



## Long-distance travellers stopover for longer: a case study with spoonbills staying in North Iberia

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**Long-distance travellers stopover for longer: a case study with spoonbills staying in North Iberia**

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**Abstract** Long-distance migration is widespread among birds, connecting breeding and wintering areas through a set of stopover localities where individuals refuel and/or rest. The extent of the stopover is critical in determining the migratory strategy of a bird. Here, we examined the relationship between minimum length of stay of PVC-ringed birds in a major stopover site and the remaining flight distance to overwintering area in the Eurasian spoonbill (*Platalea l. leucorodia*) during four consecutive autumn migrations. We also analysed the potential effect of timing (arrival date), as well as the role of experience in explaining stopover duration of spoonbills. Overall, birds wintering in Africa, and facing a long-distance travel from the stopover site (ca. 3,000 km), stay for longer ( $2.7 \pm 0.4$  days) than Iberian winterers ( $1.5 \pm 0.2$  days) that perform a much shorter migration (ca. 800 km). These differences were consistent between years. Stopover duration was not significantly affected by the age of the bird. However there is a significant reduction as migration advanced. Our results suggest that spoonbills develop different stopover strategies depending on the expected distance to the wintering grounds. Adults, especially long-distance migratory ones, could reduce the potential negative effects of density-dependence processes by avoiding stopover at the end of the migration period. These findings are of significant relevance for understanding differences in migratory behaviour within single populations, especially for declining waterbirds, as well as stress the relevance of preserving stopover localities for the conservation of intraspecific diversity in migratory species.

**Keywords:** Experience · intraspecific competition · migratory strategies · spoonbill · stopover duration · timing.

## 39    **Introduction**

40

41    Many animals undertake seasonal movements from the breeding to the wintering grounds, which are regarded  
42    primarily as an adaptation for exploiting the best conditions in food availability throughout the year (Alerstam  
43    et al. 2003; Newton 2008). Long-distance migration is a costly process that consists in sequential movements  
44    interrupted by stopovers for resting and/or refuelling, and is widespread in many animal groups such as  
45    mammals, birds, fish and insects (Alerstam et al. 2003).

46        Migrating birds spend most of the time at stopover sites (Schaub et al. 2001), that are usually discrete and  
47    far apart for many long-distance migratory species, especially waterbirds (Pennycuik and Battley 2003;  
48    Battley et al. 2005; Gill et al. 2005; Piersma et al. 2005). Stopover duration is the most important factor  
49    determining the total length of a migratory journey and the total amount of energy load (Alerstam et al. 2003).  
50    Considering the energy-optimisation theory, individuals should stay in a stopover until enough fuel is stored  
51    to reach the next stopover site, independently of the rate of fuel deposition (Alerstam and Lindström 1990;  
52    Hedenström and Alerstam 1997). On the other hand, in the context of the time-minimisation theory,  
53    individuals should be sensitive to the rate of fuel deposition, adjusting their departure fuel load to their fuel  
54    deposition rate (Alerstam and Lindström 1990; Hedenström and Alerstam 1997). In terms of energy turnover  
55    rate, associated costs may appear in the short- and/or long-term (Schmidt-Wellenburg 2007). Therefore,  
56    timing and conditions experienced at stopover sites may affect not only the success of the migration, but also  
57    the future individual reproduction and survival, with potential consequences for population dynamics (Newton  
58    2006).

59        During migration, many bird species or populations with similar migratory patterns and/or trophic  
60    requirements may use the same stopover sites to refuel and/or rest (Newton 2004). Density-dependent  
61    processes may thus be promoted at stopovers, and interspecific and/or intraspecific competition could increase  
62    (Alerstam and Hedenström 1998, Newton 2006). In this context, early arrival should be under high positive  
63    selection since feeding resources may be fewer, or even depleted, when later birds arrive at a single stopover  
64    (Newton 2006; Nolet et al. 2006). Therefore, experience accumulated along years/migrations could play a

significant role to achieve an optimal migration (Hedenström 2008), and allows the development of different stopover strategies within a population (Scheiffarth et al. 2002; Drent et al. 2003). For long-lived migratory birds, such as cranes and storks, experience (i.e. age of the birds) could be a sign of consistent migration success (Berthold 2001). Accumulated experience may be crucial to achieve a ‘dominant competitive status’ to be able to outcompete conspecifics at stopover and/or wintering localities (Alerstam et al. 2003), especially in species without apparent sexual dimorphism. Experienced birds should be able to reach required fuel-loads faster than inexperienced ones, and thus reducing stopover duration (Newton 2008). Nevertheless, to date, empirical data about ecological factors affecting stopover duration are scarce, and most frequently involves a reduced number of individuals (Schaub et al. 2001; Salewski and Schaub 2007).

Decisions on the necessity for stopover and its duration may depend on the expected length of the migratory bout (Schaub et al. 2001), but to the best of our knowledge no empirical studies have corroborated this hypothesis. A previous study addressed this question, but looking at two different subspecies of the Northern wheatear *Oenanthe oenanthe* (Dierschke and Delingat 2001) and potentially including some confounding factors (i.e. differential ecological/energetic requirements between subspecies). Therefore, the remaining distance to the wintering area has not been fully considered yet as a main factor explaining stopover duration in birds. In this study, we examined the relationship between the length of stay at a major stopover site in Northern Iberia and the overwintering area (Africa or South Iberia) in migrating Eurasian spoonbills (*Platalea l. leucorodia*). We predicted that adult spoonbills travelling to overwinter in Africa will stopover for longer in North Iberia than birds overwintering in South Iberia, and that experience (age) of the birds will play a significant role in explaining stopover duration.

## Methods

The Eurasian spoonbill (*Platalea l. leucorodia*) maintains a small breeding population in Western Europe (4,800 pairs; Triplet et al. 2008), catalogued as “Rare” (BirdLife 2004). Less than 2,000 pairs breed in northern latitudes, the so-called North-Atlantic population, most (1,600 pairs) in the Netherlands (Triplet et al.

2008; see Figure 1). These birds spend the winter in two distant geographic areas: about 20% of the birds in the Iberian Peninsula, most of them in the Southwest (Lorenzo and De le Court 2007), and the rest of the population in North-Western African wetlands, mainly Mauritania and Senegal (Bauchau et al. 1998; Figure 1). Around 35-40% of the North-Atlantic spoonbill population make a strategic stopover in the Santoña Marshes Natural Park (43°30'N 3°30'W; Fig. 1) during autumn migration (Navedo 2006a), where ca. 80% of these birds came from the Wadden Sea islands, 15% from inland Netherlands, and 5% from France (Navedo 2006a). On average, 90% of the spoonbills using Santoña make their stopover during September (Navedo 2006a).

Santoña marshes is an estuarine area located in the northern coast of the Iberian Peninsula with semidiurnal tides exposing the intertidal zone (roughly 1,200 ha.) daily for 5.5--6.5 h. (Navedo and Masero 2007). This estuary is strategically located within the route of the North-Atlantic spoonbill population (Figure 1), just before the geographical barrier of the Cantabrian Mountains, and about 800 km far away from the next main suitable stopover areas at the southern coasts of Iberia (Algarve, Odiel and Doñana). Spoonbill habitat use is invariably driven by the tides, feeding in the intertidal channels during the low tide period and resting at high tide in a supratidal area (Navedo 2006a). Tidal amplitude at Santoña ranges from ca. 2.5 m during neap tides up to ca. 4.5 m during spring ones (mean 3.5 m; Navedo, 2006b), so it potentially has a great influence in available foraging possibilities, with periods of spring tides significantly enlarging potential spatial and time foraging budget.

We have estimated stopover duration of spoonbills in Santoña during September in four consecutive years (2002-2005) on the base of PVC-ringed birds. Every day from 1st to 28th of September, and throughout diurnal low tide period, two experienced observers carefully checked foraging flocks from a boat looking for PVC-ringed birds. Observers were connected by walkie-talkies with people in two little hills overlooking the estuarine area, which informed them about the localisation of all foraging spoonbills in the intertidal channels. Thus, we assumed that almost all the spoonbills using the estuary (mean daily number at low tide was 69.4 birds; J.G. Navedo unpubl. data) were checked on a daily basis. When a PVC-ringed bird was located, the boat was slightly beached to identify the code of the PVC-ring with the help of a 20x-60x telescope (mean

observation distance: 120 m.). Approximately 15% of the north-atlantic spoonbill population was currently marked with individual PVC ring codes (O. Overdijk, unpubl. data).

Minimum stopover duration was defined as the time elapsed between first location and last relocation of a bird in the estuary. Since resighting probability of birds that stopover three days or more ( $n=74$ ) was  $0.89 \pm 0.01$ , and it was not significantly different between years ( $F_{3,70} = 0.81$ ;  $p = 0.5$ ), it approaches real stopover duration. Overall, we read 974 PVC-rings during the study (277, 209, 312 and 176; in 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005, respectively), comprising 263 accurately identified PVC-ringed spoonbills [69 yearlings (1st year-cal); 39 immatures (2nd and 3rd year-cal) and 155 adult birds (4th year-cal or more)]. Of these birds, 38 were located during more than one autumn at Santoña, corresponding to 34 adults and 4 immatures, all of them 3rd year-cal at the time of their first observation (Dutch Spoonbill Working Group Database). Despite most PVC-ringed yearlings were not resighted during its first wintering season, many PVC-ringed birds identified in Santoña were resighted in its major wintering areas a few months later (data obtained from the Dutch Spoonbill Working Group database). Nonetheless, as this population shows high fidelity to wintering area (De Voogd 2004), data was used even if wintering area was not known for the specific year for which stopover duration was recorded. In these cases, only birds for which wintering area is known, and remained constant for three years during 2002-2008, were included in the analyses. Under these premises, we analysed information about stopover duration and wintering area for a total of 127 birds (17 yearlings, 17 immatures and 93 adults)

Spoonbills resighted during November and December at Algarve (Portugal), Odiel and Doñana (Spain) were grouped into the Iberian-wintering class (43% of the PVC-ringed birds), whereas spoonbills resighted at that time at Banc d'Arguin (Mauritania) and Senegal Delta (Senegal) were grouped into the African-wintering class (57% of the PVC-ringed birds).

Statistical analysis

Some spoonbills ( $n = 38$ ) were resighted on more than one migration at Santoña. Therefore, effects of year and wintering area on minimum stopover duration of spoonbills were analysed by fitting a Linear Mixed Model with individual (ring code) as random effect. Wintering area and year were respectively included into the model as two-level (Iberia/Africa) and four-level (2002/2003/2004/2005) fixed factors, respectively. Arrival date, defined as days elapsed from August 31<sup>st</sup>, was introduced as a potential predictive covariable since timing could significantly affect migratory behaviour (Newton 2008). Similarly, age as well as within-site experience (i.e. number of previous years registered at the area during the study period) were both included as potential predictive variables into the model. Tidal amplitude at arrival, defined as a coefficient ranging from 20 to 120, a measure directly correlated with the height of the tide, was also examined as a predictive covariable due to its potential influence in migratory decisions (Piersma et al. 1990). As arrival date and tidal amplitude were correlated we have tested their effects separately (not in the same model). However, tidal amplitude was not finally included into the model since it was not correlated with the dependent variable (Spearman  $r = -0.06$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

Statistical analyses were performed using STATISTICA v6.1 (StatSoft Inc. 2002). In all cases we used a 0.05 level of significance. Values are presented as means  $\pm$  SE.

## Results

Individuals wintering in Africa spent more time ( $2.7 \pm 0.4$  days;  $n = 72$ ) at Santoña marshes during the autumn migration than those wintering in south Iberia ( $1.5 \pm 0.2$  days;  $n = 55$ ) (Table 1; Figure 2). Minimum stopover duration was similar between years, and longer stays for birds wintering in Africa were always recorded even during the year with the shortest length of stay (2004, Figure 2). As migration period progresses minimum stopover duration decreased significantly (Table 1; Figure 3). However, nor age neither within-site experience did have a significant effect in explaining stopover duration of spoonbills.

## Discussion



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169 This study empirically shows that stopover duration in a long-distance migratory bird as the Eurasian  
170 spoonbill was influenced by the remaining flight distance to the overwintering area. According to our  
171 prediction, spoonbills wintering in Africa, and consequently facing a long-distance travel from a crucial  
172 stopover site, stay for longer than those birds wintering in south Iberia that performed a shorter migration.  
173 Although there are alternative reasons to stay at a stopover site than refuelling (e.g. resting, foraging for  
174 maintenance or waiting for favorable winds to continue migration, e.g. Weber et al. 1998), spoonbills were  
175 foraging most of the available time during stopover (J.G.Navedo pers obs). Therefore, longer stopover  
176 duration would reflect higher energy-loads for spoonbills staying at the study area.

177 Birds wintering in south Iberia seem to minimise the time spent at the stopover locality, flying after a  
178 short refuelling. Without large energy requirements, the need to arrive to the best foraging grounds in these  
179 short-distance wintering areas ahead of other conspecifics may be the driving force explaining the fast  
180 stopover of Iberian-wintering spoonbills. Moreover, as birds wintering in Southern Iberia are close to their  
181 destination, they could be less dependent on the foraging conditions at this stopover to successfully complete  
182 their migration. Inversely, birds wintering in Africa need to adjust their stopover duration at Santoña Marshes  
183 to the requirements of a high energy-demanding flight and the prospects for a longer migratory trip (Alerstam  
184 and Lindström 1990), thus refuelling for longer. Furthermore, at least some birds might take advantage of the  
185 high energy load to ‘skip’ those south Iberian wetlands (Piersma 1987), where their conspecifics overwinter,  
186 to perform a non-stop bout from Santoña to north western African wetlands.

187 Eurasian spoonbills consistently stopover for less time as migration period progressed. Prey consumption  
188 at stopover areas would reduce food availability for migratory birds and even depleted them (Gudmundsson et  
189 al. 1991; Prop et al. 2003; Nolet et al. 2006). Although we have not measured food availability in our study  
190 area (main prey for spoonbills are little fishes and shrimps; J.G. Navedo unpubl. data), a significant decrease  
191 of food resources for waterbirds occurs in estuaries around north Iberian coasts during autumn migration, and  
192 extending to the winter season (Boileau et al. 2001; Viegas et al. 2007). If food is limited, an increase in  
193 intraspecific competition resulting from a particular good breeding season (i.e. high number of breeding pairs

and productivity) may have measurable consequences in the migratory performance within a given population (Alerstam et al. 2003), specially for experienced adults (Berthold 2001). The reduced stopover duration observed during 2004 could have been affected by the highest population size during the study period reached in that year (a high number of breeding pairs achieving a high reproductive success; O. Overdijk unpubl. data), which also coincided with the maximum number of spoonbills that stopover at Santoña marshes during the study period (Navedo 2006a).

Age-related differences in timing of migration at stopover sites are common in many bird species (e.g. Restani 2000; Ueta and Higuchi 2002; Hake et al. 2003; Meissner 2007; Lee et al. 2008). In our case, a preliminary study addressed that the majority of adult spoonbills (ca. 70%) had currently used the area before the arrival of the majority of yearlings (ca. 60%) at the last week of September (Navedo 2008), when overall stopover duration has markedly decreased. Therefore, yearlings that stopover at the last part of the migration period without knowledge about remaining distance to wintering areas, associated energy demands, and/or suitability of stopover areas, may reduce their probability of survive during a long migration (Newton 2006), which could be viewed as an evolutionary issue regulating long-distance migratory bird populations (Schekkerman et al. 2003). Inversely, adults could minimise the effects derived from density-dependent processes by avoiding stopover at the end of the migration period, in particular African wintering birds dealing with a fairly narrow time window to satisfy their higher energy demands (Skagen and Knopf 1994), that overall arrive a few days earlier (mode: 13<sup>th</sup> September) than Iberian ones (mode: 17<sup>th</sup> September).

Notwithstanding the lack of prey surveys and fuelling rates (Hedenström and Alerstam 1997), our findings suggest that spoonbills may experience a high intraspecific competition during stopover that could result in the different strategies observed (Drent et al. 2003). However, further studies are needed to clarify this point and to evaluate potential differences between sexes (Cristol et al. 1999), as well as the role of experience (age) within sexes in these long-lived bird (Berthold 2001), especially for African-wintering spoonbills that refuel for longer.

To sum up, this study provides empirical evidence of different stopover duration in a natural bird population in function of the remaining migratory distance to overwintering area, and remarks the relevance of stopover places for determining migratory route and pace in long-distance migratory birds.

## **Zusammenfassung**

### **Langstreckenzieher rasten länger: eine Fallstudie an in Nordiberien rastenden Löfflern**

Langstreckenzug ist bei Vögeln weit verbreitet und verbindet die Brut- und Überwinterungsgebiete durch eine Serie von Rastplätzen, wo Individuen auftanken und/oder ruhen. Das Ausmaß der Rast ist entscheidend für die Zugstrategie eines Vogels. Hier haben wir die Beziehung zwischen der minimalen Aufenthaltsdauer von PVC-beringten Löfflern (*Platalea l. leucorodia*) an einem Hauptrastplatz und der verbleibenden Flugentfernung zum Überwinterungsgebiet während vier aufeinander folgender Herbstzüge untersucht. Wir haben auch den potenziellen Einfluss von Timing (Ankunftsdatum) und die Rolle von Erfahrung analysiert, um die Rastdauer von Löfflern zu erklären. Insgesamt bleiben Vögel, die in Afrika überwintern und vom Rastplatz aus eine längere Strecke ziehen (ca. 3000 km), länger ( $2,7 \pm 0,4$  Tage) als Vögel, die in Iberien überwintern und eine deutlich kürzere Strecke (ca. 800 km) ziehen ( $1,5 \pm 0,2$  Tage). Diese Unterschiede waren über den untersuchten Zeitraum beständig. Die Rastdauer wurde nicht signifikant vom Alter des Vogels beeinflusst. Sie verringerte sich jedoch signifikant mit dem Fortschreiten des Zuges. Unsere Ergebnisse deuten darauf hin, dass Löffler unterschiedliche Raststrategien entwickeln, abhängig von der erwarteten Entfernung zum Überwinterungsgebiet. Altvögel, insbesondere solche, die lange Strecken ziehen, könnten mögliche negative Effekte dichteabhängiger Prozesse reduzieren, indem sie Rasten am Ende des Zuges vermeiden. Diese Ergebnisse sind von signifikanter Bedeutung für das Verstehen von Unterschieden im Zugverhalten innerhalb einzelner Populationen, insbesondere für in ihrem Bestand abnehmende Wasservögel, und betonen die Bedeutung des Schutzes von Rastplätzen für die Bewahrung innerartlicher Diversität bei Zugvögeln.

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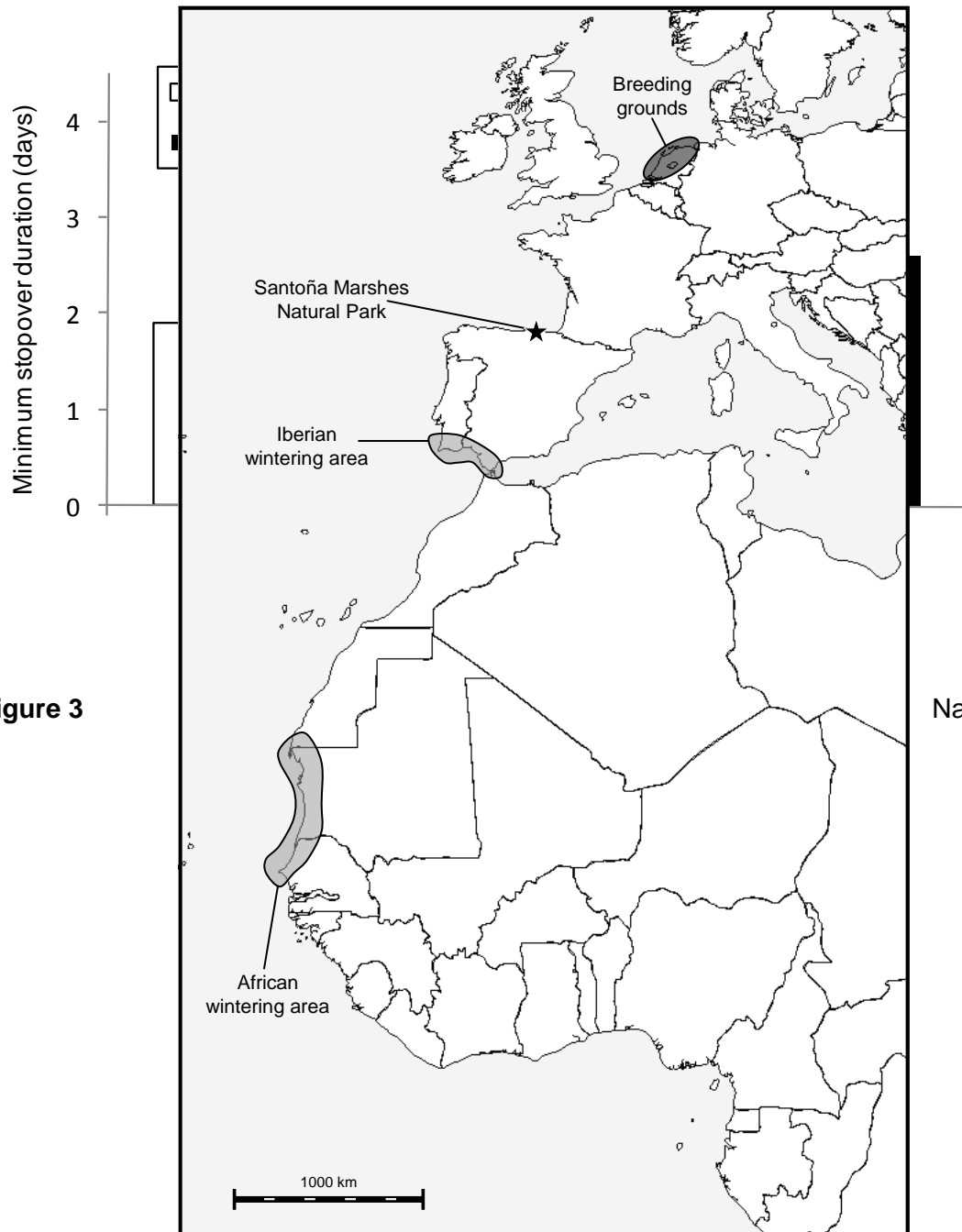
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356 **Figure 1** Navedo *et al.*  
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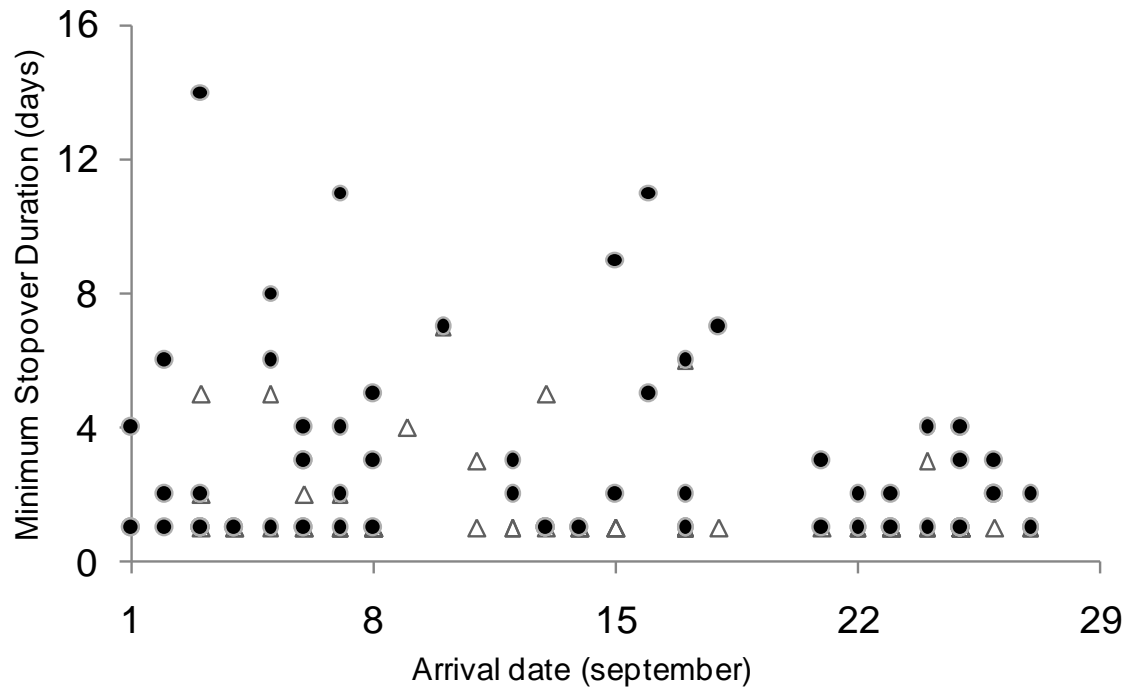
358 **Figure 2** Navedo *et al.*  
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362 **Figure 3**  
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369 **Table 1** Results of a Linear Mixed Model procedure evaluating the effect wintering area and arrival date on  
370 minimum stopover duration (log transformed) of spoonbills (random effect) at Santoña Marshes Natural Park  
371 during autumn migration (2002-2005). Non-significant interactions were sequentially removed from the  
372 model.

Source	Effect	d.f.	F	p
arrival date	Fixed	1	5.80	< 0.02
wintering area	Fixed	1	9.03	< 0.004
ring code	Random	125	1.42	ns

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