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Serial sampling provides chronological evidence that endogenous protein is used for primary growth in a molt-migrant goose

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 This is a proof of concept paper based on chronological samples of growing feathers
3 from geese thought to be molt-migrants. When molt-migrant birds initiate molt
4 shortly after migrating to a new isoscape, isotope values measured along the length
5 of their feathers should change continuously. To assess long-term changes and daily
6 cycling in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, we serially sampled growing primaries of three
7 presumed molt-migrant geese. Two showed changing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures along the
8 length of their growing primaries, indicating they were molt-migrants, while the
9 third, presumably a resident, showed no change. We then resampled these feathers
10 at closer intervals for evidence of the predicted diel cycle in the use of exogenous
11 and endogenous protein for feather growth, generated by the diel feeding cycle of
12 these geese. As predicted, the two geese that were equilibrating to a new isoscape
13 showed oscillations of approximately 24-hour periodicity in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, measured
14 along the length of their primaries. In contrast, the goose that was not equilibrating
15 to a new isoscape showed no 24-hour periodicity in its $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. Our results
16 demonstrate that chronological sampling along the length of individual primaries
17 holds great potential for identifying individuals that are molt-migrants.

18
19

20 **INTRODUCTION**

21 Molt-migrants require time for their endogenous protein reserves to come
22 into equilibrium with local isoscapes (Martinez del Rio and Anderson-Sprecher
23 2008). Thus, feathers grown during this period of equilibration should show a
24 steady change in isotopic signature along the length of their feathers. This follows
25 because feathers grow at a more or less constant rate throughout the 24-hour cycle
26 (Murphy and King 1986; Schieltz and Murphy 1995, Lillie and Wang 1940); thus,
27 when exogenous protein from local foraging is exhausted, endogenous protein
28 reserves, which are coming into equilibrium with the new isoscape, supply the
29 protein needed to build feathers during daily periods of fasting (Murphy and King
30 1990).

31 These facts conspire to make two predictions that help identify molt migrant
32 birds that initiate feather growth shortly after moving to a new isoscape. First, a
33 steady change in isotope signature along the length of flight feathers is expected for
34 molt-migrants that begin molt before equilibrating to a new isoscape. This
35 prediction is easily tested with coarse sampling along the length of flight feathers.
36 Second, fine sampling along feathers, should reveal a roughly 24-hour periodicity
37 representing the alternating use of exogenous and endogenous protein sources for
38 feather construction. The amplitude of this cycle is likely driven by the size of the
39 protein pool in the blood relative to the amount of protein being withdrawn for
40 feather synthesis. If the fraction of blood protein used for feather synthesis is small,
41 then daily cycling associated with feeding and fasting may be damped and difficult
42 to measure, but it still should be present.

43 Greylag Geese (*Anser anser*) that breed in terrestrial, freshwater habitats in
44 Sweden are known from sightings of marked individuals (Nilsson et al. 2001), to
45 migrate in late summer to the maritime saltmarshes of the island of Saltholm
46 (55°38'N 12°45'E) in Denmark where they graze saltmarsh plants (Fox et al. 1998)
47 and undergo their annual molt (Fox et al. 1995). Marine environments are well
48 known to have very different $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures than freshwater environments, and
49 they may have slightly different $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures. Fox et al. (2009) confirmed that
50 newly grown flight feathers of Greylag Geese showed stable isotope values that

51 were intermediate between those derived from a terrestrial plant diet (i.e. in
52 Sweden prior to the molt-migration) and a diet of saltmarsh plants from Saltholm.

53 To explore expected changes in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ along the length of primaries
54 and to examine the potential for 24-hour cycling in the use of exogenous and
55 endogenous protein for feather growth, we serially sampled a single primary
56 feathers from each of three Greylag Geese from Saltholm; these feathers (and no
57 others) were available from the study of Fox et al. (2009). Because feathers are
58 generated from tip to base and composed of non-living keratin, primaries grown by
59 geese that migrated to Saltholm for their molt should change chronologically from
60 more positive (freshwater) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures at the feather tip to more negative
61 (marine) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures at the feather base. Further, because flightless Greylag
62 Geese forage only at night on Saltholm (Kahlert et al. 1996), a 24-h periodicity in the
63 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature should be expected in serial samples from the flight feathers of geese
64 that were not in equilibrium with the Saltholm isoscape.

65 Our results show that serial samples taken along the length of primary flight
66 feathers readily show equilibration toward a new isoscape and, further, that
67 feathers sampled at fine intervals can reveal diel shifts in exogenous and
68 endogenous protein sources used for feather generation. We are aware of just two
69 prior studies of hair or feathers that used chronological samples to examine changes
70 in isotope signatures through time. Cerling et al. (2006) used Elephant hair to
71 demonstrate the movement of individual African elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) to
72 different foraging locations, and Church et al. (2006) used samples along the length
73 of a growing rectrix from a California Condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*) to show a
74 sudden deposition of lead that resulted in its death. Because our results are
75 unavoidably based on feathers from just three geese, their importance lies in the
76 new approaches we use to study expected changes in isotopic signatures for molt-
77 migrant birds.

78

79 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

80 Feathers were obtained from Greylags in active molt on Saltholm, between
81 Copenhagen and Swedish Skania coast (Fox et al. 2009). The Danish Forest and

82 Nature Agency gave permission to catch and sample the geese and the landowners
83 of Saltholm gave permission to work on the island. The geese were caught under
84 the Copenhagen University Natural History Museum Ringing Permit A600 “DMU-
85 Kalø Ringmærkning.”

86 The geese included in this study were not individually tracked, so we do not
87 know when they arrived at Saltholm, or how soon after arrival they started to molt,
88 or even if they were all molt-migrants to Saltholm. These limitations mean that we
89 could obtain useful information on periodicity only from birds that showed strong
90 changes in their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures along the length of the sampled primary, indicating
91 they were molt-migrants to Saltholm. Greylags are large geese that would require
92 considerably more than a month to come into equilibrium with a new isoscape as
93 different as that at Saltholm (Martinez del Rio and Anderson-Sprecher 2008).
94 Molting geese that were already in equilibrium with the salt marsh isoscape of
95 Saltholm should show no 24-hour cycling in isotopic signatures; these could be
96 either local, Saltholm, geese (e.g. failed breeders) or salt marsh breeders from a
97 similar isoscape. Although there is variation among individual feather growth rates,
98 Greylag Geese should grow their feathers at approximately 7 mm d^{-1} , as inferred
99 from a mean mass of 3509g (Dunning 2007) and the allometric relationship
100 between primary growth rate and body size (Rohwer et al. 2009).

101 The feathers used for this study were sampled twice, once at every 5mm to
102 plot the change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ over a longer period of feather time, measured as
103 mm from the tip of the primary, and a second time at 1 or 2mm intervals, in the
104 hope that we could detect a 24h periodicity in the protein source used for feather
105 generation. Which primary feather was used should not affect the results of this
106 study, as Greylag Geese, like most waterfowl, lose and replace their flight feathers
107 simultaneously (Hohman et al. 1992).

108 Methods for sample preparation and analysis generally follow those in
109 Paritte and Kelly (2009). Feathers were cleaned in dilute detergent followed by
110 repeated rinsing. After air drying the feathers were cleaned again in 2:1
111 chloroform:methanol and allowed to air dry before processing. Once feathers were
112 dried a research technician marked the rachis of each feather from its tip to the base

113 of the growing vane at 1, 2 or 5 mm intervals. The majority of the posterior vane
114 was then cut away, leaving only the few mm closest to the rachis. Then, using the
115 pen marks as a guide, an approximately 200 μ g sample of feather vane was cut
116 immediately adjacent to the pen mark. These samples were loaded into tin capsules
117 (3.5x5.5mm) and stored in an elisa plate until they were analyzed.

118 We analyzed samples in batch sequences of 49 samples and references,
119 referred to as autoruns. Each autorun typically analyzed 39 unknown samples and
120 8 laboratory reference samples in positions 1, 2, 7, 13, 19, 37, 43, 49. The laboratory
121 reference material was powdered Brown-headed Cowbird feather (*Molothrus*
122 *ater*), generated as described in Kelly et al. (2009). Among sample variation in the
123 laboratory reference material was < 0.2‰ for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. In addition, to
124 this laboratory reference we ran one sample each of two National Institute of
125 Standards and Technologies NIST reference materials (USGS 40 in autorun position
126 25 and USGS 41 in autorun position 31). All stable isotope ratios are expressed in
127 standard δ notation, where $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N} = [(\text{isotope ratio sample/isotope ratio}$
128 $\text{standard}) - 1] * 1000$. Consequently, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are expressed in parts per
129 thousand (‰) deviation from a standard, which was Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite for
130 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and Air for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Isotope ratios were measured at the University of Oklahoma
131 using a Thermo Finnigan Delta V isotope ratio mass spectrometer connected to a
132 CosTech elemental analyzer.

133 For each autorun we corrected all measurements for instrumental drift
134 between the first and last sample. Instrumental drift corrections were based on the
135 slopes of best-fit lines for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values regressed against analysis time of
136 references within each autorun. A slope was calculated for the cowbird standard in
137 the run and this slope was used as the drift correction coefficient.

138 To determine if there was evidence of 24-hour cycling in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
139 along the length of the primaries, we used custom Matlab code to perform an
140 autocorrelation analysis after de-trending the data using linear regression and
141 removing the mean. We used this method to find correlation maxima and minima
142 that reveal periodicity in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. Using additional custom Matlab code, we
143 then developed a bootstrap method to test for the statistical significance of having

144 autocorrelation minima and maxima that correspond to a periodic pattern in
145 isotope values. To do so, we randomly permuted the data for each feather and
146 performed autocorrelation analyses of those permuted values. Out of 10,000
147 permutations, we asked what fraction of the data had both a minimum less than or
148 equal that observed in our original autocorrelation and a maximum spaced at the
149 appropriate interval.

150

151 **RESULTS**

152 **Evidence for equilibration following molt-migration**

153 Two geese, 501 and 508, showed a clear and steady decline in their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures
154 through time ($P < 0.0001$), while 509, showed no change ($P = 0.34$, Fig. 1). Both
155 geese that changed did so in a way consistent with the large shift of about 8 ‰ in
156 the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isoscapes suggested by the results of Fox et al. (2009). The third goose
157 showed no change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ along the length of its primary and had a mean of 7.6 ‰,
158 a value intermediate between the start and end values for the two geese that
159 showed a steady change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with time (Fig. 1), which was puzzling. If this
160 individual had been on Saltholm long enough to be in equilibrium with the salt
161 marsh isoscape, then its mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value should have been at or below the latest
162 values from the two geese that showed a steady change in their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values.
163 However, its mean of 7.6 ‰, was considerably higher than the lowest $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
164 found for those two geese (Fig. 1), suggesting that it was a resident goose that did
165 not feed in the saltmarshes of Saltholm. Some of the hayfields used by resident
166 Greylag Geese are less subject to marine influence than the saltmarshes where the
167 majority of migrants feed.

168 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of goose 501 increased significantly along the length of its
169 primary ($p = 0.0003$), while $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for goose 509 ($p = 0.09$) and goose 508 ($p = 0.46$)
170 showed no significant change (Fig. 1). Based on the results of Fox et al. (2009), the
171 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of these geese should have declined if they had moved from Sweden
172 to Saltholm for the molt. Yet goose 501 showed a significant increase in its $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
173 during primary growth (Fig. 1); it also showed a highly significant decline in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$,
174 suggesting that it was indeed a molt-migrant to the island of Saltholm (Fig. 1).

175

176 **Evidence for 24 hour cycling in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$**

177 To explore the possibility of 24-hour cycling in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for these three geese,
178 we sampled their primaries as finely as possible, at 1 or 2mm intervals along the
179 length of the feather. Flightless Greylag Geese forage at night on Saltholm (Kahlert
180 et al. 1996). Thus, a 24-hour periodicity in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature should be recovered
181 from serial samples along the length of the feathers for geese 501 and 508, the two
182 individuals that were coming into equilibrium with the Saltholm marine
183 environment (Fig. 2). In contrast, goose 509, which showed no change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ along
184 the length of its primary, was not expected to show a 24-hour periodicity in its $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
185 values because it apparently was in equilibrium with its Saltholm diet. The length of
186 these fine-resolution runs was shorter than the length of feather used to generate
187 Figure 1 because of sampling problems and a malfunction of the mass
188 spectrophotometer.

189 Autocorrelation results for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ measured in these serial samples are
190 summarized in Figure 2. Note that, because there is significant sampling noise, the
191 signal is not purely periodic in any of the sampled feathers. Feather 508 shows a
192 minimum (most negative) autocorrelation value at the second autocorrelation lag.
193 Given a sampling interval of 2 mm, this corresponds to 4 mm of feather length.
194 Additionally, 508 showed positive autocorrelation values in the region of twice the
195 minimum, strongly indicating periodicity in the data. The bootstrap statistics
196 indicated that the probability of having the combination of a minimum at the lag of 2
197 and a max near the lag of 4 is $P = 0.032$. Feather 501 had a different sampling
198 interval and, accordingly, showed a more expanded autocorrelation function with a
199 minimum at lag of 3 and a maximum autocorrelation at twice that value. The
200 bootstrap probability of having that combined maximum and minimum was $P = 0.01$.
201 Thus, both feathers 501 and 508 show significant periodicity in their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. In
202 contrast, feather 509, which showed no sign of coming into a new equilibrium for
203 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, never showed a significant change in sign for the autocorrelation, suggesting,
204 as predicted, that there was no periodic signal underlying the data for this feather.

205

206 **DISCUSSION**

207 **The value of sampling feathers serially**

208 As far as we are aware, the data for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in Figure 1 constitute the first direct test of
209 a gradual change in the isotopic composition of feathers being grown while a molt-
210 migrant is coming into equilibrium with a new isoscape. Fox et al. (2009) inferred
211 this process by sampling food plants used by Greylag Geese on their breeding
212 grounds in southern Sweden, and on their saltwater molting grounds on the island
213 of Saltholm in Denmark. This inference was based on the assumption that
214 fractionation values for the conversion of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in food plant to $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in
215 goose feather were accurately represented by the results of an experimental study
216 of Japanese Quail (*Coturnix japonica*) raised on a plant based diet (Hobson and Clark
217 1992a; Hobson and Clark 1992b). How well those values represent similar
218 processes in Greylag Geese is an unknown, as are the confidence intervals
219 associated with these transformations. Further, Fox et al. (2009) used only two food
220 plants from each locality to infer the expected changes in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for
221 feathers, yet Greylag Geese probably use a larger diversity of plants at each of these
222 localities, as is known to be the case on Saltholm as the molt progresses (Fox et al.
223 1998). For these reasons, the direct measure of change along the length of the
224 feather that we have established for two of the three Greylag primaries in our
225 sample offers a powerful confirmation of the result obtained by Fox et al. (2009) for
226 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Their mean value for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of 8.4 ‰ for feathers from 12 molting geese is
227 reasonably close to the mean of 7.6 ‰ for the two geese in our sample that were
228 equilibrating with the Saltholm environment. The mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for the goose that
229 showed no evidence of equilibrating was also 7.6‰ (509), considerably higher than
230 the latest (most proximal) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for the geese that showed strong declines in
231 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Fig. 1). The relatively high mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for goose 509, together with the lack of
232 change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ along its feather, suggests that this goose had not arrived early and
233 delayed the start of its molt until reaching equilibrium with the Saltholm isoscape.
234 Possibly it was a Saltholm resident with a different diet.

235 Fox et al. (2009) suggested that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ also changed in a way that suggested the
236 use of endogenous C in the generation of primary feathers during the molt.

237 However, the absolute difference in the expected values for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (again, generated
238 by sampling two food plants from the Swedish breeding grounds and two food
239 plants from the Saltholm molting grounds) was less than 2 ‰. While differences as
240 small as 2 ‰ can reliably be measured, predicting differences this small by applying
241 fraction values to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values measured to samples of two food plants consumed
242 by geese at their breeding and molting sites seems hazardous. With their sample of
243 12 geese, Fox et al. (2009) did find the feather values to be intermediate between
244 the food values for Sweden and Saltholm, using the conversion figures for Japanese
245 Quail (Hobson and Clark 1992b). Our mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of 26.2 ‰ for the three
246 feathers we analyzed is close to their mean of 26.5 ‰ based on 12 geese (Fox et al.
247 2009). However, the difference in the inferred values for feather tissue generated
248 from Swedish reserves and from Saltholm plant material suggests that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
249 should decline during primary growth. Yet, we found no evidence for such a decline
250 in the three feathers we examined: two geese showed no change, while the third
251 showed a significant increase in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ along the length of its primary (Fig. 1).
252 Further, goose 501 that showed an increase in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values showed a strong decline
253 in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values along the length of its growing primary, so we know that this
254 individual was not yet in equilibrium with the Saltholm $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isoscape. The positive
255 slope for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in this goose further suggests that the expected difference in feather
256 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, estimated from food plants sampled in Sweden and Saltholm (Fox et al. 2009),
257 was not reliable.

258

259 **Stored reserves and 24-hour cycling**

260 As predicted the two geese that showed strong declines in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ along the length of
261 their growing primaries also showed 24-hour cycling in their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. Further,
262 the goose that showed no change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ along the length of its primary showed no
263 evidence of 24-hour cycling, a result we predicted because this goose was not
264 coming into equilibrium with the Saltholm $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ environment. These results support
265 the use of endogenous reserves for feather growth during parts of the 24-hour cycle
266 when geese do not forage and feathers continue to grow (Murphy and King 1990).
267 The periodicity of this cycling can also be estimated from the autocorrelation

268 analysis and that periodicity should match feather growth rates. Our
269 autocorrelation analyses revealed periodicities corresponding to growth rates of
270 roughly 8 and 6 mm d⁻¹ for feathers 509 and 501, respectively. These periodicity
271 values accord well with the estimated primary growth rate of about 7 mm d⁻¹ for a
272 bird the size of a Greylag Goose (Rohwer et al. 2009). Finer sampling than could be
273 achieved by our equipment would presumably eliminate the noise in our
274 autocorrelation results resulting from 1 or 2 mm sampling intervals, leaving only
275 noise associated with day-to-day differences in food intake and feeding times
276 (Moran et al. 2011).

277

278 **General**

279 Bridge et al. (2011) assessed the possible use of endogenous protein reserves for
280 molting by studying changes in δD and $\delta^{13}C$ in the primaries of Painted Buntings
281 (*Passerina ciris*). Like many other migrant song birds that breed in the central and
282 southern regions of western North America, Painted bunting from the Midwestern
283 breeding population migrate to northwest Mexico for their annual post-breeding
284 molt (Thompson 1991; Rohwer et al. 2005; Rohwer 2013). Here they exploit a food
285 flush generated by the late summer monsoon, which delivers most of the annual
286 precipitation to this region of northwest Mexico in July – September (Adams and
287 Comrie 1997; Comrie and Glenn 1998). Primary replacement in Painted Buntings in
288 Sinaloa is so rapid that it requires an average of only 30 and 34 days in adult females
289 and adult males, respectively (Rohwer 2013).

290 Bridge et al. (2011) showed that both δD and $\delta^{13}C$ values changed from
291 primary 1 to 9 in some Painted Buntings sampled in Sinaloa. They suggest that
292 birds that showed differences between primaries 1 and 9 should be individuals that
293 had initiated molt shortly after arriving in Sinaloa, before their endogenous protein
294 reserves reached equilibrium with the Sinaloa isoscape. Individuals that failed to
295 show strong differences between these primaries either may have delayed molt
296 until their endogenous protein reserves were in equilibrium with the Sinaloa
297 isoscape, or the food they consumed before migrating may have matched what they
298 were consuming on their Sinaloa molting grounds. Direct evidence of continuous

299 change in δD and $\delta^{13}C$ is needed to test the suggestion by Bridge et al. (2011) that
300 buntings showing strong differences in δD and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures between primaries 1
301 and 9 were coming into equilibrium with a new isoscape while molting. This could
302 now be accomplished by sampling across different primaries on the feather-time
303 axis developed by Rohwer and Broms (2012) spanning the replacement of all
304 primaries.

305 In general, measuring isotopic changes in serial samples taken at equal time
306 intervals from flight feathers offers a powerful tool for studying molt-migration. It
307 provides strong data for individual birds while avoiding the assumptions involved
308 with food sampling and using fraction estimates to compute expected tissue values
309 for isotopes. Samples from the primaries that represent equal time intervals can be
310 generated in two ways. For large birds, finely spaced serial samples taken along the
311 length of a primary can give such good data that the evidence of general changes can
312 even be confirmed by evidence of 24-hour periodicity in isotope measurements, as
313 we have shown here for Greylag Geese. For small birds, serially sampling single
314 flight feathers generates only a limited temporal series of samples and the flight
315 feathers of small birds grow too slowly (Rohwer et al. 2009) for traditional sampling
316 methods to achieve a sample density sufficient to detect 24-hour cycling. However,
317 samples representing approximately equal time intervals across the full primary
318 molt can be taken from different primaries (Rohwer and Broms 2012), thus greatly
319 extending the sampling period to the time required to replace all 9 or 10 primaries.
320 Such sampling, coupled with information on how soon after arrival molt-migrants
321 initiate primary replacement, could give excellent empirical data on the time
322 required to reach equilibrium following changes in isoscapes by small wild birds.

323

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332

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Figure 1. Values for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measured in serial samples along the length of the primary. Feather vein was sampled at 5mm intervals near the rachis of the growing primary for its full length, starting at the tip of the feather.

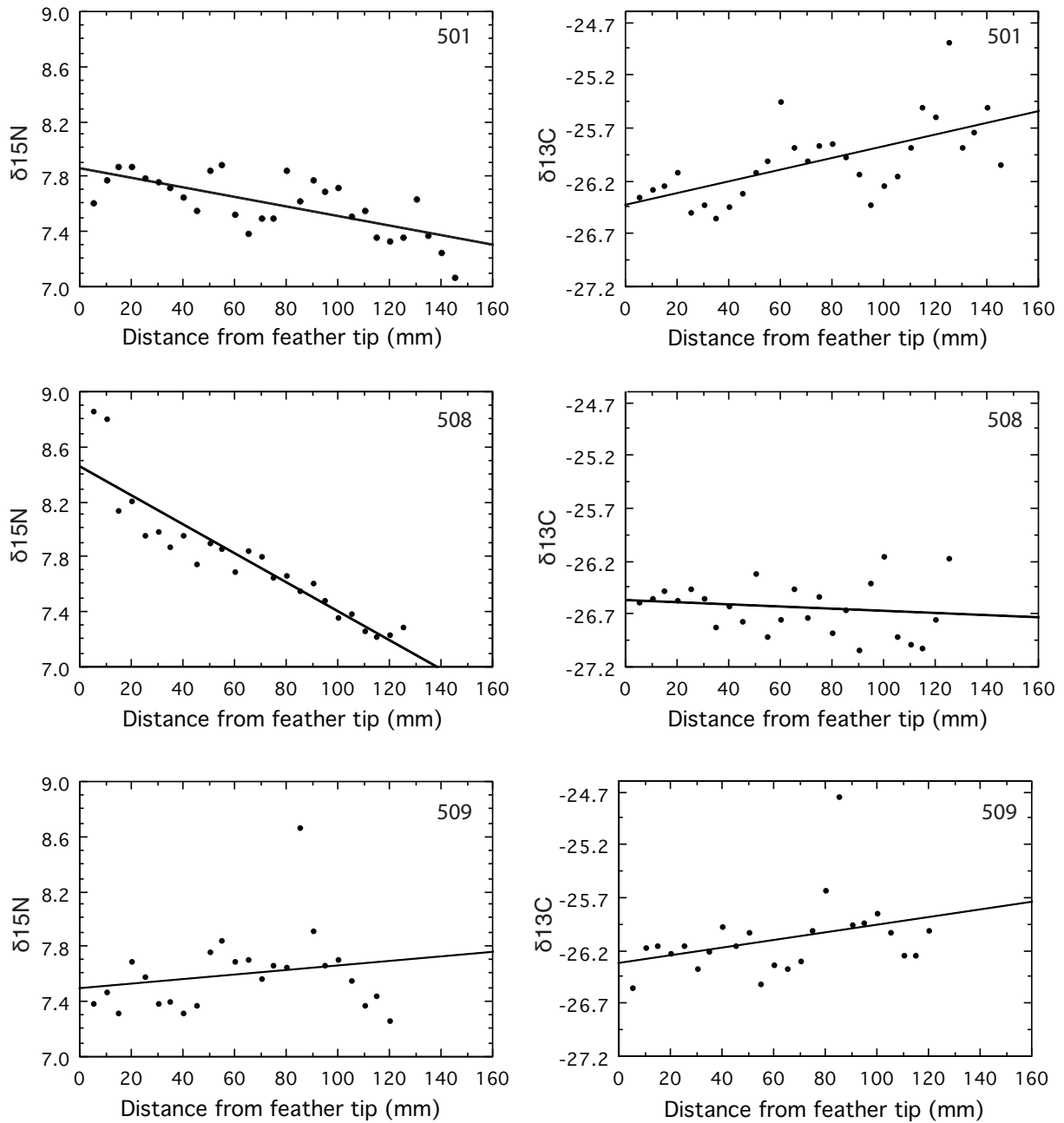


Figure 2. Autocorrelation and regression results for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ measured at 1 or 2 mm intervals from the tips of growing primaries. Greylag Geese 501 and 508 showed decreasing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, indicating they were equilibrating with the Saltholm isoscape as their primaries were growing, and both showed significant autocorrelations ($p = 0.01$ and 0.03 , respectively). Goose 509 showed no change in its $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and no autocorrelation ($p > 0.25$).

