

Environmental and life-history factors influence inter-colony multidimensional niche metrics of a breeding Arctic marine bird

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| 1 | Environmental and life-history factors influence inter-colony and multidimensional niche |
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| 2 | metrics of a breeding Arctic marine bird |
| 3 | Reyd A. Smith ^{1*} , David J. Yurkowski ² , Kyle J.L. Parkinson ¹ , Jérôme Fort ³ , Holly L. Hennin ⁴ , H. |
| 4 | Grant Gilchrist ⁴ , Keith A. Hobson ⁵ , Mark L. Mallory ⁶ , Jóhannis Danielsen ⁷ , Svend E. Garbus ⁸ , |
| 5 | Sveinn A. Hanssen ⁹ , Jón Einar Jónsson ¹⁰ , Christopher J. Latty ¹¹ , Ellen Magnúsdóttir ¹⁰ , Børge |
| 6 | Moe ⁹ , Glen J. Parsons ¹² , Christian Sonne ⁸ , Grigori Tertitski ¹³ , and Oliver P. Love ¹ |
| 7 | |
| 8 | ¹ University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario, Canada, N9B 3P4 |
| 9 | ² Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada, R3T 2N6 |
| 10 | ³ French National Centre for Scientific Research, Paris, France, 75016 |
| 11 | ⁴ Environment and Climate Change Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K0A 1H0. |
| 12 | ⁵ Western University, London, Ontario, Canada, N6A 3K7 |
| 13 | ⁶ Acadia University, Wolfville, Nova Scotia, Canada, B4P 2R6 |
| 14 | ⁷ Faroe Marine Research Institute, Tórshavn, Faroe Islands, FO-110 |
| 15 | ⁸ Aarhus University, Roskilde, Denmark, DK-4000 |
| 16 | ⁹ Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Tromsø, Norway, N-9296 |
| 17 | ¹⁰ University of Iceland's Research Centre at Snæfellsnes, Hafnargata 3, 340, Stykkishólmur, |
| 18 | Iceland |
| 19 | ¹¹ Arctic National Wildlife Refuge, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Fairbanks, Alaska, United |
| 20 | States, 99701 |
| 21 | ¹² Nova Scotia Department of Lands and Forestry, Kentville, Nova Scotia, Canada, B4N 4E5 |
| 22 | ¹³ Institute of Geography of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia, 119017 |
| 23 | |
| 24 | *Corresponding Author |
| 25 | |
| 26 | |
| 27 | Keywords |

28 Stable isotopes; carbon-13; nitrogen-15; Hg; isotopic niche; climate change; common eider

29 Abstract

30 Human industrialization has resulted in rapid climate change, leading to wide-scale environmental shifts. These shifts modify food web dynamics by altering the abundance and 31 32 distribution of primary producers (ice algae and phytoplankton), as well as animals at higher 33 trophic levels. Methylmercury (MeHg) is a neuro-endocrine disrupting compound which 34 biomagnifies in animals as a function of prey choice, and, as such, bioavailability is affected by 35 altered food web dynamics and adds an important risk-based dimension in studies of foraging 36 ecology. We determined the multidimensional (δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, THg) niche dynamics (MDND) among breeding common eider (Somateria mollissima) ducks sampled from 10 breeding 37 38 colonies distributed across the circumpolar Arctic and subarctic. Results show high variation in MDND among colonies as indicated by niche size and ranges in δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and THg values in 39 40 relation to spatial differences in primary production inferred from sea-ice presence and colony 41 migratory status. Colonies with higher sea-ice cover during the pre-incubation period had higher median colony THg, δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C. Individuals at migratory colonies had relatively higher THg 42 43 and δ^{15} N and lower δ^{13} C, suggesting a higher trophic position and a greater reliance on 44 phytoplankton-based prey. We conclude that variation in MDND exists amongst eider colonies 45 which influenced individual blood THg concentrations. Further exploration of spatial 46 ecotoxicology and niche characteristics at each individual site is important to examine the relationships between anthropogenic activities, foraging behaviour, and the related risks of 47 48 contaminant exposure. Multidimensional niche analysis that incorporates multiple isotopic and contaminant metrics could help identify those populations at risk to rapidly altered food 49 web dynamics, notably important to the Indigenous populations that rely on eiders as a 50 stable resource. 51

52 Highlights

- 53 1. Common eider colonies vary in their multidimensional ($\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$, THg) niche size.
- 54 2. Colonies with higher sea-ice cover had higher $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$ and THg.
- 55 3. Colonies considered migratory had higher average δ^{15} N and THg, but lower δ^{13} C.
- 56 4. Individuals with lower δ^{13} C and higher trophic positions had higher THg.
- 57

58 Graphical Abstract



3

60 1. Introduction

| 61 | Global anthropogenic activity has resulted in environmental shifts within Arctic systems | |
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| 62 | including rising air and ocean temperatures (Zhang 2005; Screen and Simmonds 2010; Najafi et | |
| 63 | al. 2015), changes in wind and ocean circulation (Timmermans et al. 2011), a dramatic | |
| 64 | modification of sea-ice cover in polar marine systems (Johannessen et al. 2004; Hoegh-Guldberg | |
| 65 | and Bruno 2010; IPCC 2019), and an elevated transport and deposition of biologically harmful | |
| 66 | contaminants (Dietz et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2012; Foster et al. 2019). These multiple stressors | |
| 67 | generate cumulative effects which have direct and indirect influences on biological systems, | |
| 68 | ultimately having the potential to affect food web characteristics including prey availability and | |
| 69 | selection (Vasseur and McCann 2005; Frederiksen et al. 2006; Parmesan 2006). Arctic marine | |
| 70 | food-webs have been particularly impacted, leading to dramatic abiotic shifts resulting in | |
| 71 | alterations of prey abundance and availability which have modified the foraging niche of higher | |
| 72 | trophic-level organisms (Moline et al. 2008; Pecuchet et al. 2020). | |
| 73 | The foraging niche of an organism includes both dietaryc and environmental components, | |
| 74 | and therefore has been used to discern both trophic roles by consumers and changes in their | |
| 75 | resource use (Newsome et al. 2007). Studies examining foraging niche size (the spatial and | |
| 76 | trophic-level range at which a group forages) have been used to investigate the effect of | |
| 77 | phenological changes in primary production on predators (Rabosky 2009). In polar regions, | |
| 78 | changes in the abundance, distribution, and phenology of primary producers such as | |
| 79 | phytoplankton and sea ice-algae can have effects on higher trophic-level wildlife (Frederiksen et | |
| 80 | al. 2006; Kohlbach et al. 2016; Renaut et al. 2018; Lewis et al. 2020). Sympagic-pelagic-benthic | |
| 81 | coupling drives energy flow between the surface and benthic habitats and provides a foundation | |
| 82 | for Arctic ecosystem functioning involving benthic consumers but is being decoupled due to | |

| 83 | changing sea-ice dynamics (Søreide et al. 2012; Kohlbach et al. 2016; Yurkowski et al. 2020a). |
|-----|---|
| 84 | These shifts can generate bottom-up effects on the foraging ecology of higher trophic species, |
| 85 | especially those that rely on consuming resources that inhabit the sea floor (Leu et al. 2011; Post |
| 86 | et al. 2013; Post 2017; Cusset et al. 2019). |
| 87 | Stable isotopes of carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) are tracers that provide time- |
| 88 | integrated information on habitat use and diet (Bearhop et al. 2006; Cherel and Hobson 2007; |
| 89 | Inger and Bearhop 2008). In costal polar environments, δ^{13} C provides dietary information on |
| 90 | sources of primary productivity and foraging habitat, for example, between ¹³ C -depleted |
| 91 | phytoplankton-derived carbon and ¹³ C -enriched sea-ice derived carbon (Hobson et al. 2002; |
| 92 | Kohlbach et al. 2016; Yurkowski et al. 2020a; Lewis et al. 2020). In addition, benthic or |
| 93 | nearshore environments are typically enriched in ¹³ C compared to pelagic or offshore sources |
| 94 | (Hobson and Welch 1992; Hobson et al. 1995; France 1995). Values of δ^{15} N indicate relative |
| 95 | trophic level, with higher trophic levels associated with increased $\delta^{15}N$ values (Hobson and |
| 96 | Welch 1992). |
| 97 | One further consequence of changing Arctic marine ecosystems is shifts in marine |
| 98 | wildlife exposure to contaminants (Muir et al. 1999; Macdonald et al. 2005; Stern et al. 2012). It |
| 99 | is well established that Arctic marine food webs are influenced by long-range transport of |
| 100 | contaminants (Macdonald et al. 2000; Braune et al. 2005; Kirk et al. 2012). On top of this, the |
| 101 | melting of permafrost, ice caps and glaciers is releasing stored contaminants from years of higher |
| 102 | contaminant output into the current system (Rydberg et al. 2010; Schuster et al. 2018). |
| 103 | Methylmercury (MeHg) is a biologically converted form of mercury (Hg) and is a contaminant |
| 104 | of concern due to its high bioavailability in organic tissues and toxic effects at even low, sub- |
| 105 | lethal concentrations (Wiener et al. 2003; Whitney and Cristol 2017; Evers 2018). Uptake of |

| 106 | MeHg into wildlife can disrupt endocrine functioning, behaviour, and reproductive success | |
|-----|--|--|
| 107 | (Cardona-Marek et al. 2009; Chen and Hale 2010; Whitney and Cristol 2017). Specifically, | |
| 108 | reproductive effects in birds include reduced clutch size, altered parental breeding behaviour and | |
| 109 | reduced hatching and fledgling success (Braune et al. 2012; Tartu et al. 2013; Goutte et al. 2014; | |
| 110 | Hartman et al. 2019). Together, these impacts may result in slowed or negative population | |
| 111 | growth rates and reproductive success in individuals exposed as juveniles (Schoch et al. 2014; | |
| 112 | Paris et al. 2018). | |
| 113 | Climate change and human activity in Arctic ecosystems affect the distribution and | |
| 114 | accumulation of Hg (Stern et al. 2012; McKinney et al. 2015). Further, changes in Arctic food | |
| 115 | web dynamics and trophic relationships may shift the flow of Hg between organisms (Braune et | |
| 116 | al. 2014). To study this, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N measurements are tools that help determine | |
| 117 | environmental and dietary sources of Hg due to varying Hg uptake with carbon-source use and | |
| 118 | trophic level (Atwell et al. 1998; Cardona-Marek et al. 2009; Pomerleau et al. 2016). While $\delta^{15}N$ | |
| 119 | indicates trophic level, with greater Hg concentrations through food web biomagnification, high | |
| 120 | variability in Hg still occurs among individuals despite similar δ^{15} N values (Atwell et al. 1998; | |
| 121 | Bearhop et al. 2000; DiMento et al. 2019). Furthermore, isotope biplots consisting of just δ^{13} C | |
| 122 | and δ^{15} N obviously capture an incomplete portrayal of ecological niche due to the inclusion of | |
| 123 | only two isotopic variables. A multidimensional niche, including three or more total variables, | |
| 124 | can provide more information to assess foraging ecology (Swanson et al. 2015, Hobson et al. | |
| 125 | 2015, O'Donovan et al. 2018). Therefore, including Hg in niche analyses along with δ^{13} C and | |
| 126 | δ^{15} N provides a broader method to quantify an individual and population's foraging ecology and | |
| 127 | multidimensional niche dynamics (Yurkowski et al. 2020b). This analytical approach, combining | |
| 128 | stable isotopes and contaminants has been applied to multiple taxa including mammals, fish, and | |

| 129 | reptiles (Guzzo et al. 2016; Jackson et al. 2016; Purwandana et al. 2016; Yurkowski et al. |
|-----|--|
| 130 | 2020b). However, a multidimensional approach to determine niche size has not been investigated |
| 131 | in seabirds despite them being considered sentinels of ecosystem change (Le Bohec et al. 2013). |
| 132 | Arctic seabirds demonstrate varying foraging specializations on a large diversity of prey items |
| 133 | reflecting climate-induced trophic shifts and inform spatial variation and temporal changes in |
| 134 | sea-ice and ocean dynamics that propagate up the food web, making them an ideal model to |
| 135 | research multidimensional niche dynamics (Pratte et al. 2019; Albert et al. 2020; Renedo et al. |
| 136 | 2020). |
| 137 | We used an inter-colony and inter-individual approach to examine spatial variation in the |
| 138 | 3-dimensional niche of common eiders (Somateria mollissima, hereafter eiders). Eiders are a |
| 139 | long-lived, colonial-nesting marine bird with high site fidelity and widely dispersed breeding |
| 140 | populations across the circumpolar Arctic. Across their range, eiders are likely exposed to |
| 141 | diverse environmental conditions that influence colony demographics at varying intensities that |
| 142 | may influence foraging decisions and, although typically at low concentrations in eiders, Hg |
| 143 | exposure (Mallory et al. 2004; 2017; Jónsson et al. 2013; Goudie et al. 2020; Noel et al. 2021). |
| 144 | Eider prey primarily includes a diversity of benthic invertebrates (e.g., urchins, mussels, and |
| 145 | gastropods) as well as pelagic macroinvertebrates to a lesser extent (e.g., amphipods; Sénéchal et |
| 146 | al. 2011; Kristjánsson et al. 2013; Waltho and Coulson 2015). The abundance and distribution of |
| 147 | these prey groups vary spatio-temporally and correlate with both predator Hg concentrations and |
| 148 | phenological shifts in primary production (Mouritsen et al. 2005; Barber et al. 2015; Fort et al. |

149 2016; Savoy et al. 2017). Thus, examining δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C and Hg niche dynamics of a costal,

150 primarily benthic foraging species provides an avenue to investigate the future impact of prey

151 shifts and the resulting influence on Hg exposure (Sénéchal et al. 2011), as well as relative

| 152 | differences in ice algae and phytoplankton-based food webs in relation to sea-ice cover (Søreide |
|-----|--|
| 153 | et al. 2012; Kohlbach et al. 2016). |
| 154 | We used a 3-dimensional approach combining δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C and total Hg (THg) |
| 155 | measurements collected from individuals at 10 eider breeding colonies located across their |
| 156 | circumpolar range to evaluate variation in eider foraging ecology and Hg exposure. We |
| 157 | anticipated that colonies would show differences in 3-dimensional niche size and ranges of each |
| 158 | axis and be influenced by spatial differences in primary productivity (i.e., sea-ice algae and |
| 159 | phytoplankton) and migratory behaviour. To examine these possible drivers of colony-level |
| 160 | variation in niche metrics, we first examined colony sea-ice cover during a period reflecting |
| 161 | periods of isotopic integration in blood. Specifically, we predicted that colonies with higher sea- |
| 162 | ice cover would have smaller niche sizes than those with no sea ice present due to more |
| 163 | restricted foraging habitat and likely less diverse prey availability (Yurkowski et al. 2016; Pratte |
| 164 | et al. 2019). We also examined whether a colony is considered primarily migratory or resident |
| 165 | and predicted that eiders from resident, non-migratory colonies would have smaller niche sizes |
| 166 | compared to migratory colonies, given that residents remain at the same geographical location |
| 167 | year-round and should therefore be continually exposed to a narrower range of environmental |
| 168 | conditions than migrants (Herrera 1978; Gómez et al. 2016). |
| 169 | In our second objective, as colony-corrected individual values and colony ranges of δ^{13} C, |
| 170 | δ^{15} N and THg provide important and unique information about foraging ecology, we first related |
| 171 | these values to colony sea-ice cover in the spring during the period when birds would have been |
| 172 | foraging at high rates to obtain body condition needed to breed. We predicted that colonies with |
| 173 | higher sea-ice cover during the pre-breeding period would have lower δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and THg ranges |
| 174 | due to a restricted number of foraging locations available due to higher sea-ice concentrations, as |

| 175 | well as higher individual δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and THg. Second, we related these metrics to the migratory |
|-----|---|
| 176 | status of a colony. We predicted that migratory colonies would have wider δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and THg |
| 177 | ranges due to a presumed broader distribution and use of habitat, in addition to higher median |
| 178 | THg, δ^{15} N and lower δ^{13} C. Median values were used to avoid data skewed by high/low |
| 179 | individual values within a mean and better represent general colony values. |
| 180 | Finally, we aimed to assess individual Hg exposure based on possible differences in |
| 181 | foraging behaviour and prey selection. We examined the relationship between trophic position |
| 182 | (the vertical placement of an individual in the food-web based on prey and individual $\delta^{15}N$) and |
| 183 | inter-individual δ^{13} C values on THg concentrations. We predicted that THg would increase with |
| 184 | higher trophic position due to the biomagnification of THg, and lower δ^{13} C values because of a |
| 185 | greater consumption of resources derived from phytoplankton (Atwell et al. 1998; McMahon et |
| 186 | al. 2006; Stern et al. 2012). By examining variation in 3-dimensional niche size among colonies |
| 187 | of this Arctic seabird, we aimed to identify the environmental and behavioural factors |
| 188 | influencing niche dynamics. Furthermore, multidimensional niche can be used to infer |
| 189 | population-level variability in resource use and overall niche diversity which allows for broad |
| 190 | predictions about predicted flexibility and resiliency to environmental change (Vander Zanden et |
| 191 | al. 2010; Paredes et al. 2012; Smith and Reeves 2012; Sydeman et al. 2012). As such, we also |
| 192 | considered how our measurement of niche size may help predict the resiliency of eider colonies |
| 193 | to environmental change (Paredes et al. 2012; Smith and Reeves 2012; Sydeman et al. 2012). |
| 194 | 2. Methods |

195 2.1. Study sites and sample collection

- 196 We collected whole blood samples from pre-incubating or incubating eiders in 2018 at 10
- breeding colonies (total number of individuals = 240) across the Arctic and subarctic (spanning a 197

| 198 | longitude from -147.776 to 35.774 and latitude from 78.918 to 43.645; Figure 1, Table 1). We |
|-----|--|
| 199 | captured eiders using colony- and breeding stage-specific techniques. Pre-incubating eiders were |
| 200 | sampled at East Bay Island (within in the Qaqsauqtuuq (East Bay) Migratory Bird Sanctuary, |
| 201 | Nunavut, Canada), whereas incubating eiders were sampled at the other nine locations. |
| 202 | At East Bay Island, eiders were captured using large flight nets. We collected birds from |
| 203 | the nets and drew a 1-mL tarsal blood sample from each female eider (Hennin et al. 2015). These |
| 204 | samples were used for isotopic analyses and were collected using a 23G thin-wall, 1-inch needle |
| 205 | attached to a sodium-heparinized 1 mL syringe (Lemons et al. 2012). After transferring to a |
| 206 | heparinized 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube, samples were kept cool (~10°C), and within 8 h, were |
| 207 | centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min to separate red blood cells (RBCs) and plasma. Plasma was |
| 208 | then transferred by pipetting into a separate cryovial and stored along with RBC samples at - |
| 209 | 20°C until isotopic analysis. During the same capture period as the first sample, a second blood |
| 210 | sample of 1-mL was obtained from the jugular vein using 23G thin wall, 1-inch needles attached |
| 211 | to heparinized 3mL syringes to be used for Hg analysis. The whole blood sample was placed in |
| 212 | acid-rinsed cryovials and kept at $\sim 10^{\circ}$ C, and frozen within 6 hours of collection until analysis. |
| 213 | At the other nine colonies, female eiders were captured on their nest during incubation |
| 214 | using either a bownet, noose pole or dogs (John's Island location only; Milton et al. 2016). The |
| 215 | specific incubation stage could not be determined at all sites or for all individuals and was |
| 216 | excluded from analysis. For most sites, we collected 200-1000 μL of blood from the tarsal vein |
| 217 | using a 23G thin-wall, 1-inch needle attached to a heparinized 1 mL syringe. At the Alaskan site, |
| 218 | up to 5mL of blood was collected from the jugular vein using a non-heparinized syringe, while at |
| 219 | the Icelandic site, blood was collected from the brachial vein. After collection, samples were |
| 220 | kept cool and transferred to heparinized 1.5mL cryovials. Within 8-12 h, samples were |

centrifuged at approximately 10,000 rpm, dependent on centrifuge model, for 10 min to separate
red blood cells (RBCs) and plasma. Plasma was then placed into a separate cryovial and stored
along with RBC samples at a minimum of -20°C until analysis.

224 2.2. Stable isotope analysis

225 Stable isotopes of elements turnover at different rates based on dietary composition, metabolic 226 rates, and specific metabolic activity of the tissue (Hobson and Clark 1992). Isotopic half-life is 227 dependent on body size and can be affected by temperature exposure (Carleton and Del Rio 228 2005). For avian blood components, plasma has fast turnover rate that reflects recent diet (days), 229 while the turnover rate of RBCs is slower and reflects diet over a longer period (weeks; Hobson 230 and Clark 1992; Barquete et al. 2013). Further, $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ usually have similar turnover 231 times, hence are comparable (Bearhop et al. 2002). Stable isotope ratios were measured in 232 plasma at East Bay Island and in RBCs at the other nine colonies. Therefore, despite sampling 233 colonies at different life history stages, by using different tissues for analysis we were still able 234 to compare them within a similar stage including the pre-incubation period while eiders are 235 heavily foraging, either at resident sites or in the last period of migration to build up stored 236 resources for their incubation fast. 237 Samples were freeze-dried for approximately 72 h after collection. Samples were then 238 ground into a fine, homogenized powder using a metal spatula cleaned with acetone. Plasma 239 samples were then lipid extracted using a 2:1 chloroform:methanol solution (Søreide et al. 2006). 240 Specifically, 2:1 chloroform:methanol solution (1.9mL) was added to 100µL of each plasma 241 sample, which were then placed in a water bath at 30°C for 24 h. Samples were then centrifuged 242 at 15,000 rpm for 10 min to separate the lipid solution from the plasma pellet. A p1000 pipette

243 was used to remove the lipid solution, leaving the plasma pellet behind. The pellet was washed

| 244 | again with an additional 1.9 mL of the chloroform:methanol solution and centrifuged for a final |
|-----|--|
| 245 | 10 min at 15,000 rpm. The remaining lipid solution was removed, leaving only a plasma pellet. |
| 246 | Samples were left open in the fume hood for 24 h to allow for any remaining |
| 247 | chloroform:methanol solution to evaporate. Since RBCs have minimal lipids present, they did |
| 248 | not undergo lipid extraction (Hobson and Clark 1992). |
| 249 | Plasma and RBC samples were weighed into individual tin-capsules using a 4-digit |
| 250 | balance to obtain 0.3-0.5 mg of sample. Plasma samples were prepared at the University of |
| 251 | Windsor, and plasma stable isotopes were analysed at the Environment and Climate Change |
| 252 | Canada Stable Isotope Laboratory in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, using continuous-flow isotope- |
| 253 | ratio mass spectrometry (CFIRMS; Harris et al. 1997). Samples were weighed into pre- |
| 254 | combusted tin capsules. Encapsulated plasma was combusted at 1030°C in a Carlo Erba NA1500 |
| 255 | or Eurovector 3000 elemental analyser. The resulting N_2 and CO_2 were separated |
| 256 | chromatographically and introduced to an Elementar Isoprime or a Nu Instruments Horizon |
| 257 | isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Two reference materials were used to normalize the results to |
| 258 | VPDB and AIR: BWBIII keratin (δ^{13} C = -20.18, δ^{15} N = +14.31 ‰, respectively) and PRCgel |
| 259 | $(\delta^{13}C = -13.64, \delta^{15}N = +5.07 $ %, respectively). Within run (n = 5) precisions as determined from |
| 260 | both reference and sample duplicate analyses were \pm 0.1 ‰ for both $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N.$ |
| 261 | The RBC samples were prepared for isotope analysis at La Rochelle University, France, |
| 262 | and were analysed at the LIENSs institute (La Rochelle, France) as detailed in Fort et al. (2014). |
| 263 | Plasma and RBC samples were combusted using a Eurovector 3000 (Milan, Italy) elemental |
| 264 | analyser which results in production of N_2 and CO_2 gases. These were separated by gas |
| 265 | chromatography and introduced into a NU Horizon (Nu Instruments, Wrexham, UK) triple- |
| 266 | collector isotope-ratio mass-spectrometer via an open split. Ratios of carbon $({}^{13}C/{}^{12}C)$ and |

| 267 | nitrogen ($^{15}N/^{14}N$) were expressed in typical delta notation (δ) as per mil (‰) deviation from the |
|-----|--|
| 268 | primary standards (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VDPB) and atmospheric nitrogen (AIR), |
| 269 | respectively). Replicate measurements ($n = 20$) per run of laboratory standards (USGS-61 and |
| 270 | USGS-62) indicated that the measurement accuracy was <0.2‰ for both $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values. |
| 271 | Blanks were run at the beginning of each sample set. Detection limit was set to 0.005 μ g/g dw. |
| 272 | Due to biogeochemical factors, baseline stable isotopes of Arctic marine food webs vary |
| 273 | spatiotemporally (de la Vega et al. 2019). Variation in food web δ^{13} C of marine environments is |
| 274 | driven largely by primary production growth rate and inorganic substrate (e.g., water |
| 275 | temperature, amount and isotopic signature of dissolved CO ₂) δ^{13} C and these, in turn, can be |
| 276 | influenced by sea-ice cover (de la Vega et al. 2019). Stable nitrogen isotope values in marine |
| 277 | food webs are influenced by spatial and temporal changes in temperature, increasing abundance |
| 278 | of phytoplankton that fix ¹⁵ N, trophic level as well as inputs of nitrogen from terrestrial sources |
| 279 | (Smith et al. 1999; Tamelander et al. 2009; McMahon et al. 2013). Importantly, since Arctic food |
| 280 | webs are expected to vary isotopically, measured δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of biota from different |
| 281 | regions can only be compared if corrected for such baseline variance (Bowen 2010; Hobson et al. |
| 282 | 2012; de la Vega et al. 2019). Based on previously published δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of known |
| 283 | eider bivalve prey at the different breeding sites, we corrected our data by subtracting baseline |
| 284 | bivalve isotope values from the eider tissue values to obtain "corrected" isotopic values (Table |
| 285 | 2). However, Hg values were not corrected to baseline values. Additionally, we were unable to |
| 286 | account for the potential impact of incubation stage on δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C or Hg values. Both Hg and |
| 287 | δ^{15} N values can be elevated in blood due to mobilization of internal nutrient stores during the |
| 288 | incubation fast (Hobson et al. 1993; Wayland et al. 2005). However, our use of RBCs instead of |
| 289 | plasma to determine incubating female δ^{15} N values minimized this effect (Cherel et al. 2005). |

| 290 | Furthermore, our sampling of eiders during incubation, when Hg is known to increase (Wayland |
|-----|---|
| 291 | et al. 2005), lessens but does not mitigate the potential bias of East Bay Island pre-breeding |
| 292 | eiders having elevated Hg relative to the other colonies as the pre-breeding eiders have not yet |
| 293 | depurated Hg to their eggs during laying (Akearok et al. 2010). Hence, caution should be taken |
| 294 | when comparing Hg values between East Bay Island and the other nine colonies. |
| 295 | Diet-tissue isotopic discrimination factors allow modeling of isotopic trophic positions or |
| 296 | nutrient source tracing (e.g., Wolf et al. 2009; Federer et al. 2010; Bond and Diamond 2011). |
| 297 | Such factors have not been established for common eiders and so we used those reported by |
| 298 | Federer et al. (2010) for spectacled eider (Somateria fischeri) (plasma: +4.9%; RBC: +4.0%). |
| 299 | Trophic position was calculated using baseline $\delta^{15}N$ bivalve values for the individual's colony |
| 300 | $(\delta^{15}N_{base})$, discrimination factors from the respective tissue of spectacled eiders ($\delta^{15}N_{TDF}$; Federer |
| 301 | et al. 2010), trophic position (TP) of baseline prey values (TP _{base} ; value of 2 consistent with eider |
| 302 | prey), and the non-colony corrected $\delta^{15}N$ values for that individual eider ($\delta^{15}N_{eider}$; Hobson and |
| 303 | Welch 1992; Vander Zanden et al. 1997; Vander Zanden and Rasmussen 1999). |
| | |

304

$TP = ((\delta^{15}N_{eider} - \delta^{15}N_{base})/\delta^{15}N_{TDF}) + TP_{base}$

305 2.3. THg analysis

306 Whole blood collected at East Bay Island was sent to the Research and Productivity Council 307 (RPC) in New Brunswick, Canada for THg analysis. Each sample was prepared by microwave-308 assisted digestion in nitric acid (SOP 4.M26). Mercury was then analysed by cold vapour atomic 309 absorption spectroscopy (AAS; SOP 4.M52 & SOP 4.M53) to obtain THg concentrations. 310 Quality assurance/control procedures included analysis of four reagent blanks, and reference 311 materials from dogfish liver (DOLT-2) and lobster hepatopancreas (TORT-2) from the National

| 312 | Research Council (NRC), Canada, as well as four randomly selected duplicate samples. All |
|-----|--|
| 313 | samples followed quality control procedures. Mercury concentrations were converted from wet |
| 314 | weight to dry weight for comparison with the other colonies following known equations and |
| 315 | moisture values for avian blood at 79% (Eagles-Smith et al. 2008). |
| 316 | For the remaining nine colonies, THg analyses were conducted at LIENSs Institute using |
| 317 | RBCs separated from plasma collected from incubating females. These eiders were captured |
| 318 | while incubating (Hanssen et al. 2002; Bottitta et al. 2003; Sénéchal et al. 2011), thus by |
| 319 | collecting and analysing RBCs alone, the timeframe which the RBCs represent aligns with the |
| 320 | same timeframe represented in the East Bay Island eiders (pre-incubation period for all colonies) |
| 321 | since whole blood has a turnover rate approximately intermediate of plasma and RBC (Cherel et |
| 322 | al. 2005). Therefore, this provides justification for including the colony in our analysis despite |
| 323 | potential differences in physiology due to their reproductive stages. Freeze-dried blood was |
| 324 | analysed using an Advanced Hg Analyser spectrophotometer (Altec AMA 254). A quality |
| 325 | control program included running blanks prior to the analysis, as well as the same certified |
| 326 | reference materials used to analyze the samples from East Bay Island (DOLT-2 and TORT-2) |
| 327 | analysed every 15 samples. Samples were analyzed for THg since Hg exists as primarily MeHg |
| 328 | in avian blood (near 1:1 ratio; Wiener et al. 2003; Rimmer et al. 2005). |

329 2.4. Statistical analysis

We estimated 3-dimensional niche size (using THg, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) and ranges along the THg, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N axes for 10 eider colonies using the R package nicheROVER v1.0 (Swanson et al. 2015) in R version 3.6.2 (R Development Core Team). NicheROVER uses Bayesian statistical methods to calculate a multidimensional niche region in multivariate space that represents the spatial breadth and placement of a group's (i.e., colony's) niche in relation to other groups and

| 335 | infers the niche size of each group based on the group's individual values (Swanson et al. 2015). |
|-----|--|
| 336 | Since the variables are in different units (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N: ‰ vs. THg: µg/g ⁻¹), we scaled and |
| 337 | centred all values by subtracting the mean for each variable and dividing it by the standard |
| 338 | deviation, thereby standardizing all data. To determine if there were any correlations among |
| 339 | variables prior to analysis, we tested for independence by calculating Spearman's correlation |
| 340 | coefficient between THg and colony-corrected $\delta^{15}N$ which showed a significant but weak |
| 341 | correlation (<i>R</i> =0.429, <i>p</i> <0.001). Thus, THg and δ^{15} N, while related, do possess independent |
| 342 | variation that allows us to use both in our analysis to account for spatial variation in THg |
| 343 | concentrations. We calculated a 95% probability niche region in multivariate space at 10,000 |
| 344 | iterations using diffuse priors (Swanson et al. 2015; Yurkowski et al. 2020b). We ran additional |
| 345 | script at 10,000 iterations to obtain $\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$ and THg ranges (difference between the highest |
| 346 | and lowest values; Swanson et al. 2015; Yurkowski et al. 2020b). Three-dimensional models of |
| 347 | the niche ranges were visualized using the scatter3D function in the car package v.3.0-9 (Fox and |
| 348 | Weisberg 2019) and the rgl package v.0.100.54 (Adler and Murdoch 2017; see Supplemental |
| 349 | Materials). |
| 350 | Primary migratory status of each colony, not including the potential for individual |
| 351 | variation, was determined by consulting previous studies (Schamel 1997; Bønløkke et al. 2006; |
| 352 | Hanssen et al. 2016; Steenweg et al. 2017; Mallory et al. 2020) and through spatial tracking data |
| 353 | collected by the SEATRACK program (https://seapop.no/en/seatrack/). Moreover, we |
| 354 | determined the proportion of sea-ice cover surrounding each colony within a timeframe |
| 355 | reflecting turnover rates of isotope sampling (plasma within a week of sampling, RBC within a |
| 356 | month of sampling; Hobson and Clark 1992; Barquete et al. 2013). Sea-ice cover was determined |
| 357 | via a satellite image of a 100 km area around each colony on a cloud-less day from NASA |

358 Worldview dataset (EOSDIS, https://worldview.earthdata.nasa.gov). Land pixels were removed 359 from the image manually and the remaining pixels were categorized into two groups (open water 360 or sea ice) using a K-means clustering procedure via RGB values of the pixels 361 (http://mkweb.bcgsc.ca/color-summarizer/). The resulting proportion of pixels was used as a 362 proxy for the proportion of sea ice around the colony during the time of isotopic turnover for 363 each colony (Cusset et al. 2019). 364 We ran a preliminary 2-tailed *t*-test to determine independence between colony sea-ice 365 cover and migratory behaviour and found they were not significantly correlated ($t_5=2.11$, 366 p=0.09). Therefore, to determine sources of niche variation with sea ice cover, we first ran a 367 general linear model (GLM) to determine how log-transformed niche size varied by colony sea 368 ice cover. Next, we conducted six GLMs to analyze the relationship between sea-ice cover and 369 colony δ^{15} N, log-transformed δ^{13} C and THg ranges, as well as median individual colony-370 corrected $\delta^{15}N$, and log-transformed $\delta^{13}C$ and THg values for each of the 10 colonies. 371 To examine variation in niche dynamics between migratory and resident colonies we 372 conducted a 2-tailed t-test to analyze how log-transformed colony niche size varied with 373 migratory status (migratory or resident being the two groups). Following this, we ran six, 2-tailed 374 *t*-tests to analyze whether migratory status of a colony resulted in different colony δ^{15} N, and log-375 transformed $\delta^{13}C$ and THg ranges, as well as individual colony-corrected eider $\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$ and 376 log-transformed THg values. 377 Finally, we used a general linear mixed model (GLMM) to examine the relationship 378 between colony-corrected isotopes indicating carbon source (δ^{13} C), trophic position of each 379 individual, and log-transformed THg. The model consisted of THg as the dependent variable,

380 with δ^{13} C and trophic position as independent variables, as well as colony as a random variable.

381 All models conducted throughout the study met statistical assumptions, and all log-

382 transformations were conducted using natural log.

383 3. Results

384 3.1. Niche size and underlying sources of variation

385 Three-dimensional niche size was highly variable among colonies, ranging from 1.4 (Grindøya)

to 21.7 (Iceland), with an average niche size among all colonies of 9.2 ± 7.8 (Figure 2, see

387 Supplemental Materials). However, niche size was not correlated with colony sea ice cover (t_{δ} =-

0.92, p=0.54) or migratory status (t_4 =-0.61, p=0.57). The Christiansø colony in Denmark had the

lowest colony-corrected δ^{13} C values, suggesting higher phytoplankton-derived carbon in their

390 diet, while the Alaskan colony had the highest colony-corrected δ^{13} C suggesting eiders were

391 feeding on prey reflecting more ice algae- or inshore-derived carbon (see Supplemental

392 Materials). The Alaskan colony also had the highest colony-corrected δ^{15} N values, with the

393 Faroe Islands having the lowest values, suggesting that Faroese eiders forage at lower trophic

394 levels, whereas the Alaskan eiders forage at higher trophic levels.

395 3.2. Relationship between colony migratory behaviour and sea-ice cover with isotopes and

396 *THg*

397 Inter-colony variation in sea-ice presence was positively correlated with median eider THg

398 concentrations, as well as δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C values (Table 3). However, δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C as well as THg

399 ranges did not vary with colony sea-ice cover (Table 3). Migratory colonies had higher

400 individual δ^{15} N and THg, as well as lower individual δ^{13} C compared to individuals captured at

401 resident colonies (Table 3). However, δ^{15} N range, δ^{13} C range and THg range did not vary

402 between the migratory and resident colonies (Table 3).

403 3.3. Relationship between isotopic niche and THg concentrations

| 404 | Both colony-corrected $\delta^{13}C$ and trophic position predicted THg concentration within individuals. |
|-----|--|
| 405 | Specifically, individuals with a lower δ^{13} C value (phytoplankton-based foraging) had higher THg |
| 406 | values (Table 3, Figure 3). Additionally, THg significantly increased with trophic position, |
| 407 | where individuals with higher trophic positions had greater THg values (Table 3, Figure 3). |
| 408 | 4. Discussion |
| 409 | Using data collected from ten eider colonies located throughout their circumpolar range, |
| 410 | including both Arctic and subarctic sites, we quantified 3-dimensional niche size using $\delta^{15}N$, |
| 411 | $\delta^{13}C$ and THg to determine colony niche size and ranges. Determination of 3-dimensional niche |
| 412 | size allowed us to broadly compare a snapshot of diet breadth at multiple eider colonies in |
| 413 | relation to environmental and behavioural differences, as well as infer their potential for |
| 414 | flexibility in response to environmental change. We demonstrate the benefits of using multiple |
| 415 | chemical tracers when assessing the effects of spatial variation and environmental gradients on |
| 416 | the foraging ecology of highly mobile consumers (Ramos and González-Solís 2012). This study |
| 417 | represents the first inter-colony, multidimensional niche size analysis for any seabird and the |
| 418 | resulting colony-level relationships with THg exposure, an area identified as a key knowledge |
| 419 | gap (Dietz et al. 2019). |

420 4.1. Colony foraging flexibility and resiliency predictions

421 Generally, colonies that utilize broader, more generalist diets are expected to have larger 422 foraging niches, thus are expected to be inherently less vulnerable to changes since they have 423 greater flexibility in their prey source as they forage on a wide variety of organisms and habitats 424 (Jakubas et al. 2017; Both et al. 2010). Colonies with restricted, specialist diets are expected to 425 have smaller foraging niches, influenced by both prey availability and foraging distance, and are

| 426 | generally viewed as more vulnerable to environmental changes (Bolnick et al. 2003; Araujo et al. |
|-----|--|
| 427 | 2011; Pratte et al. 2019). We examined the 3-dimensional niche size of eider breeding colonies, |
| 428 | representing prey selection and trophic connections through stable isotopes and Hg exposure. |
| 429 | Multidimensional niche analysis may be useful in predicting the resiliency of common eider |
| 430 | colonies to ongoing climate change across their range, although numerous other factors should |
| 431 | also be considered including multiple biogeochemical metrics, colony recruitment and individual |
| 432 | fitness (Paredes et al. 2012; Smith and Reeves 2012; Sydeman et al. 2012). However, our |
| 433 | analysis provides a snapshot of niche characteristics at a singular time frame that may assist with |
| 434 | colony-wide resiliency predictions in combination with future research on changing niche |
| 435 | dynamics at these colonies. |
| 436 | When grouped for similarity, niche size generated the following pattern in our study: |
| 437 | Iceland, East Bay Island and Faroe Islands > Christiansø and John's Island > Kongsfjorden, |
| 438 | Alaska and Russia > Tern Island and Grindøya (Figure 1). Using our 3-dimensional view of |
| 439 | niche size, we predict that colonies with wider (i.e., more generalist) 3-dimensional niches such |
| 440 | as those in Iceland and Faroe Islands, or colonies comprised of migrants from multiple locations |
| 441 | such as East Bay will show greater resiliency to shifts in food web dynamics compared to |
| 442 | colonies with a smaller (i.e., more restricted, specialist) niche similar to Tern Island and |
| 443 | Grindøya. Smaller niches are predicted to be a disadvantage in a changing climate as these |
| 444 | alterations may change or eliminate food sources, leaving a colony or species more vulnerable if |
| 445 | they do not have the flexibility to adapt and shift their diet with this changing prey base (Both et |
| 446 | al. 2010; Le Bohec et al. 2013; Ceia and Ramos 2015). However, climate change may present an |
| 447 | opportunity for Arctic colonies with smaller niches to expand their prey sources with advancing |
| 448 | phenology of spring phytoplankton blooms and more open water sources. For those with broader |

| 449 | niches at southern latitudes, that niche size may be critical as we see further changes in the |
|-----|---|
| 450 | distribution and availability of key prey (Staudinger et al. 2019). Nevertheless, more research |
| 451 | that integrates measures of breeding success and colony demographics is necessary to test these |
| 452 | resiliency hypotheses over long temporal scales to identify seasonal and annual variation in inter- |
| 453 | and intra- colony foraging ecology. |

454 4.2. Variation in niche size, niche metrics and THg to colony sea-ice cover

455 Colony niche size was not correlated with sea-ice cover, possibly attributable to several factors. 456 First, despite the presence of sea ice likely restricting foraging locations, eiders may still be able 457 to access a diversity of resources, including the potential for prey sources such as ice-associated 458 amphipods as niche size was similar to southern locations that have more accessible, ice-free 459 areas (Karnovsky et al. 2008). Second, northern colonies may support a variety of individuals 460 that utilize both generalist and specialist strategies, thus adding to the flexibility and diversity of the colony in the face of environmental change (Woo et al. 2008; Ceia and Ramos 2015; Pratte et 461 462 al. 2019). Notably, the relative proportion of generalist and specialist individuals in populations 463 dramatically affects dietary niche size with generalist-based populations having wider niches 464 (Newsome et al. 2007).

We found that eider colonies with greater sea-ice cover had higher δ^{13} C values, which is not consistent with the expected gradient based on ocean temperature (Sackett et al. 1965; Goericke and Fry 1994; McMahon et al. 2013). However, this pattern can be most likely explained by eiders foraging on more resources derved from ice algae with higher ice cover versus more phytoplankton-derived resources in areas with lower sea-ice presence (Hobson et al. 1995; Tamelander et al. 2006; McMahon et al. 2006). As well, macroalgal carbon has a higher δ^{13} C value than phytoplankton and therefore could be a contributing carbon source to these

| 472 | spatial differences. Nonetheless, we show spatial differences in carbon-source use amongst eider |
|-----|---|
| 473 | colonies, where some colonies use more phytoplankton-derived carbon than others. Furthermore, |
| 474 | our results suggest that in general, eider colonies with greater sea-ice cover also had higher |
| 475 | median individual THg and δ^{15} N, suggesting that sea-ice presence results in eiders foraging at |
| 476 | higher trophic levels, thus contributing to higher overall THg exposure. Potential reasons for |
| 477 | higher trophic-level foraging include eiders feeding on ice-associated sources of prey prior to |
| 478 | laying, such as amphipods, due to restricted access to benthic prey with sea ice present |
| 479 | (Karnovsky et al. 2008). Amphipods seasonally forage on ice algae and this would decouple |
| 480 | them from the pelagic food web and result in higher δ^{13} C values (Werner 1997; Brown et al. |
| 481 | 2017). Furthermore, waters with sea ice present are supersaturated with dissolved THg, thus |
| 482 | further contributing to the elevation of THg in food webs (DiMento et al. 2019). Individual |
| 483 | variation in foraging behaviour is known to have a role in Hg accumulation (Anderson et al. |
| 484 | 2009; Braune et al. 2014; Le Croizier et al. 2019) and in our study, individual variation exists |
| 485 | within colonies as demonstrated by the colony ranges. |
| | |

486 4.3. Role of migration in shaping niche dynamics and THg exposure

487 We expected migratory populations (see Table 1, Figure 1) to have larger niches due to broader 488 exposure to a variety of environmental conditions and prey types experienced at overwintering, 489 migratory stopover, and breeding grounds (Herrera 1978; Gómez et al. 2016). In the present 490 study we found no pattern with migratory behaviour and niche size. However, two of the largest 491 niche sizes found at two resident colonies (Iceland and Faroe Islands) may stem from colony-492 wide expansion in dietary choice due to increased prey availability. This has been reported in 493 Iceland where eiders within the colony selected a wide array of both benthic and pelagic prey 494 (Kristjánsson et al. 2013). Waters around Iceland are a mix of Arctic (East-Greenland Current),

| 495 | as well as Atlantic origins (North Atlantic Current), and this, together with greater lack of sea |
|-----|---|
| 496 | ice, seem to provide a diverse range of prey options to pre-breeding eiders (Vincent 2010; |
| 497 | Kristjánsson et al. 2013; Casanova-Masjoan et al. 2020). The East Bay Island colony, consisting |
| 498 | of migrants from Greenland and Newfoundland, had the second largest niche size potentially in |
| 499 | part due to a mixing of individuals from both overwintering sites (Steenweg et al. 2017). |
| 500 | Additionally, individual variation in migration distance and strategy within a colony, although |
| 501 | not included in the present study, may lead to broader colony niche ranges (Mallory et al. 2020). |
| 502 | Colonies supporting migratory eiders had higher THg concentrations and foraged at |
| 503 | higher trophic levels compared to colonies supporting residents, suggesting that colonies of |
| 504 | migratory individuals have access to higher trophic-level prey, or rely on these prey to store |
| 505 | resources necessary for migration. Colonies with resident eiders with higher individual $\delta^{13} C$ |
| 506 | levels partially indicate diets with greater foraging based on ice algae, potentially due to residing |
| 507 | at their Arctic breeding sites year-round while migratory colonies move to more suitable areas |
| 508 | with presumably lower sea ice. Combined with our results on colony latitude, these dynamics |
| 509 | suggest that changes in environmental conditions and variability may have different effects on |
| 510 | migratory and resident seabird colonies dependent on future colony flexibility, thus should be |
| 511 | factored into future analyses especially regarding climate change affects within Arctic |
| 512 | ecosystems. |

513 4.4. Relationship between trophic position, foraging location and THg concentrations

514 With increasing industrial activity and contaminant deposition due to long-distance transport in 515 northern latitudes, as well as the release of stored Hg from melting ice and increased erosion of 516 terrestrial sources (Sorenson et al. 2016, Cossa et al. 2018), Arctic-inhabiting species are 517 potentially becoming more at risk for contaminants exposure and a suite of possible negative

| 518 | neurological, physiological and reproductive impacts (Dietz et al. 2013; Scheuhammer et al. |
|-----|---|
| 519 | 2015). This is especially a potential population stability concern for harvested species, such as |
| 520 | common eider, which are an important, harvested species for many Indigenous communities in |
| 521 | the North (Nakashima and Murray 1988; Priest and Usher 2004). Concentrations of THg for the |
| 522 | eider colonies in this study are comparable to those observed in previous eider research |
| 523 | (Provencher et al. 2016; Albert et al. 2019; Ma et al. 2020; Dietz et al. 2021). The mean |
| 524 | concentrations of THg in the Alaska, Christiansø and East Bay colonies were above 0.95 $\mu g/g$ |
| 525 | dw, suggesting that three of the 10 colonies studied are therefore considered to be above general |
| 526 | environmental background concentrations (Eagles-Smith et al. 2008; Ackerman et al. 2016). |
| 527 | Only 40% of eiders had higher concentrations of THg (above recognized background |
| 528 | concentrations of 0.95 ug/g dw), but these concentrations assign them a general "low risk" status |
| 529 | regarding concerns for health, physiology, behaviour and reproductive effects (Ackerman et al. |
| 530 | 2016; Dietz et al. 2019; 2021). The individual eider with the highest Hg level was from the |
| 531 | Iceland colony (2.55 $\mu g/g$ dw compared to the colony mean of 0.95 $\mu g/g$ dw), which features |
| 532 | less sea ice than other regions such as Alaska, which had the highest colony THg average (1.23 |
| 533 | μg/g dw). |
| 534 | With a rapidly declining sea-ice cover, a rise in phytoplankton production and |
| 535 | consumption by eiders could be related to higher, individual THg concentrations (Stern et al. |
| 536 | 2012). Combined with our results in section 4.2 showing higher median THg concentrations at |
| 537 | colonies with greater sea-ice cover, our results demonstrate that within colonies, individuals with |
| 538 | greater phytoplankton-based consumption had higher THg concentrations. The relationship |
| 539 | between individual δ^{13} C and THg, combined with effects of trophic position (determined using |
| 540 | δ^{15} N) on THg may potentially have future effects on seabird health, behaviour and reproduction |

| 541 | in those with at-risk Hg exposure. However, it is likely that any possible effects would not be |
|-----|--|
| 542 | consistent across the entire range of a species, especially given the regional difference in which |
| 543 | climate change is altering the Arctic (Muir et al. 1999; Mallory and Braune 2012; Swart et al. |
| 544 | 2015). Nevertheless, we did detect variation among colonies, suggesting regional differences in |
| 545 | the relationship between δ^{13} C, trophic position and THg; for instance, the Christiansø and |
| 546 | Kongsfjorden colonies showed opposite relationships between THg and δ^{13} C (Figure 3). Thus, |
| 547 | while we conducted a broad-scale study into these relationships, more in-depth analyses of the |
| 548 | environmental factors at each site would allow for site-specific investigation into the |
| 549 | relationships between foraging behaviour and THg uptake. Additionally, further knowledge of |
| 550 | baseline variation (THg, $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$) in colony-specific prey at a varying spatio-temporal scale, |
| 551 | parallel with eider sampling, would aid future interpretation of eider niche size and sources of |
| 552 | individual and colony THg. The contribution of terrestrial carbon sources and agricultural runoff |
| 553 | to marine areas around some of these colonies may also contribute to variation in individual $\delta^{13}C$ |
| 554 | and δ^{15} N values and affect the rate of THg accumulation (Dunton et al. 2006; Laursen et al. |
| 555 | 2018; Renedo et al. 2020). Overall, the relationship between environmental conditions and THg |
| 556 | concentrations presents a complex system and paired with the rapid changes in ecosystem |
| 557 | dynamics currently being observed (i.e., sea ice abundance), underscores the necessity of future, |
| 558 | and consistent annual monitoring, especially in key ecosystem indicators like seabirds. |
| 559 | 5. Conclusion |
| 560 | We examined inter-colony, 3-dimensional niche size, isotopic and THg ranges, and the |

- relationships between δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and THg within individuals. Our results suggest that common 561
- eider colonies across the Arctic and subarctic have a wide degree of diet variation, potentially 562
- influenced by environmental changes including spatio-temporal differences in primary 563

| 564 | productivity. We found that consideration of colony-level variation in life histories (migratory vs |
|-----|---|
| 565 | resident) was important for assessing the level of risk to which a colony may be exposed. |
| 566 | Further, inter-annual multidimensional niche analyses would provide greater insight into the |
| 567 | temporal variation in niche size that exists at both an inter- and intra-colony scale. Taken |
| 568 | together, exploring multidimensional niche metrics is an increasingly valuable tool to provide |
| 569 | insight into how diet breadth differs across a species' range, especially when combined with |
| 570 | temporal and spatial variation in environmental conditions and key components to variation in |
| 571 | life history such as migration. |

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1127 Tables and Figures

1128 **Table 1.** Locations of common eider colonies included in this study, sample size (number of

- 1129 individual birds from each colony included in the study), month samples were obtained,
- 1130 coordinates (latitude and longitude), whether a colony is known to be predominately migratory
- 1131 or resident, and the proportion of sea ice cover in a 100km area around the colony during the

1132 appropriate timeframe reflecting isotope data.

| Logation | | Sampling | Latituda | Longitudo | Migratory | Sea ice |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| Location | п | month | Latitude | Longitude | behaviour | cover |
| Kaktovik, Alaska | vik, Alaska 33 July 70.340 -147.776 | | Migratory | 43.45 | | |
| Breiðafjörður, Iceland | 23 | June | 65.078 | -22.736 | Resident | 3.10 |
| Christiansø, Denmark | 25 | May | 55.330 | 15.188 | Migratory | 0 |
| Grindøya, Norway | 17 | June | 69.633 | 18.844 | Resident | 0 |
| John's Island, Canada | 19 | July | 43.645 | -66.041 | Migratory | 0 |
| Kirkjubøhólmur, Faroe Islands | 16 | July | 61.950 | -6.799 | Resident | 0 |
| Kongsfjorden, Norway | 16 | June | 78.918 | 11.910 | Migratory | 0 |
| East Bay Island, Canada | 43 | June | 64.023 | -81.790 | Migratory | 34.34 |
| Onega Bay, Russia | 24 | June | 65.048 | 35.774 | Resident | 0 |
| Tern Island, Canada | 24 | June | 69.547 | -80.812 | Migratory | 36.47 |

| 1134 | Table 2. Isotopic signatures | $(\delta^{13}C, \delta^{15}N \text{ in } \infty)$ of typical | common eider bivalve prev as |
|------|------------------------------|--|------------------------------|

1135 determined by the most spatio-temporally appropriate literature values available at the time of

analysis. Prey stable isotope data was used to correct common eider isotope data to allow for

1137 inter-colony comparison.

| Location | Prey Species | δ ¹³ C | $\delta^{15}N$ | Reference |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------|----------------------|
| Beaufort Sea, Alaska | Cyrtodaria kurriana | -25.20 | 7.90 | Dunton et al. 2012 |
| Breiðafjörður, Iceland | Mytilus edulis | -19.60 | 7.40 | Sarà et al. 2007 |
| Christiansø, Denmark | Limecola balthica | -20.40 | 7.20 | Ek et al. 2018 |
| Grindøya, Norway | Hiatella arctica | -19.32 | 7.26 | Fredriksen 2003 |
| John's Island, Canada | Mytilus edulis | -19.99 | 7.17 | English et al. 2015 |
| Kirkjubøhólmur, Faroe Islands | Mytilus edulis | -19.20 | 8.41 | Bustamante, unpub. |
| Kongsfjorden, Norway | Hiatella arctica | -20.30 | 6.90 | Vieweg et al. 2012 |
| East Bay Island, Canada | Hiatella arctica | -18.22 | 8.64 | Sénéchal et al. 2011 |
| Onega Bay, Russia | Styela rustica | -21.60 | 6.49 | Yakovis et al. 2012 |
| Tern Island, Canada | Hiatella arctica | -18.22 | 8.64 | Sénéchal et al. 2011 |

| 1139 | Table 3. Results of three sets of statistical analyses: a) seven 2-tailed t-tests relating migratory |
|------|--|
| 1140 | status to colony niche size, isotope and THg ranges, as well as individual colony-corrected |
| 1141 | isotope and THg values; b) seven GLM results relating colony sea ice cover to colony niche size, |
| 1142 | isotope and THg ranges as well as median colony isotope and THg values; c) GLMM results |
| 1143 | relating common eider trophic position, calculated using baseline and individual $\delta^{15}N$ and |
| 1144 | colony-corrected $\delta^{13}C$ to individual THg values. All log-transformed values were determined |
| 1145 | using the natural log and used to meet model assumptions. |

| Variable | Estimate (β) | SE df | | t | р | | | | |
|--|--------------|-------|---------|--------|----------|--|--|--|--|
| a) <u>2-tailed t-test – Migratory Status</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| log(Niche size) | | | 4 | -0.609 | 0.573 | | | | |
| log(δ ¹³ C Range) | | | 8 | -0.339 | 0.743 | | | | |
| δ ¹⁵ N Range | | | 7 | 0.996 | 0.353 | | | | |
| log(THg Range) | | | 5 | -0.600 | 0.576 | | | | |
| Individual $\delta^{13}C$ | | | 238 | 2.218 | 0.028 | | | | |
| Individual δ ¹⁵ N | | | 220 | -6.858 | <0.001 | | | | |
| log(Individual THg) | | | 124 | -6.329 | <0.001 | | | | |
| b) <u>GLM – Sea Ice Cover</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| log(Niche size) | -0.0125 | 0.019 | 8 | -0.639 | 0.541 | | | | |
| log(δ ¹³ C Range) | -0.013 | 0.008 | 8 | -1.635 | 0.141 | | | | |
| δ ¹⁵ N Range | -0.002 | 0.014 | 8 | -0.106 | 0.919 | | | | |
| log(THg Range) | -0.004 | 0.009 | 8 | -0.459 | 0.658 | | | | |
| log(Median δ ¹³ C) | 0.028 | 0.010 | 8 | 2.936 | 0.032 | | | | |
| Median δ ¹⁵ N | 0.052 | 0.022 | 8 | 2.332 | 0.048 | | | | |
| log(Median THg) | 0.014 | 0.006 | 8 | 2.525 | 0.036 | | | | |
| c) <u>GLMM – Individual log(THg)</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Intercept | -1.923 | 0.304 | 142.233 | -6.330 | < 0.0001 | | | | |
| Trophic position | 0.563 | 0.096 | 234.614 | 5.862 | <0.001 | | | | |
| δ ¹³ C | -0.063 | 0.022 | 232.943 | -2.813 | 0.005 | | | | |



- Figure 1. Map of the circumpolar-Arctic, and locations of the 10 common eider colonies used in
 this study (stars) designated by whether a colony is primarily resident (circles) or migratory
 (squares). Shape colour represents four groupings of similar median 3-dimensional niche size
 (95% Bayesian credible intervals). By ascending niche size, colours represent: 1 (smallest; red),
 2 (white), 3 (grey), and 4 (largest; black). Dashed line indicates the Arctic Circle, and the solid
 line indicates the Arctic boundary according to the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment
- 1153 Programme (AMAP; map provided by globalcitymap.com).





1155 **Figure 2.** 2-dimensional projections of ten 3-dimensional niche regions produced using the R

1156 package nicheROVER v1.0 (Swanson et al. 2015). Corrected stable isotope (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N in

1157 %) and THg data (in μ g/g dw) were used from individuals at 10 pan-Arctic or subarctic common

1158 eider colonies. Sections show, i) The raw stable isotope and THg data in pairs, ii) density

1159 estimates of $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$ and THg individually, and iii) pairings of $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$ and THg showing 2-

1160 dimensional projections of 95% probabilistic niche regions based on 3-dimensional data.



1162 Figure 3. Relationship between THg (natural log-transformed) with trophic position (calculated

1163 based on δ^{15} N; see Methods) and colony-corrected δ^{13} C (in ‰) for individuals at 10 pan-Arctic

1164 or subarctic common eider colonies, identified by colour.

1165

1166 Supplemental Materials

1167 Sample sizes (n), means \pm SD, Min-Max (in ‰) for δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, and total Hg (THg in μ g/g dw)

- 1168 (values in brackets corrected for colony baseline ($\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$) and standardized for units ($\delta^{13}C$,
- 1169 δ^{15} N and THg)), medians and range of 3-dimensional niche size (95% Bayesian credible

1170 intervals), and $\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$ and THg ranges (maximum-minimum values using corrected and

1171 standardized values) of 10 pan-Arctic and subarctic common eider colonies.

| Lesstien | | \$130 | S15N TH- | Nieke sies | δ ¹³ C | $\delta^{15}N$ | THg | |
|-----------------|------|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| Location | n | 0 C | 0 N | THg | I Hg Niche size | range | range | range |
| Alaska | 22 | $\textbf{-20.1}\pm0.5$ | 15.3 ± 0.7 | 1.2 ± 0.2 | 3.3 (2.3, 5.2) | 0.866 | 1 461 | 1 680 |
| Alaska | 33 | (1.8) | (1.8) | (0.9) | | 0.800 | 1.401 | 1.089 |
| Christiansa | 25 | $\textbf{-21.2}\pm0.9$ | 10.0 ± 1.3 | 1.1 ± 0.5 | 9.7 (6.6, 16.7) | 1 270 | 2 022 | 4 500 |
| Chiristiansø | 23 | (-1.0) | (-0.9) | (0.6) | | 1.379 | 2.925 | 4.390 |
| Faroe Islands | 16 | $\textbf{-18.5}\pm1.4$ | 10.1 ± 1.0 | 0.7 ± 0.4 | 18 8 (11 5 36 8) | 2 059 | 2 106 | 4 508 |
| Taroe Islands | 10 | (-0.3) | (-1.5) | (-0.6) | 18.8 (11.5, 50.8) | 2.039 | 2.100 | 4.508 |
| Grindava | 17 | $\textbf{-17.8}\pm0.6$ | 11.1 ± 0.4 | 0.4 ± 0.1 | 1.4 (0.8, 2.6) | 0.834 | 0 907 | 1 528 |
| Grindbya | | (0.1) | (-0.3) | (-1.4) | | 0.054 | 0.907 | 1.520 |
| Iceland | 23 | $\textbf{-17.8}\pm0.9$ | 11.6 ± 1.0 | 0.9 ± 0.5 | 21.7 (14.2, 37.7) | 1.407 | 2.257 | 5.410 |
| reciand | 23 | (0.3) | (-0.1) | (0.1) | | | | |
| John's Island | 19 | $\textbf{-16.9} \pm 1.5$ | 12.0 ± 0.8 | 0.5 ± 0.2 | 91(57165) | 2 2 5 0 | 1 633 | 1 688 |
| John S Island | u 1) | (-0.1) | (-0.1) | (-0.9) | y.i (5.7, 10.5) | 2.230 | 1.055 | 1.000 |
| Kongsfjorden | 16 | $\textbf{-18.4}\pm0.8$ | 11.8 ± 1.0 | 0.8 ± 0.2 | 4.6 (2.8, 9.1) | 1 217 | 2 1 2 8 | 2.068 |
| Rongstjorden | 1 10 | (0.3) | (0.3) | (-0.3) | | 1.217 | 2.120 | 2.000 |
| Fast Bay Island | 43 | $\textbf{-18.2} \pm 1.1$ | 13.5 ± 1.3 | 1.0 ± 0.3 | 18.5 (13.6, 27.9) | 1 904 | 2 897 | 3 571 |
| Lust Duy Island | -15 | (-0.6) | (0.3) | (0.4) | | 1.904 | 2.097 | 5.571 |
| Russia | 24 | $\textbf{-19.4}\pm0.8$ | 10.2 ± 0.4 | 0.7 ± 0.2 | 3.3 (2.2, 5.8) | 1 1 7 5 | 0.962 | 2 278 |
| Russia | 21 | (0.4) | (-0.4) | (-0.4) | | 1.175 | 0.902 | 2.270 |
| Tern Island | 24 | $\textbf{-18.8}\pm0.3$ | 12.4 ± 0.5 | 0.9 ± 0.2 | 1.4 (0.9, 2.4) | 0.475 | 1 141 | 2 398 |
| i ern Island | ∠+ | (-1.0) | (-0.4) | (0.1) | | 0.775 | 1.141 | 2.570 |







1180 (Still image of a video showing the 3-dimensional plot in rotating view).