Mariana Degrati

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Daryl J. Boness Editor Marine Mammal Science

1	Sequential foraging of dusky dolphins with an inspection of their prey distribution
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26 ABSTRACT

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28 The aim of this work was to analyze the sequential foraging behavior of dusky dolphins 29 (Lagenorhynchus obscurus). Foraging sequences were defined when more than two feeding 30 bouts occur with a travelling bout between them. We hypothesized that travelling costs of 31 searching for prey patches were related to the time spent feeding on a patch. In addition, the 32 distribution and seasonal variation of anchovy schools were studied in the area to better 33 understand dolphins' behavior. We observed dolphins from a research vessel from 2001 to 34 2007, and recorded their location and behavior. Anchovy data were collected during two 35 hydro-acoustic surveys. Dusky dolphin behaviors varied seasonally; they spent a greater 36 proportion of time travelling and feeding in the warm season (Kruskal-Wallis: H = 172.07, P 37 < 0.01). During the cold season dolphin groups were more likely to exhibit diving behavior 38 and less surface feeding. We found a positive correlation between searching and foraging 39 time (r = 0.88, P = 0.019), suggesting that the costs associated with searching were 40 compensated by an increase in the energy intake during the foraging bout. There was an 41 association between dusky dolphin and anchovy distribution, in that they co-varied spatially 42 and seasonally. 43 44 45 46 Key words: foraging strategy, foraging sequence, dusky dolphins, anchovies, Patagonia. 47 48 49 50

51 INTRODUCTION

52 To cope with the high uncertainty associated with prey distribution and abundance, 53 marine top predators have developed complex foraging strategies in heterogeneous 54 environments (Russell et al. 1992, Viswanathan et al. 1996, Fauchald 1999, Pinaud and Weimerskirch 2005, Benhamou 2007). Foraging theory predicts that individuals, when 55 56 searching, selecting, and eating food, choose those behaviors that allow them to get the 57 greatest benefit with minimal effort and risk (Stephens and Krebs 1986, Krebs and Davies 1993). Within this theoretical framework, Charnov (1976) developed the marginal value 58 59 theorem or the patch model. This model assumes that the forager encounters patches of food 60 one after the other (sequential encounter) assuming that foraging consists of many repetitions 61 of the following sequence: search-encounter-decide. Within this model the individual should 62 decide how long to stay in a patch to maximize the long term average rate of energy intake. 63 Considering some restrictive assumptions (all patches have the same gain function and search 64 costs are zero), the marginal value theorem shows that the optimal residence time depends on travel to the patch time. When travel time is long, residence time is long and vice versa 65 (Stephens and Krebs 1986). 66

67 The relationship between search patterns and the distribution of food has rarely been 68 documented for large free-ranging animals (Ward and Saltz 1994, Mårell et al. 2002). In 69 marine ecosystems, the distribution of fish prev is poorly known at small temporal and spatial 70 scales, which makes the comparison between predator searching effort and prey density 71 extremely difficult. Prev distribution and dynamics have strong effects on the foraging 72 behavior of marine predators. The amount of work, and therefore energy expenditure that an 73 animal invests in locating prey likely varies as a function of the energy content, availability, 74 and location of the individual prey items (Stephens and Krebs 1986). Prey availability varies 75 as a function of its density and its distribution in the environment.

76 Experiments that manipulate prey resources are difficult to carry out in the pelagic 77 environment, therefore spatial and temporal variation in prey and predator distributions can be examined to provide insights into their interactions (Benoit-Bird and Au 2003, Benoit-Bird et 78 79 al. 2004). Analysis of predator behaviors and prey distribution can improve our understanding 80 of the foraging strategies of marine predators. Entire foraging sequences are relatively easy to 81 obtain for terrestrial animals (e.g., Clarke et al. 1995), allowing researchers to discriminate 82 between feeding and searching behaviors. Among marine animals, foraging sequences have 83 been more difficult to observe (but see Miller et al. 1995, Nowacek 2002).

84 Dusky dolphins (Lagenorhynchus obscurus) are small delphinids that inhabit select 85 areas of coastal temperate waters in the southern hemisphere. They are semi-pelagic top 86 predators that exhibit great behavioral flexibility in foraging. Off Argentina, dusky dolphins 87 primarily feed on schooling southern anchovy (Engraulis anchoita), which they hunt 88 cooperatively at the surface, during the day (Würsig and Würsig 1980, Degrati et al. 2008). 89 However, other species, such as juvenile common hake (Merluccius hubbsi) and squids 90 (Argentine short-fin squid Illex argentinus, Patagonian long-fin squid Loligo gahi and South 91 American long-fin squid Loligo sanpaulensis), were also recorded in their diet (Koen Alonso 92 et al. 1998, Romero et al. 2012). Dolphin groups at times join together during foraging, with 93 feeding lasting for several hours.

As part of a long-term research program in Golfo Nuevo, northern Ptagonia, behavioral
sequences of dusky dolphins foraging during daylight hours were described (Vaughn *et al.*2010). Within these sequences, dolphins alternate feeding bouts with travelling bouts in long
sequences. This behavior may be a foraging tactic related to prey distribution, whereby
dolphins find a prey patch, feed on it, and then move to the next patch.

99 The aim of this work was to analyze the sequential foraging behavior of dusky dolphins.100 We hypothesized that travelling costs of searching for prey patches were related to the time

101 spent feeding on a patch. This hypothesized relationship was tested at two spatial scales: 1) At 102 a small spatial scale: if travelling bouts within the foraging sequence are searching bouts, one 103 might expect that, in a given sequence, the more time dolphins spend travelling, the more time 104 they will spend feeding subsequently. 2) At a larger spatial scale: dolphins move to areas 105 with high concentrations of prey and then start feeding. Based on these assumptions, we hypothesized that the more time dolphins spent in a travelling bout before the foraging 106 107 sequence started, the longer the sequence duration would be. In addition, the distribution and 108 seasonal variation of anchovy schools were studied in the area to better understand dolphin 109 foraging sequences.

- 110 METHODS
- 111 Study area

Golfo Nuevo (42°20′- 42°50′S, 64°20′- 65°00′W; Fig. 2) is located in northern Patagonia, Argentina. It is surrounded by Península Valdés, a protected area that was declared a World Heritage Site by the UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) in 1999. The Gulf is a semi-closed basin approximately 70 km long and 60 km wide with a total area of 2,500 km². The average depth is 80 m with a maximum depth of 184 m (Mouzo *et al.* 1978). The mouth of the Gulf is 16 km long and connects to the Atlantic Ocean by shallow waters with an average depth of 44 m (Mouzo *et al.* 1978).

We define two seasons (cold and warm) in relation to the sea water temperature. During the warm season (November to April), Golfo Nuevo is strongly stratified both vertically (18°C at surface and 11°C at bottom) and horizontally, with lower temperatures occurring along the southern and northern coasts (16°C) and higher temperatures occurring in the central area of the Gulf (18-19°C). In the cold season (May to October) the water is mixed and the temperature is homogeneous both vertically (12°C both at the surface and the bottom) and

horizontally (11-13°C both in the line cost and in the central area of the gulf) (Rivas and Ripa
1989, Garaffo *et al.* 2010).

127 Dolphin data

128 Random transects were surveyed onboard a research vessel from 2001 to 2007. Three 129 research vessels were used: a 6 m fiberglass boat with a 50 hp outboard engine from 2001 to 130 2003, a 7 m fiberglass boat with a 105 hp outboard engine and an inflatable boat of 6 m with a 131 90 hp outboard engine from 2004 to 2007. One survey was completed each day between 0800 132 and 2000. The mean duration of surveys was $5:23 \pm 1$ SD h:min (range = 1:30 - 9); the 133 duration was determined by sea state and weather conditions (Beaufort sea state \leq 3). For 134 behavioral data collection, a group of dolphins was defined as any collection of individuals 135 located in close proximity (<10 m) to one another (Smolker et al. 1992).

136 To minimize our potential impact on the dolphins' behavior, each group was 137 approached slowly, from the side and rear, with the vessel moving in the same direction as the 138 animals. Dolphins were followed at a constant distance of about 100 m, with minimal changes 139 in vessel heading and speed. When a group of dolphins was sighted their size, predominant 140 activity, and location were recorded. Groups were classified into the following arbitrary size 141 categories: <10, 10-20, 21-50, 51-70, 71-100 and >100 individuals. The predominant activity 142 or "behavioral state" was defined as the activity in which > 50% of group members were engaged; for our study population, typically > 90% of the animals in a group were engaged in 143 144 the same activity, indicating that this form of sampling provided a robust measure of the 145 behavior of group members. Six predominant activities, diving, feeding, milling, resting, 146 socializing, and traveling were used to categorize behavioral state (Table 1). During 147 behavioral sampling, group members were observed continuously as long as possible, and the 148 predominant activity was recorded at 2 min intervals using an instantaneous sampling

protocol (Altmann 1974). The location of the group was also recorded every 2 min by aGlobal Positional System and stored as a track file.

151 *Activity pattern analysis*

152 For activity patterns analyses each dolphin group-follow was considered an independent 153 observation. Dusky dolphins are characterized by a fluid, fission-fusion society and their 154 associations are not static over time (Markowitz et al. 2004). As a result, groups sighted on 155 different days were considered distinct. When new dolphins joined the focal group or the 156 group split, the resulting collection of individuals was considered a new group. Only one 157 group per day was considered in the statistics analysis. Because behavior at consecutive 2 min 158 intervals was not independent, the proportion of time spent in each of the 6 defined activities 159 was calculated from each group-follow. The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to 160 assess differences in activities among cold and warm seasons. Nonparametric tests were 161 selected because assumptions regarding normality and homogeneity of variance between 162 samples were not met and because the existence of outliers made the median more 163 representative than the mean for these samples (Lehner 1998).

164

Foraging sequences analysis

165 A foraging sequence was defined by at least two feeding bouts (F) occurring with a 166 travelling bout (T) between them, and was completed when an activity different than 167 travelling occurred after a feeding bout. A bout was defined as a period of time in which a single behavioral state occurred (Martin and Bateson 1993). A feeding bout was distinguished 168 169 as the set of consecutive 2 min intervals in which feeding was recorded as the behavioral 170 state. In a similar way, a traveling bout was defined as the set of consecutive 2 min intervals 171 in which traveling was recorded. The duration and distance dolphins moved during a bout and 172 during the whole sequence were determined.

173 The relationship between time traveling and time feeding was analyzed at two spatial 174 scales. A smaller scale was defined taking into account the distance dolphins moved during a 175 feeding bout within a sequence (mean = 571 m, SD = 353 m, n = 37) and a larger spatial scale 176 was defined considering the distance dolphins moved during the whole foraging sequence 177 (mean = 3724 m, SD = 2965 m, n = 37). A Spearman correlation was used to test the 178 relationship between the time in consecutive feeding and travelling bouts within a sequence. 179 and to test the correlation between the time dolphins spent in a travelling bout before foraging 180 (T') and the whole foraging sequence (T plus F).

181 Prey distribution data

182 Two hydro-acoustic surveys were carried out during 2007. A total distance of 99 and 183 120 nautical miles (nm) were surveyed during the cold season (24-29 May) and the warm 184 season (27 Nov -2 Dec), respectively. Weather conditions deteriorated during the first survey 185 precluding the completion of some transects.

186 The acoustic sampling consisted of systematic zigzag transects (Fig. 1). A research 187 vessel of 7 m with a 105 hp outboard engine was used for data collection. If during the 188 acoustic route a group of dolphins was sighted, the track was abandoned and the group was 189 followed to record behavioral data. At the end of observations the transect was continued at 190 the same point where it was abandoned. Acoustic data sets were obtained using a portable 191 echo-sounder SIMRAD EY-500 operating a 38 kHz split beam transducer. The transmitted 192 pulse duration was 1 ms and a wide bandwidth was used. The echo-sounder was calibrated 193 with standard targets following Foote et al. (1987). Data were collected continuously during 194 between 0900 and 1900 local time and then stored on digital media for future processing and 195 analysis. Interpretation of the echogram was performed by personnel experienced in using 196 visual echo-trace. Fish school data analysis was performed using EchoView (v.4.10.67; 197 SonarData 2005). Anchovy school density was calculated using the echo-integration method

(MacLennan and Simmonds 1992). The sound scattering values (sA) assigned to anchovy
were obtained from the analysis of the echograms in which regions were defined for each of
the registered schools. A minimum threshold was established at -70 dB. In order to show the
horizontal distribution of the echo-integration values of anchovy a ESDU (Elementary
Sampling Distance Unit) was set at 0.1 nm.

The shape, density, and location in the water column of each school were obtained. The school boundaries were determined using the algorithm provided in the school program module (SonarData 2005). Some school descriptors were extracted, and grouped into energetic (sA), morphological (length, height, perimeter, area, volume), and bathymetric (depth) categories. All morphological measurements were corrected for beam width effects (Diner 2001). In addition, distances between the anchovy schools were calculated using Geographic Information System tools (GIS).

210 Prey and predator analysis

For spatial analysis the location of dolphin groups and anchovy schools was overlapped with a grid characterized by depth data. The location of a dolphin group was considered as the position at which a group was first sighted. The whole data set of dolphin groups sighted was used (2001-2007). Anchovy data were obtained from acoustic surveys performed in 2007 as explained above.

A preliminary assessment of whether depth and distance from shore are independent was done using data obtained from Nautical charts (H-218, 1:110,000, Naval Hydrographic Service) (Mouzo *et al.* 1978). A grid of 1.5 x 1.5 km was constructed for the study area. A GIS was used to integrate the nautical chart with the grid. Each cell of the grid was characterized by depth and distance from shore. Mean depth was calculated by averaging values of depth. Distance from shore was calculated as distance from the central point of each

cell to the closest line coast. Dolphins and anchovy locations were overlapped on the grid. A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test for statistical differences in bottom depth between dolphins and anchovy locations as well as temporal variation. In all cases, a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was used (Siegel and Castellan 1995, Conover 1999).

226

227 **RESULTS**

228 Dolphin groups' activity pattern

A total of 235 random surveys were conducted during this study (Table 2). During the whole period 263 groups were reordered. Group size varied between the seasons. During the warm season more than 40% of groups were larger than 20 animals while during the cold season they were only observed 20% of this and most of them were less than 10 individuals $(\chi_5^2 = 11.45, P < 0.05).$

Behavioral data were recorded for 184 groups during the warm season and 45 during the cold season. Dusky dolphins showed seasonal variation in their behaviors (Kruskal-Wallis: H = 172.07, P < 0.01, $n_{warm} = 69$, $n_{cold} = 26$). They spent a greater proportion of time travelling and feeding in the warm season, and a greater proportion of time milling and resting in the cold season (Fig. 2). Additionally, feeding at the surface decreased during the cold season ($\chi_2^2 = 21.32$, P < 0.001) while feeding behaviors were almost entirely at the surface in the warm season (Fig. 3).

241 Dolphin foraging sequence

Forty one percent of dolphin groups that were feeding showed travelling-feeding
sequences. The average duration of foraging sequences was 42 min (range = 8-134 min).
Sequences contained 2-6 feeding bouts. Within a foraging sequence, there was no relationship
between the duration of consecutive travelling (T) and feeding (F) bouts (Spearman rank

correlation: r = 0.068, P = 0.58, n = 70). However, a positive correlation was found between time spent travelling before a foraging sequence (T') and time spent in the complete foraging sequence (Spearman rank correlation: r = 0.88, P = 0.019, n = 6, Fig. 4).

249 Anchovy's schools and their relation with dolphins' spatial distribution

250 Although anchovy data came from one year we assumed that the variation among years 251 was negligible. It is expected that anchovy distribution changes with sea surface temperature 252 (sst) and concentration of chlorophyll a (chlorophyll) (Bakun and Parrish 1991, Hansen et al. 253 2001). In order to check for any possible variation in these environmental variables along the 254 study period, sst and chlorophyll data were inspected. Mean sst for each month was extracted 255 from satellite images without clouds (NOAA Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer htpp://www.conae.gov.ar) at a spatial resolution 1.1 km² and from the Giovanni online data 256 257 system, developed and maintained by the NASA GES DISC. In addition, mean concentration of chlorophyll $a (mg/m^3)$ data for each month were extracted from the Giovanni online data 258 259 system from 2001 to 2007. SeaWiFS images were used by this source. The monthly variation 260 pattern of sst was kept over the years (ANCOVA, $P_{\text{months}} < 0.001$ and $P_{\text{vears}} > 0.84$) as were 261 chlorophyll values. Neither showed changes among the study period (ANCOVA, P_{months}) 0.40 and $P_{\text{vears}} > 0.37$). Therefore we did not expect large changes in anchovy distribution 262 263 among the years.

Anchovies were detected in both hydroacoustic surveys, 160 schools during the warm season and 441 during the cold season, which were clumped in different areas of the gulf. The areas where dolphins and anchovies were sighted are shown in figure 1. Although the area covered by the surveys was larger, dolphin groups were mostly found in the area covered during hydroacoustic surveys. The analysis of the schools showed that during the cold season anchovy schools were larger and located deeper in the water column (Table 3). In addition, anchovy schools were acoustically denser (sA) and were found closer to each other in the warm than in the cold season (Table 3).

273 Spatial analysis showed that dolphins and anchovy locations varied between seasons. 274 Both predator and prey were located in deeper waters during the cold season (Kruskal-Wallis: H = 145.3, P < 0.001, Fig. 5). We obtained the same results if we only used a data set of 275 276 dolphins sighting in the same year that acoustic surveys were carried out (Kruskal-Wallis: H =277 114.5, P < 0.001). Depth and distance from shore are correlated variables (r = 0.82, P < 0.001). 278 0.001), therefore we only analyzed data relative to depth. During this season, dolphins were 279 located in areas 68.3 m deep, 4.6 km from shore, while anchovies were located in areas 85 m 280 deep and 5 km from shore. During the warm season dolphins were located in waters of 36.1 m 281 deep and 2.5 km from shore while anchovies were located in waters 55 m deep and 3.7 km of 282 distance from shore (Fig.6).

283

284 **DISCUSSION**

285 Seasonal variation in activity budgets was observed for dusky dolphins. Dolphins spent 286 a greater proportion of time travelling and feeding at the water surface during the warm 287 season, while they spent a greater proportion of time diving during the cold season. The only 288 data available on prey distribution obtained in the present work were from 2007 and hence 289 our results cannot be generalized to the whole study period. Results obtained showed that 290 anchovies and dolphins moved to deeper waters in the cold season, at the same time 291 anchovies are located deeper in the water column. This result suggests that dolphins are 292 following their prey, moving accordingly their location. During the cold season anchovy were

concentrated in a small portion of the Gulf (in front of Puerto Madryn coast), while during the
warm season they were distributed over a larger area (along the southwest cost of the Gulf,
Fig. 1). These results were concordant with the habitat use pattern described for dusky
dolphins (Garaffo *et al.* 2007, 2010). During the warm season dusky dolphins used larger
areas, staying less time in a particular location, but for the rest of the year, they were more
concentrated in a smaller area.

299 Although the main feeding strategy of dusky dolphins in Patagonia is surface feeding, 300 we would expect that during the cold season dolphins would use alternative feeding tactics 301 that allow them to get more energy at lower costs. An association between diving and milling 302 behavior was observed during this season (Degrati et al. 2012) suggesting that feeding at 303 depth could be this alternative strategy; however, the energy budgets that these activities 304 represent in the survival and reproduction of each individual is unknown. Marine mammals 305 that feed within the water column must interrupt foraging activity to go to surface to breathe, 306 decreasing the time available for food intake. Feeding at the surface would be advantageous to 307 dolphins, but in situations where prey are not accessible at the surface, an alternative tactics 308 must be used. In Admiralty Bay (New Zealand), dusky dolphins exhibit temporal changes in 309 their feeding tactics, possibly in response to a change in prey species or behavior. From 310 August to November dolphins herd small schools of fish to the surface, while from May 311 through July, they feed on mobile prey at depth (Vaughn et al. 2007). Some of these same 312 dolphins also forage at night on the deep scattering layer (Benoit-Bird et al. 2004, Markowitz 313 et al. 2004)

According to foraging theory, it is expected that patch residence time depends on travel time (Stephens and Krebs 1986). When we considered an entire sequence as a foraging episode (F plus T bouts), we found a positive correlation between searching (T') and foraging time. On a larger spatial scale dusky dolphins move to areas of large concentration of prey.

Within such broad scale areas, dolphins start foraging, and then alternate feeding and travelling bouts. In this case, the time spent by dolphins in travelling would be part of the handling time of prey or the displacement between schools within the foraging area. Therefore, there is no single characteristic scale that describes foraging tactics, but rather several scales that may reveal different processes (Fauchald *et al.* 2000).

323 In Golfo Nuevo dusky dolphin group size changed with the season. Larger groups were 324 found in the warm season. This variation could be a function of the foraging tactic in response 325 to the prey distribution. Dusky dolphins are group foragers and the amount of energy gained 326 will depend on the number of individuals into the group. Having to sharing food resources 327 with other group members causes within-group feeding competition, which reduces the 328 foraging success of individuals within the group (Janson 1988, Janson and van Schaik 1988). 329 Within group feeding competition increases with increasing group size (Janson and 330 Goldsmith 1995, Steenbeek and van Schaik 2001). However, individuals in a group have 331 some benefits in terms of the efficient discovery of food patches (Clark and Mangel 1986) 332 and protection from predators. In addition, Würsig and Würsig (1980) reported that dusky 333 dolphin appear to have more success when working together driving schooling fish to the 334 surface, since they can contain "prey balls" more effectively. These authors also reported that 335 dusky dolphin groups pay close attention to each other, with one group finding prey and 336 another group joining in (Würsig and Würsig 1980). During our study, we observed the same 337 pattern, but as explained in the methodology, when new dolphins joined the focal group or the 338 group split, the resulting collection of individuals was considered a new group in the 339 statistical analyses. In our work, foraging sequence data were not analyzed in relation to 340 group size because of the small sample size. However our results help to better understand 341 foraging behaviors of pelagic dolphins and serve as a starting point for the more complex 342 studies about the functional relationship between predator performance and prey distribution

and abundance. This is critical to understanding the dynamics of trophic interactions andpathways of energy flow in pelagic marine ecosystems.

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Table 1. Behavioral states or activities of dusky dolphin groups in Golfo Nuevo.

Activity	Description				
Feeding	Dolphins move fast, diving and emerging in all directions. At times it is				
	possible to see dolphins harassing fish, fish jumping out of water, and marine				
	birds like terns, gulls, albatrosses, giant petrels, shearwaters, cormorants,				
	jaegers, and others, feeding at the same time. Dolphins move fast but the group				
	does not change location.				
	Two types of feeding: <i>feeding in sequences</i> (F), when a feeding bout occurred				
	in a foraging sequence and <i>isolated feeding</i> when a feeding bout occurred				
	before or after a non-travelling activity.				
Traveling	Persistent movement, with all group members swimming in the same direction.				
	Two types of travelling bouts: travelling bouts following any activity except				
	feeding (T'), and travelling bouts between two feeding bouts (T)				
Socializing	Frequent interactions between 2 or more individuals, usually in the form of				
	body contact accompanied by high-speed movements, frequent changes in				
	direction. Aerial displays such as leaps, tail-over-head leaps, backslap,				
	headslaps, and tailslaps are common.				
Resting	Low level of activity, with individuals remaining stationary, at times floating				
	motionless on the surface, with occasional slow forward movement.				
Milling	Low-speed movement with frequent changes in direction, resulting in little				
	overall directional movement by the group.				
Diving	Entire dolphin group submerged under water in a coordinated movement,				
	presumably encountering prey.				

Year	Survey hours	Hours with dolphins N° of grou	
2001	132	56	59
2002	148	20	55
2003	133	25	39
2004	143	29	39
2005	221	32	74
2006	89	13	27
2007	135	13	19

Table 2. Summary of the effort during the dolphin groups survey in Golfo Nuevo.

Table 3. Mean values of each aanchovy schools descriptors obtain in Golfo Nuevo during the
surveys. P values are the probabilities obtain from the comparison of two independent

School descriptor	Cold season	Warm season	Unit	Р
Length	41.68	29.41	m	0.0151
Height	10.99	10.13	m	0.1507
Perimeter	206.78	149.30	m	0.0246
Area	308.89	241.88	m^2	0.1730
Volume	2,570.39	2,298.18	m ³	0.3677
School depth	52.15	23.78	m	0.0001
sA	618 1	340 ,00	m^2/nm^2	0.0001
Distance	742,00	286,00	m	0.0001

487 samples (Mann-Whitney U test, cold vs warm season).

488 FIGURE LEGENDS

489 Figure 1. Dolphin and anchovy locations recorded during a) cold season and b) warm season,

490 in the study area. Black triangles are dolphin sightings between 2001 to 2006 and white

491 squares are dolphins sightings of 2007; size of gray circles is proportional to the square root

492 of the sound scattering values (sA) assigned to anchovy schools; black lines show the transect

493 followed during anchovy surveys and gray dotted lines represent the random transects

494 travelled during dolphin surveys.

495 Figure 2. Proportion of time dusky dolphins exhibited different behaviors during the seasons.

496 Bars represent mean values; lines represent standard errors for these means. Significant

497 differences are indicated by asterisks.

498 Figure 3. Proportion of dolphin groups recorded in different foraging behaviors during warm499 and cold seasons.

500 Figure 4. Relationship between the time that dusky dolphin groups spent travelling before a

501 sequence, and time spent foraging (considering the whole sequence, n = 6).

Figure 5. Bottom depth where dolphin groups and anchovy schools were found during bothseasons.





Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3





Figure 4



