

This is a preprint of:

Ruthrauff, D.R.; Dekinga, A.; Gill, R.E. & Piersma, T. (2018). Energetic solutions of Rock Sandpipers to harsh winter conditions rely on prey quality. *Ibis*, 160, 397-412

Published version: <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/ibi.12534">https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/ibi.12534</a>

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I	Energetic constraints of Rock Sandpipers at the northern extent of their
2	range emphasize unique attributes of their benthic prey
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# **SUMMARY**

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20	Rock Sandpipers Calidris p. ptilocnemis have the most northerly nonbreeding
21	distribution of any shorebird in the Pacific Basin (upper Cook Inlet, Alaska [61°N,
22	151°W]). In terms of freezing temperatures, persistent winds, and pervasive ice,
23	this site is the harshest used by shorebirds during winter. We integrated
24	physiological, metabolic, behavioural, and environmental aspects of the
25	nonbreeding ecology of Rock Sandpipers at the northern extent of their range to
26	determine the relative importance of these factors in facilitating their unique
27	nonbreeding ecology. Not surprisingly, estimated daily energetic demands were
28	greatest (372 kJ) during the coldest periods of winter (January). These estimates
29	are over 7 times greater than basal metabolic rates, a scope of increase that
30	approaches the maximum sustained rate of energetic output by shorebirds during
31	periods of migration, but far exceeds these periods in duration. We assessed the
32	quality of their primary prey, the bivalve Macoma balthica, to determine the daily
33	foraging duration required by Rock Sandpipers to satisfy such energetic
34	demands. Based on size-specific estimates of <i>Macoma</i> quality, Rock Sandpipers
35	require >17 h d <sup>-1</sup> of foraging time in upper Cook Inlet in January. This range
36	approaches the average daily duration of mudflat availability in this region (~18
37	h), a maximum value that annually decreases due to the accumulation of shore-
38	fast ice. Rock Sandpipers likely maximize access to foraging sites by following
39	the exposure of ice-free mudflats across the upper Cook Inlet region and by
40	selecting smaller, higher quality <i>Macoma</i> to minimize foraging times. Ultimately,

this unusual nonbreeding ecology hinges upon the high quality of their <i>Macoma</i>
prey resources. Compared to other sites across their range, Macoma balthica
from upper Cook Inlet have relatively light shells, potentially a result of the
region's depauperate invertebrate predator community. We posit that future
thermogenic benefits of a warming upper Cook Inlet climate to Rock Sandpipers
may be offset by impacts to Macoma balthica survival and quality.
<b>Keywords:</b> animal distribution, climate change, intake rates, <i>Macoma balthica</i> ,
metabolic expenditure, resource quality, Rock Sandpiper, Calidris ptilocnemis

# INTRODUCTION

Animal distributional patterns reflect a multitude of physical, social, and biological
interactions (MacArthur 1984, Brown 1995, Gaston 2003), but at the most
fundamental level an animal's distribution is determined simply by the species'
ability to survive in a given environment. This characteristic reflects an
organism's adaptive, ecophysiological response to its environment (Root 1988,
Spicer & Gaston 1999), and study of organisms at the limits of their geographic
ranges can elucidate factors shaping these limits (Gaston 2009, Sexton et al.
2009). At high northern latitudes during winter, environmental conditions are
often characterized by low temperatures and low availability of food resources.
From a physiological perspective, range limits in these environments are thus
often influenced by an animal's ability to satisfy high cold-induced energetic
demands in the face of low resource abundance.
Shorebirds (Charadriiformes, suborders Charadrii and Scolopaci) are a
globally distributed, highly diverse avian taxa (Piersma et al. 1996) that constitute
a conspicuous component of wetland and coastal ecosystems. Most shorebird
species use their highly sensitive bills to peck or probe in soft substrates for prey
resources, a mode of foraging that predisposes them to regions of the globe that
ensure access to ice-free habitats (Piersma 1996, Piersma et al. 1996).
Additionally, because shorebirds have relatively high metabolic rates (Kersten &
Piersma 1987), they risk starvation when subjected to extended periods without
access to food (Marcström & Mascher 1979, Davidson & Evans 1982,
Camphuysen et al. 1996). These traits effectively serve to constrain the

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nonbreeding distribution of most shorebirds to shorelines in temperate and tropical regions (Piersma 1996, Colwell 2010).

Despite their affinity for shoreline habitats during the nonbreeding season, most shorebird species breed at inland sites, often at high northern latitudes, and conduct long annual migrations between breeding and nonbreeding sites (Piersma et al. 1996, van de Kam et al. 2004). Shorebirds are renowned for conducting long-distance migrations (Piersma & Davidson 1992, Battley et al. 2000, Gill et al. 2009), a natural history characteristic that has evolved to exploit ephemerally abundant resources at sites during a relatively brief (2–3 months) breeding season (Colwell 2010). As the breeding season wanes and conditions at these sites deteriorate, such migratory behaviour also avoids the risk of starvation that shorebirds would otherwise face by remaining at high northern latitudes during winter. The life history of shorebirds breeding at high northern latitudes, then, is generally characterized by long migrations between breeding sites with ephemerally abundant food resources and nonbreeding sites at temperate or tropical locations with predictable food resources (Piersma et al. 1996, Colwell 2010).

A few species of shorebird serve as exceptions to these trends, however, and spend the nonbreeding season at high latitude sites that experience cold, dark winters (Cramp & Simmons 1983, Summers *et al.* 1990). One such shorebird is the Rock Sandpiper *Calidris ptilocnemis*. Rock Sandpipers are common residents of the North Pacific Basin (Gill *et al.* 2002), and are not unusual in size, appearance, or habits compared to other shorebirds breeding at

high latitude sites. Rock Sandpipers are unique, however, for the range of
environmental conditions they experience across their nonbreeding distribution.
Rock Sandpipers comprise four subspecies (Conover 1944, Pruett & Winker
2005) that exhibit differential migration patterns, a trait that exposes each
subspecies to distinct environmental conditions. At one extreme, most <i>C. p.</i>
tschuktschorum individuals migrate relatively long distances between
comparatively benign nonbreeding sites along the Pacific Northwest coast of
North America and breeding sites in western Alaska and the Chukotka
Peninsula, Russia (Gill et al. 2002, Lappo et al. 2012). At the other extreme, C. p.
quarta and C. p. couesi are essentially non-migratory, distributed throughout their
annual cycle at sites in the Commander Islands (C. p. quarta) and the Aleutian
Archipelago and Alaska Peninsula (C. p. couesi; Gill et al. 2002, Lappo et al.
2012). Unique among North American shorebirds, the primary nonbreeding
location of the fourth subspecies, C. p. ptilocnemis (hereafter ptilocnemis), is
farther north (1–4° latitude) than its breeding grounds (Figure 1). Ptilocnemis
conducts an east-west migration between their central Bering Sea breeding
grounds (Gill et al. 2002, Ruthrauff et al. 2012) and their primary wintering range
in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska (Gill & Tibbitts 1999, Ruthrauff et al. 2013c).
The northern extent of the ptilocnemis nonbreeding range in Cook Inlet
(61°N, 151°W; Figure 1), represents the most northerly winter distribution of any
shorebird in the Pacific Basin (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c). Ruthrauff et al. (2013c)
demonstrated that environmental conditions at this site are also the coldest
experienced by any nonbreeding shorebird in the world. The average daily high

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temperature in this region is ≤0°C for nearly 140 consecutive days between early November and mid-March (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c), and such cold induces high metabolic demands in birds (Vézina et al. 2006, Swanson 2010, Ruthrauff et al. 2013a). For *ptilocnemis* in Cook Inlet, these energetic demands are satisfied by the consumption of the bivalve Macoma balthica (Gill & Tibbitts 1999, Gill et al. 2002). Macoma occur in high densities in Cook Inlet (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c), but are only accessible to *ptilocnemis* during periods of low tide. Cook Inlet experiences tidal fluctuations of over 10 m (Oey et al. 2007) across mudflats that extend up to 7 km at low tide; when coupled with the region's cold temperatures, ptilocnemis foraging habitats are subject to both direct freezing as well as coverage by sea and shore-fast ice (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c). Thus, ptilocnemis must satisfy high daily energetic requirements by exploiting a feeding window initiated by the exposure of the mudflats below shore-fast ice on falling tides, hastened by the freezing of exposed mudflats, and terminated by coverage with ice or a flooding tide. Numerous physiological (Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013b, 2015), metabolic (Ruthrauff et al. 2013a), behavioural (Ruthrauff & Eskelin 2009, Ruthrauff et al. 2015), and environmental (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c) factors have been identified that together support this unique nonbreeding life history. Herein we integrate these various components across a range of climatological scenarios to model

potential energetic constraints facing *ptilocnemis* during their winter occupancy of

upper Cook Inlet, Alaska. We estimated ptilocnemis' daily energetic demands

and the concomitant foraging durations required to satisfy these demands.

Ruthrauff et al. (2015) hypothesized that the colonization of upper Cook Inlet by ptilocnemis was a relatively recent phenomenon facilitated by recent climate warming that both formed Cook Inlet as a physical feature (Schmoll et al. 1999, Reger et al. 2007) and promoted its colonization by Macoma balthica (Schmoll et al. 1972). We further demonstrate that Macoma from upper Cook Inlet possess unique attributes compared to Macoma from other sites. These attributes enhance their quality as prey, and ultimately permit the high-latitude nonbreeding distribution of ptilocnemis Rock Sandpipers. Ironically, the climate warming that enabled this unique occurrence may hasten its end: although future climate warming will offer thermogenic relief to ptilocnemis, it may also promote ecosystem changes that may negatively alter the quality of Cook Inlet Macoma as prey resources.

### **METHODS**

We estimated the energetic demands of *ptilocnemis* across the months when *ptilocnemis* is present in upper Cook Inlet (October–April; Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013c). We integrated summaries of long-term climatological and environmental conditions in upper Cook Inlet along with interrelated ecological components that reflect ecophysiological characteristics of *ptilocnemis* or their primary prey, *Macoma balthica*. These components include presence/absence estimates of *ptilocnemis* in upper Cook Inlet during winter, intake rates and size preferences of *ptilocnemis* feeding on *Macoma*, lipid stores and sizes of relevant organ

groups of ptilocnemis during winter, and size-related estimates of Macoma

164	quality. We describe each of these components below.
165	Climatological and environmental summaries
166	Climatological summaries follow procedures outlined by Ruthrauff et al. (2013c)
167	to derive values for long-term (1952–2015) average and extreme temperatures
168	and average winds in upper Cook Inlet
169	(http://www7.ncdc.noaa.gov/IPS/lcd/lcd.html?_page=1&state=
170	AK&stationID=26451&_target2=Next+%3E). For these summaries, we used
171	datasets for Anchorage, Alaska, in upper Cook Inlet (Figure 1) and the site with
172	the region's most extensive historical climatological information. Ruthrauff et al.
173	(2013c) determined that temperatures at this location were representative of
174	those at nearby locations (within 100 km) primarily used by ptilocnemis. We
175	calculated monthly average estimates of solar insolation in upper Cook Inlet
176	using National Aeronautics and Space Administration
177	(https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/sse/) datasets, and estimated the average monthly
178	and historical extremes of shore-fast ice extent using National Ice Center
179	datasets (http://www.natice.noaa.gov/products/weekly_products.html) from the
180	period October 2006–April 2015 following procedures described by Ruthrauff et
181	al. (2013c).
182	To estimate the amount of time that mudflats were exposed and
183	potentially available for foraging to ptilocnemis each day, we analyzed archived
184	images from the Federal Aviation Administration (http://avcams.faa.gov/) taken

overlooking the northern portion of Redoubt Bay (Figure 1), one of the primary sites used by *ptilocnemis* in upper Cook Inlet (Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013c). Given the region's patterns of sediment input (Bartsch-Winkler & Ovenshine 1984), currents (Johnson 2008), tidal inundation and subsurface geomorphologies (Oey *et al.* 2007, Ezer & Liu 2010), we assumed that mudflat exposure processes at Redoubt Bay were representative of those at other nearby sites also used by Rock Sandpipers. Images were taken at 10-minute intervals, and we observed diurnal images only on days during which the mudflats were clearly visible throughout the entire day. The time period over which we analyzed images did not contain shore-fast ice, and as such these summaries yield estimates of maximum potential mudflat exposure.

# Rock Sandpiper occurrence in upper Cook Inlet

The winter abundance and distribution of Rock Sandpipers in upper Cook Inlet was summarized from 99 aerial surveys across 16 winter seasons by Ruthrauff *et al.* (2013c). Ruthrauff *et al.* observed large numbers of *ptilocnemis* displaced from preferred sites in northern Cook Inlet to less-commonly used southern sites on two occasions, and these displacement events coincided with periods of unusually low temperatures that deviated from long-term averages by as much as 20°C (Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013c). Based on the distribution patterns during (i.e., southward displacements and decreasing survey totals) and immediately following (i.e., northward movements and increasing survey totals) the periods of deep cold, Ruthrauff *et al.* (2013c) assumed that the aberrantly low temperatures

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created unsustainable energetic demands that precipitated the movement to less thermally-demanding sites outside the survey area. For the purposes of this model, we considered the environmental conditions during these two cold periods as threshold values in our energetic model.

# **Rock Sandpiper intake rates**

We applied estimates of long-term maximum prey intake rates for *ptilocnemis* to determine the amount of foraging time required to satisfy energetic demands under the various environmental scenarios. In molluscivorous shorebirds like Rock Sandpipers, energy intake rates are constrained by the act of crushing and processing shell waste (Piersma *et al.* 1993, van Gils *et al.* 2005b), and so we modeled intake rates with respect to shell intake (mg s<sup>-1</sup>). The intake rate of Rock Sandpipers during winter is unknown, but van Gils *et al.* (2003) determined that intake rates of *Macoma* in Red Knots *C. canutus*, a closely related shorebird species, were accurately described as a function of fresh gizzard mass (g) by the equation *Intake* = 0.05 X (*Gizzard Mass*)<sup>2</sup>. We thus calculated intake rates based on this relationship using the average winter gizzard mass value for *ptilocnemis* (5.32 g) reported by Ruthrauff *et al.* (2013b).

### Macoma quality and Rock Sandpiper diet reconstruction

To determine the quality of *Macoma balthica* as prey, we calculated the relationships of both the ash-free dry mass (AFDM) of *Macoma* flesh and *Macoma* shell mass (i.e., ballast) to *Macoma* shell length using standard techniques (Zwarts 1991, van Gils *et al.* 2005b). For molluscivores like Rock

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Sandpipers, quality is determined by the ratio of AFDM to shell ballast, and this value varies as a function of *Macoma* shell length. We derived this relationship from 98 Macoma (lengths 6.5–15.4 mm) collected at the mouth of the Kasilof River (Figure 1) in upper Cook Inlet on 27 and 28 September 2011. To satisfy model assumptions of linear regression, we calculated these relationships after log transforming (base 10) values of shell length, AFDM, and shell ballast, and back-transformed these estimates to yield outputs in mg. For comparative purposes, we similarly determined the quality of 152 Macoma balthica (lengths 5.5–15.2 mm) collected from the Baie de Somme estuary, France (50.2°N, 1.6°E), on 9 and 10 March 2010. We estimated prey size preferences using diet reconstruction techniques (Dekinga & Piersma 1993). Because the hinges of *Macoma* shells are relatively durable, they are preserved in the gizzards of molluscivorous shorebirds. We first estimated the relationship between *Macoma* shell length and the height of each hinge (i.e., 'hinge plus top' height, Dekinga & Piersma 1993) by fitting a twoparameter power law function using the aforementioned 109 Macoma specimens from upper Cook Inlet. We next removed hinges from the gut contents of eight ptilocnemis specimens (two females, six males) collected in upper Cook Inlet on 15 January 1997 (n = 4 specimens) and 14 March 1998 (n = 4 specimens). We measured all hinges and shell lengths using a 10X dissecting scope equipped with digital measuring software (Leica Application Suite; Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). The bird specimens were collected approximately 100 km

north from where we collected the *Macoma* specimens, and we assumed that the

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relationship between *Macoma* hinge height and *Macoma* shell length was similar between these sites. We applied the relationship relating *Macoma* length to hinge height to the hinges recovered from the *ptilocnemis* specimens to estimate the lengths of the consumed *Macoma*.

# Model parameterization

We used model 5 of Wiersma & Piersma (1994) to estimate the metabolic rate of Rock Sandpipers across the range of environmental conditions described above. This model estimates maintenance metabolic rates (Watts), defined as basal metabolic rate (the energy consumption of a resting, postabsorptive animal in a normothermic environment; IUPS Thermal Commission 2003) plus any extra energetic demands associated with thermoregulation at environmental temperatures below the thermoneutral zone (Wiersma & Piersma 1994). The model integrates energetic costs associated with relevant environmental conditions (e.g., wind, temperature, solar insolation; Evans 1976), as well as microhabitat and thermal conductance (Wiersma & Piersma 1994). Ranges of values for the first three variables are described above (see Climatological and Environmental Summaries), while microhabitat-specific conductance parameters derive from values in table 1 of Wiersma & Piersma (1994). In general, observations of *ptilocnemis* in upper Cook Inlet primarily constitute closely huddled roosting birds or loose groups of birds foraging on mudflats. Such observations correspond to Wiersma & Piersma's 'Dense group' (i.e., roosting) and 'Mudflat and bare salt marsh' (i.e., birds foraging in loose groups)

microhabitats (table 1, Wiersma & Piersma 1994). We used a value of 42.6°C (Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013a) for the body temperature of *ptilocnemis*, and used equation 8-15 from Calder (1996) to estimate thermal conductance of *ptilocnemis* as a function of body mass. We applied the average body mass value of *ptilocnemis* in upper Cook Inlet during winter (108.2 g) for this calculation (Ruthrauff *et al.* 2013b).

To further incorporate additional energetic demands associated with foraging behaviours (e.g., food processing [Piersma *et al.* 2003] and locomotion activities [Bruinzeel & Piersma 1998]), we applied results from doubly-labeled water experiments on Red Knots (Piersma *et al.* 2003) to estimate the proportion of the daily energy budget comprised by other activities associated with foraging behaviours. Piersma *et al.* (2003) determined that 32.3% of the energy budget of foraging Red Knots was constituted by food processing and 18.0% by foraging-related locomotion, and we augmented the maintenance metabolic rates estimated for foraging birds accordingly. We summed these behaviour-specific totals for each day to estimate average energetic demands in Watts, and converted these estimates into daily energetic equivalents (1 Watt = 3.6 kJ h<sup>-1</sup>).

We implemented an energy balance approach to determine feeding durations. In its simplest form, we assumed that (energy intake) - (energy expenditure) = 0, where energy is expended either at rate  $M_F$  (foraging) or  $M_R$  (roosting). If  $T_F$  (h) is the total daily time spent foraging at a maximum energy intake rate I (kJ h<sup>-1</sup>), our model is further parameterized as:

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$$(I \times T_F) - ((M_R \times (24 - T_F)) - (M_F \times T_F)) = 0$$
 Equation 1

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We integrated our size-specific estimates of *Macoma* quality into calculations of *I* by multiplying the estimate of maximum intake rate (g shell  $h^{-1}$ ) by the estimates of *Macoma* quality (kJ  $g^{-1}$  shell). We then solved for  $T_F$  to determine minimum daily foraging durations necessary to satisfy estimated daily energy expenditures.

To link intake to metabolizable energy, we converted estimates of shell ballast intake into their energetic equivalent (kJ g<sup>-1</sup> shell ballast) assuming an energy density of 22 kJ g<sup>-1</sup> ash-free dry mass *Macoma* flesh (Zwarts & Wanink 1993, van Gils *et al.* 2005b), and an assimilation efficiency of 0.8 (Yang *et al.* 2013). We integrated these estimates across a range of representative shell lengths determined by our diet reconstruction results. We conducted all analyses in R version 3.1.2 (R Development Core Team 2014).

#### RESULTS

### Climatological and environmental setting

The average daily temperature (the mean of each day's average high and low temperature) and extreme temperatures during winter in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska are plotted in Figure 2. The mean of the average daily temperatures are  $\leq 0^{\circ}$ C for the months November–March (Table 1). January is the coldest month, with the daily temperature averaging -9.2°C. The average wind speed varies little over the winter period ( $\sim 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), but the amount of incident solar radiation varies by a factor of about 25 between the months of December (6.25 Watts m<sup>-2</sup>) and April (165.42 Watts m<sup>-2</sup>).

The extent of mudflat habitat in the regions of upper Cook Inlet used by
ptilocnemis is about 610 km² (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c). The average diurnal period
in the archived images of Redoubt Bay that we assessed was 11.3 $\pm$ 0.2 SE h. Of
this period, 8.3 ±0.3 SE h constituted periods when mudflats were at least
minimally exposed. We extrapolated these values across a 24-h period, and
estimate that the average daily duration of mudflat exposure at Redoubt Bay is
17.7 ±0.5 SE h. Because we classified the mudflats as exposed in images when
any mudflat remained uncovered by water, this total serves as a maximum value
that decreases with accretion of shore-fast ice. The accumulation of shore-fast
ice in upper Cook Inlet tracks monthly temperatures in winter. Shore-fast ice is
typically present in upper Cook Inlet from November-March (Poole & Hufford
1982, Ruthrauff <i>et al.</i> 2013c), and averages ≥200 km² from December–March.
The maximum areal extent of shore-fast ice (271.1 ±53.7 SE km²) occurs in
January, a time coinciding with the winter season's coldest temperatures.
Macoma quality and ptilocnemis diet reconstruction
The relationships describing AFDM (mg) and shell ballast (mg) as a function of
shell length for <i>Macoma balthica</i> from upper Cook Inlet are log <sub>10</sub> (AFDM) =
$3.00(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.42(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 3.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell length}) = 3.01 \text{ and } \log_{10}(sh$
1.80, respectively (Figure 3). Similar assessments of <i>Macoma balthica</i> collected
in Baie de Somme, France, are described by the relationships log <sub>10</sub> (AFDM) =
$3.10(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.18 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.68(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}) - 2.18 \text{ and } \log_{10}(\text{shell ballast}) = 3.68(\log_{10}(\text{shell length}))$

1.90. The 95% confidence intervals on these estimated relationships are non-

340	overlapping between sites (Figure 3). AFDM estimates are higher for same-sized
341	Macoma from upper Cook Inlet compared to Baie de Somme, while the
342	estimates for shell mass are lower at upper Cook Inlet compared to Baie de
343	Somme.
344	The ratio of AFDM to shell mass, and thus quality, is highest in small
345	Macoma at both sites, and the ratio decreases with increasing shell size (Figure
346	3). Estimates of quality range from 3.49–5.02 kJ g <sup>-1</sup> shell for <i>Macoma</i> from upper
347	Cook Inlet and 1.87–3.39 kJ g <sup>-1</sup> shell for <i>Macoma</i> from Baie de Somme (Figure
348	3). Quality varied less by size for <i>Macoma</i> from upper Cook Inlet (30.4%
349	difference between maximum and minimum values) compared to Baie de
350	Somme (44.8%). The relationship of shell length (SL) to hinge + top height (HTH)
351	for <i>Macoma</i> from upper Cook Inlet is described by the equation SL =
352	14.094(HTH) <sup>.754</sup> . We recovered 347 hinges from the eight <i>ptilocnemis</i> specimens
353	(range 12–78 hinges per specimen), and applied this formula to estimate
354	Macoma lengths. Based on this relationship, the mean length of Macoma
355	consumed by the eight <i>ptilocnemis</i> specimens was 9.9 ±0.1 SE mm (range 5.2–
356	15.0 mm; Figure 3). Temperatures on the days when the specimens were
357	collected (15 January 1997 and 14 March 1998) were similar, with equal high
358	(5°C) and similar average (1.1°C and -1.1°C, respectively) and low (-2.8°C and
359	1.1°C, respectively) temperatures.

# Seasonal energetic thresholds

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Estimated behaviour-specific maintenance metabolic rates (Watts) across the winter season are presented in Table 1. Average estimated metabolic rates are greatest for ptilocnemis during January (2.51 ['roosting' scenario]–6.07 ['foraging' scenario] Watts; Table 1) and lowest in April (1.90 ['roosting' scenario]-4.62 ['foraging' scenario] Watts; Table 1). Ruthrauff et al. (2013c) conducted two surveys under unusually cold conditions during which they detected relatively few birds present in upper Cook Inlet, and only at less frequently used southern sites. The average temperature for the week preceding these two surveys was 10.6°C colder than normal, and the average minimum temperature during these periods was -27.5°C. Metabolic rate estimates during these cold periods ranged from 3.00 ('roosting' scenarios)–7.27 ('foraging' scenarios) Watts. In contrast, ptilocnemis was distributed at the frequently used, more northern sites during surveys conducted immediately prior to and following these 'cold period' observations (Ruthrauff et al. 2013c). The daily average temperatures during these periods were just 0.5°C below long-term averages and minimum temperatures averaged -16.0°C. Estimated metabolic rates during these periods were ~18% lower (2.46 ['roosting' scenarios]–5.97 ['foraging' scenarios] Watts) during these 'normal' periods preceding and following the 'cold' observations. Estimated intake rates and minimum required foraging durations Following the technique of van Gils et al. (2003), we estimated that the intake rate of ptilocnemis during winter in upper Cook Inlet was 1.42 mg shell s<sup>-1</sup> (see

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Methods). We applied this value to determine the minimum foraging duration required by *ptilocnemis* to satisfy their daily energetic demands. We estimated daily minimum foraging durations for five sizes of *Macoma*: 6.5 mm (size of smallest *Macoma* in samples used to calculate quality estimates, Figure 2), 8.3 mm and 11.4 mm (interquartile values based on diet reconstruction, Figure 3), 9.9 mm (mean value based on diet reconstruction, Figure 3), and 15.0 mm (upper limit based on diet reconstruction, Figure 3). Estimated daily minimum foraging durations increase as average winter temperatures decrease (Figure 2), are shortest for birds feeding on the smallest (i.e., highest quality) Macoma (6.5) mm), and longest for birds consuming the largest (i.e., lowest quality) Macoma (15.0 mm). Within a *Macoma* size class, estimates of required foraging durations approximately double between the lowest and highest estimates across the season (Figure 2). Across all sizes of Macoma, the day with the shortest estimated foraging time is 30 April, while the day with the longest estimated foraging time is 9 January (Figure 2).

For insights into scenarios when *ptilocnemis* was potentially unable to meet their energetic demands over the course of a day, we estimated the foraging durations for *ptilocnemis* during the two aforementioned periods of extreme cold when birds were displaced from northern sites to more southerly sites (see above). Estimated minimum foraging durations ranged from 25.3–96.7 h across the different sizes of *Macoma*. These estimates are ≥30% higher than the maximum estimated durations under average conditions (9 January; Figure 2). To similarly assess impacts of prey quality, we calculated the minimum

required foraging duration for *ptilocnemis* hypothetically feeding on lower quality *Macoma* (i.e., *Macoma* from Baie de Somme, France). These estimates were ≥2.4 times higher than those for birds feeding on same-sized *Macoma* from upper Cook Inlet (Figure 2).

#### DISCUSSION

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Our results elucidate several unique aspects of the winter ecology of Rock Sandpiper. First, Rock Sandpipers wintering in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska, consistently expend energy at very high rates. Given the limited exposure of mudflat foraging habitats, the consistently long estimated foraging durations imply that Rock Sandpipers likely move between sites in Cook Inlet across tidal cycles to maximize their access to *Macoma* and satisfy their energetic demands. Secondly, although Rock Sandpipers exhibit numerous unusual physiological traits that facilitate their exploitation of Cook Inlet during winter, their ability to exist at this site is ultimately dictated by the quality of their benthic prey resources. Finally, the quality of their *Macoma* prey strongly contrasts with those from other sites throughout the organism's range. These differences combined have important implications for the persistence of this unusual winter ecology and while these results require validation in a natural setting, they nonetheless underscore many of the unusual environmental and ecophysiological factors that support this unique winter ecology.

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## **Energetic cost of wintering in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska**

Shorebird species are renowned for their ability to sustain high levels of metabolic output (Kersten & Piersma 1987, Piersma 2011), feats that are heretofore recognized primarily for shorebirds during migrations spanning periods <10 days (e.g., Pennycuick & Battley 2003, Gill et al. 2005). Such observations yield estimated maximum sustained outputs 8-10 times above basal metabolic rates (Piersma 2011). Ptilocnemis Rock Sandpipers represent a unique addition to these observations, due both to the duration and seasonal timing of their metabolic output. We estimate that *ptilocnemis* must feed for ≥12 h d<sup>-1</sup> during the majority of winter in upper Cook Inlet, regardless of which size Macoma they consume (Figure 2), and that the estimated metabolic rates during these foraging periods exceed basal metabolic rate (0.85 Watt; Ruthrauff et al. 2013a) by a factor of 5.4–7.1 (April and January, respectively; Table 1). Thus, although the levels of metabolic output are lower than those of shorebirds during active migration, they are nonetheless very high in an absolute sense (Hammond & Diamond 1997, Piersma 2011), and unprecedented in duration for a shorebird species.

Ruthrauff *et al.* (2013c) demonstrated that *ptilocnemis* are predictable and abundant inhabitants of upper Cook Inlet under typical winter conditions, and stochastic periods of low temperatures offer insight into climatic thresholds beyond which *ptilocnemis* cannot apparently occupy upper Cook Inlet. Such cold not only increases thermogenic costs, but also increases the amount of shorefast ice and decreases the amount of time that exposed mudflats remain

unfrozen. The estimated minimum required foraging times during the two 'cold
period' observations were more than double the maximum values estimated
under average conditions (January 9, the coldest day of the year in upper Cook
Inlet; Figure 2), and these estimates also greatly exceeded the maximum
duration of mudflat exposure under ice-free conditions. Even during periods of
'normal' cold in December, January, and February, estimated foraging durations
routinely approach (i.e., 6.5 mm Macoma) and exceed thresholds (all other
Macoma size classes) dictated by mudflat availability or 24-h ceilings (Figure 2).
These results indicate that Rock Sandpipers regularly face energetic
constraints while occupying upper Cook Inlet. To assess the plausibility of these
estimates, we compared metabolic rate estimates derived using Wiersma and
Piersma's (1994) model to laboratory-derived measures of ptilocnemis at
temperatures ranging from 5°20°C (Ruthrauff et al. 2013a). On average,
estimates derived following Wiersma and Piersma's method were just 1.9%
higher than those directly measured via respirometry. Our derivation of <i>Macoma</i>
shell intake rates based on fresh gizzard mass derives from work on Red Knots
(van Gils et al. 2003) and yields an estimate (1.42 mg shell s <sup>-1</sup> ) that is in
accordance with laboratory-derived estimates (1.22 mg shell $\rm s^{-1}$ ; Ruthrauff et al.
2015). The estimate implemented herein is ~14% higher than those derived
under experimental settings, but the latter value was measured in Rock
Sandpipers maintained at 14°C. Birds experience their lowest metabolic
demands under normothermic conditions (Scholander et al. 1950, Swanson
2010), and it is likely that the gizzard sizes, and hence shell processing abilities,

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were not maximized during these experimental trials. In contrast, the *ptilocnemis* specimens from which we derived our estimates were collected in the middle of winter. Ruthrauff *et al.* (2013b) documented a significant increase in gizzard mass from fall to winter in wild Rock Sandpipers, a phenotypically flexible increase that they attributed to the increased foraging demands experienced by birds in winter.

Beyond scrutinizing underlying physiological model assumptions, are these estimates of minimum foraging durations reasonable in an ecological context? From December–February, the value for the maximum duration of mudflat exposure at Redoubt Bay (17.7 h d<sup>-1</sup>) exceeds the estimated foraging durations for *ptilocnemis* feeding on all but the smallest *Macoma* size classes (Figure 2), seemingly placing strong prey-size constraints on Rock Sandpipers. Other evidence suggests, however, that our metabolic estimates are potentially high because ptilocnemis possesses certain physiological traits (e.g., dense plumage, high lipid stores; Ruthrauff et al. 2013b) that potentially lower metabolic costs. For instance, Piersma's (1996) shorebird-specific model relating body mass and plumage underestimates the actual plumage mass of ptilocnemis during winter (table 2, Ruthrauff et al. 2013b) by 33.1%. Furthermore, average lipid stores in *ptilocnemis* are among the highest reported for shorebirds during winter, constituting 18.2% of winter body mass (Ruthrauff et al. 2013b). Although likely of importance primarily as energy stores (Blem 1990), high lipid stores undoubtedly offer insulative gain as well. These two factors likely lower conductance values for *ptilocnemis* in their natural settings, but the estimate of

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conductance that we applied in this exercise is calculated based on body mass alone (Calder 1996). Wiersma and Piersma's (1994) model is sensitive to such adjustments; in our model, a 10% reduction in the conductance parameter results in  $\geq$ 11% decrease in foraging durations, a reduction of  $\geq$ 1.01 h d<sup>-1</sup> across all *Macoma* size classes.

Similarly, *ptilocnemis* undoubtedly makes behavioural adjustments that help minimize foraging durations. In a similar tidally-structured feeding environment, van Gils et al. (2005a) describe how Red Knots in the Dutch Wadden Sea forage for nearly 17 h d<sup>-1</sup> by moving east from their roost with the rising tide. Given the relatively small size of the upper Cook Inlet region (~50 km X ~170 km), it is likely that *ptilocnemis* moves between sites on rising and falling tides, day and night, to maximize their exposure to ice-free mudflat foraging habitats. Indeed, anecdotal observations of ptilocnemis moving within and between embayments to access exposed mudflats support this prediction (REG unpubl.). We likewise predict that *ptilocnemis* birds select the highest quality (i.e., the smallest) *Macoma* when energetic demands are greatest. Based on hinge remains, we estimated that the average size of *Macoma* consumed by ptilocnemis was 9.9 mm. Interestingly, this size is ~20% lower in quality compared to 6.5 mm *Macoma* (Figure 3). We believe that relatively low energetic demands driven by mild environmental conditions during the specimen collection period (see *Macoma* quality and *ptilocnemis* diet reconstruction) likely moderated pressure to select small *Macoma*.

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Estimates of metabolic rates of foraging birds are double those of roosting birds (Table 1), and these values are ultimately the primary determinant of the estimated foraging durations. In our model implementation, we assumed that the costs of foraging-related behaviours noted by Piersma et al. (2003) increased in proportion to the estimates of maintenance metabolic rates of foraging birds. The accuracy of these estimates is difficult to assess due to the dearth of information concerning behaviour-specific metabolic rates (but see Weathers et al. 1984, Goldstein 1988, Bruinzeel & Piersma 1998). Piersma et al. (2003) measured these values in birds at normothermic temperatures, and it may be that these added costs are static and do not necessarily increase in concert with maintenance metabolic demands as temperatures decline. The accuracy of this assumption strongly affects our estimates of metabolic rates of foraging Rock Sandpipers. Nonetheless, our model assumptions are based primarily on empirically derived species-specific information, and potential inaccuracies (e.g., unrealistically high conductance values, inaccurate estimation of foraging metabolic rates) derive from the best available information. Future studies should view these aspects of our model as testable factors of this energetically 'expensive' winter ecology.

# Impact of Macoma quality on ptilocnemis winter ecology

An unanticipated result from this study was the important role of prey quality in enabling *ptilocnemis*' unique nonbreeding ecology. Given Ruthrauff *et al.*'s (2013c) observations of *ptilocnemis* abandonment of upper Cook Inlet during

stochastic periods of cold, it is likely that <i>ptilocnemis</i> regularly feeds at maximum
rates with little buffer to accommodate increased energetic demands. As a
corollary, when faced with invariant metabolic demands but lower quality prey,
the only way to decrease foraging durations is via commensurate increases in
intake rates. Such an adjustment is unlikely for <i>ptilocnemis</i> in upper Cook Inlet. In
order for foraging durations of ptilocnemis feeding on low-quality prey (e.g.,
Macoma from Baie de Somme, France) to match those of ptilocnemis feeding on
high-quality prey (e.g., <i>Macoma</i> from Kasilof, Alaska), maximum intake rates
would need to increase by ≥62%, requiring an increase in gizzard mass of ≥28%.
Although shorebirds demonstrate an impressive ability to regulate the size of
their gizzard in response to energetic demands (Landys-Ciannelli et al. 2003,
Battley & Piersma 2005, van Gils et al. 2005a), such an adjustment is unlikely
given that ptilocnemis is already operating near the limit of its energetic
thresholds in upper Cook Inlet and so its gizzard size is likewise expected to
approach a physiological maximum.
Our estimates of quality for <i>Macoma</i> from Baie de Somme, France, are
similar to other published estimates from the Atlantic Basin (e.g., van Gils et al.
2005a, 2005b, Quaintenne et al. 2010), and we believe that these estimates are
lower than those for <i>Macoma</i> from upper Cook Inlet due to site-specific
differences in the presence of invertebrate predators (e.g., decapods [crabs,
shrimp], gastropods [snails]). Armored invertebrates can rapidly augment their
shells in response to predation pressure (Trussell 1996, Trussell & Smith 2000),
and we propose that <i>Macoma</i> from upper Cook Inlet possess relatively light

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shells due to a relaxed selection pressure on this attribute compared to other sites with a more diverse benthic predator community (e.g., Vermeij 1978, 1982). Although foraging shorebirds undoubtedly exert selection pressure for heavier, stronger shells on their bivalve prey, Rock Sandpipers crush in their gizzard any Macoma that they are able to swallow (Ruthrauff et al. 2015). It is believed that infaunal bivalves instead attempt to avoid shorebird predation principally by adjusting their burying depth (Zwarts & Blomert 1992, Zwarts et al. 1992, Zwarts & Wanink 1993, Edelaar et al. 2003). Heavier shells, especially in small-sized Macoma that are still easily consumed by shorebirds, likely play a relatively greater role in reducing predation by invertebrates (e.g., Beukema et al. 1998, van der Veer et al. 1998, Hiddink et al. 2002). Such bivalve predators are prevalent and abundant at lower latitude sites throughout the range of *Macoma* balthica (e.g., Commito 1982, Beukema et al. 1998, Hiddink et al. 2002, Seitz et al. 2003) but are apparently very uncommon or altogether absent from upper Cook Inlet's mudflats (Lees et al., 2001; DRR and REG pers. obs.).

### Implications of a warming climate

Given that *ptilocnemis* appear to function at or near their metabolic limits for months at a time during winter in upper Cook Inlet, projected warming of high-latitude regions due to climate change (0.3°–4.8°C over the next century; IPCC 2013) has positive implications for the species. Warming temperatures will relax thermogenic costs, which will in turn decrease daily energetic demands and foraging durations. In addition, warming winters will decrease the extent of shore-

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fast ice covering *ptilocnemis*' foraging habitats. Thus, warming winter temperatures would appear to relax certain physiological and environmental constraints and enable *ptilocnemis* to more easily exploit foraging opportunities between falling and rising tides.

Such warming comes with potential costs, however, that could negatively impact the quality of *Macoma*. Climate warming can permit range expansions (McCarty 2001, Walther et al. 2002, Parmesan & Yohe 2003) or invasive introductions (Dukes & Mooney 1999, Rahel & Olden 2008) of organisms, and such ecosystem changes in Cook Inlet could alter the quality of *Macoma* as ptilocnemis prey. As noted above, we believe that the absence of invertebrate predators currently accounts for the high quality of *Macoma* in Cook Inlet, Alaska. Bartsch-Winkler & Ovenshine (1984) proposed that glacier-derived sediments in western Cook Inlet decrease local primary productivity; in conjunction with dominant current patterns, this may impede the immigration and survival of planktonic larvae in the region (Foster et al. 2010). The scouring action of tidallydriven sea ice and exposure to cold winter temperatures likely further decreases the current suitability of upper Cook Inlet's mudflats to such invertebrate predators. Future impacts of climate warming on these physical processes in upper Cook Inlet are unknown, but given our estimates for ptilocnemis birds feeding on low quality prey (Figure 2), any thermogenic benefits due to projected warming would potentially be counteracted by deterioration in *Macoma* quality.

Cook Inlet is a relatively recent (~14,000 YBP; Karlstrom 1964, Schmoll *et al.* 1972) geographic feature formed by retreating glaciers during Holocene

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warming (Schmoll *et al.* 1999). Thus, the winter occupancy of upper Cook Inlet by *ptilocnemis* is a tangibly recent phenomenon; that *ptilocnemis* uses this site to the exclusion of other shorebird species is curious. Given the abundance of high quality prey, why do no other shorebird species occur in upper Cook Inlet during winter? Assuming that *ptilocnemis* maximizes fitness by employing a northerly-wintering life history (e.g., Stearns 1992), quantifying the interaction between the aforementioned environmental (e.g., temperature, wind, ice), physiological (e.g., intake rates, insulative adjustments), and behavioural (e.g., irruptive movements, small-scale site selection) factors under natural field conditions is necessary to understand the adaptive significance and continued persistence of this unusual nonbreeding distribution.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

- We thank Colleen Handel for discussions on estimating foraging durations and insights on implementing our model approach, and Sander Holthuijsen for assistance with *Macoma* samples. Any use of trade, product, or firm names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S.
- 622 Government.

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### **TABLES**

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**Table 1.** Long-term average climatic conditions from October–April, upper Cook Inlet, Alaska, and concomitant maintenance metabolic rates for *ptilocnemis* Rock Sandpipers. Climate information summarized for Anchorage, Alaska, from 1 April 1952–22 September 2015. Metabolic rate estimates are derived for two habitat-specific scenarios representing roosting and foraging behaviours; see Methods for full model parameterization.

		Climate Varia	ble	Estimated	Metabolic
				Rate (	Watts)
Month	Mean Temp. (°C)	Wind (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	Insolation (Watts m <sup>-2</sup> )	Roosting	Foraging
October	1.6	3.00	57.50	1.97	4.79
November	-5.5	2.91	20.00	2.33	5.65
December	-8.5	2.82	6.25	2.48	5.98
January	-9.2	2.86	12.92	2.51	6.07
February	-7.0	3.08	40.83	2.41	5.87
March	-3.8	3.13	97.08	2.23	5.42
April	2.3	3.26	165.42	1.90	4.62

#### FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1.** Primary North Pacific distribution of Rock Sandpiper *Calidris p.*ptilocnemis. Ptilocnemis breeds on small islands in the central Bering Sea (box with dashed border), and is distributed primarily in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska, during the nonbreeding season (box, enlarged in inset to left). Inset: dashed line delineates upper and lower Cook Inlet, and place names refer to upper Cook Inlet locations mentioned in the text.

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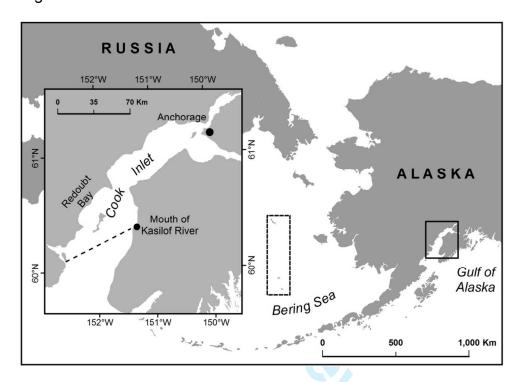
Figure 2. Upper figure: long-term daily average (solid line) and extreme temperatures (small circles) during winter in Anchorage, Alaska (upper Cook Inlet); dashed line delineates 0°C. Lower figure: predicted minimum foraging durations necessary to satisfy estimated daily metabolic demands of Rock Sandpipers (Calidris p. ptilocnemis) during winter in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska. Estimates integrate average temperatures, wind speeds, and rates of solar insolation. The increasing weights of the lines represent estimated foraging durations for ptilocnemis feeding on 6.46 mm, 8.33 mm, 9.94 mm, 11.42 mm, and 14.96 mm Macoma, respectively (see Results for rationale behind size classes). Solid lines represent estimates for birds feeding on *Macoma* from upper Cook Inlet, Alaska, and dashed line represents estimates for birds feeding on lower-quality prey (6.46 mm *Macoma* from Baie de Somme, France). Shaded region includes foraging durations that exceed the average daily maximum duration of mudflat exposure at Redoubt Bay, Alaska, one of the primary wintering sites used by *ptilocnemis* in upper Cook Inlet.

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Figure 3. Characteristics of the bivalve <i>Macoma balthica</i> , primary prey of Rock
Sandpipers (Calidris p. ptilocnemis) in upper Cook Inlet, Alaska, during winter.
The left-hand scale on the lower figure represents the relationship between
Macoma shell length (mm) and ash-free dry mass (AFDM; triangles) and shell
mass (circles) for <i>Macoma</i> from Kasilof, Alaska (open symbols), and Baie de
Somme, France (filled symbols). Values are on log <sub>10</sub> scale, and dashed lines are
95% confidence intervals of these relationships described by linear regression.
The right-hand scale depicts estimates of <i>Macoma</i> quality (kJ g <sup>-1</sup> dry shell mass)
as a function of shell length for <i>Macoma</i> from Kasilof, Alaska (dashed line), and
Baie de Somme, France (solid line). Values reflect metabolizable energy
estimated by applying an energy density of 22 kJ g <sup>-1</sup> AFDM <i>Macoma</i> flesh and
an assimilation efficiency of 0.8 (see Methods). Boxplot (top) represents the size
distribution of Macoma consumed by ptilocnemis in upper Cook Inlet during
winter based on diet reconstruction techniques. Thick vertical line represents the
median, circle the mean, box the 25 <sup>th</sup> and 75 <sup>th</sup> percentiles, and whiskers the
range of values.

### 929 **FIGURES**

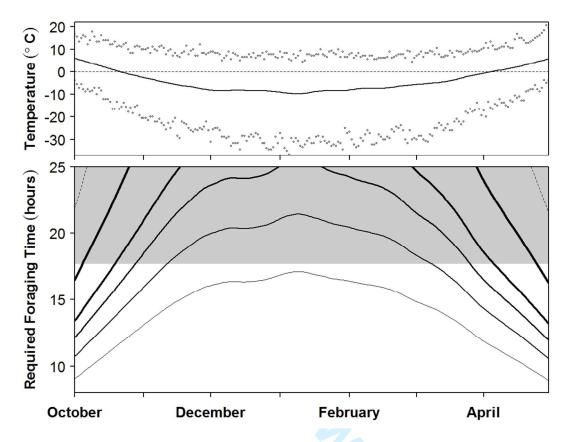
# 930 Figure 1.



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