

1 **Diet composition of juvenile green turtles in the Southwestern Atlantic Ocean:**  
2 **long-term insights from a beach stranding program**

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4 **Running page head:** Green turtles long-term diet study.

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Long-term diet studies provide information on the temporal variation in diet  
30 composition, habitat use and foraging ecology of species. Assessment of dead-stranded  
31 sea turtles by stranding programs allows systematic diet sampling over a broad temporal

32 scale, which can help elucidate potential ecological and environmental changes. Off the  
33 Southwestern Atlantic Ocean, the Paraná coast, Brazil, is an important foraging ground  
34 for juvenile green turtles (*Chelonia mydas*). To determine seasonal and interannual diet  
35 variability, 351 dead-stranded individuals had their dietary contents analyzed to the  
36 major taxa level from 2008-2020. We identified 13 major prey groups that made up  
37 green turtles' diets. A subset of turtles had diet identified to the lowest taxonomic level  
38 possible. Interannual differences were found, with the Chlorophyte *Ulva lactuca* highly  
39 important in 2008, 2011–2018; Bivalvia and Gastropoda in 2016 and 2017. During La  
40 Niña events (2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2017, 2018, 2020), Chlorophyta, Mollusca,  
41 Crustacea and Hydrozoa were the most frequently encountered diet items; during El  
42 Niño events (2015, 2016, 2019) Ochrophyta was the most consumed taxon. Seasonal  
43 differences were found, such that Echinodermata and Teleostei were important in  
44 autumn and winter; Hydrozoa and Gastropoda in all seasons. Our results underscore  
45 individual dietary plasticity, including inter-seasonal and annual differences, which  
46 likely reflects their ability to respond to changing prey availabilities and environmental  
47 characteristics driven by natural and perhaps anthropogenic influences. Understanding  
48 potential links between diet, habitat use, and the effects of a shifting diet and foraging  
49 grounds are key information for monitoring impacts and guiding conservation actions.

50

51 **Keywords:** *Chelonia mydas*; feeding ecology; behavioral plasticity; spatial-temporal  
52 scale; macroalgae; Mollusca; conservation.

53

## 54 1. INTRODUCTION

55 Long-term diet studies are key for evaluating temporal changes in food intake  
56 and habitat use patterns of consumers, which help identify areas of biological

57 importance and give insight into what foraging areas most need protection (Fuentes et  
58 al. 2006, Marcovaldi & Santos 2011, Vélez-Rubio et al. 2018a). Indeed, foraging  
59 ecology studies have been identified among the most important themes in sea turtle  
60 conservation (Hamann et al. 2010, Wildermann et al. 2018), especially in the context of  
61 ongoing climate change and cumulative anthropogenic effects (Hawkes et al. 2009,  
62 Fuentes et al. 2020).

63 When studying green turtle foraging ecology, knowledge about the extrinsic  
64 influences such as prey availability, sea surface temperature, cumulative rainfall rates,  
65 and habitat quality is fundamental to interpret behaviors, diet intake, and health of local  
66 green turtles (Wildermann et al. 2018). Also, understanding the influences of decadal-  
67 scale climate shifts on habitats is essential to assess long-term ecological changes  
68 (Hawkes et al. 2009, Esteban et al. 2020). For example, in southern South America, El  
69 Niño (which increases rainfall and temperature) and La Niña (which decreases rainfall  
70 and temperature) events influence climate variability, rainfall patterns and intensity, and  
71 sea surface temperatures (Grimm et al. 2000). Therefore, these and other climatic events  
72 may drive biological and ecological changes (e.g. habitat dynamics, prey availability,  
73 predator-prey interaction), leading to diet variation among turtles in these areas (Saba et  
74 al. 2007, Quiñones et al. 2010, Esteban et al. 2020).

75 The cryptic nature of sea turtles and the logistic difficulties of capturing live  
76 turtles in the wild are challenges for studying their diet intake and overall foraging  
77 ecology across large spatial and temporal scales (Reich et al. 2007, Vander Zanden et al.  
78 2014, Wildermann et al. 2018). In many areas worldwide, sea turtles are exposed to  
79 significant cumulative human threats, resulting in stranding of live and/or dead turtles  
80 along shores (Monteiro et al. 2016, Cantor et al. 2020). In such areas, ongoing  
81 systematic and long-term sea turtle stranding monitoring programs present an

82 opportunity to encounter and study these individuals for health and ecological  
83 assessments, such as analysis of digestive tract contents to gain insights about diet  
84 composition for the local population (Hart et al. 2006).

85 Based on stranding records, southern and southeastern Brazil have a large  
86 number of juvenile green turtles (*Chelonia mydas*) that dead-strand each year,  
87 particularly in Paraná ( $25^{\circ}$  S) and the central area of Santa Catarina states ( $26^{\circ}$  S)  
88 (Cantor et al. 2020). Green turtles in this area are part of the Southwestern Atlantic  
89 Ocean (SWAO) Regional Management Unit (Wallace et al. 2010) and include  
90 individuals originating from at least 12 rookeries throughout the SWAO (Savada et al.  
91 2021), that can be resident in the area (Guebert et al. 2011, Marcovaldi & Santos 2011,  
92 Gama et al. 2016; 2021, Coelho et al. 2018, Fuentes et al. 2020). This region is a  
93 biodiversity hotspot (UNESCO 2021) and hosts one of the most impressive  
94 mangrove/estuarine systems globally ([https://www.ramsar.org/news/brazil-designates-  
95 three-ramsar-sites](https://www.ramsar.org/news/brazil-designates-three-ramsar-sites)), with nearly 1,000 km of interior coastline that provides a diversity  
96 of habitats and prey types for green turtles (Lana et al. 2001, Gama et al. 2016; 2021,  
97 Santos & Lana 2017). However, more than 1,000 juveniles are found dead-stranded  
98 each year in Paraná (Cantor et al. 2020), with mortality attributed to a variety of local  
99 threats, such as habitat degradation, debris ingestion, chemical pollutants, fisheries  
100 bycatch, and emergent diseases (Domiciano et al. 2019, Fuentes et al. 2020, Nunes et al.  
101 2021, Sulato et al. 2022).

102 Since 2004, several studies have been ongoing in this area focusing on green  
103 turtles, including beach monitoring and stranding response programs (Guebert-Bartholo  
104 et al. 2011, Cantor et al. 2020, Gama et al. 2021, Sulato et al. 2022). Previous studies  
105 on green turtle diet in the SWAO show a high diversity of consumed prey items,  
106 including seagrasses, macroalgae, mangrove leaves and seeds, and animal matter

107 (Bugoni et al. 2003, Guebert-Bartholo et al. 2011, Marcovaldi & Santos 2011, Nagaoka  
108 et al. 2012, Awabdi et al. 2013, Reisser et al. 2013, Gonzalez-Carman et al. 2014,  
109 Santos et al. 2015, Gama et al. 2016, 2021, Vélez-Rubio et al. 2016). However, despite  
110 this substantial information on green turtle diet, little information is available regarding  
111 the ability of green turtles to shift their diet intake in response to environmental change.

112 Here, we build upon previous green turtle diet studies in the region to — for the  
113 first time — explore long-term variation and trends related to seasonal, annual, and  
114 intermittent environmental (El Niño/La Niña) cycles. The present study examined gut  
115 contents of dead-stranded green turtles encountered in this area between 2008–2020. In  
116 addition to describing temporal patterns in green turtle diet, our efforts underscore the  
117 value that beach stranding recovery programs provide for understanding the ecology of  
118 and ongoing threats to encountered animals.

119

## 120 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 121 2.1. Study site

122 The Paraná coast, southern Brazil (25°20'S to 25°35'S / 48°17'W to 48°42'W),  
123 is a migratory corridor for multiple sea turtle species that are present in the SWAO  
124 (Wallace et al. 2010, Marcovaldi & Santos 2011, Cantor et al. 2020). Paraná has ~90  
125 km of sandy beaches, and several bays and estuaries, such as the Paranaguá Estuarine  
126 Complex (PEC), a 612 km<sup>2</sup> semi-enclosed inlet, that comprises ~1000 km of estuarine  
127 interior coastline (Lana et al. 2001) (Fig. 1). The area is in the subtropical climatic zone  
128 and hosts a diversity of marine habitats such as seagrass (*Halodule wrightii*) meadows,  
129 mangrove-lined (including *Avicennia schaueriana*) estuaries, and rocky subtidal  
130 habitats dominated by marine macroalgae (Angulo 1992, Sordo et al. 2011, Pellizzari et  
131 al. 2014, Bumbeer et al. 2016, Pellizzari et al. 2020). Macroalgal diversity along the

132 Paraná coast and islands is considered low (~130 taxa) compared to other tropical areas  
133 in Brazil (Pellizzari et al. 2014). Nevertheless, several species of green macroalgae  
134 (Chlorophyta), red macroalgae (Rhodophyta), and brown macroalgae (Ochrophyta)  
135 occur in high biomass (Pellizzari et al. 2007, 2014, 2021, Pellizzari & Reis 2011).

136 Paraná coast is influenced by the Brazilian Current, which brings warm waters  
137 to the south during the austral summer (wet season), and the Falklands Current, which  
138 introduces cold waters during the winter (dry season) (Piola et al. 2000, Matano et al.  
139 2010). The PEC is composed by three different hyaline zones: estuarine, estuarine  
140 outlets and open-ocean coasts (Angulo & Araujo 1996), that result in a salinity gradient  
141 and hence, differences in local habitats (Krelling & Turra 2019). The average sea  
142 surface temperature (SST) values ranged from 21.60°C to 26.71°C; whereas the  
143 monthly average rainfall values ranged from 120.66mm to 276.63mm.

144

## 145 **2.2. Dead-stranded turtle collection**

146 Dead-stranded green turtles were collected along the Paraná coast (Fig. 1) during  
147 systematic beach surveys from 2008 to 2020; however, only fresh-dead juveniles or  
148 animals in early-decomposition stages (Codes 2 and 3, respectively; according to the  
149 decomposition stages ranking adapted from Geracy & Lounsbury 2005) with intact  
150 digestive tracts were considered for this study. Between 2015–2020 the samples were  
151 obtained as part of the PMP-BS (Santos Basin Beach Monitoring Project or *Projeto de*  
152 *Monitoramento de Praia da Bacia de Santos*). All the specimens had their curved  
153 carapace length (CCL; to 0.1 cm precision, measured with a flexible tape from the  
154 nuchal scute notch to the posterior-most edge of the carapace) recorded and biological  
155 samples collected for further analysis. The digestive tracts were removed and stored  
156 frozen at –15°C until analysis. The sampling year, locality, date, season, and body size

157 were recorded for each recovered green turtle. Also, some specimens obtained from  
158 PMP-BS (n = 238) had their body condition score calculated (e.g. Limpus et al. 2012).

159

160 **2.3. Diet analysis**

161 To determine diet composition, all recovered items were washed, separated, and  
162 identified. The invertebrates, except cephalopod beaks, and debris were washed and  
163 dried at 60°C; vegetal matter items were preserved in 70% ethyl alcohol; and  
164 cephalopod beaks were preserved in 70% ethyl alcohol and 5% glycerin.

165 Three different diet analyses were conducted:

- 166 i. LT (Low Taxonomic, all prey species): to achieve low taxonomic  
167 resolution identification, 351 green turtles had their digestive tract  
168 contents identified to the phylum or class level with stereoscopic and  
169 optical equipment;
- 170 ii. HTM (High Taxonomic, Macroalgae only): a total of 148 turtles  
171 recorded from 2008-2014, and 2017-2018 had their macroalgae contents  
172 identified to finer taxonomic level (e.g. genus, species) based on the  
173 morphology of reproductive and vegetative structures, according to  
174 Cordeiro-Marino (1978), Nunes et al. (1999), Moura (2000), Barata  
175 (2004), Nunes (2005), Coto (2007), Crispino (2007), Pereira-Filho et al.  
176 (2011; 2012), and Pellizzari et al. (2014). Taxonomical updates followed  
177 Guiry & Guiry (2019);
- 178 iii. HTA (High Taxonomic, Animal prey only): a total of 142 green turtles  
179 recorded from 2015 to 2020 had their animal matter (invertebrate and  
180 vertebrate) contents identified to the genus or species level according to

181 Ruppert & Barnes (1996), Wiggers (2003), Pimpão (2004), Xavier &  
 182 Cherel (2009), Absher (2015), followed by specialists' support.  
 183 The global algae database AlgaeBase (Guiry & Guiry, 2023) and the World  
 184 Register of Marine Species website WoRMS (2023) were also used to validate all the  
 185 species found. The digestive tracts of all green turtles were also analyzed to quantify the  
 186 presence of marine debris. All types of debris, including hard and sheet-like plastic,  
 187 threadlike, nylon, straws, balloons, and fishery debris were visually identified and  
 188 counted, following the classification of Nunes et al. (2021).

189

190 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

191 To quantify the digestive tract contents recovered during both efforts, the  
 192 frequency of occurrence (%FO) (Silveira et al. 2020) was calculated for each food  
 193 category as a percentage between the number of stomachs in which the food category  $f$   
 194 occurred ( $Sf_f$ ) and the total number of stomachs with food assessed ( $Sf$ ) [Eq.1]:

195

$$196 \%FO = \left( \frac{Sf_f}{Sf} \right) \cdot 100$$

197

198 Specific to the macroalgae, which is the prey item whose weight has been  
 199 measured, the gravimetric frequency (%W) was calculated representing a percentage  
 200 between the weight of the food category  $f$  consumed by a given specimen  $i$  ( $W_{fi}$ ) and  
 201 the total weight of all food categories consumed by this specimen ( $\sum W_{fi}$ ). It was  
 202 weighted by the total number of analyzed stomachs with food ( $Sf$ ) [Eq. 2] [Eq. 2]:

203

$$204 \%W = \frac{1}{Sf_f} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{Sf} \left( \frac{W_{fi}}{\sum_{i=1}^f W_{fi}} \right) \cdot 100$$

205 This index was used in addition to  $\%FO$  because all the macroalgae species were  
206 weighed and  $\%Weight$  is considered a more accurate index when compared to the  
207  $\%FO$  only (Silveira et al. 2020).

208 To test for interannual variation (from 2008 to 2020) in diet composition and the  
209 potential influence of climatic events on diet, extreme climatic events were used as a  
210 proxy (weak, moderate, or strong El Niño (EN) /La Niña (LN)). The climatic data were  
211 obtained from <http://enos.cptec.inpe.br/>; 08/2021. To test intra-annual differences and  
212 seasonal cycles in diet composition ('season of the year'), austral seasons were  
213 considered, with January, February, and March corresponding to the summer (late wet);  
214 April, May, and June, to the autumn (early dry); July, August, and September, to the  
215 winter (late dry); and October, November, and December, to the spring (early wet). This  
216 seasonal variation was based on previous studies conducted in the same area (Gama et  
217 al. 2016; Possatto et al. 2016).

218 For  $\%FO$  data, a two-way PERMANOVA (year + climatic event, Euclidian  
219 distance, 9999 permutations) (Anderson 2001, Anderson & Willis 2003) was performed  
220 on logit-transformed data (Warton & Hui 2011). For  $\%W$ , a two-way PERMANOVA  
221 (year + season, Euclidian distance, 9,999 permutations) was used with Hellinger and  
222 log-transformed data ( $\log x + 1$ ) (Legendre & Legendre 2012, Borcard et al. 2018). The  
223 *p-value* considered was 0.05. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Legendre &  
224 Legendre 2012, Borcard et al. 2018) highlights differences in a multivariate dataset,  
225 hence, it was performed to visually interpret PERMANOVA results. All analyses were  
226 performed using R 4.0 software (R Core Team 2019).

227

228

229 **3. RESULTS**

230           **3.1. General demographic results**

231           The dead-stranded green turtles analyzed for low taxonomic resolution, ranged  
232           in size from 23.2 cm to 68.0 cm CCL ( $38.77 \pm 7.16$  cm; n = 351). Turtles analyzed for  
233           high taxonomic resolution of macroalgae ranged in size from 28.2 cm to 62.0 cm CCL  
234           ( $38.83 \pm 6.53$  cm; n = 148), with the largest sample sizes in 2017 (n = 32) and 2018  
235           (n = 21). Finally, turtles for which diet was analyzed for high taxonomic resolution of  
236           invertebrates ranged in CCL from 23.2 cm to 68.0 cm ( $38.39 \pm 7.85$  cm; n = 142). All  
237           turtles were in the early decomposition stages, and according to the body condition  
238           score established by Limpus et al (2012), which was calculated for 238 turtles, 158  
239           presented a good to great score (score 3); 55 a poor one (score 2); and 25 a very poor  
240           score (score 1).

241           **3.2. Diet composition**

242           Considering the entire diet content database (LT), a total of 13 different major  
243           taxa was encountered in digestive tracts of green turtles (Fig. 2): Magnoliophyta  
244           (including mangrove and seagrass), Rhodophyta (red macroalgae), Mollusca,  
245           Chlorophyta (green macroalgae), Ochrophyta (brown macroalgae), Bryozoa, Hydrozoa,  
246           Echinodermata, Annelida, Cyanobacteria, Arthropoda (including Crustacea and  
247           Insecta), and Chordata (Teleostei). More than half (69.23%; n = 243) of sampled green  
248           turtles had some sort of plastic or other anthropogenic-derived debris recovered from  
249           their digestive tracts (Fig. 2). Among the diet items encountered, the phylum  
250           Magnoliophyta was the most frequent ( $\%FO = 60.11$ ), followed by Rhodophyta  
251           ( $\%FO = 41.31$ ), and Mollusca ( $\%FO = 41.02$ ) (Fig. 2).

252           Regarding HTM analysis, a total of three major taxa was identified, including 49  
253           different taxa of macroalgae. The most frequent macroalgae was *Ulva spp.*

254 (%FO = 45.94), followed by *Sargassum cymosum* (%FO = 40.54), and *Gracilaria*  
255 *domingensis* (%FO = 20.27) (Table 1).

256 When considering the HTA analysis, a total of 98 taxa was found. The most  
257 frequent major group was Bivalvia (%FO = 43.66), followed by Teleostei  
258 (%FO = 10.56) (Table 2).

259

### 260 **3.3. Interannual variation of diet**

261 Consumption of food categories by green turtles was significantly different  
262 among years for both the low taxonomic diet analysis (F-value<sub>12</sub> = 2.197,  
263 *p*-value < 0.0001) (Table 3) and high taxonomic diet analyses, macroalgae  
264 (F-value<sub>8</sub> = 3.2422; *p*-value < 0.001) (Table 4) and animal (F-value<sub>5</sub> = 2.7995;  
265 *p*-value = 0.003) (Table 5).

266 For the LT identified in low taxonomic resolution, the first four axes of PCA  
267 explained 82.74% of data variance (*d.v.*). Axis 1 (47.07% *d.v.*) highlighted annual trends  
268 in the diet of all the sampled green turtles from 2008 to 2020 concerning the  
269 consumption of the categories Magnoliophyta (axis score, *a.s.* = -0.73), Rhodophyta  
270 (*a.s.* = -0.61), Chlorophyta (*a.s.* = -0.55), Mollusca (*a.s.* = -0.53), Ochrophyta  
271 (*a.s.* = -0.45) and debris (*a.s.* = 1.61) (Fig. 3). In 2008, 2013, 2015, 2016 and 2018,  
272 Magnoliophyta was the most recurrent consumed category, with %FO varying from  
273 61.54% to 87.50%, followed by debris (%FO varying from 25.00% to 58.82%) and  
274 Rhodophyta (%FO varying from 7.69% to 62.50%) (Fig. 4). In the remaining years,  
275 debris was the most recurrent consumed category, with %FO varying from 58.82% to  
276 91.67%, followed by Magnoliophyta (%FO varying from 37.14% to 69.57%) and  
277 Rhodophyta (%FO varying from 11.43% to 54.17%) (Fig. 4).

278 In respect of the HTM sampling, the first four axes of PCA explained 97.10% of  
279 *d.v.*. Axes 1 (61.55% *d.v.*) and 2 (16.92% *d.v.*) highlighted the consumption of  
280 *U. lactuca*, *G. domingensis* and, *S. cymosum* by green turtles sampled from 2008–2014,  
281 2017, and 2018 (Fig. 5). The multivariate subspaces of the years 2008 and 2011–2014  
282 were elongated in both axes 1 and 2 due to the importance of *U. lactuca*  
283 (*a.s.Axis1* = -3.05; *a.s.Axis2* = 0.12), *Gracilaria. domingensis* (*a.s.Axis1* = -0.17;  
284 *a.s.Axis2* = -1.48) and *S. cymosum* (*a.s.Axis1* = 0.18; *a.s.Axis2* = 0.59). During these years,  
285 %W of *U. lactuca* varied from 0.60% to 82.36% (vs. 0.01% to 2.43% in the remaining  
286 years), of *G. domingensis* from <0.01% to 31.24% (vs. absent to 47.46), and of  
287 *S. cymosum* from 0.02 to 23.59% (vs. <0.01 to 43.05) (Fig. 6). The multivariate  
288 subspaces representing the years 2009-2010 were elongated in axis 2 (Fig. 5) due to not  
289 only the high importance of *G. domingensis* (%W 47.46% and 16.93%, respectively),  
290 *S. cymosum* (%W 43.05% and 10.35%, respectively) and *U. lactuca* (%W 2.43% and  
291 0.41%, respectively), but also to the consumption of *Pyropia* sp. (*a.s.* = 0.12; absent and  
292 12.26%, respectively) and of *Rhizoclonium* sp (*a.s.* = 0.004; 22.66% and 63.00%,  
293 respectively) (Fig. 6). Both *Pyropia* sp. and *Rhizoclonium* sp were absent in 2008 and  
294 2011-2014. Axis 3 (13.95% *d.v.*) confirmed the importance of *S. cymosum* (*a.s.* = -1.34)  
295 and *G. domingensis* (*a.s.* = -0.55) in the diet of green turtles in all years (Fig. 5). Axis 4  
296 (4.67% *d.v.*) highlighted the importance of *Pyropia* sp. (*a.s.* = -0.82) in the diet of green  
297 turtles in 2010, 2017 (%W 48.76%) and 2018 (38.98%) (Figs. 5 and 6).

298 Considering the HTA analysis, the first four axes of PCA explained 79.69% of  
299 the *d.v.*. Axis 1 (38.22% *d.v.*) highlights general trends in the diet of green turtles:  
300 Bivalvia, Gastropoda and Hydrozoa were the most recurrent consumed food categories,  
301 besides the presence of debris in all years (Fig. 7). Despite this generality, Bivalvia  
302 (*a.s.* = -0.98) and Gastropoda (*a.s.* = -0.89) were mainly consumed in 2015-2018

303 (Fig. 7). In this period, %FO of Gastropoda varied from 34.48% to 80.00% (vs. 28.57%  
304 to 32.26% in the remaining years), and of Bivalvia from 47.37% to 69.57% (vs. 20.00%  
305 to 38.71%) (Fig. 8). Conversely, Hydrozoa (*a.s.* = 0.95) and debris (*a.s.* = 0.63) were  
306 mainly exploited between 2017–2020, with %FO varying from 21.05% to 38.71%  
307 (Fig. 7). Debris was greatly ingested between 2017-2020 (*a.s.* = 0.63), and from 88.57%  
308 to 93.55%, respectively (Figs. 7 and Fig. 8). In the remaining years, the recurrence of  
309 Hydrozoa varied from 13.04% to 40.00%, and of debris from 40.00% to 56.52%  
310 (Fig. 8). Axis two (22.85% *d.v.*) confirmed the importance of Bivalvia in the diet of  
311 green turtles during 2016-2018, and revealed that Crustacea was recurrently exploited  
312 (*a.s.* = -0.31) in 2016 (%FO 13.04% vs. absent to 2.86% in the remaining years) and  
313 that Echinodermata (*a.s.* = 1.17) was an important food resource in 2015 and 2019-2020  
314 (%FO varying from 19.35% to 40.00% vs. 3.45% to 15.79% in the remaining years)  
315 (Figs. 7 and 8). Axis 3 (10.80% *d.v.*) and 4 (7.81% *d.v.*) confirmed the food trends  
316 revealed in Axes 1 and 2, confirming the importance of Gastropoda (*a.s.* = 0.33) in  
317 green turtle diet from 2016 to 2020, and revealing the exclusive consumption of Insecta  
318 (*a.s.* = 0.33) in 2017 and 2019-2020 (%FO varying from 2.86% to 6.45%) (Figs. 7 and  
319 8). Axis 4 revealed the exclusive consumption of Perciformes (*a.s.* = -0.48) in 2016  
320 (%FO 8.70%), 2019 (6.45%) and 2020 (5.71%), and of Clupeiformes (*a.s.* = 0.22) in  
321 2015 (20.00%), 2019 (6.45%) and 2020 (5.71%) (Figs. 7 and 8).

322

### 323 **3.4. Influence of El Niño /La Niña on diet composition**

324 Considering the influence of El Niño/La Niña on low taxonomic diet analysis  
325 (whole sample;  $n = 351$ ; 2008–2020), 106 turtles were encountered during EN events  
326 (years of 2015, 2016, 2019), and 245 turtles during LN events (years of 2011, 2012,  
327 2013, 2014, 2017, 2018, 2020). A significant difference was found in diet composition

328 among climatic events considering all the sampling years (2008–2020) (PERMOVA,  
329  $F\text{-value}_3 = 1.6350$ ;  $p\text{-value} = < 0.0479$ ) (Table 3).

330 The positive portion of Axis 1 was related to the exclusive consumption of  
331 debris ( $\%FO = 100\%$ ) in 2008 during moderate La Niña event ( $a.s. = 1.61$ ) (Fig. 3).  
332 Axis 2 (19.09% *d.v.*) highlighted seasonal trends in food consumption, revealing the  
333 exploitation of Hydrozoa ( $a.s. = -0.61$ ), Crustacea ( $a.s. = -0.46$ ), Chlorophyta  
334 ( $a.s. = -0.44$ ) and Mollusca ( $a.s. = -0.28$ ) mainly during weak and strong LN episodes  
335 (Fig. 3). In these periods,  $\%FO$  of Hydrozoa in green turtle diet varied from 17.50% to  
336 18.18% (vs. 6.25% to 13.87% in remaining periods), of Crustacea from 5.00% to  
337 18.18% (vs. 4.88% to 12.14%), of Chlorophyta from 22.50% to 36.36% (vs. 14.63% to  
338 35.84%), and of Mollusca from 47.50% to 54.55% (vs. 21.88 to 47.40%) (Fig. 4). Axis  
339 2 also highlighted the consumption of Ochrophyta ( $a.s. = 0.75$ ), Bryozoa ( $a.s. = 0.44$ ),  
340 and Rhodophyta ( $a.s. = 0.39$ ) not only in moderate LN periods but also during moderate  
341 and strong EN episodes (Fig. 3). During these periods,  $\%FO$  of Ochrophyta varied from  
342 27.75% to 43.90% (vs. 12.12% to 12.50% in the remaining periods), of Bryozoa from  
343 7.32% to 25.00% (vs. absent to 12.12%), and of Rhodophyta from 25.00% to 49.13%  
344 (vs. 30.00% to 48.48%) (Fig. 4). Axes 3 (9.50% *d.v.*) and 4 (0.07% *d.v.*) revealed food  
345 categories complementary to those highlighted in Axis 1, however, without clear  
346 seasonal trends (Fig. 3). Axis 3 was negatively related to the consumption of  
347 Cyanobacteria ( $a.s. = -0.58$ ), Echinodermata ( $a.s. = -0.31$ ), and Crustacea ( $a.s. = -0.29$ )  
348 during periods of moderate EN and weak to moderate LN (Fig. 3). During these  
349 periods,  $\%FO$  of Cyanobacteria varied from 2.50 to 12.50% (vs. absent to 12.12% in the  
350 remaining periods), of Echinodermata from 1.56% to 13.29% (vs. absent to 2.44%), and  
351 of Crustacea from 5.00% to 12.14% (vs. 4.88% to 18.18%) (Fig. 4). The negative  
352 portion of Axis 4 confirmed the consumption of Crustacea ( $a.s. = -0.36$ ), Echinodermata

353 (*a.s.* = -0.34), and Bryozoa (*a.s.* = -0.26) during periods of moderate to strong EN  
354 (%*FO* 4.88%, 2.44% and 7.32%, respectively) and weak LN (%*FO* 5.00%, 7.50% and  
355 absent, respectively) to strong LN (%*FO* 18.18%, absent and 12.12%, respectively)  
356 (Fig. 4). And positive portion of Axis 4 confirmed the exploitation of Hydrozoa  
357 (*a.s.* = 0.29), Cyanobacteria (*a.s.* = 0.31), and Rhodophyta (*a.s.* = 0.36) during episodes  
358 of weak LN (%*FO* 17.50%, 2.50% and 30.00%, respectively) to moderate LN  
359 (%*FO* 13.87%, 5.78% and 49.13%, respectively) and moderate EN (%*FO* 6.25%,  
360 12.50% and 25.00%, respectively) to strong EN (%*FO* 2.44%, absent and 39.02%,  
361 respectively) (Figs. 3 and 4).

362

### 363 **3.5. Seasonal diet variation**

364 Although no significant seasonal difference was found by HTM regarding  
365 macroalgae consumption, only six species of macroalgae were encountered during  
366 summer (late wet) and spring (early wet), whereas in autumn (early dry) and winter (late  
367 dry) 49 taxa were found. The filamentous Cyanobacteria *Lyngbya majuscula* Harvey ex  
368 Gomont was found in digestive tracts of 17 turtles, only in winter (%*W* 79.77%) and  
369 autumn (20.23%). The green macroalga *U. lactuca* was found in green turtle digestive  
370 tracts throughout the year, with highest levels in spring (%*W* 65.72%) and Autumn  
371 (16.96%) seasons (Fig. 6).

372 Concerning seasonal variation in food consumption by HTA, there was  
373 significant difference (PERMOVA,  $F_3$ -value = 1.9586; *p-value* = 0.0292) (Table 5).

374 According to axis 1, Bivalvia (*a.s.* = -0.98) and Gastropoda (*a.s.* = -0.89) were mainly  
375 consumed in autumn and spring (Fig. 7). For these categories, %*FO* varied from  
376 39.02% to 67.57% (vs. 30.00% to 34.09% in the remaining seasons), and from 39.02%  
377 to 45.95% (vs. 20.00% to 36.36%), respectively (Fig. 8). On the other hand, Hydrozoa

378 (a.s. = 0.95) were mainly ingested in summer (%FO 40.00%) and winter (31.71%),  
379 whereas debris (a.s. = 0.63) were mainly ingested in winter (88.64%) and summer  
380 (85.00%) (Fig. 7 and 8). Axis 2 (22.85% d.v.) confirmed the high consumption of  
381 Bivalvia (a.s. = -0.65) from autumn to spring, also revealing that Echinodermata  
382 (a.s. = 1.17) was an important food resource in all seasons (%FO varying from 15.00%  
383 to 22.73%) (Fig. 7 and 8). Axis 3 confirmed the importance of Gastropoda (a.s. = 0.33)  
384 in the diet of green turtles in autumn and revealed the exclusive consumption of Insecta  
385 (a.s. = 0.33) during the autumn (%FO 5.41%) and winter (4.55%) (Fig. 7 and 8). Axis 4  
386 confirmed the importance of Hydrozoa (a.s. = 0.42) and Gastropoda (a.s. = 0.36) in the  
387 diet of green turtles in spring, and revealed the consumption of Perciformes  
388 (a.s. = -0.48) mainly in the autumn and winter, with %FO varying from 10.81% to  
389 2.27%, respectively (vs. 2.44% and 5.00% in the remain seasons) (Fig. 7 and 8).

390

#### 391 4. DISCUSSION

392 .. Green turtles found stranded along the Paraná coast are part of a mixed stock  
393 composed of individuals from more than 12 rookeries, which travel across different  
394 areas of the SWAO (Gonzalez-Carman et al. 2012; Naro Maciel et al. 2014; Savada et  
395 al. 2021). The present study provides one of the largest datasets on green turtle diet in  
396 the SWAO and underscores the substantial temporal in SWAO green turtle diet  
397 variability. Although prey densities were not measured in Paraná, it is likely that the  
398 observed temporal shifts in green turtle diet are likely responses to changing prey  
399 availabilities driven by large-scale environmental variability observed during the 13  
400 years of this study (2008–2020). We observed that green turtles presented a more  
401 diverse diet than in the previous studies (Guebert-Bartholo et al. 2011; Gama et al.  
402 2016) with higher consumption of invertebrates and fish, which is similar to findings

403 from Vélez-Rubio et al. (2016), Piovano et al. (2020), Quiñones et al. (2022), whose  
404 results showed high occurrences of invertebrate foods, including Cnidaria. Indeed, in  
405 our previous study (Gama et al. 2021), we verified that live green turtles intentionally  
406 captured in Paraná presented invertebrates as one of the most important prey items in  
407 their diet. These findings advance our knowledge of the population ecology of juveniles  
408 and opens the opportunity to in the future evaluate ecological theories, such as  
409 understanding how density-dependence and competition can affect green turtle foraging  
410 decisions.

411 The juveniles herein analyzed presented a mixed diet consisting almost  
412 exclusively of benthic prey, which is common among green turtles that forage in  
413 estuarine and bay areas, as found by Santos et al. (2015), and reviewed by Esteban et al.  
414 (2020). The omnivorous feeding habit of green turtles has been verified in several diet  
415 studies (Seminoff et al. 2006, Arthur et al. 2008, Cardona et al. 2009, Lemons et al.  
416 2011, Santos et al. 2015, Holloway-Adkins & Hanisak 2017, Gillis et al. 2020, Howell  
417 & Shaver 2021), but the wide range of forage items identified at the species level is  
418 unique in our study, and includes more than 90% taxa that have not been reported for  
419 the area before. Although Gama et al. (2016) identified a few prey items in our study  
420 region, our study benefited from further identification of macroalgae and invertebrate  
421 groups, as a result of including taxonomists for each group to identify prey.

422 The invertebrates represented basically by Mollusca and the vertebrates  
423 represented by Teleostei were largely consumed by juveniles throughout our sampling  
424 analysis, and it may be related to their availability along the Paraná coast, as shown by  
425 Bumbeer et al. (2016) and Cattani et al. (2022), and to the individualized foraging  
426 preferences among green turtles that aggregate in the area. Further, Mollusca  
427 consumption may be related to the fact that in estuarine areas they may coexist with

428 macroalgae in the benthic habitat, as verified by Santos et al. (2015); this finding  
429 contrasts other studies in the SWAO that found only sporadic occurrence of mollusks in  
430 green turtle diets (Morais et al. 2012, Vélez-Rubio et al. 2015). Live green turtles along  
431 the Paraná coast foraged mostly on invertebrates, highlighting the unique dietary  
432 tendencies for the species in this estuarine complex (Gama et al. 2021). Nevertheless,  
433 we did not identify any gelatinous zooplankton in green turtle digestive tracts, as has  
434 been reported in other green turtle diet studies (Burkholder et al. 2011, Santos et al.  
435 2015, Vélez-Rubio et al. 2016, Gama et al. 2021, Stubbs et al. 2022). This is likely due  
436 to this prey type's rapid digestion (González-Carman et al. 2014, Hays et al. 2018),  
437 which suggests gelatinous prey may be underrepresented in our study.

438 With respect to anthropogenic influences on green turtle diet, our study indicates  
439 marine debris consumption across all years, with the greatest occurrence from 2017 to  
440 2020, especially in 2018; these are mostly La Niña years (CPTEC 2016) that presented  
441 low temperature and low rainfall rates (*appendices* Fig. 1). However, the occurrence of  
442 debris was high and similar when comparing the winter ( $FO\% = 88.64$ ), which is the  
443 low rain season, and the summer ( $FO\% = 85.00$ ), which is the high rain season. Because  
444 of that it is important to mention that other oceanographic, physical, and geographic  
445 factors may be responsible for higher debris concentrations in the estuarine area of PEC  
446 (Krelling & Turra 2019) and they should be measured in future studies to better address  
447 debris availability and ingestion by fauna in this area. For instance, extensive dredging  
448 was conducted along the PEC in 2018, which moved sediments and sheltered materials  
449 from the sea bottom (Soares et al. 2022). This process might re-mobilize debris, making  
450 them more available to be ingested by the marine fauna.

451 Moreover, debris consumption by green turtles may occur during their  
452 recruitment to the coast (Vélez-Rubio et al. 2018b) and reflect its high availability in the

453 foraging area (Schuyler et al. 2014). Debris ingestion is considered a major threat to  
454 green turtle conservation status and health condition, as it can cause digestive tract  
455 obstruction and tissue injury, leading to starvation and death (Di Benedutto & Awabdi  
456 2014, Domiciano et al. 2019). We thus recommend further evaluation of the relationship  
457 between diet and the presence of debris to clarify the severity of this problem and  
458 inform management plans that promote habitat quality and the conservation of green  
459 turtles in the SWAO.

460

#### 461 **4.1. Seasonal variability**

462 Macroalgae consumption varied among seasons, which is perhaps related to  
463 temporal fluctuations in relative availability for different taxa in the area (Pellizzari et  
464 al. 2014). In autumn and winter, macroalgae dietary diversity among green turtles was  
465 higher than in spring and summer, with diet samples from the latter season only  
466 revealing six species of macroalgae being consumed. This is consistent with findings by  
467 Pellizzari et al. (2014) that reported higher species richness and higher biomass along  
468 the Paraná coast in winter versus summer. Lower macroalgae species richness in diet  
469 samples may be related to higher water turbidity from sedimentation introduced via  
470 coastal runoff in summer, which decreases the photic zone in coastal waters, thus  
471 reducing rates of photosynthesis and inhibiting macroalgae growth (Júnior et al. 1991,  
472 Bezerra & Marinho-Soriano 2010).

473 With respect to animal matter consumption, the highest consumption of  
474 invertebrate prey and fishes occurred during the autumn and winter, which is probably  
475 related to the fact that the energy intake obtained from this food source may be  
476 advantageous compared to vegetal prey, which improves the turtle's metabolism during  
477 these seasons (Bjorndal 1980, Brand-Gardner et al. 1999). It is important to consider

478 that both the dietary transit times and the turtle metabolism are slower in lower  
479 temperatures, as shown by González-Paredes et al. (2021), which may have influenced  
480 the higher occurrence of undigested invertebrates found in this study. Despite that,  
481 invertebrates such as Mollusca and Hydrozoa were consumed in every season, and this  
482 pattern may be related to the prey species' presence throughout the year in some islands  
483 along the Paraná coast (Bumbeer et al. 2016), making them available for consumption  
484 in all seasons. Furthermore, it is important to consider that the absorption of nutrients  
485 from these prey items is higher when compared to the plant matter prey, as both the  
486 intake passage time and the digestion are faster (Amoroch & Reina 2008). However, as  
487 shown by Quiñones et al. (2022), it is possible that some of the juveniles herein  
488 analyzed do not present the gut specialization to digest vegetal matter items, consuming  
489 more animal origin prey items afterwards. Also, as verified by Meylan et al. (2020),  
490 turtles may adapt to changes in prey availability, which impacts foraging effort and  
491 areas, and perhaps survival. It is worth mentioning that some of the turtles foraging in  
492 this area may be both recent recruits that were previously foraging in higher latitudes, as  
493 shown by Gama et al. (2021).

494 Even though fishes and cephalopods were found ingested by green turtles and are a  
495 good energy source, we did not evaluate foraging strategies, and some items might be  
496 caught dead or moribund. Some fishes predated by turtles are cited as a bycatch of  
497 trawlers fisheries (Cattani et al., 2011), which occurs in the Paraná state and adjacent  
498 coastal areas throughout the year. Moreover, floating dead squids may be consumed by  
499 green turtles because of their scavenging foraging behavior as shown by Morais et al.  
500 (2012) and Vélez-Rubio et al. (2015). However, this information is speculative, and  
501 future studies focusing on prey-predator strategies can be conducted to clarify this  
502 ecological point.

503 **4.2. Annual diet variability**

504 Clear annual trends were observed, considering the dietary shift from Bivalvia  
505 and Gastropoda in the first years to Hydrozoa in the last couple years of our analysis,  
506 despite the constant consumption of Mollusca over the years. In terms of macroalgae  
507 consumption, the continuous consumption of Rhodophyta and Chlorophyta reinforces  
508 them as key dietary items for green turtles in the SWAO (Reisser et al. 2013, Santos et  
509 al. 2015, Vélez-Rubio et al. 2016).

510 Green turtle dietary shifts observed during this study (2008 to 2020) are likely  
511 related to the climatic variation resulting from the onset of El Niño events, probably to  
512 the high rainfall rates that are expected for this event. Rainfall dynamics have been  
513 known to flush some floating algae species, such as the *S. cymosum* from estuary sites  
514 to nearby open coasts (Witherington et al. 2012). In particular, higher consumption of  
515 Ochrophyta (especially *S. cymosum*) in our study may be resulting from these changes  
516 during EN events in 2015, 2016, and 2019. As found elsewhere (Hawkes et al. 2009,  
517 Esteban et al. 2020), climate events may lead to changes in sea surface temperature, in  
518 both diet and food resource availability, driving changes in habitat use, behavior, and  
519 exposure to threats. Indeed, climate change affects marine herbivores mostly because of  
520 their vulnerability to temperature changes, but may also disrupt trophic chains in the  
521 marine ecosystem, as observed by Hu et al. (2022).

522

523 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

524 Our results highlight the importance of the estuarine and bay areas of Paraná  
525 state as habitats for juvenile green turtle foraging and development. This is reinforced  
526 not only by the diversity of food items consumed across years, seasons, and climate  
527 events, but also by green turtles' capacity to be resilient to these changes with

528 individualized and adaptive foraging selection. Nevertheless, it is important to use  
529 caution when evaluating those changes, as they may represent a higher exposure to  
530 impacted foraging grounds and conservation risks. Although most of our study group is  
531 composed of individuals in a good body condition, we cannot say their diet reflects the  
532 items consumed only by healthy individuals that use Paraná coast due to the fact that no  
533 necropsy analyses were included to look at overall health prior to death. Additionally,  
534 the only diet data of live green turtles in Paraná are based on stable isotopic analysis  
535 (Gama et al. 2021) and this is similar to our findings, which showed invertebrates and  
536 green algae as the most consumed and important prey items. Despite the punctual  
537 information available (Gonzalez Carman et al. 2014; Fuentes et al. 2020), species  
538 resilience may be enhanced by the fact that many turtles remain in this foraging area  
539 and use different habitats within the Paraná, including islands, rocky shores, meadows,  
540 and mangroves. Thus, delimitating diet changes across the years and how the species  
541 responds to climate variability helps decipher the species foraging intake throughout  
542 time and individual variability in terms of habitat use and exposition to threats. This  
543 helps delimitate food resources changes and track the impacts over both the foraging  
544 habitat and the species itself. Hence, this study contains data that may help to delimitate  
545 areas to be protected and managed in the SWAO, besides to inform and prioritize  
546 further conservation actions based on the distribution of foraging resources used by the  
547 species.

548

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561

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945

946 **Tables**

947 **Table 1:** Frequency of occurrence (%FO) and weight (%W) of High taxonomic  
 948 macroalgae (HTM) species registered in digestive tract (DT) contents of juvenile green  
 949 turtles *Chelonia mydas* (n = 148) collected dead-stranded along the Paraná coast from  
 950 2008–2014 and 2017–2018. n.d.= the value did not reach the minimum accuracy scale.

Taxa	Author	N of DT	%FO	%W
<b>CHLOROPHYTA</b>				
<i>Caulerpa</i> sp.		2	1.351	n.d.
<i>Chaetomorpha aerea</i>	(Dillwyn) Kützing	5	3.378	0.008

<i>Chaetomorpha antennina</i>	(Bory) Kützing	<b>2</b>	<b>1.351</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Chaetomorpha</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Cladophora catenata</i>	Kützing	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Cladophora vagabunda</i>	(Linnaeus) Hoek	<b>7</b>	<b>4.729</b>	<b>0.036</b>
<i>Cladophora</i> sp.		<b>6</b>	<b>4.054</b>	<b>0.016</b>
<i>Cladophoropsis membranacea</i>	(Hofman Bang ex C. Agardh)	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Rhizoclonium</i> sp.		<b>6</b>	<b>4.054</b>	<b>0.010</b>
<i>Ulva</i> cf. <i>chaetomorphoides</i>	(Børgesen) H.S.Hayden, Blomster, Maggs, P.C.Silva, Stanhope and Waaland	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Ulva fasciata</i>	Delile	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Ulva flexuosa</i>	Wulfen	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Ulva lactuca</i>	Linnaeus	<b>68</b>	<b>45.94</b>	<b>58.920</b>
<i>Willeella brachyclados</i>	(Montagne) M.J.Wynne	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>68</b>	<b>45.940</b>	

**OCHROPHYTA**

<i>Chnoospora minima</i>	(Hering) Papenfuss	<b>4</b>	<b>2.702</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Dictyota</i> sp.		<b>7</b>	<b>4.729</b>	<b>0.011</b>
<i>Padina</i> sp.		<b>8</b>	<b>5.405</b>	<b>0.050</b>
<i>Sargassum cymosum</i>	C. Agardh	<b>60</b>	<b>40.540</b>	<b>2.400</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>60</b>	<b>40.540</b>	

**RHODOPHYTA**

<i>Aglaothamnion uruguayanum</i>	(W.R.Taylor) N.E.Aponte, D.L.Ballantine and J.N.Norris	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Aglaothamnion</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Amphiroa beauvoisii</i>	J.V.Lamouroux	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Asparagopsis taxiformis</i>	(Delile) Trevisan	<b>2</b>	<b>1.351</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Bostrychia binderi</i>	Harvey	<b>2</b>	<b>1.351</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Bostrychia radicans</i>	(Montagne) Montagne	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Bostrychia</i> sp.		<b>4</b>	<b>2.702</b>	<b>0.001</b>
<i>Bostrychia tenella</i>	(J.V.Lamouroux) J.Agardh	<b>2</b>	<b>1.351</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Caloglossa</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Ceramium</i> sp.		<b>3</b>	<b>2.027</b>	<b>0.015</b>
<i>Chondracanthus</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Chondracanthus teedei</i>	(Mertensex Roth) Kützing	<b>3</b>	<b>2.027</b>	<b>0.005</b>
<i>Chondria</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Dipterosiphonia</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Gelidium pusillum</i>	(Stackhouse) Le Jolis	<b>5</b>	<b>3.378</b>	<b>0.023</b>
<i>Gelidium</i> sp.		<b>5</b>	<b>3.378</b>	<b>0.014</b>
<i>Gracilaria domingensis</i>	(Kütz) Sond. Ex Dickie	<b>30</b>	<b>20.270</b>	<b>5.090</b>
<i>Heterosiphonia crispella</i>	(C.Agardh) M.J.Wynne	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Heterosiphonia</i> sp.		<b>3</b>	<b>2.027</b>	<b>0.041</b>
<i>Hypnea pseudomusciformis</i>	Nauer, Cassano and M.C.Oliveira	<b>8</b>	<b>5.405</b>	<b>0.020</b>
<i>Hypnea</i> sp.		<b>8</b>	<b>5.405</b>	<b>0.015</b>

<i>Hypnea spinella</i>	(C.Agardh) Kützing	<b>4</b>	<b>2.094</b>	<b>0.007</b>
<i>Neosiphonia</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Plocamiums</i> p.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Polysiphonia howei</i>	Hollenberg in W.R. Taylor	<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Polysiphonia</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Pterocladiella</i> sp.		<b>2</b>	<b>1.351</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Pterosiphonia parasitica</i>	(Hudson) Falkenberg	<b>3</b>	<b>2.027</b>	<b>0.001</b>
<i>Pterosiphonia pennata</i>	(C.Agardh) Sauvageau	<b>6</b>	<b>4.054</b>	<b>0.015</b>
<i>Pterosiphonia</i> sp.		<b>1</b>	<b>0.675</b>	<b>n.d.</b>
<i>Pyropia</i> sp.		<b>17</b>	<b>11.486</b>	<b>0.490</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>49</b>	<b>33.100</b>	

951

952 **Table 2:** Frequency of occurrence (%FO) of the taxonomic groups of invertebrates  
 953 registered in digestive tract (DT) contents of juvenile green turtles (n = 142) collected  
 954 dead-stranded along the Paraná coast from 2015 to 2020 by the High taxonomic animal  
 955 (HTA). The most frequent species are in bold.

956

Taxon	Number of digestive tracts	Frequency of occurrence (%FO)
<b>Phylum Mollusca</b>	96	67.60
<b>Gastropoda</b>	50	<b>35.21</b>
<i>Acteocina lepta</i>	1	0.70
<i>Acteocina</i> sp.	1	0.70
Family Architectonicidae	1	0.70
Family Atlantidae	3	2.11
<i>Bittium varium</i>	1	0.70
Family Calyptidae	2	1.40
<i>Cavolinia</i> sp.	7	<b>4.92</b>
<i>Cavolinia tridentata</i>	1	0.70
Family Cavolinidae	1	0.70
Family Cerithiidae	1	0.70
<i>Cerithium</i> cf. <i>algicola</i>	1	0.70
Family Collombelidae	9	<b>6.33</b>
<i>Costoanachis sertularium</i>	2	1.40
<i>Costoanachis</i> sp.	4	<b>2.81</b>
<i>Diacria</i> sp.	2	1.40
<i>Diacria trispinosa</i>	2	1.40
<i>Diodora</i> sp.	1	0.70
Family Epitonidae	1	0.70
<i>Epitonium angulatum</i>	1	0.70
<i>Epitonium</i> sp.	1	0.70
<i>Eulithidium affine</i>	1	0.70
<i>Heleobia australis</i>	1	0.70
Family Hipponicidae	1	0.70
<i>Melanella hypsela</i>	1	0.70
<i>Mitrella</i> cf. <i>Moleculina</i>	1	0.70
Family Nassaridae	2	1.40
Family Neritidae	1	0.70
<i>Neritina virginea/Vitta virginea</i>	3	2.11
<i>Olivella</i> sp.	2	1.40
Family Olividae	2	1.40
<i>Parvanachis</i> sp.	1	0.70
Family Tateidae	1	0.70
<i>Turbonilla</i> sp.	2	1.40

<b>Family Turritelidae</b>	1	0.70
<b>Bivalvia</b>	62	<b>43.66</b>
<i>Anadara ovalis</i>	2	1.40
<i>Anadara</i> sp.	3	2.11
Family Arcidae	1	0.70
<i>Brachidontes</i> sp.	1	0.70
<i>Carditamera</i> sp.	1	0.70
<i>Corbula</i> sp.	5	<b>2.92</b>
Family Corbulidae	1	0.70
<i>Crassatella riograndensis</i>	1	0.70
<i>Crassostrea</i> sp.	1	0.70
<i>Ctena</i> cf. <i>pectinella</i>	1	0.70
<i>Ctena</i> sp.	1	0.70
Family Donacidae	1	0.70
Family Mactridae	1	0.70
Family Mytilidae	5	<b>2.92</b>
<i>Noetia bisulcate</i>	2	1.40
<i>Nucula</i> sp.	4	<b>2.81</b>
Family Ostreidae	5	<b>2.92</b>
Family Pectinidae	3	2.11
<i>Perna perna</i>	1	0.70
<i>Semele nuculoides</i>	3	2.11
<i>Strigilla</i> sp.	3	2.11
<b>Cephalopoda</b>	11	<b>7.74</b>
<i>Doryteuthis pleii</i>	1	0.70
Decapodiformes	2	1.40
Octopodiformes	2	1.40
Family Spirulidae	1	0.70
<b>Scaphopoda</b>	2	1.40
<b>Phylum Bryozoa</b>	5	<b>2.92</b>
<b>Phylum Hydrozoa</b>	5	<b>2.92</b>
Plumularioidea	1	0.70
<b>Crustacea</b>	5	<b>2.92</b>
Family Balanidae	1	0.70
Balanomorpha	1	0.70
Family Barleeiidae	1	0.70
Cirripedia	4	<b>2.81</b>
Decapoda	1	0.70
Paguroidea	1	0.70
Pleocyemata	1	0.70
<b>Phylum Echinodermata</b>	4	<b>2.81</b>
Echinoidea	1	0.70
<b>Insecta</b>	4	<b>2.81</b>
Pycnogonida	1	0.70
Pterygota	1	0.70
Coleoptera	2	1.40
Coccinellidae	1	0.70
<b>Polychaeta</b>	4	<b>2.81</b>
<b>Phylum Chordata</b>	20	<b>14.08</b>
Teleostei	15	<b>10.56</b>
Family Engraulidae	1	0.70
<i>Harengula clupeola</i>	1	0.70
<i>Lycengraulis grossidens</i>	1	0.70
<i>Pellona harroweri</i>	1	0.70
<i>Ctenosciaena gracilicirrhus</i>	2	1.40
<i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i>	2	1.40
<i>Micropogonias furnieri</i>	2	1.40
<i>Paralonchurus brasiliensis</i>	2	1.40
Family Sciaenidae	2	1.40
<i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i>	1	0.70

<i>Stellifer rastrifer</i>	2	1.40
<i>Stellifer</i> sp.	1	0.70
<i>Raneya brasiliensis</i>	1	0.70

957

958 **Table 3.** Results from two-factor PERMANOVA (year + climatic event) for the low-  
 959 taxonomic resolution diet of all Paraná green turtles herein analyzed (n = 351). Df =  
 960 degrees of freedom; SS = sum of squares; R<sup>2</sup> = pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>. Values in bold indicate  
 961 significant differences ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Sources	Df	SS	R <sup>2</sup>	F-value	p-value
Years	12	473.4	0.0719	2.1973	<b>0.0001</b>
Climatic events	3	88.1	0.0133	1.6350	<b>0.0479</b>
Residual	335	6014.4	0.9146		
Total	350	6575.8	1.0000		

962

963 **Table 4.** Results from two-factor PERMANOVA (year + season) regarding HTM (high  
 964 taxonomic macroalgae species) identification and consumption by Paraná green turtles  
 965 (n = 148) from 2008 to 2014, 2017 – 2018. Df = degrees of freedom; SS = sum of  
 966 squares; R<sup>2</sup> = pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>. Values in bold indicate significant differences ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Sources	Df	SS	R <sup>2</sup>	F-value	p-value
Year	8	36.4	0.1583	3.2422	0.0003
Season	3	2.6	0.0113	0.6190	0.7486
Residual	136	191.3	0.8303		
Total	147	230.4	1		

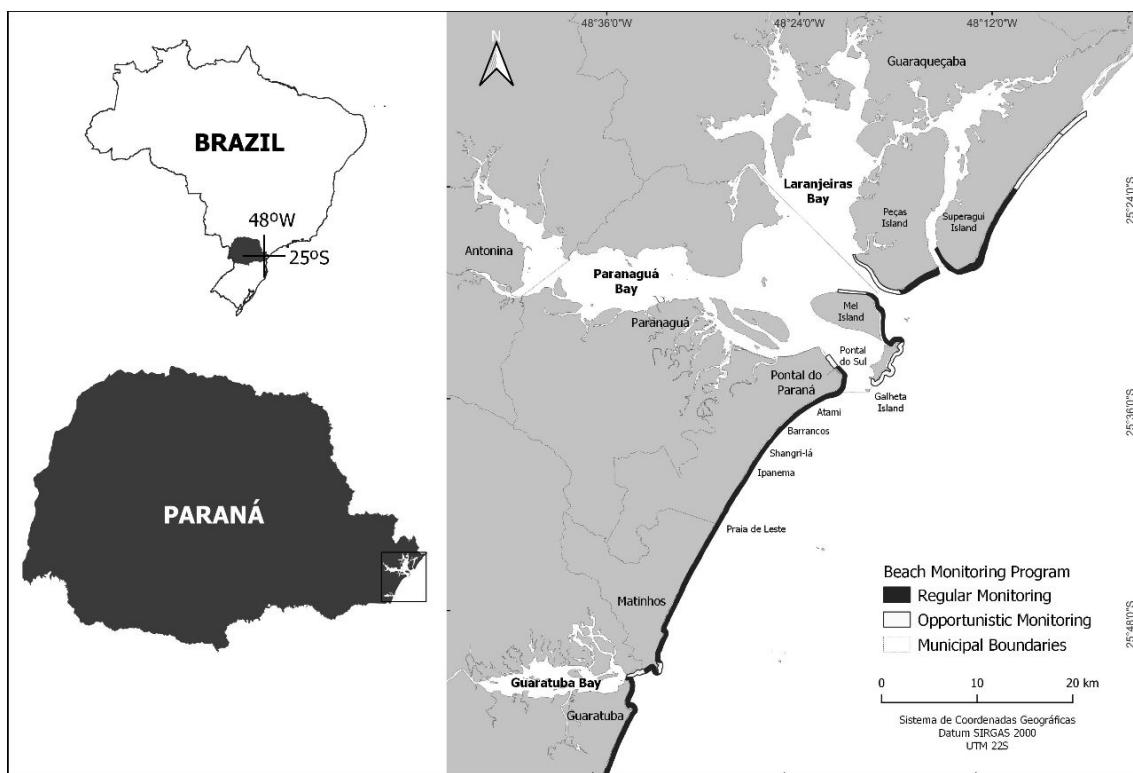
967

968 **Table 5.** Results from two-factor PERMANOVA (year + season) regarding HTA (high  
 969 taxonomic animal) identification and consumption by Paraná green turtles (n = 142)  
 970 from 2015 to 2020. Df = degrees of freedom; SS = sum of squares; R<sup>2</sup> = pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>.  
 971 Values in bold indicate significant differences ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

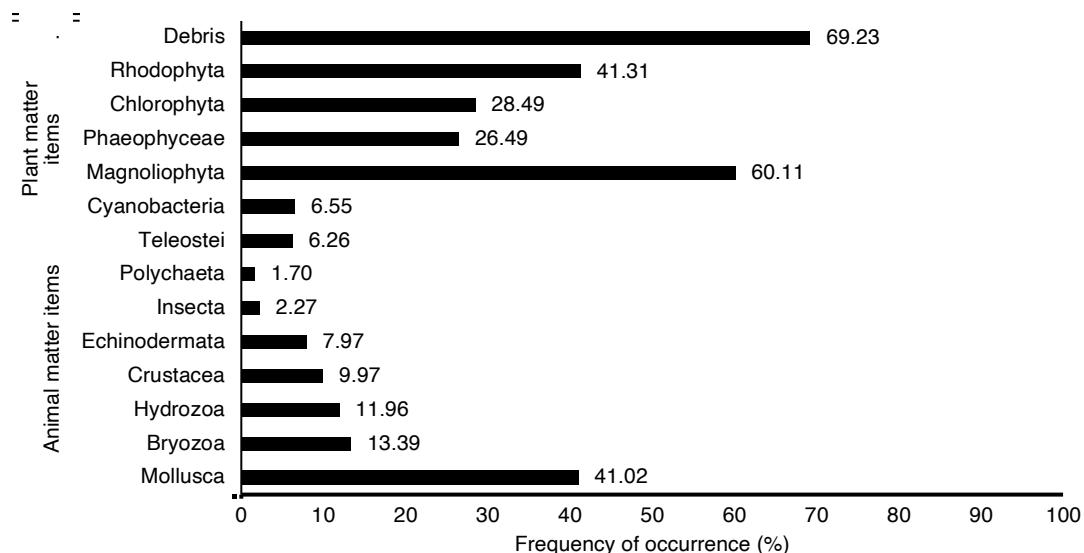
Sources	Df	SS	R <sup>2</sup>	F-value	p-value
Year	5	241.7	0.092	2.799	<b>0.0003</b>
Season	3	101.4	0.038	1.959	<b>0.0292</b>
Year:Season	10	170.8	0.065	0.989	0.4803
Residual	123	2124.1	0.805		
Total	141	2638.1	1		

972

973 **Figures**



**Figure 1.** Map of the Paraná coast of Brazil, including the Paranaguá Estuarine Complex (PEC) and Guaratuba Bay, in south Brazil, where the beach surveys were performed, and dead-stranded green turtles were recovered. The lines colored in black represent the regular monitored area, whereas the ones in white represent the areas where monitoring occurred sporadically.

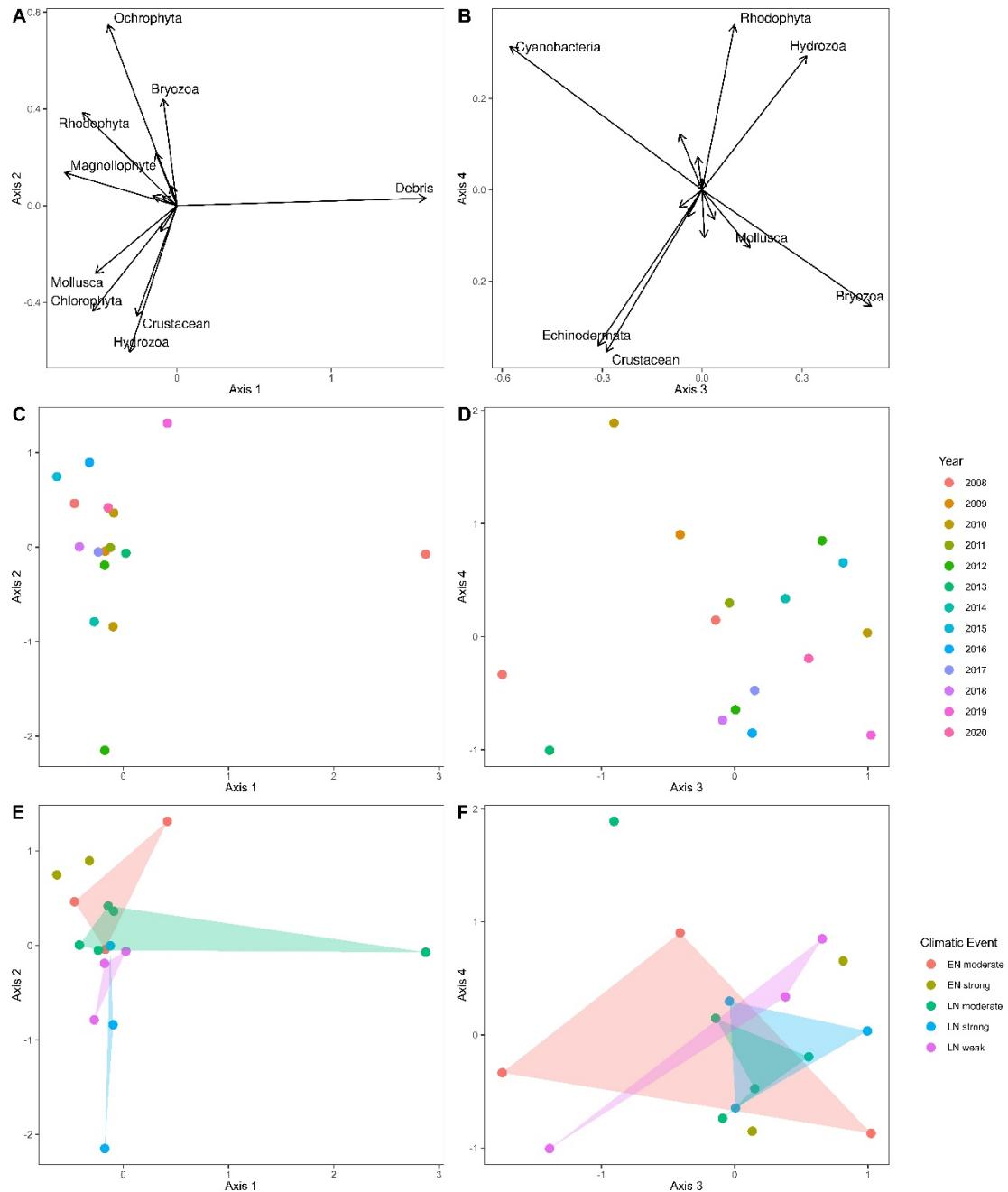


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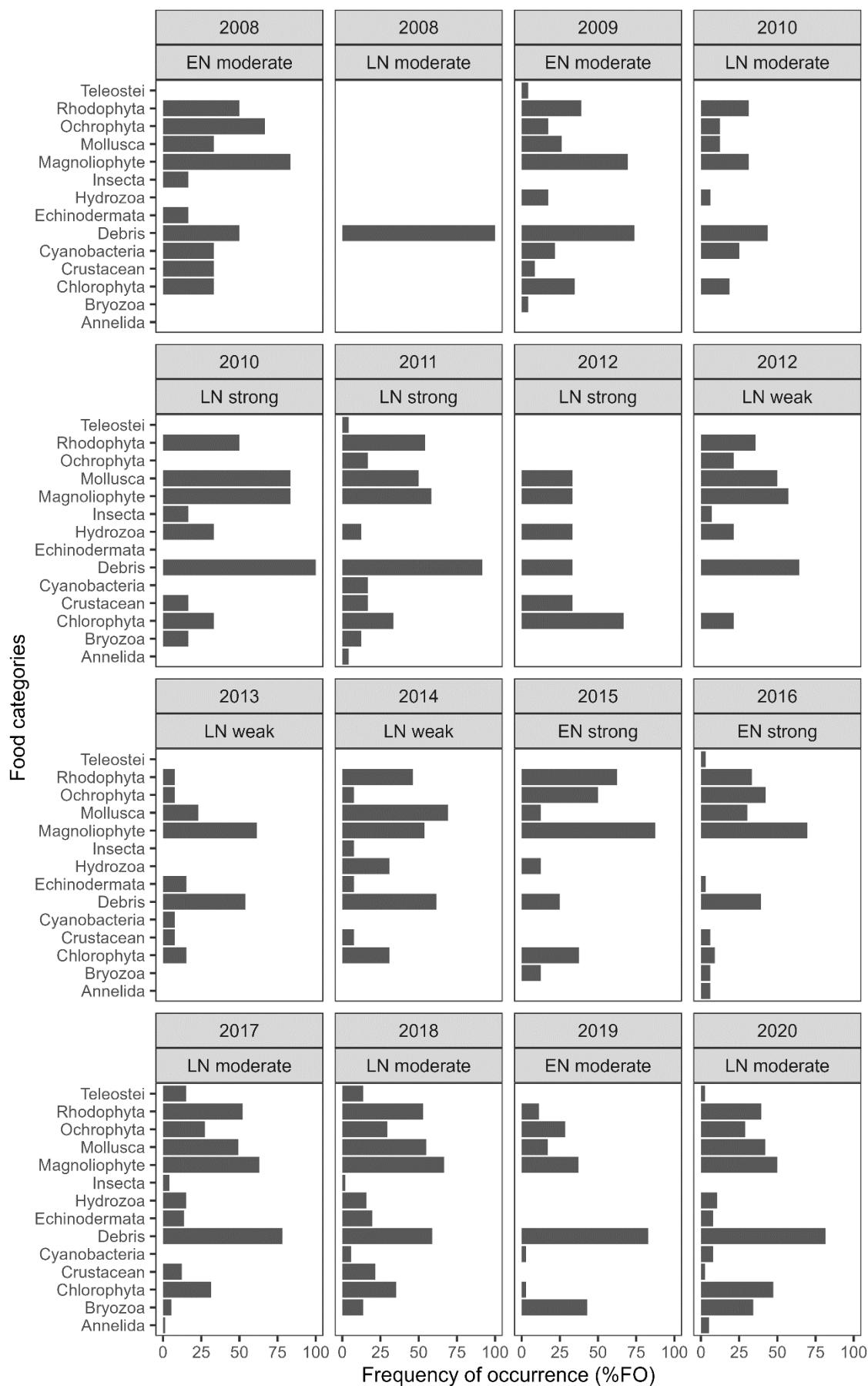
975 **Figure 2:** Frequency of occurrence (%FO) of all the prey items and debris found in the

976 digestive tracts of stranded juvenile green turtles *Chelonia mydas* (n = 351) in Paraná  
 977 coast for all the study period (2008 to 2020).

978



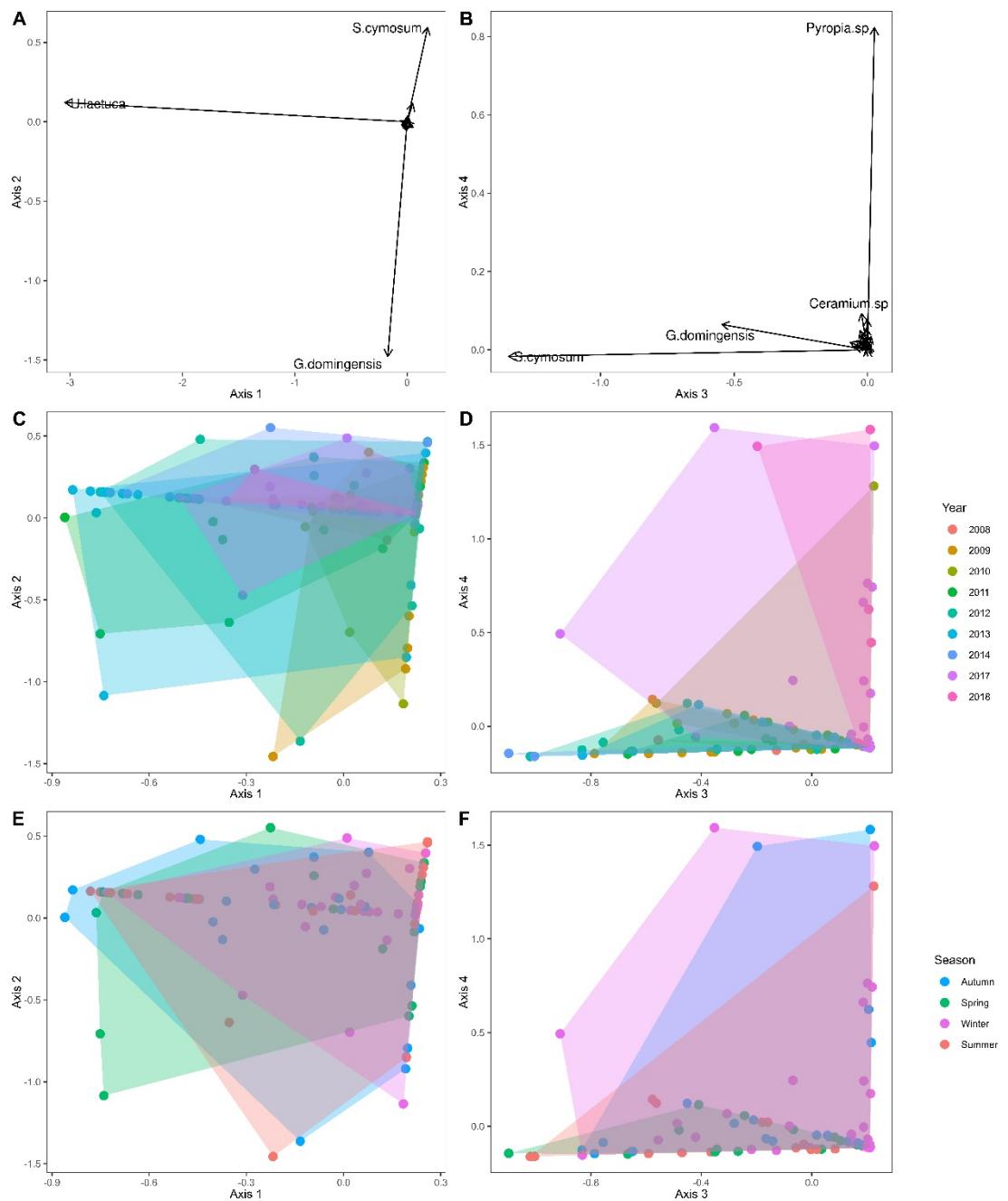
979  
 980 **Figure 3:** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showing diet tendencies of green  
 981 turtles *Chelonia mydas* (n = 351) in Paraná coast, south Brazil. Interannual diet  
 982 tendencies (2008 to 2020) along axes 1 and 2 (A and C), and 3 and 4 (B and D). Diet  
 983 tendencies by climatic events (EN = El Niño, LN = La Niña) along axes 1 and 2 (A and  
 984 E) and 3 and 4 (B and F).



**Fig. 4:** Bar-plots representing the frequency of occurrence (%FO) of the entire database

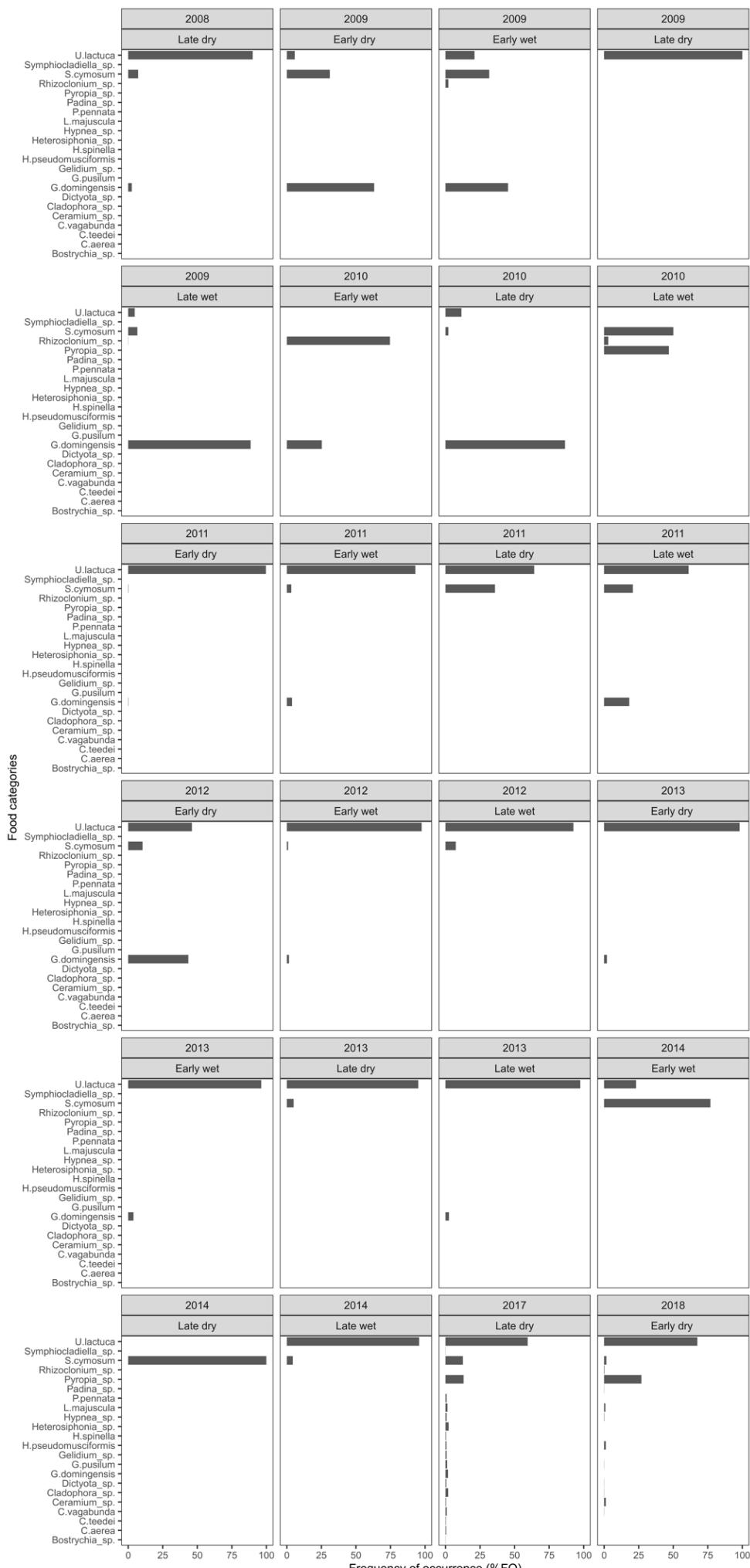
987 (LT) found in the digestive tracts of juvenile green turtles ( $n = 351$ ) found dead-  
 988 stranded in Paraná coast, south Brazil, from 2008 to 2020.

989

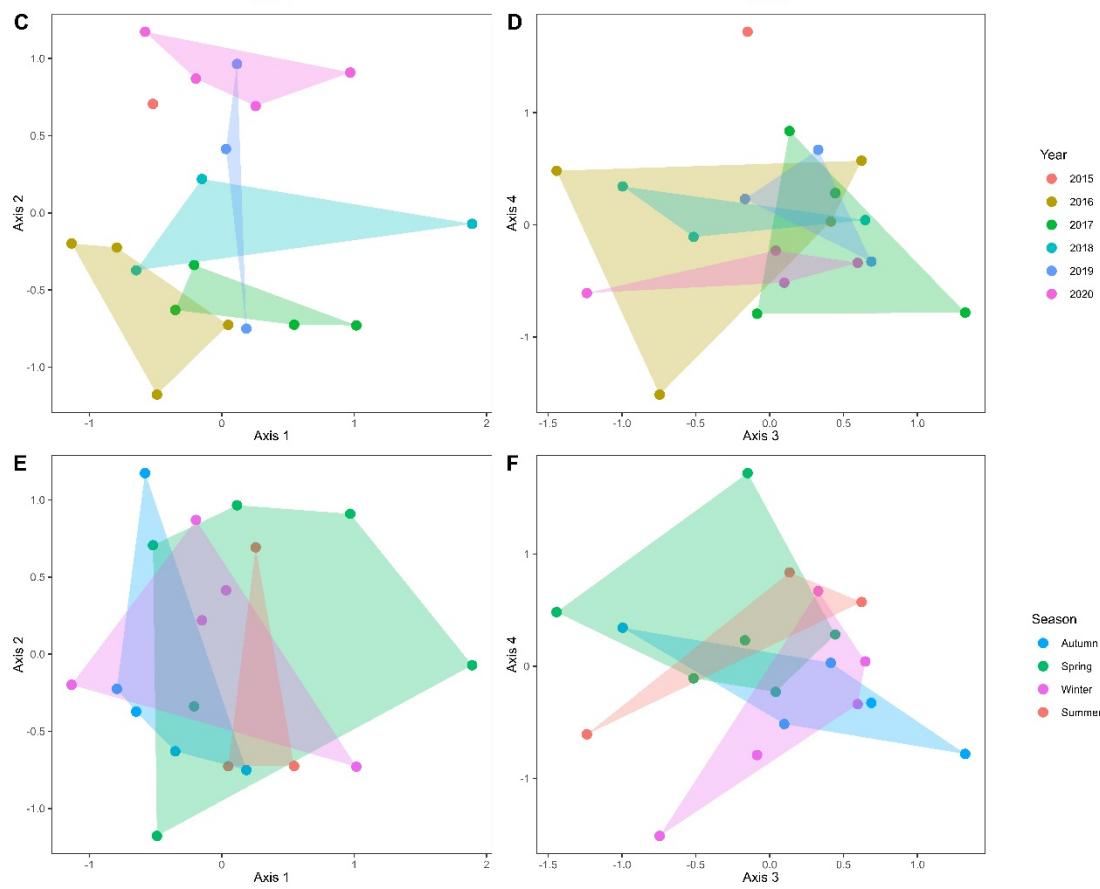
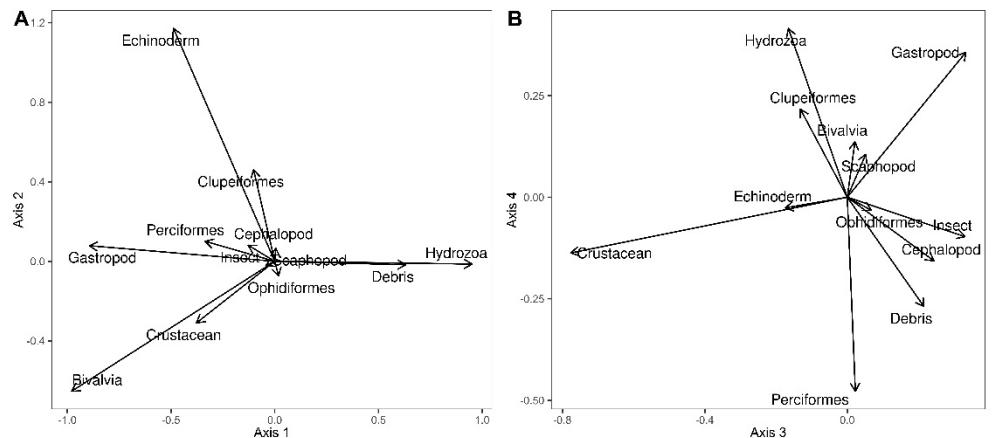


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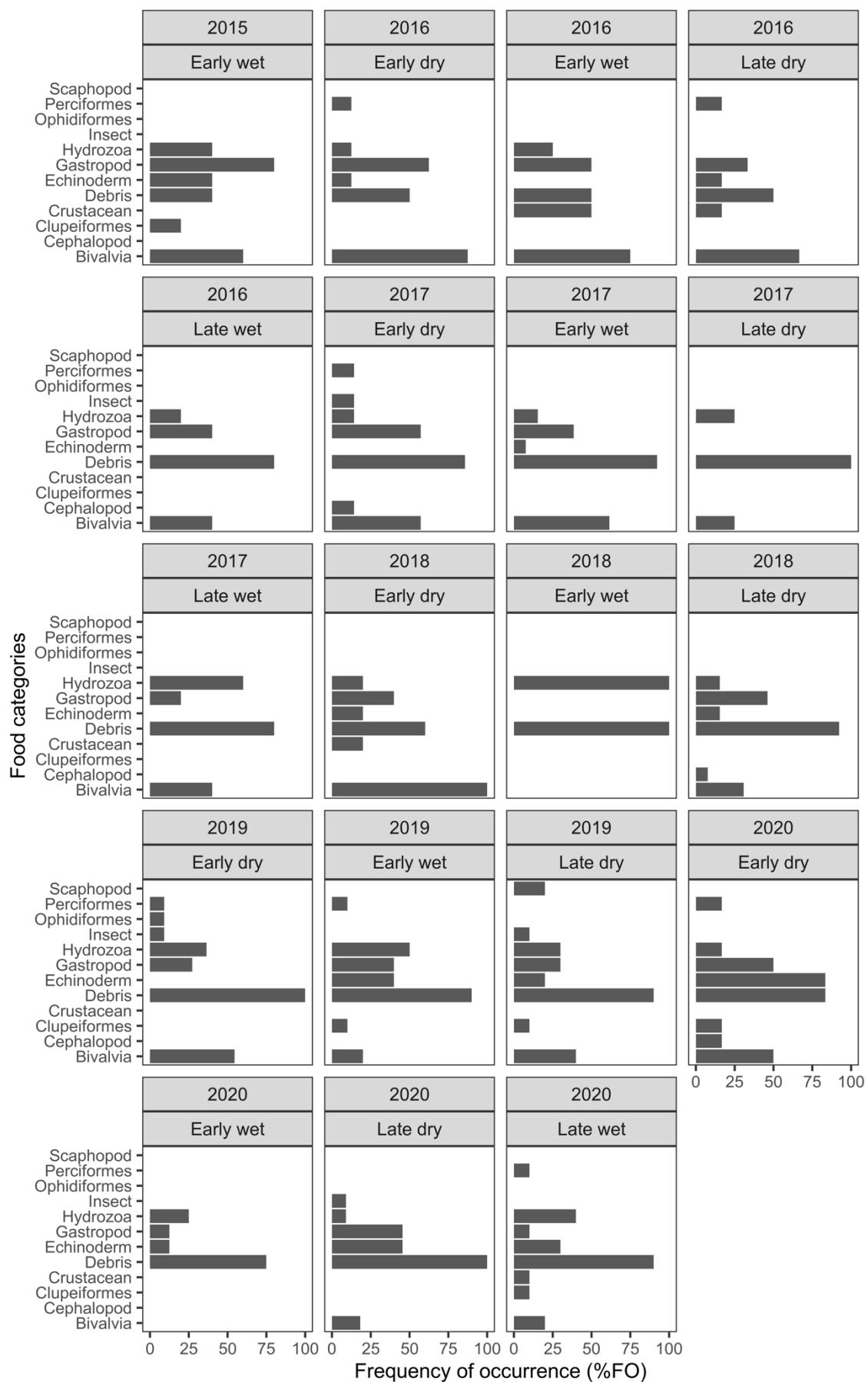
991 **Figure 5:** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showing high taxonomic macroalgae  
 992 (HTM) consumption tendencies of green turtles *Chelonia mydas* ( $n = 148$ ) in Paraná  
 993 coast, south Brazil. Interannual diet tendencies (2008 to 2014, 2017 and 2018) along  
 994 axes 1 and 2 (A and C), and 3 and 4 (B and D). Diet tendencies by seasons along axes 1  
 995 and 2 (A and E) and 3 and 4 (B and F).  
 996



998 **Fig. 6:** Bar-plots representing the frequency of occurrence (%FO) of high taxonomic  
999 macroalgae (HTM) found in the digestive tracts of juvenile green turtles (n = 148)  
1000 found dead-stranded in Paraná coast, south Brazil, from 2008 to 2014; 2017 and 2018.  
1001  
1002



1003 **Figure 7:** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showing high taxonomic animal (HTA)  
1004 consumption tendencies of green turtles *Chelonia mydas* (n = 142) in Paraná coast,  
1005 south Brazil. Interannual diet tendencies (2015 to 2020) along axes 1 and 2 (A and C),  
1006 and 3 and 4 (B and D). Diet tendencies by seasons along axes 1 and 2 (A and E) and 3  
1007 and 4 (B and F).  
1008  
1009



1011 **Fig. 8:** Bar-plots representing the frequency of occurrence (%FO) of high taxonomic  
1012 animal (HTA) found in the digestive tracts of juvenile green turtles (n = 142) found  
1013 dead-stranded in Paraná coast, south Brazil, from 2015 to 2020.  
1014