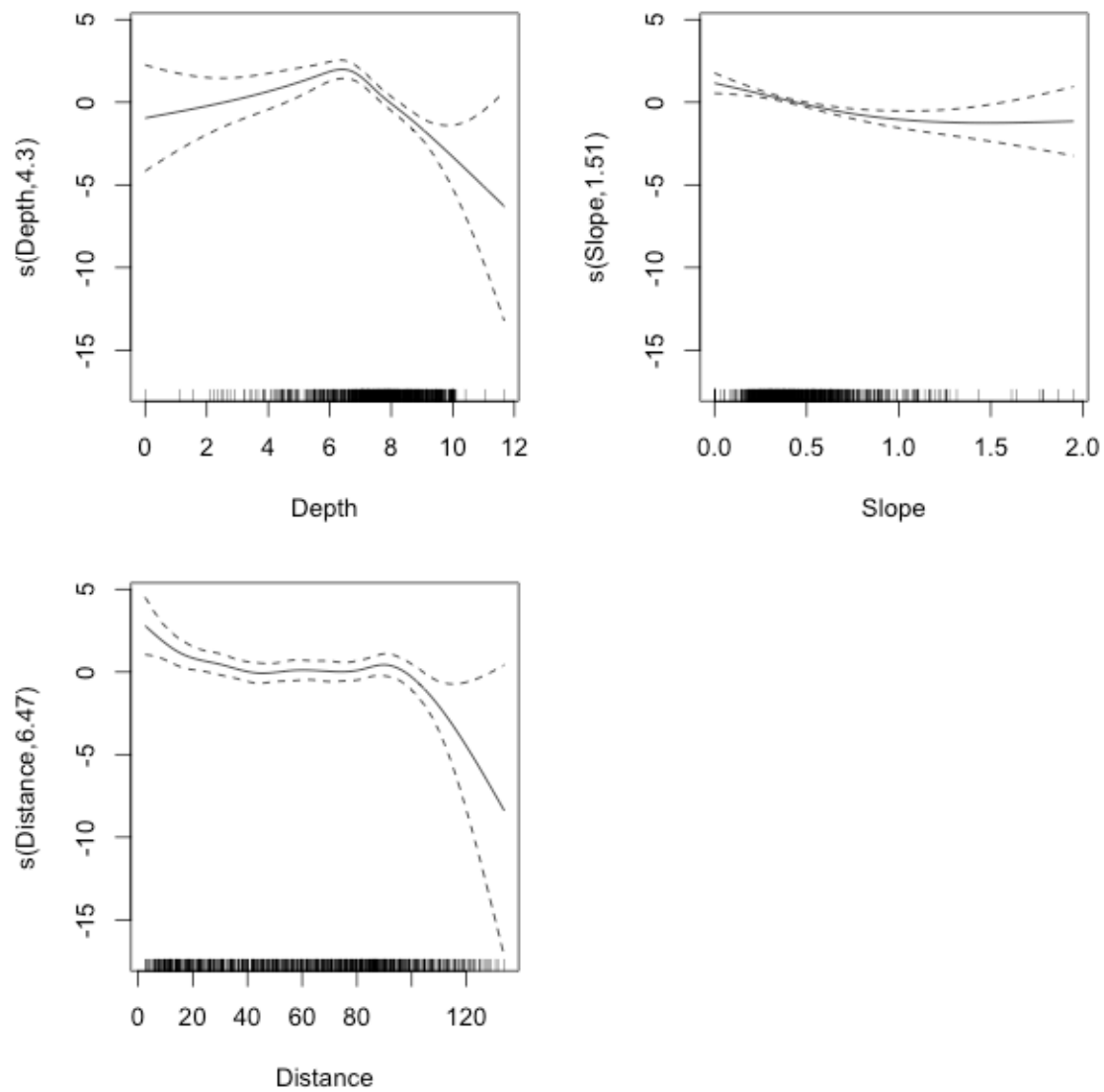
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846 **Figure 2**

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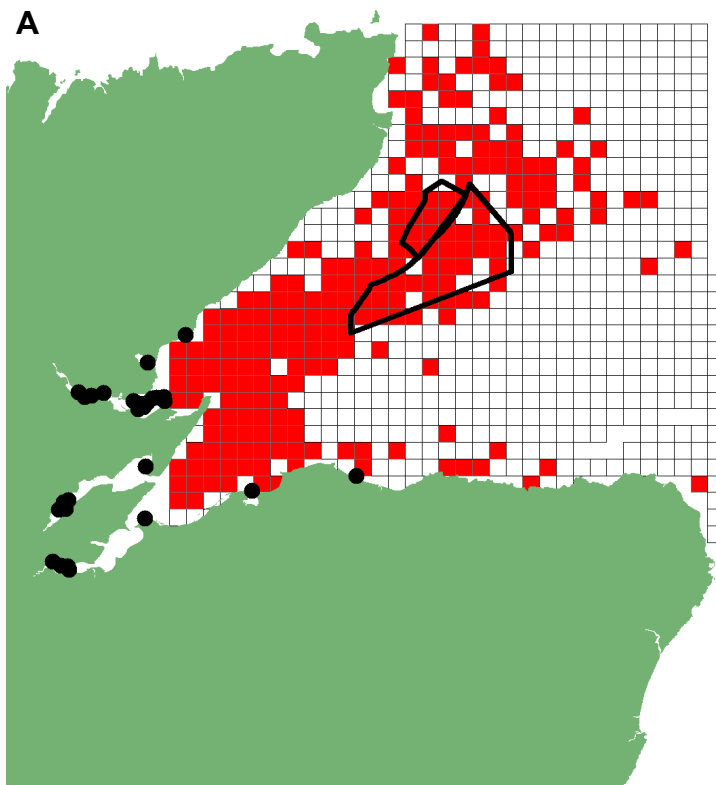
853 **Figure 3**

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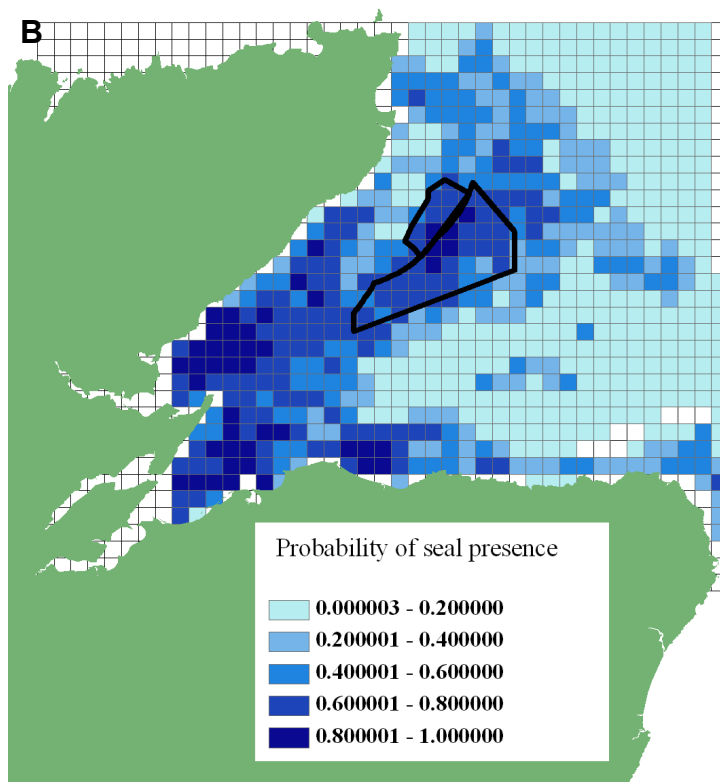
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856 **Figure 4**

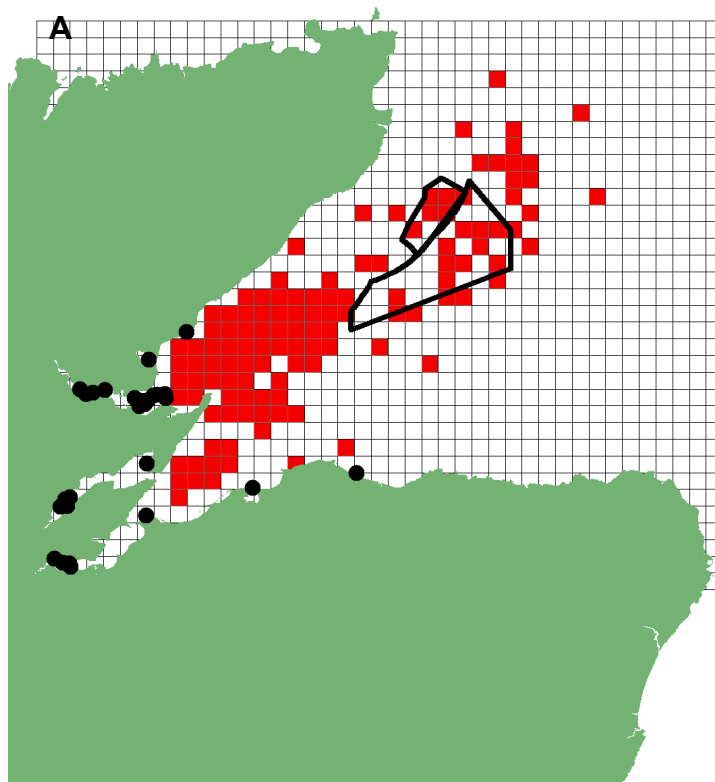


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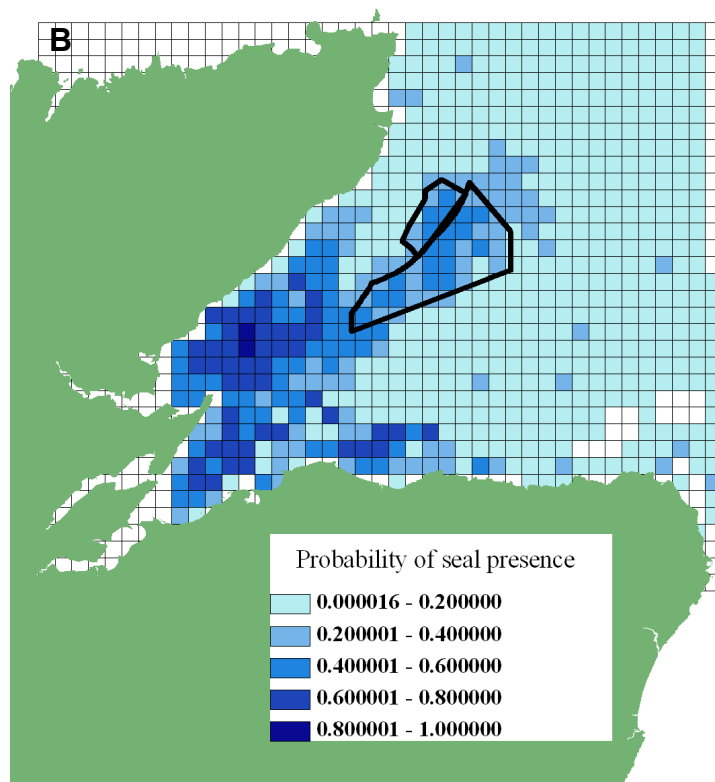


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859 **Figure 5**

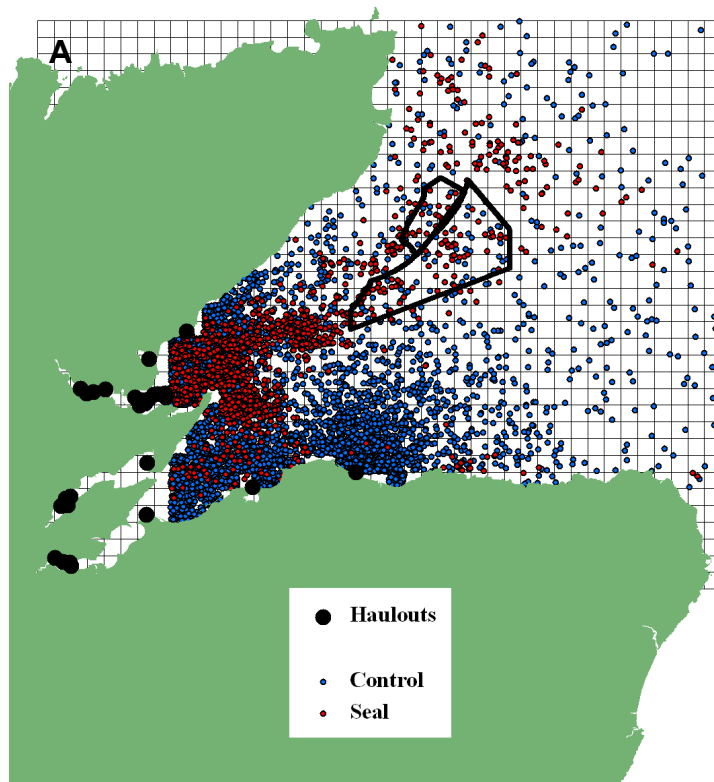


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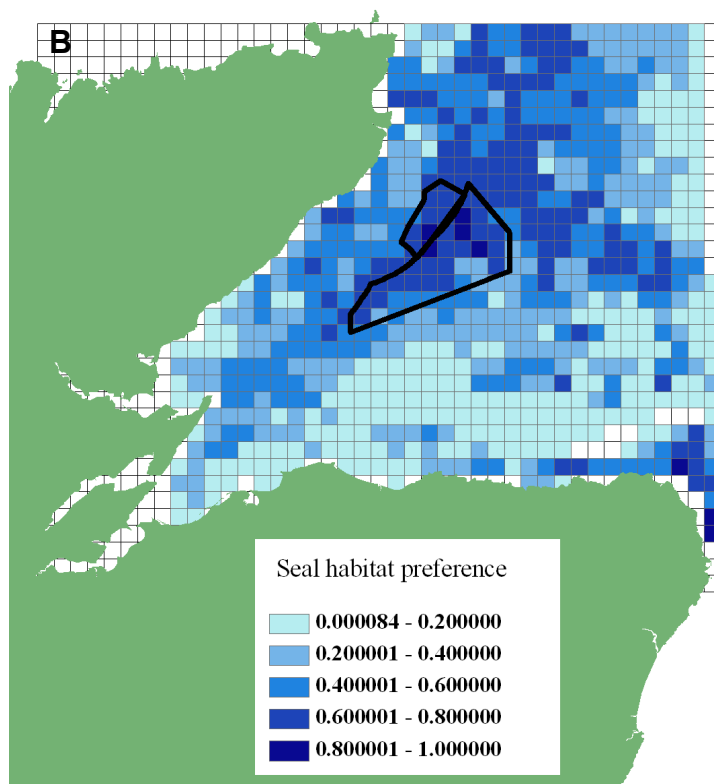


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862 **Figure 6**

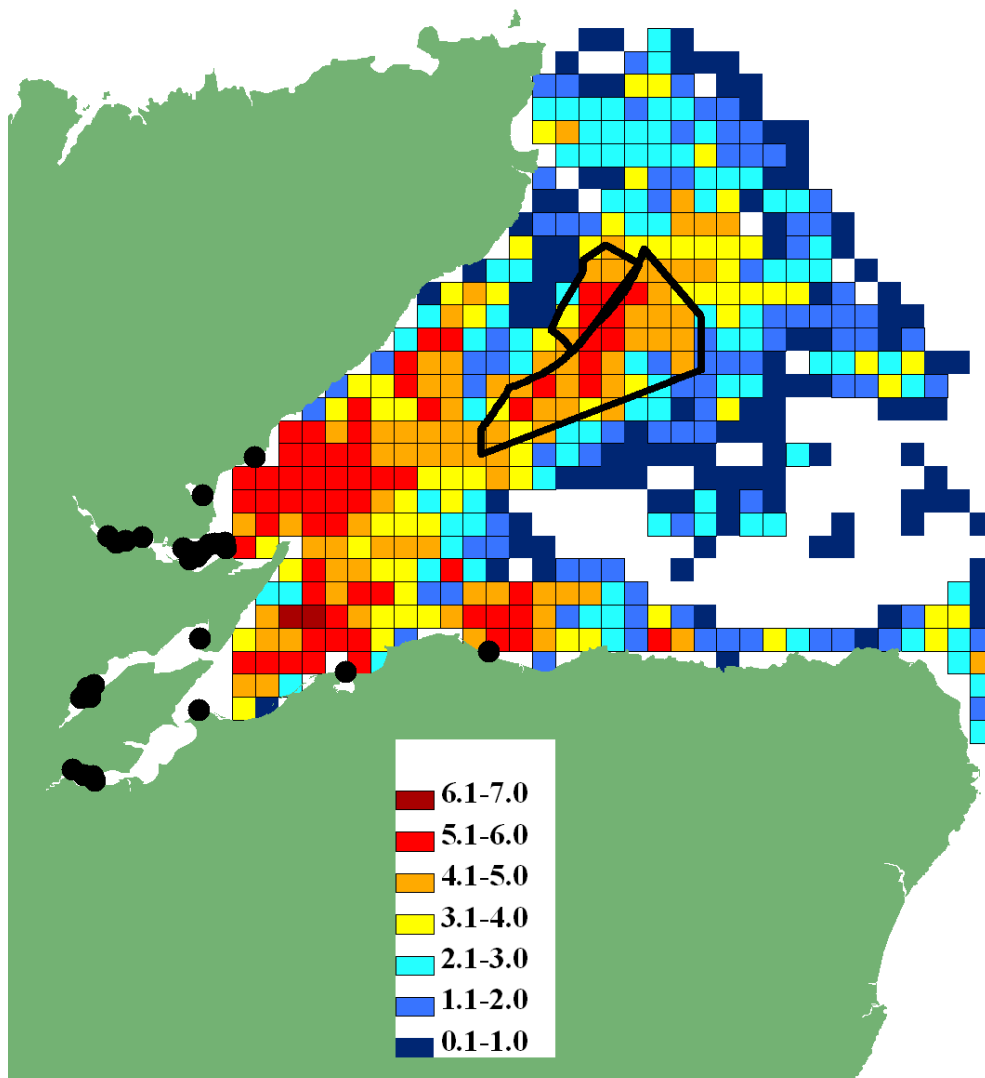


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865 **Figure 7**



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873 **Electronic Supplement 1.** Harbour seals tracked in the Moray Firth, Scotland.

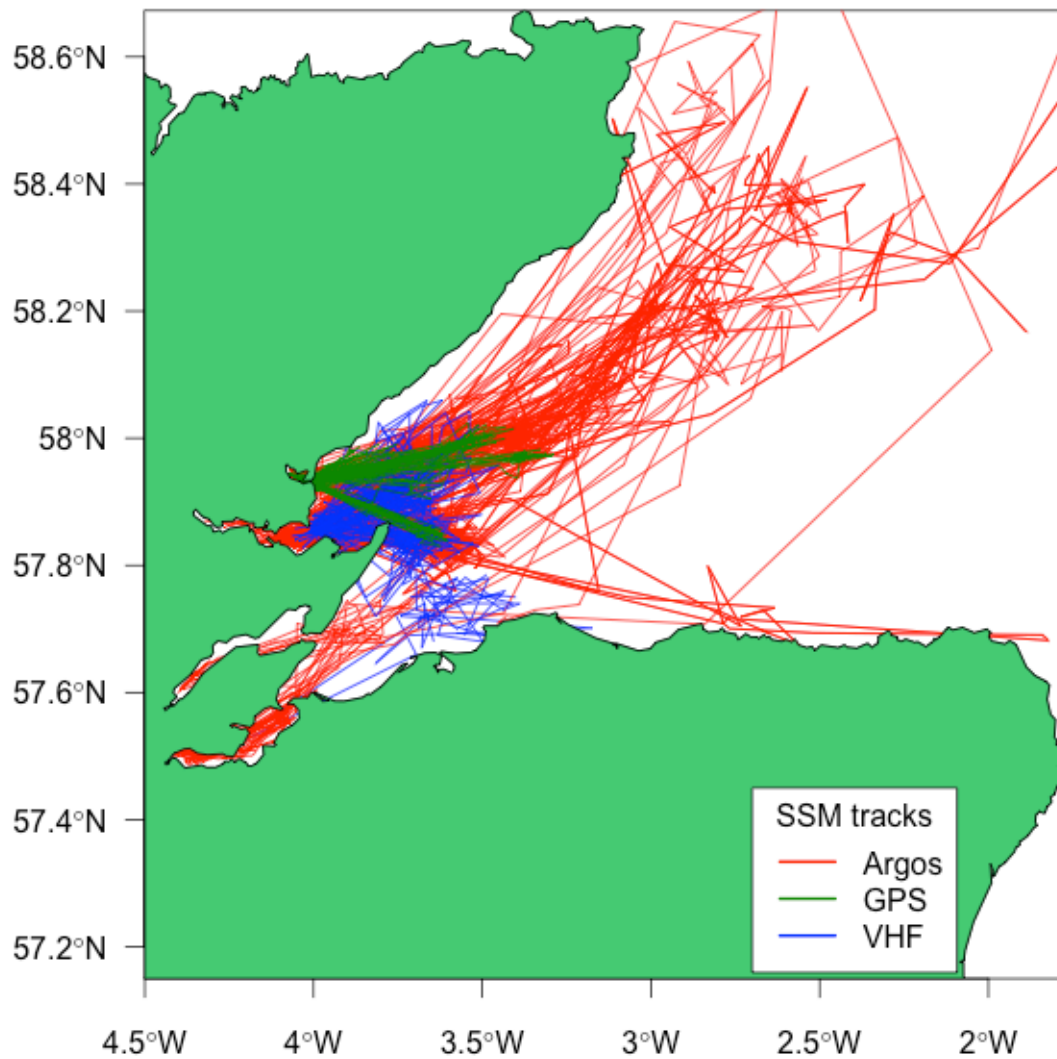
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1989	102	F	89.5	VHF	01/06/1989	29/07/1989	59
1989	103	F	74.5	VHF	01/06/1989	08/07/1989	38
1989	107	F	89.5	VHF	01/06/1989	29/07/1989	59
1989	70	F	59	VHF	30/10/1989	30/11/1989	32
1989	140	M	73	VHF	30/10/1989	06/02/1990	100
1989	131	M	66	VHF	31/10/1989	18/01/1990	80
1989	132	M	77.5	VHF	31/10/1989	06/02/1990	99
1989	133	F	66	VHF	31/10/1989	06/02/1990	99
1991	179	M	55.5	VHF	28/05/1991	05/07/1991	39
1991	180	M	85	VHF	28/05/1991	31/07/1991	65
1991	181	M	58.5	VHF	28/05/1991	29/06/1991	33
1991	183	M	56	VHF	28/05/1991	06/07/1991	40
1991	184	M	81.7	VHF	28/05/1991	27/07/1991	61
1991	185	M	57	VHF	28/05/1991	08/07/1991	42
1991	193	M	55.5	VHF	28/05/1991	06/07/1991	40
1991	194	M	88	VHF	28/05/1991	23/07/1991	57
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1991	199	F	95	VHF	03/06/1991	31/07/1991	59
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2004	43867	M	77	SRDL	29/09/2004	02/04/2005	186
2004	43864	F	60	SRDL	16/10/2004	13/03/2005	149
2004	43868	M	68	SRDL	16/10/2004	14/03/2005	150
2005	33185	F	71	SRDL	05/03/2005	23/05/2005	80
2005	33257	M	70	SRDL	05/03/2005	06/04/2005	33
2005	33869	F	79	SRDL	05/03/2005	28/07/2005	146
2005	33255	F	80	SRDL	06/03/2005	23/06/2005	110
2005	33843	M	87.5	SRDL	06/03/2005	13/07/2005	130
2007	26629	F	61	SRDL	01/03/2007	13/06/2007	105
2009	44281081	F	81.8	GPS-GSM	14/04/2009	07/06/2009	55
2009	44494740	F	61.2	GPS-GSM	14/04/2009	19/07/2009	97
2009	44671242	F	82	GPS-GSM	14/04/2009	17/07/2009	95
2009	44542657	F	78	GPS-GSM	14/04/2009	26/07/2009	104
2009	44671246	F	80.8	GPS-GSM	14/04/2009	22/08/2009	131

875 **Electronic Supplement 2.** Harbour seal tracks connecting daily state-space model

876 (SSM) locations derived from Argos satellite (red), GPS (green), and VHF (blue)

877 telemetry.

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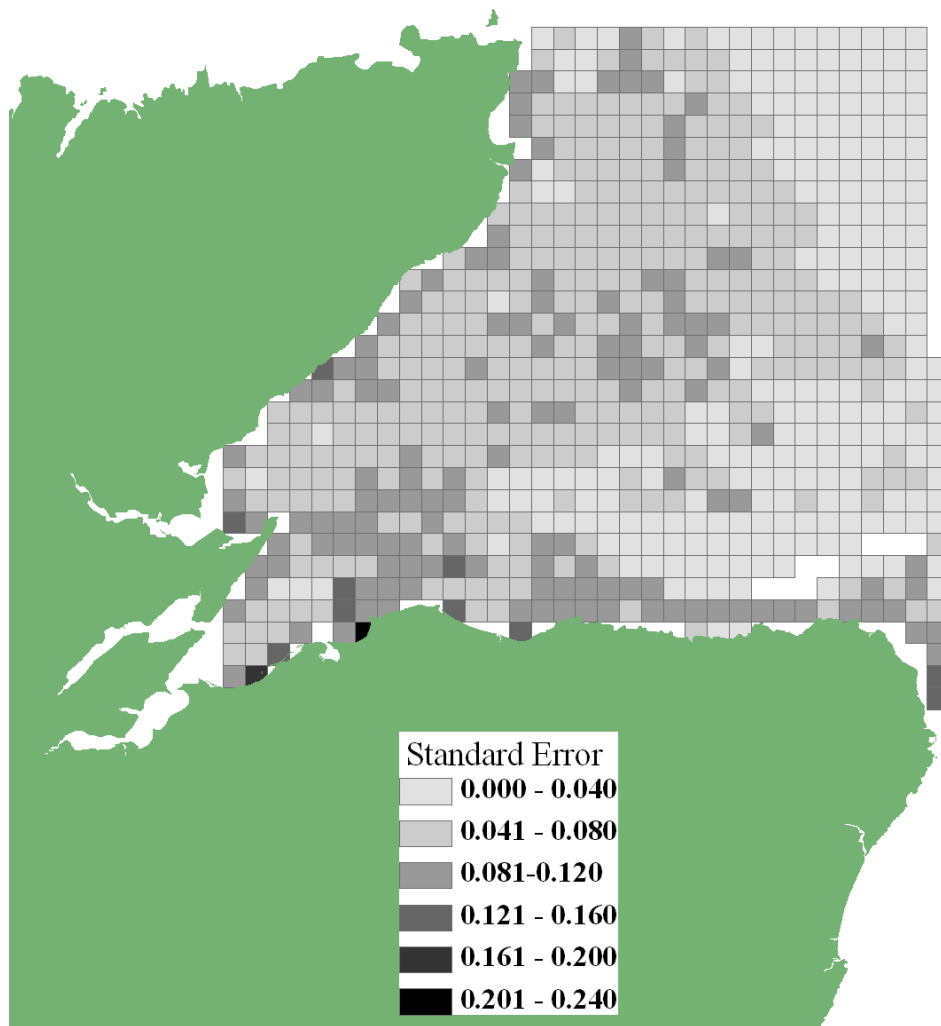
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883 **Electronic Supplement 3.** Map of the standard error of the predictions from the
884 generalised additive model (GAM) of seal occurrence (white cells indicate no data).



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