brought to you by CORE

1	Clicks	Clicks of Dwarf sperm whales (<i>Kogia sima</i>)					
2 3	K. Merkens ^{1*} , D. Mann ² , V. M. Janik ³ , D. Claridge ⁴ , M. Hill ⁵ , E. Oleson ⁶						
4	Author Affiliations and Contact Information:						
5	1.	Karlina Merkens* (corresponding author)					
6		Contractor to NOAA NMFS Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center					
7		3710 SW Caldew St.					
8		Portland, OR 97219					
9		United States					
10		(503) 803-9239					
11		Karlina.Merkens@noaa.gov					
12							
13	2.	David Mann					
14		Loggerhead Instruments					
15		6576 Palmer Park Circle					
16		Sarasota, FL 34238					
17		United States					
18		(941) 923-8855					
19		dmann@loggerhead.com					
20							
21	3.	Vincent M. Janik					
22		Sea Mammal Research Unit					
23		Scottish Oceans Institute					
24		School of Biology					
25		University of St Andrews					
26		Fife KY16 8LB					

27		United Kingdom
28		+44 (0)1334 467214
29		vj@st-andrews.ac.uk
30		
31	4.	Diane Claridge
32		Bahamas Marine Mammal Research Organisation
33		P.O. Box AB-20714
34		Marsh Harbour, Abaco
35		Bahamas
36		+1242 366 4155
37		dclaridge@bahamaswhales.org
38		
39	5.	Marie Hill
40		Joint Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research
41		Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center
42		NOAA IRC
43		NMFS/PIFSC/PSD/Marie Hill
44		1845 Wasp Blvd., Building 176
45		Honolulu, HI 96818
46		United States
47		(808) 725-5710
48		Marie.Hill@noaa.gov
49		
50	6.	Erin Oleson
51		Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center

52	NOAA IRC
53	NMFS/PIFSC/PSD/Erin Oleson
54	1845 Wasp Blvd., Building 176
55	Honolulu, HI 96818
56	United States
57	(808) 725-5712
58	Erin.Oleson@noaa.gov

59 Abstract

60	The two species of the genus <i>Kogia</i> are widely distributed throughout the
61	world's temperate and tropical oceans, but because they are small and
62	highly cryptic, they are difficult to monitor. The acoustic signals of K .
63	breviceps have been previously described (Madsen et al. 2005a), but the
64	signals of K. sima have remained unknown. Here we present three
65	recordings of K. sima, two from free-ranging animals and one from a
66	captive setting, representing both the Atlantic Ocean and Pacific Ocean.
67	The acoustic signals of <i>K</i> . <i>sima</i> are very similar to the signals of <i>K</i> .
68	breviceps and other species that have narrow-band, high-frequency
69	(NBHF) clicks. Free-ranging K. sima produce "usual" clicks (sensu:
70	Weilgart and Whitehead 1988) that have mean peak and centroid
71	frequencies of 127-129 kHz, mean -3 dB bandwidth of 10 kHz, mean -10
72	dB bandwidth of 16-17 kHz, and mean inter-click interval of 110-164 ms.
73	Although K. sima clicks cannot yet be distinguished from those of K.
74	breviceps or other NBHF clicking species, our detailed description of this
75	species' signals reveals the similarities between the two Kogia species,
76	and thus allows for passive acoustic monitoring of the genus Kogia in
77	regions where other NBHF species are not present.
79	
/8	Keywords: Kogia sima, dwarf sperm whale, narrow-band high-frequency,
79	echolocation, biosonar, click, The Bahamas, Florida, Atlantic, Guam,
80	Pacific

82 Introduction

83	The genus Kogia comprises two species, the dwarf (Kogia sima) and the pygmy
84	sperm whale (K. breviceps). Both species are highly cryptic visually; they are small-
85	bodied (2-2.7 m as adults) and travel in small groups (1-12 animals) (Willis and Baird
86	1998, McAlpine 2002, Dunphy-Daly et al. 2008). They make deep (>250 m), long-
87	duration (~25 min) dives interspersed with short surfacings (Fitch and Brownell 1968,
88	Breese and Tershy 1993, Plön 2004, West et al. 2008). At the surface, they produce no
89	visible blow and are not known to raise their flukes or engage in other visible behavior
90	patterns (Willis and Baird 1998). Much of their distribution is known from records of
91	stranded individuals, which have been found on beaches throughout the world's
92	temperate and tropical oceans (summaries in Willis and Baird 1998, Taylor et al. 2012).
93	All odontocetes produce sounds to communicate and forage, and their sounds
94	are believed to be species specific. Having a clear description of the acoustic signals
95	made by any species is essential for fully understanding its foraging and social behavior
96	and to allow the use of passive acoustic monitoring (PAM) to record species
97	occurrence. PAM is particularly useful for species that are cryptic and/or inhabit
98	remote, hard-to-reach locations, such as the open ocean. By using PAM, we can monitor
99	the presence of Kogia spp. at off-shore locations that would otherwise be unavailable
100	for long-term monitoring of such cryptic species. PAM methods may also eventually
101	generate the information required for density and abundance estimation, which could
102	lead to more reliable estimates of population sizes than are currently possible, thereby
103	facilitating management directives (e.g., Van Parijs et al. 2009, Marques et al. 2013).
104	Little information is available on the sound production of either Kogia species.
105	Early publications were limited because the instruments that were used did not record at
106	high enough frequencies to accurately capture Kogia spp. echolocation signals

107 (Caldwell et al. 1966, Caldwell and Caldwell 1987 in Marten 2000, Thomas et al. 108 1990). More recent efforts analyzed recordings of a stranded K. breviceps being held in 109 captivity for rehabilitation (Marten 2000, Ridgway and Carder 2001, Madsen et al. 110 2005*a*). The characteristics of the clicks included a high peak frequency (125-130 kHz), 111 moderate duration (100-600 µs), and inter-click intervals (ICI) of 40-70 ms, as well as 112 high directionality (Table 1). Such narrow-band, high-frequency (NBHF) clicks appear 113 to be an adaptation to take advantage of low ambient noise levels at these frequencies 114 and to avoid predation by killer whales (Orcinus orca) by generating signals above the 115 predator's hearing range (Madsen et al. 2005a, Morisaka and Connor 2007). 116 This paper presents details about the echolocation clicks of K. sima from both 117 free-ranging and captive settings. These are the first confirmed recordings of the clicks

118 of this species.

119 Methods

120 Free-ranging Recording 1: The Bahamas

121 An opportunistic encounter with a small group of K. sima during field research in The 122 Bahamas in the western North Atlantic Ocean provided the setting for a recording of 123 free-ranging animals. Visual observers searching for beaked whales aboard a 6.5 m 124 vessel saw a group of three K. sima, including two adults (sex unknown) and one sub-125 adult (sex unknown), at 25.91 N, 77.18 W, southwest of Abaco Island, on 21 May 2005. 126 The water depth was approximately 600 m. The animals were observed and recorded 127 during 3.5 h of observation while they repeatedly dove and surfaced within 20-200 m of 128 the boat. No other cetaceans were seen in the area during this period, despite ongoing 129 visual observation, so it is unlikely that these clicks came from another species. A

BK8103 hydrophone (Brüel and Kjær Sound & Vibration Measurement A/S, Nærum, Denmark, frequency range 0.1 Hz to 180 kHz +3.5/–12.5 dB, sensitivity -211±2 dB re: $1V/\mu$ Pa) with a BK2635 charge amplifier was suspended approximately 2 m below the surface. Recordings were made at 375 kHz sample rate on an Avisoft UltraSoundGate 416 connected to a Toshiba laptop computer. A low pass filter was not used in this recording since the frequency response of the hydrophone fell off rapidly above the Nyquist frequency.

The second data set from free-ranging animals was also obtained during a small-boat

137 Free-ranging Recording 2: Guam

138

139 survey and includes recordings of the same four individuals (two mother/calf pairs, 140 confirmed by photo-identification) from two one-hour encounters (28 May 2016 and 4 141 June 2016). The animals were found off the west side of Guam in the western North 142 Pacific Ocean at approximately 13.3 N, 144.6 E. No other cetaceans were seen in the 143 area during this period, despite ongoing visual observation, so it is unlikely that these 144 clicks came from another species. The water depth was approximately 650-800 m, and 145 the animals were roughly 3.5 km from shore. Recordings were made using a Compact Acoustic Recording Buoy (CARB, Y. Barkley, pers. comm.¹), a free-floating 146 147 instrument deployed in the vicinity of the animals, that includes an HTI-96-MIN 148 hydrophone (High Tech, Inc., Long Beach, MS, sensitivity -180.7 dB re: 1V/µPa) 149 suspended around 30 m depth. The manufacturer specified frequency range for this

150 hydrophone is flat from 2 Hz to 30 kHz, but preliminary lab calibration has shown

¹ Yvonne Barkley, NOAA IRC, NMFS/PIFSC/PSD/Yvonne Barkley, 1845 Wasp Blvd., Building 176, Honolulu, HI 96818, October 2016

151 functionality out to at least 140 kHz (+3/-8 dB), with sensitivity of approximately -186 152 dB re: 1V/µPa at 130 kHz. Field testing has confirmed successful recording of NBHF porpoise clicks (J. Barlow, pers, comm.²). Please see below for further discussion of 153 154 potential issues arising from using this type of hydrophone for high frequency 155 recordings. Recordings were made at a sampling rate of 384 kHz on an SM2+ Song 156 Meter (Wildlife Acoustics, Concord, MA), which included pre-amplifier gain of +36 dB 157 and a 1 kHz high pass filter. There was no low-pass/anti-alias filter used at the time of 158 data collection.

159 Captive Recording

160 A female *K. sima* calf, weighing 28.5 kg, stranded at Cape Canaveral, Florida in July

161 2002, and was taken to the Mote Marine Lab's Dolphin and Whale Hospital in Sarasota,

162 Florida for care. She remained in captivity for over 15 months until October 2003,

163 during which time recordings were made. The cause of stranding was unknown,

164 however, later necropsy revealed an impacted colon and ink sac. The animal was

165 recorded while free-swimming in a 9.1 m circular, fiberglass tank approximately 1.5 m

166 deep. Unfortunately, due to loss of computer files only 4 s of data were saved for

167 analysis. A Reson TC4013 hydrophone (frequency range 1 Hz to 170 kHz +2/-4dB,

168 sensitivity -211 \pm 3 dB re: 1V/µPa; VP1000 preamplifier with 32 dB gain) was

suspended at approximately 0.75 m depth, and about 0.5 m away from the wall of the

170 tank. Recordings were digitized at 500 kHz using a Tucker-Davis Technologies AD2.

171 There was no low-pass/anti-alias filter used at the time of data collection.

² Jay Barlow, NOAA-SWFSC-MMTD, 8901 La Jolla Shores Dr., La Jolla CA, March 2017

173 Analysis of the K. sima recordings was performed using a trained analyst (KM) and 174 custom MATLAB subroutines (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA). Although multiple 175 animals were present during the Bahamas and Guam recordings, it is not possible to 176 identify which clicks came from which individual; therefore, all clicks from within a 177 given region were combined for analysis. In each data set, a human analyst identified 178 periods of time with clicks present, and any unusual features were noted. In the Guam 179 recording, there were several burst-pulse click sequences with shorter inter-click 180 intervals, and a subset of clicks with visibly lower peak frequencies. Both subsets of 181 clicks were analyzed separately from the remainder of the signals. All sets of clicks 182 were analyzed using a two-stage automated detector based on Soldevilla et al. (2008), 183 Roch et al. (2011), and Baumann-Pickering et al. (2013). Archived code is available at: 184 http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.164881. Individual clicks were filtered using a 4-pole 185 Butterworth bandpass filter with a high pass threshold at 10 kHz and a low pass 186 threshold at 170 kHz. The captive recording was also filtered using Butterworth notch 187 filters at 81 and 160 kHz to remove tonal noise. After filtering, the clicks were retained 188 if they passed a peak-to-peak amplitude threshold for each click. This threshold was 189 adjusted independently for each data set based on ambient noise conditions to retain the 190 maximum number of clicks while excluding nonclick noise.

The retained clicks were used to calculate multiple parameters. The spectral characteristics were computed using a 1200 µs Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) on Hannwindowed data centered on each click. The number of sample points and the frequency bin size is slightly different for each recording because of the different sampling rates, ranging from 460 points and approximately 418 Hz/bin in the Guam recording to 450 points and 416 Hz/bin in the recording from The Bahamas and 600 points and 416

197 Hz/bin for the recording of the captive animal. The mean frequency spectrum was 198 computed across all detected clicks within each recording. A mean noise spectrum was 199 also computed for each recording session based on periods of data preceding each click, 200 lasting an equal duration to each click, but separated from the click by approximately 5 201 ms. The mean and median of the following parameters were calculated for each click: 202 peak frequency, centroid frequency, -3 dB bandwidth, -10 dB bandwidth, rms 203 bandwidth, click duration, and ICI. The duration was calculated as the time spanned by 204 95% of the energy of the signal envelope (the absolute value of the analytical 205 waveform), following methods by Madsen et al. (2004). ICIs longer than 500 ms were 206 excluded as outliers based on examination of histograms of all ICIs. ICIs shorter than 2 207 ms were excluded because they were all caused by reflections. In the captive recording, 208 there were substantial echoes due to the nature of the tank; therefore, a lock-out period 209 of 50 ms after the initial click was used to remove all echoes from consideration.

210 Results

211 Recordings from both free-ranging and captive K. sima contained only NBHF clicks, more similar to those of porpoise (e.g., Villadsgaard et al. 2007, Kyhn et al. 212 213 2013) than those of other deep diving cetaceans such as beaked whales (family 214 Ziphiidae) and sperm whales (*Physeter macrocephalus*) (e.g., Weilgart and Whitehead 215 1988, Goold and Jones 1995, Johnson et al. 2004). No whistle-like sounds were 216 recorded. Click parameters are summarized in Table 1. The majority of the clicks could 217 be described as "usual" clicks with a consistent ICI and received level throughout each encounter (sensu: Weilgart and Whitehead 1988). 218

The parameters of the clicks from the two free-ranging recordings are assessedhere, while the results for the captive recording are reported below. Examples of the

mean spectra, waveform, and time series for all three recordings are shown in Figure 1.
The Bahamas recordings spanned 37 min and contained 328 "usual" clicks. The
recordings from Guam spanned 2 h and contained 938 clicks (including 759 "usual"
clicks and 179 clicks of two different types, described below). The characteristics of the
clicks in these two sets of recordings were similar, except for centroid frequency, rms
bandwidth and ICI. There was no notable frequency sweep, in contrast to the clicks of
most beaked whale species (*e.g.*, Baumann-Pickering *et al.* 2013).

228 The differences in the centroid frequencies were examined further, along with 229 the rms bandwidth, which is calculated using the centroid frequency. In the Bahamas 230 recording the centroid frequency was similar to the peak frequency and the rms 231 bandwidth was similar to the -3 dB bandwidth, which was expected based on previous 232 descriptions of the clicks of other NBHF species (e.g. Madsen et al. 2005a, Kyhn et al. 233 2009, Götz et al. 2010, Kyhn et al. 2010, Kyhn et al. 2013). In contrast, the centroid 234 frequency of the "usual" clicks from the Guam recording was lower than the peak 235 frequency by about 6 kHz and the rms bandwidth was wider than the -3 dB bandwidth 236 by about 10 kHz. These differences may have been caused by a large proportion of 237 clicks in the Guam recording with a low signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), so a subset of 238 clicks with SNR greater than 20 dB was examined separately. This subset of highest 239 SNR clicks had a peak frequency of 127 ± 0.8 kHz, centroid frequency of 127 ± 0.9 240 kHz, -3 dB bandwidth of 8.6 \pm 1.0 kHz, -10 dB bandwidth of 13 \pm 2.0 kHz, and an rms 241 bandwidth of 7 ± 1.3 kHz. These results are closer to what was expected for centroid 242 frequency and rms bandwidth given the values for peak frequency and -3 dB bandwidth, 243 and they are similar to the results for the Bahamas recording as well as those of NBHF 244 clicks from other species (e.g. Madsen et al. 2005a, Kyhn et al. 2009, Kyhn et al. 2010,

Kyhn *et al.* 2013), which reinforces the possibility that low SNR clicks were impactingthe summary results for the whole recording.

247 Two unique subsets of clicks in the recording from Guam were examined 248 separately (Fig. 2). Visual analysis of the spectrograms revealed the presence of four 249 burst-pulse click sequences, with notably shorter ICIs than the majority of "usual" 250 clicks (Fig. 2 A, B). There was a total of 81 clicks in these four burst-pulse sequences, 251 which were removed from the larger data set for exploration and are not included in the 252 description of "usual" clicks above. Three of the four sequences appeared to be terminal 253 to a chain of "usual" clicks that had a longer, stable ICI. The mean ICI of 37 ms for the 254 clicks in these sequences is longer than the standard definition of a "buzz" for porpoises 255 and delphinid species, which decreases from onset of approximately 8-15 ms to <2 ms 256 (e.g. deRuiter et al. 2009, Wisniewska et al. 2014), however there was a clear visual 257 difference between the sets of burst-pulse clicks and the remainder of the "usual" clicks. 258 In addition to having a shorter ICI, the burst-pulse clicks had a lower mean peak 259 frequency, lower centroid frequency, shorter click duration, wider bandwidths, and 260 larger Q-values compared to the "usual" clicks in the same recording. Statistical 261 analysis is not appropriate given the possibility that all of the clicks are from a single 262 individual, and are therefore not independent samples.

The second subset of signals that was separated included clicks with a lower peak frequency (below 120 kHz) than the majority of "usual" clicks (Fig. 2 C, D). These were present in short sequences of five to ten clicks that alternated with longer sequences of higher peak frequency clicks. The lower peak frequency clicks were removed from the larger data set and analyzed separately, and are not included in the description of "usual" clicks above. Compared to the "usual" clicks, the mean peak frequency for these 98 clicks was lower by about 10 kHz while the centroid frequency

was lower by about 8 kHz (Fig. 3). Additionally, the ICI was longer compared to the
rest of the "usual" clicks by about 90 ms. As with the burst-pulse clicks, statistical
analysis is not appropriate given the possibility that all of the clicks are from a single
individual, and are therefore not independent samples.

274 The characteristics of the clicks in the captive recording were different from 275 those in the free-ranging recordings. Although recordings of the captive animal were 276 made on multiple occasions, loss of computer files resulted in only 4 s of data being 277 available for analysis. From this small sample there were 49 clicks. These clicks had a 278 mean peak frequency that was about 15 kHz lower than the free-ranging recordings, 279 while the centroid frequency was 15-20 kHz lower. The bandwidths were more than 280 twice as wide as in the other recordings, while both the duration and the ICI were 281 shorter in comparison by approximately 100 µs and 25-80 ms, respectively. The ICI was closest to the ICI values from the clicks of the captive K. breviceps described by 282 283 Madsen et al. (2005a), which may indicate that a shorter ICI is an effect of being in a 284 pool where walls present a close target for echolocation. The Q values of the clicks in 285 the captive recording were lower than for those in the Bahamas recording, but compared to the "usual" clicks from the Guam recording the Q-3dB was similar while the Qrms was 286 287 lower in the captive data.

288 Discussion

Here we present the first confirmed records of acoustic signals generated by the dwarf sperm whale (*K. sima*). The more than 1,000 clicks in this data set are sufficient to provide initial characterization for the species (*e.g.*, Madsen *et al.* 2005*a*, Baumann-Pickering *et al.* 2013). The production of NBHF clicks places *K. sima* in a group with a handful of other species, including its congener, *K. breviceps* (Marten 2000, Ridgway

294 and Carder 2001, Madsen et al. 2005a, Villadsgaard et al. 2007, Kyhn et al. 2009, Kyhn 295 et al. 2010, Kyhn et al. 2013, Reves et al. 2016). With known click characteristics of K. 296 *sima*, it is now possible to conduct PAM for the genus *Kogia*. This may be particularly 297 important for this genus given the difficulty of visual monitoring due to typically cryptic 298 surface behavior and small group sizes. The main difference between our field sites was 299 found in the ICI. This most likely reflects differences in the distances to the targets that 300 the animals were investigating or behavior at the time of recording (e.g., Miller et al. 301 1995, Johnson et al. 2004, Madsen et al. 2005b). Thus, it seems that clicks of K. sima 302 are similar in different ocean basins.

303 The characteristics of the clicks presented here are generally similar to the clicks 304 produced by the single captive K. breviceps (Marten 2000, Ridgway and Carder 2001, 305 Madsen et al. 2005a), as well as a few species of delphinids (e.g., hourglass dolphins 306 (Lagenorhynchus cruciger) and Hector's dolphins (Cephalorhynchus hectori) (Kyhn et 307 al. 2009), the Chilean dolphin (Cephalorhynchus eutropia) (Götz et al. 2010), the 308 Commerson's dolphin (Cephalorhynchus commersonii) (Kyhn et al. 2010, Reyes et al. 309 2016)) and porpoises (e.g., harbor porpoise (Phocoena phocoena) and Dall's porpoise 310 (Phocoenoides dalli) (Villadsgaard et al. 2007, Kyhn et al. 2013)). Given the data 311 presented here and what is available in the literature, it is still not possible to distinguish 312 the two *Kogia* species from each other (Table 1). This is particularly true given the 313 potential and unknown effects of recording an animal in captivity, which was the case 314 for the only confirmed recording of K. breviceps (Madsen et al. 2005a). With the 315 addition of field recordings for K. breviceps, differences in their click characteristics 316 may yet emerge to allow their separation in PAM data. The clicks of K. sima are easily 317 distinguished from non-NBHF odontocetes based simply on peak frequency, which is 318 higher than that of many other species, and also on Q-value, which, generally being >10

in NBHF species, is higher than many other odonotocetes. Distinguishing between *Kogia* spp. and the other species that produce NBHF clicks may be possible,
particularly based on subtle differences between peak frequencies, signal duration, ICI,
and bandwidth. For example, the range and habitat of *Kogia* spp. overlap with Dall's
porpoise in the northeast Pacific Ocean. The peak frequencies of the porpoise are above
130 kHz (Kyhn *et al.* 2013) compared to the *Kogia* spp. clicks, which are mostly below

326 All clicks analyzed here are conservatively presumed to be off-axis, even though 327 in the Bahamas clicks were only recorded when the animals were facing the 328 hydrophone. Although we do not know the beam width of K. sima signals, other species 329 that generate NBHF signals are known to have a narrow beam width (Kyhn et al. 2013), 330 so capturing on-axis clicks during free-ranging recordings is difficult. Additionally, the 331 exact orientation of the animals to the hydrophone is not known in any of the current 332 recordings, and they cannot be localized with a single hydrophone. Madsen et al. 333 (2005a) found that the temporal and spectral characteristics of K. breviceps clicks did 334 not change notably in an off-axis recording, and similar results have been found for 335 harbor porpoise (Hansen et al. 2008, Koblitz et al. 2012). This is in contrast to the 336 broadband clicks of delphinids and sperm whales, which show strong off-axis effects 337 (e.g. Zimmer et al. 2005, Lammers and Castellote 2009, Schulz et al. 2009, Au et al. 338 2012). Our data support a similar conclusion for K. sima, with the peak and centroid 339 frequencies being comparable across data sets despite animals being recorded in a 340 variety of orientations.

One parameter that was different in both free-ranging data sets from previously
recorded NBHF species was the click duration. For most other NBHF species the mean
click duration is in the range of 50-120 µs (Madsen *et al.* 2005*a* , Villadsgaard *et al.*

2007, Kyhn et al. 2009, Götz et al. 2010, Kyhn et al. 2010, Kyhn et al. 2013, Reves et 344 345 al. 2016), while the mean duration of the "usual" clicks from free-ranging animals 346 recorded in The Bahamas and Guam is 199 (\pm 54) and 186 (\pm 62), respectively. While it 347 is possible that the clicks of K. sima are indeed longer than other NBHF clicks, it is also 348 possible that the arrangement of the recording instruments, with a shallow hydrophone 349 and deeper animals, allows the production of surface reflections that artificially elongate 350 each click. Examination of histograms of the click durations of "usual" clicks from the 351 data sets revealed a strongly bimodal pattern in the Bahamas clicks (Fig. 4). It is likely 352 that the first mode represents single clicks with little or no effect from surface 353 reflections, while the second mode represents clicks plus reflections. To examine the 354 characteristics of the clicks that comprise the first mode, we set a threshold of 235 μ s, 355 which is the approximate location of the minimum between the two modes. The 356 duration of the clicks from the first mode alone (i.e. those with duration less than 235 357 μ s) was found to be 161 ± 22 μ s (mean ± standard deviation) (median 157 μ s) while the 358 duration of the clicks in the second mode was $264 \pm 21 \,\mu\text{s}$ and the mean of the entire 359 data set (both modes combined) was $199 \pm 54 \,\mu\text{s}$. This serves as a good reminder that 360 simple summary statistics, like mean and median, may not provide the details to reveal 361 a complete description of the situation. Additionally, despite this closer analysis of the 362 different modes of click durations in the Bahamas data, the click durations from this 363 subset are still longer than the published values for most other NBHF clicking species. 364 The majority of clicks in the recordings presented here can be considered 365 "usual" clicks, having a consistent ICI throughout each recording. In the data set from 366 Guam, however, we recorded at least four sequences of burst-pulse clicks, which had a 367 much shorter ICI for a short period of time (each sequence lasting <2 s). These burstpulse clicks were spread out in the recordings, with one in the first day and three in the 368

369 second. Across species, burst-pulses have been shown to have slightly different 370 temporal and spectral characteristics than "usual" clicks, commonly being shorter in 371 duration and wider in bandwidth (e.g., Johnson et al. 2006, Jaquet et al. 2001, Götz et 372 al. 2010, Fais et al. 2016). In some species, the peak or centroid frequency is higher 373 than in the "usual" clicks (e.g., sperm whale (Fais et al. 2016) and Blainville's beaked 374 whale, Mesoplodon densirostris, (Johnson et al. 2006)), while in other species the peak 375 or centroid frequency is lower than in the "usual" clicks (e.g., Chilean dolphin, (Götz et 376 al. 2010) and harbor porpoise, (Wisniewska et al. 2015)). Like the Chilean dolphin and 377 the harbor porpoise, which both produce NBHF clicks, the burst-pulse clicks of K. sima 378 have a shorter duration, wider bandwidth, and lower peak and centroid frequencies 379 compared to the "usual" clicks. The abrupt change observed in ICI between regular and 380 burst-pulse clicks in three out of four observations was similar to what was described 381 for echolocation behavior for some nondelphinid species (e.g., Miller et al. 1995, 382 Madsen et al. 2005b).

383 Burst-pulse sequences are seen in the acoustic repertoire of most odontocete 384 species, and are assumed to be primarily a method of close-range echolocation with the 385 goal of prey capture (e.g., Miller et al. 1995, Johnson et al. 2004, Madsen et al. 2005b, 386 deRuiter et al. 2009, Wisniewska et al. 2014). Buzz sequences, with ICIs below 8-13 387 ms, are generally assumed to indicate an attempt at prev capture in other cetaceans. If 388 future studies can confirm an association of burst-pulse clicks with prey-capture 389 attempts, our confirmation of the production of buzz-like clicks by K. sima could 390 facilitate the monitoring of feeding behavior, which has heretofore been prevented by 391 their deep-diving, deep-feeding behavior. However, in the current study the ICIs were 392 higher $(37 \pm 10 \text{ ms})$ and visual observations provided no indication of feeding activity, 393 which suggests these burst-pulses were intended for some other purpose than feeding.

394 Furthermore, most odontocete species use burst-pulses for communication, (e.g.

bottlenose dolphins (Tursiops truncatus) (Caldwell & Caldwell 1967), Risso's dolphins
(*Grampus griseus*) (Arranz *et al.* 2016) and short-finned pilot whales (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*) (Perez *et al.* 2017)). They also occur in animals that do not produce
whistles, as is the case for *Kogia* spp. This variability in behavior serves as a reminder
to carefully consider the species and the habitat being monitored with PAM devices as
well as exploring a range of possible explanations for signals detected without
corroborating visual observation, particularly for deep-diving species.

402 Another variant click type in the recording of free-ranging K. sima from Guam 403 was characterized by lower peak frequencies compared to the majority of the "usual" 404 clicks (mean \pm standard deviation 117 \pm 3 kHz vs. 127 \pm 2 kHz). These lower peak 405 frequency clicks were present during a period of 6 min at the end of the recording, and 406 were present in short sequences of 5-10 clicks that were interspersed with longer 407 sequences of "usual" clicks with the more typical, higher peak frequency. The lower 408 peak frequency clicks appear to belong to a separate click type, visibly different in 5 or 409 10 s spectrograms (e.g. Fig. 2), and also apparent as a secondary peak in the histogram 410 of peak frequencies for the entire Guam data set (Fig. 3A), as well as the histograms of 411 the peak frequencies and centroid frequencies of a subset of clicks with SNR >20 dB 412 from the same data set (Fig. 3B&C). It is possible that surface reverberation may have 413 caused interference in the spectral characteristics of some clicks, causing them to have 414 lower peak frequencies; however, the correspondingly lower centroid frequencies 415 suggest that these are in fact a variant click type. The bandwidths and click duration 416 were similar between the lower peak frequency clicks and more abundant "usual" 417 clicks; however, peak frequency and centroid frequency were both lower and ICI was 418 longer. The source of these lower peak frequency clicks cannot be confirmed; however,

we can speculate that they were generated by the adult animals for a different purpose
than the majority of the "usual" clicks, or perhaps they were made by one of the calves,
also observed during this period. It is known from other odontocete species that the
signals generated by calves can be different from the more common clicks of adults
(*e.g.*, Madsen *et al.* 2003, Li *et al.* 2007, Harder *et al.* 2016). However, very little is
known about juvenile or calf sound production in the majority of species of cetaceans,
including the members of the genus *Kogia*.

426 There are some potential problems in the data analyzed here. For example, there 427 are notable differences between the characteristics of the "usual" clicks in the captive 428 and free-ranging recordings. In particular, the signals from the captive setting have 429 lower peak and centroid frequencies, shorter duration, wider bandwidths smaller Q-430 values, and a shorter ICI. These differences could be a result of the acoustic 431 environment in the tank and/or unknown effects of captivity on a previously free-432 ranging animal (Au 1993). Additionally, the captive animal was a calf, and was ill. We 433 do not know if or how the animal may have altered its acoustic signals because of being 434 in captivity or experiencing compromised health. Also, although we only selected one 435 click from each set of echoes in the captive recording, it is likely that some of the clicks 436 analyzed were actually echoes or were distorted due to reverberation, which may have 437 increased variability in the mean signal characteristics. Madsen et al. (2004) showed 438 notable differences between clicks of captive and free-ranging animals for two species 439 of delphinids (False killer whales (*Pseudorca crassidens*) and Risso's dolphins), 440 particularly a lower peak frequency and source level in the captive setting. Therefore, 441 using only the captive signals to develop tools for PAM may lead to incorrect species 442 identification and/or missing signals from healthy, free-ranging animals. Additionally,

443 we only had 4 s of data to analyze from the captive animal, due to loss of computer 444 files, and these could have come from a context not represented in the wild recordings. 445 Issues may also have arisen from the recording equipment used in The Bahamas 446 and Guam. Specifically, the lack of an anti-alias filter in either recording may be 447 problematic because the Nyquist frequency is relatively close to the peak energy of the 448 signal, which may have resulted in aliased energy present in our recordings. 449 Additionally, the use of the HTI-MIN-96 hydrophone in the Guam recording should be 450 treated with great caution because this hydrophone has not been formally calibrated 451 above 50 kHz. The effect of decreasing sensitivity based on preliminary calibration was 452 tested, producing no notable effect on the mean peak frequency of the clicks in the 453 Guam data set, however the results presented here should not be considered to be 454 officially calibrated. Simultaneously, this type of hydrophone will be highly directional 455 at high frequencies like the peak frequencies of *Kogia* spp., which may produce 456 variability in sensitivity that depends on recording angle, and is otherwise 457 unpredictable. Results from such instrumentation, while highly informative for 458 preliminary exploration of sounds, should be treated with care and not assumed to be as 459 reliable as those from hydrophones specifically designed for high frequency data 460 collection.

The recordings presented here were made from a small number of individuals, and the amount of individual variability in this species is unknown. However, based on the similarities among the free-ranging recordings, we can conclude that some of the signals produced by this species are fairly stereotyped. However, the identification of unique click types within the Guam recordings does suggest that *K. sima* signals may vary based on behavioral state, group size, or group composition, as has been shown for other NBHF clicking species (Dawson and Thorpe 1990, Reyes *et al.* 2016). However,

- 468 advances in characterizing the signals of *K. sima* may also facilitate distinguishing the
- 469 signals of Kogiids from other NBHF clicking species, which will help to enhance
- 470 management and protection of this "data deficient", cryptic species (Taylor *et al.* 2012).

471 Acknowledgements

472 We wish to acknowledge the outstanding field efforts of the many people who assisted

473 in collecting these recordings: Yvonne Barkley, Andrea Bendlin, Julian Dale, Charlotte

- 474 Dunn, Megan Dunphy-Daly, Erik Norris, Allan Ligon, Nicola Quick, Adam Ü. We also
- 475 acknowledge the staff involved with rescue and rehabilitation of the captive animal,
- 476 particularly Charlie Manire, Lynne Byrd, and Petra Cunningham-Smith. We thank John
- 477 Hildebrand, Tess Gridley, Peter T. Madsen and three anonymous reviewers for their
- 478 insightful comments that improved this manuscript. Captive acoustic recordings were
- 479 approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of
- 480 South Florida. Research in The Bahamas was conducted under the Department of
- 481 Fisheries research permit 12A and was supported by a Royal Society University
- 482 Research Fellowship to VMJ. Recordings in Guam were made under NMFS permit
- 483 15240 and were supported with funding provided by the NOAA/NMFS Pacific Islands
- 484 Fisheries Science Center, and the U.S. Navy Pacific Fleet.
- 485

487 Literature Cited

- 488 Arranz, P., S.L. DeRuiter, A. K. Stimpert, et al. 2016. Discrimination of fast click-series
- 489 produced by tagged Risso's dolphins (*Grampus griseus*) for echolocation or
 490 communication. Journal of Experimental Biology 219:2898-2907.
- 491 Au, W. W. L. 1993. The Sonar of Dolphins. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY.
- 492 Au, W. W. L., B. Branstetter, P. W. Moore and J. J. Finneran. 2012. The biosonar field
- 493 around an Atlantic bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*). The Journal of the
 494 Acoustical Society of America 131:569-576.
- Baumann-Pickering, S., M. A. McDonald, A. E. Simonis, *et al.* 2013. Species-specific
 beaked whale echolocation signals. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of
 America. 134:2293-2301.
- Breese, D. and B. R. Tershy. 1993. Relative abundance of Cetacea in the Canal de
 Ballenas, Gulf of California. Marine Mammal Science 9:319–324.
- 500 Caldwell, M. C., and D. K. Caldwell. 1967. Intraspecific transfer of information via the

501 pulsed sound in captive odontocete cetaceans. In: Animal sonar systems -

- 502 biology and bionics. R. G. Bullock (ed.). Jouy-en-Josas, Laboratoire Physiologie
 503 Acoustique. II: 879-936.
- 504 Caldwell, D. K., and M. C. Caldwell. 1987. Underwater echolocation-type clicks
- 505 created by captive stranded pygmy sperm whales, *Kogia breviceps*. Abstracts,
- 506 Seventh Biennial Conference of the Biology of Marine Mammals, Miami,
- 507 Florida, Dec. 5-9, 1987, p.8.
- 508 Caldwell, D. K., J. H. Prescott and M. C. Caldwell. 1966. Production of pulsed sounds
 509 by the pigmy sperm whale, *Kogia breviceps*. Bulletin of the Southern California
 510 Academy of Sciences 65:245–248.

- 511 Dawson, S. M., and C. W. Thorpe. 1990. A quantitative analysis of the sounds of
 512 Hector's dolphin. Ethology 86:131-145.
- 513 DeRuiter, S. L., A. Bahr, M. Blanchet, S.F. Hansen, J. H. Kristensen, P. T. Madsen, P.
- 514 L. Tyack and M. Wahlberg. 2009. The Journal of Experimental Biology515 212:3100-3107.
- 516 Dunphy-Daly, M. M., M. R. Heithaus and D. E. Claridge. 2008. Temporal variation in
- 517 dwarf sperm whale (*Kogia sima*) habitat use and group size off Great Abaco
 518 Island, Bahamas. *Marine Mammal Science* 24:171-182.
- Fais, A., M. P. Johnson, M. Wilson, N. Aguilar Soto and P. T. Madsen. 2016. Sperm
 whale predator-prey interactions involve chasing and buzzing, but no acoustic

521 stunning. Scientific Reports 6: 28562 doi:10.1038/srep28562

- Fitch, J.E., and R. L. Brownell, Jr. 1968. Fish otoliths in cetacean stomachs and their
 importance in interpreting feeding habits. Journal of the Fisheries Research
- 524 Board of Canada 25: 2561-2574.
- Goold, J. C. and S. E. Jones. 1995. Time and frequency domain characteristics of sperm
 whale clicks. Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 98:1279-1291.
- 527 Götz, T., R. Antunes and S. Heinrich. 2010. Echolocation clicks of free-ranging Chilean
 528 dolphins (*Cephalorhynchus eutropia*). The Journal of the Acoustical Society of
 529 America 128:563-566.
- Hansen, M., M. Wahlberg and P. T. Madsen. 2008. Low-frequency components in
 harbor porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*) clicks: communication signal, byproducts, or artifacts? The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America
- 533 124:4059-4068.
- Harder, J. H., H. M. Hill, K. M. Dudzinski, K. T. Sanabria, S. Guarion, S. A. Kuczaj, II.
 2016. The development of echolocation in bottlenose dolphins. International

- Journal of Comparative Psychology 29. uclapsych_ijcp_32240. Retrieved from:
 http://escholarship.org/uc/item/0q22949q
- Jaquet, N., S. Dawson and L. A. Douglas. 2001. Vocal behavior of male sperm whales:
 Why do they click? The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America
- 540 109:2254–2259.
- 541 Johnson, M. P., P. T. Madsen, W. M. X. Zimmer, N. Aguilar de Soto, and P. L. Tyack.
- 542 2006. Foraging Blainville's beaked whales (*Mesoplodon densirostris*) produce
- 543 distinct click types matched to different phases of echolocation. Journal of
 544 Experimental Biology 209:5038–5050.
- Johnson, M. P., P. T. Madsen, W. M. X. Zimmer, N. Aguilar de Soto, and P. L. Tyack.
 2004. Beaked whales echolocate on prey. Proceedings of the Royal Society
 London B (Supplement) 271:S383-386.
- 548 Koblitz, J. C., M. Wahlberg, P. Stilz, P. T. Madsen, K. Beedholm and H. Schnitzler.
- 549 2012. Asymmetry and dynamics of a narrow sonar beam in an echolocating
- 550 harbor porpoise. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America
- 551 131:2315:2324.
- 552 Kyhn, L.A., J. Tougaard, F.H. Jensen, M. Wahlberg, G. Stone, A. Yoshinaga, K.
- 553 Beedholm, and P.T. Madsen. 2009. Feeding at a high pitch: Source parameters
- of narrow band, high-frequency clicks from echolocating off-shore
- hourglassdolphins and coastal Hector's dolphins. The Journal of the Acoustical
 Society of America 125: 1783-1791.
- 557 Kyhn, L. A., F. H. Jensen, K. Beedholm, J. Tougaard, M. Hansen and P. T. Madsen.
- 558 2010. Echolocation in sympatric Peale's dolphins (*Lagenorhynchus australis*)
- and Commerson's dolphins (Cephalorhynchus commersonii) producing narrow-
- 560 band high-frequency clicks. Journal of Experimental Biology 213:1940–1949.

561	Kyhn, L. A., J. Tougaard, K. Beedholm, F. H. Jensen, E. Ashe, R. Williams, P. T.
562	Madsen. 2013. Clicking in a Killer Whale Habitat: Narrow-Band, High-
563	Frequency Biosonar Clicks of Harbour Porpoise (Phocoena phocoena) and
564	Dall's Porpoise (Phocoenoides dalli). PLoS ONE 8, e63763.
565	Lammers, M. O., and M. Castellote. 2009. The beluga whale produces two pulses to
566	form its sonar signal. Biology Letters 5:297-301.
567	Li, S., D. Wang, K. Wang, J. Xiao, T. Akamatsu. 2007. The ontogeny of echolocation in
568	a Yangtze finless porpoise (Neophocaena phocaenoides asiaeorientalis) (L).
569	The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America. 122:715-718.
570	Madsen, P. T., D. A. Carder, W. W. L. Au, P. E. Nachtigall, B. Møhl, S. H. Ridgway.
571	2003. Sound production in neonate sperm whales (L). The Journal of the
572	Acoustical Society of America 113:2988-2991.
573	Madsen, P. T., I. Kerr and R. Payne. 2004. Echolocation clicks of two free-ranging,
574	oceanic delphinids with different food preferences: False killer whales
575	Pseudorca crassidens and Risso's dolphins Grampus griseus. Journal of
576	Experimental Biology 207:1811–1823.
577	Madsen, P. T., D. A. Carder, K. Bedholm and S. H. Ridgway. 2005a. Porpoise clicks
578	from a sperm whale nose - convergent evolution of 130 kHz pulses in toothed
579	whale sonars? Bioacoustics 15:195–206.
580	Madsen, P. T., M. Johnson, N. Aguilar de Soto, W. M. X. Zimmer and P. Tyack. 2005b.
581	Biosonar performance of foraging beaked whales (Mesoplodon densirostris).
582	Journal of Experimental Biology 208:181-194.
583	Marques, T., L. Thomas., S. W. Martin, D. K. Mellinger, J. A. Ward, D. J. Moretti, D.
584	Harris, P. L. Tyack. 2013. Estimating animal population density using passive
585	acoustics. Biological Reviews 88:287-309.

586 Marten, K. 2000. Ultrasonic analysis of pygmy sperm whale (Kogia breviceps) and 587 Hubbs' beaked whale (Mesoplodon carlhubbsi) clicks. Aquatic Mammals 588 26:45-48. 589 McAlpine, D. F. 2002. Pygmy and Dwarf Sperm Whales. Pages 1007-1009 in W. F 590 Perrin, B. Würsig. and J. Thewissen, eds. Encyclopedia of marine mammals. 591 Academic Press, San Diego, CA. 592 Miller, L.A., J. Pristed, B. Møhl, A. Surlykke. 1995. The click sounds of narwhals 593 (Monodon monoceros) in Inglefield Bay, Northwest Greenland. Marine 594 Mammal Science 11:491-502. 595 Morisaka, T. and R. C. Connor. 2007. Predation by killer whales (Orcinus orca) and the 596 evolution of whistle loss and narrow-band high frequency clicks in 597 odonotocetes. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 20:1439-1458. 598 Perez, J. M., F. H. Jensen, L. Rojano-Donate and N. Aguilar de Soto. 2017. Different 599 modes of acoustic communication in deep-diving short-finned pilot whales 600 (Globicephala macrorhynchus). Marine Mammal Science 33:59-79. 601 Reyes, M. V., V. P. Tossenberger, M. A. Iniguez, J. A. Hildebrand and M. L. Melcon. 602 2016. Communication sounds of Commerson's dolphins (Cephalorhynchus 603 commersonii) and contextual use of vocalizations," Marine Mammal Science 32: 604 1219–1233. 605 Plön, S. 2004. The status and natural history of pygmy (Kogia breviceps) and dwarf (K. 606 sima) sperm whales off Southern Africa. Doctoral dissertation, Rhodes 607 University, Grahamstown, South Africa. 551 pp. 608 Ridgway, S. H. and D. A. Carder. 2001. Assessing hearing and sound production in 609 cetaceans not available for behavioral audiograms: Experiences with sperm, 610 pygmy sperm, and gray whales. Aquatic Mammals 27:267–276.

611	Roch, M. A., H. Klinck, S. Baumann-Pickering, D. K. Mellinger, S. Qui, M. S.
612	Soldevilla and J.A. Hildebrand. 2011. Classification of echolocation clicks from
613	odontocetes in the Southern California Bight. The Journal of the Acoustical
614	Society of America. 129:467-475.
615	Schulz, T. M., H. Whitehead and L. Rendell. 2009. Off-axis effects on the multi-pulse
616	structure of sperm whale coda clicks. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of
617	America 125:1768-1773
618	Soldevilla, M. S., E. E. Henderson, G. S. Campbell, S. M. Wiggins, J. A. Hildebrand,
619	and M. A. Roch. 2008. Classification of Risso's and Pacific white-sided
620	dolphins using spectral properties of echolocation clicks. The Journal of the
621	Acoustical Society of America 124:609-624.
622	Taylor, B.L., R. Baird, J. Barlow, et al. 2012. Kogia sima. The IUCN Red List of
623	Threatened Species 2012: e.T11048A17695273.
624	http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2012.RLTS.T11048A17695273.en.
625	Downloaded on 04 November 2016.
626	Thomas, J. A., P. Moore, P. E. Nachtigall and W. G. Gilmartin. 1990. A new sound
627	from a stranded pygmy sperm whale. Aquatic Mammals 16:28-30.
628	Van Parijs, S. M., C. W. Clark, R. S. Sousa-Lima, S. E. Parks, S. Rankin, D. Risch, I.
629	V. Van Opzeeland. 2009. Management and research applications of real-time
630	and archival passive acoustic sensors over varying temporal and spatial scales.
631	Marine Ecology Progress Series 395:21-36.
632	Villadsgaard, A., M. Wahlberg and J. Tougaard. 2007. Echolocation signals of wild
633	harbour porpoises, Phocoena phocoena. The Journal of Experimental Biology
634	210:56-64.

- Weilgart, L. and H. Whitehead. 1988. Distinctive vocalizations from mature male sperm
 whales (Physeter macrocephalus). Canadian Journal of Zoology 66: 1931–1937.
- 637 West, K. L., W. A. Walker, R. W. Baird, W. White, G. Levine, E. Brown, D. Schofield.
- 638 2009. Diet of pygmy sperm whales (*Kogia breviceps*) in the Hawaiian
 639 Archipelago. Marine Mammal Science 25:931-943.
- 640 Willis, P. M. and R. W. Baird. 1998. Status of the dwarf sperm whale, Kogia simus,
- 641 with special reference to Canada. Canadian Field-Naturalist 112:114–125.
- 642 Wisniewska, D. M., M. Johnson, P. E. Nachtigall and P. T. Madsen. 2014. Buzzing
- 643 during biosonar-based interception of pre in the delphinids *Tursiops truncatus*
- and *Psuedorca crassidens*. The Journal of Experimental Biology 217:4279-
- 645 4282.
- Wisniewska, D. M., J. M. Ratcliffe and K. Beedholm. 2015 Range-dependent flexibility
 in the acoustic field of view of echolocating porpoises (Phocoena phocoena).
- 648 Elife. doi:10.7554/eLife.05651.001.
- 649 Zimmer, W. X., P. T. Madsen, V. Teloni, M. P. Johnson and P. L. Tyack. 2005. Off-
- axis effects on the multipulse structure of sperm whale usual clicks with
- 651 implications for sound production. The Journal of the Acoustical Society of
- 652 America 118:3337-3345.

Table 1. Click parameters for captive and free-ranging recordings of *K. sima* based on recordings from 2002 (captive), 2005 (The Bahamas) and 2016 (Guam) (\pm standard deviation). Also shown are parameters from recordings of captive *K. breviceps* for comparison (Madsen *et al.* 2005a). Peak frequency, centroid frequency, duration, -3 dB bandwidth, -10 dB bandwidth, rms bandwidth, Q_{-3dB}, Q_{rms}, and inter-click interval are show as Mean/Median (\pm Standard Deviation). Note: possible issues with the captive recording are detailed near the end of the article. na = "not available"

Species	Recording Setting	Sample Size (# clicks)	Peak Frequency (kHz)	Centroid Frequency (kHz)	Duration (µs)	-3 dB Bandwidt h (kHz)	-10 dB Bandwidth (kHz)	rms Bandwidth (kHz)	Q _{-3dB}	Q _{rms}	Inter-click Interval (ms)
K. sima (calf)	captive	49	112/110 (± 9)	108/105 (±9)	91/52 (±85)	21/16 (± 11)	43/43 (± 20)	18/17 (± 19)	6/6 (± 2)	7/7 (± 5)	83/79 (± 24)
K. sima (2 adults + 1 sub-adult)	free-ranging The Bahamas	328	129/129 (± 2)	129/129 (± 2)	199/179 (± 54)	10/10 (± 2)	16/17 (± 3)	9/9 (± 2)	15/15 (± 4)	14/13 (± 3)	164/135 (± 79)
K. sima (adult + calf)	free-ranging Guam	759	127/127 (± 2)	121/122 (± 5)	186/192 (± 62)	10/10 (± 3)	17/16 (± 7)	20/20 (± 7)	7/6 (± 3)	13/13 (± 3)	110/93 (± 73)
<i>K. sima</i> – burst pulse clicks	free-ranging Guam	81	124/124 (± 2)	117/118 (± 6)	138/130 (± 46)	14/14 (± 4)	25/26 (±7)	23/22 (±7)	6/5 (± 2)	10/9 (± 4)	37/37 (± 10)
<i>K. sima –</i> Lower frequency clicks	free-ranging Guam	98	117/117 (± 3)	113/115 (± 6)	189/191 (± 75)	11/10 (± 7)	19/16 (± 12)	17/16 (± 7)	8/7 (± 4)	12/12 (± 3)	198/216 (± 120)
K. breviceps	captive	820	130/na (± 1)	129/na (± 1)	119/na (± 19)	8/na (± 2)	15/na (± 3)	na	16/na (± 1)	na	40-70/na

Figure 1. Example clicks from the Bahamas (A,B,C), Guam (D,E,F) and captive (G, H, I), recordings, including (A, D,G) the mean spectrum of extracted usual clicks (black line) and mean noise before each click (light grey line), (B,E,H) an example waveform of a single click and (C,F,I) an example time series of 2 seconds of data.





Figure 3. Histograms of peak and centroid frequencies for clicks in the Guam data set, highlighting the usual and lower peak frequency click types. A) Peak frequencies of all clicks, with a primary peak at 127 kHz and a secondary peak at 117 kHz. B) Peak frequencies and C) centroid frequencies of the clicks with SNR>=20 dB, with a primary peak at 127-128 kHz and a secondary peak at 116-117 kHz.



Figure 2. Examples of the burst-pulse clicks (A,B) and the lower frequency clicks (C, D) from Guam, including an example spectrogram (A) and time series (B) of the burst-pulse clicks and an example spectrogram (C) and waveform (D) of the lower frequency clicks. The burst-pulse is visible in A and B between 1.6 and 2.4 seconds. Lower frequency clicks are visible in C between 0 and 1.5 seconds, followed by usual clicks from 2.5 to 5 seconds.



Figure 4. Histogram of click duration in the recording of free-ranging *K. sima* from The Bahamas. Grey bars indicate first mode (duration $<235 \ \mu$ s), likely comprised of single clicks. Black bars indicate second mode (duration $>235 \ u$ s), likely comprised of clicks-plus-reverberations. Dashed black lines indicate (a) median (157 μ s) and (b) mean (161 μ s) of the first mode (gray bars only). Solid black lines indicate (c) median (179 μ s) and (d) mean (199 μ s) of the complete data set (gray bars and black bars), which is reflected in the summary data, Table 1.

