A REVIEW OF MIGRATORY BIRD FLYWAYS AND PRIORITIES FOR MANAGEMENT

CMS Technical Series Publication No. 27

UNEP CMS

Published by the Secretariat of the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals

Recommended citation:
A Review of Migratory Bird Flyways and Priorities for Management. 2014.
UNEP/CMS Secretariat, Bonn, Germany. 164 pages.
CMS Technical Series No. 27

Prepared by:	UNEP/CMS Secretariat
Authors:	Colin A. Galbraith, Tim Jones, Jeff Kirby and Taej Mundkur
Coordination:	Borja Heredia
Cover Photograph:	Shabla Lake complex, Bulgaria, by Nicky Petkov
Design:	Karina Waedt, www.karinadesign.de

Acknowledgements Ana Berta García, Felix Kwabena Donkor and Hirzi Luqman assisted with the preparation of the manuscript. Funding to undertake the flyways reviews has been provided by the German Government, the Swiss Government, BirdLife International, Wetlands International and the CMS Secretariat.

Copies of this publication are available from the UNEP/CMS Secretariat website: http://www.cms.int

UNEP / CMS Secretariat
UN Campus
Platz der Vereinten Nationen 1
D-53111 Bonn, Germany
Tel (+49 228) 815 24 01/02
Fax (+49 228) 815 24 49
E-mail: secretariat@cms.int
www.cms.int

ISBN 987-3-937429-88-5

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Foreword by Bradnee Chambers

The passing of migratory birds is one of the great wonders of nature that has fascinated mankind over centuries. The sight and sound of cranes and geese while flying on their V formation are often perceived as a herald of spring and a symbol of good luck by people all over the world. Birds travel thousands of kilometres as they travel to their wintering grounds and on their way back to their breeding areas. These journeys are repeated every year requiring precise orientation and high energy consumption, as an ecological adaptation to different environmental conditions and as a way to exploit food resources available at different times of the year. The migration routes followed by birds are called flyways and these routes encompass the breeding, wintering and staging areas required to complete the whole annual cycle. Flyways often include several countries that the birds have to cross during their migrations and this transboundary perspective entails conservation efforts having to go beyond national frontiers and be undertaken at international level through close cooperation among the States involved.

CMS is a convention concerned with those species of wild animals that migrate across national jurisdictional boundaries and accordingly it is the leading UN body on flyways. A number of CMS instruments have been developed as a response to the conservation needs of some regional flyways, as it is the case for example with the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA), the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Southern South American Migratory Grassland Bird Species and their Habitats (Grasslands Birds MOU) and the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia (Raptors MOU). These and other bird instruments provide the necessary framework for countries to get together and coordinate their conservation efforts to ensure that species that are adequately protected at one end of the flyway are not being illegally killed at the other, and that critical habitats are protected along the entire route.

The success of the flyways approach led the CMS Parties gathered in Rome in 2008 to establish a working group on global bird flyways to act as an international think tank on flyways and frameworks. The working group was assigned the task of reviewing scientific and technical issues concerning the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats. One of the first mandates of the working group was to produce three global reviews as background for policy development: the first one analysing the existing CMS and non-CMS administrative arrangements for flyway conservation currently in place; the second regarding scientific and technical issues and identifying priority issues related to flyways and management of migratory species and their habitats; and the third regarding policy options for flyways conservation and management.

What readers now have in their hands is the compilation of these three reviews in a single volume. I sincerely hope that this publication will be useful to those involved in the conservation of migratory birds in Government, civil society, research institutes or the private sector, and that it will contribute to a better understanding of the complex phenomenon of bird migration and the development on international policy. I would also like to thank the authors for their excellent reports and the members of the working group for their commitment to flyways conservation and their support to CMS.

Bradnee Chambers
Executive Secretary of CMS

Foreword by Taej Mundkur

The conservation of birds and their habitats should really be considered the business and concern of everybody. For one, birds are an important part of our world by performing a variety of important ecosystem services and functions. Their beauty, diversity and ability to bring us great joy and pleasure is widely reflected in our poetry, art, literature and crafts.

The CMS Flyways Working Group has brought together information on the major international frameworks available for the management of migratory birds and their habitats around the world, and identified the major conservation issues and gaps in knowledge to promote their management. From this assessment, it is evident that a lot of great work is being done by people across the world for the conservation of these enigmatic species and their ecosystems. Yet, an increasing number of migratory species are declining, some very rapidly, and several are facing eminent extinction. Positive results are reversing the declines of some species through implementation of well-planned conservation actions that serve as a reminder that it is possible for us to reverse the fortunes of such imperilled species. Such recovery plans have focussed on the key direct and indirect threats affecting these threatened species and have often required decades of work and at great expense. Thus maintaining our bird species in a favourable conservation status should remain our highest priority.

The Group has proposed priority actions, and options and frameworks for further development that will need to be implemented by governments and other stakeholders responsible for and concerned with the management of our environment and biodiversity, and migratory species. This work has also provided the basis for the framing of a detailed resolution on global flyway policy for the CMS that was unanimously supported by all the CMS Parties at its last Conference of Parties. This has in turn led to the development of a global Programme of Work on Migratory Birds and Flyways as a means of prioritizing and focussing global actions along the many flyways of the world up to 2020 and thereby strongly contributes to implementation of the CBD Aichi Biodiversity Targets with an aim for its endorsement by the CMS Parties in late 2014.

It has been a great pleasure interacting with the Flyways Working Group including CMS councillors, representatives of international conventions and agreements, international NGOs and experts who have worked hard to contribute information and review several drafts to bring this publication together. Colleagues at the CMS Secretariat have shown exception dedication in supporting this work throughout.
We all need to be willing and prepared to step up our collaborative work and actions to ensure that migratory birds remain a part of our lives and of our future generations.

Taej Mundkur
Chair, CMS Flyways Working Group

General Introduction

The phenomenon of bird migration has been a source of wonder for man since time immemorial. However, the biological integrity of this intricate seasonal journey, which covers a network of several biomes across different frontiers and continents, is being compromised due to a plethora of threats and challenges, and consequently the vulnerability of migratory birds is increasing worldwide. A Review of Migratory Bird Flyways and Priorities for Management is an exhaustive work which addresses the issue of migratory bird conservation with a comprehensive approach touching on core thematic areas.

The Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), together with its daughter agreements, provides the international legal framework to promote the conservation of migratory birds. The text of the CMS defines 'migratory species' as: "the entire population or any geographically separate part of the population of any species or lower taxon of wild animals, a significant proportion of whose members cyclically and predictably cross one or more national jurisdictional boundaries". A flyway is a geographical region within which a single migratory species, a group of migratory species – or a distinct population of a given migratory species – completes all components of its annual cycle (breeding, moulting, staging, non-breeding etc.). For some species and groups of species these flyways are distinct 'pathways' linking a network of key sites whereas for other species/groups, flyways are more dispersed.

In 2008, the Ninth Conference of the Parties to CMS (COP 9) adopted Resolution 9.2 , which called for the establishment of an open-ended working group on global bird flyways within the framework of the Scientific Council to act as a think tank on flyways and frameworks, and tasked with reviewing scientific and technical issues for conservation of migratory birds and their habitats and relevant international instruments, initiatives and processes, as the basis for future CMS policy on flyways and contributing to the work on the future shape of CMS.

The open-ended Flyways Working Group (FWG) was established inter-sessionally in late 2009 under the purview of the Scientific Council. In addition to members of the Scientific Council, a call was made to key partners, conventions and initiatives to ensure broad coverage both in terms of expertise on bird flyway issues and geographical representation to the Working Group to enhance its work. The FWG is coordinated by representatives of the Scientific Council, with Dr. Taej Mundkur serving as Chair and Mr. John O'Sullivan as Vice Chair. At the end of 2011 Mr. John O'Sullivan retired and vacated the Vice Chairmanship.

During the triennium 2008-2011, the Flyways Working Group had 3 main objectives:

a. To review existing administrative/management instruments for migratory bird flyways globally (Review 1, presented here as Part 1);
b. To review scientific/technical knowledge of migratory bird flyways and conservation priorities, and identify major gaps (Review 2, now Part 2); and
c. To propose policy options for flyway conservation and management to feed into the Intersessional Process regarding the Future Shape of CMS (Review 3, now Part 3).

The preparation of Review 1 was coordinated by Wetlands International, Review 2 was coordinated by BirdLife International and Review 3 was commissioned to Professor Colin A. Galbraith by the CMS Secretariat. The three documents have been endorsed by the Scientific Council and the Tenth Conference of the Parties.

The FWG has successfully managed to tap into flyway management expertise beyond the Scientific Council, particularly in North America, where the CMS currently has no Parties, and to gather the views of other independent experts and government agencies. It has been recognised that the FWG offers a new strategic mechanism for the CMS to maintain a global overview of flyway related conservation priorities and major initiatives. Such a group can, due to its open-ended nature, continue to provide the CMS with a wider range of advice in the roll-out of the Convention's priority flyway activities into the future.

The Flyways Working Group met once in Edinburgh in February 2011 with the main aim of preparing a draft Resolution to be presented at COP 10 in Bergen, Norway, held in November 2011. As a consequence, Resolution 10.10 on guidance on global flyway conservation and options for policy arrangements was adopted as a basis to promote cooperation between flyways instruments, initiatives and partnerships within and outside the United Nations. The Resolution established a clear road map for the future and extended the mandate of the Flyways Working Group until 2014.

In this issue of the CMS Technical Series, the three reviews are published together as three Parts of a single monograph with the aim of serving as a key reference to all those dedicated to the study and conservation of migratory birds. Retention of the original content of the three reviews enables these sections to be read as stand alone chapters, and although there is some overlap and repetition among them it was decided to respect their individual integrity.

It is hoped that this publication will be an important tool for conservation of migratory birds and their habitats, and it will help to demonstrate the need for international cooperation and continous and increased collaboration amongst all stakeholders at the global level.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACAP	Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels
AEWA	Agreement on the Conservation of African – Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CAF	Central Asian Flyway
CAFF	Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna
CAMBA	China – Australia Migratory Bird Agreement
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCAMLR	Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources
CIC	International Council for game and Wildlife Conservation
CITES	Convention on the Illegal Trade in Endangered Species
CMS	Convention on Migratory Species
COP	Conference of the Parties
CSN	Critical Site Network Tool
EAAF	East Asian – Australasian Flyway
EAAFP	East Asian – Australasian Flyway Partnership
EBA	Endemic Bird Area
EEZ	Economic Exclusive Zone
EU	European Union
EURING	European Union for Bird Ringing
FACE	Fédération des Associations de Chasse et Conservation de la Faune Sauvage
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GROMS	Global Register for Migratory Species
IBA	Important Bird Area
IBAT	Integrated Biodiversity Assessment Tool
ICF	International Crane Foundation
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPOA	International Plan of Action
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
IWC	International Waterbird Census
JAMBA	Japan – Australia Migratory Bird Agreement
MAB	Man and Biosphere
MEA	Multilateral Environmental Agreement
MOP	Meeting of Parties
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MPA	Marine Protected Area
NABCI	North American Bird Conservation Initiative
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OIE	World Organisation for Animal Health
Ramsar	Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance
REDD	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and (forest) Degradation
RFMO	Regional Fisheries Management Organization
RLI	Red List Index
ROKAMBA	Republic of Korea – Australia Migratory Bird Agreement
SACEP	South Asian Co-operative Environment Programme
SCWP	Siberian Crane Wetland Project
TRAFFIC	The Wildlife Trade Monitoring Network
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
USFWS	United States Fish and Wildlife Service
WCS	Wildlife Conservation Society
WHMSI	Western Hemisphere Migratory Species Initiative
WHSRN	Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network
WOW	Wings over Wetlands
WWF	World Wide Fund For Nature (World Wildlife Fund in North America)

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Part 1

A Review of CMS and Non-CMS Existing Administrative and Management Instruments for Migratory Birds Globally

TIM JONES
DJ Environmental, UK (consultant to Wetlands International);

TAEJ MUNDKUR
Wetlands International

September 2010

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the following individuals and institutions for their input to this review:

Brad Andres (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service), Jonathan Barnard (BirdLife International), Juan José Areces Maqueda (Ministry of Environment and Rural and Marine Affairs, Spain), Leon Bennun (BirdLife International), Olivier Biber (Federal Office for the Environment, Switzerland), Gerard Boere (Honorary Patron, AEWA), Joost Brouwer (Brouwer Environmental & Agricultural), Robert Clay (BirdLife International), Nicola Crockford (BirdLife International), Ruth Cromie (The Wildfowl & Wetlands Trust, UK), Simon Delany (Wetlands International), José Joaquin Calvo Domingo (Ministry of Environment, Energy & Telecommunications, Costa Rica), Nick Davidson (Ramsar Convention Secretariat), Sergey Dereliev (AEWA Secretariat, Bonn), Mark Desholm (National Environment Research Institute, Denmark), Tim Dodman (consultant to Wings Over Wetlands), Charles Duncan (Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network), Ward Hagemeijer (Wetlands International), Neil Hughes (Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts, Australia), Roger Jaensch (Partnership for the East Asian - Australasian Flyway), Moulay Lahcen El Kabiri (CMS, Abu Dhabi), Samuel Kasiki (Kenyan Wildlife Service), Jeff Kirby (consultant to BirdLife International and compiler of Flyways Part 2), Jelena Kralj (Croatian Academy of Sciences and Arts), Bert Lenten (AEWA Secretariat, Bonn), Abdellah Al Mastour (Ministry of Water and Forests, Morocco), Angus Middleton (Federation of Associations for Hunting & Conservation of the EU – FACE), Rosa Montañez (Ramsar Regional Center for Training and Research on Wetlands in the Western Hemisphere – CREHO), Cristina Morales (Species Programme Coordinator, Asociación Guyra Paraguay), Narelle Montgomery (Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts, Australia), Szabolcs Nagy (Wetlands International), Warren Papworth (ACAP Secretariat), Herb Raffaele (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service), Paul Schmidt (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service), Alison Stattersfield (BirdLife International), David Stroud (Joint Nature Conservation Committee, UK), Jennifer Wheeler (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service).

Borja Heredia, Laura Cerasi and other staff members of the CMS Secretariat also assisted by responding to various questions and points of clarification as the document evolved.

Tim Jones, DJ Environmental, UK (consultant to Wetlands International)

Taej Mundkur, Wetlands International

September 2010

1.1 Executive Summary

This document, commissioned by the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), and developed with the CMS Flyways Working Group, outlines the scientific and technical issues for conservation of migratory birds and their habitats, and relevant international instruments, initiatives and processes. It is in three parts namely:

Part 1 (previously Review 1) – a review of CMS and non-CMS existing administrative and management instruments for migratory birds globally.

The first part of the series provides an overview of global flyways; highlights current literature on CMS related flyway based instruments for the conservation of migratory birds; assesses existing CMS and non-CMS instruments and frameworks; evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of flyway instruments; and elaborates on the findings and conclusions regarding coverage of global flyways by existing instruments.

Part 2 (previously Review 2) – an overview of scientific/technical knowledge of bird flyways and major gaps and conservation priorities.

This part details the modes of migration employed by migratory birds; profiles the status and challenges along the various flyways; areas needing further research to enhanced understanding and knowledge are discussed and finally addresses the priority areas to consider.

Part 3 (previously Review 3) – proposed policy options for flyway conservation/management to feed into the future shape of the CMS.

The third part highlights the various CMS and Non CMS instruments and frameworks; the threats facing migratory species around the globe; and the crucial role that CMS has to play.

Globally, there are more than 30 different international, flyway-based instruments for the conservation of migratory birds.

Each category of flyway-based conservation instrument and each individual instrument within a category has its own strengths and weaknesses. The appropriateness and effectiveness of each category and each individual instrument has to be assessed against a set of circumstances that is unique to the flyway, species and conservation challenges it aims to address.

Geographical coverage (on paper) is **strongest** in Africa – Eurasia (particularly Eurasia), Americas (particularly North America) and East Asia – Australasia. In these regions there is an established flyways-based approach to bird conservation that can be traced back over the course of 30 to 50 years.

However on the contrary, geographical coverage (on paper) is **weakest** in the following regions: Central Pacific, Central Asia (there is a CMS Action Plan for waterbirds that has yet to be implemented; there is also substantial overlap with the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA) and the CMS Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa-Eurasia) and the Pelagic (open ocean) flyways in the Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Indian Ocean and Southern Ocean.

Coverage of species groups (on paper) is strongest for waterfowl (Anatidae), shorebirds/waders (Scolopacidae), other migratory waterbirds such as divers (loons), grebes, cranes, herons etc., Nearctic-breeding passerines and other landbirds that migrate to the Neotropics for the non-breeding season, and raptors (particularly in Africa-Eurasia).

Furthermore, an analysis of status and trends was carried out for a total of 2,274 CMS-defined migratory species (23 % of the world's birds). Migratory birds are found in all regions of the world, however, the Americas and Asian regions stand out with more than 1,000 species each.

At a global level, 14 % (317) of the included species are currently considered threatened or near-threatened according to the 2010 IUCN Red List. Since 1988, 53 species have deteriorated in status (sufficiently to be uplisted to higher categories of extinction risk on the IUCN Red List) while only nine species have improved (sufficiently to be downlisted to lower categories).

Analysis of the main threats to migratory species evaluated as threatened and near-threatened on the 2010 IUCN Red List shows that important threats include land-use change, illegal hunting and taking, non-native species, diseases, pollution, climate change, natural system modifications, infrastructure development, human disturbance, fishing, energy production and distribution.

It has become clear that, priority must be given to mainstreaming of species conservation within the broader environment and sustainable development agenda. Instruments for the conservation of migratory bird species – whether intergovernmental or not – are likely to struggle for sufficient attention, capacity and resources unless they are explicitly linked to the wider developing country priorities outlined above.

Conservation priorities have been identified that address the key identified threats. Protection of habitats, and the resources they provide, is identified as being of vital importance to migratory birds, and this should be afforded the highest priority of all.

1.2 Overview of global flyways

Scope of the present review

Through Resolutions 9.2 and 9.13, the Ninth Conference of Parties (COP9) to the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS) established an open-ended working group on global bird flyways (hereafter referred to as the 'Flyways Working Group'), under the auspices of the CMS Scientific Council. During the inter-sessional period leading up to COP10, the Flyways Working Group was tasked with:

- Reviewing scientific and technical issues for conservation of migratory birds and their habitats;
- Reviewing relevant international instruments, initiatives and processes, as the basis for future CMS policy on flyways and contributing to the work on the Future Shape of the CMS.

The Flyways Working Group determined that three reviews would be required:

- Review 1 – a review of CMS and non-CMS existing administrative/management instruments for migratory birds globally;
- Review 2 – an overview of scientific/technical knowledge of bird flyways and major gaps and conservation priorities; and
- Review 3 – proposed policy options for flyway conservation/management to feed into future shape of the CMS.

The full Terms of Reference required: "an overview of the CMS and non-CMS existing administrative/management instruments for migratory birds globally, their relative strengths and weaknesses and major geographic/species gaps":

- Undertaking a rapid desk study to review CMS and non CMS publications, reviews, research papers and related documents on migratory birds, flyways and conservation initiatives;
- Communicating/conducting interviews of key persons/agencies/organisations involved with the major key flyway instruments,
- Drafting and finalizing the review, through two rounds of consultation with the Working Group.

Current scientific knowledge of flyways is being assessed through Part 2 and is not part of the Terms of Reference for this part (Review 1).

Therefore, for the purposes of this review, the approach set out by UNEP/CMS (2009) is used and summarized below.

It should be noted that the authors/compilers of Parts 1 & 2 have coordinated with one another to ensure compatibility of the two reviews.

Definition of 'migratory species' and 'flyway'

The text of the CMS defines 'migratory species' as:

> *"the entire population or any geographically separate part of the population of any species or lower taxon of wild animals, a significant proportion of whose members cyclically and predictably cross one or more national jurisdictional boundaries"*

A flyway is a geographical region within which a single migratory species, a group of migratory species – or a distinct population of a given migratory species – completes all components of its annual cycle (breeding, moulting, staging, non-breeding etc.). For some species and groups of species these flyways are distinct 'pathways' linking a network of key sites. For other species/groups, flyways are more dispersed (see next section for further discussion of this distinction).

Boere & Stroud (2006) defined the broad concept of flyways as:

> *"...the biological systems of migration paths that directly link sites and ecosystems in different countries and continents".*

More specifically, they defined a flyway as:

> *"...the entire range of a migratory bird species (or groups of related species or distinct populations of a single species) through which it moves on an annual basis from the breeding grounds to non-breeding areas, including intermediate resting and feeding places as well as the area within which the birds migrate".*

As noted in UNEP/CMS (2009), the crossing of national boundaries is irrelevant from a strictly biogeographical viewpoint. However, natural patterns of migration overlie the global geopolitical system, meaning that it is frequently impossible to manage or conserve migratory species – or the habitats and sites on which they depend – without working across national boundaries and jurisdictions. There are exceptions, however, where species or populations exhibit migratory movements within a single national jurisdiction. These are outside the scope of this review, which focuses on transboundary cooperation for the conservation of migratory birds.

Identifying and classifying flyway systems (NB This topic is treated in detail in Part 2)

UNEP/CMS (2009) recognized that various flyway systems have been proposed during the last 50 years, at both global and regional levels. Kuijken (2006) traced the early focus and development of flyway-based conservation for migratory waterbirds in North America and Europe.

Flyways for certain groups of birds involve relatively narrow, well-defined routes reflecting their ecological requirements. For example, waterbirds require access to coastal and/or inland wetland habitats, while migrant soaring birds such as large raptors rely on thermals and up-draughts and therefore avoid crossing large expanses of open water and high mountain ranges. On the other hand, many passerines migrate on a broad front.

Many flyways are oriented longitudinally (i.e. from south to north, and from north to south), enabling migrants to exploit the long days and abundant food resources of higher-latitude summers to breed. During the non-breeding season there is a withdrawal from these higher latitudes towards the tropics and sub-tropics. Some species, such as Barn Swallow *Hirundo rustica* and many migratory shorebirds breed in the northern hemisphere summer and are trans-equatorial migrants, spending the non-breeding season in the southern hemisphere summer.

Against this highly simplified generalisation, there are many variations. Some flyways are oriented more latitudinally; for example in Eurasia, many species that breed in the continental interior move west to spend the northern hemisphere winter in comparatively mild Atlantic and Mediterranean coastal regions.

Other species and groups of species, such as American Golden Plover *Pluvialis dominica*, and Connecticut Warbler *Oporornis agilis*, in the Americas, exhibit circuitous 'loop' or 'figure-of-eight' migrations between breeding areas and non-breeding areas, rather than simply reversing the direction of travel on the same route each season (www.npwrc.usgs.gov/resource/birds/migratio/patterns.htm downloaded 16 March 2010). Curlew Sandpiper *Calidris ferruginea* shows the same pattern in Africa-Eurasia (Wilson et al. 1980).

Intra-tropical migrants may follow seasonal rainfall patterns; many species of mountain regions exhibit seasonal altitudinal movements; pelagic seabirds undertake long-distance movements at sea. The level of our knowledge and understanding varies widely from one species or population to another and from one flyway to another as demonstrated in Part 2.

Certain species and groups are more thoroughly studied than others and their flyways defined in better detail as a result. Intensive ringing and colour-marking of waterbirds during the past 50 years – especially in Eurasia – has led to the accumulation of vast amounts of information on the timing of migration, the routes followed and the key sites used for breeding, feeding, moulting and staging (Stroud et al. 2006).

In recent years, and especially during the last decade, this information has been supplemented with the even more precise data obtained from the electronic tracking of individuals. Initially only suitable for the largest birds owing to the relatively bulky and heavy tags used, progressive miniaturization means that satellite tags and light-level geolocators are now routinely deployed on relatively small birds, recent examples including Sociable Lapwing *Vanellus gregarius* (Sheldon et al. in prep.), Atlantic Puffin *Fratercula arctica* (www.ox.ac.uk/media/science_blog/090901.html downloaded 16 March 2010) and Manx Shearwater (e.g. Guilford et al. 2008). Technological developments with geolocator miniaturisation have recently reached the point where valuable data are being generated on the migration routes of some passerines and near passerines (e.g. Stutchbury et al. 2009, Bächler et al. 2010).

Hence, the level of precision with which flyways can be identified varies:

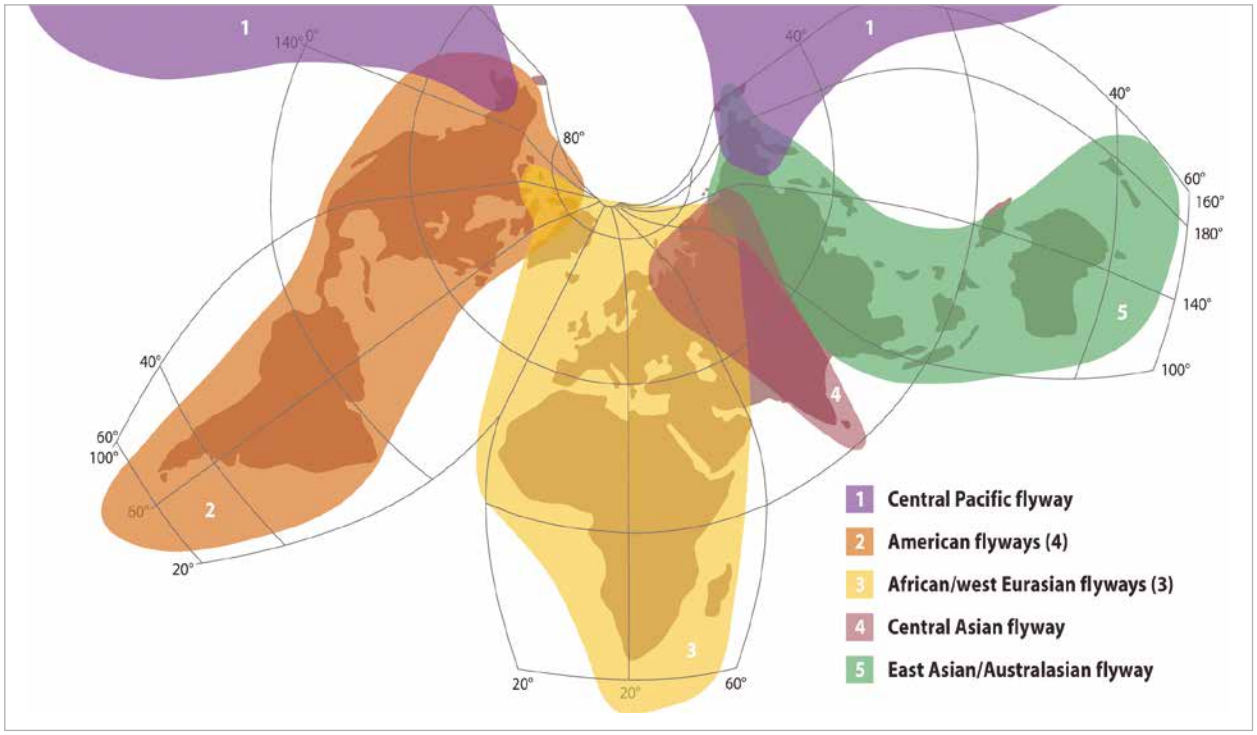
- from one species and group of species to another; and
- from one major region of the world to another;

depending on the extent, depth and duration of scientific research and the technological sophistication of study methods used.

This level of variability means that a global review needs to take a broad approach to flyway systems, while recognizing that a much finer resolution of analysis is possible in certain regions of the world and for certain species/groups of birds.

The International Wader Study Group (1998) recognized five major flyway groupings for migratory shorebirds – see Figure 1 overleaf – which was reproduced by Wohl (2006) and UNEP/CMS (2009).

Figure 1.1: Major global flyways for migratory shorebirds



Source: International Wader Study Group. 1998.

Though essentially derived from mapping the principal flyways of migratory shorebirds that breed in the Arctic, this provides a helpful global framework for many other groups of migratory birds, including Anatidae, some seabirds such as Sternidae, raptors, and passerines. It does not, however, provide a suitable umbrella for the flyways used by the majority of pelagic seabirds. Furthermore, well-known component flyways within each of the five major groupings are aggregated; for example those for Anatidae in North America, or the East Atlantic Flyway in Africa-Eurasia.

At an even greater level of aggregation, three or four major flyway groupings can be recognized as indicated in Figures 1.2 and 1.3. The latter is the high-level, global aggregation used by BirdLife International and is employed as the baseline for this review.

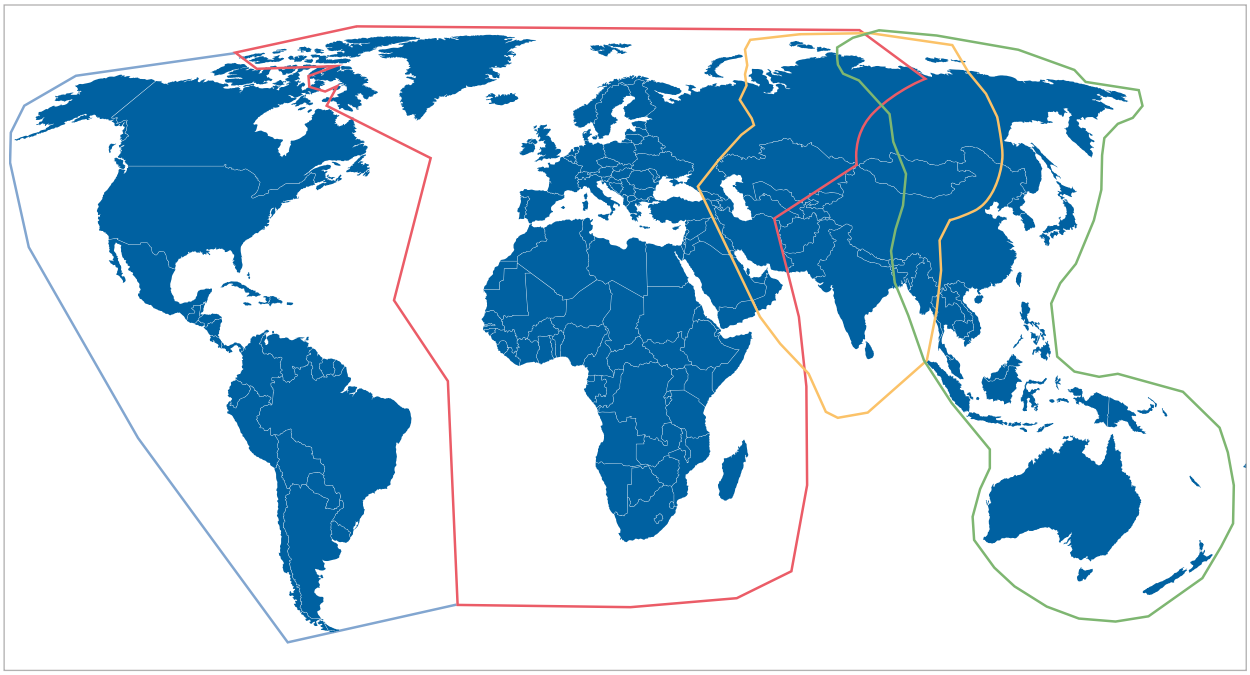
The main aim of this review is to examine the existing instruments and frameworks for flyway-based conservation and to assess their strengths and weaknesses. It is therefore necessary to look at these instruments and frameworks from a variety of perspectives; degree of 'fit' with the biogeographical reality of flyways (knowledge of which is evolving rapidly) being just one of these.

Equally relevant for assessing coverage and effectiveness of flyway-based conservation instruments are elements such as:

- type and purpose of instrument
- management structure
- administrative efficiency
- incentives for implementation
- quality of monitoring and evaluation

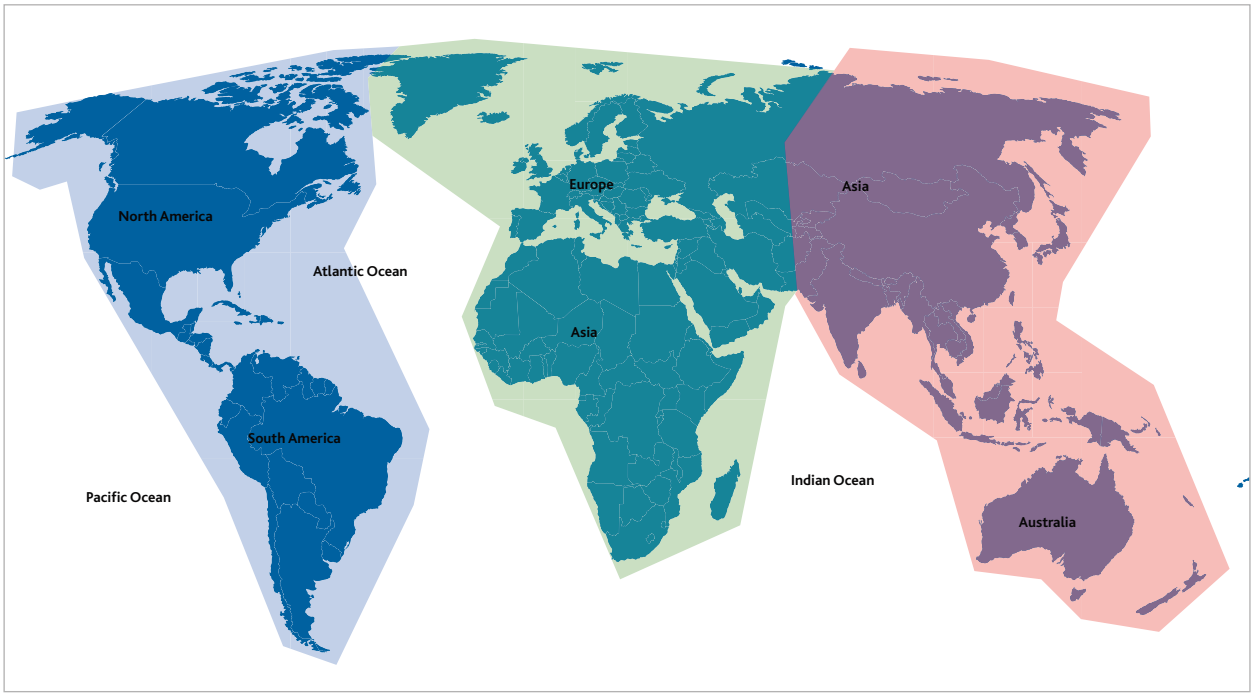
These are dealt with in section 1.4 (p. 19).

Figure 1.2: Aggregation of flyways for migratory waterbirds. The four regional aggregations are considered here for simplicity as Americas, Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia & East Asia – Australasia. The latter two are sometimes combined as ('Asia – Pacific'), as in Figure 1.3.



Source: Map based on Stroud et al. 2006.

Figure 1.3: Further aggregation: Americas, Africa – Eurasia & Asia – Pacific



Source: Map based on http://www.birdlife.org/flyways/index.html

1.3 Overview of recent literature on CMS-related flyway-based instruments for the conservation of migratory birds

This section provides a chronological summary of the content of key documents published since the Edinburgh Declaration adopted by the Waterbirds Around the World Conference (Edinburgh 2004).

Edinburgh Declaration. 2004.

This concludes inter alia that:

- "Despite more than a century of conservation efforts in North America and emergence of a shared vision for biologically-based, landscape orientated partnerships, it is clear that international co-operation amongst Pan-American countries sharing migratory birds should increase.

- In African-Eurasian Flyways, the generally good knowledge of waterbirds is not being effectively transferred into necessary national and local actions. Nor have conservation efforts led to maintaining or restoring the health of many waterbird populations, including globally threatened species. There are urgent needs to integrate waterbird conservation as part of sustainable development, to the greater benefit of local communities and other stakeholders dependent on wetlands as well as benefiting biodiversity. The African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (UNEP/AEWA) provides a good basis to achieve this.

- Intra-African Flyways are extremely poorly known and would benefit from greater attention.

- Many of the waterbirds of the Central Asian Flyway appear to be declining, although information on status and trends is generally poor. In most countries there has been little previous investment in conservation and low involvement of local stakeholders in the sustainable management of wetlands. An international framework for the development of conservation initiatives for migratory waterbirds in Central Asia is urgently required to promote co-operative action. Better information is needed to identify priority conservation issues and responses.

- The waterbirds of Asian-Australasian Flyways are the most poorly known, and the greatest number of globally threatened waterbirds occur here. This flyway extends across the most densely populated part of the world, where there are extreme pressures not only on unprotected wetlands but also on protected sites. Effective protection of wetlands of major importance is a critical need, as in other regions of the world. There are huge, and crucial, challenges in ensuring effective wise-use of key sites, as well as ensuring that consumptive uses of waterbirds are sustainable."

Stroud D. A., G. C. Boere, C. A. Galbraith & D. Thompson. 2006. Waterbird conservation in a new millennium – where from and where to? In: Waterbirds Around the World. Eds G.C. Boere, C. A. Galbraith & D. A. Stroud. The Stationery Office, Edinburgh, UK. p. 30–39.

Reflecting on the outcomes of the Waterbirds Around the World conference, Stroud et al. (2006) concluded:

"The immediate challenge is to ensure the effective implementation of the provisions of…existing treaties… However, the development of further multilateral flyway agreements similar in conceptual scope to AEWA could provide global coverage of migratory flyways and focus for international waterbird conservation."

UNEP/CMS Secretariat. 2007. Legal and institutional options under CMS for international cooperation on migratory African-Eurasian raptors. Document UNEP/CMS/AERAP-IGM1/6/Rev.1, submitted to the Meeting to identify and elaborate an option for international cooperation on African-Eurasian Migratory Raptors under the Convention on Migratory Species, Loch Lomond, Scotland, United Kingdom, 22-25 October 2007.

Includes a tabular SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis of the three principal options for cooperation in the CMS framework:

1. Voluntary partnership

2. CMS MoU under Article IV(4), as interpreted under Resolution 2.6

3. CMS Agreement under Article IV

The covering "Note by the Secretariat" adds a review of "general advantages and disadvantages of cooperative activities through CMS" [implying that the Note compares CMS and non-CMS approaches, but the advantages and disadvantages are generalised and there is no direct comparison with any other named MEA or other cooperative framework] and comments on financial implications.

UNEP/CMS Secretariat. 2007. Strategic Review of Flyways Paper. Document CMS/StC32/16, submitted to the 32nd Meeting of the Standing Committee, Bonn, 8-9 November 2007.

Reviews flyway concept and different ways of mapping global flyways, including a proposal for five 'umbrella' flyways – Americas, Africa-Eurasia, Central Asia, East Asia - Australasia and Pacific – as: "A practical arrangement that seems to best accommodate and integrate the traditions of waterfowl management agencies and the habits of researchers and conservationists in various fields of avian migration studies while taking fully into account the existence of established or proposed regional agreements".

Reviews AEWA, Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds (CAF) process, East Asian – Australasian Flyway Partnership (EAAF) process, American flyway processes, and describes the Central Pacific Flyway.

Makes policy proposals under AEWA, CAF, EAAF, Americas and Central Pacific.

The Minutes available from the CMS website show that some CMS Standing Committee members took issue with some of the policy recommendations [particularly that CAF should become an Article IV Agreement, that EAAF be recognised as such, and that an Article IV Agreements be developed for Latin America & Caribbean waterbirds and for the Central Pacific Flyway]. It was proposed and agreed that the paper should be revised and split into two documents: a factual 'status report' and a separate 'policy options' paper for consideration by COP 9.

Ramsar COP10. 2008. Resolution 10.22 Promoting international cooperation for the conservation of waterbird flyways.

One of the operative paragraphs of this Resolution: "URGES the governing bodies of flyway initiatives to take steps to share knowledge and expertise on best practices in the development and implementation of flyway-scale waterbird conservation policies and practices, including successful means of disseminating critical supporting data and information to stakeholders and others, and ENCOURAGES the Secretariats of Ramsar, CMS, AEWA and the biodiversity programme of the Arctic Council to work together with their governance and scientific subsidiary bodies and other interested organizations to establish a mechanism for such sharing of knowledge and experience;"

UNEP/CMS Secretariat. 2008. Operational instruments of the Convention on Migratory Species. Document CMS/Conf.9.16, submitted to the 9th Meeting of the Conference of the Parties, Rome, 1-5 December 2008.

Provides a review of the different types of cooperative arrangements available under CMS:

- Article IV(3) Agreements
- Article IV(4) Agreements
- Concerted Actions
- Co-operative Actions

Reviews the existing instruments in each category and provides generalised policy guidance for the COP to consider.

CMS COP 9 Resolution 9.2. 2008. Priorities for CMS Agreements. 1-5 December 2008.

"Decides to establish an open-ended working group on global bird flyways within the framework of the Scientific Council to act as a think tank on flyways and frameworks, and tasked with reviewing scientific and technical issues for conservation of migratory birds and their habitats, and relevant international instruments, initiatives and processes, as the basis for future CMS policy on flyways and contributing to the work on the future shape of CMS:"

Sets out specific instructions/decisions relating to CAF, EAAF, Americas, Pacific.

CMS COP9 Resolution 9.13. 2008. Intersessional process regarding the future shape of CMS.1-5 December 2008.

"Launches an intersessional process to explore the possibilities of strengthening the contribution of the CMS and the CMS family to the worldwide conservation, management and sustainable use of migratory species over their entire range;" and

"Establishes an ad hoc working group with the task of drafting proposals on the future strategies and structure of the CMS and the CMS family for the Tenth Conference of the Parties in 2011;".

Brouwer, J. 2009. The Flyway Approach to conserving migratory birds – its necessity and value. Report to the UNEP/CMS Secretariat, Bonn, Germany. 79 pp.

Provides a detailed listing and description of all the main instruments (which was a valuable contribution to section 1.4 of the present part), but does not include a critique or evaluation, as such, of the strengths/weaknesses of each instrument.

UNEP/CMS Secretariat. 2009. A Bird's Eye View on Flyways – A brief tour by the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals. UNEP/CMS Secretariat, Bonn, Germany. 68 pages.

Provides a 'popular' introduction to migration and the flyways concept, the values and status trends of migratory birds; makes a variety of conclusions and recommendations, including:

"...the advantage of several multi-lateral agreements on flyways, possibly one for each of the five large flyway systems, becomes immediately obvious if one started to calculate how many bilateral agreements would be required to cover even a single flyway. CMS provides an ideal framework for such agreements and the success of the African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement, for example, illustrates how cost-effective and powerful such a multilateral agreement can be."

UNEP/CMS Standing Committee, Inter-Sessional Working Group regarding the Future Shape of CMS. 2009. Review of the current organisation and activities of CMS and the CMS family – first step of the Inter-sessional Future Shape process. Document CMS/StC36/15/Rev.1, submitted to the 36th Meeting of the Standing Committee, Bonn, 2-3 December 2009.

Consultants' report reviewing the structure and operation of CMS and its daughter instruments. Main conclusions of relevance:

"...the work of the Agreements and MoUs remain underfunded and understaffed, with a reliance on short-term appointments, doubling up of personnel and a steady stream of interns [and] there is a continual additional price to be paid in terms of a dilution of expertise."

"Capacity building is also a critical element in the implementation of CMS and its subsidiary instruments, particularly for recent acceding Parties and in the geographical and species areas touched by the newer instruments."

"…the MoUs, Agreements and the CMS require a national report to be produced. While there are plans to move towards more harmonised, consistent and easier (on-line) modes of reporting, progress has been faltering. While easier reporting may be important in securing the goodwill of Parties, many respondents attached to MoUs fear that a single format will not provide the relevant detail required for the particular conservation purposes of that MoU. It should be noted that rarely do all of the signatories submit a national report on time or at all for the ordinary meetings of the signatories. Inevitably this restricts the work of meetings which are hard to conduct without timely and accurate progress information."

"Interestingly, the legal status of agreements does not appear to be a matter of great significance. Although it may be regretted that MoUs are not legally binding, in practice this is not a vital issue, not least that commitments in the binding Agreements have not always been meet by the Parties. The more important difference is a financial one - CMS and the Agreements having the stability provided by core funding and MoUs depending exclusively on voluntary contributions which could be withdrawn or not materialise at any time. The value of all of the instruments is the advancement of scientific research and official coordination of conservation efforts through the existing institutions and actors. The CMS work in this regard is admirable in many of the respects highlighted in this report. However, the issue is that effort when resource shortfalls stifle not only day-to-day work but also the capacity to innovate and instigate structural change."

UNEP GEF. 2009. The Experience of UNEP GEF and Partners in Flyway Conservation. UNEP GEF Portfolio Outlook and Evolution. Biodiversity Issue Paper BD/001. UNEP, Nairobi, Kenya. 38 pages.

Focuses on implementation and lessons learned from UNEP/GEF Siberian Crane Wetlands Project and the UNEP/GEF African-Eurasian Flyways Project (i.e. Wings Over Wetlands – WOW).

- Critical Site Network tool of the WOW project
- training tools (e.g. modular 'Flyway Training Kit')
- success on the ground depends on addressing interests and priorities of multiple stakeholders at national and site levels
- emphasis on multiple environmental and socio-economic benefits, not pure bird conservation
- formal lessons learned:

- *UNEP/GEF administrative barriers to developing multi-national flyway conservation initiatives must be removed, and incentives created*
- *Emphasise regional-level activities as they generate important and globally-relevant outputs*
- *Develop well inter-connected flyway conservation activities at the site and national levels*
- *Do not underestimate the importance of fostering support at the national level by taking into account the common issues and interests of stakeholder groups*
- *The integrity of entire flyways can be threatened by factors affecting key sites requiring specific attention at national and local levels*
- *Assign p*roper value (and budget) to communication outputs

Outlines possible new GEF flyway initiatives, including: "Developing new Global Initiatives under the umbrella of the CMS, with a possible focus on: [inter alia] Facilitating the gradual integration, sharing of experiences and tools, and harmonisation of approaches among all different regions and partners involved in flyway conservation at a global scale, allowing for specific and individual adaptations to regional needs."

Dodman, T. & Boere, G.C. (eds.) 2010. The Flyway Approach to the Conservation and Wise Use of Waterbirds and Wetlands: A Training Kit. Wings Over Wetlands Project, Wetlands International and BirdLife International, Ede, The Netherlands.

Within this substantial training kit, there are useful overviews of different types of instruments and of specific flyway agreements, as well as a comprehensive list of references of value to flyway conservation, especially within the AEWA region.

1.4 Overview of existing CMS and non-CMS instruments and frameworks

This section summarizes all existing flyway-based bird conservation instruments and frameworks, whether CMS or non-CMS for each of the three major flyway aggregations recognized in Figure 1.3. Within each of the major regions, instruments are divided into multilateral and bilateral and are listed in chronological order of establishment.

For each instrument or framework, the following items of information are provided in Table 1.1:

- name of instrument
- date of establishment (and entry into force for treaties)
- type of instrument (e.g. intergovernmental treaty, public/private partnership)
- geographical scope
- bird species/groups covered
- high-level policy/technical governance mechanism (e.g. standing committee)
- day-to-day focal point for coordination (e.g. secretariat)
- website and key documents

It is important to bear in mind that international flyway-based conservation instruments are ultimately dependent on the effectiveness of broader national and supra-national mechanisms for the conservation of migratory bird species/populations and their habitats.

These range from ecosystem-focused treaties, such as the Ramsar Convention (see below), to national ecosystem initiatives (e.g. the recent announcement by Canada concerning the protection of boreal forest from logging), through national and regional protected areas networks (e.g. Natura 2000 in Europe, or the Mesoamerican Biological Corridor), to resource-management and climate-change adaptation measures such as integrated water resource management plans for major river basins or REDD (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and [forest] Degradation) programmes in developing countries. Mainstreaming of migratory bird conservation (both species-led and habitat-led approaches) into these mechanisms provides an important means of widening stakeholder buy-in and support, particularly through integration of relevant government policy areas. There is also a wide range of relevant NGO-led partnerships, such as that between BirdLife International partners in the UK and Gambia, in conjunction with the British Trust for Ornithology, to study the ecology of migratory passerines on the non-breeding grounds in West Africa.

It is beyond the scope of this review to examine these in detail, but the effectiveness of flyway-based conservation instruments must be seen in this wider context and the multiple opportunities that exist for maximising synergy (at the same time reducing the risk of negative overlaps that may arise from duplication, inadequate consultation/communication and even direct competition for the same limited resources for environmental management).

At global level, the two most directly relevant 'non flyway-based' instruments are the Ramsar Convention and the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD).

It is sometimes forgotten that the Ramsar Convention is the Convention on Wetlands of International Importance especially as Waterfowl Habitat (1971) and for many years it was the principal intergovernmental framework for the conservation of migratory waterbirds; in particular, through the provisions of the Convention's Articles 2 & 5. Over the decades, Ramsar has increased its focus on wider aspects of the conservation and sustainable use of wetlands, but the treaty continues to play a vital role worldwide through the designation and management of the global network of Ramsar sites, many of which provide critical habitat for wetland-dependent migratory birds.

The development of the CMS since 1979 and later of AEWA and other regional instruments (whether or not these are under the CMS umbrella) for waterbirds means that the global suite of instruments for migratory waterbirds has become increasingly complex and to some extent fragmented, which brings challenges for governmental and non-governmental stakeholders alike.

The CBD provides an overarching framework for intergovernmental cooperation on all elements of biodiversity and is the principal high-level MEA that deals with species, habitats and ecosystems.

One of the tools used to address this complexity has been the establishment of cooperative agreements between treaties. Hence the CBD has established Joint Programmes or Plans of Work with both CMS (through CBD Decision VI/20, COP6, 2002, which recognized CMS as the lead partner for migratory species) and Ramsar (most recently renewed by CBD Decision IX/19, COP9, 2008). The scientific/technical advisory bodies of the three conventions also work cooperatively with one another. In addition, the Ramsar and CMS secretariats signed a Memorandum of Understanding in 1997 (www.ramsar.org/cda/en/ramsar-documents-mous-memorandum-of-21281/main/ramsar/1-31-115%5E21281_4000_0__) while a three-way joint work plan between the secretariats of CMS, AEWA, and Ramsar was signed in 2004. (www.ramsar.org/cda/en/ramsar-documents-mous-joint-work-plan-2004/main/ramsar/1-31-115%5E22096_4000_0__)

In some cases the greater number of Contracting Parties to both CBD and Ramsar may open opportunities for government-level cooperation with countries that have yet to join CMS.

At regional level, particularly in Europe and North America, there is a range of instruments that, while not flyway based,

have made a contribution historically to the conservation of some migratory bird species. For example, the Convention for the Protection of Birds Useful to Agriculture (Paris, 1902) and the International Convention for the Protection of Birds (Paris, 1950).

Nowadays, Member States (and candidate countries) of the European Union, implementation of the EU 'Birds Directive' and 'Habitats Directive' supports implementation of instruments under the CMS, including AEWA and also provides the principal framework for the conservation of migratory birds not yet explicitly covered by any flyway-based conservation instrument in the Africa–Eurasia region, in particular passerines and their habitats. Both of these instruments are legally binding under European law, with clearly laid down infringement procedures and strict penalties in cases where contravention is proven. In this sense, EU Directives are far more powerful instruments than the 'softer' global and regional MEAs.

For further information on the Birds Directive, see: http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/environment/nature_and_biodiversity/l28046_en.htm (downloaded 16 Mar 2010)

For further information on the Habitats Directive, see: http://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/legislation/habitats-directive/index_en.htm (downloaded 16 Mar 2010)

Similarly, the Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna (CAFF) initiative provides the principal mechanism by which Arctic countries cooperate to take action for seabirds, in particular (among other groups). The CAFF Circumpolar Seabird Group:

- Promotes, facilitates, coordinates and harmonizes seabird conservation, management and research activities among circumpolar countries and improves communication between seabird scientists and managers inside; and

- Identifies current and emerging seabird conservation, management, research, monitoring, and public outreach problems and opportunities in the Arctic and corresponding information and coordination needs.

  *Source: http://caff.arcticportal.org/expert-groups/seabird-group-cbird (*downloaded 16 March 2010).

The Convention for the Protection and Development of the Marine Environment of the Wider Caribbean Region (the Cartagena Convention) is a legally binding treaty for the Wider Caribbean Region. The Convention and its Protocols constitute a legal commitment by the participating governments to protect, develop and manage their coastal and marine resources individually or jointly. The Protocol Concerning Specially Protected Areas and Wildlife (the SPAW Protocol) has been internationally recognised as the most comprehensive treaty of its kind. Adopted in Kingston, Jamaica by the member governments of the Caribbean Environment Programme on 18 January 1990, the SPAW Protocol preceded other international environmental agreements in utilising an ecosystem approach to conservation. The Protocol acts as a vehicle to assist with regional implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD).

Source: http://www.cep.unep.org/cartagena-convention/spaw-protocol

Table 1.1: Regional summary of existing flyway-based instruments for the conservation of migratory birds

Compiler's notes:

- This information is presented in good faith on the basis of a literature review plus written and oral inputs made available specifically for this review. Data on numbers of parties etc. was last updated in May 2010.

- In addition to the flyway-based instruments enumerated here, there are numerous other initiatives and instruments at sub-national (e.g. local site protection and management), national (e.g. national species action plans), regional (e.g. EU Directives) and global level (e.g. CBD, Ramsar) that contribute to the conservation of migratory bird species/populations. The principal criterion for inclusion in this table is that initiative/instrument should be flyway based. Exclusion from the table (which would otherwise become unusable) is in no way intended to diminish the contributions that these other initiatives/instruments make.

AFRICA – EURASIA (MULTILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES)
(in chronological order of establishment)

Instrument name	Date established	Type of instrument	Geographical scope	Bird species or groups covered	Governance/ Coordination	Website(s)
Bern Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats	1979	Intergovernmental treaty	Europe and Africa	Many migratory birds are listed in Appendices II & III of 'strictly protected' and 'protected' species. Articles 1, 4 & 10 make special reference to measures for the conservation of migratory species.	Governance Standing Committee; Groups of Experts Coordination: Council of Europe Secretariat	www.coe.int/t/dg4/cultureheritage/nature/Bern/default_en.asp Note: although not strictly a flyway-based instrument, the Bern Convention includes specific provisions for the conservation of migratory birds and until the existence of AEWA was the only regional conservation instrument that enabled the participation of African countries.
Agreement on the Conservation of African – Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)	1995 (The Hague; entry into force 1999)	Intergovernmental treaty in the frame work of the Convention on Migratory Species	118 countries plus the EC; 63 Contracting Parties as of 1 May 2010	"255 species of birds ecologically dependent on wetlands for at least part of their annual cycle, including many species of divers, grebes, pelicans, cormorants, herons, storks, rails, ibises, spoonbills, flamingos, ducks, swans, geese, cranes, waders, gulls, terns, tropic birds, auks, frigate birds and even the south African penguin"	Governance: Meeting of Parties; Standing Committee; Technical Committee Coordination: UNEP AEWA Secretariat	www.unep-aewa.org/
Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia	2008	Intergovernmental Memorandum of Understanding (MoU)	Listed in Annex 2 to the MoU	76 species of migratory raptors are listed in Annex 1 to the MoU.	Governance: Meeting of Signatories Coordination: UNEP CMS Coordinating Unit, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates	www.cms.int/species/raptors/index.htm

AFRICA – EURASIA (BILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES)
(in chronological order of establishment)

Instrument name	Date established	Type of instrument	Geographical scope	Bird species or groups covered	Coordination	Website(s)/ key documents
None identified that relates specifically to flyway-based conservation of migratory birds, though there are various wider bilateral nature conservation agreements.						

Table 1.1 contd.

AMERICAS (MULTILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Convention on Nature Protection & Wildlife Preservation in the Western Hemisphere	1940 (Washington; entry into force 1942)	Intergovernmental treaty	Western Hemisphere (Pan-American)	All migratory bird species	Organization of American States (depositary)	http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/sigs/c-8.html Treaty largely unimplemented.
North American Waterfowl Management Plan (Canadian component = 'Wings Over Water')	1986 (Canada/US) 1994 (Mexico)	Public-private partnership	Canada, Mexico, US	Anatidae	Governance: NAWMP Committee (up to six members per country) Coordination: Staff in the three federal natural resource agencies.	Canada: http://www.nawmp.ca/ USA: http://www.fws.gov/birdhabitat/NAWMP/index.shtm
Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network (WHSRN)	1986	Public-private partnership	Western Hemisphere (Pan-American)	Shorebirds	Governance: WHSRN Hemispheric Council Coordination: WHSRN Executive Office (Manomet Center for Conservation Sciences)	www.whsrn.org/western-hemisphere-shorebird-reserve-network Key technical document(s): Strategic Plan 2004-2008
Partners in Flight (PIF)	1990	Public/private partnership	Canada, Mexico and USA, and to a lesser extent, Central America	Initial focus on Neotropical migrants. Now: "most landbirds and other species requiring terrestrial habitats"	Coordination: PIF International Working Group	www.partnersinflight.org www.latangara.org Key technical document(s): PIF North American Landbird Conservation Plan
North American Bird Conservation Initiative (NABCI)	1999	Public/private partnership with inter-governmental Declaration of Intent	Canada, Mexico and USA (though in theory any country in the Americas could sign-up to NABCI)	All North American birds	Governance: Tri-National Steering Committee Coordination: Three national NABCI coordinators	www.nabci.net/ www.nabci-us.org Key technical document(s): NABCI Strategy & Action Plan 2004-2008
Waterbird Conservation for the Americas	1998	Public/private partnership	Western Hemisphere (Pan-American)	Mainly colonial waterbirds (rails, cranes, herons, gulls, terns, loons, petrels, shearwaters, cormorants, auks etc.), excluding Anatidae and shorebirds in North America. However, as the initiative has expanded its geographic scope to include all of the Americas, it has taken an 'all waterbirds' approach for Central and South America and the Caribbean (at the request of stakeholders in those regions).	Governance: Waterbird Conservation Council Coordination: Council coordinator	www.waterbirdconservation.org Key technical document: North American Waterbird Conservation Plan Version 1 (2002) and Fostering Waterbird Conservation (2007)
Western Hemisphere Migratory Species Initiative (WHMSI)	2003	Public/private partnership	Western Hemisphere (Pan-American)	Covers all migratory animals.	Governance: Interim Steering Committee Coordination: U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service	www.fws.gov/international/dic/WHMSI/whmsi_eng.html www.whmsi.net Key technical document(s): International Action Plan (2001)

Table 1.1 contd.

AMERICAS (BILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Convention Between the United States and Great Britain (for Canada) for the Protection of Migratory Birds	1916 (between Great Britain and USA)	Intergovernmental treaty implemented via Migratory Birds Convention Act (1917; significantly updated 1994) in Canada and Migratory Bird Treaty Act (1918) in USA	Canada, USA	c.800 species; see www.fws.gov/migratorybirds/RegulationsPolicies/mbta/mbtandx.html for listing.	Canadian Wildlife Service US Fish & Wildlife Service	www.cws-scf.ec.gc.ca/legislations/laws1_e.cfm www.fws.gov/migratory-birds/RegulationsPolicies/mbta/MBTAProtectedNonprotected.html Key technical document(s): USFWS Migratory Bird Program Strategic Plan 2004-2014
Convention between the United States of America and the United Mexican States for the Protection of Migratory Birds and Game Mammals	1932 (US & Mexico)	Intergovernmental treaty	US, Mexico	Many or most shared migratory bird species; for U.S., about 1,000 species.	USA: US Fish & Wildlife Service Mexico: Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources of Mexico (SEMARNAT)	
Convention Between the Government of the United States of America and the Government of Japan for the Protection of Migratory Birds and Birds in Danger of Extinction, and Their Environment	1972	Intergovernmental treaty	USA, Japan	Many or most shared migratory bird species; for USA, about 1,000 species		www.fws.gov/laws/lawsdigest/treaties.htm
Convention Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Concerning the Conservation of Migratory Birds and Their Environment	1976	Intergovernmental treaty	USA, former USSR	Many or most shared migratory bird species. For USA, about 1,000 species.	USA: US Fish & Wildlife Service	www.fws.gov/laws/lawsdigest/treaties.htm
AMERICAS (OTHER MULTI-SPECIES)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Neotropical Migratory Bird Conservation Act	2000	Act of Congress providing for grant funding of conservation efforts for Neotropical migrants	USA	All Neotropical migrants occuring regularly in the USA. The first grants were made in 2002. At least 75% of funding available each year must be used to support projects outside the USA. From 2002 to 2007, the Act supported 225 projects in the USA and 34 other countries, including leveraging of $97 million in partner contributions.	US Fish & Wildlife Service, Department of Bird Habitat Conservation	www.fws-gov/birdhabitat/Grants/NMBCA/ACT_.shtm Note: this instrument is a unilateral legislative instrument but one that provides significant support for flyway-based conservation of migratory birds.

Table 1.1 contd.

CENTRAL ASIA (MULTILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds and their Habitats	2006	Intergovernmental Action Plan under the Conservation on Migratory Species	30 countries from the Arctic to the Indian Ocean (overlaps with AEWA for 16 countries)	279 populations of 182 species	CMS Secretariat	www.cms.int/species/CAF/caf_ap.htm
CENTRAL ASIA (BILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Agreement between Russian Federation and India	1984	Intergovernmental agreement	India, Russian Federation		India: Ministry of Environment and Forests. Russian Federation: Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Protection	None located as yet.
ASIA – PACIFIC (MULTILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Asia-Pacific Migratory Waterbird Conservation Strategy	1996 (initially 1996-2000; updated strategy 2001-2005) and 2006	Non-binding Framework strategy addressed to governments, local people, NGOs, the corporate sector, donor agencies and international conventions	Asia-Pacific region	Migratory waterbirds, especially regional conservation priority species listed in Annex 2 of the 2001-2005 Strategy	Governance Asia-Pacific Migratory Waterbird Conservation Committee Coordination Wetlands International Asia-Pacific	www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/migratory/publications/asia-pacific/index.html www.environment.gov.au/archive/biodiversity/migratory/waterbirds/1996-2000/index.html www.env.go.jp/earth/coop/coop/regional_coop_e.html
Partnership for the East Asian-Australasian Flyway	2006	Informal voluntary initiative of governments, government agencies & international NGOs Key technical document: Partnership Implementation Strategy Constitutional document: The Partnership Document	Entire East Asian-Australasian Flyway	Populations of all migratory waterbirds – including divers, grebes, pelicans, shearwaters, cormorants, herons, storks, rails, ibises, spoonbills, flamingos, ducks, swans, geese, cranes, waders, skuas, gulls, terns and auks – which cyclically and predictably cross one or more national jurisdictional boundary	Governance Annual Meeting of Partners; advice from technical Working Groups Coordination Full-scale Secretariat established in 2009 in Incheon, Republic of Korea, replacing an interim secretariat in Australia (provided by Wetlands International, Oceania 2007–2009)	www.eaaflyway.net

Table 1.1 contd.

ASIA – PACIFIC (BILATERAL, MULTI-SPECIES) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Agreement between the Government of Australia and the Government of Japan for the Protection of Migratory Birds in Danger of Extinction and their Environment (JAMBA)	1974	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	Australia, Japan	Fifty-nine species; >50% of which are shorebirds, but also some seabirds, ducks, herons, terns & passerines	Australia: Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts Japan: Ministry of the Environment	www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/migratory/waterbirds/bilateral.html
Agreement between People's Republic of China and Japan	1981	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	People's Republic of China, Japan		Japan: Ministry of the Environment	www.env.go.jp/en/nature/biodiv/intel.html
Agreement between the Government of Australia and the Government of the People's Republic of China for the Protection of Migratory Birds and their Environment (CAMBA)	1986	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	Australia, China	Eighty-one species; c.50% shorebirds	Australia: Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts China: State Forestry Administration	www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/migratory/waterbirds/bilateral.html
Agreement between Japan and Russian Federation	1988	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	Russian Federation, Japan		Japan: Ministry of the Environment Russian Federation: Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Protection	www.env.go.jp/en/nature/biodiv/intel.html
Agreement between Republic of Korea and Russian Federation	1994	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	Republic of Korea, Russian Federation		Republic of Korea: Ministry of Environment Russian Federation: Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Protection	None located as yet.
Agreement between the Government of Australia and the Government of the Republic of Korea on the Protection of Migratory Birds (ROKAMBA)	2006	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty (entry into force 2007)	Australia Republic of Korea	Fifty-nine species; >50% of which are shorebirds, but also some ducks, terns, shearwaters, passerines	Australia: Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts Republic of Korea: Ministry of Environment	www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/migratory/waterbirds/bilateral.html
Agreement between Republic of Korea and People's Republic of China	2007	Bilateral inter-governmental treaty	Republic of Korea, People's Republic of China	337 species		None located as yet.

Table 1.1 contd.

INSTRUMENTS COVERING INDIVIDUAL SPECIES OR GROUPS OF SPECIES (MULTILATERAL) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Memorandum of Understanding concerning Conservation Measures for the Slender-billed Curlew (*Numenius tenuirostris*)	1994	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4 (but note that link to CMS is not made explicit in the MoU)	Range of the species	Slender-billed Curlew (*Numenius tenuirostris*)	Governance Signatory States Coordination Slender-billed Curlew Working Group; CMS Secretariat & BirdLife International	www.cms.int/species/sb_curlew/sbc_bkrd.htm
Memorandum of Understanding concerning Conservation Measures for the Siberian Crane (*Grus leucogeranus*)	1998	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4	Range of the species	Siberian Crane (*Grus leucogeranus*)	Governance Meetings of the Signatory States Coordination CMS Secretariat; International Crane Foundation	www.sibeflyway.org/ www.cms.int/species/siberian_crane/sib_bkrd.htm
Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation and Management of the Middle-European Population of the Great Bustard (*Otis tarda*)	2000	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species	Range of the Middle-European population	Great Bustard (*Otis tarda*)	Governance Meetings of the Signatory States Coordination MoU Coordinator; CMS Secretariat	www.cms.int/species/otis_tarda/otis_tarda_bkrd.htm
Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP)	2001 (Cape Town; entry into force 2004)	Agreement in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 3	Unrestricted	Species listed in Annex 1; currently 22 species of albatrosses and 7 species of petrels, including both northern and southern hemisphere.	Governance Meetings of the Parties; Advisory Committee Coordination ACAP Secretariat	www.acap.aq/ www.cms.int/species/acap/acap_bkrd.htm
Memorandum of Understanding concerning Conservation Measures for the Aquatic Warbler (*Acrocephalus paludicola*)	2003	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4	Range of the species	Aquatic Warbler (*Acrocephalus paludicola*)	Governance Meetings of the Signatory States Coordination MoU Coordinator (Minsk) CMS Secretariat	www.cms.int/species/aquatic_warbler/aquatic_warbler_bkrd.htm
Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Southern South American Migratory Grassland Bird Species and Their Habitats	2007	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay	Eskimo Curlew (*Numenius borealis*), Chestnut Seedeater (*Sporophila cinnamomea*), Rufous-rumped Seedeater (*S. hypochroma*), Marsh Seedeater (*S. palustris*), Dark-throated Seedeater (*S. ruficollis*), Entre RiosSeedeater (*S. zelichi*), Strange-tailed Tyrant (*Alectrurus risora*), Cock-tailed Tyrant (*A. tricolor*), Saffron-cowled Blackbird (*Agelaius flavus*), Bearded Tachuri (*Polystictus pectoralis pectoralis*), Buff-breasted Sandpiper (*Tryngites subruficollis*).	Governance Meetings of the Signatory States	www.cms.int/species/Grassland_birds/grassland_birds_bkrd.htm

Table 1.1 contd.

INSTRUMENTS COVERING INDIVIDUAL SPECIES OR GROUPS OF SPECIES (MULTILATERAL) (in chronological order of establishment) (contd.)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Alianza del Pastizal (Alliance for the 'pastizal' grasslands)	To be confirmed	NGO-led initiative	Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay	Migratory (and sedentary) birds species of the 'pastizal' biome, also known as 'pampas' and 'campos'.	Steering Committee/ BirdLife International	www.pastizalesdelconosur.org Note: Though not strictly a flyway-based instrument, this is one of very few multilateral initiatives concerning migratory species that is focused within Latin America. There is clearly a strong relevance to the above-listed MoU on migratory grassland birds, although the Alliance is not included as a partner in the MoU.
Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of High Andean Flamingos and Their Habitats	2008	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4	Bolivia, Chile and Peru	Andean flamingo (*Phoenicopterus andinus)*, James's flamingo (*Phoenicopterus jamesi*)		www.cms.int/species/flamingos/flamingos_bkrd.htm
As of CMS COP9, single-species Concerted Actions had been undertaken for the following: Black-faced Spoonbill (*Platalea minor*), Andean Flamingo (*Phoenicopterus andinus*), Puna Flamingo (*Phoenicopterus jamesi*), Lesser White-fronted Goose (*Anser erythropus*), Ruddy-headed Goose (*Chloephaga rubidiceps*), Ferruginous Duck (*Aythya nyroca*), White-headed Duck (*Oxyura leucocephala*), Siberian Crane (*Grus leucogeranus*), Great Bustard (*Otis tarda*), Houbara Bustard (*Chlamydotis undulata*)*, Slender-billed Curlew (*Numenius tenuirostris*), Spoon-billed Sandpiper (*Eurynorhynchus pygmeus*), Chinese Crested Tern (*Sterna bernsteini*), Aquatic Warbler (*Acrocephalus paludicola*). * In addition, a CMS Article IV Agreement on the Conservation of the Asian Houbara Bustard *C. (u.) macqueenii* has been drafted but not yet finalised among the Range States concerned.						

INSTRUMENTS COVERING INDIVIDUAL SPECIES OR GROUPS OF SPECIES (BILATERAL) (in chronological order of establishment)						
Instrument name	**Date established**	**Type of instrument**	**Geographical scope**	**Bird species or groups covered**	**Governance/ Coordination**	**Website(s)**
Memorandum of Understanding concerning Conservation Measures for the Ruddy-headed Goose (*Chloephaga rubidiceps*)	2006	MoU in the framework of the Convention on Migratory Species, Article IV paragraph 4	Argentina, Chile (entire range of species)	Ruddy-headed Goose (*Chloephaga rubidiceps*)	Annual Meeting of the Parties	http://www.cms.int/species/ruddy_goose/ruddy_goose_bkrd.htm

1.5 Assessment of strengths and weaknesses of flyway instruments

1.5.1 Type of instrument/framework

There is an enormous range of different types of flyway-based conservation instruments, ranging from intergovernmental treaties such as the African – Eurasian Migratory Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) to public – private partnerships, and from instruments covering a variety of bird groups for an entire flyway, to very targeted single-species or single-population action plans. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages, the key elements of which are summarized in Table 1.2.

1.5.2 Gaps in coverage by existing flyway-based instruments

These are summarised on a region-by-region basis in Table 1.3, taking into account:

- geographical coverage
- coverage of principal species groupings
- degree of support provided for implementation in developing countries.

Findings and conclusions are presented in section 1.6.

1.5.3 Assessment of advantages and disadvantages of individual instruments

These are summarised in Table 1.4 (CMS instruments). This information is presented in good faith on the basis of inputs available to the compiler.

1.5.4 Effectiveness of implementation

Engagement with drivers of population trends

Flyway-based conservation instruments can only succeed in meeting their conservation objectives when they address – in an effective way – the drivers of species/population trends for the flyway in question.

These will vary according to region, species/population and flyway, but in general can be summarised as:

- **direct impacts** on birds, such as excessive hunting pressure or illegal trapping;
- **indirect impacts** through habitat loss and degradation brought about, for example, through:
  - conversion of natural and semi-natural habitats for agriculture and/or forestry;
  - development of urban/industrial/energy/water/transport infrastructure;
  - global climate change.

Habitat loss and degradation is in turn linked to such broad underlying factors as globalisation of trade, regional and national macro-economic policy, rural and urban poverty, and land-use planning policy.

It is not within the capacity of even the largest and best-resourced of the existing flyway-based instruments to address directly all of these issues. Furthermore, the larger an instrument's scope of geographical coverage and/or the number of species/populations it covers, the more complex and resource-intensive the scale of the challenges that need to be dealt with. This makes it imperative for all flyway-based instruments to make smart, strategic choices in identifying: (a) its own core/focal areas of work and (b) key partners to work with and through.

Ultimately, effective flyway-based conservation depends on mainstreaming bird conservation priorities into broader sustainable development policies and frameworks.

Administrative and technical support framework

Flyway-based conservation instruments of any type are more likely to be implemented successfully if they have:

- a clear, regularly updated strategy/action plan (objective criterion)
- a robust monitoring & evaluation framework with feedback to the strategy/action plan (objective criterion)
- an overall policy coordination/decision-making body such as a standing committee for administrative matters (objective criterion)
- an overall technical committee for scientific/technical matters (objective criterion)
- a day-to-day coordination mechanism such as a secretariat (objective criterion)
- a secretariat whose staff have high levels of appropriate technical expertise (objective criterion) and commitment (subjective criterion), with a relatively low rate of turnover in personnel (objective criterion)
- a sustainable long-term funding mechanism in place (objective criterion)
- a critical mass and diversity of partners (partly subjective criterion)
- a high level of commitment of key parties/partners (subjective criterion)

1.5.5 Existing and potential overlap/duplication and synergy between instruments

A possible drawback to effective implementation of flyway-based conservation instruments is where existing instruments overlap in terms of their biogeographical/geopolitical coverage of flyways and/or in their coverage of taxonomic groups.

Such a situation provides at least the potential for negative effects such as:

- duplication of effort
- inefficient use of resources
- conflicting or competing goals/objectives and projects/programmes confusing messages to stakeholders and the wider public

On the other hand, overlap also provides opportunities for positive synergy such as:

- joint/coordinated projects/programmes
- exchange of expertise, experience and know-how

There are particularly striking overlaps among existing flyway-based instruments in the Americas and in Central Asia (these are summarised in Table 1.3) and there appears to be considerable scope in both cases for measures to maximise synergetic strengths/opportunities and to minimise the potential negative effects.

Table 1.2: Summary of advantages/strengths and disadvantages/weaknesses of different instrument types

Generic instrument type	Advantages/Strengths	Disadvantages/Weaknesses
Formal multilateral agreement between governments. May be legally binding (e.g. convention/ treaty) or more flexible (e.g. Memorandum of Understanding, Memorandum of Cooperation)	• In the case of legally binding instruments, governments accept obligations and responsibilities under international law, which may raise the political profile and level of commitment needed to support action for the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats. • Multilateral donors and government aid agencies may be more inclined to provide financial assistance to support implementation of formal intergovernmental agreements as these provide a permanent framework and commit governments to clear undertakings. • Formalises a clear framework, including regular meetings of the parties to review progress and providing an opportunity for stakeholders to engage with the process. • Enhanced protection of key sites/habitats where site designations are part of the formal/legal obligation entered into. • Formal, high-level nature of instrument may provide greater political weight and be perceived as having more 'gravitas'. • Regular formal reporting on progress with implementation is required. • Potential for enforcement/sanctions, where provision allows, in cases of non-implementation and/or contravention.	• Legally binding agreements require lengthy, formal, intergovernmental negotiations before any agreement can be reached and ratification may also be protracted (though this is not invariably the case). • May be seen as excluding the private sector and civil society from having an equal seat at the table, so that agenda setting and debate is dominated by governments. • Many private-sector and civil-society stakeholders may not wish to engage within a legally-binding government-led framework, especially where site designations are concerned. • Many governments, especially in developing countries, may lack the capacity for implementation. • Environmental issues in general, and conservation of biodiversity in particular, typically rank low among political priorities and government investment, so signing-up to a treaty may never be treated as a priority. • Legally binding agreements have less flexibility and 'nimbleness' than voluntary partnerships and may require lengthy, formal, intergovernmental negotiations before any amendments can be made and ratified. • Texts of intergovernmental instruments (and subsequent decisions on implementation) are negotiated by consensus, which inevitably requires compromise • Government positions may be dominated by Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Finance, rather than by Ministries of Environment or government agencies with technical conservation expertise. On the other hand, direct involvement of such ministries may offer opportunities to 'mainstream' conservation at high levels of decision making on policy and resource allocation.

Table 1.2 contd.

Generic instrument type	Advantages/Strengths	Disadvantages/Weaknesses
		• Governments who bear the greatest share of treaty core budgets may seek to dominate decision making at the expense of developing countries. • Though legally binding in principle, enforcement of relevant MEAs essentially rests on countries respecting a moral obligation to meet their commitments. In only a few cases are there penalties or sanctions in case of contravention. Instead, treaties have tended to establish 'softer' procedures aimed at 'assisting' parties to meet their obligations.
• CMS	• CMS family is recognized as the principal framework for intergovernmental cooperation on migratory species. • UN umbrella confers wide political acceptability/legitimacy. • Likely to be relatively attractive to countries that are already Party to CMS. • CMS provides a range of options for cooperation, e.g. Article IV agreements, Memoranda of Understanding.	• Probably less attractive to countries that are not Party to CMS (although ratification of CMS is not necessary to sign on to a CMS agreement). • UN system may be perceived as bureaucratic and lacking flexibility. • There is a perception among some stakeholders that the number of instruments under CMS already exceeds the administrative capacity of the CMS system, particularly when it comes to supporting implementation and mobilizing resources.
• non-CMS	• Likely to be more attractive to countries that are not Party to CMS.	• Need to establish an alternative legal personality if not through UNEP/CMS; something that is potentially difficult and time-consuming.
Formal bilateral agreement between governments. May be legally binding (e.g. treaty) or more flexible (e.g. Memorandum/Statement of Understanding/ Cooperation)	• Focuses responsibility for implementation clearly on two governments. • May engender increased feeling of 'ownership' and hence greater commitment to implementation by the countries concerned.	• May be difficult for other stakeholders to influence, particularly those from the private sector and NGOs. • Typically not accompanied by any financial mechanism or commitment of resources to support implementation. • Except in a few cases, almost certain to apply to species or groups of birds that are shared by other countries and so at best overlap with or duplicate multilateral efforts for those species and, at worst, contribute to the fragmentation or undermining of multilateral efforts.
• CMS	• A potentially attractive option when a migratory species is shared by only two range states.	• There are relatively few examples of species (or populations) of migratory bird that occur in only two range states. Therefore, the conservation status of a migratory bird species or population along its whole flyway cannot usually be secured by measures undertaken by only two countries.
• non-CMS	• Enables governments to conclude 'stand alone' agreements that are not subject to the more complex requirements of the UNEP/CMS family.	• Distances any potential instrument from the advantages of participating in the UNEP/CMS family. • As for multilateral non-CMS instruments, requires establishment of an alternative legal personality that has legitimacy for governments involved.

Table 1.2 contd.

Generic instrument type	Advantages/Strengths	Disadvantages/Weaknesses
Voluntary partnership / Joint venture	• Provides the opportunity for stakeholders from all sectors (governmental, civil society, private sector, academic) to work flexibly alongside one another as equal partners. • May be a more attractive framework for financial support from the private sector, civil society and some governments/government agencies. • Potentially more flexible and dynamic than legally binding agreements that require consensus decision making among governments and other partners/stakeholders. • A partnership approach is more philosophically and politically palatable for some stakeholders than a legally binding approach.	• Partners (especially governments) are not formally obliged to honour any undertakings given. This could be seen as undermining long-term commitment, particularly from governments when there is a change of administration. • Implementation is not mandatory • Accountability may be unclear • Governmental partners may be overly reliant on non-government/private-sector partners and neglect their own responsibilities for action.
Multi-species instrument	• Umbrella framework reduces the administrative burden on governments (and other stakeholders) in comparison with requirements under multiple single-species agreements (or agreements covering small groups of species). • Migratory birds sharing certain similar characteristics (e.g. common habitats, similar migratory strategies, shared threats to their conservation status) benefit from the cumulative effect of common stakeholder actions. • A multi-species agreement may be perceived as having more 'weight' than a single-species agreement. • Has the potential to benefit broader biodiversity dependent on the habitats managed under the purview of the agreement. • A multi-species instrument (such as CMS) can still serve as a vehicle for the conservation of individual species (or populations) through the development and implementation of international single-species action plans.	• May require lengthy, formal, intergovernmental negotiations involving all key stakeholders before any agreement can be reached and even longer to be formally ratified. • The more species covered by an instrument, the more diluted the focus on any one species. • Administrative/operational budgets and additional financial resources to support implementation may be far below the level needed to adequately address priority actions for all species covered.
Single-species instrument	• Relatively rapid to conclude. • Generally concise and to-the-point, serving to focus attention and (potentially) resources on the conservation needs of individual migratory species. • Focuses attention on the responsibilities and implementation needs/priorities of range states for the species concerned, which may otherwise get lost in a multi-species framework. • May serve as a stimulus for the mobilisation of human, technical and financial resources, as in the case of the CMS single-species instruments for Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus*, Slender-billed Curlew *Numenius tenuirostris* and Aquatic Warbler *Acrocephalus paludicola*.	• Single-species instruments, typically Memoranda of Understanding (or similar) are generally aspirational and not accompanied by a financial instrument/mechanism for implementation. • A proliferation of single-species instruments may overwhelm the capacity of governments (and other stakeholders) to engage in discussions, meetings, reporting, monitoring and evaluation.

Table 1.3: Regional summary of gaps in coverage by existing flyway-based bird conservation instruments

Key criterion for gap analysis	Americas	Africa – Eurasia	East Asia – Australasia	Central Asia	Central Pacific
Geographical coverage	The region is covered by multiple, sometimes overlapping instruments and initiatives, many of which cover specific groups of birds or specific groups of countries. North American birds especially covered by North American Bird Conservation Initiative and bilateral Migratory Bird Treaties. WHMSI is the only instrument that, in principle, covers all countries and all migratory bird species in region with the exception of albatrosses and petrels.	All countries in the region are covered by AEWA for waterbirds and by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia. There is some overlap with CAF and ACAP.	22 countries in the region are covered by the Partnership for the East Asian-Australasian Flyway, which applies to waterbirds and (coastal) seabirds. Some countries (Bangladesh, People's Republic of China, Russian Federation) are covered by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia. Russian Federation is also covered by AEWA and CAF.	All countries in the region are covered by the Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds (CAF) and their Habitats and by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia. There is some overlap with AEWA.	There is no flyway-based instrument for the Central Pacific Flyway as such, though there is coverage by ACAP of marine species.
Species grouping	**Americas**	**Africa – Eurasia**	**East Asia – Australasia**	**Central Asia**	**Central Pacific**
• migratory seabirds	Covered in region by Waterbird Conservation for the Americas initiative. Some species covered by the Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP).	Some species covered by a combination of AEWA and ACAP.	Covered by the Partnership for the East Asian-Australasian Flyway, but this leaves migratory seabirds in other parts of the Asia-Pacific region, notably the Central Pacific (with the exception of species covered by ACAP), not covered. Not included in CAF.	Some species in some groups (cormorants, gulls, terns) covered by the Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds and their Habitats.	Covered by the Albatross and Petrel Agreement (ACAP). Other seabird groups not covered.
Species groupings	**Americas**	**Africa – Eurasia**	**East Asia – Australasia**	**Central Asia**	**Central Pacific**
• migratory waterbirds	Shorebirds covered in whole region by WHSRN. Anatidae covered in part of region by North American Waterfowl Management Plan. All waterbirds (exc. shorebirds and waterfowl in North America) covered in region by Waterbird Conservation for the Americas initiative.	Covered by AEWA. Most available knowledge and effort to date relates to migratory species and populations that occur in Eurasia; intra-African migrants are not well covered.	Covered by the Partnership for the East Asian-Australasian Flyway.	Covered by the Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds and their Habitats.	Not covered.

Table 1.3 contd.

Species groupings	Americas	Africa – Eurasia	East Asia – Australasia	Central Asia	Central Pacific
• migratory raptors	Neartic-breeding migrants covered by Partners in Flight. The main gap is for tropical-breeding and austral-breeding migrants.	Covered by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia.	Some migratory raptors are covered under bilateral instruments, for example JAMBA, CAMBA and between Russian Federation-India. Some countries (Bangladesh, People's Republic of China, Russian Federation) are covered by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia.	Covered by the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia.	Not covered.
Species groupings	**Americas**	**Africa – Eurasia**	**East Asia – Australasia**	**Central Asia**	**Central Pacific**
• migratory passerines	Nearctic-breeding migrants covered by Partners in Flight, The main gap is for tropical-breeding and austral-breeding migrants, although seven species of South American Grassland Migrants are covered by the corresponding CMS MoU.	With the exception of Aquatic Warbler, for which an MoU has been concluded under the CMS, there are no flyway-based initiatives for migratory passerines in the region. Most available knowledge and effort relates to African – Eurasian migrants; intra-African migrants are particularly poorly covered.	Some migratory passerines are covered under bilateral instruments, for example JAMBA CAMBA and between Russian Federation-India, but there is no multilateral instrument or initiative for the conservation of migratory passerines in the region.	Some migratory passerines are covered under the bilateral agreement between Russian Federation-India, but there is no multilateral instrument or initiative for the conservation of migratory passerines in the region.	Not covered.

Table 1.3 contd.

Support for implementation in developing countries	Americas	Africa – Eurasia	East Asia – Australasia	Central Asia	Central Pacific
Compiler's note: it is important to underline that many governmental and non-governmental donors, including foundations, provide significant funding worldwide towards the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats. This section is concerned with funding specifically to support implementation of flyway-based instruments.	Grants for the conservation of Nearctic-breeding migrants wintering in tropical or austral areas provided through the US Neotropical Migratory Bird Conservation Act. Significant project-based support is provided by major NGOs such as Conservation International and The Nature Conservancy, also Canadian wildlife agency, US natural resource agencies, and private U.S. foundations. Main gaps for pelagic seabirds, tropical breeding and austral-breeding migrants.	Support for implementation for migratory waterbirds available through the AEWA Small Grants Fund established in 2008 and through grants provided by the Convention on Wetlands and Wetlands International. Additional support for implementation by developing countries has been provided through the 'Wings Over Wetlands' project. BirdLife partners provide project support for migratory bird conservation projects in Africa. Birds of Prey MoU: Total small grant programme established within the UNEP/CMS Office – Abu Dhabi amounting $ 365,000, of which a part (at least 50%) is dedicated to Birds of Prey conservation. Starting actions are under process with African range states and matching funds with partners at regional level for some species research assessment and monitoring.	With the exception of the modest Asian Waterbird Conservation Fund of WWF-Hong Kong fund, there is no dedicated, flyway-based funding mechanism in the region. The Partnership for the East Asian-Australasian Flyway may assist partners in applying for funding from sources such as the Ramsar Small Grants Fund, and the Asian Waterbird Conservation Fund.	No provision.	ACAP small grants scheme covers some areas.

Table 1.4: Assessment of strengths and weaknesses of individual CMS instruments for the conservation of migratory birds

Compiler's note: This information is presented in good faith on the basis of a literature review plus written and oral inputs made available specifically for this review. Any errors or misinterpretations brought to the compiler's attention will be corrected prior to production of the final version of this document. The compilers would also welcome additional inputs where there are gaps in the information provided.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths / advantages	Weaknesses / disadvantages
	Parties[5] to Agreements and MoUs are **boldfaced** **OECD DAC status[6]: red/** = "Least Developed Countries" and "Other Low Income Countries"; orange/* = "Lower Middle Income Countries"**		
Agreement on the Conservation of African – Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)	118 Range States and one Regional Economic Integration Organisation: **Albania***; **Algeria***; Andorra; Angola**; Armenia*; Austria; Azerbaijan*; Bahrain; Belarus; **Belgium**; **Benin****; Bosnia and Herzegovina*; Botswana; **Bulgaria**; Burkina Faso**; Burundi**; Cameroon*; Canada; Cape Verde*; Central African Republic**; Chad**; Comoros**; **Congo***; Congo, Democratic Republic of**; Côte d'ivoire**; **Croatia**; **Cyprus**; **Czech Republic**; **Denmark**; **Djibouti****; Egypt*; **Equatorial Guinea****; Eritrea**; **Estonia**; **Ethiopia****; **European Union**; **Finland**; **France**; Gabon; **Gambia****; **Georgia***; **Germany**; **Ghana****; **Greece**; **Guinea****; **Guinea-Bissau****; **Hungary**; Iceland; Islamic Republic of Iran*; Iraq*; Ireland; Israel; Italy; **Jordan***; Kazakhstan; **Kenya****; Kuwait; **Latvia**; **Lebanon**; Lesotho**; Liberia**; **Libyan Arab Jamahiriya**; Liechtenstein; **Lithuania**; **Luxembourg**; **Madagascar****; Malawi**; **Mali****; Malta; Mauritania**; **Mauritius**; **Moldova***; **Monaco**; Montenegro; **Morocco***; Mozambique**; **Namibia***; **Netherlands**; **Niger****; Nigeria**; **Norway**; Oman; Poland; **Portugal**; Qatar; **Romania**; Russian Federation; Rwanda**; San Marino; São Tomé and Principe**; Saudi Arabia; **Senegal****; Serbia; Seychelles; Sierra Leone**; **Slovakia**; **Slovenia**; Somalia**; **South Africa**; **Spain**; **Sudan****; **Swaziland***; **Sweden**; **Switzerland**; **Syrian Arab Republic***; The FYR of Macedonia*; **Togo****; **Tunisia***; Turkey; Turkmenistan*; **Uganda****; **Ukraine***; United Arab Emirates; **United Kingdom**; **United Republic of Tanzania****; **Uzbekistan****; Yemen**; Zambia**; Zimbabwe**. 30 Range States are not Party to CMS. 25 Range States (21%) are not Party to either CMS or AEWA.	• Entry into force was in 1999 and so AEWA is now a relatively 'mature' Agreement with a strong focus on implementation. • A comprehensive Action Plan is integral to the Agreement. • Focus on development and implementation of International Single Species Action Plans. • Permanent Secretariat funded by the Parties. • Technical Committee provides scientific advice to AEWA Standing Committee and Meetings of the Parties (MOPs). • Regular MOPs have been held, with MOP5 scheduled for 2012. • Funding for developing countries has been made available through the Wings Over Wetlands project and (since its establishment at MOP4, 2008) the AEWA Small Grants Fund for Africa.	• Only just over half of the Range States are Party to the Agreement. • More than one-fifth of Range States have yet to become Party to either AEWA or CMS. • The Agreement text does not include a financial instrument to support implementation even though the 118 Range States (plus the EC) include more than two-thirds of the world's Least Developed Countries and Other Low Income Countries as recognised by the OECD.[6] • Secretariat capacity is an issue given the large number of Range States, the growing number of Contracting Parties and International Single Species Action Plans, the initiation of the Implementation Review Process and Small Grants Fund for Africa etc.

Table 1.4 contd.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths / advantages	Weaknesses / disadvantages
Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP)	23 Range States and one Regional Economic Integration Organisation: **Angola****; **Argentina**, **Australia**, **Brazil**, Canada, **Chile**, People's Republic of China*, **Ecuador***, EU, **France**, Indonesia*, Japan, Republic of Korea, **Mexico**, Namibia*, **New Zealand**, **Norway**, **Peru***, Russian Federation, **South Africa**, **Spain**, **UK**, USA, **Uruguay.** Nine of the Range States are not Party to CMS (Brazil, Canada, People's Republic of China, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Namibia, Russian Federation, USA). Of these, only Brazil is Party to the Agreement.	• Has a clear, unambiguous objective to define the scope of the Agreement. • Establishes and defines the functions of an Agreement Secretariat. • Provides for establishment of an Advisory Committee to provide the Meeting of Parties with scientific and technical advice. • An Action Plan is integral to the Agreement (Annex 2). • Provides for a voluntary fund to support implementation (Article VII). • Art II, para 3 states that in implementing the measures prescribed under Art II, paras 1-2, Parties should take into account the precautionary principle.[1] • Secretariat formally established under a Headquarters Agreement with Government of Australia (MOP2, 2006).[1] • Secondments from Parties provide the Secretariat with significant additional capacity.[1]	• Applies to all albatross species, but not to all petrel species. • Three-year delay between conclusion (Feb 2001) and entry into force (Feb 2004)[1,3] still at a relatively early stage of implementation. • Only 45% of Range States are Party to the Agreement.[1] • Eight of 23 Range States are not Party to CMS, including People's Republic of China, Russian Federation, USA.[1] • Advisory Committee stated in its MOP3 (2009) Report on Implementation of the Agreement that: "Although a great deal is being accomplished by the Parties, Range States and BirdLife International, it is not possible to assess if the actions taken have been successful in achieving the objectives of the Agreement (Article II.1) and whether the conservation status of albatross and petrels has been improved (or maintained). Such an assessment will require further progress in the development of performance indicators for the Agreement, work to fill data gaps on some species and populations and improvements to national reporting." [1,3]

Table 1.4 contd.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
MoU concerning Conservation Measures for the Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus*	11 Range States: **Afghanistan****, **Azerbaijan***, **People's Republic of China***, **India***, **Islamic Republic of Iran***, **Kazakhstan**, **Mongolia***, **Russian Federation**, **Pakistan****, **Turkmenistan***, **Uzbekistan****. Five of the Range States are not Party to CMS (Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, People's Republic of China, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan) but all of these are Party to the MoU.	• Original MoU entered into effect in 1993 (revised MoU in 1999) and all Range States are Party, so now a 'mature' instrument with the emphasis on implementation. • Annual implementation reports are required under the MoU. • Comprehensive Conservation Plans have been produced for all populations. • The CMS Secretariat receives support from the International Crane Foundation (ICF) to coordinate the implementation of the MoU.[1] • GEF funded a six-year (2003–2009) project to develop a flyway site network for Siberian Cranes and other migratory waterbirds in Asia. GEF contributed US$10 million leveraging a further US$12.7 million in co-financing. The project was implemented by ICF, through UNEP and in cooperation with CMS and the Governments of People's Republic of China, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Kazakhstan and the Russian Federation.[4]	• People's Republic of China and the Islamic Republic of Iran have both cited technical and capacity limitations as barriers to better implementation.[1] • Lack of operational coordination for implementation of the Conservation Plan.[1] • 6th Meeting of Signatories (2007) noted lack of adequate funds to implement monitoring, research, education, and other activities.[1]
MoU concerning Conservation Measures for the Slender-billed Curlew *Numenius tenuirostris*	30 Range States and one Regional Economic Integration Organisation: **Albania***, Algeria*, Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina*, **Bulgaria**, **Croatia**, **Cyprus**, **Egypt***, European Union, **Georgia***, **Greece**, **Hungary**, **Islamic Republic of Iran***, Iraq*, **Italy**, **Kazakhstan**, Malta, Montenegro*, **Morocco***, **Oman**, **Romania**, Russian Federation, Serbia*, **Spain**, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan*, **Ukraine***, United Arab Emirates, **Uzbekistan****, **Yemen****. (*status as Range State to be confirmed; may occur as a vagrant in a further 13 countries) Seven Range States are not Party to CMS (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq, Oman, Russian Federation, Turkey, Turkmenistan, United Arab Emirates). Of these, only Oman is a Party to the MoU.	• MoU entered into effect in 1994, so in principle a 'mature' instrument with the emphasis on implementation. • Slender-billed Curlew Working Group created in 1996 under the auspices of the CMS Scientific Council to facilitate cooperation and collaboration among scientific experts and decision-makers.[1] • Basic Secretariat Services provided by UNEP/CMS with support from BirdLife International.[1]	• Only 58% of Range States are Party to the MoU, making full implementation impossible. • Working Group dormant from 2003 to 2008 when revitalised.[1] • There is no decision-making body (e.g. Meeting of Signatories) secretariat capacity or financial mechanism stipulated in the MoU.[1]

Table 1.4 contd.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
MoU concerning Conservation Measures for the Aquatic Warbler *Acrocephalus paludicola*	15 Range States: **Belarus**, **Belgium**, **Bulgaria**, France, **Germany**, **Hungary**, **Latvia**, **Lithuania**, The Netherlands, **Poland**, Russian Federation, **Senegal****, **Spain**, **Ukraine***, **United Kingdom**. One Range State (Russian Federation) is not Party to either the MoU or CMS.	• 80% of Range States are Party to the MoU. • Every meeting of the Signatories (every 3 years) is to review the conservation status of the Aquatic Warbler and the implementation of the Action Plan, taking into consideration reports submitted by the Signatories of the Range States, the Secretariat's Overview Report and any recommendation or scientific advice relating to the Aquatic Warbler that may have been made by the CMS Conference of the Parties or the Scientific Council.[1] • BirdLife International Aquatic Warbler Conservation Team leads on research and conservation and supports/advises CMS Secretariat.[1]	• Entered into effect in 2003, so still at a relatively early stage of implementation. • MoU does not provide for Secretariat capacity or financial mechanism.
MoU concerning Conservation Measures for the Ruddy-headed Goose *Chloephaga rubidiceps*	2 Range States: **Argentina**, **Chile**. Both Range States are Party to CMS.	• Danish Agency for Spatial and Environmental Planning is supporting a project on the conservation of the species in Argentina and Chile via CMS.[1]	• Entered into effect in November 2006, so still at an early stage of implementation. • No financial provision made as part of the MoU. • "As the Agreement hasn't been fully developed, the decision-making process is not yet clearly defined."[1] • "Action Plan still has to be developed and it is necessary to complete an Action Plan in order to support the aims of the MoU."[1] • No working groups/task forces have been etsbalished.[1] • No independent website (though covered via CMS website) or provision for awareness raising or communications plan.[1]
MoU on the Conservation of Southern South American Migratory Grassland Bird Species and Their Habitat	5 Range States: **Argentina**, **Bolivia***, **Brazil**, **Paraguay***, **Uruguay**. One Range State (Brazil) is not Party to CMS but is Party to the MoU.	• All Range States are Party to the MoU. • Provides for an Action Plan, appointment of Scientific Coordinators in each country, regular Meetings of the Signatories.[1]	• There is no financial provision within the MoU.[1] • This MoU only entered into force in August 2007 so is at an early stage of implementation. The first Meeting of Parties was held in Brazil in July 2009 but the Action Plan has not yet been published.

Table 1.4 contd.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
MoU concerning the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia	129 Range States and one Regional Economic Integration Organisation: Afghanistan**; Albania*; Algeria*; Andorra; **Angola****; **Armenia***; Austria; Azerbaijan*; Bangladesh**; Bahrain; Belarus; Belgium; Benin**; Bhutan**; Bosnia and Herzegovina*; Botswana; Bulgaria; Burkina Faso**; **Burundi****; Cameroon*; Cape Verde*; Central African Republic**; **Chad****; China*, People's Republic of; Comoros**; **Congo**; **Congo, Democratic Republic of****; Côte d'Ivoire**; Croatia; Cyprus; Czech Republic; Denmark (incl. Faeroe Islands and Greenland); **Djibouti****; Egypt*; **Equatorial Guinea****; Eritrea**; Estonia; Ethiopia**; European Union•; **Finland (incl. Aland Islands)**; France (incl. Mayotte and Reunion); Gabon; **Gambia****; Georgia*; Germany; Ghana**; Greece; **Guinea****; Guinea-Bissau**; **Hungary**; Iceland; India*; Islamic Republic of Iran*; Iraq*; Ireland; Israel; Italy; Jordan*; Kazakhstan; **Kenya****; Kuwait; Kyrgyzstan**; Latvia; Lebanon; Lesotho**; Liberia**; Libyan Arab Jamahiriya; Liechtenstein; Lithuania; Luxembourg; **Madagascar****; Malawi**; **Mali****; Malta; Mauritania**; Mauritius; Moldova*; Monaco; **Mongolia***; Montenegro; **Morocco***; Mozambique**; Namibia*; **Nepal****; **Netherlands**; Niger**; Nigeria**; **Norway (incl. Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands)**; Oman; **Pakistan****; Poland; **Portugal**; Qatar; Romania; Russian Federation; Rwanda**; San Marino; São Tomé and Principe**; Saudi Arabia; **Senegal****; Serbia; Seychelles; Sierra Leone**; Slovakia; Slovenia; Somalia**; **South Africa**; Spain (incl. Canary Islands); Sri Lanka*; **Sudan****; Swaziland*; Sweden; Switzerland; Syrian Arab Republic*; Tajikistan**; The FYR of Macedonia*; **Togo****; Tunisia*; Turkey; Turkmenistan*; Uganda**; Ukraine*; **United Arab Emirates**; **United Kingdom (incl. Jersey, Guernsey, Isle of Man, Cyprus sovereign bases and Gibraltar)**; United Republic of Tanzania**; Uzbekistan**; Vatican City; **Yemen****; Zambia**; Zimbabwe**. 36 Range States are not Party to CMS. 30 Range States (23%) are not Party to either CMS or the MoU.	• Action Plan annexed to the MoU. • This MoU is first for CMS to assess the cost for implementation of an Action Plan before its conclusion between range states. • Coordinating Unit being established by CMS in conjunction with United Arab Emirates. Indicative budget for 2009-2011 is US$ 3.6 million for two MoU (dugongs and birds of prey). • There are specific financial provisions deriving from the MoU translated into budget for small grants programme and staff costs in the Donor agreement (see compiler's note in Table 1.3 above) • Web presence covered cost-effectively through CMS website for the whole UNEP/CMS Office under establishment.	• This MoU only entered into force in November 2008 so is at an early stage of implementation. • Less than a quarter of Range States are so far Party to the MoU. • The 1st Meeting of Signatories took place in December 2012 in Abu Dhabi"

Table 1.4 contd.

Name of instrument	Range States[5]	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
MoU on the Conservation of High Andean Flamingos and Their Habitats	4 Range States: Argentina, **Bolivia***, **Chile**, **Peru***. All Range States are Party to CMS.		• This MoU only entered into force in December 2008 so is at an early stage of implementation. • Decision-making process not yet finalised and no Meetings of Signatories have yet been convened. • There is no financial provision in the MoU.
Central Asian Flyway Action Plan for the Conservation of Migratory Waterbirds and Their Habitats	30 Range States:[7] Afghanistan**, Armenia*, Azerbaijan*, Bahrain, Bangladesh**, Bhutan**, People's Republic of China, Georgia*, India*, Iran*, Iraq*, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan**, Maldives**, Mongolia*, Myanmar**, Nepal**, Oman, Pakistan**, Qatar, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka*, Tajikistan**, Turkmenistan*, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, Uzbekistan**, Yemen**.	Endorsed by a meeting of Range States held in New Delhi in 2005.	• There has been little progress since the 2005 New Delhi meeting of Range States. • The Action Plan is a technical document that is not supported by an intergovernmental instrument such as an Agreement or a Memorandum of Understanding. • More than one-third of the 30 Range States are among the world's Least Developed Countries and Other Low Income Countries as defined by the OECD.[6] If Lower Middle Income Countries are also included, this proportion rises to two-thirds. Securing funding to support implementation in these countries will therefore be critical if the Action Plan is to be meaningful. • The CAF Action Plan overlaps with AEWA and the (non-CMS) Partnership for the East Asian – Australasian Flyway in terms of both species/habitat coverage and geographical scope, and with the MoU on Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia in terms of geographical scope.

Sources:

1 = UNEP/CMS Standing Committee, Inter-Sessional Working Group regarding the Future Shape of CMS. 2009.

2 = Personal communication (email/phone) from CMS Flyway Working Group members.

3 = ACAP website www.acap.aq/resources/parties-to-acap and www.acap.aq/meeting-documents/english/meeting-of-the-parties/mop3/mop3-meeting-documents/view-category downloaded 27 April 2010

4 = Siberian Crane Wetland Project website – final report www.scwp.info/final_report.shtml

5 = Agreement Summary Sheets downloaded from CMS website, 27 April 2010 www.cms.int/publications/agr_sum_sheets.htm

6 = Downloaded from OECD website, 27 April 2010 www.oecd.org/document/16/0,3343,en_2649_34447_2093101_1_1_1_1,00.html

7 = New Delhi Statement (June 2005 Meeting to Conclude and Endorse the CAF Action Plan) http://www.cms.int/bodies/meetings/regional/caf/pdf/report/Annex5_New_Delhi_Statement.pdf

Table 1.5. Assessment of strengths and weaknesses of individual, multilateral non-CMS instruments for the conservation of migratory birds

Compiler's note: additional inputs on strengths and weaknesses of the instruments listed are required before this table can be completed.

Name of instrument	Geographical coverage	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
	OECD DAC status[1]: red/ = "Least Developed Countries" and "Other Low Income Countries"; orange/* = "Lower Middle Income Countries"; blue = "Upper Middle Income Countries and Territories"**		
Multilateral non-CMS instruments Americas			
Partners in Flight (PIF)	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA		
North American Bird Conservation Initiative (NABCI)	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA Meso America: Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador*, Guatemala*, Honduras*, Nicaragua*, Panama South America: Argentina, Bolivia*, Brazil, Chile, Colombia*, Ecuador*, Guyana*, Paraguay*, Peru*, Suriname, Uruguay, Venezuela		
North American Waterbird Conservation Plan ('Waterbird Conservation for the Americas')	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA		
Western Hemisphere Migratory Species Initiative (WHMSI)	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA Meso America: Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador*, Guatemala*, Honduras*, Nicaragua*, Panama Caribbean: Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic*, Grenada, Haiti**, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago Overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique) and collectivities (Saint Barthélemy, Saint Martin) of France Overseas territories of the UK (Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Montserrat, Turks and Caicos Islands) Netherlands (Aruba, Netherlands Antilles) USA (Puerto Rico, United States Virgin Islands) South America: Argentina, Bolivia*, Brazil, Chile, Colombia*, Ecuador*, Guyana*, Paraguay*, Peru*, Suriname, Uruguay, Venezuela		

Table 1.5 contd.

Name of instrument	Geographical coverage	Strengths/advantages	Weaknesses/disadvantages
Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network (WHSRN)	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA Meso America: Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador*, Guatemala*, Honduras*, Nicaragua*, Panama Caribbean: Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic*, Grenada, Haiti**, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago Overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique) and collectivities (Saint Barthélemy, Saint Martin) of France Overseas territories of the UK (Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Montserrat, Turks and Caicos Islands) Netherlands (Aruba, Netherlands Antilles) USA (Puerto Rico, United States Virgin Islands) South America: Argentina, Bolivia*, Brazil, Chile, Colombia*, Ecuador*, Guyana*, Paraguay*, Peru*, Suriname, Uruguay, Venezuela		
Partners in Flight (PIF)	North America: Canada, Mexico, USA Meso America: Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador*, Guatemala*, Honduras*, Nicaragua*, Panama		
Multilateral non-CMS instruments Asia – Pacific			
Partnership for the East Asian – Australasian Flyway	22 countries (current governmental Partners[2] **boldfaced**): **Australia**, Bangladesh**, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia**, People's Republic of China*, Timor-Leste**, **Indonesia***, **Japan**, Laos**, Malaysia, Mongolia*, Myanmar**, New Zealand, North Korea**, Papua New Guinea**, **Philippines***, **Republic of Korea**, **Russian Federation**, **Singapore**, Thailand*, Viet Nam*, **USA**		• While the Secretariat may assist Partners to apply for funding from other sources, the Partnership does not itself bring financial support for implementation, which may be an obstacle to wider participation and fuller implementation, given that 7 of the 22 countries in the Partnership region are amongst the world's "Least Developed Countries" and "Other Low Income Countries" as defined by OECD.[1] A further six countries are "Lower Middle Income Countries."

Sources:

1 = Downloaded from OECD website, 27 April 2010 www.oecd.org/document/16/0,3343,en_2649_34447_2093101_1_1_1_1,00.html

2 = Downloaded from PEAAF website, 28 April 2010 www.eaaflyway.net/partners.php

1.6 Findings & conclusions regarding coverage of global flyways by existing instruments

General findings

1. Globally, there are more than 30 different international, flyway-based instruments for the conservation of migratory birds (Table 1.1). These range from multilateral intergovernmental treaties covering more than 110 countries, through instruments addressing the conservation of single species (or small groups of species), to voluntary, multi-sector partnerships and networks of designated sites.

2. There are many more instruments that are **not flyway-based**, and therefore outside the scope of detailed consideration under this review, but which nevertheless make a significant contribution to the conservation of migratory species and their habitats. These range from ecosystem-focused treaties, such as the Ramsar Convention, to national ecosystem initiatives (e.g. the recent announcement by Canada concerning the protection of boreal forest from logging), through national and regional protected areas networks (e.g. Natura 2000 in Europe, or the Mesoamerican Biological Corridor), to resource-management and climate-change adaptation measures such as integrated water resource management plans for major river basins or REDD (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and [forest] Degradation) programmes in developing countries. Mainstreaming of migratory bird conservation (both species-led and habitat-led approaches) into these mechanisms provides an important means of widening stakeholder buy-in and support, particularly through integration of relevant government policy areas. There is also a wide range of relevant NGO-led partnerships, such as that between BirdLife International partners in the UK and Gambia, in conjunction with the British Trust for Ornithology, to study the ecology of migratory passerines on the non-breeding grounds in West Africa.

3. The effectiveness of **flyway-based** conservation instruments must be seen in this wider context and the multiple opportunities that exist for maximising synergy (at the same time reducing the risk of negative overlaps that may arise from duplication, inadequate consultation/communication and even direct competition for the same limited resources for environmental management).

4. Each **category** of flyway-based conservation instrument and each **individual instrument** within a category has its own strengths and weaknesses. The appropriateness and effectiveness of each category and each individual instrument has to be assessed against a set of circumstances that is unique to the flyway, species and conservation challenges it aims to address. Questions needing consideration include:

   - Which flyway and which migratory bird species/populations would the proposed instrument address?
   - What are the main threats and pressures adversely affecting the conservation status of those species/populations?
   - How and why would the proposed new instrument constitute the best possible framework for implementing the required conservation measures effectively and sustainably? (i.e. why would it be better than an alternative approach?)
   - What is the broad geopolitical context? Is there a tradition of working through legally binding treaties or a more flexible voluntary partnership approach? Are there specific political factors involved that would make it difficult for key range states to join a legally binding agreement? Does the flyway include developing countries for whom a species-led approach to conservation may be less relevant than an approach based on the maintenance of multiple ecosystem services that provide tangible economic benefits (with conservation of migratory bird species a more indirect benefit)?
   - Is there a strong reason to believe that an additional instrument would really enhance the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats? Could those same benefits be met or exceeded by strengthening existing instruments? Is there scope for enhanced cooperation and synergy between existing instruments? How could this be realised in practice?

5. It would therefore be much too simplistic to conclude that any one category or model of flyway-based cooperation for the conservation of migratory bird species is inherently better than any other; it is entirely dependent on circumstances.

Geographical coverage

6. See Figures 1.1 to 1.3 for definitions of regional flyway aggregations. Geographical coverage (on paper) is strongest in:

   - Africa – Eurasia (particularly Eurasia);
   - Americas (particularly North America);
   - East Asia – Australasia.

   In these regions there is an established flyways-based approach to bird conservation that can traced back over the course of 30 to 50 years.

7. Geographical coverage (on paper) is weakest in the following regions:

   - Central Pacific;
   - Central Asia (there is a CMS Action Plan for waterbirds that has yet to be implemented; there is also substantial overlap with the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA) and the CMS Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa-Eurasia);
   - Pelagic (open ocean) flyways in the Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Indian Ocean and Southern Ocean.

Species group coverage

8. Coverage of species groups (on paper) is strongest for:

   - Waterfowl (Anatidae);
   - Shorebirds/waders (Scolopacidae);
   - Other migratory waterbirds such as divers (loons), grebes, cranes, herons etc;
   - Nearctic-breeding passerines and other landbirds that migrate to the Neotropics for the non-breeding season;
   - Raptors (particularly in Africa-Eurasia).

9. Coverage of species groups (on paper) is weakest for:

   - Passerines (particularly in Africa-Eurasia and Asia-Pacific, though coverage is good for Nearctic-breeding migratory passerines in the Americas);
   - Other landbirds (with some exceptions e.g. certain species covered through bilateral treaties in the Americas and Asia – Pacific regions; also the CMS MoU on African-Eurasian birds of prey and CMS MoU on Middle European population of Great Bustard *Otis tarda*);
   - Inter-tropical and intra-tropical migrants in all regions;
   - Migratory seabirds not covered by the CMS Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP) and whose flyways at sea are only partly covered by instruments such as AEWA, or the Partnership for the East Asian – Australasian Flyway (EAAFP).

From paper to implementation

10. Extent of global flyway coverage (whether geographically, or in terms of species/species groups) is one consideration, but the crucial point is how theoretical coverage 'on paper' is translated into effective conservation action.

11. Among the foremost challenges confronting the majority of flyway-based conservation instruments, particularly those covering Africa, but also parts of Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, are:

    - ensuring that developing-country needs and priorities are fully integrated into the development and implementation of both new and existing instruments;
    - securing sustainable means of financial support for implementation in developing countries.

12. In comparison with those of economically developed countries, the environmental priorities of most developing countries are likely to be focused on wider sustainable development issues (rather than species conservation issues per se) such as:

    - water and food security;
    - climate change mitigation and adaptation;
    - protection of economically important ecosystem services.

13. Instruments for the conservation of migratory bird species – whether intergovernmental or not – are likely to struggle for sufficient attention, capacity and resources unless they are explicitly linked to the wider developing country priorities outlined above. In other words, priority must be given to mainstreaming of species conservation within the broader environment and sustainable development agenda.

14. In addition to focusing on developing-country needs and priorities where relevant to the geographical area of coverage, 'ingredients for success' appear to include:

    - the opportunity for all parties/partners/signatories/stakeholders to meet together on a regular basis;
    - a clear decision-making mechanism at a policy level;
    - a clear mechanism for ensuring decisions are based on the best available science;
    - clear conservation goals and objectives that are measurable/verifiable;
    - an action plan for reaching those goals and objectives;
    - an implementation monitoring plan.

Findings concerning instruments in the framework of UNEP/CMS

15. UNEP/CMS is widely recognised as the principal global Multilateral Environmental Agreement (MEA) for intergovernmental cooperation on the conservation of migratory species and provides a range of options for such coopera-

tion, from legally binding Agreements (such as AEWA) to simpler, non-binding Memorandums of Understanding.

16. Other global MEAs relevant for the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats include the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and the 'Ramsar' Convention on Wetlands. CBD provides a high-level political umbrella and a Joint Work Programme between CBD and CMS was established by CBD Decision VI/20 (COP 6, 2002). The Ramsar Convention text contains specific provisions for intergovernmental cooperation on wetland-dependent species and their habitats. Like CMS, Ramsar has established a Joint Work Programme with the CBD.

17. Depending on circumstances, CMS may not necessarily provide the most appropriate or only framework for cooperation in every case. For example:

    - in cases where there is an established tradition/preference among stakeholders for a particular species/group of species, or within a particular region, for informal, partnership-based means of working (as opposed to a formalised intergovernmental approach);

    - where a habitat-led or ecosystem services-led approach, rather than a species focus, may make it more effective for CMS to work in partnership with or through other mechanisms, rather than seek to establish a CMS instrument as such.

18. The key is to be guided by an objective assessment of the conservation purpose and geopolitical/socio-economic context and to select the instrument, or combination of instruments, most appropriate for the particular circumstances. The many opportunities for synergies to be realised through complementary, cooperative work under different instruments also need to be maximised.

19. The fact that a Range State may become a Party/Signatory to UNEP/CMS Agreements and MoUs without being a Contracting Party to CMS offers a degree of flexibility but also adds complexity that some view as undermining the overall cohesiveness of the CMS family.

20. For political reasons, some countries will not – or are highly reluctant to – participate in flyway-based instruments under the auspices of CMS. This may be a consequence of a given country not being a Party to CMS (which may itself be a consequence of wider international politics unconnected with the conservation of migratory birds), or because there is a national or regional tradition/preference for working through non-binding partnerships.

21. The increase in the number of different instruments within the CMS framework, particularly the proliferation of MoUs for single species or small groups of species during the last 15 years has – with only relatively few exceptions – not been matched by a growth in the administrative, technical and financial resources/capacity needed to secure tangible conservation impacts on the ground.

Findings concerning instruments outside the framework of UNEP/CMS

22. Instruments outside the UNEP/CMS framework can be divided into two broad categories:
    - other intergovernmental agreements (including the flyway-related provisions of the Ramsar Convention noted above and a range of bilateral treaties on migratory birds);
    - arrangements based on voluntary partnerships, with a greater or lesser degree of informality.

23. There are advantages and disadvantages of both the non-CMS alternatives listed under point 22 and these are detailed in the review. In terms of other legally binding mechanisms, it may be that issues such as geopolitical context or funding possibilities make another instrument the most appropriate choice. In relation to voluntary (non-binding) partnerships, the following strengths and weaknesses can be identified:

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
• Provides the opportunity for stakeholders from all sectors (governmental, civil society, private sector, academic) to work flexibly alongside one another as equal partners. • May be a more attractive framework for financial support from the private sector, civil society and some governments/government agencies. • Potentially more flexible and dynamic than legally binding agreements that require consensus decision making among governments and other partners/stakeholders. • A partnership approach may be more philosophically and politically palatable for some stakeholders than a legally binding approach.	• Partners (especially governments) are not formally obliged to honour any undertakings given. This could be seen as undermining long-term commitment, particularly from governments when there is a change of administration. • Implementation is not mandatory. • Accountability may be unclear. • Governmental partners may be overly reliant on non-government/private-sector partners and neglect their own responsibilities for action.

24. In some cases, one of these established mechanisms may provide the most appropriate framework for addressing a particular conservation need. In other cases a CMS-based instrument will be more appropriate. Effective decision making will be facilitated by:

    - maintaining regular, open, two-way dialogue between CMS and non-CMS approaches;

    - assessing on a case-by-case basis the strengths and weaknesses of existing instruments in relation to the conservation needs and priorities of a specific flyway or population;

    - identifying and acting on opportunities for synergy;

    - only establishing a new instrument where it is shown conclusively that these needs and priorities cannot be met through existing instruments.

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Part 2

Review of Current Knowledge of Bird Flyways, Principal Knowledge Gaps and Conservation Priorities

JEFF KIRBY
Just Ecology, Brookend House, Old Brookend, Berkeley, Gloucestershire, GL13 9SQ, UK

September 2010

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to colleagues at BirdLife International for the input of analyses, technical information, advice, ideas, research papers, peer review and comment. Thus, I extend my gratitude to my lead contact at the BirdLife Secretariat, Ali Stattersfield, and to Tris Allinson, Jonathan Barnard, Stuart Butchart, John Croxall, Mike Evans, Lincoln Fishpool, Richard Grimmett, Vicky Jones and Ian May. In addition, John Sherwell worked enthusiastically and efficiently to provide many key publications, at short notice, and I'm grateful to him for that. I also thank the authors of, and contributors to, Kirby et al. (2008) which was a major review of the status of migratory bird species and which laid the foundations for this work.

Borja Heredia, from CMS, and Taej Mundkur, from Wetlands International, also provided much helpful advice and assistance, and were instrumental in steering the work. I wish to thank Tim Jones as well (the compiler of a parallel review of CMS instruments) for his advice, comment and technical inputs; and also Simon Delany of Wetlands International.

Various members of the CMS Flyway Working Group, and other representatives from CMS, BirdLife and Wetlands International networks, responded to requests for advice and comment and for this I wish to thank: Olivier Biber, Joost Brouwer, Nicola Crockford, Carlo C. Custodio, Tim Dodman, Muembo Kabemba Donatien, Roger Jaensch, Jelena Kralj, Angus Middleton, Narelle Montgomery, Cristina Morales, Paul Kariuki Ndang'ang'a, Paul O'Neill, Herb Raffaele, Fernando Spina and David Stroud.

2.1 Executive Summary

A review of current knowledge for migratory birds at the flyway scale, including threats, has been undertaken, from which conservation priorities and recommendations are identified.

The many different types of migration that birds undertake are first described as well as the flyways and strategies that they use to complete their migratory journeys. The great complexity in bird migration is evident and brings with it a requirement for a multitude of conservation approaches. International collaboration is a key element in any strategy for migratory bird conservation and the signatories to the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS) have a key role to play.

Analysis of status and trends was carried out for a total of 2,274 CMS-defined migratory species (23% of the world's birds). Migratory birds are found in all regions of the world, however, the Americas and Asian regions stand out with more than 1,000 species each.

At a global level, 14% (317) of the included species are currently considered threatened or near-threatened according to the IUCN Red List. Since 1988, 53 species have deteriorated in status (sufficiently to be uplisted to higher categories of extinction risk on the IUCN Red List) while only nine species have improved (sufficiently to be downlisted to lower categories). Listing of species on CMS appendices (these being species identified as deserving of specific attention) does not yet appear to have resulted in an improvement in overall status.

There is increasing evidence of regional declines, although regional and taxonomic differences exist. Population trend data show that more Nearctic–Neotropical migrants have declined than increased in North America since the 1980s, and more Palearctic–Afrotropical migrants breeding in Europe declined than increased during 1970–2000. The East Asia–Australasia region has the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (20%); Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia having the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (c.30% each); and the Americas, Africa–Eurasia and East Asia–Australasia the highest proportions of threatened seabirds (c.30%). Overall, the East Asia–Australasia region having the highest proportion of threatened migratory birds in all categories and is under enormous pressures with some 45% of the world's human population as well as the fastest-growing economies. On a flyway scale, the East Asia–Australasia flyway has the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (19%), and the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (24–34%) was recorded for the Black Sea–Mediterranean, East Asia–East Africa, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia flyways. These and other data reviewed indicate that a significant proportion of migratory birds are at high risk and have an unfavourable conservation status.

Analysis of the main threats to migratory species evaluated as threatened and near-threatened on the 2010 IUCN Red List shows that important threats include land-use change, illegal hunting and taking, non-native species, diseases, pollution, climate change, natural system modifications, infrastructure development, human disturbance, fishing, energy production and distribution. Published literature on key threats has been collated and reviewed.

Key information needs are identified that relate to our knowledge of the status, trends and threats to migratory bird species, and information needed in order to more effectively pursue their conservation. These include the continuing need for robust information on status and trends, distribution and ecology, and for further information on the wide variety of threats to migratory birds.

There is a need to determine the 'ideal' landscape for migratory birds in each geographical region of the world, where landscape-scale conservation is key to the protection of migratory birds. To facilitate migratory movements, it is vital to find ways to improve the connectivity of habitats critical to population survival currently and in the future. A continuation of monitoring and research into the impacts of climate change on migratory species, as well as the ability of species and populations to adapt, remains important. This knowledge is vital to identify key limiting factors, the 'weakest link', upon which each species' survival hinges, and to provide essential building blocks for policy guidance.

Conservation priorities have been identified that address the key identified threats. Protection of habitats, and the resources they provide, is identified as being of vital importance to migratory birds, and this should be afforded the highest priority of all.

Migratory species that depend on a network of sites along their flyways will strongly benefit from the proper protection and management of these sites. The degree of protection afforded to network sites is at present insufficient. Effective management of key sites for migratory birds needs to address the whole range of factors that cause direct mortality (e.g. hunting, trapping, collisions, predation, pollution etc.), and those that reduce food supplies or destroy or degrade habitats. Best practice habitat management needs to be shared.

Specific threats highlighted by this review that are of particular significance for migratory birds include: wind turbine developments; power line collisions and electrocutions; illegal trapping and shooting; reclamation of wetlands; and pollution, overfishing and the by-catch of seabirds during long-line and trawl fishing operations. These threats are identifiable and will need continued effort to address particular impacts on particular species.

Climate change impacts are likely to be critical for a range of migratory birds and this defines climate change adaptation as one of the key conservation priorities for coming years. A network of critical sites, not least along the world's flyways, is likely to maximise the potential of migratory birds to adapt to climate change.

A total of 72 specific recommendations for action were generated on the basis of this review but not all will be applicable to all engaged in migratory bird conservation world-wide. Thus, eight key recommendations are provided for CMS to consider, each crucial to improving the fortunes of the world's migratory birds.

2.1.1 Introduction

This report presents a review of current knowledge for migratory birds at the flyway scale, key threats and conservation priorities and makes recommendations for further action to improve knowledge and assist with the conservation of migratory birds on a global scale. The review was commissioned by the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) which aims to bring range states together in order to facilitate the international coordination of conservation action on a species- or population-specific basis.

2.1.2 Migration, flyways and flyway conservation

The types of migration that birds undertake are described, and some of the key migratory strategies are identified, including north–south, south–north, longitudinal, loop, leap-frog, walk and swim migrations. The great complexity in bird migration is evident and brings with it a requirement for a multitude of conservation approaches, which invariably need to be applied at an international scale.

Sites and ecosystems within flyways provide migrating birds with the key resources they need. Different species use different strategies to complete their migrations including moving on a broad-front across the landscape, migrating only within narrow corridors of habitat or passing through 'bottleneck' sites that are crucial to the completion of the migratory journey. Non-stop migration is the exception rather than the rule and most migrants have one or more staging posts or stop-over sites; somewhere to rest and replenish their fuel reserves. It follows that the availability of appropriate stop-over sites is critical to the successful migration of many bird species, as well as rich feeding areas in departure and arrival locations.

Migratory bird flyways are defined, including several alternative flyway groupings that are used in conservation practice today. Flyway definitions have proved useful in organizing conservation action on an international scale, but it is important to note that flyway definitions are generalizations and there are many migratory species that do not necessary adhere to specific flyway boundaries.

International collaboration is a key element in any strategy for migratory bird conservation. CMS is the key global treaty, with flyway-scale conservation at its core. Many other policy mechanisms and international frameworks exist that can assist with migratory bird conservation, including: the Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (the Ramsar Convention); the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife (the Berne Convention); the European Union's Birds Directive; the African–Eurasian Migratory Waterbird Agreement (under CMS); the Asia–Pacific Migratory Waterbird Conservation Strategy (between 1996–2007, now finished); the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Partnership; the North American Bird Conservation Initiative; the North American Landbird Conservation Plan; the North American Waterfowl Management Plan; the North American Waterbird Conservation Plan; Partners in Flight (covering the Americas); Waterbird Conservation for the Americas; the Western Hemisphere Migratory Species Initiative; and the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network. Mechanisms such as these provide an extremely useful basis for international collaboration, providing the framework for a series of important actions, including the definition and protection of important sites, site networks and the implementation of action plans for migratory bird species.

2.1.3 Status and trends

The CMS definition of migratory species was adopted for this review and a total of 2,274 migratory species (23% of the world's birds) has been considered for analyses of status and trends. For convenience species have been considered within four main groups—landbirds, waterbirds, seabirds and soaring birds. In total, nearly 800 of these species (35%) are explicitly covered by CMS and related instruments. Migratory birds are found in all regions of the world, however, the Americas and Asian regions stand out with more than 1,000 species each.

At a global level, 14% (317) of the included species are considered threatened or near-threatened (17 Critically Endangered, 50 Endangered, 128 Vulnerable, and 122 Near Threatened) based on the 2010 IUCN Red List. Analysis of the number of species moving between Red List categories shows that, since 1988, 53 species have deteriorated in status (sufficiently to be uplisted to higher categories of extinction risk owing to genuine changes only) while only nine species have improved (sufficiently to be downlisted to lower categories). Listing of species on CMS appendices (these being species identified as deserving of specific attention) does not yet appear to have resulted in an improvement in overall status.

Analyses of the global trends of waterbirds shows that 40% of populations are declining, 34% are stable and just 17% are increasing. These figures are similar to those obtained from an analysis of the global trend data (for the migrants considered in this review) held in BirdLife's World Bird Database: 39% of species for which trend data are available are decreasing, 44% are stable, and just 15% are increasing.

Analyses of regional status highlight some regional differences, with the East Asia–Australasia region having the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (20%); Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia having the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (c.30% each); and the Americas, Africa–Eurasia and East Asia–Australasia the highest proportions of threatened seabirds (c.30%). On a flyway scale, the East Asia–Australasia flyway has the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (19%), and the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (24–34%) was recorded for the Black Sea–Mediterranean, West Asia–East Africa, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasian flyways

There is also increasing evidence of regional declines. Population trend data show that more Nearctic–Neotropical migrants have declined than increased in North America since the 1980s, and more Palearctic–Afrotropical migrants breeding in Europe declined than increased during 1970–2000. Reviews of the status of migratory raptors show unfavourable conservation for more than half of the species in the African–Eurasian

region (in 2005) and more than one-third of species in Central, South and East Asia (in 2007).

These and other data reviewed indicate that a significant proportion of migratory birds are at high risk and have an unfavourable conservation status.

2.1.4 Threats to migratory species

Analysis of the main threats to migratory species evaluated as threatened and near-threatened on the 2010 IUCN Red List shows that important threats include land-use changes (from agriculture, forestry and development); illegal hunting and taking; impacts from invasive and non-native species; emerging diseases; pollution, especially in the marine environment; climate change and severe weather; natural system modifications (owing to, e.g., dams, wetland drainage, modification of tidal regimes); infrastructure development (causing habitat loss and mortality owing to artificial structures); human disturbance; fishing resulting in bycatch (of seabirds); energy production (e.g. wind turbines) and energy distribution (e.g. power lines). Published literature has been collated and reviewed for many of these threats.

In all continents of the world, habitat loss and degradation is a widespread and very significant threat to migratory birds and seems only likely to increase as a pressure as economic development adversely impacts the environment. Many key habitats and sites for birds are classified as threatened and under serious threat.

Hunting of migratory birds takes place on an enormous scale but for many countries there are no estimates of take available. A key concern is where hunting is illegal and unsustainable, with very high impacts documented for parts of Africa, Asia and the Mediterranean. Trade in live wild birds is a high impact activity also, certainly in parts of Africa and Asia, where particular species may be specifically targeted for trade. Although the practice has been reduced, migratory falcons, eagles and other raptors, and their eggs, are still taken from the wild for falconry purposes. If these activities are to continue, they need to be managed sustainably along all flyways in order to secure a favourable status for migratory birds.

All bird species are exposed to disease, which sometimes causes great mortality and are sometimes exacerbated by anthropogenic factors. Waterbirds in particular are prone to periodic outbreaks of infectious disease (e.g. botulism) at sites where they congregate at any time of year. Such outbreaks have increased as a cause of mortality in wild waterbirds and significantly impact some populations. The emergence of a highly pathogenic avian influenza virus in 2005 is of concern. Though resulting in only localized mortalities, the potential role of migratory birds in the transmission of this virus to domestic stock and humans along flyways is high on the political agenda. Conversely the role of domestic birds in transmitting the disease to vulnerable wild species (e.g. up to 10% of world population of bar-headed goose at Qinghai) is also of concern.

Non-native animals and plants impact on migratory birds in a number of ways. Of most significance have been predation impacts on breeding waterbird and seabird colonies, most commonly by introduced rats, mice, mustelids and feral cats. Island nesting birds are particularly vulnerable and some local extinctions have occurred. Invasive plants can pose immense management problems and result in ecosystem degradation with impacts on dependent bird species. All over the world overgrazing by non-native animals (goats, pigs etc.) is a serious problem, especially in semi-arid regions, and can lead to the removal of much natural vegetation.

Human activities, including all forms of work or leisure activity taking place in close proximity to birds, may cause disturbance. Assessing the significance of disturbance has proved to be complex, with the need to record and consider many interacting variables and take account of many differing species attributes, situations and sensitivities. Displacement effects have been documented and disturbance can reduce breeding success. Overall, such effects are likely to be widespread and, whilst we generally do not know whether there are population-level impacts, local effects may be substantial.

Mortality caused by human infrastructure, such as power lines, wind turbines, gas flares and telecommunications masts has been documented as severe and can result in the death of very significant numbers of migratory birds. Further information is needed, for example, on the impact of modern wind turbine developments, where the scale of bird losses is as yet unclear. High collision mortality rates have been recorded at several large, poorly sited windfarms in areas where concentrations of birds are present, especially migrating birds, large raptors or other large soaring species. As turbines continue to be constructed, they could collectively begin to impose a more significant drain on migratory bird populations, whether on land or in shallow coastal areas.

Power lines also pose a significant collision risk for many larger migrant birds (e.g. swans, geese, raptors etc.), especially if sited across flight lines or close to congregatory sites such as wetlands. Furthermore, electrocution on poorly designed medium-voltage lines is a significant cause of mortality in large perching species such as raptors. Glass and other reflective materials may cause serious problems for migratory birds. In the United States there is a vast and growing amount of evidence supporting the interpretation that, except for habitat destruction, collisions with clear and reflective sheet glass and plastic cause the deaths of more birds than any other human-related avian mortality factor.

Marine pollution, overfishing and bycatch are three key factors that impact negatively on migratory seabirds (and sometimes waterbirds). Oily substances on the sea surface represent a significant observable cause of death for a wide range of marine and coastal bird species, and pose a serious threat to seabird populations occurring in large concentrations near shipping lanes and oil production facilities. Added to this is mortality from chemical residues and heavy metals, and the accidental consumption of plastic and hooks and entanglement with discarded fishing line and nets, all of which impact negatively on birds at sea.

The over exploitation of fish prey species by humans is a serious problem where it reduces and alters the food supply for many seabirds. Where fish stocks have collapsed, seabirds have suffered widespread breeding failures and some populations have declined. This is expected to be of continuing concern

as fishery operators switch to targeting smaller prey fish and invertebrates such as krill as they "fish down the food chain".

Despite a ban on their use in the high seas, gillnet fisheries continue in coastal waters of many countries in northern Europe and indeed in many other parts of the world. The evidence suggests that seabird bycatch mortality in gillnets could be relatively high locally, and could potentially impact on populations at a larger scale.

Longline fishing fleets, which operate throughout the world's oceans, impact negatively on particular bird species. Baited hooks attract albatrosses and other seabirds, which get caught, dragged below the water surface and drown, with an estimated 100,000 albatrosses killed each year putting them in real danger of extinction.

Climate change has been shown to affect migratory birds in many ways and is the subject of a vast amount of published literature. Bird responses include altered timing and patterns of migrations, and there is evidence that some migratory bird species may be disadvantaged and increasingly threatened by climate change impacts within breeding and non-breeding locations, both on land and at sea. Species and population vulnerability has been assessed in some studies and, whilst widespread impacts are expected, the extent to which climate change will cause population-level impacts remains unclear. Of particular significance will be the cumulative impact of climate change which is expected to cause other pressures on migratory birds by altering habitats, affecting competition between species, affecting the spread of disease, and changing the distribution and availability of surface and ground water. Climate change will constrain water resources, further increasing competition among agricultural, municipal, industrial and wildlife uses.

The majority of migratory bird species are already at high risk from anthropogenic pressures. The predicted negative socio-economic impacts of current climate change on humans will ultimately result in increased anthropogenic pressures on species and natural systems.

2.1.5 Knowledge gaps

Key information needs are identified that relate to our knowledge of the status, trends and threats to migratory bird species, and information needed in order to more effectively pursue the conservation priorities defined below.

These include the continuing need for robust information on status and trends for migratory bird species in order to detect current or future declines and target action to address them. There remain considerable gaps in our understanding of the status of some species or populations.

Much more also needs to be known about the distribution and ecology of migratory species, and especially the migration routes that they follow. This is fundamental to knowing which Range States have a responsibility for which migratory species, assessing threats, and to taking conservation action in the right places at the right time.

The wide variety of threats to migratory birds all requires urgent attention. Some can be addressed through landscape scale or site-based conservation management, while other threats require targeted campaigns, focused on particular species or species groups or on particular threat types.

There is a need to determine the 'ideal' landscape for migratory birds in each geographical region of the world, where landscape-scale conservation is key to the protection of migratory birds. This in itself is a significant challenge but is already being attempted in some parts of the world.

To facilitate migratory movements, it is vital to improve the connectivity of habitats critical to population survival currently and in the future. It is important that efforts be made to further develop the analytical and modelling tools to describe connectivity not only between breeding and wintering areas, as it is largely now, but also within the network of sites along the main flyways. Large sets of available data (e.g. the EURING Data Bank in Europe) can offer unique opportunities for modelling the best analytical approach. CMS is already involved in developing critical site networks, but there is an urgent need to identify and protect further critical site networks with species range shifts in mind. By maintaining viable habitats and reducing current threats, stakeholders may be able to improve the resilience of some species to cope with and adapt to climate change.

It is important to better understand the ecological role of the different sites/habitats used by birds along the main flyways. For this purpose, data collected from long-term, large-scale ringing/banding studies represent an excellent opportunity. For example, data on seasonality of movements, compositions of communities of staging migrants in terms of sex- and age-classes and details on physical conditions of birds can tell us much about the use of sites and habitats where birds were ringed and released. Using such data, there is a need to determine what kind of network of sites (including the size, proximity and number of sites) would be needed to support healthy populations of different migratory species at all stages of their annual cycle and in all parts of the world. Very importantly, in answering this question, we should also seek to maximise the resilience of such networks in the face of global climate change.

Promoting good management of sites for birds (including reducing threats) is relatively easy and involves a continued sharing of best practice habitat guidance.

Unfortunately, little is currently known about migratory species' capacity for adaptation to climate change. To understand this better, intensive monitoring and research is needed. This knowledge is vital to identify key limiting factors, the 'weakest link', upon which each species' survival hinges, and to provide essential building blocks for policy guidance.

In addressing the conservation challenges of climate change, a multi-functional approach is likely to be most successful. This approach entails considering the benefits of ecosystem conservation from a holistic viewpoint, taking both the anthropogenic and wildlife benefits into account. It is much more likely that conservation goals will be achieved if they are part of ecosystem management with wider aims such as floodplain management, coastal protection or preventing deforestation to reduce soil erosion. Frameworks for integrated land-use planning exist in a number of different parts of the world, and they could valuably be developed and implemented more widely elsewhere.

In terrestrial systems adaptation measures may be successful in maintaining or restoring a secure conservation status for many species. In marine systems, however, mitigation of climate change may be the only solution (i.e. reduction in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions), as habitat management at a sufficient scale will be virtually impossible. Climate change may be the 'last straw' for many marine species, which are already under severe anthropogenic pressure. Strengthening protection for marine species and ecosystems should improve their ability to adapt to changing climatic conditions.

2.1.6 Priorities for migratory bird conservation

Conservation priorities have been identified that address the key identified threats, as follows:

- Work to protect and retain and, where feasible, recreate / restore high quality bird habitats on a flyway and landscape scale.
- Work to safeguard and manage networks of critical sites, key to the migration and survival of migratory species.
- Actions to address specific threats that are known to threaten the survival of individual species and species groups.
- Attempts to mitigate the effects of climate change, affording migratory species the best possible chance of survival.

Protection of habitats, and the resources they provide, is identified as being of vital importance to migratory birds, and this should be afforded the highest priority of all. Broad-front migrants, for example, will benefit from modifications to extensive land-use along their migratory routes, related to agriculture or forestry practice. Migrants following narrower flyways will require a coherent site network, with each network site providing safety and plentiful resources for the birds.

Migratory species that depend on a network of sites along their flyways strongly benefit from the proper protection and management of these sites. The degree of protection afforded to network sites is at present insufficient, e.g. 56% of 8,400 Important Bird Areas (IBAs) identified for migratory birds worldwide have less than 10% of their area formally protected, while nearly 40% of 2,250 IBAs in the AEWA area lack either statutory national protection or formal international recognition. Similarly, few IBA bottleneck sites for migrating raptors in Africa and Eurasia have adequate protection. Implicated in the decline of waterbirds in Asia is poor protection overall of key sites, leading to habitat damage and destruction.

An important recent initiative to review the adequacy of sites as a network of breeding, non-breeding and passage areas for migratory waterbirds is the 'Wings Over Wetlands' (WOW) project in the AEWA region. Effective management of key sites for migratory birds needs to address the whole range of factors that cause direct mortality (e.g. shooting, trapping, collisions, predation, pollution etc.), and those that reduce food supplies or destroy or degrade habitats.

Specific threats highlighted by this review that are of particular significance for migratory birds include: wind turbine developments; power line collisions and electrocutions; illegal trapping and shooting; reclamation of wetlands; and pollution, overfishing and the by-catch of seabirds during long-line and trawl fishing operations. These threats are identifiable and will need continued effort to address particular impacts on particular species. CMS has a mandate to do this. Parties to CMS must prohibit the taking of species on Appendix I ("endangered" species, including many globally threatened migrant birds) and assume responsibility for the species' habitats and the obstacles to migration (including buildings, power lines, wind turbines and loss of stopover sites).

Climate change impacts are likely to be critical for a range of migratory birds and this defines climate change adaptation as one of the key conservation priorities for coming years. If species cannot adapt to climate change and cannot be maintained at their present locations, they will only survive if they move into new areas.

A network of critical sites, not least along the world's flyways, is likely to maximise the potential of migratory birds to adapt to climate change. Such a network would provide a mosaic of the widest possible range of available habitat. Although networks of protected areas provide one means of aiding species dispersal, there is also a need to manage the wider countryside in a manner that favours dispersal. This is best achieved by integrating appropriate management into existing policy frameworks such as agri-environment schemes. All conservation programmes must be expanded to include climate change impacts in biological planning, conservation design and habitat protection initiatives.

2.1.7 Key recommendations from the review

A total of 71 specific recommendations for action were generated on the basis of this review (see Annex 2.5) and there is no doubt that others could be identified. Not all of these will be applicable to all engaged in migratory bird conservation world-wide. Similarly, not all will be relevant to all migratory bird groups and the different specialist groups focusing on their particular conservation requirements.

From the full list of recommendations a more focused selection of key recommendations have been identified for broadscale action, as follows:

1. **Ensuring effective implementation:** With 14% of migratory bird species considered globally threatened or near-threatened, nearly 40% declining overall, and extinction risk increasing (including for those species specifically listed on CMS appendices and related agreements), continuing effective implementation of existing conservation efforts under CMS auspices remains an urgent priority.

2. **Reviewing CMS species selection:** With nearly 800 migratory bird species (35% of the total considered in this review) explicitly covered by different elements of the Convention, there is already considerable taxonomic coverage. However, additional consideration should be given to selected species with the highest extinction risk not currently listed on the appendices or its instruments. In addition, specific consideration should be given to declining species or groups of species that would complement/add to existing initiatives where CMS is well placed to extend its current remit. Species should only be chosen after careful review and ideally chosen as flagships whose conservation will address wider issues.

3. **Covering flyways:** With many flyway-scale conservation initiatives already established by CMS and other international collaborations and partnerships, there is already considerable geographic coverage of migratory species. For CMS, the East Asia–Australasia region deserves particular attention on account of the high proportion of threatened migratory bird species (waterbirds, soaring birds and seabirds) found there.

4. **Addressing issues at the broad scale:** With threats especially from agriculture leading to habitat degradation and destruction having the greatest impact on migratory species, addressing issues at the wider landscape scale remains a considerable challenge. In this review, some specific terrestrial habitats have been identified as deserving of particular attention, including:

   a. halt conversion of *intertidal wetlands in East Asia*, especially in the Yellow Sea

   b. protect remaining *lowland forest in South-East Asia* from conversion to plantation agriculture

   c. reform the Common Agricultural Policy to promote *diverse farmlands in the European Union* that supports biodiversity and rural livelihoods

   d. support efforts to reduce and reverse desertification and loss of flood plain habitat in the *drylands of the African Sahel*, using approaches that protect and restore native vegetation and conserve natural flood regimes

Table 2.1: Selected species groups not currently listed on CMS appendices or other instruments

Species Group	Region	Total number species	Number (%) declining	Number (%) threatened or near-threatened
Petrels, shearwaters [1]	Global	74	38 (51%)	27 (37%)
Waterbirds [2]	East Asia–Australasia	61	23 (38%)	15 (25%)
Storks / Ibises [2]	East Asia	8	5 (63%)	5 (63%)
Bustards / Floricans	Africa–Eurasia, C. Asia, E. Asia	4	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Pigeons / Parrots	East Asia–Australasia	65	22 (34%)	11 (17%)
Pigeons / Parrots	Americas	61	25 (41%)	15 (25%)
Passerines [3]	Americas	434	133 (31%)	25 (6%)
New world [3] warblers	Americas	50	22 (44%)	4 (8%)
Passerines	Africa–Eurasia	188	64 (34%)	3 (2%)
Passerines	Central Asia	125	46 (37%)	0 (0%)
Passerines	East Asia–Australasia	315	93 (30%)	10 (3%)
Larks	Africa–Eurasia, C. Asia, E. Asia	33	15 (46%)	0 (0%)

Notes: The species groups above were identified on the basis of four or more declining species facing similar threats and none currently listed on CMS appendices or associated instruments.

[1] 29 species of albatrosses and petrels are already covered by ACAP.

[2] These species are technically covered by the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Partnership but not specifically listed.

[3] These species are covered by the 'Partners in Flight' initiative.

e. protect remaining *lowland and montane forests in Central America and the tropical Andes*

f. protect key *grasslands in South America* and maintain traditional, extensive grassland ranching practices.

5. **Conserving important sites:** With increasing recognition of the importance of critical sites for migratory birds during breeding, non-breeding and on passage, and their poor protection (e.g. 56% of 8,400 Important Bird Areas having less than 10% of their area formally protected), it is a priority to ensure identification and effective management of a network of sites along migration flyways as a whole, including:

   a. supporting the development of flyway-scale networks such as the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network in the Americas, the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Site Network and the West / Central Asian Site Network for Siberian Cranes and other waterbirds and its expansion to the Central Asian Flyway Site Network for Migratory Waterbirds (as is called for in the CMS CAF Action Plan), and through applying the critical site network approach (as developed by the 'Wings over Wetlands' Project) to other regions and taxonomic groups

   b. listing important sites on CMS instruments for particular attention / management plans (as is currently done under the Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels and the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia)

   c. supporting the listing of sites by improving knowledge of site and habitat use by birds

   d. evaluating the effectiveness of current protection/management of sites

   e. seeking protection of sites through formal designations or voluntary measures.

6. **Tackling species-specific issues:** With migratory bird species facing a multitude of complex, often interacting, threats, it would be important for CMS to focus on those where CMS can add value and / or is / could be a leader of best practice, including:

   a. addressing unsustainable trapping and shooting, ensuring full implementation and adherence to hunting regulations, including in the Mediterranean basin, the Sahel, Central Asia, the Middle East and the coastal wetlands of East Asia

   b. ensuring best practice, and exercising extreme caution, in the location and construction of man-made structures in sensitive areas for migratory birds, especially wind turbines and power transmission and telecommunication infrastructure.

7. **Facilitating international cooperation:** Given that efforts to conserve migratory birds in one part of the range are less effective if unaddressed threats are reducing populations and habitats along migration flyways as a whole, international collaboration and coordinated action are key elements in conserving migratory birds, including, for example:

   a. mainstreaming migratory bird issues through other UN conventions and institutions, including the Convention on Biological Diversity, United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification, the Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution and the Food and Agriculture Organisation

   b. supporting and strengthening implementation of relevant regional conventions and initiatives, e.g. the Abidjan and Nairobi Conventions through the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment and the Africa Union, and the Alliances initiative for the conservation of the South American Southern Cone grasslands

   c. supporting the Agreement for the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP) to address bycatch of seabirds during long-line and trawl fishing operations, including in international waters

   d. coordinating and implementing action across critical site networks
   e. conserving important trans-boundary sites

   f. coordinating and adhering to international legal protection for globally threatened and declining species.

8. **Supporting monitoring:** In order to detect declines early and implement appropriate action rapidly, it is recommended that CMS uses its influence to promote monitoring of migratory bird populations and their habitats across all its projects and programmes (including, e.g., through Important Bird Area and International Waterbird Census coordinated monitoring).

2.2 Introduction

Animal migration has never ceased to amaze humankind. The arrival and departure of migrants is a spectacular natural phenomenon with migratory birds being amongst the most distant of travelers. Migratory birds offer an extraordinary opportunity for international collaboration, and were one of the initial drivers for international conservation legislation, e.g. the 1916 North American Migratory Birds Treaty between USA and UK (on behalf of Canada). Despite this, many migratory bird species are declining in response to major environmental pressures (e.g. Kirby et al. 2008).

2.2.1 The Convention on Migratory Species

Migratory species conservation is highly challenging because the ranges of migratory species often span several countries, each governed by their individual jurisdiction and national conservation strategies. Out of this need, the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS) was born to bring range states together in order to facilitate the international coordination of conservation action on a species- or population-specific basis.

CMS and its related agreements— the 'Bonn Convention'— is a global treaty that was concluded in 1979 in Bonn, Germany. It requires Parties (i.e. member countries) to strive towards the conservation and sustainable use of migratory species listed in Appendices I and II of the Convention. Appendix I lists endangered migratory species that have been categorized as being in danger of extinction throughout all or a significant proportion of their range. Appendix II lists species that can be conserved through 'Agreements', which are migratory species that have an unfavourable conservation status or would benefit significantly from international co-operation organised by tailored agreements. For this reason, the Convention encourages the range states to conclude global or regional Agreements for the conservation and management of individual species or, more often, of a group of species listed on Appendix II. A total of 78 bird species are currently listed on Appendix I of the Convention; Appendix II contains 112 species/populations or groups of species (see www.cms.int/documents/appendix/Appendices_COP9_E.pdf for full details), covering some 750 species in total.

Agreements in place for birds already include the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA) covering 255 species and the Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP) covering 29 species, whilst a series of MoUs and Single Species Action Plans are in place to focus conservation action on particular bird species (covering 94 species as of April 2010). In total, nearly 800 migratory bird species (35% of the total, see below) are explicitly covered by different elements of the Convention.

2.2.2 Study brief

At the ninth Conference of the Parties held in December 2008, CMS established an open-ended working group on global bird flyways. It acts as a think tank on flyways and frameworks, as the basis for future CMS policy on flyways, and thus contributes to the future shape of CMS.

The working group has requested an up-to-date review of key knowledge for migratory birds from which information gaps and conservation priorities can be defined. In particular the brief was to '*undertake a desk study to review CMS and non-CMS publications, existing reviews, research papers and related documents on migratory birds, flyways and conservation initiatives'*. The report was to include an overview of the knowledge of bird flyways globally, status and trend information, and an overview of conservation threats, major knowledge gaps and conservation priorities.

This is the purpose of this review, which we hope will be important in addressing the future requirements of migratory bird species. The review has built on a paper addressing key conservation issues of migratory birds (Kirby et al. 2008) although altered to reflect the CMS definition of migratory species, to include a new suite of species and seabirds, and more detailed flyway definitions. The review has also significantly expanded and updated this work to cover different issues and threats, and to provide a more detailed description of gaps in knowledge, conservation priorities and recommendations for CMS to consider. Many additional publications have also been reviewed, especially those from recent years, although this should be recognised as an endless task and thus only a selection of key / major papers have been considered.

2.2.3 Migratory birds

There are several ways of defining which birds are migratory (see, e.g., Boere and Stroud 2006, Kirby et al. 2008) but for this CMS review we adopted the CMS definition, whereby 'migratory species' are defined as '*the entire population or any geographically separate part of thepopulation of any species or lower taxon of wild animals, a significant proportion of whose members cyclically and predictably cross one or more national jurisdictional boundaries'*.

For a biological definition, the crossing of national jurisdictional boundaries is of course not necessary. BirdLife International, for example, make no mention of political boundaries, defining migratory species as those where a substantial proportion of the global or a regional population makes regular cyclical movements beyond the breeding range, with predictable timing and destinations (see Annex 2.4: migratory status also including separate definitions for altitudinal migrant and nomadic species). The BirdLife definition

is more inclusive in this respect (with some 200 migratory species being single-country endemics), although perhaps more stringently applied in terms of the predictability and cyclical nature of movements (with 83 species listed on the Convention appendices regarded as non-migratory by BirdLife).

For this review, we adopt the CMS definition of migratory species and have covered 2,274 species in total (see Table 2.2 for rationale) amounting to 23% of the world's birds.

2.2.4 Migratory patterns

Migratory birds travel from breeding to non-breeding areas, and back again, either on a broad front through the landscape or via clearly defined, and sometimes narrow, routes. Elphick (2007) documents why birds chose to migrate and describes the great variety of migratory patterns that exist (see also Able 1999, Alerstam 1990, Burton 1992, Berthold 1993 and Annex 4: migratory patterns). Brouwer (2009) outlines the biological, cultural and economic significance of migratory birds; see Murillo et al. (2008) for a similar account from the Americas. See also Boere and Dodman (2010) for a detailed account of the complexities of bird migration.

From movements of a few hundred metres to flights that circumnavigate the globe, from north to south and east to west, birds' migratory journeys are as varied as the species that undertake them. Defining types or patterns of migration is not easy (Elphick 2007). However, some commonalities can be discerned which are important for conservation focus and planning.

North–south migration

One of the commonest migratory patterns is for birds to breed in the temperate, boreal or Arctic biomes of the northern hemisphere during the northern summer, and then to spend the non-breeding season in the warmer biomes of the tropics, with fewer species migrating very long distances to reach the temperate zones of the southern hemisphere during the southern summer (Kirby et al. 2008). Archetypical, long-distance, north–south migrants include some populations of Red Knot *Calidris canutus* and Arctic Tern *Sterna paradisaea*. Another common pattern is for intra-tropical migrants to follow the productive "wet season" as it oscillates annually from the Tropic of Cancer to the Tropic of Capricorn and back again (e.g. Roseate Tern *Sterna dougallii*).

South–north migration

The predominant migratory pattern in the southern hemisphere is for birds to breed in the temperate latitudes of South America, Africa and Australasia, and then to migrate north to the tropics and subtropics in the southern winter. However, probably mainly because there is so much less land in the southern than in the northern hemisphere, many fewer species are involved (Kirby et al. 2008).

Longitudinal migration

Bird migration does not always occur along a south–north axis. Some species also show a considerable east–west and west–east component in their migration (e.g. Redwing *Turdus iliacus*, White-winged Scoter *Melanitta deglandi*), usually birds taking advantage of the better winter climate provided by the sea at the edge of a continent (Elphick 2007). Although they

Table 2.2: Migratory bird species covered by this review

Migratory status (BirdLife definition)	Total numbers (A)	Country distribution: numbers in one country only (B)	Numbers in one country only but on CMS appendices (C)	Numbers included in this review (=A-B+C)
Full migrant	1851	85	12	1778
Altitudinal migrant	344	52	1	295
Nomadic migrant	181	64	1	118
Non-migrant but on CMS appendices	83	2	2	83
Total	**2459**	**203**	**16**	**2274**

Notes: There is no definitive CMS list or official database of migratory species and thus the species included in this review (and associated data for analyses) are from BirdLife's World Bird Database, based on BirdLife's migratory status and country distribution. However, all species on the CMS appendices, whether regarded as non-migrants and/or single-country endemics by BirdLife are included. Conversely, some taxa listed on CMS appendices and instruments are not currently recognized by BirdLife as species, and have been excluded, including: Entre Rios Seedeater *Sporophila zelichi* (CMS Appendix 1), Mascarene Reef Egret *Egretta dimorpha*, Heuglin's Gull *Larus heuglini*, and Armenian Gull *L. armenicus* (all listed under AEWA). Caspian Gull *L. cachinnans* and Yellow-legged Gull *L. michahellis* are treated as separate species by BirdLife and so both are included (although they are treated as the single species Yellow-legged Gull *L. cachinnans* on the official AEWA list).

must breed on land, seabirds spend most of their lives far out to sea, often moving long distances between seasons, not just over one ocean, but sometimes flying between them. Many albatross and petrel species that breed in southern latitudes, during the non-breeding season ride the westerlies over the Southern Ocean, circumnavigating the Antarctic region in an eastward direction (Elphick 2007). Using radar observations, Alerstam et al. (2008) have demonstrated that great-circle migration occurs for some arctic passerines (in addition to shorebirds) travelling between Alaska and Old World winter quarters. The benefits of this, as opposed to a more conventional, north–south strategy remain poorly understood.

Loop migration

A special phenomenon, so-called 'loop migration', is where birds take a different route back to their breeding areas from the one they took to get to their non-breeding areas (e.g. for Curlew Sandpiper; Wilson et al. 1980). A broad range of species from all over the world exhibit loop migration, and species conservation measures for these birds are required along both the outward and inward flyways, adding a different dimension to their conservation requirements.

Moult migration

Another special form of migration is 'moult migration'. Some species, particularly Anatidae, undertake special migrations for the purpose of moulting (e.g. Common Eider *Somateria mollissima*, Common Shelduck *Tadorna tadorna*, Eurasian Goosander *Mergus merganser* etc.), and whilst flightless at moulting sites such birds can be vulnerable (Elphick 2007).

Leapfrog migration

To add to the complexity of migration, different populations of a species, or sub-populations, may well adopt different strategies. For example, 'leapfrog' migration involves autumn movement by the northern breeding element of a population to winter quarters which lie further to the south than those occupied by the southern breeding element of that population. Thus the northern birds 'leapfrog' over the southern birds, which may be resident or move much shorter distances on migration than the northern birds. This situation is common among birds whose breeding distribution extends across both arctic and temperate latitudes. For example, in the Dunlin *Calidris alpina*, British breeders do not move far for the winter, whereas those from the Arctic migrate not only to the British Isles but also as far south as the equator.

Walk migration

Also, it is not always necessary for birds to fly to their migration destination. Ostrich *Struthio camelus* and Emu *Dromaius novaehollandiae*, both species of arid and semi-arid areas, cannot fly, and their movements are regulated by the availability of food and water (UNEP/CMS 2009). In areas where they need to move to find new food or water, those movements are often nomadic, showing no regular pattern. However, in parts of the Sahel, Ostriches tend to walk north during the rains and south again when it is dry. In Western Australia, Emus walk towards the coastal areas in the south for the winter rains there and to inland areas further north for any summer monsoonal rains (UNEP/CMS 2009). Adding to the complexity are birds that can fly but, under some circumstances, chose not to, for example when attending young not able to fly (e.g. Lesser Flamingo *Phoenicopterus minor*). Birds such as Ostrich and Emu may conveniently be labelled as 'walking migrants' (Elphick 2007).

Swim migration

In marine environments, Antarctic penguin species swim northward at the onset of the cold season, away from the pack ice; they are 'swimming migrants' (Elphick 2007). To breed they swim south again, and some walk (UNEP/CMS 2009). Emperor Penguin *Aptenodytes forsteri* start their breeding in the cold season up to 200 km from the open sea, and for them there is only one way to get there: on foot. By the time the young become independent, in January–February, the Antarctic summer, the open water is much closer. Auk species also migrate long distances by swimming (Elphick 2007).

It is clear from this brief overview of migratory patterns (which is certainly incomplete; consider altitudinal migration, narrow-front migration, nomadism and semi-nomadism, and other strategies—see, e.g. Boere and Dodman 2010), that there is great complexity in bird migration, making generalisation difficult and potentially mis-leading. The complexity of bird migration also brings with it a requirement for a multitude of conservation approaches, often to be applied at an international scale.

2.2.5 Flyways

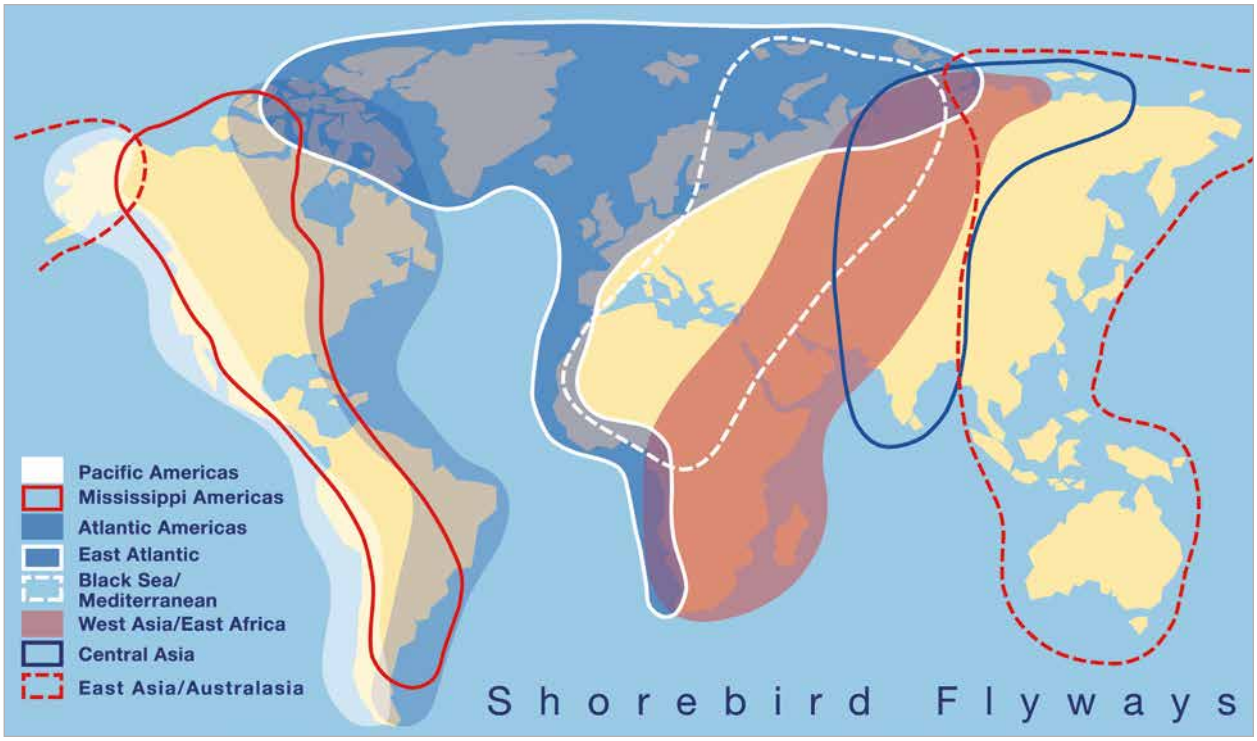
The total geographic area used by a population, species or group of species throughout its annual cycle is termed a flyway (Kirby et al. 2008). Boere and Stroud (2006) provided a more detailed definition of a flyway: *'…the entire range of a migratory bird species (or groups of related species or distinct populations of a single species) through which it moves on an annual basis from the breeding grounds to non-breeding areas, including intermediate resting and feeding places as well as the area within which the birds migrate'*.

Such flyways have been delineated by interpretation of morphological differences between some populations, analysis of genetic differences, ringing/banding results, study of stable-isotope ratios in feathers, and satellite-based and geolocation tracking. Relatively good knowledge allows some bird flyways to be quite clearly described, e.g. for shorebirds, waterfowl etc. (see Elphick 2007, Zalles and Bildstein 2000, Boere and Stroud 2006, Brouwer 2009, UNEP/CMS 2009); the routes taken by many land and sea birds however are generally less well understood and consequently remain less distinctly defined.

UNEP/CMS (2009) recognized that various flyway systems have been proposed during the last 50 years, at both global and regional levels. The International Wader Studies Group (1998; later reproduced by Wohl 2006) defined five major flyway groupings (see Figure 1.1 of Part 1).

Though useful, these flyway definitions do not reflect well the pelagic flyways used by the majority of migratory seabirds. Furthermore, well-known component flyways within each of the five major groupings are aggregated; for example those

Figure 2.1: Major global flyways for migratory land and waterbirds



Boere and Stroud, 2006 © International Wader Study Group

Notes: *The methodology used to assign species to the flyways is as follows:*

a. they are considered fully migratory by BirdLife;
b. they undertake a regular biannual movement;
c. they move between a distinct breeding area and a distinct non-breeding area;
d. the direction of movement is essentially latitudinal (N-S):
e. all individuals in a population migrate in the same direction; and
f. they move a "substantial" (100s rather than 10s of km) distance along some portion of the flyway.

The limits of the flyways are broadly defined by the species that charaterise them and the names assigned reflect their geography. Species assigned to these flyways do not necessarily migrate between large-scale biogeographic realms (e.g. between the Palearctic and Sub-Saharan Africa; or between Asia and Australasia; or between the Nearctic and Neotropic). For example, the East Atlantic Flyway includes not only trans-Saharan migrants, such as Barn Swallow and Common Cuckoo, but also Pink-footed Geese that migrate between Greenland and the UK (solely within Europe) and Damara Terns that migrate along the Atlantic coast between Southern Africa and West Africa (solely within Sub-Saharan Africa). It could be argued that there are few similarities in migratory behaviour to justify grouping these species together and that only migrants between Eurasia and Sub-Saharan Africa should be treated as belonging to a "global flyway". This is certainly a debate worth having, however, it would be necessary to apply the same rationale to the flyways in Asia, Australasia and the Americas. In these regions, however, there are far fewer inter-continental migrants and the number of species in these flyways would be much reduced. The main benefit of this global flyways concept is as a tool that can focus attention on the conservation of long-distance migrants and help foster international cooperation between countries.

for Anatidae in North America, or the East Atlantic Flyway in Africa–Eurasia.

A finer breakdown, as portrayed in Figure 2.1, involves the recognition of eight over-lapping flyways, which may prove useful for finer scale analyses of bird migration knowledge and conservation initiatives (BirdLife International, unpublished). This is the more detailed level of flyway definition that we have adopted for our review, although recognizing that even this does not portray the full complexity of flyways omitting, for example, intra-tropical flyways and those of pelagic seabirds.

Sometimes, a high-level aggregation of flyways is also useful for applications where the finer detail is not needed. Three or four major flyway groupings have been recognized for this purpose, as indicated in Figures 1.2 (from Stroud et al. 2006) and 1.3 (from Birdlife: www.birdlife.org/flyways/index.html). The latter is the high-level and simplified global aggregation used for BirdLife International programmes (following country boundaries and with Russia divided into European, Central Asian and Asian regions). It should not be considered to portray the boundaries of flyways with any particular accuracy, but has proved useful in structuring elements of our review.

The complex nature of flyways can be appreciated 'Aggregation of flyways for migratory waterbirds' following Stroud et al. (2006) in Figure 1.2 or 'Aggregation of global flyways for migratory birds following BirdLife International' in Figure 1.3.

Many publications and research papers provide flyway details for individual or groups of species, or for individual populations of species. Elphick (2007) has provided an excellent compilation and presents flyway details for different bird groups in all regions of the world. For waders in Africa and Western Eurasia, see also Delany et al. (2009). It should be remembered, however, that flyways are mere generalizations and there are many migratory species that do not necessary adhere to these flyway boundaries; each species essentially follows its own flyway, but nevertheless flyway definitions have proved crucial to organizing conservation action on an international scale (see also Boere and Dodman 2010).

2.2.6 Migratory techniques and critical sites

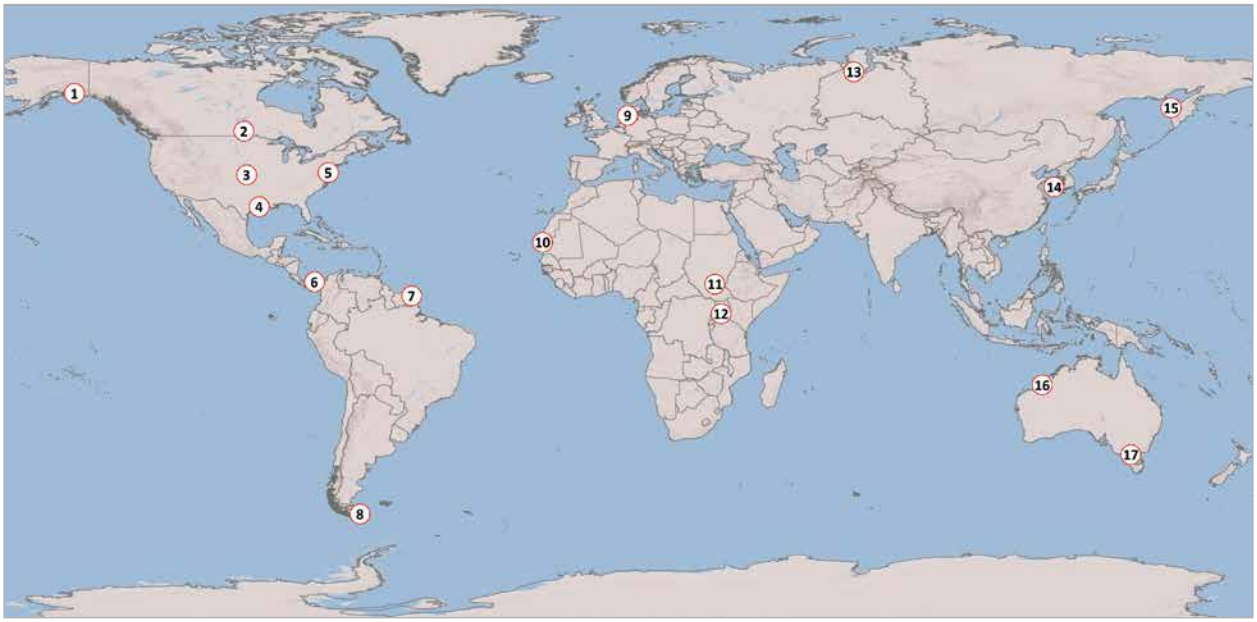
Sites and ecosystems within flyways provide migrating birds with the key resources they need, primarily with suitable habitat for feeding, resting or moulting (Kirby et al. 2008). 'Bottleneck' sites, discussed below, can be considered to be critical as these allow certain birds to pass from one region to another whilst on migration.

Birds that complete their migratory journeys non-stop are the exception rather than the rule. Most migrants have one or more staging posts or stop-over sites; somewhere to rest and replenish their fuel reserves (Elphick 2007). This varies amongst species and groups. For some species suitable habitats may be more or less continuous along the flyway; broad-front migrants including some landbirds may make short flights and move on a broad-front between closely-spaced patches of habitat in the landscape. However, where suitable habitat areas are more restricted and are widely spaced, the corridors of flight between these key sites are narrower and more easily recognizable as flyways. Thus, some staging posts are extensive and the birds not particularly concentrated or apparent to observers. On the other hand, some species gather in spectacular numbers in clearly defined areas. The location of a migration stopover for a species may differ in spring and autumn.

Soaring birds, including some waterbirds and birds of prey, tend to follow routes that provide good opportunities for soaring flight, even if not the most direct. Migratory soaring birds have great difficulty crossing large bodies of water, because in much of the world sufficiently strong thermals can only form over land. The birds must therefore follow routes that avoid long sea-crossings, by using land-bridges (often referred to as "bottlenecks") or by taking the shortest possible sea-crossings. Mountain ranges also cause funneling of soaring birds, in this case through the lowest available mountain passes. These constraints tend to mean that massive concentrations of soaring birds are dependent on a relatively small number of critical sites.

A few examples of staging areas where it is known that large numbers of migrants become concentrated are indicated in the map below (Figure 2.2, adapted from Elphick 2007). Not all migrants use easily defined stopovers. Examples include

Figure 2.2. Examples of internationally important staging areas for congregatory migrants



Notes: *These are just a small number of the hundreds of sites known to support large concentrations of migrants 1. Copper River Delta, USA; 2. Delta Marsh, Canada; 3. Cheyenne Bottoms, USA; 4. Upper Texas Coast, USA; 5. Delaware Bay, USA; 6. Upper Bay of Panamá, Panamá; 7. French Guiana Coast, French Guiana; 8. Tierra del Fuego, Argentina; 9. Wadden Sea, Netherlands/Germany; 10. Banc d'Arguin National Park, Mauritania; 11. Sudd (Bahr-el-Jebel system), Sudan; 12. Lutembe Bay, Uganda; 13. Lower Ob', Russia; 14. Yellow Sea Region, China; 15. Moroshechnaya river, Russia; 16. Eighty Mile Beach, Australia; 17. Port Phillip Bay, Australia.*

Reed Warbler *Acrocephalus scirpaceus* from western Europe, which become concentrated down the Portuguese coast in August/September; Blackpoll Warbler *Dendroica striata* from much of eastern Canada, which spend time in Massachusetts in the autumn; and Pied Flycatcher *Ficedula hypoleuca* from across western Europe into Asia, which are found in northwestern Iberia in the autumn (from Elphick 2007).

Various strategies are used by migrant birds to move between key sites. Piersma (1987) describes the "hop, skip and jump" migration strategies of shorebirds, whereby some fly relatively short distances every day/night with "hops" taking the birds from site-to-site along the migration route. These birds require closely interspersed habitats. Other species chose to "skip" or fly without stopping for great distances. In this scenario the habitats at each end of this migration are particularly important. The final group of migrants makes incredible flights that are truly a long-distance "jump", sometimes from one hemisphere to another. After perhaps more than doubling in weight, these birds depart and fly non-stop, making truly amazing journeys in order to reach their final destination (e.g. Bar-tailed Godwit *Limosa lapponica* that fly from Alaska to New Zealand; 11000 km in 8 days non-stop; S. Delany in litt., see also Boere and Dodman 2010).

It is clear that appropriate stop-over sites are critical to the successful migration of many bird species, as well as rich feeding areas in departure and arrival locations. Recognition of this requirement has led to the concept of critical site networks, an approach to conservation that we will return to later within this review.

2.2.7 Flyway conservation

International collaboration is a key element in any strategy for migratory bird conservation. Various relevant policy mechanisms exist, but CMS is the key global treaty, with flyway-scale conservation being implicit within its policies and programmes. Another global treaty that exerts key influence on the conservation of migratory birds is the Convention on Wetlands (Ramsar Convention), whose signatories designate sites of international importance for waterbirds. BirdLife International's Important Bird Area programme is similarly important to the protection of key sites along migratory bird flyways worldwide.

At a regional level, other mechanisms exist that assist with flyway bird conservation globally. In Europe, the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife (the 'Bern Convention') has played a key role over many years, and the European Union's Birds Directive is an important instrument for the conservation of all bird species and the protection of key sites for migratory birds. The AEWA, developed under CMS, is an active programme of conservation action focused on waterbirds in Europe, the Middle East, Central Asia and Africa. For this region also, the BirdLife International/UNDP/Global Environment Facility's (GEF) "Migratory Soaring Birds" project (http://www.birdlife.org/flyways/africa_eurasia/soaringbirds/index.html) places a focus on raptors, storks and other soaring bird species, and an MoU on the conservation of migratory birds of prey in Africa and Eurasia has recently been concluded under CMS (www.cms.int/species/raptors/index.htm).

In the Americas, there are several international collaborations that seek to safeguard the future for migratory birds, including the Western Hemisphere Migratory Species Initiative, the North American Waterfowl Management Plan, the North American Waterbird Conservation Plan, the North American Landbird Conservation Plan, Partners in Flight, Waterbird Conservation for the Americas and the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network. Added to this is the North American Bird Conservation Initiative (NABCI), whose goal is to ensure that the combined effectiveness of these separate programs to far exceed the total of their parts (NABCI 2009, 2010). NABCI have developed a strategy for the conservation of North American birds.

In the Asia–Pacific region, the Asia–Pacific Migratory Waterbird Conservation Strategy has evolved to become the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Partnership (Mundkur 2006). The partnership has developed an implementation strategy and action plans under various working groups.

Strategies such as these provide an extremely useful basis for international collaboration, providing the framework for a whole series of important actions, including the definition and protection of site networks and action plans for migratory birds. Site networks themselves serve as a focus for site-based conservation efforts, including networking, training, awareness raising, research and sound management of key habitats and key sites, through international cooperation and resource mobilisation. An excellent example is the GEF AEWA 'Wings Over Wetlands' (WOW) project in the African–Eurasian region which is aiming 'to improve the conservation of African–Eurasian migratory waterbirds through implementing measures to conserve the critical network of sites that these birds require to complete their annual cycle, including stop-over sites during migration and in wintering grounds' (Zandri and Prentice 2009, Barnard et al. 2010, www.wingsoverwetlands.org). WOW has produced significant information to guide the conservation of migratory waterbirds through a comprehensive training kit (Boere and Dodman 1010, Dodman and Boere 2010), whilst a functional portal is being established for migratory waterbirds and critical sites (see further information below).

2.3 Status and trends

2.3.1 Included species

A total of 2,274 migratory species has been considered as part of this review (Annex 2.2 provides the data for globally threatened, near-threatened and data deficient species; a spreadsheet of all species and associated data is also available from BirdLife International). For convenience, this global list of species is sub-divided into four main groups—landbirds, waterbirds, seabirds and soaring birds. There is some overlap between these groups, for example for seabirds (e.g. cormorants, sea-ducks), which fall into both the seabird and waterbird groups, and for soaring birds which include a mixture of land- and waterbird species that migrate primarily by soaring-gliding flight.

Migratory landbirds (1,588 species in total) include species such as tyrant-flycatchers (116), buntings and New World sparrows (94), Old World warblers (126), birds of prey (144), chats and Old World flycatchers (88), pigeons and doves (71), swallows and martins (52), New World warblers (52) and cuckoos (49).

Migratory waterbirds (538 species) include many ducks, geese and swans (112), shorebirds (146), loons, grebes, flamingos, storks, ibises, spoonbills, bitterns, herons, egrets, pelicans, rails and cranes (172 species combined).

Migratory seabirds (260 species) include species such as penguins (10), albatrosses, storm-petrels, petrels and shearwaters (112), gulls and terns (81) and seaducks (15).

The soaring bird category (157 species) includes many birds of prey such as eagles and hawks, but also some waterbirds, including storks, spoonbills and pelicans. These broad-winged migratory birds cannot maintain active flapping flight over long distances and rely on columns of rising hot air (thermals) to enable them to migrate by a more passive soar-and-glide method.

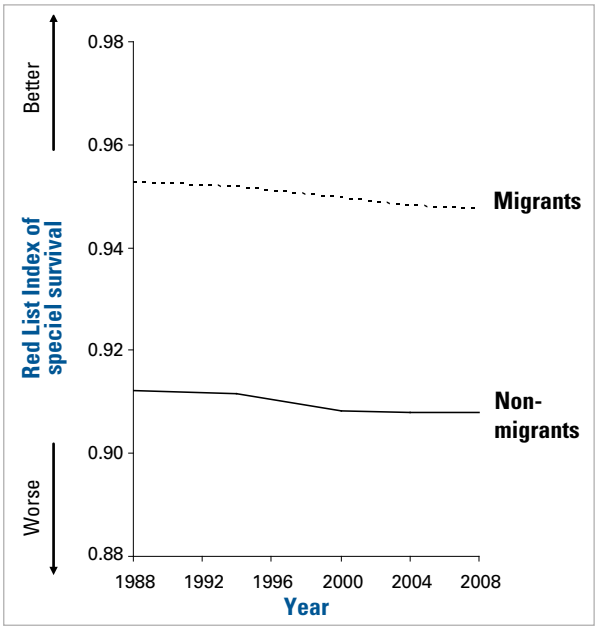
2.3.2 Global status and trends

Insights into the global status of the included migratory species can be gained from BirdLife International's assessments of the extinction risk of bird species on the IUCN Red List. In 2010, of the 2,274 migrants included here, 317 (14%) were considered threatened or near-threatened (17 Critically Endangered, 50 Endangered, 128 Vulnerable, and 122 Near Threatened; see Annex 2.2). It should be noted that the extinction risk of different sub-species and populations may vary within a species, which is important in the context of CMS, but this information is not available.

Trends in extinction risk can be examined by analysis of the number of species moving between Red List categories as a result of genuine deterioration or improvement in status (Butchart et al. 2004, 2007). Red List Indices (which illustrate net change in overall extinction risk of sets of species) for migratory species (see Figure 2.3) shows that, since 1988, 53 species have deteriorated in status while only nine species have improved (67 genuine category changes overall, see Annex 2.4: IUCN Red List Index for more details of methodology and Annex 2.2 for details of species).

Migrants appear to be less threatened on average than non-migrants (14% threatened or near-threatened compared to 23% for non-migrants; see also Figure 2.3). This may be because overall migratory species tend to have larger ranges (and hence populations) than non-migratory species, as many breed at high northern hemisphere latitudes and there is a general trend of declining median range area from high northern latitudes to high southern ones (Orme et al. 2006). Thus they are most likely to qualify as threatened on account of population declines alone (with species requiring declines of at least 30% over 10 years or three generations in order to qualify as Vulnerable under IUCN Red List criterion A). Conversely many non-migrant threatened species are from islands or have limited distributions, where small populations and ranges, specialisation and limited habitat render them especially susceptible to declines as a result of human impacts (thereby qualifying as Vulnerable under IUCN Red List criteria A, B, C and D).

Figure 2.3: The Red List Index of species survival for migratory species and non-migratory species

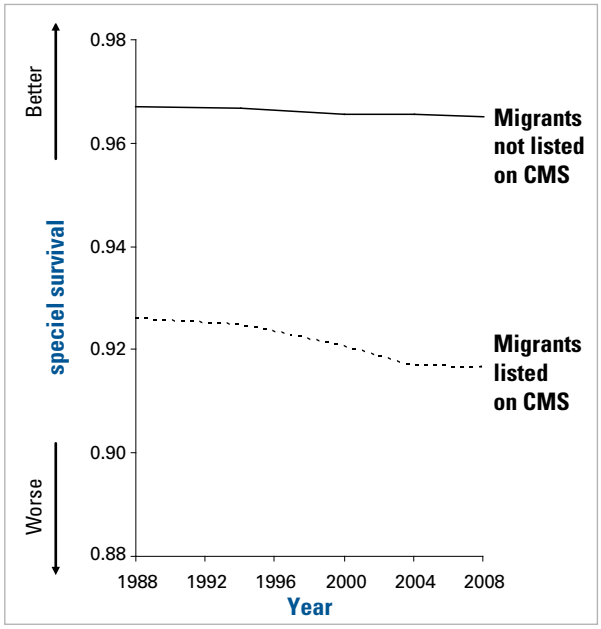


Notes: *For migrants, n=2,263 (excluding eight Data Deficient species and one species classified as Critically Endangered Possibly Extinct in 1988); for non-migrants, n=7,563 (excluding 54 Data Deficient, 130 Extinct and six Critically Endangered Possibly Extinct species in 1988). An RLI value of 1.0 equates to all species being categorised as Least Concern, and indicates that no species is expected to go extinct in the near future; an RLI value of zero indicates that all species have gone extinct (see Annex 2.4).*

Migrants listed on the CMS appendices and its associated instruments are more threatened on average than those not listed (21% compared to 10%) and appear to be deteriorating faster in status. This is to be expected as these species have been identified as deserving of specific attention. However, it would seem that such listing has not turned their fortunes around yet as the Red List Index for this set of species shows an overall increase in extinction risk since 1988 (see Figure 2.4), with 34 species having deteriorated in status and only 5 species having improved.

It is also possible to examine the global trends of waterbirds (irrespective of IUCN Red List category changes) owing to the regular status reviews coordinated by Wetlands International and published in the Waterbird Population Estimates series. According to Delany and Scott (2006), 40% of populations for which trend data are available at the global level are decreasing, 34% are stable, and only 17% are increasing (note, however, that although the majority of waterbirds included in these figures are migratory, separate figures are not available for just the migratory populations). A further 52 populations (4%) have already become extinct. These figures are similar to those obtained from an analysis of the global trend data (for the migrants considered in this review) held in BirdLife's World Bird Database: 39% of species for which trend data are available are decreasing, 44% are stable, and just 15% are increasing.

Figure 2.4: The Red List Index of species survival for migratory species listed and not-listed on CMS



Notes: *For migrants listed on CMS, n=796 (excluding one Data Deficient species and one species classified as Critically Endangered Possibly Extinct in 1988); for migrants not listed on CMS, n=1,467 (excluding seven Data Deficient species in 1988). An RLI value of 1.0 equates to all species being categorised as Least Concern, and indicates that no species is expected to go extinct in the near future; an RLI value of zero indicates that all species have gone extinct (see Annex 2.4).*

2.3.3 Regional status and trends

The numbers of migratory species can be summarised according to region and country (see Table 2.2 and Annex 2.1). All regions are important. However, the Americas and Asian regions stand out with more than 1,000 species each.

The countries with the highest numbers (>400) of migratory species (with regular native occurrence when breeding, non-breeding or on passage) include: Canada and the USA in North America; Mexico in Central America; Colombia, Peru, Brazil, Argentina in South America; and Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam, China, Asian Russia, Pakistan, Nepal, and India in Asia.

An overview of regional status of the included migratory species can be gained from IUCN Red List categorisation. Some regional differences are apparent, notably with the East Asia–Australasia region having the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (20%); Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia having the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (c.30% each); and the Americas, Africa–Eurasia and East Asia–Australasia the highest proportions of threatened seabirds (c.30%) (see Table 2.2). Overall, the East Asia–Australasia region having the highest proportion of threatened migratory birds in all categories.

The numbers of migratory species can also be summarised according to flyways, showing the importance of all the major global flyways (see Table 2.3). Some differences are apparent, notably with the East Asia–Australasia flyway having the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (19%), and the Black Sea–Mediterranean, East Asia–East Africa, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia flyways having the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (24–34%).

Table 2.3: Numbers and percentages of threatened and near-threatened migratory species by type and region

Broad regions	Landbirds	Waterbirds	Soaring birds	Seabirds	TOTAL
Americas	63/716 [1]	31/297	3/49	58/198	**142/1,129**
	9% [2]	10%	6%	29%	**13%**
Africa–Eurasia	35/460	40/269	23/82	39/152	**104/809**
	8%	15%	27%	26%	**13%**
Central Asia	19/326	21/154	13/49	2/40	**40/484**
	6%	14%	27%	5%	**8%**
East Asia–Australasia	65/756	56/281	26/85	53/173	**167/1,142**
	9%	20%	31%	31%	**15%**

Notes: The sum of the totals by region or type exceeds the total number of migratory species (2,274) because some species occur in more than one region, soaring birds are not exclusive of landbirds or waterbirds, and seabirds are not exclusive of waterbirds. [1] Number of threatened and near-threatened migratory species / total number of migratory species occurring in the region. [2] Percentage of the total number of migratory species occurring in the region that is threatened or near-threatened.

Table 2.4: Numbers and percentages of threatened and near-threatened migratory species by type and flyway

Flyway	Landbirds	Waterbirds	Soaring birds	Seabirds	TOTAL
Pacific Americas	4/191 [1]	5/128	1/20	4/49	**9/319**
	2% [2]	4%	5%	8%	**3%**
Central Americas	17/286	6/92	1/30	0/15	**23/378**
	6%	7%	3%	0%	**6%**
Atlantic Americas	17/253	6/138	0/26	1/42	**23/391**
	7%	4%	0%	2%	**6%**
East Atlantic	6/172	11/126	3/28	4/42	**17/298**
	3%	9%	11%	10%	**6%**
Black Sea–Mediterranean	13/194	10/108	9/37	0/25	**23/302**
	7%	9%	24%	0%	**8%**
East Asia–East Africa	19/208	14/124	12/42	0/25	**33/332**
	9%	11%	29%	0%	**10%**
Central Asia	17/199	13/108	11/37	0/16	**30/307**
	9%	12%	30%	0%	**10%**
East Asia–Australasia	27/293	34/178	15/44	5/45	**61/471**
	9%	19%	34%	11%	**13%**

Notes: Only species assigned to these flyways (1,276) have been included in this analysis. The sum of the totals by flyway or type exceeds the total number of migratory species assigned because some species occur in more than one flyway, soaring birds are not exclusive of landbirds or waterbirds, and seabirds are not exclusive of waterbirds. [1] Number of threatened and near-threatened migratory species / total number of migratory species occurring in the flyway. [2] Percentage of the total number of migratory species occurring in the flyway that is threatened or near-threatened.

2.3.4 Regional status in the America flyways

In North America, declines have been reported for landbirds from studies of individual species, geographical areas and migration sites, and from the results of continent-wide monitoring. For example, Robbins et al. (1989), Sauer and Droege (1992) and Peterjohn et al. (1995) have documented pronounced declines in Nearctic–Neotropical migrants in eastern North America during the late 1970s and 1980s, more so than in resident birds and exceeding those documented in both central and western regions of the continent. More recent analyses suggest that these declines have continued and spread in geographical extent. During 1980–2005, 62% of Nearctic–Neotropical migrants in the eastern Breeding Bird Survey (BBS) region showed negative population trends, while in the western BBS region, an area not previously recognized for its dwindling migrant populations, 65% were categorized as declining (Sauer et al. 2005).

By contrast, the upward trend for wetland birds in the U.S. is described as a testament to the amazing resilience of bird populations where the health of their habitat is sustained or restored (NABCI 2009). The overwhelming success of waterfowl management, coordinated continentally among Canada, the United States, and Mexico, can serve as a model for conservation in other habitats (although expanded populations can cause problems for mankind, e.g. goose impacts on agriculture).

According to a 2009 status report for the birds of the U.S. (NABCI 2009), other bird groups are not faring so well with at least 39% of the U.S. birds restricted to ocean habitats declining and dramatic declines in grassland and aridland birds signalling alarming neglect and degradation of these habitats. For shorebirds, half of all coastally migrating species have declined; for example, Red Knot *Calidris canutus* has declined by an alarming 82%. Because of their relatively small and highly threatened global populations, shorebirds are of high conservation concern (NABCI 2009).

Although not studied to the same extent as birds within the U.S., research in South America has also documented migrant bird declines. Stotz et al. (1996) identified 68 species to be of conservation concern in the short to medium term. At particular risk was a group of species—typified by several species of seedeater *Sporophila* spp.—that rely on grassland habitats in southern South America.

2.3.5 Regional status in African–Eurasian flyways

Declines in migratory landbirds are not only evident from the Americas. Continent-wide analysis of the trends of European breeding birds showed that, during 1970–2000, populations of Palearctic–African migrant birds have undergone a pattern of sustained, often severe, decline (Sanderson et al. 2006). Interestingly, the trends of intercontinental migrants were significantly more negative than those of short-distance migrants or residents, with 48 (40%) of 119 exhibiting substantial negative population trends. These negative trends appeared to be largely, although not entirely, restricted to species spending the northern winter in dry, open habitats in Africa. Analyses of trends of 30 closely related pairs of species, one a long-distance migrant and the other not, indicated significantly more negative trends in the former, irrespective of breeding habitat, suggesting that migrant birds were in trouble.

Delany et al. (2007) reviewed the status of waterbirds covered by the AEWA specifically and considered that, overall, the trend status of waterbirds in the Agreement area worsened between 1999 and 2006. However, this was mainly because of a decrease in the proportion of known populations estimated to be increasing, from 25% in 1999 to 22% in 2006; the proportion estimated to be decreasing stayed at about the same level, 41–42%.

Red List change analyses like the ones applied globally above can be applied to different regions of the world and to particular sub-sets of species. In 2008, of 234 species listed by the AEWA, 26 were listed by BirdLife International on the IUCN Red List as globally threatened and 16 as Near Threatened.

Table 2.5: The status of breeding populations of migratory raptors in Europe, Asia, the Middle East and Africa (adapted from Goriup and Tucker 2007)

Conservation Status [1]	Europe [2]	Asia [3]	Middle East	Africa
Unfavourable	18	9	1	4
Unfavourable (uncertain) [4]	11	5	1	2
Total unfavourable	**29**	**14**	**2**	**6**
Favourable	8	4	0	0
Favourable (uncertain)	10	9	4	8
Unknown	0	34	11	17
Total number migratory raptor species	**47**	**61**	**17**	**31**

Notes: [1] Conservation status is defined in accordance with CMS Article 1(c); populations which have 'unfavourable status' include those that are small and non-marginal, declining more than moderately (i.e. >1% per year), depleted following earlier declines, or are highly localised. [2] Based on Birds in Europe (BirdLife International 2004a). [3] Excluding countries in the Middle East. [4] Defined for Europe as species that have a provisional European Threat Status and are not globally threatened.

Between 1988 and 2008, there were genuine changes in the Red List status of 11 AEWA listed waterbird species; of these 10 species deteriorated in status sufficiently to qualify for a higher threat category (BirdLife International 2008b).

According to Goriup and Tucker (2007) at least 39 (51%) of 77 migratory raptor species in Africa and Eurasia are globally threatened, near-threatened or declining. In Europe, a particularly high proportion (62%) of raptor species has an unfavourable conservation status (see Table 2.5). Furthermore, analysis of their population trends indicated that nearly a third are declining rapidly (i.e. by more than 1% per annum) and 21% have suffered large declines averaging over 3% per year in the last 10 years. Through similar analysis of one major migration route in the region, the Rift Valley–Red Sea Flyway, Tucker (2005) found that 27 (69%) of 39 soaring birds assessed had an unfavourable conservation status. Generally, however, there is little accurate knowledge about the status of breeding and non-breeding raptor populations in Africa–Eurasia, so declines may well be overlooked.

The general status of intra-African migrants is not well known, and in need of assessment.

2.3.6 Regional status in East Asian – Australasian flyways

The status of migratory birds in this region has not yet been the focus of detailed, continental analysis, as for the Nearctic and Palearctic migrants. However, South-East Asia, which is a major non-breeding area for migrants from eastern Asia, is affected by extensive deforestation, so declines in Asian landbirds, many of which gather in subtropical and tropical forests, may reasonably be expected. For example, Wells (2007) cites recent historical loss of more than 90% of the Thai–Malay Peninsula's mangroves and at least 80% of lowland inland forest. He notes that, at this regional scale, mangrove specialist birds only rarely have a status more favourable than Near-Threatened, and species within well-structured forest below 150 m are all classified as Endangered.

In Japan, Amano and Yamaura (2007) used distributional data for breeding birds (from 1978 and 1998–2002) to reveal that species with certain traits (of which long-distance migration was one) have indeed experienced severe range contractions.

In addition, Asia is the continent of greatest concern with respect to waterbird trends. Delany and Scott (2006) found that 62% of waterbird populations with known trends were decreasing or have become extinct and only 10% show an increasing trend. Results from twenty years of waterbird monitoring in Asia (1987–2007) have recently been published (Li et al. 2009). For the first time using rigorous statistical methods, this analysis indicates that four of the eight most numerous dabbling duck species in East Asia are declining. Of these, the species identified to be in strongest decline in East Asia is Mallard *Anas platyrhynchos*, decreasing by around 10% per year over the past ten years. Furthermore, example trend graphs indicate Northern Pintail *Anas acuta*, Common Teal *Anas crecca* and Spot-billed Duck *Anas poecilorhyncha* decreased around 1% per year between 1998 and 2007. The news is not all bad, however. Baikal Teal *Anas formosa* and Black-faced Spoonbill *Platalea minor* in East Asia have increased over the monitored period.

There is concern that migratory shorebird populations that visit Australia may be declining as a result of extensive intertidal reclamation in the Yellow Sea Region (R. Jaensch and P. O'Neill in litt.). A review of questionnaire responses from raptor specialists on the status of migratory raptors in central, southern and eastern Asia (Goriup and Tucker 2007) indicated that 17 (33%) of the 51 migratory raptors considered currently exhibit an unfavourable conservation status, although the status of many species is uncertain.

2.4 Key threats

Analysis of the main threats to migratory species evaluated as threatened and near-threatened on the 2010 IUCN Red List (see Figure 2.5, also Annex 2.4: threat analysis) shows that the two key pressures come from agricultural activities (affecting 60%) resulting in detrimental land-use changes and from hunting and trapping (affecting 50%). Other important threats include the impacts of logging resulting in deforestation, invasive and non-native species (including emerging diseases), pollution especially in the marine environment, climate change and severe weather, natural system modifications (owing to, e.g., dams, wetland drainage, modification of tidal regimes), residential and commercial development (causing habitat loss and mortality owing to artificial structures), human disturbance, fishing resulting in bycatch (of seabirds), energy production (e.g. wind turbines), service corridors (especially power lines) and persecution.

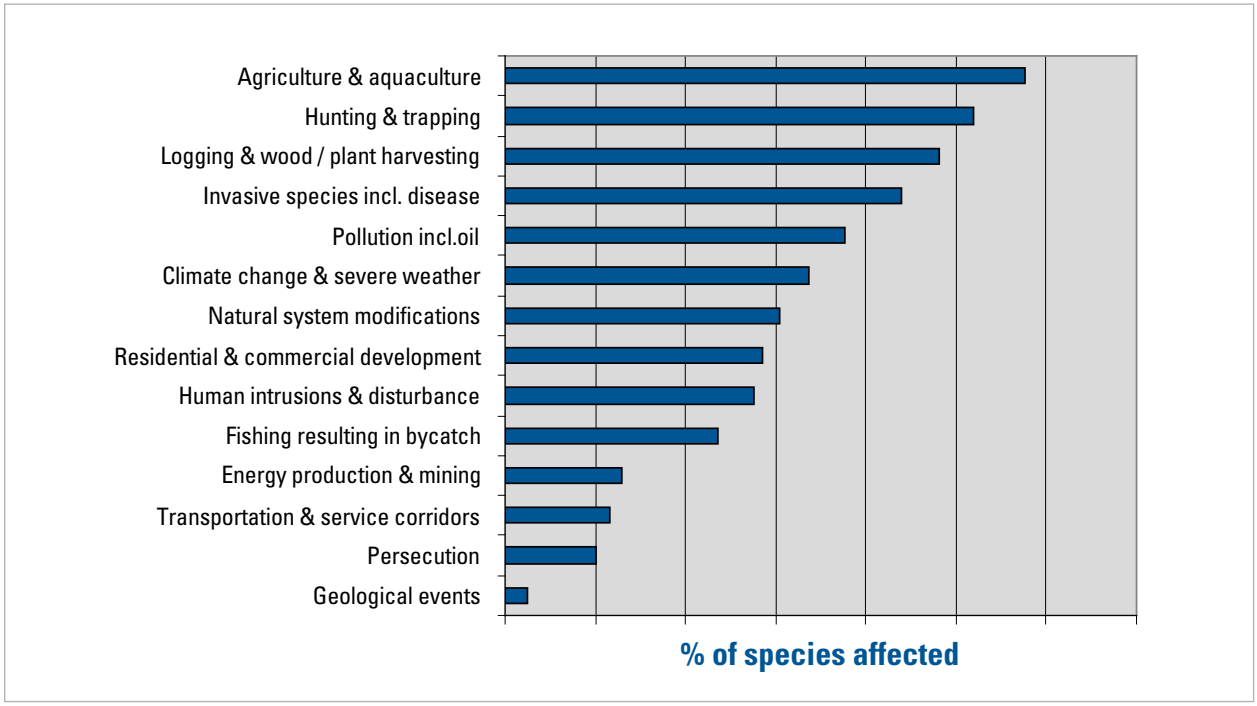
These threats are common to birds generally, whether considered globally threatened or not. For example, Tucker and Goriup (2005, updated in Goriup and Tucker 2007) found that the main threats to raptors in Africa and Eurasia with an unfavourable conservation status are those causing habitat loss and degradation (see Table 2.6). Other threats include shooting (especially in the Mediterranean basin, for sport and trophies), poisoning, electrocution by power lines, deliberate persecution and disturbance during the breeding period. Collisions with wind turbines may become a significant problem, and many existing threats are likely to be exacerbated by climate change.

Many of these threats to birds have been highlighted for a long time (see, e.g. Biber and Salathé 1991), but the scale and intensity of pressures on birds have surely increased as economies and human populations have grown. Some of these threats—including that from climate change—are explored further in the following sections, concentrating especially on threats of particular relevance to migratory birds.

2.4.1 Land-use pressures

Delany and Scott (2006) cited land-use changes and resulting habitat destruction as the most frequent known cause of population decrease in waterbirds, highlighting concerns in Asia where the "…frantic pace of economic development is clearly having adverse impacts on the environment, including numbers and population trends of waterbirds". This was further emphasized by Stroud et al. (2006), reviewing the conservation status of wading birds in the East Asian–Australasian flyway, noting the enormous pressures in the region, which contains perhaps 45% of the world's human population as well as some of the world's fastest-growing economies. Consequences include over 80% of wetlands in East and South-East Asia classified as threatened, with more than half under serious threat. In South Korea, 43% of inter-tidal wetlands have been destroyed by land reclamation (with more underway), while in China the figure is 37%. Li et al. (2009) considered rapid

Figure 2.5: Main threats to threatened and near-threatened migratory bird species



Notes: *Categories of threat follow Salafsky et al. (2008).*

Table 2.6: Summary of threats to migratory raptors in Africa and Eurasia that have an Unfavourable Conservation Status [1]
(adapted from Goriup and Tucker 2007)

Key Magnitude of impacts: **L**ow = unlikely to cause detectable population impacts in most species; **M**oderate = likely to cause local population impacts in most species, or population declines in some species; **H**igh = likely to cause population declines in most species. Blank = threat currently unknown in region.

Threat types	Number of species impacted		Magnitude of impacts [2]			
	Breeding	Non-breeding	Europe	Asia [3]	Middle East	Africa
Habitat Loss / Degradation						
Loss to agriculture and agricultural intensification	28	12	H	H	M?	H
Abandonment	10	1	M	M	?	-
Over-grazing	5	5	L	M?	M?	H?
Forest loss and management	9	1	M	M	L	M
Afforestation	12	0	M	-	-	-
Wetland loss and degradation	13	4	M	H	H	M
Burning / fire	6	2	M	L	-	M
Development	6	0	M	M	M	-
Taking of birds (harvesting / hunting)						
Trade (collections, falconry)	8	8	L	M	M	L
Egg-collection	7	0	L	L	L	-
Shooting and trapping	6	17	M	L?	H	L
Accidental mortality [4]						
Collision with man-made structures	3	3	L	L	L	L
Electrocution on power lines	11	0	M	H	L	L
Poisoning (e.g. by baits for other species)	12	14	L	M	M	L (H in parts)
Nest destruction	0	0	L	L	-	L
Persecution						
Persecution	22	4	L	M	M	L
Pollution						
Land pollution [5]	3	1	L	L	L	-
Water pollution [5]	5	5	L	M	L	L
Toxic pesticides	17	13	L	M?	M?	M?
Disturbance						
Disturbance (human)	21	2	H	L	M	M
Other						
Other	7	5				

Notes: [1] Conservation status is defined in accordance with CMS Article 1(c). [2] The magnitude of the impact is based on a subjective assessment for the next 10 years, taking into account each threat's average extent, severity and predicted trends across all African-Eurasian migratory raptor species. [3] Excluding countries in the Middle East. [4] Individuals are killed accidentally (but see Pollution where this may also be the case) rather than intentionally (see Hunting, Persecution). [5] Land/water pollution does not include pesticides, which are coded separately.

and poorly-planned human development leading to a lack of adequate official conservation of their important wetland sites to be key reasons for declining waterbird numbers in Asia, with wetland reclamation being the most destructive cumulative threat to the wetlands and their use by waterbirds. Reclamation is perhaps not always detrimental to waterbirds—some wintering populations of cranes and Anatidae can benefit by an increase in safe refuges (reservoirs/lakes created as water storages for new ricefields) and increasing food supplies (fallen rice grains in dry fields) (R. Jaensch in litt.).

As noted above, habitat loss and degradation is a widespread threat to migratory raptors in Africa and Eurasia. This is mainly as a result of agricultural expansion and intensification, which is widespread in developing regions and continues in more developed countries. Overgrazing (which reduces prey populations) is also a major problem in many parts of Africa, and probably Asia and the Middle East, although quantified data on actual impacts are lacking. In fact, whilst many apparent pressures were identified, Goriup and Tucker (2007) were unable to attribute population declines in migratory raptors to impacts encountered specifically during migration, as opposed to impacts on the breeding or non-breeding areas.

In Europe, the decline in birds breeding on farmland from about 1970 onwards is well documented and largely attributable to agricultural intensification on that continent (e.g. Pain and Pienkowski 1997, Donald et al. 2001). Sanderson et al. (2006), however, concluded that agricultural impacts on the breeding grounds were unlikely to be the sole cause of declines in Palearctic migrants. Instead, the negative trends they documented appeared to be largely driven by declines in species spending the northern winter in dry, open habitats in Africa. Newton (2004) also noted that declines in Palearctic-African migrants have mainly involved species that spend the northern winter in, or pass through, the semi-arid savannas of tropical Africa, which have suffered from the effects of drought and increasing desertification. In addition to climate change, Newton (2004) highlighted the importance of factors such as overgrazing, burning, woodcutting, drainage of wetlands and pesticide use which reduce the quantity and quality of habitats available to migrant birds during the non-breeding season.

In North America, numerical declines in migrant landbirds have affected many forest species. For Neotropical migrants at least, forest fragmentation in breeding areas has been shown to be important in contributing to the declines of these birds (Robbins et al. 1989, Terborgh 1989, Newton 2008, Askins et al. 1990, Ewing et al. 2008). Tropical deforestation in the non-breeding areas of Central America and on the Caribbean islands may also be important, but Ewing et al. (2008) found insufficient evidence to make a general case for migrant bird populations being currently limited by non-breeding habitat quantity and/or quality.

According to NABCI (2009), dramatic declines in grassland and aridland birds in North America signal alarming neglect and degradation of these habitats. Incentives for wildlife-compatible agricultural practices in grasslands and increased protection of fragile desert, sagebrush, and chaparral ecosystems are urgently needed to reverse these declines.

Although forest birds have fared better overall than birds in other habitats in North America, many species have suffered steep declines and remain threatened by unplanned and sprawling urban development, unsustainable logging, increased severity of wildfires, and a barrage of exotic forest pests and diseases (NABCI 2009). At least 39% of the U.S. birds restricted to ocean habitats are also declining. These birds face threats from pollution, over-fishing, and warming sea temperatures caused by climate change, as well as threats at island and coastal nesting sites.

2.4.2 Habitat destruction and degradation at special sites

Newton (2004) noted that population sizes might be limited by severe competition at restricted stop-over sites, where bird densities are often high and food supplies heavily depleted. To date, the evidence for population regulation through factors at migration sites is limited, but at least one study has demonstrated that it may be very significant. This concerns the Red Knot *Calidris canutus rufa* subspecies that migrates annually between the Canadian Arctic and Tierra del Fuego. This population has undergone a drastic recent decline, from 100,000 individuals in 1989 to just 17,200 in 2006. Although the causes are not yet fully understood, the decline is mainly attributed to the low availability of Horseshoe Crab *Limulus polyphemus* eggs, a key food resource for Red Knot, in Delaware Bay, the final staging-post before the non-stop flight to its Arctic breeding grounds. The lack of eggs has been linked to an elevated harvest of adult crabs for bait in the conch and eel fishing industries (see, e.g., Baker et al. 2004, USFWS 2007). Within another flyway, the recent loss of one site, Saemangeum in north-east Asia, may prove equally catastrophic for Great Knot *Calidris tenuirostris*, although the trend there is still emerging (R. Jaensch in litt.).

Another species that has undergone a recent dramatic decline (of up to 70% since the 1970s) is Spoon-billed Sandpiper *Eurynorhynchus pygmeus* with just 350–380 pairs estimated to remain in 2005 (Zöckler and Bunting 2006), and not more than 150–320 pairs in 2008 (Zöckler and Syroechkovskiy, in prep.). It breeds on a small strip of coastal Arctic tundra in Chukotka, north-east Russia, and winters along coasts in South and South-East Asia, depending on the rich tidal coasts of the Yellow Sea for refueling. Habitat destruction along this flyway, notably recent massive land claim at the important staging area of Saemangeum in South Korea, has been listed as a contributory factor in the decline (see also Tomkovich et al. 2002).

2.4.3 Hunting and taking

Hunting

Hunting of wild birds takes place all over the world and for a variety of reasons including for subsistence and recreation. Hunting is often carried out sustainably and hunting communities may contribute to the conservation of migratory birds through, for example, habitat provision, positive habitat management and the control of mammalian predators.

The sheer scale of hunting activity is not fully known but Brouwer (2009) presents some recent annual migratory bird harvesting totals, from hunting for food and market as well as recreational hunting (Table 2.7).

These numbers, from countries in different part of the world, are enormous, and almost all concern migratory birds. For many countries, however, there are no estimates available.

In Canada, about a third of the hunting activity is for subsistence purposes by indigenous people. In developing countries as well, most if not all of the harvesting is for subsistence or income purposes. Generally this is carried out by a limited number of specialist hunters, and only during a part of the year, but it provides animal protein to a much larger group of people.

Where hunting is mostly for recreational purposes, the number of hunters involved is much greater. In the USA there were in 2001 an estimated three million migratory bird hunters, taking mostly waterfowl and doves. Together these made 24 million hunting trips for a total of 29 million hunting days in 2001. In 1991, 22 million days had been spent hunting migratory birds, so there was a growth of 30% in ten years (USFWS 2002).

Hunting is significant activity in other parts of the world also. In Syria, it is estimated that there are 500,000 hunters. About 20,000 are estimated to do this for a living (BirdLife International 2008c). In Lebanon, it is estimated that more than 10% of the population of four million hunts (those 400,000 are much more than the 20,000 officially registered). By comparison, in Finland, 6% of the population hunts, in Ireland 3.4%, in Denmark 3% and in France 2.6%. The 10,000 hunters along the north coast of Egypt constitute more than

Table 2.7: Some examples of annual bird harvests in various parts of the world (reproduced from Brouwer 2009).
Note that reliable harvest data are scarce, hence also the lack of very recent information.

Country/region	Number of hunters	Type of hunting	Species hunted	Number of birds taken per year	Period
USA	1,600,000	1% subsistence	ducks	max 19,000,000	1998–2002
USA	1,000,000	3% subsistence	geese	3,500,000	1998–2002
Canada	~ 165 000	35% subsistence	ducks	1,960,000	2002
Canada	included above	35% subsistence	geese	1,380,000	2002
Siberia, spring hunting			geese	300,000	
Indonesia, Cirebon & Indramayu regencies		professional	63 species, mostly waterbirds	1,000,000	1979
Iran, Gilan province		professional	waterbirds	394,000	Nov 2001–Feb 2002
Denmark	165,000	recreational	waterbirds	700,000	2002
Mediterranean region (inc. Italy, France & Malta)		mostly recreational		500,000,000	2004–2007
Italy		mostly recreational	mostly passerines	100,000,000–150,000,000	
France		mostly recreational	mostly passerines	55,000,000	
Malta		mostly recreational	mostly passerines	4,000,000	
Malawi, Lake Chilwa	460	professional	waterbirds	1,200,000	1999
Mali, Inner Niger Delta		professional	waterbirds	200,00–400,000	early 1990s
Mali, Inner Niger Delta		professional	waterbirds	63,000 17,000	1999 2000
Nigeria, Cross River State			Barn Swallows	200,000	mid-1990s

Notes: For information sources, see Brouwer (2009).

10% of the local population. Hunting is an important socio-economic activity in the Mediterranean region as a whole, particularly in rural areas: in total one half to one billion migratory birds are killed each year, some 10 million hunters are involved.

Illegal and poor hunting practices are a cause for concern because regulation is important to sustainability. In Syria, it is estimated that there are 200,000 illegal hunters (from 500,000), but that must not be taken as a guide for the other countries of the region. In the Mediterranean island state of Malta, a location central to important migratory routes in the African–Eurasian Flyway system, Raine (2007) revealed that at least 75 migratory species, from 35 countries, had been killed there, a high proportion being protected birds of prey (including Red-footed Falcon *Falco vespertinus* and Lesser Kestrel *F. naumanni*), and concluded that illegal hunting in Malta alone could have serious repercussions on the overall conservation status of many migratory species.

For soaring birds that concentrate at bottleneck sites, hunting may result in high mortality, for example when birds are forced to fly low or come to ground because of bad weather (Porter 2005). Although there has been no systematic assessment of numbers of soaring birds killed at bottleneck sites in the Middle East and north-east Africa, Porter (2005) noted that hunting was common in at least four countries and was perceived as the most serious threat at seven (32%) of 22 bottleneck sites evaluated.

The hunting of birds of prey remains a significant threat in many areas of the African–Eurasian region (Tucker and Goriup 2005). Huge numbers of such birds have routinely been shot in many countries for sport and trophies, particularly in the Mediterranean region and parts of the Middle East (e.g. Baumgart et al. 1995, 2003; Bijlsma 1990, Giordano et al. 1998, Portelli 1994, van Maanen et al. 2001). There is little up-to-date information on current shooting levels on migration routes, and recent legislation and better enforcement may have reduced mortality rates; even so, and although population-level impacts are not currently measurable for any migratory raptor species, the numbers taken annually are probably sufficient to have significant impacts on some species, especially already threatened species with low reproductive rates (Tucker and Goriup 2007).

Many researchers have considered whether mortality from harvesting is compensatory (not causing extra deaths overall) or additive (Newton 1998). For waterbirds at least (reviewed by Kirby et al. 2004), when harvests exceed a critical threshold compensation does not appear possible and populations can be driven into decline (e.g. Lesser White-fronted Goose *Anser erythropus*).

Cases of bird populations responding positively to a reduced hunting pressure (e.g. Trumpeter Swan *Cygnus buccinator*, Canada Goose *Branta canadensis*) indicate that populations may well be maintained at lower than "normal" levels by hunting. That hunting can also have a positive effect is shown by Snow Goose *Anser caerulescens* in North America. Formerly, higher hunting may have compensated for man-made improvements in conditions on the wintering grounds, and kept numbers in check. More recently, a reduction in hunting pressure has led to such an increase in its numbers that its habitat in arctic breeding areas is suffering from overgrazing by too many Snow Geese.

In Western Europe, waterbird populations have responded positively to the establishment of refuges and stronger legal protection under a wider package of measures governed by the EC Wild Birds Directive. The reduction of harvesting that was the result of these measures will have positively contributed to these changes in numbers. Dalmatian Pelican *Pelecanus crispus* and White Pelican *P. onocrotalus* in Europe are recovering in response to good implementation of legal protection measures (Kirby et al. 2004).

Trade in wild birds

Trade in live wild birds is a significant activity that impacts on migratory birds as well. Many bird species are kept for their beauty or their song. In Senegal, it is thought that as many as 25 million birds may be taken and caged each year (Elphick 2007). Caging is common too in South-East Asia, with birds here also eaten and used in traditional medicine (Elphick 2007). In Asia as well there is an enormous trade in wild birds. Mostly they will be sedentary birds, but a certain percentage consists of migratory species (Brouwer 2009). Some species are specifically targeted for trade: Black Crowned Crane *Balearica pavonina* has been extirpated from parts of its range in West Africa largely due to local demand for live birds as pets, for body parts for use in traditional medicine and for the international live bird trade (Williams et al. 2003).

Falconry

Although the practice has been reduced, migratory falcons, eagles and other raptors, and their eggs, are still taken from the wild for falconry purposes. Not only migratory falcon species, but also a number of favourite falconer prey species, including some migratory large bustard species, are threatened by unsustainable falconry practices (Brouwer 2009). In addition, up to tens of thousands of smaller falcons are used as decoys to catch the more valuable ones, while large birds of prey that may disturb the catching are shot.

Harvesting and hunting of birds of prey (including egg collecting, chick collecting for falconry, and shooting) remain a significant threat in many areas of the African–Eurasian region, despite being illegal in most places (Tucker and Goriup 2005). If the custom of falconry is to continue, it must be made sustainable, and both the raptors and their prey species need to be managed sustainably all along their flyways (BirdLife International 2008c, Collar et al. 2008). A Memorandum of Understanding for the Conservation of Eurasian–African Birds of Prey, developed under CMS and adopted in October 2008 in Abu Dhabi, has been agreed to help address such problems.

2.4.4 Disease and parasites

All species are exposed to disease but anthropogenic factors—including loss and/or degradation of habitat, pollution, overharvesting, increased interface between wild and domestic/captive/human populations, intensive management of wildlife

and global climate change—can disturb this balance and sometimes cause great mortality.

Botulism

Waterbirds in particular are prone to periodic outbreaks of infectious disease at sites where they congregate at any time of year. Such outbreaks have increased as a cause of mortality in wild waterbirds and significantly impact on some populations (e.g. Friend 2006; Kuiken et al. 2006; Rocke 2006a). A notorious source of mass mortality among migrant waterbirds is botulism, caused by a neurotoxin in the bacillus *Clostridium botulinum*. The occurrence of botulism is largely controlled by environmental factors and is not dependent on waterbird density, and thus this disease has the potential to cause significant population declines in some species, seriously impeding conservation efforts. Year-to-year losses from botulism are highly variable, but they can be substantial: 4–5 million waterfowl deaths were attributed to botulism in the western United States in 1952 (see Newton 2008). In 2002–2003, a botulism outbreak in Taiwan killed more than 5% (73 birds) of the world population of the globally threatened Black-faced Spoonbill *Platalea minor* (Yu 2003). In 1996, an outbreak at the Salton Sea, California, killed nearly 15% of the western population of American White Pelican *Pelecanus erythrorhynchos*. Rocke (2006b) indicates that, on a world-wide basis, avian botulism is the most significant disease of waterbirds.

Avian influenza

Avian influenza viruses are found in a wide range of bird species, especially aquatic ones, including ducks, geese, swans, waders and gulls, which act as a reservoir for the low pathogenic forms of the virus. These viruses live in balance with their natural hosts and do not normally cause population effects.

From 2005, however, there has been an emergence of a highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) virus (H5N1) in South-East Asia and H5N1 has been detected in birds from other parts of the world thereafter: in the northern autumn and winter 2005–2006, 700 dead wild birds were recovered in 13 countries in Western Europe, including migratory birds such as Whooper Swans *Cygnus cygnus* (FAO 2006; see also FAO 2008).

Many wild birds die from HPAI H5N1 infection, resulting in localised waterbird die-offs, though susceptibility is species-specific (e.g. Brown et al. 2006, 2008). Some wild bird species are little affected, but can potentially transmit the virus along migratory routes, although it is unknown to what extent this actually happens. Some spread of the virus appears attributable to migratory bird movements, but the relative significance of different modes of spread is poorly understood at present (e.g. Kilpatrick et al. 2006, Gauthier-Clerc et al. 2007, UNEP/AEWA 2008, Fang et al. 2008, Newman et al. 2009, Prosseret al. 2009). HPAI H5N1 does appear to pose a threat to some migratory waterbird species that congregate at only a few specific sites, as shown by the loss of 10% of the world population of Bar-headed Goose *Anser indicus* on Qinghai Lake in China in 2005 (Liu et al. 2005). An international Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds has been established as a liaison mechanism between organisations knowledgeable about the relationship between wild birds and the disease (UNEP/AEWA 2008). The United Nation's Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) is also undertaking and facilitating a range of collaborative activities to study the epidemiology and ecology of HPAI H5N1 in wild birds and the migratory habits of these species (see www.fao.org/avianflu/en/wildlife/sat_telemetry.htm).

2.4.5 Threats from non-native species

Non-native animals and plants may impact on migratory birds in many ways, e.g. through predation, hybridization, competition, impacts on habitats or food resources. A number of excellent reviews of the effects of non-native species on native species are available (e.g. Eno 1997, Lowe et al. 2000, Barnard and Waage 2004, Hill et al. 2005, Mooney et al. 2005, Banks et al. 2008, Dodman and Boere 2010).

Non-native birds

Non-native bird species may impact on native bird species through hybridization and competition for resources. Banks et al. (2008) reviewed the status and potential impacts of non-native introduced waterbirds in countries falling within the African–Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) area.

Twenty-seven introduced species had been recorded to breed between one and five times in the AEWA region during the past 20 years, or breeding had been suspected but not confirmed. A further 45 waterbird species had been introduced but were not thought to have bred in the AEWA area.

Hybridization with native species was recorded or suspected for 18 introduced species, but for most of these species hybridization is rare. Two species that have hybridized regularly with native species, and therefore give the greatest cause for concern with respect to hybridization, are Mallard *Anas platyrhynchos* (which produces hybrids with several native species including Yellow-billed Duck *Anas undulata* and the globally threatened Meller's Duck *Anas melleri*) and Ruddy Duck *Oxyura jamaicensis* (which has hybridized with the globally threatened White-headed Duck *Oxyura leucocephala* in Spain).

A range of potential problems for native species, caused by introduced waterbirds, were either known to occur or suspected to occur. Competitive exclusion of and/or aggression towards native species was reported for thirteen introduced waterbird species, with some reports of extreme aggression leading to native species being killed by territorial introduced waterbirds. Seven introduced species were thought to cause eutrophication of waterbodies, although usually on a local scale. Six introduced species caused damage to natural or semi-natural habitats, either by grazing or trampling, and three species caused damage to man-made habitats or crops. One species (Sacred Ibis *Threskiornis aethiopicus*) was reported to predate the eggs or young of native species.

In most cases, the magnitude and importance of the effects of introduced waterbirds on native species and habitats has not been well studied, and therefore little is known about how introduced species may affect the population trends and distribution of native species (see also Dodman and Boere 2010).

Non-native animals

The introductions of other non-native animals can also impact waterbirds. A good example is the introduction of the highly predatory non-native fish, the Asian Snakehead *Channa cf. striata*, to Madagascar, which has spread to infest all Madagascar's major lakes (Sparks and Stiassny 2003). This fish has been strongly implicated in the marked decline of grebes on which it is suspected as being an efficient predator, at Lac Alaotra, even contributing to the extinction of the Alaotra Little Grebe *Tachybaptus rufolavatus* (Mutschler 2003).

Many seabird colonies and breeding waterbirds have also been impacted by non-native predators, which feed on bird's eggs and chicks. The most common non-native predators are rats, mice and feral cats. Island nesting birds, particularly seabirds, are very vulnerable since they mostly nest on the ground or in burrows and are easily predated by rats, foxes, cats, dogs, and mongooses (NABCI 2009).

The presence of predators, especially mammals, may have a profound impact on seabird populations and distributions by precluding species from using otherwise suitable breeding sites. Where non-native predators have been introduced, often due to human activities, then local extinctions have often resulted (Atkinson 1985). In Europe, probably the single most serious seabird conservation problem concerns the predation by rats and cats on Zino's petrel *Pterodroma madeira* on Madeira, which threatens to drive this species extinct (Zino et al. 1996). Over most of the rest of Europe, rats and American mink *Mustela vison* may cause the most serious problems, and for many Mediterranean seabirds, rat predation may limit populations (references in Tucker and Evans 1997).

One bird that has suffered from non-native predators is the Tristan Albatross *Diomedea dabbenena* of the Tristan da Cunha islands in the Southern Atlantic Ocean. The bird used to breed in reasonable numbers on Inaccessible Island, where chicks were eaten by pigs (before they were eradicated), whilst on Gough Island chicks are predated by mice, which seriously impact the population (Ryan 2007). The House Mouse *Mus musculus* is the only non-native predator on Gough (Wanless et al. 2007). In New Zealand, predation by non-native mammals is a major problem for seabird species.

Other non-native animals have their greatest effect on habitat. All over the world overgrazing is a serious problem, especially in semi-arid regions. Where animals become feral, they can soon proliferate. Animals such as goats and pigs can increase rapidly on islands, where they are capable of removing much of the natural vegetation.

Invasive plants

Invasive plants can pose immense management problems, for example in wetlands across the world (Dodman and Boere 2010). These can also directly impact waterbirds. Africa has a particular problem with invasive plants of origins in South and Central America. Most invasive wetland plants spread by various methods, such as water currents, wind, introductions, vehicles, mammals and birds. One plant that has spread widely in African wetlands is the Giant Sensitive Plant *Mimosa pigra*. This shrub can rapidly spread and form dense thickets that crowd the edges of lakes and wetlands and encroach far across floodplains (Howard and Matindi 2003), as has happened at Zambia's Kafue Flats, where the shrub now dominates large parts of the natural floodplain. By taking over lake edge habitat, the plant removes access for wading birds, whilst it can also remove important breeding and feeding areas on floodplains. Other invasive plants such as Water Lettuce *Pistia stratiotes*, Water Fern *Salvinia molesta*, Water Hyacinth *Eichhornia crassipes* and Azolla *Azolla filiculoides* are floating plants that can cover the water surface of wetlands. They can have significant impacts on wetland ecology, including encouraging their conversion to non-wetland habitats, all impacts that can change the importance of sites for migratory waterbirds (Dodman and Boere 2010).

2.4.6 Human disturbance

Human activities, including all forms of work or leisure activity taking place in close proximity to birds, may cause disturbance (Woodfield and Langstone 2004). Disturbance is also an important indirect consequence of hunting (see, e.g., Madsen and Fox 1995, Mainguy et al. 2002, Kirby et al. 2004). Overall, such effects are likely to be widespread and, whilst we generally do not know whether there are population-level impacts, local effects may be substantial.

Assessing the significance of disturbance has proved to be complex, with the need to record and consider many interacting variables and take account of many differing species attributes, situations and sensitivities.

Large-scale field experiments (see Madsen 1998a, b, Mainguy et al. 2002) have demonstrated potentially important effects of hunting disturbance in depressing the size of waterbird populations. In addition, breeding-season research has demonstrated that human disturbance can force incubating birds off nests, separate adults from free-ranging young, lead to increased nest predation, prevent access to preferred feeding areas by adults and/or young, and increase energy costs if birds are forced to move when resting (examples in Kirby et al. 2004).

During the non-breeding season, disturbance may frequently cause displacement, either between or within sites, influence feeding and resting behaviour, result in increased daily and seasonal energy expenditure overall, and increase the chance of predation (reviewed by Kirby et al. 2004). This may affect the condition and fitness of migratory species. However, at present we know of no evidence that displacement has affected non-breeding birds at the population level.

2.4.7 Mortality owing to artificial structures

Newton (2007) collated information on bird mortality caused by human artefacts, such as powerlines, wind turbines, gas flares and telecommunications masts. Tall buildings and ceilometers (lights used for measuring cloud height) and tall illuminated masts used for radio, television and mobile telephone transmission all kill many migrant birds (mainly by collision), especially those flying at night. In North America in the 1970s, an estimated 1.3 million migrants were killed in this way each year (Banks 1979, cited in Newton 2007). By 2000,

tower numbers had increased roughly fourfold, as had the associated death toll, reaching an estimated 4–5 million birds per year (USFWS 2002 in Newton 2007). About 350 species have been recorded as casualties, the vast majority being Nearctic–Neotropical migrants that fly at night, including a variety of warbler (Parulidae) species.

Wind turbines

Modern wind turbines are known to kill migrants by night or day, but information is only just beginning to emerge on the scale of these losses (which generally seem relatively small, being estimated at a total of 33,000 birds per year in the United States: USFWS 2002 in Newton 2007). The greatest losses seem to occur at wind farms situated on narrow migration routes (with, for example, many raptors killed in south-west Spain), or near wetlands, which attract large numbers of gulls and other large birds (de Lucas et al. 2007; see Desholm 2009 for information on species vulnerability). An analysis of the impact of windfarms on birds (Langston and Pullan 2004) identified the main potential hazards as disturbance leading to displacement and exclusion, collision mortality, and loss of, or damage to, habitat, but acknowledged that there had been few comprehensive studies, and even fewer published, peer-reviewed scientific papers. Langston and Pullan (2004) noted that most studies have quoted low collision mortality rates per turbine, but in many cases these are based only on corpses found, leading to under-recording of the actual number of collisions. Moreover, relatively high collision mortality rates have been recorded at several large, poorly sited windfarms in areas where concentrations of birds are present, especially migrating birds, large raptors or other large soaring species. As turbines continue to be constructed, they could collectively begin to impose a more significant drain on migratory bird populations, whether on land or in shallow coastal areas.

Commercial wind power development in the U.S. continues to grow at an exponential rate. With slightly more than 23,000 turbines installed and operating on the landscape (in 2008), and more than 155,000 turbines projected to be operating by 2020 (Manville 2009), there are serious concerns about current and potential impacts which continue to grow exponentially.

While the wind power industry currently estimates that turbines kill 58,000 birds per year in the U.S. (National Wind Coordinating Collaborative Wildlife Workgroup 2009 statistic), others estimate annual mortality at 440,000 birds (Manville 2005). Until a robust, scientifically rigorous cumulative impacts analysis is performed, we will not know with a high degree of certainly the true level of mortality.

Europe is currently undergoing a rapid proliferation of wind farms in the marine environment. Winds at sea tend to be stronger and more consistent, and weighty turbine components are more easily transported at sea permitting larger turbines to be constructed. In addition, offshore wind farms typically encounter less resistance from local communities (Dolman et al. 2003). However, there are growing concerns that offshore wind farms can have detrimental impacts on wildlife. Significant bird fatalities have been reported at marine wind turbines situated close to breeding colonies (Everaert and Stienen 2007) and several studies suggest that offshore wind farms present a serious barrier to seabird movements (Petersen et al. 2003, Desholm and Kahlert 2005, Fox et al. 2006).

Powerlines

Powerlines also pose a significant collision risk for many larger migrant birds (e.g. swans, geese, raptors etc.), especially if sited across flight lines or close to congregatory sites such as wetlands. Furthermore, electrocution on poorly designed medium-voltage lines is a significant cause of mortality in large perching species such as raptors (Bevanger 1998, Haas et al. 2003, Demmer et al. 2006).

In the early 1970s an investigation of eagle mortalities in the western United States revealed that, while numerous birds were shot or poisoned, others had been electrocuted on power lines (Olendorff et al. 1981). Likewise, collisions of Whooping Cranes *Grus americana* with power lines in the 1980s led to increased awareness of bird-power line collisions. Moseikin (2003) (cited in BirdLife International 2004b) reported at least 311 raptor electrocutions over a 100-km section of 10 kV power line in Kazakhstan over one year. Of particular concern, in central Mongolia, is the electrocution of Saker Falcon *Falco cherrug* (a globally threatened species), with this factor apparently the primary cause of adult mortality in the region (Gombobaatar et al. 2004). Demmer et al. (2006) refers to numerous studies that have documented electrocutionas one of the most frequent causes of death among large endangered bird species worldwide. So-called ecosystem "flagship-species" such as White Stork *Ciconia ciconia* and Black Stork *Ciconia nigra*, Spanish Imperial Eagle *Aquila adalberti*, Lesser Spotted Eagle *Aquila pomarina*, Greater Spotted Eagle *Aquila clang*a and Steppe Eagle *Aquila nipalensis* are at great risk, with most species falling within the highest conservation status as listed in the appendices to CMS.

Efforts to document and reduce bird electrocutions and collisions with power lines have been ongoing in the United States since the 1970s (Liguori 2009). In habitats with prey concentrations and few natural perches, raptors and corvids may be attracted to power poles as perch or nest sites. If the poles are not configured for avian safety, electrocutions can occur.

Glass and other reflective materials

Klem (2009) reports on a vast and growing amount of evidence supporting the interpretation that, except for habitat destruction, collisions with clear and reflective sheet glass and plastic cause the deaths of more birds than any other human-related avian mortality factor. From published estimates, an upper level of 1 billion annual kills in the U.S. alone is likely conservative; the worldwide toll is expected to be billions. Though not specific to migratory birds, it is certain that large numbers of migratory species will be included.

Birds in general act as if sheet glass and plastic in the form of windows and noise barriers are invisible to them. Casualties die from head trauma after leaving a perch from as little as one metre away in an attempt to reach habitat seen through, or reflected in, clear and tinted panes. There is no window size, building structure, time of day, season of year, or weather conditions during which birds escape the lethal hazards of glass in urban, suburban, or rural environments.

As noted by Klem (2009), glass is an indiscriminate killer, taking the fittest individuals of species of special concern as well as common and abundant species. Preventive techniques range from physical barriers, adhesive films and decals to novel sheet glass and plastic, but no universally acceptable solution is currently available for varying human structures and landscape settings.

2.4.8 Specific threats in the marine environment

Understanding of the factors affecting seabirds at sea is complicated by the fact that the dynamics of marine systems operate to create greater and more rapid fluctuations and change than are usual on land. From the literature reviewed, three key factors are widely cited as having a major effect on seabirds at sea, namely marine pollution, overfishing and bycatch.

Pollution

Oil, chemical residues (PCBs), heavy metals and marine debris are the major pollutants that harm ocean birds.

Oily substances on the sea surface represent a significant observable cause of death for a wide range of marine and coastal bird species and pose a serious threat to seabird populations occurring in large concentrations near shipping lanes and oil production facilities. Beached bird surveys provide an important tool for monitoring the level of oil pollution at sea using the proportion of oiled bird corpses of the total number of beached birds found.

Observations from one study in Denmark (Larsen et al. 2006) showed significantly negative trends for the proportion of oiled Northern Fulmar *Fulmarus glacialis* and auks in the west coast of Jutland indicating a decline in the oil pollution level in offshore areas of the Eastern North Sea and Skagerrak. Trends in the proportion of oiled birds for the Kattegat were negative for most wildfowl but positive for Common Scoter *Melanitta nigra*. Although Common Eider *Somateria mollissima* and gulls showed negative trends in the Danish part of the Wadden Sea, the trends were non-significant indicating no-change in the oil pollution level or insufficiency of data. The results show an improvement in the oil pollution situation in the offshore parts of the North Sea, in the Wadden Sea and in near-shore parts of the Kattegat but a worsening in offshore areas of the Kattegat. This is detrimental for species like Velvet Scoter *Melanitta fusca*, Common Eider and Razorbill *Alca torda*, for which the Kattegat serves as a globally important wintering area.

There is no doubt that major oil spills can kill huge numbers of seabirds. Careful estimates of the worst incidents in Europe suggest that kills of up to 500,000 birds have occurred (Mormat and Guermeur 1979, Piatt et al. 1990, Wiens 1995). Although spills from tankers receive most media attention, most oil enters the sea from land-based sources and deliberate discharges from ships, such as when cleaning tanks. Most seabird mortality occurs as a result of oil from such chronic pollution rather than accidents. Although it has been documented that oil pollution from major incidents and chronic inputs kill large numbers of birds, the long-term population effects are less well understood (Dunnet 1987, Furness 1993, Nisbet 1995, Wiens 1995). In many oil-producing areas, e.g. in coastal Africa, little information is available on the impacts of oil spills on wildlife, although oil spills are known to occur.

Chemical residues and heavy metals within the marine environment are a significant problem for ocean birds, with migrant seabirds typically having concentrations 1-2 orders higher than residents (at least in polar/subpolar regions) (J. Croxall, in litt.).

Many seabirds consume floating plastic and may feed it to their chicks. Ninety percent of Laysan Albatross *Phoebastria immutabilis* surveyed on the Hawaiian Islands had plastic debris in their stomachs (NABCI 2009). Added to this are damage to seabirds from ingested hooks and entanglement with discarded fishing line and nets.

Overfishing

Overfishing by humans reduces and alters the food supply for many seabirds. Where fish stocks have collapsed, seabirds have suffered widespread breeding failures and some populations have declined (e.g. Bailey et al. 1991, Anker-Nilssen 1991, Monaghan et al. 1992). Over-exploitation of forage fish, especially sardine and anchovy, has been attributed to major seabird declines in Peru and South Africa, associated with such fisheries (J. Croxall, in litt.).

In the UK sandeel fishery grew rapidly in response to the systematic overfishing of larger, piscivorous fish such as cod, mackerel and herring. By the 1990s, annual landings of sandeel were approaching one million tonnes, making it by far the biggest single-species fishery in the North Sea. Research has shown that fishing on this scale almost certainly depleted the sandeel supply for breeding seabirds. A summer fishery for sandeels off the east coast of Scotland was linked to a precipitous decline in surface-feeding Black-legged Kittiwake *Rissa tridactyla* which, unlike auks and shags, had no opportunity to forage deep in the water column (Furness 2002, Frederiksen et al. 2004, Daunt et al. 2008).

The switch to targeting the sandeel, a small prey fish, reflects a global trend of "fishing down the food chain" (Pauly et al. 1998). The same trend has also led to exploitation of invertebrates such as krill in the Southern Ocean, which has potential implications for populations of penguins, some albatross species and many other seabirds (Croxall and Nicol 2004, Kock et al. 2007).

Whilst there are clear examples of seabird declines linked to over-exploitation of forage fish, the extent to which such collapses in stocks of short-lived fish can be attributed to fishing effort rather than natural factors remains the subject of much debate (e.g. Furness 1993, 1995, Wright and Bailey 1993).

Bycatch

Unfortunately marine birds are sometimes attracted to fishing vessels or encounter fishing equipment and so interactions between them are inevitable. Despite a ban on their use in the high seas, gillnet fisheries continue in coastal waters of many countries in northern Europe and indeed in many other parts of the World. On the basis of a review of case studies, Zydelis et al. (2006) concluded that seabird bycatch mortality

in gillnets could be relatively high locally, and could potentially impact on populations at a larger scale. For example, the seabird mortality associated with the salmon driftnet fishery in Russia's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) is considerable. Between 1993 and 1999 about 482,500 seabirds, predominately Procellariids and Alcids, perished in nets set by Japanese boats alone (Spiridonov and Nikolaeva 2004).

The current status of some seabird species is critical because of an interaction with the fishing industry. Longline fishing fleets, which operate throughout the world's oceans, target vast numbers of tuna, swordfish, Patagonian tooth fish and other species. The boats set fishing lines that can stretch for up to 130 kilometres into the ocean. Each line carries many thousands of hooks baited with squid and fish. These attract albatrosses and other seabirds, which get caught, dragged below the water surface and drown.

An estimated 100,000 albatrosses die each year on fishing hooks (UNEP/CMS 2009). Albatrosses are exceptionally susceptible to longlining and cannot breed fast enough to cope with the rate at which they are being killed. This is putting them in real danger of extinction. Twenty of twenty-one species of albatross are threatened with extinction and the remaining one is near-threatened (BirdLife International 2010). Five large petrel species are also threatened for this reason. The primary threat comes from fisheries bycatch, longline primarily, but also trawling. The concentration of the threat is in southern oceans where the species and the most damaging types of fisheries are concentrated.

2.4.9 Climate change

Climate change is expected to affect migratory birds through changed weather and environmental conditions, such as temperatures, rainfall, sea level rises, and the acidification and circulation of the world's oceans. The effects will be direct or indirect through changes in habitat availability, quality and food resources, with some of the indirect effects occurring naturally or brought about by human reaction to a changing climate. Climate change effects, and the observed responses of birds, are the subject of a growing body of literature including, but not limited, to several reviews: Anon (undated), Butler (2000), Zöckler and Lysenko (2000), Sillett et al. (2000), Bairlein and Huppop (2004), Robinson et al. (2005), UNEP/CMS (2006), Huntley et al. (2007), and Maclean et al. (2008). Together they synthesize much complex information about the possible impacts on birds and interactions with other pressures affecting bird populations.

Increasing temperatures

Biome shifts, caused for example by temperature changes, is expected to result in the reduction of certain habitats for migratory species. For example, tundra habitat cannot advance polewards as temperatures rise due to its position at the northern extent of the Eurasian and North American landmasses. These higher temperatures are causing forests to invade areas which were originally treeless tundra, greatly reducing suitable habitat area for some species. Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus*, for example, is currently affected by these changes as the open tundra that it requires to nest disappears (Anon undated).

Migratory species rely on a number of isolated high quality habitats during their annual cycle. Any disturbance or alteration to a required habitat can leave a species vulnerable. As temperatures rise, the distances between suitable habitats can increase. This threat is particularly pronounced when geological features or human developments limit suitable habitats, when there are barriers to migration, or when food abundances occur in different locations to traditional migratory routes. As an example, the distance between the breeding and feeding sites of Balearic Shearwater *Puffinus mauretanicus* is increasing due to shifts in prey abundances, linked to changing sea surface temperatures (Anon undated). The extra energy required for this migration increases the species' vulnerability.

Many migratory seabird species might be affected. Most species (e.g. Humboldt Penguin *Spheniscus humboldti*, Balearic Shearwater *Puffinus mauretanicus*, Bermuda Petrel *Pterodroma cahow* and Short-tailed Albatross *Phoebastria albatrus*) are reliant on abundant zooplankton either directly, or to nourish their prey: krill, fish and cephalopod populations (Anon undated). These species will be negatively affected by changes in marine ecosystems and food-webs as increasing sea temperatures cause zooplankton abundance to decline. Climate change is likely to have a profound impact on 'high-productivity' ocean systems around the world. In recent decades, ocean surface temperatures along the west coast of North America have increased significantly leading to a dramatic decline in plankton biomass (Roemmich and McGowan 1995). This reduced ocean productivity has had a knock-on effect further up the food chain. Most dramatically, the number of visiting Sooty Shearwater *Puffinus griseus* dropped by 90% during a period of ocean warming between 1987 and 1994 (Veit et al. 1997).

The behavioural, social and life-history traits of seabirds may render them particularly sensitive to climate change (Grémillet and Boulinier 2009). Generally, seabirds have highly specialised diets, being reliant on just a few prey species, the abundance and distribution of which can alter dramatically in response to abrupt environmental changes. Seabirds' behavioural and life-history characteristics may constrain their adaptation to such changes. A seabird colony can take decades to establish and many birds display considerable breeding site philopatry—sometimes remaining faithful to an area even after conditions have become unfavourable (Grémillet et al. 2008); coupled with long delayed sexual maturity in most seabird species, they are particularly liable to slow response to rapid change.

Marine primary production is the basis of ocean ecosystems and a key component of the carbon cycle. By increasing water temperatures and freshwater discharge from melting ice sheets, climate change will affect nutrient supplies and is likely to change the ocean circulation system (Anon undated). All marine species are likely to be vulnerable to these changes, although there remains a high spatial and temporal uncertainty as to the extent and magnitude of these impacts (Anon undated).

Changes in precipitation

The projected increase in global temperatures will intensify the hydrological regime whilst increasing the spatial variability of precipitation. The overall projected patterns show a reduction of rainfall in the subtropics and an increase in rainfall near the equator and at high latitudes. Changes in rainfall patterns may be critical in already arid regions and affect habitat suitability for migrant land and water birds (Anon undated, Chambers 2008, Maclean et al. 2008).

Many bird species are particularly dependent on wetland habitats during vital stages of their life cycles. Reduced precipitation in these areas will negatively impact many species. Decreased precipitation coupled with increased evaporation rates has been identified as a key threat that will cause a reduction in the number of wetland stop-over habitats available to migratory birds (Anon undated). Changes in rainfall patterns will mean that wetlands in some regions will get drier, most critically in the Sahel Region of Africa (Maclean et al. 2008).

More variable rainfall is likely to affect the breeding success of many birds, especially those nesting in close proximity to water. Many waterbirds, for example, are very sensitive to changes in water levels as they require low-lying islands on freshwater lakes or coastal lagoons for nesting. Precipitation across breeding habitats is expected to increase in variability, with the potential for reducing the breeding success of many species (Anon undated). Altered patterns of precipitation were the reason for an altered time of migration in south-west Australian birds, in contrast to the findings from most northern hemisphere studies where changes in temperature patterns seemed to be better correlated (Chambers 2008).

Sea level rise

By 2100, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) predict sea levels will have risen by 0.18–0.59m compared to 1980–1999 levels. However, other models indicate a much greater magnitude of sea level rise by the end of the century, with some predicting it to be in the range of 0.5–1.4m (Anon undated). This will have an impact on numerous migratory species utilising coastal habitats, especially species breeding at sea-level (e.g. many seabirds throughout the Indo-Pacific oceans, some of which are migrants). Amongst the key threats facing migrant breeding seabirds in Bermuda (including hurricanes and tropical storms, rising sea level, invasive animal species, and loss of habitat) major floodings of nesting islands as a result of hurricane and tropical storm activity are identified as a principal cause for concern (Dobson and Madeiros 2009).

Finlayson (in UNEP/CMS 2006) showed that wetlands in eastern Asia and northern Australia are under threat from climate change and sea-level rise, with implications for migratory birds on the East Asian–Australasian Flyway. In an overview of threats for the African–Eurasian Flyway Region, sea level rises were considered detrimental to waterbirds, causing nests to flood and habitats to be damaged or destroyed (Maclean et al. 2008).

Species responses to climate change

Migratory birds are already responding to changes in weather and environmental conditions. Robinson et al. (2005) demonstrated many changes in bird populations that they attributed to the effects of climate change, including changes in:

- Range and timing and direction of migratory routes, which may be beneficial for many temperate species but deleterious for high Arctic and montane species (a high proportion of which are migratory) as the area of suitable habitat is likely to decline markedly.

- Timing of breeding, beneficial if allowing more breeding attempts, deleterious if leading to asynchrony with food supplies (although many migratory species have changed the timing of their migrations in response to changed conditions, others have not).

- Survival of birds, potentially beneficial for temperate migrants by increasing winter temperatures near the limits of the breeding range (and decreasing mass mortality events), deleterious for trans-equatorial migrants if precipitation declines as predicted.

- Productivity of birds, beneficial among many species over the last few decades, but potentially deleterious to some ground-nesting species which may be adversely impacted by increased precipitation.

Newton (2008), reviewing evidence for north–south migrants breeding in the northern hemisphere, concluded that many bird species have changed some aspect of their migratory behaviour during the last century or more, in response to changed conditions, with (1) earlier arrival in spring, (2) earlier or later departure in autumn, (3) shortening or lengthening of migration routes, (4) directional changes, and (5) reduced or enhanced duration/distance of migration, reflected in changes in ratios of resident to migratory individuals in breeding areas, and in the occurrence of wintering birds in areas previously lacking them. Almost all these changes were associated with changes in food availability or with climatic conditions likely to have affected food supplies, such as milder winters. Most cases of increasing duration/distance involved species that have extended their breeding ranges into higher latitudes where overwintering is impossible or risky. Visser et al. (2009) demonstrate a reduction in migration distance based on an analysis of ringing recovery data, with a shortening of distances to suitable overwintering areas.

Huntley et al. (2007) projected how the ranges of 430 European breeding bird species (including many migratory land- and waterbirds) may shift by the end of this century in response to climate change. Three alternative future climate scenarios, differing in the magnitude of the range changes that result, were applied to models of species' current distribution and in all cases produced the same general results. Species' breeding ranges will generally shift north-eastwards and by large distances (several hundred kilometres for many species), and on average will be 20% smaller than they are now, with

limited overlap (c.40%) with their present breeding distributions. For at least some high arctic breeders, climate change modelling shows an almost complete loss of breeding habitat (Zöckler and Lysenko 2000).

Impacts of climate change on long-distance migrants are likely to be complex (Sanderson et al. 2006). The rate, direction and variability of climate change differ considerably between regions (IPCC 2001). These effects could change the timing of resource availability, affecting the timing of migration or movement between staging areas (Schaub et al. 2005) and leading to asynchrony between resource availability and resource requirements. Climate change impacts may also mediate competition between short- and long-distance migrants by allowing short-distance migrants to return earlier to their shared breeding grounds, and possibly by enhancing overwinter survival of birds remaining in Europe, leaving intercontinental migrants at a competitive disadvantage (Sanderson et al. 2006; Mezqueda et al. 2007). Climate change may also affect resource competition between resident and migratory bird species by changing the interval between their onsets of breeding or by altering their population densities. Ahola et al. (2007) found evidence of this for Pied Flycatchers *Ficedula hypoleuca* and Great Tits *Parus major* in Finland where the frequency of tits killing the flycatchers in nest-hole disputes increased with a reduced inter-specificlaying date interval and with increasing densities of both tits and flycatchers. The authors concluded that climate change has a great potential to alter the competitive balance between these two species.

As noted above, recent rapid climatic changes are associated with dramatic changes in phenology of plants and animals, with optimal timing of reproduction advancing considerably in the northern hemisphere. However, some species may not have advanced their timing of breeding sufficiently to continue reproducing optimally relative to the occurrence of peak food availability, thus becoming mis-matched compared with their food sources. The degree of mis-match may differ among species, and species with greater mis-match may be characterized by declining populations.

Relating changes in spring migration timing by 100 European bird species since 1960 to their population trends, Møller et al. (2008) found that species that declined in the period 1990–2000 did not advance their spring migration, whereas those with stable or increasing populations advanced their migration considerably. On the other hand, population trends during 1970–1990 were predicted by breeding habitat type, northernmost breeding latitude, and winter range (with species of agricultural habitat, breeding at northern latitudes, and wintering in Africa showing an unfavourable conservation status), but not by change in migration timing. These findings imply that ecological factors affecting population trends can change over time and suggest that ongoing climatic changes could increasingly threaten vulnerable migratory bird species, augmenting their extinction risk.

Coppack and Both (2002) showed that in Western Europe European Pied Flycatchers *Ficedula hypoleuca* had advanced both spring arrival and egg laying dates over the past 20 years. However the advancement of spring arrival had not kept pace with the advancement of spring. Using the breeding dates of 25 long-term studied populations of migratory Ficedula flycatchers across Europe, Both et al. (2004) found that across populations the advancement of laying date was stronger in areas where the spring temperatures increased more, giving support to the theory that climate change causally affects breeding date advancement. However, while some degree of advancement in the timing of breeding is possible, Pied Flycatchers (and other Afro–Palearctic migrants) may be unable to advance arrival on the breeding grounds and therefore egg-laying sufficiently to keep pace with phenological advances in peak prey abundance. This is because the cues that the birds use to initiate migration are uninformative of conditions on the breeding grounds and timing of egg-laying is likely to be constrained by arrival date. Thus phenological responses of prey populations to climate change may lead to birds failing to breed at the time of maximal food abundance. In a comparison of nine populations of European Pied Flycatcher breeding in The Netherlands, Both et al. (2006) found that populations have declined over the past two decades in areas where the food for provisioning nestlings peaks early in the season and the birds' reproduction is currently mistimed.

It should be noted that although there is increasing evidence that some migratory species are advancing timing of their breeding in response to climate change, the evidence for problems through mis-timed breeding versus peak food abundance is currently restricted to just a few studies. Both et al. (2009) have demonstrated habitat differences in the trends of migrants in forest and marsh habitats, with forest birds declining more than marsh birds and later arriving forest species declining more than earlier arriving ones. Climate-induced, trophic mis-matches were considered responsible in habitats with highly seasonal food supplies such as forests. Jones and Creswell (2010), examining population trends for 193 Palearctic and Nearctic migrants found differences between regions. In the Nearctic, phenology mismatch was correlated with population declines as predicted, but in the Palaearctic, distance was more important. The authors concluded that differential global climate change may be responsible for contributing to some migrant species' declines, but its effects maybe more important in the Nearctic. More research is needed on this topic before we can tell whether this is likely to be a widespread problem or one that affects just a relatively few species.

Despite the scale of the observed and documented effects on migratory birds as overviewed above, population level impacts attributable to climate change have yet to be demonstrated. The difficulty of isolating cause from a wide range of interacting influences makes obtaining the proof for 'cause and effect' both technically and financially difficult to achieve.

Species and population vulnerability

Species sensitivity and vulnerability has been assessed in a number of studies. In his assessment, Crick (in UNEP/CMS 2006) indicated that most species (84%) listed on the Appendices of the CMS have the potential to be affected by climate change in some way: 53% from changes to water regime (droughts, lowered water tables, etc.), 24% from mismatches with food supplies, 18% from sea-level rise, 17% from habitat shifts, 17% from changes in prey range and 7% from increased storm frequency.

In an analysis specific to waterbirds in the African–Eurasian Region, species with small populations and ranges, globally threatened status, fragmented distributions, with specialist food requirements or that occur in vulnerable habitats were considered most likely to be the most affected by climate change (Maclean et al. 2008). Application of these criteria resulted in the following waterbirds and seabirds (from Annex 3 of the AEWA Agreement) being identified as particularly vulnerable to climate change: Cape Gannet *Morus capensis*, Crowned Cormorant *Phalacrocorax coronatus*, Bank Cormorant *Phalacrocorax neglectus*, Slaty Egret *Egretta vinaceigula*, Northern Bald Ibis *Geronticus eremite*, White-winged Flufftail *Sarothrura ayresi*, Madagascar Pratincole *Glareola ocularis*, Slender-billed Curlew *Numenius tenuirostris* and Damara Tern *Sterna balaenarum*.

The same authors noted the significance of biogeographic populations in conservation legislation and that populations were even more vulnerable to climate change than entire species. Although this is to be expected, this serves to illustrate the importance of using a population based approach to conserving species in the face of climate change. Applying the criteria described above to individual waterbird populations, Maclean et al. (2008) identified the following as being particularly vulnerable to climate change: White Stork *Ciconia ciconia* (Southern Africa), Northern Bald Ibis *Geronticus eremita* (South-west Asia and South Asia winter), Northern Bald Ibis *Geronticus eremita* (Morocco), Sacred Ibis *Threskiornis aethiopicus* (Iraq and Iran), Cape Teal *Anas capensis* (Lake Chad basin), White-headed Duck *Oxyura leucocephata* (Algeria and Tunisia), Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus* (Iran winter), Common Crane *Grus grus* (Turkey and Georgia breeeding), Demoiselle Crane *Grus virgo* (Turkey breeding), Demoiselle Crane *Grus virgo* (Black Sea, Ukraine, and North-east Africa), White-winged Flufftail *Sarothrura ayresi* (Ethiopia and Eastern Africa), Chestnut-banded Plover *Charadrius pallidus venustus* (Eastern Africa), Slender-billed Curlew *Numenius tenuirostris* (Central Siberia and Mediterranean and SW Asia).

In a comprehensive review for birds in North America, NABCI (2010) presents an assessment of the vulnerability of bird species to climate change, based on five biological aspects of sensitivity to climate change (migration status, breeding habitat obligate, dispersal ability, niche specificity, and reproductive potential), as well as the exposure of each species' habitat to climate change in the near future. Birds in every terrestrial and aquatic habitat were considered to be affected by climate change, although individual species in each habitat are likely to respond differently.

All 67 oceanic bird species, including albatrosses, petrels, tropical terns, tropicbirds, frigatebirds, and puffins were classified as vulnerable because of their low reproductive potential, use of islands for nesting, and reliance on rapidly changing marine ecosystems. Seabirds such as Laysan Albatross *Phoebastria immutabilis* and Bonin Petrel *Pterodroma hypoleuca* that are restricted to nesting on low-lying islands are in danger of losing their breeding habitat as sea levels rise (NABCI 2010).

Rising sea levels are expected to inundate or fragment low-lying habitats such as salt marshes, sandy beaches, barrier islands, and mudflats. Increasing frequency and severity of storms and changes in water temperatures will impact quality and quantity of coastal habitats and alter marine food webs. Beach-nesting terns, highly specialized Saltmarsh Sparrows *Ammodramus caudacutus*, and birds dependent on marine waters are among the most vulnerable species (NABCI 2010). Increased temperatures will drastically alter surface water and vegetation in the arctic, resulting in major changes in bird abundance and distribution. Species that depend on grass-sedge tundra for breeding, such as the Black Turnstone *Arenaria melanocephala*, could lose their tundra breeding habitat.

Predicted changes in temperature and rainfall will probably reduce vital habitats for waterfowl and other wetland birds. Climate change could reverse the positive effects of conservation actions that have increased waterfowl populations. In the Prairie Pothole region alone, increased drought conditions and loss of wetlands could lead to significant reductions in breeding waterfowl.

Aridlands and grasslands are predicted to become warmer and drier. Many aridland birds are at increased risk because of drought and the potential for summertime temperatures greater than they can tolerate. Important wintering areas for many grassland birds may become unsuitable due to increased drought, invasive species, and invasion by woody shrubs (NABCI 2010).

Forests will gradually change as precipitation changes, and as fire, insect pests and diseases alter forest communities. Forest types in eastern states are predicted to shift northward, whereas western forest types will shift to higher elevations. These changes will alter bird communities, although most forest birds will probably be resilient because of their large distributions and high reproductive rate (NABCI 2010). However, long-distance migrants, especially aerial insect-eaters such as swifts and nightjars, may face multiple challenges such as the timing of food resource availability throughout their migratory range.

Cumulative impacts

Of course climate change effects and impacts on birds do not occur in isolation from all other threats and pressures. Climate change is expected to exacerbate these other pressures on migratory birds (Anon undated, Sanderson et al. 2006, Tucker and Goriup 2007). Examples quoted by NABCI (2010) were as follows:

- Altering habitats, allowing for the increase of invasive species. As invasive species expand, they can out-compete native species, leading to the reduction or loss of native plants and wildlife.

- Spreading disease. Distribution of disease patterns and changes in wildlife occurrence will affect the transmission of diseases. It is also expected that infectious diseases will emerge more frequently and in new areas due to climate change.

- Exacerbating the impacts of storm-surge flooding and shoreline erosion. Increasingly developed coastal communities and rising sea level will limit potential habitat for coastal birds.

- Changing the distribution and availability of surface and ground water. Climate change will constrain water resources, further increasing competition among agricultural, municipal, industrial, and wildlife uses.

The majority of migratory bird species are already at high risk from anthropogenic pressures (as discussed earlier in this review). The predicted negative socio-economic impacts of current climate change on humans will ultimately result in increased anthropogenic pressures on species and natural systems. For example, harvested species are likely to be even more heavily exploited. Wetland habitats will be starved of water as it becomes increasingly diverted for human use. Sea level rise will encourage the construction of coastal defences, which are likely to negatively impact species reliant on coastal habitats. Climate change has the capacity to act synergist ically with current anthropogenic threats, so that species are not only dealing with the direct impacts of climate change, but also consequences of climate change impacts on humans. This adds to the complexity of effecting mitigation for climate change impacts on migratory birds and represents a significant challenge for conservationists to overcome.

CMS Parties have made several decisions that prioritise actions to reduce climate change impacts on migratory species. In 2005, Resolution 8.13 included, amongst other things, for the Scientific Council to identify which migratory species, based on best available evidence, are particularly threatened by climate change. More recently in 2008, Resolution 9.7 called upon Parties to mitigate climate change and aid adaptation of species to these changes. CMS has clearly already recognised its role in addressing this most significant of threats to the future survival of migratory bird species.

2.5 Knowledge gaps

Key information needs are identified here that relate to our knowledge of the status, trends and threats to migratory bird species, and information needed in order to more effectively pursue the conservation priorities defined above.

2.5.1 Status and trends

Reliable and, ideally, complete information on global population sizes for migratory species is a fundamental requirement, in order to detect current or future declines and target action to address them. The data available on individual populations has grown steadily within the last century. Nevertheless, there are still considerable gaps in our understanding of the status of some species or populations.

Repeat survey and population estimation allows trends to be examined, for it is vitally important to know how the status of a species is changing over time. Critically we need to identify which migratory species are declining in which regions and the principle reasons for their declines. This is particularly important in Asia (including the Indian subcontinent) and South America where information is generally poor in comparison with other regions of the world. It is vital to continue the monitoring already underway (e.g. the International Waterbird Census, Common Bird Monitoring in Europe and Breeding Bird Surveys in North America etc.) in order to detect changes, including future declines, and the success (or not) of conservation measures. Where possible, the robustness of methodologies should be periodically assessed and improved where necessary. Moreover, it is critical to extend the coverage of these types of monitoring schemes both in geographic terms—extending to other sites and regions not currently covered—as well as in temporal terms—extending to different seasons (e.g. covering both spring and autumn migrations). This monitoring activity comes at a price, and governments with a shared responsibility for migratory species need to realize the importance of monitoring and thus become motivated to fund this essential basic monitoring work, in order to effectively underpin appropriate conservation action for migratory species.

2.5.2 Migratory patterns

Much more needs to be known about the distribution and ecology of migratory species, and especially the migration routes that they follow. This is fundamental to knowing which Range States have a responsibility for which migratory species, assessing threats, and to organising conservation action in the right places at the right time.

These gaps in information need to be filled by ongoing and developing programmes of research. Ringing, banding and colour-marking activities must be continued but a wholesale increase in such programmes is probably unrealistic to achieve. Fortunately, relatively new technologies, such as radio and satellite tracking, geolocators and genetic analyses, are available and can be extremely useful and provide more detailed information than classic marking studies (see, e.g. Bobek et al. 2008, Fawen et al. 2009, Kelly et al. 2008, Lindsell et al. 2008, Sanpera et al. 2007, Yohannes et al. 2007, Hobson et al. 2009). Radio and satellite tracking has been successfully tested on a wide size range of wetland and non wetland species, including cranes, swans, geese, pelicans, shorebirds, gulls, eagles, storks, bustards and others (see, e.g., www.fao.org/avianflu/en/wildlife/sat_telemetry.htm). Also, recent advances in remote sensing and the ingenuity of the scientific community, such as the development of micro-transmitters and geolocators, are producing a wealth of new information about bird movements and their use of environmental cues to locate food and other resources.

In order to fully understand the migratory patterns of seabirds, disparate data must be aggregated in common, multiple species databases. For example, the Global Procellariiform Tracking Database (http://www.seabirdtracking.org/) incorporates around 90% of existing remote tracking data for albatross and petrel species. Since being established in 2003, the database has proven invaluable in understanding the range and distribution of these species, both in terms of expanding understanding of their ecology and demography, and in identifying key foraging areas and overlaps with threats, specifically with respect to bycatch issues.

Data from marking and counting programmes already exist but much data remains unanalysed or has the potential to be better analysed. Thus we need improved international analysis of existing satellite telemetry, ringing (banding) and count data. This must synthesise information on the routes and timing of bird migration, especially of poorly known intra-African migrants, and birds using Central Asian, Asia–Pacific and Neotropical flyways. We need to strengthen bird research worldwide, especially in areas where little or no ringing and counting schemes have operated in the past. We need to publish the results of these studies and other relevant data in new flyway atlases freely available on the internet. To optimally conserve the many species travelling along the flyways of the world, a great deal more migration data is required.

2.5.3 Vulnerability and threats to migratory birds

A wide variety of threats to migratory birds exist, and all require some degree of conservation action. Some can be addressed through landscape scale or site-based conservation management and these are considered further below. For other threats a more focused approach is required—targeted campaigns focused on particular species or species groups or on particular threat types. Examples include campaigns to

address illegal hunting and trapping, electrocution in birds, non-native species impacts, glass window, wind turbine and power line collisions, or over-fishing and bycatch mortality amongst seabirds. In all cases it is important to identify the key threats, defined here as those that are known to threaten the survival of individual migratory species.

Identifying the key threats that might be targeted by such campaigns requires some form of vulnerability or population viability assessment to be undertaken for migratory species worldwide. Maclean et al. (2008) presents a good example of how species and population vulnerability may be identified, in this case to the threat of climate change (a large topic that will require more than just a campaign and is so treated separately below) (see also NABCI 2010). There may be other approaches worthy of development also. Such analyses should be undertaken for all potentially important threats on a species-by-species or population-by-population basis, in order to identify key threats and the birds detrimentally affected by each.

From this information, targeted campaigns need to be developed, or where appropriate campaigns exist already, will need to be maintained, expanded or refocused, as a form of action plan for addressing the key threats. The success of the campaigns should be monitored to ensure effectiveness and to allow continuous re-evaluation of the threat, hopefully documenting each threat as it diminishes.

2.5.4 Landscape scale conservation

There is a need to determine the 'ideal' landscape for migratory birds in each geographical region of the world, where landscape-scale conservation is key to the protection of migratory birds. This in itself is a significant challenge but is being attempted in some parts of the world.

In North America, Partners in Flight have been promoting the 'Five Elements' approach which is worthy of consideration for application in other parts of the world. Outline details are provided by Will et al. (2005): the Five Elements is a conceptual approach through which conservation partners work together to assess current habitat conditions and ownership patterns, evaluate current species distributions and bird-habitat relationships, and determine where on the landscape sufficient habitat of different types can be delivered for supporting bird population objectives. The Five Elements process is intended to facilitate explicit, science-based recommendations on where habitat protection, enhancement, or management would be most efficiently implemented to achieve stated population objectives. The Five Elements of work involved in this process may be summarized as follows:

1. **Landscape Characterization and Assessment.** A landscape-scale characterization of the current amount and condition of habitat types across an ecoregion and an assessment of their ability to support and sustain bird populations is fundamental to the development of meaningful population based habitat objectives. The characterization should not only describe the current amounts of different habitat types across an ecoregion but also summarise patch characteristics and landscape configurations that define the ability of a landscape to sustain healthy bird populations.

2. **Bird Population Response Modelling.** Incorporated with the macro-scale relationships from Element 1, more sophisticated models relating to micro-scale vegetation structure with demographic parameters provide powerful tools for assessing, predicting, and monitoring how bird populations will respond to landscape change and land management activities. Such tools need to be more widely developed and applied, with the recognition that they will require a greater commitment of resources. These models should help us to evaluate the potential effects of different management alternatives on bird populations within an ecoregion and thereby allow us to develop hypotheses regarding what set of management actions are most likely to result in population responses that will move existing bird populations toward stated population objectives.

3. **Conservation Opportunities Assessment.** Not all patches of similar habitat will have similar futures, depending in part on who owns and manages the land. Models developed in Elements 1 and 2 can be used to quantify the cumulative contributions of current holdings in the traditional conservation estate (mostly public lands) as well as the capacity of (mostly private) lands owned by others to contribute toward population objectives for priority species within an ecoregion. The assessment of conservation opportunity should also include recommendations on how land management activities might be modified to improve both the quantity and quality of priority habitats.

4. **Optimal Landscape Design.** A huge challenge of all bird conservation planning is the development of synthetic models that bring together conservation strategies and landscape design models that integrate the needs of priority species, landscape capability, opportunity cost (economics), and partnership potential into proposed optimal solutions for meeting the conservation objectives of the entire set of priority bird/habitat suites within an ecoregion.

5. **Monitoring and Evaluation.** In principle, incorporation of Element 5 into the recommended framework for achieving continental objectives seems self-evident: we need to monitor in order to gauge our progress and success, and we need to evaluate the validity of the assumptions used in meeting the other four Elements. In practice, however, very careful thought needs to go into the selection and design of appropriate monitoring and evaluation tools, and these tools are in turn intimately related to the careful articulation of clear objectives and purposeful models.

Partners in Flight hopes this approach to turning bird conservation plans into habitat implementation actions will be more widely and consistently applied by organizations participating in efforts to conserve North American avifauna. It would appear to have some applicability to other parts of the world also.

2.5.5 Critical site networks

The advantage that migratory species have in comparison with most non-migratory taxa is their ability to move over large distances. To facilitate this movement, it is vital to improve the connectivity of habitats critical to population survival currently and in the future. CMS is already involved in developing critical site networks and tools such as the Critical Site Network Tool developed through the WOW Project in the area of the African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (Barnard et al. 2010). There is an urgent need to identify and protect further critical site networks with species range shifts in mind. By maintaining viable habitats and reducing current threats, stakeholders may be able to improve the resilience of some species to cope and adapt to climate change.

There are two fundamental aspects to the effective provision of a network of sites for migratory birds. First, that important sites are recognized and protected. Second, that such sites are optimally managed for the birds that they support.

Rather than approach the first of these requirements piecemeal, we need to determine what kind of network of sites (including the size, proximity and number of sites) would be needed to support healthy populations of different migratory species at all stages of their annual cycle and in all parts of the world. Very importantly, in answering this question, we should also seek to maximise the resilience of such networks in the face of global climate change.

We then need to compare current provisions (e.g. IBAs, Ramsar Sites, WHSRN Sites, East Asian–Australasian Flyway Network Sites, West/Central Asian Flyway Network Sites etc.) with these "ideal, climate-proofed states" and determine how they might be improved, most probably through the addition of extra sites or the expansion of sites, and through appropriate management in the face of predicted changes. An assessment of the feasibility of creating these more effective habitat/site networks would then follow, with a view to prioritizing the addition of sites in locations where it is most feasible to do so. Although voluntary networks have a key role to play and should be encouraged, adequate formal protection for network sites would also be of vital importance and this needs to follow their formal recognition as network sites.

By comparison, promoting good management for birds (including reducing threats) at network sites is relatively easy and should draw upon a synthesis of knowledge of the ecological requirements of migrant birds at different stages of the annual cycle (to define favourable condition), and best practice habitat management prescriptions (much of which is already available).

2.5.6 Climate change adaptation

Unfortunately, little is currently known about migratory species' capacity for adaptation to climate change. To understand this better, intensive monitoring and research is needed. This knowledge is vital to identify key limiting factors, the 'weakest link', upon which each species survival hinges, and to provide essential building blocks for policy guidance.

The large geographic extent of many migratory species' ranges will make the design of adaptation strategies, aimed at minimising climate change impacts, very challenging (Anon undated). For instance, the global population of Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus* global is c.3000 individuals which nest over an area of 26,000 km². Even if adaptation is facilitated, such as by shifting migratory routes with imprinting and micro light plane guidance (e.g. Flight of Hope project: www.sibeflyway.org/Reintroduction-Flight-of-Hope-Project-web.html), these measures require a large investment both in terms of time and money.

Unfortunately, even high levels of investment will not ensure viable populations if greenhouse gas emissions surpass critical thresholds, as many of the threats highlighted above will be difficult to control and adapt to once levels are breached. Furthermore, populations currently dependent on habitats located on the most northerly or southerly ends of landmasses, as well as those close to mountain tops, are particularly vulnerable since migration to follow their climatic niche is not an option. There is potential for the translocation of species to new areas through assisted colonisation/migration, but this again is costly and should only be used as a last resort once adequate research has been done on the long term affects of such drastic interventions. On a species-by-species basis, provisions to aid adaptation could be feasible in the short to medium term, but it is clear that for a multitude of species such actions will be too costly and ultimately not sufficient to ensure their survival, especially if rapid levels of climate change are allowed to occur. It is therefore vital that a dual approach be taken where proactive adaptation measures are applied to species already threatened by committed levels of climate change alongside considerable and rapid emissions abatement to limit further impacts. This is the only cost effective and practical way to safeguard migratory species into the future.

In addressing the conservation challenges of climate change, a multi-functional approach is likely to be most successful. This approach entails considering the benefits of ecosystem conservation from a holistic viewpoint, considering both the anthropogenic and wildlife benefits. It is much more likely that conservation goals will be achieved if they are part of ecosystem management with wider aims such as floodplain management, coastal protection or preventing deforestation to reduce soil erosion. Frameworks for integrated land-use planning exist in a number of different parts of the world, and they could valuably be developed and implemented more widely elsewhere.

In terrestrial systems adaptation measures may be successful in maintaining or restoring a secure conservation status for many species. In marine systems, however, mitigation of climate change may be the only solution (i.e. reduction in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions), as habitat management at a sufficient scale will be virtually impossible. Climate change may be the 'last straw' for many marine species, which are already under severe anthropogenic pressure. Strengthening protection for marine species and ecosystems should improve their ability to adapt to changing climatic conditions.

2.5.7 Knowledge gap constraint

Although knowledge gaps have been reviewed above, they are unlikely to be complete, despite an intention to be comprehensive. Easy access to key information from which to assess knowledge and define gaps is difficult. Indeed, many datasets have already been collected and much information is already known about the distributions of species, and the natural and anthropogenic factors affecting their populations. However, these data are often contained within disparate databases and knowledge is described in thousands of publications.

There is a continuing need to consolidate existing data into data management and presentation systems, such as:

- IUCN's Species Information Service (SIS) for managing species attribute and Red List assessment data.
- BirdLife's Global Procellariiform Tracking Database (http://www.seabirdtracking.org/) for collating and disseminating information on individually tracked birds.
- The UNEP-GEF African–Eurasian Flyways (WOW) Project Critical Site Network Tool for identifying and presenting priority sites for the conservation of migratory species.
- BirdLife's Worldbirds (www.worldbirds.org/mapportal/worldmap.php) for collating and disseminating observation and monitoring data.
- Cornell University's Avian Knowledge Network (www.avianknowledge.net) for understanding patterns of bird populations across the western hemisphere.

And,

- The Integrated Biodiversity Assessment Tool (IBAT) (www.ibatforbusiness.org) presenting data to support critical business decisions, to name just a few.

The data held within such systems can then be used to test hypotheses as well as evaluate spatial and temporal trends in bird populations in ways that extend beyond the extent and scope of individual projects. Similarly, there is a need to consolidate the results of previous research currently held in disparate spreadsheets or databases into such systems and others that can be analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The importance of effectively transmitting research results to end users (bird conservation planners, implementers, and regulators) cannot be overstated. It is particularly important that data are made available back to the locations where they were collected (e.g. returning data/results to the country or the land management agency where they were collected).

2.6 Conservation priorities

Key conservation priorities have been defined here on the basis of this review of migratory birds and the threats they face. The priorities are to:

- Work to protect and retain and, where feasible, recreate / restore high quality bird habitats on a flyway and landscape scale.
- Work to safeguard and manage networks of critical sites, key to the migration and survival of migratory species.
- Address specific threats that are known to threaten the survival of individual species and species groups.
- Attempt to mitigate the effects of climate change, affording migratory species the best possible chance of survival.

Of course there are many other priorities of particular relevance to migratory birds including the need to achieve political and practical engagement in migratory bird conservation, for example through:

- Communication, education and public awareness.
- Capacity building, especially amongst conservation managers, site managers, non-governmental organisations, research institutions etc.).
- Engagement of local communities.
- Economic and cultural valuation of migratory birds

These fall outside of the scope of the current review but are comprehensively covered in other recent reviews, e.g. Dodman & Boere (2010).

2.6.1 Conserving quality habitats at the landscape scale

The key threats identified from this review are biological resource use and habitat destruction from activities such as agriculture and aquaculture. It follows that the protection of habitats, and the resources they provide, is therefore of vital importance to migratory birds, and this should be afforded the highest priority of all. Of course different migratory species will benefit from different approaches aimed at habitat protection. Broad-front migrants, for example, will benefit from modifications to extensive land-use along their migratory routes, related to agriculture or forestry practice for example. Migrants following narrower flyways will require a coherent site network, with each network site providing safety and plentiful resources for the birds, an issue considered further below.

For broad-front terrestrial migrants, the retention and, where feasible, restoration of suitable migratory habitats, such as wildlife friendly field margins, hedgerows, small copses, wetlands and ponds have potential to assist bird migration. Where they exist, agricultural schemes for farmers, or grassland and woodland management schemes can provide an excellent means of bringing about such changes at the landscape scale. Sadly, in many countries, such schemes cannot be afforded.

In areas with remaining habitat of value to migratory birds, the creation of protected trans-boundary habitat corridors is likely to be a great benefit. This will help broad-front migrants as well as migrants at the beginning and end of their migrations. Currently it is an approach applied particularly in the Americas, e.g. the Meso-American Corridor, through Central America.

The priority for adapting to change in the marine environment will be to manage human impacts on the resources required by migratory species through ecosystem-based management. One way to achieve this is through the management / designation of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) and the establishment of 'no-take zones' for the prey of migratory birds at key sites. However, the locations of such areas are often not known, are likely to change over time, and thus long-term protection will be challenging. MPAs already in existence play an important role and networks of MPAs will be needed as part of critical site networks for migratory birds.

Many migratory species are widely dispersed in their distributions, especially passerines, and most species that congregate do so only in certain phases of their life cycle. Stopping and reversing declines in migratory species requires addressing the human-induced changes to migratory bird habitats in the broader landscape, in addition to species and site-based work. Habitat transformation—such as agricultural intensification in Europe, conversion of natural rangelands to soy plantations in South America, desertification in the Sahel, loss of intertidal habitat in the Yellow Sea Region, tropical deforestation in South-East Asia and Central and South America, and forest fragmentation in North America, all of which are implicated in migratory bird declines—can be most feasibly addressed through changes in economic policy and land-use planning.

Smaller landbird species tend to move on a broad front across the landscape on each continent, in some cases encountering significant obstacles to movement, such as deserts, seas or mountain ranges, which they either cross or bypass, depending on their evolutionary adaptations. Optimal terrestrial landscapes for these species on migration are ones that offer suitable and sufficient habitat in which to forage and rest, before and after such long flights and during stopovers. It follows that the availability and maintenance of such habitats in the landscape is a key conservation requirement for these birds.

With climate change increasingly also implicated in migratory bird declines, and likely to have profound impacts in the future, the magnitude of the challenge of landscape conservation only grows, and it remains as a key conservation priority.

2.6.2 Safeguarding a network of important sites

Conservation of migratory species that depend on a network of sites along their flyways strongly benefits from the proper management of these sites. This is perhaps best illustrated for waterbirds, whose flyway movements can often take place along relatively narrow corridors of habitat.

Many waterbirds either overfly or detour around large inhospitable expanses of land or sea that lack suitable wetlands for resting and refueling. They thus concentrate at key sites which serve as staging posts until birds are ready to depart towards the next key site in the network. Where the number of such staging posts is limited, waterbirds can congregate in spectacular fashion, and these sites are crucial to the success of their migratory journeys. In these cases, the loss of one site can have a potentially devastating impact on the population as a whole (e.g. Baker et al. 2004).

Effective management of critical sites, and coordinated planning and management along migration flyways as a whole, are vital to many migratory birds. Various initiatives have been established across the world to promote such conservation efforts; BirdLife International's global network of IBAs; WHSRN in the Americas; the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Site Network and the West/Central Asian Site Network for Siberian Cranes and other waterbirds (WCASN) (see UNEP/CMS 2009).

As an example, BirdLife International's IBA programme provides a platform for planning, prioritizing, advocating and taking action for sites, as well as monitoring the effectiveness of this action. Although initially land-based, the protection of key areas for seabirds is now receiving attention (thanks to the increasing knowledge on seabird distribution patterns at sea), and the IBA programme is being extended to the marine environment (e.g. Hyrenbach et al. 2000, BirdLife International 2004d, Manuel et al. 2009).

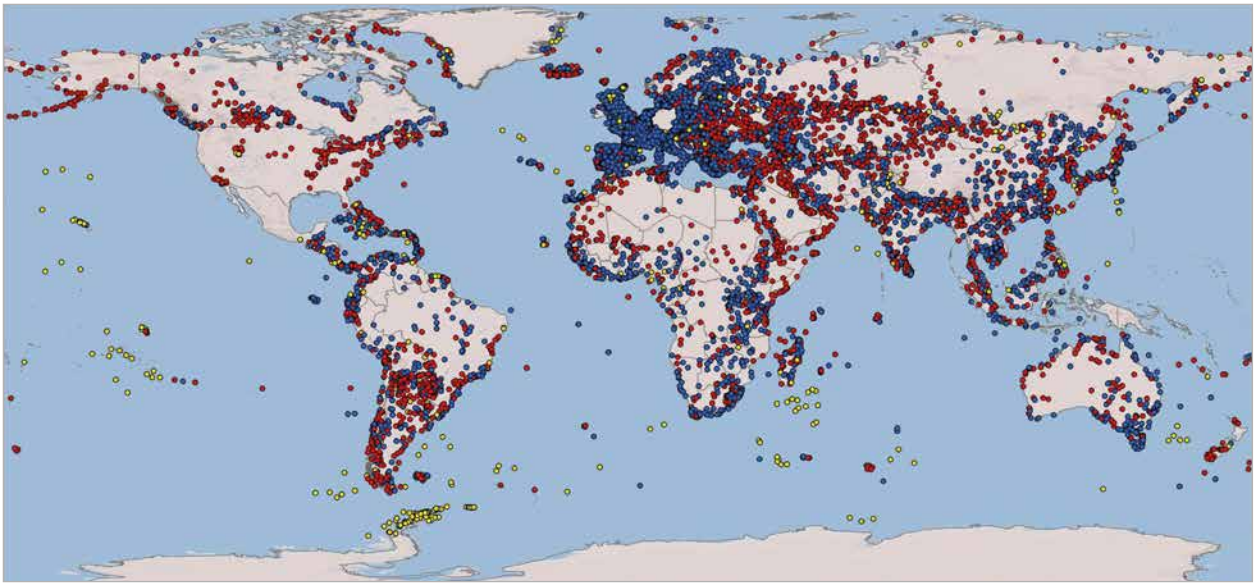
IBAs are identified on the basis of the presence of birds that are globally threatened and near-threatened, spatio-temporally concentrated, geographically restricted, and biome-restricted (details in Annex 2.4: Global Important Bird Area criteria). To date, over 8,400 sites have been identified worldwide on the basis of migratory "trigger" species (see Table 2.8). Of these, 56% have less than 10% of their area formally protected (Figure 2.6).

Table 2.8: Numbers of IBAs identified for significant numbers of migratory species by type and region

Regions	Landbirds	Waterbirds	Soaring birds	Seabirds	TOTAL
Africa	222	526	235	224	**654**
Antarctica	1	9	0	24	**24**
Asia	705	1,155	877	284	**1,460**
Australasia	28	133	14	102	**185**
Caribbean	40	82	3	82	**125**
Central America	57	22	3	5	**98**
Central Asia	216	258	256	132	**367**
Europe	2,180	2,843	1,891	1,318	**4,000**
Middle East	207	210	172	117	**330**
North America	64	333	42	222	**451**
Oceania	0	2	0	7	**28**
South America	549	226	128	94	**694**
TOTAL	**4,269**	**5,799**	**3,621**	**2,611**	**8,416**

Notes: Data are taken from BirdLife's World Bird Database; additional sites may have been identified but are not yet included in the database. Although inventories are progressing, few IBAs for migratory species have been identified in Antarctica, Australasia and Oceania. The sum of the totals by type by region exceeds the total number of IBAs by region as IBAs can be identified for both land- and waterbirds, soaring birds are not exclusive of landbirds or waterbirds, and seabirds are not exclusive of waterbirds. All totals refer to IBAs of global importance. Some IBA criteria are applied at the level of species-assemblage rather than individual species or otherwise cover a mixture of species and have therefore not been analyzed here.

Figure 2.6: IBAs identified for migratory species (≥ 10% protected = blue; < 10% protected = red)



The adequacy of these sites as a network of breeding, non-breeding and passage areas is regularly reviewed by BirdLife International, but through collaboration it is possible to extend these efforts further. An important recent initiative is the 'Wings Over Wetlands' (WOW) project in the AEWA region (see, e.g. Zandri and Prentice 2009, Barnard et al. 2010). WOW aims "to improve the conservation of African–Eurasian migratory waterbirds through implementing measures to conserve the critical network of sites that these birds require to complete their annual cycle, including stop-over sites during migration and in wintering grounds".

The project is a collaborative effort between Wetlands International and BirdLife International, supported by the UNEP-GEF (The Global Environment Facility), The Government of Germany and a wide range of other donors and partners (see www.wingsoverwetlands.org). Central to the project's rationale is the creation of a comprehensive flyway-scale "Critical Site Network Tool" (CSN Tool) to provide public access to the most up-to-date information about waterbird populations and the network of sites they depend upon, within the African-Eurasian region.

Using data on IBAs and International Waterbird Census (IWC) sites as the starting point, the adequacy of the existing site network has been assessed season by season for each population (of close to 300 waterbird species) and the most important (Critical) sites in the region are highlighted in the CSN Tool population by population (see Figure 2.7 for example). Sites included in the CSN Tool embrace breeding, non breeding and stop-over sites used by migratory species during their annual cycles. They are identified using two numerical criteria derived from those also used for the identification of Ramsar sites and IBAs, as follows: the site is known or thought to hold significant numbers of a population of a globally threatened waterbird species (Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable on the IUCN Red List) on a regular or predictable basis; and / or the site is known or thought to hold ≥ 1% of a flyway or other distinct population of a waterbird species on a regular or predictable basis.

The CSN Tool is designed to help a range of different users, from site managers to national authorities and international organizations to access information on waterbirds and the sites they use, and to view it in a flyway context to aid conservation decision-making, allowing weaknesses in site networks to be identified and addressed. The tool directly supports the implementation of AEWA and the Ramsar Convention, and is also very relevant to the EU Birds Directive and the Bern Convention's Emerald Network. The threats facing waterbirds are similar in other regions and urgent conservation action is needed to stem the alarming declines recorded in many populations. The CSN approach could be of great value in highlighting conservation priorities in other regions.

Identifying Important Bird Areas (and, similarly, other network sites) is the first step towards conserving them. Protection should ideally follow. In the AEWA area, hosting over 2,250 IBAs known to support at least one species of migratory waterbird, nearly 40% are currently lacking either statutory national protection or international recognition as Ramsar Sites, natural World Heritage Sites or Biosphere Reserves (unpublished data held in BirdLife's World Bird Database). Few IBA bottleneck sites for migrating raptors in Africa and Eurasia have adequate protection (Goriup and Tucker 2007). Fishpool et al. (2009) identified IBAs important to a selection of Palearctic–West African migratory bird species in five countries (Mauritania, Senegal, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau and Guinea) on the East Atlantic Flyway. Forty-three IBAs were identified as being of global significance for the numbers of migratory species that they regularly hold, however over 50% of these have no formal protection. In the tropical Andes, where IBAs for migratory birds have been recently identified, 43 (37%) are not protected (BirdLife World Bird Database data).

Figure 2.7: The Critical Site Network Tool displaying the four populations of Black-tailed Godwit Limosa limosa which occur within the African-Eurasian region, and the percentage of each population recorded at Critically Important Sites during different stages of the annual cycle.

Implicated in the decline of waterbirds in Asia is poor protection overall of key sites there, leading to damage and destruction of wetlands. The results of an analysis of the status of waterbirds in Asia include information on waterbird numbers at a large variety of sites designated under various international and national instruments including: 116 Ramsar sites, nine World Heritage sites, eight Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Heritage sites, nine Man and Biosphere (MAB) reserves, 502 Important Bird Areas, 55 East Asian–Australasian Flyway Network sites and 417 nationally protected areas. Out of 6,700 wetland sites in Asia covered by this analysis only 1,116 have some form of protected status (Li et al. 2009). The CSN approach pioneered through the WOW project in the African-Eurasian region could be extended to help identify site conservation priorities for waterbirds in Asia.

Effective management of key sites for migratory birds needs to address the whole range of factors that cause direct mortality (e.g. shooting, trapping, collisions, predation, pollution etc.), and those that reduce food supplies or destroy or degrade habitats. Any unnecessary disturbance (e.g. interference, hunting or persecution) that causes birds to expend energy in flight or increase their vigilance should be avoided, and the development of infrastructure such as wind-power, telecommunications and power transmission structures should take proper account of potential impacts on migratory birds.

2.6.3 Addressing species-specific threats

Specific threats highlighted by this review that are of particular significance for migratory birds include: wind turbine developments; power line collisions and electrocutions; illegal trapping and shooting; reclamation of wetlands and pollution, overfishing and the by-catch of seabirds during long-line and trawl fishing operations. These threats are identifiable and will need continued effort to address particular impacts on particular species. It should be noted that CMS has a mandate to do this. Parties to CMS must prohibit the taking of species on Appendix I ("endangered" species, including many globally threatened migrant birds) and assume responsibility for the species' habitats and the obstacles to migration (including buildings, power lines, wind turbines and loss of stopover sites).

An issue to address is the cumulative impacts of wind turbine developments, particularly where they might collectively cause high levels of mortality for migratory birds. There is a need to understand better the individual impacts of turbine developments, especially bird mortality from collisions, and consider what cumulative effect this may have on migratory bird populations, and especially populations in an unfavourable state.

Power line and power pole electrocutions are a significant problem for several flagship bird species. The full scale and the significance of the problem for individual species need to be understood. Building on the work of Demmer et al. (2006), political and practical measures need to be developed,

promoted and implemented to continue to combat electrocution of migrant birds, especially where such a problem is critical. Electrocutions can be prevented by framing poles with sufficient spacing to accommodate large birds, or by covering exposed energized parts. Collisions can be reduced by conspicuously marking power lines with appropriate devices. Electric utilities can develop and implement Avian Protection Plans to minimize bird mortality risks while enhancing power reliability (Liguori 2009). All such measures should be promoted and encouraged.

Strict legal protection is at the heart of CMS and yet there are documented examples of instances where hunting and taking continues illegally and/or in an unsustainable way. Illegal hunting and trapping have been successfully confronted in some regions such as parts of the northern Mediterranean and eastern Asia (e.g. Taiwan). Following on from a multi-stakeholder Sustainable Hunting Project, a regional action plan has been developed for the southern and eastern Mediterranean region that aims to foster 'responsible' hunting (BirdLife International 2007), providing useful guidance for others to follow. These examples show that this threat can be managed and tackled by the signatories to CMS. There are also many examples of sustainably-managed hunting and significant benefits arising from hunting, for example in the form of habitat conservation and protection.

Many international conventions and agreements concern pollution at seas. The most important in the context of seabird conservation are the Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter and Amendments, the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships and Protocol of 1978, and the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea. At a regional level, conventions, agreements and protocols concerning various types of marine pollution have also been concluded for many sea areas (see Scott 1998). Many international instruments and regional agreements are also available to assist and make special provisions for protected areas and wildlife; some call for the establishment of marine and coastal protected areas. Pollution incidents can largely be avoided but responses towards polluters need to be made faster and penalties for these offences made higher (Larsen et al. 2006). A serious concern regarding all of these instruments, however, is a lack of enforcement, which can be especially challenging on the high seas for enforcement agencies.

There are numerous international agreements concerned with fisheries and other marine fauna, many of which are of considerable relevance to seabirds because of their role in the maintenance of the fish stocks and marine food chains. There is a need to continue to work with, and influence, fishery operators so that detrimental impacts on seabirds can be avoided or, at the very least, managed. Comprehensive assessment of gillnet fishery impact on seabird populations is lacking and is an important gap in our knowledge.

Longline and trawlfishing operations in their original form are considered the most important threat to albatrosses and were a major reason for the founding of ACAP. Around a third of albatross deaths are caused by illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing fleets. Government action to stamp out pirate fishing could stop many thousands of albatrosses from dying. It is, however, also necessary to reduce by-catch of albatrosses in legal fisheries. The FAO of the United Nations has developed detailed guidelines to support implementation of its International Plan of Action (IPOA) for combating the bycatch of seabirds within longline fisheries under their regulation (FAO 2009). Fortunately, there are already many simple and inexpensive ways to adjust equipment and ship practices to reduce fishery bycatch (e.g. Robertson 2006).

Fishermen are often unaware of the simple, cost effective techniques that can rapidly reduce albatross deaths. Dramatic results can be achieved by showing them how to use these techniques and telling them about how albatross numbers are declining. Recognising the gap between knowledge, policy and actual action on the deck of fishing vessels, BirdLife's Global Seabird Programme created the Albatross Task Force (ATF) in 2005 to work directly with fishermen, and raise awareness of seabird bycatch and the practical solutions to combat it. Many nations already have the authority to recommend, require and enforce bycatch reduction measures. International instruments for seabird conservation are available to assist and include the UN global driftnet ban, the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries, the FAO's International Plan of Action (IPOA) for Seabirds, and the ACAP. Better engagement with the relevant Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) to encourage implementation of improved mitigation practices is particularly important (Phillips et al. 2006).

Significant progress has been made in the reduction of bycatch of albatrosses and several other species of seabirds during longline and trawlfishing operations, but this remains as a high conservation priority. CMS has a mandate to intervene and an opportunity to influence. Draft resolutions on the conservation of southern hemisphere albatrosses (6.4) and on addressing bycatch (6.10) have previously been prepared (UNEP/CMS undated a, b) and remain relevant today.

To benefit species on Appendix II, parties must seek agreements, ten of which for birds are currently in operation or under development, ranging from single species treaties (e.g. Aquatic Warbler *Acrocephalus paludicola*, Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus*) to those covering huge geographical areas and large numbers of species (e.g. the African–Eurasian Waterbird Agreement). Single Species Action Plans have also been prepared by a range of other organisations such as the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network, BirdLife International and Wetlands International.

Many migratory species have benefited from such international agreements, and species action plans and management programmes have had a positive impact for some (e.g. Black-faced Spoonbill *Platalea minor* in East Asia, Kirtland's Warbler *Dendroica kirtlandii* in North America, and Puna Flamingo *Phoenicoparrus jamesi* in the Andes). Conservation priorities for particular species can be addressed through such action plans, but thematic campaigns that address specific impacts for all species affected also have an important role to play. It is vital, however, that action plans and programmes are correctly managed and resourced and so do not suffer from the common issues of lack of resources, lack of focus, absence of key range states, difficulties with enforcement, poor cross-compliance and coordination (see, e.g., Goriup and Tucker 2005).

As noted by Davidson and Stroud (2006), however, species-focused arguments may not influence decision-makers. More persuasive are likely to be arguments that stress the importance of maintaining and enhancing habitat biodiversity and natural processes which, in turn maintain the ecosystem services upon which both birds and humans depend. A similar message is apparent from UNEP/GEF projects, including WOW and the Siberian Crane Wetland Project (SCWP), whereby promoting flyway conservation from a combination of local, regional or trans-boundary perspectives, with emphasis on multiple conservation and socio-economic benefits rather than purely on bird conservation needs, has demonstrated greater chances of success especially in terms of engaging politicians and decision makers in conservation-oriented decisions (Zandri and Prentice 2009).

2.6.4 Assisting climate change adaptation

As reviewed above, climate change impacts are likely to be critical for a range of migratory birds and this defines climate change adaptation as one of the key conservation priorities for coming years. If species cannot adapt to climate change and cannot be maintained at their present locations, they will only survive if they move into new areas. To facilitate species dispersal a coherent network of protected areas must be established (as discussed above), particularly towards the colder extremities of a species' range and in areas predicted to become drier.

A network of critical sites, not least along the world's flyways, is likely to maximise the potential of migratory birds to adapt to climate change. Such a network would provide a mosaic of the widest possible range of available habitat. Thus, whichever way the climate might locally change, such a diverse critical site network would keep as many doors as possible open to provide potentially suitable habitat in future. The WOW project discussed above provides a promising start to support the development and management of critical sites along avian flyways (Zandri and Prentice 2009, Barnard et al. 2010). It is important to establish and manage these networks to cope with the predicted habitat and species changes facing our planet in the future. Habitat composition is already changing throughout the world in connection with direct anthropogenic land use, but also more indirectly through climatic factors. The spatial and temporal migratory behaviour of many birds such as Trans-Saharan songbirds are also shifting. It is evident that international cooperation is urgently needed as a framework to facilitate the wide-reaching conservation action required.

Although networks of protected areas provide one means of aiding species dispersal, there is also a need to manage the wider countryside in a manner that favours dispersal. This is best achieved by integrating appropriate management into existing policy frameworks such as agri-environment schemes.

For some species, and in some areas, the only option is to minimise other impacts. To this end, limiting wetland drainage, landfilling and degradation and changes to hydrological regimes is important as this will buffer waterbirds against prolonged periods of drought and will also ensure that species can disperse adequately as climate changes.

To provide oceanic bird populations with the best chances of adapting to climate change, existing threats from overfishing, fisheries bycatch and pollution must be addressed. Proactive measures are also needed, such as removing invasive species and protecting existing or potential breeding colonies on high islands (e.g. NABCI 2010).

Conservation programmes must be expanded to include climate change impacts in biological planning, conservation design and habitat protection initiatives. Habitat corridors will be vital to allow birds to move to more suitable areas. Habitat conservation and the protection of core areas in cooperation with farmers and graziers will be required for grassland and aridland birds. The protection of large forest blocks and connecting landscapes by creating corridors will be vital for forest birds. Conserving coastal habitats will require planning and management to facilitate birds' movement and resilience (e.g. minimizing reclamation of intertidal wetlands and protecting foreshores as high tide roost sites is critical for the survival of migratory shorebirds). Minimizing human-caused disturbance to low-lying tundra and high-elevation alpine habitats may help the most vulnerable species adapt to changes (NABCI 2010).

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Annexes

Annex 2.1: Numbers of migratory bird species by type, region and country

Region 1: Americas					
Sub-region	**Landbirds**	**Waterbirds**	**Soaring birds**	**Seabirds**	**TOTAL**
North America	**357**	**208**	**36**	**123**	**621**
Canada	271	172	27	89	471
USA	354	207	36	123	617
Central America	**385**	**173**	**38**	**100**	**603**
Costa Rica	226	107	29	44	353
Guatemala	229	96	28	28	335
Honduras	216	88	27	21	309
Mexico	328	162	37	94	531
Panama	216	88	26	28	315
South America	**464**	**195**	**36**	**126**	**744**
Argentina	302	141	29	64	487
Bolivia	290	95	29	3	385
Brazil	268	118	30	59	423
Chile	121	135	18	90	320
Colombia	285	119	33	45	425
Ecuador	224	112	29	43	355
Peru	257	127	29	56	417
Venezuela	228	103	29	25	340
Caribbean	**233**	**144**	**28**	**55**	**398**
Region 2: Europe, Central Asia, Africa & Middle East					
Sub-region	**Landbirds**	**Waterbirds**	**Soaring birds**	**Seabirds**	**TOTAL**
Europe	**266**	**164**	**49**	**82**	**458**
Azerbaijan	187	123	42	32	312
France	168	124	34	58	310
Greece	179	123	41	38	307
Italy	175	122	35	46	307
Russia (European)	213	143	44	56	369
Spain	174	126	38	63	322
Turkey	205	131	42	37	340
Central Asia	**327**	**154**	**49**	**41**	**485**
Afghanistan	221	98	37	16	319
Kazakhstan	253	133	45	28	386
Russia (Central Asian)	216	126	41	37	346
Turkmenistan	205	125	39	29	332
Uzbekistan	197	116	40	22	313
Middle East	**282**	**169**	**55**	**64**	**468**
Iran, Islamic Republic of	240	149	49	46	395
Iraq	200	127	41	27	328
Israel	200	121	40	37	329
Saudi Arabia	185	117	44	30	307

Annex 2.1 contd.

Sub-region	Landbirds	Waterbirds	Soaring birds	Seabirds	TOTAL
Africa	**363**	**224**	**75**	**122**	**657**
Egypt	184	126	43	38	318
Ethiopia	196	133	60	13	329
Kenya	192	150	57	30	349
South Africa	151	142	49	77	342
Sudan	214	152	61	21	366
Tanzania	182	154	53	29	341
Region 3: Asia–Pacific					
Sub-region	**Landbirds**	**Waterbirds**	**Soaring birds**	**Seabirds**	**TOTAL**
Asia	**708**	**267**	**81**	**105**	**1015**
Bangladesh	200	122	35	17	325
Bhutan	291	58	35	6	349
China (mainland)	541	198	66	62	755
India	453	173	58	47	638
Indonesia	205	121	30	35	343
Japan	174	167	32	77	373
Laos	264	80	34	6	344
Mongolia	197	110	41	19	307
Myanmar	352	134	45	21	488
Nepal	360	119	52	16	479
Pakistan	280	148	48	36	434
Russia (Asian)	253	183	49	68	458
South Korea	172	150	35	42	333
Thailand	298	130	38	27	437
Vietnam	294	134	39	24	432
Australasia	**118**	**98**	**18**	**95**	**289**
Oceania	**55**	**80**	**9**	**62**	**187**

Notes: The sum of the totals by region or type exceeds the total number of migratory species (2,453) because some species occur in more than one region, soaring birds are not exclusive of landbirds or waterbirds, and seabirds are not exclusive of waterbirds. Countries are assigned to regions according to BirdLife's programmatic approach. Only the 50 countries with highest numbers of migratory species are shown. Some countries are very poorly documented particularly in passage areas and thus numbers of species may be under-recorded.

Annex 2.2: Threatened and Near Threatened migratory bird species

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Critically Endangered (CR)																												
Tadorna cristata	Crested Shelduck	F				Y					Y	2																
Phoebastria irrorata	Waved Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y				4									4			Y		Y		
Diomedea amsterdamensis	Amsterdam Albatross	F	↓				Y					1									1		Y			Y		
Diomedea dabbenena	Tristan Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y			7									2			Y		Y		
Pterodroma phaeopygia	Galapagos Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y				6									7		Y					
Pseudobulweria becki	Beck's Petrel	F	↓				Y				Y	2																
Puffinus mauretanicus	Balearic Shearwater	F	↓				Y		Y			8											Y					
Puffinus auricularis	Townsend's Shearwater	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	4																
Geronticus eremita	Northern Bald Ibis	F	↓			Y			Y			10						Y			9	1	Y	Y	Y			
Houbaropsis bengalensis	Bengal Florican	F	↓	Y							Y	5								Y	37							
Grus leucogeranus	Siberian Crane	F	↓		Y	Y			Y	Y	Y	13						Y	Y	Y	55	1	Y	Y	Y			Y
Vanellus gregarius	Sociable Lapwing	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	26						Y	Y		51	1	Y	Y	Y			
Numenius borealis	Eskimo Curlew	F				Y		Y				5		Y	Y								Y	Y				Y
Numenius tenuirostris	Slender-billed Curlew	F	↓			Y			Y	Y		24					Y	Y			42		Y	Y	Y			Y
Eurynorhynchus pygmeus	Spoon-billed Sandpiper	F	↓			Y					Y	16								Y	42		Y	Y				
Sterna bernsteini	Chinese Crested Tern	F	↓			Y	Y				Y	6								Y	4		Y					
Vermivora bachmanii	Bachman's Warbler	F		Y				Y				2			Y													

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Endangered (EN)																												
Branta ruficollis	Red-breasted Goose	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	24					Y				115		Y	Y	Y			
Aythya baeri	Baer's Pochard	F	↓			Y					Y	15								Y	124		Y	Y				
Mergus squamatus	Scaly-sided Merganser	F	↓			Y					Y	9								Y	55			Y				
Oxyura leucocephala	White-headed Duck	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	28					Y	Y	Y		173	10	Y	Y	Y			
Eudyptes moseleyi	Northern Rockhopper Penguin	F	↓				Y		Y			2																
Spheniscus demersus	African Penguin	F	↓				Y		Y			4									13			Y	Y			
Phoebastria nigripes	Black-footed Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	12									4	1		Y		Y		
Diomedea sanfordi	Northern Royal Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	12										1		Y		Y		
Phoebetria fusca	Sooty Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	8									12			Y		Y		
Thalassarche melanophrys	Black-browed Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	15									18	10		Y		Y		
Thalassarche chlororhynchos	Atlantic Yellow-nosed Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y			8									4			Y		Y		
Thalassarche carteri	Indian Yellow-nosed Albatross	F	↓				Y		Y		Y	8									4			Y		Y		
Pterodroma baraui	Barau's Petrel	F	↓				Y		Y		Y	2									2							
Pterodroma atrata	Henderson Petrel	F	↓				Y				Y	1									1		Y					
Pterodroma alba	Phoenix Petrel	F	↓				Y				Y	3									1	1						
Pterodroma madeira	Zino's Petrel	F	↔				Y		Y			2									1							
Pterodroma cahow	Bermuda Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y				2									1		Y					
Pterodroma hasitata	Black-capped Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y				6									3							
Pterodroma incerta	Atlantic Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y	Y			7									2							

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Puffinus huttoni	Hutton's Shearwater	F	↔				Y				Y	2																
Nesofregetta fuliginosa	White-throated Storm-petrel	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	4									1	2						
Oceanodroma homochroa	Ashy Storm-petrel	F	↓				Y	Y				2									2	1						
Pelecanoides garnotii	Peruvian Diving-petrel	F	↓				Y	Y				2									3	6	Y					
Podiceps gallardoi	Hooded Grebe	F	↔			Y		Y				2									8	1						
Ciconia stormi	Storm's Stork	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	5									47							
Ciconia boyciana	Oriental Stork	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	7								Y	89		Y					
Leptoptilos dubius	Greater Adjutant	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	8							Y	Y	42							
Platalea minor	Black-faced Spoonbill	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	10								Y	76		Y					
Gorsachius magnificus	White-eared Night-heron	F	↓			Y					Y	2									12							
Gorsachius goisagi	Japanese Night-heron	F	↓			Y					Y	8								Y	16		Y					
Ardeola idae	Madagascar Pond-heron	F	↓			Y			Y			15						Y			36		Y	Y	Y			
Phalacrocorax neglectus	Bank Cormorant	C	↓			Y	Y		Y			2									9			Y	Y			
Falco cherrug	Saker Falcon	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	55					Y	Y	Y	Y	177	8		Y			Y	
Neophron percnopterus	Egyptian Vulture	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	77				Y	Y	Y	Y		176	8	Y	Y			Y	
Sypheotides indicus	Lesser Florican	F	↓	Y							Y	3							Y		20							
Sarothrura ayresi	White-winged Flufftail	F	↓			Y			Y			3									9		Y	Y	Y			
Grus americana	Whooping Crane	F	↑		Y	Y		Y				2		Y							9			Y				
Grus japonensis	Red-crowned Crane	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	6								Y	101		Y	Y				
Tringa guttifer	Spotted Greenshank	F	↓			Y					Y	18								Y	62		Y	Y				
Sterna lorata	Peruvian Tern	C	↓			Y	Y	Y				3									6	6	Y					

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus	Hyacinth Macaw	F	↓	Y				Y				3									26							
Rhynchopsitta pachyrhyncha	Thick-billed Parrot	N	↓	Y				Y				2										6						
Aratinga solstitialis	Sun Parakeet	N	↓	Y				Y				2									2							
Brotogeris pyrrhoptera	Grey-cheeked Parakeet	C	↓	Y				Y				2									24		Y					
Amazona vinacea	Vinaceous Amazon	N	↓	Y				Y				3									31							
Tachycineta cyaneoviridis	Bahama Swallow	F	↓	Y				Y				3			Y						5							
Acrocephalus griseldis	Basra Reed-warbler	F	↓	Y					Y			13						Y			14		Y	Y				
Zoothera guttata	Spotted Ground-thrush	F	↓	Y					Y			6						Y			25		Y	Y				
Dendroica chrysoparia	Golden-cheeked Warbler	F	↓	Y				Y				6		Y							5	14						
Sporophila palustris	Marsh Seedeater	F	↓	Y				Y				4			Y						39		Y	Y				Y
Vulnerable (VU)																												
Tragopan melanocephalus	Western Tragopan	A	↓	Y							Y	2									23							
Tragopan blythii	Blyth's Tragopan	A	↓	Y							Y	4									34							
Lophophorus sclateri	Sclater's Monal	A	↓	Y							Y	3									14							
Anser cygnoides	Swan Goose	F	↓			Y				Y	Y	8								Y	145		Y	Y				
Anser erythropus	Lesser White-fronted Goose	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	41				Y	Y			Y	206		Y	Y	Y			
Anas formosa	Baikal Teal	F	↓			Y				Y	Y	9								Y	110	1	Y	Y				
Marmaronetta angustirostris	Marbled Teal	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	28				Y		Y	Y		137	6	Y	Y	Y			
Polysticta stelleri	Steller's Eider	F	↓			Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	13				Y				Y	24	2	Y	Y	Y			
Eudyptes chrysocome	Southern Rockhopper Penguin	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	6																
Eudyptes chrysolophus	Macaroni Penguin	F	↓				Y	Y	Y			9									15	4						

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Spheniscus humboldti	Humboldt Penguin	F	↓				Y	Y				2									6	16	Y					
Phoebastria albatrus	Short-tailed Albatross	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	9									4		Y			Y		
Diomedea exulans	Wandering Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	17									13	2		Y		Y		
Diomedea antipodensis	Antipodean Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	4										5		Y		Y		
Diomedea epomophora	Southern Royal Albatross	F	↔				Y	Y	Y		Y	12									1	3		Y		Y		
Thalassarche impavida	Campbell Albatross	F	↑				Y				Y	7										1		Y		Y		
Thalassarche eremita	Chatham Albatross	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	9										2		Y		Y		
Thalassarche salvini	Salvin's Albatross	F					Y	Y	Y		Y	8									1	3		Y		Y		
Thalassarche chrysostoma	Grey-headed Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	14									9	4		Y		Y		
Pterodroma externa	Juan Fernandez Petrel	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	5										1						
Pterodroma sandwichensis	Hawaiian Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	2										1	Y					
Pterodroma solandri	Providence Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	9									2							
Pterodroma pycrofti	Pycroft's Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	4																
Pterodroma longirostris	Stejneger's Petrel	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	9										1						
Pterodroma leucoptera	Gould's Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	11									3							
Pterodroma cookii	Cook's Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	13									1							
Pterodroma cervicalis	White-necked Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	17									1							
Procellaria aequinoctialis	White-chinned Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	17									6	4		Y		Y		
Procellaria conspicillata	Spectacled Petrel	F	↑				Y	Y	Y			6									1			Y		Y		
Procellaria westlandica	Westland Petrel	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	2										4		Y		Y		
Procellaria parkinsoni	Parkinson's Petrel	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	10										3		Y		Y		

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Puffinus bulleri	Buller's Shearwater	F	↑				Y	Y			Y	17									1							
Puffinus creatopus	Pink-footed Shearwater	F					Y	Y				9									2	5	Y					
Puffinus heinrothi	Heinroth's Shearwater	F	↔				Y				Y	2																
Phoenicoparrus andinus	Andean Flamingo	F	↓			Y		Y				4									33	5	Y	Y				Y
Mycteria cinerea	Milky Stork	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	3									35							
Leptoptilos javanicus	Lesser Adjutant	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	13									223							
Geronticus calvus	Southern Bald Ibis	F	↓			Y			Y			3									30							
Egretta vinaceigula	Slaty Egret	C	↓			Y			Y			7									10			Y	Y			
Egretta eulophotes	Chinese Egret	F	↓			Y					Y	14								Y	93		Y					
Balaeniceps rex	Shoebill	C	↓			Y			Y			9									23			Y	Y			
Pelecanus crispus	Dalmatian Pelican	F	↓		Y	Y			Y	Y	Y	31					Y		Y	Y	258		Y	Y	Y			
Morus capensis	Cape Gannet	C	↓				Y		Y		Y	13									10			Y	Y			
Phalacrocorax nigrogularis	Socotra Cormorant	F	↓			Y	Y		Y			10									24			Y	Y			
Falco naumanni	Lesser Kestrel	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	91				Y	Y	Y			334	17	Y	Y			Y	
Haliaeetus leucoryphus	Pallas's Fish-eagle	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	19						Y	Y		149		Y	Y			Y	
Haliaeetus pelagicus	Steller's Sea-eagle	F	↓	Y	Y						Y	5								Y	51		Y	Y			Y	
Gyps coprotheres	Cape Vulture	F	↓	Y	Y				Y			5									30			Y				
Circaetus beaudouini	Beaudouin's Snake-eagle	N	↓	Y	Y				Y			15										1						
Circus maurus	Black Harrier	F	↔	Y	Y				Y			4				Y		Y			23						Y	
Aquila clanga	Greater Spotted Eagle	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	78					Y	Y	Y	Y	357	3	Y	Y			Y	
Aquila adalberti	Spanish Imperial Eagle	C	↑	Y	Y				Y			2									28		Y	Y			Y	

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx1	CMS Appx2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Aquila heliaca	Eastern Imperial Eagle	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	64					Y	Y	Y	Y	369	11	Y	Y			Y	
Otis tarda	Great Bustard	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	37						Y		Y	257	16	Y	Y				Y
Chlamydotis undulata	Houbara Bustard	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	35						Y	Y	Y	45		Y	Y				Y
Coturnicops exquisitus	Swinhoe's Rail	F	↓			Y					Y	6								Y	9							
Rallus antarcticus	Austral Rail	F	↓			Y		Y				2									4	1						
Balearica pavonina	Black Crowned Crane	C	↓		Y	Y			Y			20									9			Y	Y			
Balearica regulorum	Grey Crowned Crane	C	↓		Y	Y			Y			15												Y	Y			
Grus antigone	Sarus Crane	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	9								Y	100							
Grus vipio	White-naped Crane	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	6								Y	78		Y	Y				
Grus paradisea	Blue Crane	C	↓		Y	Y			Y			3									28			Y	Y			
Grus carunculatus	Wattled Crane	C	↓		Y	Y			Y			11									52			Y	Y			
Grus monacha	Hooded Crane	F	↓		Y	Y				Y	Y	7								Y	65		Y	Y				
Grus nigricollis	Black-necked Crane	A	↓		Y	Y					Y	4									47		Y	Y				
Anarhynchus frontalis	Wrybill	F	↓			Y					Y	1												Y				
Gallinago nemoricola	Wood Snipe	F	↓			Y					Y	6							Y	Y	41			Y				
Numenius tahitiensis	Bristle-thighed Curlew	F	↓			Y		Y			Y	22									5	4		Y				
Numenius madagascariensis	Far Eastern Curlew	F	↓			Y		Y			Y	25								Y	36			Y				
Calidris tenuirostris	Great Knot	F	↓			Y			Y		Y	30							Y	Y	34			Y	Y			
Glareola ocularis	Madagascar Pratincole	F	↓			Y			Y			5						Y			4			Y	Y			
Larus atlanticus	Olrog's Gull	F	↓			Y	Y	Y				3			Y						18		Y					
Larus saundersi	Saunders's Gull	F	↓			Y	Y				Y	9								Y	55		Y					

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Larus relictus	Relict Gull	F	↓			Y				Y	Y	6									25		Y					
Rissa brevirostris	Red-legged Kittiwake	F	↓			Y	Y	Y			Y	3									3	1						
Sterna nereis	Fairy Tern	F	↓			Y	Y				Y	3								Y	36							
Rynchops albicollis	Indian Skimmer	F	↓			Y					Y	7									44							
Synthliboramphus wumizusume	Japanese Murrelet	C	↓				Y				Y	3									17		Y					
Columba eversmanni	Pale-backed Pigeon	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	10							Y		23							
Patagioenas oenops	Peruvian Pigeon	F	↓	Y				Y				2									7							
Leptotila ochraceiventris	Ochre-bellied Dove	F	↓	Y				Y				2									19							
Ducula pickeringii	Grey Imperial-pigeon	N	↓	Y							Y	4									17							
Charmosyna palmarum	Palm Lorikeet	N	↓	Y							Y	2																
Ara militaris	Military Macaw	A	↓	Y				Y				7									36	7						
Leptosittaca branickii	Golden-plumed Parakeet	N	↓	Y				Y				3									36							
Touit costaricensis	Red-fronted Parrotlet	A	↓	Y				Y				2									11							
Hapalopsittaca pyrrhops	Red-faced Parrot	A	↓	Y				Y				2									9							
Amazona pretrei	Red-spectacled Amazon	F	↓	Y				Y				2									5							
Apus acuticauda	Dark-rumped Swift	F	↔	Y							Y	3									9							
Dendrocopos dorae	Arabian Woodpecker	A	↓	Y					Y			2									12							
Pitta nympha	Fairy Pitta	F	↓	Y							Y	9								Y	43							
Piprites pileata	Black-capped Piprites	A	↓	Y				Y				2									8							
Procnias tricarunculatus	Three-wattled Bellbird	A	↓	Y				Y				4									26							
Procnias nudicollis	Bare-throated Bellbird	F	↓	Y				Y				3									52							

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx1	CMS Appx2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Cephalopterus glabricollis	Bare-necked Umbrellabird	A	↓	Y				Y				2									9							
Xolmis dominicanus	Black-and-white Monjita	F	↓	Y				Y				3									34							
Alectrurus tricolor	Cock-tailed Tyrant	F	↓	Y				Y				4									19		Y	Y				Y
Alectrurus risora	Strange-tailed Tyrant	F	↓	Y				Y				4									26		Y	Y				Y
Macgregoria pulchra	Ochre-winged Honeyeater	N	↓	Y							Y	2																
Vireo atricapilla	Black-capped Vireo	F	↓	Y				Y				2		Y								6						
Oriolus mellianus	Silver Oriole	F	↓	Y							Y	3								Y	13							
Hirundo atrocaerulea	Blue Swallow	F	↓	Y					Y			10						Y			26		Y	Y				
Chaetornis striata	Bristled Grassbird	F	↓	Y							Y	4							Y		11							
Locustella pleskei	Pleske's Grasshopper-warbler	F	↓	Y							Y	5								Y	21			Y				
Acrocephalus paludicola	Aquatic Warbler	F	↓	Y					Y	Y		23				Y	Y				47	9	Y	Y				Y
Acrocephalus sorghophilus	Streaked Reed-warbler	F	↓	Y							Y	3								Y	4		Y	Y				
Acrocephalus tangorum	Manchurian Reed-warbler	F	↓	Y							Y	6								Y	8			Y				
Phylloscopus ijimae	Izu Leaf-warbler	F	↓	Y							Y	3								Y	10			Y				
Sitta formosa	Beautiful Nuthatch	A	↓	Y							Y	7									39							
Toxostoma bendirei	Bendire's Thrasher	F	↓	Y				Y				2		Y														
Catharus bicknelli	Bicknell's Thrush	F	↓	Y				Y				8			Y						25			Y				
Turdus feae	Grey-sided Thrush	F	↓	Y							Y	5								Y	10			Y				
Luscinia ruficeps	Rufous-headed Robin	F	↓	Y							Y	2								Y	4			Y				
Luscinia obscura	Black-throated Blue Robin	F	↓	Y							Y	2								Y	4			Y				
Saxicola insignis	White-throated Bushchat	F	↓	Y						Y	Y	7							Y		18			Y				

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Rhinomyias brunneatus	Brown-chested Jungle-flycatcher	F	↓	Y							Y	5								Y	35			Y				
Ficedula subrubra	Kashmir Flycatcher	F	↓	Y							Y	4							Y		20			Y				
Cinclus schulzi	Rufous-throated Dipper	A	↓	Y				Y				2									26							
Anthus spragueii	Sprague's Pipit	F	↓	Y				Y				3		Y							2	4						
Serinus syriacus	Syrian Serin	F	↓	Y					Y			7									8		Y					
Dendroica cerulea	Cerulean Warbler	F	↓	Y				Y				18		Y	Y						36		Y					
Xanthopsar flavus	Saffron-cowled Blackbird	C	↓	Y				Y				4									30		Y	Y				
Euphagus carolinus	Rusty Blackbird	F	↓	Y				Y				3		Y	Y						10							
Sturnella defilippii	Pampas Meadowlark	F	↓	Y				Y				3			Y						6							
Emberiza aureola	Yellow-breasted Bunting	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	24							Y	Y	13	3	Y					
Emberiza sulphurata	Yellow Bunting	F	↓	Y							Y	7								Y	5							
Sporophila cinnamomea	Chestnut Seedeater	F	↓	Y				Y				4			Y						42		Y	Y				Y
Conirostrum tamarugense	Tamarugo Conebill	F	↑	Y				Y				2									3	6						
Near Threatened (NT)																												
Coturnix japonica	Japanese Quail	F	↓	Y							Y	11								Y								
Tragopan satyra	Satyr Tragopan	A	↓	Y							Y	4																
Chen canagica	Emperor Goose	F	↓			Y		Y			Y	2								Y	26	1		Y				
Speculanas specularis	Spectacled Duck	F	↔			Y		Y				2			Y						13	4						
Anas falcata	Falcated Duck	F	↓			Y				Y	Y	17								Y	13			Y				
Aythya nyroca	Ferruginous Duck	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	81				Y	Y	Y	Y		302	28	Y	Y	Y			
Oxyura maccoa	Maccoa Duck	C	↓			Y			Y			13									4			Y	Y			

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Pygoscelis papua	Gentoo Penguin	F	↓				Y	Y				7									29							
Spheniscus magellanicus	Magellanic Penguin	F	↓				Y	Y				5									34	7						
Gavia adamsii	Yellow-billed Loon	F	↓			Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	15	Y			Y				Y	2			Y	Y			
Phoebastria immutabilis	Laysan Albatross	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	7										2		Y		Y		
Phoebetria palpebrata	Light-mantled Albatross	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	10									5	2		Y		Y		
Thalassarche cauta	Shy Albatross	F					Y		Y		Y	3												Y		Y		
Thalassarche steadi	White-capped Albatross	F	↓				Y		Y		Y	4										1		Y		Y		
Thalassarche bulleri	Buller's Albatross	F	↔				Y	Y			Y	4										5		Y		Y		
Pterodroma feae	Fea's Petrel	F	↑				Y		Y			3									3							
Pterodroma ultima	Murphy's Petrel	F	↓				Y				Y	2									2							
Pterodroma inexpectata	Mottled Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y			Y	6																
Pseudobulweria rostrata	Tahiti Petrel	F	↓				Y				Y	7									3	1						
Procellaria cinerea	Grey Petrel	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	10									6	1		Y		Y		
Puffinus griseus	Sooty Shearwater	F	↓				Y	Y	Y		Y	25									6	12						
Puffinus yelkouan	Yelkouan Shearwater	F	↓				Y		Y			27									47	7						
Puffinus opisthomelas	Black-vented Shearwater	F					Y	Y				2										3						
Bulweria fallax	Jouanin's Petrel	F	↑				Y		Y			3									6							
Phoenicopterus chilensis	Chilean Flamingo	F	↓			Y		Y				8									109	21		Y				
Phoeniconaias minor	Lesser Flamingo	N	↓			Y			Y		Y	30									65			Y	Y			
Phoenicoparrus jamesi	Puna Flamingo	F	↓			Y		Y				4									20	6	Y	Y				Y
Threskiornis melanocephalus	Black-headed Ibis	F	↓			Y					Y	15								Y	12							

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Egretta rufescens	Reddish Egret	F	↑			Y		Y				29									6	4						
Pelecanus philippensis	Spot-billed Pelican	F	↓		Y	Y					Y	9							Y		127							
Pelecanus thagus	Peruvian Pelican	F	↑		Y	Y	Y	Y				2	Y									1						
Phalacrocorax coronatus	Crowned Cormorant	C	↔			Y	Y		Y			2									9			Y	Y			
Phalacrocorax capensis	Cape Cormorant	C	↕			Y	Y		Y			5									12			Y	Y			
Vultur gryphus	Andean Condor	A	↓	Y	Y			Y				7									123	13		Y				
Falco vespertinus	Red-footed Falcon	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	76					Y	Y			99	5		Y			Y	
Falco concolor	Sooty Falcon	F	↓	Y	Y				Y		Y	30					Y	Y			24			Y			Y	
Elanus scriptus	Letter-winged Kite	N	↕	Y	Y						Y	1									2			Y				
Milvus milvus	Red Kite	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y		45									96	65		Y			Y	
Gyps rueppellii	Rueppell's Vulture	C	↓	Y	Y				Y			27									2	1		Y				
Aegypius monachus	Cinereous Vulture	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	41						Y	Y	Y	108	5		Y			Y	
Terathopius ecaudatus	Bateleur	C	↓	Y	Y				Y															Y			Y	
Circus macrourus	Pallid Harrier	F	↓	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y	98					Y	Y	Y	Y	123	2		Y			Y	
Neotis denhami	Denham's Bustard	F	↓	Y					Y			36																
Tetrax tetrax	Little Bustard	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	25				Y	Y	Y	Y		158							
Laterallus jamaicensis	Black Rail	F	↓			Y		Y				15		Y	Y						6	3						
Porzana paykullii	Band-bellied Crake	F	↓			Y					Y	8								Y								
Pluvianellus socialis	Magellanic Plover	F	↔			Y		Y				2									12	2						
Haematopus moquini	African Oystercatcher	C	↑			Y			Y			2									20			Y	Y			
Charadrius melodus	Piping Plover	F	↑			Y		Y				19		Y	Y						24	2		Y				

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Charadrius pallidus	Chestnut-banded Plover	C	↔			Y			Y			8									5			Y	Y			
Charadrius peronii	Malaysian Plover	C	↓			Y					Y	9									2			Y				
Charadrius montanus	Mountain Plover	F	↓			Y		Y				3	Y	Y							3	3		Y				
Phegornis mitchellii	Diademed Plover	A	↓			Y		Y				4									12	2						
Gallinago media	Great Snipe	F	↓			Y			Y	Y	Y	84				Y	Y	Y			137	2		Y	Y			
Gallinago stricklandii	Fuegian Snipe	F	↓			Y		Y				3									17	3						
Limnodromus semipalmatus	Asian Dowitcher	F	↓			Y				Y	Y	26							Y	Y	13			Y				
Limosa limosa	Black-tailed Godwit	F	↓			Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	132				Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	206	24		Y	Y			
Numenius arquata	Eurasian Curlew	F	↓			Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	143				Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	128	12		Y	Y			
Tryngites subruficollis	Buff-breasted Sandpiper	F	↓			Y		Y			Y	35		Y	Y						25		Y	Y				Y
Glareola nordmanni	Black-winged Pratincole	F	↓			Y			Y	Y		50					Y	Y			100	1		Y	Y			
Larus heermanni	Heermann's Gull	F	↑			Y	Y	Y				3	Y								3	4						
Larus leucophthalmus	White-eyed Gull	C	↔			Y	Y		Y			9									28		Y	Y	Y			
Larus audouinii	Audouin's Gull	F	↔			Y	Y		Y			21				Y					80	4	Y	Y	Y			
Pagophila eburnea	Ivory Gull	F	↓			Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	6									10							
Sterna elegans	Elegant Tern	F	↕			Y	Y	Y				10	Y								5	9						
Sterna balaenarum	Damara Tern	F	↔			Y	Y		Y			12				Y					20			Y	Y			
Larosterna inca	Inca Tern	F	↓			Y	Y	Y				4									1	5						
Rynchops flavirostris	African Skimmer	F	↓			Y			Y			36				Y		Y			16			Y	Y			
Columba janthina	Japanese Wood-pigeon	F	↓	Y							Y	2																
Caloenas nicobarica	Nicobar Pigeon	N	↓	Y							Y	11																

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Treron formosae	Whistling Green-pigeon	F	↓	Y							Y	3																
Ptilinopus jambu	Jambu Fruit-dove	F	↓	Y							Y	5																
Charmosyna meeki	Meek's Lorikeet	N	↓	Y							Y	2																
Charmosyna multistriata	Striated Lorikeet	N	↓	Y							Y	2																
Psittinus cyanurus	Blue-rumped Parrot	N	↓	Y							Y	6																
Psittacula longicauda	Long-tailed Parakeet	N	↓	Y							Y	7																
Aratinga erythrogenys	Red-masked Parakeet	F	↓	Y				Y				2									38							
Nannopsittaca dachilleae	Amazonian Parrotlet	N	↓	Y				Y				2									8							
Alipiopsitta xanthops	Yellow-faced Amazon	N	↓	Y				Y				2									18							
Amazona tucumana	Tucuman Amazon	A	↓	Y				Y				2									39			Y				
Amazona dufresniana	Blue-cheeked Amazon	F	↓	Y				Y				4									6	1						
Cuculus vagans	Moustached Hawk-cuckoo	F	↓	Y							Y	7																
Strix occidentalis	Spotted Owl	A	↓	Y				Y				3									1	7						
Batrachostomus stellatus	Gould's Frogmouth	A	↓	Y							Y	4																
Eleothreptus anomalus	Sickle-winged Nightjar	F	↓	Y				Y				4									28							
Chaetura pelagica	Chimney Swift	F	↓	Y				Y				27		Y	Y													
Eriocnemis derbyi	Black-thighed Puffleg	A	↓	Y				Y				2									16							
Harpactes wardi	Ward's Trogon	A	↓	Y							Y	5																
Priotelus roseigaster	Hispaniolan Trogon	A	↓	Y				Y				2									13							
Pharomachrus mocinno	Resplendent Quetzal	A	↓	Y				Y				7									14	5						
Coracias garrulus	European Roller	F	↓	Y					Y	Y	Y	103				Y	Y	Y			129	19		Y				

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments					
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx 1	CMS Appx 2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Andigena laminirostris	Plate-billed Mountain-toucan	N	↓	Y				Y				2									10							
Melanerpes erythrocephalus	Red-headed Woodpecker	F	↓	Y				Y				3		Y	Y						3							
Phibalura flavirostris	Swallow-tailed Cotinga	F	↓	Y				Y				4			Y						5							
Polystictus pectoralis	Bearded Tachuri	F	↓	Y				Y				10		Y	Y						46	2		Y				Y
Pseudocolopteryx dinelliana	Dinelli's Doradito	F	↓	Y				Y				3		Y							16			Y				
Contopus cooperi	Olive-sided Flycatcher	F	↓	Y				Y				23	Y	Y	Y						24	5						
Spartonoica maluroides	Bay-capped Wren-spinetail	F	↓	Y				Y				4									45							
Vireo bellii	Bell's Vireo	F	↓	Y				Y				6	Y	Y							8	11						
Terpsiphone atrocaudata	Japanese Paradise-flycatcher	F	↓	Y							Y	13								Y				Y				
Petroica phoenicea	Flame Robin	F	↓	Y							Y	1								Y	22			Y				
Bombycilla japonica	Japanese Waxwing	F	↓	Y							Y	6								Y								
Pycnonotus melanoleucos	Black-and-white Bulbul	N	↓	Y							Y	4																
Andropadus montanus	Cameroon Montane Greenbul	A	↓	Y					Y			2									14							
Locustella pryeri	Marsh Grassbird	F	↓	Y							Y	5								Y	11			Y				
Bradypterus major	Long-billed Bush-warbler	A	↓	Y							Y	3									1							
Phylloscopus tytleri	Tytler's Leaf-warbler	F	↓	Y						Y	Y	4							Y		1			Y				
Lioptilus nigricapillus	Bush Blackcap	A	↓	Y					Y			2									16							
Luscinia pectardens	Firethroat	F	↓	Y							Y	2							Y					Y				
Phoenicurus alaschanicus	Ala Shan Redstart	A	↓	Y							Y	1												Y				
Ficedula semitorquata	Semi-collared Flycatcher	F	↓	Y					Y			32					Y				22	1		Y				
Carpodacus cassinii	Cassin's Finch	F	↓	Y				Y				3	Y									2						

Annex 2.2 contd.

Species Name				Type				Region					Global Flyway								IBAs		CMS Instruments						
Scientific	Common	Migration type	Population trend	Landbird	Soaring bird	Waterbird	Seabird	Americas	Africa-Eurasia	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of countries	Pacific Americas	Central Americas	Atlantic Americas	East Atlantic	Black Sea-Mediterranean	West Asia-East Africa	Central Asia	East Asia-Australasia	Number of IBAs	Number of proposed IBAS	CMS Appx1	CMS Appx2	AEWA	ACAP	AEBOP	MoU
Vermivora chrysoptera	Golden-winged Warbler	F	↓	Y				Y				20		Y	Y						39	1						
Vermivora crissalis	Colima Warbler	F	↓	Y				Y				2	Y									7						
Dendroica kirtlandii	Kirtland's Warbler	F	↑	Y				Y				3			Y						3		Y					
Emberiza cineracea	Cinereous Bunting	F	↓	Y					Y			19					Y	Y			23	6						
Emberiza yessoensis	Ochre-rumped Bunting	F	↓	Y							Y	6								Y								
Calcarius ornatus	Chestnut-collared Longspur	F	↓	Y				Y				3		Y							2	2						
Ammodramus henslowii	Henslow's Sparrow	F	↓	Y				Y				2		Y	Y						12							
Sporophila ruficollis	Dark-throated Seedeater	F	↓	Y				Y				5									54			Y				Y
Sporophila hypochroma	Rufous-rumped Seedeater	F	↓	Y				Y				5		Y							27		Y	Y				Y
Passerina ciris	Paint ed Bunting	F	↓	Y				Y				11		Y	Y						20	14						
Data Deficient (DD)																												
Oceanites gracilis	White-vented Storm-petrel	F	↔				Y	Y				4																
Oceanodroma markhami	Markham's Storm-petrel	F					Y	Y				4																
Oceanodroma matsudairae	Matsudaira's Storm-petrel	F					Y		Y		Y	8									1							
Oceanodroma hornbyi	Ringed Storm-petrel	F					Y	Y				2																
Pseudochelidon eurystomina	African River-martin	F	↓	Y					Y			5									5							
Progne sinaloae	Sinaloa Martin	F	↔	Y				Y				2		Y														
Mirafra pulpa	Friedmann's Lark	N	↓	Y					Y			3									4							
Acrocephalus orinus	Large-billed Reed-warbler	F		Y						Y		1												Y				

Key Migration type categories are as follows: F = full migrant; A = altitudinal migrant; N = nomadic; C = species recognised by CMS as migratory but not by BirdLife International. Population trend categories are as follows: ↑ = increasing; ↓ = decreasing; ↔ = stable; ↕ = fluctuating. Other acronyms used include: IBA = Important Bird Area; CMS = Convention on Migratory Species; AEWA = African–Eurasian Waterbird Agreement; ACAP = Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels; AEBOP = Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia; MoU = Memorandum of Understanding.

Annex 2.3: Genuine IUCN Red List changes of migratory birds (1988-2008)

* (F = full migrant; A = altitudinal migrant; N = nomadic; C = species recognised by CMS as migratory but not by BirdLife International)

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Branta ruficollis	Red-breasted Goose	2000-2004	VU	EN	The population increased from the late 1970s to a peak of 88,425 individuals in 2000. Since then it declined to 32,100 individuals in 2005, with the 5-year average decline exceeding 50% during 2000-2004, qualifying the species for uplisting to Endangered under criterion A2. During 1988-2000 it would have qualifed as Vulnerable under criterion B2. Drivers of declines are a combination of hunting, habitat loss and other threats.	F	Y
Aythya baeri	Baer's Pochard	2004-2008	VU	EN	Widespread evidence suggests that the rate of decline exceeded 50% over ten years by 2008, leading to uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criteria A2 and A3. The year that the threshold was crossed is difficult to quantify, but is placed in the period 2004-2008, as by 2008 numbers were said to have „very sharply declined in the last 10 years" (M. Barter in litt. 2007). Drivers of declines are believed to be hunting and loss of wetland habitat.	F	Y
Polysticta stelleri	Steller's Eider	2000-2004	NT	VU	Alaskan populations of this species declined from 137,904 individuals in 1992 to 77,329 individuals in 2003. Given the proportion of the global population they form, the global population decline rate would have exceeded 30% over three generations (12 years) in 2000, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion A2 in 2000. The main drivers of these declines are unknown.	F	Y
Oxyura leucocephala	White-headed Duck	1994-2000	VU	EN	The population of this species underwent a rapid population decline during 1991-2001 in Turkey (10,927 birds in 1991 to 653 in 2001) and further east (eg Turkmenistan), outweighing increases in Spain (in particular) plus Israel, Syria, Greece, Bulgaria and Romania. The overall trend is negative, and the decline is suspected to have exceeded 50% over ten years during 1994-2000, with habitat loss and hunting among the main drivers, qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion A2 by 2000.	F	Y
Spheniscus demersus	African Penguin	2004-2008	VU	EN	The rate of decline experienced by this species increased above 50% over three generations (31 years) in 2007, qualifying it for uplisting from Vulnerable (under the criterion A2a,c,e; A3a,c,e; A4a,c,e) to Endangered (under the same criterion) during 2004-2008, owing to commercial fishing and shifts in prey populations.	F	Y
Spheniscus humboldti	Humboldt Penguin	1994-2000	NT	VU	The population of this species declined from 10,000-12,000 individuals in 1995-1996 to 3,300 individuals in 1999, probably owing to the 1997-1998 ENSO in combination with overfishing, hence crossing the threshold of 10,000 mature individuals and qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion A2 and C1 by 2000.	F	Y
Phoebastria irrorata	Waved Albatross	2000-2004	VU	CR	Awkerman (2006) showed that adult survival declined between 1999 and 2004. There is some evidence to suggest that the population also declined between 1994 and 2001 (e.g. counts at Punta Suarez - Punta Cevallos from Anderson et al 2002), but the population counts provide lower quality data than the mark-recapture estimates of annual survival (D. Anderson in litt. 2006). Given the very restricted breeding range, the species therefore met the thresholds for criterion B2 at the Critically Endangered level during 2000-2004, having previously qualified as Vulnerable (under criterion D2) during 1988-2000. Declines are believed to have primarily been driven by intentional harvesting as well as mortality within inshore fisheries.	F	Y
Phoebastria nigripes	Black-footed Albatross	1994-2000	LC	VU	Declines resulting from bycatch in commercial long-line fisheries are believed to have increased through the 1990s and were projected to exceed 30% over three generations (56 years) by 1994 (which would have qualified the species for uplisting from Least Concern to Vulnerable under criterion A4). By 2004, modelled declines exceeded 50% over three generations, qualifying the species as Endangered (under criterion A4).	F	Y
		2000-2004	VU	EN			

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Diomedea dabbenena	Tristan Albatross	1988-1994	EN	CR	The main driver of population declines is very low adult survival which is probably correlated to longline fishing effort, so decreases of around 80% have probably been happening since the advent of large-scale fishing effort in the western Southern Ocean, which spiked upwards in the late 1980s and continued at high levels into the 1990s (Tuck et al. 2003). Therefore, the population trend is suspected to have exceeded 80% over three generations during 1988-1994, and hence the species qualifed for uplisting from EN to CR under criterion A4 by 1994.	F	Y
Phoebetria fusca	Sooty Albatross	2000-2004	VU	EN	The rate of population decline is suspected to have exceeded 50% over three generations (90 years) during 2000-2004 owing to increased mortality as incidental bycatch on longline fisheries, and hence qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion A4 by 2004.	F	Y
Thalassarche melanophrys	Black-browed Albatross	1994-2000	NT	EN	The rate at which the population of this species is declining is suspected to have exceeded 50% over three generations (22 years) by 2000 (e.g. the Falklands population, comprising 80% of the total, declined by 82% during 1996-2001) owing to increased mortality as incidental bycatch on longline fisheries, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Endangered under criterion A4 by 2000.	F	Y
Pterodroma baraui	Barau's Petrel	1988-1994	EN	CR	In the early 1990s, intensive hunting may have killed up to half the breeding population, with trends over three generations (45 years) believed to have exceeded 80% by 1994 (qualifying the species to be uplisted to Critically Endangered under criterion A). However, successful banning of hunting then reduced the suspected rate of decline, such that the species only qualifed as Endangered (under criterion B) by 2000 (which it would have also qualifed as in 1988).	F	N
		1994-2000	CR	EN			
Pterodroma alba	Phoenix Petrel	2000-2004	VU	EN	Black rats were found to have become established on Kiritimati in 2002, leading to projected declines of 50-79% percent over three generations (45 years) and hence qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered by 2004 under criterion A3.	F	N
Pterodroma cookii	Cook's Petrel	2004-2008	EN	VU	This species qualified for downlisting from Endangered (under criterion B2a+b) to Vulnerable (under criterion D2) during 2004-2008 owing to the improving status of the population (with increasing trends) and habitat, in particular following the successful eradication of the last introduced predators (Pacific rat) on Little Barrier Island (where by far the largest numbers breed), leading to an increase in fledging success from 5% to 70%. This key step in turning the fortunes of the species followed the earlier eradication of cats from Little Barrier Island in 1980, and Weka from Codfish Island in the early 1980s. (Note that Cook's Petrel may have been effectively extinct as a reproductively viable population on Great Barrier Island for several decades, although tiny numbers still occur there.)	F	N
Puffinus mauretanicus	Balearic Shearwater	1994-2000	VU	EN	The population of this species declined more steeply during the 1990s and 2000s, falling from 3,300 pairs in 1991 to 1,447-2,125 pairs in 2002-2003, apparently owing to increases in numbers of cats at the breeding colonies. By 2004, the projected decline within three generations (54 years) had reached 98% (qualifying the species for uplisting to Critically Endangered under criterion A4), and declines of >50% over three generations (qualifying the species as Endangered under criterion A4) are inferred to have been reached by 2000, compared to >30% over three generations (qualifying the species as Vulnerable) during 1988-1994.	F	Y
		2000-2004	EN	CR			
Puffinus opisthomelas	Black-vented Shearwater	2000-2004	VU	NT	The population of this species declined through the 1990s as a result of cat predation and the impacts of other invasive species, but successful eradication of goats and sheep in 1997-1998 and cats in 1999 from Natividad (which holds the vast majority of the world population) reduced mortality dramatically in the 2000s, qualifying the species for downlisting from Vulnerable to Near Threatened under criterion A2 by 2004.	F	N

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Podiceps gallardoi	Hooded Grebe	2000-2004	NT	VU	This species qualifed for uplisting to Endangered (under criterion A2b,c,e) during 2004-2008 owing to declines of >40% over 21 years (three generations) since the late 1990s (based on data from censuses on the wintering grounds). It is likely to have been declining at >30% over three generations by 2004 (when it would have qualifed as Vulnerable under A2b,c,e) and at rates approaching 30% over three generations by 2000 (when it would have qualifed as Near Threatened, approaching the thresholds for A2 and C2ai). Declines appear to have been driven by a mixture of impacts, including introduced salmonids, nest predation by Kelp Gulls, human disturbance, volcanic activity, and overgrazing at lake margins.	F	N
		2004-2008	VU	EN			
Phoenicopterus chilensis	Chilean Flamingo	1988-1994	LC	NT	The rate of population decline of this species is suspected to have approached 30% over ten years during 1988-1994 owing to intensification of several different threats, including hunting, egg-collecting and habitat loss, qualifying the species for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened under criterion A2 by 1994.	F	Y
Phoenicoparrus jamesi	Puna Flamingo	1994-2000	VU	NT	Following a historical decline, this species's population is now increasing owing to successful conservation programmes, with a particularly good breeding season in 1999-2000. The overall trend over three generations (assumed to be 48 years in this species) is still negative however. The decline is suspected to have fallen below 30% during 1994-2000, qualifying the species for downlisting from Vulnerable to Near Threatened under criterion A2 by 2000.	F	Y
Platalea minor	Black-faced Spoonbill	1994-2000	CR	EN	This species's population was projected to undergo an 80% decline over ten years in 1994 owing to a number of threats. However, the implementation of a Species Action Plan from 1995 onwards raised awareness and helped to mitigate some of the threats leading to a much reduced rate of decline (30% over ten years) by 2000, qualifying the species for downlisting from Critically Endangered to Endangered under criterion A3. Note that the population estimate of <250 individuals in 1994 was an underestimate, and it should have been closer to the 1,480 estimated in 2005, which qualifies the species as Endangered under criterion C2ai.	F	Y
Gorsachius goisagi	Japanese Night-heron	1988-1994	VU	EN	The population size is suspected to have fallen below 1,000 mature individuals by 1994 following declines in 1980s and early 1990s, qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion C2 by 1994. Declines have primarily been driven by deforestation in its breeding and wintering ranges.	F	Y
Ardeola idae	Madagascar Pond-heron	1988-1994	VU	EN	This species's population has been in long-term decline owing primarily to exploitation for eggs and young, with the current minimum estimate of 2,000 mature individuals qualifying the species as Endangered under criterion C2. The population is assumed to have fallen below the threshold of 2,500 mature individuals during 1988-1994, and hence would have qualified as Vulnerable in 1988.	F	Y
Pelecanus crispus	Dalmatian Pelican	1994-2000	VU	NT	During the early and mid-1990s, the global population appeared to increase, owing largely to increases in Greece as a consequence of protection of a key breeding colony (with increases also occurring in Bulgaria). The species would therefore have qualified for downlisting from Vulnerable to Near Threatened during 1994-2000. However, the status of eastern populations then deteriorated during the late 1990s and early 2000s, owing to political changes and breakdown of law enforcement, and these declines outweighed increases in south-east Europe (in Montenegro to Romania and Turkey), giving a global decline that exceeded 30% over ten years (and hence qualifed the species as Vulnerable again under criteria A2 and A3) during 2000-2004.	F	Y
		2000-2004	NT	VU			
Phalacrocorax neglectus	Bank Cormorant	1994-2000	VU	EN	The rate at which the population of this species is declining is suspected to have exceeded 50% over three generations (22 years) during 1994-2000 owing to a number of threats (e.g. steep declines were recorded on Mercury and Ichaboe Islands owing to a decreased abundance of goby off central Namibia from 1994 onwards), qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion A2 by 2000.	C	Y

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Falco cherrug	Saker Falcon	1994-2000	LC	NT	The species is believed to have had stable or slowly declining populations trends prior to 1990 but declined from 13,000-27,000 pairs in 1990 to 9,500-17,000 pairs in 2010 owing to unsustainable levels of exploitation, so the rate of decline is estimated to have approached 30% over three generations (19 years) during 2004-2008 (when it would have qualified for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened under criteria A2 & A3), exceeding 30% over three generations by 2009 (when it qualified for uplisting to Vulnerable under criteria A2&A3), and reaching 32% over three generations (based on median estimates) by 2010.	F	Y
Milvus milvus	Red Kite	1994-2000	LC	NT	The European population declined by almost 20% during 1990-2000, equating to almost 30% over three generations (18 years). Germany holds the largest proportion of the European population (42-73%); numbers increased from 1988 to 1991, and then declined until 1997 when they stabilised. The majority of the decline was during 1994-1997, so the species would have qualified for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened (approaching the thresholds for A criteria) by 2000. Declines have been driven by deliberate and accidental poisoning and land use changes.	F	Y
Haliaeetus albicilla	White-tailed Eagle	1994-2000	NT	LC	The European population (representing 50-74% of the global range) grew from 6,600-7,600 individuals in 1990 to 10,000-13,000 individuals in 2000 owing to conservation measures. Taking the mid-point of the estimates, and assuming it represented 74% of the global population, the global population would have exceeded 15,000 birds (an approximate threshold for Near Threatened under criterion C) in the late 1990s and hence qualifying the species for downlisting to Least Concern by 2000. Eastern populations (eg in Kazakhstan) are also increasing.	F	Y
Neophron percnopterus	Egyptian Vulture	2000-2004	LC	EN	Cuthbert et al (2006) indicate that in India the species started undergoing rapid decline (35% per year) in about 1999, and declined by 68% between 2000 and 2003, owing to increasing use of the toxic veterinary drug diclofenac. European populations have declined >50% in the last three generations, and West, East and Southern African populations also appear to have declined significantly owing to a variety of threats. Global declines are therefore estimated to have exceeded 50% over three generations (42 years) in 2000-2004, qualifying the species as Endangered. Declines prior to 1999 are estimated to have approached 30% over three generations, so the species would have qualified as Near Threatened during 1988-2000.	F	Y
Chlamydotis undulata	Houbara Bustard	1994-2000	LC	NT	Population numbers in Kazakhstan decreased by 60% between autumn 1998 and spring 2003, and in China by 77% between 1998 and 2002. The hunting pressure driving these trends is believed to have intensified during the latter part of the 1990s, with global trends inferred to be approaching 30% over three generations by 2000 (which would have qualified the species as NT under the A criteria by 2000) and exceeding this threshold by 2004 (qualifying the species as Vulnerable under criteria A2, A3, A4 by then). (Note that declines in the Canary islands have little impact on the global trends, given the small size of the population there).	F	Y
		2000-2004	NT	VU			
Neotis denhami	Denham's Bustard	1994-2000	LC	NT	The rate of decline of this species's population is suspected to have approached 30% over ten years during 1994-2000, owing to intense levels of hunting combined with habitat loss, qualifying the species for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened under criterion A by 2000.	F	N
Houbaropsis bengalensis	Bengal Florican	2004-2008	EN	CR	Large areas of habitat at the species's stronghold in Cambodia were converted to rice paddies during 2004-2006, causing the rate of decline over three generations to exceed 80% (hence qualifying the species to be uplisted from Endangered to Critically Endangered under criteria A3+A4) during 2004-2008.	F	N

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Sypheotides indicus	Lesser Florican	1988-1994	CR	EN	The population size of this species declined by nearly 60% (from 4,374 to 1,672 birds) during 1982-1989, but then increased by 32% to 2,206 birds by 1994 (in both cases in response to breeding season rainfall patterns); these trends meant that the decline over ten years fell below 80% during 1988-1994 and that the species qualified for downlisting from Critically Endangered to Endangered under criterion A2 by 1994.	F	N
Balearica pavonina	Black Crowned-crane	1988-1994	LC	NT	Based on populations estimates available for 1985, 1994 and 2004, the rate of population decline of this species is estimated to have approached 30% over 39 years (three generations) during 1998-1994 and exceeded 30% over 39 years during 1994-2000 owing to habitat loss, hunting and other threats, qualifying the species for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened under criterion A2, A3, A4 during 1988-1994 and from Near Threatened to Vulnerable (under the same criteria) during 1994-2000.	C	Y
		1994-2000	NT	VU			
Grus monacha	Hooded Crane	1994-2000	NT	VU	The number of sites at which this species is concentrated in winter fell to ten (covering an area of <2000 km2) during 1994-2000 owing to the abandonment of one site in South Korea (Taegu) owing to greenhouse construction, and the loss of sites in the Yangtze wetlands (including Longgan Hu) owing to agricultural development. This qualified the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion B2 by 2000.	F	Y
Vanellus gregarius	Sociable Lapwing	2000-2004	EN	CR	The rate of population decline was suspected to have exceeded 80% over ten years during 2000-2004, on the basis of surveys showing very steep recent declines that were projected to continue, leading to uplisting from Endangered to Critically Endangered under criteria A3 and A4 by 2004. Reasons for the decline remain poorly understood.	F	Y
Limosa limosa	Black-tailed Godwit	2000-2004	LC	NT	This species declined by 14-33% between 1990 and 2005. Taking the upper value, the decline rate would have exceeded 25% (the approximate threshold for NT under the A criteria) during the period 2000-2004 and it has therefore been uplisted to Near Threatened. These declines were largely driven by trends in Europe (caused by changing agricultural practises), outweighing apparently stable trends in Central Asia and increases in Iceland.	F	Y
Numenius arquata	Eurasian Curlew	1994-2000	LC	NT	The population decline of this species is suspected to have approached 30% over three generations (15 years) during 1994-2000, leading to the species qualifying as Near Threatened under the A criteria by 2000. This was largely driven by declines in Europe (including the key population in the UK), but also partly as a consequence of large scale habitat changes following the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 (e.g. a substantial decrease in state livestock numbers in Kazakhstan led to significantly higher and denser vegetation in many areas of long-grass and forest steppe).	F	Y
Eurynorhynchus pygmeus	Spoon-billed Sandpiper	1994-2000	VU	EN	The population of this species is suspected to have fallen below 2,500 mature individuals during 1994-2000, (surveys in 2000 and 2002 indicated severe recent declines, with the population estimated to number <2,500 individuals by 2002), qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion C2a(ii) by 2000. The population then declined further between 2000 and 2005, at a rate equivalent to 94-96% over three generations (15 years) qualifying the species for uplisting to Critically Endangered under criterion A2 by 2004. Declines are driven by uncertain factors, but climate change induced habitat changes on the breeding grounds and loss of coastal wetland sites used during the non-breeding season are suspected to be the drivers.	F	Y
		2004-2008	EN	CR			
Larus relictus	Relict Gull	1994-2000	NT	VU	The population size of this species is suspected to have declined below 10,000 mature individuals during 1994-2000, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion C2aii by 2000. Declines have been driven by climate change and human disturbance at breeding colonies along with reclamation of coastal wetlands for development.	F	Y

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Sterna nereis	Fairy Tern	2004-2008	NT	VU	The population of this species fell below 10,000 mature individuals, and the decline rate exceeded 10% over three generations (30 years) during 2004-2008, owing in particular to the collapse of the population at Coorong, South Australia (where, for example <5% of the birds counted were juveniles each year during 2003-2007 despite most individuals attempting to breed each year), owing to inappropriate water level management (and hence collapsed fish stocks) plus predation by introduced foxes.This qualified the species for uplisting to Vulnerable under criterion C1 by 2008. It would previously have qualified as Near Threatened.	F	N
Rynchops flavirostris	African Skimmer	1988-1994	LC	NT	The population size of this species is suspected to have declined during 1988-1994 to 15,000-25,000 birds (and hence approaching the thresholds for Vulnerable under criteria C1 and C2) owing to a number of threats, qualifying the species for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened by 1994.	F	Y
Columba eversmanni	Pale-backed Pigeon	1988-1994	NT	VU	The suspected rate of population decline increased (owing to dramatic declines in central Asia in particular) to exceed 30% over ten years by 1994, qualifying the species to be uplisted from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion A2 by 1994. Declines have been driven by hunting and habitat loss.	F	N
Ptilinopus jambu	Jambu Fruit-dove	1994-2000	LC	NT	Accelerating habitat loss in the Sundaic lowlands through the 1990s is believed to have caused the rate of population decline to approach 30% over ten years by 2000, hence qualifying the species as Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000.	F	N
Psittacula longicauda	Long-tailed Parakeet	1994-2000	LC	NT	Accelerating habitat loss in the Sundaic lowlands through the 1990s is believed to have caused the rate of population decline to approach 30% over ten years by 2000, hence qualifying the species as Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000.	N	N
Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus	Hyacinth Macaw	1994-2000	VU	EN	The rate of decline of this species's population is suspected to have exceeded 50% over ten years during 1994-2000, owing to intensifying exploitation for the cagebird trade, in combination with other threats, qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion A2 by 2000.	F	N
Brotogeris pyrrhoptera	Grey-cheeked Parakeet	1988-1994	VU	EN	The rate of population decline of this species is suspected to have exceeded 50% over ten years during 1988-1994 (owing to intensified trapping for the cage-bird trade), qualifying the species for uplisting from Vulnerable to Endangered under criterion A2 by 1994.	C	Y
Hapalopsittaca pyrrhops	Red-faced Parrot	1988-1994	NT	VU	The species's population has declined owing to habitat destruction, with the rate of decline believed to have increased from below 30% over ten years in 1988 (when the species qualified as Near Threatened) to >30% over ten years by 1994 and subsequently (qualifying the species as Vulnerable under criterion A2). Similarly, the population size is likely to have fallen below 10,000 mature individuals during 1988-1994 owing to these declines.	A	N
Cuculus vagans	Moustached Hawk-cuckoo	1994-2000	LC	NT	Accelerating habitat loss in the Sundaic lowlands through the 1990s is believed to have caused the rate of population decline to approach 30% over ten years by 2000, hence qualifying the species as Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000.	F	N
Batrachostomus stellatus	Gould's Frogmouth	1994-2000	LC	NT	Accelerating habitat loss in the Sundaic lowlands through the 1990s is believed to have caused the rate of population decline to approach 30% over ten years by 2000, hence qualifying the species as Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000.	A	N

Annex 2.3 contd.

Scientific name	Common name	Period	Category at start of period	Category at end of period	Notes	Migrant status for 2010 CMS review *	On CMS appendices or instruments
Coracias garrulus	European Roller	1994-2000	LC	NT	Although populations on this species in central Asia are apparently stable, the European population (occupying 50-74% of the global breeding range) declined moderately during 1970-1990 (Tucker & Heath 1994) and declined severely during 1990-2000, when up to 25% of birds were lost (including key populations in Turkey and European Russia), with the global population decline estimated to approach 30% in three generations (15 years) during that period, and hence the species would have qualified for uplisting to Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000. Declines have been driven by a number of factors including habitat loss and degradation, and hunting.	F	Y
Procnias nudicollis	Bare-throated Bellbird	2000-2004	NT	VU	The rate of population decline is suspected to have exceeded 30% during 2000-2004 owing to increased trapping pressure and continuing habitat loss, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion A2 by 2004.	F	N
Pycnonotus melanoleucos	Black-and-white Bulbul	1994-2000	LC	NT	Accelerating habitat loss in the Sundaic lowlands through the 1990s is believed to have caused the rate of population decline to approach 30% over ten years by 2000, hence qualifying the species as Near Threatened (under the A criteria) by 2000.	N	N
Acrocephalus griseldis	Basra Reed-warbler	1994-2000	NT	VU	The species has lost habitat owing to drainage of marshes since the 1950s, with rates over ten years suspected to have approached 30%, (qualifying the species as Near Threatened) during 1988-1994. Habitat loss accelerated during the 1990s and early 2000s, with declines suspected to have reached >30% over the previous ten years by 2000 (which would have qualified the species as Vulnerable under the A criteria then), and >50% over ten years (qualifying the species as Endangered under the A criteria) by 2004.	F	Y
		2000-2004	VU	EN			
Serinus syriacus	Syrian Serin	1994-2000	NT	VU	The small population, previously thought to be stable, declined at key sites during 1996-2000, principally due to the effects of a drought, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion C1.	F	Y
Vermivora bachmanii	Bachman's Warbler	1988-1994	CR	CR(PE)	The last reasonably convincing record was in 1988, since when the species is likely to have gone extinct; hence this species qualified as Possibly Extinct by 1994. Past declines were driven by habitat loss on its breeding and wintering grounds.	F	N
Dendroica kirtlandii	Kirtland's Warbler	1988-1994	VU	NT	The area of suitable habitat for this species doubled between 1987 and 1990, leading to a population increase (reaching 500 singing males by 1994). This meant that by 1994 it no longer would have qualified as Vulnerable under criterion D2 because it was no longer so restricted in distribution and so susceptible to stochastic events and human activities, and hence would have been downlisted to Near Threatened (under criteria C2 and D2).	F	Y
Emberiza aureola	Yellow-breasted Bunting	1994-2000	NT	VU	The rate of population decline of this species is suspected to have exceeded 30% over ten years during 1994-2000 owing to intensification of trapping pressures during the late 1990s, qualifying the species for uplisting from Near Threatened to Vulnerable under criterion A2 by 2000.	F	Y
Chaetura pelagica	Chimney Swift	1994-2000	LC	NT	The rate of decline shown by this species based on data from the Breeding Bird Survey increased above 25% over three generations (16 years) in 1997, qualifying it for uplisting from Least Concern to Near Threatened (almost meeting criterion A2b,c) during the period 1994-2000. The primary driver of declines is believed to be the ongoing reduction in availability of suitable nesting habitat in buildings.	F	N

Annex 2.4. Analytical methods

Migratory status

All bird species are coded in BirdLife's World Bird Database according to their migratory status (see definitions below and BirdLife International 2010). This assessment of migratory status has drawn on a small number of key references including Stotz et al. (1996), Handbook of the birds of the world (ed. J. del Hoyo et al. 1992–present, Barcelona: Lynx Edicions) and the Global Register of Migratory Species (see www.groms.de), regional handbooks, fieldguides and family monographs, as well as expert opinion synthesised in BirdLife's Species Factsheets and range maps (see www.birdlife.org/datazone/species/index.html). The World Bird Database is constantly being updated and revised; the analyses in this paper were based on data accessed on 1st April 2010).

Migratory—a substantial proportion of the global or regional population makes regular or seasonal cyclical movements beyond the breeding range, with predictable timing and destinations. This includes species that may be migratory only in part of their range or part of their population, short-distance migrants and full migrants that may also occasionally respond to unusual conditions in a semi-nomadic way. Migratory species may require conservation action (at specific sites, or beyond sites) along migration routes. Following the definitions of Dodman and Diagana (2007), this excludes "rains migrants/arid migrants" i.e. species which move with unpredictable timing and destination in response to irregular rainfall patterns, "nutrition migrants/post-roost dispersers" i.e. species that disperse daily from roosts to forage, "post-breeding dispersers" which may not make cyclical movements i.e. dispersers that may not return to the same breeding area, and "environmental response migrants" i.e. species that move opportunistically in response to irregular environmental conditions such as rainfall, fire, locust eruptions etc..

Altitudinal migrant—regularly/seasonally makes cyclical movements to higher/lower elevations with predictable timing and destinations. Altitudinal migrants might not be best conserved at the site scale alone, if individual sites do not encompass the full altitudinal range of the species.

Nomadic species—moves in response to resources that are sporadic and unpredictable in distribution and timing, sometimes wandering widely through an extremely large home range. Nomadic species may congregate, but not predictably in terms of location and timing. Nomadic species usually cannot be conserved at the site scale alone. This excludes "environmental response migrants" (Dodman and Diagana 2007) i.e. species that are largely resident but move opportunistically in response to irregular environmental conditions such as rainfall, fire, locust eruptions etc.

Non-migratory—not nomadic (q.v.) or migratory (q.v).

Migratory patterns

In the Americas, there are two fundamentally distinct patterns of long-distance latitudinal migration: 1) birds breeding in temperate North America that migrate south to warmer climes for the winter; 2) birds breeding in temperate South America that migrate north to winter in warmer climes. Since the 1980s, the term "Neotropical migrant" has often been used to refer to the first category of species. As a result, the term "Austral migrant" has had to be used for Neotropical bird species migrating within the Neotropical realm. However, "Austral migrant" could equally be applied to birds breeding in southern Africa, Antarctica or Australia and migrating north for the winter. One solution that has been proposed is the use of the term "Neotropical migrant" for all bird species wintering within the Neotropics, but then how can the two major systems of migration be differentiated? The primary difference between species wintering within the tropical regions of the world is where they breed. It makes better sense to name the migrants/migration patterns after the biogeographical realms where they breed. The following terms, mostly suggested by Hayes (1995), have therefore been used in this paper, where appropriate:

- Austral migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the southern hemisphere and regularly migrates northward during the non-breeding season.
- Australian migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the Australasian realm and that regularly migrates northward during the non-breeding season.
- Boreal migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the northern hemisphere and regularly migrates southward during the non-breeding season.
- Intra-African migrant—any species of bird or population of a species breeding in Africa that regularly migrates within Africa during the non-breeding season.
- Intra-tropical migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the tropics, and regularly migrates to another area within the tropics.
- Nearctic migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in North America and regularly migrates southward during the non-breeding season.
- Neotropical migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the Neotropics and regularly migrates northward during the non-breeding season.
- Palearctic migrant—any species of bird or population of a species that breeds in the Palearctic and regularly migrates southward during the non-breeding season.

In order to distinguish between, e.g., (1) Nearctic migrants that migrate entirely within the Nearctic and (2) those that migrate to the Neotropics, the following additional terms are used: "Nearctic–Nearctic migrants" and "Nearctic–Neotropical migrants", respectively, with other combinations as appropriate.

IUCN Red List Index

The IUCN Red List is widely recognised as the most authoritative and objective system for classifying species by their risk of extinction (see, e.g. Regan et al. 2005, de Grammont and Cuarón 2006, Rodrigues et al. 2006). It uses quantitative criteria based on population size, rate of decline, and area of distribution to assign species to categories of relative extinction risk (IUCN 2001, 2005). BirdLife International, as the Red List Authority for birds, provides the evaluations and documentation for all birds on the IUCN Red List.

The Red List Index (RLI) has been developed as an indicator of trends in the status of biodiversity. It is based on the movement of species through the categories of the IUCN Red List (Butchart et al. 2004, 2005, 2007). The RLI shows changes in the overall extinction risk of sets of species, with RLI values relating to the proportion of species expected to remain extant in the near future without additional conservation action.

The RLI is calculated from the number of species in each Red List category (Least Concern, Near Threatened, Vulnerable, Endangered, Critically Endangered), and the number changing categories between assessments as a result of genuine improvement or deterioration in status (category changes owing to improved knowledge or revised taxonomy are excluded). The methodology is described in detail in Butchart et al. (2004, 2005), updated by Butchart et al. (2007). An RLI value is calculated as follows:

$$RLI_t = 1 - \frac{\sum_s W_{c(t,s)}}{W_{EX} \cdot N}$$

where Wc(t,s) is the weight of category c for species s at time t, which ranges from 1 for Near Threatened to 5 for Extinct (WEX), and N is the number of assessed (non-data deficient) species. Put simply, the number of species in each Red List category is multiplied by the category weight, these products are summed, divided by the maximum possible product (the number of species multiplied by the maximum weight), and subtracted from one. This produces an index that ranges from 0 to 1 (see below).

These conditions are met by back-casting all "non-genuine" category changes (i.e. those resulting from improved knowledge or revised taxonomy, rather than genuine improvement or deterioration in the status of species) to the year of first assessment (1988 for birds). In other words, for birds, we assume that species should have been classified at their current Red List category since 1988, apart from those species for which genuine category changes have occurred, in which case the category changes are assigned to appropriate time periods, corresponding to the dates in which all species were reassessed (see Collar and Andrew 1988, Collar et al. 1994, BirdLife International 2000, BirdLife International 2004c, BirdLife International 2008a). To determine these genuine cases, all category changes during 1988–2008 were assigned a "reason for change", allowing genuine ones to be distinguished from those resulting from improved knowledge or taxonomic revisions (see Butchart et al. 2004, 2005, 2007 for further details).

RLI values relate to the proportion of species expected to remain extant in the near future without conservation action. An RLI value of 1.0 equates to all species being categorised as Least Concern, and hence that none are expected to go extinct in the near future. An RLI value of zero indicates that all species have gone Extinct. A downwards trend in the graph line (i.e. decreasing RLI values) means that the expected rate of species extinctions is increasing i.e. that the rate of biodiversity loss is increasing. A horizontal graph line (i.e. unchanging RLI values) means that the expected rate of species extinctions is unchanged. An upward trend in the graph line (i.e. increasing RLI values) means that there is a decrease in expected future rate of species extinctions (i.e. a reduction in the rate of biodiversity loss).

Threat analysis

All threatened and near-threatened bird species are coded in BirdLife's World Bird Database according to the threats that impact on them and contribute to the IUCN Red List criteria and categories assigned. The hierarchical classification scheme of threats follows Salafsky et al. (2008) (see http://conservationmeasures.org). These threats can be in the past and/or present and/or future, using a time frame of three generations or ten years, whichever is the longer (not exceeding 100 years in the future) as required by the Red List criteria. The scheme has three different levels: each first-level threat is subdivided into several second-level threats which are, in turn, subdivided into numerous third-level threats. For the analysis of main threats to threatened and near-threatened migratory species (Figure 2.5), a combination of "level 1" and "level 2" threats were considered, irrespective of magnitude, in order to give a general overview.

Global Important Bird Area criteria

A1. Globally threatened species

The site qualifies if it is known, estimated or thought to hold a population of a species categorized by the IUCN Red List as Critically Endangered, Endangered or Vulnerable. In general, the regular presence of a Critical or Endangered species, irrespective of population size, at a site may be sufficient for a site to qualify as an IBA. For Vulnerable species, the presence of more than threshold numbers at a site is necessary to trigger selection. Thresholds are set regionally, often on a species by species basis. The site may also qualify under this category if it holds more than threshold numbers of other species of global conservation concern in the Near Threatened, Data Deficient and, formerly, in the no-longer recognised Conservation Dependent categories. Again, thresholds are set regionally.

A2. Restricted-range species

The site forms one of a set selected to ensure that, as far as possible, all restricted-range species of an Endemic Bird Area (EBA) or Secondary Area (SA) are present in significant numbers in at least one site and, preferably, more. The term "significant component" is intended to avoid selecting sites solely on the presence of one or more restricted range species that are common and adaptable within the EBA and, therefore, occur at other chosen sites.

Sites may, however, be chosen for one or a few species that would, e.g. because of particular habitat requirements, be otherwise under-represented.

A3. Biome-restricted species

The site forms one of a set selected to ensure, as far as possible, adequate representation of all species restricted to a given biome, both across the biome as a whole and, as necessary, for all of its species in each range state. The "significant component" term in the category definition is intended to avoid selecting sites solely on the presence of one or a few biome-restricted species that are common, widespread and adaptable within the biome and, therefore, occur at other chosen sites. Additional sites may, however, be chosen for the presence of one or a few species which would, e.g. for reasons of particular habitat requirements, be otherwise under-represented.

A4. Congregations

i. This applies to "waterbird" species as defined by Delany and Scott (2006), and is modelled on criterion 6 of the Ramsar Convention for identifying wetlands of international importance. Depending upon how species are distributed, the 1% thresholds for the biogeographic populations may be taken directly from Delaney and Scott, they may be generated by combining flyway populations within a biogeographic region or, for those for which no quantitative thresholds are given, they are determined regionally or inter-regionally, as appropriate, using the best available information.
ii. This includes those seabird species not covered by Delany and Scott (2006). Quantitative data are taken from a variety of published and unpublished sources.
iii. This is modelled on citerion 5 of the Ramsar Convention for identifying wetlands of international importance. Where quantitative data are good enough to permit the application of A4i and A4ii, the use of this criterion is discouraged.
iv. The site is known or thought to exceed thresholds set for migratory species at bottleneck sites. Thresholds are set regionally or inter-regionally, as appropriate.

Annex 2.5: Recommendations important to migratory bird conservation

General

1. Given the vast body of literature on migratory birds, a series of thematic reviews are recommended that should be updated on a 5-yearly rolling basis, at least until the topics of the reviews diminish in importance. Key reviews needed include:

    - Impacts of coastal development projects, particularly intertidal wetland reclamation, on migratory waterbird populations.
    - Impacts of habitat loss and degradation on migratory birds.
    - Impacts of agriculture and aquaculture on migratory birds.
    - Impacts of human population growth and projected land use changes in different continents on migratory birds.
    - Impacts of renewable energy projects, including wind turbine installations and power distribution infrastructure, on migratory birds.
    - Harvesting, shooting and trapping impacts, including illegal persecution.
    - Fishery impacts on marine migratory birds.
    - Non-native species impacts on migratory birds.

    Do not halt political nor practical conservation action whilst waiting for these reviews. Actions must be taken now to protect and benefit migratory birds; the reviews will merely help assess priorities and monitor the effectiveness of action implementation.

2. In the interests of promoting migratory waterbird conservation, make these reviews, as well as status reports, flyway atlases and other key documents, freely available over the internet and in attractive and user-friendly formats.

3. Review data management initiatives and consider how best to link and develop migratory bird knowledge and shared access to research data and outputs.

Monitoring

4. Continue to support and stregthen monitoring migratory bird populations so that changes can be detected early and appropriate action implemented rapidly, e.g. applicable to the International Waterbird Census Scheme, IBA monitoring etc.

5. Where possible expand the geographical and temporal coverage of monitoring programmes to ensure complete (sampled) coverage of species' ranges and coverage of all periods of active migration.

6. Develop a list of objective questions to aid biologists and managers in evaluating their monitoring programme's effectiveness in advancing local and flyway-scale monitoring goals.

7. Increase the capacity of monitoring organisations to provide more effective monitoring leadership at the flyway scale, especially for species thought or known to be declining across their range.

8. Develop and implement coordinated, region wide programmes to collect, assess, and distribute data to better assess the status of seabird populations.

9. Establish and continue trend analyses, and further analyse existing data-sets, in order to provide key information on understudied groups, such as many long-distance migrants from outside of Europe and intra-African migrants.

Research

10. Facilitate further and better analysis of existing data from marking and counting programmes.

11. Collate and present more information on the distribution and ecology of migratory species, and especially the migration routes that they follow, to all key stakeholders.

12. Maintain, and if possible increase (where alternative methods do not offer better return for investment), current levels of ringing, banding and colour-marking activity, in order to improve knowledge of the movements and survival of migratory birds.

13. Further exploit the capability of relatively new technologies, such as radio and satellite tracking, remote sensing and genetic analyses, to research flyways and the migration routes of birds.

14. Strengthen bird research worldwide, especially in areas where little or no marking and counting schemes have operated in the past.

Threats

Strategic research on threats

15. Continue to collate and review threat information for migratory birds with a view to quantifying the significance of each and the scale and intensity of pressures on birds.

16. Research whether the mortality from threats is compensatory (not causing extra deaths overall) or additive, to provide key information for the identification of population-level impacts.

17. Carry out vulnerability analyses to more clearly identify main threats and link to local action and advocacy.

18. Research the cumulative impacts of key threats, both individually and collectively.

Implementation to address threats

19. Provide alternative livelihood schemes to those that lead to deforestation.

20. Identify and develop campaigns that will be effective in addressing the most significant of migratory bird threats.

Addressing obstacles to migration from infrastructure

21. Identify areas of high risk from new energy infrastructure to bird populations throughout their life cycle, including migration, with sufficient statistical power to determine the effectiveness of regulations, practices, and mitigation.

22. Research the risk of collision with glass to migratory birds in different regions of the world.

23. Develop a sensitivity map for windmills, powerlines etc. along the flyways.

24. Ensure best practice, and exercise extreme caution, in the location and construction of man-made structures in sensitive areas for migratory birds, especially wind turbines and power transmission and telecommunication cables.

25. Continue and expand education and practical measures to address the problem of bird electrocutions, especially where this impacts on endangered bird species worldwide.

Hunting

26. Collate up-to-date information on the current shooting and trapping levels on migration routes, including a systematic assessment of the numbers of soaring birds killed at bottleneck sites by hunters.

27. Review impacts of hunting and hunting regulations, and identify gaps in enforcement and legislation, linked to specific areas/species where this is a real priority.

28. Review and assess the significance of human disturbance (from hunting, sport and leisure) in displacement from key sites and in depressing the size of bird populations.

28. Seek to ensure full implementation of, and adherence to, species protection and hunting regulations.

29. Encourage coordinated international legal protection for species at risk.

Disease

30. Continue to research the relative significance of different modes of spread of diseases (e.g. avian influenza HPAI H5N1) by migratory birds.

31. Support the investigations of the international Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds (and other similar fora including FAO).

Pollution

32. Encourage research to understand the long-term effects of pollution, especially marine pollution, on migratory bird populations.

33. Support and encourage the continuation and expansion of beached bird surveys which provide an important tool for monitoring the level of oil pollution at sea.

34. Strive for effective implementation of the many international instruments for the prevention and control of marine pollution in order to provide for the welfare of pelagic seabirds.

Fisheries

35. Encourage research on the extent to which collapses in fish stocks of significance to marine birds can be attributed to fishing effort rather than natural factors.

36. Carry out a comprehensive assessment of gillnet fishery impact on migratory bird populations.

37. Continue to work with, and influence, fishery operators so that detrimental impacts on seabirds can be avoided or, at the very least, managed (e.g. for longline and gillnet fisheries).

38. Strive for effective implementation of the many international instruments for the regulation of fishing activities, in order to provide for the welfare of pelagic seabirds.

Invasive aliens

39. Research the significance of predation by domestic and feral cats and other non-native species on migratory birds.

40. Support programmes for the eradication of non-native species, especially where there is a significant threat to island nesting birds, particularly seabirds.

Species action plans

41. Review the effectiveness of single species action plans as opposed to multi-taxa plans and threat or habitat-based plans.

42. Ensure that existing and future species action plans are adequately resourced and well managed, and review their effectiveness regularly.

Landscape measures

43. Carry out work to determine how best to configure landscapes for migratory birds, including the retention and re-creation of protected trans-boundary habitat corridors and suitable and sufficient habitat in which to forage and rest, before and after long migratory flights and during stop-overs.

44. Promote landscape-level natural resource planning that will lead to retention in all parts of migratory bird ranges, of sufficient and suitably diverse habitat for sustaining healthy bird populations.

45. Seek to influence strategies for human development, including urbanization and major infrastructure development, to protect important landscapes and guide development away from key areas for migratory birds.

46. Seek to reform agricultural policy and practice to promote diverse, environmentally sustainable farming that supports healthy migratory bird populations.

47. Seek to counter over-grazing and to protect key grasslands in South America and maintain traditional, extensive grassland ranching practices.

48. Support efforts to reduce and reverse desertification in regions such as the African Sahel, using approaches that protect and restore native vegetation and conserve natural flood regimes.

49. Seek to counter forest fragmentation and tropical deforestation, including protecting remaining lowland and montane forests in Asia, Central America and the tropical Andes.

50. Develop and support bird-friendly guidelines for agriculture, forestry, energy industry, urban planning, water management, and other human activities that have the most impact on bird habitats.

Site networks

51. Review the coverage of current site networks and identify an 'ideal' state for each, noting the need to factor in exploitation and degradation of sites, and resilience to climate change, including flexibility to take account of the potential for shifts in the range of species due to climate change.
52. Ensure that key migratory stop-over sites are identified to form part of coherent site networks for migratory species.
53. Continue to support the development of flyway-scale site networks, especially where they are least developed, to include the widest possible range of available habitat for migratory birds.

54. Foster trans-boundary collaboration where appropriate.

55. Protect key sites, on land and at sea, for migratory bird species within flyway networks, through formal designations or voluntary measures.

56. Lobby for the protection of key sites, as appropriate, at national and international levels.

57. Implement existing site management plans and develop new ones where needed at key sites.

58. Share best practice on the management of sites for birds more proactively and in a way of immediate practical utility to site managers.

59. Make information on site networks and the sites within networks easily available, further developing initiatives modeled on the AEWA critical site network tool.

Climate change

60. Continue to research, collate and disseminate information on climate change effects on migratory birds and observed responses, identifying the most sensitive and vulnerable species and populations.

61. Improve our knowledge of the significance of mis-matches between migratory birds and their key resources, including in breeding, staging and non-breeding destination areas.

62. Continue research to identify potential population level impacts attributable to climate change.

63. Investigate where changes in rainfall patterns are predicted to occur, which may be critical to habitat suitability for migrant birds.

64. Expand conservation programmes to include climate change impacts in biological planning, conservation design, and habitat protection initiatives.

65. Develop and promote a multi-functional approach which involves expressing the benefits of ecosystem preservation from a holistic viewpoint, considering both the anthropogenic and wildlife benefits.

66. Engage in the lobby to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and keep them below critical levels.

Institutional

67. Encourage international treaties and policies that protect species, habitats, and the environment either directly or indirectly.

68. Consider the development of an 'African Birds Directive'.

69. Support the strengthening of implementation of relevant regional conventions.

70. Provide adequate funding and effective implementation of regional and global agreements, strategies and action plans, which is essential to safeguard the future of the world's migratory birds.

71. Focus on the goal of maintaining large population sizes of migratory birds. Successful recovery from threats and adaptation to changed climatic factors (and consequently-habitat) will require sufficient genetic variation present in each population, which will be related to population size.

Part 3

Policy Options for Migratory Bird Flyways

COLIN A. GALBRAITH
Environment Limited

March 2011

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to the following colleagues for providing valuable comments on the earlier drafts of this Report, or for helping in other ways over the course of its production.

Taej Mundkur – Chairman of the Flyways Working Group
Ian Bainbridge
Leon Bennun
Olivier Biber
Birdlife International- various staff
Gerard Boere
Joost Brouwer
Joaquin Calvo
Laura Cerasi
Nicola Crockford
Carlo Custudio
Nick Davidson
Sergey Dereliev
Jose Joaquin Calvo Domingo
Abdellah El Mastour
Lesley Gidding
Ward Hagameijer
Brian Hayum
Borja Heredia
Neil Hughes
Roger Jaensch
Samuel Kasiki
Florian Keil
Sergei Khomenko
Jelena Kralj
Bert Lenten
Angus Middleton
Rosa Montañez
Narelle Montgomery
Cristina Morales
Kabemba Donatien Muembo
Szabolcs Nagy
Scott Newman
John O'Sullivan
Maria Christina Morales Palarea
Warren Papworth
Nopasika Malta Quathekana
Herb Raffaele
Roberto Schlatter
Paul R Schmidt
Fernando Spina
Prakriti Srivastava
David Stroud
Robert Vagg

I am grateful to Scott Shaffer and the National Academy of Sciences, USA for the use of Figure 3.1.
Finally, I would like to thank Taej Munkur and Borja Heredia for their assistance throughout the time of this work.

3.1 Executive Summary

This review, commissioned by the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS), and developed with the CMS "Migratory Birds Flyways Working Group", examines the major migratory bird flyways of the world; reviews the coverage of these flyways by existing agreements under CMS and other initiatives; outlines the key pressures acting on populations of migratory birds; proposes priorities for the development of CMS agreements, and provides options on how these might be developed.

Present coverage

This review builds on two earlier reviews commissioned by CMS, firstly to consider the extent of knowledge about flyways, and secondly to review the existing coverage of these by agreements under the auspices of CMS and other initiatives.

These earlier reviews noted that:

Geographical coverage (on paper) is strongest in:

- Africa – Eurasia (particularly Eurasia);
- Americas (particularly North America);
- East Asia – Australasia.

Geographical coverage (on paper) is weakest in:

- Central Pacific;
- Central Asia;

Similarly, Pelagic (open ocean) flyways in the Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Indian Ocean and Southern Ocean have little coverage by agreements at present.

Coverage for species (on paper) is strongest for:

- Waterfowl (Anatidae);
- Shorebirds/waders (Scolopacidae);
- Other migratory waterbirds such as divers (loons), grebes, cranes and herons;
- Nearctic-breeding passerines and other landbirds that migrate to the Neotropics for the non-breeding season;
- Raptors (particularly in Africa-Eurasia).

Coverage of species groups (on paper) is weakest for:

- Passerines (particularly in Africa-Eurasia and Asia-Pacific, though coverage is good for Nearctic-breeding migratory passerines in the Americas);
- Other landbirds (with some exceptions e.g. certain species covered through bilateral treaties in the Americas;
- Inter-tropical and intra-tropical migrants in all regions

Priorities for Action

This review has identified the priority actions needed to take two major, interlinked steps in the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats around the world:

Firstly, to put in place an overarching, and common, strategic framework for action at the global level; and secondly, and equally importantly, to use this, to focus effort and action on the key priority conservation issues impacting on migratory bird species, through the production of Action Plans.

In terms of priorities for action at the Regional level, it is clear that East and South Asia are key areas in need of rapid action, given the number of declining species and the wide scale destruction of habitats, especially inter-tidal areas seen there. In addition, there is an urgent need for dedicated measures to focus attention on the declines in the African-Eurasian long-distance sub-Saharan land bird migrants and intra-African migrants. It is important also to clarify the best approach for CMS to adopt in the Central Asian Flyway especially for waterbirds. Considerable work has been done here over recent times and it is appropriate now to agree a way forward.

There is a need to consolidate the approach to be used in South and Central America, and especially to explore whether a "whole of the Americas" approach can be developed to migratory birds by clarifying the views of the countries involved in developing such an approach. Finally from a Regional perspective, it is important to clarify the approach to be used in the Pacific Region. This large area of ocean and islands tends at present to fall between the work of CMS in Asia and the work in the Americas.

Two groups of species in particular require additional urgent action from CMS, namely seabirds and passerines. For both these groups action is required that assists their conservation over extensive areas of sea and land.

A key action in dealing with all these threats; species declines and habitat destruction, is the need to involve local people in the management of fragile areas; and to help them see the real value of migratory bird species and of their habitats to their own wellbeing.

Threats to migratory birds

Consideration of the threats to migratory birds has confirmed that there is, as expected, a wide range of issues impacting on populations around the world. Habitat loss, climate change, bycatch, disease, contamination from different sources including from pesticides and heavy metals, unsustainable use, infrastructure developments and the effects of alien species are all significant threats at present. Habitat loss is considered to be the most important impact for non-seabirds with extensive

areas used by migratory birds being destroyed each year. By catch in fishing operations and alien species are the dominant threats to seabirds. The following section summarises the key actions.

Developing a new approach

In order to fill the gaps in the coverage of CMS agreements and to limit the impacts from the threats to migratory birds noted in this review, the Flyways Working Group suggests that it is important to build on existing agreements and initiatives to provide a new overarching approach. This could take the form of generic Regional agreements, underpinned by a series of flexible action plans designed to tackle the top priorities for action in each part of the world. The Flyways Working Group suggest that this mechanism could provide a streamlined approach for the use of resources by governments that opens the way for more rapid conservation action and better opportunities for partnerships with others in future.

The following lists the key findings and actions required to make the implementation of this new approach a reality.

Tackling the Threats to Migratory Birds.

Action: Habitat loss. CMS has the potential to develop a key role in the conservation of habitats for migratory birds by ensuring that the habitat requirements of migratory birds are integrated into land use policies through Governments, other Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs), UN institutions and Non Governmental Organisations. Some of this can be achieved through designation, using existing mechanisms and through the appropriate management of protected areas, but large proportions of migrants use habitats beyond these sites and conservation of these wider areas is also urgently needed. To achieve this, synergies need to be developed through scaled up collaborations, to address the drivers of change, with the Convention of Biological Biodiversity and other UN institutions especially with the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and other MEAs as appropriate. As regards the latter, topics where collaboration would be merited could be further defined in a CMS/FAO Memorandum of Cooperation, further to CMS Resolution 9.6.

Action: Climate change. The Flyways Working Group stresses the importance of CMS continuing to take action to limit the impact of climate change on migratory bird species. The Flyways Working Group notes, especially in the context of rapid climate change, that it is important to continue to monitor the status of migratory birds and their habitats; to record any changes in their ecology in some detail and increasingly to promote adaptive management to help ensure the success of conservation actions.

Action: Bycatch. The issue of bycatch is regarded by the Flyways Working Group as one of the key threats to migratory bird species and is seen as a priority for action. The group noted also the significance of other "non-use" mortality impacting on the populations of some species.

Action: Unsustainable use. The Flyways Working Group recognises the importance of CMS tackling the range of issues involved in the unsustainable use of migratory bird species. This can be done via a range of measures at the forthcoming Conference of the Parties in November 2011, and should include Resolutions designed to strengthen cooperation, promote conservation actions, highlight good practice, and where necessary, to stimulate corrective actions to address the situations highlighted in this review. Particular focal areas where threatened species are affected by unsustainable use include the Mediterranean, Middle East, Sahel and East Asia.

Action: Poisoning. The Flyways Working Group considers this an issue on which the Convention is uniquely placed to coordinate action, for example building on the work of AEWA regarding lead shot, to address the indiscriminate killing of carnivorous scavengers by poisoned baits, the killing of waterbirds through poisoning e.g. in Africa, and by the misuse of agrochemicals.

Action: Invasive Alien species. Dealing with invasive alien species is an issue that the Flyways Working Group considers a priority for future action by CMS. CMS action needs to be coordinated with major international initiatives on this issue with other fora, such as the CBD, Bern Convention and the EU, to ensure added value for migratory species

Action: Disease. The Flyways Working Group considers it important for the Convention to continue to work on issues related to wildlife disease, and to ensure that relevant measures are included in agreements to address these issues. Note that many countries are likely to remain particularly interested in wildlife disease related issues due to their generally high profile and potential impact. The Wildlife Disease Task Force created by CMS COP 9 provides a mechanism to take this forward.

Action: Agricultural conflicts and pest control. CMS, FAO and international NGO's should continue to work together to develop appropriate practical solutions and to advocate relevant policy solutions in order to resolve these conflicts.

Action: Information gaps in partnership with others. CMS should encourage and promote the continuation, further development and improved coverage of internationally coordinated, national long-term monitoring schemes for migrant bird populations and key sites. A coherent, costed, long-term plan is needed for the creation of an effective and sustainably funded, migratory bird monitoring programme

Regional priorities

Action: New Parties. In order to achieve global coverage it is essential that several large countries assist in the development of this approach. The addition of Brazil, China, Russia and the USA would allow a much greater geographical "reach" and would allow substantial additional scientific and conservation resources to be deployed. Similarly, the addition of countries

and regional organisations, such as ASEAN, in SE Asia in particular, would be of real benefit in the development of conservation action there.

Action: Species listing. The Flyways Working group noted the importance of achieving a more comprehensive review of species to be listed on the Appendices to CMS as this is a key building block for global co-ordination and better prioritisation of conservation action.

Action: Americas. Notwithstanding that much of the monitoring and conservation work in the Americas is undertaken by organisations outside the CMS family, the Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS should investigate the feasibility of working in partnership to develop an overarching conservation Action Plan for the Americas; recognising especially the established programmes of work in the North and between both continents. This initiative could initially take the form of a workshop to consider the specific needs and possible mechanisms with all the Parties and other interested countries and organisation in the Region.

Action: Americas. Given the specific need in relation to Neo-tropical intra-Regional migrants, CMS should review with range states and other key stakeholders in Central and South America, the potential for an agreement covering intra-Regional migrants (especially the so called Neotropical Austral Migrants) in the Neo-tropics.

Action: South East and East Asia and Australasia. Again, noting the extensive monitoring and conservation work done outside the CMS family in this Region, the Flyways Working Group suggests that, as with other Regions, the development of an overarching framework agreement would be an essential step in the coordination of conservation action. Other specific action plans could be used to address particular conservation issues in the Region. This should encompass non waterbird species, building on the effective groundwork already established by others.

Action: South East and East Asia and Australasia. The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS should clarify its relationship with existing agreements and prioritise effort in relation to species using coastal and other threatened habitats such as forest areas in the Region. This is likely to require a Regional workshop with the Parties, range states and other key stakeholders to explore the options and possible initiatives. Additionally, this is likely to require a clear "new start" to building relationships across the Region to ensure that some of the key countries are involved in this work from the outset.

Action: Pacific. In a similar way to other Regions, an initial workshop to scope out the options; identify possible blockages to progress, and to map out a way ahead would be an important first step in defining the needs for conservation here. Special attention should be taken to austral trans-equatorial migrants (seabirds) where large numbers of individuals from a few important species migrate (for example Sooty shearwater).

Action: Central Asian Flyway. The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS establishes the views of the Parties on how to take forwards existing work in the Central Asian Region. In particular, this should build on the work already done in this Region, where the existing draft action plan for waterbirds could be developed further in future. In addition CMS should valuate, with the Parties in the Region, the potential to develop a new framework agreement for the Region or to align with existing agreements, namely with the African Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) and the Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia. This should build on earlier discussions to consider synergies with AEWA in particular. The Parties should consider also the potential to initiate new agreements, probably in the form of Action Plans, to address the key conservation priorities for passerines. This overall initiative is likely to require a Regional level workshop to explore relevant issues.

Action: Europe and Africa. The Flyways Working Group stresses that maintaining the work of AEWA and developing the work on the Raptor MoU should be seen as a priority, whilst ensuring the continued activity of the single species MoUs in the Region. Maintaining this level of activity is important, whilst seeking to develop synergies, joint working and enhancing the cost-effectiveness of delivery for all the agreements in the Region. Increasing the level of integration will be important here, while at the same time developing an overarching approach to agreements in the other Regions of the world. The key issue in taking forward new initiatives in this Region is to consider the options for the future scope and modus operandi of AEWA. The following options were highlighted at the Edinburgh Workshop:

- The status quo: AEWA dealing with waterbirds in the African-Eurasian flyway with binding action plans.
- CAF extension: extend the geographic scope of AEWA to cover the Central Asian Flyway
- Taxonomic extension: AEWA's coverage to include species other than waterbirds
- Geographic and species extension: AEWA to be the core of a wider framework birds agreement

These options were not mutually exclusive, as the second and fourth approaches could be followed in parallel, the former as a short-term interim solution while the latter, which was legally more complex, was being ratified.

In addition, it has been suggested that the development of new MoUs for single species be limited in future to allow a greater focus on the two larger agreements in this region. It was noted, however, that there is an urgent need for the development of provision for long-distance migrant landbirds, especially those that spend the non-breeding season in Sub-Saharan Africa, many of which are in severe decline.

Action: Europe and Africa. Following the approach suggested for other Regions of the world, CMS should consider the co-ordination of the existing agreements and MoUs here to form a wider framework agreement, under which the existing agreements and MoUs could administratively sit; as could any new provision for Sub-Saharan migrant landbirds.

Action: Marine. The Flyways Working Group urges action by CMS to help in developing a coherent conservation framework and Action Plan for marine bird species not presently covered by Agreement on the Conservation of Albatross and Petrels (ACAP) or AEWA. The Group suggests that this could perhaps best be achieved by expanding the remit and work of ACAP, in discussion with AEWA, rather than initiating any new agreement; and suggest that this option needs to be discussed, initially by ACAP and AEWA, so that the Parties to these Agreements can form a clear view on how to proceed. This initiative should be taken forward in conjunction with FAO and with Regional Fishery Management Organisations. The Flyways management Group suggested that, this could, perhaps be discussed at the next meeting of ACAP in order to develop an informed view of the detailed issues involved.

Developing an Approach for the Future

Action: Developing the approach for the future in considering how best to respond to the species focussed priorities outlined here, the Flyways Working Group suggests that it is important to build on existing agreements and initiatives for these and related species. Equally, it does not seem practical to develop formal and strictly legally binding, stand alone agreements in every case; rather the priority is to develop action plans (that are fully funded and that are effective on the ground), set within a wider, generic legal framework. (See Annex 3.2). The Flyways Working Group suggests that this mechanism could provide an approach that streamlines the use of resources by governments and that opens the way for more rapid conservation action in future.

Action: Coordination. The Flyways Working Group considers that Option 2 (Wider coordination) is the only high level option that will allow the Convention to fulfil its remit over the coming triennium and beyond. It is also the only way to ensure global level coverage by agreements designed to steer conservation action on priority species and issues. It was noted that for this approach to deliver real benefits, resources would be required in the CMS Secretariat and elsewhere, especially in the early phases of activity.

Action: Regional Framework Agreements. The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS consider this new approach; with Regional framework agreements supported by action plans focussing on the most urgent habitat and species conservation need in each Region of the world. This approach could be introduced progressively, so that existing work is not unduly disrupted.

Action: Guidelines for new agreements. The Flyways Working group suggests that the guidelines presented in 3.7.2 are useful in assisting in the evaluation of any new agreement, and could be adopted by CMS as a guide to aid Parties in such deliberations.

Action: Future Resolutions. The Flyways Working Group recommends that a resolution/recommendation aimed to take forward the approaches outlined in this report is developed for the next CMS COP. Ideally this should be proposed jointly by Parties from each of the flyways of the world, so that the truly global nature of the issues are immediately obvious to the Conference of the Parties.

Action: Timescales for implementation. The Flyways Working Group suggests that the set of initiatives (3.7.3) would help develop a global approach to the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats. It recognises that this would, of necessity need to be completed over the medium term and stresses that it is important to address the geographical and species gaps identified in this and in previous reviews.

Action: Indicators and monitoring. There is a need to harmonise the use of indicators across the work of all the international Conventions. CMS should examine the new CBD indicator set following the agreement of the new CBD strategic plan, targets and associated indicators, to ensure a degree of harmony with them. In order to provide the basic data for the development and use of indicators, it is vital that internationally coordinated national long-term bird population monitoring schemes are maintained and new schemes developed where none currently exist.

Action: Partnerships with all including the corporate sector need to be established.

Action: Developing Regional Workshops. For the Secretariat and others to consider the options for the legal basis of Framework Agreements and to consider how best to deliver the Regional workshops listed above.

Action: Action Plans. For the Secretariat and others to consider the legal basis for the creation and delivery of Action Plans as part of the overall approach.

Action: Flyways Working Group. For the Parties to consider the role of the Flyway Working Group in providing ongoing coordination and guidance in relation to the implementation of the set of initiatives (3.7.3).

3.2 Introduction

Background and the approach used

This review, commissioned by the Convention on Migratory Species, and working with the Flyways Working Group, aims to identify the priorities for action in relation to flyway agreements for migratory birds under the Convention. It builds on the two earlier Reviews in this series that examined current arrangements and considered knowledge gaps as well as conservation priorities.

Review 1 *"A review of CMS and non-CMS existing administrative/management instruments for migratory birds globally"*. Presented to the 2010 meeting of the Scientific Council as UNEP/CMS/ScC 16/Doc 10 Annex 1a and 1b

Review 2 *"Review of Current Knowledge of Bird Flyways, Principal Knowledge Gaps and Conservation Priorities"* Presented to the 2010 Meeting of the Scientific Council as UNEP/CMS/Sc C. 16/Doc 10 Annex 2a and 2b

The implementation of the review should be seen alongside the outcome of the parallel review process looking at the "Future Shape" of the Convention and viewed as a contribution to the Aichi targets, adopted by the Convention on Biological Diversity, (CBD) for the conservation of biodiversity by 2020; where simple mechanisms to enable conservation need to be put in place as a matter of urgency.

This review firstly seeks to identify the "ideal" situation in terms of flyway management and then looks at the practicalities and realities faced by flyway agreements and MoUs at present.

At the outset it is clear that there are two main needs in relation to the development of future instruments to help the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats. Firstly, there is a need to develop wider coverage of instruments at the global level, as many Regions presently do not have any overarching framework for the coordination of work. Secondly, is the need to focus action "on the ground" and to maximise the use of resources from the multitude of sources involved in the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats around the world.

This Part reviews these issues and suggests a possible way forward to achieve these two outcomes.

3.3 The major flyways of the world (from Part 2) How we view flyways today

3.3.1 Flyways

According to the CMS definition of migratory species[1], 2,274 species of birds are migratory (23% of all avian species) and of these 35% are covered by the CMS Appendices. The Americas and Asia each accounted for over 1,000 different species, Europe 450 and Africa 650. Migratory birds are therefore a key part of the world's biodiversity, inspiring and sustaining people around the world. Importantly, they now exist in a rapidly changing world, with a dramatically increasing human population requiring greater areas of land for survival; habitat destruction and increasingly apparent levels of climate change, as key pressures on their populations.

There has been considerable work done over recent decades to define and describe the major flyways of the world. Whilst the migration of many bird species does follow a number of recognisable pathways, there is a vast array of routes used by different species. In describing the overall pattern of these movements there inevitably has to be some generalisation and degree of "overview" adopted to allow governments and others to plan and manage conservation actions to help the species concerned.

Figures 1.2 and 2.1 illustrate that essentially the same classification of global flyways can be presented at various scales of migration activity. The simpler presentation is seen in the first map, indicating that there can be considered to be four major flyways at the global level. It should be noted that the movements of truly marine species, such as Albatrosses, differing significantly from this pattern.

Aggregation of flyways for migratory waterbirds (refer to Figure 1.2). The map delineates the principal global flyway aggregations as proposed by Stroud et al. 2006. The four regional aggregations are considered here for simplicity as Americas, Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia and East Asia – Australasia. The latter two are sometimes combined as ('Asia – Pacific') according to Stroud et al. (2006). Note that this style of presentation is based on the need for administrative simplicity rather than revealing the true complexity of the systems involved, for example, showing the patterns of east-west migration across Europe and Asia.

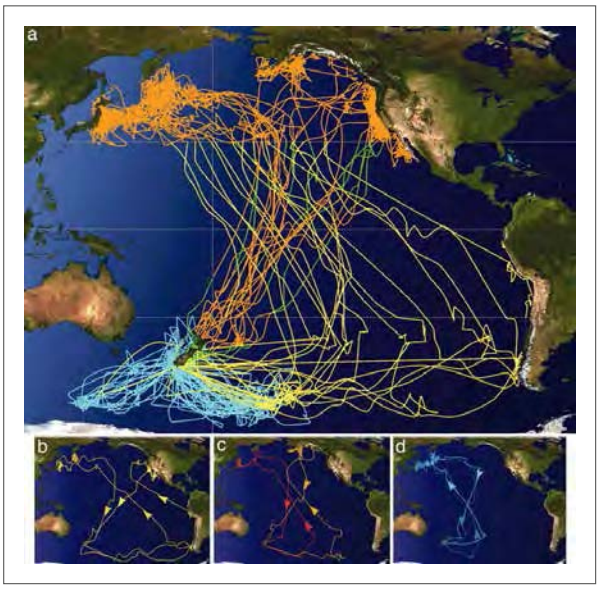
A finer breakdown is seen in Figure 2.1, which involves the recognition of eight overlapping flyways, which may prove useful for finer scale analyses of bird migration knowledge and conservation initiatives (BirdLife International, unpublished). This is the more detailed level of flyway definition adopted for Part 2, although recognizing that even this does not portray the full complexity of flyways omitting, for example, intra-tropical flyways and those of pelagic seabirds".

In practical terms it is important that CMS works to one overarching map to illustrate the major flyways, (refer to Figure 1.2 of Part 1) and uses others for finer grained analysis of migration patterns as in Figure 2.1 of Part 2.

Note also that in addition to the four main flyways presented in Figure 1.2, there is a case for the addition of a fifth, (and a ninth covering the same are in Figure 2.1) covering the main Pacific Ocean, as seen in Part 1 of this publication. This is a relatively poorly understood Region, requiring considerable further study.

Seabird migratory patterns can be much more complex. For example, Figure 3.1 below shows the migratory movements of the Sooty Shearwater *Puffinus griseus* in the Pacific. This species migrates in a figure of eight movement ranging over vast areas of the Pacific Ocean. This truly remarkable migration reveals the connections between countries in this Region, and highlights the need for action on a regional scale.

Figure 3.1. Shearwater migrations originating from breeding colonies in New Zealand. (a) Interpolated geolocation tracks of 19 Sooty Shearwaters during breeding (light blue) and subsequent migration pathways (yellow, start of migration and northward transit; orange, "southern wintering" grounds and southward transit). The 30° parallels, equator, and international dateline are indicted by dashed lines. (b–d) Representative figure-eight movement patterns of individual shearwaters travelling to one of three "southern winter" destinations in the North Pacific. These tracks also represent those of three breeding pairs to reveal the dispersion and extent of each pair. The image was created by using the Blue Marble data set (15). Image: Shaffer et al 2006. Copyright 2006 National Academy of Sciences, USA.



[1] NB. The entire population or any geographically separate part of the population of any species or lower taxon of wild animals, a significant proportion of whose members cyclically and predictably cross one or more national jurisdictional boundaries;

3.3.2 Species status

Importantly, Part 2 reported on an analysis of status and trends that was carried out for a total of 2,274 CMS-defined migratory species (23% of the world's birds). The review noted that whilst migratory birds are found in all regions of the world, the Americas and Asian regions stand out as being of particular significance with more than 1,000 species each.

At a global level, 14% (317) of the included species were reported as being currently considered threatened or near-threatened according to the IUCN Red List. Additionally, since 1988, 53 species have deteriorated in status (sufficiently to be listed in higher categories of extinction risk on the IUCN Red List) while only nine species have improved (sufficiently to be moved to a lower risk category). It could be argued, therefore, that listing of species on CMS appendices (these being species identified as deserving of specific attention) does not appear to have resulted in any short-term improvement in overall status. Clearly, the follow up to such listing, which should be a trigger for action through the development of agreements and conservation work on the ground, needs to be pursued vigorously in future.

Part 2 reported also that there is increasing evidence of regional declines, although regional and taxonomic differences exist. Population trend data showed that more Nearctic–Neotropical migrants have declined than increased in North America since the 1980s, and more Palearctic–Afrotropical migrants breeding in Europe declined than increased during 1970–2000. The East Asia–Australasia Region, however, had the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (20%); Africa–Eurasia, Central Asia and East Asia–Australasia having the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (c.30% each); and the Americas, Africa–Eurasia and East Asia–Australasia the highest proportions of threatened seabirds (c.30%). On a flyway scale, the East Asian–Australasian Flyway has the highest proportion of threatened migratory waterbirds (19%), and the highest proportions of threatened soaring birds (24–34%) was recorded for the Black Sea–Mediterranean, East Asia–East Africa, Central Asia and East Asian–Australasian Flyways.

In addition, an overview of regional status of the included migratory species can be gained from IUCN Red List categorisation. Some regional differences are apparent, notably with the East Asia–Australasia region having the highest proportion of threatened migratory birds in all categories: seabirds (31%), soaring birds (31%), waterbirds (20%) and, along with the Americas, landbirds (9%). The East Asia–Australasia region also has the highest overall number of species in all categories apart from waterbirds and seabirds, where the Americas have more. Africa–Eurasia also has a high number of soaring birds and seabirds and a high proportion of threatened ones, with fewer soaring birds in the Americas, and fewer seabirds in Central Asia.

Additionally, the newly published State of the World's Waterbirds 2010 (Wetlands International 2010) provides a new waterbird index that reviews the status of waterbirds at a population level and demonstrates globally, that the balance between increasing and decreasing populations has improved modestly, by about 5%, between 1976 and 2005. The situation is still very serious, with over 47% of populations decreasing or extinct in 2005 compared with 53% in 1975.

It is important to note also that data on the migration of Passerine species is deficient for many Regions of the world, with the possible exceptions of North America and Europe. These Regions have effective breeding bird monitoring and have published excellent atlases based on extensive ringing/banding studies. Overall, however, the lack of information is a significant gap in knowledge that is preventing a more comprehensive assessment of the needs of these species. Existing large-scale and long-term sets of migration data derived from individual marking still require resources to be properly analysed and would undoubtedly provide a detailed picture of flyways for a large array of songbird species.

Overall these and other data reported in Part 2 indicate that a significant proportion of migratory birds are presently at high risk and have an unfavourable conservation status.

3.4 The coverage of existing CMS and non-CMS instruments and frameworks (Key issues from Part 1)

3.4.1 Existing coverage

Note that the Summary Table 1.1 from Part 1 presented an overview of all the existing CMS and non-CMS instruments.

3.4.2 Gaps in geographical coverage

Given the considerable effort over recent years many parts of the world are covered by one or more agreements under CMS or via other arrangements. Part 1 has effectively examined these.

In summary, Part 1 noted that geographical coverage (on paper) is strongest in:

- Africa – Eurasia (particularly Eurasia);
- Americas (particularly North America);
- East Asia – Australasia.

In these regions there is an established flyways-based approach to bird conservation that can be traced back over the course of 30 to 50 years.

Part 1 noted also that geographical coverage (on paper) is weakest in the following regions:

- Central Pacific;
- Central Asia (there is a CMS Action Plan for waterbirds that has yet to be implemented; there is also substantial species and geographical overlap with the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA) and geographical overlap with the CMS Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa-Eurasia);
- Pelagic (open ocean) flyways in the Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Indian Ocean and Southern Ocean. (Although ACAP currently caters for a certain suite of albatrosses and petrels and AEWA also covers some seabirds).

3.4.3. Coverage of species groups

Part 1 noted that coverage (on paper) is strongest for:

- Waterfowl (Anatidae);
- Shorebirds/waders (Scolopacidae);
- Other migratory waterbirds such as divers (loons), grebes, cranes, herons, rails and terns;
- Nearctic-breeding passerines and other landbirds that migrate to the Neotropics for the non-breeding season;
- Raptors (particularly in Africa-Eurasia).

And that coverage of species groups (on paper) is weakest for:

- Passerines (particularly in Africa-Eurasia and Asia-Pacific, though coverage is good for Nearctic-breeding migratory passerines in the Americas);
- Other landbirds (with some exceptions e.g. certain species covered through bilateral treaties in the Americas and Asia – Pacific Regions; also the CMS MoU on African-Eurasian birds of prey and CMS MoU on Middle European population of Great Bustard *Otis tarda*);
- Inter-tropical and intra-tropical migrants in all Regions; Note "Inter-tropical and intra-tropical migrants" generally belong to different species groups (waterbirds, soaring birds, landbirds). As flyway classifications tend not to distinguish between inter- and intra-tropical migrants, there is, consequently, little data about their coverage. Some species are, however, partly covered by existing agreements. For example, AEWA covers intra-tropical migratory waterbirds, and the same is true for birds of prey. It appears that inter-tropical and intra-tropical migrant landbirds are in particular need of further study to clarify their patterns of migration and conservation needs.

3.4.4 Priorities to fill the gaps in coverage

Based on the above analysis some clear priorities for action are apparent. Priorities are addressed in terms of the Regions of the world in a systematic way in section 3.6. At this stage, however, it is possible to highlight the following areas as in particular need of further conservation work on the ground to address declines in populations.

1. At the Regional level it is clear that SE Asia is a key area for rapid action given the number of declining species and the rapid destruction of habitats seen there. For example, whilst the waders of the EAAF do not show up as gaps from this analysis, the scale and urgency of the problem suggests that consideration should be given to additional measures for this flyway.
2. There is an urgent need for dedicated measures to focus attention on the declines in the African-Eurasian long-distance sub-Saharan landbird migrants.
3. It is important to clarify the best approach for CMS to adopt in assisting conservation action in the Central Asian

Flyway. This should, for example, cover landbirds such as Floricans as well as waterbirds.

4. It is important to consolidate the approach to be used in south and central America, and especially to explore whether a "whole of the Americas" approach can be developed to migratory birds by clarifying the views of the countries involved.

5. It is important to clarify the conservation need and biogeographical approach to be used in the Pacific Region. This large area of ocean and islands tends at present to fall between the work in SE Asia and the work in the Americas.

6. As regards seabirds, there is a clear case for further action to assist their conservation in addition to the good work currently undertaken by ACAP and AEWA.

7. Landbirds (incl. Passerines) are a less covered group (at least in the Palaearctic) and consideration should be given to their conservation. Among them, grassland birds are especially threatened, facing long-term decrease. In relation to these species it is worth considering whether a habitat or even landscape-oriented instrument could be developed.

3.5 The key pressures impacting on migratory birds

Key Pressures

Part 2 reported on an analysis of the main threats to migratory species, evaluated as threatened and near-threatened on the 2010 IUCN Red List, and highlighted that important threats include land-use change, illegal hunting and taking, non-native species, diseases, pollution, climate change, natural system modifications, infrastructure development, human disturbance, fishing, energy production and distribution.

The review stressed that some specific threats highlighted are of particular significance for migratory birds including: wind turbine developments; power line collisions and electrocutions; illegal trapping and shooting; reclamation of wetlands; and pollution, overfishing and the by-catch of seabirds during long-line and trawl fishing operations. These threats are identifiable and will need continued effort to address specific impacts on particular species.

It stressed also the continuing need for robust information on the status, trends, distribution and ecology of key species, and for further systematic collection of information on the wide variety of threats to migratory birds.

These various pressures may act separately, or increasingly cumulatively, at any or all stages of the migration cycle. They have the potential to limit the numbers of particular species and to lead to alteration of migration routes or to the timing of the migration activity itself.

The Convention and its daughter agreements have a long history of addressing these issues through active work on the ground and through the development of recommendations and resolutions at the Conference of the Parties, leading to new agreements designed to provide guidance to governments and others about the priorities for action. Based on the previous Parts in this book it is important that the following key issues are addressed in any new agreement and addressed at future COPs in relation to the wider flyways work of the Convention.

3.5.1 Habitat loss, fragmentation and reduction in quality

Habitat loss, fragmentation and reduction in quality is a major and increasing problem for migratory birds in many Regions of the world, and in the view of the Flyways Working Group is the most urgent and immediate threat to be tackled. In many cases these detrimental changes are the result of multiple pressures acting on the environment, including human population growth and related developments: urbanisation, agriculture, biofuel crop production, mining industries, as well as alterations induced by contamination and pollution and by climate change. The resultant changes, leading to the reduced availability of suitable habitats for many species are now a major problem, threatening the status, numbers and distribution of species, compared to even a few decades ago. Importantly, the rapid rate of change may be one of the key factors impacting on species, with the speed of habitat destruction leaving little time for migratory species to adapt to the new situation.

Part 2 highlighted the situation in relation to the fragmentation of habitats as:

> *"... landscape-scale conservation is key to the protection of migratory birds. To facilitate migratory movements, it is vital to find ways to improve the connectivity of habitats critical to population survival currently and in the future"*

Recent work by a variety of non government organisations to identify key areas for migratory birds has been particularly important in this regard. This has included the work from BirdLife International, identifying "Important Bird Areas", and by Wetlands International and BirdLife International in relation to the "Critical Sites Network" under the Wings over Wetlands project; as well as the development of the Flyway Site Network by the Partnership for the East Australasian Flyway. In addition, a Convention on Biological Diversity Programme of Work is seeking to develop a network of protected areas with targets for sites on land, inland and coastal waters, and in the oceans.

These initiatives are helping Governments to focus their conservation and management efforts in these key areas, and can play an important role in future conservation efforts. It is important in this context to recognise the key role that habitats that may only be used infrequently by species, can have in their overall survival. Use of particular areas in periods of poor weather, for example, may occur only periodically but can make an important contribution to the overall survival of species during migration. Even small areas of suitable habitat such as oasis and islands spread across ecological barriers such as deserts or large areas of open ocean often play a key role as refuges, and their conservation is key for the survival of huge numbers of migrants. Taking a holistic view of habitat requirements is therefore important in assessing the required nature and extent of any site network.

For many more dispersed migrant birds such as species that migrate on a broad front or are non-congregatory for at least part of their annual cycle, for example, Sub-Saharan migrant passerines, conservation of habitats only in key sites is not enough. Declines in such species may be due to loss or deterioration of farmed, grazed and forested habitats. Effective habitat management across the wider landscape is therefore an essential part of their future conservation. Tackling the loss of habitats is a common theme for several international Conventions and organisations. Work under the auspices of the Convention on Biological Diversity is seeking to develop a network of protected areas with targets for sites on land, inland and coastal waters, and in the oceans. Developing strong links to this programme of work would clearly be beneficial. There is also an urgent need to develop work that influences land use policies for habitat beyond key sites to address the needs of dispersed species.

Action: Habitat loss. CMS has the potential to develop a key role in the conservation of habitats for migratory birds by ensuring that their habitat requirements are integrated into land use policies through Governments, other Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs), UN institutions and Non Governmental Organisations. Some of this can be achieved through the designation and appropriate management of protected areas but large proportions of migrants use habitats beyond these sites and conservation of these wider areas is also urgently needed. To achieve this, synergies need to be developed through scaled up collaborations, to address the drivers of change, with the Convention of Biological Biodiversity and other UN institutions, especially with the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO). As regards the latter, topics where collaboration would be merited could be further defined in a CMS/FAO Memorandum of Cooperation, further to CMS Resolution 9.6. In addition, it is important for Parties to identify areas that are critical for migratory species and that they report on the status of these areas as part of their normal reporting cycle to CMS.

One example where this approach may be applicable is in the Sahel zone; for instance to counter the loss of indigenous forests with non-indigenous tree plantations which appears to be one factor implicated in the population declines being experienced by African-Eurasian migrant landbirds. The progressive extension of the barrier created by desert areas, due to the removal of vegetation, poses an increasing threat for many species of land bird migrant. Indeed, some may eventually be unable, in terms of energetic needs, to cover the increasing distances between suitable areas on traditional migration routes.

Given the considerable activity from other bodies in relation to the conservation of habitats, it is important to link with these initiatives. Working with CBD in achieving its strategic plan aimed at mainstreaming biodiversity in decision-making, minimising loss of natural habitats and ensuring sustainable management of agriculture, aquaculture and forestry will be critical in this respect. It will also be important for CMS to engage with the Convention to Combat Desertification in order to identify synergies and areas for priority action.

3.5.2 Climate Change

Considerable uncertainties remain about the exact rate of change that can be expected, or the particular impacts that any one country might experience as a consequence of climate change. However, the impact on the status and behaviour of migratory bird species is progressively becoming apparent. The Convention has, over recent years addressed the issue via a number of Resolutions and has created a "Climate Change and Migratory Species" Working Group.

There are several ways that climate change has already impacted on migratory bird species including changing the timing of migration, altering the availability of key food supplies, changing the distribution and "quality" of habitats along migration routes and potentially altering the routes of migration per se. For example, as desertification continues in several parts of the world, species migrating across these areas will need to adapt to the changing conditions posed by the progressive widening of these ecological barriers.

Major threats from climate change are likely to be exacerbated by large scale changes in agricultural practices, land use patterns, decreasing availability of wetland and water resources; impacting on the overall capacity of agro-ecological systems to accommodate both human needs and the ecological requirements of migratory birds.

The Flyways Working Group has suggested that it remains important for the Convention to continue to address climate change issues working together with other designated UN Agencies (particularly FAO), International Conventions and NGOs. It is important also to ensure that effective consideration of the impacts of climate change, many of which are still relatively unknown and may include unexpected events, is included in the work of the agreements, and that any new agreement addresses the issue. In helping to tackle the effects of Climate Change, CMS will necessarily need to seek new partnerships with other International Conventions to consider how to assist species to adapt to climate change. For example, this would be useful in the identification of a network of critical sites along the world's flyways building on the example of the East Asian – Australasian Flyway Site Network or Western Hemisphere Shorebird Site Network and the Critical Site Network Tool for the AEWA region. One recent piece of evaluation work by BirdLife International has revealed that such a network will remain vital to allow species to adapt to climate change. In addition, it is important to consider the implications for such areas in light of projected changes in agricultural practices and in relation to the combined effects of human population growth and climate change.

Action: The Flyways Working Group is keen that CMS continues to take action to limit the impact of climate change on migratory bird species. The group notes especially in the context of rapid climate change that it is important to continue to monitor the status of migratory birds and their habitats; and to record any changes in their ecology in some detail. It is suggested also that guidance is provided on the use of indicators to document the effect of climate change on migratory birds. It is important that effective consideration of the impacts of climate change is included in the work of the agreements, and that any new agreement addresses the issue. In helping to tackle the effects of Climate Change, CMS will necessarily need to seek new partnerships with other International Conventions and to consider how to assist species to adapt to climate change, for example through securing critical site networks.

A key part of the global response to climate change and the increase in carbon emissions has been the rapid expansion of new energy sources, especially renewable energy developments. Migratory birds, especially waterbirds and soaring birds, are proving to be particularly vulnerable to direct mortality through collisions with wind turbines and power lines, as well as to electrocution from power lines.

CMS has a leading role to play at an international policy level, for example by further developing and providing guidelines and examples of best practice to avoid and mitigate the impact of energy related infrastructure (for example,

wind energy turbines and new power transmission lines), and through working with industry associations and regional economic groupings.

Action: The Flyways Working Group considers it important for the Convention to continue to work to minimise direct mortality to migratory birds from power lines and wind energy developments, especially as it is uniquely placed to do this

3.5.3 Bycatch

Bycatch remains an issue of key importance in many Regions of the world and is a major threat to many species, especially in the marine environment. This is especially concerning as many of the species affected have a naturally very low level of productivity and recruitment into their populations. The full effects of such impact on the populations could therefore take some considerable time to become obvious as the lack of recruitment into the breeding population becomes apparent over the years. Their populations may also take a considerable time to recover from any impact from bycatch which has the potential to kill large numbers of birds over relatively short timescales. It is important that any new agreement covering such species in the marine environment should include measures to tackle bycatch as a priority.

ACAP has lead the way in tackling this issue over recent years and it is important that the expert advice of the ACAP Seabird Bycatch Working Group (which contains best-practice recommendations applicable to most longline and trawl fisheries worldwide) is applied throughout the coastal and high seas areas where seabirds are under threat.

In addition, it is important to highlight the threat from gill-nets; the main fishing gear not currently addressed by ACAP (or any other body). These are recognised to pose very substantial threats to waterbirds in coastal, as well as inland waters in many areas. This is exacerbated by their prevalence in artisanal fisheries and the likely increase in their use worldwide, due to their increased availability, and to socio-economic pressures. CMS undertook a review on the impact of gill-nets on marine species that was made available at COP 10 in November 2011.

Whilst work on bycatch tends to focus in the marine environment, this seems to be an issue that has not been fully appreciated in some other instances in different habitats. For example, the Tufted Duck *Aythya fuligula* that spends the northern winter in Naujan Lake in the Philippines is a bycatch in the lake's tilapia fishery. The diving ducks prefer the parts of the lake where fishing takes place to catch large tilapia, getting entangled in the fishing nets.

Other examples of substantial mortality in diving waterbirds due to entangling in the gill-nets have been reported to the Flyways Working Group and include reports from coastal Ukraine (167,000 individuals annually, mainly diving ducks, grebes and cormorants), inland wetlands in China, Russian Federation and many other countries in Asia. Whilst these reports are unsubstantiated at this time, the full scale and impact of these activities in Eurasia and Africa needs to be urgently assessed.

Action: The issue of bycatch is regarded by the Flyways Working Group as one of the key threats to migratory birds and is seen as a priority for action by the convention. It is currently being addressed by ACAP's working group on seabird bycatch and by the Scientific Council working group on bycatch. In addition, the recommendations of the ACAP Seabird Bycatch Working Group need to be put into practice and similar guidance needs to be put in place regarding gill-nets. Consideration should be given to seeking tighter coordination between CMS and other international instruments to encourage Regional Fishery Management Organisations to implement these recommendations.

3.5.4 Unsustainable use

Many populations of migratory species are used by the human population in a great variety of ways around the world. This ranges from consumptive to non-consumptive use. This has historically been an area of considerable activity for the conservation movement at large and many large NGOs and other bodies are involved in dealing with the issue. The key step for CMS at present is to highlight key threats and to identify its particular contribution to these sometimes wide–ranging and complex debates. That said, the following issues are suggested as deserving CMS attention at the present time.

Livelihoods

Migratory birds provide a valuable livelihood for many populations around the world. In many cases traditional harvesting has served to bring the human population into a close and durable relationship with the populations of wild birds. The nature and level of harvesting is, however, the key factor in determining the sustainability of such situations and this in turn may relate to the size of the human population concerned. What was a sustainable activity twenty years ago may no longer be so, given an increase in the level of harvesting or a decline in the bird species populations concerned. For example, capture for food may force species such as Spoon-billed Sandpiper *Eurynorhynchus pygmeus* to extinction within just a few years. Excessive harvesting of species in Sub-Saharan African wetlands, including the use of (illegal) poisons to do so, is another area which needs particular attention.

Importantly, many relatively sustainable traditional harvesting activities have become increasingly commercial with major markets developing in many urban centres following the on-going movement of people from rural areas to cities. This is complicated by population growth, increase of prices for food, availability of trapping equipment (e.g. mist-nets) and better access to remote areas.

Action: Emphasis should be given to the Addis Ababa Principles and guidelines for the Sustainable Use of Biodiversity in order to guide the sustainable use of migratory birds. Greater use of the Guideline for sustainable use and the Charter on Hunting and Biodiversity of the Council of Europe would also be useful. In addition, socioeconomic studies should be undertaken to find alternative livelihoods for people that harvest migratory birds for subsistence.

Capture for trade, both formal and informal, as well as legal and illegal

Capture as part of the trade in live wild birds as pets is still practiced widely in many parts of the world and often involves rare and endangered species. Whilst this may contribute to the economy of some areas, there is little evidence that this activity can actually be practiced in a sustainable way. The commercial value of some species drives illegal capture and trade, which can have significant conservation impacts. Globalisation of trade strongly enhances the illegal international trade in live wild birds. Importantly, there is a need for systematic and objective monitoring of the populations concerned to either prove or disprove the sustainable nature of such trade. This is particularly important at the present time in relation to the "take" of migratory birds of prey from the wild, where differing interpretations are possible concerning the implications of the number of birds taken, and the sustainability of the practices. There are relatively few species that are well enough monitored or where the total population size is known with sufficient degree of confidence to be able to prove or disprove whether harvest levels are sustainable. A precautionary approach should be applied. Where unsustainable levels of take are suspected, necessary conservation action should not be curtailed by lack of detailed information about the species in question.

Action: It would be timely to review, by flyway, the significance of legal and illegal trade to the conservation of species; considering the drivers, threats and opportunities related to such trade in each case. Cooperation with CITES and TRAFFIC would be necessary to undertake such a review. Note also that the issues related to wild bird harvesting and trade also have important implications for the global dynamics of poultry diseases and therefore should be addressed jointly with FAO and OIE, as well as with national veterinary authorities.

Recreational hunting

Recreational hunting can be organised through technically sound adaptive management approaches. It can be sustainable in terms of the demography of harvested populations and positive for species conservation, e.g. via habitat management. However, the harvest of migratory birds from hunting in large parts of the world is still far from being properly managed. There is an important need for flyway-based hunting statistics and harvesting plans, which should be based on the annual productivity of quarry populations. Introducing such a system would progressively allow the sustainable management of the hunting activity.

It should be recognised, that most recreational hunting is largely regulated at a national level and there is, therefore, a need to explore the development of appropriate mechanisms along each flyway that take into account the shared responsibility for migratory birds.

There are many countries where hunting legislation and/or enforcement is weak, some of which lie along important flyway routes. In these cases there is a need to work with the international hunting community to promote better organisation and governance of hunting as suggested above, with a particular emphasis on embedding conservation into the national systems of hunting.

There are, of course some excellent examples of the conservation and hunting communities working together on research and on practical action to benefit migratory species. It is important, therefore, when problems of potentially unsustainable use arise, that these are investigated jointly between the hunting and conservation communities and corrective action taken. Such a situation may be arising in some parts of the Middle East and in East Asia at present, and require further action as part of any new instrument in the area.

Poaching / Illegal killing

Poaching/illegal killing can have a significant impact on the conservation of migratory birds, but in tackling the issue there is a need to understand the drivers that give rise to this activity. Whilst legal protection for species is clearly needed, it is important also to involve local communities in order to engender a joint sense of responsibility, as has been shown in the case of bushmeat. There is significant scope to work with legitimate hunters to reduce poaching pressure, particularly when they are local stakeholders. More attention should be given to understanding the issues related to poaching, and to highlight best practice in reducing and eliminating it.

Tourism

Public interest in migratory birds has probably never been greater. This interest is a major factor in promoting the conservation of migratory species and is generally seen as a "good thing". Similarly, the growth in eco-tourism, including experiencing wild places and viewing migratory birds, has proved to be beneficial to the overall conservation value of many species, adding considerably to economies around the world. This growing public interest has to be managed carefully, however, and in many cases best practice guidelines have been developed. Looking ahead, it will be important for such guidelines to be adhered to, and for the local human populations involved in the management of the areas, habitats and species involved to benefit directly from such tourism activity.

Hunting tourism can have real conservation value, particularly by securing areas for wildlife as opposed to other land uses. It is also the case, however, that areas of great importance for migratory birds, but with weaker laws or enforcement are continuing to be exploited for tourism hunting, which can have conservation impacts. It is therefore important to promote the development of good standards for hunting tourism operators, particularly in relation to the hunting of migratory birds, working through relevant organisations and stakeholders.

3.5.5 Lead shot and other forms of poisoning

In addition to the well-known problem of lead shot, there is increasing evidence of the serious threats posed by other kinds of poisoning of migratory birds, both inadvertent (e.g., of raptors scavenging carcasses poisoned to kill livestock predators) and deliberate (e.g., of waterbirds killed through the use of crop pesticides such as carbofuran in some parts of Africa).

The Flyways Working Group recognises the importance of eliminating the use of lead shot and lead sinkers, particularly, but not exclusively, in wetlands and water bodies, and of

reducing the impact of existing lead in the environment. Considerable progress has been made in many countries over recent years by conservation organisations and governments, working alongside the shooting community, to introduce necessary legislation, to find practical alternatives and to promote compliance. This work needs to continue as part of a wider initiative to ensure that the use of lead is phased out worldwide.

For other poisons, work is needed to assess the scale of the problem and underlying causes, and to develop internationally co-ordinated action plans. CMS may also have a role to play in working with regulators, manufacturers and distributors to improve safeguards on the use of specific poisons.

Action: The Flyways Working Group recognises the importance of CMS tackling the range of issues involved in the unsustainable use of migratory bird species. This can be done via a range of measures at the forthcoming Conference of the Parties including Resolutions designed to stimulate corrective action and by working to implement these with a range of partner organisations, for example by the sharing of good practice

3.5.6 Invasive Alien Species

Invasive Alien species are found in habitats around the world. They have been a major cause of extinctions of those native species living on islands in particular. The implications for many migratory species in other contexts is only now becoming clear, thanks to detailed studies. Research has shown the potential for hybridisation between native and non-native species; enhanced competition for resources and predation from introduced species, e.g. introduced alien mammals feeding on native seabird species. Importantly, alien species have also been implicated as a major vector for the transmission of disease and parasites. In many cases alien species can also cause severe indirect impacts, e.g. through an alien species competing with prey species. Indeed often the impacts of alien species are felt throughout the ecosystem, threatening important habitats as well as the migratory species directly.

It should be noted, however, that recent work has demonstrated that alien species can be controlled and in some cases eradicated. For example, the case of ruddy duck control in Europe is a good example on how CMS Parties and NGOs can work together towards the eradication of a non native species.

A consistent approach to legislation and action related to invasive alien species is required internationally. For example, the failure of any one country to take coordinated action on invasive alien species can put at risk the wider coordination of effort. Domestic arrangements vary enormously between Parties and, there is presently little or no harmonisation or consistency among neighboring countries.

Perhaps of greatest priority is the urgent development and implementation of best-practice plans to control and eradicate alien species where these are the main threat to globally threatened migratory species (and particularly at the top 100 or so already-identified island sites). This should be coupled with the development of comprehensive plans, involving appropriate stakeholders, for risk assessment, control, eradication and translocation (as appropriate) in respect of species, sites and areas (especially archipelagos) where threats are currently a lower priority or uncertain. The precautionary approach should apply. There is a need for greatly enhanced biosecurity (i.e. prevention) systems, including legislation, which are implemented effectively. Action also needs to include monitoring, rapid response systems and awareness-raising.

Action: Dealing with alien species is an issue that the Flyways Working Group considers a priority for future action by CMS. CMS action needs to be coordinated with major international initiatives on this issue with other fora, such as the CBD, Bern Convention and the EU, to ensure added value for migratory species.

3.5.7 Agricultural conflicts and pest control

Agricultural environments are vitally important for many migratory birds. In many parts of the world, however, particularly in the developing countries of Africa and Asia, significant losses of migratory birds occur as a result of conflicts between farmers and birds, where the birds are causing damage to fish or shrimp stocks in aquaculture, or to agricultural crops. A wide range of issues have arisen related to the acceptability and sustainability of most pest control strategies currently in use (ranging from primitive direct persecution to application of traps and poisons). It is important that these issues are addressed effectively to develop solutions that limit the killing of migratory birds, and that can still allow the effective management of agricultural areas.

Action: CMS, FAO and international NGOs should continue to work together to develop appropriate practical solutions and to advocate relevant policy solutions in order to resolve these conflicts.

3.5.8 Disease

A wide range of diseases have the potential to impact directly on the populations of migratory bird species. In addition, and importantly, disease outbreaks such as highly pathogenic avian influenza in wild bird populations have the potential to cause considerable concern to the general public, sometimes facilitated by misleading or alarmist media coverage. The potential for zoonotic disease outbreaks to have a significantly negative impact on the public perception of migratory birds is therefore of considerable concern, as is the direct impacts on the species concerned. It is becoming apparent that the disease risk may be exacerbated by the degradation of habitats, introducing a source of stress into the wider functioning of ecosystems.

The Convention played a leading role, along with FAO, in the development and operation of the Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds. This demonstrated the value that CMS can add to such high profile initiatives, where it has use-

fully tackled both scientific issues and the wider dissemination of knowledge and information to governments and more widely.

In 2008, COP9 asked CMS and FAO to co-convene a Scientific Task Force on Wildlife Disease to develop guidance on responding to wildlife diseases of importance to people, domestic animals and wildlife, following the "One World One Health" approach.

Issue of diseases as a threat to wild bird populations may potentially become more important with the worldwide increase of poultry production, both in commercial and backyard sectors acting as "incubators" for new, emerging pathogens. The effects of pathogens that are non-native being introduced to wild bird populations is difficult to evaluate with certainty, but they have the potential to pose a significant threat to already vulnerable migratory bird populations.

Action: The Flyways Working group considers it important for the Convention to continue to work on issues related to disease and to ensure that relevant measures are included in agreements to address these issues. Note that many countries are likely to remain interested in disease related issues due to their generally high profile.

3.5.9 Information gaps

Conservation efforts are currently hampered by poor knowledge of population size and trend of many migratory species and the only way to improve this situation is through monitoring. There is also a clear need to be aware of any changes to key sites and the populations they hold, in order to be able to take swift action if these sites deteriorate, and indeed to track whether any conservation action at such sites is successful. The expected effects of climate change make long-term monitoring (to detect impacts and, where possible, act on them) even more important.

Examples of information gaps include the status of migratory landbirds (birds of forests and agriculture/grasslands) in Asia, which are believed to be in decline but urgently need monitoring data to document them.

Existing internationally-coordinated monitoring schemes, such as the International Waterbird Census and the Pan-European Common Bird Monitoring Scheme, do invaluable work, covering some migrant species in some parts of the world. They rely largely on volunteer contributions, and invariably struggle with very limited resources for co-ordination and capacity-development, as well as for facilitating data collection, analysis and reporting.

Action: In partnership with others, CMS should encourage and promote the continuation and further development and improved coverage of internationally co-ordinated, national long-term monitoring schemes for migrant bird populations and key sites. A coherent, costed, long-term plan is needed for the creation of an effective and sustainably funded, migratory bird monitoring programme.

3.6 Priorities for the development of CMS instruments

3.6.1 The role of CMS

It is important in considering the priorities for CMS to recognise where CMS sits in terms of wider conservation action, and to review what options there are for the maintenance of existing agreements, and for the development of new ones.

The involvement and active support of Parties is fundamentally important to the work of the Convention. If any new instruments are to be developed then, as with earlier initiatives, the sponsorship of the development work by at least one of the Parties is important. Similarly, the active support by Non-Government Organisations can be very significant in terms of the supply of data and information, personnel and expertise, as well as in generating wider political support for the initiative.

Whilst the wider conservation "landscape" has numerous types of agreements between countries; countries and non-government organisations or between international bodies, it is important to note that CMS was created to assist the conservation of migratory species and that it has established itself over the years in terms of initiating and managing large, and at times complex inter-governmental agreements. Clearly, this is a key role that the international community now expects CMS to fulfil. Indeed, it is not easy to see any other way that such conservation focused agreements could be initiated and managed effectively.

In addition to developing new agreements on the conservation of species, CMS could aim to play a leading role in relation to guidance on key issues impacting migratory birds, and seek to mainstream these with others, such as the private sector. It is important in this review to note the importance of conservation initiatives being effectively resourced. For example, CMS has played a leading role in this area over a number of years and has developed several MoUs which have resulted in real progress in the conservation of species. The main problem in terms of maintaining effort in many cases, however, appears to be the lack of resources to coordinate and implement these initiatives. Some of them are doing well because they have been benefitting from project money (Siberian Crane through GEF), Aquatic Warbler (EU LIFE Regulation) or from generous voluntary contributions e.g. the Raptor MoU, however, some of these resources have already dried up and the situation could well deteriorate given the global economic situation at present. This situation has important implications for any new initiative that must be funded effectively from the outset.

3.6.2 Geographical Priorities

Part 1 of this book has considered the current situation in relation to the number and type of agreements for each Region of the world. The following section outlines the suggested priorities for action based on this review and from the perspective of CMS activity in each Region.

Note that it is important in developing this work over the coming months to link closely to the options being developed by the "Future Shape" Group of CMS.

Central and South America

There has been some considerable activity in recent times, especially across South America, in developing agreements. Consequently, there are a number of MoUs in operation at present. These cover Ruddy headed goose *Chloephaga rubidiceps,* Andean flamingo *Phoenicopterus andinus* and Grassland birds. In addition, a number of intra-regional migrant species could benefit from the development of new agreements to focus effort on their conservation needs.

Flyways conservation in North of America is very well organised and has historically led the way in terms of population management and in developing linkages between staging areas on flyways. The potential to develop stronger linkages from the flyway work in North America to migratory species in South America could be explored further to achieve a new overarching conservation plan covering the whole range of species in both regions. It is notable that there are no really significant CMS activities in Central America. This is a significant gap in terms of developing a holistic approach to conservation management in this Region.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS should investigate the feasibility of developing an overarching conservation plan covering all the Americas; recognising especially the established programme of work in the North. This should initially take the form of a workshop to consider the specific needs and possible mechanisms with all the Parties and other interested countries and organisation in the Region.

Action: Given the specific need in relation to Neo-tropical intra-Regional migrants, CMS should review with the Parties in Central and South America, the potential for an agreement covering intra-Regional migrants in the Neo-tropics.

South East and East Asia

There is an urgent need for CMS to clarify what new approaches and agreements are needed in this Region and, working with Parties, to take action to help ensure the conservation of threatened species. The Region holds key biodiversity interest, with major areas of habitat supporting numerous migratory bird species. There are, however, significant pressures operating on many sites, leading to a relatively rapid reduction in biodiversity of these areas. For example, there are major development pressures especially along many coastal areas and on many terrestrial ecosystems including areas of forest, scrub forest and grasslands in particular.

There have been several recent initiatives, especially the East Asian – Australasian Flyway Partnership, related to the conservation of waterbirds that have helped to focus attention on the wider conservation issues in this Region. It is important for CMS to be clear about its relationship to this non-binding agreement

and to develop a forward timetable for action, ideally in partnership with it. This is particularly important given the perilous state of some species populations. Annex 3.1 provides a list of threatened waterbirds in the Region; illustrating the point that there are many species in need of urgent action.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that as with other Regions, the development of an overarching framework agreement would be an important step in the coordination of conservation action. Other specific action plans could be used to address particular conservation issues in the Region.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS should clarify its relationship with existing agreements and prioritise effort in relation to species using coastal and other threatened habitats such as forest areas in the Region. This is likely to require a Regional workshop with the Parties to explore the options and possible initiatives, to build relationships across the Region and to help ensure that some of the key countries and regional organisations, such as the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) are involved in this work from the outset.

The Pacific Region

The Pacific Region has historically been rather overlooked in terms of developing agreements to assist in the conservation of migratory birds. As part of the development of a series of overarching agreements at the global level, it will be necessary to clarify how best to include the requirements of this Region. In theory there are options for a stand-alone approach for the Region or to associate with one of the abutting Regions where framework agreements may be developed in due course.

Action: In a similar way to other Regions, an initial workshop to scope out the options; identify possible blockages to progress, and to map out a way ahead would be an important first step in defining the needs for conservation here.

Central Asia

There is an urgent need to address the key conservation requirements of this Region. Historically, the Region has been home to one of the earliest single species MoU; for the Siberian Crane *Grus leucogeranus*, however, it has rather tended to fall between the initiatives covering Europe and the Middle-East, and those of East Asia - Australasia. For example, it has long been recognised that there is a need to develop an agreement relating to waterbirds in the Region, building on the CMS Action Plan of 2006, yet this has still to finally come to fruition. Similarly, the work to develop the MoU relating to Raptors revealed the intricacies of determining the geographic scope of agreements abutting this Region. There remains a clear need for action to help join up the efforts of governments along the flyways within the Region. This work could take several forms but it is important at the outset to clarify the relationship with existing agreements drawn up primarily for implementation in Europe, the Middle East and Africa, namely AEWA and the MoU on Raptors. There is scope to integrate effort here, but alongside this is the need to retain a degree of autonomy regarding the implementation "on the ground" of any combined agreement within the Region. The model suggested in Section 3.7 seems applicable here with an overarching agreement and specific action plans, possibly with discrete funding, to assist in retaining a clear focus on implementation in the Region.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS evaluate, with the Parties in the Region, the potential to develop a new framework agreement for the Region or to align with existing agreements, namely AEWA and the Raptor MoU and single species action plans. The Parties should consider carefully the potential to initiate new agreements to address the key conservation priorities, while seeking to build synergies with existing agreements. This is likely to require a Regional level workshop to explore relevant issues.

Europe and Africa

There are several agreements presently active in the Region. The largest of these, involving 63 Parties is the African, Eurasian Waterbird Agreement, and the second largest being the relatively new MoU on the Conservation of Raptors having 29 Parties. There is a number of other single species MoUs related to the Aquatic warbler *Acrocephalus paludicola*, the Great Bustard *Otis tarda* and to the Slender-Billed Curlew *Numenius tenuirostris*. These agreements have, over recent years made a significant contribution to the conservation of the species involved. Note also that the 16th meeting of the CMS Scientific Council proposed the creation of an MoU covering grassland passerines (especially larks and pipits), in Southern and Eastern Europe.

One key priority in relation to the existing agreements is for the MoU on the conservation of Raptors to be fully implemented. The initial sponsorship of the development of the MoU by the governments of the United Kingdom and the United Arab Emirates has been fundamentally important in focussing attention on the conservation needs of these species. In addition, the considerable support from the government of the United Arab Emirates in hosting the Secretariat of the MoU has been instrumental to the progress so far. The imperative now must be to organise the first MoP and to raise the profile of the work needed to fully implement the agreement.

As mentioned above, AEWA is the largest and most established Agreement in the CMS family, hence its continued implementation, delivery on the ground and future funding is of key importance to the Convention overall. Maintaining momentum of this work is, therefore a priority.

In addition, due to the severe declines in populations of many Sub-Saharan migrant landbirds, consideration needs to be given to the development of an action plan or other measure to address their needs. Finally, note that there are two issues that require further investigation and clarification to provide the context for any future agreements in the Region, namely to clarify the nature and extent of East-West migration, and to clarify the conservation needs of intra-African migratory bird species.

Action: The Flyways Working Group stresses that maintaining the work of AEWA and developing the work on the Raptor MoU should be seen as a priority, whilst ensuring the

continued activity of the single species MoUs in the Region. Maintaining this level of activity is important whilst developing an overarching approach similar to agreements in the other Regions of the world. In addition, it has been suggested that the development of new MoUs for single species be limited in future to allow a greater focus on these two wider agreements.

Action: Following the approach suggested for other Regions of the world, CMS should consider the co-ordination of the existing agreements here to form a wider framework, under which the existing MoUs could sit.

Marine

The development of the Agreement on the Conservation of Albatross and Petrels (ACAP) was a key step in broadening the scope and activities of the Convention. Tackling the issue of bycatch and developing an Agreement that encompassed large parts of the world's oceans was a major achievement. This was made possible only due to the active support and resources provided by the governments of Australia and South Africa, along with the assistance of others. The Agreement has been extremely effective, by working with partner NGOs and other bodies to highlight the plight of these threatened species. As with AEWA its continued implementation and delivery should be seen as a priority for the Convention. From the analysis presented in the previous Parts of this publication, consideration now needs to be given to the conservation needs of those migratory marine bird species including shearwaters of the genera Calonectris and Puffinus; petrels of the genera Pterodroma, Bulweria and Pseudobulweria as well as frigate birds, terns, boobies and skuas, not already covered in ACAP or by AEWA. In addition, the conservation needs of gulls and of penguins need to be considered also.

In developing action for marine species the obvious step would be to build on the work of ACAP to cover the remaining priority species rather than develop another new agreement, with all the complexities of initiation that would bring. There are also real opportunities to develop a closer synergy with FAO and others, e.g. Regional Seas Conventions, on marine issues. In order for this approach to be fully effective it would be important also for other countries such as the USA to ratify the Agreement and for there to be more interaction with fisheries management organisations which have a key role in its implementation.

In addition, ACAP's progress on issues away from breeding sites is very seriously limited by the absence of the main fishing range states (except Spain) and, for breeding range state Parties, by the lack of representation by the authorities responsible for fisheries management. Clearly, getting these range states and organisations to be part of discussions would be an important step.

Action: The Flyways Working Group urges action by CMS to help in developing a coherent conservation framework for marine bird species not presently covered by ACAP or by AEWA. The Group suggests that this could perhaps be achieved by expanding the remit and work of ACAP, rather than initiating any new agreement, and suggest that this option needs to be discussed initially by ACAP, so that the Parties to that Agreement can form a clear view on how to proceed. The discussion and agreement to such a development from ACAP is essential. It is important in taking this work forwards that it is coordinated effectively between ACAP and AEWA.

3.6.3 Species Priorities

Part 2 considered the issue of species coverage in detail and highlighted that;

> *"with 14% of migratory bird species considered globally threatened or near-threatened, nearly 40% declining overall, and extinction risk increasing (including for those species specifically listed on CMS appendices and related agreements), continuing effective implementation of existing conservation efforts under CMS auspices remains an urgent priority".*

This is an important finding and is an important steer in relation to future priorities for action.

In relation to reviewing CMS species selection, Part 2 went on to state that with nearly 800 migratory bird species (35% of the total considered in Part 2) explicitly covered by different elements of the Convention, there is already considerable taxonomic coverage. The review did, however, suggest that additional consideration should be given to selected species with the highest extinction risk not currently listed on the Appendices or CMS instruments. The review noted also that specific consideration should be given to declining species or groups of species that would complement or add to existing initiatives where CMS is well placed to extend its current remit. Species should only be chosen after careful review and ideally chosen as flagships whose conservation will address wider issues. Again this gives an important steer on future priorities for action.

Part 2 noted also that there was already good geographical coverage for many migratory species, however, for CMS; the East Asia–Australasia region deserves particular attention on account of the severity of the threats seen there and due to the high proportion of threatened migratory bird species (waterbirds, soaring birds and seabirds) and declining forest/passerine species found there.

The following overview, Table 2.1, showing the relative coverage for species groups was produced as part of Part 2

Selected species groups not currently listed on CMS appendices or other instruments Species Group	Region	Total number species	Number (%) declining	Number (%) threatened or near-threatened
Petrels, shearwaters [1]	Global	74	38 (51%)	27 (37%)
Waterbirds [2]	East Asia–Australasia	61	23 (38%)	15 (25%)
Storks / Ibises [2]	East Asia	8	5 (63%)	5 (63%)
Bustards / Floricans	Africa–Eurasia, C. Asia, S & E. Asia	4	4 (100%)	4 (100%)
Pigeons / Parrots	East Asia–Australasia	65	22 (34%)	11 (17%)
Pigeons / Parrots	Americas	61	25 (41%)	15 (25%)
Passerines [3]	Americas	434	133 (31%)	25 (6%)
New world warblers [3]	Americas	50	22 (44%)	4 (8%)
Passerines	Africa–Eurasia	188	64 (34%)	3 (2%)
Passerines	Central Asia	125	46 (37%)	0 (0%)
Passerines	East Asia–Australasia	315	93 (30%)	10 (3%)
Larks	Africa–Eurasia, C. Asia, E. Asia	33	15 (46%)	0 (0%)

Notes: The species groups above were identified on the basis of four or more declining species facing similar threats and none currently listed on CMS appendices or associated instruments.

[1] 29 species of albatrosses and petrels are already covered by ACAP.

[2] These species are technically covered by the East Asian–Australasian Flyway Partnership but not specifically listed.

[3] These species are covered by the 'Partners in Flight' initiative.

Drawing from Table 2.1 above and from the earlier reviews more generally, it is clear that under the aegis of CMS waterbirds have good coverage under AEWA only, and are not yet covered effectively by CMS in the other Regions. Work by the East Asian – Australasian Flyway Partnership has, however, added considerable information for key sites in that flyway area.

Similarly raptors are covered under the Africa-Eurasia MoU but are not covered in the other regions of the World. Passerines have been somewhat neglected, probably due to the relative lack of data, and probably due in part to the complexity of the conservation management involved for species in many Regions. Real information gaps exist also for Central and East/SE Asian landbirds (birds of forests and agriculture/grasslands). This picture of data deficiency is not, of course true in all Regions and in Europe and North America some key studies have been undertaken on the migration of passerine species. Further analysis of the data and information derived from these studies may prove valuable context for any future agreements covering these species.

As noted above in the "Regional" section of this report, seabird species not currently covered by ACAP or AEWA are viewed as a priority for conservation action by the Flyways Group.

Action: In considering how best to respond to the species focussed priorities outlined here, the Flyways Working Group suggests that it is important to build on existing agreements and initiatives for these and related species. Equally, it does not seem practical to develop stand alone, formal and strictly legally binding agreements in every case; rather the priority is to develop action plans (that really are effective on the ground), set within a wider, generic legal framework (see Annex 3.2, showing the Diagram of Region Framework agreements and Action Plans). The Flyways Working Group suggests that this combined mechanism of Framework agreements and Action Plans could provide an approach that streamlines the use of resources by governments and that opens to way for more rapid conservation action in future, especially if developed in an open way that encourages opportunities to involve a wide range of stakeholders and partners.

3.7 Options for CMS instruments for migratoy birds

Given the pressures currently facing migratory bird species it is timely to review how best to take action to improve their conservation status. The reality is, however, that governments have increasingly limited resources, including staffing for this work and are likely to be wary of entering tightly fixed legal agreements that may commit them in ways that are difficult to fully cost into the future. In considering the way forward for agreements under the auspices of CMS it is therefore necessary to examine the high level options for action, and to outline the factors for consideration in the early, developmental stages of any new agreement that might be proposed. As with other bodies the Convention will, increasingly, have to strive for a more cost-effective approach for the delivery of outcomes. This approach is likely to be a major feature of the forthcoming Conference of the Parties.

3.7.1 High level policy options:

The following three options for future action are not mutually exclusive; rather they represent stages along a continuum of activity. They do, however, help clarify the possible approach from CMS to agreements in the future. In considering these options it is important to identify both the theoretically ideal position in terms of taking forward agreements, and the needs from a practical viewpoint, e.g. to identify what resources are actually available for this work.

OPTION 1: CONTINUE AS NOW

Do nothing (new); leave the situation as now, with a few large agreements and a number of smaller, more specific MoUs functioning effectively. Focus on the delivery of existing agreements on the ground, whilst progressing with new agreements only where a clear priority need has been identified and the Parties to the Convention have committed to resources to support its development.

OPTION 2: WIDER CO-ORDINATION

Consolidate the leading position and status of the Convention by using resources more efficiently and effectively to develop the global coverage and co-ordination of agreements. Develop new overarching Regional agreements by proactively filling the gaps in the present flyway agreement coverage, and underpin this with a series of flexible Action Plans, focused on the most important conservation priorities in each Region. Further develop the integration and coordination of effort between existing agreements to ensure their continued delivery across common themes.

OPTION 3: SCALE BACK

Cease the development of new agreements and integrate existing agreements to increase the efficient use of resources, especially personnel within the various secretariats. Specifically, do not start any new agreements over the coming triennium.

Action: The Flyways Working Group considers that Option 2 (Wider coordination) is the only high level option that will allow the Convention to fulfil its remit over the coming triennium and beyond. It is also the only way to ensure global level coverage by agreements designed to steer conservation action on priority species and issues.

3.7.2. Developing a new approach

If Option 2 above is to be implemented over a reasonable timescale, then a simpler and easy mechanism to administer the system of agreements would need to be put in place. Historically CMS has developed legal Agreements, such as AEWA and ACAP, usually with fully funded secretariats for waterbirds and for some seabirds respectively. It has developed also non-legally binding Memoranda of Understanding; normally without a prerequisite for a fully funded secretariat, but which are usually funded from voluntary contributions from the Parties. A key issue to consider for the future is whether this approach remains effective, given the level of problems faced by species around the world; the increasing rate of negative changes to important habitats and species, as well as the growing problem of resource constraints faced by governments. Alternatively, in future it may be desirable to develop a series of simpler, common legal framework agreements covering all migratory bird species in each of the Regions of the world. These overarching agreements could be supplemented with action plans focussing on the particular conservation requirements of key groups in the region. Whilst a radical step, and one that would need to be fully costed, this could have the benefit of dramatically speeding up the creation of a coherent overview of conservation priorities, and lead to the relatively rapid development of action plans, and so to a greater level of action on the ground within reasonable timescales. This approach could help minimise the administrative burden on the governments concerned, since they would potentially have to deal with only one legal agreement rather than multiple smaller scale arrangements as now. Clearly, the balance between the present situation, and any general agreement along with specific action plans, would need to be evaluated in greater detail before this step could be put into practice. It is worth noting, however, that this option introduces greater scope to develop a wide range of partnerships, for example, with multi-national companies and other corporate bodies, in the development and implementation of Action Plans designed to tackle the range of urgent habitat and species issues noted earlier in this report. Note that in developing such an approach it is important to maintain the momentum of present conservation action on the ground, so that important initiatives are not slowed.

The following outlines the potential advantages and disadvantages of this approach:

Table 3.1. Potential advantages and disadvantages of overarching regional Agreements and Action Plans

Potential Advantages

1 Relatively simple overarching agreement
2 Common formats across Regions
3 Simpler for countries to work with-only one agreement that is legally binding
4 Lower administrative and management costs
5 Relatively quick to put in place- to recognise the urgency of the situation
6 Common text to include the "threats" to species listed in section four of this report
7 Fills the obvious gaps in coverage and helps facilitate global level coordination
8 Action Plans focussed on really key priorities for action
9 Action Plans flexible and adaptable to individual situations
10 Increases participation and opens the way for better partnerships at the Action Plan level with NGOs, other Conventions and Governments as well as with the business sector.
11 Gives CMS a "new" initiative that will generate wider interest
12 Allows the development of an agreement that will cover all bird species, so helping bring attention to otherwise neglected groups
13 Facilitates the participation of non-Parties
14 Develops a truly Regional approach for CMS
15 Enables issues common to many groups of species to be tackled across the board, e.g. habitat change or unsustainable use.

Potential Disadvantages

1 Overarching agreements may be too simple
2 Overarching agreements may be too general and lack focus, by trying to relate to too many species or issues
3 Regional approach could go too far and the Convention lose its overall ability to coordinate activity
4 Real differences may develop between Regions to the detriment of delivery
5 Administrative burden may be much greater than envisaged after the set-up phase
6 Parties may not "buy in" to the Action Plans leading to limited delivery overall
7 Action plans may be too flexible and lack any real substance
8 Co-ordination between regions may not actually occur as a result
9 May need the creation of a global co-ordination meeting, held periodically to ensure that work is effective.
10 May be seen as getting in the way of delivery from the existing Agreements and MoUs and raises questions about their future status.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that CMS consider this new approach; with Regional Framework Agreements supported by Action Plans focussing on the most urgent habitat and species conservation need in each Region of the world.

Developing new agreements

Part 1 has examined and summarised the existing coverage of agreements from both a geographical and species perspective. It is clear from the conclusions of that review that each flyway-based conservation instrument has its own strengths and weaknesses related to the core purpose that it seeks to address. Whilst it is difficult to draw any clear conclusions about the value of one agreement compared to another, Part 1 highlights the following points for consideration in developing any agreement:

Guidelines for the development of new agreements:

- Which flyway and which migratory bird species/populations would the proposed instrument address?
- What are the main threats and pressures adversely affecting the conservation status of those species/populations?
- How and why would the proposed new instrument constitute the best possible framework for implementing the required conservation measures effectively and sustainably? (i.e. why would it be better than an alternative approach?)
- What is the broad geopolitical context? Is there a tradition of working through legally binding treaties or a more flexible voluntary partnership approach? Are there specific political factors involved that would make it difficult for key range states to join a legally binding agreement? For example, does the flyway include developing countries for whom a species-led approach to conservation may be less relevant than an approach based on the maintenance of multiple ecosystem services that provide tangible economic benefits (with conservation of migratory bird species a more indirect benefit)?
- Is there a strong reason to believe that an additional instrument would really enhance the conservation of migratory birds and their habitats? Could those same benefits be met or exceeded by strengthening existing instruments? Is there scope for enhanced cooperation and synergy between existing instruments? How could this be realised in practice?

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that the guidelines presented in 3.7.2 are useful in assisting in the evaluation of any new agreement, and could be adopted by CMS as a guide to aid Parties in such deliberation.

3.7.3 Identifying priorities and a planning for action

In developing any new approach it is important to examine the reasons why the present way of working has been developed, so that change is not simply introduced for its own sake.

It is clear that the main Convention is too "big" to tackle all the detailed issues and threats that are common to some migratory birds, hence the development of the present Agreements and MoUs, each allowing greater focus on particular conservation problems. Moving to a system of overarching Regional level Framework Agreements does of course have risks in that the larger and more general these agreements become, there is a danger of losing focus and of reducing the ability to get coherent scientific and technical advice on specific problems. This has, however, to be balanced by the opportunities it could create to tackle in a practical and holistic way some common problems that span species groups such as habitat destruction or the problems of alien species, for example. The route to maintaining focus lies in the development of Action Plans, designed to address specific issues and to carefully target resources on the priority problems that have been identified.

In developing the proposed way of working it is important to consider what this will mean in practice for the existing Agreements and MoUs. In tackling the issues impacting on migratory birds covered in Section 3.5, it is important to consider what a plan of action would look like? The following section presents complementary "lines" of activity for the future maintenance and development of agreements:

Initiative 1: Maintaining and developing existing agreements

1. Maintain the emphasis on the implementation of AEWA and ACAP, (Noting that both these Agreements have their own MoP and funding streams), as these are key delivery mechanisms for the Convention.

2. Support the work of the MoU on Raptors and encourage the holding of the First Meeting of the Parties as soon as possible. Facilitate the work of the agreement and begin conservation work on the ground across the full extent of the agreement area. Priority should be given to capacity building in developing countries within the agreement area.

3. Continue to support the work of the other existing smaller (in terms of Parties) single or multiple species MoUs.

Initiative 2: Developing global co-ordination

If the need to develop a global coordination is accepted, then this would lead to the following actions:

a. In order to achieve global coverage it is essential that several large countries assist in the development of this approach. The addition of Brazil, China, Russia and the USA would allow a much greater geographical "reach" and would allow substantial additional scientific and conservation resources to be deployed. Similarly, the addition of countries and regional organisations, such as ASEAN, in SE Asia in particular, would be of real benefit in the development of conservation action there.

b. Achieving a more comprehensive review of species to be listed on the Appendices to CMS is a key building block for global co-ordination.

c. The Flyways Working Group stressed the importance of developing synergies with the existing non-CMS arrangements presently covering the Americas and stressed the need to develop a conservation Action Plan for the Americas.

d. Establish a clear way forward for flyway management in the East and SE Asia and Australasia to encompass non waterbird species, building on the effective groundwork already established by others.

e. Continue the existing collaboration with the EAAFP and consider how to enhance implementation on the ground; and how the partnership can serve as a bridge towards a more permanent arrangement under CMS.

f. Consider the need for an agreement covering species in the "Pacific" and in particular consider how best to develop a practical approach to flyway management in this Region.

g. Establish the view of the Parties on how to take forwards existing work in the Central Asian Region. In particular, this should build on the work already done in this Region, where the existing draft action plan for waterbirds could be developed further in future.

h. Develop a plan of action for the "non-ACAP or AEWA seabirds," and consider the relationship of this group of species to work already underway in ACAP or AEWA. This should be taken forward in conjunction with FAO and with Regional Fishery Management Organisations. The Flyways management Group suggested that, this could, perhaps be discussed at the next meeting of ACAP in order to develop an informed view of the detailed issues involved. In general, the Flyways Working Group urged caution about AEWA becoming too immersed in marine issues, as this had not been its traditional area of operation.

In relation to Africa/Eurasia the key issue in taking forward the initiative was to consider the options for AEWA. The following options were highlighted at the Edinburgh Workshop:

- The status quo: AEWA dealing with waterbirds in the African-Eurasian flyway with binding action plans.

- CAF extension: extend the geographic scope of AEWA to cover the Central Asian Flyway

- Taxonomic extension: AEWA's coverage to include species other than waterbirds

- Geographic and species extension: AEWA to be the core of a wider framework birds agreement

These options were not mutually exclusive, as the second and fourth approaches could be followed in parallel, the former as a short-term interim solution while the latter, which was legally more complex, was being ratified.
The Flyways Working Group noted the importance and potential legal and cost implications of these options; and considered that further analysis of them was required.

The Parties should consider the role of the Flyway Working Group in providing coordination/guidance to oversee implementation of the set of initiatives (3.7.3). The meeting of the Flyways Working Group in Edinburgh offered unanimous support for continuation of the work into the next triennium.

Initiative 3: Developing Action Plans and the provision of information and data
Noting that initiatives 1 and 2 above are 'big' initiatives, potentially dealing with multi-species groups covering very large geographical areas, delivery on the ground will still require to be focussed and coordinated via shared Action plans, set within this common Regional framework. These Action Plans would be the main means to ensure that conservation action was effective, and could deal with a wide spectrum of issues ranging from those affecting only a small number of species to larger issues, e.g. habitat loss in a Region, that will affect many threatened species. The development of Action Plans should be prioritised according to the guidelines outlined in section 3.7.2.

A number of species groups are underrepresented on the Appendices of the Convention. It is important that data and information is made available for these groups, so that a better assessment of their population status can be made. This is particularly true for the Passerines, where the migration patterns may be complex and the ecology of many threatened species is not fully known. CMS should encourage the collection and use of data on such species and where possible Parties should be encouraged to publish migration atlases and other relevant information. Note that in many cases much ringing data already exists but has not yet been fully analysed, hence has a high potential value for future work.

Action: The Flyways Working Group suggests that the above set of initiatives (3.7.3) would help develop a global approach to the conservation of migratory birds. It recognises that this would, of necessity need to be completed over the medium term and stresses that it is important to address the geographical and species gaps identified in this and previous reviews.

3.7.4 Mechanisms for Action

Linking to other government led initiatives
It is important in developing the actions outlined here that the main bodies of the Convention see and agree with the proposals. The CMS Scientific Council, Standing Committee and COP all have a key role to play in the development and approval of future actions. In addition, given that many of the pressures on migratory birds, such as climate change and habitat destruction are also pressures on the human population, there is a need, and perhaps an opportunity, to mainstream flyways work alongside other initiatives from governments e.g. climate change monitoring and adaptation strategies, and sustainable development initiatives. These concepts could be incorporated into a resolution/recommendation for the next CMS COP. Indeed some members of the Flyways group has already briefly considered this approach with the ideal being a draft resolution/recommendation being taken to COP by representative Parties drawn from each of the major Flyway Regions of the world. In addition, this Report could be discussed, as appropriate, at each of the CMS family meetings.

Action: The Flyways Working Group recommends that a resolution/recommendation aimed to take forward the approaches outlined in this report is developed for the next CMS COP. Ideally this should be proposed jointly by Parties from each of the flyways of the world, so that the truly global nature of the issues are immediately obvious to the Conference of the Parties. Note that further work will be required to provide an outline costing for the implementation of this approach.

Indicators
The "health" of migratory bird populations can act as an ecological indicator of the wider state of the environment, hence the potential relevance of these species to these other government led programmes. This link still remains to be made in many cases, however. There is therefore a clear need for the development of thinking in this area, and for new ideas on how to establish the link from the science of migratory bird ecology to wider policy formation, through to action on the ground. It is essential, of course, that effective monitoring of the species and habitats is supported in order to provide the data and information essential to track the status of indicator species and habitats.

Note that CMS, CITES, WHC and Ramsar have agreed to designate a common representative for the Ad Hoc Technical Expert Group on Indicators for the CBD Strategic Plan on Biodiversity 2011-2020.

Action: There is a need to harmonise the use of indicators across the work of all the international Conventions, and CMS should examine the new CBD indicator set following the agreement of the new CBD strategic plan, targets and associated indicators to ensure a degree of harmony with them.

Working in partnership
A number of other international Conventions and bodies have a keen interest in the management of flyways, either from a species or habitat perspective, or both. Obvious partners for CMS in any new work include the Ramsar Convention, the Convention on Biological Diversity, the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), and regional frameworks organisations including the Association of Southeast Asian Countries (ASEAN), Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna (CAFF), Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR) and other

relevant aspects of the Antarctic treaty Regime, and the South Asia Cooperative Programme (SACEP). Importantly, the new Intergovernmental Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) could have a key role to play in highlighting the plight of migratory species and in illustrating the value of monitoring their populations as explained above. Similarly, many of the issues covered here such as climate change or wildlife disease present a common problem to other bodies. Working in partnership with the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD), the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and other internal UN groupings on these, and other issues, will be significant in future.

In taking any new initiative forward, the support of many non-governmental organisations such as BirdLife International, IUCN, Wetlands International, the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), and the Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) as well as various hunting organisations including the Federation of Association for Hunting (FACE), and the International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation (CIC), will be important. CMS should therefore plan to strengthen work in partnership with these and with others in developing the work. CMS can achieve its objectives in a cost effective way by continuing to find creative ways to support and resource the work of these partners.

3.7.5 Issues of profile

In a world where there are multiple conservation initiatives from governments and a range of international bodies and organisations, it is important that any new work related to flyway management "stands-out" and has an obvious profile with decision makers and with others. Work to achieve this should be included in any forward plan of activity and the issue of branding and profile considered as a key part of the plan.

3.7.6 Practicalities

The suggestions for a new way of working outlined in this report will take time to implement and will need to be completed in phases over the coming years.

As outlined in the introduction to this report, there are two key aims; to improve the global coverage of agreements under CMS to enhance the conservation status of threatened migratory birds; and to take action that will help achieve this on the ground, guided by the production of Action Plans to focus this activity on the top priorities. In achieving this it is important also to ensure that the present activity in existing agreements is not prejudiced. It seems logical, therefore, to concentrate new work initially on Regions where there is presently no structured agreement or where the existing agreements are very fragmented.

Developing Regional Frameworks

In taking this work forwards it will be important for the CMS Secretariat to consider how best to arrange any new agreement from a legal perspective. There are a number of options under the CMS system that could be deployed, ranging in levels of legal formality, with some being binding on the Parties and others being more flexible. Exactly how this is arranged will be for the Parties to decide, however, it may be useful to explore the legal options available.

It will be important over the coming triennium to use the existing agreements and structures to inform what action is needed. So for example, to request meetings of AEWA to consider how to develop the conservation needs for waterbirds, and to request meetings of ACAP to develop the wider approach for the conservation of seabirds. In addition, it will be necessary to organise workshops to consider how to proceed in using a generic approach to new agreements in the following Regions:

i Central Asia

ii East and Southeast Asia and Australasia

iii Central and South America with a view to developing an "all Americas" approach.

iv Pacific

These workshops could be phased over the triennium so that resources in the CMS Secretariat can be used effectively over that period.

Action: For the Secretariat and others to consider the options for the legal basis of Framework Agreements and to consider how best to deliver the Regional workshops listed above.

Developing underpinning Action Plans

The development of Action Plans is of key importance to any new approach; adding value in terms of better targeting of resources, being flexible and opening up options for enhanced partnerships with others. There are of course several ways that these Action Plans could be developed. For example, they could be focussed on particular species groups such as waterbirds or passerines; or could be structured primarily to tackle some of the key threats to migratory birds, such as habitat loss or climate change. Clearly, the next Conference of the Parties will need to take a view on how best to arrange these plans and to identify the priorities for action. In addition, it is important to note that there is likely to be a small number of highly threatened species where their ecological requirements are so specialised that a "one-off" Action Plan may be required, hence this situation should be accommodated in future.

Action: For the Secretariat and others to consider the legal basis for the creation and delivery of Action Plans as part of the overall approach.

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Annexes

Annex 3.1: Threatened waterbirds of East Asian-Australasian Flyway (EAAF) intertidal habitats

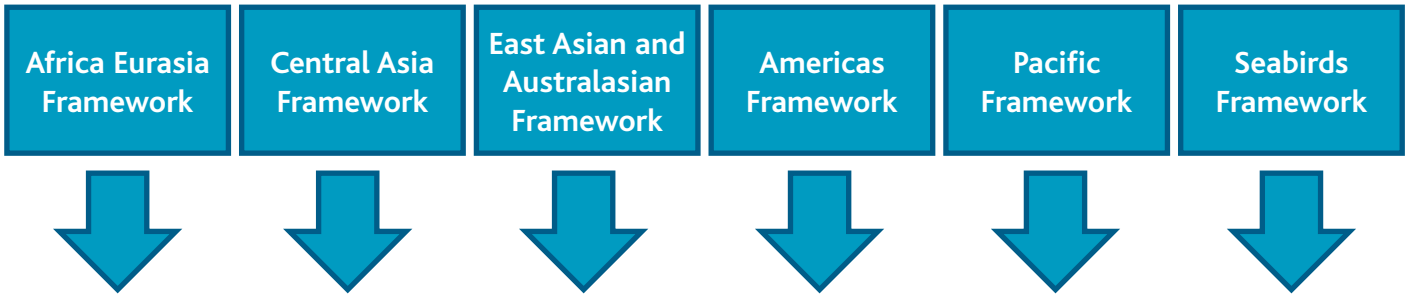
There are already 12 globally threatened waterbirds dependent on the intertidal habitats of the EAAF, especially those under threat in the Yellow Sea and elsewhere on the eastern seaboard of North Asia. By 2014 the list could include a total of 24 species with the addition of as many as 12 wader species.

Emphasising the importance of the EAAF is appropriate given that, of the 34 threatened waterbirds in the Flyway, there are already 12 globally threatened birds dependent on the rapidly diminishing intertidal habitats, especially those under threat in the Yellow Sea and elsewhere on the eastern seaboard of North Asia. By 2014 as many as nine wader species could have been added to this list as destruction of the Yellow Sea intertidal zone continues apace.

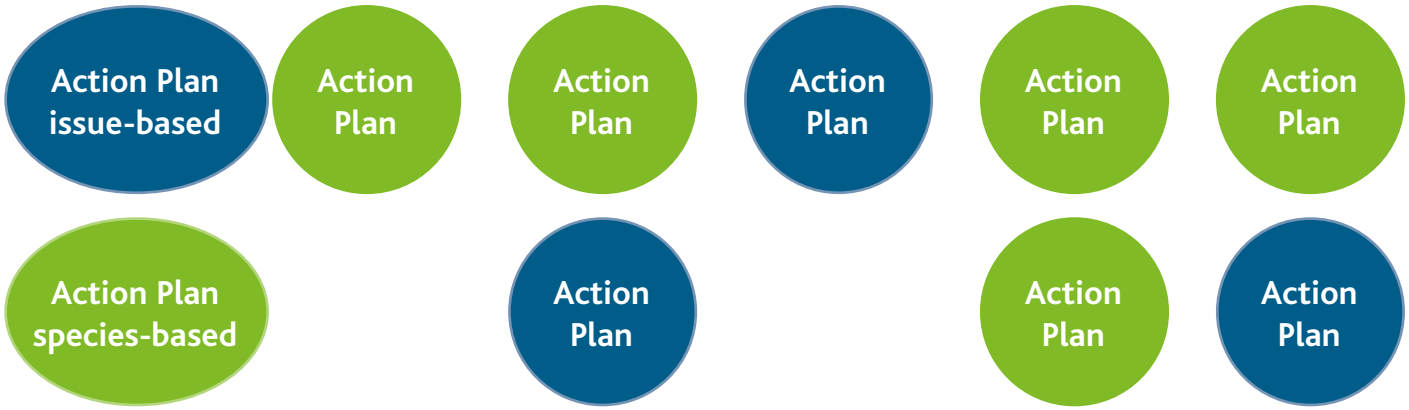
1. Spoon-billed Sandpiper *Eurynorhynchus pygmeus*
2. Spotted Greenshank *Tringa guttifer*
3. Eastern Curlew *Numenius madagascariensis*
4. Great Knot *Calidris tenuirostris*
5. Asian Dowitcher *Limnodromus semipalmatus*
6. Black-tailed Godwit *Limosa lapponica* (melanuroides subspecies)
7. Eurasian Curlew *Numenius arquata* (orientalis population)
8. Greater Sand Plover *Charadrius leschenaultia*
9. Grey-tailed Tattler *Tringa brevipes*
10. Terek Sandpiper *Xenus cinereus*
11. Bar-tailed Godwit *Limosa lapponica*
12. Curlew Sandpiper *Calidris ferruginea*
13. Red Knot *Calidris canutus*
14. Grey Plover *Pluvialis squatarola*
15. Lesser Sand Plover *Charadrius mongolus*
16. Ruddy Turnstone *Arenaria interpres*
17. Black-faced Spoonbill *Platalea minor*
18. Oriental White Stork *Ciconia boyciana*
19. Chinese Egret *Egretta eulophotes*
20. Saunders's Gull *Larus sandersi*
21. Relict Gull *Ichthyaetus relictus*

Annex 3.2: Schematic diagram of a new Agreement Framework

Level 1: Series of five overarching Legal Framework Agreements: Provide the overall approach.



Level 2: Series of Adaptable Action Plans focussing on priority species and issues.



in cooperation with

UNEP / CMS Secretariat
UN Campus
Platz der Vereinten Nationen 1
D-53113 Bonn
Germany

Tel: (+49) 228 815 24 01 / 02
Fax: (+49) 228 815 24 49
E-mail: secretariat@cms.int
www.cms.int

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