

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

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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.

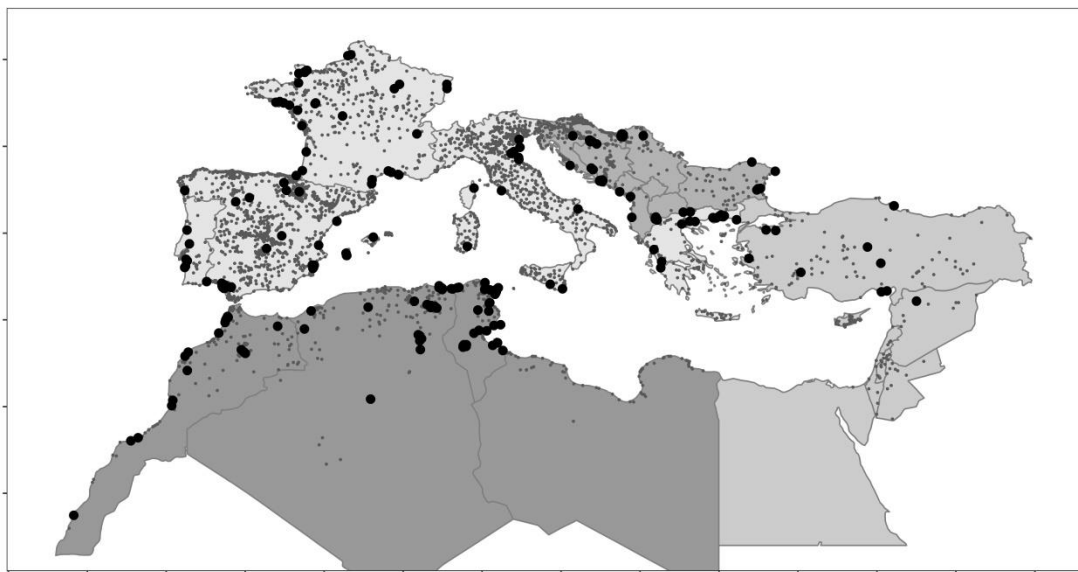
120 This article presents the first international assessment of the effectiveness of the Ramsar Convention
121 in conserving wintering waterbirds in the Mediterranean Basin, using data from the International
122 Waterbird Census (IWC). We compared the impact of Ramsar wetland protection on waterbird
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/). 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 ± 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 $+ (1 | \text{Site}) + (1 | \text{Species}) + \text{exp}(\text{Coordinates}) + \text{ZeroInflation} = \sim 1$

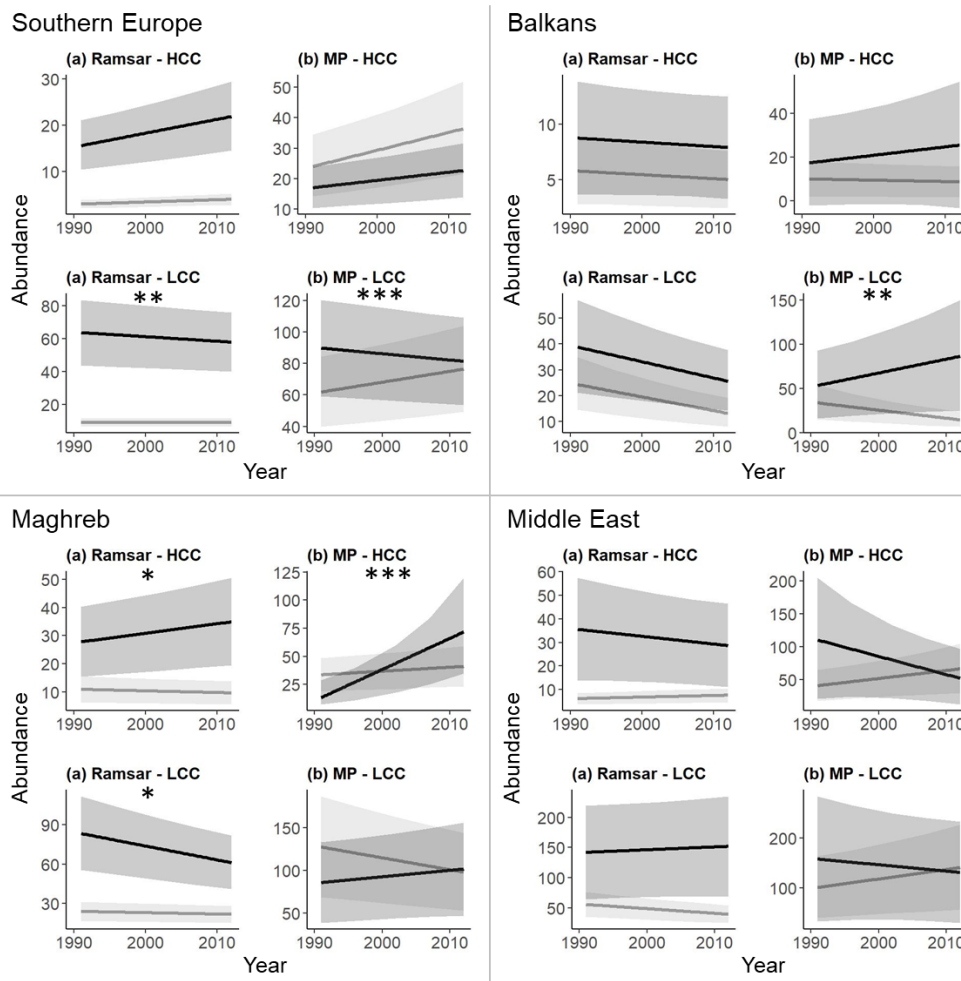
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241 **3. Results**

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