a) Title: Survival estimates of Greater Crested Terns (*Thalasseus bergii*) in
 southern Africa

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## 23 b) Abstract

The nominate race of the Greater Crested Tern (Thalasseus bergii) only breeds along the Benguela coast of southern Africa, where its population is increasing, in contrast to the other breeding seabirds in the region that depend on forage fish. Although this population's trends are well known, its demographic parameters remain obscure. We use multi-event capture-recapture-recovery modelling to provide the first survival estimates: survival of birds older than two years was 0.93 (0.91-0.95); second year survival was 0.93 (0.90-0.95) and first year survival 0.80 (0.73–0.85). A resighting of a 34-year old bird is a new longevity record for the species. Population growth rates estimated using a Leslie matrix model including our survival estimates were very similar to estimates from annual counts of the breeding population  $(7-8\% y^{-1})$ , suggesting that the survival estimates adequately describe the species' demography. High survival rates have contributed to the species recent population increase. 

48 c) Text

#### 49 Introduction

Adequate data on the components of demographic change are vital for management of wild populations (Nichols & Williams, 2006). An important parameter is survival, and resulting longevity, as survival has an important influence on population dynamics in *K*-selected species (Sæther & Bakke, 2000) and, in turn, on our understanding of their capacity to cope with environmental changes (Payo-Payo et al. 2016).

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Seabirds are useful indicators of ecological change (Cury et al., 2011) and are more threatened than other comparable groups of birds (Croxall et al., 2012). They are also generally long-lived, with life histories that include delayed maturation, intermittent breeding and strong dispersal capabilities (Schreiber & Burger, 2001). As a consequence, getting robust demographic data can be difficult; adult survival estimates are available for only ~20% of all seabird species and juvenile survival estimates for < 2% (Lewison et al., 2012).</p>

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The Greater Crested or Swift Tern (Thalasseus bergii) is a small, colonial-65 breeding seabird widely distributed from the southeast Atlantic Ocean east to the 66 67 west-central Pacific Ocean. The nominate subspecies T. b. bergii is endemic to southern Africa, where it breeds from central Namibia to South Africa's Eastern 68 Cape (Cooper et al., 1990). Here they feed predominately on Anchovy Engraulis 69 70 encrasicolus (~65% of the diet) and other small, schooling pelagic fish (hereafter forage fish) including Sardine Sardinops sagax, Redeye Round-herring Etrumeus 71 whiteheadi and Horse Mackerel Trachurus capensis (Gaglio et al., 2017, Gaglio, 72

2017). In the late 1980s and early 1990s, numbers breeding in the Western Cape 73 74 Province of South Africa, fluctuated between 1,500 and 4,700 pairs (Crawford & Dyer, 1995). Over the last few decades, while the region's populations of other 75 seabirds that rely on forage fish have decreased, Greater Crested Tern numbers 76 have increased (Crawford et al., 2015). In less than 30 years the breeding 77 population has tripled, with ~14,000 pairs breeding in the Western Cape in 2015 78 (Department of Environmental Affairs, unpubl. data). This increase has been 79 attributed to the species' ability to adapt to a recent eastward shift in the 80 distribution of its main forage fish prey in South Africa (Crawford, 2009). In 81 82 particular, Greater Crested Terns have responded by shifting their main breeding locations from islands in the vicinity of Saldanha Bay south and east to Robben 83 and Dyer Islands (Crawford, 2009; Crawford et al., 2015). Even though the 84 85 species' population trends in the Benguela region are fairly well documented, no survival estimates exist for this species (Crawford & Dyer, 1995; Crawford, 2009), 86 hindering our understanding of the underlying ecological drivers of its population 87 change. We use 45 years of data on marked individuals to estimate survival of 88 Greater Crested Terns marked in southern Africa breeding colonies. 89

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91 Material and methods

During 1968–2016, 17,081 pre-fledging Greater Crested Tern chicks were marked using metal bands along Namibian and South African coast (see Figure 1) of which 67 individuals were resighted in southern Africa during the breeding season (April–July) and 287 were recovered dead (SAFRING database). In addition, since 1970 most cohorts were tagged with a year-specific colour band, allowing estimates of longevity.

The goodness-of-fit test (GOF) of the Jolly Movement model for multistate data 98 99 was calculated using U-CARE 2.3.2 (Choquet et al. 2009a). GOF allows sources of heterogeneity in recapture and/or survival (e.g. trap-dependence or transience; 100 101 Pradel et al. 2005) to be detected. We detected a significant 'trap-dependence' effect - unequal probabilities of being re-encountered given the previous 102 encountered/non-encountered state (Pradel and Sanz-Aquilar 2012). To account 103 104 for this effect, we modelled recapture conditional on survival and on the previous encounter state of the individual (i.e., recapture probabilities differ between birds 105 encountered and not encountered on the previous occasion, which accounts for 106 107 heterogeneity in resighting probabilities of birds settling in areas with different observer effort). After accounting for trap-dependence, an acceptable variance 108 inflation factor was obtained ( $\hat{c} = 1.01$ , Table 1) and we applied this to all models 109 110 constructed using E-SURGE software (Choquet et al., 2009).

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Models were constructed in a multi-event, capture-mark-recapture-recovery frequentist framework (CMRR), which relates the true state of the individual to the observed event via a series of conditional probabilities (Pradel, 2005). This modelling framework allowed us to account for trap-awareness and related phenomena whereby successive capture events are not independent (Pradel & Sanz-Aguilar, 2012).

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119 Multi-event models use three different kinds of parameters: initial state 120 probabilities ( $\Pi$ , matrix 1; here all birds were ringed as chicks with a probability 121 1), transition between states probabilities ( $\Psi$ , matrix 2), and event probabilities 122 (B, matrix 3). We decomposed the transition probabilities into two consecutive

steps: the first ( $\Psi_1$ ) represents survival probabilities ( $\varphi$ ) and the second ( $\Psi_2$ ) 123 recapture probabilities (p); event probabilities correspond to the recovery 124 probability (b). We built a model with four states and three events. The states 125 were as follows: alive and captured in the previous occasion (Aa), alive and non-126 captured in previous occasion (Au), recently dead, i.e. during the previous year 127 (Dr), and long dead (DI). Events were: not seen (0), seen alive (1) and recovered 128 129 freshly dead (2).

$$\Pi = (1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0) \tag{1}$$

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$$Aa \quad Au \quad Dr \quad Dl \qquad Aa \quad Au \quad Dr \quad Dl$$
133 
$$\Psi = \Psi_{1} * \Psi_{2} = \begin{array}{c} Aa \\ Au \\ Dr \\ Dl \\ \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} \varphi & 0 & 1 - \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & \varphi & 1 - \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{c} Aa \\ Au \\ P_{Au} \\ Dr \\ Dl \\ \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} p_{Aa} & 1 - p_{Aa} & 0 & 0 \\ p_{Au} & 1 - p_{Au} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \end{array} \right) (2)$$

0

0

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0 1 2 135

136 
$$B = \begin{array}{c} Aa \\ Au \\ Dr \\ Dr \\ Dl \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 - b & 0 & b \\ Dl & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$
(3)

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We included a trap-dependence effect in the recapture modelling (differential 138 recapture probabilities for individuals observed and not observed in the previous 139 occasion, as indicated by GOF tests). Recruitment age is unknown for Greater 140 141 Crested Terns in southern Africa but in Australia they usually recruit between 2 and 3 years old (Del Hoyo et al., 1996; Road et al., 1996). Our initial model 142 considered 3 age classes (i.e. differences between first year, second year and 143 144 adult individuals) assuming that Greater Crested Terns breeding in southern Africa may recruit at age 3; second year individuals might prospect at colonies 145

and first year individuals should not visit breeding colonies (Langham & Hulsman,
1986; Crawford et al., 2002). We tested alternative models considering different
age structures and temporal effects. For recovery, we tested whether or not there
were any temporal effects. Once the best recapture and recovery structure was
found, we examined differences in survival among age classes: first year, second
year and older individuals.

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We performed model selection using the second-order Akaike's information criterion corrected for over-dispersion and small sample size (QAICc; Burnham and Anderson, 2002). For each model *j*, we calculated the Akaike weight,  $w_j$ , as an index of its relative plausibility (Burnham & Anderson 2002). Estimates were obtained by model averaging where models contributed to the final estimate according to their  $w_j$  (Burnham & Anderson 2002).

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We used ULM-software to construct a Leslie matrix age-structured population 160 model and to examine whether our survival estimates were consistent with the 161 observed population increase (Legendre & Clobert, 1995). We parameterised a 162 163 simple 3 age-class Leslie matrix model using the survival estimates obtained from the best model to calculate the southern Africa population's growth rate,  $\lambda'$ 164 (dominant eigenvalue of the Leslie matrix; Caswell, 2001). We assumed an equal 165 sex ratio at birth, breeding success of 0.5 chicks/pair/year (Gaglio, 2017) and 166 assumed recruitment at age 3. 167

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169 The Western Cape breeding population represents around 90% of the southern 170 Africa population, so constitutes a good proxy of its population trend (Kemper,

171 2007; Makhado et al., 2013). Therefore, we used R (R Core Team, 2013) to 172 calculate the observed population growth rate in the Western Cape ( $\lambda$ ) and its 173 confidence intervals by regressing the natural log (Im function) of the population 174 counts over a time interval against the amount of time elapsed (Morris & Doak, 175 2002).

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177 Results

Survival probabilities were estimated by model averaging from the best ranked models ( $M_0$  and  $M_5$ , Table 2): first-year survival was 0.80 (95% CI: 0.73–0.85), second year survival 0.93 (95% CI: 0.90–0.95) and adult survival 0.93 (95% CI: 0.91–0.95). The model with the lowest QAICc value ( $M_5$ , Table 2) included survival differences for first year terns and older individuals, temporal, age and trap-dependence effects in the recapture probabilities and a time-dependent effect on recovery.

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The predicted population growth rate was  $\lambda' = 1.08$  (95% CI: 1.06-1.10), which was similar to the observed population growth rate,  $\lambda = 1.07$  (95% CI: 1.05–1.08), from 1987 (3,314 pairs) to 2015 (13,904 pairs).

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The oldest bird recorded from cohort colour banding was a 34-year-old tern
observed carrying a prey item at the breeding colony on Robben Island on 25
February 2013 (Figure 2). The bird was banded as a pre-fledging chick on Marcus
Island on 16 April 1979.

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195 Discussion

196 Using long-term monitoring and multi-event CMRR modelling, we provide the first age-dependent estimates of survival for Greater Crested Terns. The first year of 197 life is a critical period during an individual's life (Payo-Payo et al., 2016). As 198 expected, juvenile (i.e. first year) Greater Crested Terns had lower survival 199 probabilities than second year terns and adults, as reported for other tern species 200 201 (Table 3). Our survival estimates are amongst the highest reported for terns, especially for adult survival estimates (Table 3). By using recovery data, our 202 survival refers to real (not apparent) survival, which might explain why we 203 204 obtained higher survival rates than many other studies of terns, but our values are similar to those for Royal Terns Thalasseus maximus (Collins and Doherty 205 2006, Table 3). The high adult survival estimate is consistent with the new 206 207 longevity record for the Greater Crested Tern (although longevity estimates are highly sensitive to the numbers of individuals marked). Five other tern species 208 209 have been reported to live ≥30 years: the Caspian Tern Hydroprogne caspia, the 210 Sandwich Tern Thalasseus sandvicensis, the Sooty Tern Onychoprion fuscatus, the Common Tern Sterna hirundo and the Arctic Tern Sterna paradisea (Burger 211 & Gochfeld, 2001; de Magalhães & Costa, 2009). 212

The high adult survival estimate for Greater Crested Terns in the southern Benguela is somewhat anomalous given the widespread changes that have occurred in this ecosystem in recent years (e.g. Crawford et al. 2015). Although we do not account for temporal effects on survival it is possible that survival was higher in the 1990s when fish abundance increased greatly, then fell post 2000 after changes in food abundance occurred. Other endemic seabird species, such as the African Penguin *Spheniscus demersus*, Cape Gannet *Morus capensis and* 

Cape Cormorant Phalacrocorax capensis, which feed on similar forage fish 220 221 species as Greater Crested Terns, have experienced decreases in adult survival over the last two-decades (Distiller et al., 2012; Sherley et al., 2014; Crawford et 222 223 al., 2016). In addition, first-year survival of African Penguins has generally been low (<0.25) since the mid-2000s (Sherley et al., 2014) when large, adult forage 224 225 fish became scarce off western South Africa. It is possible that African Penguins, 226 Cape Gannets and Cape Cormorants are more dependent on anchovy and sardine than Greater Crested Terns, which have a variety of feeding methods 227 (see Gaglio, 2017). Indeed, anchovy made up 84% (by mass) of the diet fed to 228 229 penguin chicks at Robben Island between 2001 and 2009 (Sherley et al., 2013) versus 65% (by number) of the diet of Terns at the same locality between 2013 230 and 2015 (Gaglio, 2017). However, the diet of Cape Cormorants breeding in the 231 232 Western Cape between 1984 and 1992 was 64% anchovy (by mass; Cook et al., 2012). Therefore, Terns may be less vulnerable to sudden changes in forage fish 233 234 availability (Futuyma & Moreno, 1988; Gaglio, 2017), but diet studies that overlap in space and time would be needed to confirm this hypothesis. 235

236 Life-history theory predicts that adult survival should be the key parameter driving population functioning. However, juvenile survival can be an important source of 237 variability in population dynamics (Votier et al., 2008; Sergio et al., 2011). Given 238 the low fecundity (maximum one chick per pair per year), high survival rates for 239 all age classes were necessary to maintain the growth of the Greater Crested 240 Tern population over the last two decades (Crawford, 2009). Although this 241 increase seems at odds with the large declines in other seabirds using the 242 Western Cape, the small body-size of the Greater Crested Tern may mean they 243 244 are able to sustain high adult and first-year survival on forage fish recruits (which

remain abundant off the west coast; Hutchings et al. 2009). This in turn makes
them less dependent on adult forage fish than larger penguins and gannets
appear to be (see above, Distiller et al. 2012, Sherley et al. 2014). Moreover, a
decrease in the numbers of migrant terns – especially Common Terns *Sterna hirundo* – wintering in the southern Benguela might have reduced competition for
prey, therefore resulting in higher Greater Crested Tern fitness (Ryan 2013).

CMRR methods are vulnerable to low rates of recapture of marked animals 251 252 (Lebreton et al., 1992) and age-dependent recovery models may cause parameter redundancy when only juveniles are marked (Lakhani & Newton, 253 1983). However, by combining recoveries and a few resightings we were able to 254 estimate survival. In fact, the population growth rates estimated from population 255 counts and estimates from a Leslie matrix with our survival and available breeding 256 success estimates were highly consistent. Robust estimates of demographic 257 258 parameters allow accurate diagnoses of the drivers of population change, comparative studies, and targeted management action (Morris & Doak, 2002). 259 Although our results provide some insights into the mechanisms underlying the 260 261 recent increase in their population, future work linking demographic parameters to the changing environmental conditions would shed further light on why Greater 262 Crested Terns appear to be one of the Benguela ecosystem's few seabird 263 winners. 264

265

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#### 482 e) Tables and tabulations

483 **Table 1**. Goodness of fit (GOF) tests for a Jolly Movement model for Greater

484 Crested Terns breeding in southern Africa.  $\chi^2$ =test value; df, degrees of

485 freedom; ĉ, variance inflation factor, i.e.  $\chi^2$ /df. Test components are as in Pradel

et al. (2003). The GOF component 3G SR tests for the presence of transients,

487 i.e. individuals that are marked and are never recaptured or resighted; M.ITEC

component tests for the presence of trap-dependence; and "final ĉ" shows the
overdispersion coefficient after correcting for these trap-dependence and
transient effects in the starting models run in E-SURGE. 3G SM and LTEC have
no direct biological interpretation but this test components are as in (Pradel et
al., 2003).

	Test	X <sup>2</sup>	p-value	df	Ĉ
	3G.SM	18.23	0.25	15.00	1.22
	3G.SR	0.00	1.00	3.00	0.00
	ITEC	120.24	0.00	30.00	4.01
	LTEC	65.62	0.17	65.00	1.01
	GLOBAL	204.4	0.00	113.00	1.81
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**Table 2.** Model selection for survival ( $\Phi$ ), recapture (p) and recovery probabilities (b): w, trap-dependence; an, n age classes modelled; t, time; cst, constant; "+", additive effect; NP, number of parameters; DEV, deviance; QAICc, second-order corrected Akaike's information criterion;  $\Delta$ QAICc, QAICc difference to the best model; *w<sub>i</sub>*: Akaike weight.

	Model formulation										
	Survival	Recapture	Recovery	NP	DEV	QAICc	ΔQAIC <sub>C</sub>	Wj			
M <sub>0</sub>	$\Phi_{a3}$	p <sub>a3+w+t</sub>	bt	87	5513.67	5632.96	0.88	0.39			
$M_1$	$\Phi_{a3}$	p <sub>a3+w+t</sub>	b <sub>cst</sub>	50	5617.49	5662.16	30.08	0.00			
$M_2$	$\Phi_{a3}$	p <sub>a2+w+t</sub>	bt	85	5533.17	5649.23	17.15	0.00			
Мз	$\Phi_{a3}$	p <sub>w+t</sub>	bt	84	5536.56	5650.56	18.48	0.00			
$M_4$	$\Phi_{a3}$	pw	bt	48	5685.54	5725.52	93.44	0.00			
M5	$\Phi_{a2}$	₽a3+w+t	bt	86	5513.67	5632.08	0.00	0.61			
M <sub>6</sub>	$\Phi_{acst}$	p <sub>a3+w+t</sub>	bt	85	5556.59	5672.42	40.34	0.00			

Species	Location	Years	$\Phi_{Juvenile}$		$\Phi_{Adult}$		Reference
Thalasseus	California, USA	1988-2004	0.86	(0.29-0.96)	0.95	(0.88-0.98)	(Collins & Doherty, 2006)
maximus							
T. bergii	W Cape, South	1968-2015	0.80	(0.73-0.85)	0.93	(0.91-0.95)	This study
	Africa						
<b>—</b>							(14 11 4000)
I. sandvicensis					0.63-0.83		(Møller 1983)
Hydroprogne					0.87-0.91		(Cuthbert & Wires, 1999)
caspia							
Sterna hirundo	Cape Cod, USA	1940-1955	0.30-0.40		0.75		(Austin and Austin 1956)
	Bird Is., USA	1940-1956	0.60-0.10		0.89-0.93		(Nisbet, 1978)

**Table 3.** Tern juvenile ( $\Phi_{Juvenile}$ ) and adult survival ( $\Phi_{Adult}$ ) estimates with 95% confidence intervals (in brackets).

		1970-1975	0.07-0.13				
	Bird Is., USA	1995-1997	Φ <sub>2-3</sub> = 0.54	(0.24 -0.81)	Φ <sub>4-19</sub> = 0.87	(0.72-0.94)	(Nisbet & Cam, 2002)
					$\Phi_{a>20} = 0.63$	(0.15-0.94)	
	Great Gull Is.,				0.92		(Dicostanzo, 1980)
	USA						
	Wilhelmshaven,	1992-1995	0.39	(0.22-0.48)	0.85-0.88 <sup>b</sup>		(Becker & Wendeln, 1997)
	Germany						
	Wilhelmshaven		0.88-0.92		0.64-0.92		(Zhang et al., 2015)
S. dougallii	Falkner Is., USA	1993-2002			female 0.83	(0.78-0.88)	(Nichols et al., 2004)
					male 0.78	(0.73-0.84)	
	Falkner Is.	1988-1998	0.53-0.57		0.78-0.89		(Spendelow et al., 2002)
	Falkner Is.	1978-1980			0.74-0.75		(Spendelow, 1989)

	Falkner Is.	1979-1988		0.77		(Gould & Nichols, 1998)
	Buzzards Bay,	1988-1992		(0.74-0.84)		(Spendelow et al., 1995)
	USA					
	Long Is., USA	1988-1998	0.37	0.83	(0.77-0.89)	(Lebreton et al., 2003)
	NW Europe	1992-2007	0.74	0.86		(Ratcliffe et al., 2008)
	USA	1988-2006		0.84	(0.83-0.85)	(Spendelow et al., 2008)
	Puerto Rico	1991-1994		0.71-0.80		(Shealer et al., 2005)
	Seychelles	2002-2007		0.81	(0.75-0.87)	(Monticelli et al., 2008)
S. paradisaea	Farne Is., UK	1966-1967		0.87	(0.83-0.91)	(Coulson & Horobin, 1976)
	Farne Is., UK	1952-1956		0.82		(Cullen, 1957)
	Gulf of Maine,	1999-2005		0.70-0.96		(Devlin et al., 2008)

S. vittata bethunei	Snares Is., New	1967-2007	0.42	(0.26-0.58)	0.94	(0.88-0.99)	(Sagar et al., 2007)
	Zealand						
Onychoprion	Seychelles	1993-1995			0.91	(0.89-0.93)	(Feare & Doherty, 2004)
fuscata							
O. anaethetus	W Australia				0.78-0.83		(Dunlop & Jenkins, 1994)
Sternula antillarum	Venice, USA	1978-1989	0.81	(0.72-0.87)	0.92	(0.88-0.95)	(Massey et al., 1992)
	Mississipi R.	1987-1992			0.85	(0.73-0.95)	(Renken & Smith, 1995)
	Camp	1994-1995			0.89 -0.92		(Collins et al., 1996)
	Pendleton, USA						
S. balaenarum	Namibia	2000-2010	0.59	(0.48-0.68)	0.87	(0.73-0.96)	(Braby et al., 2011)
Anous minutus	Vatu-i-Ra, Fiji	1974-1982			0.75		(Tarburton, 1987)

(Zhang et al., 2015)

C. niger	Netherlands	1993-1999	0.59	0.85		(Winden & Horssen, 2008)
	Poland	1993-2011	0.54 (0.49-0.59)	0.80	(0.70-0.90)	(Ledwoń et al., 2013)
				0.92	(0.58-0.99)	
Chlidonias hybrida	New Zealand	1998-2001		0.80	(0.57-0.98)	(Keedwell, 2002)

# g) Legends for figures



Figure 1. Distribution of Swift Tern captures (blue), resights (green) and recoveries (grey) in southern Africa.



