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# 1 Assessing the effectiveness of the Ramsar Convention in preserving wintering 2 waterbirds in the Mediterranean

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37  
38 **Article impact statement:** Identification of the regional disparities in the Ramsar Convention  
39 effectiveness to enhance waterbird populations across the Mediterranean Basin

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45

## 46 **Abstract**

47 Although biological conservation is based on international agreements, its effectiveness depends on  
48 how countries implement such recommendations as effective conservation tools. The Ramsar  
49 Convention is the oldest international treaty for wetland and waterbird conservation, establishing  
50 the world's largest network of protected areas. However, since it does not constitute any binding  
51 measure, its effectiveness in protecting wintering waterbird populations at an international scale has  
52 been questioned. Here, we use long-term (1991–2012) count data to assess the effectiveness of the  
53 Ramsar Convention in the Mediterranean Basin. We compared abundance and temporal trends of  
54 114 waterbird species between 251 Ramsar wetlands and 3,486 non-Ramsar wetlands. We found  
55 that the Ramsar network is critical for wintering waterbirds, concentrating nearly half of all  
56 waterbirds counted in the Mediterranean Basin in only 7% of monitored wetlands. Waterbird trends  
57 followed a northwest-southeast gradient, with a population decrease in the East. A significant and  
58 positive Ramsar effect on population trends was only found for the species of higher conservation  
59 concern in the Maghreb, particularly when a management plan was implemented. The Ramsar  
60 Convention was previously used on very important wetlands for waterbirds in Southern Europe, but  
61 is now an underused conservation tool. Our study suggests weaknesses in the use of Ramsar as an  
62 effective conservation tool in most of the Mediterranean Basin. However, the Ramsar Convention  
63 effectiveness to enhance waterbird populations in the Maghreb should encourage strengthening the  
64 Ramsar Convention. It should be done particularly in countries with limited environmental  
65 agreements and by systematic implementation of management plans.

66

## 67 **1. Introduction**

68 Protected areas are the cornerstone of biodiversity conservation aiming to preserve nature from  
69 anthropogenic threats (Margules & Pressey 2000, Godet & Devictor 2018). In 2018, the coverage of  
70 the overall network of protected areas reached 14.9% of world's land surface (UNEP *et al.* 2018),  
71 close to the 17% established in the Aichi Targets to reduce biodiversity loss before 2020 (CBD 2010).  
72 However, the increase in terrestrial protected areas did not halt overall biodiversity declines over  
73 the last decades, potentially, among other factors, because of the insufficient proportion of  
74 protected surface (Rodrigues *et al.* 2004, Pouzols *et al.* 2014), the poor coherence of the global  
75 network (Virkkala & Rajasärkkä 2007, Gardner *et al.* 2015), and the lack of targeted and adaptive  
76 management (Leverington *et al.* 2010, Alagador *et al.* 2014). In this context, measuring the direct  
77 effect of protected areas on animal populations is of main importance (Devictor *et al.* 2007, Cazalis  
78 *et al.* 2019).

79 The Ramsar Convention (1971) established the world's largest network of protected areas focusing  
80 on wetland biodiversity conservation. Wetlands are recognized as internationally important for  
81 waterbirds if they regularly support at least 1% of the flyway population of at least one waterbird  
82 species and/or at least 20,000 waterbirds. Historically, these criteria were mainly used to quickly  
83 identify the most important sites that needed protection, due to the worrying conservation status of  
84 waterbirds (Gardner & Davidson 2011). The strategy was to maximize the protection of a small  
85 amount of very important sites against local and global threats (Finlayson *et al.* 2018), expecting that  
86 these islets of protection will be sufficient even for migratory species, such as waterbirds. Because of  
87 the great biological importance of these sites, several protection statuses may overlap them,  
88 strengthening their protection. Locally, waterbirds have been shown to increase more rapidly in  
89 Ramsar designated wetlands than in unprotected wetlands (e.g., Kleijn *et al.* 2014). Currently, like  
90 other environmental conventions (Gamero *et al.* 2017), the Ramsar Convention is expected to  
91 deliver greater benefits for species of higher conservation concern, which are specifically targeted by

92 conservation efforts (Koleček *et al.* 2014). However, as stressed by Finlayson *et al.* (2018) in the  
93 Second Warning to Humanity for Wetland Management and Policy, international assessments of the  
94 Ramsar Convention effectiveness are still scarce.

95 The Ramsar Convention's main conservation tool is the implementation of management plans in  
96 Ramsar sites (Hettiarachchi *et al.* 2015). Such management plans provide guidelines to the  
97 stakeholders (Billgren & Holmén 2008) based on assessments of the ecological characteristics of  
98 each Ramsar site and the socio-economical features of the region, for maintaining the ecological  
99 functions of wetlands and protect them against loss and degradation (Davidson 2016). However, the  
100 Ramsar Convention is not necessarily supported by legal regulations nor accompanied by binding  
101 measures, meaning that conservation effectiveness may depend on the country's governance  
102 (Leverington *et al.* 2010, Amano *et al.* 2018).

103 The Mediterranean Basin is the place of origin of the Ramsar Convention, where wetland  
104 biodiversity face heavy pressures in a heterogeneous panel of country's governance (MWO 2018).  
105 Despite the general awareness of the importance of wetland conservation and the Ramsar  
106 Convention, environmental care strongly differs between Mediterranean countries by a North-  
107 Western/South-Eastern gradient (Kark *et al.* 2009, Fosse 2016, UNEP *et al.* 2018, Saura *et al.* 2017),  
108 notably through the ratification of international environmental agreements (Table S1). These  
109 contrasted geo-political governances constitute four categories (MWO 2018), which contribute to  
110 differences in the application of wetland conservation agreements within the region (see Amano *et*  
111 *al.* 2018). Southern European (Western) countries are old European Union (EU) Member States with  
112 long-standing environmental governance. During the expansion of the EU towards Eastern Europe,  
113 the Balkan countries - most of which are to date not included in the EU - have also reinforced and  
114 implemented new environmental laws (Koschová *et al.* 2018). In recent decades, the environmental  
115 concern in the Maghreb has increased, notably for wetland ecosystems with the establishment of  
116 National Wetland Strategies (CEPF 2017). In the Middle-East, the environmental legislation differs

117 between countries, but in general, environmental concern remains relatively low (e.g., low  
118 achievement of Sustainable Development Goals, particularly on the environmental issues, Sachs *et*  
119 *al.* 2017) for economic reasons and sometimes political instabilities.

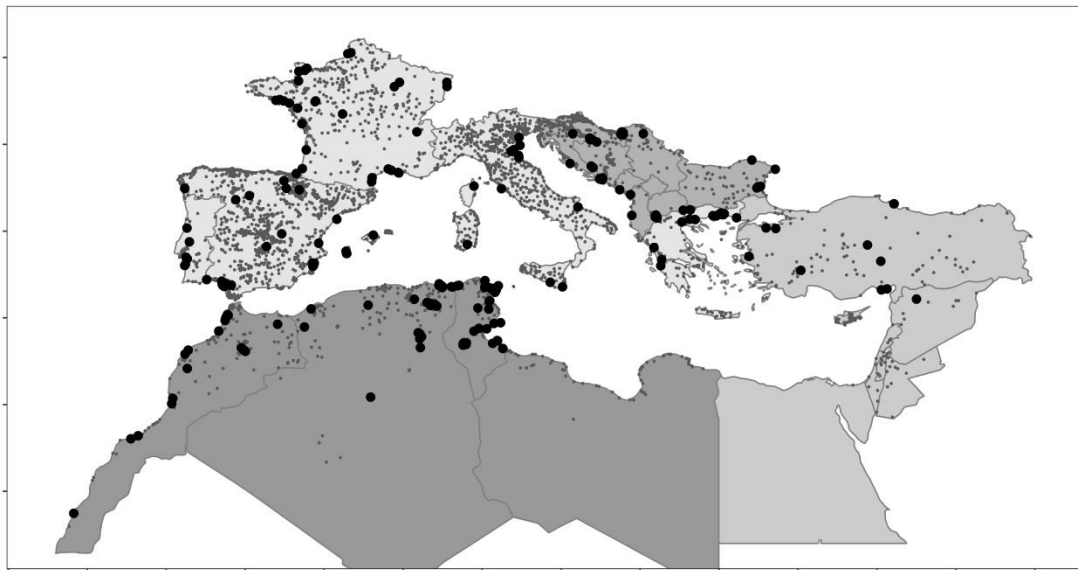
120 This article presents the first international assessment of the effectiveness of the Ramsar Convention  
121 in conserving wintering waterbirds in the Mediterranean Basin, using data from the International  
122 Waterbird Census (IWC). We compared the impact of Ramsar wetland protection on waterbird  
123 populations of species of higher and least conservation concern, listed in the Appendix II and III of  
124 the Bern Convention respectively, for each of the four Mediterranean geo-political sub-regions (Fig.  
125 1). The Bern Convention is one of the main international conservation policies operating in the  
126 Mediterranean Basin, establishing species protection status and conservation priorities which are  
127 expected efficient for the targeted species like the higher conservation concern species (Gaget *et al.*  
128 2018). For those species, such conservation measures likely enhance their population trend in the  
129 climate warming context, particularly in the Southern Europe and in the Balkan (Gaget *et al.* 2018).  
130 First, we investigate the importance of the Ramsar site designation for waterbirds by comparing  
131 waterbird abundance (i.e., population state), and the Ramsar effectiveness to conserve waterbird  
132 populations by comparing trends in abundance (i.e., population dynamics) between Ramsar and  
133 non-Ramsar sites. Because of the predominance of the bird criteria in their designation process, we  
134 expect higher waterbird abundance and if the designation translates in enhanced conservation,  
135 more positive (or less negative) trends in Ramsar than in non-Ramsar sites. Moreover, we expect  
136 more favourable trends in the Southern Europe sub-region due to generally greater environmental  
137 concern, particularly for species of higher conservation concern. Second, we investigate the  
138 importance of the implementation of Ramsar management plans by assessing differences of  
139 waterbird abundance and trends as a function of such implementations within Ramsar sites,  
140 controlling for the time since designation. We hypothesize that when the Ramsar effectiveness is  
141 observed, the management plan implementation will provide even more positive population trends,  
142 especially for species of higher conservation concern.

143

## 144 2. Material and methods

### 145 2.1 Study region

146 The study region covers 24 countries in the Mediterranean Basin, all of which are members of the  
147 Ramsar regional initiative for Mediterranean wetlands (Medwet; Fig. 1). We divided the region into  
148 four sub-regions based on geo-political context (Table S1, MWO 2018): Southern Europe (i.e., joined  
149 EU before 1990; France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain), Maghreb (Algeria, Libya, Morocco and  
150 Tunisia), Balkans (Albania, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia  
151 and Slovenia) and Middle East (Cyprus, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Turkey and Syria).



152

153 Figure 1: Study region divided in four geo-political sub-regions, Southern Europe (light grey),  
154 Maghreb (dark grey), Balkans (medium dark grey) and Middle East (medium light grey). Sites  
155 monitored for their waterbirds are represented by small grey (Non-Ramsar sites) and large black  
156 (Ramsar sites) dots. Ramsar sites are only those with waterbird criteria (see Methods).

157

## 158 **2.2 Waterbird monitoring**

159 We used data from one of the oldest international monitoring programs, the International  
160 Waterbird Census (IWC), which proved to be useful to measure the effectiveness of international  
161 conservation strategies (Johnston *et al.* 2013, Pavón-Jordán *et al.* 2015, Amano *et al.* 2018, Gaget *et*  
162 *al.* 2018). Data on wintering waterbirds are site-specific annual counts performed by skilled  
163 volunteer or professional ornithologists, coordinated by Wetlands International (Delany 2010). The  
164 IWC aims to evaluate the size and trends of waterbird populations (e.g., Conservation Status Reports  
165 for the African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement, [wpe.wetlands.org/](http://wpe.wetlands.org/)). One counting session per year  
166 per wetland is conducted in mid-January, i.e., during the non-breeding season. Because of lack of  
167 human, financial or logistical support, not all wetlands are surveyed every year (Fig. S1). We only  
168 selected sites surveyed at least twice during the 1991-2012 and for which geographical coordinates  
169 were reported in the IWC database. Sites hold on average  $12.7 \pm 10.6$  (sd) waterbird species (Fig. S2,  
170 listed in Table S3) and had nine sampled years (median, Fig. S1). As many waterbird species are not  
171 distributed throughout the study region and to avoid the subsequent inflation of absence data, we  
172 only considered species abundance data inside their wintering distribution range (based on Birdlife  
173 maps, BirdLife International and HBW 2017). We considered as wintering distribution range the  
174 union of 'Native resident' and 'Native non-breeding' distributions where the species is known or  
175 thought very likely to occur in the area (BirdLife International and HBW 2017). Thus, 82% of the  
176 species/site/count absences and 13% of the total number of counted birds (i.e., outside of their  
177 wintering area defined in the BirdLife International maps) were removed. Despite removing this  
178 data, the proportion of zero abundance per species/site/count represented 73.5% of the data. Our  
179 final dataset consists of 37,614 count events of 114 species in 21 years at 3,737 sites in the 24  
180 countries (Fig. 1, see Table S3 for sub-regional information).

181

## 182 **2.3 Ramsar sites**



183 The meticulous cross-checking between Ramsar sites (designated up to 2012) and IWC sites first  
184 used the geographical coordinates and site names, and secondly the verification of these  
185 correspondences by the IWC national coordinators. The error of the first cross-checking was <3%.  
186 Note that the Ramsar sites did not overlap necessarily 100% of the corresponding IWC sites (e.g.,  
187 65% in average based on expert assessment in Italy). Ramsar site data (downloaded from  
188 <https://rsis.ramsar.org/>, updated 26/02/2016) included geographical coordinates of each site, site  
189 names, criteria used for designation, time since designation, presence of an implemented  
190 management plan and presence of other protection statuses. We only used Ramsar sites designated  
191 under at least one of the two “waterbird” criteria: criterion 5 (wetlands regularly supporting 20,000  
192 or more waterbirds) and criterion 6 (wetlands regularly supporting 1% of the individuals in a flyway  
193 population of one waterbird species). Among the 3,737 IWC sites included in this study, 251 were  
194 located within 138 Ramsar wetlands as it is common that a Ramsar site corresponds to a complex  
195 including several IWC sites. Fifty-nine Ramsar sites had a management plan implemented,  
196 representing 43% of the Ramsar sites (see Table S2 for sub-regional information).

197

## 198 **2.4 Species conservation concern**

199 Waterbird classification distinguished species in two categories following their international  
200 conservation concern, “least” (LCC) or “higher” (HCC), reflected by their protection status in the Bern  
201 Convention (19.IX.1979, Appendix III and II, respectively). The Council of Europe established the Bern  
202 Convention in 1979 to ensure nature conservation through a binding international legal instrument.  
203 Indeed, species of HCC (48 species) are strictly protected while species of LCC (65 species) could be  
204 hunted. The Bern Convention was ratified before the study period by all countries included in the  
205 Southern Europe, and during the study period by all countries in the Balkans, plus Morocco and  
206 Tunisia in the Maghreb. In the Middle East, only Turkey and Cyprus ratified the Bern Convention,  
207 before the study period.

208

## 209 **2.5 Data analysis**

210

### 211 1) Ramsar effectiveness

212 We evaluated the Ramsar effectiveness by analysing independently the HCC and LCC species, in the  
213 four Mediterranean sub-regions. We used Hurdle models (A1) because of the large zero-inflation still  
214 present in the abundance data (i.e., 73%, package 'glmmTMB', Magnusson *et al.* 2017). We used a  
215 negative binomial error distribution (type 2: variance increases quadratically with the mean) to deal  
216 with the over-dispersion, with a log-link and a random zero-inflation to describe the probability of  
217 observing an excess of zeros not generated by the explanatory variables (Zuur & Ieno 2016). The  
218 fixed covariates included in the models are Ramsar status (categorical; Yes or No Ramsar designation  
219 "Ramsar"), year (continuous variable standardized to account for the linear trend) and their  
220 interaction ("Year : Ramsar"). Species and site identity were added as random effects. Explanatory  
221 variables and random effects were applied for both Hurdle model components. We accounted for  
222 the spatial auto-correlation by using an exponential structure on site coordinates, which is adapted  
223 for wintering waterbirds (see Gaget *et al.* 2018), and checked the absence of autocorrelation in the  
224 residuals (Magnusson *et al.* 2017). The number of sites, species and observations per model are  
225 given in Table S4. Structure of the model (glmmTMB form):

226 (A1) Abundance ~ Ramsar + Year + Year : Ramsar

227 + (1|Site) + (1|Species) + exp (Coordinates) + ZeroInflation = ~ 1

228

### 229 2) Management plan implementation

230 We investigated whether the implementation of a management plan and the time since designation  
231 had a positive effect on waterbird abundance and on population trends in Ramsar sites, in a Hurdle

232 model (A2) with the similar structure as before. Waterbird abundance (in Ramsar sites only) was the  
233 response variable. The explanatory terms included the fixed effects and interactions between year  
234 and the presence of an implemented management plan (“M.Plan”). To assess if higher time since  
235 designation was related to more positive population trends, we included the time since designation  
236 (“T.Des”) as a co-variable and added the interaction with the year (see model specification below).  
237 The numeric explanatory variables were standardized. Structure of the model (glmmTMB form):

238 (A2) Abundance  $\sim$  M.Plan + Year + Year : M.Plan + T.Des + Year : T.Des +  
239  $+ (1 | \text{Site}) + (1 | \text{Species}) + \text{exp}(\text{Coordinates}) + \text{ZeroInflation} = \sim 1$

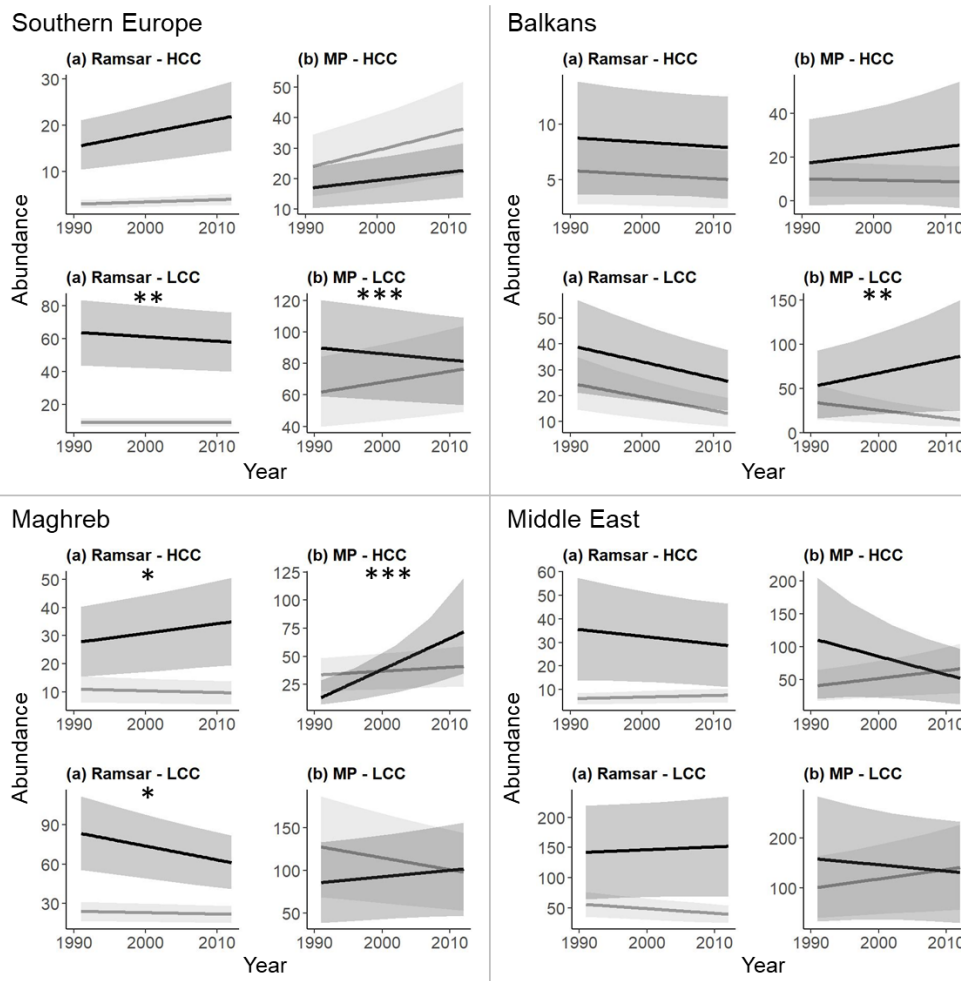
240

### 241 **3. Results**

#### 242 **3.1 Ramsar effectiveness**

243 Of the 131.4 million waterbirds counted in the Mediterranean Basin from 1991 to 2012, 43% were  
244 recorded in total within Ramsar sites. The abundance of both HCC and LCC waterbird species was  
245 consistently higher in Ramsar sites compared to other sites throughout the entire Mediterranean  
246 Basin ( $p < 0.003$ , Fig. 2) at the exception of the Balkans (Table S4 for details). Indeed, HCC species  
247 were approximately 5 times and 3 times more abundant in Ramsar sites than in non-Ramsar sites in  
248 Southern Europe and the Maghreb, respectively (Fig. 2). During the study period, the abundance of  
249 HCC species increased by +27% in Southern Europe ( $\beta = 0.07$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Populations of LCC species  
250 declined in the Balkans and the Middle East by 44% and 25%, respectively, over the study period  
251 (Fig. 2). However, the other overall trends were not significant in the other Mediterranean sub-  
252 regions ( $p > 0.05$ , Fig. 2, Table S4). A significant positive effect of the Ramsar status on HCC trend  
253 was observed in the Maghreb ( $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ), where species increased by +19% over the 21  
254 years (Fig. 2). A significant negative Ramsar effect was assessed in Southern Europe and in the

255 Maghreb for LCC species ( $\beta = -0.03$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ;  $\beta = -0.06$ ,  $p = 0.046$ ; respectively), but the Ramsar  
 256 effect on temporal trends was not significant elsewhere ( $p > 0.05$ , Fig. 2, Table S4).



257

258 Figure 2: Estimated waterbird abundance and population trends over years ( $\pm$ se) for species of  
 259 higher (HCC) and least (LCC) conservation concern in (a) Ramsar (black) and non-Ramsar (grey) sites,  
 260 and (b) in Ramsar sites with a management plan (MP) implemented (black) or not (grey), in the four  
 261 Mediterranean sub-regions. Significant interactions between population trends and Ramsar status or  
 262 population trends and management plan implementation were denoted by “\*\*\*” ( $p < 0.05$ ), “\*\*” ( $p$   
 263  $< 0.01$ ), “\*” ( $p < 0.001$ ) (See Results and Table S4-S5 for statistical details).

264

### 265 **3.2 Management plan implementation**

266 Overall, the abundance of waterbirds did not differ between Ramsar sites with and without a  
267 management plan except in the Balkans, where LCC species were more abundant in Ramsar sites  
268 with a management plan implemented (Fig. 2, Table S5 for details). In the Ramsar sites, both HCC  
269 and LCC species significantly increased in Southern Europe during the study period ( $\beta = 0.12$ ,  $p <$   
270  $0.001$ ;  $\beta = 0.06$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; respectively). However, overall trends were significantly negative for LCC  
271 species in the Maghreb and Balkans ( $\beta = -0.07$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ;  $\beta = -0.24$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; respectively), and not  
272 significant elsewhere ( $p > 0.05$ , Fig. 2). The implementation of a management plan had a positive  
273 effect on waterbird trends in the Balkans for the LCC species (+39% with, -57% without) and in the  
274 Maghreb for the HCC species (+14% with, -21% without) (Fig. 2, Table S5). In Southern Europe,  
275 management plan implementation had a negative effect on LCC species trends (-9% with, +18%  
276 without) and no significant effect in the Middle East (Fig. 2). We only found a significant positive  
277 effect of the time of designation in Southern Europe (the older the date of designation, the greater  
278 the abundance of HCC species;  $\beta = 0.36$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ). We also found a negative effect of date of  
279 designation on LCC in the Balkans (the older the date of designation, the lower the abundance;  $\beta = -$   
280  $0.36$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ). Regarding the trends, we found that in Southern Europe, the older the date of  
281 Ramsar designation, the more negative the trends in abundance of HCC and LCC species ( $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $p$   
282  $< 0.001$ ;  $\beta = -0.02$ ,  $p = 0.03$ ; respectively). The opposite was true in the Middle East for HCC and LCC  
283 species ( $\beta = 0.18$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ;  $\beta = 0.30$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; respectively; Table S5).

284

### 285 **4. Discussion**

286 Assessing the effectiveness of conservation agreements is critical for achieving global biodiversity  
287 conservation goals (Sutherland et al. 2004, Finlayson et al. 2018). In order to assess the effectiveness  
288 of the Ramsar Convention halting the decline in wintering waterbirds around the Mediterranean  
289 Basin, we compared long-term trends in their abundance within and outside Ramsar sites. We found

290 that the Ramsar sites support nearly half of all wintering waterbirds recorded in total in the  
291 Mediterranean Basin. However, based on long-term abundance trends, the Ramsar site network  
292 only proved to provide more benefits than non-Ramsar sites in the Maghreb sub-region. In addition,  
293 we only found an effect of the implementation of a management plan derived from the Ramsar  
294 Convention in the Maghreb sub-region, further highlighting regional disparities in the waterbird  
295 conservation effectiveness under the Ramsar Convention in the Mediterranean Basin. Considering  
296 the designation time, it seems that in Southern Europe the Ramsar Convention was rapidly used to  
297 designate the wetlands supporting the highest number of waterbirds.

298

#### 299 **4.1 Mediterranean waterbird trends**

300 Waterbird trends over the study period were almost all not significant or negative, in contrast to the  
301 conservation objectives initiated to reverse the worrying species conservation status in the past  
302 (Gardner & Davidson 2011). The trend was positive only for Higher Conservation Concern (HCC)  
303 species in the Southern Europe, suggesting that all efforts made by the EU, notably through  
304 enforcement of the Bern Convention by the Bird Convention (2009/147/EC), were fruitful (Musilová  
305 *et al.* 2018, Pavón-Jordán *et al.* 2015). However, wintering waterbird abundance and distribution are  
306 also influenced by large scale factors such as temperature and precipitation changes (Johnston *et al.*  
307 2013). Indeed, conservation policies are also effective to facilitate abundance increase of several  
308 species at their northern range in response to climate warming (Gaget *et al.* 2018), without  
309 promoting species extirpation at their southern range (Pavón-Jordán *et al.* 2015). This means that  
310 the current positive population trends likely result from a general population increase (Amano *et al.*  
311 2018) and a spatial reallocation of the populations in the Southern Europe (e.g. Pavón-Jordán *et al.*  
312 2015). Lower conservation policy effectiveness in the other regions may limit species population  
313 increases and distribution changes, despite the overall Mediterranean climate warming (Mariotti *et*  
314 *al.* 2015) and its importance for trans-Saharan species (Sayoud *et al.* 2017). However, despite that

315 the methodological approach allows to reveal abundance changes, we acknowledge that the use of  
316 static species distribution maps (see methods) may have limited the assessment of a northward  
317 extension. Nevertheless, the negative trend of Lower Conservation Concern (LCC) species in the  
318 Balkans and Middle East, and the absence of significant trends in the Maghreb are coherent with the  
319 Mediterranean North-Western/South-Eastern spatial contrast of wetland biodiversity trends  
320 (Galewski *et al.* 2011), with the geo-political governances and with their conservation successes  
321 (Guillemain & Hearn 2017, Amano *et al.* 2018).

322

## 323 **4.2 The effectiveness of the Ramsar network**

324 Our results provide evidence of the importance of Ramsar network for waterbird populations  
325 wintering in the Mediterranean region. Ramsar-designated sites (i.e., only 6.8% of the IWC sites  
326 included here) support 43% of the waterbirds counted in the past two decades. This is not surprising,  
327 as all these sites were designated for their high importance for waterbirds - they regularly support  
328 more than 20,000 birds or 1% of a population, and were more frequently monitored (Table S1). The  
329 data collected under the IWC are used to validate the international (ecological) importance of  
330 wetlands after their designation as Ramsar protected areas. Even if this may seem trivial, it is a basic  
331 step to achieve conservation targets. The extremely valuable information on wintering waterbird  
332 abundance and distribution worldwide provided by monitoring schemes, such as the IWC, is critical  
333 for the classification of wetlands as Ramsar sites and the evaluation of its effectiveness. Indeed, our  
334 study suggests regional disparities in the effectiveness of the network of Ramsar sites enhancing  
335 waterbird populations across the Mediterranean Basin.

336 In the Maghreb, we show that the Ramsar designation is effective to result in an increase of HCC  
337 waterbird populations. This result is consistent with previous assessments done in Morocco (Dakki *et al.*  
338 *et al.* 2002, Cherkaoui *et al.* 2018, Kleijn *et al.* 2014). In the Maghreb, the Ramsar Convention is one of

339 the main conservation tools and, thus, its importance is higher than other national conservation  
340 measures (Kleijn *et al.* 2014). However, in Morocco at least, the Ramsar network was enlarged in  
341 2005 from 4 to 24 sites (Dakki *et al.* 2011), based on wetlands previously included in a national  
342 network of protected areas, defined in 1996 (AEFCS 1996) and designated later as permanent  
343 hunting reserves (Dakki *et al.* 2016). Ramsar sites in the Maghreb have proved to be very important  
344 for species of international conservation concern, like the Marbled Teal (*Marmaronetta*  
345 *angustirostris*) and the Ferruginous duck (*Aythya nyroca*), which favour high water levels and habitat  
346 quality (Cherkaoui *et al.* 2016, Ouassou *et al.* 2018). Contrary to the situation with HCC species, LCC  
347 species decreased in Ramsar sites, suggesting that Ramsar designation and site management effects  
348 may depend on the species requirements (e.g. water cover or bare soil, Kleijn *et al.* 2014). Land use  
349 change and climate variabilities could also interact with the protection, because recurrent droughts  
350 have decreased water availability for wintering birds during the 1980-2000 decades while the  
351 exponential increase of artificial reservoirs during this period may have induced specific changes in  
352 species distribution (Green *et al.* 2002). The regional Ramsar effectiveness for HCC species  
353 conservation is also correlated with efforts undertaken by countries in the Maghreb in recent  
354 decades to conserve wetlands, i.e. through the establishment of water strategies and environmental  
355 impact assessments (MWO 2018).

356 In the Middle East, the Ramsar Convention has failed to improve waterbird population trends. In this  
357 region like in the Maghreb, there are severe pressures on naturally restricted water resources (e.g.,  
358 agriculture, pollution, dam construction) threatening wetlands (Karadeniz *et al.* 2009) but there are  
359 generally few strategies for wetland conservation and sustainable water use (Geijzendorffer *et al.*  
360 2019). Consequently, Ramsar wetlands are not always effectively protected (Gürlük & Rehber 2006).  
361 For example, despite the importance of Ramsar sites for the endangered White-headed Duck  
362 (*Oxyura leucocephala*) in Turkey, some have been severely damaged by pollution or decreased water  
363 levels, and eventually have seen the collapse of their waterbird populations (Adaman *et al.* 2009,  
364 Green *et al.* 2017). Political instabilities and military conflicts have also not helped to make



365 environmental protection a priority (Machlis & Hanson 2008), water resources being sometimes at  
366 the root of conflicts (Medzini & Wolf 2004). Thus, the lack of general governmental effort and the  
367 difficult geopolitical context in the Middle East hampers the achievement of international  
368 conservation targets (Green *et al.* 2017).

369 Contrary to the expected population increase inside protected areas in countries with more effective  
370 governances (Amano *et al.* 2018), the Ramsar Convention showed low effectiveness at enhancing  
371 waterbirds populations in Southern Europe and the Balkans. The absence of a significant effect is  
372 unlikely due to a lack of statistical power as for the two regions several tens of sites were used  
373 (Table S4). However, the surface overlapped between Ramsar and IWC sites in some countries is not  
374 systematically complete (e.g., 65% in Italy), which may reduce our capacity to detect differences in  
375 population trends between Ramsar and non-Ramsar sites. For the two northern Mediterranean  
376 regions, most of the countries are included in the EU or are in the process of completing the entry  
377 procedures. In the Balkans however, the limited political and financial support for biodiversity  
378 conservation weakens the enforcement of the environmental legislation (UNDP 2007). The EU  
379 Member States benefit from strong environmental laws for species and habitat conservation, e.g.,  
380 the Birds, the Habitats (92/43/EEC), and the Water Framework (2000/60/EC) Directives. Such  
381 legislation might have not been sufficient to halt pressures on Ramsar wetlands, as in France for  
382 example where Ramsar sites lost 6% of their natural wetlands between 1975 and 2005 (Perennou *et*  
383 *al.* 2016). However, in the EU countries the detection of the Ramsar effectiveness is challenging. In  
384 fact, the Natura 2000 network targets also the protection of the wetlands important for biodiversity,  
385 overlapping 81% of the Ramsar network (Table S2) and probably some non-Ramsar designated  
386 wetlands. Because the Ramsar Convention is not accompanied by binding measures, unlike the  
387 European (Natura 2000) or national (nature reserve or park) legislation, Ramsar designation could be  
388 less used by the stakeholders in the European countries. For instance, 82% of the Ramsar sites  
389 information lack of update in Spain (SEO Birdlife 2018). In France, the “Baie de l’Aiguillon” is one of  
390 the most important sites for wintering waterbirds on the Atlantic coast (70,000 waterbirds counted

391 annually) and is protected by a national nature reserve but it is not included in the Ramsar site  
392 network. Interestingly, the older designated Ramsar wetlands in the Southern European countries  
393 held more HCC species, suggesting that before the establishment of the European Directives, the  
394 Ramsar designation was used primarily on the wetlands hosting the largest waterbird abundance.  
395 Therefore, if the use of Ramsar as a conservation tool is still desired in the European countries, then  
396 its use should be strengthened (Geijzendorffer *et al.* 2019).

397

### 398 **4.3 Management plan implementation**

399 The implementation of a management plan, which determines the guidelines to ensure “wetland  
400 wise use”, was effective in enhancing HCC population trends only in the Maghreb. The interpretation  
401 of these results is limited by the lack of available information on the targets of the management  
402 plans and the legal means involved to implement them. However, the positive effect of the  
403 management plan in Maghreb on HCC species is coherent with the high recognition of the Ramsar  
404 Convention in this sub-region (see also Kleijn *et al.* 2014). In the Middle East, because only one  
405 Ramsar site without management plan implemented was compared to eleven other sites, the  
406 analysis should be considered cautiously. In Southern Europe, the implementation of a management  
407 plan had a negative effect on LCC species. We suspect that such protected areas do not necessarily  
408 benefit these species, because conservation measures do not target them (Musilová *et al.* 2015), or  
409 because these species find increasingly favourable conditions on artificially managed sites, such as  
410 marshes specifically managed to attract waterfowl or rice fields (Rendón *et al.* 2008). Indeed,  
411 Musilová *et al.* (2018) found that wintering waterbird distribution is only partially explained by  
412 protected areas, particularly for LCC species, so that protection and successful management alone  
413 cannot be sufficient to guarantee the protection of waterbird populations. In the Balkans, however,  
414 our results show that the abundance of LCC species increased inside the managed Ramsar sites  
415 compared to unmanaged. Legal and illegal hunting pressures are strong in this region (Hirschfeld &

416 Heyd 2005, Brochet *et al.* 2016) and, thus, it is possible that well-managed Ramsar sites act as  
417 refuges for waterbirds sought by hunters. Additionally, the overall decrease in LCC species in the  
418 Balkans may also suggest changes in wintering strategies in response to climate warming (Gaget *et*  
419 *al.* 2018). Considering the climate warming context, protected areas may increase population trend  
420 at the leading distribution edge and reduce extirpation at the trailing edge, thanks to a likely  
421 buffering effect against the climate warming which increased species persistence (Pavón-Jordán *et*  
422 *al.* 2015). However, inappropriate conservation measures can limit species persistence at their  
423 trailing edge (Wessely *et al.* 2017). Consequently, in the Southern Europe a negative effect on LLC  
424 population trends could notably result by an extirpation in response to climate warming.

425

#### 426 **4.4 Implication for conservation**

427 The lack of effectiveness of the Ramsar Convention in the worrying wetland conservation context  
428 (Finlayson *et al.* 2018) urges signatory countries to strengthen their commitments, especially in  
429 Eastern Europe and the Middle East. However, the impact of this pioneer environmental convention  
430 (1971) goes beyond the findings showed here, as it was used as a basis for other international  
431 conservation policies and national wetland legislations (Gardner & Davidson 2011). Indeed, some EU  
432 countries have used the designation of Ramsar sites as reasoning for Natura 2000 designation and  
433 therefore protection of the sites for waterbirds and other species. The Birds, Habitats, and Water  
434 Directives in the EU are also shaped following the recommendations of the Ramsar Convention.  
435 Consequently, the success of the Ramsar Convention for waterbird conservation should not be only  
436 reduced to the direct impact of the Ramsar designated sites but enlarged to the overall international  
437 and national waterbird conservation.

438 The contrasted effectiveness of the Ramsar Convention increasing waterbird abundance across the  
439 Mediterranean sub-regions stress the need for a more effective waterbird and wetland conservation

440 (Geijzendorffer *et al.* 2019). A first step should be to widen the designation of the wetlands of  
441 international importance, to increase the coherence between the Ramsar network and the core  
442 distribution of wintering waterbirds periodically assessed. Indeed, even in the EU countries the  
443 protected area network for waterbirds, including Natura 2000 sites, is still not enough to cover all  
444 the important sites (e.g. Pavón-Jordán *et al.* 2015). This could be done by using gap analyses and  
445 knowledge on the waterbird distribution provided by the IWC (Delany 2010). For example, a recent  
446 North Africa IWC synthesis revealed 42 wetlands of international importance for waterbirds that are  
447 not Ramsar designated (Sayoud *et al.* 2017). Such "Shadow Ramsar Lists", i.e., sites that meet the  
448 criteria for designation, should be regularly updated and disseminated by conservation organizations  
449 to encourage Ramsar new designations. Because the Ramsar designation has to be done by a  
450 national administrative authority, each contracting party has to take its own responsibilities to  
451 provide an updated list to the Ramsar secretariat, to fulfil their commitments. Then, information  
452 about the conservation state of the Ramsar designated wetlands should be updated regularly to  
453 avoid obsolete data (Yeniyurt & Hemmami 2011, González & Atienza 2018), notably in the EU  
454 countries (e.g., SEO Birdlife 2018). Thus, conservation objectives should be clearly documented and  
455 defined through a management plan in order to provide the guidelines to maintain a wise use of the  
456 resources considering the ecological characteristics and the socio-economical features (Hettiarachchi  
457 *et al.* 2015). The improvement of both wetland conservation concern and waterbird population  
458 trends through massive Ramsar designations and management plan implementations in the  
459 Maghreb provide a good example of the Ramsar Convention relevance.

460 Since the Ramsar Convention aims to build an international co-operative network (Finlayson 2014),  
461 especially relevant for migratory waterbirds, the application of the Ramsar Convention should be  
462 exemplary. This is required not only to ensure the integrity of the Ramsar Convention, but also to  
463 improve its appraisal (Finlayson *et al.* 2018). This study depicts a worrying underuse of the Ramsar  
464 Convention as a conservation tool in some countries, weakening the establishment of a cohesive

465 conservation network. What is encouraging is the successful performance in the Maghreb, where  
466 the use of the Ramsar Convention for the conservation of wetlands boosted waterbird protection.

467 Finally, international conventions, such as the Ramsar Convention, may provide crucial tools for  
468 countries strengthening their conservation efforts. Numerous international agreements for  
469 biological conservation lie on non-binding measures. Their objectives may be threatened by the  
470 weakness of country governance (Amano *et al.* 2018) or the lack of achievements (Leverington *et al.*  
471 2010). However, this study suggests the potential for international convention effectiveness  
472 translated into concrete conservation tools.

473

474

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482

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640

641 **Supporting information**

642 Table S1: International Environmental Agreement ratification by country

643 Table S2. Sub-regional Ramsar characteristics

644 Table S3: Species status in the Bern Convention and proportion of zero count

645 Table S4: Ramsar effect on waterbirds

646 Table S5: Management plan effect on waterbirds

647 Figure S1: Sampled years per site

648 Figure S2: Species richness per site

649