Geese on a green wave
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Surfing on a green wave - how plant growth drives spring migration in the Barnacle Goose


Summary

The nutritional quality of forage plants varies in space and time. This variation is presumed to drive the annual migration of herbivore species which follow peaks in the availability of high quality forage between sites. The green-wave hypothesis predicts that during spring migration to northern breeding sites, geese and other herbivorous waterfowl travel along a climatic gradient, taking advantage of the flush of spring growth of forage plants at each stopover site along the gradient.

Here, we explore a basic assumption of the green wave hypothesis which states that there are successive waves of forage availability along the East-Atlantic Flyway from temperate to Arctic sites, as spring advances. We use one of the migration routes of the Barnacle Goose as a model to compare data on food quality and quantity of forage plants with the timing of migration along its migratory corridor. We collected data on forage biomass and quality at three salt-marsh sites along the traditional migration route of the Barnacle Goose: a temperate staging site in the Wadden Sea, a Baltic stopover site and a Russian sub-Arctic breeding site. In all areas forage biomass increased in spring, while the nutritional quality peaked early in the season and declined with increasing biomass. We combined data on forage biomass and nutritional quality as grams of nitrogen per unit area. For all sites, nitrogen in biomass per unit area showed a peak in early spring.

We used observations on goose migration to examine whether the geese utilise these peaks in nutrient biomass, as is predicted by the green wave hypothesis. Our data show that the geese utilise the Wadden Sea staging site and the Baltic stopover site at the moments of peak availability of nitrogen in biomass per unit area. At the Russian breeding site, geese arrive prior to the flush of spring growth of forage plants and profit from the peak in nitrogen when the goslings hatch and adult birds start moulting. We conclude that the spring increase of nitrogen in biomass at the successive sites along the flyway is a key factor driving the timing of the annual northern migration of avian herbivores.
**Chapter 5**

**Introduction**

Although large parts of our world look green, plant tissues are often of poor nutritional-quality and represent unpredictable resources for herbivores. The availability of forage plants and their nutritional quality varies heterogeneously in space and in time (Hartley and Jones 1997), particularly in response to seasonal changes. Herbivores frequently migrate between sites following local peaks in the nutritional quality of forage plants, as exemplified by the annual migration of the Wildebeest, *Connochaetes taurinus*, in the Serengeti in East Africa (McNaughton 1979). Wildebeest migrate in the wet season from the northern woodlands to the southern plains where seasonal rains initiate the growth of green swards, returning after the wet season to the woodlands where overall precipitation is higher (Maddock 1979). Changes in plant phenology account for migratory shifts of herbivores along altitudinal gradients. For example, several species of deer migrate along an altitudinal gradient to gain access to newly emergent, high-quality forage represented by spring growth, e.g. Red Deer, *Cervus elaphus*, (Albon and Langvatn 1992; Mysterud et al. 2001), Roe Deer, *Capreolus capreolus*, (Mysterud 1999), Sika Deer, *Cervus nippon*, (Sakuragi et al. 2003) and Reindeer, *Rangifer tarandus*, (Skogland 1980).

The “green wave hypothesis” was proposed in the late 1970’s (Drent et al. 1978, Owen 1980) to account for the northerly migration of herbivorous waterfowl from temperate latitudes. The green wave hypothesis predicts that avian herbivores travel along a climatic gradient during their spring migration from temperate staging sites to Arctic breeding areas, taking advantage of the successively delayed spring flush of plants at each staging site, hence surfing a wave of forage availability as they move along the migration corridor. Figure 5.1 shows a schematic view of the movements of the Russian breeding Barnacle Geese, *Branta leucopsis*, “riding the crest of the green wave” (Drent et al. 1978), along their traditional flyway.

Barnacle Geese use Dutch and German Wadden Sea salt marshes as spring staging areas. They depart temperate salt marshes around mid-April and move north, making short stop-overs at coastal sites in areas of the Baltic and White Seas, en route to the breeding grounds along the Barents Sea coast in northern Russia (Ganter et al. 1999). Traditionally, breeding sites were restricted to Novaya Zemlya and Vaygach islands, but in recent decades their breeding range has expanded west to the Archangelsk region (Filchagov and Leonovich 1992; Syroechkovsky Jr. 1995; Van der Jeugd et al. 2003), coastal regions of the Baltic Sea (Larsson et al. 1988; Leito 1991) and in the delta region of the south-west Netherlands (Ouweneel 2001). Barnacle Geese are highly selective herbivores, depending on forage of high nutritional quality (Prop and Vulink 1992). Foraging mainly on monocotyledonous plants, their main food source changes from Red Fescue, *Festuca rubra*, on salt marshes of the Wadden Sea and Baltic to Creeping Saltmarsh Grass, *Puccinellia*
phryganodes, and Hoppner’s Sedge, Carex subspathacea, at the Russian stopover and breeding sites. However, in temperate regions the geese also have started to feed in agricultural fields, where they forage mainly on Perennial Ryegrass, Lolium perenne, (Wadden Sea) and Timothy, Phleum pratense, (Baltic Sea). Nomenclature follows Van der Meijden and Weeda (1990). Monocotyledonous plants grow from a basal meristem, enabling sequential harvests within one season. At the start of the growing season, early spring in temperate areas and just after snowmelt for more northern areas, monocot tissues have high protein contents and, therefore, high nutritional quality. When growth continues and biomass increases, tissues become more fibrous, with lower protein contents, hence, nutritional quality decreases (Sedinger and Raveling 1986; Van Soest 1994; Hassal et al. 2001; Bos et al. 2004). Moreover, as the plants continue to grow, the structurally tall swards become increasingly difficult for the geese to graze. Many studies have

Figure 5.1: A schematic overview of the green-wave hypothesis (Drent et al. 1978, Owen 1980), modified for the flyway of the Russian population of Barnacle Geese. Breeding sites are given with dark grey shading. The three study sites are indicated on the map; Schiermonnikoog - a Wadden Sea staging site, Gotland - a Baltic Stopover site and Tobseda - a Russian breeding site.
demonstrated that geese and other small herbivores prefer vegetation of low or intermediate heights (Van de Koppel et al. 1996; Van der Wal et al. 1998; Lang and Black 2001; Durant et al. 2003). There is thus a subtle interplay between forage biomass and nutritional quality, as an increase in biomass results in a decrease in nutritional quality. Several studies have shown that foraging Barnacle Geese maximise nutrient intake, instead of total biomass intake (Teunissen et al. 1985; Durant et al. 2004). We will combine the separate measures of biomass (g dry weight of green leaves m\(^{-2}\)) and nutritional quality (measured as the nitrogen content of leaf tips as a percentage of their dry weight) to provide a measure of the total amount of nitrogen in biomass per unit area (measured as g N m\(^{-2}\)) in this study.

Here, we explore an underlying assumption of the green wave hypothesis, namely the occurrence of sequential “waves” of forage availability along the migratory route. Following the above reasoning that forage decisions in small herbivores are based on a combined parameter of plant quality and biomass, we adjust the hypothesis to predict that there are waves of nutrient-rich biomass along the flyway and that Barnacle Geese adjust their travel itinerary to take advantage of the peaks in nutritional quality. To examine this assumption, we collected vegetation data from three salt-marsh sites along the flyway (Figure 5.1): a spring staging site in the Wadden Sea (the Dutch island of Schiermonnikoog), a Baltic stopover site (the Swedish island of Gotland), and a sub-Arctic breeding site (the Russian Tobseda peninsula on the west coast of the Pechora delta). We determined forage biomass and its nutritional quality at the sites. This data-set enables us to correlate the timing of migration to the production of high-quality forage during the flush of spring growth. First, we will investigate whether this occurs in distinct successive waves at progressively distant points along the spring migration route. Subsequently, we compare temporal patterns in the availability of high-quality forage with the migration pattern of Barnacle Geese as recorded at these sites.

**Methods**

**Study sites**

The study was conducted at three sites constituting spring staging, stopover and breeding areas along the North-Atlantic flyway of the Barnacle Goose during the springs of 2003 and 2004. The first study site are the salt marshes on the island of Schiermonnikoog (Box 1) in the Dutch Wadden Sea (53’30”N, 6’10”E). The island is used as a winter and spring staging site by up to 13,000 Barnacle Geese (Bos and Stahl 2003), some salt marshes are grazed by cattle in summer that maintains a low canopy. The second study site is on the island of Gotland (57’07”N, 18’27”E) in the Swedish Baltic Sea, where, thousands of geese use the narrow bands of salt marshes and adjacent agricultural pastures as a stop-over (Box 2).
The third study site is a breeding site in the Pechora Delta in northern Russia next to the abandoned village of Tobseda (68°35'N, 52°20'E). Geese arrive here in late May and start nest initiation upon arrival. Large moulting flocks gather in this area from mid-July onwards, and all geese leave the area by the end of September. The colony consists of about 1,500 breeding pairs of geese (Van der Jeugd et al. 2003; Chapter 2). Vegetation structure at all three sites is similar; canopy is low, due to summer-grazing by livestock in the Wadden Sea and Baltic Sea sites, whereas canopy remains low at the Russian breeding grounds because of environmental constraints.

**Migration dynamics**

At the Wadden Sea staging site and the Baltic stopover site in 2004 and on the Russian breeding site in 2003, we assessed goose grazing pressure, based on faecal counts. Goose droppings were counted along transects consisting of 5 inconspicuous marked sticks at intervals of 10 m. At the Wadden Sea, Baltic Sea and Russian sites, we established 10, 10 and 7 replicated transects respectively. The transects were randomly placed in areas with suitable vegetation. Every 10 days droppings were counted and removed in a 4 m² area around each stick. Grazing pressure (expressed in droppings m⁻² day⁻¹) for the period between two consecutive dates was then calculated by dividing the number of droppings per square metre by the number of days between the two counts.

Published information on the migratory timetable of birds along the flyway is patchy, and there are not many detailed reports of arrival and departure of our study species at the staging sites. Detailed observations were available on the timing of departure from the Wadden Sea and timing of departure from the Baltic Sea. Departure dates from the Wadden Sea were taken from the Hamburger Hallig, Germany (1988-1997; Stock and Hofeditz 2002) and from Eemshaven, The Netherlands (1999-2002, data Kees Koffijberg –SOVON), data from both sites were combined to represent departure date from the Wadden Sea. Data on peak migration days over southern Finland were obtained from Lintukymi, the annual reports of the Kymenlaakso Birding Society (1990-2004). For both data sets, the date at which 75% of the observed Barnacle Geese had passed over that site (75% of total migration) was used. These data form the basis for Figure 5.2B. Data on peak hatch and nest initiation were obtained from Gotland, Sweden (1985-2004, pers. comm. Henk van der Jeugd and Kjell Larsson) and Tobseda, Russia (2002-2004, pers. comm. Henk van der Jeugd and Götz Eichhorn).
Forage biomass and quality

We collected data on forage biomass and its nutritional quality at the three main study sites, on the Wadden Sea staging site March 6th and April 29th (2003 and 2004), on the Baltic Sea stopover site between April 1st and June 18th (2003 and 2004), and on the Russian breeding site between June 14th and July 22nd (2003). We measured tiller density on ten marked quadrats of 5 cm x 5 cm. To measure biomass, we sampled 50 tillers from either swards of Red Fescue (Wadden Sea staging site, Baltic stopover site) or swards of both Creeping Saltmarsh Grass and Hoppner’s Sedge, that grew together on the Russian breeding site. These tillers were dried at 60°C for 48 hours and weighed. By multiplying the average tiller weight with the average tiller density we obtained a measure of aboveground biomass (in g m⁻²). Samples of leaf-tips of Red Fescue or entire shoots of Creeping Saltmarsh Grass and Hoppner’s Sedge were taken around the same time in order to obtain a measure of nutritional quality. Samples were dried at 60°C for 48 hours and thereafter ground to a fine powder. Ground samples were analysed for nitrogen content, using an automated CHNS-analyser (automated element analysis, Interscience EA 1110, New York, USA). Nitrogen content (as a percentage of dry weight), from here on is referred to as N-content, was used as an indicator of the protein content of the plant material and thus as a measure of plant nutritional quality. Measurements of tiller densities and weight and N-content were taken approximately every ten days.

Counting tillers of Festuca rubra on Gotland in a 5 cm x 5 cm quadrat.
To control for biomass removed by grazing, we set up a number of small exclosures at each site (Wadden Sea staging site \(N=8\) in 2004, Baltic stopover site \(N=10\) in 2004, Russian breeding site \(N=7\) in 2003). The circular exclosures were constructed from chicken wire and bamboo sticks and had a diameter of about 50 cm. In the exclosures as well as on an adjacent grazed control plot, biomass was measured initially and ten days later. The exclosures were then moved to a different spot where the procedure was repeated (4, 5 and 3 repeats on the Wadden Sea, Baltic and Russian sites respectively). At the Baltic stopover site the first exclosure which was set up in early April was measured one month later, in early May. Thereafter, the growth of plants in exclosures was measured approximately every 10 days. Biomass was estimated by counting and collecting tillers as described above. The difference in tiller biomass between the establishment and removal of the exclosures provides an estimate of biomass production. We tested whether there were differences in estimated biomass between control and exclosed plots after 10 days, using a one-way ANOVA with exclosure as fixed factor and date as random factor.

We fitted both linear and quadratic regressions through our data on forage biomass, nutritional quality and nutrient biomass, when both fits were significant we chose the quadratic fit if this had a higher \(R^2\) value (by at least 0.01) than the linear fit. Residuals were tested for a normal distribution. To compare forage biomass and nutritional quality between staging sites, we performed an independent sample \(t\)-test for specified time periods. Nutrient biomass (g N m\(^{-2}\)), was calculated as the product of the regression lines of time with forage biomass (g m\(^{-2}\)) and N-content (%). All data were tested for normal distribution and equality of variances. When data did not match variance criteria, we used a \(t\)-test assuming unequal variances. All analyses were performed using SPSS, version 12.0.1 for Windows.

**Results**

**Migration Dynamics**

At the Wadden Sea staging site, grazing pressure peaked in mid-April. At the same time geese started to arrive at the Baltic stopover site where peak grazing pressure occurred in early May (Figure 5.2A). Grazing pressure at the Baltic stopover site was consistently higher than that at the Wadden Sea staging site which can partly be explained by the smaller total surface area of coastal sites used by the geese in the Baltic area and by the fact that the total flyway population passes through the Baltic area on spring migration (Ganter *et al.* 1999). Grazing pressure at the Russian breeding site remained low during the first weeks after arrival of the geese. Only later in the season, after peak hatch, grazing pressure increased, as the site attracted moulting birds and families from other local breeding islands and shorelines. For our story, however, the trends within each site, i.e. the occurrence of peaks of utilisation by the geese are more interesting than the comparison between sites. Figure 5.2B shows average arrival and departure dates of the geese for the different sites.
**Green wave**

At all study sites, forage biomass increased after the onset of spring growth, while N-content decreased (Figures 5.3 A and B). Biomass increased linearly as spring progressed in all areas. N-content for both the Baltic stopover site and the Russian breeding site showed a quadratic curve with a peak early in the season. For the Wadden Sea staging site, we did not find a peak within the measuring period. Table 5.1 gives the regression models for the plant parameters versus time. All residuals showed a normal distribution. The regression lines on forage biomass and N-content were combined into a measurement of nutrient biomass (g N m$^{-2}$). Figure 5.4 shows that, for each site, this results in a quadratic function with a maximum nutrient biomass within the period the geese utilise the sites.

![Graph](image)

**Figure 5.2:** Timing of goose migration; (A) grazing pressure in the years 2003/2004 expressed as the number of droppings per m$^2$ per day for each area over the staging season (mean ± se) and (B) staging periods as derived from observations (Schiermonnikoog, pers obs. D. Bos and J. Stahl; Gotland, pers obs. HP. van der Jeugd and K. Larsson; Tobseda, pers obs. K. Litvin and R.H. Drent). Horizontal bars on the x-axis mark the time period when the majority of the migrating geese use the site; lines indicate early arrival or late departure.
Table 5.1: Regression parameters of vegetation biomass and nutritional quality over time (Julian day) for three sites along the flyway of the Barnacle Goose; a Wadden Sea staging site, Baltic Stopover site and a Russian breeding site. Equations for the linear and quadratic regressions are respectively, \( Y = a + b \cdot t \) and \( Y = a + b \cdot t + c \cdot t^2 \).

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<th>( P )</th>
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**Figure 5.3:** Forage biomass (g m\(^{-2}\)) (A) and N-content (% of dry weight of above-ground biomass) (B) between day 40 and day 220, at three sites along the flyway of the Barnacle Goose; Schiermonnikoog - a Wadden Sea staging site, Gotland - a Baltic Stopover site and Tobseda - a Russian breeding site. For all regression lines \( P \leq 0.001 \).
On the Wadden Sea staging site and on the Russian breeding site we found no differences between biomass inside the temporary exclosures and that in control plots (Wadden Sea staging site $F_{1,52}=0.484, P=0.450$; Russian breeding site $F_{1,60}=0.596, P=0.443$; in both tests date did have a significant influence on biomass at the level of $P<0.001$). At the Baltic stopover site there were large differences in estimated biomass between grazed and ungrazed plots (exclosure $F_{1,94}=4.257, P=0.042$; date $F_{4,94}=4.035, P=0.005$). These were most pronounced at the start of the season: biomass almost doubled inside the exclosures (ungrazed plot: 30.2 g m$^{-2}$, grazed plot: 18.7 g m$^{-2}$). This high impact of grazing was caused by high densities of staging Arctic Barnacle Geese early in the season. Only for the first interval, at the start of the season, could a significant difference between ungrazed and grazed plots be detected ($F_{1,18}=6.639, P=0.019$). Cumulative biomass was calculated for ungrazed swards at the Baltic stopover site by adding the average biomass production per week to the biomass in this first exclosure. These results are plotted as dotted line in Figure 5.3B.

**Figure 5.4:** Nitrogen content in biomass per unit area (g N m$^{-2}$) as a combined measure of forage biomass (g m$^{-2}$) and N-content (%) at three sites along the flyway of the Barnacle Goose; Schiermonnikoog - a Wadden Sea staging site, Gotland - a Baltic Stopover site and Tobseda - a Russian breeding site. Shaded areas indicate timing of departure from the Wadden Sea (1) and Baltic Sea (2) respectively; dotted vertical lines indicate the average departure date. Arrows indicate peak hatch date at the Baltic Sea (a) and the Russian breeding ground (b) respectively.
Comparisons between sites

Forage biomass and N-content at the Wadden Sea staging site and the Baltic stopover site were compared for the 10-day period from 1 April (day 91) to 12 April (day 100) when most geese arrived in the Baltic (Figure 5.2B), although some birds still remained on their staging sites in the Wadden Sea region. A similar comparison was made for the main stopover period of the geese in the Baltic, from 12 April (day 102) until 15 May (day 135). The tests showed that for both periods, biomass and N-content were higher at the Wadden Sea staging site than at the Baltic stopover site (Table 5.2, comparisons 1 and 2 respectively).

Biomass and N-content at the Baltic stopover site and at the Russian breeding site were compared during the period the geese leave the Baltic (15 May until 3 June, day 154) and arrive on the breeding grounds (27 May until 10 June, day 147-161). The comparison showed that at the Russian breeding site estimated biomass was similar to that at the Baltic stopover site at the time of departure, but that the N-content of the vegetation was higher (Table 5.2, comparison 3). We also compared the estimated forage biomass and the N-content of leaves at peak hatch at the Baltic stopover site (30 May; Loonen et al. 1998) and on the Russian breeding grounds (10 July, day 191, pers. obs. H. van der Jeugd). At the time of peak hatch, plant biomass on the Russian breeding grounds was much higher than that at the Baltic stopover site, but N-content of the vegetation was similar (Table 5.2, comparison 4).

Table 5.2: Mean plant biomass and quality for three study sites at different times in spring (± se) and results of statistical comparison between sites: 1 – arrival Baltic vs. staging in Wadden Sea (1-10 April), 2 – staging Baltic vs. Wadden Sea (12 April – 15 May), 3-leaving Baltic vs. arriving Russia (15 May – 3 June vs. 27 May – 10 June), 4 – peak hatch Baltic vs. peak hatch Russia (30 May vs. 10 July).

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<th>Russian breeding site</th>
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Discussion

A green wave?

This study demonstrates that maximum values of N in biomass occurred in successive waves along the spring flyway of herbivorous waterfowl as they migrated northwards. This may help to explain the timing of spring migration of the birds to Arctic sites. At the three study sites, a quadratic function best described the N-content of the vegetation. At the spring staging site in the Wadden Sea highest values of N per unit of biomass must have been well before measurements started. Estimated biomass increased linearly throughout the spring at all sites. Plant biomass did not reach peak standing crop within the recording period which was based on site-use by the geese. We expect forage biomass to peak later in the season as above-ground tissues mature, or as the plants invest more in reproductive tissue. At each site we found a maximum value of nutrient content of biomass per unit area, g N m⁻², during spring (Figure 5.4). We expect the same holds for other stopover sites along the migration route of the geese; additional important stopover sites between the Baltic stop-over site and the Russian breeding grounds are in Estonia (Leito 1996) and on the coast of the White Sea (Ganter et al. 1999).

Timing of migration and breeding

Geese left their winter and spring staging sites in the Wadden Sea when the nutrient biomass (g N m⁻²) reached a peak (Figures 5.2 and 5.4), with biomass still increasing but N-content (%) decreasing. When the geese arrived at Gotland both the N-content (%) and the amount of biomass (g m⁻²) were lower than at the previous site, and remained at a very low level. At our study site in Gotland, above-ground biomass was heavily grazed by large numbers of staging Barnacle Geese in spring, resulting in an extremely short sward that remained low throughout the period. The comparison of short-term exclosures with adjacent grazed plots demonstrated that high grazing pressure by geese at the beginning of the growing season (see Figure 5.2) prevented biomass accumulation. The dotted line in Figure 5.4 represents the N available in biomass per m² at Gotland, assuming no grazers and it gives an indication of the amount of harvestable forage available to small herbivores at that site. A similar significant impact of staging geese on forage biomass (g m⁻²) and total N available in biomass (g N m⁻²) was not detected either at the Wadden Sea staging site or at the Russian breeding site.

When the geese arrived at the Russian breeding sites above-ground biomass was very low as snow melt had just occurred. Estimates of biomass were comparable with estimates at the Baltic site at the time of departure of the geese; however, the N-content of the forage was high. At the time of peak hatch in this Arctic breeding colony, forage quality remained high and comparable to that at peak hatch at the temperate breeding colonies in Gotland.
However, the biomass available to goslings and moultng adult birds was much higher at the Russian breeding site compared to that in Gotland. Total N in biomass (g N m⁻²), as a result, was much higher on the Russian breeding site after peak hatch than in Gotland. It thus seems that on the last leg of migration the geese jump ahead of the green wave that benefits gosling-rearing later in the season.

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Julia Stahl and Ciska Veen on their way to work at the salt marsh of Grötlingbo-udd
Jan Bakker and students of the Community and conservation Ecology course 2004, studying the vegetation on Grötlingbo-udd (Top) and cattle studying the students during their lunch break (Bottom).