

1 Assessing variability in marine traffic exposure between baleen whale 2 species off the Galician Coast, Spain

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4 Rhian Bland^{1,2}, Séverine Methion¹, Stuart P. Sharp², Bruno Díaz López^{1*}.

5 ¹ Bottlenose Dolphin Research Institute (BDRI), Av. Beiramar 192, O Grove, CP. 36980, Spain

6 ² Lancaster University, Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster, UK

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8 *Bruno Díaz López, E-mail: bruno@thebdri.com

9 10 Abstract

11 Increases in marine traffic represent a growing issue for marine wildlife, posing threats through the impacts of ship
12 strikes and noise pollution. Baleen whales are especially vulnerable to these impacts, yet regional and species-
13 specific information on exposure to such threats is lacking. This study uses AIS and observational data to provide
14 the first assessment of baleen whale exposure to vessel traffic on the NW coast of Spain. Overlap with vessel traffic
15 was detected for all areas where whales were sighted, indicating that these species may be at risk of vessel exposure
16 and its associated impacts. Level of exposure to vessel traffic experienced by whales was species-specific, with risk
17 of exposure appearing highest for minke whales. Vessel exposure also displayed intra- and inter-annual variability
18 and a significant influence of feeding behaviour highlighting the need for dynamic management tools to minimise
19 interactions between baleen whales and marine traffic off the Galician Coast.

20
21 **Keywords:** Minke whale, Blue whale, Fin whale, Vessel exposure, Iberian Peninsula, Automatic identification
22 systems

23 24 Introduction

25 As marine megafauna and top predators, whales have important roles in ecosystem engineering and food web
26 stability (Bowen 1997; Smith 2007; Roman et al. 2014). Reductions in their populations may therefore cause
27 changes to the structure and functioning of marine ecosystems (Worm et al. 2006; Ballance et al. 2007). However,
28 marine environments are increasingly placed under pressures from both offshore and land-based activities, with
29 humans now representing the largest driver of environmental change (Worm et al. 2006; Halpern et al. 2008;
30 Halpern et al. 2015). Human activities have already caused whale populations to suffer detrimental impacts, namely
31 the large-scale commercial whaling which overharvested many populations to the brink of extinction during the 20th
32 century (Clapham et al. 1999; Thomas et al. 2016). These populations are still recovering, with one quarter of whale
33 species listed on the IUCN Red List classified as Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable, including the
34 blue (*Balaenoptera musculus*), fin (*B. physalus*) and North Atlantic right whale (*Eubalaena glacialis*) (Cooke 2018a,
35 b, 2020). Many species have the potential to return to historical abundances (Kareiva et al. 2007): grey whales

36 (*Eschrichtius robustus*), for example, are thought to have returned to pre-whaling abundances within the Eastern
37 Pacific (Alter et al. 2007). However, human exploitation of marine ecosystems for their goods and services through
38 fisheries, commercial shipping, and the operation of polluting industries pose both lethal and sub-lethal threats to
39 recovering populations (Clapham et al. 1999; Thomas et al. 2016). Vessel traffic in particular represents a growing
40 threat due to the increases in seaborne trade to meet the demands of the growing global human population
41 (Tournadre 2014; Pirota et al. 2019).

42
43 Vessel traffic is one of the largest threats currently facing whales through the impacts of noise pollution and ship
44 strikes (Laist et al. 2001; Thomas et al. 2016). As marine mammals that rely on sound as their primary sensory
45 modality, whales use acoustic cues for critical life functions including navigation, communication with conspecifics,
46 and for prey and predator detection (Clark et al. 2009; Williams et al. 2013; Cholewick et al. 2018). Much research
47 effort has therefore focussed on the impacts of noise pollution. Whilst high amplitude sounds created by military
48 sonar and seismic surveys have received considerable attention (Tyack et al. 2011; Goldbogen et al. 2013),
49 commercial shipping represents the largest source of anthropogenic noise into the marine environment (Ellison et al.
50 2011; Williams et al. 2013). In addition, commercial shipping is the greatest contributor of anthropogenic noise of
51 lower frequencies (20 - 200 Hz; Ross 1976), overlapping with those utilised by baleen whales (Mysticetes), low-
52 frequency specialists, making this group particularly vulnerable (Clark et al. 2009).

53
54 This additional noise input into the marine soundscape has raised concerns of inducing physiological responses such
55 as chronic stress, acoustic masking of important biological cues as well as the displacement of animals from critical
56 habitat (Clark et al. 2009; Pirota et al. 2012; Rolland et al. 2012; Williams et al. 2014; Holt et al. 2021). For
57 example, reductions in glucocorticoid levels, a hormone linked to physiological stress, were observed in right
58 whales within the Bay of Fundy, Canada, in association with a reduction of vessel traffic (Rolland et al. 2012). Clark
59 et al. (2009) also discussed the potential impacts of acoustic masking in whales, with fin whale songs much less
60 evident in the Mediterranean Sea, an area with higher shipping activity, compared to those singing in the Gulf of
61 California, highlighting spatial differences in the distribution of vessel traffic impacts across the globe.

62
63 The largest anthropogenic source of whale mortality is attributed to ship strikes, with collisions causing direct
64 mortality through blunt force trauma and propeller cuts, and indirectly by reducing fitness through severe injury
65 (Laist et al. 2001; Soldevilla et al. 2017). Baleen whales, as some of the largest species, have been highlighted as
66 those most frequently involved in these collisions (Laist et al. 2001; Schoeman et al. 2020). High mortality of blue,
67 fin and humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) due to vessel collisions, for example, have been reported for
68 populations along the West Coast of the US and in the Mediterranean Sea (Berman-Kowalewski et al. 2010;
69 Rockwood et al. 2017). The frequency and severity of vessel collisions have been found to be influenced by many
70 factors including whale surface active behaviour, speed and size of vessels, density of vessel traffic and the extent of
71 overlap in the spatiotemporal distribution of whale species and vessel traffic (Vanderlaan and Taggart 2007; Conn
72 and Silber 2013; Soldevilla et al. 2017). Whales engaged in feeding activities, for example, have been reported to be

73 less alert to surrounding noise and activities, including vessel traffic (Laist et al. 2001). Few assessments however of
74 vessel exposure report on the influence of more than one of the above factors.

75
76 As demand for seaborne trade continues and a greater number of ships and those of greater size may become present
77 in the oceans, there is a growing importance in evaluating the exposure of whale species to vessel traffic (Halpern et
78 al. 2015; Pirodda et al. 2019). While spatiotemporal overlap does not confirm animals will be impacted, it is a
79 necessary precursor for impact to occur and to identify species and areas of risk. Assessments of many cetacean
80 species have been undertaken but are spatially biased towards the Mediterranean Sea and the coasts of North
81 America, and in most cases are based only on a single year of shipping traffic data with cetacean presence averaged
82 over time (Erbe et al. 2014; Pennino et al. 2017; Rockwood et al. 2017, for exceptions see Redfern et al. 2013; 2019;
83 2020 and Abrahms et al. 2019). This does not account for temporal variability in both vessel traffic and whale
84 presence, factors which are fundamental to the development of effective management strategies for the protection of
85 species and to minimise wildlife-user conflict (Redfern et al. 2020).

86
87 While the negative impacts of ship strike and noise pollution associated with marine traffic are well established,
88 species-specific exposure to these threats remain unevaluated in many regions (Laist et al. 2001; Thomas et al. 2016;
89 Erbe et al. 2019). The continental shelf in Galician waters (North-Western Spain), an area highly exposed to human
90 activities and a historically significant whaling area, has been identified as a region frequently utilised by
91 endangered rorqual whales for foraging (Sanpera and Aguilar 1992; Díaz López and Methion 2019), with confirmed
92 year-round presence of minke whales as well as a high seasonality of blue and fin whale presence (Díaz López and
93 Methion 2019). Some whales are known to migrate from the Azores however the specific migratory route of most
94 individuals identified is unknown (Díaz López et al. 2022). Interactions between cetaceans and vessels have also
95 been recorded in Galicia but research efforts have focussed on smaller cetaceans such as bottlenose dolphins
96 (*Tursiops truncatus*) and their interactions with fisheries (Goetz et al. 2014; Díaz López and Methion 2018, Díaz
97 López et al. 2019; Giralt Paradell et al. 2021). Here, we aim to address this gap by developing the first analysis of
98 marine traffic exposure for baleen whales off the Galician Coast. Specifically, vessel types and density within the
99 study region were identified and their spatiotemporal overlap compared with the presence of three key species: the
100 blue whale, fin whale, and minke whale (*Balaenoptera acutorotrata*). We used 4 years of data to explore differences
101 in exposure to marine traffic between different whale species. Generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) were used
102 to analyse whether whale species, group size, behaviour, season, or year were related to vessel density in the areas
103 where whales were sighted. The results of this study will therefore provide useful insight for the identification of
104 conservation priorities and may inform marine management strategies within the study area that can be designed
105 with temporal differences of exposure risk in mind.

106 107 **Materials and methods**

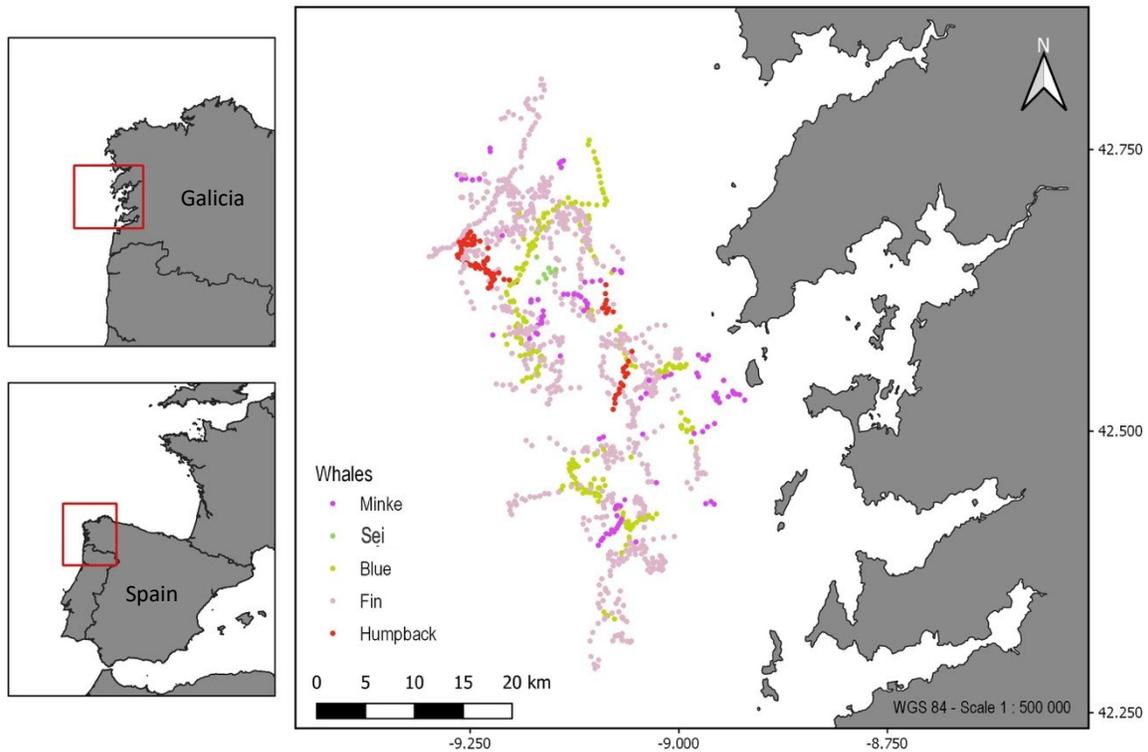
108 109 **Study area**

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This study was undertaken along the North-Western coast of the Iberian Peninsula, specifically the Galician coast, encompassing the continental shelf and inshore waters from Muros (42.79° N, 9.25° W) to the Cíes Islands (42.36° N, 8.94° W) (Fig. 1). Galicia lies along the northern edge of the eastern boundary of the North Atlantic upwelling system, one of the major upwelling systems of the world (Wooster et al. 1976). Seasonal upwelling of cold and nutrient-rich North Atlantic Central Water situated at depths of 70 – 500 m results in this oceanic region being one of the most biologically productive in the world (Blanton et al. 1984; Figueiras et al. 2002; Spyrakos et al. 2011). The productivity of the Galician coast is reflected in its high biodiversity, with at least 300 fish species, 80 cephalopod species and 20 cetacean species recorded in the area (Guerra 1992; Spyrakos et al. 2011). Whale presence has been noted in previous studies to peak at the end of summer and beginning of autumn due to higher concentrations of zooplankton produced by the seasonal upwelling events (Díaz López and Methion 2019; Methion and Díaz López 2019; Díaz López et al. 2021).

Data Collection

Presence data for baleen whales was collected by the Bottlenose Dolphin Research Institute BDRI (www.thebdri.com) as part of their long-term studies on the ecology and behaviour of cetacean species within Galician waters. Boat-based surveys were conducted year-round onboard a 12 m research vessel during daylight hours at a constant speed of 6 – 8 knots. Surveys were conducted systematically along transect lines designed to cover the study area equally, adapted to the specific conditions of the study area and the meteorological conditions of each day (Díaz López and Methion 2019). Spatial distribution of effort could vary according to weather conditions and time constraints throughout the study period, as surveys were conducted only when visibility was not reduced by rain or fog and when sea conditions were no greater than three on the Douglas Sea Force scale (Díaz López and Methion 2018).



139 **Fig. 1.** Map of the study area (southern coast of Galicia, Spain) showing the distribution of the observed baleen
 140 whales between 2017 and 2020 (points indicate the position of instantaneous point samples recorded every 5
 141 minutes of each sighting).

142
 143 At least three experienced observers were stationed on the flying bridge of the vessel (4 m above sea level) at all
 144 times, scanning 360 degrees of the sea surface for presence of whales with the naked eye or with 10 x 50 binoculars
 145 (Díaz López and Methion 2019). Upon sighting a whale, the vessel slowly moved towards the individual or group to
 146 reduce disturbance during the approach (Díaz López and Methion 2018). A sighting was defined as one or more
 147 whales of the same species observed within 1 nautical mile radius engaged in the same behavioural activity (Díaz
 148 López and Methion 2019). Group size was estimated at the beginning of the observation and confirmed throughout
 149 the sighting. The species (identified by colour patterns, head shape, size and the shape of the dorsal fin), date, time,
 150 and geographical position (UTM longitude and UTM latitude: WGS 84 UTM Zone 29N) were recorded as an
 151 instantaneous point sample every five minutes. The behavioural state (feeding or not feeding) of the individual or
 152 group was determined at the end of each five-minute sample. Whales were considered to be feeding when
 153 swimming in different directions in the same area (lunge feeding: mainly observed in blue and fin whales;
 154 characterised by high-speed, vertical lunges in which the animal opened its mouth and distended the gular region a
 155 few metres from the water surface, turning on itself and showing the ventral region at the surface; or deep feeding:
 156 characterised by sequences of regular dives followed by long and steep dives (tail-stock or flukes-up dives) (Díaz

157 López et al. 2021). Samples were collected until the individual/group was lost or weather became unfavourable and
158 the sighting was ended.

159
160 Presence data from 2017 to 2020 were selected to temporally match available vessel density data (see below), giving
161 a total of 1800 samples from 187 sightings of 5 species (blue, fin, minke, humpback and sei whale: *Balaenoptera*
162 *borealis*) over a total of 19 months. Presence data for sei and humpback whales were excluded from the analysis due
163 to the low frequency of sightings (n = 2 and n = 4, respectively) and similarly, a small number of samples collected
164 during the winter months were also excluded (n = 4).

165 166 **Vessel density**

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168 Automatic identification systems (AIS) are tracking systems used on-board ships and by coastal authorities, capable
169 of providing information on vessel identification, location and speed (IMO 2019). All passenger ships, ships ≥ 300
170 gross tonnage engaged in international voyages, and cargo ships ≥ 500 gross tonnage engaged in domestic voyages
171 are required to be fitted with AIS under the SOLAS regulation V/19, and AIS transponders are carried voluntarily on
172 many other vessel types (IMO 2019). AIS is therefore an appropriate data source for vessel density and has been
173 utilised in previous studies assessing variability in ship traffic and its impacts on cetaceans (Moore et al. 2018;
174 Redfern et al. 2020; Smith et al. 2020; Silber et al. 2021).

175
176 In the present study vessel data were obtained from the European Marine Observation and Data Network
177 (EMODnet) (<https://www.emodnet-humanactivities.eu/>). Vessel density maps based on AIS data covering all EU
178 waters and some neighbouring areas were available for the following vessel categories: fishing, service, dredging or
179 underwater operations, sailing, pleasure craft, high speed craft, tug and towing, passenger, cargo, tanker, military
180 and law enforcement, other, unknown, and all. Raster GIS files (GeoTIFF) of vessel density maps, available by
181 month of year from 2017 to 2020, were downloaded and imported into a geographical information system (QGIS
182 3.16) and projected into the ETRS89/ETRS-LAEA coordinate reference system (CRS) (ESPG: 3035). Shipping
183 density was shown in 1 x 1 km cells and expressed as hours per square kilometre per month.

184
185 To determine the spatiotemporal overlap between whale presence and vessel density, whale presence point samples
186 were first imported into QGIS 3.16 as shapefiles, grouped by sightings per month of year of each species. Samples
187 were then reprojected to the ESPG:3035 CRS to ensure all layers were in the same reference system for spatial
188 analysis. Using the QGIS Python Point Sampling Tool Plugin, vessel density was extracted for each point sample,
189 selecting the vessel density raster layer to probe values from that which corresponded with the month of year of the
190 sighting. The extracted value therefore corresponded with the total number hours of vessel traffic within the 1 x 1
191 km grid cell in which the whale was sighted, in the month and year it was sighted in. While this value is not the real-
192 time presence of boats during the sighting, this approach was taken to represent the general marine traffic activity
193 within the areas that blue, fin and minke whales were sighted in.

194

195 Factors including the size, speed and noise produced by a vessel have been reported to influence whale presence
196 (Campana et al. 2017; Blondin et al., 2020; Schoeman et al. 2020), but differences in these characteristics exist
197 between vessel types, thus presenting different risks on exposure to whales. Due to the negligible contribution of
198 many vessel types to marine traffic in the study area, only four vessel categories were used in further analysis:
199 fishing boats, sailing boats, large vessels and all (representing the total number of hours of traffic from all vessel
200 types combined). Vessel density values from ‘dredging or underwater operations’, ‘cargo’ and ‘tanker’ were
201 aggregated to create the category of ‘large’ because of the risks to cetaceans associated specifically with larger
202 vessels as reported in the literature (Laist et al. 2001; Thomas et al. 2016; Schoeman et al. 2020).

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204 **Statistical Analysis**

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206 All statistical analyses were conducted in R version 4.0.4 (R Core Team 2021). Differences in exposure of whales to
207 vessel traffic were analysed using general linear mixed models (GLMMs) in the ‘nlme’ package (Pinheiro et al.
208 2021). Specifically, GLMMs were used to analyse whether whale species, group size, behaviour, season, or year
209 were related to vessel density in the areas where whales were sighted. Vessel density of ‘all’ vessel types for point
210 samples was fitted as the response variable. These data were slightly skewed and so were log transformed; this
211 successfully produced a normal distribution. Four variables were initially considered to have potential effects on
212 whale exposure to vessel traffic and so were fitted as fixed effects in the initial model: species of whale, group size,
213 behaviour and season. Analysis was therefore restricted to point samples for which all of the above data were
214 available (n = 1294). Season indicates upwelling and post-upwelling periods, with upwelling events occurring
215 between May and August and post-upwelling occurring between September and November (Díaz López and
216 Methion 2019; Díaz López and Methion 2021). Overlap between vessel traffic and cetacean feeding grounds has
217 been reported in previous studies so to explore the effect of feeding behaviour on exposure to vessel traffic,
218 behaviour was defined as “feeding” or “not feeding” (Goetz et al. 2014; Cruz et al. 2016; Díaz López et al. 2019;
219 Ricci et al. 2021). To explore species-specific differences in vessel density in the areas that they were sighted in,
220 species and its interactions with group size, behaviour and season were also fitted as fixed effects in the initial
221 model. Year was fitted as a fixed effect to directly investigate whether the risk of exposure differed between years.
222 To control for nonindependence of consecutive point samples within a sighting of the same individual or group,
223 each sighting was given an identifier with sighting identity then fitted as a random effect.

224

225 Collinearity between explanatory variables was assessed by examining correlations and variance inflation factors
226 (VIFs) prior to model selection, following Zuur et al. (2009). All variables were included in the initial model
227 because correlations between them were weak ($r < 0.4$) with small associated VIFs (< 3). The model was then
228 refined using backwards stepwise deletion. Explanatory variables were removed sequentially in order of increasing
229 test statistic value if likelihood test ratios showed that they did not explain any significant variation. Each variable
230 was assessed in turn until the minimal model was obtained and then reinstated into the model to confirm significant

231 terms had not been inappropriately excluded and to determine the degree of nonsignificance. The final model
 232 included only significant variables and was validated by plotting the distribution of the residuals and the residuals
 233 against the fitted values, following Zuur et al. (2009). Estimates and standard error values for variables with multiple
 234 comparisons (species and year) were obtained in the ‘multcomp’ package (Hothorn et al. 2008).

235

236 **Species-specific variability in vessel traffic exposure**

237 To investigate variability in the type of vessel traffic (fishing, sailboats and/or large vessels) a species was exposed
 238 to and whether differences existed between years, species-specific two-way ANOVA tests were conducted. When a
 239 significant F value was identified, a Tukey’s Honest Significant Difference test was run to find where the significant
 240 differences lay. Only the first sample of each sighting were selected to limit autocorrelation and pseudoreplication
 241 arising from consecutive samples (fin: n = 89; minke: n = 24). Analysis of minke whales were restricted to 2018 –
 242 2020 due to the low representation of sightings of this species during 2017 (n = 4). Low sighting numbers of blue
 243 whales in 2018 and 2019 (n = 4 and n = 2, respectively) excluded this species from two-way ANOVA analysis,
 244 however a one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the variability in the type of vessel traffic this species
 245 was exposed to.

246

247 **Results**

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249 **Spatiotemporal overlap of whale presence and vessel traffic**

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251 Between 2017 and 2020, 132 sightings of blue, fin and minke whales were made along the study area (Table 1). The
 252 distribution of marine traffic varied both spatially and temporally within the study area, with coastal regions
 253 generally showing higher vessel densities than areas further offshore (see Fig. 2 for example).

254

255 **Table 1.** Number of sightings and individuals observed of each species during surveys between 2017 and 2020.

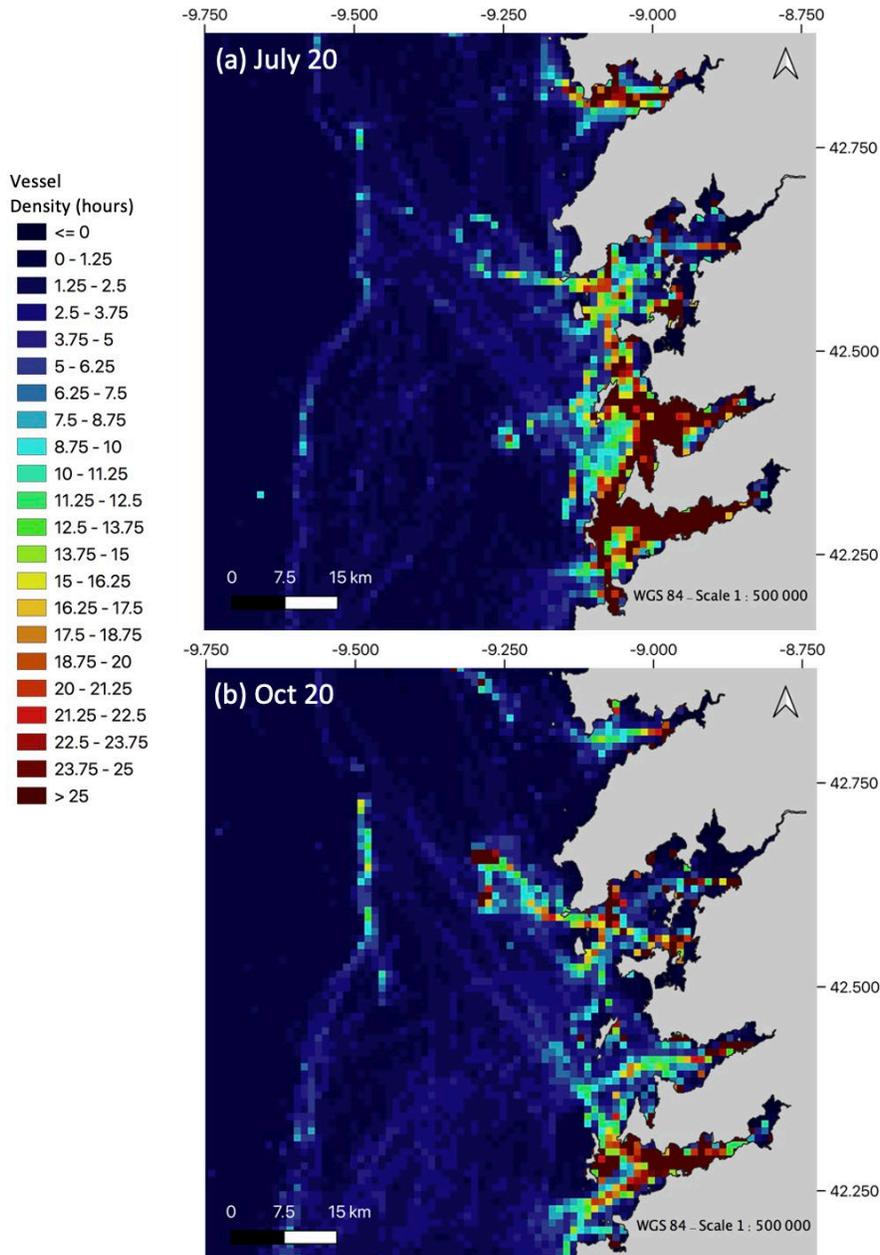
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<i>Species</i>		<i>Year</i>				
		2017	2018	2019	2020	Total
Minke	Sightings	5	10	5	6	26
	Individuals*	7	12	5	7	31
Fin	Sightings	22	12	12	33	79
	Individuals*	36	22	15	136	209
Blue	Sightings	5	4	2	16	27
	Individuals*	5	4	2	24	35

258 * The total number of individuals observed of the same species is the sum of the number of whales observed
 259 on each day without taking into account that some individuals may have been sighted on multiple different
 260 days.

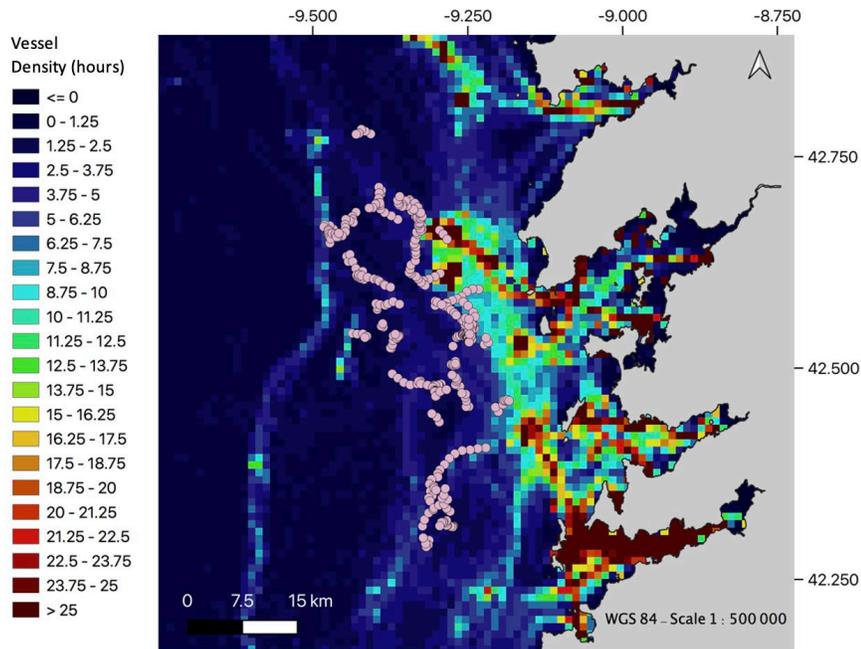
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 263 **Fig. 2.** Maps of vessel density within the study area during (a) summer and (b) autumn 2020. Vessel density of all
 264 vessel types of July and October 2020 were selected for illustrative purposes. Vessel density is shown in 1 x 1 km
 265 grid cells, expressed as hours per square kilometer per month.

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 267
 268 All point samples ($n = 1294$) used in the analysis (representing the position of at least one individual every 5
 269 minutes) were found in areas where the monthly density of marine traffic was greater than zero when considering all
 270 vessel types, confirming spatiotemporal overlap of whale presence and vessel traffic for minke, blue and fin whales
 271 within the study area in each year analysed (see Fig. 3 for example).

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Fig. 3. Map of fin whale exposure to vessel traffic within the study region. Vessel density of all vessel types is shown for this species, the most frequently sighted in the area, during a high-risk month in the most recent year of available data (September 2020) to highlight spatiotemporal overlap of whale presence and vessel traffic. Pink circles indicate fin whale presence (instantaneous point samples) and vessel density is shown in 1 x 1 km grid cells, expressed as hours per square kilometer per month.

283 **Factors influencing whale exposure to vessel traffic**

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Exposure to vessel traffic varied significantly between species (Table 2). For areas minke whales were sighted in, vessel density was significantly higher than for those where blue whales and fin whales were sighted (Table 1), with mean monthly vessel density for minke whale point samples 5.208 ± 0.333 hours compared to 3.400 ± 0.087 and 3.286 ± 0.062 hours for blue and fin whales respectively. The difference in vessel density between areas where fin whales and blue whales were sighted was found to be nonsignificant and no interactions between species and other variables were found to have a significant effect (Table 1). A significant relationship was, however, found between season and vessel traffic in areas where whales were sighted (Table 1). For each species, individuals were found in areas of higher vessel density in autumn than during summer. Feeding individuals were also sighted in areas of significantly higher vessel density than those not feeding (Table 1). Vessel density in the areas where whales were sighted also varied significantly with years (Table 1; Fig. 4). Specifically, whales were found in areas of

295 significantly higher vessel density in 2017 compared to both 2019 and 2020, and in 2018 compared to 2019 (Table
 296 3). All other pairwise comparisons between years were found to be nonsignificant (Table 3). Vessel density in the
 297 areas where whales were sighted did not vary significantly with group size (Table 3).

298 **Table 2.** Percentage of samples of presence of each whale species in areas with a density of marine traffic over 5
 299 hours per month.
 300

<i>Species</i>	<i>> 5 hours/month</i>	301
Minke whale	39.1 %	
Fin whale	13.4 %	
Blue whale	17.3 %	

305 **Table 3.** The results of the minimal adequate general linear mixed model (GLMM) of the factors influencing whale
 306 exposure to vessel traffic. Analyses were restricted to sampling points for which complete data were available (n =
 307 1294).

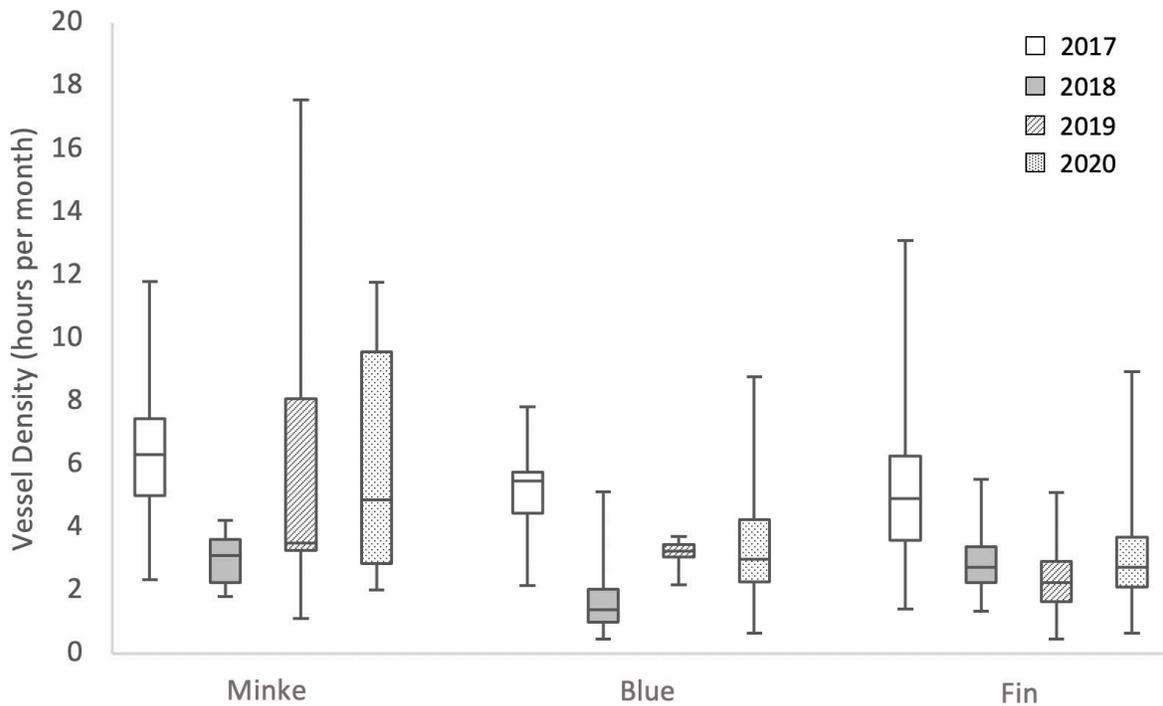
<i>Random effect</i>	<i>Variance</i>		
Sighting identity	0.521		
Residual	0.320		
<i>Fixed effects</i>	<i>Estimate ± SE</i>	<i>χ² / z-value*</i>	<i>P**</i>
Intercept	2.074 ± 0.133	–	–
Species	–	11.172	0.004
Minke v Blue	- 0.485 ± 0.159	- 3.059	0.006
Minke v Fin	- 0.399 ± 0.132	- 3.019	0.007
Fin v Blue	0.086 ± 0.122	0.702	0.759
Season (Autumn v Summer)	- 0.601 ± 0.115	26.133	< 0.001
Behaviour (Feeding v Not Feeding)	- 0.190 ± 0.096	4.011	0.045
Group size	–	1.516	0.218
Year	–	77.116	< 0.001
2018 – 2017	- 0.149 ± 0.144	- 1.041	0.711
2019 – 2017	- 0.602 ± 0.778	- 7.740	< 0.001
2020 – 2017	- 0.434 ± 0.108	- 4.003	< 0.001
2019 – 2018	- 0.452 ± 0.128	- 3.540	0.002
2020 – 2018	- 0.284 ± 0.153	- 1.852	0.236
2020 – 2019	0.168 ± 0.121	1.395	0.485
Species: season	–	0.531	0.767
Species: behaviour	–	0.145	0.930
Species: group size	–	0.910	0.923

308 * Chi-squared values are given for the overall effects of species, season, behaviour and year. Z-values are given for
309 the pairwise comparisons between species and across years.

310 ** Significant values ($p < 0.05$) derived from likelihood ratio tests and Tukey's Honest Significance tests are
311 highlighted in bold.

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314 **Fig. 4.** The effect of year on species-specific exposure to vessel density. Box and whisker plots illustrate the median,
315 interquartile range, lower and upper quartiles, and minimum and maximum values of vessel density in the areas where
316 each species was sighted, each year from 2017 – 2020.
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319 Variability in species exposure to different vessel types

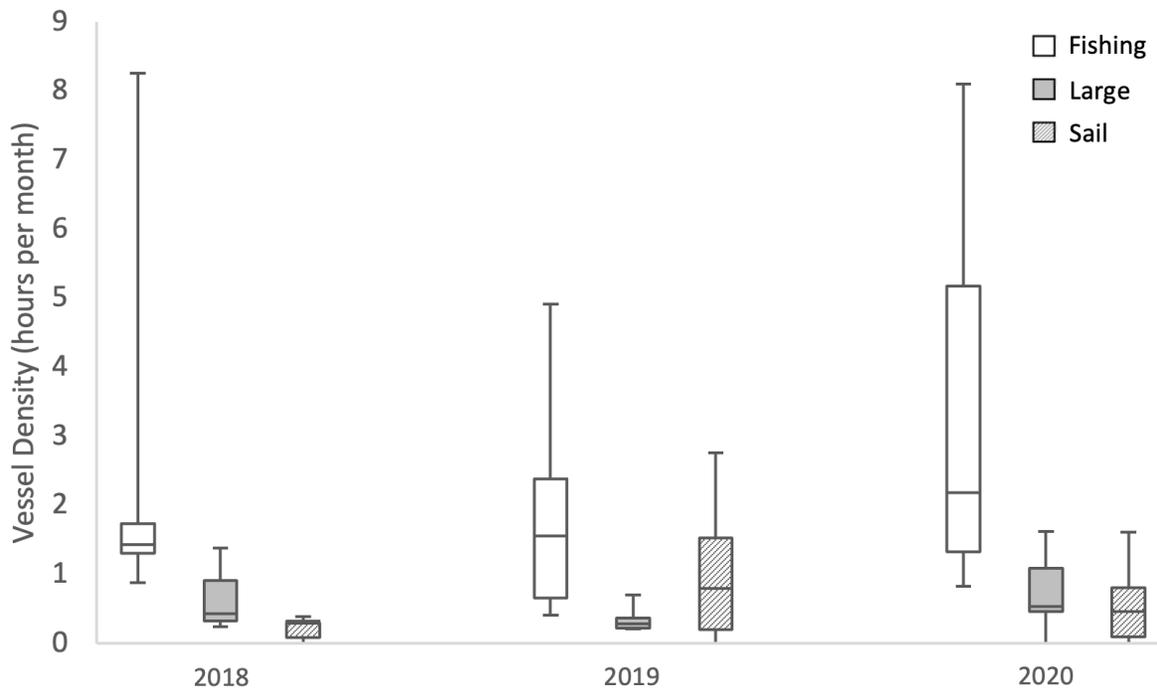
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321 Minke whales

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323 No statistically significant interactive effect was detected between vessel type and year on vessel density in areas
324 where minke whales were sighted (ANOVA, $F(4, 51) = 2.096$; $p = 0.095$). However, the effect of vessel type on
325 mean vessel density in areas where minke whales were sighted was found to be significant (ANOVA, $F(4, 51) =$
326 17.328 , $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5). Specifically, fishing vessels contributed a significantly greater proportion to the total
327 vessel density in areas where minke whales were sighted compared to large vessels ($p < 0.001$) and sailboats ($p <$
328 0.001 ; Fig. 5). The difference between mean vessel density of sailboats and large vessels was nonsignificant ($p =$
329 0.996). The effect of year on mean vessel density was found to be significant (ANOVA, $F(4, 51) = 3.754$, $p =$

330 0.030; Fig. 5); vessel density in areas where minke whales were sighted in was significantly different in 2018
331 compared to 2020 ($p = 0.029$).
332



333 **Fig. 5.** Minke whale exposure to different vessel types. Box and whisker plots illustrate the median, interquartile range,
334 lower and upper quartiles, and minimum and maximum values of vessel density of fishing vessels, large vessels and
335 sailboats in the areas where minke whales were sighted each year between 2018 and 2020.
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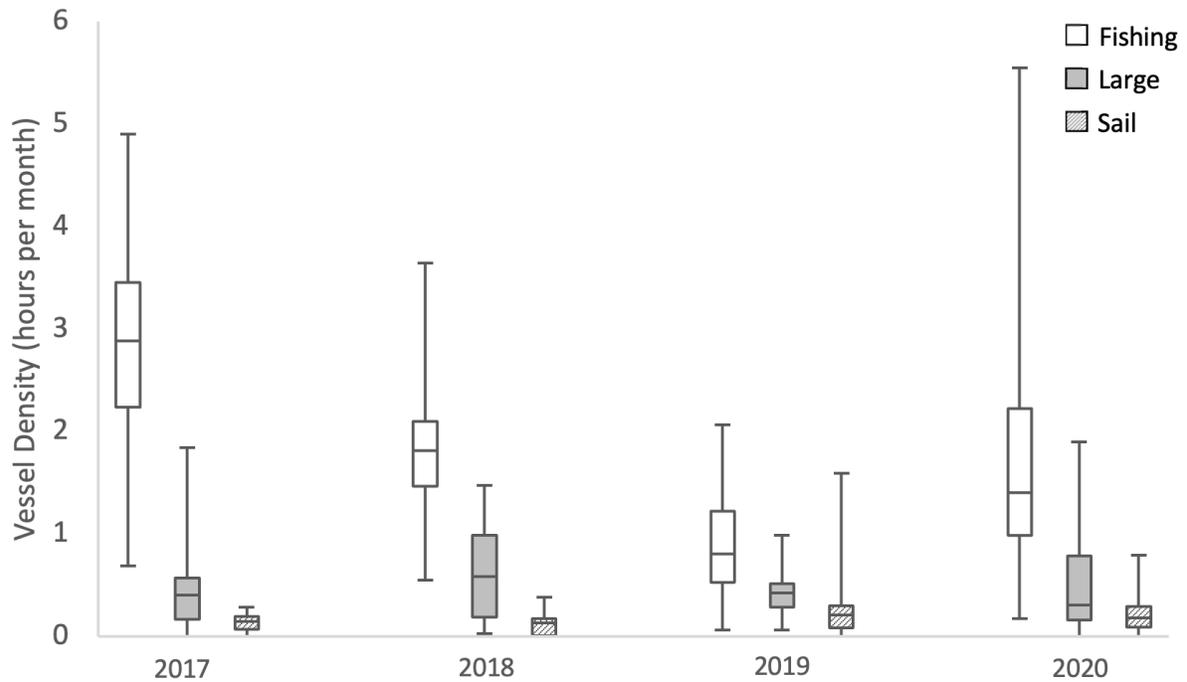
338 **Fin whales**

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340 A statistically significant interaction between vessel type and year on mean vessel density in the areas that fin
341 whales were sighted in was found (ANOVA, $F(6, 255) = 2.962$; $p = 0.008$; Fig. 6). Specifically, fishing vessel
342 density in areas where fin whales were sighted during 2017 was significantly higher than in 2019 ($p = 0.015$). This
343 vessel type also contributed a significantly greater proportion to the total vessel density in areas fin whales were
344 sighted compared to both large vessels ($p < 0.001$) and sailboats ($p < 0.001$) in all years analysed (Fig. 6). There was
345 no evidence that vessel density of large vessels or sailboats in areas where fin whales were sighted differed
346 significantly between years, or that this species experienced greater exposure to large vessels compared to sailboats
347 in any one year, and vice versa.

348

349



350

351 **Fig. 6.** Fin whale exposure to different vessel types. Box and whisker plots illustrate the median, interquartile range,
 352 lower and upper quartiles, and minimum and maximum values of vessel density of fishing vessels, large vessels and
 353 sailboats in the areas where fin whales were sighted each year from 2017 to 2020.

354

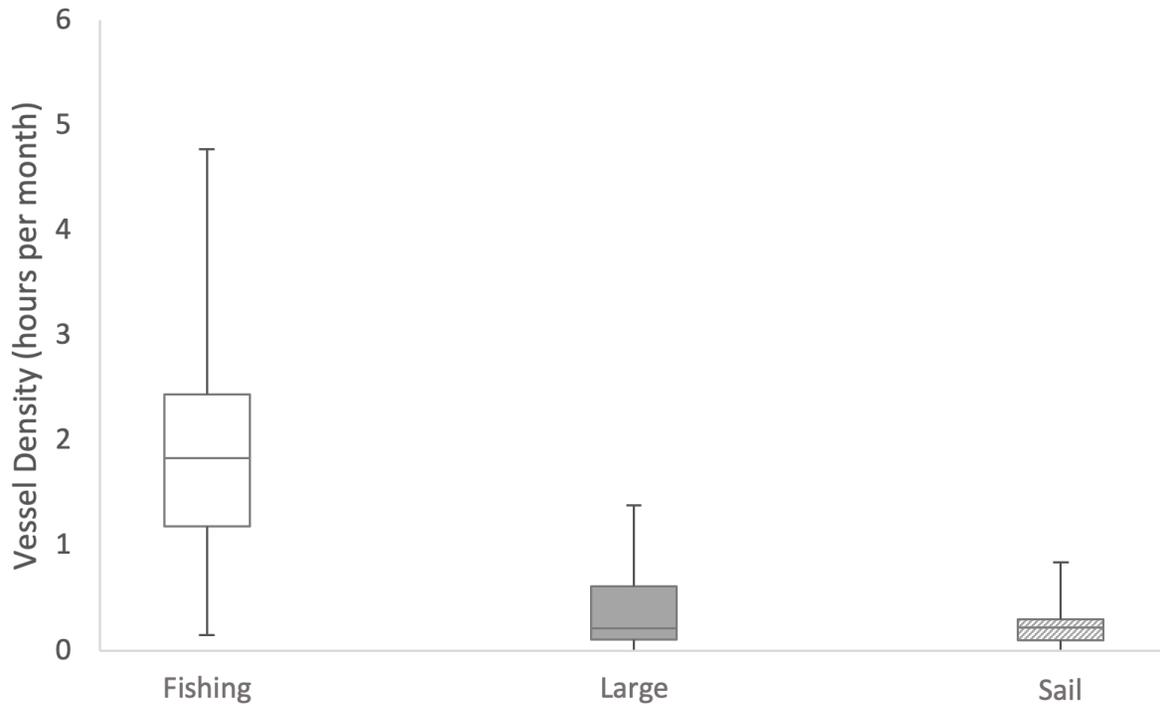
355 **Blue whales**

356

357 A statistically significant difference was detected between the mean vessel density of difference vessel types in the
 358 areas where blue whales were sighted in (ANOVA, $F(2, 84) = 53.64$; $p < 0.001$; Fig. 7); fishing vessels contributed
 359 a significantly greater proportion to the total vessel density than large vessels ($p < 0.001$) and sailboats ($p < 0.001$).

360

361



362

363 **Fig. 7.** Blue whale exposure to different vessel types. Box and whisker plots illustrate the median, interquartile range,
 364 lower and upper quartiles, and minimum and maximum values of vessel density of fishing vessels, large vessels and
 365 sailboats in the areas where blue whales were sighted between 2017 and 2020.

366

367 **Discussion**

368

369 The potential impacts of vessel traffic to marine megafauna have been extensively noted, including the effects of
 370 noise pollution (Clark et al. 2009; Erbe et al. 2019), ship strike (Laist et al. 2001; Schoeman et al. 2020) and vessel
 371 presence itself (Williams et al. 2006). Distribution of these threats is spatially and temporally heterogenous across
 372 the globe, making assessments of exposure critical for the identification of high-risk regions and species to inform
 373 conservation priorities (Clapham et al. 1999; Thomas et al. 2016). Yet, information on regional and species-specific
 374 threat exposure is lacking. This is likely due to the inherent challenges associated with the collection of distribution
 375 data on animals which spend the majority of their lives underwater, often relying on opportunistic cetacean sightings
 376 (Pompa et al. 2011; Silber et al. 2017). This study contributes to the growing literature on cetacean threat exposure
 377 by providing the first assessment of marine traffic exposure off the Galician coast to three baleen whale species.

378

379 Spatiotemporal overlap of whale presence and vessel traffic off the Galician coast confirms vessel traffic presents a
 380 real risk within the region, with blue, fin and minke whales all sighted in areas utilised by vessels on a monthly
 381 basis. The level of exposure to vessel traffic experienced by individuals in the study area displayed inter-annual
 382 variability and appears to be species-specific and significantly related to feeding behaviour and season.

383 Risk of exposure within the study region appears to be highest for minke whales, with this species sighted in areas
384 with significantly higher monthly vessel density compared to both blue and fin whales. Sightings of this species
385 during the study period included those in regions much closer to the coast than those of blue and fin whales,
386 consistent with higher levels of vessel traffic within the study area. The use of inshore and coastal waters by minke
387 whales has also been noted in previous studies (Northridge et al. 1995; Weir et al. 2007; Lee et al. 2017), indicating
388 that the higher exposure of this species to vessel traffic in the study region may be the result of species-specific
389 habitat preferences. This is also supported by the general preference of blue and fin whales for deep offshore waters
390 (Azzellino et al. 2008; Panigada et al. 2008; Andriolo et al. 2010; Díaz López and Methion 2019), in which vessel
391 density in the study area is typically lower.

392
393 Previous studies have suggested human-caused disturbances such as vessel presence or noise may be perceived as a
394 form of predation risk (Frid and Dill 2002) and whales may therefore respond to vessel presence with avoidance and
395 anti-predatory behaviours (Pirodda et al. 2015). Blue whales, for example, have been observed to alter diving
396 behaviour in response to approaching large vessels (McKenna et al. 2015) and Campana et al. (2015; 2017) found
397 significantly lower vessel traffic present in areas where cetaceans, including fin whales, were sighted in the Western
398 Mediterranean Sea compared to areas where they were not sighted. Campana et al. (2015) discuss this may represent
399 a negative response to traffic activity, where whales may avoid more highly trafficked regions with small or large
400 scale displacements or increased dive activity. Other studies report a lack of response of cetaceans to approaching
401 marine traffic, specifically fishing boats characterised by slow movements (Díaz López et al. 2008). Short-term
402 behavioural changes have also been associated with vessel presence (Williams et al. 2006; Castellote et al. 2012;
403 Pirodda et al. 2015; Dahlheim and Castellote 2016). Williams et al. (2006) noted for example that killer whales
404 (*Orcinus orca*) within the Johnstone Strait of British Columbia were more likely to change their behavioural state
405 in the presence of a vessel. This disruption raises concerns about population-level impacts of long-term vessel
406 presence within Galicia if consistent interruption of foraging and feeding activities leads to reduced feeding
407 opportunities and ultimately lower energetic acquisition (Williams et al. 2006; Blair et al. 2016). Previous studies
408 have however reported that cetaceans engaged in feeding activities are less alert to their surroundings, including
409 vessel traffic (Laist et al. 2001), with Campana et al. (2015; 2017) discussing co-existence of whales and vessels
410 may be driven by ecological requirements, i.e. where favourable feeding grounds overlap with higher traffic
411 pressure, indicating there may be a trade-off depending on the extent of risk perceived of vessel presence by the
412 whale.

413
414 It should be noted that an inherent limitation of studies based on observational presence data is that the differences
415 observed between species may be because individuals were simply not sighted during dedicated surveys, as opposed
416 to species-specific differences in the areas that they utilise. This is a particular challenge for determining
417 presence/absence of cetacean species, which spend most of their lives under the water surface where they are not
418 visible. Future studies should aim to use spatial distribution models with presence/absence data for each whale

419 species associated with multiple environmental and anthropogenic variables (including marine traffic) to determine
420 habitat suitability.

421
422 Foraging often involves greater surface-active behaviour in whales, a factor noted to increase the likelihood of
423 physical interaction with vessels, and thus injury or mortality resulting from collision (Parks et al. 2012; Crum et al.
424 2019). Previous studies have also found that when engaged in activities critical for survival, such as feeding,
425 cetaceans are more likely to remain in their behavioural state, allowing vessels to approach more closely before they
426 respond (Schuler et al. 2019; Bubac et al. 2020). This indicates that not only are feeding whales at risk of higher
427 exposure to vessel traffic, but also at greater risk of collision. Baleen whales are often observed feeding at the
428 surface in the study area (Díaz López et al. 2021). Surface feeding, a type of lunge feeding mainly observed in blue
429 whales and fin whales (Díaz López et al. 2021), is a dynamic, unsteady, and unpredictable process, and so must be
430 considered an important factor to consider as a potential risk for whales in the presence of vessels.

431
432 Seasonal changes in prey abundance are thought to drive blue and fin whale distribution specifically within Galician
433 waters (Díaz López and Methion 2019). Baleen whales are opportunistic predators that feed on diverse prey
434 including euphausiids (Friedlaender et al. 2006, 2015) such as northern krill (*Meganyctiphanes norvegica*), which
435 aggregate in dense patches in Galician waters following the phytoplankton bloom, with a time lag of several weeks
436 (Bode et al. 2009; Visser et al. 2011). Characteristics of the upwelling regime and the temporal synchrony of whales
437 with their prey therefore leads to whale presence peaking at the beginning of autumn within the study region (Díaz
438 López and Methion 2019, Díaz López et al 2021). As biological productivity off the Iberian Peninsula peaks after
439 seasonal upwelling events (Blanton et al 1984), it is likely that fishing vessel presence also increases in autumn to
440 temporally match increases in the abundance of target resources. This may explain why a significant effect of season
441 on vessel exposure was detected: all whale species studied were sighted in areas with significantly higher monthly
442 vessel traffic in autumn than during summer. The influence of season on exposure to vessel traffic was analysed
443 only for summer and autumn due to low representation of sightings during other seasons, however the limited
444 number of sightings during winter and spring appears to reflect the northward feeding migration pattern observed in
445 rorqual whales from southerly grounds between July and October within the study region (Díaz López and Methion
446 2019).

447
448 It should be noted that in this study it is not possible to know whether the spatial distribution of whales is due to a
449 different distribution of prey, with minke whales displaying greater preference for crustaceans and plankton
450 compared to blue whales and fin whales which feed on krill (Friedlaender et al. 2006, 2015; Skaug et al. 1997), or
451 whether it could be conditioned by vessel avoidance, a factor future studies should aim to consider.

452
453 Seasonal differences in vessel exposure to baleen whales have been noted in other regions of the world. In the
454 Mediterranean Sea, for example, risk of exposure is typically reported to be highest during summer months
455 (Panigada et al. 2006; Campana et al. 2017; Pennino et al. 2017). This increased risk during summer can generally

456 be attributed to increases in passenger boats during warmer months (Schuler et al. 2019), although the ecotourism
457 industry appears to be less evident along the Galician coast (Díaz López and Methion 2019). The importance of
458 Galicia's fishing activity has, however, been commented on in previous studies (Cambiè et al. 2012; Surís-Regueiro
459 and Santiago 2014), indicating that the significant seasonal variation in minke, fin and blue whale exposure to vessel
460 traffic is likely due to changes in fishing vessel operations to correspond with peaks in commercially targeted
461 species' abundance and distribution. Fishing vessels were the most common vessel type found in the areas where
462 whales were sighted: a trend that applied across all species, years and seasons analysed. As Galicia is one of the
463 most important fishing regions within Europe with the largest Spanish fishing fleet (Galician Institute for Statistics
464 2021), this finding was not unexpected but raises additional concerns of the anthropogenic threats posed to these
465 species e.g., through fisheries bycatch (Surís-Regueiro and Santiago 2014).

466
467 Frequent cetacean-fishery interactions have been reported within Galicia and other regions of the Iberian Peninsula
468 (Goetz et al. 2014), including bycaught long-finned pilot whales (*Globicephala melas*), blue whales and fin whales
469 (López et al. 2003; Aguilar and Borrell 2022). Actual encounters between large cetacean species and fishing vessels
470 may be low, with Goetz et al. (2014) reporting that baleen whales were sighted in <1% of all cetacean sightings by
471 283 Galician fishermen. However, interactions are known to occur, for example a fin whale was recently observed
472 with a fishing net caught around its head within Galician waters (Díaz López and Methion 2019) and another fin
473 whale observed with a fishing line around its body (Methion and Díaz López 2019). Interactions between vessels
474 and cetaceans also frequently go unreported (Neilson et al. 2012; Peel et al. 2018; Schoeman et al. 2020) and it
475 would thus be pre-emptive at this stage to underestimate the potential impact of fishing vessels within the region.

476
477 Significant inter-annual variability in whale exposure to vessel traffic was detected, with whales sighted in 2019 and
478 2020 generally found in areas with lower vessel traffic compared to those sighted in 2017 and 2018. Variability in
479 vessel exposure each year may be the result of avoidance behaviours, for example if whales actively avoided areas
480 of higher traffic in more instances during one year compared to another. However, as discussed earlier, limited
481 literature on avoidance behaviours of whales exists and the significant inter-annual variability in vessel traffic
482 exposure to minke, blue and fin whales in this study is most fully explained by the variation in the abundance of
483 fishing boats, the most common vessel type in the region.

484
485 Almost all vessel types have been reported as involved in ship strikes around the world (Laist et al. 2001), but as risk
486 of collision is proportional to the size of the vessel and its speed, the involvement of larger vessels (>80 m) is more
487 frequently observed (Gende et al. 2019; Schoeman et al. 2020). Injuries sustained by larger vessels are also thought
488 to carry a greater risk of fatality because of higher force on impact (Laist et al. 2001; Moore et al. 2013). Sailing
489 vessels have also been highlighted as a growing threat to cetaceans (Ritter, 2012). While significantly lower
490 presence of larger vessels and sailboats was found in areas where whales were sighted compared to fishing vessels,
491 encounters may still occur, presenting ship-strike risk within the study area to the three study species as well as
492 additional noise in their soundscape (Clark et al. 2009; Erbe et al. 2019).

493

494 Intrinsic sensitivity to vessel noise will differ with each species' unique ecology, however larger vessels typically
495 generate sound at frequencies below 1000 Hz (Ross 1976), overlapping with those utilised and perceived by baleen
496 whales (Clark et al. 2009). Minke, blue and fin whales may therefore be vulnerable to the impacts of acoustic
497 masking off the Galician coast (Clark et al. 2009). Modelling noise pollution produced from vessel traffic in our
498 study area was beyond the scope of our paper, however future studies should aim to characterise the acoustic
499 environment of the study region as well as identify effective communication ranges of our three study species to
500 investigate the extent to which their active space (the range over which the animals are able to communicate) is
501 reduced in vessel presence (e.g. Merchant et al. 2014; Cholewiak et al. 2018).

502

503 **Implications for conservation and management**

504

505 Whales of the suborder Mysticeti are among some of the largest living animals in the world. These charismatic
506 species, often deemed as ambassadors for marine conservation, hold important ecological roles in top-down
507 regulation and the transference of nutrients and biomass (Bowen 1997; Smith 2007; Roman et al. 2014). Blue and
508 fin whales are, however, classified as Endangered and Vulnerable respectively, in part owing to legacy effects of
509 previous human persecution (Clapham et al. 1999; IUCN 2008) and are now faced with the threat of several other
510 anthropogenic pressures (Halpern et al. 2008, 2015; Albouy et al. 2020).

511

512 The present study contributes to the growing body of literature detailing exposure to anthropogenic pressures,
513 confirming a considerable spatiotemporal overlap of vessel traffic, particularly of fishing vessels, with endangered
514 baleen whale species off the southern coast of Galicia (Díaz López and Methion 2019). This raises concerns not only
515 of the exposure of minke, fin and blue whales within Galician waters to the impacts of ship strike and noise
516 pollution (Laist et al. 2001; Clark et al. 2009; Cholewiak et al. 2018) but also to the risks associated with fisheries
517 such as gear entanglement and bycatch (Van der Hoop et al. 2014; Giralt Paradell et al. 2021). It should also be
518 noted that due to the nature of this study, results indicate the minimum spatiotemporal overlap between whales and
519 marine traffic, as vessel density values represent the minimum monthly vessel traffic within the areas that whales
520 were sighted. This is because while many vessels are legally required to carry and transmit AIS, not all carry this
521 requirement and thus not all traffic will be represented within our dataset (IMO 2019). The potential threat of marine
522 traffic off the Galician coast could therefore be much greater than presented.

523

524 There is a lack of information on ship collisions within the region, perhaps due do unreported interactions discussed
525 earlier (Schoeman et al. 2020), however mortality due to fishery interactions have been recorded (López et al. 2003;
526 Goetz et al. 2014; Aguilar and Borrell 2022). The accumulation of single mortality events arising from human-
527 induced disturbance can result in population-level impacts in long-lived, k-selected species such as baleen whales
528 (Rockwood et al. 2017; Díaz López and Methion 2019), making implementation of mitigation strategies a priority in
529 regions where exposure to such disturbances has been noted.

530

531 The importance of the conservation of these species within Europe is recognised by their protection under Annex IV
532 of the EU Habitats Directive (Council Directive 92/43/EEC). Special protection of minke, blue and fin whales
533 (amongst other cetacean species) is given in Spanish waters under the Royal Decree 1727/2007, offering partial
534 mitigation to the impacts of recreational vessels and whale-watching activities in Galician waters through the
535 implementation of regulations such as reduced speed limits when approaching individuals, as well as exclusion
536 zones which prohibit vessels from intentionally navigating within a 60 m radius of an observed cetacean. However,
537 the protection measures in current Spanish legislation do not appear to help reduce the risk, as they do not focus on
538 large vessels and fishing boats and appear to be static and non-specific. The results of the present study highlight
539 that risk of vessel exposure to baleen whales off the Galician coast is dynamic, varying both temporally and between
540 species, offering insight for management authorities to develop mitigation strategies which consider these
541 differences, i.e., through the adoption of additional seasonal regulations when risk is greatest. Speed limits have
542 been introduced in other highly trafficked regions of the world and proved effective at reducing ship-related
543 mortality (Freedman et al. 2017; Joy et al. 2019), with several studies demonstrating that risk of mortality increases
544 with vessel speed (Vanderlaan and Taggart 2007; Conn and Silber 2013). Introducing lower speed limits during
545 summer months when coexistence of cetacean and vessel traffic is at its greatest should be considered.

546

547 **Conclusions**

548

549 Minke, blue and fin whales off the southern Galician coast may be at risk of vessel exposure and its associated
550 impacts based on considerable spatial overlap between vessel traffic and whale distribution from AIS data and
551 observations of whale presence over a four-year period. While these species are offered some protection within
552 Spanish waters, avoidance behaviours of cetaceans and reductions in habitat quality due to vessel presence noted in
553 other regions of the world (Nowacek et al. 2001; Williams et al. 2006, 2013; McKenna et al. 2015) indicates further
554 protective legislation within Galicia may be required to ensure the continued utilisation of their waters as foraging
555 ground for endangered whale species (Díaz López and Methion 2019). The results of the present study provide
556 useful insight for the identification of conservation priorities within the region, highlighting minke whales are
557 exposed to a higher level of marine traffic, likely due to the spatial overlap between the distribution of this species
558 with fishing activities. However, despite lower levels of exposure of fin and blue whales to marine traffic, this
559 should not be mistaken as low risk, because as larger species they are more vulnerable to vessel collisions and
560 sighted in areas utilised by large vessels in the study area. Our findings can therefore inform marine management
561 strategies to be designed with the consideration of temporal and species-specific variation in vessel exposure and
562 risk.

563

564 Assessments of exposure to anthropogenic threats will continue to play an important role in identifying species and
565 areas of conservation concern, however, vulnerability of individuals to anthropogenic stressors is influenced not
566 only by their spatiotemporal overlap but also the intrinsic sensitivity of a species e.g., to vessel noise. Future studies

567 should therefore aim to characterise species-specific sensitivity to such threats. In doing so, a greater understanding
568 of the impacts of human activities on populations can be gained, which is critical to minimise wildlife-user conflict
569 and prevent local and regional extinctions.

570

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576 sampling campaigns were carried out with the administrative permit for the observation of cetaceans for scientific
577 and educational purposes of the Spanish Government. Data collection complies with the current laws of the country
578 in which it was performed (Spain).

579

580 **Author Contributions**

581 Rhian Bland: Conceptualization, Writing – Original Draft, Formal analysis, Review & Editing. Séverine Methion:
582 Conceptualization, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – Review & Editing, Project administration, Funding
583 acquisition. Stuart Sharp: Formal analysis, Review & Editing. Bruno Díaz López: Conceptualization, Investigation,
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589 and the demographic challenge.

590

591 **Data Availability** Data will be provided under request.

592 **Code Availability** R Script will be provided under request.

593

594 **Declarations**

595 **Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

596 **Ethics approval** Data collection complied with the current laws of Spain, the country in which it was performed.

597 **Consent to participate** All authors gave final approval to participate.

598 **Consent to publish** All authors gave final approval for publication.

599

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