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**Intra- and inter-individual variation in the foraging ecology of a generalist subantarctic seabird, the Gentoo penguin**

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Running page head: "Individual specialisations in Gentoo penguins"

## ABSTRACT

Individual specialisations have been suggested to improve foraging efficiency by optimising individual capacity (physiological and behavioural) and reducing intra-specific competition in exploiting prey resources. In this study we investigated the inter- and intra-individual variation in behaviour in an opportunistic forager, the Gentoo penguin (*Pygoscelis papua*), at Kerguelen Island, southern Indian Ocean. We used complementary bio-logging and stable isotope analyses, coupled with morphometric measurements, to: 1) determine the inter-individual variation in morphology and foraging behaviour; 2) quantify intra-individual variation in foraging behaviour; 3) investigate the links between consistency in foraging, distances travelled and body condition; and 4) determine if dietary specialisations exist and are maintained outside the breeding season. We show that this species exhibits a large inter-individual variation in foraging behaviour with some individuals conducting very short trips close to the colony while others travelled considerably further. Heavier individuals tended to forage in more distant locations, dive deeper and perform more benthic dives. Individual specialisation in behaviour was low to moderate at the population level, yet some individuals were very consistent. The rate of travel was not influenced by consistency, and there was a lack of correlation between body condition and foraging consistency. High inter-individual variation in feeding ecology and dietary specialisations outside of a single breeding season were observed, consistent with Gentoo penguins being Type “B” generalists (i.e. generalist populations composed of individuals each consuming a different range of foods).

**KEY WORDS:** Behavioural consistency · Diving behaviour · Feeding ecology · Foraging behaviour · Gentoo penguins · Individual specialisations · *Pygoscelis papua* · Stable isotopes

## INTRODUCTION

According to the optimal foraging theory, individuals implement feeding strategies aimed at maximizing energetic gains while minimizing costs (Stephens & Krebs 1986). Individual specialisations have been suggested to improve feeding efficiency by reducing intra-specific competition or allowing individuals to catch prey they can handle and digest most efficiently (Bolnick et al. 2003, Estes et al. 2003). Food consumption rates and body condition are known to differ among diet specialists, and these differences may reflect differences in intrinsic quality (Durell et al. 2001, Bolnick et al. 2003, Anderson et al. 2009, Svanbäck & Persson 2009, Cucherousset et al. 2011). Specialisations in foraging, involving the repetition of specific behaviours to acquire food or dietary choices over time, have until recently been poorly investigated (Bolnick et al. 2003; Estes et al. 2003; Cook et al. 2005). Individual specialists have been defined as “individuals whose niche is substantially narrower than its population’s niche for reasons not attributable to their sex, age or discrete morphological group” (Bolnick et al. 2003). Even populations usually thought to be generalists can actually be composed of individual specialists, referred to as Type “B” generalists (individuals each specializing on a different but narrow range of food types) as opposed to Type “A” generalists (individuals all taking a wide range of food types) (Araújo et al. 2011, Loxdale et al. 2011, Layman & Allgeier 2012, Fodrie et al. 2015).

Information on individual specialisations is crucial as they may have significant ecological consequences at the individual and population levels, and impact ecological processes and foraging dynamics (Bolnick et al. 2003, Matich et al. 2011, Ceia & Ramos 2015). Thus, it is of importance to identify the mechanisms generating inter-individual variation and study the wider implications of variation in foraging behaviour to understand trophic relationships between the animals and their environment (Bolnick et al. 2003, Baylis et al. 2015, Ceia & Ramos 2015, Kernaléguen et al. 2015a). The study of individual specialisations

requires longitudinal sampling, in which the same individuals are sampled over time (Bolnick et al. 2003, Araújo et al. 2011). Ideally, the use of complementary techniques that represent different timescales and resolutions should be implemented to accurately describe individual specialisations and their persistence (Kernaléguen et al. 2015b). Seabirds are suitable models to study individual specialisations as most species nest in large colonies that allow for easy access to individuals that use the same environment, are strongly constrained during breeding as central place foragers and may compete for the same resources (Ratcliffe et al. 2013).

Gentoo penguins (*Pygoscelis papua*) are one of the most widespread penguin species, distributed from the northern subantarctic islands (Crozet is; 46°S) to the Antarctic Peninsula (62 to 69°S, Williams 1995). The species is considered an inshore opportunistic forager, consuming both benthic and pelagic species, and exhibiting high plasticity in their diet, marine habitat use and dive behaviour (Bost & Jouventin 1990, Woehler 1995, Lescroël & Bost 2005, Miller et al. 2009). They consume patchy prey encompassing a large size range, from small crustaceans to large fish species (Hindell 1989, Robinson & Hindell 1996). Accordingly, their diets vary substantially among breeding locations, within colonies, and also within individuals of the same colony (Croxall et al. 1988, Bost & Jouventin 1990, Robinson & Hindell 1996, Lescroël et al. 2004, Polito et al. 2015).

As Gentoo penguins are long-lived and sedentary (Williams & Rodwell 1992), individuals are expected to learn to apply efficient foraging tactics throughout their lifetime and, thus, increase their individual efficiency when foraging under situations of competition or food limitation (Estes et al. 2003). Indeed, recent studies suggest that individuals exhibit some degree of prey selection and specialisation, as judged by stomach content analysis, and stable isotope values (Polito et al. 2015). However, there is little information on individual consistency in foraging behaviour and on whether such specialisations are linked to diet in this species.

In the present study, we investigated inter- and intra-individual variation in the foraging ecology of Gentoo penguins. We used complementary bio-logging and stable isotope analysis, coupled with morphometric measurements on Gentoo penguins to: 1) describe their inter-individual variation in morphology, spatial use and dive behaviour; 2) quantify their intra-individual variation in foraging behaviour; 3) investigate the links between consistency in foraging behaviour, distances travelled and body condition; and 4) describe their inter-individual variation in feeding ecology and determine if dietary specialisations exist and are maintained outside of the breeding season. We predicted that: 1) individuals would differ greatly in foraging metrics as Gentoo penguin diet and behaviour are known to vary among colonies and between individuals of the same colonies, and that such variation would be attributed to differences in body mass, known to influence dive depth (Lescroël et al. 2004, Lescroël & Bost 2005, Cook et al. 2013, Polito et al. 2015, Camprasse et al. 2017); 2) dietary and behavioural consistency would be detected as populations usually considered generalists are increasingly shown to be composed on individual specialists (Woo et al. 2008, Araújo et al. 2011, Loxdale et al. 2011, Layman & Allgeier 2012, Fodrie et al. 2015); and 3) individuals displaying higher consistency in foraging behaviour would travel shorter distances and have higher body condition as such consistency is thought to allow individuals to forage more efficiently (Bolnick et al. 2003, Estes et al. 2003).

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **Study site and instrumentation**

The study was performed at Kerguelen Island in the southern Indian Ocean, one of the major breeding grounds for Gentoo penguins (thereafter referred to as Gentoos) with 40 000 pairs (Lescroël et al. 2004, Lynch 2013). Gentoos breed along most of the Kerguelen coastline

in many small- to medium-sized colonies ranging from 15 to >400 pairs). As the diet and foraging behaviour of this species are known to vary substantially among colonies and within breeding locations, especially on Kerguelen Island (Lescroël et al. 2004, Lescroël & Bost 2005), two colonies were selected to make sure patterns observed were not solely dependent upon colony location. Accordingly, field work was conducted at the Pointe Suzanne and Estacade colonies (*ca* 20 km apart, 49°26'S, 70°26'E and 49°15'S, 70°33'E, respectively, with *ca* 50 and 25 chicks respectively) (Fig. 1). Both colonies face the open ocean. The Pointe Suzanne colony, however, faces a wider range of foraging habitats due to its proximity to a more sheltered bay (Baie Norvégienne). The Estacade colony is localized westward of the Polar Front, a productive frontal zone, on the eastward side of the Kerguelen shelf. Gentoos were in the late chick-rearing (i.e. *crèche*) stage at both study sites. Logistical constraints prevented sampling other colonies, as well as greater sample sizes, and so our results on site effects must be interpreted with caution.

We deployed data loggers on breeding Gentoos during the late chick-rearing (*crèche* stage: chicks > 4-5 weeks-old), in the 2014/15 breeding season (Table 1). To determine the at-sea movements and diving behaviour of the penguins, we used Fastloc GPS loggers (F2G 134A; FastLoc ®; Sirtrack, Havelock North, NZ; 69 x 28 x 21 mm, 39 g in air), alone or in combination with time-depth recorders (TDR, LAT1800S, Lotek Wireless Inc.; 36 x 11 x 7.2 mm, 4.8 g in air). GPS loggers were programmed to sample position every 5 min. The TDR units were set to record depth and temperature at 1 s intervals. All attached devices, alone or in combination, weighed < 1% body mass.

At Pointe Suzanne, sampling occurred between 24 November and 9 December 2014. A total of 24 birds were instrumented for 4–16 d according to the possibilities of recapture. We used either two kinds of instruments (GPS+TDR:  $n=18$ ), or only one instrument (GPS:  $n=4$ ,

TDR:  $n=2$ ). At Estacade, a total of 9 birds were instrumented between 20 December 2014 and 4 January 2015 with GPS+TDR for 4–15 d.

All instrumented birds were confirmed breeders with only birds that were observed feeding chicks being sampled. Individuals were weighed in a cloth bag using a suspension scale ( $\pm 25$  g, Pesola AG Baar, Switzerland) before data loggers were attached to the dorsal feathers using waterproof tape (Tesa 4651, Germany) and cyanoacrylate glue (Loctite 401 Instant Adhesive, UK). Individuals were then released and resumed normal behaviours. With the exception of 3 individuals from Estacade that were recaptured on the beach a few kilometres north or south of the colony, all birds were recaptured at the colony after several foraging trips. The data loggers were removed and individuals were weighed again. Measurements of bill length and depth were taken with Vernier callipers ( $\pm 0.05$  mm) and flipper length with a metal ruler ( $\pm 1$  mm), respectively. In addition, a blood sample (0.5-1.5 mL) was obtained by venipuncture of a tarsal vein for stable isotope analysis and molecular sex determination. Feathers (3-6) were plucked from the thorax region for stable isotope analysis. Handling times ranged 15-20 min during which the bird's head was covered with a hood to reduce stress. Of the 33 birds instrumented in the 2 study sites, 28 birds were recaptured of which 4 did not go to sea to forage and 2 individuals had TDRs that malfunctioned. Overall, 22 individuals provided data which were analysed (Pointe Suzanne:  $n=17$ , Estacade:  $n=5$ ). All 22 individuals conducted more than one trip, with 19 providing both TDR and GPS data.

### **Isotopic analyses**

The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of seabirds have been shown to reflect their foraging habitats (Cherel & Hobson 2007, Jaeger et al. 2010), while their  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values increase with trophic level (Cherel et al. 2010). Isotopic values were measured on whole blood (hereafter blood) and feathers. The rationale is that the two complementary tissues integrate different periods of information, due



to the fact that the keratin in feathers is inert after synthesis (details in Cherel et al. 2008). Blood is a metabolic active tissue that integrates a period of weeks before sampling, whereas feathers reflect the diet at the time they were grown as feathers are metabolically inert after they are grown (Cherel et al. 2000). In the present study, blood isotopic values integrated a few weeks before sampling, thus corresponding to the breeding period (Bearhop et al. 2006). In contrast, Gentoos moult once a year, at the end of the breeding period, after a period of 10 days at sea dedicated to replenishment of body reserves (Croxall & Davis 1999, Polito et al. 2011). They then fast ashore for about 3 weeks, using their body reserves to cover the energetic and nutrient needs for moulting and fasting (Croxall & Davis 1999). Hence, the isotopic values of feathers document the foraging ecology of penguins during the pre-moult period of hyperphagia at sea during which they build up energy reserves (Cherel et al. 2008), here almost one year before sampling the instrumented Gentoos.

In the laboratory, blood samples were freeze-dried and powdered. Lipid extraction was unnecessary as the C:N mass ratio was  $< 3.5$  for all blood samples (Cherel et al. 2005b); C:N mass ratios were indeed  $3.29 \pm 0.06$  (whole blood,  $n= 25$ ) and  $3.17 \pm 0.05$  (feathers,  $n= 27$ ). A pool of 3 feathers per bird was cleaned of surface lipids and contaminants using a 2:1 chloroform:methanol bath, air-dried and cut into small pieces. For each feather, the rachis and the top 5 mm of the feather synthesised at sea were discarded before analysis so the remaining feather sections was, thus, homogeneous and corresponded to the fasting period (Cherel et al. 2005a).

Nitrogen and carbon isotopic ratios were measured on aliquots of 0.2-0.4 mg with a continuous-flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific Delta V Advantage) coupled to an elemental analyser (Thermo Scientific Flash EA 1112). Results are presented in the usual  $\delta$  notation relative to Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (VPDB) for carbon and atmospheric  $N_2$  (AIR) for nitrogen. Replicate measurements of internal laboratory standards (acetanilide

and peptone) indicated measurement errors  $< 0.15 \text{ ‰}$  for both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Blood and/or feather sampling was not possible on all individuals instrumented, resulting in the collection of either no samples, only feathers, only blood, or both samples for each individual. Stable isotope values were obtained from 25 individuals for blood (11 females, 14 males), and 27 individuals for feathers (11 females, 13 males, three unknown). Both tissues were sampled in 24 individuals (11 females, 13 males). Of these 24 individuals, 16 also had both GPS and TDR data, 1 had TDR data only, 3 had GPS data only, and 4 did not have any bio-logging data.

### **Data processing**

All data analyses were conducted in the R Statistical Environment in version 3.3 (R Team, 2015). The GPS records for each bird were visually inspected to identify individual foraging trips. As some birds hauled out in some locations distant from the colony for a few hours to a couple of days, foraging trips were defined as the time between an individual left a land-based position until it came back ashore. The *diveMove* package (Luque 2007) was used to apply a speed filter to the GPS data to remove erroneous locations (with a speed threshold of  $1.5 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  based on the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of swim speeds for all individuals). The GPS records were interpolated to 1 s intervals in the *adehabitatLT* package (Calenge 2015) to provide spatial information for the dive records. Furthermore, the packages *trip* (Sumner 2009) and *sp* (Bivand et al. 2005) were used to obtain summaries of at-sea movements and investigate the consistency in habitat use. Indeed, individual tracks were overlaid with a grid comprised of 2x2 km cells, where the number of grid cells used were calculated for each trip. Means and coefficients of variation for each individual were calculated for trip duration, maximum range, and horizontal distance travelled per trip and per hour. Bearing for each trip was calculated as the angle between the colony and the most distal point of the tracks, and standard deviation in bearing was calculated for each individual using the *circular* package (Agostinelli & Lund 2011).

The *diveMove* package was used to obtain summaries of diving metrics from TDR records (only dives deeper > 2 m were considered to be foraging dives following Lescroël and Bost, 2005). The *lubridate* package (Grolemund & Wickham 2011) was used to identify night and day dives based on sunset and sunrise times at the relevant sites. Benthic and pelagic dives were determined based on the proportion of dive time that was spent in the bottom phase for each dive (phase detected by the “diveStats” function after descent and before ascent), and the depth achieved on consecutive dives. If the dive depth stayed within 5 % of the maximum depth for this dive for more than 15 s, and if the dive was within 5 % of the maximum depth achieved during the last 15 min of diving, the dive was labelled as “flat-benthic”. If the dive was within 5 % of the maximum depth achieved for “flat-benthic” dive during the last 15 min of diving, the dive was labelled as “V-benthic”. If the dive met neither of these criteria, the dive was labelled as “pelagic”. The proportion of pelagic dives was then determined. Means and standard deviations per trip were calculated for bottom time and mean bottom depth of each dive, the total vertical distance travelled per trip and per hour, and the proportion of pelagic and night diving. Horizontal and vertical distances travelled were summed to provide an index of foraging energy expenditure per trip and per hour (Wilson et al. 1986).

An index of consistency in habitat use was calculated for each animal. For each trip, the number of grid cells used by the individuals was identified. The number of shared grid cells between each pair of trips (e.g. trip 1 and trip 2, trip 2 and trip 3, trip 1 and trip 3 etc.) was determined and the average of these calculated. This number was then divided by the average number of grid cells used per trip. Different grid cell sizes were tested to calculate the index of consistency in habitat use (from 1 x 1 km to 10 x 10 km) to check the influence of grid cell size on our estimate of spatial consistency. Indices obtained, regardless of cell grid sizes, were highly correlated, and data from the 2 x 2 km grid cell size are presented.

## Statistical analyses

Body mass and morphometric measurements were correlated (linear regressions: beak depth:  $F_{1,18}=14.62$ ,  $R^2 = 0.42$ ,  $P=0.001$ ; flipper length:  $F_{1,18}=14.15$ ,  $R^2 = 0.65$ ,  $P=0.001$ ) and therefore, only relationships with body mass were further investigated in models. A principal component analysis was run on flipper, bill length and bill depth with the *FactoMineR* package (Lê et al. 2008). Residuals from a linear regression of the first principal component against body mass were then used as an estimate of body condition (Cuervo et al. 2009). The first principal component of the morphometric measurements explained 72.2 % of the total variation and was, therefore, used as an estimate of structural size. There was no significant difference between the sexes in the slopes or elevations of the linear regressions of body mass on this estimate of structural size. Therefore, data were pooled to estimate individual body condition.

The following spatial metrics were highly correlated: trip duration and maximum range (linear mixed effects models:  $F_{1,17}=61.17$ ,  $R^2=0.78$ ,  $P<0.001$ ); and maximum range and total distance travelled (linear mixed effects models:  $F_{1,17}=285.7$ ,  $R^2=0.94$ ,  $P<0.001$ ). Consequently, only maximum range was used in linear mixed effects models. Similarly, the following diving metrics were highly correlated: bottom depth and total vertical distance travelled (linear mixed effects models:  $F_{1,17}=41.41$ ,  $R^2=0.69$ ,  $P<0.001$ ); and dive time and bottom depth (linear mixed effects models:  $F_{1,17}=91.04$ ,  $R^2=0.83$ ,  $P<0.001$ ). Thus, only bottom depth was included in further analyses.

Following a preliminary analysis to remove outliers, linear regressions, and linear mixed effects models in the package *lme4* (Bates et al. 2014) where individuals had repeated samples, were used to investigate relationships between morphometric measurements, consistency in foraging strategies and stable isotope values. For all models, backward-stepwise model selection was used to select the most parsimonious model (Ratcliffe et al. 2013). First, the most appropriate random effects structure was identified with the restricted maximum

likelihood (REML), then the best fixed effects structure was determined using maximum likelihood (ML) after models were compared with the “anova” function, and the most parsimonious models were found based on their Akaike Information Criteria. For models in which one observation per trip was used (i.e. for spatial use metrics), individuals were included in the random effects. For models in which multiple observations per trip were used (i.e. for diving behaviour metrics), trip nested within individuals were included in the random effects. The selected models were refitted with REML to estimate the model parameters (Zuur et al. 2009). The residuals of the models were inspected and, whenever there was evidence of heterogeneity in the residuals, a sex- and/or site-specific variance structure was applied (Zuur et al. 2009).

More specifically, in order to describe the inter-individual variation in morphology and foraging behaviour, we investigated the effects of sex and stage on morphometric measurements, and the effects of sex, site and body mass on foraging metrics (interactions between fixed effects could not be investigated due to small sample sizes). A k-means clustering analysis was performed to know whether individuals clustered according to their foraging behaviour. In order to quantify the intra-individual variation in diving behaviour and spatial use, we used the R package *ape* (Paradis et al. 2004) to perform a variance components analysis. Such method calculates the variance, standard deviation and proportion of total variance occurring at the levels of individual, and trip within individual when multiple observations per trip were obtained, as well as the residual variation (Ratcliffe et al. 2013, Harris et al. 2014). An estimate of individual specialisation is given by the proportion of variance explained by the individual variance component (Bolnick et al. 2003, Dingemanse & Dochtermann 2013, Ratcliffe et al. 2013). When models including sex, site or body mass were better than the equivalent models without fixed effects (i.e. null models), the variance component analysis was run on both null and optimal models to quantify the reduction in

variance explained by the individual, or the trip effects after the inclusion of the fixed effects (Ratcliffe et al. 2013). In order to investigate the links between consistency in foraging behaviour, vertical and horizontal distances travelled, and body condition, linear regressions were used. In order to quantify the inter-individual variation in trophic niche and foraging behaviour, and determine if dietary specialisations were maintained outside of a single breeding season, relationships between carbon and nitrogen values in blood and feathers, respectively, were investigated. Results presented are means  $\pm$  SD, unless stated otherwise.

## RESULTS

### **Inter-individual variation in morphometry and at-sea behaviour**

Gentoo penguins varied considerably in their body condition, mass and morphometric measurements (Tables 1 and 2). Body condition indices were lower at Pointe Suzanne (linear regression:  $F_{1,18}=14.42$ ,  $R^2=0.4$ ,  $P=0.001$ ) compared to Estacade but similar between sexes (linear regression:  $F_{1,18}=0.37$ ,  $R^2=-0.03$ ,  $P=0.5$ ). Lastly, females had smaller bill lengths than males (linear regression:  $F_{1,18}=32.68$ ,  $R^2=0.63$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), as well as flipper lengths (linear regression:  $F_{1,18}=4.96$ ,  $R^2=0.2$ ,  $P=0.04$ ).

Overall, a total of 113 foraging trips were obtained (16 from Estacade, 97 from Pointe Suzanne) with 2-15 trips recorded per individual (mean= 5) lasting 4.0-15.4 d each (mean=7.3) (Table 1). Individuals varied considerably in their spatial use of the marine environment (Table 3), even within the same colony, with some individuals foraging close to the shore, while others travelled towards the continental shelf. Individual maximum distances from the colony averaged  $21.6 \pm 18.7$  [3.3-78.3] km, trip durations averaged  $26.6 \pm 22.8$  [5.1-77.6] h, total horizontal distances covered averaged  $65.0 \pm 56.7$  [9.9-217.4] km, and horizontal distances per hour averaged  $2.7 \pm 0.5$  [1.8-3.7] km. Furthermore, individual birds exploited different areas

around the colony (Fig.1). Six birds hauled out in locations away from the colony for periods of 10-57 h. Birds did not go on two consecutive long trips, but rather tended to alternate long and short trips. A k-means clustering analysis revealed three different foraging strategies: birds that travelled farther, dived deeper and were less pelagic ( $n=5$ , means $\pm$  SE:  $49.3 \pm 19.3$  km,  $40.2 \pm 15.8$  m,  $70.9 \pm 11.4$  %, respectively); birds that stayed close to colony, had the shallowest dives and displayed the highest percentage of pelagic diving ( $n=8$ , means $\pm$  SE:  $8.1 \pm 4.6$  km,  $13.6 \pm 7.1$  m,  $89.7 \pm 6.9$  %, respectively); and birds with intermediate foraging metrics ( $n=6$ , means $\pm$  SE:  $22.0 \pm 5.0$  km,  $30.7 \pm 5.4$  m,  $73.7 \pm 10.2$  %, respectively). Both sexes and sites were represented in each cluster. Lastly, sex and site did not influence spatial metrics (Table 4).

There was also considerable inter-individual variation in the diving behaviour of the instrumented birds, irrespective of colony. Some individuals performed very short and shallow dives and travelled short vertical distances, while others dived for much longer and deeper, and travelled much greater vertical distances (Table 5). On average, individuals spent  $70.9 \pm 20.1$  [29.5-106.8] s at the bottom of dives, dived to bottom depths of  $26.0 \pm 14.7$  [5.1-61.6] m, and travelled total vertical distances of  $26.6 \pm 23.2$  [2.1-74.5] km, and hourly vertical distances of  $0.8 \pm 0.2$  [0.4-1.1] km. Accordingly, the distance travelled (both horizontal and vertical) varied between individuals (mean distance per trip:  $96.6 \pm 81.0$  [13.3-279.6] km; mean distance per hour of foraging:  $3.5 \pm 0.6$  [2.3-4.8] km).

Sex and site did not significantly influence dive depth (Table 4). Some individuals performed almost entirely pelagic dives while, for others, benthic dives represented up to 48% of all dives (Table 5). Furthermore, individuals varied in their diving schedule, with some individuals diving half of their time at night, and other individuals diving mostly during the day (Table 5 and Fig. 2). Daylight dives were on average  $30.3 \pm 37.5$  m deep and  $68.5 \pm 53.2$  s long ( $n=24336$ , 75% of dives recorded) while night dives were on average  $9.2 \pm 10.2$  m deep

and  $52.3 \pm 39.9$  s long ( $n=8298$ , 25% of dives recorded). Several individuals dived at night during multiple-day trips while other birds performed short trips (*ca* 10 km from the colony) and dived predominantly at night. The frequency of night diving increased with the proportion of pelagic diving, which averaged of 76.8% during the day and 92.9% at night (Fig. 2).

### **Intra-individual variation and consistency in foraging behaviour**

The large differences in standard deviations between individuals indicate a substantial degree of intra-individual variation both in spatial use and dive metrics (Tables 3, 4, and 5, respectively). At the population level, the variance component analysis showed low to moderate individual specialisations both in dive behaviour and spatial use (Table 6). The indices of consistency in habitat use were not influenced by sex or site (Table 4, mean  $0.37 \pm 0.2$ , range: 0.05-0.73, Fig. 3). Some penguins were very consistent in the proportion of pelagic or benthic dives they performed (e.g. individual 14 stayed within 10% of its own values) while others varied greatly (e.g. individual 28 ranged from 47-98% of pelagic dives between trips) (Fig. 4). The total (horizontal + vertical) distance travelled per hour was not correlated with repeatability indices (linear regression:  $F_{1,17}=0.97$ ,  $R^2=-0.002$ ,  $P=0.34$ ). Lastly, body condition did not vary with consistency in habitat use (linear regression:  $F_{1,12}=0.16$ ,  $R^2=-0.07$ ,  $P=0.70$ ).

### **Stable isotopes values and link with foraging metrics**

Tissue isotope values varied widely among individuals, with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  ranges of 4.0 and 5.8 ‰ in blood and 4.2 and 4.4 ‰ in feathers, respectively (Table 7). Values for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  co-varied positively in both tissues (linear regression:  $F_{1,23}=31.94$ ,  $R^2=0.56$ ,  $P<0.001$  and  $F_{1,22}=38.72$ ,  $R^2=0.62$ ,  $P<0.001$  in blood and feathers, respectively) (Fig. 5). There was no significant difference between the sexes in their  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values but males had higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in blood and feathers (linear mixed effects models:  $t_{23}=3.4$ ,  $P=0.002$  and  $t_{23}=0.9$ ,  $P=0.4$ , for nitrogen and carbon, respectively). Site did not influence  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ( $t_{23}=-0.6$ ,  $P=0.5$ ,



and  $t_{23}=-0.5$ ,  $P=0.6$ , respectively). Isotopic values in blood and feathers were positively and linearly correlated. Excluding an outlier (that was depicted by a preliminary statistical analysis) increased the strength of the relationships that explained 67 and 70% of the inter-individual  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  variations, respectively (Fig. 6).

There was no relationship between maximum distances reached and blood  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  or  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (linear mixed effects model:  $t_{18}=0.1$ ,  $P=0.9$ , and  $t_{18}=-1.1$ ,  $P=0.3$ ). This was also the case for stable isotopes values and bearings to the most distal point (linear mixed effects model:  $t_{18}=-0.2$ ,  $P=0.9$ , and  $t_{18}=0.1$ ,  $P=0.9$ , respectively). Lastly,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  or  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were not influenced by repeatability in spatial use (linear mixed effects model:  $t_{10}=1.0$ ,  $P=0.3$ , and  $t_{10}=1.0$ ,  $P=0.3$ , respectively) or body condition (linear mixed effects model:  $t_{11}=1.9$ ,  $P=0.1$ , and  $t_{11}=1.8$ ,  $P=0.1$ , respectively).

## DISCUSSION

The salient findings of this study concerning an opportunistic, coastal forager, the Gentoo penguin, can be summarized as follows. Firstly, individuals exhibited very large inter- and intra-individual variation in spatial use and diving behaviour. Heavy individuals tended to dive deeper, perform more benthic dives, and travel further. Despite the large intra-individual variation in foraging, some consistency in bearing, proportion of pelagic and night diving, maximum ranges and dive depths was observed in approximately a third of individuals. Foraging behaviour and behavioural consistency were not influenced by sex and site. Lastly, there were large inter-individual variations in stable isotopes values, and dietary specialisations were present and maintained outside of the single breeding season sampled.

As inshore foragers, Gentoos are known to strongly differ in their foraging behaviour according to the local environment (Lescro el & Bost 2005). Our first prediction was that

instrumented individuals would differ greatly in foraging metrics among colonies and among individuals of the same colony. In the present study, site did not seem to influence foraging metrics. However, within a single colony, birds exhibited a large inter-individual variation in foraging behaviour with some birds conducting very short trips within 5-10 km of the colony while others travelled to areas 120-140 km away. The more pelagic individuals performed up to half of their dives at night during short trips, while more benthic foragers dived predominantly during the day and reached greater depths, regardless of colony. This is consistent with other studies reporting this species has high behavioural flexibility over its wide range (Wilson et al. 1991, Robinson & Hindell 1996, Miller et al. 2009, Kokubun et al. 2010). Such flexible foraging habits likely provide a buffer against changes in prey availability and distribution in a limited, coastal environment (Lescroël & Bost 2005, Miller et al. 2009), as shown in other inshore foragers (Hoskins et al. 2008, Saraux et al. 2011, Camprasse et al. 2017).

In the present study, some of the individuals performed trips longer (up to 5.6 d) than previously reported during the crèche period in Gentoos on Kerguelen Island (on average 1.3 d in Estacade, Lescroël et al. (2009)). It is possible that some of these birds abandoned breeding during the study as continued provisioning status could not be determined upon recapture for all birds. However, a third of birds known to still be provisioning chicks at the end of the study conducted such long trips. The large inter-individual variation in foraging behaviour observed in instrumented birds could be related to inter-individual variation in morphology (present study, Bost & Jouventin 1990). Indeed, individuals with higher body mass tended to travel further, dive deeper and perform more benthic dives, contributing to the observed inter-individual differences in foraging. Differences in dive patterns, associated with larger oxygen stores in heavier birds, have been reported in other diving birds (Mori 1998, Cook et al. 2013).

We predicted that behavioural consistency would be detected in instrumented individuals as numerous populations considered generalists have actually be shown to be comprised of individual specialists (Woo et al. 2008, Araújo et al. 2011, Loxdale et al. 2011, Layman & Allgeier 2012, Fodrie et al. 2015). In the present study, at the population level, individual specialisations in foraging metrics were low to moderate, with bearings to most distal locations and the proportion of pelagic diving exhibiting the highest repeatability. This suggests that Gentoos stay consistent in some aspects of their foraging behaviour, which may help to reduce intra-specific competition and/or allowing individuals to catch prey they can easily handle and digest (Bolnick et al. 2003, Estes et al. 2003). This seems particularly relevant in inshore foragers, as they are restricted in their foraging range (Cook et al. 2006, Ratcliffe et al. 2013, Harris et al. 2014).

However, a significant degree of behavioural consistency at the population level does not mean that all individuals are consistent (Woo et al. 2008, Ceia et al. 2012). Indeed, a large variation in the degree of individual consistency in spatial use and dive behaviour between instrumented individuals was observed in the present study. While some birds exhibited similar foraging strategies over the course of multiple consecutive trips, others did not. For example, some individuals displayed consistency in the proportion of pelagic diving from one trip to the next while others were able to switch from being mostly benthic on one trip to being entirely pelagic. This highlights the need to sample multiple trips to obtain a more accurate description of a bird's foraging behaviour, particularly in inshore foragers which may exhibit behavioural plasticity (Saraux et al. 2011, Carpenter-Kling et al. 2017). The large inter- and intra-individual variation in foraging behaviour discussed here might contribute to Gentoos having stable or expanding populations in parts of their range (e.g. Antarctic Peninsula), where sympatrically breeding penguin species, more dependent on specific resources such as Antarctic krill, experience strong population declines (Miller et al. 2009, Polito et al. 2015).

Our third prediction was that individuals displaying higher consistency in foraging behaviour would have reduced horizontal and vertical distances travelled, and higher body conditions as individual specialisations are thought to improve foraging efficiency (Watanuki 1992, Voslamber et al. 1995, Annett & Pierotti 1999, Golet et al. 2000, Votier et al. 2004). Contrary to this prediction, no difference in distance travelled (per hour) or body condition was found between consistent and non-consistent individuals in the present study. Thus, it seems instrumented individuals adopted different strategies based on intrinsic factors (i.e. morphology, prey preferences, etc.), ultimately resulting in different repeatability indices. Indeed the heavier, more benthic individuals performed more distant and longer trips, and were, thus, less repeatable within the timeframe of the study.

Generally, it is unclear whether or not specialists perform better than generalists as contradictory results have been reported in the literature (Golet et al. 2000, Votier et al. 2004, Ceia et al. 2012, Dehnhard et al. 2016). Our findings are in agreement with results on a long distance forager, the wandering albatross *Diomedea exulans*, demonstrating specialist and generalist individuals showed similar levels of body condition (Ceia et al. 2012). No effect of specialisation on reproductive outcomes has been also detected in other bird species (Votier et al., 2004; Katzner et al., 2005; Dehnhard et al., 2016). Indeed, even though generalists may deliver somewhat less energy per day, specialisation may not have an impact on measures of evolutionary fitness (Woo et al., 2008). In contrast, other studies in gulls, cormorants, guillemots and skuas have shown specialists to have higher reproductive success, food delivery rates, chick condition or adult survival (Watanuki 1992, Voslamber et al. 1995, Annett & Pierotti 1999, Golet et al. 2000, Votier et al. 2004). In Gentoos, individual specialisations in foraging behaviour may be linked with intrinsic factors, and may be more or less advantageous depending on prey availability, with generalists performing better when food availability is low.

Lastly, in agreement with our second prediction, long-term dietary consistency was detected in the birds sampled. Stable isotope values in blood and feathers in breeding Gentoos were positively correlated, indicating that dietary specialisations are maintained outside of the breeding season. This is consistent with recent stomach contents and stable isotope analysis studies on the diet of Gentoos indicating that they may not be as opportunistic as previously thought (Clausen et al. 2005, Polito et al. 2015). Within generalist populations, two types can be found: type “A” generalists, when individuals all take a wide range of food type; and type “B” generalists, when individuals each specialise on a different range of food types (Bearhop et al. 2004). The results from the present study, documenting a large inter-individual variation in diet, matching the high inter-individual variation in foraging behaviour, and documenting the fact that instrumented birds tend to display a similar feeding ecology in the breeding and inter-breeding seasons, seem to indicate that Gentoos at the studied site are type “B” generalists.

The results of the present study should be interpreted with caution for two main reasons: the large difference in sample sizes between colonies where deployments were performed, and the potentially poor environmental conditions the instrumented birds experienced. More data is needed from Estacade to confirm the lack of a site effect on the Gentoos’ foraging behaviour and feeding ecology. Factors including a high incidence of night diving and long trip durations could reflect poor environmental conditions in the 2014/2015 breeding season, forcing penguins to forage in suboptimal conditions. This is consistent with poor breeding success on Kerguelen Islands during deployments compared with normal years, with brooders losing chicks at the crèche stage (Camprasse, personal observations). In the present study, shallow night time dives were observed in the more pelagic individuals, probably to allow them to take advantage of pelagic prey distributed near the surface at night during their diurnal vertical migration. Night/twilight diving has been recorded in pygoscelid penguins including Gentoos

(Croxall et al. 1988, Williams et al. 1992, Robinson and Hindell, 1996) and other penguin species (Schiavini & Rey 2004, Rey et al. 2012), but was thought to be uncommon in such visual predators (Williams 1995, Bost et al. 2002). Lastly, low prey availability, linked with the seemingly poor environmental conditions experienced by the birds instrumented in the present study, could increase the degree of individual specialisations as individuals are forced to add different alternative prey not consumed by conspecifics to their diet (Svanbäck & Bolnick 2007, Tinker et al. 2008).

In summary, we showed that Gentoo penguins on Kerguelen Island exhibited large inter- and intra-individual variations in foraging behaviour. These may provide Gentoos greater resilience to buffer against changes in prey availability and fast changing environmental conditions, especially as their foraging range is usually limited (Lescroël & Bost 2005, Polito et al. 2015). However, within this context, Gentoos still exhibit individual specialisations helping them reduce intra-specific competition and/or increasing their foraging efficiency (Durell 2000, Masello et al. 2013). Dietary specialisations outside of a single breeding season were also highlighted, suggesting Gentoo penguins are type “B” generalists. The next step to understand the consequences of individual specialisations would be to look at the link between behavioural consistency and reproductive output, which could not be done in this study due to logistical constraints. In order to fully understand the effects of individual consistency of parents on their offspring, researchers should also aim at obtaining information on both partners of breeding pairs (Polito et al. 2015). In the future, repetitive sampling of the same individuals across stages of the same breeding season and across years, will help to characterize the persistence of dietary specialisations at different temporal scales in seabirds.

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Table 1. Summary of bio-logging deployments for Gentoo penguins instrumented and retrieved at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015

Bird	Sex	Body condition index	Initial mass (kg)	Bill depth (mm)	Bill length (mm)	Flipper length (mm)	Tracking time (d)	Trip #
Pointe Suzanne								
4	F	0.4	5.0	13.4	81.0	225.0	8.3	15
7	F	-0.4	5.8	16	95.0	244.0	6.9	4
9	F	-0.4	3.6	13.3	76.0	215.0	10.9	11
10	F	-0.4	4.4	15.6	81.0	220.0	7.0	9
13	F	-0.4	4.4	15.8	80.0	221.0	10	3
15	F	-0.3	5.2	15.1	88.0	232.0	4.0	3
20	F	0.2	5.0	14.9	75.0	230.0	4.5	3
22	F	0.0	4.5	15.5	81.0	210.0	13.3	6
24	F	0.4	5.1	14.3	84.0	220.0	4.4	3
1	M	-1.7	4.3	16.7	95.0	234.0	6.5	9
2	M	-	5.9	11.8	-	235.0	8.2	12
3	M	0.4	6.8	18.1	91.0	245.0	7.9	2
5	M	-	6.1	16.5	-	235.0	6.1	3
6	M	0.4	5.9	18.4	79.0	231.0	-	-

11	M	-0.1	5.8	16.5	89.0	238.0	8.7	3
12	M	0.3	5.7	17.6	85.0	225.0	8.0	2
14	M	-0.2	5.3	16.5	90.0	228.0	4.4	4
17	M	-0.1	5.3	16.8	85.0	230.0	5.4	3
19	M	-0.2	5.7	18.2	89.0	232.0	-	-
23	M	-0.3	5.8	17.3	95.0	232.0	-	-
Estacade								
26	-	-	4.5	-	-	-	6.1	2
28	-	-	6.4	-	-	-	15.4	3
27	F	-	5	17.1	82.0	220.0	4.0	3
25	M	-	6.6	-	91.0	234.0	5.9	2
30	M	1.4	7.8	19.5	92.0	235.0	6.2	6
33	M	1.1	6.3	16.4	85.0	224.0	-	-

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Table 2. Summary of morphometric measurements for Gentoo penguins instrumented and retrieved at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015

		Mean $\pm$ SD	Minimum	Maximum
Body condition index	Pointe Suzanne	-0.1 $\pm$ 0.5	-1.7	0.4
	Estacade	1.3 $\pm$ 0.2	1.1	1.4
	♀	-0.1 $\pm$ 0.4	-0.4	0.4
	♂	0.1 $\pm$ 0.8	-1.7	1.4
Body mass (kg)	Pointe Suzanne	5.2 $\pm$ 0.8	3.7	6.8
	Estacade	7.1 $\pm$ 1.0	6.4	7.8
	♀	4.8 $\pm$ 0.6	3.7	5.8
	♂	5.9 $\pm$ 0.9	4.3	7.8
Bill depth (mm)	Pointe Suzanne	16.1 $\pm$ 1.5	13.3	18.4
	Estacade	18.0 $\pm$ 2.2	16.4	19.5
	♀	14.9 $\pm$ 1.0	13.3	16.0
	♂	17.5 $\pm$ 1.0	16.4	19.5
Bill length (mm)	Pointe Suzanne	85.5 $\pm$ 6.3	75.0	95.0
	Estacade	88.5 $\pm$ 4.9	85.0	92.0
	♀	82.3 $\pm$ 6.1	75.0	95.0
	♂	88.7 $\pm$ 4.7	79.4	95.0
Flipper length (mm)	Pointe Suzanne	228.4 $\pm$ 9.2	210.0	245.0
	Estacade	229.0 $\pm$ 7.8	224.0	235.0
	♀	224.1 $\pm$ 10.1	210.0	244.0
	♂	232.2 $\pm$ 5.9	224.0	245.0

Table 3. Summary of spatial use metrics for Gentoo penguins instrumented and retrieved at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015 (values are means  $\pm$  SD)

Bird	Sex	Mean bearing (°)	Trip duration (h)	Maximum range (km)	Total horizontal distance (km)	Horizontal distance per hour (km)
Pointe Suzanne						
4	F	98.8 $\pm$ 0.6	6.6 $\pm$ 5.1	3.3 $\pm$ 1.7	9.9 $\pm$ 5.8	1.8 $\pm$ 0.8
7	F	116.9 $\pm$ 0.3	26.4 $\pm$ 25.7	17.2 $\pm$ 10.8	54.3 $\pm$ 43.1	2.9 $\pm$ 1.2
9	F	55.5 $\pm$ 1.1	5.1 $\pm$ 3.1	4.0 $\pm$ 1.0	11.0 $\pm$ 6.0	2.3 $\pm$ 0.6
10	F	129.9 $\pm$ 0.2	7.9 $\pm$ 4.5	5.7 $\pm$ 2.1	17.5 $\pm$ 8.6	2.4 $\pm$ 0.5
13	F	11.5 $\pm$ 1.5	66.0 $\pm$ 61.7	39.4 $\pm$ 18.7	133.8 $\pm$ 98.7	2.5 $\pm$ 0.8
15	F	127.5 $\pm$ 0.2	11.5 $\pm$ 7.5	13.9 $\pm$ 3.4	35.0 $\pm$ 16.7	3.3 $\pm$ 0.6
20	F	127.0 $\pm$ 0.1	8.2 $\pm$ 8.3	10.0 $\pm$ 8.9	24.9 $\pm$ 25.3	3.0 $\pm$ 0.1
22	F	90.4 $\pm$ 0.4	33.8 $\pm$ 35.4	17.4 $\pm$ 15.4	72.4 $\pm$ 70.2	2.2 $\pm$ 0.4
24	F	162.2 $\pm$ 0.0	14.6 $\pm$ 7.4	9.9 $\pm$ 1.5	29.3 $\pm$ 8.6	2.3 $\pm$ 0.8
1	M	106.0 $\pm$ 0.4	4.8 $\pm$ 3.8	4.7 $\pm$ 2.8	10.9 $\pm$ 6.2	2.6 $\pm$ 1.0
2	M	66.3 $\pm$ 0.5	8.5 $\pm$ 5.7	7.7 $\pm$ 4.6	22.4 $\pm$ 15.1	2.9 $\pm$ 0.6
3	M	56.3 $\pm$ 0.8	77.6 $\pm$ 43.7	78.3 $\pm$ 62.8	217.4 $\pm$ 187.3	2.5 $\pm$ 1.0
5	M	125.2 $\pm$ 0.1	20.2 $\pm$ 16.5	25.4 $\pm$ 10.8	67.1 $\pm$ 41.3	3.7 $\pm$ 0.7
11	M	56.4 $\pm$ 0.5	56.0 $\pm$ 75.2	59.4 $\pm$ 70.2	164.4 $\pm$ 211.0	3.2 $\pm$ 0.4
12	M	107.0 $\pm$ 0.1	70.0 $\pm$ 38.6	32.3 $\pm$ 3.8	140.5 $\pm$ 60.9	2.1 $\pm$ 0.3
14	M	91.2 $\pm$ 0.1	18.8 $\pm$ 10.7	21.9 $\pm$ 10.2	53.2 $\pm$ 28.2	2.9 $\pm$ 0.3
17	M	114.4 $\pm$ 0.1	19.8 $\pm$ 17.1	17.6 $\pm$ 12.2	49.5 $\pm$ 38.8	2.5 $\pm$ 0.4
Estacade						
27	F	127.9 $\pm$ 0.2	11.1 $\pm$ 12.8	9.5 $\pm$ 6.3	23.3 $\pm$ 16.8	3.1 $\pm$ 1.4
25	M	79.7 $\pm$ 0.2	44.8 $\pm$ 5.3	28.7 $\pm$ 2.4	89.4 $\pm$ 2.4	2.0 $\pm$ 0.3
30	M	77.3 $\pm$ 0.3	17.9 $\pm$ 1.0	16.9 $\pm$ 2.1	48.9 $\pm$ 3.4	2.7 $\pm$ 0.2
26	-	137.2 $\pm$ 0.1	12.9 $\pm$ 7.7	15.4 $\pm$ 12.3	35.1 $\pm$ 29.0	2.5 $\pm$ 0.8
28	-	86.3 $\pm$ 0.8	42.9 $\pm$ 61.0	36.9 $\pm$ 42.9	120.7 $\pm$ 164.5	3.5 $\pm$ 1.0

Table 4. Model ANOVA testing the effect of sex and site on maximum range, bottom depth and repeatability, including bird as a random factor or trip nested within bird (likelihood ratio (LR) for linear mixed effects models and F values for simple linear regressions). The last row reports on the linear mixed effects model testing the effect of dive depth on the proportion of pelagic dives. Values in bold are significant

Variable	Type of model	Parameters	LR/F test	Df	P-value
Maximum range	Linear mixed effects	<b>Random effect: bird</b>	33.21	6	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>
		Fixed effects			
		Sex	3.21	8	0.07
		Site	0.00	8	0.98
Bottom depth	Linear mixed effects	<b>Random effect: bird/trip</b>	1236.29	9	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>
		Fixed effects	3.20	8	0.07
		Sex	0.46	8	0.50
		Site			
Repeatability indices	Linear model	Sex	1.42	2, 18	0.27
		Site	0.04	1, 18	0.84
Proportion of pelagic dives	Linear mixed effects	Fixed effects Dive depth	84.83	4	<b>&lt;0.0001</b>

Table 5. Summary of dive metrics and distances travelled for Gentoo penguins instrumented and retrieved at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015 (values are means  $\pm$  SD)

Bird	Sex	Bottom time (s)	Bottom depth (m)	Total vertical distance (km)	Hourly vertical distance (km)	Total (horizontal+vertical) distance travelled per trip (km)	Total (horizontal+vertical) distance travelled per hour (km)	Pelagic diving (%)	Night diving (% of all dives)
4	F	29.5 $\pm$ 15.1	5.1 $\pm$ 2.0	3.4 $\pm$ 2.1	0.5 $\pm$ 0.2	13.3 $\pm$ 7.5	2.3 $\pm$ 0.8	93.8 $\pm$ 3.8	43.8 $\pm$ 27.3
7	F	71.8 $\pm$ 30.3	32.6 $\pm$ 26.1	33.3 $\pm$ 35.8	0.9 $\pm$ 0.5	87.6 $\pm$ 78.5	3.8 $\pm$ 0.7	75.4 $\pm$ 20.3	22.5 $\pm$ 19.2
9	F	33.9 $\pm$ 14.7	5.2 $\pm$ 1.8	3.4 $\pm$ 3.5	0.6 $\pm$ 0.3	14.4 $\pm$ 9.5	2.8 $\pm$ 0.8	89.3 $\pm$ 9.9	40.9 $\pm$ 34.3
10	F	51.6 $\pm$ 20.5	11.1 $\pm$ 5.4	7.6 $\pm$ 5.3	0.9 $\pm$ 0.3	25.0 $\pm$ 13.9	3.3 $\pm$ 0.4	92.0 $\pm$ 5.6	39.7 $\pm$ 33.8
13	F	86.4 $\pm$ 10.7	40.1 $\pm$ 8.9	72.3 $\pm$ 66.2	1.1 $\pm$ 0.1	206.1 $\pm$ 164.8	3.6 $\pm$ 0.7	77.9 $\pm$ 7.2	15.6 $\pm$ 9.4
15	F	88.2 $\pm$ 31.6	17.5 $\pm$ 11.9	9.9 $\pm$ 10.1	0.7 $\pm$ 0.3	44.9 $\pm$ 26.8	4.0 $\pm$ 0.2	96.1 $\pm$ 5.1	24.4 $\pm$ 18.3
20	F	68.3 $\pm$ 32.2	18.6 $\pm$ 15.1	8.8 $\pm$ 11.7	0.8 $\pm$ 0.5	33.7 $\pm$ 36.9	3.8 $\pm$ 0.5	87.6 $\pm$ 11.7	52.4 $\pm$ 42.9
22	F	79.5 $\pm$ 28.3	26.6 $\pm$ 13.9	31.0 $\pm$ 30.3	0.8 $\pm$ 0.4	103.5 $\pm$ 99.3	3.1 $\pm$ 0.6	80.4 $\pm$ 14.7	14.5 $\pm$ 5.8
1	M	54.8 $\pm$ 17.0	9.7 $\pm$ 5.5	2.1 $\pm$ 1.9	0.4 $\pm$ 0.3	13.0 $\pm$ 8.1	3.1 $\pm$ 1.2	95.7 $\pm$ 5.3	36.5 $\pm$ 25.9
2	M	89.6 $\pm$ 13.8	15.7 $\pm$ 8.2	7.2 $\pm$ 7.3	0.8 $\pm$ 0.2	29.6 $\pm$ 22.3	3.6 $\pm$ 0.7	88.2 $\pm$ 9.5	54.8 $\pm$ 17.9
3	M	101.6 $\pm$ 3.2	61.6 $\pm$ 8.8	62.2 $\pm$ 51.4	0.7 $\pm$ 0.3	279.6 $\pm$ 238.7	3.3 $\pm$ 1.2	52.7 $\pm$ 6.9	15.4 $\pm$ 5.7
5	M	69.5 $\pm$ 5.3	26.2 $\pm$ 6.6	23.2 $\pm$ 20.2	1.1 $\pm$ 0.3	90.4 $\pm$ 61.5	4.8 $\pm$ 0.8	86.5 $\pm$ 5.1	6.3 $\pm$ 5.5
11	M	53.8 $\pm$ 11.3	22.5 $\pm$ 6.9	48.3 $\pm$ 67.3	0.8 $\pm$ 0.1	212.7 $\pm$ 278.3	4.1 $\pm$ 0.4	80.6 $\pm$ 6.6	24.1 $\pm$ 5.2
12	M	106.8 $\pm$ 8.9	48.8 $\pm$ 3.6	74.5 $\pm$ 45.1	1.0 $\pm$ 0.1	215.0 $\pm$ 106.0	3.1 $\pm$ 0.2	66.8 $\pm$ 4.8	15.2 $\pm$ 4.8
14	M	57.6 $\pm$ 12.0	25.3 $\pm$ 8.7	17.7 $\pm$ 14.0	0.8 $\pm$ 0.3	70.9 $\pm$ 42.2	3.7 $\pm$ 0.3	74.6 $\pm$ 3.9	12.9 $\pm$ 6.9
25	M	72.7 $\pm$ 5.3	36.9 $\pm$ 9.5	37.1 $\pm$ 12.0	0.9 $\pm$ 0.4	126.5 $\pm$ 14.4	2.9 $\pm$ 0.7	68.1 $\pm$ 7.3	6.0 $\pm$ 2.7
30	M	88.0 $\pm$ 11.6	36.5 $\pm$ 10.0	18.6 $\pm$ 6.9	1.0 $\pm$ 0.3	67.4 $\pm$ 6.7	3.8 $\pm$ 0.2	57.0 $\pm$ 12.4	15.5 $\pm$ 3.6
26	-	65.1 $\pm$ 15.5	25.6 $\pm$ 19.8	12.9 $\pm$ 15.2	0.8 $\pm$ 0.7	48.0 $\pm$ 44.2	3.3 $\pm$ 1.5	74.7 $\pm$ 13.0	5.7 $\pm$ 8.1
28	-	78.0 $\pm$ 52.1	28.0 $\pm$ 24.4	32.5 $\pm$ 43.5	0.7 $\pm$ 0.5	153.2 $\pm$ 208.0	4.2 $\pm$ 0.7	76.6 $\pm$ 26.8	17.0 $\pm$ 16.1



Table 6. Variance components analysis of dive depths, total distances travelled and bearings to most distal point for Gentoo penguins instrumented at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015.  $\sigma^2\%$  is an estimate of individual specialisation (see text)

Variance component	$\sigma^2$	$\Sigma$	$\sigma^2\%$
Maximum range			
Individual	127.6	11.3	13.7
Residual	802.6	28.3	86.3
Bearings to most distal point			
Individual	1572.7	39.7	52.9
Residual	1397.6	37.4	47.1
Mean bottom depth (null model)			
Individual	244.2	15.6	6.2
Trip	62.6	7.9	1.6
Residual	3612.8	60.1	92.2
Mean bottom depth (model with mass)			
Individual	150.9	12.3	4.0
Trip	62.6	7.9	1.6
Residual	3612.4	60.1	94.4
Proportion of pelagic diving (null model)			
Individual	166.4	12.9	67.5
Residual	80.1	9.0	32.5
Proportion of pelagic diving (model with mass)			
Individual	33.5	5.8	51.3
Residual	31.9	5.6	48.7

Table 7. Summary of stable isotope values for Gentoo penguins sampled at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade (Kerguelen Islands, Indian Ocean) in Dec 2014-Jan 2015

Bird	Sex	Blood $\delta\text{C}^{13}$	Blood $\delta\text{N}^{15}$	Feather $\delta\text{C}^{13}$	Feather $\delta\text{N}^{15}$
4	F	-18.76	11.49	-18.03	11.99
7	F	-18.25	10.93	-18.7	12.68
9	F	-17.83	12.55	-15.52	13.42
10	F	-19.05	11.38	-18.37	12.57
13	F	-20.11	8.44	-19.10	11.64
15	F	-19.16	9.95	-19.06	12.33
20	F	-20.18	9.57	-19.28	11.78
22	F	-19.90	8.83	-15.03	14.03
24	F	-16.98	10.86	-16.75	12.97
	M	-18.68	11.70	NA	NA
2	M	-16.86	13.55	-15.09	15.02
3	M	-19.00	12.33	-16.90	14.66
5	M	-19.44	12.50	-17.18	14.12
6	M	-18.57	11.90	-17.97	12.66
11	M	-19.05	11.76	-18.19	13.22
12	M	-19.46	11.02	-18.17	13.05
14	M	-18.49	11.26	-17.71	13.39
17	M	-18.63	11.83	-18.28	13.24
19	M	-18.11	12.67	-17.55	14.03
23	M	-19.98	10.29	-19.17	12.62
18	-	NA	NA	-18.72	11.09
27	F	-20.30	8.43	-18.94	12.40
29	F	-20.14	7.95	-18.59	11.86
25	M	-19.30	11.62	-17.88	12.79
30	M	-16.27	13.75	-15.69	15.47
33	M	-19.44	10.74	-18.71	12.78
26	-	NA	NA	-18.82	12.32
28	-	NA	NA	-18.03	13.39

Fig. 1. One track per Gentoo penguin instrumented at Pointe Suzanne (left panel) and Estacade (right panel) during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015

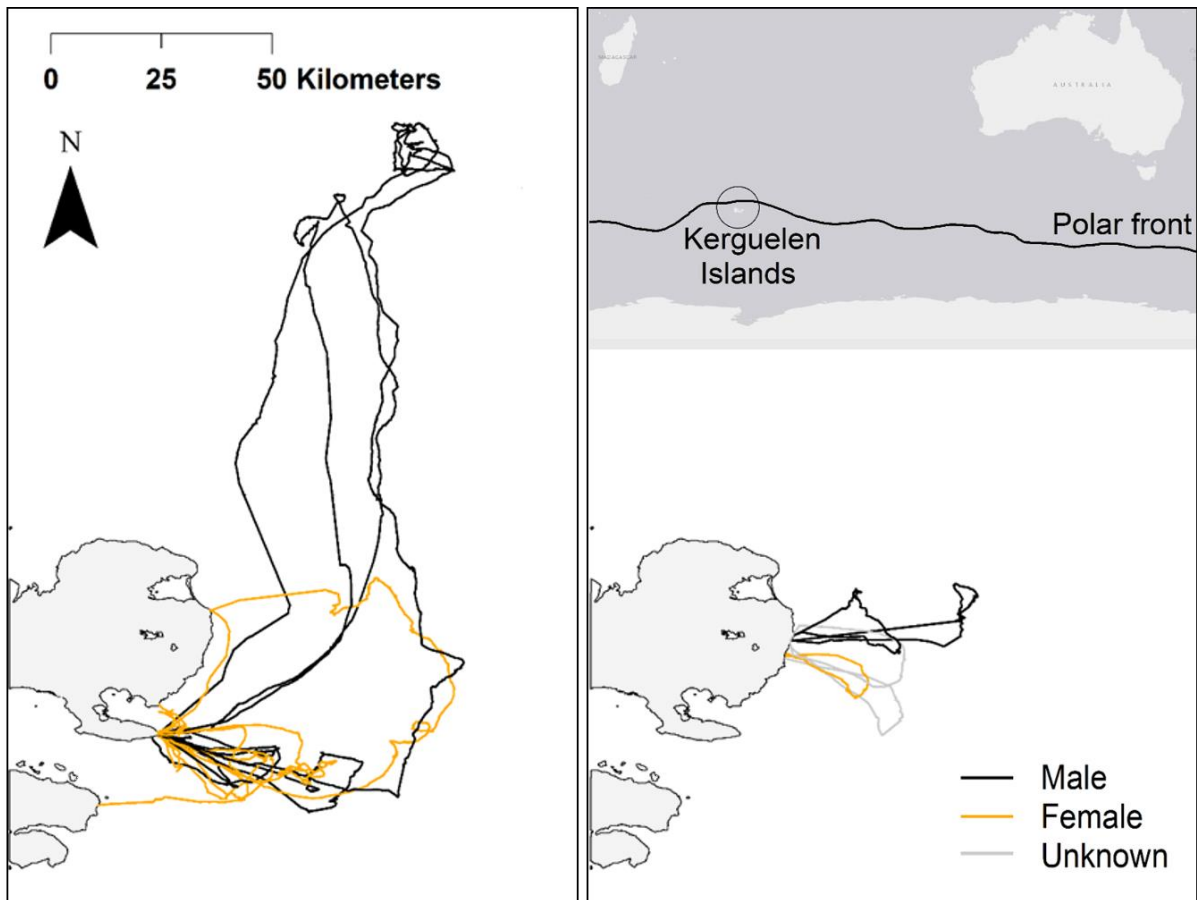


Fig. 2. Frequency of night diving, distribution of dive depths across time of day, and relationship between night and pelagic diving (panels A and B show Gentoo penguins representative of the most benthic and the most pelagic individuals) instrumented at Pointe Suzanne during crèche in Dec 2014-Jan 2015

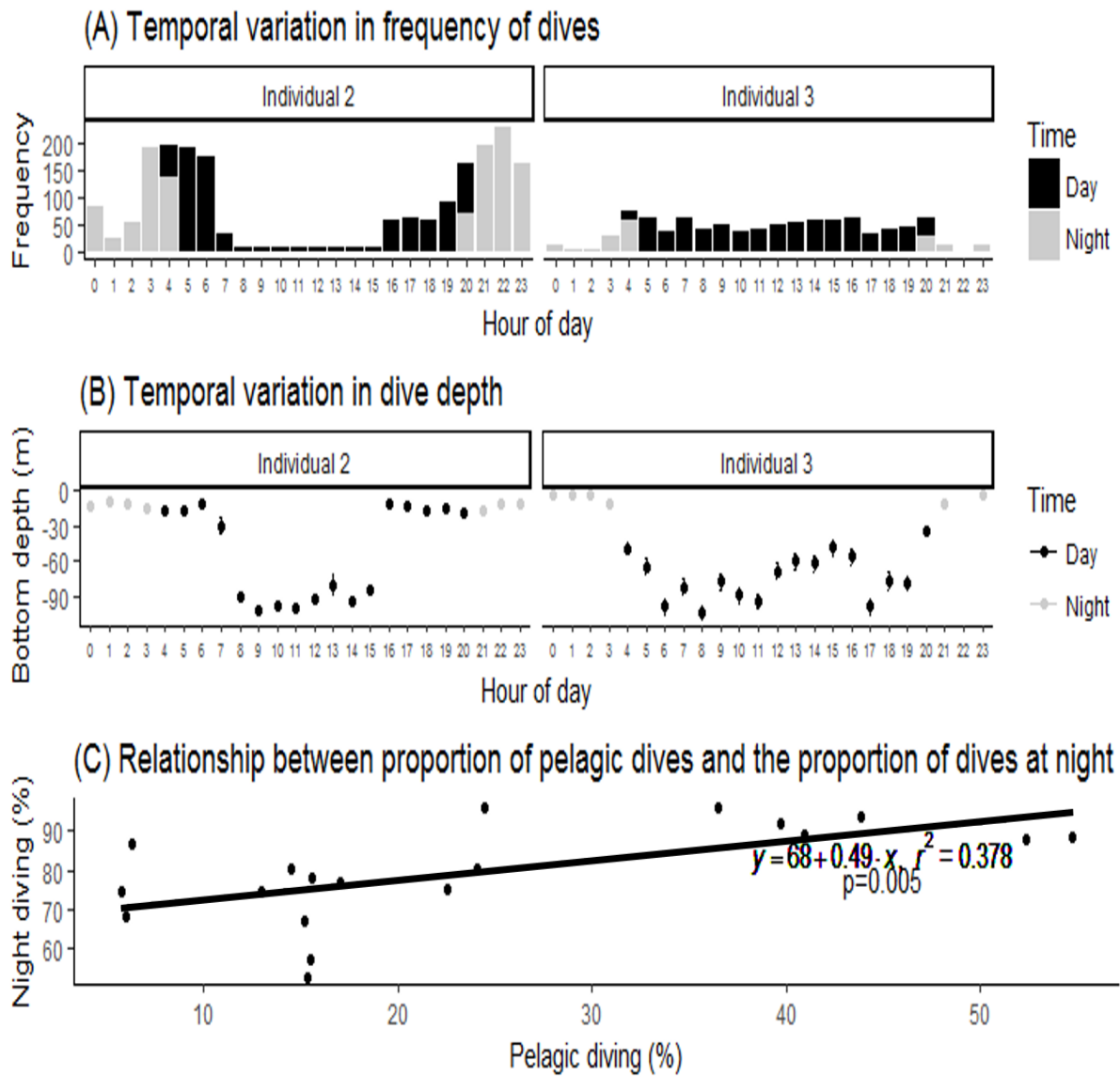


Fig. 3. Representative examples for three individuals of spatial use and repeatability index (RI) - all tracks for a highly repeatable individual (grey), a moderately repeatable one (orange) and an individual with limited repeatability (black) among Gentoo penguins instrumented at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade during crèche in December 2014-January 2015.

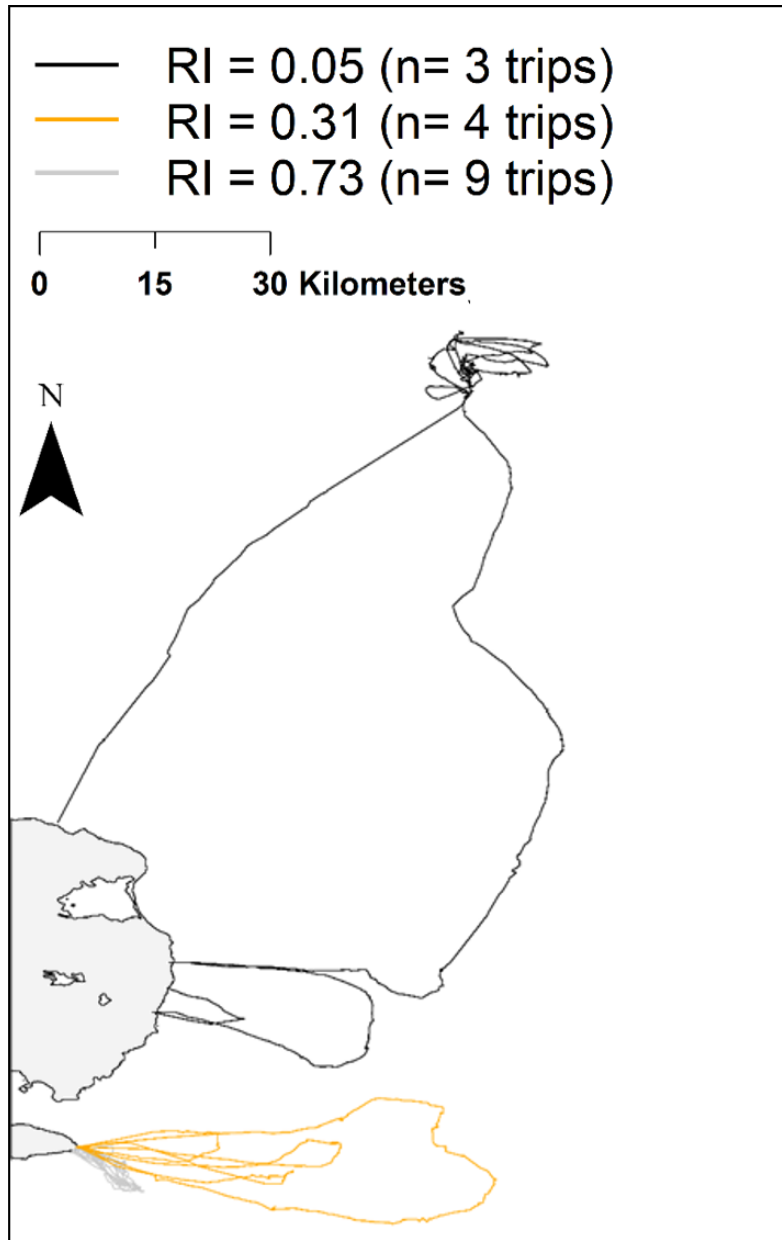


Fig. 4. Means and ranges for the proportion of pelagic diving performed in subsequent trips by individual Gentoo penguins instrumented at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade during crèche in December 2014-January 2015

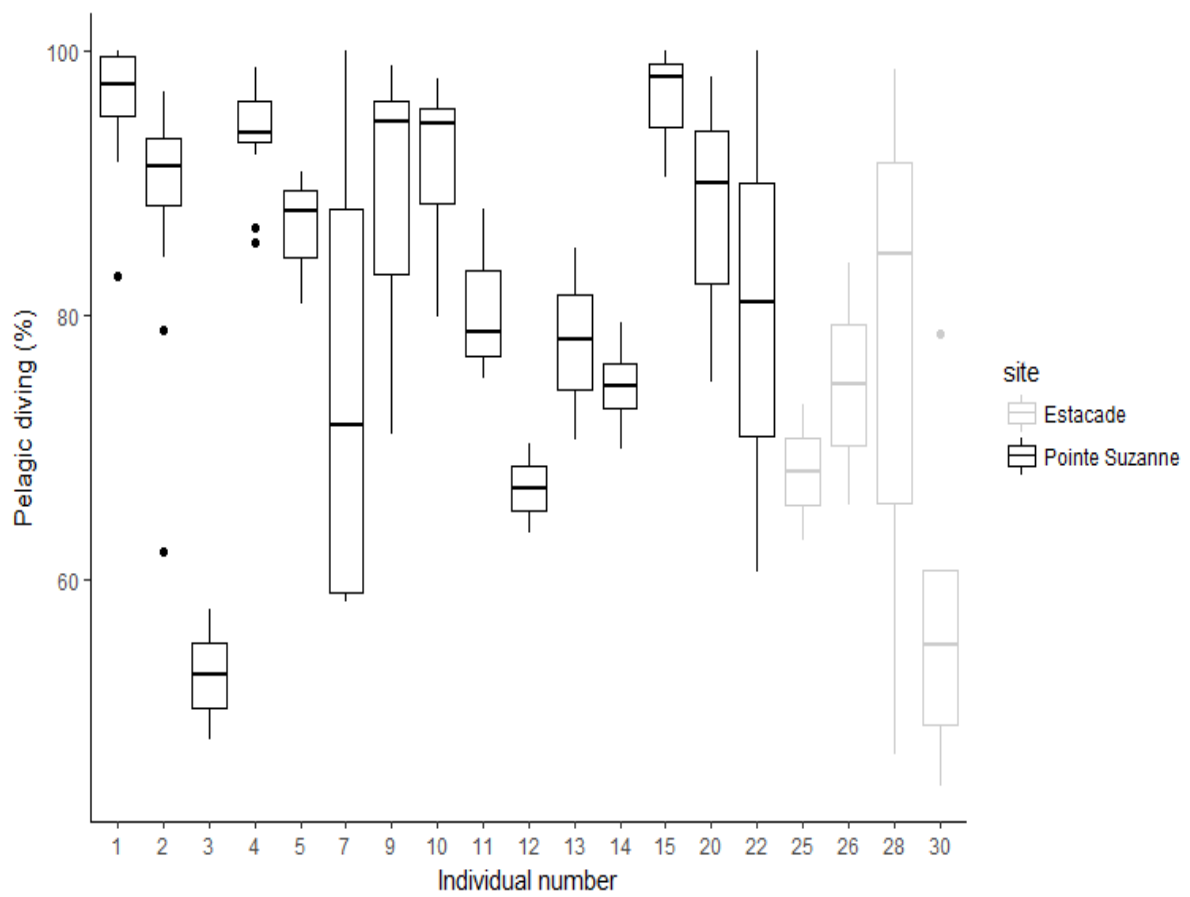


Fig. 5. Relationship between stable isotopes values in carbon and nitrogen in blood and in feathers of Gentoo penguins sampled at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade during crèche in December 2014-January 2015 (cyan squares = males from Pointe Suzanne, pink circles = females from Pointe Suzanne, blue squares = males from Ratmanoff, dark pink circles = females from Ratmanoff, grey diamond = one unsexed bird from Pointe Suzanne, black diamonds = two unsexed birds from Ratmanoff)

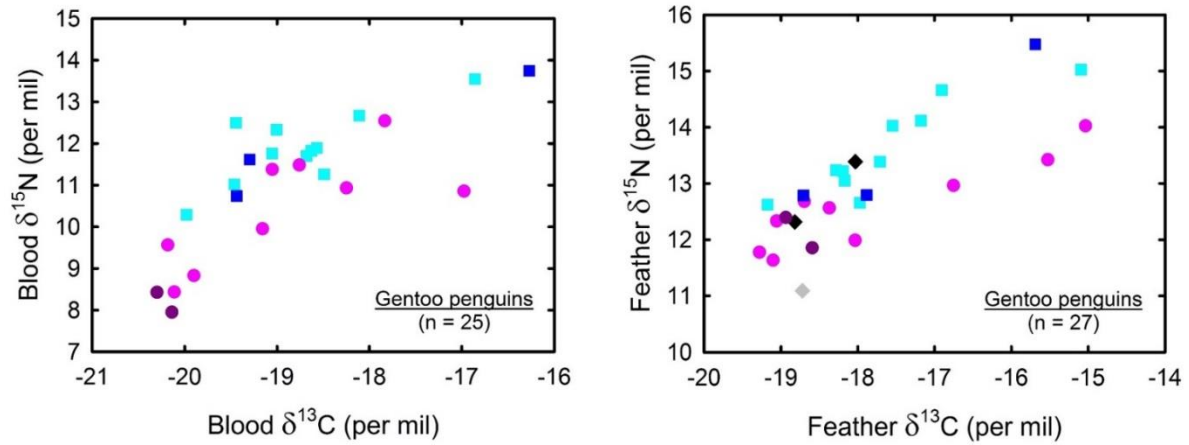


Fig. 6. Correlations between stable isotope values in blood and feather for carbon and nitrogen in Gentoo penguins ( $n= 24$ ) sampled at Pointe Suzanne and Estacade during crèche in December 2014-January 2015 (cyan squares = males from Pointe Suzanne, pink circles = females from Pointe Suzanne, blue squares = males from Ratmanoff, dark pink circles = females from Ratmanoff)

