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Interspecific variations in shorebird responses to management practices on protected Mediterranean salt pans.

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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

7

8 **Abstract**

9

10 Tidal habitats sustain fragile ecosystems, undergoing pressures from coastal artificialization
11 and rising sea levels. Saltpans are a substitution habitat for birds that breed, winter or stop-
12 over along coastlands where most pristine tidal habitats have been removed. Balancing the
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
16 French Mediterranean shore, several tens of kilometres apart from other suitable habitats.
17 We analysed three years of bird counts for nine protected species that breed, forage and
18 roost on these saltpans. We used a multispecies hierarchical model to relate variations in
19 bird counts to water levels, oxygenation and salinity, the three parameters targeted by the
20 saltpans management plan to promote bird settlement. We showed that the hypersaline
21 conditions that dominate in these saltpans are suboptimum to most species, suggesting that
22 waterbird concentrations are dictated by the lack of alternatives in the surrounding
23 landscape rather than by habitat suitability. Intraspecific variations in species' responses to
24 these variables should orient towards the creation of a habitat mosaic within the saltpans.
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
27 high waterbird numbers on isolated saltpans may be a misleading measure of their
28 ecological suitability, and that management on these sites needs to incorporate conflicts and
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

48 Coastal wetlands are highly productive, yet unstable ecosystems with site-specific dynamics
49 tied to variations in sea levels, balance of freshwater and saltwater, and human usage
50 (Adam, 2002). The vulnerability of coastal wetlands facing rising sea levels as a result of
51 ongoing climate change is listed as one of the most severe threats to coastal biodiversity in
52 the coming decades (Boesch, 2000; Craft *et al.*, 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg & Bruno, 2010).
53 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).

Most waterbirds (mainly Charadriidae, Scolopacidae, Laridae and a few other related families ; Burger & Olla, 1984) are strict invertebrate eaters or piscivores, and thus occupy a top-position in trophic networks that make them suitable indicators to monitor the 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 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 Asia (Sripanomyom *et al.*, 2011; Xia *et al.*, 2017) or on Mediterranean shores (AEWA, 2018; Giosa *et al.*, 2018). Along these coasts, suitable wetlands are small and rare due to topographic constraints and intense human land use (Myers, 1983; Piersma *et al.*, 2006). As 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 appropriate resources in artificial wetlands such as fishponds and saltpans (Velasquez, 1992; Takekawa *et al.*, 2006; Giosa *et al.*, 2018). It is therefore of paramount importance to assess

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

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 high patrimonial value associated with hunting, conservation status and legal use as indicator species (Colwell, 2010). These small-bodied species cannot cope with large variations in water depth, which therefore determine habitat availability. Furthermore, the abundance and quality of their invertebrate preys peaks in mesohaline waters with high oxygenation levels (Velasquez, 1992; Takekawa *et al.*, 2006; Dias, 2009; Athearn *et al.*, 2012). These conditions are specifically met in saltpans, in which water levels, variations in physiochemical conditions and other sources of disturbance are buffered artificially by hydraulic control, rendering these artificial saltmarshes suitable for high waterbird concentrations (Velasquez, 1992; Sánchez *et al.*, 2006; Takekawa *et al.*, 2006).

Because waterbird numbers and diversity decrease in hypersaline conditions, the suitability of saltpans to birds is conditioned to the maintenance of optimum physicochemical 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 to erosion and human disturbance (Catry *et al.*, 2004). By contrast with waders, these birds 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. Waterbird conservation on saltpans therefore need to accommodate conflicts in species'

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

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, 2003). Wetlands located in this area are therefore enlisted in the Ramsar convention among priority sites for the conservation of migrating and breeding waterbirds at the scale of Western Europe (Sadoul & Walmsley, 2000). Most suitable habitats have, however, been eliminated by land artificialization. The two remaining significant wetlands along this stretch 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 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 several species of conservation concern at the national or regional scale, such as Kentish Plover (*Charadrius alexandrinus*) and Black-headed Gull (*Chroicocephalus ridibundus*). 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 adequately balances the species' ecological requirements according to their various habitat uses.

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

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

We specifically addressed three questions: (i) are bird counts high because water levels and physiochemical properties encompass species' optimum values, or because of the lack of alternative sites? (ii) do species with different habitat and trophic requirements respond 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 addressed these questions through a three-years monitoring based on decadal bird counts, concentrating on nine breeding species prioritized by the site management plan. We focused on variations in water levels, salinity and oxygen concentration, which are identified as the most limiting physicochemical variables for waterbirds frequenting saltpans (Warnock *et al.*, 2002; Takekawa *et al.*, 2006, 2015).

Material and methods

144

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

164

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

The Vieux Salins (Fig. 1d) are located inland in a less urbanized area bordered by vineyards 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 grouping of several old familial units exploited from the 13th century to 1995 (7.19 ha \pm 5.46 ha). The ponds are mostly above the sea level (from -0.7 to +1.7 m); hydraulic pumps are 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 herbaceous cover with scattered bushes and small woods.

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.

Bird data

Standardized bird counts have been performed on all the ponds of the two saltpans since 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 account for 62% of all bird counts for the species and years considered (from 32%, Little Tern 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 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 birds seen or heard were recorded, except flyovers or birds flying from a pond to another. Bird flocks usually stayed together and remained well identifiable, allowing the observer to minimize the risk of double counts. Counts were not replicated, but all species considered in the studies feed on well-visible bare ground, mudflats or low waters, ensuring near-exhaustive detection and counts. Identification errors were unlikely given the commonness and overall low diversity of targeted species.

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

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 present and forage onsite, although terns also fish at sea. All the species are at least partly migratory or erratic in winter : for each species, we therefore limited our study to the period corresponding to 95% of its annual counts to distinguish absences due to species' phenology from temporary absences resulting from local environmental conditions (Appendix S1, Table S1.1: "Period of inclusion"). So doing, we also eliminated casual counts of late or early migrants.

Physicochemical variables

Three physicochemical variables have been monitored since 2014 by the reserve's fieldworkers every 15 days at 14 fixed sampling points (nine on Pesquiers, five on Vieux 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 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 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 saturation level (120 g.L^{-1}). Higher concentrations (20% of the recordings) needed to be measured by a mechanical densimeter which was not systematically used by field technicians for practical reasons: we therefore truncated all salinity measurements to 120 g.L^{-1} . Oxygen concentration was measured with a probe (Consort C562, probe SZ10T-PB) to

the nearest 10^{-4} mg.L⁻¹. These three variables were uncorrelated (R^2 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 concentration with a hierarchical autoregressive generalized linear model implemented in a bayesian framework (Royle & Dorazio, 2008; Kery & Royle, 2015). We modelled species counts $N_{i,t,k,s}$ of species (s) at monitoring event (t), year (k) and pond (i) as a Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda_{i,t,k,s}$:

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

We predicted λ with a pond-varying intercept (α), saltpan-specific linear (β) and quadratic (γ) 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 saltpan-specific conditional intercept α^{120} . All terms were species-specific :

$$\begin{aligned} \log(\lambda_{i,t,k,s}) = & \alpha_{i,s} + \beta_{1,site(i),s} \times WAL_{i,t} + \gamma_{1,site(i),s} \times WAL_{i,t}^2 + (1 - I_{SAL_{i,t} < 120}) \times \\ & \alpha_{site(i),s}^{120} + I_{SAL_{i,t} < 120} \times (\beta_{2,site(i),s} \times SAL_{i,t} + \gamma_{2,site(i),s} \times SAL_{i,t}^2) + \beta_{3,site(i),s} \times OXY_{i,t} + \\ & \gamma_{3,site(i),s} \times OXY_{i,t}^2 + \epsilon_{t,k,s} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

Since data for water levels, salinity or oxygen were missing in 14% of the recordings, we modelled missing values assuming that all variables were normally distributed around the observed mean and with the observed standard deviation.

258

We nested pond-level intercepts $\alpha_{i,s}$ within the two saltpans for each species to reflect saltpan-dependent suitability to birds:

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

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

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

Although we were interested in saltpan-level coefficients, these hyperpriors were necessary to model species-level responses to variations in physico-chemical variables. This hierarchical formulation is equivalent to a mixed model with nested pond and site random effects on α and with a species random effect on β_k (Zuur, 2011).

268

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 across consecutive breeding seasons :

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

273 We assumed that ε_1 and ε_2 were normally distributed first-order autoregressive terms (Zuur,
274 2011) :

$$275 \quad \varepsilon_{1,t,s} \sim \text{Norm}(\varphi_{1,s} \times \varepsilon_{1,t-1,s}, \tau_1) \quad (6)$$

$$276 \quad \varepsilon_{2,k,s} \sim \text{Norm}(\varphi_{2,s} \times \varepsilon_{2,k-1,s}, \tau_2) \quad (7)$$

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

279

280 We specified flat gaussian priors for all higher-level hyperparameters and ran three Monte-
281 Carlo Markov chains under JAGS 4.3.0 (Plummer, 2003), each with 10^6 burn-in iterations and
282 10^6 iterations for inference, thinned by 1000. The script of the model in BUGS language is
283 provided in Appendix S3. We computed the Gelman-Rubin statistics (Gelman *et al.*, 2004) for
284 all parameters and considered that a value below 1.1 indicated adequate convergence. We
285 assessed model fit with a Bayesian posterior predictive check based on a comparison of
286 observed and modelled species' abundances (Gelman & Hill, 2007).

Results

Model fit and convergence

The Bayesian posterior predictive check indicated varying fits according to species, from $p = 0.26$ to $p = 0.7$ ($p = 0.5$ indicates perfect fit; all results in Appendix S2, Fig S2.1). The poorest fits corresponded to gregarious species that form large flocks (Black-headed Gull and Greater Flamingo) or to semi-colonial species that aggregate in space (Stilt and Avocet). All parameters converged adequately according to Gelman-Rubin's statistics (Appendix S2, Table S2.1) and visual checks of chain stability. Autocorrelation was non-significant at both intra- and inter-annual scales for most species (Appendix S1, Table S1.1), indicating that temporal variations in counts were well captured by the variables considered.

Site effect

Species-level raw counts were lower in the smaller inland Vieux Salins than in the wide coastal Pesquiers (Appendix S1, Table S1.1, which also displays the average number of pairs per year on the two sites). This difference persisted once water level, salinity and dissolved oxygen concentration were fixed to their average value over the two sites (Appendix S2, Fig. S2.2). Species-specific variations unrelated to physiochemical parameters were not

explained by pond size only (maximum Pearson's R^2 between counts and pond area = 0.33 in Greater Flamingo).

Responses to physiochemical variables

All physiochemical variables were non-linearly related to variations in species counts. Counts 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 given physiochemical variable, holding all other fixed to their average value). Hence, none of 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 multiple physiochemical features rather than merely by water levels.

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, which nest and forage on emerged ground, exhibited a bell-shaped response to variations in water level on at least one of the two sites (Fig. 2), with flatter responses in four of the five islet-breeding species (Slender-billed Gull, Fig. 2d and Terns, Fig. 2g, h, i, but not Black-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 waters. Leaving aside credible intervals, maximum counts were attained within the range of 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.

Responses to salinity were monotonically negative for six large islet-breeding species (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 salinity exceeded the 120g.L^{-1} threshold imposed by our probe were consistent with these curves in all species (Fig. 3). Interestingly, seven out of nine species reached a minimum 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). This pattern was reversed for Flamingo (maximum counts for 51 g.L^{-1}), which however uses 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 less saline waters, Black-headed Gull (Fig. 3f), Little Tern (Fig. 3h) and Common Tern (Fig. 3i). Most species' responses to salinity were flatter in Vieux Salins, and even positive for Stilt (Fig. 3b) and Black-headed Gull (Fig. 3f), although salinity varied within the same range in both saltpans (Table S3.2).

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.

Discussion

Most species exhibited strong non-linear responses to at least one of the three variables investigated, supporting the hypothesis that water level, salinity and dissolved oxygen concentration are relevant parameters to control saltpans suitability to waterbirds, in line with previous studies in other biogeographic areas (Velasquez, 1992; Warnock *et al.*, 2002; Giosa *et al.*, 2018). As a general pattern, macroinvertebrate species diversity peak at mid-salinity (Britton & Johnson, 1987), which in turn forces a decrease in bird occurrence 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 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 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 waterbirds. Accordingly, the levels of salinity recorded in our study site were well above the

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.

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 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 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 particular ecology of flamingo, a large-bodied specialist of highly saline waters relying on saltpans as up to 60% of its habitat (Béchet *et al.*, 2009), explains its maximum counts at lower oxygenation, higher salinity and higher water levels than most other species. Its 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 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 of the saltpans, either for breeding, foraging or both.

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 salt pans suggesting the interplay of additional factors not accounted for in our study. Most notably, responses to all tested variables were more marked, and abundances were higher, on the barren Pesquiers salt pans than on the more vegetated Vieux Salins, reflecting the tendency of shorebirds to forage and breed preferentially in open habitats (Tavares *et al.*, 2015; Żmihorski *et al.*, 2016). This discrepancy between the two sites may also imply that 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-site differences, herbaceous cover and wooded areas can increase predation pressure by wild boar, red fox, yellow-legged gull, falcons and sparrowhawk (Żmihorski *et al.*, 2016), and 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 speculations based on field experience demand formal testing with dedicated data, which were not available during our study. Our results suggest, however, that waterbirds' responses to water parameters interact with landscape and habitat-level determinants, calling for an ecosystem-based management approach (Ma *et al.*, 2010; Clausen *et al.*, 2013), which would account for habitat complementation behaviours in the species under focus.

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

against coastal erosion and secure human land use : saltpans then become the only substitution habitat for waterbirds in highly artificialized matrices, such as in our study site, 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 ensure the efficiency of this artificial conservation solution, our results suggest that saltpans management choices should be based on the ecological preferences of functional guilds rather than, as is often favoured by managers for practical or communication reasons, on flagship species. Distinguishing ponds matching the requirements of mudflat-feeding birds, including shorebirds and gulls, from others dedicated to water-feeding species (here only terns) or to flamingo (due to its specific ecology) would likely capture most of this ecological variability. However, this segregation might need to be adjusted seasonally to account for 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-occurrence of these two guilds would be to maintain a mosaic involving low-salinity (20 to 40 g.L⁻¹) ponds with water levels below 20 cm and emerged mudflats (shorebirds and gulls), mid-salinity (40-80 g.L⁻¹) ponds with 20 cm of water (mainly flamingo) and ponds with higher water levels protecting colonies from predation and offering foraging areas to terns.

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

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 impact on trophic networks, while water levels are more critical on roosting and breeding sites. This pattern implies that species' optimum responses to water physico-chemical parameters are not just explained by trophic requirements and physiological stress, but also by contextual effects associated with habitat complementation behaviours, landscape, predation pressure and disturbance, calling for management decisions based on local estimations of species' requirements rather than on external results.

It is tempting to believe that a more complete assessment of water physico-chemical characteristics, including direct measurements of photosynthetic activity, evaluation of prey resources, and a finer spatial resolution in water level measurements would yield a more biologically realistic model and more precise management recommendations. These data 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 changes observed in saltpans (a few days to a few weeks). Our dataset is therefore 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 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 dynamics of the trophic chains (Takekawa *et al.*, 2015). We suggest however that a two-tier monitoring of environmental variables on saltpans, coupling regular measurements of these synthetic proxies with more spaced exhaustive analyses of water and geolocated bird

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

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

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491 **References**

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648 **Supplementary Materials**

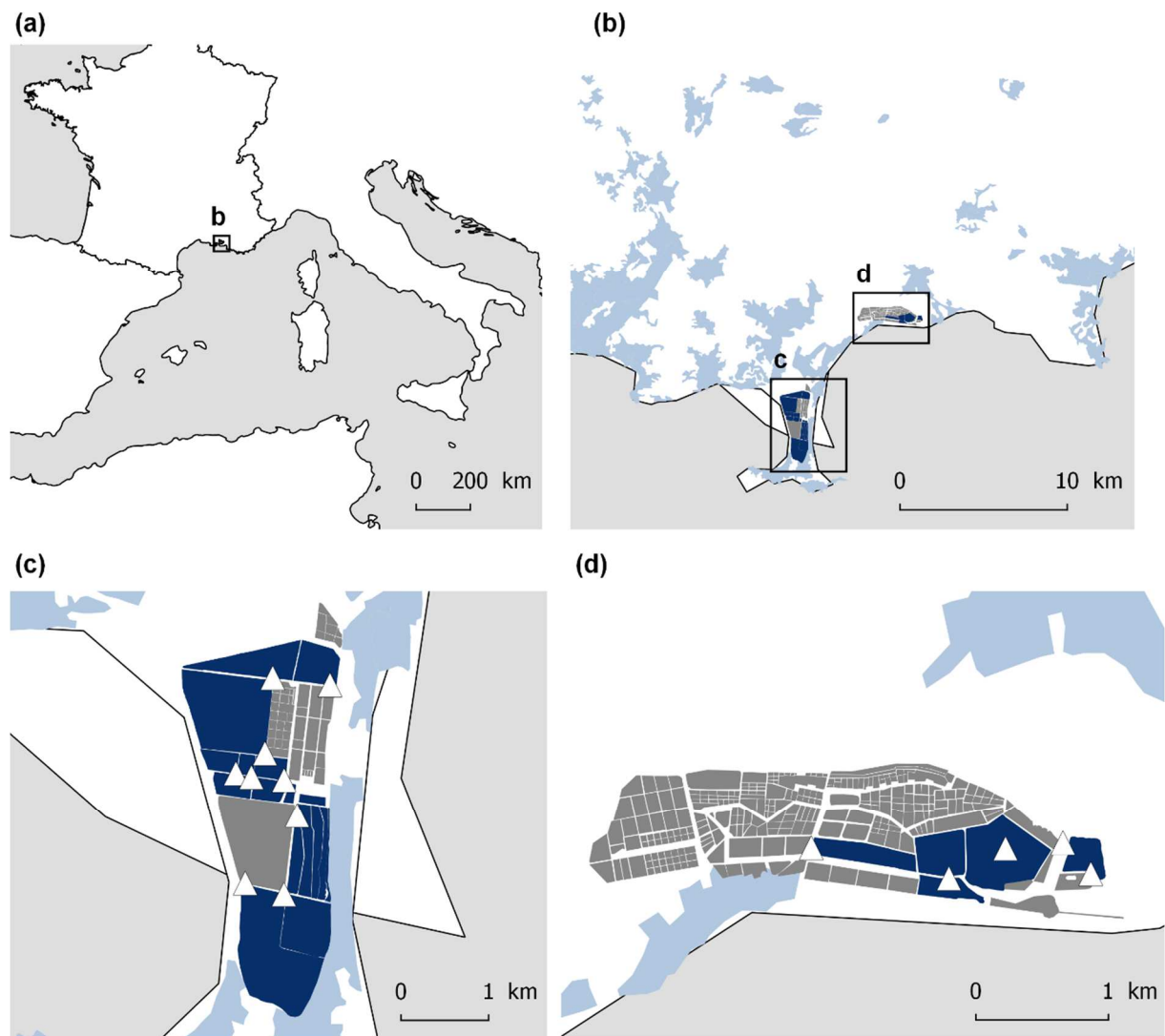
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650 Appendix S1: Complementary information on the data set

651 Appendix S2: Complementary results on the model

652 Appendix S3: Script of the multispecies model in BUGS language

653

654 **Figures.**

655

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

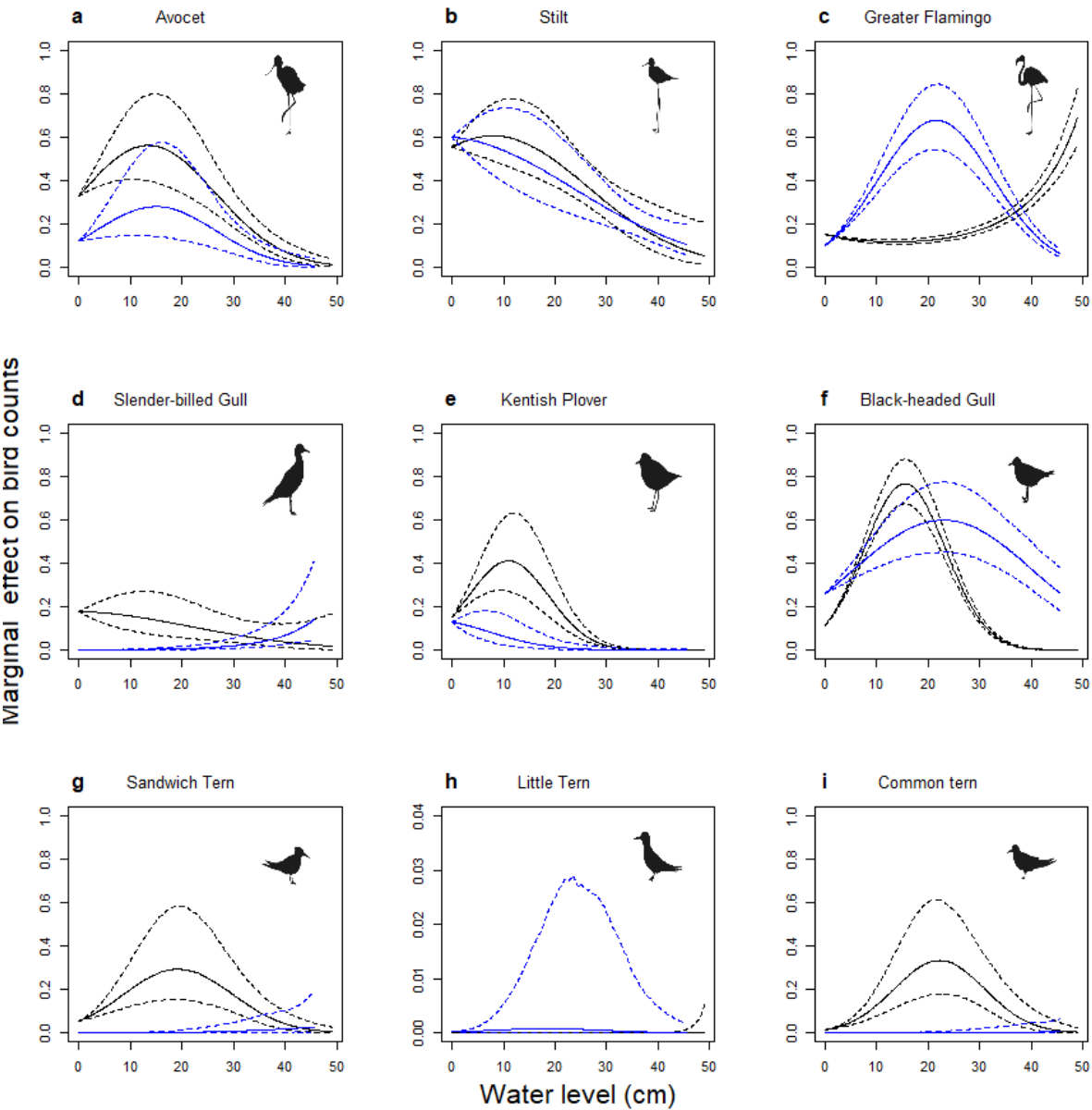


Figure 2. Waterbird responses to variations in water levels in Pesquiers (black) and Vieux Salins (blue). Curves depict marginal variations in species' counts on the two sites, as predicted by a hierarchical model, holding all other variables in the model constant. Responses are standardized by their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

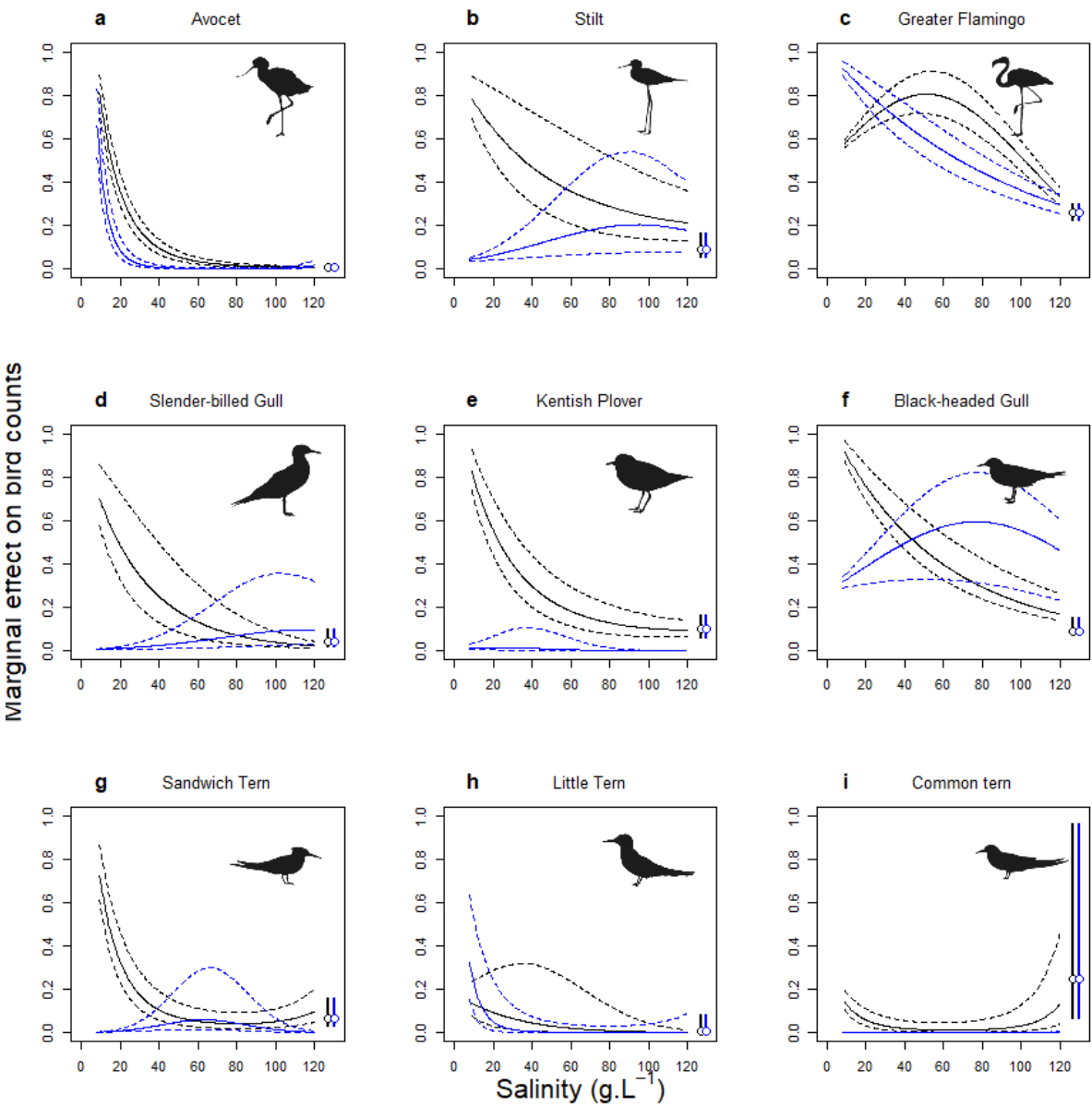
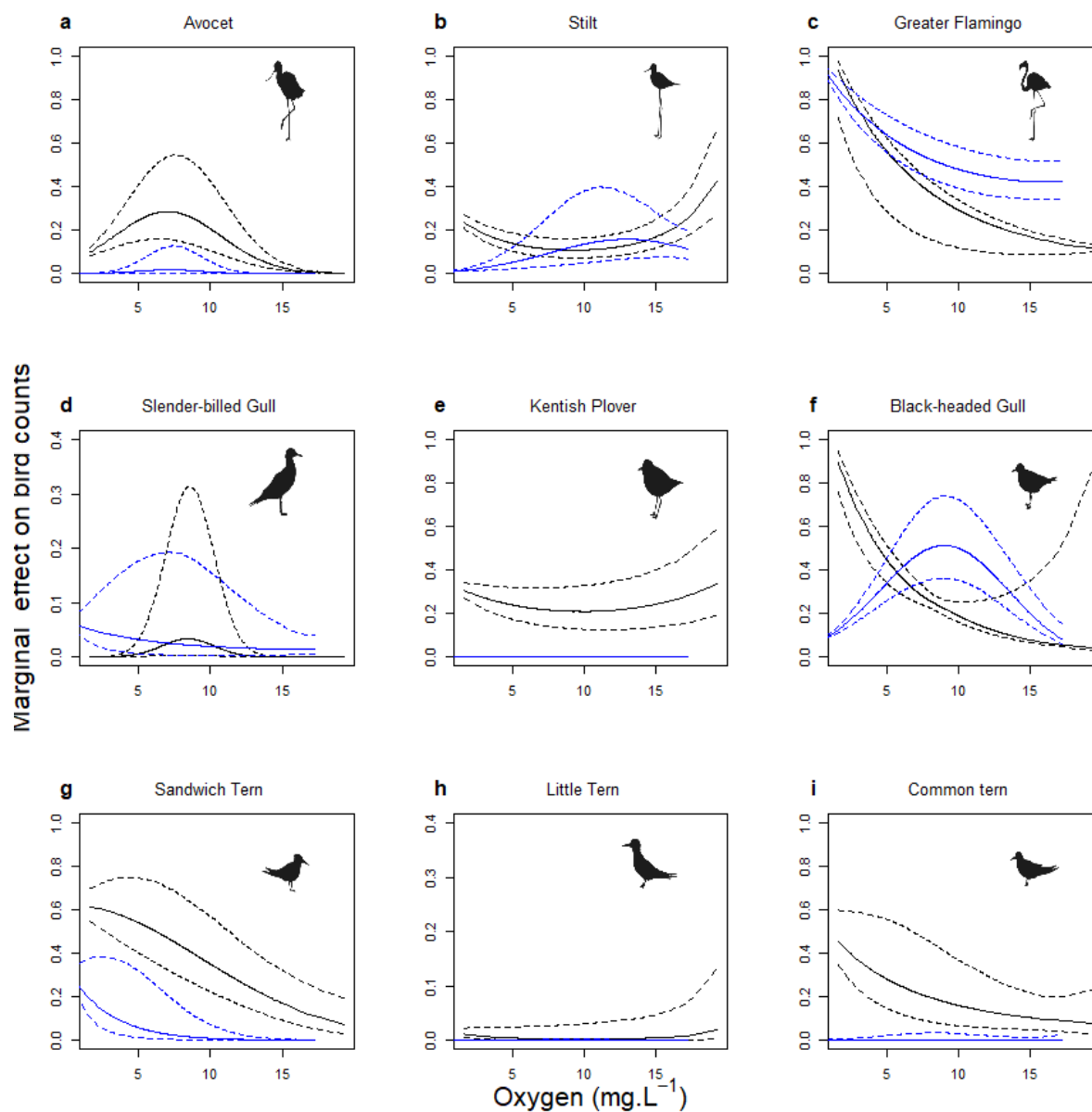


Figure 3. Waterbird responses to variations in salinity (censored at 120 g.L⁻¹) in Pesquiers (black) and Vieux Salins (blue). Curves depict marginal variations in species' counts on the two sites, as predicted by a hierarchical model, holding all other variables in the model constant. Responses are standardized 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).

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683

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

Waterbird responses to wetland management

686 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.

689