

1 Triple stable isotope analysis to estimate the diet of the Velvet 2 Scoter (*Melanitta fusca*) in the Baltic Sea

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10 Abstract

11 This study presents a quantification of the contributions of different food sources in the winter diet
12 of the Velvet Scoter (*Melanitta fusca*) in the coastal waters of the Lithuanian Baltic Sea using non-
13 lethal avian sampling. We highlight the application of stable sulphur isotope ratios as complementary
14 to stable carbon and nitrogen isotope analysis in order to discriminate sandy bottom macrozoobenthos
15 organisms as potential food sources for the Velvet Scoter. Selection of the most relevant trophic
16 enrichment factors and Monte Carlo simulations in order to choose the best fitted model were provided.
17 A stable isotope mixing model revealed the main contributions of a group of bivalves, *Mya arenaria*
18 and *Cerastoderma glaucum*, to be 46-54%, and while *Saduria entomon* crustacean composed one third
19 of its diet, other food sources were responsible for the remaining contributions.

20 Introduction

21 Many studies have revealed relationships between the distribution of wintering marine ducks and
22 macrozoobenthos communities (Kube, 1996; Loring et al., 2013; Žydelis et al., 2009). Anthropogenic
23 activities such as the commercial harvesting of benthic organisms, trawling, development of wind
24 parks, introduction of new species, eutrophication, and climate change might have negative
25 consequences on the composition and productivity of benthic communities. Alterations in the
26 availability of feeding resources or the extent of feeding habitat degradation are mentioned as
27 important issues contributing substantially to the decline in the number of wintering ducks in the Baltic
28 Sea (Skov et al., 2011). However, they have not been directly reported for the Velvet Scoter (*Melanitta*

29 *fusca*), although regular observations of the winter diet composition and foraging grounds of this
30 species might be important for an analysis of declines and conservation management.

31 The Velvet Scoter has the status of a vulnerable species in the entire distribution range (BirdLife
32 International, 2016). In the Baltic Sea, the total number of its wintering population was reported as
33 having decreased by 60% over the last two decades (Skov et al., 2011). The decline of wintering
34 individuals by 80% (from 40,000 to 8,000 individuals) could be stated too, according to mid-winter
35 surveys in the Lithuanian coastal zone of the south-eastern Baltic Sea (Švažas, 2001; Šniaukšta, 2012,
36 2014, 2015, 2016), while numerous duck concentrations are present offshore at a depth up to 35 meters
37 (Daunys et al., 2015). However, a lack of studies, including trophic ecology research, limits an analysis
38 on the main changes in the number of wintering Velvet Scoters.

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39 Outside its breeding period, the Velvet Scoter mainly feed upon marine bivalve molluscs that live
40 on the surface or within the upper sandy substrates less than 20 m deep. Crustaceans, including isopods
41 and amphipods, annelids, echinoderms and fish had been also found in the oesophagus contents
42 (Žydelis, 2002; Fox, 2003). Since a single species often dominates the scoter's diet, the dominant food
43 items depend on local sufficient quantity and the availability of certain benthic organisms that are
44 enough to fulfil the nutritional needs of ducks. Regarding the diving depth, it is assumed that scoters
45 feed in shallow areas, which is consistent with the highest amount of available suitable prey biomass.
46 Moreover, scoter flocks fly daily among coastal areas in order to monitor the possibilities of the best
47 feeding habitats. Because research based on direct observations are very limited in a marine
48 environment, the ducks' dietary studies have been mostly based on the gut content analysis of bycaught
49 specimens (Duffy and Jackson, 1986; Fox, 2003; Barrett et al., 2007).

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50 The decreased numbers of wintering populations have led to lower number of bycaught birds
51 available for the dietary studies. Moreover, rough fishery regulations, and a protection status targeted
52 towards a zero bycatch mortality led to an unwillingness of fisherman to deliver specimens they have
53 caught for scientific studies. This has resulted in a search for alternative non-lethal methods to
54 investigate the feeding habits of marine birds. Stable isotope analysis (SIA) of blood samples from
55 living birds has opened up opportunities for non-lethal dietary studies, which is important for the
56 protection of threatened species and ethical reasons (e.g. Jardine et al., 2003; Cherel et al., 2008;
57 Morkūnė et al., 2016). The stable isotope (SI) approach has been widely applied to estimate energy
58 flows and food web interactions. However, this method has been particularly powerful when isotopic
59 patterns ('isoscapes') in a study ecosystem are known and the appropriate food sources differ
60 isotopically among each other (Phillips et al., 2005). In the Baltic Sea, with present riverine discharge
61 and nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria blooms, the isotopic differentiation between carbon ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$)

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64 and nitrogen ($^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) isotopes might be complicated, due to highly variable SI values in the
65 primary organic matter sources (Rolff and Elmgren, 2000; Antonio et al., 2012; Lesutienė et al., 2014).
66 However, our previous study on the application of additional sulphur ($^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$, $\delta^{34}\text{S}$) isotope analysis
67 in the Baltic Sea (Morkūnė et al., 2016) revealed a possibility to distinguish food sources that were
68 either derived from benthic production influenced by sulphur reduction, or pelagic well-oxygenated
69 water layers (Connolly et al., 2004; Croisetiere et al., 2009, Fry and Chumchal, 2011).

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70 This study aims to quantify the contributions of different food sources in the winter diet of the
71 Velvet Scoter based on triple SIA in blood samples in the Baltic Sea. It highlights the application of
72 $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ as complementary to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios to discriminate sandy bottom macrozoobenthos
73 organisms as potential food sources for the Velvet Scoter. The gut content analysis of Velvet Scoters
74 that have been caught was used to verify the SI mixing model results and complement SI mixing
75 models by prior diet information.

76 **Methods**

77 **Study site**

78 The study site is located in the Lithuanian coastal zone of the south-eastern Baltic Sea. It is an
79 open coastal area with dominant sandy benthic habitats which serve as important wintering grounds
80 for Western Palearctic concentrations of the Velvet Scoter. Due to the permanent sand transfer, wave
81 and current actions, as well as the absence of macrophytes and boulders, the benthic species biomass
82 in the shallow mobile sand habitat to ~6 m depth is low and dominated by burrowing infaunal
83 (*polychaetes*, *bivalves* *Macoma balthica*) and actively swimming nectobenthic common shrimps
84 (*Crangon crangon*). The deeper (up to 30 meters in depth) benthic community is mostly represented
85 by *M. balthica*, *Mya arenaria*, *Cerastoderma glaucum*, polychaetes, and nectobenthic isopods
86 (*Saduria entomon*) (Olenin and Daunys, 2004).

87 **Collection of the ducks caught and gut content analysis**

88 The diet composition was estimated for 71 Velvet Scoters. These birds drowned in gillnets during
89 regular fishery activities throughout March and November of 2012 and from November 2015 to April
90 2016 at depths ranging from 2 to 22 meters above the sandy habitat (Fig. 1). The carcasses were
91 collected from coastal fishermen. In a laboratory, the contents of their esophagi and gizzards were
92 treated by sorting material, along with the identification of each prey object. A majority of the collected
93 birds contained some pebbles, which were not considered to be prey items and were excluded from
94 further calculations. The diet composition was assessed according to the total wet weight of prey in

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97 grams and the proportion of the total wet weight (%), including mollusc shells. The ash-free dry weight
98 (AFDW) of the prey in grams and % represented a measurement of the weight of organic material and
99 was calculated according to Rumohr et al. (1987) and Timberg et al. (2001). The frequency of the
100 occurrence of the various prey items found in their guts was expressed in numbers of duck specimens
101 and as a proportion (%) of the total number used for the diet analysis.

102 **Sample collection for stable isotope analysis and measurements**

103 Wintering velvet scoters were captured using the night lighting technique (Whitworth et al., 1997)
104 from November 2012 to February 2013 at a depth range 5-15 m in the Lithuanian coastal zone (Fig.
105 1). Permits to capture, use and release birds were obtained from the Environmental Protection Agency
106 of Lithuania (No 7, 2012, and No 1, 2013). Blood (0.5–1 ml) was obtained from the medial metatarsal
107 vein of live birds (Arora, 2010). The blood samples were stored frozen at -20°C in cryogenic vials.
108 Whole blood samples were freeze-dried for 48 hours, weighed, and placed in tin capsules (0.5–0.7 mg
109 for carbon and nitrogen, 1.7–2.0 mg for sulphur) for SIA.

110 Macrozoobenthic organisms were collected for SIA in two foraging areas important for velvet
111 scoters in December 2012 (Fig. 1). A Van Veen sampler was used to collect macrozoobenthos
112 (bivalves, polychaetes) in the coastal sandy bottom area at a depth range from 10 to 15 m. However,
113 as crustaceans *S. entomon* were not found in the samplers, they were collected from a scientific bottom
114 trawl on the sandy Klaipeda-Ventspils Plateau at a depth of 35 m in the northern part of the study site.
115 Information about the distribution and biomass of *S. entomon* is not extensive for the Lithuanian
116 coastal zone because the species prefers deeper habitats in the Baltic Sea. However, it is known that
117 after disruption of the thermocline during the second part of winter, *S. entomon* come to the coastal
118 areas (Bacevičius, 2013) and become available for coastal predators such as benthivorous ducks and
119 fishes (based on preliminary stomach analysis; Žydelis, 2002; Šiaulys et al., 2012), including the area
120 where birds were caught for this study. Moreover, the area where *S. entomon* were sampled, has been
121 designated as an important marine area for marine birds, particularly due to their stable numerous
122 concentrations during winter time (Daunys et al, 2015). As we assume that *S. entomon* must be
123 available prey on the coastal zone at least at the second part of winter, and that Velvet Scoters could
124 move between main coastal areas and deeper sandy Klaipeda-Ventspils Plateau, the *S. entomon*
125 sampling site were representative for this study.

126 The entire bodies of polychaetes, muscle tissue of crustaceans, and soft tissues of bivalves were
127 taken for the analysis. The sampled material was dried at 60°C for 48 hours and then was stored frozen

128 until analysis. Unfrozen samples were ground into a fine powder in an agate mortar, weighed and
129 placed into tin capsules (0.5-0.7 mg for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analysis and 1.1-2.3 mg for $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ analysis).

130 Isotope-ratio analysis involved precise measurement by mass spectrometry of the less abundant
131 heavy isotope relative to the more abundant light isotope ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$, and $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$) of the carbon
132 dioxide (CO_2), nitrogen gas (N_2), or sulphur dioxide gas (SO_2) generated from the combustion of the
133 sample material. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios in the samples were determined using a Thermo Scientific
134 Delta V Advantage mass spectrometer coupled to a Flash EA 1112 elemental analyser at the State
135 Research Institute Center for Physical Sciences and Technology, Lithuania. The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values were
136 determined using a SerCon elemental analyser and custom cryofocusing system interfaced to a SerCon
137 20-22 IRMS (Sercon Ltd., Cheshire, UK) at the Stable Isotope Facility, University of California, USA.

138 The results of the isotopic ratios were compared to conventional standards, i.e., Vienna Peedee
139 Belemnite (VPDB), for carbon, atmospheric N_2 for nitrogen, and Vienna Canyon Diablo troilite
140 (VCDT) for sulphur, defined as δ values: $\delta X = [(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$ (‰), where $X = ^{13}\text{C}$, ^{15}N or
141 ^{34}S , and $R = ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ or $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$. For calibration of the CO_2 and N_2 reference gases, the
142 international standards from the International Atomic Energy Agency (Vienna) were used: IAEA-600
143 (Caffeine, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -27.771 \pm 0.043\text{‰}_{\text{VPDB}}$) and NBS-22 (Oil $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -30.031 \pm 0.043\text{‰}_{\text{VPDB}}$) were used
144 for ^{13}C and IAEA-600 (Caffeine, $\delta^{15}\text{N} = 1 \pm 0.2\text{‰}_{\text{air N}_2}$) for ^{15}N . Repeated analyses of the homogeneous
145 material yielded standard deviations of less than 0.08‰ for carbon and 0.2‰ for nitrogen. For
146 calibration of the SO_2 reference gases, three laboratory standards were calibrated directly against
147 IAEA-S-1 (Silver Sulphide, $\delta^{34}\text{S} = -0.30\text{‰}_{\text{VCDT}}$), IAEA-S-2 (Silver Sulphide, $\delta^{34}\text{S} = 22.7 \pm 0.2\text{‰}_{\text{VCDT}}$),
148 and IAEA-S-3 (Silver Sulphide, $\delta^{34}\text{S} = -32.3 \pm 0.2\text{‰}_{\text{VCDT}}$) were used. Repeated analysis of the three
149 laboratory standards yielded standard deviations of less than 0.3‰. The long-term reproducibility of
150 $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ measurements is $\pm 0.4\text{‰}$.

151 Lipid removal in the benthic samples was not performed in order to keep the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
152 unaffected by treatment (Post et al., 2007). The C:N ratios in the majority of the benthos samples were
153 higher than the recommended limit for aquatic organisms (C:N > 3.5), at which a lipid correction should
154 be performed (Table 1). Therefore, we corrected their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values using an arithmetic lipid
155 normalization equation proposed by Post et al. (2007): $\delta^{13}\text{C} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{untreated}} - 3.32 + 0.99 \times \text{C:N}$. Lipid
156 correction for bird blood was not applied (Cherel et al., 2005).

157 **Analysis of stable isotope ratios**

158 The SPSS statistical software (SPSS/7.0) and R software (R Core Team, 2013) were used for the
159 calculations and presentations of the results.

160 The food sources were defined when a significantly different isotopic composition of at least one
161 isotope existed. The differences of SI ratios among species were compared using a multivariate
162 analysis of variance (MANOVA). Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test was used to
163 detect significantly different means. Levene's test was used to test the homogeneity of variances.

164 **Selection of trophic enrichment factors**

165 Different sets of trophic enrichment factors (TEFs) for carbon and nitrogen were used in a number
166 of SI models (Table 2). For the Model0, carbon TEF was calculated for each food source individually
167 by applying a function of $-0.199 \times \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{source}} - 3.986$ as suggested by Caut et al. (2009); the values
168 ranged from -0.2 to 0.4‰ for individual species and/or combined sources. The standard error for the
169 carbon TEF of the combined sources was determined by first-order error propagation of uncertainties
170 (Annex 1). The nitrogen TEF for bird blood was set at $2.25 \pm 0.20\%$ (Caut et al., 2009). However,
171 these TEF values come from the study of Caut et al. (2009), who suggested the method to adjust isotope
172 discrimination values for different consumer groups and their tissues according to the isotope
173 composition of diet sources. As this method was criticized by Perga and Grey (2010) due to an
174 inapplicable use of a variable TEF without specific knowledge of the predator-prey fractionation
175 dynamics, we applied more sets of TEFs (Table 2) to provide their effects to model the final outcomes.
176 In ModelA and ModelB, TEFs of carbon and nitrogen were used in order to prove the selection of the
177 TEF values for Model0. In ModelC, we applied the TEF values obtained from Caut et al. (2009), but
178 used averaged single values (Table 2).

179 The mean reported trophic shift for sulphur ($0.5 \pm 0.56\%$) is not significantly different from zero
180 (Peterson and Fry, 1987; McCutchan et al., 2003). Thus, we did not apply any TEF for sulphur in any
181 of the SI models of this study.

182 **A Monte Carlo simulation of mixing polygons**

183 A Monte Carlo simulation of mixing polygons (Smith et al., 2013) was used to apply the point-in-
184 polygon assumption to the models. Convex hulls (*mixing polygons*) were iterated using the
185 distributions of the dietary sources (Fig. 2) and different sets of TEFs (Table 2), and the probabilities
186 for consumers being in the mixing polygons were calculated. It provided a quantitative basis for
187 consumer exclusion (those outside the 95% mixing region) or model rejection/validation.

188 In Model0, one individual Velvet Scoter was excluded from further analysis (Fig. 3A-F).
189 Regarding the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values, that individual had higher $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values which were outside the 95% mixing
190 region of the food sources. Consequently, the Bayesian mixing models were only calculated for the
191 seven Velvet Scoters that were determined to be within the 95% mixing region of the sources by three

192 analysed isotopes. As the TEF for carbon in ModelC differed only slightly from the one in Model0,
193 the fitness of both models to the mixing polygons were very similar. Thus, further Bayesian mixing
194 modelling for ModelC were used for the seven Velvet Scoters (see mixing polygons at Annex 4).

195 In ModelA and ModelB, relatively high TEFs effected the extents of mixing polygons which did
196 not validate these models. A majority of consumers were characterized with very low probabilities to
197 occur within the mixing polygons (Annex 2 and 3). Thus, we rejected these models as unsuitable for
198 diet estimation for the Velvet Scoters with the current food sources available within the Lithuanian
199 coastal zone.

200 **Stable isotope mixing models**

201 Models, which were validated by Monte Carlo simulations of mixing polygons (i.e. Model0 and
202 ModelC), were used for mixing modelling in the package SIAR (Stable Isotope Analysis in R; Parnell
203 et al., 2010). The triple $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ & $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ & $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were applied to estimate multiple food source
204 contributions to the diet. Additionally, we used three different information sets for mixing models: A)
205 no prior data, prey proportions based on both B) ash free dry weight and C) wet weight as prior data
206 from gut content analysis. The mean percentage with standard deviation (SD) and the 95% credibility
207 interval (CI₉₅) were the outputs of the isotopic mixing models.

208 **Results**

209 **Diet composition by gut content analysis**

210 Individuals that had been caught with at least some food remains in their esophagi and gizzards
211 accounted for 94 % of all the individuals analysed. Five species of soft bottom molluscs, two species
212 of crustaceans, and benthic fish species were identified in the guts (Table 3). Regarding the wet weights
213 of prey items, soft bottom molluscs dominated in the diet. *C. glaucum* bivalves dominated among the
214 identified molluscs by wet weight, while the estimation of AFDW revealed that all three bivalve
215 species were equally important in the diet. *S. entomon* were identified as important prey objects by
216 estimations of both wet weight and AFDW. Fish only accounted for a negligible portion of the prey
217 items found in the gut content (Table 3). Regarding the frequency of occurrence, *C. glaucum* was the
218 most frequent item, while half of the ducks also had other bivalves in their guts. *S. entomon* was
219 consumed by the one third of ducks analysed.

220 **Stable isotope ratios of Velvet Scoters and their food sources**

221 The SI ratios found within the blood samples of the eight Velvet Scoter individuals ranged by 0.4,
222 1.7 and 3.9‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$, accordingly (Table 4). There were six main taxa of sandy bottom

223 macrozoobenthos which significantly differed in isotopic composition (MANOVA, $F_{15, 86}=107.6$,
224 $p<0.05$; Fig. 2; Table 1). Regarding the similar values of three SI bivalves, *C. glaucum*, and *M.*
225 *arenaria* were pooled into one homogeneous group (HSD, $p>0.05$). The polychaetes and *M. balthica*
226 had similar $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values (HSD, $p>0.05$), but might still be separated by $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (HSD, $p<0.001$).
227 The *C. crangon* and *S. entomon* crustaceans differed significantly between each other by $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
228 (HSD, $p<0.05$).

229 According to the defined SI values for the homogeneous groups, five benthic food sources could
230 be distinguished: 1) *S. entomon*, 2) *C. crangon*, 3) *M. balthica*, 4) *M. arenaria* and *C. glaucum*, 5)
231 polychaetes. These groups could be included as separate end-points into the mixing model.

232 **Mixing model results**

233 The mixing models were run for Model0 (further description in the text and Table 5) and ModelC
234 (Annex 5; not described due to similarities to Table 5). They revealed that the main food sources for
235 Velvet Scoters derived from the *M. arenaria* and *C. glaucum* group of bivalves, which contributed to
236 46 to 52% of the diet (Table 5; Fig. 4; Fig. 5). The proportions of other food sources varied due to the
237 different application of prior information into the mixing models. The prior information enhanced the
238 importance of the *S. entomon* and *M. balthica*, and decreased the proportions of the *C. crangon* and
239 polychaetes in the diet estimations. Moreover, regarding the standard deviations and CI_{95} , prior
240 information allowed slightly more accurate diet estimations.

241 In comparing the results of the models, which were based on different prior information (Table 5),
242 it is clear that application of AFDW decreased the importance of the *S. entomon* to the diet of Velvet
243 Scoters.

244 **Discussion**

245 **Approaches of triple stable isotope measurements and gut content analysis for winter diet** 246 **estimation for the Velvet Scoter**

247 In this study, triple SI measurements and gut content analysis provided relevant estimations on the
248 Velvet Scoter's diet in the wintering grounds of the Lithuanian Baltic Sea coastal zone. However, as
249 the applied methods have specific limitations and require some assumptions, diet estimations might
250 differ. Velvet Scoters, as other marine ducks, are mobile consumers and even in winter, when their
251 forage is mainly available in the marine environment, they move large distances within shifts of
252 hydrological conditions (Cherel et al., 2008). As the tissues of newly arrived individuals might be
253 isotopically acquired in previous feeding habitats (Phillips and Gregg, 2001), the SIA results should

254 be interpreted with the assumption that the tissues analysed have reached an isotopic equilibrium
255 before sampling at any particular wintering site. The isotopic half-life of the bird blood was estimated
256 being approximately two weeks, while complete equilibrium could take longer (Vander Zanden et al.,
257 2015). Therefore, in this study, we checked the isotopic equilibrium in the blood of Velvet Scoters,
258 according to SI ratios in food sources and different sets of TEFs (Fig. 3; according to Smith et al.,
259 2013).

260 The selection of the most suitable TEFs for this particular study was a very important conjecture.
261 It is known that TEFs may vary depending on a consumer's type, its nutritional status, diet quality,
262 size, age, dietary ontogeny, tissue, elemental composition, and the isotopic value of their diet objects
263 (e.g. McCutchan et al., 2003). We used a method by Caut et al. (2009) to calculate TEFs for carbon
264 and nitrogen from the SI ratios of food sources, depending on the consumer classes and types of tissue.
265 As this method was found to be contradictory (Perga and Grey, 2010), we also showed the effects of
266 different sets of TEFs to final estimations about the winter diet for Velvet Scoters. The Model0 used
267 TEFs from Caut et al. (2009) (i.e. varied TEFs for carbon according SI values of the selected food
268 sources; Table 2). Model A and B included higher TEFs than Model0, but they were relevant for
269 marine ducks (McCutchan et al., 2003; Hobson et al., 2009; Federer et al., 2010). ModelC was run
270 with mean TEFs for carbon, which came from Caut et al. (2009) calculations. According the Monte
271 Carlo simulations as a priori evaluation of mixing models, we omitted ModelA and ModelB as
272 unsuitable for an estimation of the diet of the Velvet Scoter during the wintering period (Smith et al.,
273 2013). In the cases of Model0 and Model C, one of eight duck individuals was eliminated from the
274 further diet analysis due to possible non-equilibrium $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ratios to local food sources of the Lithuanian
275 coastal ecosystem. We also applied external information about gut content compositions which were
276 collected during this study using ducks that had been caught by fishermen. As their gut contents were
277 assessed according to the proportions of the wet weights and AFDW of the prey items, we used both
278 these estimations as prior information for the SI mixing models. Moreover, even some potential preys
279 were not found in their guts during this study (e.g. polychaetes), but their importance to marine ducks
280 was documented previously, they were still used as potential prey items in our SI mixing models for
281 the evaluation of the Velvet Scoter diet within the Lithuanian coastal zone.

282 The estimations of the food source proportions were very similar between Model0 and ModelC,
283 as the maximum difference for the proportions of the food sources was 2% (see Table 5 and Annex 5).
284 The difference between the mixing model results was negligible due to the relatively low variability
285 of carbon TEFs found among the different food sources. Thus, we conclude that even we apply the

286 varying TEF for carbon (according to Caut et al., 2009), the variability is low (from -0.2 to 0.4‰), it
287 has not affected the mixing model results.

288 As SIA analysis is based on previously known and potential diet estimations, gut content analysis
289 is assumed to be crucial for the taxonomic identification of prey objects. In this study, one single
290 individual of the invasive *Rangia cuneata* bivalve species was found within the guts of a Velvet Scoter.
291 In Lithuanian waters, the first case involving the identification of finding the presence of this bivalve
292 was reported in 2013 (Solovjova, 2017), and thus, this study has proven the role of *R. cuneata* in the
293 food web.

294 **Application of $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ratios**

295 This study showed that analysis of the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ratios increased the capacity to discriminate a higher
296 number of macrozoobenthos taxa for modelling the food source contributions in the diet of
297 benthivorous Velvet Scoter. Benthic invertebrates obtain their sulphur from either sediments, the
298 below sediment-water interface, or the water column, and this could be the reason for taxa-specific
299 $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values (Croiseti re et al., 2009; Karube et al., 2012). Unfortunately, the homogenous SI values
300 found in *M. arenaria* and *C. glaucum* did not allow for further discrimination, and therefore, they were
301 aggregated for further use in the SI mixing model. However, in using $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values, we could distinguish
302 polychaetes and *M. balthica* from the other bivalves and crustaceans, which might be explained by
303 their different use of organic material. *M. balthica* might be attributed to switches between suspension-
304 and deposit-feeding (Zwarts and Wanink, 1989; Lin and Hines, 1994) and this might be reflected in
305 their sulphur isotopic composition. We have found that facultative suspension feeders, such as *M.*
306 *balthica* and polychaetes, had approximately 5.5‰ lower $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values than the obligatory suspension
307 feeders such as *C. glaucum* and *M. arenaria*. Moreover, in this study, polychaetes had much higher
308 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values than *M. balthica* (the difference was 3.5‰), which reflected their higher trophic position
309 in the food web relative to the primary sources of organic matter available. Therefore, the triple isotope
310 approach allowed the relatively precise discrimination of the main macrozoobenthos organisms as food
311 sources for the Velvet Scoter.

312 **Estimation of the winter diet of the Velvet Scoter**

313 The results concerning the winter diet composition of Velvet Scoters, which were estimated using
314 both the triple SI approach and the gut content analysis, were comparable and complementary. Both
315 methods revealed the preference of the Velvet Scoters for the *M. arenaria* and *C. glaucum*, while the
316 proportions of other food sources varied. The joint contribution of *C. glaucum* and *M. arenaria*
317 comprised approximately half of Velvet Scoter's diet (Table 5), while *M. balthica* was only responsible

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319 for 7 to 16% of their diet. This result differs from a previous study for a period of 1996-2002, which
320 showed the dominance of *M. arenaria* for 82% of the total wet weight content found in the gut of
321 Velvet Scoter (Žydelis, 2002). Although previously, *C. glaucum* had not been reported as prey items
322 for scoters in the Lithuanian coastal zone (Žydelis, 2002), it was consumed by 92% of total number of
323 Velvet Scoters analysed in this study (Table 3). Moreover, *C. glaucum* has been reported as one of the
324 dominant prey items in their diet along the Danish, English, Polish, and German Baltic coasts (a review
325 by Fox, 2003).

326 As the number of certain prey species might vary temporally, the diet composition of Velvet
327 Scoters reflects this variability (Fox, 2003). The biomass of *C. glaucum* increased from 0 gm⁻² in 1996-
328 2002 to more than 18 gm⁻² in 2012-2016 (while more than 100 gm⁻² in 2014) within a depth range of
329 13-15 m at the Juodkrantė (State monitoring data of the Marine Research Department under the
330 Environmental Protection Agency; Solovjova, 2017.). Therefore, the differences in the diet
331 compositions of the Velvet Scoter between the periods of 1996-2002 (Žydelis, 2002) and 2012-2016
332 (this study) could be explained by possible shifts in the biomasses and proportions of the prey species
333 among different years.

334 The results of our SI mixing model revealed that the *S. entomon* contributed 9% towards the diet
335 of the Velvet Scoter, while the gut content analysis revealed a contribution of 36% by wet weight and
336 29% by AFDW. Using data from the gut content as prior information, the SI mixing models revealed
337 the higher importance of this crustacean to the Velvet Scoter diet (by 35% by wet weight and 26% by
338 AFDW; Table 5). Previous gut content analyses only showed a small contribution of *S. entomon* to the
339 Velvet Scoter's diet (3% of total wet weight; Žydelis, 2002), but it was an important prey item for the
340 Long-tailed duck over the same sandy bottom habitat (74 % of total wet weight) (Žydelis & Ruškytė,
341 2005). *S. entomon* is abundant in deeper areas than the coastal zone, so ducks that feed on this prey
342 might do so in deeper waters, especially in the northern part of the Lithuanian marine waters, where
343 the marine protected area was established due to high and regular marine bird concentrations, including
344 Velvet Scoters (Daunys et al., 2015). Therefore, the number of *S. entomon* in the coastal zone and its
345 importance to the feeding of marine ducks might differ during the course of winter when they come
346 closer to the coast and among other years, depending on the hydrological conditions present (e.g.
347 Bacevičius, 2013).

348 As bird gut content analysis is based on the weights of objects found in the gizzard and esophagus,
349 it is common to overestimate indigestible items or those that are more difficult to digest which could
350 contribute to the total weight of prey items. Conversely, soft-bodied prey as polychaetes are often
351 underestimated because of their rapid digestion in the foregut and rare detection, which also depends

352 on the proficiency of the researchers (review of Žydelis and Richman, 2015). In this study, we did not
353 find polychaetes in duck individuals examined, but the SI mixing models, without prior information,
354 estimated their contribution of 18% to the diet. Their importance considerably decreased to 2% when
355 using gut-based information in the process of mixing modelling (Table 5). Moreover, polychaetes have
356 been mentioned as common food items for marine ducks by other authors, e.g. Žydelis (2002) reported
357 that polychaetes were taken by 83% of all the Velvet Scoters studied, but the taxon only contributed
358 3% to the total weight.

359 The energy/caloric value of the prey items is important for marine ducks in winter. Bivalves are
360 of low caloric value with a high inorganic indigestible content (Fox, 2003). Moreover, crushing the
361 hard shell of *C. glaucum* might require more energy in comparison to the lighter shell of *M. balthica*
362 and *M. arenaria* (Rumohr et al., 1987). Scarcer but more easily digestible prey items such as
363 polychaetes or fish could provide a greater energy/caloric value than bivalves (review of Žydelis and
364 Richman, 2015). This might reveal the differences identified among the diet estimations by the SI
365 mixing models and gut content analysis in this study. Moreover, the SIA provides information on
366 assimilated (not only ingested) food items and assumptions on the importance of other prey items, as
367 soft-bodied prey, which are usually underestimated during gut content analysis. This is important
368 because the food items of benthivorous ducks differ from each other by energy/caloric values and may
369 have already undergone temporal physiological changes (Waldeck and Larsson, 2013).

370 This study was based on a relatively low sample size of live bird blood samples due to the
371 complicated approach to catching live birds in their marine wintering grounds in the open coastal zone.
372 While the number of bycaught birds for gut content analysis was much higher than for the SIA, it
373 should still be increased in order to make a more detailed analysis of the diet variability in different
374 sex and age groups, as well as the temporal and spatial diet differences that may exist throughout the
375 winter season.

376 Conclusions

377 In this study, we demonstrated how information concerning diet composition can be obtained
378 using non-lethal blood sampling from live ducks, gut content analysis of bycaught individuals, and
379 triple SI mixing modelling, including discussions of TEF selection. Moreover, we also proved the
380 benefits of the application of the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ratio as complementary to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios in
381 discriminating sandy bottom macrozoobenthos organisms with obligatory and facultative suspension
382 feeding in the Baltic Sea.

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388 The results revealed the main contribution of the group of *M. arenaria* and *C. glaucum* to be 46-
389 54% of the Velvet Scoter's diet. The *S. entomon* contributed one third towards the diet, while other
390 food sources accounted for the rest. This study contributes as one of continuous trophic studies which
391 provide more accurate estimations on diet composition using different approaches. We also discussed
392 possible diet alterations according to changes in feeding habitats. Questions on methods to study the
393 diet composition and its temporal changes should be taken into account when analysing the strong
394 decline in the number of wintering marine ducks in the Baltic Sea.

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