1	King penguins adjust foraging effort rather than diet when faced with poor foraging conditions
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16 Abstract

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18 The links between foraging success, foraging effort and diet in a myctophid specialist seabird, the King 19 Penguin Aptenodytes patagonicus, were investigated during seven breeding seasons using tracking and 20 isotopic data. Despite the variable foraging conditions encountered by the birds, isotopic signature (a 21 proxy for diet) were invariable throughout the study. On the other hand, penguins stayed longer at sea 22 when the foraging success indices (i.e. prey capture attempts per day and mass gained per day) were low. 23 While King Penguins can compensate low prey capture rates by increasing foraging effort, their specialist 24 diet during reproduction makes the species particularly sensitive to prey availability, with its conservation 25 tightly linked to its main prey.

26 Intro

There are multiple strategies available to birds to cope with periods of low prey availability. For example, dietary-specialist species can increase foraging effort to compensate for low prey capture rates (Abrams 1991, Cox et al. 2019, Fromant et al. 2021). Alternatively, generalists can switch to feeding on other stillavailable prey (Scopel et al. 2019, Milchev & Georgiev 2020). The strategy chosen is highly speciesdependant, with both specialist and generalist displaying variable flexibility in both foraging effort and diet.

33 In the marine environment, species composition is changing drastically, as environmental disturbances 34 such as overfishing or recurrent marine heat waves might induce periods of low prey availability (Jones et 35 al. 2018, Osborne et al 2020, Sydeman et al 2021). While generalist species that switch prey will likely 36 better tolerate these ecosystemic changes, specialists might be impacted as the foraging effort increases 37 to compensate for poor conditions (Gilman et al. 2010). Such is the case for species including the Little 38 Auk Alle alle or the African Penguin Spheniscus demersus, two specialist species that increased time spent 39 foraging in response to reduced availability of their main prey (Jakubas et al. 2007, Pichegru et al. 2012). 40 Yet, even species regarded as specialists can sometimes shift their diet in critical periods, so that a certain 41 level of flexibility might help these species cope with a changing environment (e.g. Ludynia et al. 2010, 42 Ancona et al. 2012).

Here, we investigate the links between foraging success, foraging effort, and diet in a specialist deep-diving
seabird, the King Penguin *Aptenodytes patagonicus*. This species feeds mainly on small mesopelagic
myctophids, often dominated by *Krefftichthys anderssoni*, for which the availability to the top predators
may change across the polar region, mainly due to climatic anomalies (Bost et al. 2002, Bost et al. 2015,
Le Bohec et al. 2008, Péron et al. 2012). Yet, King Penguins can also forage opportunistically on other prey

such as squids and other myctophids (Adams & Klages 1997, Bost et al. 2002, Cherel et al. 2007).
Consequently, the species could theoretically diversify its diet in periods of low prey availability.

We test whether King Penguins would become more opportunistic when foraging success is low by comparing isotopic values (a proxy of diet) of foraging breeding adults over seven years. We predicted that, if penguins compensated for low prey availability by switching diet, we would find different isotopic values in individuals experiencing dissimilar foraging success. On the other hand, if penguins did not seek different prey despite low prey availability, we expected a compensating increased foraging effort (e.g. longer foraging trips, deeper dives) as foraging success decreases, while isotopic values would remain constant.

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58 Methods

All data were collected in February on chick-rearing King Penguins at Ratmanoff's colony (around 85 000 pairs, Barbraud et al. 2020) in the Kerguelen archipelago (-49° 14′ 33″, 70° 33′ 40″) situated in the southern Indian Ocean. Data were obtained during the chick-rearing period in all years from 2015 to 2022 except 2019 (i.e. seven years total). The ethics committee of the Institut polaire français Paul-Émile Victor approved all field procedures.

King penguins of this colony feed mostly on a small myctophid, *Krefftichthys anderssoni,* and opportunistically (up to 25% of their diet) on other prey such as other fish species and squids (Bost et al. 2002, Cherel et al. 2010, Cherel et al. 2011). During the chick-rearing period, parents make trips at sea lasting about 4 to 10 days. While prey availability estimates are not known during the study period, the years 2015 and 2016 were possibly less favorable for King Penguins at Kerguelen (Brisson-Curadeau et al. 2023). 71 Isotopic analysis

Stable isotopes of nitrogen (δ 15N) are considered to be indicative to the trophic position of consumers, thus reflecting its diet, while δ 13C is a proxy of the consumers' foraging habitat (Hobson et al. 1994, Quillfeldt et al. 2005, Cherel & Hobson 2007). The resulting isotopic niche described by these two isotopes can be thus used as a proxy of the consumers' trophic niche.

76 Since 2015, 83 chick-rearing penguins were blood sampled (2 ml) after their return from a single foraging 77 trip. Birds were captured using a long wooden perch. The blood was freeze-dried and about 0.7mg was weighed into tin capsules. The capsules were shipped for bulk stable isotopes ratio of nitrogen $({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)$ 78 79 and carbon (¹³C/¹²C) at the Ján Veizer Stable Isotope Laboratory (Ottawa, Ontario, Canada). Isotopic 80 composition was measured by combustion on an Elementar VarioEL Cube Elemental Analyser followed by "trap and purge" separation and on-line analysis by continuous-flow with a DeltaPlus Advantage isotope 81 82 ratio mass spectrometer coupled with a ConFlo III interface. The isotope concentration determination used 83 the following conventional equation:

84
$$\delta = ([R_{sample}/R_{standard}]-1) *1000$$

where R_{sample} and $R_{standard}$ are the corresponding ratios of heavy to light isotope in the sample and standard, respectively. The standards used were air for nitrogen, Pee Dee Belemnite for carbon. Replicate measurements of internal laboratory standards indicate measurement errors of 0.35‰ and <0.1‰ for δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N, respectively.

All alternate prey types of King Penguins have a higher δ¹⁵N value than K. anderssoni (Bost et al. 2002,
Cherel et al. 2010). We therefore expected individuals with a more diverse diet to have a higher δ¹⁵N value.
To full list of potential prey and their respective δ¹⁵N value around Kerguelen can be found in Table S1.

93 Foraging effort

Foraging effort during the foraging trip was determined using biologgers from various brands recording GPS location and/or depth. Some of these loggers also recorded 3D acceleration (starting in 2020) as well as water temperature. Over the seven years, 52 birds were equipped with one or two of these devices (see Table S2-S3 for exact sample size by year). Loggers were retrieved after a single foraging trip. Penguins were weighed before and after each foraging trip. The weigh of the loggers varied with models, but never exceeded 2% of the bird's mass.

For analysis, only dives >50m were considered, as shallower dives are not associated with foraging activity (Charrassin et al. 2002). Depth was used to compute two foraging effort metrics for each individual: mean diving depth and total vertical distance travelled during a foraging trip, calculated as the sum of the maximum depths of all dives (Charrassin et al. 2002). Using location data, we computed the mean distance to the colony of all foraging dives, as well as the mean latitude and longitude for correlation with isotopic variables. A final metric of foraging effort was calculated as the total number of days spent at sea during the foraging trip.

Due to logistical reasons, not all blood sampled penguins were assessed for foraging effort. Reasons
 explaining this mismatch include logger failures and logger detachment.

109 Conditions encountered and foraging success

110 King Penguins target the depth just below the thermocline to capture prey (Charrassin & Bost 2001, 111 Scheffer et al. 2016). Consequently, shallower thermoclines are more accessible and therefore provide 112 better conditions for foraging penguins. To assess the conditions encountered, we therefore combined 113 depth data and temperature data to calculate the depth of the thermocline for each dive. We defined the

thermocline as the depth where the change in temperature was the greatest (see Charrassin & Bost 2001).

115 We then calculate the average thermocline depth among all dives for each individuals.

We computed two metrics of foraging success. First, we calculated the mass gained per day of foraging at sea. A second metric was computed using the accelerometry data: the number of Prey Capture Attempts (PCAs) in each dive was estimated with the algorithm from Brisson-Curadeau et al. (2021) using the number of acceleration peaks in the dive. We then used the number of PCAs per day as a measure of foraging success.

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122 Statistics

We tested how blood δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C values were influenced by the following variables: mean diving depth, total vertical distance travelled, mean thermocline depth, mean distance from the colony, mean latitude, mean longitude, trip duration, mass gained per day and PCAs per day. We also tested the influence of the foraging effort variables (mean diving depth, total vertical distance travelled, trip duration, mean distance from colony) on the two foraging success metrics. All these tests were conducted by creating several linear models with mixed effects, each with one of these variables and "year" as a random effect. Only one fixed effect was used per model to avoid overfitting and correlation between explanatory variables.

Because most of these variables had a different number of observations, and because models with different number of observations are not directly comparable, we created a corresponding null model (with only the random effect) for each model using only the observations available. We then scored the models using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and compared the score with its associated null model. Only models that had a $\Delta 2$ with their corresponding null model were considered. We also tested if there were differences among years for all variables (isotopes, foraging effort, and foraging success) using ANOVAs. In such a case, we did Tukey's tests to identify the pairs of years that differed.

All analysis were conducted in R version 4.1. Package Ime4 was used to build the mixed-effect models (Bates et al. 2015). Validation of assumptions were conducted on all models (see also table S4). We tested for heteroskedasticity of residuals using the Breusch Pagan test on the Imtest package (Breusch 1978, Zeleis & Horton 2002). Pearson correlation test were conducted between residuals and the independent variables, while the autocorrelation in the residuals was assessed by extracting the autocorrelation coefficient (Venables & Ripley 2002).

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- 145 Results
- 146 Foraging behavior

Most foraging effort indices varied greatly among individuals (Fig. 1), as shown by the standard deviation (σ) and mean (μ) of total vertical distance travelled (μ = 123 km, σ = 62 km, n = 48), trip duration (μ = 8.5 days, σ = 3.1 days, n = 53) and mean distance from the colony (μ = 251 km, σ = 102 km, n = 36). To a lesser degree, mean diving depth also differed among individuals (μ = 141m, σ = 16 m, n = 48). Two foraging success variables, mass gained per day (μ = 0.28 kg/day, σ = 0.15 kg/day, n = 31) and PCAs per day (μ = 406 PCAs/day, σ = 185 PCAs/day, n = 52) also varied greatly from one individual to another. When testing for among-year differences, only mean depth and total vertical distance showed significance (Fig. 1, Table S5).

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155 Stable isotopes

156 Model selections showed that blood δ^{13} C (-22.0 ± 0.4‰, n = 83) varied with mean longitude, as the model 157 containing this variable was the only model which scored higher than its associated null model (Table 1). 158 There was a strong tendency for δ^{13} C to decrease as penguins foraged farther east, off the Kerguelen shelf (Fig. 2). Furthermore, δ^{13} C varied significantly among years as shown by ANOVA analysis (Fig. 3, Table S4). 159 Similarly, blood $\delta^{15}N$ (10.1 ± 0.2 ‰, n = 83) varied among years (Fig. 3, Table S4). However, the inter-year 160 161 variation in δ^{15} N was less pronounced than with δ^{13} C and only two years (2016 and 2021) were significantly 162 different from each other according to the Tukey's tests (p value = 0.02). Overall, there was little variation in δ^{15} N among individuals (δ^{15} N range: 9.6 – 10.6 ‰). As for the models predicting δ^{15} N using foraging 163 164 effort and success variables, none scored higher than their corresponding null model, despite high 165 variability detected in all these explanatory variables (Table 1).

166

167 Foraging success

When considering mass gained per day as a response variable, only the model with foraging trip duration as a fixed effect scored better than its respective null model. Similarly, when PCAs per day was considered as a response variable, foraging trip duration again was the fixed effect in the only model scoring better than its respective null model (Table 1).

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173 Discussion

The seabird species include both species labelled as diet generalists and specialists. Yet, almost all seabird species can display a certain level of flexibility, as even specialist species can feed opportunistically on prey outside of their main diet (e.g. Ancona et al. 2012). This flexibility might be of particular utility when certain prey types become temporarily scarce. Yet, we found that the King Penguin, a myctophid specialist, does not greatly vary its diet in terms of trophic position ($\delta^{15}N$), even when encountering highly variable foraging conditions. Instead, the species relies more on increasing foraging effort to compensate for low prey capture rates. Our research emphasizes the tight link existing between some marine predators and their prey, with the conservation of the former being strongly dependent on the latter.

182 Isotopic landscape

183 A first observation that can be made from our results is that there is a strong longitudinal gradient of δ^{13} C 184 in the environment near Kerguelen. In the Southern Ocean, most reported gradients for this isotope is 185 usually latitudinal, not longitudinal (Cherel & Hobson 2007, Espinasse et al. 2019). However, the North-South gradient is evident at a larger scale, while at a smaller scale δ^{13} C is influenced by habitat, with ¹³C 186 depleted in offshore habitats relative to coastal habitats (Cherel & Hobson 2007). As the Kerguelen Plateau 187 188 extends south of the island to Heard Island (Fig. 2), penguins foraging south will remain in the same shelf 189 habitat. On the other hand, penguins foraging east will quickly encounter deeper bathymetry, likely explaining the gradient in δ^{13} C as habitat changes with longitude. 190

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192 Diet specialisation

193 The use of δ^{15} N as a proxy of diet has been controversial when used at a large scale, as spatial gradients of the isotope exist regardless of trophic position due to variation in baseline $\delta^{15}N$ (Seminoff et al. 2012). 194 However, we did not detect spatial gradients influencing δ^{15} N at a local scale near Kerguelen. It is therefore 195 a fair assumption that δ^{15} N could be used in this study to assess trophic position of King Penguins, as in 196 197 similar studies conducted in the Southern Ocean (Cherel & Hobson 2007, Cherel et al. 2010, Polito et al. 2015). Consequently, we expected $\delta^{15}N$ to vary with foraging success in our study. Indeed, low food 198 199 availability sometimes causes even specialist species to become more opportunistic in their diet (e.g. 200 Ancona et al. 2012, Buren et al. 2012). As all alternative prey of King Penguins on Kerguelen islands have

201 a higher δ^{15} N value than their main prey *Krefftichthys anderssoni*, we expected δ^{15} N value of King Penguin 202 to be higher in low foraging success individuals (Bost et al. 2002, Cherel et al. 2010). Items sometimes 203 consumed by King Penguins at Kerguelen that have a higher δ^{15} N value include the squid Gonatus 204 antarcticus and almost all alternate myctophids prey (see Table S1). Yet, blood δ^{15} N value of foraging 205 penguins did not increase (or decrease) significantly with the substantially different foraging effort, foraging success and marine conditions encountered by the penguins. In fact, the δ ¹⁵N range of 206 207 Kerguelen's King Penguins was very narrow across individuals and across years - even when compared to 208 other seabirds regarded as specialists - suggesting little variation in the diet (see Table 2).

209 We confirmed that King Penguins are very restrictive in their foraging strategy and targeted prey. Whatever 210 the oceanic area used, they likely seek myctophid schools near frontal currents and have little flexibility in 211 their foraging tactics (Bost et al. 2009). During the breeding season, marginal prey items such as squid 212 might only be opportunistically captured by the King Penguins when preying on mesopelagic schools of K. 213 anderssoni, rather than being the result of a switch in strategy as in some generalist seabirds (e.g. Brisson-214 Curadeau et al. 2019). Consequently, unsuccessful individuals prolonged their stay at sea to compensate 215 for low prey availability rather than changing their foraging strategy and diet. Indeed, both foraging success 216 indices were negatively correlated to trip duration, suggesting that individuals encountering few prey 217 stayed longer at sea.

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In conclusion, our study shows an example of a strict specialists that seldom adjusts its diet despite the different conditions encountered, but rather stayed at sea for a longer period to compensate for lower foraging success. We highly suspect population parameters of such species to be tightly linked to the availability of its main prey. Indeed, foraging effort cannot increase indefinitely to compensate for low prey availability, meaning strict specialists might face breeding failures and/or at-sea mortality if prey composition started shifting in the future, especially in the growing context of climatic changes (e.g. Cury
 et al. 2011). Ongoing population monitoring efforts are particularly valuable for specialist species, as
 population trends might be particularly sensitive to climate change. Long-term prey surveys are also
 important to detect such shifts and predict future bottom-up effects affecting seabirds.

Table 1: Best ranked models explaining δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, mass gained per day and PCAs per day

Best ranked models	Number of observations in the models	AIC	ΔAICc with null model	equation		
	Blood δ^{13} C as the re	esponse variable				
δ ¹³ C ~ Mean longitude of foraging dives (°)	n = 34	31.5	Δ -8.06	-0.33x + 2.61		
Blood δ^{15} N as the response variable						
No models outranked the null model	-	-	-	-		
Mass gained per day of foraging (kg/day) as the response variable						
Mass ~ Foraging trip duration (days)	n = 51	-55.5	Δ -8.39	-0.02x + 0.50		
PCAs per day as the response variable						
PCA ~ Foraging trip duration (days)	n =28	294.2	Δ-2.54	-7.72x + 419.6		

- Table 2: Comparison of among-year and among-individuals variations in δ^{15} N between the King Penguin
- at Kerguelen and three other specialist seabird populations. King Penguins showed the least variation
- from year to year, and an average variation between individuals of a given year.
- 234

	King Penguin	Chinstrap Penguin	Peruvian Booby	Guanay Cormorant
	(Kerguelen Island)	(Livingston Island)	(Peru) Bonodo et al 2021	(Peru) Ronodo et al 2021
	This study	Polito et al. 2013	Refieuo et al. 2021	Reflecto et al. 2021
Total individuals sampled	n = 83	n = 110	n = 116	n =122
Number of years sampled	n = 7	n = 5	n = 7	n = 6
Maximum difference between δ^{15} N yearly means	Δ0.45‰	Δ0.7‰	Δ2.65‰	Δ2.55‰
Maximum δ^{15} N yearly standard deviation	±0.26‰	±0.3‰	±0.23‰	±0.19‰

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238 List of figure captions:

239

Figure 1: Annual variation of foraging effort variables (middle and left graphs) as well as foraging success

241 variables (right graphs) among equipped King Penguins breeding at Kerguelen Island. Sample sizes

- indicate the number of King Penguins sampled. Stars indicate years that were significantly different than
- 243 at least two other years when conducting Tukey's tests.

244

245	Figure 2 : Mean	diving position	of foraging King I	Penguins during	breeding. Each poi	nt represents a
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penguin's trip. Colors represent blood δ^{13} C of the penguin at the end of the foraging trip, after returning

to the colony. Notice the strong East-West gradients, with blood δ^{13} C values decreasing when penguins

248 forage off the island's shelf.

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- Figure 3 : Annual variation of δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N for blood samples among King Penguins breeding at
- 251 Kerguelen Island. Sample sizes indicate the number of King Penguins sampled. Stars indicate years which

were significantly different than at least two other years when conducting Tukey's tests.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3

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- 370 Table S1: δ^{15} N values of alternate prey items of king penguins at Kerguelen, in comparison with the main
- 371 prey, Krefftichthys anderssoni

Prey item	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	Source
Krefftichthys anderssoni	7.6 ± 0.2	Cherel et al. 2010
Protomyctophum bolini	9.2 ± 0.4	Cherel et al. 2010
Electrona carlsbergi	9.5 ± 0.2	Cherel et al. 2010
Protomyctophum tenisoni	8.1 ± 0.3	Cherel et al. 2010
Protomyctophum andriashevi	8.7 ± 0.4	Cherel et al. 2010
Electrona antarctica	8.9 ± 0.3	Cherel et al. 2010
Martialia hyadesi	7.7 ± 0.6	Cherel et al. 2011, Hobson & Cherel (2006)
Gonatus antarcticus	13.3 ± 0.5	Cherel et al. 2011, Hobson & Cherel (2006)

Table S2: Loggers used from 2015-2022

			Information recorded by logger				
Model name	Company	Company location	GPS	Depth	3D acceleration	Temperature	
FastLoc	SirTrack Ltd	Havelock North, NZ	х				
PTT Kiwisat	SirTrack Ltd	Havelock North, NZ	х				
MK9	Wildlife Computer	Redmond, US		х		х	
Axy-Trek	Technosmart	Colleverde, It	х	х	х	х	
Axy 4 XS	Technosmart	Colleverde, It			x		

379 Table S3: deployment by year

Year	Deployment
2015	3 birds equipped with both FastLoc and Mk9
2016	2 birds equipped with both FastLoc and Mk9
2010	2 bird equipped with FastLoc only
2017	7 birds equipped with both FastLoc and Mk9
2018	6 birds equipped with both FastLoc and Mk9
2020	3 birds equipped with both PTT Kiwisat and Mk9
2020	4 birds equipped with Axy-Trek
2021	7 birds equipped with Axy-trek
2021	3 birds equipped with MK9
2022	8 birds equipped with Axy-trek
2022	7 birds equipped with both Axy 4XS and MK9

380

381 Table S4: Test for linear model assumptions for models reported in the study

Model	Mean of residuals	Pearson correlation test between residuals and independent variable	Autocorrelation coefficient of the residuals	Breush Pagan Test (Homoskedasticity of residuals)
δ ¹³ C ~ Mean		t = 3.873e-11		BP = 2.3353
longitude of foraging	<0.0001	df = 32	0.14	df = 1
dives (°)		p-value = 1		p-value = 0.1265
Mass ~ Foraging trip		t = -1.167e-14		BP = 1.1619
duration (days)	<0.0001	df = 48	-0.13	df = 1
duration (days)		p-value = 1		p-value = 0.2811
$DCA \simeq Eoroging trip$		t = 4.652 e-15		BP = 0.55567
duration (days)	<0.0001	df = 26	-0.31	df = 1
duration (days)		p-value = 1		p-value = 0.456

382

383 Table S5: ANOVA results to compare differences among years for isotopic signatures, foraging effort

384 indices and foraging success indices

Variable	Degrees of freedom	F value	p-value
δ ¹³ C	6	7.375	<0.001
$\delta^{15}N$	6	2.971	0.01
Mean distance to colony	6	1.406	0.25
Trip duration	6	3.294	0.009
Mean depth	6	9.769	<0.001
Total vertical distance	6	5.196	<0.001
PCAs per day	2	2.088	0.15
Mass gained per day	6	1.049	0.41

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