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1 How do waterbirds respond to climate change? A study at a key wintering site in
2 Europe.

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20 **Abstract**

21 Many species of birds react to climate change, for example, by wintering in areas
22 closer to their breeding areas. We investigated the responses of two different functional
23 groups of waterbirds to factors associated with climate change. The Odra River Estuary (SW
24 Baltic Sea) is of key importance to wintering waterfowl. The most numerous birds here
25 belong to two ecological groups: benthic feeders and fish feeders. We showed that numbers of
26 all benthivorous waterbirds were negatively correlated with the presence of ice, but failed to
27 find such a relationship for piscivores. We anticipated that, with ongoing global warming, the
28 significance of this area would increase for benthic feeders but decrease for fish feeders: our
29 results bore this out. The maximum range of ice cover in the Baltic Sea has a weak and
30 negative effect on both groups of birds. Five of the seven target species are benthivores
31 (Greater Scaup *Aythya marila*, Tufted Duck *A. fuligula*, Common Pochard *A. ferina*, Common
32 Goldeneye *Bucephala clangula* and Eurasian Coot *Fulica atra*), while the other two are
33 piscivores (Smew *Mergellus albellus* and Goosander *Mergus merganser*). Local changes at
34 the level of particular species vary for different reasons. The local decline of Common
35 Pochard may be a reflection of the species' global decline. Climate change may be
36 responsible for some of the local changes in the study area, namely, the significance of the
37 area has increased for Greater Scaup and Tufted Duck but declined for Smew.

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39 Key words: winter range shift; ice cover sensitivity; Greater Scaup; Tufted Duck; Common
40 Pochard; Eurasian Coot; Smew; important bird areas; behaviour; Baltic Sea

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43 **Introduction**

44 Climate change has caused the wintering ranges of many bird species to shift (Musil et
45 al. 2011; Lehtikoinen et al. 2013; Møller 2016). Knowing the behaviour of particular species,
46 we can track changes in population numbers which may reflect changes in temperatures. The
47 distances that birds migrate from their breeding areas in northern and eastern Europe to their
48 central European wintering areas are shorter during mild winters (Lehtikoinen et al. 2013;
49 Pavon-Jordan et al. 2015). It is advantageous for populations to have short migration
50 distances, since this means earlier arrival back at the breeding grounds, acquisition of higher
51 quality territories, and probably greater survival (Coppack and Both 2002; Jankowiak et al.
52 2015a; 2015b). Birds may relocate their wintering sites to warmer regions during colder
53 periods because they can sense local manifestations of large-scale atmospheric features
54 (Newton 2008). For waterbirds wintering in the isothermal zone of about 0°C, there could be
55 a more complex explanation: when the birds experience the freezing over of shallow water,
56 they move to deeper water, but when that in turn starts to freeze, they abandon it and migrate
57 south or west (Leif Nilsson pers. com.).

58 The food resources of wintering sites are also a factor informing decisions about
59 staying at potential sites (Cresswell 2014; Aharon-Rotman et al. 2016). Although the level of
60 winter site fidelity is known to be very high among waterfowl (Newton 2008), it can drop as a
61 result of changes in weather, climate, habitat and competition (Cresswell 2014). The changing
62 of winter sites should thus be seen as trade-off between the costs of finding a new site and the
63 benefits it offers (Aharon-Rotman et al. 2016). At sub-zero temperatures, shallow waters
64 freeze over; birds therefore expend more time and energy searching for food in deeper waters,
65 with obvious consequences for their energy balance. The shallow waters of offshore lagoons
66 create ideal conditions for three functional ecological groups of waterbirds: piscivores,
67 herbivores and benthivores. Our study area, the Odra River Estuary (ORE) accommodates

68 large numbers of waterbirds because of its food resources (Marchowski et al. 2015;
69 Marchowski et al. 2016). The study area has been designated an Important Bird Area (IBA)
70 and also a Natura 2000 area (Wilk et al. 2010). Changes in the structure of species proportions
71 and their numbers in the ORE over the years may reflect the impact of climate change.
72 Analysis of the dates of the appearance of ice-related phenomena in the Szczecin Lagoon and
73 of their frequency over time reveals a distinct pattern that confirms and supports recently
74 observed trends in climatic warming (Girjatowicz 2011). In this paper we examine whether
75 the numbers of some species in the ORE are likely to change as a result of climate warming.
76 We assume that benthic feeding birds will be more sensitive and fish feeding birds less
77 sensitive to ice cover. If our assumptions hold true, elevated temperatures and the
78 correspondingly shorter period of ice cover should provide better conditions for benthic
79 feeders, the numbers of which ought to increase. Most feeding grounds rich in sedentary
80 mussels lie in shallow water (Marchowski et al. 2015), so any ice cover significantly reduces
81 food availability. Fish, on the other hand, remain available even if the ice cover is
82 considerable, since unfrozen areas may still be rich in fish. During cold winters the water in
83 the ORE never freezes over entirely: even during periods of sustained below-zero
84 temperatures patches of water remain free of ice.

85 **Study area**

86 The study area lies in the south-western Baltic Sea and forms the Polish part of the
87 Odra River Estuary system, which includes the Great Lagoon (the Polish part of the Szczecin
88 Lagoon), Świna Backward Delta, Kamień Lagoon, Dziwna Strait and Lake Dąbie with a total
89 area of 522.58 km² (Fig. 1). The average and maximum depths of the estuary are 3.8 and 8.5
90 m, respectively; the dredged shipping lane passing through the estuary from the Baltic Sea to
91 the port of Szczecin is 10.5 m deep (Radziejewska and Schernewski 2008). The waters of the
92 Szczecin Lagoon, Kamień Lagoon and Lake Dąbie are brackish. The salinity in the central

93 part of the estuary varies from 0.3 psu to 4.5 psu (mean = 1.4 psu) and declines with
94 increasing distance from the sea (Radziejewska and Schernewski 2008). Periodic backflows
95 of water from the Pomeranian Bay (salinity ~7 psu) take place through the Świna Strait and,
96 to a lesser extent, through the Dziwna and Peene Straits (the latter situated in the German part
97 of the ORE). The average winter temperature is 0.3° C (Weatherbase 2016). The ORE is
98 subject to strong anthropogenic pressure manifested by high levels of eutrophication
99 (Radziejewska and Schernewski 2008). The communities of benthic organisms are typical of
100 freshwater bodies and the fauna includes large populations of zebra mussels *Dreissena*
101 *polymorpha*, which were introduced in the mid-19th century. By the 1960s, the biomass of
102 zebra mussels in the Szczecin (Great) Lagoon was estimated at 110 000 metric tons (Wiktor
103 1969, Wolnomiejski and Woźniczka 2008) and appears to be fairly stable; in the early 2000s
104 the estimated biomass was 94 280 metric tons (Marchowski et al. 2015). The distribution of
105 the zebra mussel is highly uneven here: there are areas where it is abundant, but there are also
106 large areas where there are hardly any (see the map in Marchowski et al. 2015). The average
107 density of the zebra mussel in the ORE is 0.18 kg /m², but the vast majority of these resources
108 occupies around 10% of the entire sea bed, where the mean density is 2.05 kg/m²
109 (Stańczykowska et al. 2010). By comparison, other areas important for wintering benthos
110 feeding birds, such as the adjacent Dutch lakes IJsselmeer and Markermeer, have an average
111 density of 0.24 kg/m² (van Eerden & de Leeuw 2010). In contrast, the Vistula Lagoon in
112 Poland has a much lower density of zebra mussels – 0.001 kg/m² (Stańczykowska et al. 2010)
113 – and there are correspondingly smaller densities of benthivorous birds than in the Szczecin
114 Lagoon (Neubauer et al. 2015). The fish consist mainly of freshwater species such as roach
115 *Rutilus rutilus*, bream *Abramis brama*, pike *Esox lucius*, perch *Perca fluviatilis* and ruff
116 *Gymnocephalus cernua*; there are also anadromous fish like smelt *Osmerus eperlanus* and
117 occasionally marine fish like herring *Clupea harengus* (Wolnomiejski and Witek 2013).

118 **Methods**119 ***Bird censusing***

120 Our study covers two functional groups of waterbirds: 1) benthivores – Greater
121 Scaup (*Aythya marila* – hereafter Scaup), Tufted Duck (*A. fuligula*), Common Pochard (*A.*
122 *ferina* – hereafter Pochard), Common Goldeneye (*Bucephala clangula* – hereafter Goldeneye)
123 and Eurasian Coot (*Fulica atra* – hereafter Coot); 2) piscivores – Smew *Mergellus albellus*
124 and Goosander *Mergus merganser*. The study site is known to regularly host significant
125 numbers of the biogeographic population of the above species (Kaliciuk et al. 2003;
126 Czeraszewicz et al. 2004; Wilk et al. 2010; Marchowski and Ławicki 2011; Guentzel et al.
127 2012; Marchowski and Ławicki 2012; Marchowski et al. 2013) (see also Table 3). Here, by
128 biogeographic population we mean that part of the global population associated with a
129 specific flyway region. These subpopulations are: Pochard – north-east Europe / north-west
130 Europe; Tufted Duck – north-west Europe (wintering); Scaup – northern Europe / western
131 Europe; Goldeneye – north-west and central Europe; Smew – north-west and central Europe
132 (wintering); Goosander – north-west and central Europe (wintering); Coot – north-west
133 Europe (wintering) (Wetlands International 2016).

134 Censuses were conducted using standard methods for non-breeding season waterbird
135 counts (Komdeur et al. 1992; Wetlands International 2010). Birds were counted during 17
136 seasons (1991/1992 to 1993/1994 and 2001/2002 to 2015/2016) during the migration and
137 wintering periods between November and April. From 1991/1992 to 1993/1994 three
138 censuses were carried out per season in November, January, and March or April; in
139 2001/2002 only one mid-winter count in January was done. Altogether we analysed the
140 results of 44 counts. Most counts were done on foot. Each observer was equipped with 10x
141 binoculars and tripod-mounted spotting scopes. Observers walked along the same routes,

142 stopping every few hundred metres or making observations from vantage points reachable by
143 car. Fourteen aerial counts were made at an average speed of about 100 km/h and an altitude
144 of about 80 m above the water (see supplementary materials – S1 Table for the method of
145 data collection: aerial or ground). In the early 1990s counts were solely aerial, whereas in
146 2009-2015 parallel aerial and ground counts were carried out. It was the aim of other research
147 to determine the effectiveness of the two methods. The results show that in ice-free conditions
148 almost all the species covered in this study can be assigned to a group with just a small error
149 between methods (<6%). Only for one species – Coot – was the moderate error (16%): the
150 numbers counted from the ground were higher than those from the aircraft. During periods
151 with more than 70% ice cover, bird numbers counted from the aircraft were higher than those
152 counted from the ground (Dominik Marchowski pers. com.). All counts were conducted in the
153 same way using the same route and the same observation points. Count method was treated as
154 a random effect in the model. The detailed methodology and results of the counts are given
155 elsewhere (Meissner and Kozakiewicz 1992; Meissner et al 1994; Kaliciuk et al. 2003;
156 Czeraszkiwicz et al. 2004; Marchowski and Ławicki 2011; Guentzel et al. 2012;
157 Marchowski and Ławicki 2012; Marchowski et al. 2013). Where large numbers of
158 unidentified *Aythya* species were counted – 26 000 ducks in November 2009, 13 000 in
159 November 2010, 6 000 in January 2012, 3 300 in March 2012 and 13 500 in November 2015
160 – they were allocated to either Scaup or Tufted Duck based on the mean ratio of these two
161 species (1.0 Scaup : 0.8 Tufted Duck) obtained from other counts. This research involved
162 observations of birds from a distance, which do not disturb the birds. In Poland, such studies
163 do not need special permission or approval.

164

165

166 *Statistical analysis*

167 The dependent variable was the percentage of occurrence of a given species in relation
168 to the total estimated population size in a given year. This approach was taken because the
169 population sizes of the species covered by our study follow different trends. For example, the
170 population of Scaup is decreasing, that of Smew is increasing and that of Goosander is more
171 or less stable (Nagy et al. 2014; Wetland International 2016). Thus, if we showed the trend of
172 absolute numbers in our area, the resulting error would be the larger, the greater the changes
173 in the size of the entire population. Therefore, we indicate the numbers of a species by means
174 of a coefficient calculated as the percentage of the biogeographic population present in the
175 study area during a particular count. We obtained the data relating to the biogeographic
176 populations from 1992 to 2012 from Nagy et al. (2014); for the period 2013-2016 we used the
177 flat trend calculated by Nagy et al. (2014) (Table 1). Initially, we placed the different species
178 in ecological groups. The benthivores (denoted by B) included Scaup, Tufted Duck, Pochard,
179 Goldeneye and Coot, and the piscivore group (P) contained Smew and Goosander. We used
180 the mean, maximum and minimum temperatures averaged over the 15 days leading up to the
181 count day. The climate data were obtained from the Szczecin weather station (53.395 N,
182 14.6225 E, <http://tutiempo.net>). Another climate covariate was ice cover in the study area;
183 data relating to this were published by the Polish Institute of Meteorology and Water
184 Management. These data were gathered using the standard methods of the Baltic Sea ice
185 information system. This partitions the Baltic into sectors, and the ice conditions in each
186 sector are given in the "Monthly Ice Listing", a daily protocol supplying information on the
187 degree of ice cover, position of the ice, the developmental stage of the ice, topography, ice
188 type and the conditions for sailing across ice-covered water. For the calculations in this study,
189 we used only the information on the number of days with total ice cover from one sector
190 (Miroszewo). Observations of ice-related phenomena in this sector took place from a site on

191 the shore of the Szczecin Lagoon (53.734 N, 14.331 E). Observations were conducted daily
192 from 1 November to 30 April at 12:00 hrs UTC. The methodology for collecting ice cover
193 data was the same throughout the study period. We compared the number of days with 100%
194 ice cover in the period from 0 to 15 days prior to bird counts. The ice cover of 100% refers
195 specifically to the observation point at Miroszewo (data from the Polish Institute of
196 Meteorology and Water Management, which we used in our computations). This does not
197 embrace the whole ORE, but is a good approximation of it. Our field observations during bird
198 counts show that most of our study area is also nearly 100% frozen. In practice, however, the
199 ORE is never completely covered by ice (Girjatowicz 1991; 2005; see also the Discussion for
200 an explanation) and birds are still present in such conditions. We also utilized the maximum
201 ice extent in the Baltic Sea (max ice). These data were obtained from the website of The
202 European Environment Agency (EEA 2017). Apart from climatic variables, we also wanted to
203 test the changes in species occurrence during the survey years, so we used season as covariate.
204 Prior to the final analysis we checked the multicollinearity correlation between the above
205 variables using the variation inflation factor (VIF). If VIFs were well above 2, the relevant
206 variables were excluded from the analysis. Hence, we excluded the mean, maximum and
207 minimal temperatures averaged over the 15 days prior to the count, as they were highly
208 correlated. We used a general linear mixed model (GLMM) as a statistical solution to test the
209 hypothesis relating to the different patterns of occurrence of benthivores and piscivores in the
210 ORE. The percentage of numbers in relation to the species' whole population was used as a
211 target variable and was treated with normal distribution response distribution and identity link
212 function. Mixed models permitted repetition across survey months, methods (aerial and
213 ground counts) and species (random intercept). Thus to test our hypotheses we assessed the
214 following interactions: feeding group*season, feeding group*ice cover and feeding
215 group*max ice. To demonstrate interactions at the level of particular species we produced

216 another GLMM model (with month and method as random factors) and assessed the
217 following interactions: species*season, species*ice cover and species*max ice. The
218 parameters of this model are listed in Table S2 in the Supplementary material. The predicted
219 values of this model for each species are shown on Figure 2. We used IBM SPSS Statistic
220 version 20 software for the statistical analysis. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically
221 significant.

222

223 **Results**

224 We found that interactions between feeding group and season, feeding group and ice
225 cover, feeding group and maximum ice extent on the Baltic sea were all significant. However,
226 the strongest effects were exhibited by interaction with ice cover, then interaction with
227 season. The effect of maximum ice extent was very small (Table 2).

228 Benthic feeding species in the study area were more sensitive to lower temperatures
229 and left sooner when colder weather increased ice cover, whereas numbers of fish feeding
230 species did not change, regardless of the extent of ice cover (Tables 2, Fig. 2B).

231 Our results show changes in population number indices in the ORE over the last 25
232 years. These indices increased in the case of benthic feeding species but decreased for fish
233 feeders (Table 2, Fig 2A).

234 Ice cover across the whole Baltic Sea had the same, though weak, impact on both
235 ecological groups of birds. Numbers of birds in the ORE declined with expanding ice cover in
236 the Baltic (Table 2, Fig 2C).

237 In the case of each particular species, the situation was more complex. The indices for
238 Scaup and Tufted Duck increased in the ORE, despite the general decline in the numbers of

239 species wintering in northern and western Europe, the negative impact of ice cover in the
240 study area on abundance and the lack of any impact of ice cover on the Baltic Sea. Relative
241 numbers of Pochard declined, both in our study area and in northern Europe in general,
242 despite the negative impacts of ice cover in the study area on abundance and of ice cover in
243 the Baltic as a whole. In the case of Goldeneye the index for the ORE did not change, but its
244 European population increased; ice cover in the study area had negative impact and ice cover
245 in the Baltic as a whole had any impact on abundance. Relative numbers of Coots did not
246 change in the ORE, but European numbers did increase slightly; ice cover in the study area
247 and in the Baltic as a whole had negative impact on abundance. The index for Smew
248 decreased in the ORE whereas European numbers increased, but there was no impact of either
249 ice cover in the study area or on the Baltic Sea as a whole on abundance. The relative
250 numbers of Goosander did not change in the ORE, neither did those of the whole population
251 wintering in north-western and central Europe; moreover, there was no impact of ice cover
252 either in the study area or in the Baltic as a whole on its abundance. (see Tables 1 and 2, Fig.
253 2). Changes in the significance of the ORE for wintering populations of diving waterbirds in
254 the last 25 years are shown in Table 3.

255 Discussion

256 As we had predicted, benthic feeding birds (Scaup, Tufted Duck, Pochard, Goldeneye
257 and Coot) were more sensitive to the presence of ice cover in the study area. Benthivorous
258 birds feed in the ORE mainly on mussels of the genus *Dreissena* (Marchowski et al. 2015,
259 2016), the best quality of food resources that are primarily found in water 1-2 m deep
260 (Wolnomiejski and Witek 2013). Shallow water freezes over faster, displacing birds to deeper
261 unfrozen areas where resources of food are hardly available. In addition, the food richness of
262 unfrozen areas is declining owing to their greater exploitation. In the case of piscivorous birds

263 we assumed that increasing ice cover would not affect their numbers: our results substantiate
264 this assumption. Ice cover is never 100% here; the shipping lane between Świnoujście and
265 Szczecin is kept free of ice (Girjatowicz 1991; 2005) and there are also always other areas
266 free of ice, especially at the mouths of the small rivers flowing into the estuary. These areas
267 free of ice may still abound in fish and provide food for fish feeders. In general, we have
268 demonstrated the growing importance of the study area for all the benthivores. Considering
269 this in relation to particular species, the two most numerous species have increased in
270 numbers, while another three do not follow the general trend. In addition, we have shown that
271 the study area is decreasing in importance to piscivores and that each species is decreasing in
272 numbers, although the trend for Goosander is not significant.

273 An interesting result is the negative effect of maximum ice cover in the entire Baltic Sea on
274 the numbers of all species in our study (Fig. 2). This is unexpected, since our study area is the
275 warmer south-western Baltic, where one would anticipate an increase in the number of
276 waterbirds in such circumstances (Alerstam 1990). The explanation for this relationship is not
277 easy and certainly goes far beyond the scope of this work, but it may inspire further research.
278 However, we can speculate on possible scenarios. Maps showing the maximum range of the
279 ice cover in the Baltic Sea show clearly that when the northern Baltic, i.e. the Gulf of Bothnia
280 and the Gulf of Finland, is completely frozen over, the entire Pomeranian Bay (SW Baltic)
281 (see the map – Fig.1) together with the ORE is also covered with ice (Finnish Meteorological
282 Institute 2017). These areas freeze over quickly because of their shallowness and low salinity,
283 the latter being due to the considerable influence of fresh water in the Odra basin.
284 Consequently, the birds move to the south and west when there is thick ice cover in the
285 northern Baltic, but they probably by-pass our study area. Under such circumstances there
286 may sometimes be better conditions for waterbirds in areas farther north, e.g. the southern
287 coast of Sweden, where there is no ice cover (Finnish Meteorological Institute 2017). Worth

288 noting here, however, is that such cold weather causing the entire Pomeranian Bay and Odra
289 River Estuary to freeze over is rare and becoming rarer still (EEA 2017). Nevertheless, if we
290 consider the impact of ice cover of the whole Baltic within species, we can see the differences
291 between them and the non-significant impact of this phenomenon on e.g. Smew and
292 Goosander, which corresponds with the local results (Fig. 2).

293 Comparison of a species' estimated total population numbers (Nagy et al. 2014) with
294 numbers for the ORE is interesting, since local trends and European trends do not always
295 concur. The different responses of particular species to the factors investigated are also worth
296 examining. We discuss these for each species below.

297 *Scaup*

298 Between the late 1980s and 2012, the population of Scaup wintering in northern and
299 western Europe declined at an annual rate of -3.57%/year (Nagy et al. 2014). Around 41% of
300 the Scaup from this population spent the winter in the Baltic Sea region (Skov et al. 2011),
301 and this, in turn, declined by 60% from 1991 to 2010 (Aunis 2013). At the same time we
302 found that the significance of the ORE for this species was increasing. This had already been
303 mentioned by Skov et al. (2011), who describe a threefold increase in Scaup numbers in the
304 Szczecin Lagoon (the biggest part of Odra River Estuary – see the map – Fig. 1) and the
305 eastern coastal areas of Germany, as opposed to declines further west along the German coast,
306 where areas like Wismar Bay and Travelförde supported much lower numbers than 15 years
307 earlier. A similar trend has been found in Sweden, where Nilsson and Haas (2016) recorded a
308 significant increase in the number of wintering Scaup between 1971 and 2015. But farther
309 west still, in the Netherlands, Hornman et al. (2012) recorded decreases at the most important
310 wintering sites since 1980/1981. All of these studies confirm that Scaup is shifting its
311 wintering range northwards and eastwards, closer to its breeding areas: this is the reason for

312 the heightened importance to this species of the ORE, even as its overall population wintering
313 in northern and western Europe is declining.

314 *Tufted Duck*

315 Tufted Duck populations wintering in north-western Europe have recently been
316 decreasing by 0.98%/year (Nagy et al. 2014). Lehtikoinen et al. (2013) showed that the
317 population estimated for the North-West Europe flyway remained relatively stable between
318 1987 and 2009, a situation confirmed by Wetlands International (2016). In the Baltic Sea
319 region, too, there were no significant changes in numbers between 1991 and 2010 (Aunis et al
320 2013). We have found that our study area has increased in importance for this species,
321 although not to the same extent as for Scaup. By comparison, Nilsson and Haas (2016)
322 showed Swedish populations to have increased between 1971 and 2015, and Lehtikoinen et al.
323 (2013) reported a rapid increase in the last three decades for Finland. Tufted Ducks in the
324 ORE behave in the same way as Scaup in that they form mixed flocks consuming the same
325 type of food (Marchowski et al. 2016). At a larger scale, Tufted Ducks have a different
326 migration and wintering strategy: Scaup concentrate in a few hot spots, moving jump-wise
327 between them, whereas the distribution of Tufted Ducks is more diffuse (van Erden and de
328 Leeuw 2010; Skov et al. 2011; Carboneras and Kirwan 2016a; Carboneras and Kirwan
329 2016b). This could cause Tufted Ducks to disperse to smaller water bodies outside our study
330 area, e.g. the numerous lakes in the Pomeranian Lake District in northern Poland (~34 000
331 km²), whereas Scaup remain almost exclusively in the ORE (e.g. Marchowski and Ławicki
332 2011; Marchowski et al. 2013). The results of the Wintering Waterbird Monitoring
333 programme also show the greater prevalence in Poland of Tufted Duck (29.5%) than Scaup
334 (7.8%) (Neubauer et al. 2015).

335

336

337

338

Pochard

339 Pochard populations from north-east / north-west Europe have declined rapidly at an
340 annual rate of -3.35%/year (Nagy et al. 2014). Pochard numbers in the Baltic Sea region also
341 declined by 70% between 1991 and 2010 (Aunis 2013). In 1995 there were an estimated
342 300 000 Pochard in the north-east/north-west European population (Delany et al. 1999). With
343 a constant decline of -3.35%/year, the total population should now be less than 150 000
344 (Nagy et al. 2014). Numbers of Pochard were expected to be higher in the ORE because of
345 the reduced ice cover. However, we found a significant reduction in the importance of the
346 estuary to this species (Table 3), corresponding with its global decline (Aunis 2013; Nagy et
347 al. 2014; Wetlands International 2016) and operating factors other than climate change.
348 Pochard behaves more like Tufted Duck than Scaup over winter in being more dispersed and
349 occurring on smaller bodies of water (e.g. Marchowski and Ławicki 2011; Marchowski et al.
350 2013; Neubauer et al. 2015). This implies that individuals may also be wintering outside the
351 study area, e.g. on the numerous water bodies of the Pomeranian Lake District, like Tufted
352 Duck. This local decline, however, seems to be driven by the species' global decline, despite
353 the emergence of better conditions for wintering that might favour population growth.

354

Goldeneye

355 Goldeneye populations wintering in north-west and central Europe increased at
356 +0.26%/year between the late 1980s and 2012 (Nagy et al. 2014) and increased in the Baltic
357 Sea region by 50% between 1991 and 2010 (Aunis 2013). This corresponds to the data
358 provided by Lehikoinen et al (2013), which show an increase in numbers in the northern
359 Baltic wintering area (Finland and N Sweden), but a decline in the southern part of its
360 wintering range (Switzerland, France). In our work we found the relative number of
361 Goldeneye in the ORE to be stable in the period 1992-2016 (Table 3). This again tallies with

362 the findings of Lehtikoinen et al. (2013) that duck abundances are independent of temperature
363 in the central part of the flyway. This is probably why the shift in wintering range is not
364 perceptible in our study area but is more pronounced at other, e.g. Swedish, wintering sites.
365 North of our study area, numbers at wintering sites have increased (Nilsson and Haas 2016)
366 but to the south-west, e.g. in the Netherlands, they have declined (Hornman et al. 2012).

367 *Coot*

368 Coot populations wintering in north-west Europe increased by +0.19%/year between
369 the late 1980s and 2012 (Nagy et al. 2014), but in the Baltic region there was a 60% decline
370 between 1991 and 2010 (Aunis 2013). We have found no changes in Coot numbers in the
371 ORE over the last 25 years (Table 3). Likewise, no changes in numbers were recorded
372 between 1975 and 2010 at wintering sites in warmer areas to the south-west (the Netherlands)
373 (Hornman et al. 2012). Long-term figures for Sweden (1971-2015), while not revealing any
374 distinct increase, do show that Coot populations fluctuated, rising during mild periods and
375 falling during cold periods (Nilsson and Haas 2016). The expected increase in numbers due to
376 improvements in habitat quality did not happen. Factors such as pressure from American
377 mink *Neovison vison*, which are responsible for the decline of Coot in many places (e.g.
378 Ferreras and Macdonald 1999), may have held back potential increases. Moreover, compared
379 to the bottom-diving ducks, Coot is more sensitive to cold weather: a study by Fredrickson
380 (1969) demonstrated high mortality after periods of severe weather (also reflected in the
381 results of Swedish breeding bird surveys – Leif Nilsson pers. com.) but that the population
382 recovered during mild winters. This factor may also be the reason for the different reactions of
383 Coot and diving ducks to the cold.

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Smew

388 Smew populations wintering in northern, western and central Europe increased at
389 +1.97%/year between the late 1980s and 2012 (Nagy et al. 2014); in the Baltic Sea region
390 numbers increased by 30% between 1991 and 2010 (Aunis 2013). Although Smew cannot be
391 classified as a piscivore in the same way as Goosander (and Red-breasted Merganser), it does
392 feed on very small fish and on small invertebrates (Carboneras & Kirwan 2016 c). Though
393 more dependent on shallow water than Goosander, Smew generally forages on mobile types
394 of food. So even if shallow waters freeze over, it may remain on site and search for food in
395 deeper water, which is what we have observed. We found that nowadays, the ORE is of less
396 importance to Smew (Table 3). This statement is underpinned by the northward and eastward
397 shift in wintering area boundaries due to climate warming, as already demonstrated by Pavon-
398 Jordan et al. (2015). Confirmation of this process is provided by the significant increase in
399 numbers of Smew in 1971-2015 in places to the north of our study area, in Sweden (Nilsson
400 and Haas 2016).

401

Goosander

402 Goosander populations wintering in north-west and central Europe have been stable
403 since the early 1990s (Nagy et al. 2014); moreover, numbers in the Baltic Sea between 1991
404 and 2010 did not change significantly (Aunis 2013). We found a slight decrease in the
405 importance of the ORE to Goosander, but it was not significant, so must be regarded as stable
406 (Table 3). As in the case of Goldeneye, the explanation is that in the central part of the
407 flyway, species abundances are independent of temperature. In other areas, observations
408 indicate a shift farther to the north and east in the wintering range as a result of climate
409 warming (Hornman et al. 2012; Lehikoinen et al. 2013; Nilsson and Haas 2016).

410

411 **Conclusion**

412 There is no doubt that the climate is changing: the global temperature has risen about
413 1°C over the last 130 years, and Northern Hemisphere temperatures of the last 30 years have
414 been the highest in over 800 years (Stocker et al. 2013). The extent and duration of ice cover
415 in the Baltic has decreased on average by 50% over the last 36 years (Schröder 2015). There
416 is evidence that the range and occurrence of migratory birds has changed in response to
417 climate change and that some species have shortened their migratory movements by wintering
418 closer to their breeding areas (Musil et al. 2011; Lehtikoinen et al. 2013; Pavon-Jordan et al.
419 2015; Meller 2016). Assuming continued climate warming, the negative correlation between
420 numbers of benthic feeding birds and the number of days with ice cover indicates that the
421 ORE is becoming more important for this group of birds. Climate change seems to be the
422 primary reason for increases (in the study area) in numbers of Scaup and Tufted Duck and
423 decreases in numbers of Smew; this corresponds with the finding of Lehtikoinen et al. (2013)
424 in the case of Tufted Duck and of Pavon-Jordan et al. (2015) in the case of Smew. Our results
425 are important for conservation planning. Declines in the populations of species such as Scaup
426 and Tufted Duck, even though the importance of the study area to these species is increasing,
427 must therefore be due to their increased exposure to local dangers. The biggest threats to these
428 species in the area include fishery bycatches (Žydelis et al. 2009; Bellebaum et al. 2013). The
429 ecology of diving ducks makes this type of threat responsible for the extra mortality of all
430 species covered by this study.

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639 Table 1. Biogeographic populations and annual trends (after Nagy et al. 2014) for seven
 640 species of waterbirds using the Odra River Estuary.

Species	Number of individuals (1992)	Number of individuals (2012)	Population trend % p.a.
Common Pochard	280,000	150,000	-3.35
Tufted Duck	1,100,000	820,000	-0.98
Greater Scaup	300,000	150,000	-3.57
Common Goldeneye	210,000	240,000	+0.26
Smew	13,000	24,000	+1.97
Goosander	130,000	100,000	-0.09
Eurasian Coot	990,000	950,000	+0.19

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Table 2. Results of general linear mixed models for seven species showing the influence of ice cover, maximum ice extent [km²] in the Baltic Sea (max ice) and season on the percentage of occurrence of benthivores (denoted by B, Scaup, Tufted Duck, Pochard, Goldeneye, Coot) and piscivores (denoted by P, Smew, Goosander) species in the Odra River Estuary. Species, method and month were treated as random effects in relation to their regional breeding population.

Model Term	Coefficient	Std.Error	t	P
Intercept	26.553	11.619		
Ice cover	0.014	0.006	2.375	0.018
Season	-0.013	0.006	-2.204	0.028
Max ice	-0.001	0.000	-2.824	0.005
Feed[B]	-38.751	11.959	-3.240	0.001
Season*Feed[B]	0.019	0.006	3.212	0.001
Ice cover*Feed[B]	-0.044	0.007	-6.623	<0.001
Max ice*Feed[B]	0.001	<0.001	2.071	0.039
Species (r)	0.074	0.048		
Method (r)	0.015	0.020		
Month (r)	0.001	0.002		

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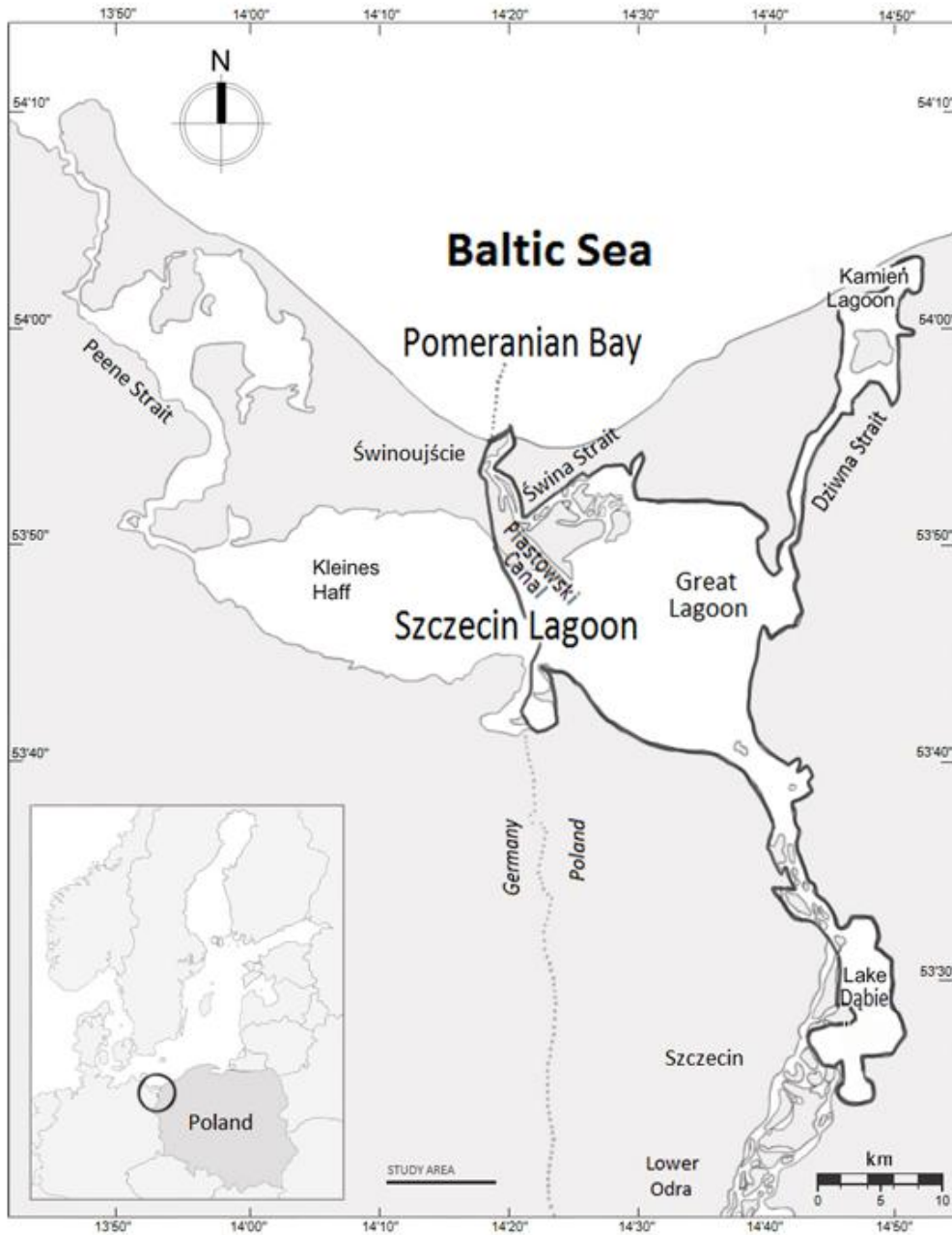
652 Table 3. Changes in the significance of the Odra River Estuary (ORE) for the biogeographic
 653 population (b.p) of diving waterbirds showing: the percentage of the biogeographic population in
 654 1992; the percentage of the biogeographic population in 2016; the mean percentage of the
 655 biogeographic population in the period 1992 – 2016 \pm standard error; and the trend in changes of the
 656 area's significance to the species in the period 1992 – 2016.

Species	%b.p.1992	%b.p.2016	Mean1992– 2016 \pm SE	Trend in ORE
Greater Scaup	5.68	12.60	14.17 \pm 2.84	↑
Tufted Duck	2.87	4.79	2.61 \pm 0.25	↑
Common Pochard	1.84	0.20	0.62 \pm 0.09	↓
Common Goldeneye	4.48	0.63	1.21 \pm 0.14	→
Eurasian Coot	0.86	0.68	0.61 \pm 0.07	→
Smew	7.04	2.76	7.01 \pm 1.27	↓
Goosander	12.59	1.80	6.85 \pm 1.01	→

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694 Figure 1. The Odra River Estuary, north-western Poland.



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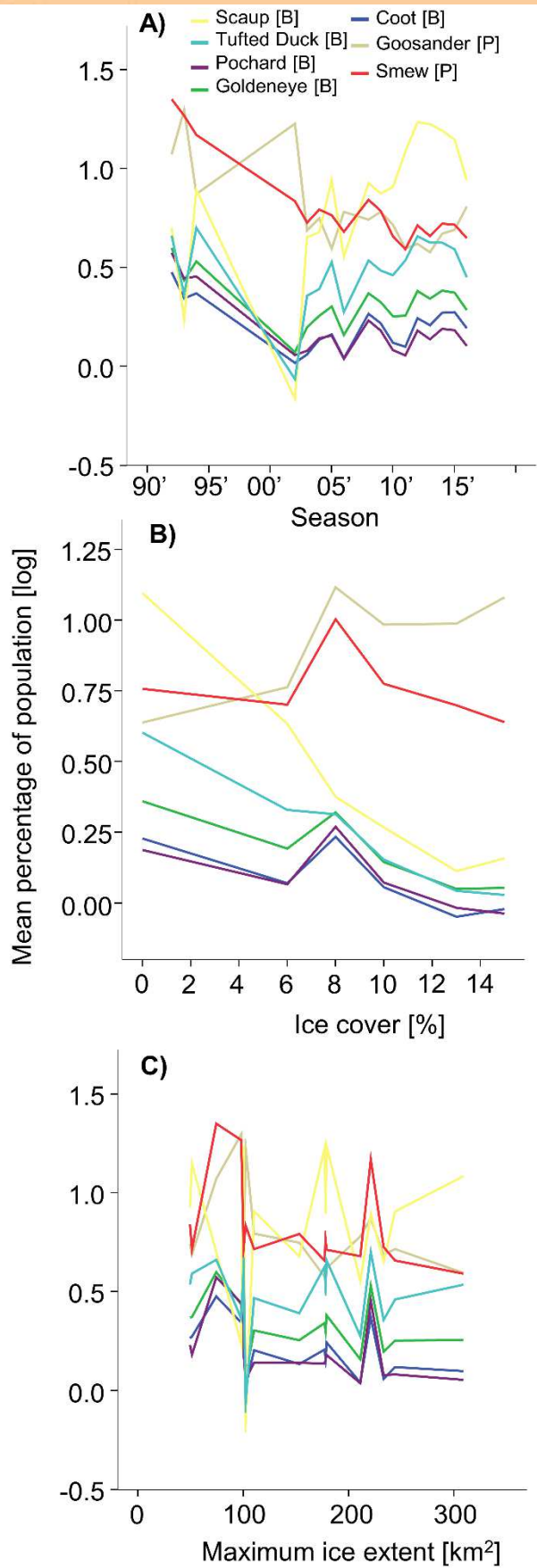
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707 Figure 2 A-C. Predicted results of the general linear mixed model showing the influence of season, ice
708 cover and maximum ice extent [km²] in the Baltic Sea (max ice) on the percentage of the population of
709 the target species in the Odra River Estuary. The predicted values were obtained from the model
710 where we added species as a fixed variable. The model's parameters are listed in Table S1 in the
711 Supplementary material.

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