



UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL PAULISTA
"JÚLIO DE MESQUITA FILHO"
Instituto de Biociências
Campus do Litoral Paulista



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**Análise temporal da dieta de toninha (Cetartiodactyla: *Pontoporia blainvillei*) na
FMA IIb, sudeste do Brasil**

**São Vicente - SP
2023**



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Trabalho de conclusão de curso apresentado ao Instituto de Biociências da UNESP – Campus do Litoral Paulista, como parte dos requisitos para obtenção do título bacharel em Ciências Biológicas, com habilitação em Biologia Marinha.

Orientador(a): Carolina Pacheco Bertozzi
Coorientador(a): Teodoro Vaske-Junior

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INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

A transferência de energia e acúmulo de matéria ocorrem ao longo da cadeia e interações tróficas (Odum, 2000; Tilley, 2004). A ecologia trófica nada mais é que uma ferramenta que permite através de sua ótica uma melhor compreensão sobre estes processos. Definida por Garvey & Whiles (2016) como a ecologia da derivação nutricional, em outras palavras, seria equivalente ao estudo e avaliação de hábitos alimentares, uma subdisciplina relativa a ecologia quanto ao forrageamento. Conceito este que passou ser popularizado por Elton (1927) com os conceitos de pirâmides de produção tróficas e guildas tróficas.

Perturbações nas populações de consumidores de topo podem ter consequências diretas ou indiretas sobre a abundância e diversidade de espécies em níveis tróficos inferiores, através do controle “topo-base” (Hairston et al., 1960; Estes et al., 2011; Ripple et al., 2016). Logo, o desaparecimento de predadores topo podem originar fenômenos denominados de “cascatas tróficas” (Paine, 1980; Estes & Duggins, 1995; Heithaus et al., 2008; Estes et al., 2011). Dado o atual contexto de depredação das redes tróficas a nível global, sobretudo pela remoção destes consumidores topo em decorrência de atividades antropogênicas (Estes et al., 2011), torna o estudo sobre os seus hábitos alimentares, ainda que uma ciência de base, imprescindível visando o mapeamento e das interações ecológicas entre os organismos.

Uma melhor compreensão da dieta de predadores ameaçados, a partir de metodologias que possibilitem a identificação de suas presas, são um primeiro passo que nos permitem inferir de maneira mais acurada seus respectivos papéis ecológicos e quais as consequências do seu desaparecimento em suas respectivas comunidades. Assim, é possível utilizar-se deste tipo de estudo como base para pesquisas ecológicas mais aplicadas que visam responder questões quanto a nicho,

uso de habitat, e diretrizes para a conservação, sempre de modo integrar como o impacto gerado pelas atividades antrópicas têm afetado na mortandade destes grandes predadores e na disponibilidade dos diferentes níveis de consumidores ao longo da cadeia (Heithaus et al., 2008; Henning, 2018).

Mapear a dieta e estudar hábitos alimentares de predadores nos permite compreender melhor o nicho ecológico que desempenham e quais as consequências de seus desaparecimentos para as redes tróficas, fenômenos denominados “cascadas tróficas” (Paine, 1980; Estes et al., 1995, 2011). Assim é possível utilizar-se deste tipo de estudo para observar como o impacto gerado pelas atividades antrópicas têm afetado na disponibilidade de presas consumidas, ou seja, observar o quanto essas atividades têm afetado na diversidade biológica de consumidores de diferentes ecossistemas (Heithaus et al., 2008), uma vez que atividades antrópicas podem levar tanto à diminuição das populações de predadores quanto de presas (Pauly et al., 1998).

A depredação das redes tróficas é ainda mais visível no ambiente marinho, onde a continuidade da atividade pesqueira em larga escala nos permite inferir um declínio global nos níveis tróficos capturados como relatado por Pauly et al. (1998), o que indica mudanças nas estruturas das teias alimentares marinhas de maneira generalizada. Logo, consumidores de topo nestes ambientes acabam sendo os grupos de organismos com as populações mais afetadas por este mesmo tipo de atividade exploratória. Isso inclui o grupo dos mamíferos marinhos, os quais, mesmo que não sendo alvos da atividade pesqueira, acabam sendo capturados de maneira acidental (Heithaus et al., 2008; Brownell et al., 2019).

Os cetáceos por atuarem como consumidores de topo, são organismos com grande potencial para serem utilizados como possíveis indicadores de saúde oceânica

(Fossi et al. 2020). Por desempenharem uma série de papéis importantes em seus ecossistemas golfinhos (odontocetos), tem a capacidade de atuar na ressuspensão de sedimento, transporte de nutrientes horizontal e verticalmente, e são essenciais na manutenção da diversidade da teia através da influência que exercem pela predação (Katona & Whitehead, 1988; Santos et al., 2002; Heithaus et al., 2008; Roman et al. 2014; Campos et al., 2020). Contudo, pouco se sabe sobre o papel funcional e a real importância dos pequenos cetáceos nos ecossistemas aquáticos, tanto marinhos como de água doce (Kiszka et al. 2022).

No Brasil, conhecida popularmente como toninha, a *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1884), é a espécie de odontoceto mais ameaçada de extinção no Atlântico Sul Ocidental, endêmica das águas costeiras e estuarinas da América do Sul (Secchi et al., 2003a). Classificada como “Vulnerável” pela IUCN (Zerbini et al., 2018), no Brasil a espécie é classificada como “Criticamente em Perigo de Extinção” (Ministério do Meio Ambiente, 2014). Essa alta taxa de mortalidade se deve principalmente a atividade pesqueira que, há pelo menos 50 anos, tem impactado negativamente as populações de *P. blainvillei*, devido a captura acidental em redes de emalhe (Ott et al., 2002; Secchi et al., 2003a). No entanto, esta não é a única ameaça que a espécie enfrenta. A ingestão de resíduos de origem antrópica, a poluição acústica e química de seu habitat e a diminuição dos estoques pesqueiros, são alguns exemplos das pressões sofridas direta e indiretamente pela espécie, todas relacionadas à impactos gerados pela atividade humana (Zerbini et al., 2018).

Sua distribuição vai desde o estado do Espírito Santo, em Itaúnas (18°25'S 30°42'W) (Siciliano, 1994), até o Golfo de São Matias na Argentina (42°35'S 64°48'W) (Crespo et al., 1998). No entanto, estudos demonstraram que a distribuição de *P. blainvillei* não é contínua em sua área de ocorrência no Brasil (Siciliano et al., 2002),

havendo duas lacunas em sua distribuição. A primeira se encontra de Regência (ES) até a Barra do Itabapoana (RJ), e a segunda de Macaé (RJ) à Ilha Grande (RJ) (Azevedo et al., 2002; Danilewicz et al., 2012). Se utilizando de estudos prévios em genética, morfologia e estrutura geográfica populacional, foram propostas por Secchi et al. (2003b), quatro áreas de manejo, a fim de direcionar e organizar as ações para a conservação da *P. blainvillei*, as chamadas FMA (*Franciscana Management Areas*), organizadas a partir da área de ocorrência da espécie (FMA I, II, III e IV). A FMA I está localizada na costa dos estados do Espírito Santo e Rio de Janeiro; enquanto a FMA II engloba o litoral dos estados de São Paulo, Paraná e Santa Catarina; sendo essas duas áreas de manejo restritas ao território brasileiro. Já a FMA III abrange o estado do Rio Grande do Sul e o Uruguai. E por fim, a FMA IV restringe-se à porção mais ao sul da distribuição, localizada na Argentina. Posteriormente, novos estudos revisaram a proposta das FMAs, e propuseram novas subdivisões (Cunha et al., 2014; do Amaral et al., 2018).

Estudos sugerem que a espécie seja generalista e prede de maneira oportunista, ainda que seus hábitos alimentares sejam essencialmente piscívoros e teutófagos (Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021), sobretudo espécies sem valor comercial, também alvos de captura accidental. Tendo em vista que a disponibilidade e diversidade de presas tende a variar geograficamente, a extensa área de ocorrência de *P. blainvillei*, implica em variações sobre a composição de sua dieta ao longo de sua distribuição (Rodríguez et al., 2002; Bittar & DiBeneditto, 2009; Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018).

A prevalência de otólitos *sagitta* e bicos de cefalópodes no conteúdo estomacal de carcaças de *P. blainvillei* permite a investigação e avaliação dos táxons predados pela espécie (Fitch & Brownell 1968; Pierce & Boyle 1991; Cremer et al., 2012).

Contudo, mesmo este sendo uma metodologia considerada de baixo custo, são poucos os estudos publicados, especialmente na porção norte de sua distribuição. Existem apenas três publicações que tratam sobre a temática no que corresponde a região da FMA II (Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020), dentre essas publicações, apenas duas são sobre o litoral paulista (Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020), a mais recente tem seus dados referentes a 7 anos atrás (Campos et al., 2020).

Tendo em vista a carência de estudos de ecologia alimentar e a necessidade de melhor descrever os hábitos alimentares ao longo de toda a distribuição da espécie, buscamos através deste estudo avaliar a composição da dieta de *Pontoporia blainvillei* no litoral centro-sul de São Paulo ao longo de 7 anos de amostragem e assim analisar possíveis tendências e preferências a partir dos fatores estruturantes propostos por Henning et al. (2018): sexo, estágio de desenvolvimento e sazonalidade. Com o acréscimo de mais um fator, a anualidade, uma vez que a temporalidade poderia interferir sobre a relevância dos táxons amostradas, já que a crescente atividade pesqueira e a depredação dos estoques podem ter influência direta sobre a dieta da espécie (Heithaus et al., 2008; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020).

**Temporal Analyses over franciscanas (Cetartiodactyla: *Pontoporia blainvillei*)
feeding habits, on Franciscana Management Area IIb, southeast Brazil.**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 In the Western South Atlantic, the franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) is a species
3 of small coastal dolphin, threatened by incidental catch in fishing gillnets. Information
4 about the species' feeding habits is still scarce in the northern portion of its distribution
5 (FMAs I and II). This study aimed to describe and evaluate the importance its feeding
6 habits by analyzing the stomach contents of 206 carcasses from strandings and
7 incidental captures between the years 2015 and 2021, on the south-central coast of
8 São Paulo. We identified 6932 otoliths and 1126 cephalopod beaks, totaling 20 prey
9 taxa identified: 17 teleosts and 3 cephalopods. The species that presented the highest
10 index of relative importance ($\sum IRI > 90\%$) were respectively *Stellifer rastrifer*, *Pellona*
11 *harroweri*, *Doryteuthis plei*, *Lolliguncula brevis*, and *Paralanchurus brasiliensis*. Thus
12 franciscanas presented piscivorous and teutophagous habits. The greater contribution
13 of *S. rastrifer* to the diet differs from previous studies conducted in the same region.
14 We did not record significant differences between the importance of these species for
15 sexes, ages and seasons. The temporal analysis of the diet showed a significant
16 difference between the years studied.

17 **KEYWORDS**

18 Trophic ecology; feeding habits; small dolphin; coastal cetacean; stomach
19 content.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The continuity of large-scale fisheries has been responsible for the depletion of food webs on marine environments, under which it has been possible to infer a global decline in captured trophic levels (Pauly et al., 1998), indicating widespread changes on marine food webs. Therefore, higher trophic level consumers in these environments end up being the most affected groups of organisms by this same exploitation economic activity. This includes marine mammals, which, even if they are not targeted by fisheries, end up being accidentally caught, which potentially can result in their mortality due to bycatch (Heithaus et al., 2008; Brownell et al., 2019).

Because of their role as marine predators, cetaceans are great candidates as ocean health indicators (Fossi et al. 2020). Thus, dolphins play a series of key roles in their ecosystems and are essential on maintaining the diversity and health of food webs through the influence they exert through predation (Katona & Whitehead, 1988; Santos et al., 2002; Heithaus et al., 2008; Campos et al., 2020). However, little is known about the functional role and ecological processes in which small cetaceans are involved in aquatic ecosystems (Kiszka et al. 2022). Therefore, studies regarding their feeding ecology can contribute to a more accurate comprehension of marine trophic structures, their functioning and energy flow (Bisi et al., 2012)

The franciscana dolphin, *Pontoporia blainvillei* (Gervais & d'Orbigny, 1884), is considered the most endangered species of small cetacean in the entire Western South Atlantic. It is classified as "Vulnerable" by the IUCN (Zerbini et al., 2017), and as "Critically Endangered" by Brazilian Red List (ICMBio, 2022), mainly for its high mortality rate caused due to bycatch in gillnets. This harmful interaction between the species and fisheries has been recorded for at least 60 years (Ott et al., 2002; Secchi et al., 2022). Other threats such as waste ingestion, acoustic and chemical pollution of

its habitat and the reduction of fish stocks also contribute directly and indirectly to the conservation of the species (Zerbini et al., 2018).

The species is endemic to the South American Eastern coast, occurring from Itaúnas, in the state of Espírito Santo, Brazil (18°25'S 30°42'W) (Siciliano, 1994) until the Gulf of São Matias in Argentina (42°35'S 64°48' W) (Crespo et al., 1998). Where four management areas are recognized, throughout its distribution, called Franciscana's Management Areas (FMA); FMA I: from Espírito Santo to Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; FMA II: from São Paulo to Santa Catarina, Brazil, FMA III: Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil to Uruguay and FMA IV: Argentina. More recent studies have proposed subdivisions on the FMAs taking into account new populational data on the species, based on its genetics and distribution (Cunha et al., 2014; do Amaral et al., 2018). It is suggested that FMA II, which includes the states along southeastern and southern Brazil and represents one of the least known units, to be subdivided into two large areas based on ecotoxicological data: FMA IIa from Rio de Janeiro the south coast, to the north coast of São Paulo's state; and FMA IIb, from the central coast of São Paulo to the central coast of Santa Catarina (Cunha et al., 2014; Sucunza et al., 2020).

Studies suggest that franciscanas present generalistic feeding habits, preying opportunistically over different species throughout the water column, even though the species presents essentially piscivorous, teutophagous and occasionally carcinophagus habits, feeding mainly on species with little or no commercial value (Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021). However, variations of its diet composition throughout its distribution are notable (Rodríguez et al., 2002; Bittar & DiBeneditto, 2009; Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018). Such variations in diet can be attributed to intrapopulation factors, such as sexual dimorphism and ontogenetic development stages (Rodriguez et al., 2002;

Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021) and spatio-temporal factors, such as territoriality or seasonality (Rodriguez et al., 2002; Santos & Haimovici 2001; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021). Considering that the availability and diversity of prey tends to vary geographically over the occurrence area of *P. blainvillei*, studies characterizing its diet are therefore impelled throughout its distribution. However, most published studies containing statistical analyzes on the species' diet, rather than punctual descriptions, refer to the southern portion of its distribution, in FMAs III and IV (Rodriguez et al., 2002; Paso-Viola et al., 2014; Denuncio et al., 2017; Franco-Trecu et al. 2017; Tellechea et al. 2017; Bassoi et al., 2021), while for the northern portion, these publications are scarcer, in FMA I (Bittar & Di Benedetto, 2009) and FMA II (Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020). However, none of these studies have previously sought to infer differences in the species' diet inbetween each year sampled, which may have occurred due to methodological limitations. Though, now this information can be retrieved throughout the continuous stranding surveillance campaigns launched in Brazil as environmental conditions for the oil and gas exploitation. Incorporating the annual temporal factor into the analysis of feeding habits could help on understanding if the depletion and fluctuation of stocks could have an influence on the species' diet through time (Rodriguez, et al. 2002; Heithaus et al., 2008; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020).

Therefore on this study we sought to describe the diet and evaluate the importance of *Pontoporia blainvillei* preyed species through stomach content analysis of carcasses derived from strandings and accidental captures on the south-central coast of São Paulo (FMA IIb) over seven years of sampling. Analyzing possible trends and preferences based on intrapopulation (sex and developmental stages) and temporal (seasons and years) structuring factors of the diet.

2. METHODS

2.1. DATA COLLECTION

Pontoporia blainvillei carcasses were collected through a ongoing continuous sampling effort, consisting on daily beach surveys along approximately 75 km of coastline on the central coast of the state of São Paulo, Southeast Brazil, between 24°01'07"S, 46°23'56"W – 24°22'43"S, 47°01'02"W. We analyzed the stomach contents of 206 franciscanas found stranded ($n = 150$) or accidentally captured ($n = 56$), from 2015 to 2021 (2015 = 27; 2016 = 37; 2017 = 32; 2018 = 48; 2019 = 31; 2020 = 12; 2021 = 19) (Table 2).

We classified the dolphins ($n = 206$) based on their food content and size, into: "Suckling Calves", for animals with only the presence of milk in their gastric tract; "Weaned Calves", for animals that had a total length <90 cm; Juvenile females, >90 cm and <119 cm; and Adult Females, >119 cm; Juvenile males, >90 cm and <107 cm; Adult males were >107 cm (Rodríguez et al., 2002; Ramos & Di Benedetto 2005; Bertozzi et al., 2010). We found 14 Suckling Calves, 18 dolphins with no sign of food content, and 174 franciscanas presenting food items, of which: 88 were males and 83 females; 10 weaned calves, 77 juveniles and 87 adults.

TABLE 1: Number of franciscanas collected for each sex and development stage.

Sex	Suckling Calves	Weaned Calves	Juveniles	Adults	Total
Males	6	11	41	41	99
Females	8	16	34	46	104
Undetermined	-	-	3	-	3
Total	14	27	78	87	206

TABLE 2: Number of franciscanas collected for each year and season.

Years	Summer	Fall	Winter	Spring	Total
2015	2	4	6	15	27
2016	10	5	13	9	37
2017	10	3	7	12	32
2018	13	1	12	22	48
2019	8	4	3	16	31
2020	2	0	4	6	12
2021	7	1	4	7	19
Total	52	18	49	87	206

The esophagus and stomach, including all their chambers, were sectioned and the contents were washed under running water using a 200 µm fine mesh sieve. Items found partially degraded and crustaceans cephalothorax were stored in 70% alcohol, otoliths were preserved dry, and cephalopod beaks in a solution of 70% alcohol and glycerin (1:1) (Lopes et al., 2012; Campos et al., 2020).

2.2. IDENTIFICATION OF THE FOOD ITEMS

We identified fish otoliths and cephalopod beaks, to the lowest taxonomic level possible, via comparison with a reference collection of Otoliths of Teleost Fishes from the Southeast-South Region of Brazil (COSS-Brasil, Instituto Oceanográfico da Universidade de São Paulo, 2022) as also with the use of specific bibliographies (Corrêa & Viana, 1993; Vaske-Júnior, 2006; Xavier & Cherel, 2009; Fischer et al., 2011; Di Benedetto, 2021). We based the count of the prey number in each stomach through the separation of the sagittal otoliths into right and left sides and the cephalopod beaks into upper and lower pieces, the highest value counted was used as the number of ingested prey (Campos et al., 2020). Decapods (shrimps) were not identified due to their advanced stage of digestion.

2.3. ESTIMATING PREY SIZE AND WEIGHT

We estimated the total length or the length mantle and the biomass of prey through the use of regression equations present in the literature (Supplementary Table 1) (Santos, 1999; Di Benedetto & Ramos, 2001; Di Benedetto & Lima, 2003; Lopes et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020). We performed the measurements from obtained images under a stereomicroscope coupled to a camera with use of TCapture software (5.1.1.0(N)) to the nearest 0.01 (μm) for all otoliths and beaks that were unworn. Otolith length (OL) as also upper and lower rostral lengths for cephalopods (UHL and LHL) were considered from the anterior tip to the most posterior projection (Clarke, 1986; Dehghani et al., 2016).

2.4. INDEX OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE

We estimated the importance of each prey taxa in franciscana's diet, based on the Relative Importance Index (*IRI*) (Pinkas et al. (1971):

$$IRI = [(\% FN + \%W) * \%FO]$$

Where *FN* is the percentage of numerical abundance of prey; *W* is the percentage of prey estimated biomass, and *FO* is the percentage of stomach content samples in which a prey taxon occurred. For comparative analyzes of sex, development stages, seasons, and years, we calculated index values considering the percentage of stomachs in relation to the total stomachs in each category.

2.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In order to verify possible statistically significant differences in the diet, we carried out a series of One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), using the SigmaPlot program (12.5v) between the five most relevant species according to their respective values of importance for each sex, stages of development, seasons and years. Due to the non-parametric nature of the used data, we performed the Kruskal-Wallis test for sets that

did not pass the normality and Shapiro-Wilk tests ($p < 0.05$) or the equality of variances test (F-test) ($p < 0.05$).

3. RESULTS

3.1. FEEDING COMPOSITION

We identified 8058 food items (otoliths and beaks) at species level, of which 6932 were otoliths and 1126 cephalopod beaks. Decapod exoskeletons had a low prevalence ($n = 33$) presenting an occurrence of 3.44%. Thus, in this study, we quantified and analyzed approximately 4112 preyed individuals, present in the digestive content of franciscanas.

We identified a total of 20 prey taxa present in the food content of *P. blainvillei*. Teleost fishes represented 17 taxa, belonging to 6 families: Sciaenidae, Pristigasteridae, Engraulidae, Trichiuridae, Mugilidae and Dorosomatidae (Table 3). Among the cephalopods, two species belong to the Loliginidae family and one from the Argonautidae family.

We noted that the size of the suckling calves varied from 60.5 cm to 82.9 cm. While for weaned calves, showed a minimal total length size of 79 cm. We also observed the inverse sexual dimorphism in the size difference between males and females. The size of the females varied between 85.4 cm and 114.8 cm, therefore with an average size of 119.8 cm. The males, measured 79 cm to 126.9 cm, had an average size of 106.5 cm. Individuals without the presence of food content were mostly calves (94.4%), and measured from 55.5 cm to 83.7 cm.

178 **TABLE 3:** Identified franciscana's prey species and each respective taxonomy.

	Family	Taxa (Species)
Teleostei	Engraulidae	<i>Anchoa sp.</i> <i>Engraulis anchoita</i> <i>Lycengraulis grossidens</i>
	Dorosomatidae	<i>Harengula clupeola</i>
	Scianidae	<i>Ctenosciaena gracilicirrus</i> <i>Cynoscion jamaicensis</i> <i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i> <i>Larimus breviceps</i> <i>Macrodon atricauda</i> <i>Menticirrhus americanus</i> <i>Micropogonias furnieri</i> <i>Paralonchurus brasiliensis</i> <i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i> <i>Stellifer rastrifer</i>
	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil curema</i>
	Pristigasteridae	<i>Pellona harroweri</i>
	Trichiuridae	<i>Trichiurus lepturus</i>
	Argonautidae	<i>Argonauta nodosa</i>
Cephalopoda	Loliginidae	<i>Doryteuthis pleii</i> <i>Lolliguncula brevis</i>

179 3.2. ESTIMATES OF PREY SIZE AND WEIGHTS

180 The total average length for otoliths was 2.53 mm (SD $\pm$ 1.12) and 1.83 (SD $\pm$
181 1.24) for cephalopod beaks. While the average prey size of a teleost fish was about
182 5.7 cm (SD $\pm$ 2.01), and 5.57 cm (SD $\pm$ 3.18) for a cephalopod (Table 4). The largest
183 estimated specimen of fish was a representative of *Engraulis anchoita* (14.59 cm), and
184 for cephalopods a *Doryteuthis plei* (25.64 cm) (Table 4). The smallest estimated
185 specimens were *Macrodon atricauda* for fish and *Argonauta nodosa* for cephalopods,
186 both measuring < 2 cm in length. The average weight was estimated at 6.22 g (SD $\pm$
187 5.81) for teleosts, and 12.61 g (SD $\pm$ 7.98) for cephalopods (Table 4). The specimen
188 with the highest estimated weight for teleost fishes was a representative of the species
189 *Trichiurus lepturus* (18.84 g), and for cephalopods it was a specimen of *D. plei* (169.2
190 g) (Table 4).

191 **TABLE 4:** Estimated lenght and weight for each preyed taxa.

	Taxa	Lenght (cm)			Weight (g)			N
		Mean $\pm$ SD	Max	Min	Mean $\pm$ SD	Max	Min	
Teleostei	<i>Anchoa sp.</i>	5.14 $\pm$ 0.60	6.63	4.15	1.66 $\pm$ 0.69	3.64	0.75	70
	<i>Ctenosciaena gracilicirrus</i>	9.72 $\pm$ 0.17	9.90	9.46	7.4 $\pm$ 0.15	7.56	7.16	16
	<i>Cynoscion jamaicensis</i>	9 $\pm$ 0.2	9.43	8.61	16.5 $\pm$ 0.66	17.87	15.23	15
	<i>Engraulis anchoita</i>	7.73 $\pm$ 4.81	14.59	2.36	5.41 $\pm$ 7.72	18.78	0.1	5
	<i>Harengula clupeola</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	<i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i>	4.7 $\pm$ 0.34	5.56	3.93	2.6 $\pm$ 1.1	5.45	0.1	66
	<i>Larimus breviceps</i>	4.78 $\pm$ 0.62	5.5	3.25	3.35 $\pm$ 2.06	5.71	1.71	35
	<i>Lycengraulis grossidens</i>	8.31 $\pm$ 1.68	10.57	6.60	7.92 $\pm$ 6.25	16.92	2.71	4
	<i>Macrodon atricauda</i>	5.82 $\pm$ 3.84	10.67	1.8	6.24 $\pm$ 7.64	18.83	0.1	5
	<i>Menticirrhus americanus</i>	4.77 $\pm$ 0.18	4.93	4.51	17.26 $\pm$ 0.7	17.86	16.27	4
	<i>Micropogonias furnieri</i>	4.35 $\pm$ 0.12	4.63	4.14	1.35 $\pm$ 0.4	2.28	0.66	44
	<i>Mugil curema</i>	1.9	1.9	1.9	0.11	0.11	0.11	1
	<i>Paralonchurus brasiliensis</i>	5.22 $\pm$ 0.5	6.01	3.54	4 $\pm$ 1.65	6.65	1.60	75
	<i>Pellona harroweri</i>	4.4 $\pm$ 0.22	4.81	3.95	1.65 $\pm$ 0.67	2.91	0.32	97
	<i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i>	4.9 $\pm$ 0.33	5.49	3.97	3.31 $\pm$ 1.02	5.15	0.48	135
	<i>Stellifer rastrifer</i>	4.8 $\pm$ 0.22	5.56	4.32	3.18 $\pm$ 0.69	5.47	1.58	150
	<i>Trichiurus lepturus</i>	5.72 $\pm$ 0.23	6.17	5.38	17.5 $\pm$ 0.66	18.84	16.51	17
Cephalopoda	<i>Argonauta nodosa</i>	3.47 $\pm$ 2.42	5.2	1.76	10.96 $\pm$ 13.83	20.74	1.18	2
	<i>Doryteuthis pleii</i>	9.23 $\pm$ 3.53	25.64	2.17	21.29 $\pm$ 18.44	169.2	0.72	226
	<i>Loliguncula brevis</i>	4 $\pm$ 1.33	8.08	1.87	5.58 $\pm$ 5.4	28.54	0.53	155

3.3. FREQUENCIES AND INDEX OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE

The fish species that showed the highest occurrence in stomachs were *Pellona harroweri* (%FO 50.57), *Stellifer rastrifer* (%FO 39.66) and *Paralonchurus brasiliensis* (%FO 36.78), respectively, while for cephalopods they were *Doryteuthis plei* (%FO 32.76) and *Lolliguncula brevis* (%FO 32.18) (Table 5). These same five species also presented the highest recorded numerical frequencies, only in a different order for the teleosts: *Stellifer rastrifer* (%FN 32.54), *Pellona harroweri* (%FN 24.66) and *Paralonchurus brasiliensis* (%FN 6.42) (Table 5). The fish families that presented the highest frequencies were Sciaenidae, Pristigasteridae and the Loliginidae family for cephalopods, which corroborates other previous publications in the same FMA (Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020)

We observed that *Stellifer rastrifer*, the species with the highest recorded numerical frequency, had the highest Importance value among the taxa (%IRI 30.79; %FN 32.54). *Pellona harroweri*, the second taxon in order of importance, was the species with the highest frequency of occurrence (%IRI 24.15; %FO 50.57). And *Doryteuthis plei*, the third most important taxon, was the one that presented the greatest contribution in terms of biomass (%IRI 22.63; %W 38.59).

The most relevant species (IRI) to franciscanas feeding habits were: 1. *Stellifer rastrifer*; 2. *Pellona harroweri*; 3. *Doryteuthis plei*; 4. *Lolliguncula brevis*; and 5. *Paralonchurus brasiliensis* (Table 5). It is important to highlight that these five species combined hold more than 90% of the relative importance in the composition of the diet, just as the top three ranking species hold more than 75%. Fish presented higher values of importance in contributing to the diet than cephalopods, this is also reflected by the frequency of occurrence of these two groups. Sagitta otoliths were present in 90.23%

217 of the stomachs examined while cephalopod beaks were only present in 46.55% of the
 218 total.

219 **TABLE 5: Index Relative Importance (IRI) for each taxon in descending order.**

Taxa	FO%	FN%	W%	IRI	IRI%	RANK
<i>Stellifer rastrifer</i>	39.66	32.54	20.90	2119.32	30.79	1
<i>Pellona harroweri</i>	50.57	24.66	8.22	1662.83	24.15	2
<i>Doryteuthis plei</i>	32.76	8.97	38.59	1558.15	22.63	3
<i>Lolliguncula brevis</i>	32.18	6.64	7.48	454.57	6.60	4
<i>Paralanchurus brasiliensis</i>	36.78	6.42	5.18	426.70	6.20	5
<i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i>	26.44	4.73	3.16	208.59	3.03	6
<i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i>	22.41	5.96	3.13	203.65	2.96	7
<i>Larimus breviceps</i>	20.11	3.35	2.27	113.01	1.64	8
<i>Trichiurus lepturus</i>	10.92	0.98	3.47	48.55	0.71	9
<i>Ctenosciaena gracilicirrhus</i>	5.75	3.25	4.86	46.62	0.68	10
<i>Anchoa sp.</i>	10.34	2.27	0.77	31.40	0.46	11
<i>Cynoscion jamaicensis</i>	3.45	0.31	1.03	4.64	0.07	12
<i>Micropogonias furnieri</i>	2.30	1.51	0.41	4.43	0.06	13
<i>Macrodon atricauda</i>	2.30	0.12	0.16	0.64	0.01	15
<i>Lycengraulis grossidens</i>	1.72	0.11	0.18	0.50	0.01	14
<i>Engraulis anchoita</i>	1.15	0.10	0.11	0.24	0.00	16
<i>Menticirrhus americanus</i>	0.57	0.05	0.17	0.13	0.00	17
<i>Argonauta nodosa</i>	1.15	0.02	0.05	0.09	0.00	18
<i>Mugil curema</i>	0.57	0.04	0.00	0.02	0.00	19
<i>Harengula clupeola</i>	0.57	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00	20

220

3.3.1. INTRAPOPULATIONAL FACTORS

TABLE 6: Percentages of Numerical Frequencies (*FN*), Occurance Frequencies (*FO*), Biomass (*W*) and Relative Imporance (*IRI*) for each taxa between sexes (Male and Female).

	Taxa	Males					Females				
		<i>FN%</i>	<i>FO%</i>	<i>W%</i>	<i>IRI</i>	<i>IRI%</i>	<i>FN%</i>	<i>FO%</i>	<i>W%</i>	<i>IRI</i>	<i>IRI%</i>
Teleostei	<i>Anchoa sp.</i>	2.03	9.09	0.73	25.05	0.35	2.59	12.05	0.88	41.89	0.62
	<i>C. gracilicirrus</i>	2.20	4.55	3.53	26.04	0.36	4.74	7.23	7.21	86.42	1.28
	<i>C. jamaicensis</i>	0.37	3.41	1.32	5.78	0.08	0.24	3.61	0.80	3.74	0.06
	<i>E. anchoita</i>	0.02	1.14	0.03	0.05	0.00	0.21	1.20	0.23	0.52	0.01
	<i>H. clupeiola</i>	0.04	1.14	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>I. parvipinnis</i>	5.21	22.73	2.93	185.01	2.58	7.10	22.89	3.79	249.37	3.71
	<i>L. breviceps</i>	2.96	21.59	2.15	110.40	1.54	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>L. grossidens</i>	0.20	3.41	0.34	1.82	0.03	3.95	19.28	2.72	128.49	1.91
	<i>M. atricauda</i>	0.13	2.27	0.18	0.70	0.01	0.12	2.41	0.15	0.65	0.01
	<i>M. americanus</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12	1.20	0.42	0.65	0.01
	<i>M. furnieri</i>	0.11	1.14	0.03	0.16	0.00	3.33	3.61	0.92	15.37	0.23
	<i>M. curema</i>	0.07	1.14	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>P. brasiliensis</i>	3.18	22.73	2.76	134.94	1.88	10.87	53.01	8.93	1049.97	15.60
	<i>P. harroweri</i>	24.25	51.14	8.67	1683.38	23.44	23.95	49.40	8.12	1584.37	23.55
	<i>S. brasiliensis</i>	5.25	26.14	3.76	235.64	3.28	4.01	27.71	2.72	186.55	2.77
	<i>S. rastrifer</i>	41.21	43.18	28.38	3004.72	41.84	21.07	37.35	13.76	1300.85	19.33
	<i>T. lepturus</i>	0.78	6.82	2.97	25.62	0.36	1.06	14.46	3.81	70.47	1.05
Cephalopoda	<i>A. nodosa</i>	0.02	1.14	0.05	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>D. plei</i>	8.15	31.82	37.57	1454.82	20.26	8.19	33.73	35.83	1484.88	22.07
	<i>L. brevis</i>	3.81	34.09	4.61	287.09	4.00	8.46	28.92	9.69	524.81	7.80

Between the sexes, we observed that males preyed upon more prey species than the females ($M = 19$; $F = 16$) (Table 6), and demonstrated greater values for the two main preyed species, especially for *S. rastrifer* ($\cong \times 2.31$ for males). However, females presented higher relative importance values for some specific species, such as *L. brevis* ($\cong 1.83x$) and mainly for *P. brasiliensis* ($\cong \times 7.7$ for females).

229 **TABLE 7:** Percentages of Numerical Frequencies (*FN*), Occurance Frequencies (*FO*), Biomass (*W*) and Relative Imporance (*IRI*) for each taxa between
230 development stages (Weaned Calves, Juveniles and Adults).

	Taxa	Weaned Calves					Juveniles					Adults				
		<i>FN%</i>	<i>FO%</i>	<i>W%</i>	<i>IRI</i>	<i>IRI%</i>	<i>FN%</i>	<i>FO%</i>	<i>W%</i>	<i>IRI</i>	<i>IRI%</i>	<i>FN%</i>	<i>FO%</i>	<i>W%</i>	<i>IRI</i>	<i>IRI%</i>
Teleostei	<i>Anchoa sp.</i>	3.21	10.00	2.28	54.93	0.54	2.88	11.69	1.17	47.29	0.78	1.73	9.20	0.54	20.88	0.27
	<i>C. gracilicirrus</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.80	9.09	10.45	147.68	2.45	2.02	3.45	2.78	16.54	0.22
	<i>C. jamaicensis</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.31	5.19	1.24	8.05	0.13	0.35	2.30	1.07	3.25	0.04
	<i>E. anchoita</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.17	2.30	0.17	0.80	0.01
	<i>H. clupeola</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	1.15	0.00	0.05	0.00
	<i>I. parvipinnis</i>	2.84	30.00	3.15	179.56	1.76	3.36	15.58	2.13	85.55	1.42	7.96	27.59	3.86	325.86	4.26
	<i>L. breviceps</i>	1.89	10.00	2.71	45.96	0.45	5.38	23.38	4.39	228.59	3.79	2.23	18.39	1.39	66.71	0.87
	<i>L. grossidens</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.31	3.90	0.60	3.52	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>M. atricauda</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	1.30	0.10	0.22	0.00	0.17	3.45	0.20	1.29	0.02
	<i>M. americanus</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	1.30	0.58	0.93	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>M. furnieri</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.37	3.90	0.78	12.25	0.20	1.06	1.15	0.27	1.53	0.02
	<i>M. curema</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	1.15	0.00	0.08	0.00
	<i>P. brasiliensis</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.97	31.17	4.85	306.04	5.08	8.02	45.98	5.98	643.80	8.42
	<i>P. harroweri</i>	54.44	60.00	38.38	5569.31	54.63	23.53	51.95	9.46	1713.39	28.44	21.96	48.28	6.76	1386.25	18.14
	<i>S. brasiliensis</i>	1.13	20.00	1.60	54.76	0.54	4.87	27.27	3.93	239.91	3.98	4.96	26.44	3.06	212.23	2.78
	<i>S. rastrifer</i>	36.11	50.00	49.06	4258.05	41.77	34.67	32.47	26.86	1997.82	33.16	30.44	44.83	18.05	2173.29	28.44
	<i>T. lepturus</i>	0.38	10.00	2.83	32.05	0.31	1.03	11.69	4.39	63.30	1.05	0.93	10.34	3.04	41.11	0.54
Cephalopo	<i>A. nodosa</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	2.60	0.18	0.65	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	<i>D. pleii</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.91	29.87	20.28	722.51	11.99	11.68	39.08	46.38	2269.19	29.69
	<i>L. brevis</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	6.34	29.87	8.63	447.14	7.42	6.20	37.93	6.45	479.83	6.28

The weaned calves showed a greater dependence on a few species of teleost fish ($n = 7$), mainly *P. harroweri* and *S. rastrifer* (Table 7), differing from the adults and juveniles that presented more diverse feeding habits ($n = 17$), with different orders of importance, including cephalopod species. Juveniles showed lesser importance values for squid consumption, especially for *D. plei*, for which adults showed more than the triple of importance ($\cong 3.14x$). This consequently demonstrates a greater consumption of fish species by juveniles, as is the case for species such as *P. harroweri*, *L. breviceps*, and *C. gracilicirrhus*.

3.3.2. TEMPORAL FACTORS

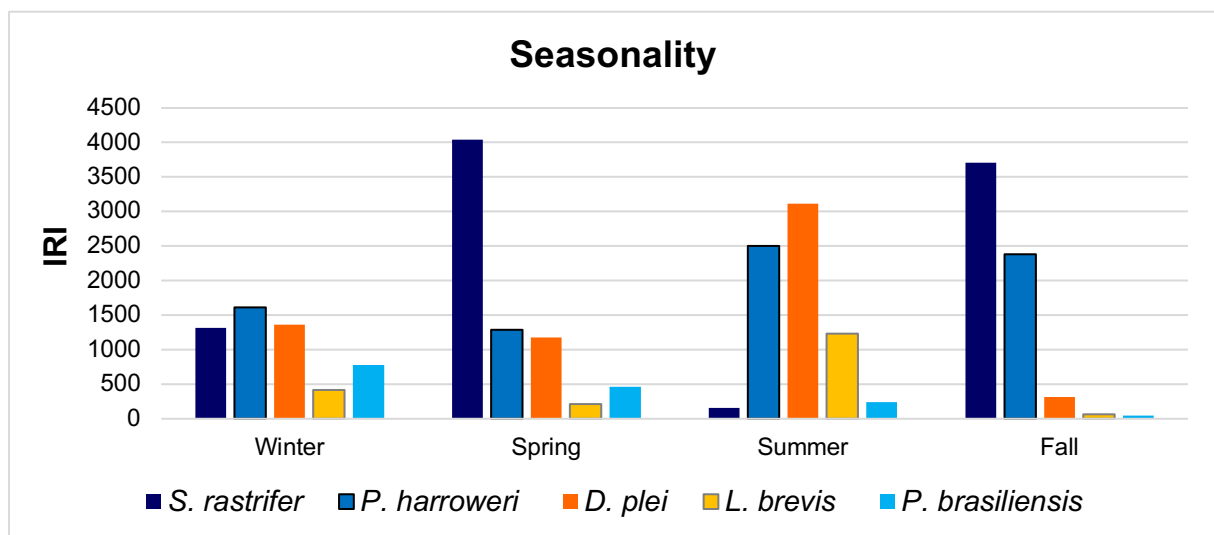


FIGURE 1: Index of Relative Importance (IRI) values of the five most important species over different seasons (winter, spring, summer and fall).

Based on the importance of the five main preyed species, we observed an apparent contrast between seasons. This may indicate alternating trends in the main prey species, which corroborates the thesis that *P. blainvillei* are generalist and opportunistic predators (Cremer et al., 2012; Campos et al. 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021). *S. rastrifer* has its peak of importance in the autumn and spring month (Figure 1). *P. harroweri* presented higher values in summer, with a gradual decrease in the following

months (Figure 1). And another well marked trend in different seasons was the higher rates of consumption of cephalopods in the summer (Figure 1).

As for possible trends in the importance between years (Figure 2) over preyed fish species, we found an annual alternation in the importance of *S. rastrifer* and *P. harroweri*, occurring from 2017 onwards, when *S. rastrifer* starts to reach higher levels IRI values (> 4000). It was also observed that from 2018 onwards, there was a certain stability in the consumption of *P. brasiliensis*, which could indicate a certain pattern of constancy in its predation. In relation to cephalopods, there was a notable drop in the consumption of *D. plei*, starting in 2018. In relation to *L. brevis*, fluctuations were observed within expectations.

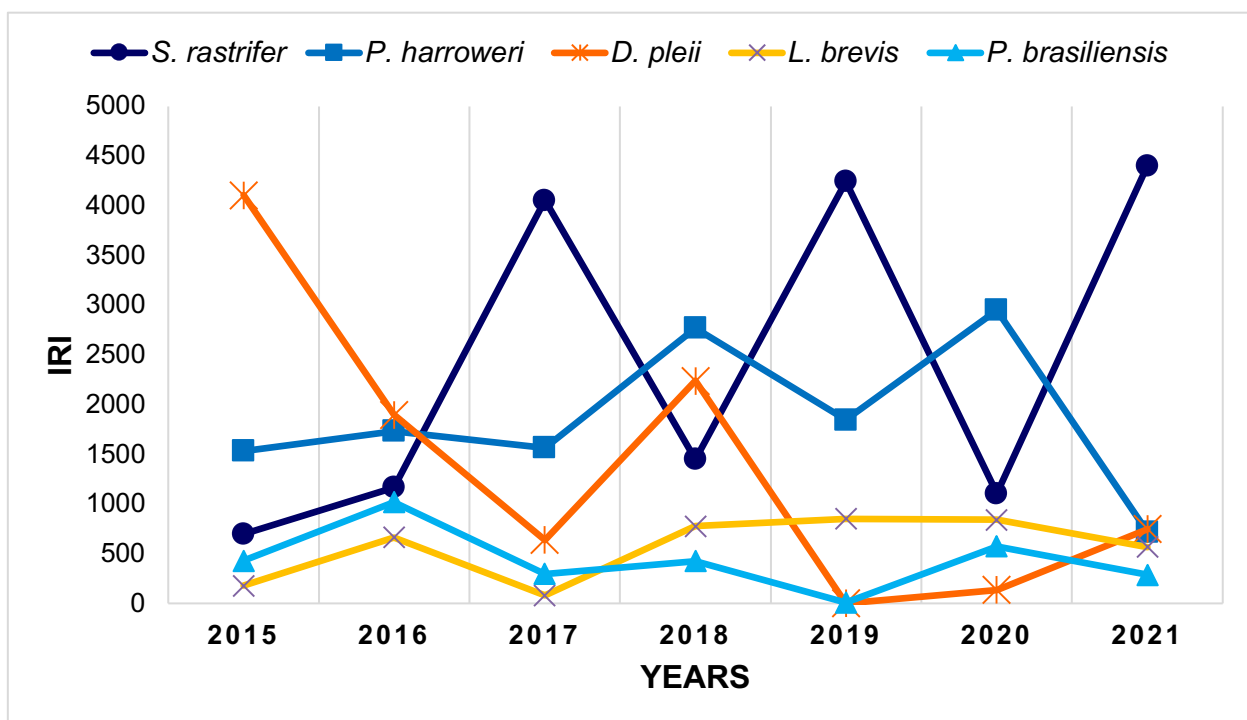


FIGURE 2: Index of Relative Importance (IRI) values of the five most important species over 7 different sampled years.

3.4. FEEDING VARIANCE

From the variance tests used, we found that there were no significant differences in the median importance values between the five most relevant prey species, for the different sexes ($p_{\text{sexes}} = 0.137$), developmental stages ($p_{\text{stages}} = 0.075$)

261 and seasons ($p_{\text{seasons}} = 0.070$). The differences between treatments were not large
 262 enough to exclude the possibility that they were due to random sampling variability.
 263 Therefore, we can state that the diet of *Pontoporia blainvillei* did not differ in terms of
 264 the importance of preyed upon prey according to sex, stage of development and
 265 seasonality.

266 However, when comparing the importance for the seven years sampled, we found that
 267 the differences in median values between species are greater than expected by
 268 chance, with a significant statistical difference ($p_{\text{years}} = 0.004$). In order to isolate the
 269 groups that differ from the others, we used the Tukey statistical test, a multiple paired

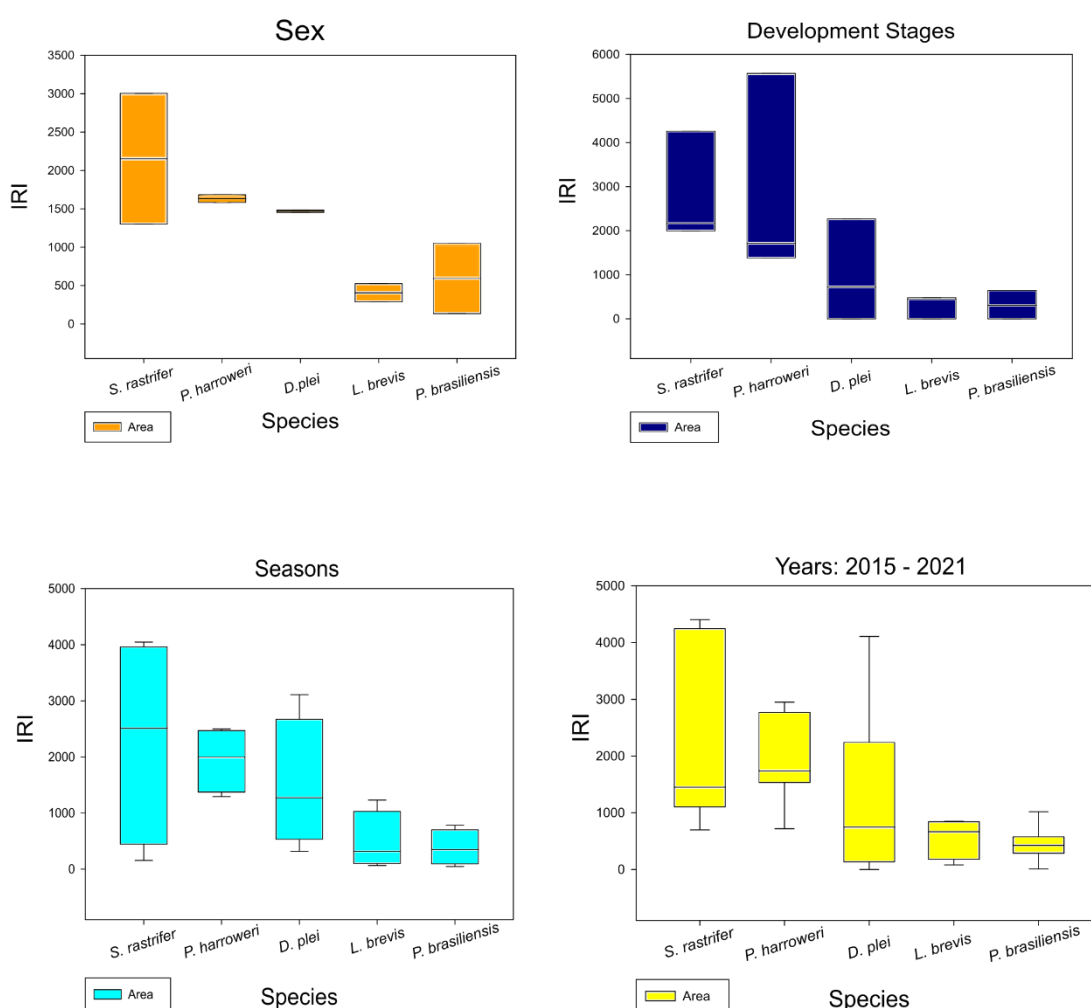


FIGURE 3: Boxplot graphs of the relative importance values (y-axis) from the five most important species (x-axis) for each structuring factor (sex, development stages, seasons and years).

comparison procedure, thus indicating significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the species “*P. brasiliensis* vs. *S. rastrifer*” and “*P. brasiliensis* vs. *P. harroweri*”. Therefore, this may be an indication of possible food preferences over the years among these three main species of teleost fish in the FMA IIb population.

4. DISCUSSION

The present study updates the information on franciscana's feeding habits in FMA IIb, identifies significant temporal differences on the importance of its preyed species and demonstrates the great potential for the usage data originating from both incidental captures and strandings in studies for marine mammals feeding ecology. This potential is expressed by the large n -samples of franciscanas collected ($n = 206$) and analyzed ($n = 174$), being the study with the largest n -samples for FMAs I and II (DiBeneditto & Ramos, 2001; Bittar & DiBeneditto, 2009; Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Rupil et al., 2019; Campos et al., 2020; DiBeneditto & Siciliano, 2021), which has also directly reflected in our analyzed number of food items ($n = 8058$). As already proven by Rodriguez et al. (2002) there are no differences in feeding depending on the origin of franciscana's collected individuals.

However, it is interesting to note the presence of a considerable number of franciscanas without any presence of food content ($n = 18$), we believe this occurred because they were mostly calves due to their short total length, and may not have had the chance to suckle and/or would have suffered from been split apart from their mothers, so they may have died due to starvation. It is also worth highlighting the need for further investigations into the weaning transition period for *P. blainvillei* calves in the region (FMA II), given the record of individuals with lengths close to those of

juveniles (82.9 cm), which only contained milk in the gastric tract, as of smaller calves (79 cm), which already had the presence of food items.

Comparing the composition of taxonomic groups identified within works the of Henning et al. (2018) and Campos et al. (2020), of which were also conducted throughout the state of São Paulo, our present results presented the smallest number of taxonomic groups recorded. We registered a total of 20 preyed taxa, while both studies by Henning et al. (2018) and Campos et al. (2020) recorded 29 taxa. Both previous works totaled 12 different taxonomic groups from those identified in our study (the same genera in these works were considered as equivalents). Henning et al. (2018) presented 4 more families than those observed in our study: Serranidae, Sparidae, Carangidae and Haemulidae. While Campos et al. (2020) presented other 3 families: Clupeidae, Paralichthyidae and Phycidae. However, the taxonomic groups of these families in their respective studies did not present significant frequencies or relative importance, which indicates an occasional consumption of these taxa without any great representation in *Pontoporia* sp.'s feeding (%FO 1.15; %FN 0.02). We also recorded for the first time, even if only occasionally (%FO 1.15; %FN 0.02), the predation of the Argonautidae family on FMAs I and II (DiBeneditto & Ramos, 2001; Bittar & DiBeneditto, 2009; Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Rupil et al., 2019; Campos et al., 2020; DiBeneditto & Siciliano, 2021). This species of octopus had only been previously recorded in the diet of franciscanas in studies further south in its distribution (Santos & Haimovici, 2001; Bassoi et al., 2021).

Regarding the relative importance of preyed taxa, both studies previously conducted in the state of São Paulo showed similarities regarding the main species and their order of importance. Henning et al. (2018) recorded the five most relevant

species being: 1. *P. harroweri*; 2. *D. plei*; 3. *P. brasiliensis*; 4. *I. parvipinnis*; and 5. *S. rastrifer*. While Campos et al. (2020), having divided their analysis of the main species into teleosts and cephalopods, recorded their most relevant taxa being: 1. *P. harroweri*; 2. *I. Parvipinnis* and 3. *Stellifer* sp.; 1. *D. plei* and 2. *L. brevis*. We also obtained a very similar order to that presented in both works. However, our results demonstrated that *S. rastrifer* was proven to be our most relevant species in our study area, which differs the from previous studies, especially that of Henning et al. (2018), who had also sampled at the same study area, and had recorded the species *P. harroweri* and *D. plei* in this most prominent position in the importance order. We can interpret this result as a possible indication of fluctuations in the availability of these prey species, which is similar to what was observed regarding the Importance Indices (IRI) of the species over the years studied. And it demonstrates the greater need to carry out studies that seek to investigate and evaluate the species' diet in the long term.

It is also interesting to note how the greater importance values of the main preyed species during different seasons seems to match their seasonal ecological patterns, e.g., *S. rastrifer* has its peak of importance in the autumn and spring months, which probably correspond to its period of recruitment and reproduction (Almeida & Branco, 2002; Souza & Chaves, 2007; Pina & Chaves, 2009; Pombo et al., 2012) (Figure 1). *P. harroweri* presented higher values on summer, probably due to the greater presence of copepods on the coast during this period, a planktonik group of great relevance for *P. harroweri* feeding (Vega-Pérez, 1993; Muto et al., 2008), as well as the high rate of reproductive activity that the species presents during the period (Souza & Chaves, 2007; Pina & Chaves, 2009). The higher importance of cephalopods during the summer (Figure 1), corroborates on Vaske-Júnior (2014) reports, of an increase in the abundance of the species *Lolliguncula brevis* in the coastal ecosystems from the

Baixada Santista region, during the summer months, even though it is a species that occurs throughout the year, this most likely happens due to the reproductive activity of the species during this period, as already recorded by Coelho et al. (2010), as it is also known that the occurrence of squid paralarvae from the Loliginidae family is related to the summer months on the coast of São Paulo (Postuma & Gasalla, 2010; Martins et al., 2014).

We observed a low difference in the richness of species preyed upon by males and females. This was reflected in the statistical differences between the importance of the main prey species, where we did not record them for both sexes, developmental stages and even seasonality. This differs from the results of Henning et al. (2018) who recorded sexual, ontogenetic and seasonal differences, and Campos et al. (2020) who also found significant differences regarding seasonality in the feeding habits. However, our study proposed to infer the variance of the importance values of the observed species, while other studies sought, through dissimilarity tests, to infer differences regarding the composition of the diet on these same factors. That said, our study was both the first to evaluate the diet of *P. blainvillei* based on an annual factor, and also the first to infer and record significant differences in the importance of preyed fish species over years, which may demonstrate some degree of preference or dependence between groups over time. This diverges from the thesis that *P. blainvillei* are essentially generalist and opportunistic predators (Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Campos et al., 2020; Bassoi et al., 2021). This could be a first clue for future studies to better investigate predator-prey relationships that populations of the species' exert on their local communities, regarding a possible degree of specialization, considering the accentuated consumption of species belonging to the Sciaenidae family. Being one of Sciaenidae's main characteristics, a sound-emitting swim bladder,

which may allow them to be located underwater, but is also believed to influence the incidental capture of these dolphins (Tellechea et al., 2017; Campos et al., 2020).

Pontoporia blainvillei presented piscivorous and teutophagous habits. Its target species are known to inhabit coastal and estuarine environments, and are known to have demersal, pelagic-demersal and pelagic lifestyle, which corroborates with feeding throughout the water column (Campos et al., 2020) and demonstrates the fundamental role of the species in influencing coastal communities. However, their prey, as they are species with coastal habits, are direct and indirect targets of fisheries, whether as primary targets, secondary targets, or as accidental capture. As for Campos et al. (2020), we observed that most fish species, especially the three most relevant (*S. rastrifer*, *P. harroweri* and *P. brasiliensis*) to franciscanas, do not have high commercial value, but are potential secondary fishing targets, used as a byproduct because they are accidentally caught in shrimp trawling (Coelho et al., 2002; Fischer et al., 2011; Santos et al., 2016; Campos et al. 2020). This demonstrates how fisheries are direct and indirect competitors for marine resources, showing an overlap with the feeding behavior of franciscana dolphins, and leading to high bycatch rates that threaten the species' (Campos, 2020).

Admitting that diet description studies based on stomach content analysis methodology have biases, whether in obtaining samples due to the different digestion time rates for different feeding items present, secondary contamination, or because they are the last instant feeding representations (Fitch & Brownell, 1968; Clarke, 1996; Bisi et al., 2012; Campos et al., 2020), and even due to information loss provided by ecological indices, such as the relative importance index (Brown et al., 2012 ; Cunha & Cunha, 2016). This is still valid methodology for determining the feeding habits of coastal cetacean populations, presenting good consistency when compared to

molecular methodologies, regarding the composition of prey species and their relative quantities (Dunshea et al., 2013). Becoming essential to understanding the ecological role of cryptic species and the influence they exert on communities. Above all, in the study of threatened predators, helping to aim and design better environmental governance guidelines in favor of their conservation and the maintenance of their ecosystemic services.

Therefore, understanding the ecological impacts of small cetaceans is important, from a perspective of the increasing decline of species, threatened mainly due to bycatch (Brownell et al., 2019; Kiszka et al. 2022). And given the variety of coastal species preyed upon by *P. blainvillei*, throughout its area of occurrence (Rodríguez et al., 2002; Bittar & Di Benedetto 2009; Cremer et al., 2012; Henning et al., 2018; Bassoi et al., 2021). And in order to better comprehend its ecological role and realized niche of the franciscana dolphin in its entirety, there is need for more studies aiming the analysis of the feeding ecology of the species throughout its distribution, especially through its northern portion.

Finally, we believe that the main contribution of our study to the conservation of the smallest and most threatened cetacean in the Western Atlantic was in updating the description of the FMA IIb population feeding habits, and demonstrating that the importance of fish species consumed by *Pontoporia blainvillei* is affected by time, presenting a significant variation between years, which could be an indicative of fluctuations in the availability of these prey species and a clue to some degree of preference or dependence. This information is relevant for addressing regulatory measures on fisheries and for better designing further management plans for the species. In order to better understand the relationship between local fisheries and their real impact on prey communities. And so, we open the way for future studies that shall

417 delve deeper into the ecology and behavior of the species and so that responsible
418 managers can now better establish guidelines for the conservation of the species.

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651 **SUPPLEMENTARY**

652 **SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE 1:** Regression equations “food item length-length” and “food item length-weight” of prey species present in the literature

Taxa	Equations - Length	Equations - Weight	References
<i>Anchoa sp.</i>	$SL=1,831 \times OL + 1,297$	$W=0,244 \times OL^{2,527}$	Lopes et al., 2012
<i>C. gracilicirrus</i>	$TL= 3,286 + 0,877 \times \ln(OL)$	$W=1,636 + 0,785 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>C. jamaicensis</i>	$TL= 3,738 + 0,660 \times \ln(OL)$	$W=-0,53 + 2,135 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>E. anchoita</i>	$SL= (32,803 \times OL^{1,088})/10$	$W= 0,1748 \times OL^{3,4088}$	Bassoi, 2005
<i>H. clupeola</i>	-	-	-
<i>I. parvipinnis</i>	$TL= 3,642 + 1,045 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -0,853 + 3,433 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>L. breviceps</i>	$TL= 3,383 + 1,073 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -1,256 + 3,553 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>L. grossidens</i>	$TL= (2,549 \times OL)+ 1,646$	$W= 0,344 \times OL^{3,108}$	Di Benedetto, 2001
<i>M. atricauda</i>	$CP=0,924 \times CO^{1,2447}$	$P= 0,0158 \times CP^{2,9913}$	Di Benedetto & Lima, 2003
<i>M. americanus</i>	$TL= 3,665 + 1,223 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -0,791 + 3,78 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>M. furnieri</i>	$TL= 3,986 + 0,667 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= 0,157 + 2,207 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>M. curema</i>	$SL= 0,6505 \times OL^{1,69}$	$W= 0,00412 \times OL^{5,16}$	Lopes et al., 2012
<i>P. brasiliensis</i>	$TL= 3,556 + 1,191 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -1,551 + 3,979 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>P. harroweri</i>	$TL= 4,029 + 0,608 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= 0,552 + 1,842 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>S. brasiliensis</i>	$TL= 3,568 + 1,213 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -0,746 + 3,719 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>S. rastrifer</i>	$TL= 3,730 + 1,127 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= -0,292 + 3,555 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>T. lepturus</i>	$TL= 5,193 + 0,898 \times \ln(OL)$	$W= 0,627 + 2,952 \times \ln(OL)$	Henning et al., 2018
<i>A. nodosa</i>	$ML= (4,9237 \times UHL^{1,2933})/10$ $ML= (9,5338 \times LHL^{1,2314})/10$	$W= 0,0377 \times UHL^{3,4949}$ $W= 0,2593 \times LHL^{3,1856}$	Santos, 1999
<i>D. plei</i>	$ML= (67,431 \times URL^{1,2908})/10$ $ML= (64,303 \times LRL^{1,3143})/10$	$W= 8,8096 \times URL^{2,8564}$ $W= 7,9418 \times LRL^{2,908}$	Santos, 1999
<i>L. brevis</i>	$ML= (41,3751 \times URL + 3,3180)/10$ $ML= (42,8967 \times LRL + 1,8382)/10$	$W= 6,0749 \times URL^{2,4677}$ $W= 5,9731 \times LRL^{2,5789}$	Campos et al., 2020 /CEPSUL

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$t(177) = 3.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.95]$

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Policy for Papers Based on Samples Obtained Lethally

- Researchers should use alternative non-lethal procedures when they are available and satisfy the objectives of the research.
- Animals should be killed in the most humane and rapid method available.
- Any population or stock-scale impacts should be minimized through prudent selection of animals (e.g. avoidance of reproductive females if possible) and sample size.
- Where possible on-going activities outside the research community (e.g., hunting, bycatches, whaling, strandings) should be utilized as a source of material for scientific studies of marine mammals.

The journal's current policy is to allow publication of papers that include data from lethal sampling as long as the sampling has been done legally in the country from which the samples were obtained. If research is conducted outside of territorial waters, legal documentation requirements fall to the principal investigator's country of residence and the sampling must have been done legally for that country. Samples obtained from directed lethal take exclusively for the purposes of scientific research may be used only if the sampling is legal in the researchers' home/host countries and the appropriate permits have been received.

Policy Regarding Plagiarism and Self-Plagiarism

Marine Mammal Science believes that repeating text (full sentences or paragraphs) verbatim or nearly verbatim from previously published papers without giving proper attribution is not acceptable, whether the paper from which the text has been taken was by another author (plagiarism) or the same author (self-plagiarism). When such an issue is raised by a reviewer or Editor for a paper, and it is for plagiarism, the paper will likely be rejected without the ability for resubmission, although cases deemed minor may be given the opportunity to be remedied. Major cases may also be brought to the attention of the author's institution. If it is for self-plagiarism, the nature and extent of the overlap in text will be examined through software that cross references published material, and a determination of the course of action that should be taken will be made by the Editor in consultation with Wiley publication ethics advisors. It is recognized that methodology often follows previously developed methods, and thus descriptions may be the same or similar. This is fine but be sure you acknowledge the source of previously published methodology. If it is large amounts of text verbatim use quotation marks along with the source, but if it is paraphrased, providing the source is sufficient. A first case of self-plagiarism being considered for an individual author will likely not result in a rejection or retraction, but the author will be notified in writing and be required to revise the paper appropriately. The author will be cautioned that a second offense would likely result in rejection/retraction of the paper and future submissions by the author would be checked by the cross-referencing software before being considered. Please see the following for discussions of self-plagiarism:

<http://www.ithenticate.com/plagiarism-detection-blog/bid/65061/What-Is-Self-Plagiarism-and-How-to-Avoid-It#.WL1TsoWcGwc>

<https://ori.hhs.gov/avoiding-plagiarism-self-plagiarism-and-other-questionable-writing-practices-guide-ethical-writing>

PARECER FINAL DO TRABALHO DE CONCLUSÃO DE CURSO

Discente: GABRIEL MENDONÇA GRELLET

Título: "Análise temporal da dieta de franciscana, *Pontoporia blainvillei* na FMA IIb, sudeste do Brasil."

Orientador: Profa. Dra. Carolina Pacheco Bertozzi

Curso/Habilitação: Bacharelado em Ciências Biológicas/Biologia Marinha

COMISSÃO EXAMINADORA	CONCEITO
Profa. Dra. Carolina Pacheco Bertozzi	APROVADO.
Dr. Renan Lopes Paitach	APROVADO.

PARECER:

TRABALHO DE ÓTIMA QUALIDADE, COM AJUSTES NECESSÁRIOS DE FORMATAÇÃO.

CONCEITO FINAL:

A Comissão Examinadora abaixo assinada conclui que o discente **Gabriel Mendonça Grellet** obteve o seguinte conceito:

☒ APROVADO

☐ REPROVADO

São Vicente, 07 de dezembro de 2023.

Carolina P. Bertozzi
Profa. Dra. Carolina Pacheco Bertozzi

P/ *Carolina P. Bertozzi*
Dr. Renan Lopes Paitach