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Interspecific variations in shorebird responses to management practices on protected

Mediterranean saltpans.

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- 1 Interspecific variations in breeding waterbird responses to management practices on
- 2 protected Mediterranean saltpans.

3

4 Keywords:

- 5 bayesian hierarchical model, gulls, population dynamics, Ramsar convention, salinity, water
- 6 levels, waterbirds, wetlands

8 Abstract

9

10 Tidal habitats sustain fragile ecosystems, undergoing pressures from coastal artificialization and rising sea levels. Saltpans are a substitution habitat for birds that breed, winter or stop-11 over along coastlands where most pristine tidal habitats have been removed. Balancing the 12 13 economical, patrimonial and biodiversity values of former saltpans is thus needed to 14 mitigate the threats posed by global changes on waterbirds. In this study, we scrutinized the 15 influence of management practices on waterbirds on two isolated saltpans located on the French Mediterranean shore, several tens of kilometres apart from other suitable habitats. 16 17 We analysed three years of bird counts for nine protected species that breed, forage and roost on these saltpans. We used a multispecies hierarchical model to relate variations in 18 19 bird counts to water levels, oxygenation and salinity, the three parameters targeted by the saltpans management plan to promote bird settlement. We showed that the hypersaline 20 21 conditions that dominate in these saltpans are suboptimum to most species, suggesting that waterbird concentrations are dictated by the lack of alternatives in the surrounding 22 landscape rather than by habitat suitability. Intraspecific variations in species' responses to 23 these variables should orient towards the creation of a habitat mosaic within the saltpans. 24 25 Eventually, between-site differences in bird responses to water conditions pointed the 26 effects of disturbance, predation and other landscape-level features. Our results reveal that high waterbird numbers on isolated saltpans may be a misleading measure of their 27 ecological suitability, and that management on these sites needs to incorporate conflicts and 28 29 complementarity in species' habitat use.

30

31 Introduction

32

33	Wetlands, among the most biodiverse ecosystems on earth, sustain a wide range of essential
34	ecosystem services such as harvesting and fishing, water purification, floods buffering and
35	mitigation of catastrophic climatic events (Zedler & Kercher, 2005; Gardner et al., 2015;
36	Montanarella et al., 2018; Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, 2018). They also provide habitat
37	and resources for a high diversity of organisms organized into trophically complex
38	ecosystems. Although considered as foreground habitats for conservation and human
39	welfare, the global surface of wetlands has been reduced by 35% between 1970 and 2015
40	under various pressures, among which climate change and human land use are especially
41	prominent (Barbier et al., 2011; Gardner et al., 2015; Ramsar Convention on Wetlands,
42	2018). Wetlands are restricted in surface, highly unstable due to variations in water levels
43	and quality, and thus vulnerable to even small levels of disturbance (Adam, 2002; Kirwan &
44	Megonigal, 2013). Appropriate conservation effort is therefore needed to warrant the
45	maintenance of wetland-related ecosystems, and requires in-depth studies to evaluate the
46	effects of water management practices on targeted species (Clausen et al., 2013).

47

Coastal wetlands are highly productive, yet unstable ecosystems with site-specific dynamics
tied to variations in sea levels, balance of freshwater and saltwater, and human usage
(Adam, 2002). The vulnerability of coastal wetlands facing rising sea levels as a result of
ongoing climate change is listed as one of the most severe threats to coastal biodiversity in
the coming decades (Boesch, 2000; Craft *et al.*, 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg & Bruno, 2010).
However, coastal wetlands are more immediately threatened by human land use, which

accounts for 25-50% of the decrease in their global surface cover during the past centuries
through direct destruction, draining for agriculture or urbanization, eutrophication, invasive
species and water pollution (Gedan *et al.*, 2009; Deegan *et al.*, 2012; Kirwan & Megonigal,
2013). As a result, many coastal wetlands are now restricted to small isolated patches of
marshy habitats within deeply man-modified seashores, some of which are maintained
artificially by conservation-oriented management, especially in northern America, western
Europe, and locally elsewhere (Hughes & Paramor, 2004).

61

Most waterbirds (mainly Charadriidae, Scolopacidae, Laridae and a few other related 62 families ; Burger & Olla, 1984) are strict invertebrate eaters or piscivores, and thus occupy a 63 top-position in trophic networks that make them suitable indicators to monitor the 64 65 functioning of coastal wetland ecosystems (Piersma et al., 2004). Because most waterbirds are migratory, the preservation of their breeding, stop-over and wintering habitats all along 66 67 migration routes is critical to their regional or global population persistence (Piersma et al., 2006), for instance along the Pacific north-american coast (Velasquez, 1992), in southeastern 68 Asia (Sripanomyom et al., 2011; Xia et al., 2017) or on Mediterranean shores (AEWA, 2018; 69 Giosa et al., 2018). Along these coasts, suitable wetlands are small and rare due to 70 71 topographic constraints and intense human land use (Myers, 1983; Piersma et al., 2006). As 72 a consequence of climate change-induced erosion of coastal marshes and habitat loss (Ramírez et al., 2018), waterbird conservation thus largely benefits from the maintenance of 73 appropriate resources in artificial wetlands such as fishponds and saltpans (Velasquez, 1992; 74 Takekawa et al., 2006; Giosa et al., 2018). It is therefore of paramount importance to assess 75

carefully the conservation value of saltpan management practices in relation to waterbird
 habitat and trophic requirements.

78

79 Mudflat-feeding waders (Charadriidae and Scolopacidae) account for a large proportion of waterbirds biomass and thus bear a strong role on tidal trophic networks, in addition to their 80 high patrimonial value associated with hunting, conservation status and legal use as 81 82 indicator species (Colwell, 2010). These small-bodied species cannot cope with large 83 variations in water depth, which therefore determine habitat availability. Furthermore, the abundance and quality of their invertebrate preys peaks in mesohaline waters with high 84 oxygenation levels (Velasquez, 1992; Takekawa et al., 2006; Dias, 2009; Athearn et al., 2012). 85 These conditions are specifically met in saltpans, in which water levels, variations in 86 87 physiochemical conditions and other sources of disturbance are buffered artificially by hydraulic control, rendering these artificial saltmarshes suitable for high waterbird 88 89 concentrations (Velasquez, 1992; Sánchez et al., 2006; Takekawa et al., 2006). 90

91 Because waterbird numbers and diversity decrease in hypersaline conditions, the suitability 92 of saltpans to birds is conditioned to the maintenance of optimum physicochemical 93 conditions (Warnock et al., 2002). Gulls (Laridae) and terns (Sternidae) breeding on saltpans nest on small islets or dykes, as a substitution to sandpits or other coastal habitats subjected 94 to erosion and human disturbance (Catry et al., 2004). By contrast with waders, these birds 95 96 benefit from higher water levels that isolate their breeding sites from predators (Warnock et al., 2002; Bluso-Demers et al., 2016), although gulls also require mudflats for feeding. 97 Waterbird conservation on saltpans therefore need to accommodate conflicts in species' 98

99 habitat and resource requirements, which, in most instances, can only be done through100 hydraulic management of water level and flow.

101

102 A major axis of the western Palearctic migration flyway crosses the western Mediterranean on the French coast between the Rhône river and the foothills of the French Alps (Newton, 103 104 2003). Wetlands located in this area are therefore enlisted in the Ramsar convention among 105 priority sites for the conservation of migrating and breeding waterbirds at the scale of 106 Western Europe (Sadoul & Walmsley, 2000). Most suitable habitats have, however, been eliminated by land artificalization. The two remaining significant wetlands along this stretch 107 108 of coast are the Camargue and, 120 km farther east, a small complex of two former saltpans located three kilometers apart of each other on the highly urbanized Hyères peninsula. This 109 110 small isolated site has therefore become the only substantial habitat patch for waterbirds at the eastern limit of the French Mediterranean shore and is an important breeding area for 111 112 several species of conservation concern at the national or regional scale, such as Kentish 113 Plover (Charadrius alexandrinus) and Black-headed Gull (Chroicocephalus ridibundus). 114 However, in spite of the essential role of these saltpans for bird conservation, an evaluation of management practices still needs to determine whether local water management 115 adequately balances the species' ecological requirements according to their various habitat 116 117 uses.

118

We therefore framed a study on the following question: how do breeding shorebirds
respond to management practices in this isolated protected coastal wetland? The critical
importance of this site for coastal wetland breeders and migrants, the lack of any alternative

122 habitat for breeding birds around this point of the Mediterranean coast, and the strong pressure from surrounding urbanization, are exemplary to evaluate the conservation value 123 of local saltpan management practices. Additionally, the absence of any substantial patch of 124 alternative habitat within a 100 km radius of dry and artificialized coast concentrates birds 125 126 inside this specific site, ensuring that once accounted for seasonal phenology, their 127 abundance variations are dictated by local conditions only. However, breeding species have 128 conflicting requirements, since colonial nesters (such as terns and gulls) favour high water 129 levels to ensure protection against predation pressure and feed on water, while waders require large extents of emerged mudflats to forage on ground. 130

131

We specifically addressed three questions: (i) are bird counts high because water levels and 132 physiochemical properties encompass species' optimum values, or because of the lack of 133 alternative sites? (ii) do species with different habitat and trophic requirements respond 134 135 synchronically or idiosyncratically to variations in water physiochemical parameters? (iii) to what extent are species' responses dictated by the way birds use these two saltpans? We 136 addressed these questions through a three-years monitoring based on decadal bird counts, 137 concentrating on nine breeding species prioritized by the site management plan. We 138 focused on variations in water levels, salinity and oxygen concentration, which are identified 139 140 as the most limiting physicochemical variables for waterbirds frequenting saltpans (Warnock et al., 2002; Takekawa et al., 2006, 2015). 141

142

143 Material and methods

145 Study area

146

147	The study site comprises two former saltpans (hereafter "Pesquiers" and "Vieux Salins")
148	located three kilometres apart in a small peninsula of the eastern French Mediterranean
149	coast (43°05'N ; 006°11'E , Fig. 1), property of the Conservatoire du Littoral, a French agency
150	for the protection of coastal habitats. It is enlisted in the Ramsar convention (criterion 2:
151	supports vulnerable species ; criterion 3: supports populations of animal species important
152	for maintaining the biological diversity of the biogeographic region ; criterion 4: supports
153	animal species at a critical stage in their life cycles, or provides refuge during adverse
154	conditions ; Ramsar Convention, 1971).

155

156 The closest substantial site offering permanently suitable conditions for waterbirds is the Camargue (>19000 ha of protected area, 120 km to the west). Our study site is therefore a 157 small islet of protected wetlands which warrants a resting, breeding and feeding area to 158 waterbirds throughout the year in an otherwise unsuitable landscape matrix formed by low 159 dry mountains and a heavily urbanized coast. Both saltpans are strictly closed to the public 160 161 and are protected as part of Port Cros National Park, which prevents any kind of exploitation or human activities unrelated to biodiversity protection. Management is largely dedicated to 162 bird breeding and is ensured by fieldworkers from the municipality. 163

164

165	The Pesquiers (Fig. 1c) are a 650 ha saltpan located on a narrow sandy peninsula and used
166	for commercial exploitation from 1848 to 1995. It consists in a single large unit comprising
167	32 ponds (average surface 14.9 ha \pm 22.3 ha, all uncertainties in standard deviation units
168	unless otherwise stated), close to or below the sea level (-1.19 to +0.6 m depending on
169	ponds). Hydraulic pumps and sluice gates distribute water across the ponds from a belt canal
170	connected to the adjacent sea, and the saltpan is encircled by a road. Dykes separating the
171	ponds are covered by sparse herbaceous vegetation and scattered bushes.

172

The Vieux Salins (Fig. 1d) are located inland in a less urbanized area bordered by vineyards 173 174 and fields at its northern end; the southern end is separated from the coast by a tree hedge and a track. They cover a smaller extent (350 ha) with 34 ponds that result from the 175 grouping of several old familial units exploited from the 13rd century to 1995 (7.19 ha ± 5.46 176 177 ha). The ponds are mostly above the sea level (from -0.7 to +1.7 m); hydraulic pumps are 178 used to supply and distribute water from the adjacent sea, and sluice gates regulate water flow inside ponds. The dykes and immediate surroundings are covered by a continuous 179 herbaceous cover with scattered bushes and small woods. 180

181

Modulations of water levels and flow are decided by the site manager on a day-to-day basis and operated by local technicians. These controlled variations aim to secure the settlement of breeding birds, trying to balance the requirements of foraging waders and those of other species, with a specific focus on gull-tern colonies and Kentish Plover (Charadrius alexandrinus, listed as vulnerable at a national level, Appendix S1, Table S1.1). On both sites, the control of water levels is mainly limited by pump flow and tide ; desired levels are usually

- reached within a few hours, up to a day. Shallow water enters the circuit only through
- infiltrations, precipitations and casual drainage from surrounding hills after floods.

190

191 Bird data

192

Standardized bird counts have been performed on all the ponds of the two saltpans since 193 194 2005, but we restricted the dataset to the 12 ponds (7 on Vieux Salins and 5 on Pesquiers) and three years (2014-2016) with complete physicochemical records (Fig. 1); these ponds 195 196 account for 62% of all bird counts for the species and years considered (from 32%, Little Tern 197 to 82%, Kentish Plover). Counts were performed by a trained ornithologist, on a weekly (April-September) or ten-days (October-March) basis, at strategic locations maximizing 198 199 coverage along a standardized 77 km track covering all ponds within the two sites. Counts started at sunrise and the whole track was sampled in a single day, usually in five hours. All 200 birds seen or heard were recorded, except flyovers or birds flying from a pond to another. 201 202 Bird flocks usually stayed together and remained well identifiable, allowing the observer to 203 minimize the risk of double counts. Counts were not replicated, but all species considered in 204 the studies feed on well-visible bare ground, mudflats or low waters, ensuring near-205 exhaustive detection and counts. Identification errors were unlikely given the commonness 206 and overall low diversity of targeted species.

207

208 We focused on nine protected waterbird species specifically targeted by the saltpans 209 management plan due to their French and regional conservation status (species list,

210 conservation status, mean counts per site and number of pairs in Appendix S1, Table S1.1). All but Greater Flamingo breed on at least one of the two saltpans, and all are regularly 211 present and forage onsite, although terns also fish at sea. All the species are at least partly 212 migratory or erratic in winter : for each species, we therefore limited our study to the period 213 214 corresponding to 95% of its annual counts to distinguish absences due to species' phenology 215 from temporary absences resulting from local environmental conditions (Appendix S1, Table 216 S1.1: "Period of inclusion"). So doing, we also eliminated casual counts of late or early 217 migrants.

218

219 *Physicochemical variables*

220

221 Three physicochemical variables have been monitored since 2014 by the reserve's 222 fieldworkers every 15 days at 14 fixed sampling points (nine on Pesquiers, five on Vieux 223 Salins, Fig. 1c,d), alternating each saltpan on a weekly basis (quantitative summary in Appendix S1, Table S1.2 and Fig.S1.1). Some sampling events were offset by a few days in 224 225 case of bad weather, and 2% of the recordings could not be performed due to persisting unsuitable weather or device breakdowns. Water level (cm) corresponded to the height of 226 227 the water column and was measured to the nearest cm using permanent limnimetric scales. Salinity was measured to the nearest g.L⁻¹ with a probe (Consort C562, probe SK23T) up to its 228 229 saturation level (120 g.L⁻¹). Higher concentrations (20% of the recordings) needed to be 230 measured by a mechanical densimeter which was not systematically used by field technicians for practical reasons: we therefore truncated all salinity measurements to 120 231 g.L⁻¹. Oxygen concentration was measured with a probe (Consort C562, probe SZ10T-PB) to 232

the nearest 10⁻⁴ mg.L⁻¹. These three variables were uncorrelated (R² from 0.08 to 0.05).
Physicochemical measurements and bird counts were not performed simultaneously; we
therefore matched each bird count with the closest measurement event (mean offset = 0 ± 2
days, from -6 (1 sample) to +6 (1 sample) days). *Statistical Analyses*We related species' abundances to variations in water levels, salinity and oxygen

241 concentration with a hierarchical autoregressive generalized linear model implemented in a

242 bayesian framework (Royle & Dorazio, 2008; Kery & Royle, 2015). We modelled species

243 counts $N_{i,t,k,s}$ of species (s) at monitoring event (t), year (k) and pond (i) as a Poisson

244 distribution with mean $\lambda_{i,t,k,s}$:

245
$$N_{i,t,k,s} \sim Poisson(\lambda_{i,t,k,s})$$
 (1)

We predicted λ with a pond-varying intercept (α), saltpan-specific linear (β) and quadratic (Υ) effects of water level (WAL), salinity (SAL) and Oxygen concentration (OXY), plus a temporal overdispersion term (ϵ). The effects of salinity > 120 g.L⁻¹ was modelled by the saltpanspecific conditional intercept α^{120} . All terms were species-specific :

250
$$log(\lambda_{i,t,k,s}) = \alpha_{i,s} + \beta_{1,site(i),s} \times WAL_{i,t} + \gamma_{1,site(i),s} \times WAL_{i,t}^{2} + (1 - I_{SAL_{i,t} < 120}) \times$$

251
$$\alpha_{site(i),s}^{120} + I_{SAL_{i,t} < 120} \times (\beta_{2,site(i),s} \times SAL_{i,t} + \gamma_{2,site(i),s} \times SAL_{i,t}^{2}) + \beta_{3,site(i),s} \times OXY_{i,t} +$$

252
$$\gamma_{3,site(i),s} \times OXY_{i,t}^{2} + \varepsilon_{t,k,s}$$
(2)

253 Where $I_{SAL_{it} < 120}$ indicates whether salinity is above the censoring threshold of 120g.L⁻¹:

254
$$I_{SAL_{i,t} < 120} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the salinity of the pond } i \text{ at time } t \text{ is } < 120 \text{ g.L}^{-1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (3)

255 Since data for water levels, salinity or oxygen were missing in 14% of the recordings, we 256 modelled missing values assuming that all variables were normally distributed around the

257 observed mean and with the observed standard deviation.

258

259 We nested pond-level intercepts $\alpha_{i,s}$ within the two saltpans for each species to reflect

260 saltpan-dependent suitability to birds:

261 $\alpha_{i,s} \sim Norm(\mu_{site(i)}, \tau)$ (4)

262 We also imposed species-level priors to regression coefficients $\beta_{k,site(i),s}$:

263
$$\beta_{k,site(i),s} \sim Norm(B_s, T)$$
 (5)

264 Although we were interested in saltpan-level coefficients, these hyperpriors were necessary

to model species-level responses to variations in physico-chemical variables. This

266 hierarchical formulation is equivalent to a mixed model with nested pond and site random

267 effects on α and with a species random effect on β_k (Zuur, 2011).

268

269 We divided the overdispersion term $\varepsilon_{t,k,s}$ into a within-year error (ε_1) reflecting species'

seasonal phenology and a between-years error (ε_2) accounting for temporal autocorrelation

271 across consecutive breeding seasons :

272 $\varepsilon_{t,k,s} = \varepsilon_{1,t,s} + \varepsilon_{2,k,s}$ (5)

- 273 We assumed that ε_1 and ε_2 were normally distributed first-order autoregressive terms (Zuur, 274 2011) :
- 275 $\varepsilon_{1,t,s} \sim Norm(\varphi_{1,s} \times \varepsilon_{1,t-1,s}, \tau_1)$ (6)
- 276 $\varepsilon_{2,k,s} \sim Norm(\varphi_{2,s} \times \varepsilon_{2,k-1,s}, \tau_2)$ (7)

277 In these equations, ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 quantify respectively the magnitude of intra- and inter-annual 278 autocorrelations.

279

We specified flat gaussian priors for all higher-level hyperparameters and ran three Monte-Carlo Markov chains under JAGS 4.3.0 (Plummer, 2003), each with 10⁶ burn-in iterations and 10⁶ iterations for inference, thinned by 1000. The script of the model in BUGS language is provided in Appendix S3. We computed the Gelman-Rubin statistics (Gelman *et al.*, 2004) for all parameters and considered that a value below 1.1 indicated adequate convergence. We assessed model fit with a Bayesian posterior predictive check based on a comparison of observed and modelled species' abundances (Gelman & Hill, 2007).

287 Results

288

289 Model fit and convergence

290

291	The Bayesian posterior predictive check indicated varying fits according to species, from p =
292	0.26 to p = 0.7 (p = 0.5 indicates perfect fit; all results in Appendix S2, Fig S2.1). The poorest
293	fits corresponded to gregarious species that form large flocks (Black-headed Gull and
294	Greater Flamingo) or to semi-colonial species that aggregate in space (Stilt and Avocet). All
295	parameters converged adequately according to Gelman-Rubin's statistics (Appendix S2,
296	Table S2.1) and visual checks of chain stability. Autocorrelation was non-significant at both
297	intra- and inter-annual scales for most species (Appendix S1, Table S1.1), indicating that
298	temporal variations in counts were well captured by the variables considered.
299	
300	Site effect
301	
302	Species-level raw counts were lower in the smaller inland Vieux Salins than in the wide
303	coastal Pesquiers (Appendix S1, Table S1.1, which also displays the average number of pairs
304	per year on the two sites). This difference persisted once water level, salinity and dissolved
305	oxygen concentration were fixed to their average value over the two sites (Appendix S2, Fig.
306	S2.2). Species-specific variations unrelated to physiochemical parameters were not

explained by pond size only (maximum Pearson's R² between counts and pond area = 0.33 in
Greater Flamingo).

309

310 *Responses to physiochemical variables*

311

All physiochemical variables were non-linearly related to variations in species counts. Counts 312 313 varied by 0 to 100% along the range of variation of the three variables, with strong interspecific variation (Fig. 2-4 : estimated marginal variation in species' counts against a 314 315 given physiochemical variable, holding all other fixed to their average value). Hence, none of 316 the variables considered had an unambiguously higher influence than the others, which implies that species' responses to management practices were dictated by a balance of 317 318 multiple physiochemical features rather than merely by water levels. 319 320 Water level is the only lever available to the reserve managers to modulate water conditions on the two saltpans, and the most integrative of the three variables considered. Waders, 321 322 which nest and forage on emerged ground, exhibited a bell-shaped response to variations in 323 water level on at least one of the two sites (Fig. 2), with flatter responses in four of the five 324 islet-breeding species (Slender-billed Gull, Fig. 2d and Terns, Fig. 2g, h, i, but not Black-325 headed Gull, Fig. 2f). This result is explained by the need of these species to preserve their

nests from predators, but also by the fact that they tend to forage more frequently on open

327 waters. Leaving aside credible intervals, maximum counts were attained within the range of

328 water level variations for eight and five out of nine species in Pesquiers and Vieux Salins,

respectively (Appendix S2, Table S2.2, range of covariates in Appendix S1, Table S1.2 for comparison). However, response curves differed sharply between the two saltpans without any systematic pattern (compare blue and black curves in Fig. 2). For instance, Flamingo's optimum was close to 22 cm in Vieux Salins, while its counts increased monotonically in Pesquiers all over the water levels range (Fig. 2c and Table S2.2). These site-dependent optimums imply that species-dependent factors unrelated to the tested variables contribute to these response curves.

336

Responses to salinity were monotonically negative for six large islet-breeding species 337 338 (Avocet, Stilt, Slender-billed Gull, Kentish Plover, Black-headed Gull and Little Tern), the three others exhibiting non-linear curves (Fig. 3). Estimates of species' abundances when 339 salinity exceeded the 120g.L⁻¹ threshold imposed by our probe were consistent with these 340 curves in all species (Fig. 3). Interestingly, seven out of nine species reached a minimum 341 342 abundance within the salinity range observed in the Pesquiers, the main foraging site for most of them, but only three in Vieux Salins, which birds use more for roosting (Table S3.2). 343 This pattern was reversed for Flamingo (maximum counts for 51 g.L⁻¹), which however uses 344 345 little Vieux Salins in the breeding season. Conversely, response curves were negative or flat for three species which breed and feed on the two saltpans although usually more tied to 346 less saline waters, Black-headed Gull (Fig. 3f), Little Tern (Fig. 3h) and Common Tern (Fig. 3i). 347 Most species' responses to salinity were flatter in Vieux Salins, and even positive for Stilt 348 (Fig. 3b) and Black-headed Gull (Fig. 3f), although salinity varied within the same range in 349 350 both saltpans (Table S3.2).

351

The effect of dissolved oxygen concentration was also species- and saltpan-dependent with no general pattern, although response curves were flatter in Vieux Salins than in Pesquiers (Fig. 4). Species' optimums were inconsistent across the two saltpans, except for Avocet which peaked around 7 mg.L-1 in both (Fig. 4a and Appendix S2, Table S2.2). Flamingo exhibited similar monotonic decreases with increasing oxygen concentrations in the two saltpans (Fig. 4c), suggesting that this particular parameter might act as a strong limiting factor to this species.

359

360 Discussion

361

Most species exhibited strong non-linear responses to at least one of the three variables 362 363 investigated, supporting the hypothesis that water level, salinity and dissolved oxygen concentration are relevant parameters to control saltpans suitability to waterbirds, in line 364 with previous studies in other biogeographic areas (Velasquez, 1992; Warnock et al., 2002; 365 Giosa et al., 2018). As a general pattern, macroinvertebrate species diversity peak at mid-366 367 salinity (Britton & Johnson, 1987), which in turn forces a decrease in bird occurrence 368 towards hypersaline waters due to a lack of prey and osmoregulation stress (Gutiérrez et al., 2011). Salinity is thus crucial for waterbird assemblages through its direct influence on 369 370 trophic resources fluctuations (Warnock et al., 2002; Takekawa et al., 2006; Ramírez et al., 2018). In our study, all species tied to saltpans for foraging, except flamingo (i.e., all but 371 372 terns, which also fish at sea), exhibited negative response curves to salinity at least on Pesquiers, which points that water on this saltpan is overly saline to most breeding 373 waterbirds. Accordingly, the levels of salinity recorded in our study site were well above the 374

range found in comparable protected saltpans elsewhere in the world (e.g. in San Francisco
bay, Warnock *et al.*, 2002). In line with studies on other artificial marshes (Takekawa *et al.*,
2006; Bellio *et al.*, 2009; Giosa *et al.*, 2018), these patterns imply that our study site is a
suboptimum and stressful habitat which waterbirds are forced to use by the lack of more
suitable marshes in the vicinity, the closest coastal wetland to our study site being the
Camargue, 120 km to the west.

381

382 While increasing salinity had clearly detrimental effects on most species, the effects of water levels and dissolved oxygen were more species-specific, reflecting both species' habitat 383 384 preferences and site use. Waders and gulls peaked at low to intermediate water levels, consistent with their need of mudflats for foraging (Piersma et al., 2004), while terns, which 385 386 fish on open waters, exhibited flatter responses explained by the fact that they breed on ponds where water levels are maintained permanently high. At the other extreme, the 387 388 particular ecology of flamingo, a large-bodied specialist of highly saline waters relying on 389 saltpans as up to 60% of its habitat (Béchet et al., 2009), explains its maximum counts at 390 lower oxygenation, higher salinity and higher water levels than most other species. Its 391 unexpected apparent reluctance to high salinity in Vieux Salins can be explained by the confusing fact that the few sufficiently large and deep ponds on this saltpan also happen to 392 393 be the least saline. In sum, waterbirds' responses to changes in water physicochemical parameters were highly asynchronic across species and consistent with their differential use 394 of the saltpans, either for breeding, foraging or both. 395

396

397 Although species' responses to the three studied variables were generally well explained by breeding and feeding behaviours, we observed marked differences between the two studied 398 saltpans suggesting the interplay of additional factors not accounted for in our study. Most 399 notably, responses to all tested variables were more marked, and abundances were higher, 400 401 on the barren Pesquiers saltpans than on the more vegetalized Vieux Salins, reflecting the 402 tendency of shorebirds to forage and breed preferentially in open habitats (Tavares et al., 403 2015; Żmihorski et al., 2016). This discrepancy between the two sites may also imply that 404 breeding waterbirds limit distances between breeding and foraging areas to reduce energy expenditure and predation risk. Among undesired effects which may also contribute to inter-405 site differences, herbaceous cover and wooded areas can increase predation pressure by 406 wild boar, red fox, yellow-legged gull, falcons and sparrowhawk (Żmihorski et al., 2016), and 407 408 the small size of Vieux Salins exposes birds more to external disturbance (in particular the proximity of an airport), although both sites are permanently closed to the public. These 409 speculations based on field experience demand formal testing with dedicated data, which 410 were not available during our study. Our results suggest, however, that waterbirds' 411 412 responses to water parameters interact with landscape and habitat-level determinants, 413 calling for an ecosystem-based management approach (Ma et al., 2010; Clausen et al., 414 2013), which would account for habitat complementation behaviours in the species under 415 focus.

416

The restoration of a natural connexion between the sea and inland waters is the most
efficient option to create vast expands of suitable wetlands to waterbirds and the associated
trophic network. This solution is however out of reach where dykes warrant protection

420 against coastal erosion and secure human land use : saltpans then become the only 421 substitution habitat for waterbirds in highly artificialized matrices, such as in our study site, 422 elsewhere in the Mediterranean basin (Paracuellos et al., 2002), in western United States (Takekawa et al., 2006; Athearn et al., 2012) or in south-eastern Asia (Lei et al., 2018). To 423 424 ensure the efficiency of this artificial conservation solution, our results suggest that saltpans 425 management choices should be based on the ecological preferences of functional guilds 426 rather than, as is often favoured by managers for practical or communication reasons, on 427 flagship species. Distinguishing ponds matching the requirements of mudflat-feeding birds, including shorebirds and gulls, from others dedicated to water-feeding species (here only 428 terns) or to flamingo (due to its specific ecology) would likely capture most of this ecological 429 variability. However, this segregation might need to be adjusted seasonally to account for 430 431 the requirements of passing-through migrants and wintering species (Bellio et al., 2009; Tavares et al., 2015). Based on our results, a viable strategy to promote the simultaneous co-432 occurrence of these two guilds would be to maintain a mosaic involving low-salinity (20 to 40 433 g.L⁻¹) ponds with water levels below 20 cm and emerged mudflats (shorebirds and gulls), 434 mid-salinity (40-80 g.L⁻¹) ponds with 20 cm of water (mainly flamingo) and ponds with higher 435 436 water levels protecting colonies from predation and offering foraging areas to terns.

437

Furthermore, contrary to Athearn et al (2012), we found no evidence that hypersaline
conditions above 40 g.L⁻¹ favour any of the functional guilds present on our study site. This
discrepancy suggests regional and intra-guild species-specific variations in the range of
suitable water properties. Any reduction of salinity should furthermore be applied reversibly
to avoid undesired cascading effects on the trophic network through eutrophication and

443 competition induced by local invaders (Takekawa et al., 2015). Our results additionally suggest that birds' sensitivity to salinity is exacerbated on foraging sites due to its structuring 444 impact on trophic networks, while water levels are more critical on roosting and breeding 445 sites. This pattern implies that species' optimum responses to water physico-chemical 446 447 parameters are not just explained by trophic requirements and physiological stress, but also 448 by contextual effects associated with habitat complementation behaviours, landscape, 449 predation pressure and disturbance, calling for management decisions based on local 450 estimations of species' requirements rather than on external results.

451

It is tempting to believe that a more complete assessment of water physico-chemical 452 characteristics, including direct measurements of photosynthetic activity, evaluation of prey 453 454 resources, and a finer spatial resolution in water level measurements would yield a more biologically realistic model and more precise management recommendations. These data 455 456 are, however, rarely available and the required sampling effort may not be sustainable for managers over the long-term at a frequency compatible with the rapid environmental 457 changes observed in saltpans (a few days to a few weeks). Our dataset is therefore 458 459 representative of the actual data available in practice to decide on management options, which are largely tied to a single lever, water levels. The resulting water flow modulates 460 461 directly salinity and oxygen, which in turn determine prey availability to waterbirds (Velasquez, 1992; Athearn et al., 2012) and can thus be considered suitable proxies of the 462 dynamics of the trophic chains (Takekawa et al., 2015). We suggest however that a two-tier 463 monitoring of environmental variables on saltpans, coupling regular measurements of these 464 synthetic proxies with more spaced exhaustive analyses of water and geolocated bird 465

466 records, would substantially improve model-based assessments of management practices467 and subsequent choices.

468

469	As pressure on coastal wetlands increases worldwide under the effects of sea level rise and
470	artificialization (Ma et al., 2009; Traill et al., 2011; Osland et al., 2016), decommissioned
471	saltpans appear as a cost-effective way to preserve breeding and stopping-over habitats for
472	waterbirds and their associated trophic network (Green et al.; Masero, 2003; Athearn et al.,
473	2012). Although their small size cannot compensate the loss of large extents of wetlands,
474	they serve as essential stepping stones in connectivity networks (Volenec & Dobson, 2019)
475	and can sustain viable populations of vulnerable species (Márquez-Ferrando et al., 2014),
476	making the protection of these artificial habitats central to preserve waterbirds along coastal
477	landscapes undergoing strong human pressure. Our study showed however that in such
478	isolated contexts, waterbirds may be forced to use saltpans by the absence of any
479	alternative habitat, in spite of the stress implied by hypersaline conditions. Balancing water
480	levels and flow aimed to match the preferences of functional guilds instead of focusing on
481	flagship species may be an effective way to solve this issue, but this local-level management
482	also needs to consider supplementary factors which influence waterbirds' behaviour, such as
483	site size, vegetation and direct disturbance. Implementing multi-species, multi-scale
484	management schemes is therefore likely the key to sustain the role of saltpans as
485	substitution habitats facing anthropogenic pressure on coastal wetlands.

486

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488	
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491	References
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- 648 Supplementary Materials
- 649
- 650 Appendix S1: Complementary information on the data set
- 651 Appendix S2: Complementary results on the model
- 652 Appendix S3: Script of the multispecies model in BUGS language





Figure 1. Location and configuration of the study area. The site is located on the French
Mediterranean coast (a) and comprises two distinct saltpans located 3 km apart in a heavily
urbanized seashore (b, urban areas in light blue). The two saltpans consist in mosaics of
contiguous ponds that are connected together or to a belt canal (Pesquiers: c, Vieux Salins:
d). The ponds included in the study are shown in dark blue, other ponds in grey. The white
triangles indicate the location of the 14 measurement points for physico-chemical
parameters and water levels.





Figure 2. Waterbird responses to variations in water levels in Pesquiers (black) and Vieux
Salins (blue). Curves depict marginal variations in species' counts on the two sites, as
predicted by a hierarchical model, holding all other variables in the model constant.
Responses are standardized by their maximum to ease comparisons (plain line = median,
dashed line = 95% credible interval). Vertical scale magnified in h.



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Figure 3. Waterbird responses to variations in salinity (censored at 120 g.L⁻¹) in Pesquiers
(black) and Vieux Salins (blue). Curves depict marginal variations in species' counts on the
two sites, as predicted by a hierarchical model, holding all other variables in the model
constant. Responses are standardized by their maximum to ease comparisons (plain line =
median, dashed line = 95% credible interval). The bars on the right indicate the estimate and

- 679 95% credible interval of relative marginal species' abundance when salinity is above 120 g.L⁻¹
- 680 (α_{120} in equation 2).
- 681



Figure 4. Waterbird responses to variations in oxygen concentration (mg.L⁻¹) in Pesquiers
(black) and Vieux Salins (blue). Curves depict marginal variations in species' counts on the

- two sites, as predicted by a hierarchical model, holding all other variables in the model
- 687 constant. Responses are standardized by their maximum to ease comparisons (plain line =
- 688 median, dashed line = 95% credible interval). Vertical scale magnified in d and h.