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1 **When is enough...enough? Effective sampling protocols for estimating the survival**
2 **rates of seabirds with mark-recapture techniques**

3

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12

13 Running head: Survey design for survival estimation

14

15 **Summary**

16 The ability to relate geographic differences in population trends to individual demographic
17 processes is largely limited by the logistic and financial commitments associated with
18 conducting long-term, population-specific studies. Consequently, many populations and
19 species lack the empirical evidence of population change that is required to support
20 evidence-based policy action. Lower intensity mark-recapture studies, such as those
21 undertaken by citizen scientists, provide an opportunity to improve the spatial representation
22 of survival estimates for birds. Colonial breeding makes seabirds particularly suited to this
23 because, for many species, large numbers of breeding birds and chicks can be located
24 relatively easily. We conducted a sensitivity analysis that evaluated the statistical power
25 associated with using different mark-recapture survey designs to estimate a fixed “true”
26 survival rate and detect sources of temporal variation and individual heterogeneity within the
27 population. Isolating temporal variation with a good degree (90%) of certainty required the
28 highest levels of survey effort. Based on the assessed survey designs, we recommend
29 studies that have a ten-year trajectory and a recapture rate of 0.6, aim to mark at least 200
30 new adults per year. The recommended number of marked individuals will decrease if it is
31 possible to achieve higher rates of recapture. Lower rates of juvenile survival and delayed
32 reproduction mean that seabird mark-recapture survey designs that target both chicks and
33 adults offer only marginal improvements in resolving the survival rates of adults, when
34 compared to designs targeting adults only. However, collecting juvenile mark-recapture data
35 provides access to age-specific vital rates that are also valuable for assessing the population
36 dynamics of seabirds. Implementing minimum effort guidelines potentially enables the

37 effective management of smaller mark-recapture studies, thus minimising the risk that
38 studies fail to achieve the data conditions necessary for robust estimation of survival rates.

39

40 **Keywords**

41 Mark-recapture; Long-term monitoring; Sampling protocol; Survey design; Power analysis;
42 Population management.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Intraspecific variation in population trends is widespread, however few species have been
46 studied in sufficient detail to robustly examine how geographic differences relate to individual
47 demographic processes, such as survival and fecundity (but see Dhondt 2001, Frederiksen
48 *et al.* 2005, Saracco *et al.* 2012, Robinson *et al.* 2014). Relying on abundance (count) data
49 to understand the complex and dynamic processes that generate population dynamics may
50 obscure key processes (Weegman *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, populations and species not
51 included in long-term monitoring programs are likely to lack the scientific evidence of decline
52 required to support evidence-based policy actions. Consequently, there is a requirement to
53 explore methodologies that expand spatial and taxonomic representation through data
54 collection and statistical imputation.

55

56 Mark-recapture surveys apply unique marks or tags to individuals in order to gather
57 longitudinal data that can be used to estimate survival probabilities (Lebreton *et al.* 1992),
58 and identify drivers of change, such as climate, anthropogenic pressures and conservation
59 measures (Grosbois *et al.* 2008, Frederiksen *et al.* 2014, Chevallier *et al.* 2015). To
60 implement these surveys typically requires large logistic and financial commitments that limit
61 application to a small number of sites where professional researchers conduct intensive
62 fieldwork (Clutton-Brock and Sheldon 2010). Consequently, the spatial representation of this
63 vital rate is often limited, e.g. the four UK 'key sites' monitored as part of the Seabird
64 Monitoring Program (Harris 1989; Fig. 1). In contrast, estimates of abundance and fecundity
65 are more readily available because these metrics require less skilled effort to collect (e.g.
66 Mavor *et al.* 2006).

67

68 Lower intensity mark-recapture studies, such as those undertaken by citizen scientists,
69 provide an opportunity to improve the spatial representation of survival estimates for birds
70 (Horswill *et al.* 2016; Fig. 1). Seabirds are particularly suited to this technique because, as
71 colonial species, large numbers of breeding birds and chicks can potentially be located
72 relatively easily. As long-lived and late-maturing species, the population growth rate of
73 seabirds is particularly sensitive to variation in adult survival rates (Croxall and Rothery

74 1991). Furthermore, inter-population differences in demographic parameters and population
75 growth rates are reported (Frederiksen *et al.* 2005). Having population-specific demographic
76 information provides a solid base for conducting scientifically robust and defensible
77 population assessments. Thus, improved spatial representation of survival estimation has
78 the potential to facilitate empirical demographic-based assessments in regions that are
79 currently data limited. This is particularly pertinent for the large and expanding offshore
80 renewables industry that is required to fully assess any negative effects to local seabird
81 populations, but is limited to spatially restricted datasets and simplistic modelling approaches
82 (Green *et al.* 2016, Horswill *et al.* 2017).

83

84 Mark-recapture surveys have three key components that can be varied in order to set the
85 level of resources required. These include 1) the size of the sample population, 2) the
86 recapture (or resighting) rate, and 3) the survey duration (Yoccoz *et al.* 2001). It is critical
87 that low-intensity mark-recapture surveys are carefully designed and achieve effort levels
88 that support robust inference of survival and sources of variation (Yoccoz *et al.* 2001,
89 Reynolds *et al.* 2011). For example, mark-recapture models make specific assumptions
90 about intra-specific variation, or heterogeneity, in survival and recapture rates (Lebreton *et al.*
91 1992). Survey designs that do not allow these sources of variation to be identified risk
92 goodness-of-fit problems during model development, resulting in biased estimates of
93 survival. Sources of survival heterogeneity include senescence and the presence of transient
94 individuals in the marked population (Pradel *et al.* 1997). Meanwhile, recapture
95 heterogeneity is typically attributed to either trap-shyness, i.e. where individuals avoid
96 recapture, or trap-happiness, i.e. where individuals are easier to locate at recapture.

97

98 In this study, we conducted a sensitivity analysis to evaluate how different designs of mark-
99 recapture surveys may influence the estimation of a constant rate of survival, as well as the
100 ability to detect temporal variation and individual heterogeneity within the population. The
101 aim is to provide minimum guidelines of field effort that can be used to manage smaller
102 projects that monitor survival rates, such as those reliant on citizen scientists. We examined
103 this based on three strategies: (1) changing the number of adults and chicks marked at each
104 sampling interval, from hereon we consider a sampling interval to be a year; (2) changing the
105 amount of effort applied to re-encountering (recapture or resighting) marked individuals; and
106 (3) changing the survey duration.

107

108

109 **Methods**

110 *Survey design and simulating time-series of demographic rates*

111 Data were simulated in Program Mark (White and Burnham 1999). Survey designs followed
112 a three-stage nested design that resulted in 150 different mark-recapture protocols. Levels of
113 field effort were selected from a citizen science mark-recapture program on seabirds
114 administered through the British Trust for Ornithology (BTO, the Re-trapping Adults for
115 Survival scheme, RAS, Horswill *et al.* 2016). Mark-recapture techniques are widely
116 applicable to species across the nine orders of seabird: Procellariiformes (albatrosses and
117 petrels), Sphenisciformes (penguins); Gaviiformes (loons), Podicipediformes (grebes),
118 Phaethontiformes (tropicbirds), Charadriiformes (gulls, skua, skimmers, terns, phalaropes
119 and auks), Pelecaniformes (pelicans) and Suliformes (frigatebirds, cormorants, gannets and
120 boobies). However, the RAS scheme is UK focused, and at the time of publication included
121 seabird projects on European storm petrel (*Hydrobates pelagicus*), Manx shearwater
122 (*Puffinus puffinus*), European shag (*Phalacrocorax aristotelis*), black-legged kittiwake (*Rissa*
123 *tridactyla*), black-headed gull (*Chroicocephalus ridibundus*), lesser black-backed gull (*Larus*
124 *fuscus*), Arctic tern (*Sterna paradisaea*), common guillemot (*Uria aalge*), razorbill (*Alca*
125 *torda*) and Atlantic puffin (*Fratercula arctica*) (Horswill *et al.* 2016).

126

127 The range of ringing efforts achieved by projects operating under the RAS scheme was from
128 10 to 1061 individuals per year (mean= 176 individuals, SD=265), with under half (40%) of
129 studies achieving the mean level of ringing effort. Recapture rates achieved under the
130 scheme were between 0.05 and 0.66 (mean=0.29; SD=0.17). RAS exclusively targets adult
131 birds; however, in this study we also examine survey designs that target both adults and
132 chicks, which are considered easier to catch and mark. We employed identical marking
133 schedules for both age classes. The ten scenarios of marking effort involved five adult only
134 set-ups: 50, 100, 200, 500 and 1000 adults per year; as well as five adult and chick set-ups:
135 50 adults plus 50 chicks, 100 adults plus 100 chicks, 200 adults plus 200 chicks, 500 adults
136 plus 500 chicks, and finally 1000 adults plus 1000 chicks per year. The five scenarios of
137 recapture (or resighting) rates were 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6, and the three project
138 durations were 5, 10 and 20 years (see S1 for illustration of survey designs). The simulated
139 “true” adult survival rate (ϕ) was the mean value observed in the UK RAS program on
140 seabirds ($\phi=0.83$; Horswill *et al.* 2016). The simulated “true” survival rate for fledglings was
141 the mean value reported for 16 species of seabird from NW Europe with published values
142 ($\phi=0.56$; Horswill and Robinson 2015).

143

144

145 *Mark-recapture modelling to assess statistical power*

146 All models were constructed in Program Mark using a logit link function. Models were run for
147 100 iterations. The statistical power associated with the 150 capture-mark-recapture survey
148 designs was examined based on its ability to resolve the fixed “true” survival rate. Accuracy
149 was assessed using the 95% confidence interval of the estimated “apparent” survival rate,
150 and whether this occurred within 1 or 2% of the true value. Adult only models were fitted
151 using the ‘live recaptures (Cormack-Jolly-Seber)’ framework, whilst adult and chick models
152 were fitted using ‘multi-state recaptures only’ models in order to account for heterogeneous
153 recapture rates associated with delayed reproduction. In the multi-state model, state 1
154 included all birds marked as chicks that have not yet returned to the colony (the
155 ‘unobservable state’), and state 2 included birds tagged at age 1 or above, as well as birds
156 tagged as chicks that have since returned to the colony and are assumed to be available for
157 recapture on an annual basis (the ‘observable state’). In the models that included individuals
158 marked as chicks, the maximum age that juveniles return to the colony following delayed
159 reproduction was set to the mean age of maturity across 32 species of seabird from NW
160 Europe (4 years, Horswill and Robinson 2015). The annual transition probabilities between
161 the ‘unobservable’ to the ‘observable’ state for individuals aged between 1 and 4 years were
162 taken from Horswill *et al.* (2014). The probability of birds older than 4 years returning for the
163 first time was fixed to a value of one, and since birds entering the observable state are then
164 assumed to be available for recapture on an annual basis, the reverse transition back into a
165 deferred reproduction state was fixed to a value of zero (Spendelov *et al.* 2002). The
166 recapture probability of birds in the unobservable state was also fixed to zero.

167

168 The ability to detect a temporal change in true adult survival was examined using the 75
169 mark-recapture survey designs that targeted adults only; i.e. five scenarios of marking, five
170 scenarios of recapture and three survey durations. Although the 5-year time-series are
171 unlikely to permit reliable detection of temporal variation, we included all 75 survey designs
172 in this analysis in order to facilitate a complete comparison between the different aspects of
173 mark-recapture survey design. Temporal change in true survival was incorporated by
174 simulating a step decrease half way through the time series; i.e., survival decreased from
175 0.83 to 0.78. This change was considered large enough to result in population-level
176 consequences, especially in a long-lived species (e.g., seabirds) but small enough to hinder
177 detection under survey designs with low levels of field effort. Detection of individual
178 heterogeneity in true survival rates was also examined using the same 75 survey designs.
179 We simulated transience into the data by increasing true survival from 0.73 during the year
180 following first release, to 0.83 from the second year onwards. This change combines the
181 average rate of adult dispersal for 17 species of seabird in NW Europe (0.15; Horswill and

182 Robinson 2015), with reports that transitory individuals on average make up 7% of the
183 population (Audouin's gull *Larus audouinii*, Tavecchia *et al.* 2007).

184

185 We assessed the ability to detect sources of temporal variation and individual heterogeneity
186 by constructing two models under each scenario of field effort. The “reference model” for
187 detecting temporal change included an extra parameter that allowed the estimated apparent
188 survival rate to decrease halfway through the time series, thus allowing two rates of apparent
189 survival. The “reference model” for detecting individual heterogeneity associated with
190 transients included an extra parameter that allowed the estimated apparent survival rate to
191 increase after the first year following release; i.e. thus allowing two rates of apparent
192 survival: one lower value including transients and one higher value without transients. The
193 “constant model” assumed that survival rates did not change with time or cohort. The
194 estimated values of survival from the reference model and the constant model were
195 compared using a likelihood ratio test (LRT) to assess the difference in model deviances (df
196 = 1; Burnham and Anderson 2002). The percentage of model iterations that identified the
197 reference model as being significantly different from the constant model is presented, and
198 we recommend using survey designs that identify differences in $\geq 90\%$ of simulations.
199 Thresholds of $\geq 95\%$ will further improve accuracy, and survey designs meeting this criteria
200 should also be considered for feasibility. For comparative purposes, we present the mean
201 difference in the Akaike Information Criterion (ΔAIC) between the two models, the evidence
202 ratio, and the model likelihood for the reference model relative to the constant model in the
203 supplementary material (S2-S3).

204

205 **Results**

206 For a dataset of five years, the minimum levels of field effort necessary to estimate apparent
207 adult survival within 2% of the true value included marking 500 new adults per year with a
208 recapture rate of 0.4 (Fig. 2A). If adults and chicks were marked, this changed to 200 adults
209 and 200 chicks per year with a recapture rate of 0.6 (Fig. 2D). To resolve apparent adult
210 survival within 1% of the true value with a five year time series required marking efforts of
211 1000 adults with recapture rates of 0.6 (Fig. 2A). If 1000 adults and 1000 chicks were
212 marked and released each year, the required recapture rate was 0.4 (Fig. 2D). It was not
213 possible to estimate fledging year survival rates within 1% or 2% of the true value with a 5-
214 year time series. It was also not possible to identify temporal variation with greater than 90%
215 certainty across the tested scenarios of field effort (Fig. 4A; S2). In contrast, the minimum
216 levels of field effort required to detect individual heterogeneity in survival rates combined a
217 marking effort of 500 new individuals per year and a recapture rate of 0.6 (Fig. 4D; S3).

218

219 For a 10-year dataset, the minimum levels of marking effort required to estimate apparent
220 adult survival rates within 2% of the true value involved marking 50 new adults per year with
221 a recapture rate of 0.4, or alternatively, 100 adults per year with a recapture rate of 0.2 (Fig.
222 2B). If adults and chicks were marked, this changed to 50 adults and 50 chicks per year with
223 a recapture rate of 0.4; 100 adults and 100 chicks per year with a recapture rate of 0.2; or
224 200 adults and 200 chicks per year with a recapture rate of 0.1 (Fig. 2E). To increase the
225 accuracy to within 1% of the true value, marking efforts needed to be at least 100 new adults
226 per year with recapture rates of 0.6 (Fig. 2B), or 100 new adults and 100 new chicks per
227 year with recapture rates of 0.6 (Fig. 2D). Estimating a constant fledging year survival rate
228 within 2% of the true mean required survey designs to include marking efforts of 500 adults
229 and 500 chicks per year with a recapture rate of 0.2 (Fig 3A). It was also possible to resolve
230 apparent fledgling survival within 1% of the true value by marking 1000 chicks per year with
231 a recapture rate of 0.4 (Fig 3A). To detect the simulated level of temporal variation with
232 greater than 90% certainty required a marking effort of at least 200 newly marked individuals
233 per year with a recapture rate of 0.6 (Fig. 4B; S2). The necessary levels of field effort
234 required to detect individual heterogeneity within the population were 100 new individuals
235 per year with a recapture probability of 0.6 (Fig. 4E; S3).

236

237 For a 20 year dataset, the minimum levels of field effort required to estimate apparent adult
238 survival rates within 2% of the true value were 50 new adults per year with a recapture rate
239 of 0.05 (Fig. 2C). For designs targeting adults and chicks, a marking effort of 50 new adults
240 plus 50 new chicks per year with a recapture rate of 0.05 was required. To increase this
241 accuracy to within 1% of the true mean, survey designs based on adults needed to mark
242 either 50 adults with a recapture rate of 0.4; 100 adults with a recapture rate of 0.2; or 200
243 adults with a recapture rate of 0.1 (Fig. 2C). For survey designs that involved marking both
244 adults and chicks, this decreased to 50 adults plus 50 chicks with a recapture rate of 0.2;
245 100 adults plus 100 chicks with a recapture rate of 0.1; or 200 adults plus 200 chicks with a
246 recapture rate of 0.05 (Fig 2F). Estimating a constant fledging year survival rate within 2% of
247 the true mean required minimum levels of field effort to include marking 100 chicks with a
248 recapture rate of 0.4; or 200 chicks with a recapture rate of 0.2 (Fig 3B). It was also possible
249 to resolve apparent fledgling survival within 1% of the true value by marking 500 chicks with
250 a recapture rate of 0.4 (Fig 3B). To detect the simulated temporal variation with greater than
251 90% certainty involved marking 200 individuals per year with a recapture rate of 0.1 (Fig. 3C;
252 S2). Successful detection of heterogeneity was also possible by marking 50 new individuals
253 per year with a recapture rate of 0.6 (Fig. 3F; S3).

254

255 Discussion

256 A key challenge with studying the survival rates of natural populations is detectability (e.g.
257 Boulinier et al., 1998; Kéry and Schmid, 2004). Few studies achieve complete detection and
258 therefore multiple sampling occasions are required in order to minimise any associated
259 biases (Lebreton *et al.* 1992). In agreement, our analyses demonstrated that the accuracy of
260 survival estimation, and the ability to detect sources of variation were improved greatly when
261 time series were extended (also see Lieury *et al.* 2017). Our study also demonstrated that in
262 longer survey designs, the estimation of adult survival rates was only marginally improved by
263 conducting mark-recapture field studies that target both adults and chicks, as opposed to
264 adults only. Therefore, we conclude that substituting adults for chicks within a fixed marking
265 quota of birds will decrease the ability to resolve adult survival rates. However, marking
266 juveniles provides access to other demographic metrics that are also valuable for examining
267 population dynamics, including age-specific survival rates and age of recruitment to the
268 breeding population.

269

270 Age of maturity and rates of natal dispersal can differ substantially between species of
271 seabird (Horswill and Robinson 2015). Therefore, the efficacy of marking chicks to resolve
272 age-specific survival rates will vary accordingly. Sample sizes of marked chicks will need to
273 be larger for species that mature later in order to mitigate the influence of increased mortality
274 before individuals recruit into the breeding population, e.g. northern fulmar *Fulmarus glacialis*
275 (age of maturity = 9 years; Dunnet and Ollason 1978). Likewise, species that are more likely
276 to breed at their natal colony, i.e. have low levels of natal dispersal, are much more suited to
277 survival studies that incorporate the marking of chicks, e.g. great skuas *Stercorarius skua*
278 (Klomp and Furness 1992) and European shags *Phalacrocorax aristotelis* (Aebischer 1995).
279 In contrast, species with higher levels of natal dispersal may need larger sample sizes of
280 marked chicks in order to resolve juvenile vital rates, e.g. northern fulmar (Dunnet *et al.*
281 1979) and common gull *Larus canus* (Rattiste 2004),.

282

283 Detecting sources of variation in true adult survival rates required higher levels of marking
284 and recapture effort than the estimation of a constant survival rate, especially when time
285 series were shorter; i.e. five or ten years. In addition, survey designs that successfully
286 identified temporal variation were slightly more intensive than those required to detect
287 individual heterogeneity. Consequently, we base our recommended minimum effort
288 guidelines on designs that can detect temporal variation. Mark-recapture projects on species
289 that capture adults using mist nets away from a breeding colony, as opposed to knowingly
290 targeting breeding adults, may require higher levels of field effort, because it is not possible
291 to discern breeding individuals from those that are transient or migratory. This is also likely to

292 be the case for species that exhibit higher levels of adult dispersal, such as common tern
293 *Sterna hirundo* (Braasch *et al.* 2008, Breton *et al.* 2014).

294

295 Delayed maturity in seabirds means that the ability to resolve true survival rates during the
296 fledgling year will be limited in shorter time series, particularly for species with long
297 maturation times. Furthermore, the survival rate of seabirds during the fledgling year is
298 typically more variable than that of adults (Horswill and Robinson 2015). In this simulation,
299 we set juvenile survival rates to be constant. Levels of field effort required to identify
300 temporal variation in adult survival rates increased relative to those needed to resolve a
301 constant rate robustly. Consequently, the minimum levels of field effort necessary to reliably
302 estimate juvenile survival rates will almost certainly be higher than those reported in this
303 study.

304

305 The minimum level of recapture effort required to accurately estimate true survival rates and
306 detect temporal variation largely depended on the respective ringing effort. Therefore, mark-
307 recapture studies should consider both aspects of the field study when setting or adjusting
308 minimum effort guidelines. Furthermore, achieving reliable estimation with short time-series
309 required more intensive survey designs, highlighting the importance of longevity when
310 planning these studies. The addition of chicks is unlikely to improve the resolution of adult
311 survival rates markedly, although for species with low natal dispersal and earlier ages of
312 maturity, these data may allow the estimation of other vital rates, such as juvenile survival
313 rates and age of maturity. We use the levels of field effort that allow the detection of
314 temporal variation to set the minimum effort guidelines for resolving true rates of adult
315 survival. Based on a 10 year dataset, these are 200 new individuals marked per year with a
316 recapture rate of 0.6; 500 individuals marked per year with a recapture rate of 0.4; or 1000
317 individuals marked per year with a recapture rate of 0.2 (Fig. 4B). Converting recapture
318 probabilities into fieldwork hours will largely depend on the accessibility of the study species,
319 the local environmental conditions, such as visibility, and the level of logistical and financial
320 support available.

321

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327

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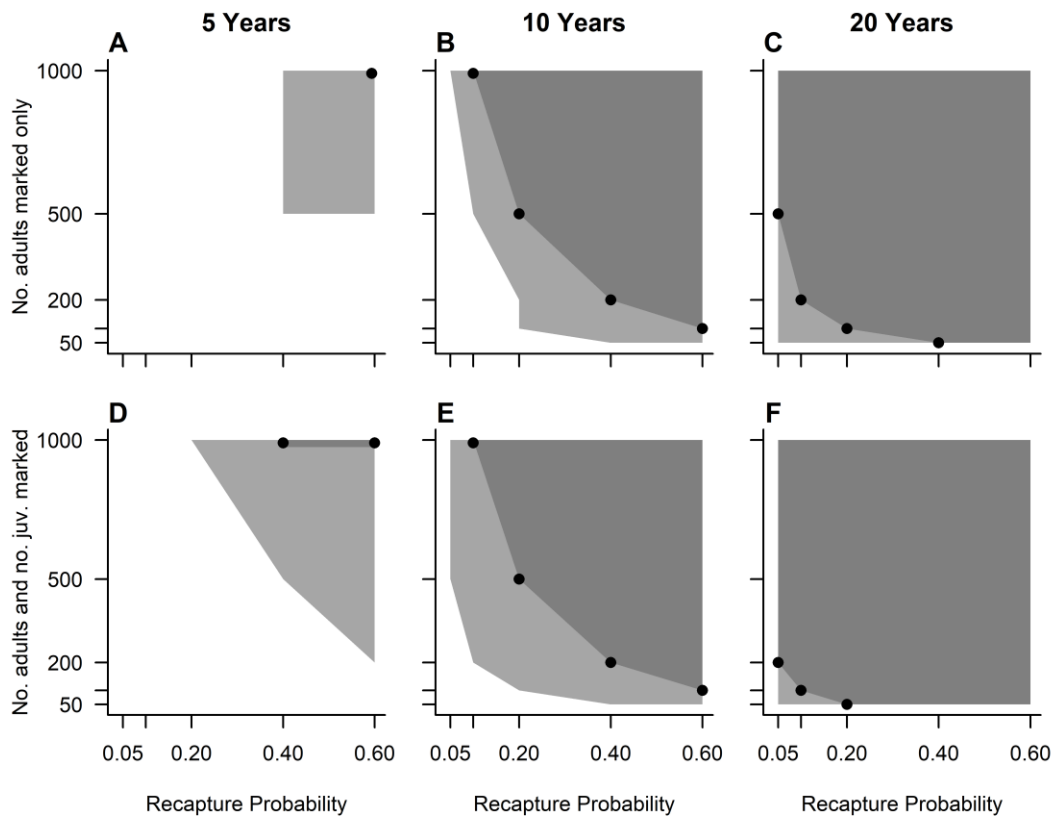
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425

426 Fig. 1. Map of seabird mark-recapture studies conducted annually in the UK as part of the
427 Seabird Monitoring Program Key Sites (triangles), and as part of a national citizen-science
428 program implemented by the British Trust for Ornithology (cross-hairs) (Projection: British
429 National Grid).

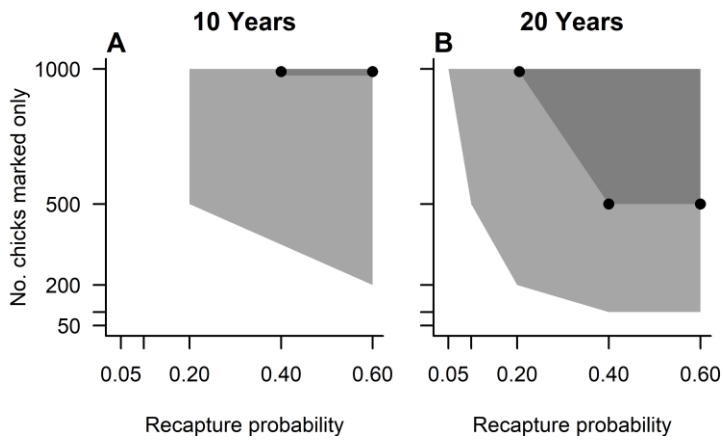


430

431 Figure 2. The statistical power of different mark-recapture survey designs to resolve true
 432 adult survival rates. A-C) Scenarios with only adults marked and released each year, and D-
 433 F) scenarios with both adults and chicks marked and released each year. Light grey polygon
 434 represents field conditions that achieved 95% of survival estimates within 2% of the true
 435 mean. Dark grey polygon demarked by black points represent field conditions that resulted in
 436 95% of survival estimates within 1% of the true mean.

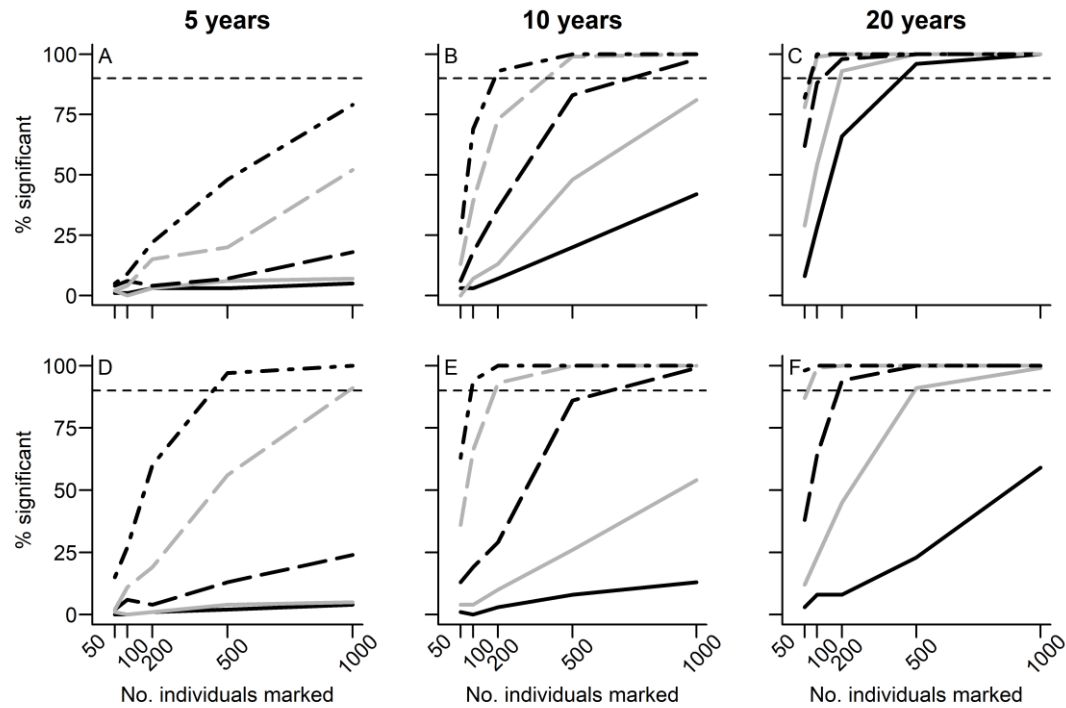
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441 Figure 3. The statistical power of different mark-recapture survey designs to resolve true
 442 juvenile survival rates. Light grey polygon represents field conditions that achieved 95% of
 443 survival estimates within 2% of the true mean. Dark grey polygon demarked by black points
 444 represent field conditions that resulted in 95% of survival estimates within 1% of the true
 445 mean.



447

448 Figure 4. The certainty of detecting temporal (A-C) variation in survival rates and individual heterogeneity associated with transience (D-F)
 449 based on different scenarios of field effort: A & D) 5 year time series; B & E) 10 year time series; and C & F) 20 year time series. Recapture
 450 scenarios as follows: black solid line=0.05, grey solid line=0.1, black dashed line=0.2, grey dashed line=0.4, black dot-dash line=0.6. Figure
 451 shows results from the likelihood ratio test and the horizontal dotted line indicates the 90% threshold for certainty.