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1 Green and hawksbill turtles in the Lesser Antilles demonstrate behavioural plasticity in inter-nesting
2 behaviour and post-nesting migration

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15 **Abstract**

16 Satellite transmitters were deployed on three green turtles, *Chelonia mydas*, and two hawksbill turtles,
17 *Eretmochelys imbricata*, nesting in the Lesser Antilles islands, Caribbean, between 2005-2007 to
18 obtain preliminary information about the inter-nesting, migratory and foraging habitats in the region.
19 Despite the extremely small dataset, both year-round residents and migrants were identified;
20 specifically (1) two green turtles used local shallow coastal sites within 50 km of the nesting beach
21 during all of their inter-nesting periods and then settled at these sites on completion of their breeding
22 seasons, (2) one hawksbill turtle travelled 200 km westward before reversing direction and settling
23 within 50 km of the original nesting beach and (3) one green and one hawksbill turtle initially nested at
24 the proximate site, before permanently relocating to an alternative nesting site over 190 km distant. A
25 lack of nesting beach fidelity was supported by flipper tag datasets for the region. Tagging datasets
26 from 2002-2012 supported that some green and hawksbill individuals exhibit low fidelity to nesting
27 beaches, whereas other females exhibited a high degree of fidelity (26 turtles tagged, 40.0km
28 maximum distance recorded from original nesting beach). Individual turtles nesting on St Eustatius

29 and St Maarten appear to exhibit behavioural plasticity in their inter-nesting behaviour and post-
30 nesting migration routes in the Eastern Caribbean. The tracking and tagging data combined indicate
31 that some of the green and hawksbill females that nest in the Lesser Antilles Islands are year-round
32 residents, while others may nest and forage at alternative sites. Thus, continued year-round
33 protection of these islands and implementation of protection programmes in nearby islands could
34 contribute towards safeguarding the green and hawksbill populations of the region.

35 **Introduction**

36 Top pelagic predators such as tuna, sharks, sea turtles and cetaceans are widely dispersed across
37 expansive ranges and therefore documenting behaviour in the open ocean presents considerable
38 difficulties (Block 2005). The consequent incomplete baseline data on population status, spatial
39 patterns and habitat use and the need for international coordination of conservation actions are
40 amongst the challenges faced in promoting the protection and recovery of endangered, migratory
41 marine species (Piniak and Eckert 2011). Satellite tracking technology allows remote tracking of
42 migratory movements of these top pelagic predators and there is now a sizeable literature
43 documenting advances in biotelemetry of various animal species with extensive ranges, with results
44 enabling informed management decisions by fisheries and Marine Protected Area (MPA) managers
45 worldwide (Hays et al. 2014a; Nielsen et al. 2009). Furthermore, biotelemetry has been increasingly
46 used to improve our knowledge of spatial use and migratory pathways between breeding and foraging
47 sites (e.g. Pendoley et al. 2014; Schofield et al. 2013).

48 In recent decades, satellite tracking technology has been proven the most suitable method for
49 tracking the open-sea migratory journey of sea turtles (Papi et al. 2000) and has been fundamental in
50 verifying inter-nesting patterns and migration routes of turtle populations from nesting beaches to
51 foraging grounds (Broderick et al. 2007; Georges et al. 2007; Hawkes et al. 2011, Hays et al. 2014b).
52 The high cost of satellite technology and lack of funding for tracking units has led to small sample
53 sizes (e.g. Cuevas et al. 2008, Horrocks et al. 2008) and, by 2007, over 130 studies published whilst
54 at least 200 studies have not yet been published in the peer-reviewed literature (Godley et al. 2007).
55 However, various studies have demonstrated that it is possible to enhance small sample sizes from
56 satellite tracking by integration of different technologies (i.e. stranding, capture-recapture, genetics,
57 stable isotopes, modelling): by using datasets available from long term flipper tag programmes (e.g.

58 Troëng et al. 2005) or integrating satellite telemetry with remotely sensed ocean data (Seminoff et al.
59 2008). For instance, a recent study demonstrated that satellite tracking of 75 turtles produced similar
60 information about migratory distributions to tag-returns published for the Mediterranean (Schofield et
61 al. 2013).

62 Nesting site fidelity, ie. the propensity of individual adult female turtles to make repeated nesting
63 emergences within a restricted geographic range, has been widely documented in the literature, and
64 an early example found high nesting site fidelity amongst green turtles, *Chelonia mydas*, in Ascension
65 Island (Mortimer and Portier 1989). Information on fidelity during inter-nesting movements has long
66 been derived from tag-recapture studies (e.g. Limpus et al. 1992). More recently, satellite telemetry
67 studies confirmed nesting site fidelity by green turtles, *Chelonia mydas* (Broderick et al. 2007, Whiting
68 et al. 2008), hawksbill turtles, *Eretmochelys imbricata* (Parker et al. 2009; Walcott et al. 2012),
69 leatherback turtles, *Dermochelys coriacea* (Byrne et al. 2009, Eckert et al. 2006) and loggerhead
70 turtles, *Caretta caretta* (Broderick et al. 2007; Marcovaldi et al. 2010; Tucker 2010).

71 The current study focussed on two turtle species that both nest, and are year-round resident, on St
72 Eustatius and St Maarten in the Dutch Caribbean Lesser Antilles (Debrot et al. 2005): the endangered
73 green turtle (as assessed by Seminoff 2004) and critically endangered hawksbill turtle (as assessed
74 by Mortimer and Donnelly 2008), with nesting by the latter species considered rare on these islands
75 (Meylan 1999). On St Eustatius, flipper tagging of green and hawksbill turtles was conducted from
76 2002 during the main nesting season from early-July to late-September. No flipper tagging took place
77 on St Maarten during the same period. Recapture of tagged individuals in this region has provided
78 limited information on the turtles' migratory abilities, restricted to the date and location of the original
79 tagging event and any subsequent recapture. Satellite telemetry allows us to address the question of
80 inter-nesting area use and nesting site fidelity in more detail.

81 The aim of our study was to assess inter-nesting area use and nesting site fidelity in the Lesser
82 Antilles. Based on our satellite tracking data for three green and two hawksbill turtles nesting on St
83 Eustatius and St Maarten, combined with the flipper tagging dataset, we suggest strategies for (1)
84 inter-nesting area use, (2) fidelity to nesting beaches and (3) migration strategies by adult female
85 green and hawksbill turtles in the Lesser Antilles.

86 **Methods**

87 Study area and target species

88 The islands of St Eustatius (17.48°N, 62.97°W) and St Maarten (18.07°N, 63.05°W) are part of the
89 Dutch Caribbean, which also includes the islands of Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao and Saba. The islands
90 are located in the Lesser Antilles in the North-eastern Caribbean (Figure 1), with land areas of just 21
91 km² and 52 km², respectively. Leatherback, green and hawksbill turtles nest on both islands. The
92 study animals were female green and hawksbill turtles that emerged to nest in St Eustatius and in St
93 Maarten.

94 The present study was conducted primarily in St Eustatius where a monitoring programme of nesting
95 turtles by Statia National Marine Park has been in operation since 2002. Year-round, early morning
96 surveys (0600-0800 hr) of the index beach took place according to a standard internationally
97 recognised protocol for nesting beaches (Eckert et al. 1999). Any indication of turtle activity (i.e.
98 tracks, sand disturbed in a way that is characteristic of nesting) was documented and the presence of
99 eggs confirmed through careful digging by hand. Nightly beach patrols were conducted on Zeelandia
100 Beach (1.0 km) and, when tidal conditions permitted, Turtle Beach (0.6 km). Hourly patrols were
101 conducted by a minimum of two people between 2100-0400 hr. The primary objective of the beach
102 patrols was to encounter as many nesting turtles as possible; to tag them with flipper tags, collect
103 standard carapace measurements (curved carapace length notch to tip (CCL_{n-t}) and curved carapace
104 width (CCW), mark the location of the nest for inclusion in a nest survivorship and hatching success
105 study and relocate any nests laid in designated erosion zones. Tagging protocols detailed in Eckert
106 and Beggs (2006) were used: all turtles were initially checked for tags and, if present, the numbers
107 were recorded, as was the date, time and location. If no tags were present, the turtle was tagged with
108 Inconel #681 metal flipper tags (<http://www.nationalband.com>). Tags were applied adjacent to the first
109 large scale on the proximal part of the front flipper, where the swimming stroke will cause minimal tag
110 movement (Balazs 1999). Tags were attached while the turtle was covering its nest immediately after
111 laying eggs; so that the turtle was not disturbed prior to laying. Two metal tags were attached to each
112 turtle; this was to ensure that even if one tag was lost the individual could still be recognised. Details
113 of number, date, time and location of application of the tags were then recorded during patrols.

114 Satellite tag deployment

115 Nest monitoring results show that green and hawksbill turtles nest at St Eustatius during the months
116 of April to November with a seasonal peak in nesting in September (STENAPA unpubl data). Satellite
117 transmitters were deployed towards the end of the seasonal peak to increase the probability of
118 encountering females at the end of their nesting season, and thus being able to track complete post-
119 nesting migrations. Immediately after egg laying (or attempted egg laying) and once turtles were
120 returning to the water, they were intercepted on the nesting beach and detained in a plywood box for
121 transmitter attachment. Prior to attachment of the transmitter, the turtle carapace was thoroughly
122 cleaned, which included removal of interfering external commensals such as barnacles. Transmitters
123 of model ST-20 A-1010 (size, 12 x 6 x 3 cm; weight in air 280 g) (Telonics Inc,
124 <http://www.telonics.com>) were applied to the highest point on the carapace using the silicone
125 elastomer and fibreglass method of Balazs et al. (1996), modified by reinforcing the antenna base
126 with a roll of fibreglass cloth placed on top of the transmitter immediately anterior to the antenna, as
127 well as by placing hydrodynamically shaped filler material along the frontal area of the transmitter to
128 streamline the package. Turtles were held for 1 to 2 h after attaching the transmitters to allow
129 adhesives to set, then released at the location of capture.

130 Between September 2005 and September 2007, four female turtles (three green and one hawksbill)
131 were fitted with satellite transmitters on Zeelandia Beach, St Eustatius. Additionally, one hawksbill
132 was intercepted and equipped with a satellite transmitter on Guana Bay Beach, St Maarten. The
133 attachment of all devices was conducted with permission from the Statia National Marine Park and St
134 Maarten Marine Park.

135 Data analysis

136 The transmission durations from the two turtles tracked in 2005 lasted for much less time than
137 expected according to the specifications of the transmitters (55 d and 69 d, pre-processed data) and
138 remaining transmitters deployed in 2006 and 2007 were reprogrammed to improve the battery
139 longevity and hence increase the amount of time that the transmitters would be able to send signals.
140 Transmission durations from the three turtles tracked in 2006 and 2007 increased as a result of the
141 re-programming (261 d, 146 d, 142 d, pre-processed data).

142 After attachment of satellite transmitters, locations were received from Service Argos and the online
143 Satellite Tracking and Analysis Tool (STAT) (Coyne and Godley 2005) was used for managing the

144 data. One copy of locations that had been uploaded twice was subsequently removed (Turtle B, $n =$
145 8). Studies by Argos (2013) and Hays et al. (2001) have shown that Argos location classes (LC) 3, 2,
146 1 and A are the most reliable, thus data in LC 0 and B ($n = 1608$) were removed prior to the plotting of
147 tracks. Locations ($n = 134$) were filtered to exclude biologically unreasonable results for travel speed
148 ($>5\text{kmh}^{-1}$ (Luschi et al. 1998, 2001; Seminoff et al. 2008)). Data were further filtered ($n = 533$) to
149 select the best location received on that day (defined as highest quality location class received that
150 day; where two or more high-quality locations were received, we only used the first received that day).
151 Filtering of the Argos-transmitted data resulted in the removal of 2283 locations in total (from $n =$
152 2479). A small number of locations ($n = 14$) were removed because they were visibly erroneous i.e.
153 they were on land. As the turtles were not travelling in straight lines on post-nesting migrations, but
154 rather were expected to be moving in complex ways in coastal waters, we did not use a turning angle
155 filter.

156 For each turtle, total distance covered was computed by adding the distances between successive
157 valid fixes. The straightness index was calculated as the ratio between the beeline distance from
158 nesting beach to the last fix of a turtle's route and the total length of the route (Batschelet 1981).
159 Evidence for subsequent nesting events on a different beach that was not patrolled was implied by
160 locations close to potential nesting beaches corresponding with the expected inter-nesting interval for
161 the species (12-16 d) (Hays et al. 2002).

162 Along with direct observation, when turtles were encountered nesting by a patrol in some cases, we
163 used tracking data to infer whether turtles re-nested after satellite transmitter attachment and further
164 categorise tracks as either inter-nesting or post-nesting tracks. Foraging sites were identified by
165 visual assessment of mapped data and by individuals slowing down and remaining in fixed areas for
166 extended periods of time of at least 3 weeks or until transmissions ceased (21-217 d).

167 **Results**

168 During patrols conducted between 2002 and 2012, 23 green turtles and three hawksbill turtles were
169 flipper tagged when encountered while nesting on the index beach of Zeelandia Beach, St Eustatius.
170 There were turtles nesting during this period that were not tagged due to logistical reasons. Reports
171 from the morning track surveys for this 11 year period record the number of nests (probable and

172 confirmed) as 255 (greens) and 104 (hawksbills) out of a total of 468 green- and 152 hawksbill
173 nesting activities (JB, EH, AH, NE, STENAPA unpubl data). It is difficult to calculate an Estimated
174 Clutch Frequency (ECF) and rookery population based on these low numbers of tagged turtles. Using
175 calculated ECF from other Caribbean rookeries (greens = 3.0 in Florida (Johnson and Ehrhart 1996);
176 hawksbills = 4.1 in Barbados (Beggs et al. 2007)), these results suggest a rookery population of 8
177 green turtles and two hawksbill turtles. This rookery size estimate is based on the assumption that
178 nest counts are accurate as it is logistically challenging to dig up and verify that eggs have been laid
179 for each track recorded as a nest. Hence, this crucial assumption has not been tested. These data are
180 partially supported by a published record for turtles nesting in the Dutch Caribbean for the years
181 2002-4 (Debrot et al. 2005) and it was estimated that the number of flipper tagged turtles during 2002-
182 2012 represented 26% and 14% of the green and hawksbill rookery populations respectively
183 (STENAPA unpub data).

184 The five tracked turtles travelled from the nesting areas of St Eustatius and St Maarten to residence
185 sites between 16 and 607 km straight-line distance away within three broad geographical areas in the
186 Eastern and Central Caribbean (Figures 2 and 3). Tracking durations ranged from 31 to 237 d (mean
187 \pm SD = 120 ± 85 d, $n = 5$). A minimum duration of three weeks of tracking was considered sufficient to
188 confirm that a turtle was resident and remaining in a fixed area. The mean number of Argos-relayed
189 locations from these turtles was 0.40 d^{-1} (SD ± 0.19 , range 0.09-0.61, $n = 5$). The size (CCL_{n-i}) of the
190 five study animals was 113.5 cm, 112.0 cm, 106.0 cm (greens) and 85.5 cm, 82.0 cm (hawksbills).

191 **Inter-nesting behaviour**

192 *Green turtles*

193 Two turtles were observed nesting prior to satellite tag attachment (Turtle A on four occasions, Turtle
194 C on one occasion). Subsequent to release, Turtle A was observed nesting on Zeelandia Beach 11 d
195 after the previous observed nesting event. After attachment of the satellite transmitter, Turtle C
196 remained in foraging grounds close to the coast of St Eustatius and headed to shallow waters of St
197 Kitts (straight line distance 21.8 km). Positions close to a sandy beach indicated that it might nest but
198 then showed a return to the primary nesting beach on St Eustatius and Turtle C was again observed
199 returning to the sea from a false crawl, 11 d after nesting on Zeelandia (Table 2).

200 Prior to satellite transmitter attachment, one of the green turtles (E) had attempted to nest but was
201 unsuccessful; and was intercepted on the way back to the sea. Turtle E then remained offshore
202 around St Eustatius and satellite transmissions indicate a probable nesting event three nights later on
203 Zeelandia Beach. Table 2 shows an observed inter-nesting interval (INI) of 11-12 d (Turtles A, C) for
204 green turtles. Tag sighting records from 2002-2012 (JB, EH, AH, NE, STENAPA unpubl data) confirm
205 that the green turtle individuals in the study exhibited typical INI for females of this species nesting on
206 St Eustatius, varying from 9-13 d, supporting results from the satellite tracking (Turtles A, C). For
207 example, the INI recorded for five clutches laid by Turtles A and E immediately prior to satellite tag
208 attachment was INI = 11 and INI = 10-13, respectively. Tag sighting records from, St Kitts confirmed a
209 green turtle tagged on St Eustatius nesting on North Friar's Bay beach, 40.0 km to the southeast
210 (Stewart pers comm).

211 *Hawksbill turtles*

212 No inter-nesting behaviour was observed for Turtle B. Satellite tracking data from Turtle D indicate
213 two probable nesting activities (Table 2). After satellite transmitter attachment, Turtle D immediately
214 left St Eustatius, swimming north to St Barthélemy (straight line distance from release site of 48.7 km)
215 and on to Scrub Island, North East of Anguilla (straight line distance from release site of 89.1 km)
216 where Turtle D remained for several days, probably nested and then moved westwards towards
217 deeper waters, changing southwards to St Croix, USVI, the site of another probable nest, a straight
218 line distance of 203.2 km from the release site. Table 2 shows an inferred 16-17 d INI for this
219 individual (Turtle D).

220 **Migration and residence**

221 *Green turtles*

222 Westward migration was shown by one turtle (E, Figure 2). Turtle E nested in St Eustatius in 2002,
223 2005, 2007, 2010 and 2012 indicative of a remigrant with regular migration patterns of 2-3 years.
224 Immediately after the probable nesting event three days after satellite transmitter attachment took
225 place, Turtle E headed north-westerly through the British Virgin Islands (BVI) (straight line distance of
226 203.1 km), past Puerto Rico (straight line distance of 355.7 km) to settle off El Macao, Dominican

227 Republic (606 km straight line distance in two weeks) . Transmissions ceased 116 d after arriving in
228 foraging grounds.

229 No migration was shown by two turtles (A and C, Figure 3). Turtle A nested five confirmed times
230 during the season and was then expected to migrate. All subsequent transmissions (42 d) showed her
231 remaining within 5 km of the release site. Track surveys on St Eustatius showed that the last green
232 turtle track of the season was 1 October 2005 and so it can be considered that Turtle A remained in
233 foraging grounds around St Eustatius as uplinks record Turtle A was still in the offshore area >1
234 month after the 2005 nesting season had finished (last transmission was 2 November 2005). After
235 attempted nesting on St Eustatius on 29 September 2006, Turtle C travelled around St Kitts to reach
236 the shallow channel between St Kitts and Nevis, remaining until transmissions ceased after 237 d
237 (straight line distance 47.3 km and total distance tracked 1061.7 km).

238 *Hawksbill turtles*

239 Both hawksbill turtles immediately departed from the nesting beach (B and D, Figure 2). Turtle B
240 began a westward post-nesting migration from St Maarten and there was no evidence of subsequent
241 nesting based on the tracking uplink data. This individual headed north-west toward Anegada (straight
242 line distance of 155.1 km) swimming up to 60 km per day and then shifted her course abruptly to head
243 to the south towards the Virgin Islands, travelling 289 km before reaching a foraging area close to
244 Flanagan Island, BVI, 191 km straight-line distance from the release site, taking 10 d to reach the
245 destination. Turtle B remained in the area until transmissions ceased after 57 d.

246 A circular pattern was shown by Turtle D and after the probable nesting activities on Scrub Island,
247 Anguilla and St Croix, USVI, this individual completely changed direction and swam eastwards to
248 return to Anguilla and St Maarten, settling in waters 20-35 m deep west of an uninhabited cay
249 between St Barthélemy and St Maarten. This circular migration route of 880.6 km resulted in a final
250 foraging site only 49.5 km straight line distance from the release site. Transmissions ended 104 d
251 after arrival at the foraging location.

252 **Discussion**

253 The overriding conclusion of the current study is that individuals nesting on St Eustatius and St
254 Maarten exhibit behavioural plasticity in their inter-nesting behaviour and post-nesting migration

255 routes in the Eastern Caribbean. All turtles tracked during this three year study exhibited nesting
256 behaviour patterns (INI, number of nests) similar to those previously reported for these two species in
257 the Caribbean region; however some unusual post-nesting migration behaviour was observed and our
258 data are not consistent with the generally accepted hypothesis that adult female greens and
259 hawksbills in the Caribbean are migratory. Results demonstrate that green and hawksbill turtles in
260 tropical areas exhibit different nesting and post-nesting strategies. Two nesting strategies were
261 apparent in that some turtles repeatedly nest on the same beach, whilst others nest on beaches
262 separated by over 190 km. Post-nesting strategies included migration to disparate foraging grounds
263 as well as other turtles remaining at the nesting ground as year-round residents.

264 The green turtles showed use of an inter-nesting area of up to 21.8 km (including a foray to the
265 neighbouring island of St Kitts) from the release site and indicated that nesting may occur on several
266 islands in one season due to the close proximity of islands in this region of the Caribbean. This is
267 supported by previous reports of St Eustatius tagged green turtles nesting on St Kitts (K. Stewart pers
268 comm). While many populations of most sea turtle species exhibit general fidelity to nesting beaches,
269 this study supports the few existing publications from the tropics showing that females may frequent a
270 range of nesting beaches within an area of 25-200 km (e.g. Bjorndal and Bolten 2010). This lack of
271 nesting site fidelity has been demonstrated for temperate regions and one key example is the
272 observation of loggerhead turtles tagged on Zakynthos, Cephalonia or Kyparissia in the
273 Mediterranean nesting at one of the other two sites. This movement has also been documented by
274 satellite tracking studies, showing that females conducted "forays" of around 100 km to alternative
275 sites (Cephalonia, Kyparrisia, Kotichi, Mesolonghi) from Zakynthos (Schofield et al. 2010). In the
276 tropics, a key result of genetic analysis has been that loggerheads nested on several Cape Verde
277 islands that were over 70 km distant and separated by waters over 1000 m deep (Marco et al. 2011).
278 The size of this inter-nesting area is not surprising when compared to the reported inter-nesting area
279 of green turtles within 135 km of the release site of Tortuguero, Costa Rica (Troëng et al. 2005). If an
280 inter-nesting range of 135 km from a nesting beach is considered, then green turtles nesting on St
281 Eustatius could be nesting internationally on at least nine other islands, including St Kitts, Nevis,
282 Montserrat, Antigua, Barbuda, Saba, St Maarten, St Barthélemy and Anguilla.

283 A similar inter-nesting range is reported from Costa Rica (EH pers comm): every year a small number
284 of green turtles (15-30) are encountered during night patrols in Tortuguero that have tags from
285 monitoring and conservation projects run by other organisations at nesting beaches to the north and
286 south along the Caribbean coast of Costa Rica. These beaches are anywhere from 1-100 km
287 distance from Tortuguero National Park. In 2011, a green turtle was tagged on the nesting beach at
288 Chiriquí Beach, Panama in June, and in September was encountered nesting at the southern end of
289 Tortuguero National Park; a straight-line distance of approximately 260 km. At both locations the
290 green turtle was believed to have nested successfully. These unpublished data, together with our
291 results, further re-iterate the use of satellite tags to identify potential nesting sites for sea turtles. This
292 approach was first implemented more than 20 years ago with studies of single loggerhead turtles
293 (Hays et al. 1991) and has developed to studies of 30-60+ individuals (Kobayashi et al. 2011; Hawkes
294 et al. 2011; Schofield et al. 2013; Pendoley et al. 2014).

295 The INI of hawksbills is generally longer than green turtles, for example mean \pm SD = 14.9 \pm 1.3 d
296 reported from Barbados (Beggs *et al.* 2007) which supports the inferred nesting sites on Scrub Island,
297 Anguilla (INI = 17) and St Croix, US Virgin Islands (USVI) (INI = 17) by Turtle D. Results for hawksbill
298 turtles reflected reports from inter-nesting studies of hawksbill females tracked from beaches in St
299 Croix, USVI which have suggested that females exhibit preferences for particular locations on the reef
300 close to the primary beach (Starbird et al. 1999). This has been supported by studies of hawksbills
301 nesting in Barbados (Welcott et al. 2012). The hawksbills in this study migrated to known hawksbill
302 foraging grounds identified in previous studies (Boulon pers comm; RvD pers comm). This is also the
303 case for a handful of hawksbill turtles encountered at Tortuguero in Costa Rica with tags from other
304 nesting beach projects along the coast of Costa Rica (EH pers. comm.). The unusual pattern was the
305 circuitous route shown by one hawksbill that travelled over 200 km to nest again and then returned to
306 a foraging location less than 50 km from the original nesting site. This pattern has not been previously
307 reported. However in other species there are occasional movements away from nesting areas before
308 subsequent return within the same season (Schofield et al. 2010) and these movements may reflect
309 prospecting searches for alternative nesting sites.

310 Turtles in this study showed a predominant westward movement which is similar to migration patterns
311 from nesting grounds reported from several studies in the Eastern and Central Caribbean, including

312 Puerto Rico (van Dam et al. 2008); Cayman Islands (Blumenthal et al. 2006) and Dominican Republic
313 (Hawkes et al. 2012). The Lesser Antilles separate the Caribbean from the Atlantic Ocean and act as
314 a sieve for the inflow of Atlantic water to the Caribbean Basin, forming the Caribbean Current, the
315 main surface circulation of the Caribbean Sea, consistent with observed and modelled patterns of
316 ocean and wind-driven currents westward into the Caribbean through the Lesser Antilles passages
317 north of Martinique at latitude $\sim 15^{\circ}\text{N}$ (Johns et al. 2002). The westward movement of the majority of
318 turtles in this study and others cited supports the theory that adult migration is influenced by ocean
319 current patterns experienced as hatchlings and small juvenile turtles (Hays et al. 2010b; Hays and
320 Scott 2013; Luschi et al. 2003).

321 The non-direct routes to foraging sites have been discussed in previous studies whereby migrating
322 turtles do not show a precise map sense and hence take non-optimum routes to their destination
323 (Hays et al. 2014b). As with the individuals tracked in the current study, most turtles exhibit a
324 correction in course during migration with multiple stages of travel to the vicinity of their final foraging
325 destination. Typical course correction occurs along bathymetric contour lines around island groups,
326 such as that shown by Turtle B travelling around small islands of the BVI, and then a binomial choice
327 once the individual enters shallower waters of a larger island, as exhibited by Turtle E upon reaching
328 the coastline of Dominican Republic.

329 Each of the green turtles settled in foraging grounds of relatively shallow (10-25 m) seagrass beds (St
330 Eustatius, St Kitts, Dominican Republic) whilst the hawksbill turtles migrated to foraging grounds of
331 mixed coral reef habitat (BVI, St Barthélemy). The island of St Barthélemy appears to be suitable
332 foraging habitat for adult hawksbills, as another hawksbill was satellite tracked to the same area after
333 nesting in 1998 at Mona Island, Puerto Rico (van Dam et al. 2008). Many of the foraging areas
334 revealed by turtles' migration routes in this study have been previously documented (Revuelta et al.
335 2012; Debrot et al. 2005; Dow et al. 2007). Other foraging grounds have not been documented but
336 are known locally, such as El Macao, Dominican Republic (Turtle E), an area of intense tourism
337 development with nearby areas with less developed beaches and offshore seagrass habitat (Y. Leon
338 pers comm) and the waters around Flanagan Island, BVI, a region with extensive reefs, algal plains
339 and seagrass beds, suggesting there is adequate food close by (R. Boulon pers comm). Studies have
340 reported that Caribbean hawksbills exhibit a migratory dichotomy, whereby some turtles remain in

341 coastal waters close to the nesting beach and others migrate internationally (Horrocks et al. 2001;
342 Moncada et al. 2012;). This is not peculiar to the region; loggerheads in the Mediterranean and
343 Atlantic exhibit alternative strategies such as coastal and oceanic foraging (e.g. Hawkes et al. 2012;
344 Schofield et al. 2013). What is new is that the results from this study also suggest that Caribbean
345 green turtles do not always migrate. Whilst this has been seen with green turtles in remote island
346 systems such as Cocos Islands, Indian Ocean (Whiting et al. 2008), loggerhead turtles in Greece
347 (e.g. Schofield et al. (2013) reported five of 75 tracked loggerheads remained resident at the breeding
348 area), hawksbills in Cuba (Moncada et al. 2012) and in Hawaii (Parker et al. 2009), it is believed that
349 this is the first documented case of Caribbean green turtles exhibiting non-migratory breeding and
350 remaining within 50 km of the original nesting ground to forage. Clearly, if there are foraging
351 resources at nesting sites, then a proportion of turtles may stay on site. With no resources being
352 expended on migration, these green turtles might be able to reach reproductive condition more
353 quickly and so show a reduced interval between successive nesting seasons. This has not been
354 confirmed as there have been no observations of the two individuals at the nesting beach since the
355 season in which they were fitted with satellite tags.

356 As with the majority of sea turtle tracking studies, only female nesting turtles were included in this
357 study which involved a limited number of satellite transmitters (n = 5). It is important to increase the
358 number of individuals satellite tracked to >40 (see Schofield et al. 2013) in order to draw further
359 conclusions about population level dispersal of green and hawksbill turtles nesting on St Eustatius.
360 There is also an urgent need to increase efforts to track male turtles to further understand the sex-
361 specific patterns of migration between foraging and breeding habitats in the Caribbean. Significant
362 differences have been observed in migratory range between males and females tagged in Puerto
363 Rico (van Dam et al. 2008). Further afield, marked differences in male versus female breeding
364 intervals have been revealed with males breeding more frequently than females in Australia (Limpus
365 1993) and Greece (Hays et al. 2010a). Increased understanding of patterns of behaviour of both
366 sexes will ultimately be useful to provide data to improve and inform regional conservation policies.

367 The absence of migration in the female green turtles (with data still required about movements of
368 male turtles) has implications for decisions about MPAs to simultaneously protect turtle nesting and
369 foraging grounds in the Caribbean and other tropical areas. The presence of year-round resident

370 females promotes the importance of year-round protection at key nesting sites, which would
371 safeguard part of the two species' populations. Whilst much of the priority, to date, has been on the
372 protection of nesting habitat, it may now be possible to identify areas using satellite tracking studies
373 that incorporate foraging and nesting habitats and that, therefore, could provide improved protection
374 for a sub-set of the turtle population in the region throughout their adult life. Information from satellite
375 tracking studies in the Wider Caribbean, and further afield, can therefore allow researchers and
376 conservation organisations to identify and rank critical habitat, inform policy-making, promote the
377 implementation of regional agreements, and strengthen national and international conservation
378 planning and research (e.g. Blumenthal et al. 2012).

379 In the Caribbean, examples for regional integration of research on turtles into nature policies and
380 MPA management have been set by the DCNA and WIDECAST. Groups such as DCNA and
381 WIDECAST are building biodiversity databases to collect data from individual organisations, such as
382 conservation NGOs, and make data publically available. Improved communication and data sharing
383 among everyone working on satellite tracking projects in the region will lead to a more coordinated
384 approach to development of MPAs and turtle conservation/protection plans among all stakeholders.
385 The current manuscript is the result of work by DCNA to promote understanding of sea turtles in the
386 Dutch Caribbean, the data are freely available from the authors for further publications and it is hoped
387 that increasing numbers of groups will make satellite tracking study data more publicly available for
388 the benefit of international sea turtle conservation.

389 Results of this research, coupled with long-term monitoring of sea turtles nesting in St Eustatius, have
390 enabled us to develop and communicate an understanding of management requirements for
391 threatened green and hawksbill turtles in the Dutch Caribbean. This study highlights the value of
392 international networking and data sharing, the benefits of collecting baseline information on the
393 distribution and abundance of populations, and the usefulness of long-term, systematic monitoring of
394 sea turtle nesting grounds: the tracking and tagging data combined indicate that some of the green
395 and hawksbill turtles that nest in the Lesser Antilles Islands are year-round residents, while others
396 may nest and forage at alternative sites. Thus, continued year-round protection of the Lesser Antilles
397 Islands, and the expansion of protection measures to include islands within their potential inter-

398 nesting range would contribute towards safeguarding the green and hawksbill populations of the
399 region, to some extent.

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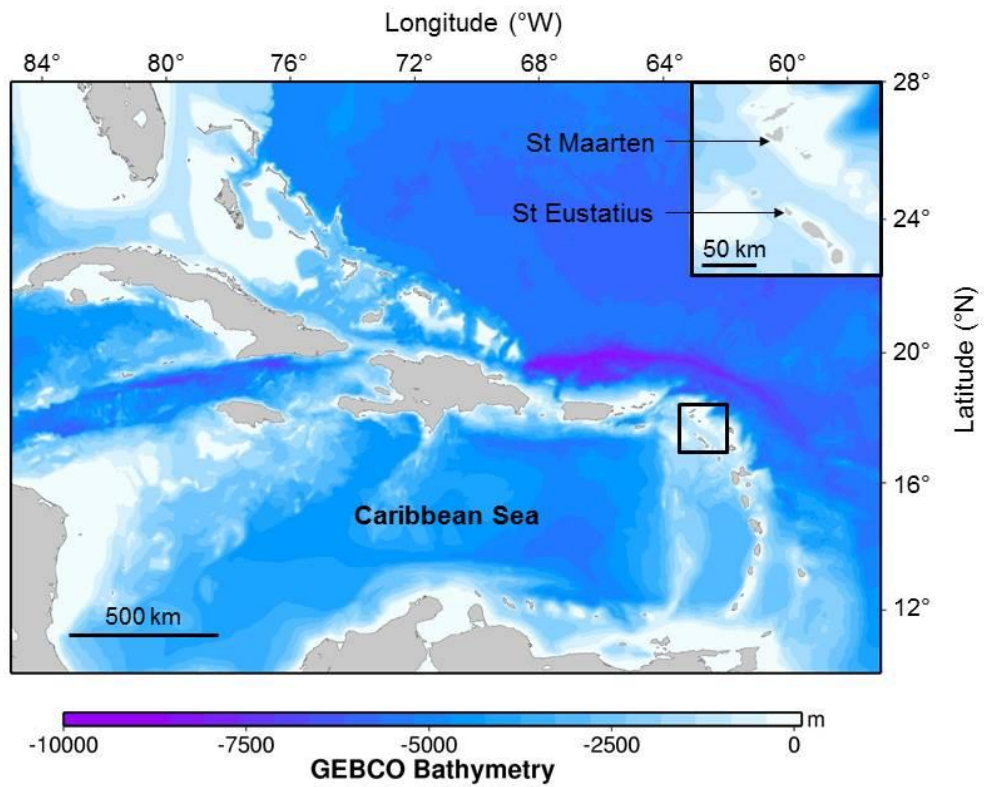
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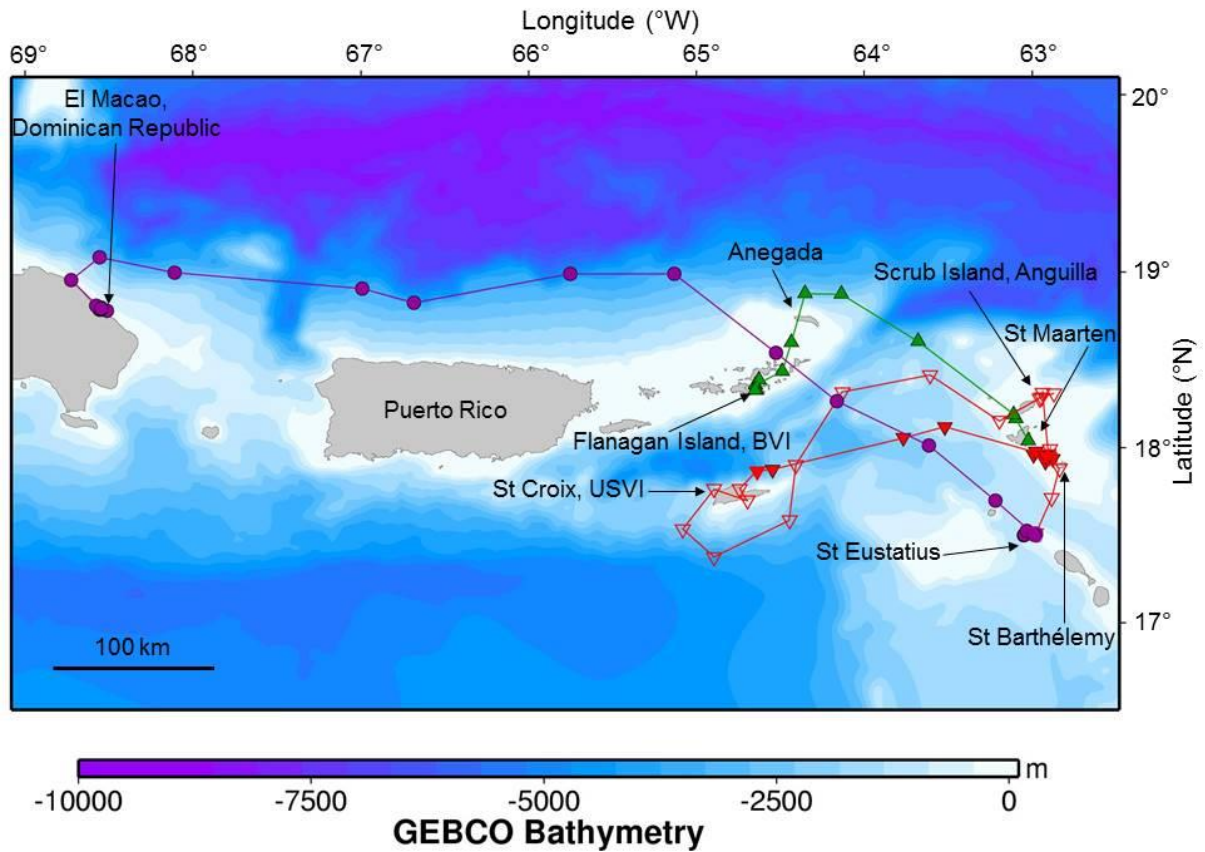
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562

563 **Figure 1** Location of study locations, the islands of St Eustatius and St Maarten in the Lesser Antilles
564 (inset) in the North East of the Caribbean Sea.

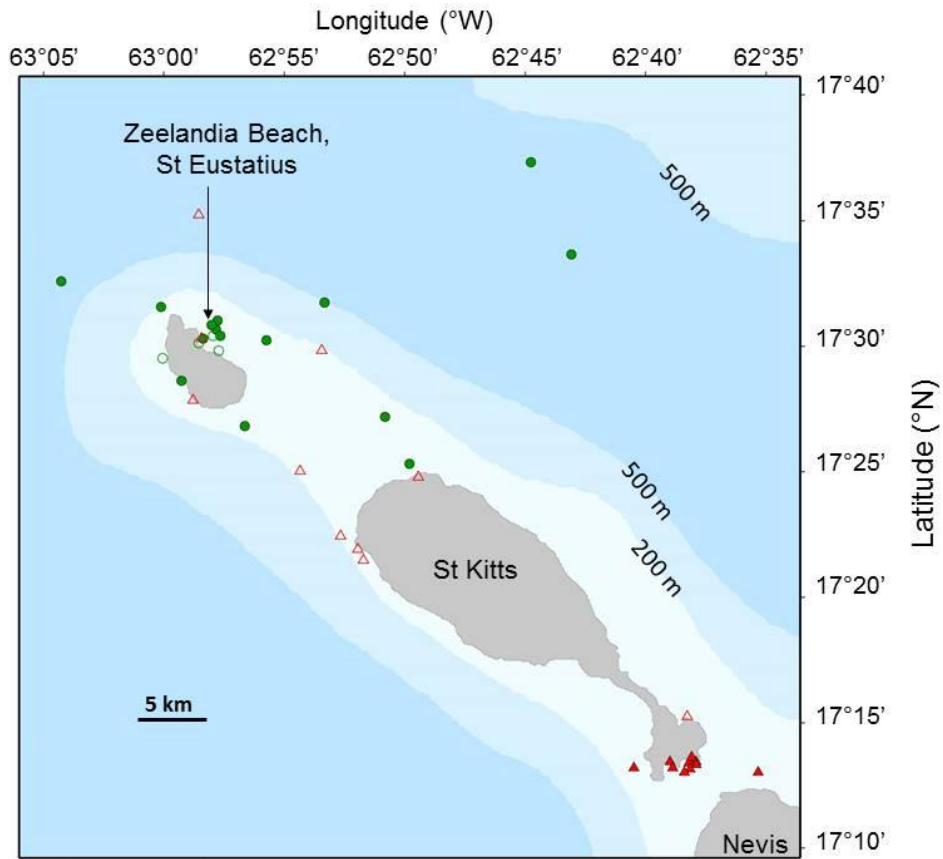
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566

567 **Figure 2** Migration patterns of three turtles subsequent to satellite transmitter attachment in St
 568 Eustatius and St Maarten, Dutch Caribbean, showing westward migration of one green (Turtle E –
 569 purple circles) and one hawksbill (Turtle B - green triangles) and circular migration of one hawksbill
 570 (Turtle D – red inverted triangles) returning to forage <50 km from the original nesting site. Points
 571 represent Class 1, 2, 3 or A quality points. Open symbols (Turtle D) represent points during inter-
 572 nesting periods, closed symbols are points indicating migration to foraging grounds.

573



574

575 **Figure 3** No or minimal migration shown by two green turtles (A and C), remaining in St Eustatius
 576 (Turtle A - green circles) and St Kitts & Nevis (Turtle C – red triangles) post-nesting. Points represent
 577 Class 1, 2, 3 or A quality points. Open symbols represent inter-nesting points or before settling at
 578 forage grounds, closed symbols are points at foraging grounds for 21 d. Results indicate that the area
 579 serves as a year-round foraging site as well as nesting ground.

580

581 **Table 1** Details of the five turtles for which inter-nesting and post-nesting migrations were tracked by satellite for 31-26
 582 data (CCL, curved carapace length tip to notch).

Turtle ID (Argos, Inconel)	Deployment location	Date transmitter deployed	Species	CCL (cm)	Deployment (inter-nesting) duration (d)	Foraging site (country)	Migration distance (km)
A (60722, WE22/WE23)	St Eustatius	20/09/05	Green	113.5	42 (11)	St Eustatius	3
B (60726, N/A)	St Maarten	09/10/05	Hawksbill	82.0	31 (10)	BVI	2
C (60724, WE36/WE37)	St Eustatius	18/09/06	Green	106.0	237 (8)	St Kitts & Nevis	10
D (60725, WE34/WE35)	St Eustatius	08/09/06	Hawksbill	85.5	146 (10)	St Barthélemy	8
E (60723, WE24/WE25)	St Eustatius	02/09/07	Green	112.0	142 (26)	Dominican Republic	7

583

584

585 **Table 2** Pre- and post-attachment nesting attempts for five turtles leaving St Eustatius and St Maarten. Confirmed nesting
 586 were assessed by visual sightings (indicated by *). Inferred nesting attempts were assessed by comparison of ARGOS
 587 confirmed nesting attempts (INI, Inter Nesting Interval) using Argos data signal quality and frequency, and plots of distance

Turtle ID (Argos ref)	Nest years	Nests pre- (post-)	INI	Post-deployment nesting date	LC	Nesting location	Distance (km)
A (60722)	2005*	4 (+1)	11	01/10/05*	3	Zeelandia, St Eustatius	
B (60726)	2005*	1 (+0)	-	-	-	-	
C (60724)	2006*	1 (+1)	12	29/09/06*	2	Zeelandia, St Eustatius	
D (60725)	2006*	1 (+2)	16	25/09/06	3	Scrub Island, Anguilla	6
			33	12/10/06	2	NW St Croix, USVI	18
E (60723)	2002*						
	2005*						
	2007*	4 (+1)	3	04/09/07	-	-	
	2010*						
	2012*						