

Changes in surface water drive the movements of Shoebills

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20 Abstract

21 Animal movement is mainly determined by spatial and temporal changes in resource
22 availability. For wetland specialists, the seasonal availability of surface water may be a major
23 determinant of their movement patterns. This study is the first to examine the movements of
24 Shoebills (*Balaeniceps rex*), an iconic and vulnerable bird species. Using GPS transmitters
25 deployed on 6 immature and 1 adult Shoebills over a 5-year period, during which 4 immatures
26 matured into adults, we analyse their home ranges and distances moved in the Bangweulu
27 Wetlands, Zambia. We relate their movements at the start of the rainy season (October to
28 December) to changes in Normalised Difference Water Index (NDWI), a proxy for surface
29 water. We show that Shoebills stay in the Bangweulu Wetlands all year round, moving less than
30 3 km per day on 81% of days. However, average annual home ranges were large, with high
31 individual variability, but were similar between age classes. Immature and adult Shoebills
32 responded differently to changes in surface water; sites that adults abandoned became drier,
33 while sites abandoned by immatures became wetter. However, there were no differences in
34 NDWI of areas used by Shoebills before abandonment and newly selected sites, suggesting
35 that Shoebills select areas with similar surface water. We hypothesise that the different
36 responses to changes in surface water by immature and adult Shoebills are related to age-
37 specific optimal foraging conditions and fishing techniques. Our study highlights the need to
38 understand the movements of Shoebills throughout their life cycle to design successful
39 conservation actions for this emblematic, yet poorly known, species.

40

41 **Keywords (3-10):** *Balaeniceps rex*, Bangweulu Wetlands, GPS tracking, Waterbird ecology,
42 Surface water, Home range, Age classes, Animal movement, Conservation

43 Introduction

44 One of the key challenges in ecology is to understand how environmental fluctuations drive
45 animal movements. Changes in the environment can alter resource distribution, which
46 consequently determines animal migratory ¹⁻³ and, local, movements ^{4,5}. In wetlands, the
47 distribution of surface water is one of the main determinants of species' spatial distribution ⁶⁻
48 ⁸ and individual movements ^{9,10}. In tropical systems with strongly seasonal environments,
49 prolonged periods of drought followed by extreme floods can lead to striking changes in
50 habitat suitability ^{9,11} and drive the large-scale movements of waterfowl ¹², due to fluctuations
51 in the abundance and availability of foraging resources ¹³.

52 The way individuals explore the environment can change as they age ^{14,15}, and recent
53 advances in GPS tracking technology and increases in device longevity, have enabled the
54 detailed study of individual movements for several years or even throughout lifetimes. This has
55 unravelled differences between adults and juveniles in space use ^{15,16}, habitat selection ^{14,17},
56 and timing ¹⁸⁻²⁰ and efficiency of movements ²⁰⁻²². Understanding the drivers of movement of
57 long-lived birds relies on information on the spatial and temporal dynamics of movement at
58 different ages in relation to environmental variables. Such information has only been available
59 relatively recently, through the integration of data from GPS trackers with remotely sensed
60 environmental data ²³⁻²⁵. Indices based on satellite imagery have been increasingly used to
61 interpret environmental conditions and infer ecological processes ^{23,25}. The Normalised
62 Difference Water Index (NDWI) proposed by McFeeters ²⁶ is an index that uses remotely
63 sensed imagery to map surface water. The NDWI delineates and highlights open water by
64 distinguishing it from vegetation and bare soil, and has mostly been used to map waterscapes
65 in urban settings ^{27,28}. More recently, this index has been used to map surface water for animal

66 movement studies ¹², and to identify suitable habitat and inform area protection for shorebird
67 species ²⁹.

68 The Shoebill (*Balaeniceps rex*) is an iconic wetland specialist, with a patchy distribution
69 in central-eastern Africa, from South Sudan to Zambia ^{30,31}. The Shoebill is a large long-lived
70 species, categorised as *Vulnerable* by the IUCN. Shoebills have a declining population trend,
71 due to habitat degradation and loss, illegal bird trade and disturbance by humans ^{31,32}. The
72 global population estimate for the species is 5,000-8,000 individuals, although large
73 uncertainty around this estimate exists, given that this species is cryptic and found in
74 inaccessible areas ³¹. Shoebills inhabit permanent swampy wetlands with seasonal flooded
75 grasslands, where they prey on fish in shallow waters or use floating vegetation as fishing sites
76 ^{33,34}. Despite being a highly emblematic species, there are very few studies on Shoebill ecology,
77 and existing studies have focused on deriving local population estimates ^{30,35}, and better
78 understanding their foraging ^{33,34} and breeding ecology ^{36,37}. This species is believed to be
79 sedentary, staying in the same region all year long ^{32,38}; however, to date, the movement
80 ecology of the Shoebill is completely unknown, which is unsurprising given that very few birds
81 have ever been ringed and no previous tracking studies have occurred on this species. Being a
82 species of high conservation concern, as well as an important source of tourism revenue ³⁹, it
83 is critical to improve our knowledge of Shoebill ecology and habitat requirements to implement
84 effective conservation measures ³².

85 Using GPS tracking data collected over 5 years, we characterise the movements of
86 immature and adult Shoebills in the Bangweulu Wetlands, Zambia. In common with many other
87 areas occupied by Shoebills, the Bangweulu Wetlands undergoes dramatic changes in water
88 levels between the dry (breeding season) and the wet season. We therefore hypothesise that
89 changes in surface water drive the movements of Shoebills, and that their selected areas have

90 similar surface water. Using the NDWI as a proxy for surface water, we compare 1) the NDWI
91 of areas while Shoebills were present with the NDWI of the same areas the week after the birds
92 left (to examine how these abandoned areas change), and 2) the NDWI of areas used by
93 Shoebills the last week before abandonment with the NDWI of areas the first week after
94 Shoebill arrival (to examine whether they select for similar habitats in relation to surface
95 water). We explore these questions for both adult and immature birds. By analysing the
96 movements of Shoebills in different life stages, and how these movements relate to available
97 surface water, a key environmental factor for wetlands, our goal is to improve our ecological
98 understanding of Shoebills, to ultimately inform the conservation of this mostly unknown and
99 emblematic species.

100

101 **Results**

102 We tracked 11 Shoebills in the Bangweulu Wetlands, Zambia, between December 2011 and
103 October 2018 and collected 119,321 valid GPS positions (Table 1). We obtained 47,134 GPS
104 positions for 6 Shoebills tracked as immatures and 44,985 GPS positions of 5 Shoebills tracked
105 as adults. All other GPS positions were from juveniles (n=4), which died or disappeared before
106 they became immatures and were thus excluded from this research, also because they
107 remained near the nest for a long period after fledging. From the adult GPS positions, 28,057
108 locations were from 4 immature Shoebills that matured into adults during the tracking period,
109 and 16,928 GPS locations from the one individual tagged as a breeding adult.

110

111 **Table 1** – Information for the tracked Shoebills: age of the individual at the time of logger
 112 deployment, start and end dates of tracking, total number of valid GPS positions, excluding
 113 outliers, and total number of tracking days as immature and adult.

Bird ID	Age	Start of tracking	End of tracking	Number of GPS positions	Immature tracking days	Adult tracking days
521		03/12/2011	28/10/2014	10,763	617	-
514		09/09/2012	26/11/2013	2,187	-	-
518		15/09/2012	21/04/2013	2,537	-	-
520		03/08/2013	02/05/2018	19,335	725	623
509	Juvenile	26/08/2013	05/03/2018	18,998	724	634
510		30/08/2013	14/11/2013	962	-	-
515		02/09/2013	15/05/2017	16,138	728	347
512		10/09/2013	29/10/2018	21,224	724	863
516		15/11/2013	05/01/2015	3,480	-	-
511		28/10/2014	08/06/2016	6,769	366	-
517	Adult	29/07/2013	15/08/2017	16,928	-	1,444

114

115 *Spatial analysis*

116 Shoebill annual home range was similar in size for adults and immatures (mean 95% kernel =
 117 1,514 km² (± 1,172) and 1,547 km² (± 1.296) for adults and immatures, respectively; Figure 1,
 118 Table 2). There was large individual variation in home range size, both for immatures (range
 119 95% kernel: 233 km² and 2,628 km²) and adults (range 95% kernel: 304 km² and 3,375 km²)
 120 (Table 2).

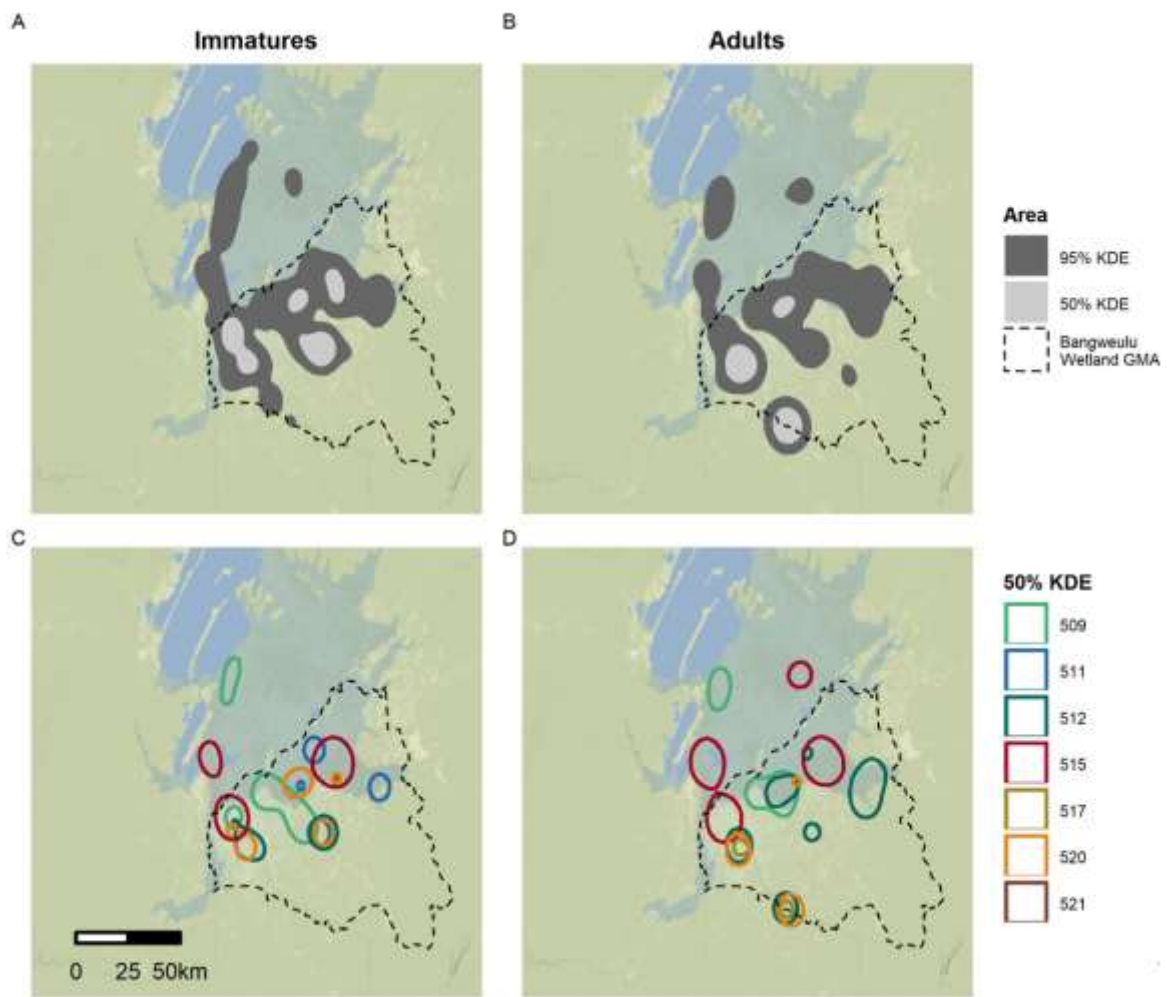
121

122 **Table 2** – Individual average annual home range area (in km² ± standard deviation) and total
123 average home range of immature and adult Shoebills, estimated as the 95% and 50% kernel,
124 based on the GPS tracking periods indicated in Table 1.

ID	Immature		Adult	
	95% kernel (km ²)	50% kernel (km ²)	95% kernel (km ²)	50% kernel (km ²)
521	233 (± 318)	46 (± 63)	-	-
520	1,094 (± 585)	212 (± 129)	1,039 (± 866)	145 (± 124)
509	2,458 (± 617)	431 (± 59)	2,167 (± 241)	389 (± 85)
515	2,628 (± 2,309)	403 (± 359)	3,375	652
512	1,585 (± 360)	257 (± 56)	2,167 (± 474)	343 (± 133)
511	981	200	-	-
517	-	-	304 (± 108)	54 (± 15)
All individuals	1,547 (± 1,296)	263 (± 204)	1,514 (± 1,172)	247 (± 204)

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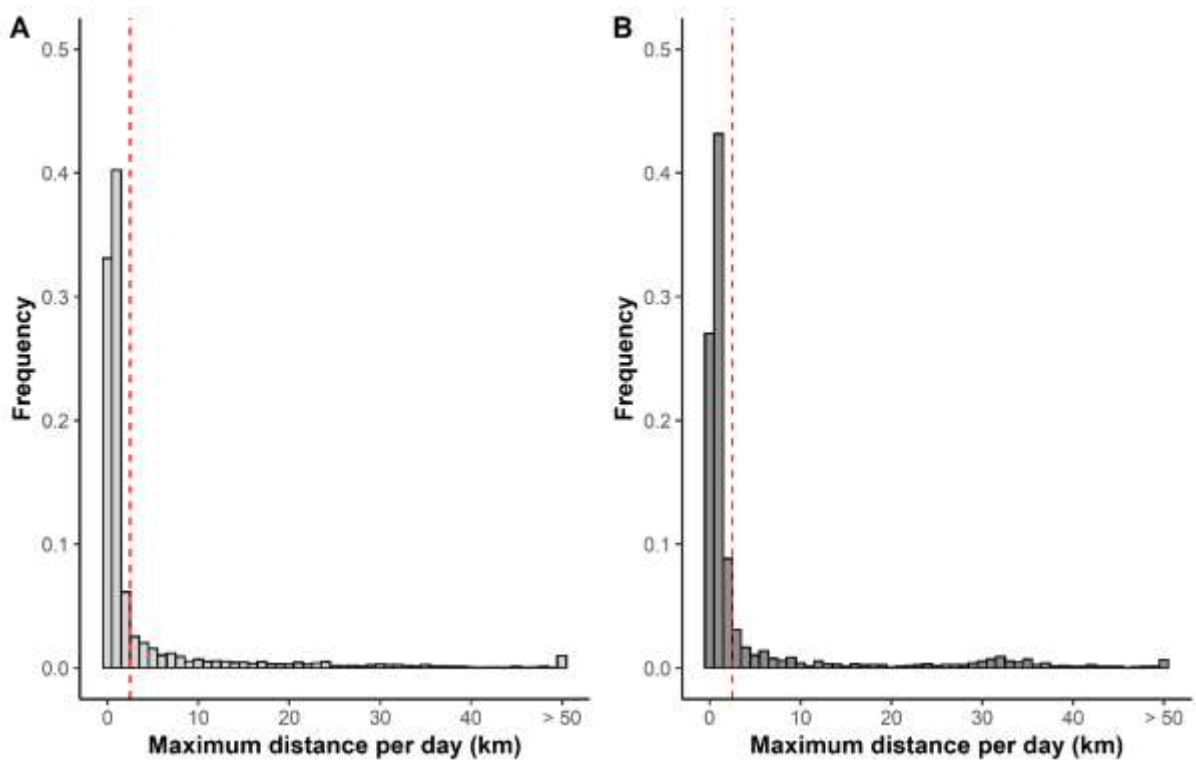


127

128 **Figure 1** – Cumulative 95% and 50% kernel density estimations for all tracked (A) immature
 129 and (B) adult Shoebills, and cumulative 50% kernel density estimation for each (C) immature
 130 and (D) adult individual, based on the GPS tracking periods indicated in Table 1. The dashed
 131 line indicates the border of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game Management Area.

132

133 For both adults and immatures, the distribution of the maximum daily distance moved
 134 was highly skewed (Figure 2). On most days both age classes moved relatively short distances
 135 (median values; adults: 0.84 km/day, immatures: 0.73 km/day). For both age classes, on 81%
 136 of days, birds moved less than 3 km (Figure 2).



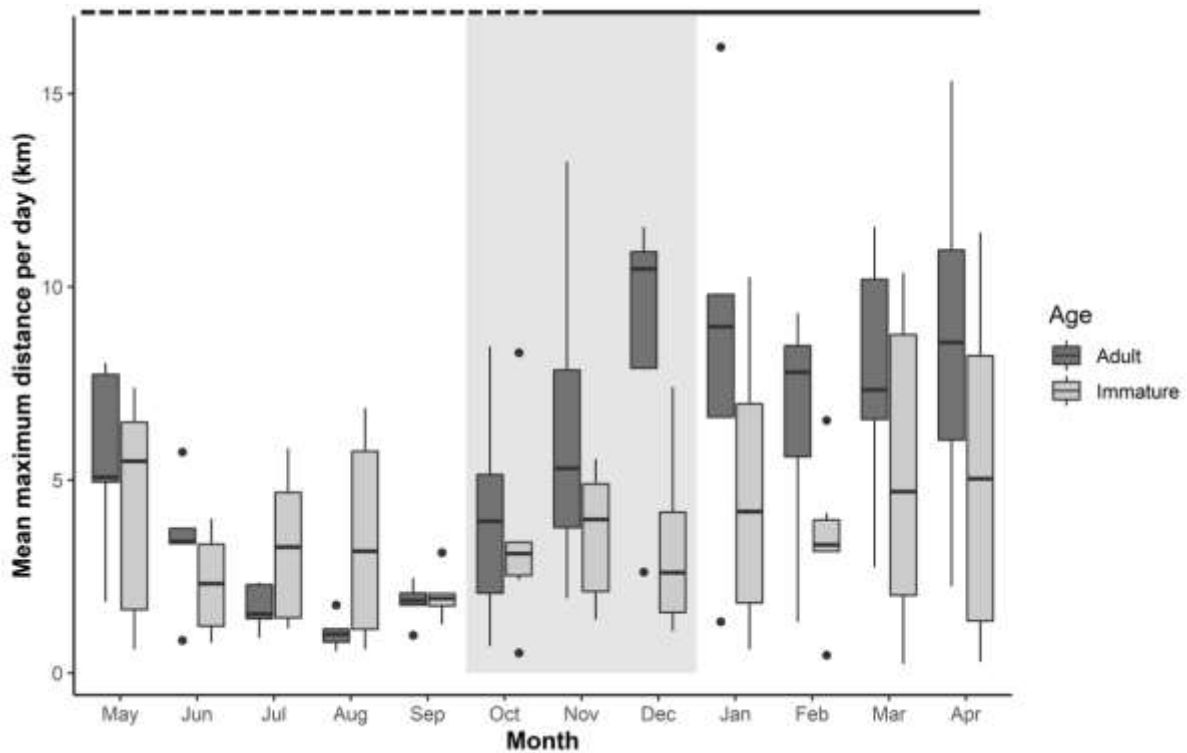
138

139 **Figure 2** – Frequency of the maximum daily distance (in Km's) moved by (A) immature and (B)
 140 adult Shoebills. The dashed red line indicates the threshold that captures 80% of movements,
 141 used to define Shoebills' Moving Days.

142

143 The mean maximum daily distances moved varied throughout the year, particularly for
 144 adult Shoebills. During the breeding season, from June until October, adults performed shorter
 145 movements, with the mean maximum daily distance moved being the lowest in August (1.1 km
 146 per day). In October, towards the end of the breeding season, adult mean maximum daily
 147 distance started to increase, peaking in December (10.5 km per day). Immature Shoebills show
 148 less variation in movement distances over the year. Birds moved least in September (1.9 km
 149 per day), while movement distances peaked in May to 5.5 km per day (Figure 3).

150



151

152 **Figure 3** – Boxplots of the mean maximum daily distance per month, for individual immature
 153 and adult Shoebills, between 2011 and 2018. Data is organised to start at the beginning of the
 154 breeding season (May). The boxes represent the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles of the mean
 155 maximum daily distance. Whiskers the 1.5 times the value of inter-quantile range, with values
 156 outside this range plotted as black dots. The dashed line above the plot indicates the dry season
 157 (May to October) and the wet season (November to April). The shaded area highlights the
 158 period between October and December, with an increase of adult mean maximum daily
 159 distances.

160

161 *Influence of NDWI on Shoebill movements*

162 On over 80% of the days, Shoebills moved less than 3 km, thus ‘Moving Days’ were defined as
 163 days when Shoebills moved more than 3 km (Figure 2) and the regions where birds stayed for
 164 a minimum of two days between Moving Days were classified as ‘Areas’ (further details in the

165 Methods section). Between October and December of 2013-2017, across the 5 adults we
166 located 39 different Areas, and, in 2014 and 2015, across the 6 immatures, we identified 33
167 Areas. Immature birds stayed on average 14 ± 19 days in Areas, whereas adult birds spent 17 ± 24
168 days in Areas before moving to another location. These locations always had negative daily
169 mean NDWI values, indicating that Shoebills were not in open water areas and selected
170 relatively dry regions.

171 We found that the NDWI of the Areas used by Shoebills between October and
172 December was statistically different from the NDWI of the same Areas the week after the birds
173 abandoned (Table 3), both for immature and adult Shoebills. However, these relationships
174 differed between the age classes. Adult Shoebills used Areas with an average NDWI value of -
175 0.52, varying from -0.68 to -0.10. The week after adults left the Area, it became drier with the
176 NDWI decreasing to an average of -0.57 (range -0.79 to -0.18). In contrast, for immatures, the
177 mean NDWI of Areas used was -0.53, with a minimum NDWI value of -0.76 and maximum of -
178 0.10. After abandonment, the average NDWI of these Areas increased to -0.43 (range -0.66 to
179 -0.07), indicating that the Areas became wetter (Figure 4 A and B). The variance explained by
180 the immature model was higher (marginal R-squared 0.27) than by the adult model (marginal
181 R-squared 0.14), and in both cases the random factors slightly increased the R-squared
182 (immature conditional R-squared 0.32; adult conditional R-squared 0.15) (Table 3).

183 We did not find a statistical difference between the NDWI of Areas used by Shoebills
184 the week before abandonment, and the NDWI of the newly colonised Areas the first week after
185 Shoebill arrival; this was the case for both adults and immatures (Table 3). The mean NDWI of
186 Areas used by adult Shoebills the week before abandonment and the week after arrival was -
187 0.54 (ranging from -0.76 to -0.16). For immatures, the NDWI of Areas before abandonment

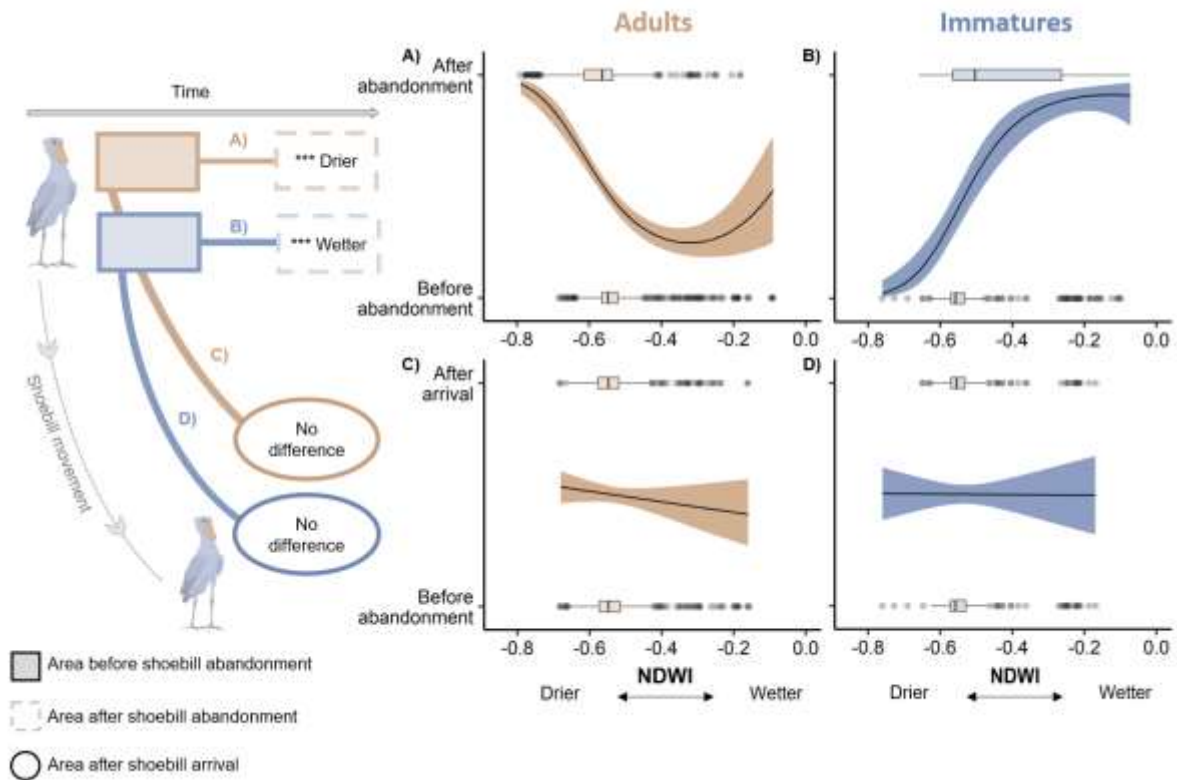
188 was -0.49 (varying from -0.76 to -0.07), compared to -0.50 (from -0.66 to -0.09) the week after
 189 arrival (Figure 4 C and D).

190

191 **Table 3** – Results of the GLMM models comparing the values of: a) daily mean NDWI of Areas
 192 before Shoebill abandonment, with the values of NDWI after the birds abandoned the Area,
 193 using year and Area nested within bird ID as random effects. Daily mean NDWI was
 194 transformed as a second-degree polynomial (poly 1 and poly 2). b) daily mean NDWI of used
 195 Areas the last week before abandonment, with the daily mean NDWI of used Areas the first
 196 week after arrival, using year and Area nested within bird ID as random effects.

Model	Age	Parameter	Estimate (SE)	Z-value	P-value	Marginal R-squared	Conditional R-squared
a) Comparison of NDWI of Areas before and after Shoebill abandonment		Intercept	0.17 (0.19)	0.87	0.384		
	Immature	NDWI (poly1)	33.87 (3.38)	10.02	<0.001	0.270	0.320
		NDWI (poly2)	-7.35 (2.70)	-2.72	0.007		
	Adult	Intercept	0.06 (0.08)	0.76	0.445		
		NDWI (poly1)	-23.12 (2.65)	-8.72	<0.001	0.144	0.151
		NDWI (poly2)	15.03 (2.73)	5.50	<0.001		
b) Comparison of NDWI of used Areas the last week before abandonment and the first week after arrival	Immature	Intercept	-0.03 (0.54)	-0.05	0.963	<0.001	<0.001
		NDWI	-0.05 (1.01)	-0.05	0.957		
	Adult	Intercept	-0.50 (0.46)	-1.10	0.272	<0.001	<0.001
		NDWI	-0.95 (0.85)	-1.11	0.268		

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198

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Figure 4 – Diagram describing the analysed spatial and temporal relationships of

200

Shoebill movements. The plots show the predicted mean daily NDWI values (solid line) and

201

95% confidence interval (shaded areas) for (A) adults and (B) immatures of ‘Areas’ before and

202

after Shoebill abandonment, and for (C) adults and (D) immatures before Shoebill

203

abandonment and after Shoebill arrival in a new ‘Area’. The boxplots display the observed

204

values of daily mean NDWI, with the boxes representing the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles and

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the whiskers the 1.5 times the value of inter-quantile range. Values outside this range are

206

plotted as grey dots. Brown colours indicate adult data and blue colours indicate immature

207

data.

208

209 Discussion

210

We described for the first time the annual home range sizes and variation in distances moved

211

over the year for adult and immature Shoebills, providing evidence of age-related differences

212 in their movement ecology. Furthermore, we show that movement patterns of Shoebills were
213 associated with changes in surface water, but these changes contrasted between age classes,
214 with adult abandoning sites that became drier, whereas immatures abandoned sites that
215 became wetter. Despite the small number of tracked Shoebills, which can make the
216 generalisation of our results to other Shoebill populations challenging, this species inhabits
217 similar habitats throughout their narrow distribution range ³¹, and thus their movement
218 ecology is likely influenced by analogous environmental drivers.

219 Shoebills in the Bangweulu Wetlands were largely sedentary, moving less than 3km on
220 over 80% of days. The main prey of Shoebills in the Bangweulu Wetlands are catfish, which
221 they catch mainly through the tactics of stand and wait on top of floating vegetation ^{33,34,40}.
222 Indeed, field studies in the Bangweulu Wetlands found that they spent 85% of the time
223 performing low-energy activities, such as standing, sitting and preening ³⁴. Walking and flying
224 behaviours may also be associated with foraging, given that a Shoebill strike may disturb the
225 prey and require a move to a different location ⁴⁰. Therefore, much of these Shoebill's daily
226 movements were likely related to foraging events or searching for suitable foraging habitat.

227 The average annual home range of Shoebills was around 1,500 km² which is larger than
228 for similar species, such as Abdim's Storks (*Ciconia abdimii*) in Niger (10–120 km² ⁴¹). However,
229 there was large individual variation in home range size, both for adult (304 – 3,375 km²) and
230 immature Shoebills (233 – 2,628 km²). Other studies have shown large individual variation in
231 home range size of similar wetland species, such as Wattled Cranes (*Bugeranus carunculatus*),
232 with 95% kernel density estimates varying between 0.4 and 110.4 km² ⁴², Mauritanian
233 Spoonbills (*Platalea leucorodia balsaci*), with home ranges varying from 23 to 101 km² ⁴³, or
234 American White Pelicans (*Pelecanus erythrorhynchos*) summer home range varying between
235 177 and 4,710 km² ⁴⁴. These variations in individual home range size in the same habitat and

236 within the same species show that animal movement is more complex than a simple reflection
237 of underlying resource distribution ^{11,45}, and other factors (e.g. social attraction/repulsion) may
238 also influence individual distribution ^{46,47}.

239 Several factors can influence the home range size in birds, such as age ^{14,15,44,48}, sex
240 ^{14,44,49} and degree of individual specialisation in particular foraging areas ⁵⁰. Shoebills do not
241 exhibit strong sexual dimorphism, and the birds in this study were not genetically sexed, thus
242 it was not possible to investigate possible sex differences in home range size. We did not find
243 age-related differences in annual home range size, and although 2 individuals slightly
244 decreased their home range size by an average of 173 km² as they aged from immatures to
245 adults, 2 other individuals increased their home range size by an average of 665 km² as they
246 matured. However, there is a suggestion of individual consistency, since the individuals with
247 smallest and largest home ranges as immatures maintained smaller and larger home ranges as
248 adults (Table 2). In many situations, breeding adults have smaller home ranges than non-
249 breeders during part of the year because their movements are constrained by the location of
250 their nest site ^{15,16}. Although animals in areas of higher productivity tend to have smaller home
251 ranges ^{11,51}, this might not be the case in swampy areas. In the wet season, with an increase in
252 water levels, Shoebill prey species occupy larger areas of the swamps, forcing birds to increase
253 their home ranges. Adult birds, with more experience, may build up knowledge of the
254 landscape, occupying the most suitable foraging locations and outcompeting less experienced
255 birds ⁵². Consequently, a possible increase in adult home range size during the wet period may
256 be counterbalanced by the seasonal constrain of the nest site location, resulting in
257 approximately the same average home range size for adult and immatures.

258 Indeed, immature Shoebills moved consistent distances throughout the year, while
259 adults moved smaller distances during the breeding season (May-October), particularly during

260 the incubation and chick-rearing period (June-September). During the breeding season, adults
261 forage close to the nest, moving smaller distances and occupying smaller home ranges ^{15,16}.
262 Shoebills chicks hatch in June-July, and until the chicks are about 40 days old, at least one adult
263 is constantly on the nest ³⁷. Later in the breeding season (September and October), adult daily
264 distances moved started to increase. Shoebills build their nests on top of floating vegetation
265 ^{36,53}, but as the breeding season progresses, the water levels recede to the point that by the
266 end of the breeding season, the nests are resting on solid ground ³⁷. This might also decrease
267 the suitability of the foraging areas surrounding the nest, forcing adult birds to increase their
268 daily moved distances as the breeding season progresses to find suitable foraging sites.

269 Environmental factors can also determine movement and home range size in birds,
270 and, for water-dependent species, the spatial and temporal distribution of surface water is one
271 of the main drivers of movement ^{9,10,12}. Bird species respond differently to changes in water
272 availability, with some functional groups responding to sequences of flooding and drying
273 patterns, while others respond immediately to changes in flooded area ⁵⁴. For example, Black
274 Storks wintering in West Africa move as the rivers begin to dry ⁵⁵, Mallard (*Anas platyrhynchos*)
275 movements are highly predictable and strongly linked to the presence of surface water ¹⁰ and
276 Grey Teal (*Anas gracilis*) fly hundreds of kilometres directly towards temporary water sources
277 ⁵⁴. In Southern Africa, the patterns of rainfall and primary productivity are the main drivers of
278 large-scale movements of Egyptian Geese (*Alopochen aegyptiaca*) and Red-billed Teal (*Anas*
279 *erythrorhyncha*) ¹². Here, we show that drying and flooding patterns of the Bangweulu
280 Wetlands at the start of the rainy season are important drivers in the movement of Shoebills.

281 In the Bangweulu Wetlands, November marks the start of the rainy season, being the
282 month with lowest water levels in this region ⁵⁶. Our results show that between October and
283 December, Shoebills occupied areas of low surface water availability (low NDWI values), which

284 is likely the most available habitat. There were, however, differences in how adult and
285 immature birds responded to changes in surface water. While adults seemed to abandon areas
286 that became drier, immatures abandoned areas that became wetter, suggesting age-related
287 differences in habitat use or foraging strategies. Moreover, the areas selected by Shoebills had
288 the same surface water as the areas they were previously occupying, which suggests a
289 selection for an optimal surface water level by this species. Water-depth limits non-diving
290 waterbirds foraging ranges, by directly restricting the accessibility of the habitats due to birds
291 morphology (e.g. neck and metatarsus) ⁶. Consequently, Shoebills foraging locations are also
292 restricted to the water-depths suitable for foraging.

293 We hypothesise that the different movements in response to surface water between
294 age-classes might be related to prey availability and optimal foraging conditions. Immature
295 birds tend to be less efficient foragers ^{21,57} and occupy less optimal foraging locations ⁵².
296 Distributions of waterbirds are greatly influenced by the hydrology of the wetlands and
297 distribution of food resources ⁵⁸, since different species have different foraging methods and
298 depend on particular water depths and prey vulnerability ⁶. Shoebills are typically solitary birds,
299 but they occasionally concentrate in drying pools of water, where fish may become highly
300 abundant ³³. Immature Shoebills may take advantage of this recession of the water level, which
301 promotes the availability of prey ¹³ and thus would be suitable areas for immatures to gain
302 experience in capturing prey. Shoebills also forage in deep water, using floating vegetation as
303 fishing sites and then diving forward, described by Guillet ³³ as a “peculiar and complicated
304 technique called collapsing”. Although birds using this technique have lower foraging success
305 than on flooded grassland, the catfish caught in deeper waters are on average larger than on
306 flooded grasslands ³⁴, as larger catfish prefer deeper waters ^{34,59}. Therefore, immature birds
307 might prefer drier areas with higher abundance of relatively smaller prey, whereas adults

308 having already mastered the highly specialised deep-water foraging technique, might prefer
309 flooded areas with larger prey, and thus greater rewards per capture. Nonetheless, our
310 interpretations are based on, as yet, unverified validation of the NDWI in swampy areas,
311 particularly the areas used by Shoebills that are typically densely vegetated and have water
312 with low oxygen content³³, which can pose constraints on the identification of water features
313 using satellite imagery⁶⁰. In future research, newly available satellite imagery (e.g. Sentinel-2,
314 launched in 2015) and recently created indexes (e.g. Xu 2006⁶⁰) may provide further detail on
315 how surface water influences the movements of wetland species. However, these indexes
316 need to be validated in swampy wetlands, which may have their own unique characteristics⁶¹.

317 Moreover, changes in water surface may not be the only environmental variable driving
318 the movement of Shoebills. Henry *et al.*¹² explored the main environmental variables
319 influencing the movement decisions of Egyptian Geese and Red-billed Teal in Southern Africa,
320 and although changes in surface water appeared in several of their models, suggesting that the
321 flooding and drying patterns of wetlands have some predictive power, rainfall and primary
322 productivity were found to be more important in explaining movement patterns in these
323 species. The relatively small variance explained by our models also suggest that other non-
324 measured variables likely play a role in driving the movements of Shoebills; we therefore
325 suggest for future research to complement the use of NDWI with high temporal and spatial
326 records of rainfall and NDVI to further explore the drivers of movement patterns and spatial
327 distribution of Shoebills in the Bangweulu Wetlands.

328

329 **Methods**

330 *Study area and data collection*

331 This study was conducted in the Bangweulu Wetlands, a Game Management Area (GMA)
332 located in the Muchinga province in north-eastern Zambia (approximately between 11°40' to
333 12°34'S and 29°78' to 30°87'E). The Bangweulu Wetlands consist of miombo (*Brachystegia* sp.)
334 woodlands, grasslands, floodplains, seasonal swamps, and permanent wetlands⁶². This reserve
335 is classified as an Important Bird Area and the area of Chikuni is classified as a Ramsar Site⁶³.
336 The climate is characterised by a heavy rainfall season from November to April, with a total
337 annual precipitation of 1,200 mm to 1,400 mm^{56,64}. The lowest water levels occurs in
338 November, and the mean annual water level difference is 1.4 m^{65,66}. This area harbours the
339 southernmost population of Shoebills^{31,38}, however the size of this population is largely
340 unknown. In 1984, the first Shoebill census in the Bangweulu Wetlands estimated the
341 population at 200-300 individuals⁶⁷. Nevertheless, a large area of the wetland remained un-
342 surveyed⁶² and, in a more recent survey, Roxburgh and Buchanan³⁵ provided an estimated
343 population size of 1,296 individuals, although this estimate was based on very few sightings,
344 and there was considerable uncertainty around this estimate (95% confidence interval: 477–
345 2,372).

346 Between August and September of 2011 to 2014, 10 juvenile and 1 adult Shoebills were
347 fitted with 70g satellite-based GPS-trackers (Solar Argos/GPS PTTs, Microwave Telemetry)
348 (Table 1). The transmitters were fitted using the body-loop attachment method, with a Teflon-
349 tube harness. Eight pre-fledging juveniles were tagged on their nests when they were on
350 average 84 days old (range 80 - 89 days). Shoebills fledge at approximately 95-105 days³⁸. Two
351 juveniles (511 and 521) were raised in a recovery centre after being confiscated from the illegal
352 bird trade, and fitted with the GPS transmitter before being released at unknown ages, but
353 likely older than 80-89 days of the other birds. Only one Shoebill (517) was tagged as an adult,
354 which was caught at its nest site. Tracking devices, including harness, weighted 80g,

355 representing 1.3-1.6% of the body mass of birds at the time of deployment (4,900-6,300g).
356 Licences to catch and deploy the tracking devices were provided by the Zambia Wildlife
357 Authority (now Department of National Parks and Wildlife (DNPW)), and the work was
358 approved by the University of Cape Town Science Faculty Animal Ethics Committee.

359 *Data processing and spatial analysis*

360 The trackers provided a GPS fix every 1-hour between 6 A.M. and 6 P.M., GMT+2, which
361 corresponds to the activity period of Shoebills. The transmitters provided location (latitude and
362 longitude) with a mean error of 18 m⁶⁸. We considered all valid GPS locations until the
363 transmitter failed or when there was no movement for several days, indicating death or loss of
364 the GPS transmitter. GPS data was filtered for outliers based on unrealistic movements or
365 speed (more than 150 km/h between two consecutive hourly locations) and visually inspecting
366 the tracks.

367 Birds were classified as juveniles until the start of the following breeding season (1st of
368 May), as immatures during the second and third year and as adults from the fourth year
369 onwards, since Shoebills start to breed after three years³⁸. For this study, we only considered
370 the movements of immature and adult birds, since first year juveniles remained near the nest
371 for a long period after fledging³⁷. Six individuals provided more than 1 year of data, maturing
372 from juvenile to immature birds, and four immature birds provided more than 3 years of data,
373 becoming adults (Table 1).

374 We estimated the annual home range area of individual immature and adult birds using
375 Kernel Density Estimation, with *h-ref* algorithm and grid size of 500 m, using R package
376 *adehabitatHR*⁶⁹. The year was defined from the start of the breeding season (May) until the

377 following April. We also calculated cumulative home ranges of immature and adults, across all
378 years and individuals, to visualise the area used by this species in the Bangweulu Wetlands.

379 We quantified the maximum range of Shoebill individual daily movements by
380 calculating the distance between all GPS locations each day and selecting the maximum value
381 (hereafter maximum daily distance). All distances were calculated using R package *geosphere*
382 ⁷⁰. To understand how movements changed throughout the year for immature and adult birds,
383 we calculated the mean maximum daily distance per month of each individual. All data
384 processing and analysis were performed in R 3.6.1. ⁷¹.

385 *Influence of NDWI on Shoebill movements*

386 We analysed Shoebill movements between 2013 and 2017, in relation to changes in surface
387 water from October to December each year. During this period, the levels of surface water
388 change dramatically in the Bangweulu Wetlands, as the rainy season typically starts in
389 November. This period also encompasses the end of the Shoebill breeding season and birds
390 are less constrained by the location of the nests. We compared the NDWI of areas used by
391 Shoebills prior to and after they abandoned them, and compared the NDWI of used areas the
392 last week before abandonment with the NDWI of the newly selected areas, the first week after
393 arrival.

394 To understand when Shoebills performed large movements, we analysed the
395 frequency of the maximum daily distances. We defined a size threshold (in km's) which
396 captured 80% of smaller scale movements and considered the remaining 20% as '*Moving*
397 *Days*'. Here we also accounted for movements performed during the night, by calculating the
398 distance between the first GPS location of the day and the last GPS location of the previous
399 day. Movements performed during the night were allocated to the previous day. We classified
400 as '*Areas*', the regions where birds stayed for a minimum of two days between Moving Days.

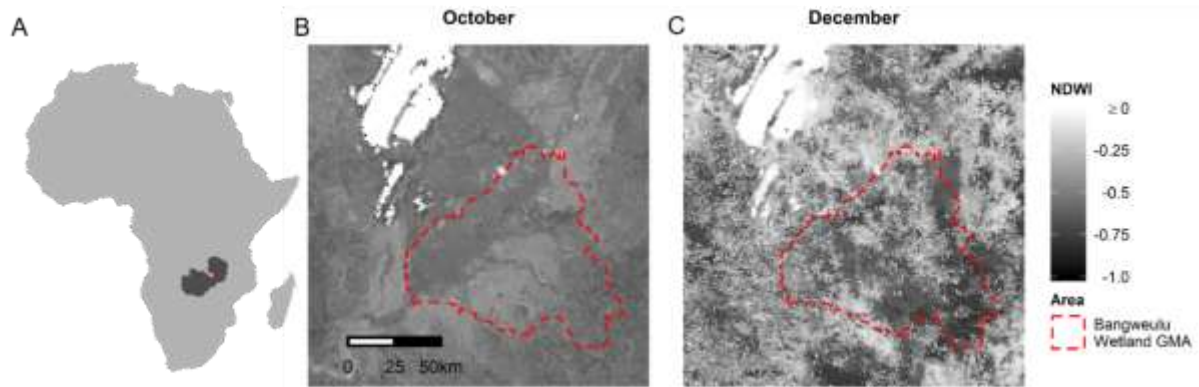
401 We computed the 95% minimum convex polygons (MCPs) of these Areas and, to understand
402 if birds moved to a different geographical area or remained in a similar location after a Moving
403 Day, we overlaid the MCPs of two consecutive Areas. If the two MCPs overlapped, we
404 considered the individual to have remained in the same Area; if they did not overlap, we
405 considered that the individual moved to a different Area. MCPs were calculated using R
406 packages *sp*^{72,73} and *adehabitatHR*⁶⁹.

407 We used the NDWI as a proxy for surface water and calculated this index for the
408 Bangweulu Wetlands for all weeks of October until January. When using satellite imagery there
409 is a trade-off between temporal and spatial resolution. In this study, we favoured imagery with
410 higher temporal resolution, using satellite imagery from MODIS Terra Surface Reflectance with
411 8-days and 500 m resolution⁷⁴, since the pixel size of 500 m was still smaller than the analysed
412 range of movements. All images had a minimum of 92% of pixels with good quality and a
413 maximum of 2% of pixels not classified due to cloud cover or other reasons. To calculate the
414 NDWI, we used McFeeters²⁶ formula:

$$415 \quad NDWI = \frac{(Green - NIR)}{(Green + NIR)}$$

416 where *Green* is MODIS Band 4 (545-565 nm wavelength) and *NIR* (near infrared) is MODIS Band
417 2 (841-876 nm). The NDWI varies between 1, indicating open water features, and -1, indicating
418 a dry area, on a gradient of surface water. This index was interpreted comparatively, e.g. an
419 area of NDWI of -0.6 is drier than an area of NDWI -0.5 (Figure 5). All satellite imagery
420 manipulation was performed using R packages *raster*⁷⁵ and *rgdal*⁷⁶ and *rgeos*⁷⁷.

421



422

423 **Figure 5** – A) Location of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game Management Area (in red) within
 424 Africa (light grey) and Zambia (dark grey); B) Changes in NDWI between the start of October
 425 (week between 30/09/2015 and 07/10/2015), just prior to the start of the rainy season and
 426 C) the end of December (week between 19/12/2015 and 26/12/2015), which is during the
 427 rainy season. The red dashed line indicates the border of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game
 428 Management Area.

429

430 To test if Shoebills move due to changes in surface water, we extracted the daily mean
 431 NDWI of the GPS positions of Shoebills while they were in a particular Area. We then compared
 432 the locations where birds were present, with the locations one week after the birds abandoned
 433 the Area. We used binomials Generalised Linear Mixed Models (binomials GLMMs), with
 434 presence (0) / abandonment (1) of Shoebills as the response variable, daily mean NDWI as the
 435 fixed effect, and year and Area nested within bird ID as random effects, to account for lack of
 436 independence of measures within years and within the Areas used by different Shoebills. Due
 437 to the non-linearity of the relationship between Shoebill presence/abandonment and NDWI
 438 (as areas Shoebills abandoned could have become drier or wetter, *i.e.*, with lower or larger
 439 NDWI values), we introduced the NDWI as a second-degree polynomial term in the GLMM. We

440 calculated the marginal and conditional R-squared, to assess the variance explained by the
441 fixed effect of the model (mean daily NDWI), and the fixed and random effects of the model,
442 respectively. We built two models, one for adults and another for immatures, to evaluate if the
443 two age groups responded differently to changes in surface water.

444 To understand if Shoebills select areas of similar surface water when they move, we
445 compared the Shoebill locations the first week after arrival (1) with the locations the last week
446 before they abandoned an Area (0). We tested this hypothesis for immatures and adults. We
447 used binomials GLMMs, with newly selected area (1) / previously occupied area (0) as the
448 response variable, mean daily NDWI as a fixed effect, and year and Area nested within bird ID
449 as random factors. We assessed the variance explained by the model using marginal and
450 conditional R-squared. GLMMs were computed using R package *lme4*⁷⁸, and R-squared values
451 computed using the package *MuMIn*⁷⁹.

452

453 **Declarations**

454 **Approval for animal experiments**

455 Licences to catch and deploy the tracking devices were provided by the Zambia Wildlife
456 Authority (now Department of National Parks and Wildlife (DNPW)). The work was carried out
457 with approval from the University of Cape Town Science Faculty Animal Ethics Committee
458 (permit number: 2011/V14/AA). Capture, handling and tagging procedures were carried out
459 by RHEM, qualified in 2007 under the Article 9 of the Experiments on Animals Act in The
460 Netherlands. No bird was injured by the capturing/handling procedure.

461 **Consent for publication**

462 Not applicable.

463 **Availability of data and materials**

464 The datasets used and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding
465 author on reasonable request.

466 **Competing interests**

467 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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476 **Authors' contributions**

477 AA, RHEM, FJW and MA conceptualised the study. AA, RHEM, MA, AMAF and FJW designed
478 the methodology. RHEM conducted the fieldwork and data collection. MA analysed the data
479 and wrote the manuscript. All authors read, edited, and approved the final manuscript.

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487

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675 **Tables**

676 **Table 1** – Information for the tracked Shoebills: age of the individual at the time of logger
 677 deployment, start and end dates of tracking, total number of valid GPS positions, excluding
 678 outliers, and total number of tracking days as immature and adult.

Bird ID	Age	Start of tracking	End of tracking	Number of GPS positions	Immature tracking days	Adult tracking days
521		03/12/2011	28/10/2014	10,763	617	-
514		09/09/2012	26/11/2013	2,187	-	-
518		15/09/2012	21/04/2013	2,537	-	-
520		03/08/2013	02/05/2018	19,335	725	623
509	Juvenile	26/08/2013	05/03/2018	18,998	724	634
510		30/08/2013	14/11/2013	962	-	-
515		02/09/2013	15/05/2017	16,138	728	347
512		10/09/2013	29/10/2018	21,224	724	863
516		15/11/2013	05/01/2015	3,480	-	-
511		28/10/2014	08/06/2016	6,769	366	-
517	Adult	29/07/2013	15/08/2017	16,928	-	1,444

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684 **Table 2** – Individual average annual home range area (in km² ± standard deviation) and total
 685 average home range of immature and adult Shoebills, estimated as the 95% and 50% kernel,
 686 based on the GPS tracking periods indicated in Table 1.

ID	Immature		Adult	
	95% kernel	50% kernel	95% kernel	50% kernel
	(km ²)	(km ²)	(km ²)	(km ²)
521	233 (± 318)	46 (± 63)	-	-
520	1,094 (± 585)	212 (± 129)	1,039 (± 866)	145 (± 124)
509	2,458 (± 617)	431 (± 59)	2,167 (± 241)	389 (± 85)
515	2,628 (± 2,309)	403 (± 359)	3,375	652
512	1,585 (± 360)	257 (± 56)	2,167 (± 474)	343 (± 133)
511	981	200	-	-
517	-	-	304 (± 108)	54 (± 15)
All individuals	1,547 (± 1,296)	263 (± 204)	1,514 (± 1,172)	247 (± 204)

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695 **Table 3** – Results of the GLMM models comparing the values of: a) daily mean NDWI of Areas
696 before Shoebill abandonment, with the values of NDWI after the birds abandoned the Area,
697 using year and Area nested within bird ID as random effects. Daily mean NDWI was
698 transformed as a second-degree polynomial (poly 1 and poly 2). b) daily mean NDWI of used
699 Areas the last week before abandonment, with the daily mean NDWI of used Areas the first
700 week after arrival, using year and Area nested within bird ID as random effects.

Model	Age	Parameter	Estimate (SE)	Z-value	P-value	Marginal R-squared	Conditional R-squared
c) Comparison of NDWI of Areas before and after Shoebill abandonment		Intercept	0.17 (0.19)	0.87	0.384		
	Immature	NDWI (poly1)	33.87 (3.38)	10.02	<0.001	0.270	0.320
		NDWI (poly2)	-7.35 (2.70)	-2.72	0.007		
	Adult	Intercept	0.06 (0.08)	0.76	0.445		
		NDWI (poly1)	-23.12 (2.65)	-8.72	<0.001	0.144	0.151
		NDWI (poly2)	15.03 (2.73)	5.50	<0.001		
d) Comparison of NDWI of used Areas the last week before abandonment and the first week after arrival	Immature	Intercept	-0.03 (0.54)	-0.05	0.963		
		NDWI	-0.05 (1.01)	-0.05	0.957	<0.001	<0.001
	Adult	Intercept	-0.50 (0.46)	-1.10	0.272		
		NDWI	-0.95 (0.85)	-1.11	0.268	<0.001	<0.001

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706 **Figure legends**

707 **Figure 1** – Cumulative 95% and 50% kernel density estimations for all tracked (A) immature
708 and (B) adult Shoebills, and cumulative 50% kernel density estimation for each (C) immature
709 and (D) adult individual, based on the GPS tracking periods indicated in Table 1. The dashed
710 line indicates the border of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game Management Area.

711 **Figure 2** – Frequency of the maximum daily distance (in Km's) moved by (A) immature and (B)
712 adult Shoebills. The dashed red line indicates the threshold that captures 80% of movements,
713 used to define Shoebills' Moving Days.

714 **Figure 3** – Boxplots of the mean maximum daily distance per month, for individual immature
715 and adult Shoebills, between 2011 and 2018. Data is organised to start at the beginning of the
716 breeding season (May). The boxes represent the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles of the mean
717 maximum daily distance. Whiskers the 1.5 times the value of inter-quantile range, with values
718 outside this range plotted as black dots. The dashed line above the plot indicates the dry season
719 (May to October) and the wet season (November to April). The shaded area highlights the
720 period between October and December, with an increase of adult mean maximum daily
721 distances.

722 **Figure 4** – Diagram describing the analysed spatial and temporal relationships of Shoebill
723 movements. The plots show the predicted mean daily NDWI values (solid line) and 95%
724 confidence interval (shaded areas) for (A) adults and (B) immatures of 'Areas' before and after
725 Shoebill abandonment, and for (C) adults and (D) immatures before Shoebill abandonment and
726 after Shoebill arrival in a new 'Area'. The boxplots display the observed values of daily mean
727 NDWI, with the boxes representing the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles and the whiskers the 1.5

728 times the value of inter-quantile range. Values outside this range are plotted as grey dots.

729 Brown colours indicate adult data and blue colours indicate immature data.

730 **Figure 5** – A) Location of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game Management Area (in red) within
731 Africa (light grey) and Zambia (dark grey); B) Changes in NDWI between the start of October
732 (week between 30/09/2015 and 07/10/2015), just prior to the start of the rainy season and
733 C) the end of December (week between 19/12/2015 and 26/12/2015), which is during the
734 rainy season. The red dashed line indicates the border of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game
735 Management Area.

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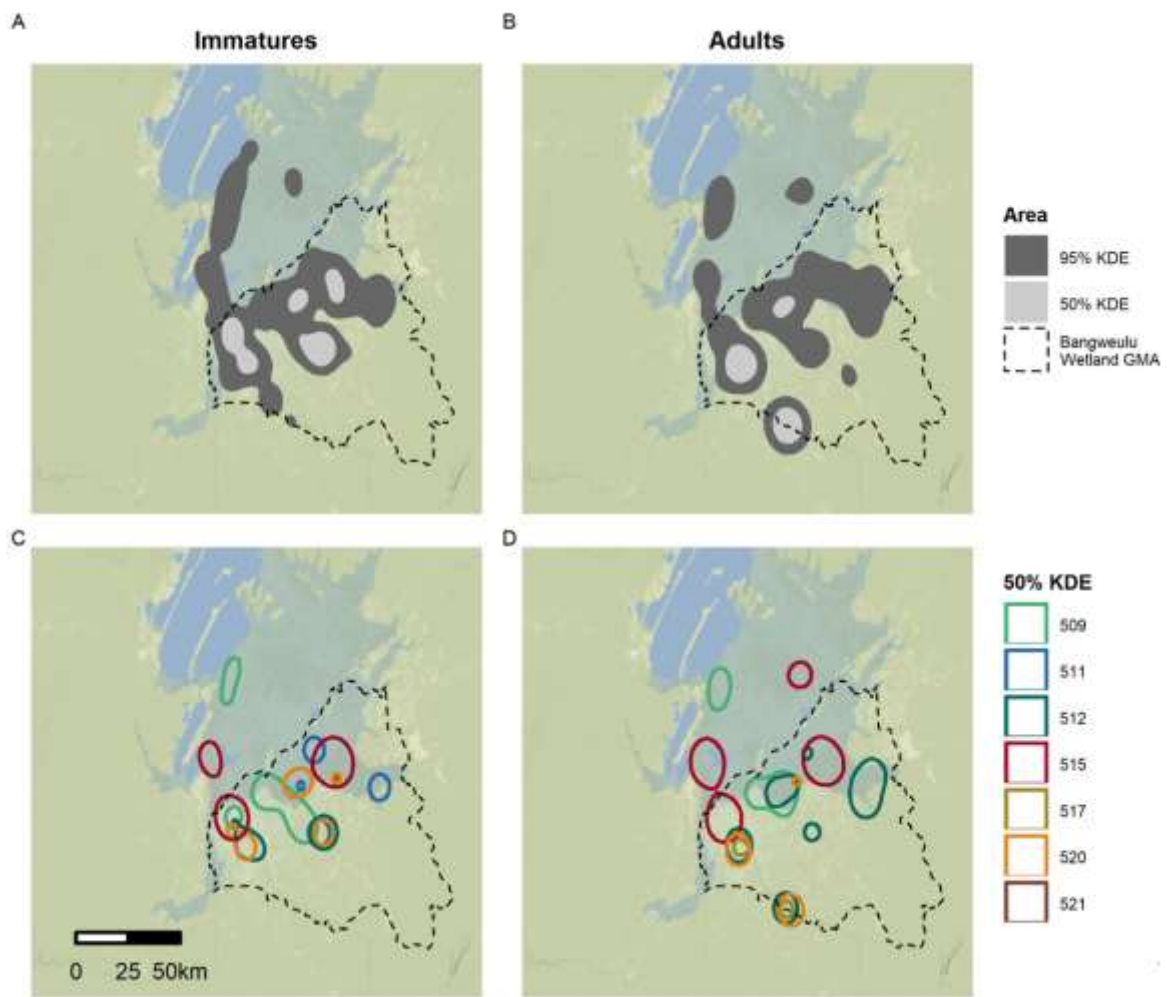
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 750 and (B) adult Shoebills, and cumulative 50% kernel density estimation for each (C) immature
 751 and (D) adult individual, based on the GPS tracking periods indicated in Table 1. The dashed
 752 line indicates the border of the Bangweulu Wetlands Game Management Area.

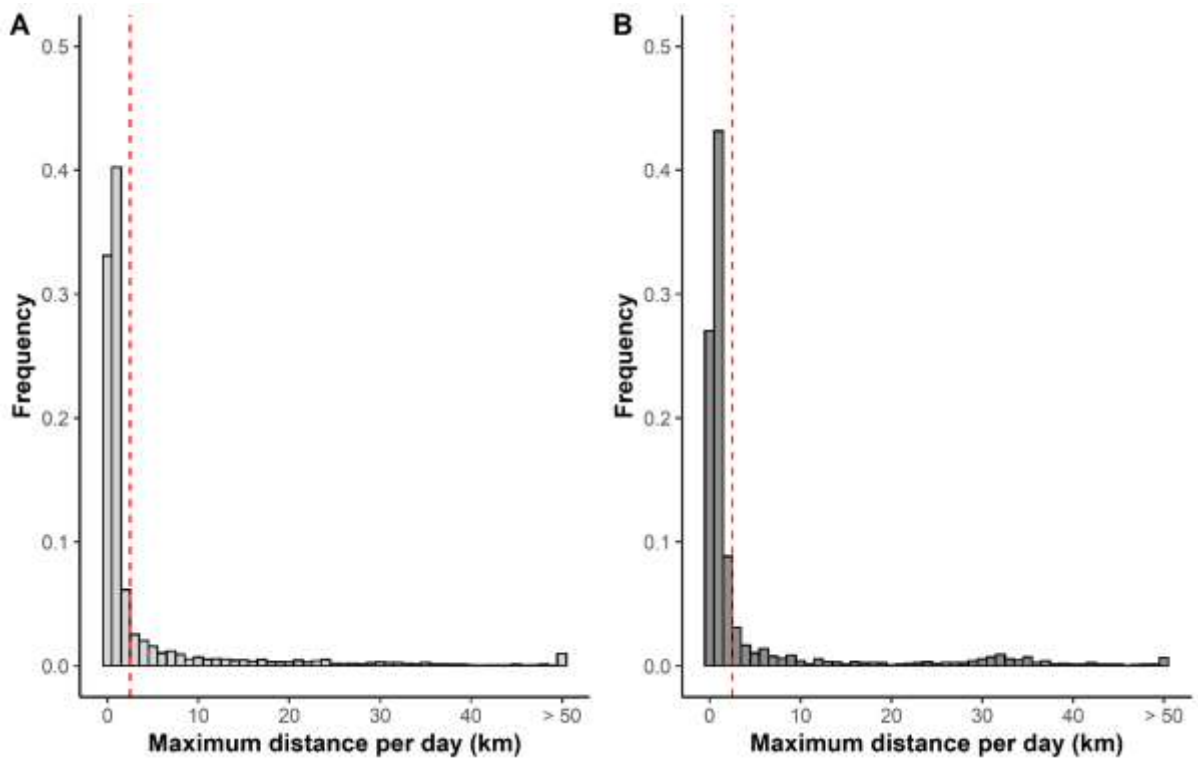
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760 adult Shoebills. The dashed red line indicates the threshold that captures 80% of movements,
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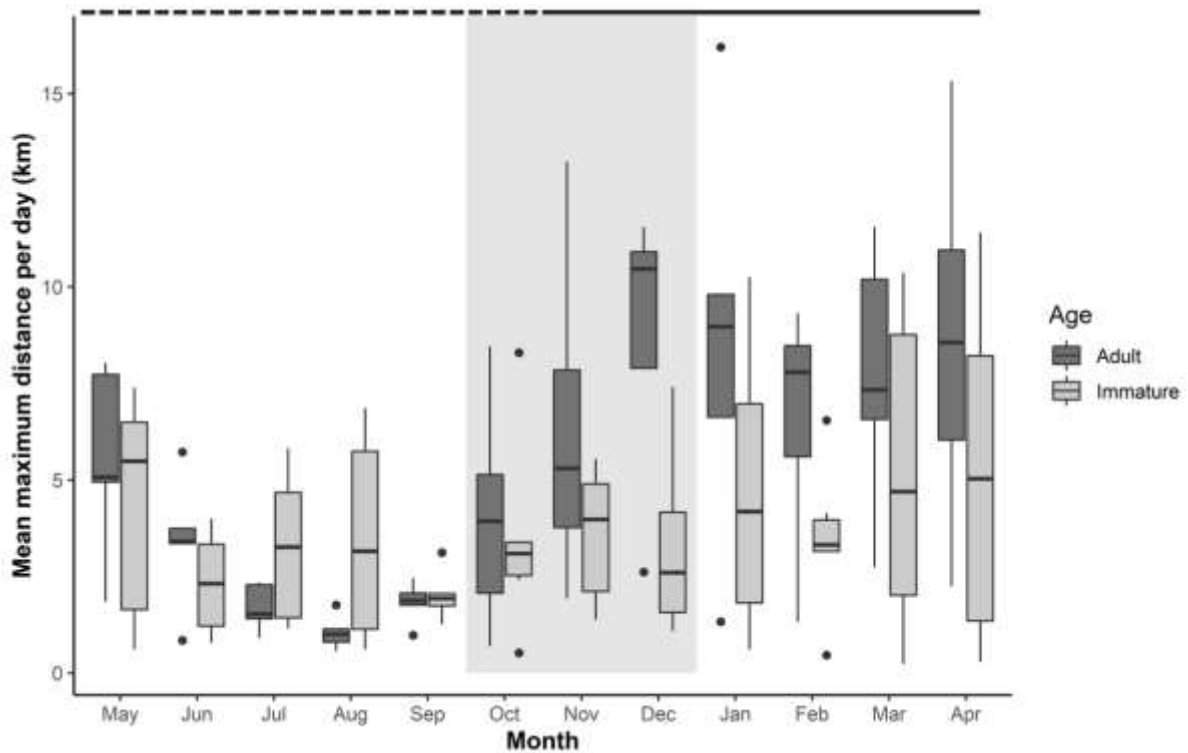
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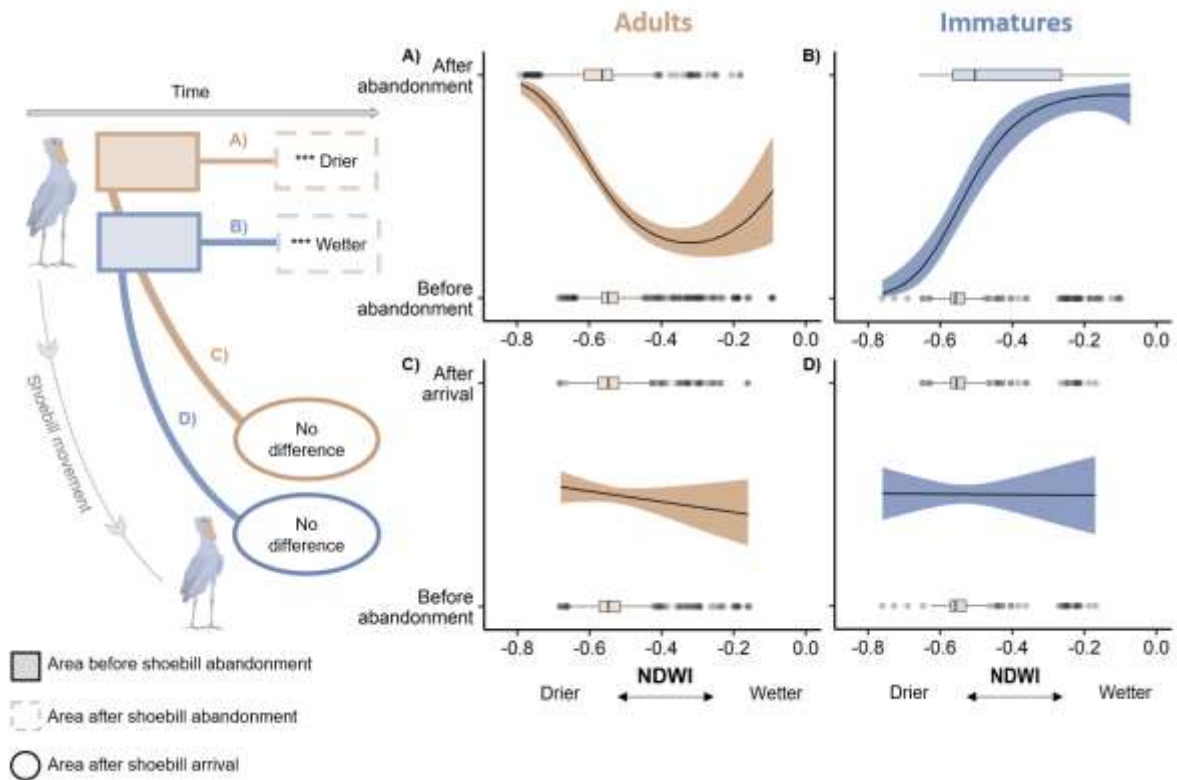
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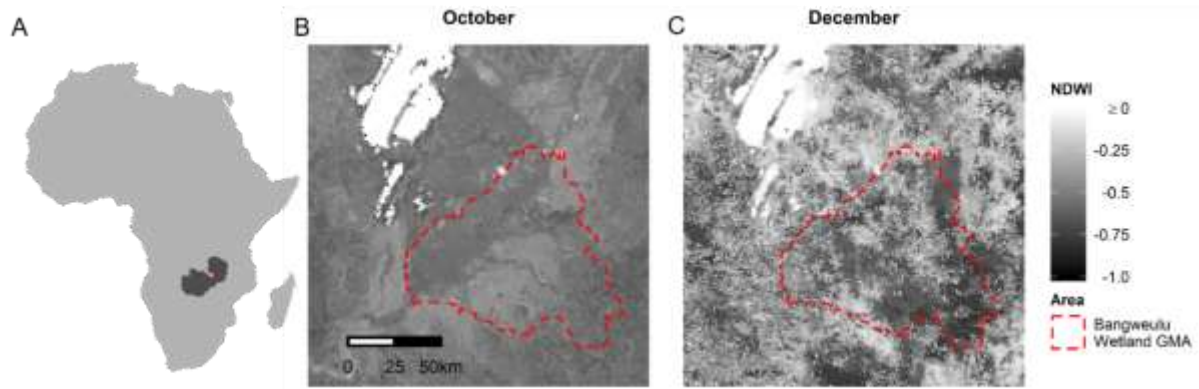
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 788 NDWI, with the boxes representing the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles and the whiskers the 1.5
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