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Satellite tracking of red-listed nominate lesser black-backed gulls (*Larus f. fuscus*): habitat
 specialisation in foraging movements raises novel conservation needs

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4 Risto Juvaste ^{a,1,*}, Elena Arriero ^{b,2}, Anna Gagliardo ^c, Richard Holland ^d, Markku J. Huttunen ^e,

Inge Mueller ^b, Kasper Thorup ^f, Martin Wikelski ^{b,g}, Juhani Hannila ^h, Maija-Liisa Penttinen ⁱ &
 Ralf Wistbacka ^j

- 7
- 8 ^a Karelia University of Applied Sciences, Joensuu, Finland (Retired)
- 9 ^b Department of Migration and ImmunoEcology, Max-Planck Institute of Ornithology, Am Obstberg
- 10 1, 78315 Radolfzell, Germany
- ^c Department of Biology, Via Volta 6, Pisa University, 56126 Pisa, Italy
- ¹² ^d School of Biological Sciences, Bangor University, Deiniol Road, Bangor, LL57 2UW, UK
- 13 ^e School of Forest Sciences, Faculty of Science and Forestry, University of Eastern Finland,
- 14 Joensuu campus, P.O.Box 111, FI-80101 Joensuu, Finland
- ¹⁵ ^f Zoological Museum, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen 2100, Denmark
- 16 ^g Ornithology, University of Konstanz, 78457 Konstanz, Germany
- 17 ^h Puistotie 4, 67700 Kokkola, Finland
- 18 ⁱ Västäräkintie 7, 80130 Joensuu, Finland
- 19 ^j Södra Larsmovägen 139, 68570 Larsmo, Finland
- 20

21 Present addresses:

- 22 ¹ University of Turku, Department of Biology, FI-20014 Turun yliopisto, Finland
- ² Department of Zoology and Physical Anthropology, University Complutense of Madrid, E-28040
 Madrid, Spain
- 25
- ^{*} Corresponding author at: University of Turku, Department of Biology, FI-20014 Turun yliopisto,
 Finland.
- 28 E-mail addresses: risto@juvaste.fi (Risto Juvaste), elena.arriero@bio.ucm.es (Elena Arriero),
- 29 <u>agagliardo@biologia.unipi.it</u> (Anna Gagliardo), <u>r.holland@bangor.ac.uk</u> (Richard Holland),
- 30 <u>markku.j.huttunen@uef.fi</u> (Markku J. Huttunen), <u>imueller@orn.mpg.de</u> (Inge Mueller),
- 31 <u>KThorup@snm.ku.dk</u> (Kasper Thorup), <u>wikelski@orn.mpg.de</u> (Martin Wikelski),
- 32 juhani.hannila@kokkola.fi (Juhani Hannila), ml.penttinen@pp.inet.fi (Maija-Liisa Penttinen),
- 33 <u>ralf@wbe.fi</u> (Ralf Wistbacka).
- 34
- 35 Keywords: Lesser Black-backed Gull (*Larus fuscus*), satellite tracking, foraging movement,
- 36 interspecific competition, predation, shooting birds
- 37

38 Abstract

- 39
- 40 In contrast to many other gull species, nominate lesser black-backed gulls (Larus fuscus fuscus,
- 41 nLBBG) have shown generally decreasing population trends throughout their breeding area in
- 42 northern and eastern Fennoscandia over the past decades and are now red-listed. Interspecific
- 43 competition, predation, increased disturbance, organochlorine poisoning and food shortages were
- suggested as main reasons for the overall decrease. Here we contribute to a better understanding of
- 45 population declines by comparing foraging movements of satellite tracked adult gulls in three
- 46 geographical areas of Finland (West, South, and East) that differ in their population trends. Our
- 47 analysis examines potential differences and preferences in the feeding site behaviour of adult gulls.
- 48 Our comparison of the three geographical areas showed that nLBBGs preferred feeding at fur farms 49 in West Finland, waste dumps in South Finland, and lakes and fields in East Finland. We found
- 50 individual gulls of this purportedly generalist species to be highly specialised in their foraging
- 51 behaviour, particularly those that might be associated with their survival probabilities. We

52 hypothesize that differences in foraging behaviour and food availability during the breeding season

are partially responsible for differences in demographic trends between populations. Specifically,

54 we identify potential local conservation problems such as shooting in birds visiting fur farms. Our

55 data suggest that the effective conservation and management of endangered nLBBGs could be aided

by simple actions in the breeding areas in addition to better protection throughout the annualmovement cycle.

59 **1. Introduction**

58

60 61 In recent years, satellite tracking with radio transmitters fitted to large and successively smaller birds, including raptors, gulls, seabirds or cuckoos, have revealed exciting and often unexpected 62 63 results of these migratory journeys (Jouventin and Weimerskirch, 1990; Kjellén et al., 1997; Meyburg et al., 2003; Thorup et al., 2003; Pütz et al., 2007, 2008; Klaassen et al., 2012; Willemoes 64 65 et al., 2014; Kays et al., 2015; Wikelski et al., 2015). While many satellite telemetry studies primarily emphasize migration periods with large distances covered, long-range foraging 66 67 movements during the breeding seasons have been investigated very prominently in seabirds 68 (Prince et al., 1992; Weimerskirch et al., 1993; Weimerskirch and Robertson, 1994; Brothers et al., 69 1998; Wood et al., 2000; Hamer et al., 2000; Burger and Shaffer, 2008) but also within shorter ranges (Camphuysen, 2013). Other observational methods for long-range foraging movements such 70 71 as visual observation by the use of colour or regular ringing have also produced a wealth of data of 72 migratory and foraging movements of many bird groups, gulls in particular (Ens et al., 2009; 73 Helberg et al., 2009; Margues et al., 2009, 2010; Shamoun-Baranes et al., 2011; Camphuysen, 74 2013). However, such traditional methods do not allow for the quantification of habitat use in gulls 75 that cover large distances during daily foraging trips and may change their foraging sites daily. 76 weekly or seasonally. 77

78 According to OSPAR (2009) the global population of lesser black-backed gulls (Larus fuscus, 79 hereafter as LBBG) (all subspecies) is about 680 000-750 000 pairs and the European breeding 80 population is considered large with over 300 000 pairs. However, the global estimates for the L. f. 81 fuscus subspecies (hereafter as nLBBG) by national surveys are 18 000–19 000 pairs. A national 82 survey carried out in Finland in 2013 by BirdLife Finland, gave a total population estimate of 7300 83 pairs, representing around 40% of the world population (Hario, 2014). According to the Red List of 84 Finnish Bird Species, the nLBBG is classified as endangered (EN) (Tiainen et al., 2016). It is listed 85 in the Red Data books also in Sweden, Norway, Estonia and Russian Karelia.

86

87 In Finland, nominate *fuscus* has been decreasing in numbers over the past decades, following a 88 numerical increase between 1930 and 1960 (Bergman, 1982; Kilpi, 1983). Nominate fuscus has also 89 declined dramatically in numbers in northern Norway, and it is now generally considered to be 90 threatened (Strann and Vader, 1992; OSPAR, 2009). In Sweden, nLBBGs have shown decreasing 91 population trends from the late 1970s to late 1990s, but have then slightly recovered (Lif et al., 92 2005). On the other hand, the increase of the White Sea population in Russia contrasts with a strong 93 decline of the Baltic population (Cherenkov et al., 2007), though the western populations of Lake 94 Onega and Lake Ladoga have also decreased in the 2000s, showing low production partly due to 95 egg harvesting (2000–2015 yearly counts by R. Juvaste, pers. comm.).

96

97 The causes of the decline are unknown but were expected to be related to food shortages during the

98 breeding season and high chick mortality caused by elevated levels of DDE and other pollutants 99 picked up by adults in their wintering areas in East Africa (Strann and Vader, 1992; Anker-Nilssen

picked up by adults in their wintering areas in East Africa (Strann and Vader, 1992; Anker-Nilssen
 et al., 2000; Bakken et al., 2003; Hario et al., 2004). Interspecific competition and predation by

- herring gulls (*Larus argentatus*) and greater black-backed gulls (*Larus marinus*) are possible
- reasons for low production of nLBBG fledglings (Hario, 1994; Capandegui, 2006). Also predation

103 by minks (*Neovison vison*), goshawks (*Accipiter gentilis*), common crows (*Corvus corone cornix*)

- and white-tailed eagles (*Haliaeetus albicilla*) may have notable effects on breeding success (R.
- 105 Juvaste, pers. comm.; see Blight et al., 2015).
- 106

107 The foraging movements and the ecology of LBBG graellsii subspecies at the North Sea have been

- 108 well studied by counting gulls feeding at sea and on land, by determining diet composition from
- pellets and feces, and by radio and GPS tagging (Noordhuis and Spaans, 1992; Schwemmer and
 Garthe, 2005; Kim and Monaghan, 2006; Camphuysen, 2011, 2013). However, foraging
- 111 movements and feeding behaviour of nominate *fuscus*, especially at lake areas, are not well known.
- Here we used satellite GPS telemetry to determine the daily foraging movements of three
- populations of nominate LBBGs in Finland that were selected to represent differing population
- trends within a small geographical area in Central Finland (Table 1). Based on satellite tracking data
- at lake and coastal areas in Finland, we estimated the distances and directions of foraging trips of
- 116 marked individuals as a function of status (location of origin) and sex of the birds. We expected the 117 different population trends in the study areas to be partly influenced by foraging habits of breeding
- different population trends in the study areas to be partly influenced by foraging habits of breedingLBBGs.
- 119

120 **2. Materials and methods**

- 121 122 Between 24 May and 2 June 2009, 25 breeding adult nLBBGs were trapped from nest-sites at three geographical areas (Fig. 1): (1) western Finland (W), two sites at the coast of the Bothnian Bay, 123 124 near the cities of Kokkola and Uusikaarlepvy; (2) southern Finland (S), including three sites near 125 the city of Tampere (Hauho, Pälkäne and Valkeakoski); and (3) eastern Finland (E), including three sites in North Karelia (Kesälahti, Liperi and Outokumpu). The breeding sites were typical Finnish 126 127 lake and sea breeding sites, with the size of 15–30 pairs, except one which was one of the largest breeding sites in Finland (180 pairs) (Fig. 1). In the breeding sites, walk-in nest traps were set just 128 129 above the egg nest during the late phase of incubation and adjusted to launch automatically when a 130 bird entered the trap.
- 131

132 After trapping, the gulls were measured (wing length, tarsus, bill, weight), ringed (metal ring, read 133 ring), and photographed. Birds were sexed using the measurements (Coulson et al., 1983) and 134 checked later by DNA-analyses from the blood samples (Arriero et al., 2015). The satellite 135 transmitters, 30 g Microwave solar powered GPS-PTT (Microwave Telemetry Inc., Maryland, 136 USA), were attached using a backpack-style Teflon harness, a method used before with good 137 success (e.g. Ens et al., 2008; Roshier and Asmus, 2009; Beason et al., 2010; Pavón et al., 2010; 138 Takekawa et al., 2010). Harnesses were adjusted such as to minimally bother or harm the birds. 139 Gulls were released immediately after conducting the measurements, blood sampling and the 140 attachment of transmitters.

140

142 Nominate LBBGs weighed between 580 g and 880 g (average 733 g, females 653 g and males 804
 143 g). Therefore, birds that carried the PTT transmitters in this study received slightly more than the

recommended 3% of their body mass. However, if the harness is well adjusted, this may be

- 145 acceptable (Vandenabeele et al., 2012; O'Mara et al., 2014).
- 146

147 The GPS-PTT satellite transmitters had duty cycles of 4 fixes per day at 0500, 0800, 1400 and 2000

148 GMT (+2 h Finnish time). These transmitters measure location, flight heading and instantaneous

speed with a fair degree of accuracy. PTTs sent their data via the ARGOS system, Toulouse,
France. The data were downloaded automatically from the ARGOS server to the MOVEBANK data

base. All data are stored in MOVEBANK and are freely available (doi:10.5441/001/1.g986rc29;

- 151 base. All data are stoled in MOVEBANK and are neery available 152 Movebank Data Repository).
- 153

We opted for rather few GPS fixes per day to ensure a long lifetime of the PTTs without draining the battery (Wikelski et al., 2015). When studying foraging or migratory flights ideally the tags should collect GPS fixes every few minutes, however far fewer fixes suffice for general route tracking (Ens et al., 2008; Kranstauber et al., 2012). For example, the average foraging flights of

- LBBGs at the North Sea took about 7.9 hours (SD 9.0 h, n = 78) (Camphuysen, 2013).
- 159

160 The breeding period was determined on the basis of long-term ringing data and only transmitter locations between 8 June and 7 July 2009 were included in the analysis, because during the first 161 days after attaching the transmitters the birds might have moved differently than they normally do 162 163 and in July the unsuccessful breeders start to leave the breeding areas. Based on extensive previous observations on the behaviour of gulls in the breeding sites, we assumed that locations within 2 km 164 165 from nest are "colonial", i.e. not proper foraging flights. As proper foraging flights we selected the locations of more than 2 km from the breeding site, which is the typical distance that offers 166 167 unobstructed viewing in a lake area.

168

169 Nominate LBBGs are "specialists" acting at two different levels. At the first level of specialisation, 170 most individuals specialise to use large food supply such as waste dumps, fur farms, fish discards 171 and spawning herrings if available, even from a far distance. We can call these sites as "hot spots". 172 Some individuals may, however, specialise to use scarce local food supply like worms, insects and 173 fish carcasses. Secondly, individuals specialise to use only one or some of the available hot spots, 174 for example just one out of dozens of fur farms, a special part of waste dump or compost pile, or fly

175 recurrently to the same field, lake or summer cottage for fisher's discard. This second level of

176 specialisation inevitably helps to avoid inter- and intraspecific competition.

177

178 We defined "specialisation" as an individual bird's recurrent foraging flights in specific direction(s) 179 or place(s), where food preference is independent from its availability. In the three geographical 180 areas, available foraging sites within a radius of 60 km around colony included fur farms (W1-2), 181 coastal areas and sea (W1-2), inland lakes (W1-2, S1-3, E1-3), waste dumps (W1-2, S1-3, E1-3) 182 and fields (W1-2, S1-3, E1-3). Although we collected few GPS fixes per day, these fixes represent a timed sample of the birds' daily locations and we thus consider these locations a true 183 184 representation of an individuals' movement choices (Altmann, 1974). We focused our attention for 185 the Google Map analysis of foraging habitat onto those areas that individual birds repeatedly 186 visited. Fortunately, based on the natural history of the foraging flights of nLBBGs to fur farms and 187 waste dumps, it was straightforward to determine where an individual foraged (Table 2; Figs 2–4). 188

189 During the subsequent season (2010), three of the gulls returned to Finland from their wintering 190 areas and could be tracked during the entire year, also during the arrival and pre-breeding phase 191 within the general breeding area (Table 2; Fig. 1). Some additional gulls that were caught in the 192 beginning of August 2009 at Tampere waste dump had been translocated to Heligoland as part of a 193 navigation experiment (Wikelski et al., 2015). Four of them returned again to the breeding grounds 194 after their migratory flights into Africa in 2010 and 2011 and were included in Table 2, Fig. 1 and 195 Figs A2–A5. The birds were tracked until their autumn migration started or up to 8 September. 196 Long (>50 km) pre-migratory flights that are common in LBBGs (Camphuysen, 2013; data by S. 197 Åkesson at CAnMove, Lund University) could be easily distinguished from the local foraging 198 flights and were thus excluded from the analysis.

199

For statistical analyses, we used paired t-test for the habitat specialisation within each of the study areas and between the sexes. One-way ANOVA was used for measuring the differences between

the three geographical areas. For the accuracy of foraging movements, we used circular statistics to

- 203 calculate vector concentration parameters. SPSS Statistics 21 software package and Excel
- 204 spreadsheet were used for the calculations (Table 2).

3. Results

207

208 Comparison of transmitter fixes and flight lines leading to different feeding sites showed that

- 209 nLBBGs mostly fed at fur farms in West Finland, two large waste dumps (Tampere and
- Hämeenlinna) in South Finland, and lakes and fields in East Finland (Table 2; Figs 2–4, A1–A6).
- According to the number of transmitter fixes per preference area, there were differences in the individual first lowal expectations between the energy W = 0.620(m 5) and S = 45.50(m 5)
- individual first-level specialisation between the areas (mean W = 96.2%, n = 5; mean S = 45.5%, n = 12; mean E = 17.4%, n = 5; F = 12.081, df = 2,19, p < 0.001; Table 2). Most individuals used fur
- 213 = 12, mean D = 17.470, n = 5, r = 12.001, n = 2,19, p > 0.001, Table 2). Most individuals used full 214 farms and waste dumps more than expected because they obviously are so-called "hot spots"
- 215 relatively small in size.
- 216

217 In West Finland, nLBBGs visited mostly fur farms and hardly ever coastal sites (Fig. 2). All long 218 flights were heading to different fur farms where gulls showed second-level specialisation (Fig. 2, 219 Table 2). In South Finland, most of the birds' foraging flights focused on waste dumps, irrespective of the long distance from the breeding sites (maximum 30-50 km, Table 2, Fig. 3). Only 3 out of 16 220 221 individuals did not seem to visit regularly waste dumps, but instead fields or lakes nearby (Fig. A6). 222 In East Finland (North Karelia), nLBBGs visited waste dumps less often, some of them (E3, Fig. 4) 223 never, presumably because the breeding sites were far from the nearest waste dump in Savonlinna (approx. 52 km). Still the individuals in this area were specialised in getting food from a specific 224 225 direction, one gull from the northern and another gull from the southern corridor. Similarly, the E1 226 birds were also specialised to fly within narrow directional corridors (W and N/E, Fig. 4). 227

- There were no differences in the maximum distances of individual foraging flights between the three geographic areas (mean W = 35.4 ± 26.7 km, n = 5; mean S = 35.4 ± 9.5 km, n = 12; mean E = 25.0 ± 10.4 km, n = 5; F = 0.934, df = 2,19, p = 0.410; Table 2). As expected, birds from all the areas showed intra-population variation. Some individuals (e.g. W2M737, W1M739, S1F742, and E1M749) generally stayed near the breeding site. On the other hand, some individuals (e.g. W1F743, W1M759, S3F735, and S3F779) undertook long foraging trips to a specific fur farm or waste dump.
- 235

According to the calculated concentration parameters, deviation from the mean direction of foraging movements (angle of deviation) was smallest in West Finland where the flight directions were highly consistent (Table 2), whereas the movements of the birds from East and South Finland were more scattered. Nominate LBBGs from all the three geographic areas did not appear to use habitat in proportion to its availability. Overall, only fur farms, waste dumps and lakes and fields were selected, whereas the open sea was the only habitat type that was avoided (Fig. 2, Table 2).

- The proportion of time individuals spent around the breeding sites varied considerably between the birds, in males from 32% to 73% and in females from 35% to 77%, with an overall mean of 56% (Table 2). Birds mostly stayed at their breeding sites in the mornings and the evenings. The birds were most likely on the move away from the breeding sites during the afternoons, in fact twice as likely as during the other times. However, we did not find significant differences in the mean foraging distances (t = -0.908, df = 10, p = 0.187) or breeding site percentages (t = 0.200, df = 10, p = 0.422) between the sexes during the breeding period (Table 2).
 - One of the tagged birds from West Finland (W1F743) was shot in a fur farm on 28 June 2009,
 about 60 km SE from the breeding site, and another bird (W765, not listed in Table 2), obviously
 shot on 31 May 2009, while its ring was later found in a red fox hole nearby. For six individuals we
 were able to compare foraging flights between the years 2009–2010 or 2010–2011 (W1M739,
 - 255 S1M761, S3M732, HS2M864, HS2M916 and HS3M823) as their tags were still transmitting. These

comparisons for preferred foraging habits showed substantial similarities between the years (Table

257 2, Figs A2–A4). For instance, when arriving in spring, the birds previously translocated to the West,

to the island of Heligoland (see Wikelski et al., 2015), were heading straight to their previous year

breeding sites and from then onward foraged at the waste dump as in the previous year. One

Heligoland bird (HX1F910) returned in 2010 to breed in Central Finland, foraging mostly on nearby lakes and fields, but on 3–4 July made an exceptional trip to Tampere dump and Lake

- 261 Nearby lakes and fields, but on 5–4 July made an exceptional trip to ramper 262 Vesijärvi colony (distance of 65 km) (Fig. A5).
- Vesijärvi colony (distance of 65 km) (Fig. A5).

264 **4. Discussion**

265

266 4.1. Generalisation – Specialisation

267 During the breeding season nLBBGs in Finland showed individual and location-dependent specialised foraging behaviour at two levels. Generalised feeding habits seemed to be rare. 268 269 According to our satellite tracking data, feeding sites were located at waste dumps, fur farms, fields 270 and lake areas, with individual birds specialising on any one of these potential foraging sites (first level of specialisation). The data highlights that urban resources were used by the majority of the 271 272 individuals. Most individuals simply opportunistically or through learning utilized available and 273 profitable foraging "hot spots". Still, the nLBBG may well be considered generalist species feeding 274 diverse food even though individuals demonstrate specialisation, i.e. individual specialisation. The findings are supported by the literature where the LBBG generally behaves as a specialist in lake 275 276 and sea areas feeding on freshwater and marine fishes (e.g. Götmark, 1984; Noordhuis and Spaans, 277 1992; Strann and Vader, 1992; Bustnes et al., 2010; Camphuysen, 2013).

278

279 Nominate LBBGs from all three study areas showed intraspecific variability in the specialisation of 280 habitat use. Some individuals never visited the waste dumps, whereas most made many journeys to these areas. For example, some South-individuals made intense use of the waste dump area of 281 282 Tampere, while other individuals barely used that habitat type. At waste dumps, individuals were 283 specialised to use compost piles (S1M761, S2M780), mixed waste banks (S2F738, S3M781) or bio-284 plant (S3F735) (second level of specialisation). Moreover, apart from getting food independently, 285 some individuals were specialised to snatch food from other gulls. The West-birds appeared to be 286 the most specialised gulls and - counter intuitively - they did not seem to search for food around the sea, i.e., within the Gulf of Bothnia, but almost solely visited fur farms for foraging. 287 288 Nevertheless, nLBBGs are observed foraging at sea at least when herrings are spawning. The fur 289 farms in Ostrobothnia area in western Finland are practising fox and mink farming for commercial 290 use and provide the farm animals with food (fodder) that is also partially available to gulls (Fig. 291 A7). On the individual level gulls became specialised to a small number of fur farms (second level 292 of specialisation). It is noteworthy that individuals from the same breeding sites preferred different 293 fur farms, some even flew over the farms which were used by other birds.

294

295 Inter-individual variability in resource use has long been an active field in evolutionary research, 296 and recent reviews and studies have identified several ecological causes of individual specialisation 297 (Bearhop et al., 2006; Araujo et al., 2011; Moleón et al., 2012; Patrick et al., 2014; Warwick-Evans 298 et al., 2016). Classic optimal foraging theory suggests that as the abundance of preferred resources 299 diminishes, gulls among other birds need to include suboptimal resources. Depending on the level 300 of resource availability in their diet, foraging activity normally decreases or increases. Intra- and inter-individual flexibility may also vary annually, corresponding with a lower or higher breeding 301 302 success (Warwick-Evans et al., 2016).

303

304 *4.2. Foraging flight characteristics – Distances and directions*

305 There were no significant differences between the maximum foraging flight distances of birds,

306 based on the locations of transmitter fixes. Distinct variation in flight corridors of foraging

307 movements was still found between the geographic areas. In contrast with the West Finland birds,

308 the nLBBGs from South and East Finland varied in their movements away from the breeding site.

309 S-birds moved to three separate foraging areas at a maximum distance of 50 km away from the

breeding site, whereas E-birds moved to four different foraging areas within a distance of 40 km

- from the breeding site. Individuals utilising waste dumps, fields and lakes still had reasonably narrow flyways, showing second-level specialisation with hardly any overlaps in their foraging
- 312 narrow flyways, showing second-level specialisation with hardly any overlaps in their foraging 313 movements.
- 314

315 Foraging flight corridors were mostly determined by the location of foraging area, but the existence 316 of other gull breeding sites may have also influenced the movements. This is exemplified by the S2 and S3 birds that never foraged in the eastern areas (Fig. 3), where a large Kukkia breeding area of 317 318 100 pairs is to be faced. Even when the flight corridors of some individuals overlapped to a large 319 extent, these individuals flying in the same direction did not necessarily forage at the same sites. 320 Generally, individuals that flew over larger distances did not stop at the foraging sites of those 321 individual foraging closer to the breeding sites, as exemplified by W1 (M739, M759) and W2 birds (M737, M764) (Fig. 2). Overall, the longest feeding trips performed by this species were to the 322 323 waste dumps and fur farms and not to the coast or lakes.

324

325 *4.3. GPS tag shortcomings*

326 A more detailed spatial and temporal evaluation of the results was impaired by satellite transmitters 327 being programmed to having duty cycles of only 4 fixes per day. During 3-6-hour periods between 328 the fixes gulls have enough time to visit waste dumps and fly back as minimum foraging times may 329 be very short, in bio waste areas only some tens of minutes at a time (Coulson et al., 1987; data by 330 R. Juvaste and M. Kangasniemi). However, some studies have reported average foraging times 331 offshore (including resting and sleeping) to last 8 hours (Shamoun-Baranes et al., 2010; 332 Camphuysen, 2013). We have also observations at the Tampere dump, where gulls seem to rest 333 (digesting food) long times before returning to their breeding sites, often after sudden disturbances, 334 e.g. patrolling goshawks (Accipiter gentilis) (data by R. Juvaste and M. Kangasniemi).

335

336 *4.4. Time budgets and seasonal changes in flight characteristics*

337 Our data suggest that gulls faced a trade-off between the time spent at the breeding site and time investment in foraging behaviour, which in turn resulted in differences in food quality (cf. Harding 338 339 et al., 2007). We hypothesize that birds that forage in the distant areas will get plenty of food easily, 340 however at the expense of either some food risks from foraging on waste sites or the risk of being 341 shot at fur farms. It is important to mention that many of the long feeding trips are assumed to be 342 performed during the fledging period of the breeding season. Because older chicks need more 343 energy. parents have to be more flexible in their time budgets. The risk of leaving the chicks unprotected for long time periods and fly long distances to feed from waste dumps or fur farms 344 345 shows the importance of these food sources in the diet of nLBBGs. Moreover, birds normally come 346 back to their breeding sites even if their nests have been destroyed or nesting has been unsuccessful 347 due to another cause such as rainstorms (pers. obs., R. Juvaste). The importance of waste dumps 348 and fur farms in the gulls' diet during the non-reproductive season is already known (e.g. in the 349 Ostrobothnia area), but the use of these food sources during the breeding period might also indicate 350 that 'fast food' is even preferred over food in the nearby lake/sea areas during the breeding season.

351

352 4.5. Conservation implications of food specialisations

353 During the migration periods and at wintering sites the LBBG is considered as generalist in its

feeding habits (Klaassen et al., 2012). However, if birds arrive in spring when ice is still covering

355 the lakes, waste dumps and fur farms may play important roles in the diet of birds as well as in the

356 development of eggs or during recovery from migration. The possible food types individual gulls

357 may specialise in during different time periods include bio waste, high-energy feed for domestic

358 animals such a food pellets, fish, fish wastes and earthworms. Unfortunately, as seen during this 359 study and also known from anecdotal information (pers. obs. by J. Hannila, H. Hongell and Finnish 360 Food Safety Authority Evira), individual specialisation on food pellets often leads to a high mortality risk because gulls and many other birds are driven away from farms by shooting or 361 poisoning, even during the preserved breeding periods. In this study, two out of five satellite tracked 362 363 gulls from the coast of West Finland (Kokkola, Uusikaarlepyy) were evidently shot by fur farmers. 364 Furthermore, in Eastern Finland, four satellite-tagged birds (2/5 adults, and 2/7 juveniles not listed in Table 2) disappeared in August, coinciding with the onset of the duck hunting period but also 365 with the end of the conservation period of herring gulls (HG) and great black-backed gulls (GBBG), 366 367 which allows shooting again from 1st of August. At the time the shooting period starts, juveniles of any of the large gull species are hard or impossible to distinguish from each other; even adult 368 369 nLBBGs and GBBGs look very similar. When visiting the sites where the satellite tags provided the 370 last locations, we determined one adult and one juvenile as being shot (one of the tags was in fact 371 returned later by a local hunter). The other two birds disappeared on 24 August and 5 September 372 from Joensuu waste dump, where shooting of crows is a common phenomenon.

373

This alarming situation of high human-caused mortality (25–40%) also in adult birds may well explain a part of the population decrease of LBBGs in recent years (Hannila et al., 2008; Hario, 2014). Exceptional shooting permits additionally allow farmers to shoot HGs and GBBGs at fur

farms and waste dumps. Particularly in the West Coast Game Districts, where our Western birds
were tagged, GBBGs have been shot in high numbers (some 800 individuals) in relation to the
existing population of the species (~300 pairs during 2010). For example, in the Stormossen waste
dump area, the proportion of HG–GBBG shooting has been 1.8:1, in comparison to the 26:1 ratio of
breeding pairs (R. Juvaste, pers. obs.). We believe that shooting must have had effect on the
production and population of nLBBG, but then again the population decrease is compensated by
recruits to these very attractive sites with plenty of food.

384

385 *4.6. Suggesting solutions to the negative population trend*

386 From the 1970s to the 1990s nLBBG populations largely collapsed particularly in the Gulf of 387 Finland due to the widespread occurrence of environmental toxins (PCB, dioxins) in the food web, 388 e.g. in Baltic herrings (Hario et al., 2004). The development of gull populations along the coast of 389 West Finland (Ostrobothnia) was much more positive until recently (Hannila et al., 2008), perhaps 390 due to the consumption of pure, unpolluted food dropped off by fur farmers. However, the reduction 391 of fur farms and fisheries in West Finland has probably led to a decline in feeding opportunities 392 both at farms and near the coast, with negative consequences for local nLBBG populations. At the 393 same time, gull populations in interior Finland especially near waste dumps have remained 394 unchanged (pers. data by R. Juvaste; Hario, 2014). This trend is going to change due to the closing 395 of biowaste dump areas starting in 2016 according to the strict EU legislation on landfill waste. We 396 expect the foraging behaviour of such nLBBGs specialised on landfill waste to include 397 anthropogenic waste near towns and city centres.

398

Alarming is also the general misidentification of gull species during the official shooting period, especially near the fur farms in the Ostrobothnia area. In light of this problem, the practice of exceptional shooting permits needs to be discussed. Furthermore, the duration of safe (nonshooting) breeding period of nLBBG should be extended until the middle of September when most of the nLBBGs have embarked on their migration. This extension would also ensure that during the duck shooting period no gulls are shot, thus avoiding the misidentification of young nLBBG versus HGs (which are currently allowed to be shot).

406

407 Our results have provided a case to prove that illegal shooting at fur farms and waste dumps is of 408 considerable importance in explaining different population trends, given the endangered status and 409 breeding numbers of the species. At the same time, artificial food sources such as fur farms and

410 waste dumps have so far kept the population closer to the natural carrying capacity. In terms of 411 changing climate, species gaining suitable climate or other environmental conditions can be termed

412 "winners", whereas species losing suitable conditions can be termed "losers" (Araujo et al., 2011).

413 Bird and mammal species are projected to have greater proportions of losers than winners in all

scenarios by 2080. To examine potential net effect of human-caused mortality, fur farming, waste

- 415 dumps, and other artificial food sources on conservation concern of the LBBG, we recommend
- 416 urgent actions since our findings highlight the importance of these "hot spots" to explore individual 417 responses to environmental changes.
- 417 r 418
- 418

419 On a more general level, the spatiotemporal dynamics of nLBBG populations should be taken into 420 account in conservation planning (Virkkala, 2006). Site protection should be based on information 421 of both breeding and visiting gulls over several years, so that a major proportion of the breeding 422 red-listed gulls might be kept inside the protected areas. Therefore, areas to be protected should 423 cover a large proportion of a lake or a coast but also the most important foraging and wintering 424 sites. 425

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427

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Table 1

Estimated breeding numbers of Finnish nLBBGs given by the local bird associations in 2003 and 2013. Data from Hario (2014), Hannila et al. $(2008)^1$, and Hannila & Hongell (unpublished)².

Area	Population estimate 2003, pairs	Population estimate 2013, pairs	Percentage change
Whole country, total	8790	7330	-17
Coastal, total	5670	4600	-19
Inland, total	3120	2730	-13
W Central Ostrobothnia	1310	1320	+1
S Pirkanmaa+Valkeakoski	435	421	-3
E Southern Savonia	450	384	-15
E North Karelia	255	232	-9
W Kokkola	250^{1}	235 ²	-6

656 **Table 2**

657 Individual nLBBG data from the study period. Data year 2009 consists of 22 gull histories and the years 2010–2011 additional 3 + 7 gull histories. W = west (numbers 1, 2 and 3 refer to breeding areas); S = south; 658 659 E = east; H = birds translocated to Heligoland, returned to S area (one to X1 area in Central Finland); F = 660 Female; M = male; ID = transmitter number; N = total number of transmitter fixes; Col% = fixes from breeding site (< 2 km); MaxD = maximum distance from breeding site (km); ForDM = mean distance of 661 662 foraging sites (> 2 km); sumForD = sum of foraging site distances (km); n = number of transmitter fixes atforaging sites (> 2 km); vR(km) = length of foraging resultant vector; vRDir = mean direction of foraging 663 664 sites (degrees); P95Dir = 95% confidence interval for the mean foraging direction (degrees); r = vector length, concentration parameter (0 = directions are random, 1 = directions are uniform); NoF/D = number of 665 fixes in "hot spot" areas (fur farm or waste dump), n+n, where the first is the number of actual fixes, the 666 second is the number of other fixes of the same direction; NoOther = number of fixes in other areas (lakes 667 and fields); Pref% = percent of fixes in a "hot spot" preference area (fur farm or waste dump). 668 669

No	AreaSexID -(year)	N fix	Col %	MaxD km	ForDM km	sumForD km	n fix	vR km	vRdir deg	P95dir deg	r (0–1)	NoF/D fix	NoOther fix	Pref %
1	W1F743	71	44	65.9	34.9	1395	40	1381	133	5	0.954	10+28	2	95
2	W1M739	114	68	14.3	11.2	403	36	402	164	1	0.998	18+18	0	100
3	W1M759	114	59	63.0	29.1	1368	47	1359	141	3	0.978	22+21	4	91
4	W2M737	112	63	12.8	11.9	487	41	487	166	1	0.999	32+9	0	100
5	W2M764	113	64	20.9	18.1	742	41	738	170	2	0.994	29+10	2	95
6	S1F742	100	58	19.7	11.5	485	42	434	142	10	0.841	0+0	42	0
7	S1M734	100	49	31.3	9.7	496	51	368	119	11	0.759	1+2	48	6
8	S1M751	92	66	28.4	13.8	428	31	398	344	15	0.746	5+8	18	42
9	S1M761	108	73	31.5	26.8	777	29	740	347	13	0.823	20+5	4	86
10	S2F738	110	77	30.1	12.7	319	25	207	315	45	0.309	3+5	17	32
11	S2F762	112	71	30.0	19.5	643	33	632	315	10	0.874	11+14	8	76
12	S2M780	99	58	29.8	19.3	810	42	780	316	10	0.832	16+10	16	62
13	S3F735	108	35	46.2	16.3	1140	70	840	309	24	0.415	27+20	23	67
14	S3F758	111	63	50.4	17.8	730	41	624	201	10	0.832	15+10	16	61
15	S3F779	107	49	46.3	22.8	1255	55	852	220	13	0.692	21+16	18	67
16	S3M732	98	63	35.0	11.3	407	36	359	208	11	0.837	2+9	25	31
17	S3M781	111	32	46.3	7.1	533	75	488	303	5	0.922	5+7	63	16
18	E1F774	97	42	25.8	16.9	946	56	751	357	14	0.656	6+3	47	16
19	E1M749	112	41	11.6	8.0	531	66	494	268	5	0.927	0 + 0	66	0
20	E2M748	112	44	28.1	14.6	920	63	864	42	8	0.839	19+26	18	71
21	E3F740	111	73	39.7	16.4	493	30	470	353	10	0.886	0 + 0	30	0
22	E3F746	118	43	19.6	9.5	637	67	522	181	8	0.834	0 + 0	67	0
23	W1M739-10	119	50	24.1	13.1	775	59	773	165	1	0.998	35+21	3	95
24	S1M761-10	76	50	31.9	23.1	877	38	845	348	8	0.888	13+11	14	63
25	S3M732-10	98	81	19.0	5.5	105	19	29	151	39	0.531	0+0	19	0
26	HS2M864-10	80	85	30.1	14.7	177	12	159	318	51	0.289	2+1	9	25
27	HS2M864-11	110	79	29.8	16.3	375	23	348	317	21	0.465	2+8	13	43
28	HS2M916-10	116	76	30.3	22.9	642	28	630	315	8	0.920	17+9	2	93
29	HS2M916-11	112	79	30.2	20.3	487	24	475	314	9	0.915	11+9	4	83
30	HS3M823-10	119	66	41.6	29.2	1167	40	1164	303	2	0.990	19+19	2	95
31	HS3M823-11	117	64	44.6	28.1	1179	42	996	296	12	0.790	18+11	13	69
32	HX1F910-10	119	25	70.6	5.7	510	89	365	198	12	0.688	0+0	89	0

672 Figure legends (colour should be used for the figures 1–4 in print/online)

Fig. 1. Histories of tagged nominate lesser black-backed gulls from the Finnish breeding sites
together with some additional nLBBGs that were caught at Tampere waste dump. The first number
in brackets refers to year 2009, the second one refers to years 2010–2011. The areas are W1
Kokkola, W2 Uusikaarlepyy, S1 Pälkäne and Valkeakoski, S2 Pälkäne, S3 Hauho, E1 Outokumpu,
E2 Liperi and E3 Kesälahti. The breeding site W2 of about 180 pairs was the biggest breeding site
in Finland. W1 Kokkola breeding site had about 30 pairs and the other study breeding sites about
15–20 pairs.

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Fig. 2. GPS locations of nominate lesser black-backed gulls during the study period 8 June–7 July
2009 in the areas W1 (F743, M739, M759) and W2 (M737, M764). Photo magnifications inside
denote locations in and over different fur farms.

Fig. 3. GPS locations of nominate lesser black-backed gulls during the study period 8 June–7 July
2009 in the areas S1 (F742, M734, M751, M761), S2 (F738, F762, M780) and S3 (F758, M781).

Fig. 4. GPS locations of nominate lesser black-backed gulls during the study period 8 June–7 July 2009 in the areas E1 (F774, M749), E2 (M748) and E3 (F740, F746).

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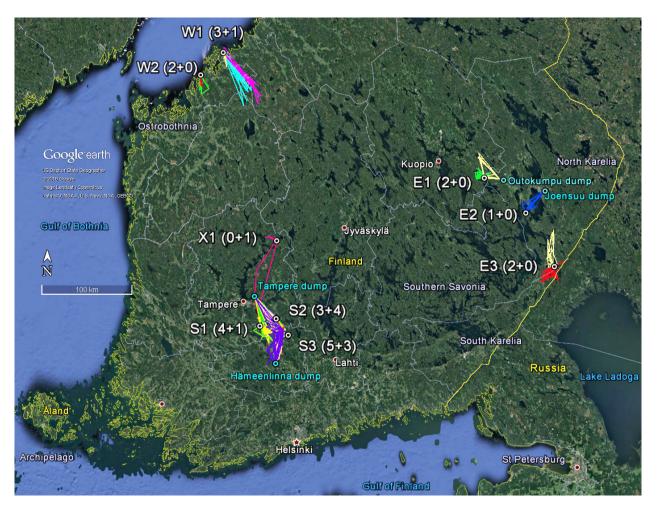


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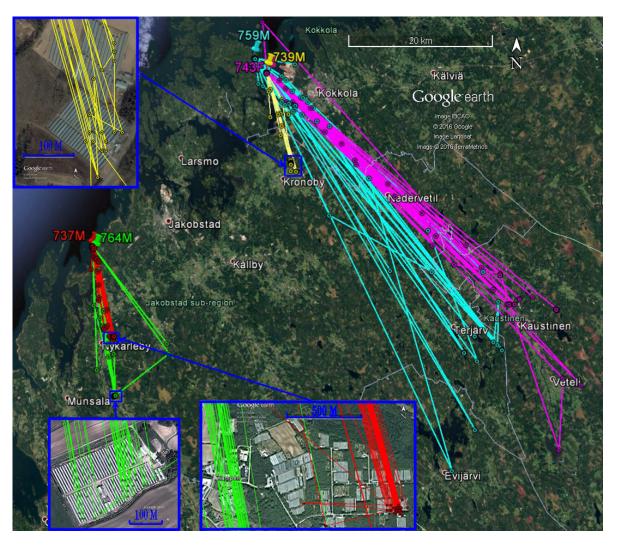
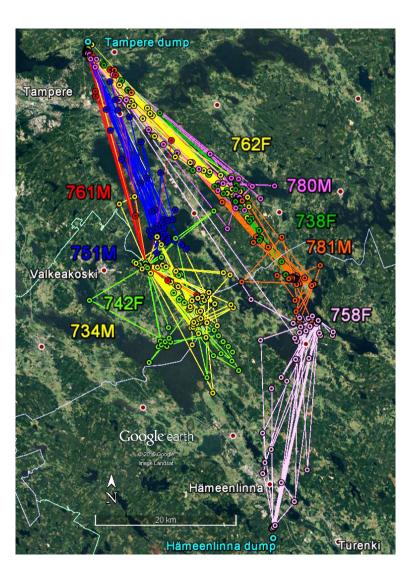
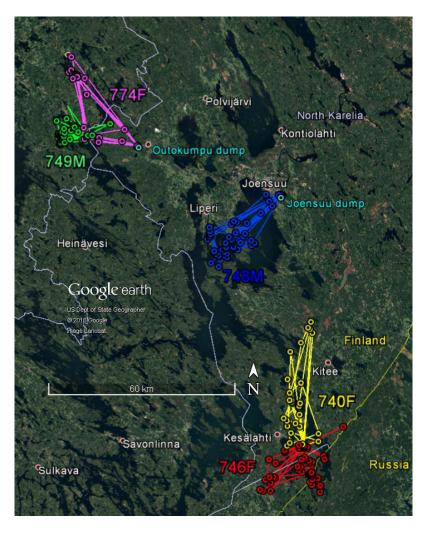


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