Defining the key wintering habitats in the Sahel for declining African-Eurasian 2 migrants using expert assessment

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#### 9 Summary

10 The Sahel in West Africa is a major wintering area for many western Palearctic 11 migrants. The breeding populations of many of these have declined over the past 50 12 years. However, there have been few intensive field studies on migrant ecology in the 13 Sahel and these were generally within a very restricted area. Consequently our 14 knowledge of the distribution of species within this extensive area and the habitat 15 associations of these species is limited. Understanding these habitat associations is 16 essential for the effective conservation management of populations. We brought 17 together a group of experts and consulted a wider group by email to assess the main 18 Sahelian habitat types used by 68 African-Eurasian migrant bird species. Those 19 species that showed strongest declines during 1970-1990 were associated with more 20 open habitat than those newly declining during 1990-2000, when declining species 21 were associated with habitats with more shrubs and trees. Populations of species that 22 winter in the Sahel are generally stable or increasing now as rainfall has increased and 23 is now near the long-term average for the Sahel. Those which use the Sahel only as a 24 staging area are, in many cases, in rapid decline at present.

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Keywords: Sahel, migrants, Africa, Palearctic migrants, West Africa, drought.

#### 27 Introduction 28

29 Approximately 2.1 billion passerines and near passerines breeding in Europe migrate 30 to sub-Saharan Africa each year (Hahn et al. 2009) and many species concentrate in 31 West Africa in the arid savannas of the sub-Saharan Sahel zone during the non-32 breeding season. Many of these species have declined in numbers (Hewson and 33 Noble 2009, Ockendon et al. 2012, Sanderson et al. 2006. Drought in the Sahel has 34 been a major issue for many species but there have also been rapid habitat changes in 35 the European breeding grounds, particularly for species associated with farmland e.g. 36 Yellow Wagtail Motacilla flava (Gilroy et al. 2010) and Turtle Dove Streptopelia turtur 37 (Browne and Aebischer 2004).

38 In various studies the annual survival of many migrant species that spend the 39 northern winter in the Sahel has been linked to rainfall in that region during the 40 preceding rainy season (Zwarts et al. 2009). However, there are no comparable 41 studies on the effects of land use change on migratory bird survival. The few 42 quantitative studies available show that land cover in the Sahel is changing (Tappan et 43 al. 2000, 2004), mostly in response to agricultural intensification and extension of 44 cultivated land. However, understanding of the implications of present and future land 45 use change in the Sahel for African-Eurasian migrant birds is severely limited by 46 insufficient knowledge of the birds' habitat requirements in the Sahel. They occur in low 47 densities across a vast area of the Sahel and, for many common species, knowledge 48 of their habitat requirements across seasons and locations is poor or lacking. Some 49 studies have been undertaken on individual or groups of species (e.g. raptors, Anadón 50 et al. 2010) and also examined how spatial aggregation of resources and the birds' 51 response to these influences distribution (Cortés-Avizanda et al. 2011). Understanding 52 the habitat requirements of African-Eurasian migrant birds in the Sahel is important if 53 strategies are to be devised to guide land use change in ways that sustain or restore 54 population levels.

55 There is therefore considerable potential conservation value in attempting to 56 collate and synthesise currently fragmented data (published and unpublished) 57 alongside field experience and ornithological expertise. In this paper we report the 58 results of a participatory approach to draw together published literature and workshop-59 derived expert knowledge to quantify the importance of a range of Sahelian habitats for 60 68 terrestrial migrant bird species that either winter or stage in this region. In doing so 61 we attempt, for the first time, to synthesise knowledge of habitat use for these species, 62 rank these habitats in terms of the number of migrant species they support and their 63 importance for declining species, and thus identify habitats where habitat change might 64 be expected to have the greatest positive or negative impact on migrant birds. We do 65 this by calculating a relative index of habitat usage by declining and non-declining 66 species. Those habitats most associated with species declines (and therefore likely to 67 be those habitats of highest conservation concern) will have higher usage score on 68 average for declining species compared to non-declining species. We then compare 69 the habitat usage indices for all declining and non-declining species between two 70 periods, early 1970-1990 and late 1990-2000, to determine whether there have been 71 any changes in the relative importance of habitats. We further compare the relative 72 index of habitat usage for species present during the northern winter (termed Sahelian 73 winterers) with for those which pass through to spend part of the northern winter further 74 south (termed Sahelian transients) between the early and late periods. If our

- assumptions that differential habitat use and change in the Sahel are leading to
   declines are correct, changes in the habitats most associated with declines between
   the periods should be more pronounced in Sahelian winterers. These habitats may be
- 78 important targets for conservation expenditure to maintain migratory bird populations.

## 80 Methods

81 The approach we used builds on some of the guiding principles for using participatory 82 exercises to harness and synthesise expert knowledge (Sutherland *et al.* 2011) in 83 relation to (i) defining the project, (ii) organising the participants, (iii) soliciting and 84 managing questions or issues and (iv) disseminating results.

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### 86 Defining the project

87 The concept was relatively simple and required three inputs: a definition of the Sahel, a88 list of relevant bird species and a list of distinct habitat types.

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## 90 Definition of study area

For the purposes of this study we define the Sahel zone as the region with a long-term
(50-year) mean annual rainfall in the range of 200-600 mm. Our focus is on bird
species from western Europe that winter in the western part of the Sahel, from Senegal
in the west up to and including Niger in the east.

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## 96 Selection of bird species

97 The analysis included all species of African-Eurasian migrant landbirds that both breed 98 in western Europe and for which a significant fraction of the population is considered to 99 use the Sahel zone of West Africa at some point in the non-breeding season. This 100 classification was determined primarily with reference to standard handbooks (Cramp 101 and co-editors 1978-1994) and Zwarts et al. (2009). The classification resulted in a set 102 of 68 species (see full list in online Supplementary Materials). Species excluded were: 103 those with populations that migrate from temperate North Africa to sub-Saharan Africa, 104 but which do not have a western European breeding population (e.g. Cream-coloured 105 Courser Cursorius cursor, Blue-cheeked Bee-eater Merops persicus, Eastern 106 Olivaceous Warbler Hippolais pallida), species wintering mainly in the Sahel, east of 107 Niger, species that only infrequently occur in the western Sahel (e.g. Masked Shrike 108 Lanius nubicus, Isabelline Shrike Lanius isabellinus), species whose migratory 109 populations are thought mainly to overfly the western Sahel without exploiting 110 resources there (e.g. Alpine Swift Tachymarptis melba, Honey Buzzard Pernis 111 apivorus) or species whose main wintering grounds lie in the eastern part of Africa

(Great Spotted Cuckoo *Clamator glandarius*, European Roller *Coracias garrulus*).
 Common Kestrel *Falco tinnunculus* was excluded because only a small number of
 European migrants are thought to enter West Africa and the degree of use made of the
 Sahel is unknown, due partly to the difficulty in differentiating European migrants from
 the Afrotropical resident population.

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## 118 Definition of habitats

119 The habitat definitions used for this exercise represented a compromise between 120 definitions that had ecological relevance to birds, and hence could be realistically 121 assigned high, medium or low importance for a given species, and those that could be 122 readily matched with land cover types that could potentially be mapped using low to 123 medium resolution satellite image data, allowing large-scale temporal and spatial 124 change be assessed in future. Through a process of consultation and discussion with 125 ornithologists with field experience in Africa and experts with knowledge of remotely 126 sensed land cover habitat classifications, we defined 17 habitat categories that cover 127 both a broad structural gradient (from bare soil and open crop and grasslands to 128 wooded savanna) and a wetness gradient (from dry open areas, seasonally flooded 129 wetlands to permanently wet habitats) (Table 1), based on FAO's Land Cover 130 Classification System (Di Gregorio and Jansen 2000). Anthropogenic influence is also 131 included with the inclusion of villages and different types of farmland. Two additional 132 habitat categories, bosquets (areas of dense woody vegetation in dune depressions) 133 and tiger bush (patterned vegetation with parallel zones of dense shrubs and bare 134 areas), were considered to be specific examples of types of woodland and scrub and 135 so were dropped as separate categories during the initial discussion at the beginning 136 of the workshop.

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#### 138 Organising the participants

139 From recently published literature, and through personal contacts in universities, 140 research institutes and conservation NGOs, we collated a list of individuals who had 141 undertaken research relating to bird-habitat relationships in the Sahel and invited each 142 of them to attend a one-day workshop. For those living outside of the UK, we offered to 143 cover the cost of international travel. If travel was not possible, we facilitated 144 engagement via email communication. We included in the invitation a spreadsheet 145 containing the list of species and habitats under consideration so that all were able to 146 contribute to the 'habitat scoring process'. The invitation and spreadsheet was circulated to 23 individuals, 17 of whom attended the workshop. The remaining six 147 148 commented via email. The workshop itself commenced with a short introductory

session during which its aims were presented, the scope of the exercise explained (birds, species and region of interest) and the habitat definitions clarified.

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152 Quantifying the importance of each habitat for migrant birds

153 The central aim of this work was to rank the value/importance of these 17 habitat 154 categories for the 68 selected species of migrant birds, based on best available 155 knowledge from published literature and through first-hand field experience. This was 156 done in two stages. First, existing knowledge of species-specific habitat 157 use/preferences/requirements were synthesised from the literature and used to derive 158 a preliminary list of habitat importance scores for each species. This information, 159 summarised as a table, was then circulated electronically to the invited experts to 160 solicit their response in terms of the approach in general and the species and habitats 161 selected in particular.

162 The second stage was for the respondents to use their first-hand field experience to 163 rank these habitats as unimportant or of low, medium or high importance for each 164 species under consideration. We recognised, from the outset, the risk of bias towards 165 areas of field experience and attempted to address this through the 'composition' of 166 experts we engaged in the process. The 23 individuals who participated in the 167 workshop and pre-workshop data-gathering exercise between them had first-hand 168 experience of ornithological fieldwork in the Sahelian zone of each of the six countries 169 that encompass the defined study area (Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria 170 and Senegal), together with a broader expertise in terms of knowledge of the published 171 and grey literature and of fieldwork elsewhere in Africa.

In practice, it was difficult to arrive at clear-cut definitions of low, medium or
high importance. A habitat was classed of high importance if it was considered to be
used regularly by large numbers of individuals of a species throughout the wintering or
staging period and was known, or thought, to provide food or food and roosting areas
(but not simply roosting areas). In contrast, habitats were considered of low importance
if they were used infrequently, by small numbers of individuals and provided less
frequented foraging or roosting sites.

After the workshop, a quantitative ranking of habitat importance was derived by, first, replacing the habitat importance scores of unimportant, low, medium or high importance, for each species-habitat combination, with numerical values of 0, 1, 2 and 3 respectively. These scores were then summed for each species and each species's score for each habitat was divided by the species total so that each species had a total score of 1. These standardised habitat importance scores in effect increased the

importance of a habitat when the species was found in fewer habitats and decreasedits importance when the species used a wide range of habitats.

187 We first identified the main habitat association gradients in the bird data using an 188 ordination technique. To identify the key habitats for the group of 68 species selected, 189 a Principal Components Analysis was performed on the standardised habitat 190 importance scores using the PRINCOMP function in SAS. This technique produces a 191 number of composite habitat variables that indicate the main gradients in the species-192 habitat data. The resulting axes were grouped using a Ward's clustering technique in 193 the CLUSTER and TREE procedures in SAS, and the habitat variables that were 194 significantly correlated with Axis 1 and 2 scores were identified using a Pearson's 195 correlation. This allowed us to identify the key habitats for the suite of migrants 196 selected and provided a graphical way of grouping species together based on their 197 habitat requirements.

198 To examine any differences in habitat usage between winterers or transients, 199 and declining and non-declining species for two time periods (1970-1990, referred to 200 as the early period, and 1990-2000, referred to as the late period) we defined 201 transients as species as those which use not only the Sahel but also habitats further 202 south during the non-breeding season, and Sahel winterers as those that depend 203 totally on resources in the Sahel during the time they spend in sub-Saharan Africa. 204 Declining and non-declining species during the two periods were identified from 205 information in Zwarts et al. (2009). See Appendix 1 in online Supplementary Material 206 for classifications and sample sizes.

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208 Determining habitats most associated with declining migrant bird species

209 We compared the mean standardised habitat importance scores for declining and non-210 declining species in each habitat and period using a bootstrapping technique. For each 211 subset of the dataset (i.e. individual habitats and period), a total of 10,000 replicate 212 datasets were created using observations from the original dataset selected at random 213 with replacement. The median score and 95% confidence intervals were calculated for 214 each habitat separately for the declining and non-declining species. To determine if the 215 habitat importance scores were significantly different, we calculated the difference in 216 the mean scores for each replicate pair and, if the 95% confidence interval did not 217 span zero, they were said to significantly differ. These standardised habitat importance 218 scores for declining and non-declining species were compared in three ways: (i) all 219 species, in the early period (1970-1990) compared with the late period (1990-2000); (ii) 220 all Sahelian winterers, in the early period compared with the late period; and (iii) all 221 transient species in the early period compared with the late period.

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224	Results
225	Classification of species by habitats
226	The Principal Components Analysis identified four components that individually
227	explained more than 10% of the variance (PCA1-29.9%, PCA2-23.4%, PCA3-14.0%,
228	PCA4-11.3%, cumulatively accounting for 78.5%). The first two components comprised
229	gradients that could be identified as running from open to structurally more complex
230	habitats and from wet to dry habitats (Figure 1). The cluster analysis of the four main
231	PCA scores (components 1 to 4) identified 7 main groups of birds. These include
232	exclusively wetland species (Group 2) and species that occupy those habitats at the
233	interface of wet and dry habitats (Group 3). For the species that only use dry habitats
234	there was a gradient from open country species to those that inhabit woodland (Groups
235	5 through 4 to 1). There are two remaining groups: one associated with towns and
236	villages (Group 7) and one where the associations are unclear (Group 6, including only
237	Osprey (open water) and Common Swift (habitat association unclear)).
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I hus, during the 1970-1990 period, population declines in all species were
 associated with very open and intermediate habitats, whereas during 1990-2000 they
 were associated with more intermediate habitats.

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Habitat associations of transient and wintering species

259 For Sahelian winterers only, as with all species, grassland had significantly higher 260 standardised habitat importance scores for declining than for non-declining species in 261 the period 1970-1990 (Figure 3). For farmland there was a similar pattern, though not 262 significant, in contrast to the result considering all species pooled. These negative 263 correlations with grassland and farmland may be related to the droughts of the 1970s 264 and 1980s: grass and crop biomass responds to rainfall more immediately than tree 265 and scrub species that are deeper-rooted and can exploit shallow groundwater (Cole 266 1986). Habitats that were significantly more important for wintering species that did not 267 show a population decline during that period are villages and fringing and emergent 268 vegetation. This is similar to the relationships for all species pooled during 1970-1990.

For 1990-2000, declining wintering species had a significantly stronger dependence
on grassland and farmland with shrubs and with trees than did non-declining
transients. Non-declining species had a significantly stronger dependence than
declining species on fringing vegetation only. For emergent vegetation the relationship
was similar, but not significant.

These patterns and differences were broadly similar for transients. For transient
species declining during 1970-1990, grassland, farmland, farmland with shrubs and
grassland with trees were significantly more important than for non-declining species.
For non-declining transients, shrubland and fringing vegetation were significantly more
important.

For 1990-2000, farmland and grassland were again significantly more important for declining than for non-declining transients, joined now by farmland with trees. Fringing vegetation (and emerging vegetation and wetland grassland) were again more important for non-declining transients than for declining ones.

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## 285 Discussion

The results of this synthesis of expert opinion and published information suggest that African-Eurasian migrants with significant declines between 1970 and 1990 are those particularly associated with open, dry farmland and grassland. In contrast, those species showing significant declines in the later period, 1990-2000, are associated with more structurally complex habitats, such as tree and shrub-rich farmland and grassland.

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# 293 Rainfall patterns and migrants in the Sahel

Prolonged drought in the Sahel has long been associated with declines in migrants
 wintering there, and there is evidence that rainfall in the Sahel is also important for

296 many species that winter further south, and for which the Sahel is itself a staging area, 297 e.g. White Stork Ciconia ciconia (Nevoux et al. 2008) and Nightingale Luscinia 298 megarhynchos (Boano et al. 2004). The pattern of rainfall in the Sahel has been 299 variable, both inter-annually and over the longer term (Grist and Nicholson 2001; Fig. 300 4). The period 1920-1967 was one of generally above-average rainfall in the Sahel 301 (1900-2001, data from http://jisao.washington.edu/data/sahel/ accessed 10 July 2011), 302 although within the latter part of this period (from c.1953) levels of annual rainfall 303 began to decline. By 1968, the smoothed rainfall index in the Sahel started to fall below 304 the current long-term average and that year was the third-driest in the region since 305 1900 (the previous two years being 1902 and 1913). The trend in annual rainfall then 306 declined until 1985 but since then it has increased once more and in 2009 and 2010 307 rainfall levels had, once again, reached or exceeded the long-term average.

The 'early period' of the bird-habitat analyses presented here (1970-1990) coincides with the second half of the prolonged dry period. At this time declining species were associated with open habitats, such as grassland and farmland, to a greater extent than non-declining species. These habitats are dominated by shallow-rooted grasses and forbs that respond rapidly to rainfall decline. More deep-rooted wooded habitats, especially those around temporary watercourses or other waterbodies, are to some extent buffered from low rainfall.

315 The impact of drought in the Sahel on migrant birds was dramatically highlighted in 316 Britain when national breeding bird monitoring schemes reported a 70% crash in 317 numbers of Common Whitethroat Sylvia communis in 1969 (Winstanley et al. 1974) 318 following the very dry conditions on the wintering grounds in 1968/1969. This very dry 319 year followed a 20-year period of above-average rainfall conditions and the population 320 may well have been elevated as large areas of the Sahel would have held suitable 321 wintering habitat during these wet conditions. When drought struck, very large areas of 322 formerly suitable habitat would not have been able to sustain wintering Common 323 Whitethroats. The Common Whitethroat population increased slowly in subsequent 324 years (Risely et al. 2011). The population trend of this species therefore highlights a 325 potential confounding factor in the present analyses as it was classed as an increasing 326 species, reflecting recovery from a population low, although it has not recovered to 327 former levels. The same may apply to a number of other species but the lack of widely-328 available monitoring data prior to 1970 means that a comparison of trends from the 329 mid-1960s onwards, perhaps the critical period for Sahelian migrants, is not possible.

The later period (1990-2000) in the present study coincided with a period when the
Sahel was less consistently dry. During this time, although open farmland and
grassland remained important, there was a marked association of declining migrants

with more structurally complex habitats (farmland and grassland with shrubs and
trees). During this period, the previously relatively strong relationship between rainfall
and over-winter survival in several species is no longer evident (e.g. White Stork,
Nevoux *et al.* 2008), perhaps suggesting increasing importance of other potential
limiting factors on wintering, staging or breeding grounds.

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339 Land cover, land use changes and migrant birds in the Sahel

340 African-Eurasian migrants have long been thought to be sensitive to human-induced 341 habitat change, as well as climate change, in the wintering grounds (Grimmett 1987; 342 Lack 1990; Morel and Betlem 1992; Morel and Morel 1992; Jones 1995; Jones et al. 343 1996; Vickery et al. 1999; Wilson and Cresswell 2006; Zwarts et al. 2009; Robson and 344 Barriocanal 2011). Agricultural land dominates large parts of the Sahel (Mayaux et al. 345 2004)) and rapid economic development and agricultural expansion is taking place in 346 some areas (Cour 2001). Population growth rates in the Sahel have generally been 347 over 3% per year over the periods 1970-1990 and 1990-2000, (i.e. a doubling in under 348 23 years) and there will have been considerable associated land cover change. 349 Detailed assessments of land cover change across the whole of the Sahel are not 350 available and figures cannot be safely drawn from simple comparison of land cover 351 maps from more local studies due to differing methodologies.

352 However, in a number of case studies, analysis of satellite images shows the extent 353 of land cover change. Between 1975 and 2000, 29.2% of non-forest vegetation 354 (savanna and shrubland) was lost from the central and eastern Sahel and this was 355 coupled with a 14.2% increase in agricultural land (Brink and Eva 2009). Tappan et al. 356 (2004) showed that, although there was a small national reduction in woodland cover 357 in Senegal between 1965 and 2000, there were large regional variations. For example, 358 agricultural expansion in some areas (e.g. the groundnut basin in west-central 359 Senegal) had reduced woodland cover by almost 90% (Tappan et al. 2000). Similarly 360 in the Sahelian central sandy Ferlo of north-eastern Senegal, analysis of images 361 showed decline in the cover of woody vegetation from 10-15% in 1965 to 1-5% in 1994 362 (Tappan et al. 2004). There was a concomitant increase in the cover of rain-fed 363 agriculture (mostly groundnuts and millet) from 1% in 1965 to 16% in 1999. These 364 studies make it clear that the spatial pattern of change is complex. This has 365 implications as many migrant species exhibit a high degree of spatial migratory 366 connectivity, with different breeding populations often separated on the wintering 367 grounds.

368Other, more local, studies do document qualitatively similar patterns. Woodland369declined, for example from 52% to 17% of land cover between 1967 and 2003 in a

small 90 km<sup>2</sup> study area in Mali, while the area of agriculture rose from 11% to 23%
(Ruelland *et al.* 2010). Around a protected area on the border of Benin, Burkina Faso,
Niger and Togo, 14.5% of savanna was replaced by agriculture between 1984 and
2002 (Clerici *et al.* 2006). Other local studies report conversion of woodland to
farmland, for example in Senegal (Morel and Betlem 1992; Gonzalez 2001), and northeastern Nigeria (Geomatics International1998; Cresswell *et al.* 2007).

376 The causes of land cover change are complicated (Benjaminsen 2001; Tappan and 377 McGahuey 2007; Brink and Eva 2009). Research has shown farmers and herders 378 carefully manage soil fertility (Mortimore and Harris 2005), tree cover and biomass 379 (Mortimore et al. 1999, Gautier et al. 2005). Low rainfall and human activities interact in 380 complex ways. Woodlands in the Sahel (and further south) may be affected by climate-381 mediated stresses in low rainfall years as well as economic demands for agricultural 382 land, fuelwood or livestock grazing (Gonzalez 2001; Newton 2004; Wilson and 383 Cresswell 2006; Cresswell et al. 2007). There is evidence of the 'reversal' of 384 desertification (Rasmussen et al. 2001), and the 'greening' of the Sahel since the early 385 1980s as vegetation recovers from the dry decades of the late twentieth century 386 (Olsson et al. 2005). However this does necessarily mean that the vegetation that birds 387 require is restored. In a case study in Senegal, there had been an overall reduction in 388 woody species richness, a loss of large trees, an increasing dominance of shrubs, and 389 a shift towards more arid-tolerant, Sahelian species since 1983 (Herrmann and Tappan 390 2013).

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393 The use of a participatory approach to harness and synthesise expert knowledge 394 The use of expert opinion to construct predictive models of species distribution has 395 been criticised and found to not necessarily be appropriate for novel areas (Seoane et 396 al. 2005). Our study simply described broad habitat associations, and has not 397 attempted to extrapolate these to mapping potential distributions (something we do not 398 think appropriate from our data). The lack of suitable temporally and spatially 399 referenced bird and habitat data meant that a combination of published and in many 400 cases peer-reviewed publications and expert opinion was the best available resource 401 to determine habitat preferences. We suggest that as a 'data gathering' process the 402 participatory approach worked well for a number of reasons, relating to both the 403 planning and execution phases. First, in relation to planning, the research team 404 undertook an extensive data-gathering exercise in advance and shared this with the 405 participants. Additionally, participants had a clear understanding of the aim of the 406 exercise, the specific objective and scope of the workshop, as well as the desired 'end

- 407 product'. This was achieved through advance information and short introductory
  408 sessions, and was facilitated by a well-briefed chair. The choice of experts will
  409 undoubtedly influence the scores and we took measures to minimise bias by first
  410 defining the scope (species and habitats) and providing our 'preliminary habitat
  411 importance scores' based on published literature. This helped to maintain the focus
  412 and direct discussions towards the single, realistic 'product' essentially a table of
  413 habitat importance scores for each species.
- In retrospect, the process could have been improved in a number of ways: the
  project was not sufficiently resourced to allow us to invite workshop participation by
  experts from outside Europe, particularly those from countries within the Sahelian zone
  in question. This was mitigated to some extent by inviting participation via email,
  although, if resources allowed, similar exercises in the future could, perhaps more
  usefully, be undertaken in the country or region under focus.
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# 421 Implications

422 Predicted future anthropogenic climatic change and increasing demands for food for 423 growing human populations are likely to have impacts on ecosystems and wild species 424 (Tilman et al. 2001; Walther et al. 2002; Green et al. 2005; Royal Society 2009). Many 425 of the Sahelian countries are signatories to international instruments such as the 426 Convention on Migratory Species and the Convention on Biological Diversity, but the 427 knowledge to support decision-making for birds is inadequate given the complexity of 428 the system. Our understanding of the implications of land use change in the Sahel for 429 migrant birds is limited by knowledge of their habitat requirements. As a result, our 430 understanding of how to make the large-scale influences necessary to improve 431 habitats across large areas of the Sahel, and other habitats used by migrants in Africa 432 is even more limited. This is perhaps not surprising given that capacity for such 433 research in many of the relevant African nations is relatively low and undertaking the 434 extensive and detailed fieldwork required to identify the biological and environmental 435 processes impacting bird populations in the northern winter is logistically challenging 436 and financially expensive. Similarly, land cover change is the result of the interaction of 437 local decisions of farmers and other land managers, the economic aspirations of 438 growing rural and urban populations, and the economic context set by national polices 439 and international investment, aid and trade but detailed knowledge about how to 440 influence these drivers is lacking.

In Europe, legal instruments such as the Birds and Habitats Directives, coupled with
 financial support through agri-environment schemes, provide a mechanism for making
 potentially very large cross-border changes in the wider environment. These schemes

444 are supported by a large body of ecological research which allows evidence-based 445 interventions. The challenges are different in the Sahel. The poverty of Sahelian 446 countries makes the welfare of their urban and rural people the overwhelming policy 447 priority. The decline of migrant landbirds in the Sahel may not seem important in 448 relation to the Millennium Development Goals.. Therefore, it is an important 449 conservation priority to identify development strategies that sustain and do not damage 450 the habitats of greatest importance to migrant birds. Developing a funding strategy, 451 possibly involving some of the larger international policy instruments, to address this is 452 an urgent and major challenge.

453 Currently the most rapidly declining migrants are those that inhabit woodland. Some 454 of these will winter further south than the Sahel in the Guinea savannas but stage in 455 the Sahel. Interventions that meet local development needs while sustaining tree and 456 woodland cover (supporting changes happening spontaneously, Mortimore 1998, 457 2005) could be beneficial for migrant landbirds. Other forms of development (for 458 example large-scale commercial farming, or commercial woodland monocultures of 459 fast-growing exotic species such as Eucalyptus or Prosopis) could have negative 460 impacts on birds, and on local people. Engagement between the conservation and 461 development communities is imperative if rural land use change in the Sahel is to be 462 influenced in ways that benefit birds and local people.

463

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- Table 1. Definitions of the habitats used in this study as modified from Di Gregorio and
  - Jansen (2000).

Rocky Outcrops	Bare rocky outcrops, often associated with inselbergs
Villages	Areas of continuous human habitation
Farmland	Open land dominated by annual or perennial crops, with 0-10% canopy cover
	of naturally-occurring woody species
Grassland	Dominated by grasses and herbs, with 0-10% canopy cover of woody
	species
Farm/Shrubs	As farmland but with 10-40% cover of open stands of shrubs or bushes 2-7m
	tall
Grass/Shrubs	As grassland but with 10-40% cover of open stands of shrubs or bushes 2-
	7m tall
Shrubland	Open stands of shrubs or bushes 2-7m tall (>40% cover)
Farmland/trees	As farmland but with a canopy cover of woody plants >8 m tall of 10-40%
Grassland/trees	As grassland but with a canopy cover of woody plants >8 m tall of 10-40%
Shrubland/trees	As shrubland but with a canopy cover of woody plants >8 m tall of 10-40%
Open woodland	An open stand of trees at least 8m tall with a canopy cover of 40% or more,
	the field layer usually dominated by grasses
Wet woodland	A continuous stand of trees at least 8m tall along seasonal or permanent
	rivers or lakes, at least 10m tall with interlocking crowns
Irrigated Farm	Areas of farmland that are irrigated for crops such as rice.
Wet Grassland	Areas of damp grassland surrounding open water
Fringing Vegetation	Vegetation < 10m tall fringing areas of open water (permanent or seasonal).
	Includes woody species such as Acacia nilotica
Emergent Vegetation	Vegetation, such as <i>Phragmites</i> and <i>Typha</i> that requires permanent or semi-
	permanent inundation
Open Water	Areas of open water which are permanent or seasonal

Table 2. Species investigated, grouped according to the habitat types that they are associated with
 using a combination of Principal Component Analysis and a clustering technique. Scientific names
 appear in Appendix 1 in the online Supplementary Material. Group numbers refer to groups in
 Figure 1 and are in no particular order.

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Open Exclusively Associated Terrestrial Open **Open water** Rocks / woodland or wetland with both habitats with country villages grassland shrubland wetlands shrubs and and trees and dry trees and terrestrial farmland habitats with shrubs and trees Group 1 Group 2 Group 3 Group 4 Group 5 Group 6 Group 7 Great Reed **Rufous Scrub** Iberian Common Rock Golden Oriole Warbler Chiffchaff Robin Tawny Pipit Common Swift Thrush Garden Warbler Common Icterine Warbler Savi's Warbler Chiffchaff Stone-curlew Osprey Pallid Swift Common Grasshopper Barn Swallow Orphean Greater Short-Redstart Warbler Warbler toed Lark **European Reed Common House** Olivaceous Common Whitethroat Warbler Warbler Martin Common Quail Yellow Wagtail European Black-eared Nightjar Bluethroat Wheatear Lesser Kestrel Red-necked Common Sand Red-rumped Eurasian Nightjar Martin Swallow Wryneck **Ortolan Bunting** European Red-throated Black Kite W. Bonelli's Scops Owl Pipit Warbler Egyptian Vulture Common European Bee-Melodious Isabelline Cuckoo Aquatic Warbler Warbler Wheatear eater Eurasian Marsh Pallid Harrier Pied Flycatcher Sedge Warbler Harrier Whinchat Eurasian Hobby Common Great Spotted Nightingale Cuckoo Blackcap Short-toed Snake Eagle Subalpine **Booted Eagle** Warbler Spectacled Willow Warbler Warbler **European Turtle** Dove Montagu's Harrier Spotted Flvcatcher Hoopoe Woodchat Shrike Northern Wheatear Tree Pipit Lesser Whitethroat White Stork Sardinian Warbler

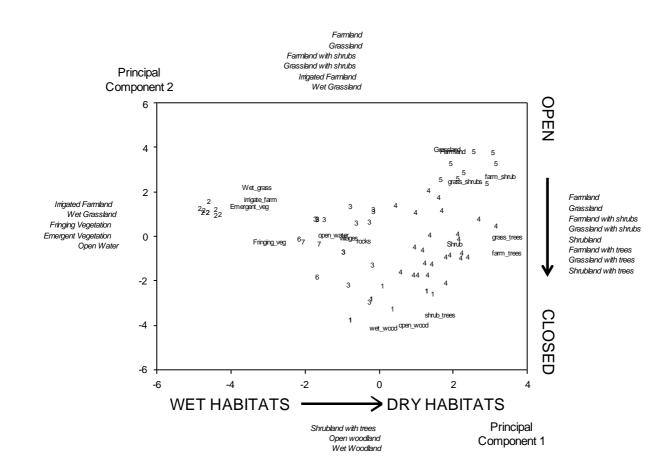
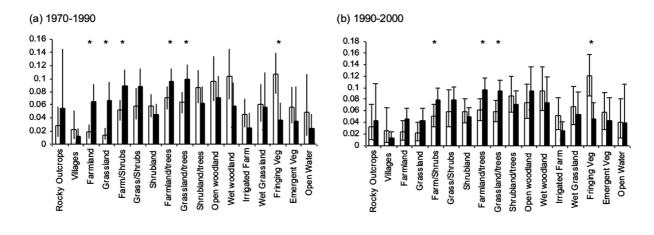
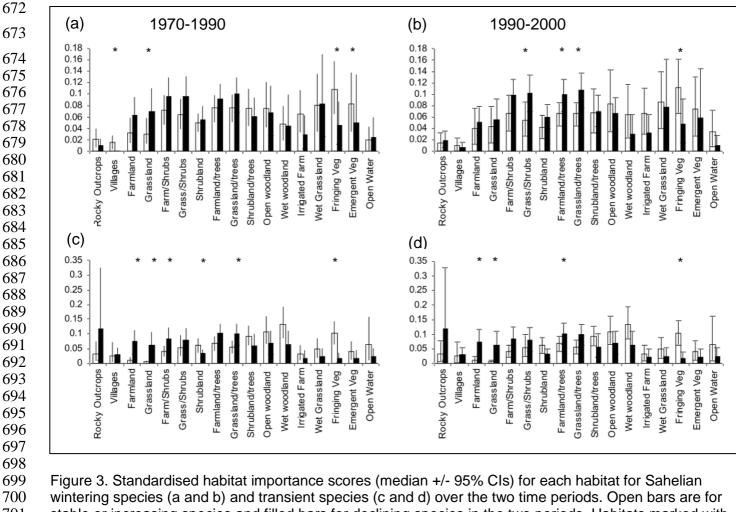


Figure 1. Axis 1 and 2 species and habitat scores derived from a Principal Components Analysis of
the standardised habitat importance scores for all migrants considered in this analysis. Numbers
refer to the identity of the cluster each species was allocated to (see Table 2). Habitats that are
significantly correlated with each axis score are shown in italics.



- Figure 2. Standardised habitat importance scores (median +/- 95% CIs) for each habitat for all
  migrant species. Open bars are for stable or increasing species and filled bars for declining species
  (a) 1970-1990 and (b) 1990-2000. Habitats marked with an asterisk are those for which there is a
  significant difference in the scores of declining and non-declining species.



wintering species (a and b) and transient species (c and d) over the two time periods. Open bars are for stable or increasing species and filled bars for declining species in the two periods. Habitats marked with an asterix are those for which there is a significant difference in the scores of declining and non-declining species.

Figure 4 Annual estimates and smoothed trends (cm month<sup>-1</sup>) of Sahelian rainfall precipitation anomalies
 1900-2010 (June to October rainfall; 10N – 20N 20W – 10E). Annual estimates downloaded from
 http://jisao.washington.edu/data/sahel/

