

1 **Slow and Steady: Gradual Drawdown of Private Wetlands Supports Shorebirds During**
2 **Northbound Migration.**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 The Grasslands Ecological Area is the largest contiguous wetland complex in
24 California’s Central Valley and is a stronghold for hundreds of thousands of waterbirds.
25 Primarily managed for waterfowl habitat and forage production, privately-owned seasonal
26 wetlands in the Grassland Ecological Area are typically flooded in fall and dewatered the
27 following spring in February and March. These wetlands support large populations of
28 nonbreeding shorebirds and other waterbirds in winter. When the number of migratory
29 shorebirds using the region peaks in mid-April, most wetlands have already been dewatered. The
30 mismatch in the timing of available habitat and the habitat needs of migrating shorebirds
31 contributes to the observed deficit of shorebird habitat in the Central Valley in spring. Working
32 with private landowners, we developed and tested a wetland management practice designed to
33 increase the amount of shallow water habitat available to shorebirds in April by delaying the
34 drawdown and reducing water levels more slowly (gradual drawdown) relative to the traditional
35 management practice. On average, we found that wetlands managed with gradual drawdown
36 provided over twice as much shorebird habitat, contributing up to 26% of the overall shorebird
37 habitat objective for the Central Valley. Wetlands managed with gradual drawdown supported up
38 to 21 times more migratory shorebirds during peak migration and a greater number of shorebird
39 species than traditionally-managed wetlands. Our results demonstrate the potential of working
40 with private landowners to implement small changes in wetland management that can have a
41 large impact in meeting regional conservation objectives for migratory shorebirds.

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43 **Key words:** Grasslands Ecological Area, managed wetlands, shorebirds, migration, drawdown,
44 spring

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Introduction

Prior to the mid-1800s, the Central Valley of California contained more than 1.6 million ha of wetland habitat (Fruyer et al. 1989). Despite the loss of over 90% of this natural wetland habitat, the Central Valley continues to support millions of migratory waterbirds in the region's managed wetlands and compatible agricultural lands. Each year, nearly five million waterfowl use this area in winter, September through March (Olson 2019) and over 500,000 shorebirds rely on the Central Valley during spring migration from April through May (Shuford et al. 1998).

Over 30 species comprise these half a million shorebirds, including plovers *Charadriidae*, dowitchers and sandpipers *Scolopacidae*, and stilts and avocets *Recurvirostridae* (Shuford et al. 1998). Water depth is an important driver of habitat use for shorebirds; bill and leg length determine the range of water depths used by each species (Elphick and Oring 1998; Isola et al. 2000). Sandpipers are known to select for wetlands with more shallow water and mudflat and less vegetation (Skagen and Knopf 1994; Gillespie and Fontaine 2017). These conditions allow access to invertebrates in the water column and in the soft, bottom substrates by species with the shortest bills and legs (Isola et al. 2000; Taft et al. 2002; Strum et al. 2013). In the Central Valley, resources are available within a landscape matrix dominated by private agricultural lands including corn and rice field that are flooded post-harvest (Stralberg et al. 2011; Dybala et al. 2017).

Migration is energetically taxing and requires access to consistent and reliable resources and habitats. Shorebird abundance and richness are positively associated with the density of nearby wetlands at stopover sites (Albanese and Davis 2015) and in the Central Valley, managed wetlands are one of the most reliable and important sources of flooded habitat (Reiter et al. 2018; Shuford et al. 2019). Because the primary objective of managed wetlands is provisioning waterfowl habitat, most seasonal managed wetlands are flooded beginning in October and drained in February and March (Dybala et al. 2017) before the peak of northbound shorebird migration in mid-April. The dewatering of seasonal wetlands prior to this time reduces the amount of available habitat and related food resources that are available to shorebirds creating habitat shortfall (Dybala et al. 2017; Schaffer-Smith et al. 2017). As a result, the Central Valley Joint Venture, a Congressionally designated consortium of state and federal agencies and conservation non-profits responsible for setting habitat objectives for migratory shorebirds and

88 other waterbirds in the Central Valley, created a habitat objective of an additional 4,692 ha of
89 shorebird habitat on the landscape in spring (mid-March–late April; Dybala et al. 2017).

90 The Grasslands Ecological Area (GEA; Figure 1) contains 38% of the Central Valley’s
91 privately-owned managed wetlands (CVJV 2006). These wetlands provide an opportunity to
92 work with private landowners, in one of the most important wetland habitats in California,
93 toward a common goal of conserving and creating shorebird habitat during a period when it is
94 scarce on the landscape. Together, we developed and implemented a practice to create and
95 extend the availability of shallow water habitat by delaying and slowing the drawdown of water
96 on seasonal wetlands over four to six weeks (gradual drawdown). Our goal was to determine if
97 seasonal wetlands managed with a gradual drawdown would provide more habitat for migratory
98 shorebirds than is usually available and thus contribute to the overall habitat objective for non-
99 breeding shorebirds in the Central Valley. To evaluate our success, we monitored shorebird use
100 of both traditionally-managed wetlands and wetlands implementing gradual drawdown during
101 northbound migration in the springs of 2015–2017. If successful, we hypothesized that wetlands
102 with gradual drawdown would support migratory shorebirds more often (a higher proportion of
103 sites with detections) and in greater abundance than traditionally-managed wetlands during
104 spring migration. We also hypothesized that gradual drawdown wetlands would support a greater
105 diversity of migratory shorebird species during spring migration.

106 Study Site

107 The GEA is located in the San Joaquin River basin of California (37°03’30’’N
108 120°51’00’’W; Figure 1). This area is characterized by a Mediterranean climate with hot, dry
109 summers and mild, wet winters. Precipitation varies from year to year with average annual
110 rainfall of 23 cm, two-thirds of which falls between October and April (WRCC 2018),
111 influencing the amount and quality of habitat on the landscape. The GEA encompasses nearly
112 73,000 ha of managed wetlands, vernal pools, riparian habitat, rangeland, grassland and farmland
113 (Rahilly et al. 2010) including over 21,000 ha of private wetlands and 6,300 ha of public
114 wetlands (CVJV 2006). The GEA is a Wetland of International Importance (Ramsar 2019) and a
115 site of International Importance to shorebirds, supporting at least 100,000 shorebirds annually
116 (WHSRN 1992).

117 Managed wetlands in the GEA are flooded using annual water supplies allocated to the
118 region as part of the Central Valley Project Improvement Act and delivered via a network of

119 canals. Wetlands consist of leveed units in which water levels are managed by means of water
120 control structures at inlets and outlets. Most of the private managed wetlands in the GEA are
121 managed to provide habitat to waterfowl, produce forage for waterfowl and contribute to
122 recreational hunting opportunities in winter and are hereafter referred to as ‘duck clubs’. Water
123 allocations for flooding and irrigating wetlands for these purposes can be restricted in drought
124 years.

125 **Methods**

126 **Wetland management practices**

127 We sought to determine if seasonal wetlands managed with a delayed and gradual
128 drawdown (GD) would provide more habitat for migratory shorebirds in the GEA than
129 traditionally-managed (TM) wetlands. To implement the GD practice, wetland owners
130 participated in a reverse auction similar to Reynolds et al. (2017) where landowners submitted
131 their expected cost to implement this practice as a bid. Bids were selected to maximize the
132 amount of habitat provided at the lowest cost. Each GD wetland unit began fully-flooded on
133 April 1, either through maintenance of winter flooding (most common) or re-flooding after an
134 earlier drawdown event. We then reduced water levels gradually over a four or six week period
135 such that flooded habitat was still available until at least April 29 or May 13, respectively.
136 Landowners monitored water levels on a weekly basis to ensure compliance.

137 To understand how shorebird response to GD wetlands compared to what is typically
138 available on the landscape and help us understand the contribution of an incentivized practice,
139 we also studied TM wetlands adjacent or close to the GD wetlands on the same or adjacent duck
140 club (Table 1). The speed of the drawdown on TM wetlands was more rapid, usually occurring
141 over 1-3 weeks. Habitat conditions of the TM wetlands varied, largely due to the variation in the
142 start of each unit’s drawdown which could have happened anytime from February to April. This
143 variation in timing of drawdown, and thus, available flooded habitat during our study, reflects
144 the broad range of habitat conditions typically provided by seasonal wetlands in the GEA. While
145 variation in physical attributes (e.g. vegetation type and density, topography, etc.) among
146 wetlands in this study existed, there were no other physical differences between the GD and TM
147 wetlands prescribed as part of this study.

148 **Study design**

149 We selected 7 duck clubs in 2015, 10 in 2016 and 9 in 2017 to participate in this study
150 based on their willingness to submit a bid and the cost-effectiveness of that bid. Wetland units
151 implementing gradual drawdown were chosen by the landowners; 12 wetland units implemented
152 gradual drawdown in 2015, 28 in 2016, and 21 in 2017 (Table 1). For each wetland unit (both
153 GD and TM) on the selected duck clubs, we generated random survey points, at least 400 m
154 apart, along the unimproved roads adjacent to the wetland units using ArcMap version 10.2.2
155 (ESRI 2014). From each random point, we defined an area from the edge of each wetland unit,
156 bounded by a 200 m fixed-radius and/or the levees separating units (whichever was closer) as the
157 survey area. Survey areas were limited to a maximum distance of 200 m from the observer to
158 ensure a high probability of detecting birds (Shuford et al. 2019). Many survey areas had poor
159 visibility due to tall emergent wetland vegetation, usually cattails *Typha* spp. and tules
160 *Schoenoplectus acutus*. On our initial visit, we estimated the proportion of the survey area that
161 was visible (area able to be seen and subsequently surveyed for birds). We then retained only
162 those survey areas that had at least 20 percent visibility for inclusion in the remainder of the
163 study. To estimate the area surveyed, we calculated the area (ha) of each survey unit using
164 ArcMap, then multiplied that area by the proportion of the survey area that was visible as
165 estimated during the initial visit (a factor that was unchanged over the course of the study). Some
166 wetland units, in both GD and TM wetlands, had more than one survey area. Within the same
167 wetland unit, and thus within the survey areas themselves, water depth and vegetation structure
168 and abundance varied.

169 From April 1 through mid-May of each year, we conducted surveys of shorebirds in each
170 survey area once per week during daylight hours. We counted all individual shorebirds and
171 identified them to species with the exception of dowitchers *Limnodromus* spp. and in some cases,
172 yellowlegs *Tringa* spp. and calidrine sandpipers *Calidris* spp. All survey areas were scanned for
173 a minimum of two minutes and until all birds present were counted; there was no maximum
174 length of time for completing a survey. Only birds that were using (foraging, roosting, etc.) or
175 landed in the survey area were counted; we did not count birds that flew over the survey area.
176 Counts were not conducted in inclement weather (winds > 40 km/h, fog, or heavy rain). We also
177 estimated the percent of the survey area that was covered in water (flooded) as an indication of
178 shorebird habitat.

179 **Data analysis**

180 This study occurred during and after an extreme drought in California (2012-2016), thus
181 the amount of flooded habitat on the landscape varied from year to year. We characterized the
182 amount of open water on the landscape by including the water year information in our
183 comparisons. In California, the water year is defined as the 12-month period from October 1-
184 September 30. We used California Department of Water Resources' Water Year Index as
185 calculated from the unimpaired runoff (million acre-feet) for the San Joaquin River basin to
186 categorize the water year type of the San Joaquin Valley for the three years of the study (DWR
187 2018). The amount of precipitation recorded in a given water year determines regional water
188 management decisions in the following spring thus influencing the flooded habitat available on
189 the landscape.

190 To understand the habitat made available through the GD practice, during birds surveys
191 we also estimated the percent of each wetland unit that was flooded. The data on percent
192 flooding were not normally distributed and we used bootstrapping and the percentile method to
193 estimate the 95% confidence intervals for the weekly mean shorebird density estimates (Manly
194 2007). Specifically, we used the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the weekly means calculated for each
195 of 10,000 bootstrap iterations (random resample with replacement) to compare the weekly mean
196 percent flooded between GD and TM wetlands in each year of the study. We also calculated the
197 percent of the Central Valley Joint Venture's non-breeding shorebird habitat objective (Dybala et
198 al. 2017) that was met by implementing gradual drawdown as part of this project by dividing the
199 total acres enrolled in the gradual drawdown practice summed over all clubs by the overall
200 habitat objective for spring. This estimate is an upper bound and does not account for variation in
201 water depth or the presence of emergent vegetation, which would reduce the area available to
202 shorebirds. We used R v.3.2.4 (R Core Team 2016) in RStudio (RStudio, Inc. 2009-2018) for all
203 statistical analyses, and specifically the 'boot' package version 1.3-11 for bootstrapping analyses
204 (Canty and Ripley 2017).

205 Our objective to understand how the GD practice can contribute to CVJV habitat
206 objectives for non-breeding migratory shorebirds (Dybala et al. 2017) led us to combine all
207 relevant species for our comparisons between GD and TM wetlands. We pooled the detections
208 for all *Calidris* sandpipers, dowitchers, yellowlegs, *Numenius* spp., spotted sandpiper *Actitis*
209 *macularius*, and plovers (with the exception of killdeer *Charadrius vociferus*), hereafter

210 ‘migratory shorebirds’ (Table 2). Non-migratory shorebirds (primarily stilts, avocets, and
211 killdeer) were present in comparatively low abundances and were excluded from these analyses.

212 To characterize differences in migratory shorebird use between GD and TM wetlands, we
213 compared mean migratory shorebird density (birds/ha) for each week of the study to elucidate
214 changes in abundance over time and separately for each of the three years. The number of survey
215 areas in each wetland unit varied. To reduce autocorrelation from repeated visits to each wetland
216 unit, we pooled all the survey areas for each wetland unit and we performed all analyses at the
217 level of wetland unit. Due to the large number of surveys with zero shorebirds detected (70-76%
218 of surveys each year) and non-normal distribution of bird counts and subsequent bird density
219 estimates, we again used bootstrapping with 10,000 iterations to estimate the 95% confidence
220 intervals for the weekly mean shorebird density estimates. We calculated density estimates
221 independently for each week of each year to assess within- and among-year variation. We
222 considered non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals to provide evidence of a difference in bird
223 use. As another method of assessing the effectiveness of the GD practice that is less influenced
224 by total abundance, we also calculated the percent of individual GD and TM wetland units where
225 we detected at least one migratory shorebird each week of each year. Finally, we compared the
226 mean (\pm SE) species richness of migratory shorebirds between GD and TM wetlands across all 3
227 years combined for each week of the study. Species richness data were normally distributed and
228 followed the same pattern year to year, thus we combined years.

229 **Results**

230 Each of the water years (WY) in this study was categorized differently by the Department
231 of Water Resources; 2015 was “Critically Dry”, 2016 was “Dry”, and 2017 was “Wet”. Over the
232 three years of this study (2015-2017), we monitored a total of 107 survey areas with GD and 73
233 survey areas with TM and completed 1,245 surveys (Table 1, Table S1). The GD practice was
234 implemented on a total of 617 ha in 2015, 1,211 ha in 2016 and 1,163 ha in 2017. These acres
235 represent up to 13%, 26%, and 25% of the CVJV short-term habitat objective for nonbreeding
236 shorebirds in the Central Valley in spring (Dybala et al. 2017), respectively.

237 When we looked at how available shorebird habitat compared between GD and TM
238 wetlands, we found that for the first three weeks of April in all years, GD wetlands had a higher
239 percent of the wetland unit flooded compared to TM wetlands (Figure 2, Table S2). Percent
240 flooded between GD and TM wetlands in the last week of April was similar in 2015, higher in

241 GD wetlands but with overlapping confidence intervals in 2016, and higher in GD wetlands
242 without overlapping confidence intervals in 2017. There was no evidence of a difference in
243 percent flooding of GD and TM wetlands in May in 2015 and 2016, while percent flooding
244 remained higher in GD wetlands during the first week of May in 2017 (Figure 2, Table S2). In
245 2015, four TM wetland units at two duck clubs received irrigations in late April, resulting in an
246 increase in the percent of the wetland unit that was flooded during the last week of April while
247 GD wetlands continued to drawdown over the same timeframe (Figure 2, Table S2). Minor
248 irrigation events were also documented in both 2016 and 2017 on three and two survey areas,
249 respectively; however these events did not increase the mean percent flooding compared to the
250 previous week.

251 We observed a total of 17 shorebird species during this study and counted nearly 42,000
252 individuals. The most abundant species were dunlin *Caldidris alpina*, dowitchers *Limnodromus*
253 spp. and western sandpiper *Calidris mauri*, and the most often encountered species were
254 American avocet *Recurvirostra americana*, killdeer and dunlin (Table 2). Ninety-six percent of
255 shorebirds observed during the study were using GD wetlands. We detected migratory shorebirds
256 on a greater proportion of GD compared to TM wetland units in all weeks of the study in all
257 three years except the last week of May (Figure 2, Table S2). Average species richness across all
258 years was higher in the GD wetlands for the entire survey period except the last week of May
259 (Figure 3, Table S3) and the number of migratory shorebird species detected during any one
260 survey ranged from zero to five.

261 Overall, we found higher migratory shorebird densities on GD wetlands compared to TM
262 wetlands (Figure 2, Table S2). In 2015 and 2017, migratory shorebird density was higher on GD
263 than TM wetlands with no or marginal confidence interval overlap during all weeks of April and
264 the first week of May—the period in which migration was concentrated. We also found the
265 maximum mean shorebird densities were much higher on GD wetlands than TM wetlands in
266 those years (21x higher in 2015; 6x higher in 2017). Results from 2016 were less distinct, when
267 GD wetlands had higher densities only in the first and third week of April, with a maximum
268 mean density of only 2 times that of TM densities (Figure 2, Table S2).

269 Migratory shorebird densities varied by week and the timing of peak shorebird migration
270 varied among years. In all years of the study, the highest mean migratory shorebird densities
271 occurred from the second through the fourth week of April. There was a single peak in shorebird

272 density in 2015 (36.5 birds/ha). In 2016, shorebird densities remained at high levels (> 25
273 birds/ha) for the last two weeks of April. No clear peak was exhibited in 2017, though densities
274 were slightly elevated for the last three weeks of April (Figure 2, Table S2). In all three years of
275 the study, shorebird densities were lowest at the end of the study period—the second and third
276 weeks of May.

277 Discussion

278 In this study, the gradual drawdown of private duck clubs in the GEA provided over twice
279 the amount of shorebird habitat and supported shorebirds densities from 2 to 21 times more than
280 TM wetlands during peak migration, a time of habitat shortfall as identified by the CVJV
281 (Dybala et al. 2017). These benefits were realized by delaying and slowing the rate of drawdown
282 of seasonal wetlands, thus extending the timeframe during which a range of shallow water
283 habitat was available to migrant shorebirds. Our results demonstrate that collaborations with
284 private landowners to implement small changes in spring water management can have potentially
285 large impacts on conservation outcomes.

286 The GD practice contributed up to one quarter of the habitat objectives for nonbreeding
287 shorebirds for the entire Central Valley during spring migration (Dybala et al. 2017). In this
288 highly managed landscape, there are opportunities to scale-up this or similar practices to provide
289 additional habitat where and when it is needed most. This practice can be applied to other
290 flooded land cover types and be managed to provide habitat and resources to shorebirds and
291 other waterbirds, including private and public wetlands, flooded cropland (e.g. Strum et al. 2013;
292 Sesser et al. 2016), floodwater holding basins, or groundwater recharge basins. In addition, this
293 practice or one that creates similar habitat could be implemented during other times of limited
294 habitat such as southbound migration (Golet et al. 2018). Our study only assesses the response of
295 shorebirds to additional shallow-water habitat, however the quality of this habitat is also an
296 important factor. Further research on the available food resources and subsequent benefits to
297 body condition and survival for migratory shorebirds would be greatly informative.

298 We detected just over half (17 species, 56%) of the 30 shorebird species known to
299 migrate regularly through the Central Valley. This is lower than Shuford et al. (1998) who
300 conducted extensive surveys of the entire Central Valley but comparable to studies with a more
301 localized geographic focus such as the recent work in the rice fields of the Sacramento Valley
302 (Strum et al. 2013; Sesser et al. 2016; Golet et al. 2018) and other studies conducted in the GEA

303 (Rahilly et al. 2010; Taft et al. 2002). Of those 17 species, most were detected on both GD and
304 TM wetlands but mean species richness was higher on GD wetlands for all but the last week of
305 the study. During peak migration, the four weeks in April, mean species richness on GD
306 wetlands was 2.1 to 3.6 times greater than TM wetlands.

307 Patterns in migratory shorebird density were largely driven by sandpipers and dowitchers.
308 which comprised 78% of all migratory shorebirds counted in this study. *Calidris* spp. sandpipers
309 are small and numerous and comprised the largest proportion of northbound migrants in other
310 studies conducted in the Central Valley (Shuford et al. 1998; Sesser et al. 2016; Golet et al.
311 2018). Despite their apparent abundance in this study, western sandpipers, dunlin, and long-
312 billed dowitchers are species of moderate conservation concern due to climate change (USSCP
313 2016). An additional five of the 13 migratory species in this study are of highest conservation
314 concern (USSCP 2016), reinforcing the importance of providing habitat for shorebirds during
315 migration.

316 Shorebirds are highly mobile species and tend to aggregate in flocks. Thus, means used to
317 compare practices were affected by high variation in flock size. This, coupled with our modest
318 sample sizes, led us to employ bootstrapping methods to estimate variance as used in other
319 studies with similar data structure (Strum et al. 2013; Sesser et al. 2018). The differences in the
320 mean and variance detected between GD and TM wetlands in multiple years ranging from
321 critically dry to wet provides evidence that gradual drawdown is an effective approach to provide
322 shorebird habitat for northbound migrants. The higher density of shorebirds using GD wetlands
323 as seen in this study also reflects a pattern seen in other studies conducted in the GEA (Taft et al.
324 2002; Rahilly et al. 2010). Even when shorebird densities overlapped, such as in the second week
325 of April in 2016 when one flock of over 1,000 shorebirds was detected in a TM wetland,
326 shorebirds were detected on GD wetlands more often than TM wetlands.

327 Peak shorebird density varied within and among years similar to Taft et al. (2002) likely
328 owing to the highly transient nature of migratory shorebirds. Peak mean density of shorebirds in
329 2017, a wet year, was 67% lower than the previous two years, which were dry and critically dry
330 water years. We suspect that the greater amount of precipitation created additional flooded
331 habitat on the landscape and migratory shorebirds were more dispersed as they exploited the
332 additional available resources. We recommend that future studies examining wetland
333 management also take into account the extent of open water on the surrounding landscape to

334 provide greater context (Reiter et al. 2018; Golet et al. 2018). Despite the potential for rainfall to
335 create additional habitat in TM wetlands in 2017, GD wetlands still supported 11 times more
336 shorebirds during peak migration that year compared to TM wetlands.

337 Despite significant benefits for shorebirds, there are potential tradeoffs that should be
338 considered when implementing this practice. Rahilly et al. (2010) highlighted the reduced
339 production of swamp timothy *Crypsis schoenoides*, an important waterfowl food, in wetland
340 units with a similar practice implemented. We did not quantify seed production, however,
341 wetland managers and owners in this study did not observe reduced waterfowl use of wetland
342 units following implementation of GD and were willing to continue implementation of the
343 practice. To ensure the health of wetland units and continued forage production, we recommend
344 rotating GD units every two to three years to ensure salt accumulation remains low and
345 implementing GD on units where other waterfowl food crops are being grown that are more
346 compatible with a later drawdown (e.g. watergrass *Echinochloa crusgalli*). Depending on the
347 time of year and the distance to population center when implementing this or similar practice, it
348 may be necessary to coordinate with local mosquito and vector control districts to ensure no risk
349 to human health and safety from the creation of this habitat. Further, the creation of this habitat
350 coincides with the onset of nesting for local migrants and resident species like American avocet
351 and black-necked stilt that prefer to nest near shallowly flooded areas. As water levels draw
352 down, nests can become more susceptible to depredation by terrestrial predators and continued
353 surveillance and study of the impacts to breeding shorebirds is recommended.

354 Private and working lands are an important part of bird and wildlife habitat in the Central
355 Valley of California. While permanently protected wetland refuges provide important habitat,
356 migrants are also reliant on the availability of flooded habitat on agricultural land and privately
357 managed wetlands (Reynolds et al. 2017) such as those in this study. Incentive programs
358 supporting landowners to flood agricultural land provide a significant proportion, sometimes up
359 to 100%, of the available flooded habitat in the Central Valley (Reiter et al. 2018). This, along
360 with the success of our work on private wetlands highlights the importance of working with
361 private landowners to enhance their habitat for birds and other wildlife. Our results demonstrate
362 how this type of collaboration can benefit migratory shorebirds navigating a landscape impacted
363 by drought and water uncertainty.

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Supplemental Material

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Table S1. Data collected during shorebird surveys of duck clubs in the Grasslands Ecological Area, California from April to May 2015–2017.

Table S2: Mean weekly migratory shorebird density and bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals in gradual drawdown and traditionally-managed seasonal wetlands from surveys conducted in the Grasslands Ecological Area, California from April to May, 2015–2017.

Table S3: Mean weekly migratory shorebird species richness across all years in gradual drawdown and traditionally-managed seasonal wetlands from surveys conducted in the Grasslands Ecological Area, California from April to May, 2015–2017.

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460 Table 1. Total number of wetland units, total number (and area [ha]) of survey areas monitored,
 461 and dates for weekly surveys conducted on duck clubs in the Grasslands Ecological Area,
 462 California during northbound shorebird migration 2015–2017.

Year	2015	2016	2017
Wetland units	28	43	45
<i>Gradual Drawdown</i>	12	24	21
<i>Traditionally-managed</i>	16	19	24
Survey Areas	51 (327)	62 (282)	67 (516)
<i>Gradual Drawdown</i>	31 (197)	37 (182)	39 (295)
<i>Traditionally-managed</i>	20 (130)	25 (100)	28 (221)
Dates	4/6–5/20	4/4–5/17	4/3–5/16

463 Table 2. Frequency of occurrence (percent of surveys species was detected), total abundance, and percent of total abundance for 17
 464 species of shorebirds recorded in gradual drawdown and traditionally-managed wetlands as detected on surveys conducted in the
 465 Grasslands Ecological Area, California during northbound shorebird migration 2015–2017. * indicates the species was considered a
 466 migratory shorebird for the purposes of statistical analysis.

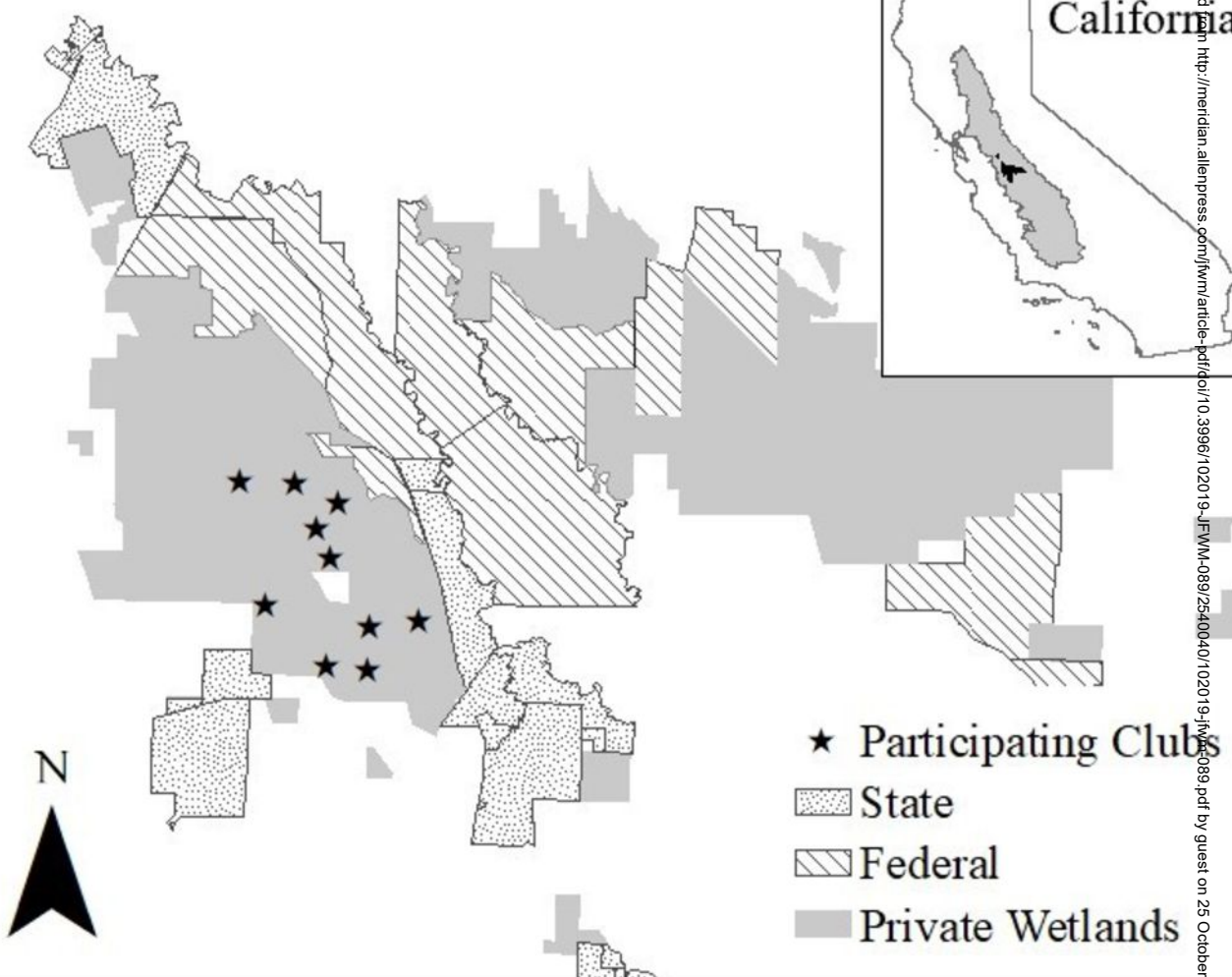
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Species	Scientific Name	<i>Gradual Drawdown</i>			<i>Traditional Drawdown</i>		
		Freq. of Occ.	Total Abun	% Total	Freq. of Occ.	Total Abun	% Total
Charadriidae							
Black-bellied plover *	<i>Pluvialis squatarola</i>	0.9	149	0.3	0.0	0	0.0
Killdeer	<i>Charadrius vociferus</i>	15.2	212	0.5	13.2	94	0.2
Semipalmated plover *	<i>Charadrius semipalmatus</i>	4.5	173	0.4	0.9	44	0.1
Snowy plover *	<i>Charadrius nivosus</i>	0.4	5	<0.1	0.0	0	0.0
Recurvirostridae							
Black-necked stilt	<i>Himantopus mexicanus</i>	11.7	868	2.0	2.2	39	0.1
American avocet	<i>Recurvirostra americana</i>	24.7	919	2.1	8.6	76	0.2
Scolopacidae							
Whimbrel *	<i>Numenius phaeopus</i>	1.2	46	0.1	0.9	14	<0.1
Long-billed curlew *	<i>Numenius americanus</i>	2.3	252	0.6	0.6	18	<0.1
Dunlin *	<i>Calidris alpina</i>	12.0	14,069	32.2	1.9	903	1.2
Least sandpiper *	<i>Calidris minutilla</i>	10.5	2,137	4.9	2.2	182	0.4
Pectoral sandpiper *	<i>Calidris melanotos</i>	0.1	1	<0.1	0.0	0	0.0
Western sandpiper *	<i>Calidris mauri</i>	5.0	2,335	5.4	0.9	129	0.1
Western/Least/Dunlin *	<i>Calidris spp.</i>	8.5	14,007	32.1	3.0	1,230	1.5
Short-billed/Long-billed dowitcher *	<i>Limnodromus griseus/ scolopaceus</i>	9.0	6,528	15.0	0.2	243	0.1
Wilson's snipe	<i>Gallinago delicata</i>	0.9	20	<0.1	0.9	7	<0.1
Spotted sandpiper *	<i>Actitis macularius</i>	0.0	0	0.0	0.2	1	<0.1
Lesser yellowlegs *	<i>Tringa flavipes</i>	0.7	7	<0.1	0.2	1	<0.1
Greater yellowlegs *	<i>Tringa melanoleuca</i>	9.9	125	0.3	8.4	48	0.1

468 Figure 1. The northern portion of the Grasslands Ecological Area, California showing the general
469 locations of shorebird surveys conducted on private duck clubs during northbound shorebird
470 migration 2015–2017.

471
472 Figure 2. Mean and 95% confidence intervals (whiskers) for migratory shorebird density (top),
473 percent of wetland units with 1 or more shorebird(s) detected (middle), and mean and 95%
474 confidence intervals for percent of surveyed wetland unit flooded (bottom) in gradual drawdown
475 (black line) and traditionally-managed (grey line) wetlands from surveys conducted on duck
476 clubs in the Grasslands Ecological Area, California during northbound shorebird migration
477 2015–2017, including water year designation. Weeks 1 through 4 correspond to the four weeks
478 of April and weeks 5 through 7 correspond to the first three weeks of May.

479
480 Figure 3: Mean species richness (+/- SE) of migratory shorebirds in gradual drawdown (black)
481 and traditionally-managed (grey) seasonal wetlands from surveys conducted on duck clubs in the
482 Grasslands Ecological Area, California during northbound shorebird migration 2015–2017.
483 Weeks 1 through 4 correspond to the four weeks of April and weeks 5 through 7 correspond to
484 the first three weeks of May.

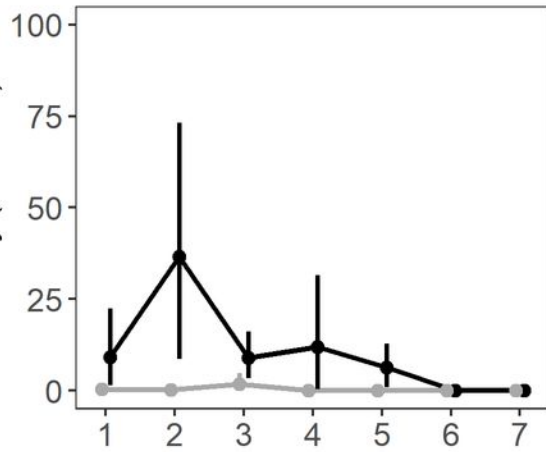


California

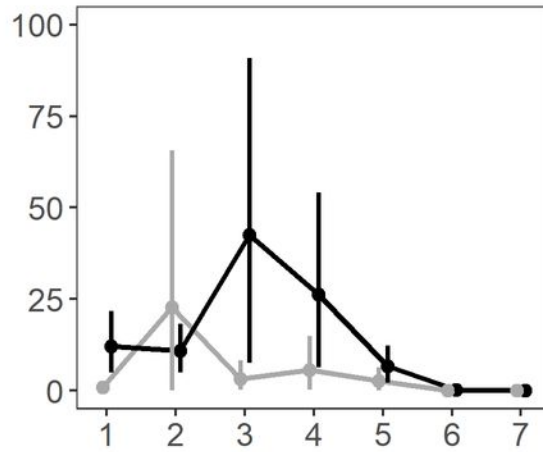
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- ★ Participating Clubs
- State
- Federal
- Private Wetlands

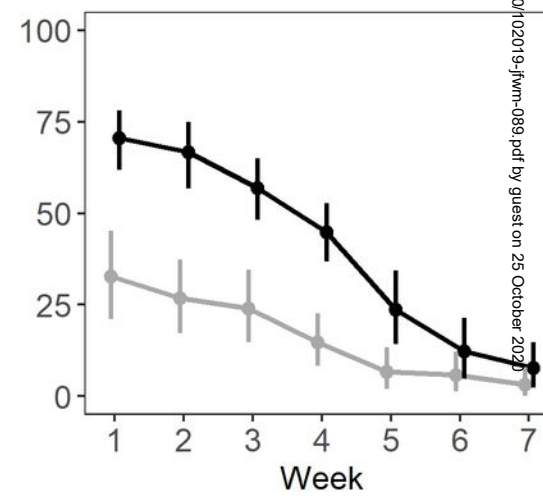
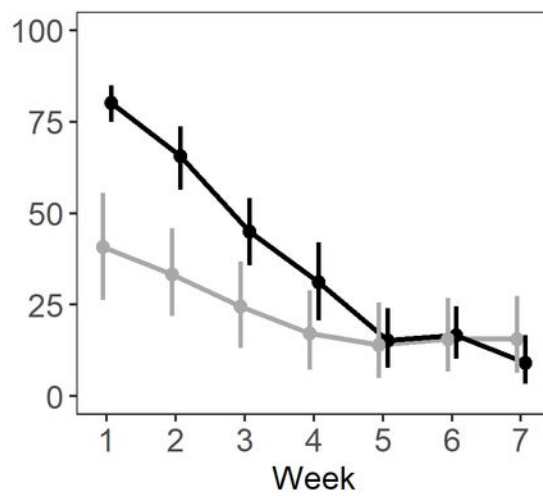
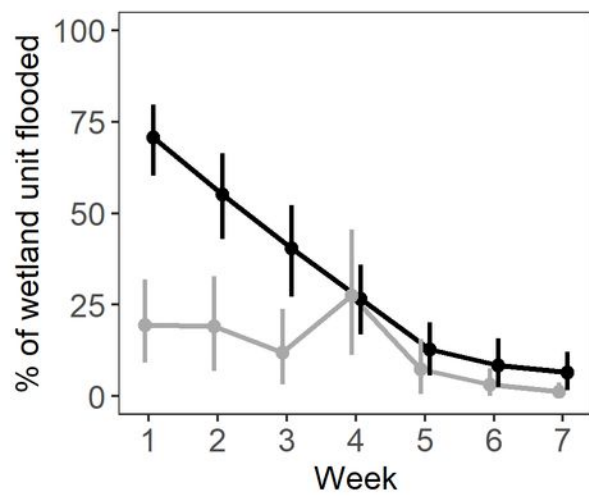
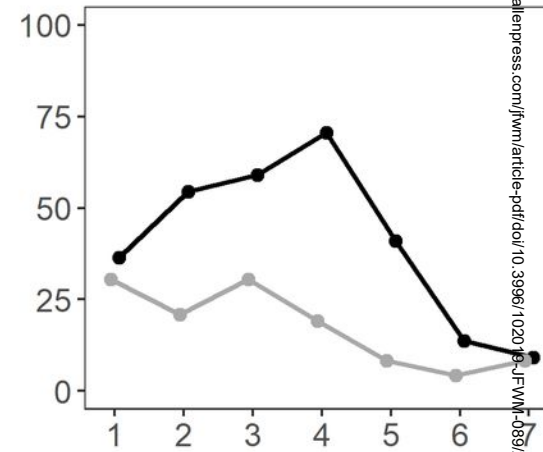
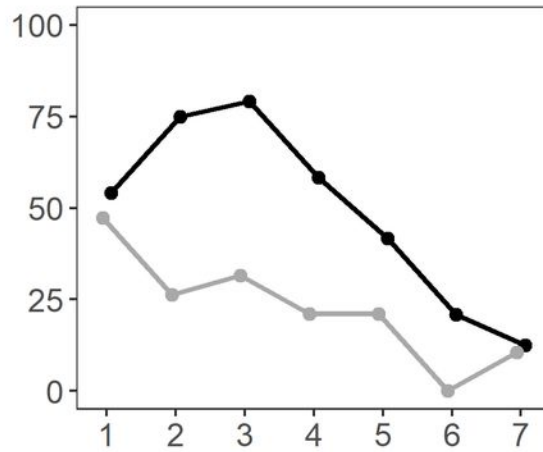
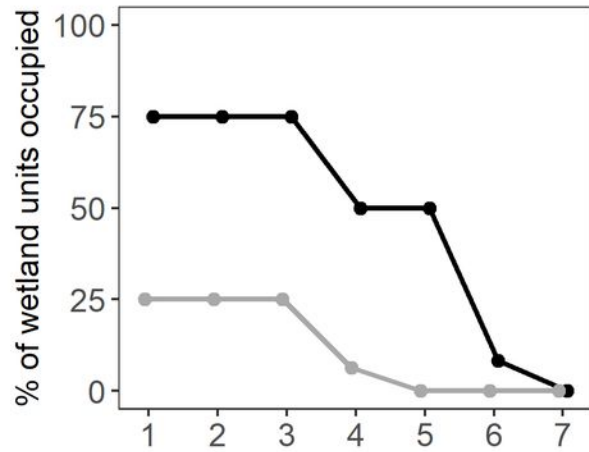
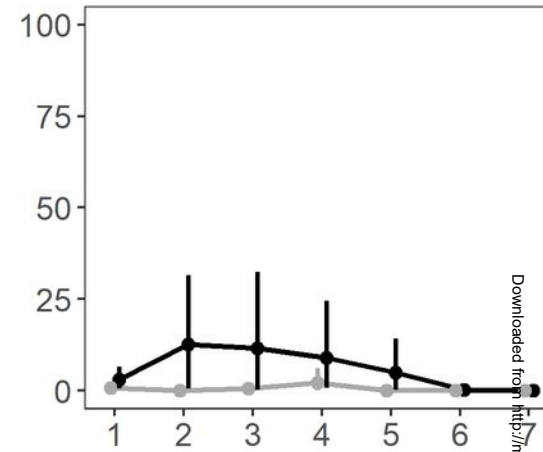
2015 CRITICALLY DRY



2016 DRY



2017 WET

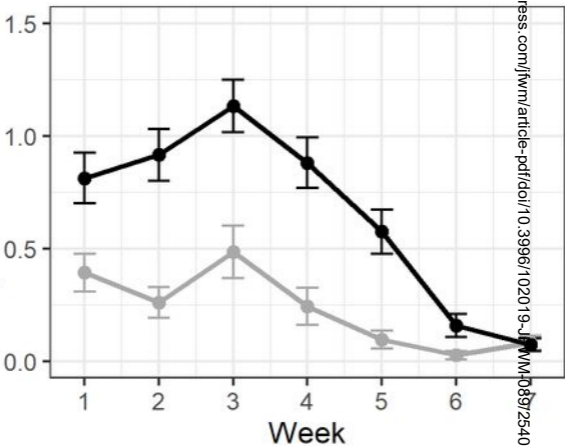


Drawdown

Gradual

Traditional

Species richness



Drawdown ● Gradual ● Traditional

Table 1. Number of wetland units surveyed (no.), total number and area (ha) of survey areas monitored, and dates when weekly surveys were conducted for each year of the study in the Grasslands Ecological Area, California 2015–2017.

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