



AGREEMENT ON THE CONSERVATION OF
AFRICAN-EURASIAN MIGRATORY WATERBIRDS

Doc: AEWA/MOP 5.35
Agenda item:23
Original: English

Date: 11 April 2012

5th SESSION OF THE MEETING OF THE PARTIES

14 – 18 May 2012, La Rochelle, France

“Migratory waterbirds and people - sharing wetlands”

DRAFT REVISED CONSERVATION GUIDELINES NO. 2: GUIDELINES ON IDENTIFYING AND TACKLING EMERGENCY SITUATIONS FOR MIGRATORY WATERBIRDS

Introduction

Article IV.4 of the Agreement requires a set of Conservation Guidelines to be prepared and regularly reviewed. Paragraph 7.3 of AEWA Annex 3 (Action Plan) further specifies that the development of Conservation Guidelines shall be coordinated by the Secretariat, in consultation with the Technical Committee and with the assistance of experts from Range States. Paragraph 7.6 of the Action Plan also gives the Technical Committee the mandate to assess the guidelines prepared under paragraph 7.3 and formulate draft recommendations and resolutions relating to their development, content and implementation for consideration by the Meeting of the Parties (MOP). By MOP4, in September 2008, 12 different guidelines covering various aspects of conservation practice were developed and adopted.

As part of its work plan for 2009-2012, the Technical Committee considered the need to review previously adopted guidelines and produced, together with the Secretariat, revised versions of three Conservation Guidelines, including Conservation Guidelines No.2 (CG2): *Guidelines on Identifying and Tackling Emergency Situations for Migratory Waterbirds*. CG2 were thoroughly reviewed and updated as well as revised in certain parts. All amendments and additions are presented in track changes mode in this document. The draft revised CG2 were approved by the Technical Committee at its 10th Meeting in September 2011 and by the Standing Committee at its 7th Meeting in November 2011, for submission to MOP5.

Action requested from the Meeting of the Parties

The Meeting of the Parties is invited to review and adopt these revised Conservation Guidelines (draft Resolution AEWA/MOP5 DR10 *Revision and Adoption of Conservation Guidelines*).

Agreement on the Conservation of
African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)

AEWA Conservation Guidelines No.2

**Guidelines on Identifying and Tackling Emergency
Situations for Migratory Waterbirds.**

Revised version – September 2011

Prepared by

Wetlands International

First version prepared with co-funding from

**The Ministry of Agriculture, Nature and Food Quality, The Netherlands
Swiss Agency for the Environment, Forests and Landscapes (SAEFL)
Alterra Wageningen UR**

Compiled by: Albert Beintema, the late Dineke Beintema, Allix Brenninkmeijer, Simon Delany and Jeff Kirby and edited by Simon Delany and Derek Scott. E-mail for contact: aewa@unep.de

Milestones in the Production of the Guidelines:

Final draft: approved by the 2nd Session of the Meeting of Parties to AEWA in September 2002

Update: updated and published by the UNEP/AEWA Secretariat in April 2005

First revision: revised by the AEWA Technical Committee and finalized at the 10th Meeting of the AEWA Technical Committee in September 2011 and submitted to the 5th Session of the Meeting of the Parties to AEWA, 14-18 May 2012 in La Rochelle, France

Recommended Citation: AEWA (2012). AEWA Conservation Guidelines No. 2. Guidelines on Identifying and Tackling Emergency Situations for Migratory Waterbirds. AEWA Technical Series No. 16. Bonn, Germany.

Picture on the cover: © Martin Harvey/Still Pictures

CONTENTS

Preface.....	4
Acknowledgements	5
Introduction	6
Step chart.....	7
Step 1: Produce a list of possible emergency situations involving	8
migratory waterbirds	8
Step 2: Identify lead agencies, and divide tasks both nationally and	19
internationally	19
Step 3: Rank waterbird sites according to their susceptibility to	20
emergency situations.....	20
Step 4: Identify potential risks and negotiate safety measures with.....	21
industries located near waterbird sites	21
Step 5: Establish a national Emergency Response Notification System.....	22
Step 6: Adapt legislation where appropriate	23
Step 7: Raise public awareness	24
References and useful web sites	25
Useful contacts	26
Appendix I.....	30
Appendix II:.....	36

Preface

In Article II of the Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds, Parties agree, as a fundamental principle, to take coordinated measures to maintain migratory waterbird species in a favourable conservation status or to restore them to such a status. To this end, and within the limits of their national jurisdiction, the Parties agree to apply a number of general conservation measures prescribed in Article III of the Agreement, as well as a number of more specific actions determined in the Action Plan appended to the Agreement.

In paragraph 7.3 of the Action Plan, the Agreement Secretariat is required to coordinate the development of a series of Conservation Guidelines, including guidelines on identifying and tackling emergency situations for migratory waterbirds, to assist the Parties in the implementation of their obligations under the Agreement.

In 1997 a first edition of the *Guidelines on Identifying and Tackling Emergency Situations for Migratory Waterbirds* was prepared by Wetlands International with financial support from the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries in the Netherlands, which was adopted by the first Meeting of the Parties in Cape Town, South Africa, in November 1999, subject to minor amendments.

The UNEP/AEWA Secretariat and Technical Committee, which are requested by Resolution 2.3 to regularly review all the existing AEWA guidelines, revised the *Guidelines on Identifying and Tackling Emergency Situations for Migratory Waterbirds* in 2011; amendments made in the course of that revision are reflected in the present version of the guidelines.

Acknowledgements

These conservation guidelines were produced with financial support from the Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries/ Department of Nature Conservation, the Swiss Agency for the Environment, Forests and Landscape/Division of Nature, and the DLO-Institute for Forestry and Nature Research (IBN-DLO, now Alterra, Wageningen) of the Netherlands. The current version is a revision by the AEWA Technical Committee in September 2011.

Drafts of five guidelines were discussed in Workshop 2 during the 2nd International Conference on Wetlands and Development in Dakar, November 1998. Many workshop participants gave useful comments.

The following people, in alphabetical order, provided information used for these guidelines, or commented on various drafts: Rachel Adams, Mindy Baha El Din, Sherif Baha El Din, Carlos Bento, Olivier Biber, Gerard Boere, Joost Brouwer, Luit Buurma, John Caldwell, John Clorley, Luis Costa, Earle Cummings, Elijah Danso, Nick Davidson, Bernard Deceuninck, Tim Dodman, Bob Douthwaite, Paul Eagles, Bart Ebbinge, Augustine Ezealor, Lincoln Fishpool, Vincent Fleming, Scott Frazier, Umberto Gallo-Orsi, Mariano Gimenez-Dixon, Andy Green, Patrick Green, Ward Hagemeyer, Elizabeth Halpenny, Jens Haugaard, René Henkens, John Harradine, David Hill, Baz Hughes, Alan Johnson, Tim Jones, Heribert Kalchreuter, Elena Kreuzberg-Mukhina, Namory Keita, Alexander Kozulin, Tony Laws, Yves Lecocq, Vicky Lee, Aivar Leito, Bert Lenten, Peter Leonard, Alison Littlewood, Heidi Luquer, Sonja Macys, Jesper Madsen, Gernant Magnin, Jamshid Mansoori, David Melville, Charles Mlingwa, Jérôme Mokoko Ikonga, Jean-Yves Mondain-Monval, Johan Mooij, Mike Moser, Wim Mullié, Dan Munteanu, Paul Murphy, Stephen Nash, Kike Olsder, John O'Sullivan, Michael Oneka, Dwight Peck, Stephan Pihl, Jim Porter, Crawford Prentice, David Pritchard, Rivo Rabarisoa, Marc van Roomen, Paul Rose, Rui Rufino, Luc Schifferli, Valentin Serebryakov, Marcel Silvius, Jan Willem Sneep, David Stroud, Barry Taylor, Wolf Teunissen, Graham Tucker, Janine van Vessem, Zoltan Waliczky, George Wallace, Rob van Westrienen, Johanna Winkelman, Marja Wren, Henk Zingstra.

Introduction

An emergency situation for migratory waterbirds is a situation where a sudden, unusual change takes place (or is likely to take place) in the occurrence or mortality rate of waterbirds, or in the extent or condition of the habitats on which they depend. While it might not always be possible to deal with such situations effectively, it is very important to react as publicly as possible to draw people's attention to the situation. Public awareness is of extreme importance, especially in the case of human-induced catastrophic events, because it may help to prevent similar events from happening in the future.

Thus, keywords in successfully addressing emergency situations are:

- alertness
- public awareness
- prevention

Emergency situations can be recognised when:

- populations of waterbirds show sudden changes in size, distribution or mortality rate;
- conditions occur which by experience are known to lead to such changes.

Although it is the effect on populations that really matters, it is important to be able to recognise the conditions as soon as they occur, because by the time population changes are apparent, it is often too late to take effective action.

It is not easy to define criteria for recognising conditions that lead to emergency situations for the entire AEWA area. This will vary between regions and countries. In some areas, a small change in numbers may be alarming, while in other areas huge fluctuations are normal. Severe frost, for example, may be catastrophic in temperate Europe, will never occur in most of Africa, and is quite normal in Siberia. Peat fires may destroy waterbird habitats in northern latitudes, but are irrelevant to desert countries in Africa and the Middle East, and so on. Each country (or group of adjacent countries with similar conditions) will have to develop its own criteria.

Development of national criteria within the AEWA framework should be based specifically on the effects of an event on waterbirds. For migratory waterbirds, an event can always be classified as an emergency situation when:

- individuals of a Globally Threatened species are involved;
- more than 10% of the flyway population of a species with an unfavourable conservation status is threatened (these species are listed in Columns A and B of Table 1 of the AEWA Action Plan);
- more than 30% of the flyway population of a species with a favourable conservation status is threatened (these species are listed in Column C of Table 1 of the AEWA Action Plan).

A clear distinction should be made between permanent or slowly developing threats and sudden emergencies. Permanent threats and threat assessment are dealt with in Guidelines No.4: *Guidelines on the management of key sites for migratory waterbirds*.

Step chart

To identify and tackle emergency situations affecting migratory waterbirds, each country should take the following steps:

Step 1: ~~Produce a list of possible emergency situations involving migratory waterbirds.~~

Deleted: Identify lead agencies, and divide tasks both nationally and internationally.

Step 2: ~~Identify lead agencies, and divide tasks both nationally and internationally.~~

Deleted: Produce a list of possible emergency situations involving migratory waterbirds.

Step 3: Rank waterbird sites according to their susceptibility to emergency situations.

Step 4: Identify potential risks and negotiate safety measures with industries located near waterbird sites.

Step 5: Establish a national Emergency Response Notification System.

Step 6: Adopt new legislation or adapt existing legislation where appropriate.

Step 7: Raise public awareness.

Step 1: Produce a list of possible emergency situations involving migratory waterbirds

Deleted: 2

Emergency situations for migratory waterbirds can be caused by human actions or by natural causes, although the distinction is not always clear (see Box 1).

Box 1: The human factor in the impact of a natural disaster

A non-AEWA example

This example features a non-migratory, non-waterbird from outside the AEWA area, but is one of the best examples to illustrate how human activities can affect the impact of natural disasters.

In 1989, Hurricane Hugo hit the coast of South Carolina in the USA, and severely damaged the Francis Marion National Forest. This would not have been a national ornithological emergency situation, had this forest not been the last stronghold of the Red-cockaded Woodpecker *Picoides borealis*, a species threatened with extinction.

The Red-cockaded Woodpecker lives in long-leaf pine forests, nesting in trees of 90 years of age and older that suffer from heart rot. Forestry management had rendered virtually all forests in its former range unsuitable for nesting, reducing its range to a few pockets, with over 60% of the world population in one single forest: the Francis Marion National Forest. Hurricane Hugo knocked down 90% of the trees suitable for nesting.

After some years with very low productivity, the species is now gradually recovering, thanks to new nesting trees becoming available through ageing, and the use of artificial nest sites.

(source: South Carolina Department of Natural Resources)

An AEWA example

Due to eutrophication and impoverishment of wetland habitats, the number of large insect species in Northwest European marshes has been greatly reduced. Large insects such as dragonflies are the main source of food for chicks of the Black Tern *Chlidonias niger*.

The occurrence of dragonflies shows distinct seasonal peaks, which differ between species. With fewer species available, there is an increased risk of short periods when no food is available for the tern chicks. This problem does not appear in breeding seasons with fine weather, but can occur during breeding seasons with periods of adverse weather.

Mass mortality of Black Tern chicks is often observed during prolonged periods of cold, rainy weather, and it may be concluded that the weather is causing an emergency situation. However, in a more diverse habitat with more prey species available, the same weather conditions would not cause an emergency at all.

In The Netherlands, a former major stronghold of the species in the Western Palearctic, Black Terns have shown a decline of more than 90% in recent decades.

(Source: Beintema, 1997)

Possible causes of emergency situations are:

- Extreme weather
- Earthquakes and volcanic activity
- Infectious diseases
- Botulism
- Harmful algal blooms
- Predation
- Introduction of alien species
- Fire
- Oil spills
- Chemical pollution
- Nuclear accidents
- Lead poisoning
- War

These are briefly discussed below.

Extreme weather

Extreme weather conditions affecting waterbirds include:

- adverse weather during the breeding season, causing low reproductive success;
- unusually cold weather in winter at temperate and northern latitudes, causing high mortality;
- excessive rainfall and flooding;
- drought.

The weather is beyond human control. Once populations of waterbirds have been affected, the only practical measure that can be taken is to optimise conditions for the recovery of the populations by increasing protection (see Box 2).

Box 2: Migratory waterbirds in the cold

Problems with cold weather are typical of those parts of the AEWA that lie close to the frost-line in the northern winter and support large numbers of wintering waterbirds. The countries involved lie in a belt running from Northwest Europe southeast through Central Europe and the Black Sea region to the countries bordering the southern half of the Caspian Sea.

Two possible measures to help waterbirds through a severe winter are winter feeding and shooting suspensions.

Winter feeding

Winter feeding is popular in many parts of Europe, but should not be encouraged. Common species such as the Mallard *Anas platyrhynchos* and Common Coot *Fulica atra* tend to profit disproportionately, because they are well adapted to the human environment. The shyer, rarer or more vulnerable species often escape attention, and may even suffer from competitive disadvantages.

Deleted: bans

Deleted: Winter feeding¶

Deleted: ¶

Deleted: Shooting suspensions

Deleted: bans

Shooting suspensions

As winter conditions vary greatly between countries, the criteria for imposing shooting suspensions will have to be defined specifically for each country involved, in close collaboration with hunting organisations. Co-ordination between countries is necessary to avoid situations in which birds escaping cold weather in one country are shot in large numbers in a neighbouring country. The AEWA Technical Committee could play a central role in this international co-ordination. Apart from shooting, different recreational activities on wetlands may also cause unnecessary disturbance and may need to be managed. Possible solutions include education, voluntary and statutory agreements and zonations (Davidson & Rothwell 1993).

The following example of a protocol for the introduction of a temporary shooting suspension, was developed in Great Britain, and is based on ground conditions (air and grass temperatures). The protocol consists of six steps:

1. If the ground has been reported frozen for 5 successive days for more than half of the designated British coastal weather stations, a state of alert is declared.
2. On the 7th day the hunters' organisation is informed. Data on wildfowl condition, behaviour and movements are collated from hunting organisations, RSPB reserves network, WWT and BTO (bird ringers). Hunting organisations call for voluntary restraint in shooting if and where appropriate.
3. On the 13th day, the Secretary of State is normally asked to institute a shooting suspension, which, after signing, comes into effect at 9 am on the 15th day. This period enables widespread dissemination of the message that a suspension is coming into place through the mass media.
4. Three consecutive days of intermittent thaw terminates the count-down process.
5. Shooting is suspended for an initial period of 14 days, but is reviewed after 7 days and can be lifted early if conditions improve. A second suspension can be imposed, depending on conditions.
6. Voluntary restraint is used to continue respite for waterfowl after a suspension if local conditions require.
7. Suspensions can be instituted for Great Britain as a whole, or for Northern Ireland, Scotland, Wales or England alone.

(Source Stroud et al 2006, as amended)

Flooding is not normally a problem for waterbirds outside the breeding season, but may be catastrophic for nesting birds. River flooding is compounded by deforestation and loss of wetlands upstream, both of which lead to accelerated runoff. Wise management of river basins often requires international co-operation.

Drought may cause waterbirds to move out of an area. If there are insufficient alternative sites for the displaced birds, this may be classified as an emergency situation. Drought affects both breeding birds and non-breeding birds. Artificial flooding as a remedy for drought should be treated with caution, as irregular drought may be essential to the maintenance of certain natural ecosystems (*e.g.* in the Sahelian floodplains in Africa).

Earthquakes and volcanic activity

Earthquakes and volcanic activity have unpredictable and catastrophic impacts over wide geographical areas. There are no well-documented cases of these impacts adversely affecting waterbird populations, but in 1997 on the West Indies island of Montserrat a major volcanic eruption destroyed most of the habitat of the endemic, globally threatened, forest-dwelling Montserrat Oriole *Icterus oberi*.

Deleted: bans

Deleted: ban

Deleted: <#>This organisation will then gather its own data, and call for voluntary restraint in shooting. ¶

Deleted: ban

Deleted: banned

Deleted: but this period can be extended or shortened

Deleted: <#>Bans can be instituted for Great Britain as a whole, or for Scotland, Wales or England alone.¶

Deleted: : Stroud, 1992

Deleted: Infectious diseases¶

¶ Infectious diseases, such as bird malaria, bird influenza (bird 'plague') and bird cholera, are serious threats to poultry, but rarely reach epidemic proportions in nature. A more serious potential threat is Newcastle disease (see Box 3). ¶

In the event of such a natural catastrophe, rapid deployment of scientists with appropriate experience to assess the situation and implement remedial measures is essential. Assessment of the necessity for and feasibility of a captive breeding programme for any threatened population might be included in such an assessment. See:

<http://www.rspb.org.uk/ourwork/projects/details/198131-montserrat-programme->

Deleted: <http://www.rspb.org.uk/science/ecology/ot-herwork/montserratoriole/index.asp>

Infectious diseases

Infectious diseases, such as bird malaria, Avian Influenza (bird 'plague') and bird cholera, are recognized as serious threats to poultry, but until recently rarely reached epidemic proportions in nature. Since 2005 concerns grew significantly about conservation problems related to emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases of birds, particularly Avian Influenza H5N1 (Box 3). Significant gaps in knowledge concerning ecology and epidemiology of influenza viruses circulating in populations of waterbirds also became apparent. As a result a special **Scientific Task Force on Avian Influenza and Wild Birds** was established by the UNEP CMS in close cooperation with the AEWA in order to obtain the best scientific advice on the conservation impact of the spread of HPAI H5N1, including assessing the potential role of migratory birds as vectors of the virus (see: <http://www.aiweb.info/>). Importantly Avian Influenza H5N1 has brought it to attention that there is a two-way exchange of quickly evolving avian pathogens between agro-ecological and natural environments. This complex and poorly understood host-pathogen system is recognized as posing a significant threat to migratory birds. There are now strong concerns about emerging and re-emerging infectious avian diseases, particularly those originating from poultry production systems, as a serious global conservation problem that requires equal attention of veterinary and nature conservation authorities (Box 3).

It is crucial that outbreaks of infectious diseases are promptly detected, reported to, investigated and appropriately contained by competent veterinary authorities to prevent further spread of infection among wild birds, domestic animals and humans. Strong collaboration among wildlife conservation/management agencies, hunting organizations and veterinary services is viewed as critically important to address the threat of infectious diseases affecting wild birds. Similarly, setting up adequate and sensitive enough passive or active surveillance systems for avian diseases in the populations of wild birds requires their joint systematic efforts (see: http://www.fao.org/avianflu/en/wildlife/info_res.htm). As admitted in the resolutions of the Major International Conventions, control of wild birds as a disease reservoir or destruction of their habitats are absolutely inappropriate responses to epizootics of H5N1 or any other infectious avian diseases of wild origin (<http://www.aiweb.info/document.aspx?DocID=399>).

More information on various diseases affecting waterfowl can be found at:

http://wildlife1.wildlifeinformation.org/List_Vols/Waterfowl_Mod/List_WaterfowlDiseases.htm

Ramsar guidance on responding to the continued spread of highly pathogenic avian influenza can be found at: <http://www.ramsar.org/pdf/lib/hbk4-04.pdf> and http://www.ramsar.org/pdf/res/key_res_x_21_e.pdf

Botulism

Botulism is a paralytic, frequently fatal disease, caused by ingestion of toxin produced by the bacterium *Clostridium botulinum*. Death is usually from respiratory arrest, cardiac arrest or drowning. Outbreaks affecting thousands and even millions of birds have been recorded. This is probably the most important disease of migratory birds, on a world-wide basis. All species of waterfowl are considered very susceptible, with dabbling and filter-feeding species most likely to ingest the toxin (as are shorebirds feeding by probing mud); other birds (waders, gulls, herons) are less susceptible to Type C toxin. Raptors, gallinaceous birds, songbirds are affected occasionally. Vultures, however, appear to be resistant. Survivors of botulism do not appear to develop any immunity: an individual may be affected several times in one summer. The fatal toxin is only produced when the bacterium itself is infected with a specific bacteriophage, and only at temperatures above 20°C. Outbreaks may occur when infected carcasses lie exposed on the surface and insects spread the infection to other carcasses. Botulism occurs in shallow water with little flow, and is often associated with oxygen depletion after collapsing algal blooms. This happens more often in artificial water bodies than in nature, and is aggravated by eutrophication. The only measures that are ecologically acceptable to combat

outbreaks of botulism are temporarily increasing water depth, improving water circulation (and oxygenation) and, if the site is accessible and enough people can be mobilised, removal of carcasses. Emphasis should be on prevention through the maintenance of water quality.

Prevention of botulism outbreaks: Reduce the chance of initiation of outbreaks by avoiding conditions for bacterial replication - reduce organic inputs into wetlands, eliminate factors that introduce large amounts of decaying matter: In avicultural conditions, increased water flow and aeration, designs to increase ease of cleaning, deepening banks, alteration of feeding practices to minimize build-up of organic and protein loads, prompt removal of carcasses. Avoid sudden increases of water level, e.g. flooding of dry areas, in summer (may produce drowned vegetation & invertebrates as substrate), or sudden decreases in water level (leading to death of fish, aquatic invertebrates & vegetation) or fluctuations in water level. (N.B. draw-downs are used as part of management of areas for shorebirds). Avoid discharges of wastewater or sewage into wetlands when many waterfowl or shorebirds are using the area or are likely to use an area during the following 30 days. Avoid water drawdowns for e.g. fish management in the summer, and remove fish carcasses if such actions are carried out. Avoid running power lines over wetlands if possible: carcasses from collisions may act as a focus - a single waterfowl carcass can allow the production of several thousand toxin-laden maggots and also seed the environment with more botulism spores as it decomposes. Where possible, monitor and modify environmental conditions to prevent the pH and salinity of wetlands from reaching or being maintained within high hazard levels. If possible, construct wetlands in 'botulism-prone areas' in a way allowing complete and rapid drainage.

Containment of outbreaks: Remove carcasses promptly and bury or burn, particularly during outbreaks and during the period when, for a particular wetland, outbreaks have occurred previously. Burning preferred, bury deep and in limed pits if necessary. (N.B. carcass removal is labour-intensive and not always very efficient!). Flush pools with fresh water if feasible in face of outbreak. Provide artificial aeration in man-made lakes and ponds during summer to keep oxygenation levels from dropping. Record dates, places and environmental conditions of outbreaks; in future years increase surveillance from 10-15 days before earliest recorded outbreaks to 10-15 days after latest date, concentrating on known "hot-spots" where outbreaks are frequent, and be prepared to remove and dispose of vertebrate carcasses during this time period; perhaps deny access of the area to birds if necessary and feasible, during 'risk' time. For more info on avian botulism see:

<http://wildlife1.wildlifeinformation.org/S/00dis/toxic/biotoxin/botulism.htm>
http://www.nwrc.usgs.gov/wdb/pub/wmh/13_2_4.pdf
http://www.jncc.gov.uk/PDF/pub07_waterbirds_part4.2.3.pdf
<http://www.pnr-rpn.ec.gc.ca/nature/migratorybirds/avianb/ce00s02.en.html>

Harmful algal blooms

Red tides (brown tides) are massive blooms of microscopic algae occurring in relatively warm seas. When algae die off, bacterial breakdown may result in anoxic conditions. Mortality of fish and shellfish may be followed by mass mortality of waterbirds (see Box 3), especially if the birds are unable to move elsewhere, e.g. young birds at breeding colonies. Red tides have been known since historic times, but now occur with increasing frequency in coastal areas where the sea has been enriched with nutrients (eutrophication). Blooms of blue-green algae also occur in fresh water.

Once an algal bloom is in progress, it is too late to do much, as the algae will die and decompose anyway. The problem can be 'diluted' by increasing water flow, which also helps to aerate the water. The main solution to the problem of harmful algal blooms is prevention through the maintenance of water quality.

Deleted: Botulism is caused by the bacterium *Clostridium botulinum* Type C, which develops in decaying protein where it may produce a highly poisonous toxin. The toxin is only produced when the bacterium itself is infected with a specific bacteriophage, and only at temperatures above 20°C. ¶

¶ Outbreaks may occur when infected carcasses lie exposed on the surface and insects spread the infection to other carcasses. Botulism occurs in shallow water with little flow, and is often associated with oxygen depletion after collapsing algal blooms. This happens more often in artificial water bodies than in nature, and is aggravated by eutrophication (see Box 3). ¶

¶ The USA and Canada have the longest tradition of combating botulism, and have developed a variety of measures aimed at reducing the frequency of outbreaks. However, some of these are considered to be inappropriate for the AEWa area, as they bring about drastic permanent changes to the wetlands. The only measures that are ecologically acceptable are temporarily increasing water depth, improving water circulation (and oxygenation) and, if the site is accessible and enough people can be mobilised, removal of carcasses. Emphasis should be on prevention through the maintenance of water quality. ¶

Box 3: Dangerous micro-organism

Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza subtype H5N1

Avian Influenza H5N1 is a highly pathogenic infection for most species of waterbirds (see: <http://www.aiweb.info/document.aspx?DocID=355>). Since 2005 many mortality events among migratory and resident birds related to the infection were reported from AEW region, as well as outside of it, and many more were likely to be undetected or underestimated.

Currently, AI subtype H5N1 is believed to at least temporarily/seasonally circulate in the populations of wild aquatic birds in parts of the AEW region, although there is neither consensus as for its potential reservoir species nor about basic ecology and epidemiology of the disease. Whatever original sources of the infection are, it is clear that the virus can potentially cause considerable conservation damage, as was the case of Qinghai Lake in 2005, when an estimated total of 5-10 % of the world population of the Bar-headed Goose *Anser indicus* died in a single mortality episode. Continuing circulation of HPAI H5N1 in natural environments poses a serious potential threat to several AEW populations of critically endangered species particularly those that are highly concentrated / localized within the disease reported area during wintering or moulting seasons (e.g. *Oxyura leucocephala*, *Rufibrenta ruficollis*, *Pelecanus crispus*, *Marmaronetta angustirostris*, *Numenius tenuirostris*), when outbreaks of Avian Influenza occur most often. In Europe swans, diving ducks and grebes were particularly frequently found dead as a result of infection with the H5N1 virus, though these epizooties were localized and never developed into large-scale mortality events of the magnitude reported from Asia (e.g. Qinghai Lake in China, 2005-2009; Ubsu-Noor Lake in Russia, 2006-2009, coastal areas of Azerbaijan, 2006). For more information about Avian Influenza and wild birds, please, see <http://www.aiweb.info/>.

Newcastle disease

Newcastle disease is a highly infectious, debilitating viral poultry disease that may be very dangerous for concentrations of waterbirds. Symptoms are rapid breathing, neck twisting and paralysis.

Species of Anatidae are fortunate in being resistant to Newcastle disease, but other families of waterbirds are vulnerable. There have been no recorded outbreaks of the disease in the AEW area, but mass mortality of cormorants *Phalacrocorax* spp. and terns *Sterna* spp. has been reported in the USA and Canada. Newcastle disease has been found in poultry in the AEW area, and there is therefore always a risk of an outbreak occurring at sites with concentrations of waterbirds.

South Africa has imposed severe restrictions on the taking of poultry products to their outlying weather stations on Marion Island in the Indian Ocean and Gough Island in the Atlantic, to avoid the possibility of introducing Newcastle disease amongst the millions of nesting seabirds.

Botulism

Mass mortality of waterbirds from botulism was first observed in 1910 in the USA, where it now affects millions of waterbirds every year. In the AEW area, botulism has been reported sporadically sometimes affecting thousands of birds. Largest mortality was recorded in the North of Caspian Sea (Russian Federation) in 1982 with a million waterbirds reported to die. AEW range countries where botulism was recorded in wild birds include: The Russian Federation, Sweden, Denmark, England, Netherlands, Germany, Italy, Spain, Ireland, Wales, Norway, the Czech Republic, France, South Africa.

Poisonous algal blooms

Some dinoflagellates causing algal blooms, such as *Alexandrium* spp., produce toxins that accumulate in filter-feeding molluscs, which are not affected themselves. Consumption of such molluscs may produce various kinds of poisoning in humans, one of which, Paralytic Shellfish Poisoning (PSP), can be lethal, and may also kill large numbers of seabirds. PSP is indigenous to North America, but PSP-toxin producing algae have been found in European and Australian waters since the 1980s, and outbreaks have been recorded in Portugal in recent years.

Deleted: Newcastle disease¶

Deleted: Botulism¶

Deleted: in Europe and South Africa. Countries that have reported outbreaks of botulism include:¶

Year first reported	Country¶
<#>USA¶	
1914 .	Canada ¶
1923 .	Uruguay ¶
1937 .	Australia ¶
1960 .	South Africa ¶
1967 .	Denmark¶
<#>UK¶	
<#>Netherlands¶	
1971 . .	Germany¶
1972 . .	New Zealand¶
1973 . .	Italy¶
1973 . .	Spain¶
1973 . .	Japan¶
1976 . .	Mexico

Deleted: ¶
(Source: Avian botulism overview:¶
http://www.pnr-rpn.ec.gc.ca/nature/migratorybirds/avianb/ce00s02_en.html)¶

Deleted: Poisonous algal blooms¶

Predation

An emergency situation warranting predator control may arise when predators reach previously predator-free islands with breeding colonies of waterbirds. In such cases, total eradication of the predator on the island may be the only solution, especially if the birds have no safe alternative sites in the vicinity.

Introduction of alien species

The three main types of alien species that may threaten waterbirds to the point of an emergency situation are:

- alien predators (e.g. North American Mink *Mustela vison* in Europe);
- alien waterbirds (e.g. Ruddy Duck *Oxyura jamaicensis* competing with White-headed Duck *Oxyura leucocephala*);
- invasive plant species that cause major changes to the habitat (e.g. *Pistia stratiotis* and *Eichhornia crassipes* in warm countries).

In the case of the introduction of an invasive alien species, the early responses are likely to be more successful. Once an alien species has become widely established, eradication may prove to be impossible. Public awareness of the potential problems of alien species and prevention of further introductions are therefore the key issues. No alien species should ever be deliberately introduced without detailed assessment of the possible consequences.

For more information, see Guidelines No.10 Guidelines on Avoidance of Introductions of non-native Waterbird Species and Web-link: http://www.unep-aewa.org/meetings/en/mop/mop4_docs/meeting_docs_pdf/mop4_12_non_native_species_corr1.pdf

Fire

Fire can pose a threat to waterbird habitats in two main ways:

- direct effects of peat fires;
- indirect effects of oil fires.

Peat fires may destroy boreal and sub-arctic bogs and tropical peat swamps. The risk is increased when water levels have been lowered for agriculture. Peat fires are difficult to combat, as they can burn underground and continue to smoulder and spread unnoticed for long periods. Digging ditches to stop the spread of a fire may help, but there is a risk that opening up the soil will enable fresh air to reach the smouldering peat, thus re-activating the fire. Ditches are also damaging to wetlands, and if not thoroughly closed afterwards, will increase drainage. Legal restrictions on the use of fire in sensitive areas may help in the prevention of fires.

Extensive reed fires may destroy breeding and wintering habitats for number of waterbirds. Temporary measures should include the introduction of hunting ban in affected areas and neighboring areas with adequate habitats. Nesting platforms can increase the probability of breeding of some species (Pygmy Cormorants, herons) in subsequent years.

Oil fires are related to large spills or accidents at oil plants. Burning oil produces thick, black smoke that may be carried by wind over great distances. Soot pollution can cause digestive problems in waterbirds. In northern regions, blackened snow alters melting patterns, and this can disrupt ecological processes. Soot-covered food resources may be unsuitable or poisonous for waterbirds.

Oil spills

The most common causes of major oil spills are accidents with ships, illegal emissions from ships, and accidents or leakages at oil plants or pipelines (see Box 4). Spills from ships most often affect coastal wetlands, but may also occur in lakes and rivers. Oil contamination may kill large numbers of waterbirds by:

- affecting the waterproofing of the feathers;
- poisoning through ingestion when preening;
- affecting the food resources.

Prevention of spills from ships is difficult. Legal measures, which often require international agreements, include:

- restrictions on the use of inshore shipping lanes by oil tankers;
- mandatory safety procedures;
- bans on dumping.

In the case of coastal spills, the use of detergents is often presented as a solution, but the side effects on marine food webs may be as serious as the effects of the oil spill. Mechanical removal of oil is preferable, but this requires considerable human resources and may be costly. Involvement of volunteers is important. The removal of oil involves:

- cleaning coastlines manually (*e.g.* with shovels);
- use of high-pressure water hoses (especially on rocky shores);
- containing inshore floating oil in inflatable devices;
- sucking up floating oil from ships (in combination with floaters).

[The marine pollution by oil spills is covered by: International Convention on Oil Pollution Preparedness, Response and Cooperation, 1990 \(OPRC\) and International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships \(MARPOL\), 1973.](#)

The rehabilitation of individual oiled birds is difficult and costly, and often has poor results. Even if successful, the impact on population levels is frequently minimal. However, such operations have good media value for raising public awareness. For details of successful rehabilitation of African Penguins following the June 2000 *Treasure* oil spill off Cape Town, South Africa, see: <http://web.uct.ac.za/depts/stats/adu/oilspill/>

Box 4: When the pipeline bursts

A major leak in a Russian pipeline in the Ousinsk Region, Republic of Komi (Siberia), in August 1994 resulted in 14,000 tons of oil spilling into the environment.

The response included clean-up operations, the construction of four dams on watercourses and the construction of various embankments.

In September/October 1994, the dams collapsed due to heavy rainfall. Oil contaminated two tributaries of the Pechora River, the Kolva and the Ousa.

In November/December 1994, the damaged pipeline was repaired, and clean-up operations were carried out along the affected rivers.

The Komi oil spill may have affected populations of swans, ducks and seabirds. No figures are available for the numbers of birds affected. However, AEW species vulnerable to oiling in the area include:

- Bewick's Swan *Cygnus columbianus bewickii*
- Whooper Swan *Cygnus cygnus*
- Common Eider *Somateria mollissima*
- King Eider *Somateria spectabilis*
- Steller's Eider *Polysticta stelleri*
- Long-tailed Duck *Clangula hyemalis*

(Source: World Conservation Monitoring Centre)

Chemical pollution

Major sources of chemical pollution are:

- incidents and accidents (spills, situations comparable to oil spills);
- permanent pollution from untreated industrial waste;
- permanent pollution from agro-chemicals.

Untreated chemical waste flowing into rivers may cause incidental mass mortality in fish and waterbirds, but as chemicals often bind to silt, which accumulates in estuaries, pollution may be more structurally present in estuarine habitats. As the problem often develops gradually, it rarely leads to sudden emergency situations (see Box 5). Direct poisoning of birds by pesticides does not often occur, and is most commonly reported in Africa. In wet agriculture, such as rice fields, mortality may include waterbirds.

The collapse of tailings ponds associated with mineral mining are a regular cause of large-scale chemical pollution of extensive wetland complexes. Catastrophes of this type in Europe polluted the Coto Doñana in Spain with heavy metals in April 1998, and the Tisza and Danube rivers with arsenic in January-February 1999. See:

<http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1999/6/99.06.01.x.html>

▼ Nitrogen emission from agricultural fertilisers rarely leads directly to emergencies, but the resulting eutrophication of water bodies increases the risk of algal blooms and botulism. Acid rain resulting from nitrogen emission may sterilise poorly buffered waters in northern latitudes, but it is difficult to decide at what stage an emergency should be declared.

Deleted: <http://www.reliefweb.int/w/rwb.nsf/0/4e30736ba1fd8bbdc12568e300630b90?OpenDocument>

Box 5: Gradual pollution leading to a global emergency

A gradual development turned into an emergency in the 1960s when organo-chloride compounds building up through food chains suddenly caused mass mortality in piscivorous birds.

Over a period of years, fish-eating birds had accumulated the poisonous compounds in their fat. When the fat reserves were needed, the poison was released into the bloodstream, and the victims died instantaneously as the poison affected their nervous systems. Sandwich Terns *Sterna sandvicensis* literally dropped dead from the sky.

The problem was most acute in countries bordering the North Sea in Europe, where waste products from the DDT manufacturing industry contaminated the sea.

Species of tern *Sterna* spp. and Eider Ducks *Somateria mollissima* suffered the greatest mortality, with the population of Sandwich Terns declining by more than 95%.

Widespread publicity and research led to a worldwide ban on DDT and some of its derivatives. Since the ban on DDT, populations of the affected waterbirds have been recovering gradually.

(Source: Koeman & Van Genderen, 1966)

Nuclear accidents

Radiation following nuclear accidents is a serious health risk for individuals, but nothing is known about its effects at population level. For example, it is not known how waterbird populations might have been affected, numerically or genetically, by the April 1986 accident at Chernobyl, Ukraine.

Lead poisoning

An emergency situation may develop when lowered water levels bring large deposits of spent lead shotgun pellets or fishing weights within reach of waterbirds, causing sudden mass mortality. A slight rise in water level can cure the problem temporarily. In early 2003, more than 40 Greater Flamingos *Phoenicopterus ruber* died in this way at Larnaca Salt lake in Cyprus.

The amounts of lead entering the environment in the form of fishing weights used in sport fishing are currently not known, but 14 species of waterbirds listed by AEWA (including among others divers, swans and mergansers) have been documented to be affected by lead poisoning through lead fishing weights.

A number of AEWA Range States have banned the use of lead shot in hunting, while a number of others have similar bans under study. Parties to the AEWA agreed to endeavour to phase out the use of lead shot for hunting in wetlands [as well as the use of lead fishing weights weighing between 0.06 and 28.35 grams¹] as soon as possible (Paragraph 4.1.4 in the AEWA Action Plan). In countries where lead shot regulations have been introduced, the compliance can be poor. For example, in England, a decade after the introduction of legislation, in two hunting seasons (2008-2010), 70% of ducks, primarily reared birds on inland shoots, have been shot with lead (Cromie et al 2010). Few countries have legislation regulating the use or sale of lead weights. Wide-reaching bans are in place in the United Kingdom and Denmark while limited restrictions exist in the United States and Canada. The UK ban appears to have been successful in terms of anglers' compliance and decreasing waterbird (mostly Mute Swan) mortality (Rowell & Spray 2004).

Deleted: by the year 2000

Raising public awareness is an important issue, as in many countries lead poisoning is not recognised as a problem, and the environmental dangers have yet to be recognised.

War

Where waterbird sites are threatened or destroyed in war situations, records should be kept of the changes that occur, for use in possible future restoration projects.

¹ See draft Resolution AEWA/MOP5 DR6 *Adoption of Amendments to the AEWA Action Plan*

Step 2: Identify lead agencies, and divide tasks both nationally and internationally

A national co-ordinator for emergency situations concerning migratory waterbirds should be appointed. As implementation of the AEWA Action Plan is a governmental responsibility, it is logical for the national co-ordinator for emergency situations to be someone with a position in a governmental agency or institute. However, it would also be possible to appoint an independent individual, or someone working in a non-governmental organisation (NGO), provided he or she can get sufficient support (financial, logistical and legal) from the government agency responsible for implementation of the AEWA.

Emergency situations are, by definition, unexpected, and very often call for rapid input of resources (especially manpower) for relatively short periods of time. Very often this includes a great deal of private effort from volunteers, [hunting organisations](#) and heavy involvement of NGOs. The respective roles of all agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, that might be involved in tackling emergency situations should be clearly defined.

The industrial sector and sometimes also governmental institutions are often reluctant to take safety measures because these may be costly. It often takes a disaster to change attitudes, and this is where NGOs may play an important role. In the case of emergency situations that arise as a result of neglect or failing legislation, government agencies are often eager to avoid publicity. However, public opinion is often extremely important in creating the pressure needed to stimulate action. NGOs may sometimes be better situated than government agencies in this respect. The national co-ordinator should therefore endeavour to locate financial resources to support NGOs dealing with emergency situations.

Emergency situations affecting migratory waterbirds often have international dimensions. The national co-ordinators of countries involved in a particular emergency situation should liaise with each other and with the AEWA Secretariat. International co-ordination of measures taken in the case of an international emergency situation should rest with the AEWA Secretariat, acting on the advice of the AEWA Technical Committee.

Step 3: Rank waterbird sites according to their susceptibility to emergency situations

At this stage, susceptibility is based purely on the occurrence of important numbers of migratory waterbirds, irrespective of the presence of nearby threats (see Step 4). The more important a site is for migratory waterbirds, the more serious an emergency situation would be.

Sites should be ranked according to their importance for migratory waterbirds. Ranking can be based on the national site inventory (see Guidelines No.3: *Guidelines on the preparation of site inventories for migratory waterbirds*), if available. Results from a national waterbird monitoring scheme can be used in the ranking, if available (See Guidelines No.9 *Guidelines for a waterbird monitoring protocol*.) Alternatively, ranking can be based on the best possible judgement of local experts.

Ranking is important if resources are insufficient to carry out risk assessments at all sites, or to include all sites in an early warning system (Step 5).

The ranking system should be kept simple. It does not really matter whether similar sites rank sixth or seventh in the list, and any large differences will usually be evident. Thus, complicated, time-consuming calculations should be avoided. Furthermore, in many cases the available data will be incomplete.

Sites harbouring globally threatened species or other species or populations qualifying for Single Species Action Plans should be given the highest ranking. These species and populations are listed in Column A of Table 1 in the AEWa Action Plan (see Appendix I to these guidelines; for further details see Guidelines No.1 *Guidelines on the preparation of Single Species Action Plans for migratory waterbirds*).

Step 4: Identify potential risks and negotiate safety measures with industries located near waterbird sites

If the national site inventory has been completed, those waterbird sites lying adjacent to, or downstream of, an industrial complex should be identified and listed. Otherwise, local experts should be consulted.

For each combination of listed waterbird site and industrial complex (*e.g.* oil refinery, chemical plant, mining complex), a full analysis should be made of all possible accidents, spills, explosions, leaks *etc.* The relevant industries should be involved in this process.

Special attention should be given to the relative positions of the waterbird site and the industrial complex, especially with respect to altitude and direction of flow of contaminated water, as this information will be required in the design of safety measures.

Safety measures include:

- proper technical control and regular maintenance;
- guarding of sensitive areas;
- construction of dikes or ditches around the industrial area, to contain the oil or chemicals in the case of a disaster,
- careful routing of transportation routes for hazardous substances (*e.g.* shipping lanes for oil tankers) away from sensitive and dangerous areas;
- clear definition of responsibilities for safety procedures within the industrial organisation.

Legislation should be developed and implemented to ensure that companies are financially responsible for the consequences of their neglect (the ‘polluter pays’ principle).

Risk analysis and the design of appropriate safety measures are complicated procedures requiring special skills. In the EU, standard procedures have been developed for HAZOP (Hazard and Operability) studies undertaken at industrial sites. Under the EC Directive on Major Hazards (commonly known as the Seveso Directive), potentially dangerous sites are required to prepare a safety study and also to carry out a HAZOP study, which they must finance themselves.

Existing statistics on incidents in the past are an important source of information in any risk analysis. In Europe, such statistics can be obtained from MARS (Major Accident Reporting System) at the European Commission’s Joint Research Centre. The Seveso Directive places an obligation on EU Member States to exchange information on major accidents.

Details of MARS and HAZOP can be found in *The Dobris Assessment*, published by the European Environment Agency in 1991.

Step 5: Establish a national Emergency Response Notification System

Several countries have established a central organisational structure where all oil or chemical spill incidents are reported, and where remedial measures are co-ordinated. It is important that all relevant information on incidents is entered into an easily accessible database for future reference and use.

Emergency Response Notification Systems are particularly well developed in the USA (see Box 6). For most countries in the AEWA area, a much less complicated (and less costly) structure would suffice.

Box 6: Emergency Response Notification Systems – the US example

The US Coast Guard operates a National Response Center (NRC) 365 days a year, 24 hours a day, where all incidents such as oil spills, chemical releases, transportation accidents, liquid pipeline releases and gas pipeline releases can be reported toll-free in a standard format. These incidents are entered directly into an online database, to be electronically disseminated as part of the National Response System (NRS, see below). The data are stored centrally in the Emergency Response Notification System (ERNS).

The ERNS is a computer database containing information on incidents throughout the US that have been reported either to the NRC, to one of the ten regions of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), or to the US Coast Guard.

The National Response System (NRS) is a governmental mechanism for emergency response to oil and chemical discharges in the environment. It has three organisational levels:

- a National Response Team (NRT);
- 13 Regional Response Teams (RRTs);
- a large and flexible number of On-Scene Co-ordinators (OSCs).

The NRT consists of 16 members of government agencies from different departments. The EPA serves as chair, and the US Coast Guard, which operates the NRC, as vice-chair. The NRT also operates special forces to assist the OSCs. These include:

- Coast Guard National Strike Force (NSF);
- Coast Guard Public Information Assist Team (PIAT);
- EPA's Environmental Response Team (ERT);
- Scientific Support Co-ordinators (SSCs).

Information on the NRC (including the standard format used in reporting incidents), ERNS and NRT can be found on the Internet (see References and useful web sites).

Where Emergency Response Notification Systems (ERNS) already exist, these are usually environmental in a general sense, and not particularly focused on birds. It may therefore be necessary to involve a separate body to maintain records of all emergency situations involving waterbirds, and to co-ordinate actions and publicity in close co-operation with the general ERNS. [In the case of emergency situations involving waterbirds, appropriate bodies in neighbouring countries should be immediately informed, as well as AEWA Secretariat, in order to facilitate the international coordination of emergency response, if appropriate.](#)

In the EU, ERNS-related activities should always be linked to MARS.

For continuity, a centralised ERNS and its database are best located within an established government department or institute.

To provide the ERNS with information, an early warning system should be established, based on a network of local contacts at the sites identified as being susceptible to emergency situations. NGOs could play an important role in the establishment of a network of people watching individual sites. This network should be carefully maintained, and names and addresses should be kept in a database, which is regularly updated.

In some countries (mostly in Europe) where BirdLife International has compiled a list of Important Bird Areas (IBAs), networks of IBA caretakers have been established. These networks already function as an early warning system for IBAs (see Box 7). As virtually all important sites for migratory waterbirds are listed as IBAs, these caretaker networks should be involved in the national Emergency Response Notification System.

Box 7: An early warning system based on IBA-caretakers

Lists of Important Bird Areas (IBAs), compiled by BirdLife International, exist for all countries in Europe and the Middle East and Africa.

Sites that are important for migratory waterbirds usually qualify as IBAs.

In an increasing number of countries, BirdLife International is establishing an early warning system for emergency situations in designated IBAs by setting up a network of volunteer IBA-caretakers. These are individuals who agree to keep a watchful eye on one or more IBAs in their neighbourhood. In the case of an emergency, these caretakers can respond immediately to a central focal point.

Step 6: Adapt legislation where appropriate

Legal measures can be temporary or permanent. An example of a temporary legal measure is a shooting ban instituted by the [environment ministers in the UK](#) after a certain number of days of [severe](#) weather (see Box 2). Permanent legal measures are designed to change the behaviour of people or industries or to force them to take certain precautions. Such measures are often introduced after a major disaster, and while coming too late to help in that event, may prevent repetition of similar events in the future. An important aspect of permanent legal measures is that they can provide for a system of fines, which, in the event of future violations, can produce funds to be used in mitigation. Legal measures are only effective if they are supported by adequate law enforcement.

The introduction of legal measures may be required by international agreements and conventions or, for example within the EU, by regional standards. In such cases, public awareness of the broader issues is especially important, otherwise individual countries may feel that unnecessary measures are being imposed upon them. [Local stakeholders \(for ex. hunting organizations, national conservation agencies, etc\) should be involved in debates and processes of introductions of legal measures.](#)

Deleted: Secretary of State in Great Britain

Deleted: cold

Step 7: Raise public awareness

Reports should be published on all emergency situations involving migratory waterbirds, and the press and other media should be involved wherever possible.

Emergency situations involving waterbirds should be reported to the AEWA Secretariat in a brief, standardised format. The report, which may be no more than a single page, should contain the following:

- date and duration of emergency situation;
- location;
- type of emergency situation;
- sites affected;
- species involved;
- estimated impact of emergency situation;
- measures taken;
- estimated effect of measures taken;
- organisations involved;
- public awareness activities undertaken.

References and useful web sites

References and further reading

Beintema, N. 2001. *Lead poisoning in waterfowl, International Update Report 2001*. Wetlands International – AEME, Wageningen, The Netherlands.

[Cromie, R.L., A. Loram, L. Hurst, M. O'Brien, J. Newth, M.J. Brown & J.P. Harradine \(2010\). *Compliance with the Environmental Protection \(Restrictions on Use of Lead Shot\)\(England\) Regulations 1999*. Report to Defra, Bristol. Pp 99.](#)

[Davidson, N.C. & Rothwell P.I. 1993. Human disturbance to waterfowl on estuaries: conservation and coastal management implications of current knowledge. *Wader Study Group Bull.* 68:97-105.](#)

Gibbons, D.W., Smith, K.W., Atkinson, P., Pain, D., Arendt, W.J. Gray, G., Hartley, J., Owen, A. & Clubbe, C. 1998. After the Volcano: a future for the Montserrat Oriole? *RSPB Conservation Review* 12: 97-101.

[Rowell, H.E. & Spray, C.J. 2004. The Mute Swan *Cygnus olor* \(Britain and Ireland populations\) in Britain and Northern Ireland 1960/61 – 2000/01. Waterbird Review Series, The Wildfowl & Wetlands Trust/Joint Nature Conservation Committee, Slimbridge.](#)

Stanners, D. & P. Bourdeau (eds.) 1991. *The Dobris Assessment*. European Environment Agency, Copenhagen, Denmark. See also web site.

[Stroud, D.A., Harradine, J., Shedden, C., Hughes, J., Williams, G., Clark, J.A. & Clark, N.A. 2006. *Reducing waterbird mortality in severe cold weather: 25 years of statutory shooting suspensions in Britain*. *Waterbirds around the world*. Eds. G.C. Boere, C.A. Galbraith & D.A. Stroud. The Stationery Office, Edinburgh, UK. pp. 784-790.](#)

Useful web sites

Avian Influenza

<http://www.aiweb.info/>

Botulism

<http://www.pnr-rpn.ec.gc.ca/nature/migratorybirds/avianb/ce00s02.en.html>

http://www.nwhc.usgs.gov/publications/field_manual/chapter_38.pdf

Diseases

<http://www.avianbiotech.com/diseases/newcastle.htm>

Algal blooms

<http://www.epa.gov/OWOW/estuaries/pfiesteria/>

<http://www.whoi.edu/redtide/>

Lead poisoning

http://www.unep-aewa.org/publications/other_publications.htm

<http://www.britishcolumbia.com/Wildlife/wildlife/information/Lead%20Poisoning%20of%20Water%20Birds.htm>

Oil spill in Wales

<http://www.swan.ac.uk/biosci/empress/news.htm>

Oil spill in the Russian Federation

<http://www.american.edu/projects/mandala/TED/KOMI.HTM>

Oils spill in South Africa

<http://web.uct.ac.za/depts/stats/adu/oilspill/>

Cyanide pollution of river Tisza

<http://nfp-hu.eionet.eu.int/cyanide.html>

Heavy metal pollution of Coto Doñana

<http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1999/6/99.06.01.x.html>

National Response Center

<http://www.nrc.uscg.mil/nrchp.html>

Emergency Response Notification System

<http://www.nrc.uscg.mil/nrchp.html>

National Response Team

<http://www.nrt.org>

Deleted: Stroud, J.M. 1992. *Statutory suspension of wildfowling in severe weather: Review of past winter weather and actions*. JNCC Report 75. Joint Nature Conservation Committee, Peterborough, U.K. ¶

Useful contacts

General

African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement
UNEP/AEWA Secretariat
UN-Premises, Martin-Luther-King-Str. 8
53175 Bonn, Germany
Tel: (+49) 228 815 2413
Fax: (+49) 228 815 2450
E-mail: awa@unep.de
WWW: <http://www.unep-awa.org>

Bern Convention Secretariat (Secretariat of the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural habitats)
Environment Conservation and Management Division
67075 Strasbourg Cedex
France
Tel.: +33-3-88413559/2256
Fax: +33-3-88413751
E-mail: gill.steimer@coe.int
WWW: <http://www.nature.coe.int/english/cadres/bern.htm>

BirdLife International
Wellbrook Court
Girton
Cambridge CB4 3QX
United Kingdom
Tel.: +44-1223-277318
Fax: +44-1223-277200
E-mail: birdlife@birdlife.org
WWW: <http://www.birdlife.org/>

CBD Secretariat - Secretariat for the Convention on Biological Diversity
World Trade Centre
393 St. Jacques Street
Office 300
Montréal, Québec H2Y 1N9
Canada
Tel.: +1-514-2882220
Fax: +1-514-2886588
E-mail addresses: <http://www.biodiv.org/secretariat/contact.asp>
WWW: www.biodiv.org

Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (Bonn Convention)
UNEP/CMS Secretariat
United Nations Premises in Bonn
Martin-Luther-King Straße 8
53175 Bonn
Germany
Tel.: +49-228-815-2401 and +49-228-815-2402
Fax: +49-228-815-2449
E-mail: secretariat@cms.int
WWW: <http://www.cms.int>

Council of Europe
Environment Conservation and Management Division
Palais de l'Europe
Avenue de l'Europe
67075 Strasbourg Cedex
France
Tel.: +33-3-88412253
Fax: +33-3-88413751

E-mail: infopoint@coe.int
WWW: <http://www.coe.int>

EC - European Commission
Wetstraat 200
1049 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: +32-2-2351111
E-mail: europawebmaster@cec.eu.int
WWW: www.europa.eu.int/comm/index.htm

ECNC - European Centre for Nature Conservation
PO Box 1352
5004 BJ Tilburg
The Netherlands
Tel.: +31-13-4663240
Fax: +31-13-4663250
E-mail: ecnc@ecnc.org
WWW: www.ecnc.nl

International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation (C. I. C)
PO Box 74
H - 2092 Budakeszi
Hungary
Tel: 0036 60 444 647
Fax: 0036 60 444 648
E-mail: budapestoffice@cic-wildlife.org
WWW: <http://www.cic-wildlife.org/>

FACE

Federation of Associations for Hunting and Conservation of the EU
82, Rue F. Pelletier
1030 Brussels
Belgium
Tel.: +32 2 7326900
Fax: +32 2 7327072
E-mail: administration@face.eu
WWW: www.face.eu

IUCN - the World Conservation Union

28, rue Mauverney
1196 Gland
Switzerland
Tel.: +41-22-9990001
Fax: +41-22-9990002
WWW: www.iucn.org
E-mail addresses at: <http://www.iucn.org/wl/db/sitefeedback.cfm>

IUCN/ELC - Environmental Law Centre

Adenauerallee 214
53113 Bonn
Germany
Tel.: +49-228-2692231
Fax: +49-228-2692250
E-mail: <http://www.iucn.org/themes/law/elc01.html>

Ramsar Convention Bureau

28, rue Mauverney
1196 Gland
Switzerland
Tel.: +41-22-999-0170
Fax: +41-22-999-0169
E-mail: ramsar@ramsar.org
WWW: www.ramsar.org

UNEP - United Nations Environment Programme

PO Box 30552
Nairobi
Kenya
Tel.: +254-2-621234
Fax: +254-2-226890 and +254-2-215787
E-mail addresses: <http://www.unep.org/Contacts/>
WWW: www.unep.org

UNESCO/MAB - Man and Biosphere Programme

Ecological Sciences Division
1, rue Miollis
75732 Paris Cedex 15
France
Tel.: +33-1-45684151
Fax: +33-1-40659897
E-mail: mab@unesco.org
WWW: <http://www.unesco.org/mab/>

UNESCO/WHC - World Heritage Centre
1196 Gland
Switzerland
Tel.: +41-22-3649111
Fax: +41-22-3642926
E-mail addresses: http://www.panda.org/about_wwf/who_we_are/offices/offices.cfm
WWW: www.panda.org

[IMO-International Maritime Organisation](#)

[4, Albert Embankment](#)
[London SE1 7SR](#)
[United Kingdom](#)
[Tel +44 \(0\)20 7735 7611](#)
[Fax +44 \(0\)20 7587 3210](#)
[Email: info@imo.org](#)
[WWW: http://www.imo.org/](http://www.imo.org/)

Emergency situations

No specific addresses. See under **General**, according to circumstances.

Place de Fontenoy 7
75352 Paris Cedex 07
France
Tel.: +33-1-45681443
Fax: +33-1-40569570
E-mail: wh-info@unesco.org
WWW: www.unesco.org/whc

UNEP - WCMC - World Conservation Monitoring Centre
219, Huntingdon Road
Cambridge CB3 0DL
United Kingdom
Tel.: +44-1223-277314
Fax: +44-1223-277136
E-mail: info@unep-wcmc.org
WWW: <http://www.unep-wcmc.org/>

Wetlands International
PO Box 471
6700 AL Wageningen
The Netherlands
Tel.: +31-317-478854
Fax: +31-317-478850
E-mail: post@wetlands.org
WWW: www.wetlands.org

WWF-International - World Wide Fund for Nature
Avenue du Mont-Blanc

Appendix I

POPULATIONS OF WATERBIRDS REQUIRING NATIONAL SINGLE SPECIES ACTION PLANS

National Single Species Action Plans are required for all populations listed in Column A of Table 1 in the AEWA Action Plan (Paragraph 2.2.2 of the Action Plan). Populations are listed in Column A in one of **four** Categories:

Deleted: three

Category 1: (a) Species that are included in Appendix I to the Bonn Convention.
(b) Species that are listed as threatened in the IUCN Red List of Threatened Animals.
(c) Populations that number less than around 10,000 individuals.

Category 2: Populations numbering between around 10,000 and around 25,000 individuals.

Category 3: Populations numbering between around 25,000 and around 100,000 individuals and considered to be at risk as a result of:
(a) concentration onto a small number of sites at any stage of their annual cycle;
(b) dependence on a habitat type which is under severe threat;
(c) showing significant long-term decline; or
(d) showing extreme fluctuations in population size or trend.

Category 4:

Species listed include those included in the Action Plan by MoP 5 in La Rochelle (May 2012). Categories are assigned on the basis of recent information on population sizes and trends, as summarised in the AEWA Status of the populations of migratory waterbirds (2012).

Species listed include those included in the Action Plan by MoP 1 in Cape Town (November 1999) and MoP 2 in Bonn (September 2002). Categories are assigned on the basis of recent information on population sizes and trends, as summarised in the AEWA Report on the Conservation Status of Migratory Waterbirds in the Agreement Area (2002).

Species/subspecies	Population	Category
SPHENISCIDAE		
<i>Spheniscus demersus</i>	- Southern Africa	1b
GAVIIDAE		
<i>Gavia stellata</i>	- Caspian, Black Sea & East Mediterranean (win)	1c
<i>Gavia immer</i>	- Europe (win)	1c
<i>Gavia adamsii</i>	- Northern Europe (win)	1c
PODICIPEDIDAE		
<i>Podiceps griseogen griseogen</i>	- North-west Europe (win)	3c
	- Black Sea & Mediterranean (win)	3c
	- Caspian (win)	2
<i>Podiceps cristatus cristatus</i>	- Caspian & South-west Asia (win)	2
<i>Podiceps cristatus infuscatus</i>	- Eastern Africa (Ethiopia to N Zambia)	1c
	- Southern Africa	1c
<i>Podiceps auritus auritus</i>	- North-west Europe (large-billed)	1c
	- North-east Europe (small-billed)	2
	- Caspian & South Asia (win)	2
<i>Podiceps nigricollis gurneyi</i>	- Southern Africa	2

PHAETHONTIDAE		
<i>Phaethon aethereus aethereus</i>	- South Atlantic	1c
<i>Phaethon aethereus indicus</i>	- Persian Gulf, Gulf of Aden, Red Sea	1c
<i>Phaethon rubricauda rubricauda</i>	- Indian Ocean	2
<i>Phaethon lepturus lepturus</i>	- Persian Gulf, Gulf of Aden, Red Sea	2
PELECANIDAE		
<i>Pelecanus onocrotalus</i>	- Europe & Western Asia (bre)	1a, 3c
<i>Pelecanus crispus</i>	- Black Sea & Mediterranean (win)	1a, 1b, 1c
	- South-west Asia & South Asia (win)	1a, 1b, 1c
SULIDAE		
<i>Sula (Morus) capensis</i>	- Southern Africa	1b
<i>Sula dactylatra melanops</i>	- W Indian Ocean	2
PHALACROCORACIDAE		
<i>Phalacrocorax carbo lucidus</i>	- Coastal Southern Africa	2
<i>Phalacrocorax capensis</i>	- Coastal Southern Africa	4
<i>Phalacrocorax nigrogularis</i>	- Arabian Coast	1b
	- Gulf of Aden, Socotra, Arabian Sea	1b
<i>Phalacrocorax neglectus</i>	- Coastal South-west Africa	1b, 2
<i>Phalacrocorax coronatus</i>	- Coastal South-west Africa	1c
FREGATIDAE		
<i>Fregata minor aldobrensis</i>	- W Indian Ocean	2
<i>Fregata ariel iredalei</i>	- W Indian Ocean	2
ARDEIDAE		
<i>Ardea purpurea purpurea</i>	- West Europe & West Mediterranean/West Africa	2
<i>Ardeola ralloides ralloides</i>	- SW Europe, NW Africa (bre)	1c
<i>Ardeola idae</i>	- Madagascar & Aldabra/Central & Eastern Africa	1b, 1c
<i>Egretta vinaceigula</i>	- South-central Africa	1b, 1c
<i>Egretta gularis schistacea</i>	- South-west Asia & South Asia	2
<i>Egretta dimorpha</i>	- Coastal Eastern Africa	2
<i>Nycticorax nycticorax nycticorax</i>	- W Europe, NW Africa (bre)	3c
<i>Botaurus stellaris stellaris</i>	- W Europe, NW Africa (bre)	1c
<i>Botaurus stellaris capensis</i>	- Southern Africa	1c
<i>Ixobrychus minutus minutus</i>	- W Europe, NW Africa/Subsaharan Africa	2
CICONIIDAE		
<i>Ciconia nigra</i>	- Southern Africa	1c
	- South-west Europe/West Africa	1c
	- Central & Eastern Europe/Sub-Saharan Africa	2
<i>Ciconia ciconia ciconia</i>	- Southern Africa	1c
	- North-west Africa/Sub-Saharan Africa	3b
	- Western Asia/South-west Asia	2
BALAENICIPITIDAE		
<i>Balaeniceps rex</i>	- Central Tropical Africa	1b, 1c
THRESKIORNITHIDAE		
<i>Threskiornis aethiopicus aethiopicus</i>	- Iraq & Iran	1c
<i>Geronticus eremita</i>	- Morocco	1a, 1b, 1c
	- South-west Asia	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Plegadis falcinellus falcinellus</i>	- Black Sea & Mediterranean/West Africa	3c
<i>Platalea leucorodia leucorodia</i>	- West Europe/West Mediterranean & West Africa	2
	- Cent. & SE Europe/Mediterranean & Tropical Africa	2
<i>Platalea leucorodia archeri</i>	- Red Sea & Somalia	1c

<i>Platalea leucorodia balsaci</i>	- Coastal West Africa (Mauritania)	1c
<i>Platalea leucorodia major</i>	- Western Asia/South-west & South Asia	2
PHOENICOPTERIDAE		
<i>Phoenicopterus ruber roseus</i>	- West Africa	3a
	- Eastern Africa	3a
	- Southern Africa (to Madagascar)	3a
	- East Mediterranean	3a
<i>Phoeniconaias minor</i>	- West Africa	2
	- Eastern Africa	4
	- Southern Africa (to Madagascar)	3a
ANATIDAE		
<i>Dendrocygna bicolor</i>	- West Africa (Senegal to Chad)	2
<i>Thalassornis leuconotus leuconotus</i>	- West Africa	1c
	- Eastern & Southern Africa	2*
<i>Cygnus cygnus</i>	- Iceland/UK & Ireland	2
	- N Europe & W Siberia/Black Sea & E Mediterranean	2
	- West & Central Siberia/Caspian	2
<i>Cygnus columbianus bewickii</i>	- Western Siberia & NE Europe/North-west Europe	2
	- Northern Siberia/Caspian	1c
<i>Anser fabalis fabalis</i>	- North-east Europe/North-west Europe	3c
	- West & Central Siberia/Turkmenistan to W China	1c
<i>Anser albifrons albifrons</i>	- Northern Siberia/Caspian & Iraq	2
<i>Anser albifrons flavirostris</i>	- Greenland/Ireland & UK	2*
<i>Anser erythropus</i>	- Europe & W Siberia/Black Sea & Caspian	1a, 1b, 2
<i>Branta leucopsis</i>	- Svalbard/South-west Scotland	3a
<i>Branta bernicla hrota</i>	- Svalbard/Denmark & UK	1c
	- Canada & Greenland/Ireland	3a
<i>Branta ruficollis</i>	- Northern Siberia/Black Sea & Caspian	1a, 1b, 3a, 3c
<i>Alopochen aegyptiacus</i>	- West Africa	1c
<i>Tadorna ferruginea</i>	- North-west Africa	1c
	- East Mediterranean & Black Sea/North-east Africa	2
<i>Tadorna cana</i>	- Southern Africa	3c
<i>Nettion auritus</i>	- West Africa	1c
<i>Anas capensis</i>	- Eastern Africa (Rift Valley)	1c
	- Lake Chad basin	1c
<i>Anas erythrorhynchos</i>	- Madagascar	2
<i>Anas hottentota</i>	- Lake Chad Basin	1c
<i>Marmaronetta angustirostris</i>	- West Mediterranean/West Medit. & West Africa	1a, 1b, 1c
	- East Mediterranean	1a, 1b, 1c
	- South-west Asia	1a, 1b, 2
<i>Netta rufina</i>	- Black Sea & East Mediterranean	3c
<i>Aythya nyroca</i>	- West Mediterranean/North & West Africa	1a, 1c
	- Eastern Europe/E Mediterranean & Sahelian Africa	1a, 3c
	- Western Asia/SW Asia & NE Africa	1a, 3c
<i>Polysticta stelleri</i>	- Western Siberia/North-east Europe	1a, 1b, 2
<i>Melanitta fusca fusca</i>	- Black Sea & Caspian	1c
<i>Mergellus albellus</i>	- North-west & Central Europe (win)	3a
<i>Mergus serrator serrator</i>	- Western Siberia/South-west & Central Asia	1c
<i>Mergus merganser merganser</i>	- North-east Europe/Black Sea	1c
	- Western Siberia/Caspian	2
<i>Oxyura leucocephala</i>	- West Mediterranean (Spain & Morocco)	1a, 1b, 1c
	- Algeria & Tunisia	1a, 1b, 1c
	- East Mediterranean, Turkey & South-west Asia	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Oxyura maccoa</i>	- Eastern Africa	1c
	- Southern Africa	1c

GRUIDAE		
<i>Balearica regulorum regulorum</i>	- Southern Africa (N to Angola & S Zimbabwe)	1b, 1c
<i>Balearica regulorum gibbericeps</i>	- Eastern Africa (Kenya to Mozambique)	1b, 3c
<i>Balearica pavonina pavonina</i>	- West Africa (Senegal to Chad)	1b, 1c
<i>Balearica pavonina ceciliae</i>	- Eastern Africa (Sudan to Uganda)	1b, 3c
<i>Grus virgo</i>	- Black Sea (Ukraine)/North-east Africa	1c
	- Turkey (bre)	1c
<i>Grus paradisea</i>	- Extreme Southern Africa	1b
<i>Grus carunculatus</i>	- Central & Southern Africa	1b, 1c
<i>Grus leucogeranus</i>	- Iran (win)	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Grus grus</i>	- Eastern Europe/Turkey, Middle East & NE Africa	3c
	- Turkey & Georgia (bre)	1c
RALLIDAE		
<i>Sarothrura boehmi</i>	- Central Africa	1c
<i>Sarothrura ayresi</i>	- Ethiopia	1a, 1b, 1c
	- Southern Africa	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Porzana pusilla intermedia</i>	- Europe (bre)	1c
<i>Aenigmatolimnas marginalis</i>	- Sub-Saharan Africa	(2)
<i>Fulica cristata</i>	- Spain & Morocco	1c
HAEMATOPODIDAE		
<i>Haematopus moquini</i>	- Coastal Southern Africa	1c
RECURVIROSTRIDAE		
<i>Himantopus himantopus himantopus</i>	- Southern Africa ('meridionalis')	2
<i>Recurvirostra avosetta</i>	- Southern Africa	2
	- South-east Europe, Black Sea & Turkey (bre)	(3c)
	- West & South-west Asia/Eastern Africa	2
GLAREOLIDAE		
<i>Pluvianus aegyptius aegyptius</i>	- Eastern Africa	(2)
	- Lower Congo Basin	2
<i>Glareola pratincola pratincola</i>	- Western Europe & NW Africa/West Africa	2
	- Black Sea & E Mediterranean/Eastern Sahel zone	2
<i>Glareola nordmanni</i>	- SE Europe & Western Asia/Southern Africa	4
<i>Glareola ocularis</i>	- Madagascar/East Africa	1c
<i>Glareola cinerea cinerea</i>	- SE West Africa & Central Africa	(2)
CHARADRIIDAE		
<i>Vanellus lugubris</i>	- Southern West Africa	2
	- Central & Eastern Africa	3c
<i>Vanellus melanopterus minor</i>	- Southern Africa	1c
<i>Vanellus coronatus coronatus</i>	- Central Africa	(2)
<i>Vanellus superciliosus</i>	- West & Central Africa	(2)
<i>Vanellus gregarius</i>	- SE Europe & Western Asia/North-east Africa	1a, 1b, 2
	- Central Asian Republics/NW India	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Vanellus leucurus</i>	- SW Asia/SW Asia & North-east Africa	2
<i>Charadrius marginatus mechowii</i>	- mechowii/tenellus Inland East & Central Africa	2
	- Coastal E Africa	2
	- West Africa	2
<i>Charadrius alexandrinus alexandrinus</i>	- West Europe & West Mediterranean/West Africa	3c
	- Black Sea & East Mediterranean/Eastern Sahel	3c
<i>Charadrius pallidus pallidus</i>	- Southern Africa	2
<i>Charadrius pallidus venustus</i>	- Eastern Africa	1c
<i>Charadrius leschenaultii columbinus</i>	- Turkey & SW Asia/E. Mediterranean & Red Sea	1c
<i>Charadrius asiaticus</i>	- SE Europe & West Asia/E & South-central Africa	3c
<i>Eudromias morinellus</i>	- Europe/North-west Africa	(3c)

SCOLOPACIDAE		
<i>Gallinago media</i>	- Scandinavia/probably West Africa	4
	- Western Siberia & NE Europe/South-east Africa	4
<i>Limosa limosa limosa</i>	- Western Europe/NW & West Africa	4
	- Eastern Europe/Central & Eastern Africa	4
	- West-central Asia/SW Asia & Eastern Africa	4
<i>Limosa limosa islandica</i>	- Iceland/Western Europe	4
<i>Numenius phaeopus alboaxillaris</i>	- South-west Asia/Eastern Africa	1c
<i>Numenius tenuirostris</i>	- Central Siberia/Mediterranean & SW Asia	1a, 1b, 1c
<i>Numenius arquata arquata</i>	- Europe/Europe, North & West Africa	4
<i>Numenius arquata orientalis</i>	- Western Siberia/SW Asia, E & S Africa	3c
<i>Numenius arquata suschkini</i>	- South-east Europe & South-west Asia (bre)	1c
<i>Calidris tenuirostris</i>	- Eastern Siberia/SW Asia & W Southern Asia	1b, 1c
<i>Calidris maritima maritima</i>	- NE Canada & N Greenland (breeding)	3c
<i>Calidris alpina schinzii</i>	- Britain & Ireland/SW Europe & NW Africa	2
	- Baltic/SW Europe & NW Africa	1c
<i>Calidris alpina arctica</i>	- NE Greenland/West Africa	3a
<i>Limicola falcinellus falcinellus</i>	- Northern Europe/SW Asia & Africa	3c
LARIDAE		
<i>Larus leucophthalmus</i>	- Red Sea & nearby coasts	1a
<i>Larus audouinii</i>	- Mediterranean/N & W coasts of Africa	1a, 3a
<i>Larus michahellis armenicus</i>	- Armenia, Eastern Turkey & NW Iran	3a
<i>Larus fuscus</i>	- NE Europe/Black Sea, SW Asia & Eastern Africa	3c
<i>Larus ichthyaetus</i>	- Black Sea & Caspian/South-west Asia	3a
<i>Larus genei</i>	- West Africa (bre)	2
STERNIDAE		
<i>Sterna nilotica nilotica</i>	- Western Europe/West Africa	2
	- Black Sea & East Mediterranean/Eastern Africa	3c
	- West & Central Asia/South-west Asia	2
<i>Sterna caspia caspia</i>	- Southern Africa (bre)	1c
	- Caspian (bre)	2
<i>Sterna bengalensis emigrate</i>	- S Mediterranean/NW & West Africa coasts	1c
<i>Sterna bergii bergii</i>	- Southern Africa (Angola – Mozambique)	2
<i>Sterna bergii enigma</i>	- Madagascar & Mozambique/Southern Africa	1c
<i>Sterna bergii thalassina</i>	- Eastern Africa & Seychelles	1c
<i>Sterna bergii velox</i>	- Red Sea & North-east Africa	2
<i>Sterna dougallii dougallii</i>	- Southern Africa	1c
	- East Africa	3a
	- Europe (bre)	1c
<i>Sterna dougallii arideensis</i>	- Madagascar, Seychelles & Mascarenes	2
<i>Sterna dougallii bangsi</i>	- North Arabian Sea (Oman)	1c
<i>Sterna vittata vittata</i>	- P.Edward, Marion, Crozet & Kerguelen/South Africa	1c
<i>Sterna vittata tristanensis</i>	- Tristan da Cunha & Gough/South Africa	1c
<i>Sterna albifrons albifrons</i>	- Black Sea & East Mediterranean (bre)	3b, 3c
	- Caspian (bre)	2
<i>Sterna albifrons guineae</i>	- West Africa (bre)	1c
<i>Sterna balaenarum</i>	- Namibia & South Africa/Atlantic coast to Ghana	2
<i>Sterna anaethetus melanopterus</i>	- W Africa	1c
<i>Sterna anaethetus antarctica</i>	- Indian Ocean	2
<i>Chlidonias hybridus sclateri</i>	- Eastern Africa (Kenya & Tanzania)	2
	- Southern Africa (Malawi & Zambia to South Africa)	(2)
RYNCHOPIDAE		
<i>Rynchops flavirostris</i>	- Coastal West Africa & Central Africa	2
	- Eastern & Southern Africa	2

<u>ALCIDAE</u>		
<u><i>Cepphus grylle islandicus</i></u>	- <u>Iceland</u>	<u>3c</u>
<u><i>Cepphus grylle faeroeensis</i></u>	- <u>Faeroes</u>	<u>1c</u>
<u><i>Fratercula arctica naumanni</i></u>	- <u>NE Canada, N Greenland to Jan Maven, Svalbard,</u> <u>N Novaya Zemlya</u>	<u>3a</u>

Deleted: Species/subspecies

Footnotes:

1. Suffixes (breeding) or (wintering) in population listings are solely aides to population identification. They do not indicate seasonal restrictions to actions in respect of these populations under the Agreement and Action Plan.
2. *Vanellus gregarius* is listed under the name *Chettusia gregaria* in Appendix I to the Bonn Convention.

Deleted: ¶

Appendix II:

Deleted: ¶
¶

GLOBALLY THREATENED MIGRATORY WATERBIRD SPECIES IN AEWA RANGE STATES

The occurrence of globally threatened species of migratory waterbirds in AEWA Range States, [based on the 2010 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species and their status under CITES](#)². Breeding species are indicated with a 'B'; species occurring only as passage migrants and winter visitors are indicated with a 'W'. No attempt has been made to indicate relative numbers, and in some instances, the numbers of birds involved may be very small. Codes followed by an asterisk * mark species not included in *Threatened Birds of the World* but known nevertheless to occur in the country.

Deleted: based on BirdLife International 2000 *Threatened Birds of the World*, the official source for birds in the 2000 IUCN Red List of Threatened Species

² For more recent data please check the BirdLife International datazone at <http://www.birdlife.org/datazone/species/search> and the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species website at <http://www.iucnredlist.org/>

	<u>Sociable Lapwing</u>	<u>Slender-billed Curlew</u>	<u>Northern Bald Ibis</u>	<u>Siberian Crane</u>	<u>White-headed Duck</u>	<u>Red-breasted Goose</u>	<u>Bank Cormorant</u>	<u>Madagascar Pond-Heron</u>	<u>White-winged</u>	<u>African Penguin</u>	<u>Lesser White-fronted Goose</u>	<u>Dalmatian Pelican</u>	<u>Cape Gannet</u>	<u>Socotra Cormorant</u>	<u>Slaty Egret</u>	<u>Shoebill</u>	<u>Marbled Teal</u>	<u>Steller's Eider</u>	<u>Blue Crane</u>	<u>Wattled Crane</u>	<u>Black Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Grey Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Madagascar Pratincole</u>	<u>Great Knot</u>	<u>Total Number of species</u>
<u>Red List Status</u>	CR	CR	CR	CR	EN	EN	EN	EN	EN	EN	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	VU	
<u>CITES-listed³</u>	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes	no	yes	no	no	no	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	
<u>Albania</u>												B/W													1
<u>Algeria</u>		W			B												B								3
<u>Angola</u>																						B			1
<u>Armenia</u>												B													2
<u>Azerbaijan</u>					W	W					W														4
<u>Bahrain</u>														B											1
<u>Benin</u>																						B/W			1
<u>Botswana</u>															B						B				2
<u>Bulgaria</u>		W			W	W					W	B/W													5
<u>Burkina Faso</u>																						B/W			1
<u>Burundi</u>								W								B									2
<u>Cameroon</u>																						B/W			1
<u>Central African Republic</u>																						B/W			2
<u>Chad</u>																	W					B/W			2
<u>Comoros</u>								W																	1
<u>Democratic Republic of Congo</u>								W							B	B					B	B/W	B		6
<u>Eritrea</u>	W																					B/W			2
<u>Estonia</u>											W														1
<u>Ethiopia</u>									B							B					B	B/W			4
<u>Finland</u>											B														1
<u>France (Réunion)</u>								B																	1
<u>Gabon</u>										W															1

³ The Eurasian Spoonbill (LC), Black Stork (LC), Greater Flamingo (LC), Lesser Flamingo (NT), Demoiselle Crane (LC), Common Crane (LC) and Comb Crane (LC) are also listed by CITES.

	<u>Sociable Lapwing</u>	<u>Slender-billed Curlew</u>	<u>Northern Bald Ibis</u>	<u>Siberian Crane</u>	<u>White-headed Duck</u>	<u>Red-breasted Goose</u>	<u>Bank Cormorant</u>	<u>Madagascar Pond-Heron</u>	<u>White-winged</u>	<u>African Penguin</u>	<u>Lesser White-fronted Goose</u>	<u>Dalmatian Pelican</u>	<u>Cape Gannet</u>	<u>Socotra Cormorant</u>	<u>Slaty Egret</u>	<u>Shoebill</u>	<u>Marbled Teal</u>	<u>Steller's Eider</u>	<u>Blue Crane</u>	<u>Wattled Crane</u>	<u>Black Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Grey Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Madagascar Pratincole</u>	<u>Great Knot</u>	<u>Total Number of species</u>
<u>Gambia</u>																					<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>	
<u>Ghana</u>																						<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>
<u>Greece</u>		<u>W</u>			<u>W</u>	<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>	<u>B/W</u>													<u>5</u>	
<u>Guinea</u>																						<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>
<u>Guinea-Bissau</u>																						<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>
<u>Hungary</u>		<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>														<u>3</u>	
<u>Iran</u>	<u>W</u>			<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>						<u>B/W</u>		<u>B</u>			<u>B</u>							<u>W</u>	<u>7</u>	
<u>Iraq</u>	<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>						<u>W</u>						<u>B</u>							<u>4</u>	
<u>Israel</u>	<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>												<u>W</u>							<u>3</u>	
<u>Italy</u>		<u>W</u>																						<u>1</u>	
<u>Jordan</u>																	<u>W</u>							<u>1</u>	
<u>Kazakhstan</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>W</u>			<u>B</u>	<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>						<u>B</u>							<u>7</u>	
<u>Kenya</u>								<u>W</u>														<u>B/W</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>4</u>
<u>Kuwait</u>																								<u>W</u>	<u>1</u>
<u>Lithuania</u>										<u>W</u>															<u>1</u>
<u>Madagascar</u>								<u>B</u>															<u>B</u>		<u>2</u>
<u>Malawi</u>								<u>W</u>								<u>B</u>					<u>B</u>				<u>3</u>
<u>Mali</u>																	<u>W</u>					<u>B/W</u>			<u>2</u>
<u>Mauritania</u>																						<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>
<u>Montenegro</u>		<u>W</u>										<u>B/W</u>													<u>2</u>
<u>Morocco</u>		<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>														<u>B</u>								<u>3</u>
<u>Mozambique</u>								<u>W</u>		<u>W</u>			<u>W</u>		<u>B</u>						<u>B</u>		<u>W</u>		<u>7</u>
<u>Namibia</u>							<u>B</u>			<u>B</u>			<u>B</u>		<u>B</u>				<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>		<u>B</u>			<u>7</u>
<u>Netherlands</u>						<u>W</u>																			<u>1</u>
<u>Niger</u>																						<u>B/W</u>			<u>1</u>
<u>Nigeria</u>													<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>				<u>B/W</u>				<u>3</u>
<u>Norway</u>										<u>B</u>							<u>W</u>		<u>W</u>						<u>2</u>
<u>Oman</u>	<u>W</u>													<u>B</u>										<u>W</u>	<u>3</u>
<u>Poland</u>										<u>W</u>															<u>1</u>

	<u>Sociable Lapwing</u>	<u>Slender-billed Curlew</u>	<u>Northern Bald Ibis</u>	<u>Siberian Crane</u>	<u>White-headed Duck</u>	<u>Red-breasted Goose</u>	<u>Bank Cormorant</u>	<u>Madagascar Pond-Heron</u>	<u>White-winged</u>	<u>African Penguin</u>	<u>Lesser White-fronted Goose</u>	<u>Dalmatian Pelican</u>	<u>Cape Gannet</u>	<u>Socotra Cormorant</u>	<u>Slaty Egret</u>	<u>Shoebill</u>	<u>Marbled Teal</u>	<u>Steller's Eider</u>	<u>Blue Crane</u>	<u>Wattled Crane</u>	<u>Black Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Grey Crowned Crane</u>	<u>Madagascar Pratincole</u>	<u>Great Knot</u>	<u>Total Number of species</u>
<u>Qatar</u>														<u>B</u>											<u>1</u>
<u>Romania</u>		<u>W</u>			<u>W</u>	<u>W</u>					<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>												<u>B</u>	<u>5</u>
<u>The Russian Federation</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>		<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>					<u>B</u>	<u>B/W</u>					<u>B</u>	<u>B/W</u>						<u>B</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Rwanda</u>								<u>W</u>								<u>B</u>									<u>2</u>
<u>Saudi Arabia</u>	<u>W</u>													<u>B</u>											<u>2</u>
<u>Senegal</u>																	<u>W</u>				<u>B/W</u>				<u>2</u>
<u>Serbia</u>		<u>W</u>																							<u>1</u>
<u>Seychelles</u>								<u>B</u>																	<u>1</u>
<u>Somalia</u>																							<u>W</u>		<u>1</u>
<u>South Africa</u>							<u>B</u>		<u>W</u>	<u>B</u>			<u>B</u>						<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>		<u>B</u>			<u>8</u>
<u>Spain</u>					<u>B</u>												<u>B</u>								<u>2</u>
<u>Sudan</u>																<u>B</u>					<u>B/W</u>				<u>2</u>
<u>Swaziland</u>																			<u>B</u>						<u>1</u>
<u>Sweden</u>											<u>B</u>														<u>1</u>
<u>The Syrian Arab Republic</u>	<u>W</u>			<u>B</u>		<u>W</u>												<u>W</u>							<u>4</u>
<u>The Republic of Tanzania</u>								<u>W</u>					<u>W</u>									<u>B</u>	<u>W</u>		<u>5</u>
<u>Togo</u>																					<u>B/W</u>				<u>1</u>
<u>Tunisia</u>		<u>W</u>			<u>B</u>																				<u>3</u>
<u>Turkey</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>W</u>			<u>B</u>						<u>W</u>	<u>B/W</u>									<u>B</u>				<u>6</u>
<u>Turkmenistan</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>W</u>			<u>B</u>						<u>W*</u>	<u>B</u>									<u>B</u>				<u>6</u>
<u>Uganda</u>								<u>W</u>														<u>B</u>			<u>2</u>
<u>Ukraine</u>		<u>W</u>				<u>W</u>					<u>W*</u>	<u>B/W</u>													<u>4</u>
<u>United Arab Emirates</u>														<u>B</u>										<u>W</u>	<u>2</u>
<u>Uzbekistan</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>W*</u>			<u>B</u>						<u>W*</u>	<u>B</u>													<u>6</u>
<u>Yemen</u>														<u>B</u>											<u>1</u>
<u>Zambia</u>								<u>W</u>							<u>B</u>	<u>B</u>					<u>B</u>				<u>4</u>
<u>Zimbabwe</u>								<u>W</u>	<u>W</u>						<u>B</u>						<u>B</u>				<u>5</u>

