1 Metapopulation dynamics of Roseate Terns: sources, sinks and

2 implications for conservation management decisions

- 3
- 4 Adam Seward¹, Norman Ratcliffe², Stephen Newton³, Richard Caldow⁴, Daniel Piec⁵, Paul
- 5 Morrison⁶, Tom Cadwallender⁷, Wesley Davies⁶ and Mark Bolton⁸
- ⁶ ¹RSPB Centre for Conservation Science, The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, Robertson
- 7 House, 1 Whitefriars Crescent, Perth PH2 0PA, UK
- 8 Correspondence author: adammichaelseward@gmail.com
- ⁹ ²British Antarctic Survey, High Cross, Madingley Road, Cambridge CB3 0ET, UK
- ³Birdwatch Ireland, P.O. Box 12, Greystones, Co. Wicklow, Ireland
- ⁴Natural England, Rivers House, Sunrise Business Park, Higher Shaftesbury Road, Blandford, Dorset
 DT11 8ST, UK
- ⁵The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, The Lodge, Sandy, SG19 2DL, UK
- ⁶The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, 1 Sirius House, Amethyst Road, Newcastle-upon-
- 15 Tyne NE4 7YL, UK
- ⁷Northumbria Ringing Group, 22 South View, Lesbury, Alnwick, NE66 3PZ, UK
- ⁸RSPB Centre for Conservation Science, The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, The Lodge,
 Sandy, SG19 2DL, UK

19 Abstract

Habitat management to restore or create breeding sites may allow metapopulations to
 increase in size and reduce the risk of demographic stochasticity or disasters causing
 metapopulation extinction. However, if newly restored or created sites are of low quality,
 they may act as sinks that draw individuals away from better quality sites to the detriment of
 metapopulation size.

Following intensive conservation effort, the metapopulation of roseate tern (*Sterna dougallii*)
 in NW Europe is recovering from a large crash in numbers, but most former colonies remain
 unoccupied and hence are potential targets for restoration. To inform conservation efforts, we
 studied the dynamics of this metapopulation with a multistate integrated population model to
 assess each of the three main colonies for important demographic contributors to population
 growth rate, source/sink status and possible density dependence.

- 31 3. All three study colonies are managed for roseate terns (and other tern species) in similar ways
 but the demographic processes vary considerably between colonies. The largest colony is a
 source involved in almost all dispersal, and its growth is determined by survival rates and
 productivity.
- 4. Productivity and juvenile apparent survival at the largest colony appear to be density
 dependent. Although the mechanisms are unclear, this may provide an increasing impetus for
 emigration of recruits to other colonies in the future.

5. The smallest of the three colonies is a sink, relying on immigration for its growth. Simulation
models suggest the metapopulation would be ~10 % larger in the absence of dispersal to the
sink colony.

6. This work indicates that, due to variable site quality, aims to enhance both distribution and
size of metapopulations may be mutually exclusive. In this case, before future attempts to
encourage recolonisation of former sites, assessments of site suitability should be undertaken,

- focusing on food availability and isolation from predators to maximise the likelihood of
 attaining levels of productivity and survival that avoid creation of a sink population to the
 detriment of the overall metapopulation size.
- 47 **Key-words:** demography, density dependence, dispersal, immigration, integrated population
- 48 model, metapopulation dynamics, roseate tern, seabirds

49 Introduction

50 It is generally accepted that expanding the range of a species through the creation or restoration of suitable habitat will increase population size by increasing the carrying capacity, thereby relaxing 51 density dependent regulation (MacArthur & Wilson, 1967). In addition, within a metapopulation, the 52 53 creation or restoration of additional, discrete sites may buffer the whole population against the effects of localised events or demographic stochasticity (Hanski & Gyllenberg, 1993). Within a 54 metapopulation there may be both source populations and sink populations (Pulliam, 1988). Newly 55 56 created or restored sites that are of lower quality than those in the core of the range may act as sinks that draw animals away from better quality sites, leading to a reduction in total metapopulation size 57 (Battin, 2004; Kristan, 2003; Robertson & Hutto, 2006). Sinks may, however, aid persistence of a 58 metapopulation by providing refugia if catastrophic events cause major population reductions at 59 source sites. Investigations of demographic processes operating within a metapopulation should seek 60 61 to identify and understand source and sink populations in order to help the development of effective management strategies that make best use of limited conservation resources to ensure 62 metapopulation persistence (Furrer & Pasinelli, 2016). 63

Almost all seabirds aggregate into discrete colonies during their breeding seasons (Rolland, Danchin, 64 & de Fraipont, 1998). There is typically some dispersal of individuals between colonies, which differ 65 66 in their demographic rates (Clobert, Danchin, Dhondt, & Nichols, 2001). Thus, an entire population of breeding seabirds displays many of the fundamental characteristics of a metapopulation and this 67 may have important implications when devising effective seabird conservation strategies (Esler, 68 2000). Events such as coastal erosion (Casey et al., 1995) or the introduction of predators (Craik, 69 1997; Oro, Pradel, & Lebreton, 1999) can lead to large reductions in colony size and even site 70 abandonment (Cabot, 1995; Heubeck, Mellor, Harvey, Mainwood, & Riddington, 1999; Whittam & 71 72 Leonard, 1999). When some of the individual colonies are very small, there is the additional 73 challenge that demographic stochasticity increases the risk of local colony extinction (Hanski, 1998).

While seabirds generally display high fidelity to breeding sites (Coulson, 2001), terns (Laridae: 74 Sternini) can show relatively high rates of dispersal (Breton, Nisbet, Mostello, & Hatch, 2014) and 75 can move to new colonies readily in response to disturbance or changes in habitat quality (Brindley 76 et al., 1999; Jennings, McGlashan, & Furness, 2012; Spendelow et al., 2016). Removal of large gulls 77 (Laridae: Lari), management of habitat and deployment of decoys and recordings can be used to 78 restore or create new tern colonies (Dunlop, Blokpoel, & Jarvie, 1991; Kress, 1983; Kress, Borzik, & 79 Hall, 2008; Wanless, 1988). Tern colonies have also been successfully relocated by increasing the 80 suitability of receptor sites while discouraging them from their original sites. For example, a colony 81 of 9,000 pairs of Caspian terns (Hydroprogne caspia) were encouraged to move (using disturbance 82 and streamer lines) from an estuary where they were eating endangered salmon smolts to an offshore 83 island where they ate marine prey (Roby et al., 2002). Conservationists have the power to manipulate 84 85 tern distribution, but this power needs to be wielded with caution to avoid undesirable consequences of these actions upon the overall size, structure and functioning of the metapopulation. 86

The NW Europe metapopulation of roseate tern (Sterna dougallii) has been the focus of intensive 87 conservation activity since the late 1980s, following a steep decline from 3,812 pairs in 1968 to 561 88 pairs in 1987 (Avery, Green, & del Nevo, 1991; Cabot, 1995). The decline has been attributed to 89 several factors acting at the breeding grounds – human disturbance, depredation by gulls and rats, 90 displacement from nesting sites by gulls and high tides and coastal erosion – as well as trapping in 91 the African wintering grounds (Avery et al., 1995). The loss of the largest colony at the time (Tern 92 Island, Co. Wexford, Republic of Ireland) in the 1970s due to erosion meant that the birds had to 93 relocate, but as there was a population crash at the same time it is difficult to ascertain their dispersal 94 from counts alone. Conservation measures to enhance the status of roseate terns in NW Europe 95 (discouraging gulls from nesting, provision of breeding terraces and nest boxes and reducing human 96 disturbance) have been implemented at Rockabill and Lady's Island Lake in the Republic of Ireland, 97 Coquet Island in England and several sites in Northern Ireland, Wales and Brittany, France (Avery et 98

al., 1991). Management has been most successful at Rockabill: an offshore islet that is isolated from 99 100 mainland predators and located in an area of high food availability. Following removal of gulls and nesting habitat management that started in 1989, numbers of roseate terns increased rapidly, fuelled 101 by immigration from colonies in Northern Ireland and Wales that were subject to higher levels of 102 predation and disturbance and which were ultimately abandoned (Cabot, 1995). Since 1987, the 103 metapopulation has recovered to 1,921 breeding pairs in 2016, with most pairs breeding at Rockabill. 104 While numbers have partially recovered, the range has not; in 1968 roseate terns bred at 15 colonies 105 (12 with more than 10 pairs) in NW Europe (Cabot, 1995), while in 2016 they bred at just seven 106 107 colonies, only three with more than 10 pairs.

An ongoing EU LIFE project (LIFE14 NAT/UK/000394 Roseate Tern) aspires to restore roseate tern
colonies at previously occupied sites in the belief this will increase the range and size of the
metapopulation. However, we need further information on metapopulation dynamics to inform
decisions on whether sites should be restored and, if so, which ones. Without this information,
restoration attempts may create ecological traps that lure birds to sites at which they fail to produce
sufficient surviving offspring due to predation and poor food availability (Kristan, 2003).

114 We studied the population dynamics of the main NW European colonies of roseate tern to inform the 115 conservation strategy for this species in Europe. The objectives of this study were to (1) estimate the demographic rates (productivity, survival, immigration and emigration) at each colony, (2) identify 116 117 the demographic rates contributing most to temporal variance in population growth rate at each colony and of the whole metapopulation and (3) compare the population dynamics between the 118 119 different colonies, assessing whether density dependence is limiting any of the demographic rates. We combined population counts, data on productivity and capture-mark-resight data to construct a 120 multi-state integrated population model (IPM) to help to understand the demographic drivers of 121 temporal variability in population growth rate of roseate terns in NW Europe. 122

123

124 Materials and Methods

125 Study sites

We studied the population processes of roseate terns at the major colonies in Britain and Ireland: 126 Rockabill, Lady's Island Lake (LIL) and Coquet Island (Coquet). Rockabill (Co. Dublin, Republic of 127 128 Ireland) comprises two granite islands separated by a channel approximately 20 m wide, with a combined area of 0.9 ha and lying 6 km offshore. LIL (Co. Wexford, Republic of Ireland) is a 129 130 shallow coastal lagoon, within which roseate terns breed on the 3.1 ha sedimentary island Inish. Coquet (Northumberland, England, United Kingdom) is an island of 7 ha lying 1.2 km offshore. 131 Each colony is a nature reserve and managed to enhance roseate tern conservation, with measures 132 including control of predators, competitors and human disturbance, nest box provision and 133 vegetation management. The proportion of the NW Europe metapopulation that these colonies 134 comprised ranged from 79.8% in 1992 to 97.3% in 2016. The next largest congregation of roseate 135 136 terns in the metapopulation breeds at several sites in Brittany, France, with the combined number of breeding pairs at these sites during the study period ranging from 14.0% in 1992 to 2.6% in 2016. 137 We did not include the French colonies in our study due to the sparseness of the capture-mark-138 recapture data collected there. There were 29 sightings of 23 individuals in French colonies between 139 2007 and 2014 of roseate terns ringed at the three study colonies (there is no resighting data before 140 141 this period). In comparison, the numbers of roseate terns seen at each study colony over the same 142 period that were ringed at a different colony were 869 for Rockabill, 1457 for LIL and 538 for Coquet. There were 13 sightings of four individual French-ringed terns across the study sites 143 between 1996 and 2016. Since Isle aux Dames was abandoned in 2006 numbers there have been 144 small and of little importance. Ring resighting records within our system and in other 145 metapopulations in the Azores and eastern North America indicate that immigration and emigration 146 147 into and out of the NW Europe metapopulation is very rare.

148 **Demographic data**

From 1992 to 2016, we collected three types of demographic data on roseate tern at each colony:
population survey data consisting of counts of breeding pairs, data on productivity and capture-markrecapture data.

Data on population size are derived from annual nest counts at each colony in the metapopulation. A
breeding survey was performed each year at each colony from 1992 until 2016, except for 2000 at
LIL. The breeding survey attempted to count all pairs of roseate terns present at each colony and did
not include unpaired individuals or juveniles.

156 Productivity in our study consists of the number of offspring fledged per monitored pair. Daily monitoring (weather permitting) of breeding roseate terns was carried out by wardens. For the 157 158 number of fledged offspring we use the number of chicks of monitored pairs ringed minus any that 159 were recorded dead before fledging age (reasons included depredation, chilling or starvation). For Coquet, the number of monitored pairs equals the number of pairs counted in the census. In most 160 161 years at Rockabill and some years at LIL a sample of pairs, considered representative of each colony were monitored, while in other years all pairs were monitored. These efforts were designed to 162 163 estimate as accurately as possible the number of chicks surviving to fledging after ringing. In the 164 population model, all breeding is assumed to be by adults aged 3 years or over.

Each year from 1992 to 2016, attempts were made to capture all roseate tern chicks at each colony. 165 All captured chicks were marked with uniquely numbered national metal rings and field-readable 166 rings marked with an individual code of four alphanumeric characters stamped on both sides. Only 167 chicks marked from 1992 until 2013 were included in the study because we assume an age of first 168 169 breeding of three years (Ratcliffe, Nisbet, & Newton, 2004) and exclude sightings of birds at one and 170 two years old. Chicks which died before fledging were not included in the dataset. The unique ring codes of marked individuals were read by observers using telescopes from fixed and mobile hides at 171 172 each colony throughout each breeding season, except for 1995, 2000 and 2001 at LIL, when access 173 restrictions were in place.

174 Statistical analysis

175 We developed a multistate IPM (Schaub & Abadi, 2011) with age classes and time variation using the general structure outlined by Kéry & Schaub (2012) to estimate population size and demographic 176 177 rates of the three roseate tern colonies in Britain and Ireland. Within our IPM, the likelihoods of the three data sets (breeding population counts, productivity and capture-mark-resighting (CMR) data) 178 were formulated jointly. The model assumes an equal sex ratio amongst chicks hatched, no sex 179 180 differences for survival, movement only occurs between the three study colonies (except for 181 migration to and from the wintering grounds) and birds start breeding at age 3 (Ratcliffe et al., 2004). The analysis of the time series of population counts was conducted with a state-space model 182 consisting of a set of state process equations that describe the development of the number of 183 individuals in different states as a function of demographic rates. We built a pre-breeding census 184 185 model with a total of 36 states, each of which described a combination of age, colony in the previous 186 time step and colony in the current time step. Table S1 (Supporting Information) provides the state definitions. In our models, birds of age 3+ are considered part of the breeding population. 187 To enable demographic stochasticity to be modelled, we used Poisson and binomial distributions to 188 describe the dynamics of the true population size over time with a pre-breeding projection model 189 (Schaub et al., 2012). Thus, the number of fledglings in year t depended on the number of breeding 190 (age 3+) females in year t and productivity in year t. The number of age 3, age 4 and age 5+ females 191 at each colony in each year depended on the numbers of each age group in the preceding year (or 192 three years before in the case of age 3 females), age- and colony-specific survival rate and age- and 193 194 intercolony-specific dispersal rate. The demographic parameters are defined in Table S1. The prebreeding projection model equations for each study site are given in Appendix S1. The projection 195 model equations for each site were constituents of the multistate IPM. The observation process 196 197 describes the relationship between the observed population counts and the true population size, using a Poisson distribution. Productivity was analysed with random effects for time, with a normal 198

distribution and log link. Age- and colony-specific emigration and immigration rates were derived parameters, based on the total number of age- and colony-specific emigrants or immigrants in year t+ 1 divided by the total breeding population of the colony in year t. Population growth rate (λ_t) was a derived parameter, calculated from the total breeding population at the colony in year t +1 divided by the total breeding population at the colony in year t.

We estimate survival of individuals using multistate models of CMR data. Our CMR data set 204 205 consists of 20,702 individuals initially marked as chicks and which were not recorded as dying 206 before fledging (17,636 at Rockabill, 1,707 at LIL and 1,359 at Coquet). We analysed the CMR data with a multistate model (Kéry & Schaub, 2012; J.-D. Lebreton, Burnham, Clobert, & Anderson, 207 1992) with a multinomial likelihood. We used this model to estimate the parameters S (survival 208 209 probability: annual or from fledging to age 3, dependent on subscript as described below), Ψ (dispersal probability) and p (resigning probability). We based the model on age-structured models 210 described by Kéry & Schaub (2012: chapter 9) and (Weegman et al., 2016). While goodness of fit 211 212 (GOF) tests for IPMs remain unavailable (Lee et al., 2015), it is recommended that component datasets are assessed for GOF to the model (Kéry & Schaub, 2012; Schaub & Abadi, 2011). 213 214 Goodness of fit tests with programme U-CARE (Choquet, Lebreton, Gimenez, Reboulet, & Pradel, 2009) indicated the existence of 'trap dependence' and transience within the data (Table S3). 215 Following Ratcliffe, Newton, et al., (2008), we dealt with transience by considering three age classes 216 217 for S and y: juvenile (the period fledging to age 3; subscript juv, reported in the text as annual juvenile survival after calculating the cube-root), age 3 (subscript age3) and age 4+ (subscript 218 age4+). We included six parameters for p, which consisted of age since last recorded (age 0, age 3 or 219 220 age 4+) and, to account for 'trap dependence', time since last recorded (previous year or before previous year; for birds last recorded as age 0, the previous year was three years previous because 221 birds are not resignted at age 1 and 2 in our model). We considered it possible that birds in their first 222 223 year of breeding may have a lower resighting probability than older birds for reasons including

breeding failure, later arrival and less optimal nesting locations. Any sightings of age 1 or 2 birds were discarded and we assume that no birds of age 1 or 2 return to the breeding colonies. To enable fast analysis times, we summarised the data in the m-array format, with separate m-arrays for each age class. The parameters S_{juv} , S_{age3+} , ψ_{juv} and ψ_{age3+} were modelled with random effects for time, with normal distributions and logit links. S_{juv} was used to derive juvenile annual survival probability during the model run for the purposes of presentation. We estimated resighting probability for each colony and year independently of each other (i.e. with fixed effects).

231 We used Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods within a Bayesian framework to estimate the model parameters. We used uninformative priors for all parameters as we did not want to influence 232 them with prior knowledge (see Appendix S2). The uniform priors for mean productivity were 233 234 bounded between zero and two because roseate terns lay a maximum of two eggs in a clutch and are single brooded. IPM analysis was conducted with JAGS 4.2.0 (Plummer, 2003) called via jagsUI 235 (Kellner, 2016), a package for program R 3.2.5 (R Development Core Team, 2016). We ran 3 chains 236 237 with 800,000 iterations, of which 600,000 iterations were discarded as a burn-in and used a thinning rate of 50. This yielded a total of 12,000 posterior samples for each parameter. The chains were well-238 mixed and converged satisfactorily ($\hat{R} < 1.05$). The JAGS code for running the model is provided in 239 Appendix S2. 240

To assess the impact of the demographic parameters on λ , we computed the posterior distributions of the correlation coefficients (Schaub et al., 2012). The strength of these correlations indicate the strength of the contribution of the temporal variation in demographic parameters to the temporal variation in λ over the study period (Freeman, Robinson, Clark, Griffin, & Adams, 2007; Robinson, Green, Baillie, Peach, & Thomson, 2004). We used the mode to describe the posterior distributions of the correlation coefficients because most of them were very skewed. We also calculated the probability that the correlation coefficients were greater than zero [P(r > 0)]. We performed

equivalent correlations with the same set of demographic parameters and population size instead of λ 248 to assess whether there was evidence for density dependence (Schaub, Jakober, & Stauber, 2013). 249 The source or sink status of a colony can be determined by calculating its contribution to the wider 250 population network and this depends on productivity, (apparent) survival and emigration rates 251 (Runge, Runge, & Nichols, 2006). To investigate the source-sink dynamics between the colonies, we 252 used the posterior samples of demographic rates obtained from the IPM to re-run the population 253 process equations described above 12,000 times (the number of posterior samples), but without any 254 255 emigration or immigration between colonies. In this projection without dispersal, the states consist of age groups at each colony. The breeding population size at each colony for the first three years in the 256 257 projection are copies of the posterior samples from the IPM. For each subsequent time-step, the 258 number of individuals in each state is determined by the posterior samples of productivity, S_{iuv} , S_{age3} and S_{age4+} from the IPM. We make the assumption that mean productivity (and survival) at the 259 colonies remains unchanged when dispersal was fixed to 0. A colony was determined to be a source 260 261 if its population increased in the absence of dispersal and a sink if its population decreased in the absence of dispersal. 262

263

264 **Results**

265 Temporal patterns in demographic parameters

266 The number of pairs of the three colonies combined increased from an estimate of 496 (95% CRI:

454-540) pairs in 1992 to an estimate of 1,844 (95% CRI: 1,768-1,922) pairs in 2016. The

populations of all three colonies increased over the study period (Rockabill: from 373 (95% CRI:

269 338-411) breeding pairs in 1992 to 1,538 (95% CRI: 1,466-1,611) breeding pairs in 2016; LIL: 85

270 (95% CRI: 68-104) to 203 (95% CRI: 181-226); Coquet: 38 (95% CRI: 27-51) to 103 (95% CRI: 88-

271 118)) (Fig. 1).

Resighting probability was higher at age 4+ than age 3, when birds had been observed the preceding
year. (Fig. S1, Supporting Information). Resighting probability also varied by colony and year (Fig.
S1).

Productivity was highest at Rockabill (Table 1, Fig. 1). Productivity varied considerably at Rockabill 275 276 and LIL but varied little at Coquet (Table 1, Fig. 1). Annual survival rates were higher for age 3 and 4+ than juvenile birds and varied by colony (Table 1, Fig. 1). Juvenile annual survival fluctuated 277 moderately at Rockabill and LIL (Fig. 1). From 1995 to 2010, juvenile survival at Coquet was 278 279 particularly low (0.59 (95% CRI: 0.43-0.73)) compared to the other colonies; the average for the remaining years at Coquet was 0.72 (95% CRI: 0.45-0.81) (Fig. 1). Age 3 and age 4+ survival were 280 higher at Rockabill and LIL than Coquet (Table 1, Fig. 1). Rates of emigration and immigration were 281 282 highest at LIL and Coquet (Table 1, Fig. 2; note different y-axis scales). At Rockabill, juvenile emigration generally exceeded immigration with the opposite occurring at LIL and Coquet (Table 1, 283 Fig. 2). At Rockabill and LIL, age 3 and 4+ emigration balanced relatively with immigration overall, 284 285 although not on an annual basis (Table 1, Fig. 2). At Coquet, age 3 and 4+ immigration exceeded emigration in several years, with balance between emigration and immigration in other years (Fig. 2). 286 The estimated actual number of annual emigrants from and immigrants to each colony, on which the 287 emigration and immigration rates are based, are illustrated in Fig. S2. 288

289

290 Source-sink dynamics

There were striking differences in the dispersal of pre-breeding and breeding terns (Fig. 3). There was relatively high dispersal of pre-breeding terns from Rockabill to LIL and to Coquet. There was considerably lower dispersal of pre-breeders towards Rockabill, although the numbers as a proportion of the source colony sizes were higher than from Rockabill (Fig. 3). The average number of age 3 and age 4+ birds dispersing from Rockabill to LIL and Coquet was similar to the numbers moving in the opposite direction, despite the much greater source population of Rockabill.

Population growth rate (λ) at all three colonies tended to be positive (mean λ calculated as the 297 298 regression of population size over time) (Table 1). The population of Rockabill grew quite steadily while the populations of LIL and Coquet experienced more fluctuations (Fig. 1). Fixing dispersal 299 probability to 0 resulted in a λ above 1 at Rockabill and LIL, and a λ below 1 at Coquet (Table 1), 300 demonstrating that Rockabill and LIL have been self-sufficient and population sources while the 301 internal demographic rates of Coquet have been insufficient to sustain its population, which has acted 302 as a sink. Fixing dispersal probability to 0 resulted in a higher projected λ at Rockabill and a lower 303 projected λ at Coquet, with no change at LIL (Table 1, Fig. 4). λ with and without emigration and 304 305 immigration at Rockabill fluctuated similarly over time, although the population size was predicted 306 to be larger in the absence of emigration and immigration, with a probability of 1 (2,441 (95% CRI: 2,072-2,794) pairs vs 1,538 (95% CRI: 1,466-1,611) pairs modelled with emigration and 307 308 immigration). In contrast, at the two smaller colonies of LIL and Coquet, fixing dispersal probability 309 at 0 resulted in a great reduction in annual fluctuations in predicted λ (Fig. 4), showing the large 310 effect of emigration and immigration on population dynamics at these colonies. The number of pairs at LIL with dispersal fixed at 0 was projected to reach 253 (95% CRI: 122-417) by 2016, with a 0.70 311 probability that this is larger than the 202 (95% CRI: 181-226) pairs modelled with 312 313 emigration/immigration. At Coquet, fixing dispersal to 0 resulted in a continual decline in predicted population size, showing that Coquet has relied on immigration for population growth. Without 314 emigration/immigration, the Coquet colony was projected to fall to 10 pairs (95% CRI: 5-16) by 315 316 2016, with a probability of 1.0 that this was lower than the 102 (95% CRI: 88-118) pairs modelled with emigration/immigration. In summary, by 2016, net migration appears to have reduced the 317 population size at Rockabill, had little impact at LIL and led to an increase in the population size at 318 Coquet, while fixing dispersal to 0 within the model resulted in a greater projected metapopulation 319 320 size of 2,703 (95% CRI: 2,344-3,026) compared to 1,844 (95% CRI: 1,768-1,922) in the original 321 model, with a probability of 1 that the population size was larger without dispersal.

322

323 Correlations of demographic parameters and annual population growth rate

- 324 At Rockabill, the strongest positive correlations with annual population growth rate, λ , were with
- 325 juvenile survival [r = 0.59; P(r > 0) = 1] and age 4+ survival [r = 0.66; P(r > 0) = 0.97] and
- productivity [r = 0.42; P(r > 0) = 1] (Table 2, Fig. 5). λ at Rockabill also correlated positively with
- 327 age 4+ immigration [r = 0.31; P(r > 0) = 0.96], but less strongly (Table 2, Fig. 5). At LIL, the
- strongest positive correlation with λ was with age 4+ immigration [r = 0.52; P(r > 0) = 1; Table 2,
- Fig. 5]. λ at LIL also correlated positively with juvenile survival [r = 0.36; P(r > 0) = 1], juvenile
- immigration [r = 0.32; P(r > 0) = 0.98] and age 3 immigration [r = 0.35; P(r > 0) = 1] (Table 2, Fig.
- 5). At Coquet, λ correlated strongly and positively with juvenile immigration [r = 0.72; P(r > 0) =
- 332 1], age 3 immigration [r = 0.56; P(r > 0) = 1] and age 4+ immigration [r = 0.53; P(r > 0) = 0.99]
- 333 (Table 2, Fig. 5).
- λ of the metapopulation (all three colonies combined) correlated positively and significantly with
- 335 juvenile and age 4+ survival at Rockabill [r = 0.51 (95% CRI: 0.27, 0.65); P(r > 0) = 1 and r = 0.34
- 336 (95% CRI: 0.07, 0.56); P(r > 0) = 0.98] and productivity at Rockabill [r = 0.43 (95% CRI: 0.24,

337 0.59); P(r > 0) = 1] (Fig. 6). The demographic parameters are plotted against λ at each colony in Figs 338 S3-S5 and for each colony against λ for the three colonies combined in Fig S6.

339

340 Correlations of demographic parameters and population size (assessing density dependence)

- Population size was negatively correlated with juvenile survival [r = -0.26; P(r > 0) = 0.99] and
- productivity [r = -0.32; P(r > 0) = 0] at Rockabill (Table 3). Population size was negatively
- 343 correlated with emigration and immigration for several age classes at all the colonies (Table 3). The
- 344 decrease in immigration rates with increasing population size reflects the reduced number of
- 345 dispersing individuals relative to overall population size. Population size correlated positively with

the number of juvenile emigrants and age 3 immigrants at Rockabill, age 3 emigrants and juvenile
immigrants at LIL and juvenile, age 3 and age 4+ immigrants at COQ (Table S2). Population size
did, however, correlate negatively with number of age 4+ immigrants at Rockabill and age 4+
emigrants at LIL (Table S2). The demographic parameters are plotted against population size at each
colony in Fig S7-S9.

351

352 **Discussion**

353 Our IPM of the three major roseate tern colonies comprising the NW Europe metapopulation confirmed that the largest colony, Rockabill (1,538 pairs in 2016; 83% of the total), is self-sustaining 354 355 and a source of terns for the other colonies. The smallest and most remote colony, Coquet (103 pairs in 2016; 6% of the total), has depended on immigration for much of its growth and has acted as a 356 sink. Here, immigration has exceeded emigration, and mortality has exceeded local recruitment over 357 358 much of the study period. Immigration was a major factor behind population growth of the third colony, LIL (203 pairs in 2016; 11% of the total), but overall this colony has been a migration 359 360 neutral.

361 Resighting probability varied annually and between sites, which can be explained by variation in effort devoted to tern ring reading by site and year. Resighting probability at Rockabill declined over 362 time, which may be due to ring reading effort not increasing in proportion to population size. The 363 lower resighting of age 3 birds could be due to them: (1) being absent from the colonies, (2) being at 364 a colony but not breeding and therefore spending less time there, (3) breeding but failing early and 365 366 therefore having fewer chances to be seen and (4) breeding at the edge of the colony, where the likelihood of detection is lower. The former two of these reasons relate to non-breeding and the latter 367 two do not, ruling out possible use of resighting probability as a proxy for breeding propensity. 368 369 Breeding propensity is assumed to be 100% for all birds of age three and over in the model, which is a necessary assumption because only a minority of tern detections were confirmed as breeders (c.f. 370

Lebreton et al. 2003; Szostek et al. 2014). The existence of age 3+ non-breeders would lead to an over-estimation of the number of fledglings produced which could bias population size estimates upwards or juvenile survival rates downwards. Since the productivity data were very close to the modelled estimates, breeding population estimates tracked population count data very closely and juvenile survival compared well to roseate terns in the NW Atlantic (Nisbet, Monticelli, Spendelow, & Szczys, 2016; Spendelow, Nichols, Hines, Lebreton, & Pradel, 2002), any bias in the model caused by non-breeding amongst age 3+ females appears negligible.

378 Our modelling suggests that dispersal within the metapopulation has limited the increase in the 379 number of breeding pairs. These population projections do not, however, account for the possibility 380 that density dependence of certain demographic parameters may have imposed stronger constraints 381 on the size of source colonies in the absence of dispersal. We found evidence of density dependent regulation of productivity and juvenile survival at Rockabill. Density dependence acting on juvenile 382 survival at larger colonies has also been reported for roseate terns in the NW Atlantic metapopulation 383 384 (García-Quismondo, Nisbet, Mostello, & Reed, 2018). The likely mechanism for density dependent productivity and survival at Rockabill is increased competition for limited food supplies, leading to 385 386 poorer chick and fledging condition and/or poorer food availability for young birds post-fledging, with consequent carryover effects (O'Connor, Norris, Crossin, & Cooke, 2014) into the non-breeding 387 388 season. The higher dispersal of pre-breeders from Rockabill compared to breeders may also reflect 389 density dependence. With the increasing size of the Rockabill population, young, inexperienced 390 individuals may gain fitness benefits by moving from Rockabill to lower quality sites with reduced competition (Hamilton, 1964a, 1964b; Morris, Lundberg, & Ripa, 2001). 391

From 1960 to 1981 only a small proportion of the metapopulation bred on Rockabill, where large gulls displaced and predated on terns (Cabot, 1995). Since then, management has reduced the level of predation and the roseate tern numbers at Rockabill increased; unpublished ring resighting data indicates that this rise in the 1980s was due to terns moving there from abandoned former colonies. Our results confirm that the colony has been a source since at least 1992 (the start of this study), with
the average productivity of 1.22 considerably higher than at the other colonies in this
metapopulation, as well as higher than NW Atlantic colonies, where average productivity ranges
from 1.06 to 1.17 (Burger *et al.* 1996; Nisbet & Ratcliffe 2008; Hays 2017). Tern breeding success is
sensitive to variation in food supply (Crawford, 2009; Dänhardt & Becker, 2011; Safina, Burger,
Gochfeld, & Wagner, 1988) and the high mean productivity at Rockabill indicates high food
availability near the colony.

403 Since 2009 there has been an almost continual fall in productivity at Rockabill while the colony grew by ~600 pairs (Fig. 1). Relatively high predation of tern chicks by large gulls, noted by Rockabill 404 field staff in some years between 2009 and 2016, could be a factor. Increased foraging competition 405 406 or depletion of fish stocks due to the increase in breeding terns may also have contributed to the decline in productivity, as found in other seabirds (Birt, Birt, Goulet, Cairns, & Montevecchi, 1987; 407 Hunt, Eppley, & Schneider, 1986; Lewis, Sherratt, Hamer, & Wanless, 2001). Nesting habitat 408 409 creation and provision of boxes at Rockabill has, by design, outpaced population expansion, removing an alternative candidate mechanism by which breeding density might negatively affect 410 411 productivity.

412 Despite intensive efforts since 2000 to improve conditions for roseate terns at Coquet, this colony has been a cryptic sink (Weegman et al., 2016). Increasing numbers have been fuelled by 413 414 immigration and counts of the breeding numbers alone would not have detected this. The average 415 productivity of 1.02 is similar to LIL (1.03) and both of these colonies are at the low end of 416 productivity recorded at the main colonies in the NW Atlantic. Possibly more significantly, from 1995-2010, the average annual survival of juveniles at Coquet was 0.59: lower than at Rockabill and 417 LIL. Exploration of the reasons for low demographic rates at Coquet should include comparative 418 studies of provisioning rates, diet and fledging weights. The period of low juvenile annual survival at 419 420 Coquet is not accompanied by low age 3 and age 4+ survival, suggesting a higher risk of mortality

for birds in the interval from 0 to 3 years old than for birds 3 years and older. Most young birds 421 remain in their African wintering grounds until at least age 2 and could therefore be 422 disproportionately affected by variation in food availability or hunting there. However, neither 423 juvenile nor age 3 and age 4+ survival rates were correlated between any pair of colonies and, as we 424 425 believe the birds to winter in the same areas (Ratcliffe & Merne, 2002), we would expect such correlations if factors in the wintering grounds had strong impacts on annual variability of survival 426 rates. It should be noted that the figures for juvenile survival are likely to be biased downwards – and 427 productivity upwards – to some extent as although we removed those ringed chicks known to have 428 429 died before fledging from analysis, some will inevitably have been overlooked.

Productivity at LIL was highly variable, which likely reflects sporadically heavy predation by
mammals such as rats (*Rattus norvegica*) and stoats (*Mustela erminea*), which do not have far to
travel to this inshore colony, as well as various avian predators. While productivity did not correlate
with annual population growth rate at LIL, high predation (which reduces productivity) may have
been a cue for roseate terns to disperse from LIL and may have resulted in the sporadically high
emigration from LIL to Rockabill (Fig. 2), as has been documented in seabirds previously (Oro et al.,
1999). Rockabill and Coquet, by contrast, are offshore and safe from mammalian predators.

437 Dispersal rates within the metapopulation exhibited substantial annual variation and correlated with population growth rates of each colony. The finding that immigration rates were the most important 438 439 correlates with population growth rate at Coquet and LIL is consistent with the closely-related common terns at the Banter See colony (Szostek et al., 2014). Rockabill differed in that survival and 440 441 productivity were the most important determinants of population growth. Given the very large relative size of the Rockabill colony, large proportions of birds from LIL or Coquet would need to 442 443 immigrate to have a significant impact on Rockabill's population growth. Greater numbers of terns 444 that fledged on Rockabill recruited to LIL and Coquet than moved in the opposite direction, which could reflect density dependence at Rockabill and/or attractiveness of LIL and Coquet to younger 445

birds. Availability of local recruits was suggested to be the main driver of immigration in common
terns at Banter See, also in the NE Atlantic (Szostek et al., 2014), but of our three colonies of roseate
terns, the most local recruits are found at the very large Rockabill colony, which received fewer
recruiting immigrants than the smaller colonies (Fig. 3).

Our data suggest that the colony at Coquet would disappear without immigration from Rockabill. 450 451 LIL is the only other source colony in the metapopulation, but the threat from predation is higher than at Rockabill or Coquet. The availability of multiple potential breeding locations (hosting other 452 453 breeding tern species) within a region allows colonies of roseate terns to respond to changing levels of predation or disturbance by moving to alternative sites (Cabot, 1995; Spendelow et al., 2016). 454 455 While Rockabill is safe from erosion and flooding, and management reduces predation and almost 456 eliminates nest site competition by gulls, a catastrophic stochastic event here is not impossible and would likely be devastating for the overall roseate tern metapopulation. Sink sites such as Coquet can 457 458 act as refugia for terns that have lost former breeding colonies, either temporarily or permanently, to 459 a catastrophic event, thereby helping the metapopulation to survive.

460 Variable site quality can affect the success of efforts to restore animal populations within a 461 metapopulation. In the case of roseate terns, our results highlight the importance of choosing sites for 462 restoration work where assessment suggests a high likelihood of attaining sufficiently high levels of productivity and survival to avoid creation of further sink colonies. Identifying such sites is 463 464 challenging in the absence of current breeding roseate terns, but colonisation apparently requires an established common tern (Sterna hirundo) colony (Nisbet & Spendelow, 1999), while the risk of 465 466 incursions by most mammalian predators from the mainland can be assessed relatively easily by considering the distance from the mainland shore (Ratcliffe, Craik, Helyar, Roy, & Scott, 2008; 467 468 Ratcliffe, Mitchell, Varnham, Verboven, & Higson, 2009). Distance from shore (and hence water 469 depth) tends to be inversely related to food availability for terns (e.g. Monaghan 1996), however, so managers need to trade-off these conflicting demands when selecting sites for restoration. Studying 470

the foraging success and productivity of common terns at candidate sites may help to identify thosewith sufficient food availability within foraging range and without significant predation.

Conservationists have considerable power to manipulate tern distributions (Dunlop et al., 1991;

Kress, 1983; Roby et al., 2002) and could for example remove nest boxes at Rockabill to increase 474 density dependent competition for nesting sites, with the ultimate goal of encouraging emigration of 475 young birds to new sites that have been prepared for them. Our study indicates that such an approach 476 may lead to a reduction in metapopulation size because of the high productivity achieved by roseate 477 terns on Rockabill and the low productivity and survival elsewhere i.e. at Coquet. However, with the 478 479 appearance of density dependent regulation at Rockabill it is possible a growing number of individual terns will gain fitness benefits by emigrating to other colonies, which could also be 480 beneficial for the size of the overall metapopulation, provided conditions at receptor colonies are 481 482 sufficiently favourable.

In conclusion, habitat management to restore or create breeding sites may allow metapopulations to 483 484 increase in size and reduce the risk of extinction caused by demographic stochasticity or disasters. However, it is not always straightforward and considerable resources may also be spent unwittingly 485 managing sink populations, to the detriment of overall metapopulation size. To avoid this, we 486 recommend that the suitability of potential sites for colony restoration should be evaluated prior to 487 attempts to restore colonies. In the case of roseate terns, evaluations should include assessments of: 488 safety from mainland-based predators, the risk of site loss due to coastal erosion, the diet, 489 490 provisioning rate, fledging weight and ideally also the productivity and juvenile survival of any other tern species already nesting at potential recolonization sites. The insights gained from our integrated 491 492 population model suggest that effective management of other small metapopulations of conservation concern would be enhanced by investigations of this kind, and highlight the importance of collecting 493 long-term, multi-site demographic data that allow such insights. 494

495

473

496 Acknowledgements

497

Oscar Merne, Nik Aspey, Jo Hulsman, Nicola Reddy, Julia Baer, Vicky Jones, Mary Robinson, 498 Claire Bailly, Ashling Kelly, Ben Stammers, Graham Barker, Aleks Maljkovic, Jeff Stenning, 499 500 Dominic Berridge, James Millett, Alyn Walsh, Adam Cowles, Rick Mundy, Chris Watts, Olivia Crowe, Veronica Neves, Yvonne White, Dave Daly, Anne Newton, Chris Wilson, Maggie Hall, 501 Gearoid O'Sullivan, Cathryn Hannon, David Patrick, Rob Lidstone-Scott, James Robinson, Alastair 502 503 Boulton, Liz Giddings, Dave Fletcher, Sarah Lowe, Zoe Tapping, Bill Ashby, Arthur Jones and Mark Oksien. The work was funded by the LIFE Programme of the European Union as part of the 504 project "Improving the conservation prospects of the priority species roseate tern throughout its 505 range in the UK and Ireland" (LIFE14 NAT/UK/000394) and Natural England and conducted under 506 the auspices of long-term ringing and monitoring work funded by BirdWatch Ireland, RSPB and 507 508 NPWS. Mark Avery, Adrian del Nevo and John Coveney initiated the special ringing programme and managed the project during its early years. Ian Nisbet kindly provided comments on an earlier 509 draft of the paper. 510

This study was made possible by the efforts of banders and wardens who marked and resighted birds:

511

512 Authors' Contributions

AS, NR, SN, RC, PM and MB conceived the ideas and designed methodology; NR, SN, PM, TC and
WD collected the data; AS analysed the data; AS led the writing of the manuscript. All authors
contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

516

517 Data Accessibility

518 The roseate tern population data presented here will be available from the Dryad Digital Repository

519 https://doi.org/xxxx/dryad.xxxx (Seward *et al*, 2018). These data include the population counts,

520 fledgling counts and number pairs for which productivity was monitored, and capture-mark-

521 recapture data.

522

523 **References**

- 524 Avery, M. I., Coulthard, N. D., Nevo, A. J. Del, Leroux, A., Medeiros, F., Merne, O., ... Wallace, E.
- 525 (1995). A recovery plan for Roseate Terns in the East Atlantic: an international programme.

526 Bird Conservation International, 5, 441–453. doi:10.1017/S0959270900001167

- Avery, M. I., Green, R., & del Nevo, A. (1991). A scientific action plan for Roseate Terns in the *eastern Atlantic*. Bedfordshire.
- Battin, J. (2004). When good animals love bad habitats: ecological traps and the conservation of
 animal populations. *Conservation Biology*, *18*(6), 1482–1491. doi:10.1111/j.1523-
- 531 1739.2004.00417.x
- Birt, V. L., Birt, T. P., Goulet, D., Cairns, D. K., & Montevecchi, W. A. (1987). Ashmole's halo:
- direct evidence for prey depletion by a seabird. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 40(3), 205–
- 534 208. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/24825734

535 Breton, A. R., Nisbet, I. C. T., Mostello, C. S., & Hatch, J. J. (2014). Age-dependent breeding

- dispersal and adult survival within a metapopulation of Common Terns *Sterna hirundo*. *Ibis*,
- 537 *156*(3), 534–547. doi:10.1111/ibi.12161
- 538 Brindley, E., Mudge, G., Dymond, N., Lodge, C., Ribbands, B., Steele, D., ... Ratcliffe, N. (1999).
- The status of Arctic terns Sterna paradisaea at Shetland and Orkney in 1994. *Atlantic Seabirds*, *1*, 135–143.

541	Burger, J., Safina, C., Gochfeld, M., & Gochfeld, M. (1996). Temporal patterns in reproductive
542	success in the endangered Roseate Tern (Sterna dougallii) nesting on Long Island, New York,
543	and Bird Island, Massachusetts. The Auk, 113(1), 131-142. doi:10.2307/4088941
544	Cabot, D. (1995). Performance of the Roseate Tern population breeding in North-West Europe:
545	Ireland, Britain and France, 1960-94. Biology and Environment: Proceedings of the Royal Irish
546	Academy, 96, 55-68. doi:10.2307/20499960
547	Casey, S., Moore, N., Ryan, L., Merne, O. J., Coveney, J. A., & del Nevo, A. (1995). The roseate
548	tern conservation project on Rockabill, Co. Dublin: a six-year review 1989-1994. Irish Birds, 5,
549	251–264.
550	Choquet, R., Lebreton, JD., Gimenez, O., Reboulet, AM., & Pradel, R. (2009). U-CARE: Utilities
551	for performing goodness of fit tests and manipulating CApture-REcapture data. Ecography,
552	<i>32</i> (6), 1071–1074. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0587.2009.05968.x
553	Clobert, J., Danchin, E., Dhondt, A. A., & Nichols, J. D. (2001). Dispersal. New York: Oxford
554	University Press.
555	Coulson, J. C. (2001). Colonial breeding in seabirds. In E. A. Schreiber & J. Burger (Eds.), Biology
556	of Marine Birds (pp. 87–113). New York: CRC Press.

557 Craik, C. (1997). Long-term effects of North American Mink *Mustela vison* on seabirds in western
558 Scotland. *Bird Study*, 44(3), 303–309. doi:10.1080/00063659709461065

Crawford, R. J. M. (2009). A recent increase of swift terns *Thalasseus bergii* off South Africa—the
possible influence of an altered abundance and distribution of prey. *Progress in Oceanography*, *83*, 398–403.

Dänhardt, A., & Becker, P. H. (2011). Herring and sprat abundance indices predict chick growth and
 reproductive performance of common terns breeding in the Wadden Sea. *Ecosystems*, *14*, 791–

564 803.

565	Dunlop, C. L., Blokpoel, H., & Jarvie, S. (1991). Nesting rafts as a management tool for a declining
566	Common Tern (Sterna hirundo) colony. Colonial Waterbirds, 14(2), 116. doi:10.2307/1521499
567	Esler, D. (2000). Applying metapopulation theory to conservation of migratory birds. Conservation
568	<i>Biology</i> , 14(2), 366–372. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1739.2000.98147.x
569	Freeman, S. N., Robinson, R. A., Clark, J. A., Griffin, B. M., & Adams, S. Y. (2007). Changing
570	demography and population decline in the Common Starling Sturnus vulgaris: a multisite
571	approach to Integrated Population Monitoring. Ibis, 149(3), 587-596. doi:10.1111/j.1474-
572	919X.2007.00684.x
573	Furrer, R. D., & Pasinelli, G. (2016). Empirical evidence for source-sink populations: a review on
574	occurrence, assessments and implications. Biological Reviews, 91.
575	García-Quismondo, M., Nisbet, I. C. T., Mostello, C., & Reed, J. M. (2018). Modeling population
576	dynamics of roseate terns (Sterna dougallii) in the Northwest Atlantic Ocean. Ecological
577	Modelling, 368, 298–311. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2017.12.007
578	Hamilton, W. D. (1964a). The genetical evolution of social behaviour. I. Journal of Theoretical
579	Biology, 7(1), 1–16. doi:10.1016/0022-5193(64)90038-4
580	Hamilton, W. D. (1964b). The genetical evolution of social behaviour. II. Journal of Theoretical
581	Biology, 7(1), 17–52. doi:10.1016/0022-5193(64)90039-6
582	Hanski, I. (1998, November 5). Metapopulation dynamics. Nature. doi:10.1038/23876
583	Hanski, I., & Gyllenberg, M. (1993). Two general metapopulation models and the core-satellite
584	species hypothesis. The American Naturalist, 142(1), 17-41. doi:10.1086/285527
585	Hays, H. (2017). Great Gull Island (New York). In Annual Roseate Tern Newsletter 2016 (pp. 35-
586	39). Roseate Tern LIFE Project. Retrieved from
	25

587 http://roseatetern.org/uploads/3/5/8/0/35804201/roseate_tern_newsletter_2016_issue_10.pdf

Heubeck, M., Mellor, R. M., Harvey, P. V., Mainwood, A. R., & Riddington, R. (1999). Estimating

the population size and rate of decline of Kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla* breeding in Shetland,

590 1981–97. *Bird Study*, *46*(1), 48–61. doi:10.1080/00063659909461114

- Hunt, G. L., Eppley, Z. A., & Schneider, D. C. (1986). Reproductive Performance of Seabirds: The
 Importance of Population and Colony Size. *The Auk*, *103*(2), 306–317. Retrieved from
 http://www.jstor.org/stable/4087084
- Jennings, G., McGlashan, D. J., & Furness, R. W. (2012). Responses to changes in sprat abundance
- of common tern breeding numbers at 12 colonies in the Firth of Forth, east Scotland. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 69(4), 572–577.
- Kellner, K. (2016). R package to Run JAGS (Just Another Gibbs Sampler) analyses from within R.
 Retrieved from https://github.com/kenkellner/jagsUI
- Kéry, M., & Schaub, M. (2012). *Bayesian Population Analysis Using WinBUGS: A Hierarchical Perspective*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Kress, S. W. (1983). The use of decoys, sound recordings, and gull control for re-establishing a tern
 colony in Maine. *Colonial Waterbirds*, *6*, 185. doi:10.2307/1520987
- Kress, S. W., Borzik, R. V., & Hall, C. S. (Eds.). (2008). *Egg Rock update 2008*. Ithaca, New York:
 National Audubon Society.
- Kristan, W. B. I. (2003). The role of habitat selection behavior in population dynamics: source-sink
 systems and ecological traps. *Oikos*, *103*(3), 457–468. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0706.2003.12192.x
- 607 Lebreton, J.-D., Burnham, K. P., Clobert, J., & Anderson, D. R. (1992). Modeling survival and
- testing biological hypotheses using marked animals: a unified approach with case studies.
- 609 *Ecological Monographs*, 62(1), 67–118. doi:10.2307/2937171

- Lebreton, J. D., Hines, J. E., Pradel, R., Nichols, J. D., & Spendelow, J. A. (2003). Estimation by
- 611 capture-recapture of recruitment and dispersal over several sites. *Oikos*, *101*(2), 253–264.
- 612 doi:10.1034/j.1600-0706.2003.11848.x
- Lee, A. M., Bjørkvoll, E. M., Hansen, B. B., Albon, S. D., Stien, A., Sæther, B.-E., ... Grøtan, V.
- 614 (2015). An integrated population model for a long-lived ungulate: more efficient data use with
 615 Bayesian methods. *Oikos*, *124*(6), 806–816.
- Lewis, S., Sherratt, T. N., Hamer, K. C., & Wanless, S. (2001). Evidence of intra-specific
- 617 competition for food in a pelagic seabird. *Nature*, *412*, 816. Retrieved from
- 618 http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/35090566
- MacArthur, R. H., & Wilson, E. O. (1967). *The theory of island biogeography*. Princeton, NJ:
 Princeton University Press.
- Monaghan, P. (1996). Relevance of the Behaviour of Seabirds to the Conservation of Marine
 Environments. *Oikos*, 77(2), 227–237. doi:10.2307/3546061
- Morris, D. W., Lundberg, P., & Ripa, J. (2001). Hamilton's rule confronts ideal free habitat
- 624 selection. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences*, 268(1470).
- Retrieved from http://rspb.royalsocietypublishing.org/content/268/1470/921.short
- 626 Nisbet, I. C. T., Monticelli, D., Spendelow, J. A., & Szczys, P. (2016). Prebreeding survival of
- 627 Roseate Terns Sterna dougallii varies with sex, hatching order and hatching date. *Ibis*, 158(2),
- 628 327–334. doi:10.1111/ibi.12359
- Nisbet, I. C. T., & Ratcliffe, N. (2008). Comparative demographics of tropical and temperate Roseate
 Terns. *Waterbirds*, *31*(3), 346–356. doi:10.1675/1524-4695-31.3.346
- 631 Nisbet, I. C. T., & Spendelow, J. A. (1999). Contribution of research to management and recovery of
- 632 the Roseate Tern: review of a twelve-year project. *Waterbirds: The International Journal of*

- 633 *Waterbird Biology*, 22(2), 239. doi:10.2307/1522212
- O'Connor, C. M., Norris, D. R., Crossin, G. T., & Cooke, S. J. (2014). Biological carryover effects:
 Linking common concepts and mechanisms in ecology and evolution. *Ecosphere*, 5(3), 1–11.
 doi:10.1890/ES13-00388.1
- Oro, D., Pradel, R., & Lebreton, J.-D. (1999). Food availability and nest predation influence life
 history traits in Audouin's gull, *Larus audouinii*. *Oecologia*, *118*(4), 438–445.
- 639 doi:10.1007/s004420050746
- 640 Plummer, M. (2003). JAGS: A program for analysis of Bayesian graphical models using Gibbs
- sampling. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.13.3406
- Pulliam, H. R. (1988). Sources, sinks, and population regulation. *The American Naturalist*, *132*, 652–643
 661.
- R Development Core Team. (2016). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*.
 Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- Ratcliffe, N., Craik, C., Helyar, A., Roy, S., & Scott, M. (2008). Modelling the benefits of American
- 647 Mink Mustela vison management options for terns in west Scotland. *Ibis*, *150*, 114–121.
- 648 doi:10.1111/j.1474-919X.2008.00787.x
- 649 Ratcliffe, N., & Merne, O. (2002). Roseate Tern Sterna dougallii. In C. V. Wernham, M. P. Toms, J.
- H. Marchant, J. A. Clark, G. M. Siriwardena, & S. R. Baillie (Eds.), *The Migration Atlas:*
- 651 *Movements of the Birds of Britain and Ireland* (pp. 385–387). London: A.D. Poyser.
- Ratcliffe, N., Mitchell, I., Varnham, K., Verboven, N., & Higson, P. (2009). How to prioritize rat
- 653 management for the benefit of petrels: a case study of the UK, Channel Islands and Isle of Man.
- 654 *Ibis*, *151*(4), 699–708. doi:10.1111/j.1474-919X.2009.00949.x
- Ratcliffe, N., Newton, S., Morrison, P., Merne, O., Cadwallender, T., & Frederiksen, M. (2008).

- Adult survival and breeding dispersal of Roseate Terns within the northwest European
 metapopulation. *Waterbirds*, *31*(3), 320–329. doi:10.1675/1524-4695-31.3.320
- Ratcliffe, N., Nisbet, I. C. T., & Newton, S. (2004). Sterna dougallii Roseate Tern. *BWP Update: The Journal of Birds of the Western Palearctic*, 6, 77–90.
- 660 Robertson, B. A., & Hutto, R. L. (2006). A framework for understanding ecological traps and an

661 evaluation of existing evidence. *Ecology*, 87(5), 1075–1085. doi:10.1890/0012-

662 9658(2006)87[1075:AFFUET]2.0.CO;2

Robinson, R. A., Green, R. E., Baillie, S. R., Peach, W. J., & Thomson, D. L. (2004). Demographic

mechanisms of the population decline of the Song Thrush *Turdus philomelos* in Britain. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, *73*(4), 670–682. doi:10.1111/j.0021-8790.2004.00841.x

Roby, D. D., Collis, K., Lyons, D. E., Craig, D. P., Adkins, J. Y., Myers, A. M., & Suryan, R. M.

667 (2002). Effects of colony relocation on diet and productivity of Caspian terns. *The Journal of*668 *Wildlife Management*, 66, 662–673. doi:10.2307/3803132

Rolland, C., Danchin, E., & de Fraipont, M. (1998). The evolution of coloniality in birds in relation

670 to food, habitat, predation, and life-history traits: a comparative analysis. *The American*

671 *Naturalist*, *151*(6), 514–29. doi:10.1086/286137

Runge, J. P., Runge, M. C., & Nichols, J. D. (2006). The role of local populations within a landscape
context: defining and classifying sources and sinks. *The American Naturalist*, *167*(6), 925–938.
doi:10.1086/503531

- Safina, C., Burger, J., Gochfeld, M., & Wagner, R. H. (1988). Evidence for prey limitation of
- 676 Common and Roseate Tern reproduction. *The Condor*, 90(4), 852–859. doi:10.2307/1368842
- 677 Schaub, M., & Abadi, F. (2011). Integrated population models: a novel analysis framework for
- deeper insights into population dynamics. *Journal of Ornithology*, *152*(S1), 227–237.

679 doi:10.1007/s10336-010-0632-7

680	Schaub, M., Jakober, H., & Stauber, W. (2013). Strong contribution of immigration to local
681	population regulation: evidence from a migratory passerine. <i>Ecology</i> , 94(8), 1828–1838.

- 682 Schaub, M., Reichlin, T. S., Abadi, F., Kéry, M., Jenni, L., & Arlettaz, R. (2012). The demographic
- drivers of local population dynamics in two rare migratory birds. *Oecologia*, *168*(1), 97–108.
 doi:10.1007/s00442-011-2070-5
- 685 Spendelow, J. A., Monticelli, D., Nichols, J. D., Hines, J. E., Nisbet, I. C. T., Cormons, G., ...

Mostello, C. S. (2016). Roseate Tern breeding dispersal and fidelity: responses to two newly
restored colony sites. *Ecosphere*, 7(10), e01510. doi:10.1002/ecs2.1510

- 688 Spendelow, J. A., Nichols, J. D., Hines, J. E., Lebreton, J.-D., & Pradel, R. (2002). Modelling
- 689 postfledging survival and age-specific breeding probabilities in species with delayed maturity:

690 A case study of Roseate Terns at Falkner Island, Connecticut. *Journal of Applied Statistics*,

691 29(1-4), 385-405. doi:10.1080/02664760120108764

- Szostek, K. L., Schaub, M., & Becker, P. H. (2014). Immigrants are attracted by local pre-breeders
 and recruits in a seabird colony. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, *83*(5), 1015–1024.
- 694 doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12206
- Wanless, S. (1988). The re-colonisation of the Isle of May by common and Arctic terns. *Scottish Birds*, *15*, 1–8.
- 697 Weegman, M. D., Bearhop, S., Fox, A. D., Hilton, G. M., Walsh, A. J., McDonald, J. L., & Hodgson,
- D. J. (2016). Integrated population modelling reveals a perceived source to be a cryptic sink.
 Journal of Animal Ecology, 85(2), 467–475. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12481
- 700 Whittam, R. M., & Leonard, M. L. (1999). Predation and breeding success in roseate terns (Sterna
- 701 *dougallii*). *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 77(6), 851–856. doi:10.1139/z99-047

Table 1. Posterior means and 95% credible intervals (in parentheses) of demographic rates at the three colonies, averaged over the whole study period (1992-2016).

		Colony	
Demographic rate	Rockabill	LIL	Coquet
Productivity	1.223 (0.673, 1.706)	1.032 (0.129, 1.708)	1.018 (0.767, 1.283)
Survival juvenile	0.772 (0.658, 0.899)	0.751 (0.64, 0.842)	0.628 (0.448, 0.808)
Survival age 3	0.846 (0.763, 0.915)	0.883 (0.583, 0.998)	0.807 (0.631, 0.943)
Survival age 4+	0.84 (0.754, 0.916)	0.82 (0.687, 0.923)	0.782 (0.667, 0.876)
Emigration juvenile	0.024 (0, 0.061)	0.068 (0, 0.304)	0.032 (0, 0.24)
Immigration juvenile	0.01 (0, 0.039)	0.098 (0, 0.337)	0.167 (0, 0.6)
Emigration age 3	0.007 (0, 0.034)	0.033 (0, 0.149)	0.034 (0, 0.167)
Immigration age 3	0.006 (0, 0.026)	0.033 (0, 0.235)	0.058 (0, 0.321)
Emigration age 4+	0.011 (0, 0.044)	0.074 (0, 0.479)	0.055 (0, 0.196)
Immigration age 4+	0.016 (0, 0.098)	0.072 (0, 0.6)	0.072 (0, 0.294)
Population growth rate	1.055 (1.05, 1.061)	1.038 (1.017, 1.06)	1.057 (1.042, 1.072)
Projected population growth rate without dispersal	1.080 (1.074–1.087)	1.036 (1.010-1.062)	0.930 (0.908, 0.952)

Table 2. Posterior modes and 95% credible intervals (in parentheses) of correlation coefficients between demographic rates and population growth rate at the three colonies. Correlations with a probability >0.95 of being positive or negative are marked with *.

	Correlation with population growth rate			
Demographic rate	Rockabill	LIL	Coquet	
Juvenile survival	0.585 (0.453, 0.683)*	0.356 (0.004, 0.584)*	0.062 (-0.195, 0.331)	
Age 3 survival	0.144 (-0.280, 0.414)	0.073 (-0.347, 0.346)	0.009 (-0.358, 0.368)	
Age 4+ survival	0.365 (0.058, 0.565)*	0.272 (-0.204, 0.548)	0.147 (-0.229, 0.465)	
Productivity	0.422 (0.281, 0.541)*	0.217 (-0.085, 0.415)	0.141 (-0.189, 0.430)	
Juvenile emigration rate	-0.001 (-0.211, 0.550)	0.304 (-0.005, 0.558)	-0.322 (-0.482, 0.108)	
Age emigration rate	-0.169 (-0.397, 0.124)	-0.345 (-0.545, 0.196)	-0.171 (-0.428, 0.201)	
Age 4+ emigration rate	-0.497 (-0.696, -0.288)*	-0.704 (-0.781, -0.538)*	-0.154 (-0.368, 0.244)	
Juvenile immigration rate	0.163 (-0.178, 0.640)	0.319 (0.076, 0.536)*	0.721 (0.437, 0.839)*	
Age 3 immigration rate	0.146 (-0.189, 0.370)	0.351 (0.172, 0.625)*	0.563 (0.236, 0.762)*	
Age 4+ immigration rate	0.307 (0.015, 0.488)*	0.707 (0.523, 0.819)*	0.529 (0.160, 0.781)*	

Table 3. Posterior modes and 95% credible intervals (in parentheses) of correlation coefficients

between demographic rates and population size at the three colonies. Correlations with a probability
 >0.95 of being positive or negative are marked with *.

	Correlation with population size			
Demographic rate	Rockabill	LIL	Coquet	
Juvenile survival	-0.261 (-0.414, -0.079)*	0.162 (-0.158, 0.446)	-0.087 (-0.33, 0.130)	
Age 3 survival	-0.062 (-0.429, 0.332)	0.101 (-0.269, 0.393)	-0.026 (-0.36, 0.346)	
Age 4+ survival	0.148 (-0.119, 0.351)	-0.019 (-0.319, 0.313)	-0.035 (-0.351, 0.332)	
Productivity	-0.320 (-0.417, -0.204)*	0.005 (-0.261, 0.203)	0.026 (-0.262, 0.309)	
Juvenile emigration rate	0.055 (-0.247, 0.209)	-0.400 (-0.525, -0.166)*	-0.445 (-0.572, -0.193)*	
Age 3 emigration rate	-0.253 (-0.385, -0.044)*	0.432 (-0.035, 0.629)	-0.039 (-0.342, 0.335)	
Age 4+ emigration rate	-0.234 (-0.382, -0.075)*	0.110 (-0.006, 0.207)	-0.141 (-0.363, 0.260)	
Juvenile immigration rate	-0.431 (-0.554, -0.204)*	0.088 (-0.093, 0.258)	-0.313 (-0.523, -0.145)*	
Age 3 immigration rate	0.159 (-0.161, 0.390)	-0.280 (-0.403, -0.075)*	-0.245 (-0.438, 0.022)	
Age 4+ immigration rate	-0.376 (-0.436, -0.287)*	-0.369 (-0.537, -0.291)*	-0.368 (-0.534, -0.039)*	

Fig. 1. Estimates of change in population size (a-c; raw count data indicated with dashed line), 716

717 population growth rate (d-f), productivity (g-i; raw productivity data indicated with dashed line) and 718 juvenile (j-l), age 3 (m-o) and age 4+ (p-r) survival obtained from the integrated population model

for Rockabill, LIL and Coquet, with 95% credible intervals. Note different y-axis scales for 719 720 population size for each colony.

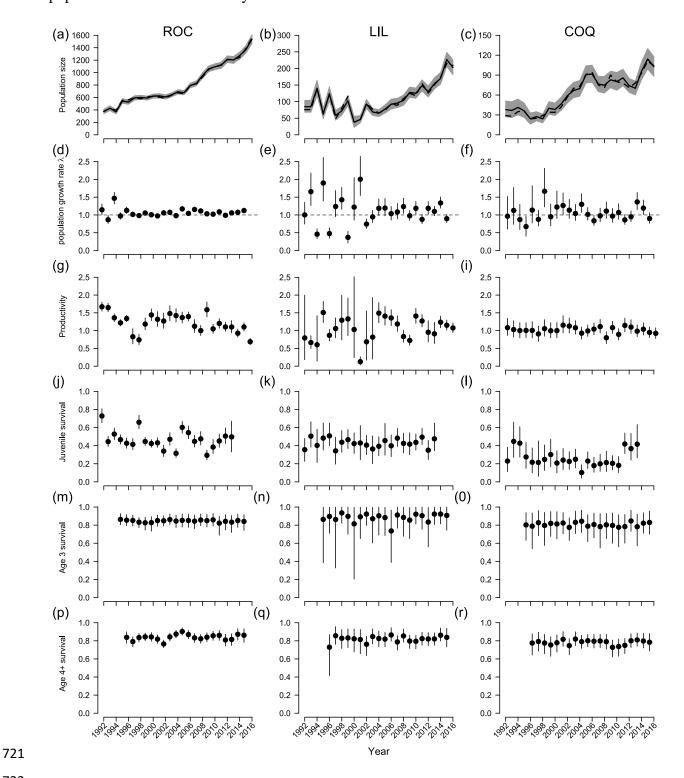


Fig. 2. Estimates of juvenile (a-c), age 3 (d-f) and age 4+ (g-i) emigration and immigration obtained
 from the integrated population models for Rockabill, LIL and Coquet, with 95% credible intervals.

725 Note different y-axis scales for each colony.

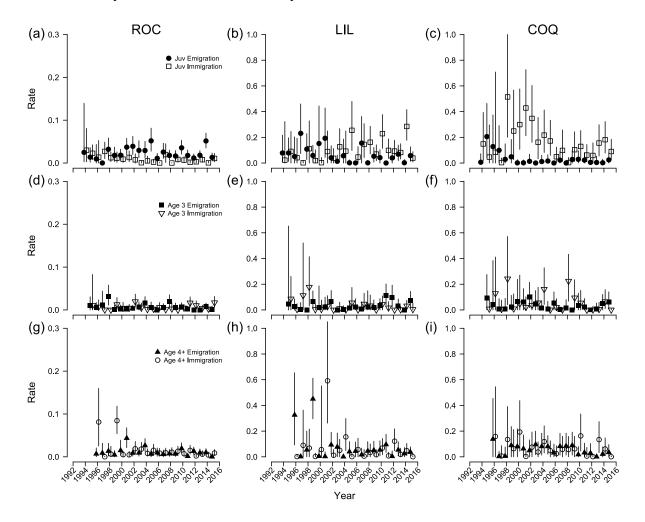


Fig. 3. Average movement rates and numbers of juvenile (age 0-3) (a), age 3 (b) and age 4+ (c) birds
moving per annum among the three study colonies. The size of circles and length of the arrows
represent colony size and inter-colony distance, respectively. Annual movement rates are represented
by unenclosed figures and schematically with arrow thickness. Numbers in parentheses are credible
intervals of the movement rates and figures in boxes represent the average number of birds moving
in each year.

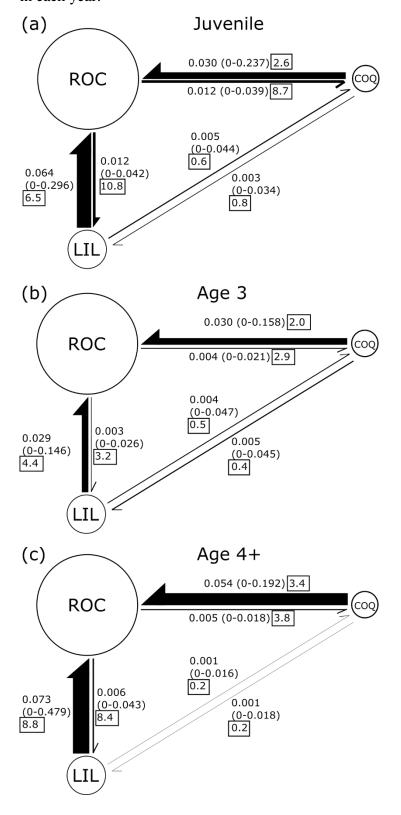


Fig. 4. Comparisons of population growth rate (a-c) and population size (d-e) with and without

observed levels of emigration and immigration at the three colonies, with 95% credible intervals

(bars in upper row, red (with dispersal) and blue (no dispersal) shading in lower row). Note different y-axis scales for each colony.

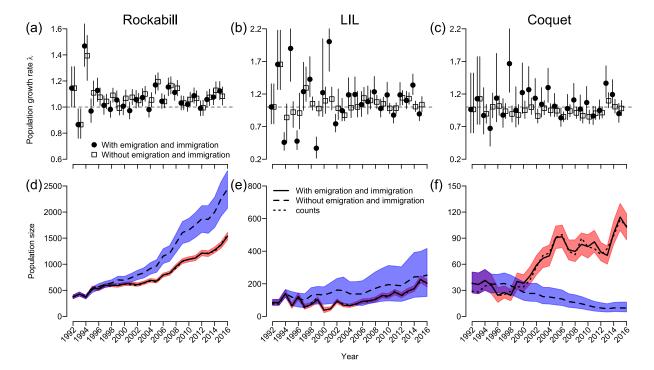


Fig. 5. Violin plots of correlation coefficients between demographic parameters and population growth rate λ at Rockabill (a), LIL (b) and Coquet (c). The probability of the coefficient being greater or lower than zero is indicated above and below each plot, respectively.

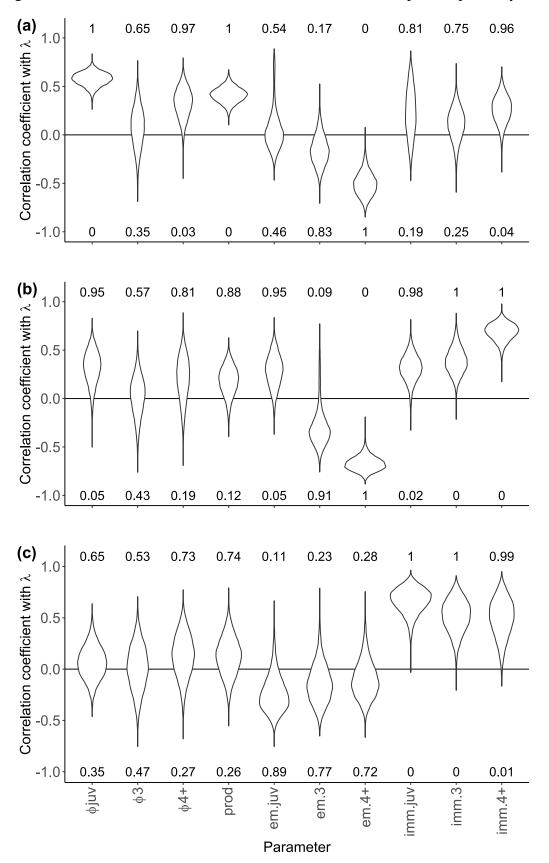


Fig. 6. Violin plots of correlation coefficients between juvenile survival, age 3+ survival and

productivity at Rockabill, LIL and Coquet and total population growth rate λ (for all three colonies combined). The probability of the coefficient being greater or lower than zero is indicated above and below each plot, respectively.

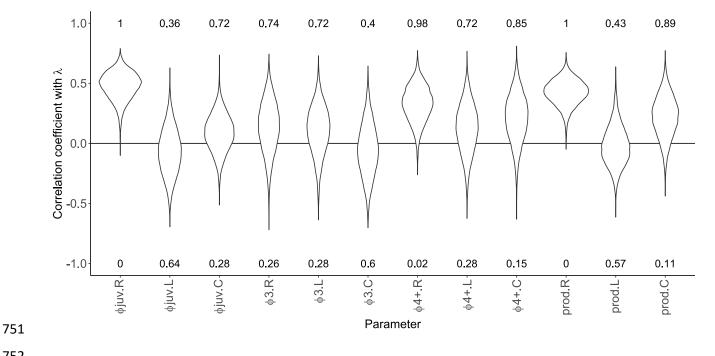


Fig. 7. Violin plots of correlation coefficients between demographic parameters and number of
breeding females Ntot at Rockabill (a), LIL (b) and Coquet (c). The probability of the coefficient
being greater or lower than zero is indicated above and below each plot, respectively.

