

Grey seal *Halichoerus grypus* breeding sites contribute substantial carrion biomass to the Firth of Forth

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ABSTRACT: Decomposing organic matter is central to the recycling of energy and nutrients in all ecosystems. Few studies have investigated the role of animal carrion biomass in ecosystem functioning, and quantitative data on carrion biomass are lacking. The role of carrion inputs in the marine environment specifically is poorly understood. The grey seal *Halichoerus grypus* breeding colony on the Isle of May in the Firth of Forth, Scotland, provides insight into the contribution of regular carrion pulses to the surrounding marine ecosystem. This study analysed 3 breeding locations with a range of topographies, elevations and tidal influences. Carcasses were mapped from aerial images and ground visual surveys in the 2008 and 2012 breeding seasons. Generalised linear mixed models were used to explore the degree to which breeding location and the position of a carcass influenced its availability to marine scavengers. Carcasses closer to shore were more likely to be completely displaced to the marine environment, and this effect varied with breeding location. An approximate 0.9 to 1.3 tonnes of biomass per hectare of breeding site per year were released into the marine system. For carcasses that were below the high-water spring tide range but remained on shore, we quantified the typical duration of submersion to range from 5% to 44% of the time carcasses were ashore. Additionally, up to 808 kg of carrion was accessible to marine scavengers while washed by tides. Our results suggest breeding colonies of grey seals may contribute significantly to the carrion biomass available in local marine systems.

KEY WORDS: Marine carrion · Carcass · Grey seal · *Halichoerus grypus* · Pinniped · Scavenging

1. Introduction

Decomposition of organic matter contributes to nutrient and energy cycling through ecosystems (Barton et al. 2019). The role of plant decomposition as a central component of ecosystem functioning is broadly recognised (Gessner et al. 2010). Yet, the significance of dead animal (carrion) biomass to ecosystem functioning and nutrient budgets is not well understood (Barton et al. 2019, Benbow et al. 2020). Although carrion forms a minor component of the dead biomass resource pool, it is likely to have a disproportionate effect on ecosystems relative to equivalent amounts of plant biomass (Parmenter & Macmahon 2009, Barton et al. 2013, 2019). This is because carrion is a comparatively nutrient-rich, ephemeral and spatially patchy contribution to ecosystems and an important resource for many specialist species (Barton et al. 2013, 2019). Carrion, as a heterotrophically derived resource, should therefore be considered separately from plant biomass for a clearer understanding of ecosystem function (Barton et al. 2019). While carrion inputs to other ecosystems have been

44 more widely documented (e.g. freshwater rivers, forests and marine pelagic systems; Barton
45 et al. 2019), the extent and importance of carrion input to coastal marine systems is poorly
46 understood.

47 The importance of marine carrion inputs in supplying energy varies across different
48 marine systems (Davenport et al. 2016). Large vertebrate carcasses falling into the nutrient-
49 poor deep sea from surface waters represent a large energy resource, particularly for
50 scavenging communities (Higgs et al. 2014, Smith & Baco 2021). The role of marine
51 scavengers in coastal waters is being increasingly studied in light of human activities such as
52 fishing and associated discards, which lead to high carrion input (Ramsay et al. 1997,
53 Groenewold & Fonds 2000, Link & Almeida 2002, Davenport et al. 2016, Depestele et al.
54 2018). In productive shallow-water systems, carrion inputs may be a minor ephemeral
55 resource exploited by facultative rather than obligate scavengers (Britton & Morton 1994,
56 Davenport et al. 2016). However, the influence of carrion availability in shallow waters on
57 community structure is not well known (Ramsay et al. 1997) and the prevalence of
58 scavenging is greatly underestimated in the marine environment (Wilson & Wolkovich
59 2011).

60 Regular pulses of carrion associated with breeding aggregations of animals in coastal
61 systems may contribute a significant, predictable food resource for local scavenger
62 communities (Quaggiotto et al. 2018). The potential of coastal marine mammal aggregations
63 as a regular source of carrion to local marine communities is not well understood (Watts et al.
64 2011). Yet, marine mammals can at particular times be significant carriers of energy and
65 nutrients across ecosystem boundaries (Ellis et al. 2003, King et al. 2007). Carrion biomass
66 from marine mammals may be located in the terrestrial, intertidal or marine area, and
67 therefore has the potential to support both terrestrial and marine scavenging communities.

68 There are limited studies on the composition of coastal marine scavenging
69 communities along with a general lack of knowledge on carrion in the context of ecosystem
70 functioning in this system (Schlacher et al. 2013, Quaggiotto et al. 2018). Quaggiotto et al.
71 (2016) represents one of the few experimental studies documenting the successional pattern
72 of scavenging on marine mammal (seal) carrion in the subtidal marine environment. Results
73 from this study show that the composition of a subtidal scavenging community may be
74 dominated by benthic invertebrates (e.g. Echinodermata and Malacostraca), with coastal fish
75 species and bacterial activity also present as part of the scavenging community. However,
76 there has been limited research on the effect of carrion on energy and nutrient flows in food
77 webs (Benbow et al. 2020).

78 Grey seals *Halichoerus grypus* aggregate in seasonal breeding colonies, with pups
79 remaining ashore until after weaning. Breeding colonies of grey seals produce a predictable
80 influx of high-quality carrion for surrounding ecosystems in the form of pup carcasses and
81 afterbirth (Quaggiotto et al. 2018). This potential resource has been increasing in the Firth of
82 Forth in recent years as the seal colony expanded, from 30 pups in 1977 (Harwood & Wyle
83 1987) to 1875 pups born in 2008 (Russell et al. 2017). Given mean annual pup mortality rates
84 of $13.3 \pm 0.9\%$ (mean \pm SE), there were approximately 3200 deceased pups produced
85 between 2000 and 2012, representing a potentially considerable quantity of carrion
86 (Quaggiotto et al. 2018). However, tidal action, weather conditions and coastal topography
87 may affect the transfer of seal pup carrion to the local marine system. Extreme weather
88 conditions, steep shore gradients and strong currents could also facilitate the transfer of
89 carrion further offshore into deeper waters.

90 The present study aimed to quantify the input of grey seal pup carrion biomass over 2
91 pupping seasons (2008 and 2012) to the Isle of May marine system in the Firth of Forth,

92 Scotland. We quantified the carrion available from pup carcasses at 3 distinct locations and
93 assessed what proportion of carrion enters the marine system through carcass displacement
94 and submersion by tidal action. The biomass from seal carcasses available to marine
95 scavengers was estimated during the breeding seasons of 2008 and 2012. We discuss the
96 importance of this carrion input into the marine coastal system.

97 **2. Materials & Methods**

98 **2.1. Study area**

99 The Isle of May (56°11.202'N, 2°33.342'W) is located 8 km from the southeast coast
100 of Fife, Scotland, at the mouth of the Firth of Forth. The island is 1.9 km long and 0.5 km
101 wide (45 ha), with the west and southeast coasts surrounded by cliffs (Fig. 1). The island is
102 designated a Special Area of Conservation (SAC) (EC Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC)
103 because of the grey seal breeding colony. The northern part of the island mainly consists of
104 low-lying rocky terrain and is the primary area of pup production (Pomeroy et al. 2000a). As
105 the colony has grown, other areas have been occupied including the tussock grass areas and
106 rocky cliff-lined beaches of the south. Three site locations – East Tarbet on the northeast of
107 the island, The Loan on the southeast of the island and Pilgrim's Haven on the southwest
108 (Fig. 1b) – were chosen to study the effect of proximity to shore in varying topographies and
109 tidal influences on the entry of seal carcasses into the marine system. East Tarbet is relatively
110 sheltered from wave and tide action in some areas, yet possesses a long, thin channel
111 stretching to the breeding colony, which effectively increases the coastline and offers little
112 protection from extreme tidal surges and waves. The Loan, although on the east coast of the
113 island and therefore more affected by easterly storms, is relatively sheltered from tidal action.
114 Most breeding females and pups at The Loan are located on the elevated grassy areas behind
115 raised rocky outcrops separating them from the sea. Pilgrim's Haven is a low-lying rocky
116 beach influenced by tidal action and surrounded by cliffs. There is limited overland mixing of
117 seals between the sample locations due to distance between locations, and the presence of
118 natural barriers such as walls and cliffs.

119 **2.2. Data collection**

120 Aerial surveys covering the island and a walked visual census that systematically
121 searched seal breeding locations were used to count seal pup carcasses in 2 pupping seasons
122 on the Isle of May (October – December 2008 and 2012). Images from aerial surveys were
123 supplied by the Sea Mammal Research Unit (SMRU, University of St Andrews). Adult grey
124 seals and pups were identified from digitised aerial images captured between 14 October and
125 28 November 2012 and from microfiche images captured between 18 October and 30
126 November 2008. Both sets of aerial images consisted of 5 surveys flown during each season.
127 Examples of portions of the high-resolution stitched imagery are available in the Supplement
128 (Fig. S1, www.int-res.com...). Using this method, the locations of carcasses were estimated to
129 be accurate to ± 3 m (Pomeroy et al. 2000b). Walked visual censuses of carcasses were
130 carried out at the end of both breeding seasons (late November to early December). The
131 geographic locations of carcasses were therefore identified at 6 time points in both breeding
132 seasons: the 5 dates on which aerial surveys took place and a final catalogue of carcass
133 locations from the final walked visual census (Table S1 in the Supplement, www.int-res.com...).
134 During walked visual census, when a carcass was encountered, sex (where
135 possible), developmental stage, geographic location and any water influence acting on the
136 carcass were recorded. In 2012, aerial carcass identification was also verified by data
137 collected by visual census. These visual censuses were conducted from hides near the colony

138 areas of East Tarbet and The Loan, and a remote camera at Pilgrim's Haven (to avoid
139 disruption to the seal colony at this location). Each carcass was tracked from the point it first
140 appeared in the photographic record either until it was absent from images or until the final
141 walked visual census.

142 To differentiate dead from live pups in the aerial images and microfiche, a set of 6
143 weighted criteria were developed (Table 1). Evidence such as bloodstains on pelage and the
144 attendance of gulls were weighted as more reliable indicators of a dead pup than other
145 categories such as possible entrapment. Each pup or carcass identified in the aerial images
146 was assessed on this basis with some requiring several criteria to be fulfilled (as described in
147 Table 1) before they were designated as a carcass.

148 **2.3. Statistical analysis**

149 The vertical and horizontal distances from carcasses to the shore (defined as
150 Admiralty Chart Datum; ACD) were calculated. Horizontal measures were taken from the
151 carcass to ACD by the shortest downhill route and vertical distance was derived from the
152 elevation of the carcass above ACD. The duration carcasses remained present was calculated
153 from the time of first observation to the survey in which the carcass was recorded as no
154 longer present. Two statistical models were used to understand the influence of the proximity
155 to shore and then tidal influence on pup carcasses. A binomial GLMM was used to verify that
156 carcasses closer to shore were more likely to be removed as the pupping season progressed. A
157 negative binomial GLMM was then used to predict the length of time carcasses remained
158 ashore and predict the average length of time a carcass remained in each tide strata.

159 All statistical analyses were carried out in R v.3.6.1 (R Core Team 2018). Published
160 data and code used in these analyses are available for download (Burns 2022). A mixed
161 effects modelling approach was adopted to include 'year' as a random intercept in all models
162 to account for the repeated measures at each colony location in both years. Generalised linear
163 mixed models (GLMMs) were fitted in the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2015). A binomial
164 GLMM was fitted to the data to estimate the probability of a carcass being present (or absent)
165 as a function of colony location and the carcass's proximity to shore (calculated as the vector
166 distance from ACD of horizontal and vertical components). For carcasses identified as absent
167 after an initial sighting, a negative binomial GLMM was used to model the duration carcasses
168 remained visible as a function of tide stratum and colony location. Variance inflation factors
169 (VIFs) were used to identify collinearity in the explanatory variables. All VIF values for the 3
170 variables tested were <3 , and so were retained in the model selection process (Zuur et al.
171 2009). Backwards stepwise model selection was used to identify the optimal models by
172 Akaike's information criterion (AIC) (Table S2 and Table S3 in the Supplement). We
173 selected models based on the rules: (i) more parsimonious models are preferable, (ii) smaller
174 AIC is preferable, and if these contradict, (iii) the more complex model was selected when
175 $\Delta AIC > 2$. The models were validated by visually analysing residual plots to check for
176 normal distributions and the absence of any patterns (Figs S2 and S3 in the Supplement).

177 **2.4. Calculation of carrion biomass entering the marine system**

178 The mass of all carcasses was estimated from the earliest image in which the carcass
179 was present. The developmental stage was assessed for each carcass from the aerial images.
180 Three categories of developmental stage were possible to identify. Categories, displayed in
181 Table 2, were adapted from Boyd & Laws (1962) and Kovacs & Lavigne (1986). The mass
182 (kg) of carcasses at each developmental stage (Table 2) was calculated using the equations
183 (reproduced in Equations in the Supplement) provided by Kovacs & Lavigne (1986). The
184 mean age of each developmental category was used in the equations and a mass was

185 calculated for each category by taking a mean between male and female values. These values
186 were assumed to be the maximum carcass mass given that they are based on live pups.
187 Minimum masses were calculated from Quaggiotto et al. (2018), where estimated masses
188 were adjusted by 8.02 kg, the average difference in mass measured between alive and dead
189 pups. Estimated values were calculated as the mean of female and male pups at each
190 developmental stage. Stages I and II were indistinguishable in the present study and pooled
191 average mass was calculated across both stages for male and females.

192 For carcasses assumed to be washed away during the breeding season, the 2 mass
193 values were used to estimate the total carrion biomass. To also understand the quantity of
194 carrion available to marine scavengers when carcasses were still ashore but inundated by tide,
195 tide heights for the duration of each breeding season were used to define tide strata (Fig. 2).
196 The hourly tide heights for both breeding seasons were sourced from the British
197 Oceanography Data Centre (www.bodc.ac.uk) for the port of Leith, approximately 44 km
198 west of the Isle of May. Tide strata were defined as: Dry above High Water Spring (HWS),
199 HWS to High Water Neap (HWN), HWN to Low Water Neap (LWN) and LWN to Low
200 Water Spring (LWS). The measures of elevation were used to allocate individual carcasses to
201 a particular tide stratum. Carcasses identified in the Dry tide stratum were considered to not
202 contribute carrion to the marine environment. Conversely, all carcasses in the lowest tide
203 strata (LWN–LWS) were considered continuously submerged and available to marine
204 scavengers. The mean elevation of carcasses in the 2 middle tide strata (HWS–HWN and
205 HWN–LWN) were calculated and used to estimate the tidal influence on an ‘average’
206 carcass. The total time submerged was then calculated for the mean carcass elevation in each
207 of the 2 middle tide strata. Carcasses were assumed to be submerged when tide height was
208 equal to or greater than their elevation.

209 **3. Results**

210 **3.1. Carcass abundance**

211 A total of 253 carcasses were identified in all 3 study sites: 133 carcasses in the 2008
212 breeding season and 120 carcasses in 2012 (Table 3). However, there were distinct
213 differences in carcass density between sites. Carcass density was much higher at Pilgrim’s
214 Haven, producing densities of 80.6 to 124.9 carcasses per hectare, compared to the other sites
215 (The Loan and East Tarbet), which exhibited densities of 6.2 to 9.9 carcasses per hectare
216 (Table 3). Of the total 253 carcasses identified, 59% were still present by the end of the
217 breeding season (60% in 2018; 58% in 2012).

218 **3.2. Effect of carcass proximity to shore on availability to marine scavengers**

219 All of the predictor variables (location and proximity to shore) and the interaction
220 term (location: proximity to shore) were retained during model selection (Tables S2 and S4 in
221 the Supplement). At all 3 locations, carcasses first observed closer to chart datum had a
222 higher probability of being absent from later surveys (Fig. 3). Pilgrim’s Haven and The Loan
223 displayed similar trends, and carcasses in these locations had significantly lower probability
224 of being washed to sea compared with East Tarbet (Fig. 3). As expected, the duration seal
225 pup carcasses remained on land decreased significantly in tide strata closer to chart datum
226 (Fig. 4). Colony location was dropped during model selection, indicating that this effect was
227 similar across all 3 locations (Tables S3 and S5 in the Supplement). Carcasses that remained
228 in the Dry stratum, above HWS, remained visible in aerial images for about 20 d. Carcasses
229 that were influenced by tidal action remain for shorter periods of 13 d or fewer. Closer to

230 chart datum, carcasses were washed away from the lower 2 strata after 11 and 8 d,
231 respectively.

232 **3.3. Biomass input to the marine system**

233 The estimated biomass of seal pup carrion, remaining on land and displaced to the
234 sea, was calculated across the 3 study locations for the 2008 and 2012 breeding seasons
235 (Table 4). These 3 areas produced a total mass of carcasses between 2234.60 and 2990.60 kg
236 in 2008 and between 1941.43 and 2660.79 kg in 2012. This is equivalent to between 2273.54
237 and 3114.07 kg ha⁻¹ in 2008 and between 1597.82 and 2193.14 kg ha⁻¹ in 2012. In both
238 seasons, approximately 930 to 1296 kg ha⁻¹ of these seal pup carcasses were displaced into
239 the marine environment (Table 4). Additionally, prior to carcasses fully entering the marine
240 environment, some were available to marine scavengers at the shoreline when located
241 between HWN and HWS, and between LWN and HWN inundated by the tide (Table 5).
242 Carcasses submerged in this way provided additional access for marine scavengers to this
243 resource for up to 44% of the time they remained on shore.

244 **4. Discussion**

245 The range of estimated of carrion biomass entering the marine system from the 3
246 study sites presented here on the Isle of May is equivalent to approximately 0.9 tonnes to just
247 less than 1.3 tonnes per hectare annually. This figure represents the first time carrion biomass
248 entering the marine environment has been calculated for this coastal ecosystem. The
249 estimated 0.9 to 1.3 tonnes is based on only 2 years of data, and further study would be
250 required to confirm the annual variation in carrion biomass entering the marine system. The
251 regular, predictable influx of seal pup carrion likely constitutes an important energy subsidy
252 for marine scavengers in this region (Quaggiotto et al. 2016, 2018). Observations of
253 individual seal carcasses have provided insights into scavenging community assemblages in
254 both the coastal terrestrial and marine environment (Quaggiotto et al. 2016). Further studies
255 have demonstrated seal carrion sustains avian scavengers thereby affecting ecosystem
256 structure and function as an important energy transfer pathway (Quaggiotto et al. 2018, Mills
257 et al. 2021). However, there is limited understanding of how individual carcasses scale with
258 mortality at population and community levels, as quantitative data are lacking on carrion
259 contribution to ecosystems. Carrion contributions, especially in the coastal marine
260 environment, have been difficult to quantify due to the rapid turnover of this labile resource
261 (Benbow et al. 2020). Modelling studies have also demonstrated that carrion biomass may be
262 a large natural source of food compared to other carrion inputs, for example, fisheries
263 discards (e.g. Depestele et al. 2018). It is important to quantify natural carrion from seal
264 colonies at a larger seascape scale to more fully understand the role of carrion biomass in
265 wider ecosystem functioning and in ecosystem energy and nutrient budgets (Benbow et al.
266 2020).

267 The overall abundance of grey seal pup carcasses was similar in both the 2008 and
268 2012 breeding seasons. Pup carcass abundance was also similar across the 3 study locations
269 (Pilgrim's Haven, The Loan and East Tarbet), but with substantially higher carcass densities
270 recorded at the Pilgrim's Haven site, even though this site had smaller available space.
271 Breeding aggregations of grey seals maintain relatively constant densities, through threat
272 displays and aggressive behaviour (Caudron et al. 1998). On the Isle of May, this is one adult
273 female to 10 m² (Pomeroy et al. 2000b). Therefore, the high carcass densities recorded at
274 Pilgrim's Haven are likely a consequence of higher mortality rate at this location as a result
275 of being a lower quality breeding site, rather than a higher density of pupping mothers (Twiss
276 et al. 2003).

277 Whether a site is prime or sub-optimal habitat can be influenced by local topography.
278 In the elevated locations observed in our study (East Tarbet and The Loan), pup mortality
279 rates tend to be higher, where these areas are further from sources of water and further from
280 access to the sea (Twiss et al. 2001, 2003). In these elevated areas, higher mortality rates tend
281 to produce carcasses further from the sea and are relatively sheltered from tidal action;
282 therefore, they are less likely to contribute carrion to the marine system. Sub-optimal, low-
283 lying sites, surrounded by cliffs with little tidal refuge, such as Pilgrim's Haven in this study,
284 will produce high carcass numbers as advancing tides increase seal densities, and increase the
285 likelihood for aggressive interactions and the potential for pups to be crushed. Sites that are
286 closer in proximity to the sea also display an increased probability that pups are washed away
287 at high tides. High tide events will have a twofold effect by increasing both pup mortality and
288 readily displacing carcasses to the marine system. As seal numbers increase, terrestrial
289 environmental heterogeneity within and between breeding sites will create carrion hot spots,
290 influence scavenger abundance and affect the distribution of marine organisms.

291 There are 3 main scenarios in which carcasses were identified as being detectable in
292 one survey and then undetectable in subsequent surveys: (1) the lack of detection may result
293 from consumption by terrestrial scavengers; (2) carcasses may be buried by the movements
294 of other members of the colony; or (3) carcasses are washed away by tide and wave action.
295 Carcasses identified in one survey, which were then consumed by terrestrial scavengers or
296 buried, were sometimes still partially visible, but often classified as undetectable in
297 subsequent surveys. In both breeding seasons (2008 and 2012) and across all 3 study
298 locations, we showed a direct positive relationship between proximity to shore and the
299 likelihood of carcass disappearance. This means it is likely that if carcasses are identified in
300 one survey and are then undetectable in subsequent surveys that they have been washed into
301 the sea.

302 Pup carcasses from both The Loan and Pilgrim's Haven study sites showed a similar
303 probability (80% chance at 48–49 m from ACD) of being washed into the sea. Pilgrim's
304 Haven is a low-lying site often inundated at high tide and had the potential for large numbers
305 of carcasses to be removed by wave and tide action. The Loan is likely to be strongly affected
306 by easterly storms and swells. At East Tarbet, carcasses were considerably more likely to be
307 washed away at greater distances from ACD (80% chance at 123 m from ACD). A long, thin
308 channel at East Tarbet stretches to the breeding colony, which effectively increases the
309 coastline and offers little protection from extreme tidal surges and waves, meaning carcasses
310 could be washed away at greater distances. Carcasses that were more influenced by tidal
311 action remained visible for shorter periods (≤ 14 d), in contrast to predominantly terrestrial
312 areas, where carcasses remained visible for approximately 20 d.

313 The contribution of carrion is not solely limited to carcasses washed directly into the
314 sea. Carcasses within reach of the tide, but left dry, will also contribute to shoreline habitat
315 diversity, retaining moisture and influencing the microclimate of their surroundings
316 (Quaggiotto et al. 2019). Tide and wave action will submerge carcasses regularly, allowing
317 access for marine and intertidal zone scavengers, many of which will synchronise foraging
318 activity with high tides (Watts et al. 2011). The results from this study, based on an 'average'
319 carcass within each stratum, showed that between approximately 0.25 and 1.6 tonnes of
320 carrion were available to marine scavengers, partially or fully submerged in the intertidal
321 zone.

322 This study has demonstrated that the contribution of carrion biomass from a grey seal
323 breeding colony to the coastal marine system may be substantial. The data presented here
324 were collected in 2008 and 2012, as such, further studies using more recent data that reflects

325 anecdotal population increases on the Isle of May could dramatically increase the pup carrion
326 input. Additionally, potential variability in pup births between years could be accounted for
327 by using additional data across multiple years. Future studies are also needed to quantify this
328 input at a larger scale across other grey seal breeding colonies. The proximity to shore and
329 the likelihood of carcass disappearance is a clear indication that carcasses within the reach of
330 tide and wave action are being washed out to sea. This predictable source of energy may
331 subsidise the diets of numerous marine scavengers. Carrion from dead seal pups is available
332 to marine scavengers not only from pups washed out to sea but also through being submerged
333 by tidal action. The comparison of 3 study sites allowed inferences to be drawn about how
334 site characteristics, including topography, influence of tidal action and available pupping
335 space, can influence the probability of seal carcasses entering the marine environment.
336 Further studies would provide insight into the carrion contribution of other colonies of grey
337 seals, and indeed other pinnipeds, to marine scavenger communities. Importantly, more
338 research is needed to understand how these baseline quantities of carrion resource affect
339 ecosystem energy and nutrient budgets, vital for ecosystem modelling.

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442 Zuur AF, Elena NI, Walker N, Saveliev AA, Smith GM (2009) Mixed effects models and
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444 Table 1. Identification criteria for seal pup carcasses

| Criterion | Weighting of criterion |
|---|---|
| I: Several gulls in attendance close to a suspected carcass and visibly pecking | Accept as carcass based on this alone |
| II: Bloody patches on pelage, especially at anterior end | Accept as carcass based on this alone |
| III: No obvious shadow being cast from raised limbs, head or body | One more criterion required from any category |
| IV: Obvious flattening of body, loss of ‘3-dimensional’ body form | One more criterion required from any category |

V: Suspected carcass trapped in particularly inaccessible area More criteria required other than VI

VI: Suspected carcass separated from mother or alone More criteria required other than V

445 Table 2. Descriptive age categories, based on Kovacs & Lavigne (1986), of neonatal seal pup
 446 masses from the Isle of May. Dashed lines indicate divisions between the 3 categories used to
 447 assess pup carcasses. Masses display a minimum and maximum estimate. Maximum carcass
 448 mass was based on live pup mass from the equations of Kovacs & Lavigne (1986). Minimum
 449 masses were calculated from Quaggiotto et al. (2018), where estimated masses were adjusted
 450 by 8.02 kg based on the measured difference between alive and dead pups

| Developmental stage | Description | Mean age (d) | Mass (kg) |
|---------------------|---|--|---------------|
| I | White coated pups with yellowish tinge; small; neck, hips and ribs visible | 2-5 | 14.48 – 20.07 |
| II | White coated pups; fore and hind flippers often visible; more blubber deposition than stage I | | |
| III | White to light grey coat; body barrel shaped with obvious blubber layer; white pelage still covering body but slight loss in facial areas | 12 | 23.40 – 31.29 |
| IV | Lanugo being shed exposing some areas of juvenile pelage | 16 – 21+ (weaning age of 18 d used for calculation of mass) | 34.35 – 39.21 |

451 Table 3. Numbers of carcasses identified at 3 breeding locations (Pilgrim’s Haven, The Loan
 452 and East Tarbet) on the Isle of May in the 2008 and 2012 breeding seasons. N_c : total number
 453 of carcasses; N_a : number of absent carcasses; D_c : carcass density ($N_c \text{ ha}^{-1}$).

| Location | 2008 | | | | 2012 | | | |
|-----------------|-------|-------|-----------|----------------------------|-------|-------|-----------|----------------------------|
| | N_c | N_a | Area (ha) | D_c (ha^{-1}) | N_c | N_a | Area (ha) | D_c (ha^{-1}) |
| Pilgrim’s Haven | 47 | 20 | 0.376 | 125.00 | 34 | 22 | 0.422 | 80.57 |
| The Loan | 34 | 14 | 5.506 | 6.18 | 41 | 9 | 4.125 | 9.94 |
| East Tarbet | 52 | 19 | 5.357 | 9.71 | 45 | 19 | 5.132 | 8.77 |

454 Table 4. Distribution of grey seal pup biomass and density between marine and terrestrial
 455 environments in 3 breeding locations (Pilgrim’s Haven, The Loan and East Tarbet) in 2008
 456 and 2012. Masses display the minimum and maximum estimates calculated as live pup mass
 457 for maximums (max.) and adjusted down by 8.02 kg as per Quaggiotto et al. (2018) for
 458 minimum (min.) masses.

| Location | 2008 | | | | 2012 | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| | Remaining terrestrial | | Displaced to marine | | Remaining terrestrial | | Displaced to marine | |
| | (kg) | (kg ha ⁻¹) | (kg) | (kg ha ⁻¹) | (kg) | (kg ha ⁻¹) | (kg) | (kg ha ⁻¹) |
| Pilgrim's Haven | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum | 597.99 | 1590.40 | 435.06 | 1157.07 | 263.28 | 623.89 | 486.42 | 1159.65 |
| Minimum | 435.56 | 1158.40 | 316.36 | 841.38 | 191.60 | 454.03 | 354.24 | 839.43 |
| The Loan | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum | 475.55 | 86.37 | 314.64 | 57.14 | 737.55 | 178.80 | 191.85 | 46.51 |
| Minimum | 369.93 | 67.19 | 229.48 | 41.68 | 542.31 | 131.47 | 139.24 | 33.76 |
| East Tarbet | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum | 759.99 | 141.87 | 435.06 | 81.21 | 566.70 | 110.42 | 414.99 | 80.86 |
| Minimum | 566.91 | 105.83 | 316.36 | 59.06 | 412.16 | 80.31 | 301.88 | 58.82 |
| Total | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum | 1833.53 | 1818.64 | 1157.07 | 1295.43 | 1567.53 | 913.11 | 1093.26 | 1280.03 |
| Minimum | 1372.40 | 1331.42 | 862.20 | 942.12 | 1146.07 | 665.81 | 795.36 | 932.01 |

459 Table 5. Carcass tidal submersion for the 2008 and 2012 grey seal breeding seasons. HWS:
460 high water spring; HWN: high water neap; LWN: low water neap. Carcasses in the upper
461 stratum (Dry) were assumed to never be submerged and those in the lowest stratum (LWN–
462 LWS) were assumed to be constantly fully submerged. Total carcass submersion times were
463 calculated from the GLMM used to predict the duration (d) carcasses remained visible in the
464 4 tide strata

| Tidal stratum | No. of carcasses | Mean (± 1 SD) carcass mass (kg) | Total biomass (kg) | Modelled median duration (d) | Total carcass submersion time (h:min) Proportion of time spent submerged |
|---------------|------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|--|
| 2012 | | | | | |
| HWN–HWS | 7 | 21.95 \pm 4.1 | 153.65 | 14 | 35:23 0.11 |
| LWN–HWN | 36 | 20.20 \pm 0.0 | 727.20 | 12 | 114:56 0.40 |
| 2008 | | | | | |
| HWN–HWS | 12 | 22.20 \pm 4.3 | 226.40 | 12 | 15:08 0.05 |
| LWN–HWN | 36 | 22.44 \pm 5.0 | 807.84 | 10 | 104:43 0.44 |

465 Fig. 1. Grey seal colony study locations on the Isle of May in the mouth of the Firth of Forth.
466 (a) Location of the Isle of May (Scotland). (b) Aerial image of the Isle of May, with red
467 polygons showing the location and extent of the 3 study sites: (i) East Tarbet, (ii) The Loan
468 and (iii) Pilgrim's Haven. (c) Topographic map of the Isle of May with red polygons showing
469 the 3 study sites: (i) East Tarbet, (ii) The Loan and (iii) Pilgrim's Haven. The dark blue
470 contour line shows mean low water, light blue contour line shows mean high water and
471 brown lines show land elevation from 5 to 50 m at 5 m intervals

472 Fig. 2. Tide heights above chart datum for the (a) 2008 and (b) 2012 breeding seasons. Each
473 *x*-axis tick mark displays one day between the dates shown. The 4 colour bands indicate the 4

474 tide strata used (orange: Dry – above High Water Spring; yellow: HWS–HWN – between
475 High Water Spring and High Water Neap; light blue: HWN–LWN – between High Water
476 Neap and Low Water Neap; dark blue: LWN–LWS – between Low Water Neap and Low
477 Water Spring). Blue horizontal lines indicate the mean carcass elevation for carcasses
478 influenced by tidal action

479 Fig. 3. GLMM prediction of the probabilities of grey seal pup carcasses being washed away
480 as a function of distance from Admiralty Chart Datum (ACD). The solid lines indicate the
481 prediction for carcasses in a ‘typical’ year at each of the 3 survey sites. The shaded areas
482 show the model variation from the random and fixed effects equivalent to a 95% prediction
483 interval. Each survey site is indicated by 1 of 3 colours: purple line and shading represent
484 East Tarbet, red line and shading represent Pilgrim’s Haven, and green line and shading
485 represent The Loan

486 Fig. 4. Tidal influence on the duration that carcasses remained visible in aerial imagery in a
487 ‘typical’ year predicted from data from the 2008 and 2012 breeding seasons. Black diamonds
488 show the fixed effect prediction in a ‘typical’ year and the intervals show medians of the
489 upper and lower bounds of the random effects. Tide strata are: Dry – above High Water
490 Spring; HWS–HWN – between High Water Spring and High Water Neap; HWN–LWN –
491 between High Water Neap and Low Water Neap; LWN–LWS – between Low Water Neap
492 and Low Water Spring