

Habitat partitioning and molting site fidelity in *Tetrao urogallus cantabricus* revealed through stable isotopes analysis

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ABSTRACT

Sexual dimorphism is often associated with different feeding strategies between sexes because of distinct nutritional demands or intake rates. Capercaillie is the most sexually dimorphic grouse, thus sexual segregation in resource use is likely. This study assessed intrapopulation variation in the diet related to habitat use, focusing on differential feeding behaviors between Capercaillie females and males. We used stable isotopes analyses in feathers of Cantabrian Capercaillie, a population living at the southern edge of the range in purely deciduous forests. We analyzed feathers of females and males, and sorted them according to the dominant tree species in the patch where they were found. Mean isotopic values differed both between sexes and among forest types. The latter explained most of the isotopic variance, suggesting that birds consistently selected certain forest types to molt. Capercaillie females showed wider trophic niche and seemingly more intra-gender diversity in resource use than males. The differences between sexes in the trophic variability support the sexual segregation reported in previous studies which is associated with females using the more micro-habitat diverse treeline areas, while males mainly use the inner areas of the forests. Stable isotope analysis proved very useful to assess intersexual niche partitioning in rare species living in rugged terrains where it is logistically difficult to rely on direct approaches (i.e. direct observation, capture and radio-tracking).

KEY WORDS: sexual dimorphism, stable isotope analysis, trophic niche, habitat segregation, *Tetrao urogallus cantabricus*

2 Introduction

3 Adaptations to local resources at the population level are widely acknowledged in wildlife
4 ecology. However, at a finer level of organization individuals or sectors within a population (i.e.
5 age or sex-classes) might specialize on different food resources, depending on differences in
6 habitat use and feeding behaviors (Durell 2000; Catry et al. 2005; Bearhop et al. 2006). Males
7 and females are often subjected to different ecological constraints, and in turn, likely to show
8 distinct feeding behaviors (Myserud 2000; Bolnick et al. 2003; Ruckstuhl 2007). Differential
9 ecological constraints can be driven by distinct nutritional demands (Isaac 2005; Bulte et al.
10 2008), and are frequently related to sexual segregation, i.e. seasonal, distinct habitat use by
11 males and females. This is especially true in highly sexually dimorphic species as the degree of
12 sexual size dimorphism and the level of inter-sex niche segregation are positively correlated
13 (Myserud 2000; Phillips et al. 2009).

14 Capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus*) is the most sexually dimorphic grouse species. Males may
15 almost double females in weight (i.e. males: 3.3-6.5 Kg, females: 1.5-2.5 Kg; Madge et al.
16 2002), and sexes differ in various other morphological, physiological and ecological aspects
17 (e.g. Rintamaki et al. 1984; Borchtchevski 1987). Moreover, Capercaillie is a large, herbivorous
18 bird, with a relatively simple digestive tract, and low intake rates (Sedinger 1997; Van Gils et al.
19 2007); as such, diet is an environmental constraint, likely to be reflected in sexual dimorphism.
20 Diet differences between sexes can be either the result of differences in mean diet composition
21 and preferences, or otherwise related to the diet variance, i.e. generalist or specialist character of
22 each sex, or degree of intra-gender diversity in resource use. Regarding the latter aspect and
23 following the predictions of the niche variation hypothesis, more generalized populations are
24 likely to exhibit more intrapopulation niche variation (Van Valen 1965; Bolnick et al. 2007).
25 We studied the Cantabrian population of Western Capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus cantabricus*),
26 the only population that inhabits all year round purely deciduous forests (Quevedo et al. 2006a,
27 b). Previous studies on Cantabrian Capercaillie showed that habitat partitioning exists during
28 summer in this population, related to sex and reproductive status, and associated with the

29 females' stronger reliance on more heterogeneous treeline habitats while males remain in more
30 homogeneous inner areas of the forests (Bañuelos et al. 2008). These previous studies on the
31 Cantabrian range, altogether with studies on northern Capercaillie populations that report more
32 generalized diets for females (Storch et al. 1991; Odden et al. 2003; Borchtchevski 2009) are
33 hinting possible sexual dimorphism in the diet and feeding behaviors. In addition, molting is a
34 period of the annual cycle that determines reduced home ranges and high site fidelity in other
35 Capercaillie populations (Rolstad et al. 1988; Martínez 1993). In the highly fragmented and
36 heterogeneous Cantabrian landscape - result of a long-term process of both natural
37 fragmentation and historical deforestation by humans (García et al. 2005) - molting site fidelity
38 may be related to the selection of specific forest patches and, thus, it could be studied through
39 analysis of habitat-related diet differentiation.

40 Stable isotope analysis can provide estimates of resource use over longer time periods than
41 conventional diet analyses, which are often based on single feeding events (West et al. 2006;
42 Inger and Bearhop 2008). For instance, the isotopic values in feathers, which are metabolically
43 inert, reflect the resources assimilated by birds during feather formation (Hobson and Clark
44 1992; Bearhop et al. 2002). Hence, feathers provide valuable information on resource use during
45 the cryptic, molting period, when energy demands are highest for Capercaillie (Lindén et al.
46 1984). Stable isotope analysis of molted feathers of Cantabrian Capercaillie is an indirect
47 approach that allows evaluation of sex-related trophic ecology in a sparse population living in a
48 rugged landscape. Specifically, we used stable isotope analysis to, 1) assess intra-specific
49 dietary variation between females and males and, 2) evaluate fidelity to microhabitats during the
50 molting. Our hypothesis is that Capercaillie's marked sexual dimorphism would imply distinct
51 dietary variation of each sex. Therefore, based on previous studies on habitat partitioning for
52 this population (Bañuelos et al. 2008), we predict broader trophic niche in females.

53

54 **Material and methods**

55 *Study area and sample collection*

56 Our study area includes the entire Cantabrian Capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus cantabricus*) range
57 in the Cantabrian Mountains (provinces of Asturias and León, NW Spain, Fig.1). This rugged
58 landscape contains the largest portion of the remnant Atlantic deciduous forest on the Iberian
59 Peninsula, at the southernmost boundaries of this vegetation type (Polunin and Walters 1985;
60 García et al. 2005). These are mostly semi-natural forests with a long history of human use that
61 resulted in a highly fragmented pattern, with highly interspersed patches dominated by different
62 tree species (García et al. 2005). Beech *Fagus sylvatica*, mountain birch *Betula pubescens* and
63 sessile oak *Quercus petraea* are the dominant canopy species in the Cantabrian forests. The
64 treeline lies at about 1600 m a.s.l., and is a mixture of forest, tree heaths *Erica arborea*,
65 common heather *Calluna vulgaris* and bilberry *Vaccinium myrtillus*, broom formations (*Genista*
66 *florida*, *Cytisus scoparius*), grazing meadows, and scree slopes.

67 A total of 125 different areas of aprox. 1 Km² in the vicinity of leks and known molting sites
68 were surveyed during three consecutive molting seasons (2005-2007). These surveys consisted
69 of drives conducted from 15th July to 15th September, in areas where Capercaillie was present
70 according to spring surveys of lek occupancy, and summer survey of reproductive success. In
71 the Cantabrian Mountains, Capercaillie reproduction appears to occur 3–4 weeks later than in
72 northern populations (Martínez 1993; Moss et al. 2001; Wegge et al. 2005), and thus, molting is
73 also delayed. See Bañuelos et al. (2008) for details on those surveys.

74 The feathers of Capercaillie females and males are easily differentiated by color and pattern. All
75 feathers found in these surveys were positioned with a GPS and stored in paper envelopes. We
76 collected Capercaillie feathers in 533 different points. We arbitrarily set a minimum distance of
77 500 m between feathers of the same sex to minimize the use of feathers from the same
78 individuals, up to a total of 126 analyzed feathers (Fig. 1).

79 To evaluate microhabitat fidelity during the molt, we grouped feathers according to the
80 dominant tree species in the patch where they were found - birch, beech or sessile oak - in a 500
81 m radius buffer around each feather. Each major canopy species roughly defines an array of
82 accompanying plants. Thus, we used them as proxies to distinguish forest patches. Information
83 on canopy species was extracted from a 1:25.000 GIS database (see Quevedo et al. 2006a, b, for
84 details).

85 Feathers were split into six subsets for analysis: female feathers in birch (n = 18), beech (n = 21)
86 and oak patches (n = 13) and male feathers in birch (n = 15), beech (n = 37) and oak patches (n
87 = 22).

88

89 *Stable isotope analysis*

90 We measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios in feathers to evaluate sexual- and habitat-mediated
91 differences in trophic variability of the Cantabrian Capercaille population. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratio traces
92 the importance of different carbon pools to a consumer, whilst $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is an effective tracer of the
93 origin of nitrogen in plants (Kelly 2000; Inger and Bearhop 2008). Therefore, the combination
94 of both isotopes, together with the application of quantitative metrics (Layman et al. 2007) is a
95 powerful approach to assess both the origin of resources and the trophic variability of
96 populations (Newsome et al. 2007; Inger and Bearhop 2008). Only body-covert feathers were
97 analysed to ensure that all feathers had a similar growing period. Feather samples were cleaned
98 to remove oils and debris by rinsing in a 2:1 chloroform-methanol solution for 24 hours, then
99 dried in an oven at 60°C to constant weight (e.g. Hobson and Bairlein 2003; Symes and
100 Woodborne 2009). Subsequently, feathers were frozen in liquid nitrogen and immediately
101 ground to fine powder using a MM200 ball mill. Subsamples of 1 mg (\pm 0.2 mg) were packed
102 into 6 × 4 mm tin capsules for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analyses, which were performed using a
103 continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer at UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility (USA).
104 Stable isotopes ratios are expressed in δ notation, as part per thousand deviation from standard

105 material, Pee Dee belemnite limestone for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and atmospheric nitrogen for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ according to
106 the equation:

107 $\delta X = [(R_{\text{sample}} / R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 1000$ where X is ^{15}N or ^{13}C and R is the corresponding ratio
108 $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$ or $^{13}\text{C}:^{12}\text{C}$.

109 To discard a spatial structure of the isotopic values in feathers we compared the standardized
110 Euclidian geographical distance and isotopic distance matrices. We standardized the
111 geographical and isotopic values by subtracting the mean of all elements in the matrix from
112 each observation and then dividing by the SD (Fortin and Gurevitch 2001). The significance of
113 the relationship was assessed using a simple Mantel test with 1000 randomizations with the
114 software *zt* provided by Bonnet and Van de Peer (2002).

115

116 *Trophic niche breadth and population specialization*

117 To calculate trophic niche breadth and trophic variability we used quantitative metrics based on
118 the position of individuals in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ space, and Euclidean distances (Layman et al. 2007)
119 We applied those metrics to the six subsets of the population (see above), using individuals as
120 measurement units. The individuals of each subset were plotted in a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ niche space. To
121 estimate the total niche of each subset we measured the total area of the convex hull (TA) that
122 included the isotopic values of all individuals. To obtain null distributions of TA and test the
123 significance of differences between subsets, we randomized the empirical data set of isotopic
124 signatures 1000 times and calculated TA in each resampled data set. P values were
125 approximated as the proportion of resampled data sets that exceeded the observed differences;
126 for forest patch comparisons, false discovery rate was controlled using the FDR adjustment
127 (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995).

128 To estimate the trophic variability within each subset of the population we calculated Euclidean
129 distances among individuals in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ bi-plot. First, we calculated the distance of each

130 individual to the isotopic centroid of its subset (CD), providing an index of the trophic diversity
131 in females and males. Then we calculated the coefficient of variation of the distances from each
132 individual to its same-sex neighbors in the isotopic space (CVND), which gives a measure of
133 the clustering of values and trophic redundancy (Quevedo et al. 2009).

134 Two-way ANOVAs and post hoc Tukey tests were used to test for differences among forest
135 patches and between sexes regarding mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, CD (square root transformed
136 to achieve normality) and CVND.

137 CD and CVND were calculated in a GIS. Convex hulls and TA were calculated using package
138 Adehabitat (Calenge 2006), an extension to R statistical environment (R Development Core
139 Team 2010), which we used for all the statistical analyses.

141 **Results**

142 Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values significantly differed between males and females and
143 among forest patches (Table 1, Fig. 2). Forest patch explained the majority of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (75 %) and
144 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variance (40%; the rest of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variance was equally distributed between sex and residual
145 variance). Capercaillie feathers in oak patches showed higher values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than in birch and
146 beech patches whereas birch patches showed higher values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than beech and oak ones
147 (Tukey HSD tests, Table 2, Fig. 2). Males showed higher values for both isotopes (Tukey HSD
148 tests, Table 2, Fig. 2).

149 Capercaillie total niche space (TA) varied among forest patches and between sexes. TA was
150 significantly bigger in beech and birch patches than in oak ones (Table 3). Females showed
151 significantly larger values than males (Table 3).

152 CD and CVND were significantly different among forest patches and CD was marginally larger
153 for females (Table 3). Neither CVND between sexes nor both interactions significantly differed.
154 CD was significantly shorter in oak patches than in birch ones ($p = 0.013$ in Tukey HSD tests)
155 whereas the significant differences in CVND among forest patches were determined by lower
156 values for oak patches than for birch and beech patches ($p = 0.006$ and $p = 0.002$ in Tukey HSD
157 tests, respectively, Table 3).

158 There was no spatial structure in the isotopic values, i.e. no significant correlation was found
159 between the standardized Euclidian geographical distance and the isotopic distance matrices
160 (Mantel test: $r = 0.004$, $p = 0.42$).

163 **Discussion**

164 *Trophic sexual dimorphism*

165 A stable isotope analysis of molted feathers is a valuable, unintrusive tool to study the trophic
166 ecology of an endangered, elusive bird, the Cantabrian Capercaillie. We found that females and
167 males of this Capercaillie population showed differences in their average isotopic signatures,
168 which could be related to distinct habitat use; females and males also showed distinct trophic
169 variability, both results consistent with a sexually dimorphic species with marked separation of
170 reproductive roles. Such differences suggest relevant dietary segregation within the population
171 among individuals from different sexes, likely related to spatial segregation of females and
172 males during the molt.

173 Using stable isotopes to study resource selection by herbivores has difficulties because of the
174 wide variability of isotopic signatures in primary producers; intrinsic variances in plant
175 signatures in pure C3 environments could have been expected to yield statistically undetectable
176 differences between herbivore individuals, whereas carnivores in a similar system should render
177 simpler interpretations because the variability of primary producers is averaged up the
178 successive trophic levels (e.g. Fry 2008). Despite to the presumed difficulties, we found marked
179 differences between sexes within the different microhabitats. Males and females differed in
180 average isotopic values, with males showing higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic signatures (Fig. 2);
181 they also differed in the trophic niche breadth and variability, reflecting distinct dietary variation
182 of each sex. Regardless of the smaller sample size for females, their overall trophic niche (TA)
183 was wider (Table 3) suggesting a more generalized diet (Storch et al. 1991; Odden et al. 2003;
184 Borchtchevski 2009). In addition, longer distances to the isotopic centroid (CD; Table 3)
185 indicated higher trophic diversity, i.e., females showed greater variability in resource use.
186 Overall, differential trophic variability for each sex is apparent; females show a wider niche,
187 with a higher level of intra-gender diversity compared to males that had more specialized diets

188 with less intra-gender variability in resource use. These results thus lend support to the niche
189 variation hypothesis (Van Valen 1965; Bolnick et al. 2007).

190 Our results suggest distinct trophic variability for each gender, which may be related to spatial
191 separation in foraging; females use the more diverse and less homogeneous treeline forests,
192 while males mainly use the inner areas of the forests during molting (Rolstad et al. 1988;
193 Ménoni 1990; Bañuelos et al. 2008). Our main contribution to previous knowledge of
194 Capercaillie feeding ecology (Storch et al. 1991; Odden et al. 2003; Borchtchevski 2009) is to
195 reveal sex-related trophic variability in Capercaillie by means of stable isotope analysis, and
196 trophic differences likely driven by habitat segregation. Using radio-tracking data, summer
197 spatial sexual segregation is also found in Scandinavian Capercaillie populations related to
198 differential sexual constraints of both predation and nutritional requirements (Rolstad et al.
199 1988), but not in the Alps where both sexes were reported to overlap in habitat use, converging
200 in old forests with a well developed understory (Storch 1993).

201 From the viewpoint of conservation biology, results indicated sex-biased vulnerability to habitat
202 change and likely differential responsiveness to habitat management. Thus, it should be again
203 stressed that conservation measures should take into account for sex-related variation, (e.g.
204 Durell 2000; Bolnick et al. 2003).

205

206 *Site fidelity during the molting season*

207 The kind of forest patch explained most variance for both isotopes. This is a very interesting
208 result considering (i) the montane forest structure in the Cantabrian Mountains, (ii) our
209 sampling design and (iii) the ecology of Capercaillie. First, our study area included the montane
210 forests within the entire Cantabrian Capercaillie distribution range (Fig. 1). These forests show a
211 highly fragmented pattern, where different canopy species often build small, interspersed
212 patches (García et al. 2005). Second, feathers sampled in a given year and sorted to the
213 dominant patch type where they were found, were actually formed during the previous molting

214 season, i.e. one year before collection. Third, Capercaillie is an herbivorous bird that needs to
215 devote extra-time to foraging (Sedinger 1997; Van Gils et al. 2007), and it is likely to use
216 income resources to grow feathers (Thomas 1988; Meijer and Drent 1999). On the basis of these
217 previous studies, Capercaillie molting and foraging activities are likely to overlap in time and
218 space, and hence feathers are likely to reflect the trophic resources used in the forest patches
219 where molt and growth occur. Thus, the striking differences found among average isotopic
220 signatures of feathers collected in patches dominated by distinct tree species suggest that birds
221 consistently selected certain forest types to molt. These differences might also indicate reduced
222 home ranges during this period of the annual cycle due to fragmentation and small patch size.
223 These findings agree with the smaller summer home ranges and with the observed return to
224 summer molting places in consecutive years in other Capercaillie populations (Rolstad et al.
225 1988; Storch 1993). It is worth noting that the high site fidelity suggested here is microhabitat-
226 related, i.e. individuals are seemingly returning to the same kind of forest patch during the
227 molting period.

228 The isotopic approach in terrestrial systems has been widely used to assess predator diets or to
229 evaluate the relative contribution of C3 and C4 plants to herbivore diets in tropical areas
230 (reviewed in Kelly 2000, for birds and mammals). However, its application to study the feeding
231 ecology of terrestrial herbivores inhabiting pure C3 plant environments is quite challenging
232 (Herrera et al. 2003; Stewart et al. 2003; Feranec 2007; Symes and Woodborne 2009). In this
233 study, we have found distinct average isotopic values in the feathers found in each forest type,
234 which might be a consequence of the set of particular conditions that determine the dominance
235 of one species or the other in the canopy of the forest patches. For instance, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ indicates
236 differences in moisture regimes; hence the higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in oak patches may reflect more
237 xeric conditions in this kind of forest (Heaton 1999). However, this study was not designed to
238 find a mechanistic proximate explanation for the isotopic signature of each subset of the
239 population and further research on fractionation and isotopic routing for exclusively C3-plant

240 consumers would greatly improve the possibilities of this approach and, therefore, the
241 knowledge of the feeding ecology of terrestrial herbivores inhabiting these environments.

242 *Isotopic applications and caveats*

243 Stable isotope analyses do have several advantages over traditional techniques (reviewed in
244 West et al. 2006; Inger and Bearhop 2008). However, the approach is indirect; it does not have
245 the resolution required to capture subtle, yet meaningful, differences in resource use that could
246 be derived from analyses of stomach content or droppings, approaches more directly related to
247 birds' natural history. Hence, future research combining both isotopic and microhistological
248 analysis of inert tissues and droppings, respectively, may provide more robust dietary
249 information spanning different time-scales (e.g. Hobson and Clark 1992; Bearhop et al. 2002).
250 This would be particularly useful to study the trophic ecology of elusive species (i.e. sexual or
251 age-class trophic partitioning, population trophic structure; Post 2003; Newsome et al. 2007).
252 Furthermore, unintrusive studies using droppings to obtain data on population structure and
253 stress levels (e.g. Thiel et al. 2005; Jacob et al. 2010), combined with isotopic information may
254 provide mechanistic insights into the feeding ecology of animals and open new research paths in
255 trophic ecology.

256 Other caveats that could affect our results are related to the intrinsic isotopic variance in
257 resources, and to different metabolic routing of distinct diet components (Matthews and
258 Mazumder 2004; Araújo et al. 2007; Martínez del Rio and Anderson-Sprecher 2008). In our
259 study we minimized potential biases due to intrinsic resource variance by including
260 microhabitat (patch type) as a variable in the analyses. In addition, our goal was mainly to get
261 comparative measures of trophic niche, rather than estimating the proportion of diet items;
262 although the lack of baseline suggests a cautious interpretation of the results, we considered that
263 baseline isotopic variance is unlikely to obscure the clear patterns identified here.

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415 **Tables**

416 **Table 1**

417 ANOVA table comparing the effects of sex and forest patch on the isotopic signatures of
 418 Capercaillie feathers.

Variable	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$
Sex	$F_{1,122} = 4.56; p = 0.034$	$F_{1,122} = 5.56; p = 0.019$
Forest	$F_{2,122} = 10.30; p < 0.001$	$F_{2,122} = 3.49; p = 0.033$
Sex*Forest	$F_{2,122} = 3.03; p = 0.052$	$F_{2,122} = 0.79; p = 0.453$

421 **Table 2**

422 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values (mean \pm SD) in feathers of Capercaillie for sex and forest patch .

423 Different superscripts indicate significant differences among groups after Tukey tests ($p < 0.05$).

Sex	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$
Male	-24.1 ± 0.6^a	1.5 ± 1.0^a
Female	-24.4 ± 0.5^b	1.1 ± 1.3^b
Forest		
Birch	-24.3 ± 0.5^a	1.9 ± 1.4^a
Beech	-24.5 ± 0.6^a	1.2 ± 1.1^b
Oak	-23.9 ± 0.5^b	1.1 ± 1.0^b

427 **Table 3**

428 Summary of trophic niche metrics (mean \pm SD) and comparisons among birch, beech and oak forests and between males and females. TA represents the total
 429 area of the convex hulls that included $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values of each of the subsets; CD shows the distance of each individual to the isotopic centroid of its
 430 subpopulation; CVND is the coefficient of variation of distances from each individual to its neighbors in the isotopic space. *P* values for TA were estimated as
 431 the proportion of resampled data sets that exceeded the observed difference; for the forest variable, *p* values correspond to birch-beech, birch-oak and beech-
 432 oak forest patch comparisons after controlling for false discovery rate (FDR). *F* values correspond to two-way ANOVAs.

Forest	TA		CD		CVND	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Birch	4.37	8.38	1.30 \pm 0.75	1.53 \pm 0.78	0.54 \pm 0.12	0.54 \pm 0.09
Beech	7.36	7.82	1.03 \pm 0.55	1.16 \pm 0.82	0.52 \pm 0.13	0.56 \pm 0.12
Oak	3.48	4.08	0.88 \pm 0.41	1.06 \pm 0.47	0.46 \pm 0.06	0.45 \pm 0.11
Variable						
Sex	p = 0.012		F _{1,122} = 3.84; p = 0.052		F _{1,122} = 1.09; p = 0.29	
Forest	p = 0.22; p = 0.050; p = 0.012		F _{2,122} = 4.88; p = 0.013		F _{2,122} = 7.09; p < 0.001	
Sex*Forest	-		F _{2,122} = 0.06; p = 0.94		F _{2,122} = 0.73; p = 0.48	

433 **Figure captions**

434 **Fig. 1**

435 Study area and approximate area of occupancy of Cantabrian Capercaillie (in grey), mapped by
436 plotting buffer areas of 2-km radius around display grounds occupied in 2007 (see Storch 2007,
437 for criteria). Flags correspond to feather collection points for males (n = 74) and white dots for
438 females.

439 **Fig. 2**

440 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values (mean \pm SE) for males and females of Cantabrian Capercaillie in
441 birch, beech and oak forest patches.

Fig. 1

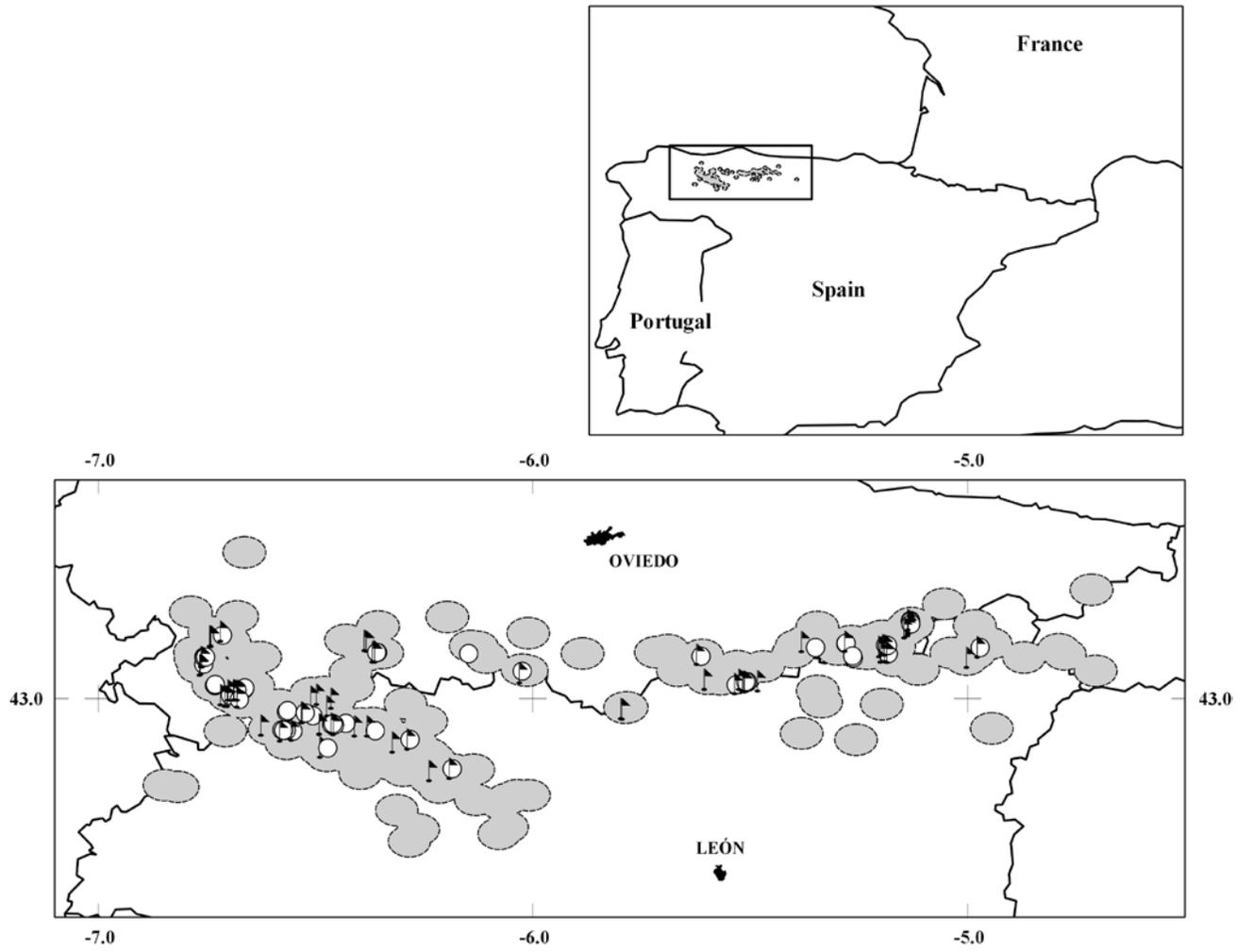


Fig. 2

