

1 **Linking climate change vulnerability research and evidence on conservation action**
2 **effectiveness to safeguard seabird populations in Western Europe**

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44

45 **Abstract**

46 1- An increasing number of species are facing unprecedented levels of threat to their long-
47 term survival due to the direct and indirect impacts of climate change. Key
48 opportunities for science to inform wildlife management are linked to increasing our
49 understanding of how changes in climatic conditions will impact species, as well as
50 whether, and how, managers may facilitate species' ability to adapt to change.
51 However, information on species' climate change vulnerability and the effectiveness of
52 potential conservation actions are not yet strategically collected or collated; this
53 disconnect between threat level, ecological research and conservation practice is
54 reducing opportunities to guide decision-making, ultimately hindering conservation
55 outcomes.

56 2- To demonstrate this point, we explore how existing knowledge can be brought together
57 in a pressure-state-response framework that connects climate change ecology,
58 conservation evidence assessments and management. Seabirds in Western Europe are
59 used as a case study, **as they are well-researched and vulnerable to climate change.**
60 Using a combination of literature reviews and surveys, we identify the main threats
61 posed to seabirds in the region by climate change, as well as existing conservation
62 actions that could be applied to **lessen** the impacts of each of these threats.

63 3- Our results show that 29% of the types of actions considered for **reducing** the impacts
64 of climate change on seabirds are either associated with conflicting evidence or lack
65 sufficient information to make robust conclusions about their effectiveness: **actions**
66 **aiming at restoring or creating habitat, encouraging relocation, treating or preventing**
67 **disease, and reducing inter-species competition all have limited or mixed evidence to**
68 **support their use.** Moreover, several threats identified by conservation practitioners as

69 being of high priority to address, such as **changes in prey abundance and eutrophication**,
70 have few or no viable **identified** actions to **reduce** their impact **on seabirds**.

71 4- We suggest that existing knowledge on species vulnerability to climate change and
72 evidence of conservation action effectiveness should be more commonly brought
73 together in tailored pressure-state-response frameworks. Such an approach provides an
74 easily transferable platform for identifying missing information and areas where
75 connections between research and management need to be tightened to improve
76 conservation outcomes.

77 *Keywords:* climate change; seabirds; conservation evidence; management interventions;
78 pressure-state-response framework.

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80

81 **Background**

82 Anthropogenic climate change poses a major **threat** to biodiversity, ecosystem services, and
83 human well-being. It is **endangering** the long-term survival of many species (Urban, 2015)
84 and has already led to a wide-scale redistribution of biodiversity (Pecl et al., 2017), local to
85 regional extirpations (García Molinos et al., 2016) and, in some cases, contributed to the
86 **global** extinction of an entire species (Waller et al., 2017). Moreover, climate change is a
87 complex, multi-faceted phenomenon which can directly and indirectly impact species in a
88 multitude of ways, both positively and negatively. For example, climate change can directly
89 impact species through changes in environmental conditions that exceed their physiological
90 tolerances (Ainsworth et al., 2016). It can also impact species indirectly, by altering food
91 quality, quantity or availability and causing the collapse of a food chain **that a species is part**
92 **of** (Jones et al., 2018, 2019), or by facilitating range shifts or population persistence of
93 potential predators (McClelland et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2017), disease vectors or pathogens
94 (Hofmeister & Van Hemert, 2018). Many of the threats to wildlife from the current climate
95 breakdown cannot be averted or stopped; but impacts to populations could be prevented or
96 **reduced**, as long as threats can be ascertained and prioritised, and effective solutions
97 identified and implemented.

98 Identifying the best action (if any) in response to observed population declines associated
99 with changing climatic conditions is however challenging. First, unveiling the various
100 mechanistic pathways by which changes in climatic conditions may impact a given
101 population or species, and subsequently assessing whether each of these potential pathways
102 may threaten the viability of one or more populations, is a complex process. Carrying out
103 such an assessment requires a solid understanding of the species' ecology and a
104 comprehensive overview of recent changes in environmental conditions. Second, choosing

105 what actions to consider in response to an identified threat requires knowing what the options
106 are, and how they compare in terms of effectiveness. Interestingly, these two steps to
107 decision-making are rarely discussed in tandem, as research on climate change adaptation and
108 on the effectiveness of conservation actions are widely disconnected (Butt et al., 2020).
109 Without good connections between these two steps, **good communication and a translational**
110 **ecology approach** (Enquist et al., 2017), we are at risk of deploying insufficient or ineffective
111 solutions to a given threat at a certain location and for a particular species, leading to wasted
112 efforts and funding.

113 To illustrate this disconnection and its potential implications for species conservation, we
114 focus on seabirds in Western Europe, and **develop a pressure-state-response (PSR) approach**
115 (OECD et al. 1994) **to identify** the threats seabirds face from climate change **in the region**, the
116 relative seriousness of these threats, and the potential conservation actions that could be
117 considered to address them (**Supplementary Information**). Seabirds are an interesting study
118 case for several reasons. First, they are thought to be particularly vulnerable to climate
119 change (Dias et al., 2019) and in many cases are already suffering from the impacts of
120 climate change (Mitchell et al., 2020). Second, seabirds are a well-studied group (Dias et al.,
121 2019) with various conservation actions having been trialled for these species (see below).
122 Finally, as seabirds have large distribution ranges, and often depend on multiple jurisdictions
123 throughout their annual cycles, previous conservation strategies have necessarily been
124 international, which has resulted in a strong network of researchers and practitioners that
125 underpins data collection and policy engagement (Beal et al., 2021).

126 To carry out this assessment, we combined information from the published literature,
127 conservation databases and first-hand knowledge from conservation practitioners. We used
128 this collated information to 1) create a ranked list of climate change threats; 2) build a list of

129 potential conservation actions for each of these climate change threats; and 3) identify gaps in
130 knowledge about threats and how to alleviate them. The benefits of considering such a PSR
131 framework that connects climate change ecology and evidence of intervention effectiveness,
132 such as the one presented here, are discussed.

133

134 **Seabirds in Western Europe**

135 We broadly focused our research on seabirds in the northeast Atlantic region as defined by
136 the Oslo/Paris convention (OSPAR; <https://www.ospar.org/about>). OSPAR is the mechanism
137 by which 15 Governments (Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland,
138 Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and United
139 Kingdom) and the European Union cooperate to protect the marine environment of the
140 northeast Atlantic. Our study area includes countries that surround the Baltic Sea, including
141 Finland and the Baltic states: this adjustment was made in response to known distributions of
142 significant fish stocks, as well as information on areas known to be important breeding and/or
143 wintering grounds for species otherwise common in Western Europe (Fig. 1).

144 Using the most recent data released by BirdLife International, we compiled information on
145 the distribution of all seabird species to identify both breeding and non-breeding species that
146 spend a significant portion of the year within the study area. Species listed as vagrants,
147 marginal or that only enter our study area as part of migratory passage were excluded.

148 Seventy-five seabird species have distributions that fall within our chosen area of interest;
149 most (N=61) of them breed in this area. One species is known to be Critically Endangered
150 (the Balearic shearwater *Puffinus mauretanicus*) and another is classified as Endangered
151 (Zino's **petrel** *Pterodroma madeira*); neither breed in our area of interest. Another five

152 species are classified as Near Threatened while **eight** species are classified as Vulnerable; the
153 majority of these 13 species breed in our study area. All other species are classified as Least
154 Concern but several of them are known to have experienced regional declines recently
155 (BirdLife International & Handbook of the Birds of the World, 2020).

156 We contacted major seabird conservation organisations in sixteen countries: Belgium,
157 Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania,
158 Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, UK. We emailed staff from Birdlife
159 International and associated branches, the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, the
160 British Trust for Ornithology, the Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Naturschutzbund
161 Deutschland, Birdwatch Ireland, Vogelbescherming Nederland, Natuurpunt, Ligue pour la
162 Protection des Oiseaux, Dansk Ornitologisk Forening, AZTI, Consejo Superior de
163 Investigaciones Científicas, Sociedade Portuguesa para o Estudo das Aves, Sociedad
164 Española de Ornitología, Norwegian Ornithological Society, Muséum National d'Histoire
165 Naturelle, l'Office Français pour la Biodiversité and Luonnonvarakeskus. Altogether, we
166 contacted more than 180 practitioners involved with seabird conservation in Western Europe.

167 **We invited each practitioner to participate in two anonymous surveys. The first survey asked**
168 **participants to contribute to a list of climate change threats and conservation actions that**
169 **could be carried out in response. The second asked participants to rate the severity of each**
170 **threat and provide information on the extent to which each action was being considered by**
171 **their organization. At both stages, practitioners were asked to share insights on current gaps**
172 **in knowledge that may hinder seabird conservation. The questions from each survey are**
173 **expanded upon in further detail below. Our surveys were only sent to practitioners based in**
174 **our region of interest and they were asked to assess threats as they applied to Europe and**
175 **their study sites. Moreover, practitioners were asked to consider breeding and non-breeding**
176 **sites relevant to seabird conservation, but only when these occurred in Europe or their study**

177 sites: as such, climate change threats impacting migratory species with parts of their range
178 outside Western Europe were not captured by our surveys. In total we received 45 and 35
179 responses, for survey 1 and 2 respectively, from 13 countries.

180

181 **Pressure and state: routes to climate change vulnerability**

182 As a first step, we compiled information on described pathways by which climate change
183 may directly or indirectly impact the state of seabird populations globally; we primarily based
184 this compilation on two comprehensive reviews on the impacts of climate change on seabirds
185 (Dias et al., 2019; Sydeman et al., 2015). This enabled us to identify a number of direct and
186 indirect pathways, which relate to changes in energetic costs, nest destruction, prey
187 availability, habitat availability and quality (e.g., change in vegetation cover, increased
188 bioavailability of contaminants such as methylmercury), predation and competition pressure
189 (including predation by, and competition with, invasive species), occurrence of infectious and
190 non-infectious disease (e.g., algal bloom toxicosis) and human activities (e.g., increased
191 competition with fishing fleets). For the purpose of this study, we did not include pathways
192 related to the expansion of the renewable energy sector (e.g., increased number of windfarms)
193 and associated potential impacts on seabirds.

194 We then asked practitioners to review our compiled list of threats and either remove threats
195 that did not apply to the study area or add additional threats that were not listed (survey 1,
196 launched on the 14th April 2021 for one month; this survey was available in English, French,
197 German, Norwegian, Spanish, Swedish and Finnish). We followed up on this request by
198 asking practitioners to review the consolidated list of threats (survey 2, launched on the 2nd
199 June 2021 for one and a half months) and gathered any additional feedback. No additional

200 threats were identified in survey 2. Table 1 details the final list of threats currently at the
201 forefront of practitioners' minds in the region. The direct and indirect threats identified
202 broadly map onto the threat categories used by the IUCN as being related to climate change
203 and severe weather (namely, habitat shifting and alteration, droughts, temperature extremes,
204 storms and flooding, and other impacts; IUCN, 2021).

205 In survey 2, practitioners were also asked to detail how concerned they were about each
206 threat on a 1-5 scale, ranging from "not a concern" (1) to "very serious threat" (5). We
207 compiled responses and ranked all threats by the percentage of respondents that gave a score
208 of 4 ("serious threat") or 5 ("very serious threat"; Table 1). This showed that reduced prey
209 availability, increased threat from human activity and reduced habitat availability were major
210 concerns for most practitioners surveyed.

211

212 **Response: options for reducing the impacts of climate change on seabird populations**

213 To collate information on potential conservation actions that may increase population
214 resistance or resilience to the threats identified, we (1) compiled an initial list of possible
215 actions based on the published literature, and (2) asked practitioners to review our compiled
216 list of actions and either remove or add actions that they themselves use or are aware of being
217 used (survey 1). We included actions to tackle both direct and indirect threats from climate
218 change. As for threats, we did not aim for this list of actions to be comprehensive, but to
219 reflect actions being used by seabird conservation practitioners. To ascertain the effectiveness
220 of these various actions, we used **the latest available** data from Conservation Evidence
221 (<https://www.conservationevidence.com/>), an initiative collating evidence on the
222 effectiveness of conservation actions globally (Sutherland et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2013).

223 Very few studies report conservation action effectiveness for seabirds in the context of
224 climate change; because of this, our assessment of effectiveness includes (1) studies
225 published for birds other than seabirds, and (2) studies that may or may not have deployed
226 this particular action in response to climate change. We acknowledge that information **from**
227 **sources other** than Conservation Evidence could be used to assess the effectiveness of
228 conservation actions; however, we do not believe such choice would alter the general
229 conclusions presented in this contribution.

230 The identified 31 conservation actions (Supplementary Information) were grouped into 14
231 broad types, ranging from habitat restoration and translocations to predator control and
232 eradication, and competitor removal. According to the information compiled by Conservation
233 Evidence, 10 of these 14 potential types of actions are known to be beneficial to some seabird
234 species, while the remaining 4 types of actions either have mixed evidence (**i.e., vaccination**
235 **or treatment against diseases and parasites**) or lack sufficient evidence (**i.e., manipulation of**
236 **existing habitats to encourage natural colonisation; habitat restoration and creation;**
237 **competitor removal**) to make robust conclusions about their effectiveness (Fig. 2). For actions
238 related to the treatment and prevention of diseases and parasites, as well as to providing
239 artificial nesting sites, making new sites more attractive for nesting birds, controlling habitat-
240 altering species, protecting nests with barriers and enclosures, managing avian predators and
241 increasing legal protection, the assessment was partly or solely based on non-seabird species.

242

243 **Learning outcomes and ways forward**

244 Various studies have attempted to predict how seabirds may be affected by climate change in
245 the coming decades, using this information in some cases to call for a reduction in

246 greenhouse gas emissions and the creation of new marine protected areas (e.g., Clairbaux et
247 al., 2021). Yet, when it comes to identifying or prioritising local management actions that
248 should be considered to **reduce** the impacts of climate change for a given seabird population,
249 guidance remains rare. Below we detail the main knowledge gaps our work identified as
250 needing to be addressed to **lessen** the impacts of climate change on seabird populations.

251 *Not all climate change threats are equally researched*

252 Several threats listed in Table 1 have received little attention in the context of climate change;
253 a good example of this relates to the changes in risks posed by diseases to seabirds, which
254 45% of practitioners surveyed thought was a serious threat to seabird populations. It has been
255 suggested that climate change can induce changes in the distribution ranges and population
256 dynamics of disease vectors, as well as changes in disease epidemiology, and that such
257 changes might contribute to declines in wild bird populations (Fuller et al., 2012). Yet
258 existing knowledge of seabird disease ecology is limited (Uhart et al., 2018). In addition,
259 existing reviews of threats to seabirds acknowledge the potential role of disease, including the
260 possible increase in parasite load (Uhart et al., 2018) and change in the frequency and
261 severity of toxic algal blooms (Gibble & Hoover, 2018), but an overview of the specific
262 conservation actions that could **reduce** such threats is mostly lacking (but see Bourret et al.,
263 2018 for an example on albatross and avian cholera). For example, practitioners across
264 Western Europe ranked the increased risk of nest destruction and disease as equally
265 concerning, but while Conservation Evidence lists 27 studies that look at providing robust
266 artificial nesting sites it only lists two studies focusing on a single species that have trialled
267 disease treatment in a wild seabird population. Another glaring knowledge gap relates to how
268 threats are researched with respect to seabirds' life cycle: 27% of the practitioners surveyed
269 rated the potential impacts of climate change on their migration routes as serious or very
270 serious, yet, to our knowledge, few studies (such as Clairbaux et al., 2019) have explored

271 how serious this threat may be for various seabird species and there are currently no
272 conservation actions listed on Conservation Evidence that could **alleviate** such impacts.

273 *Downscaling **climate change** threat assessments to the population level*

274 The relative importance of climate change related threats to a given species is often spatially
275 variable, with some threats (such as reduced prey availability or change in predation pressure)
276 being more problematic in specific parts of the species' range. Threats to populations do not
277 act in isolation (Dias et al., 2019), and interactions between various threats can differ in
278 direction and strength across the range of species. During our surveys, we found that
279 practitioners from various parts of Europe were concerned by different threats, although
280 concern about some specific threats (in this case prey availability, changes in habitat
281 suitability and human-related impacts) were widely shared across Europe, from Finland to
282 Portugal. **Downscaling threat assessments or applying threat assessments based on one area
283 to another is extremely challenging and not always adequate. Similarly, it is difficult to gather
284 comprehensive information on where specific threats (and interactions between threats) are
285 particularly problematic for species, but this information is critical to help practitioners
286 prioritise action on the ground. Recent reviews of global threats to seabirds represent
287 important progress on this front, but these assessments remain too broad for most
288 conservation organisations to act upon. A downscaling of these assessments to the scale of
289 taxonomic families, species or regions relevant to conservation is therefore an important next
290 step to prioritise action.**

291 *Not all **climate change** threats have viable conservation actions*

292 The most concerning impacts of climate change to practitioners were reduced prey
293 availability, increased threat from human activities and reduced habitat availability (Table 1).
294 For each of these there are potential conservation actions that have been trialled in several

295 seabird species. However, for these actions, the evidence for intervention effectiveness is
296 based on studies where climate change was never the primary threat to be addressed; for most
297 groups of species, including seabirds but also mammals, amphibians and others, the practical
298 evidence for **reducing the impacts of** climate change threats remains extremely scarce
299 (Sutherland et al., 2020). In addition, even when potential solutions have been suggested and
300 trialled in seabirds, there are still major caveats. Some actions, such as providing
301 supplementary food, are very labour intensive, unlikely to be practical for most populations,
302 and could cause serious disturbance. For seabirds, few known effective conservation action
303 options are available to tackle indirect threats that are shaped in many cases by long **and**
304 **complex** causative pathways operating at large spatial scales. Examples of such indirect
305 threats include climate change resulting in increased localised rainfall, itself accelerating
306 nutrient flow from agricultural lands into wetlands and coastal areas, leading to
307 eutrophication and reduced food availability for seabirds. Another example relates to climate
308 change leading to a greater frequency of toxic algal blooms, which may, depending on their
309 timing and location, result in increased exposure and mass starvation of seabirds. The above
310 examples were mentioned by practitioners as pathways they were particularly concerned
311 about with regards to the populations they managed, and that currently had few viable
312 solutions.

313 *Improving evidence-based assessments of effectiveness*

314 Table 1 shows that, for most actions listed, few studies are available to draw conclusions on
315 their effectiveness. Potential changes in effectiveness of conservation actions between
316 various areas within a species range and different species are thus mostly unknown. Most
317 conservation actions have moreover only been trialled in a few species, and given the diverse
318 ecology of seabird species, it cannot be assumed that action effectiveness is easily
319 transferable. While we currently have tools to model or monitor the impact of some concrete

320 actions for certain species, agreeing on indicators that are easily transferable across most or
321 all seabird species and habitats remains a challenge.

322 *Unintended consequences*

323 Interactions between conservation actions can have a drastic effect on the overall
324 effectiveness of management intervention (Larrosa et al., 2016; Sutherland et al., 2020),
325 something that was highlighted by several individuals surveyed. While a given action may
326 reduce the impact of a targeted threat, subsequent unintended consequences may counteract
327 any positive gain from it (e.g., Prior et al., 2018). Initiatives such as Conservation Evidence
328 collect published information on unintended consequences, which is then used to moderate
329 effectiveness assessment levels. However, in many cases these unintended consequences are
330 not captured, explored and reported in the same studies or for groups other than the target
331 (i.e., a conservation action for birds might have unintended harmful impacts for reptiles but
332 sufficiently robust monitoring might not extend to that group). There is a need to develop a
333 more holistic, consistent and systematic approach to the assessment of possible unintended
334 consequences of conservation actions, so that this information can be factored into future
335 effectiveness assessments.

336

337 **Conclusions**

338 The challenges posed by the rapid changes in climatic conditions we are experiencing require
339 efficient coordination between science, management, policy and advocacy, so that key
340 questions are given research priority and effective conservation actions can be deployed in
341 areas where they are most needed. Without a joined-up approach between conservation
342 research and action, there is a risk that (1) research does not provide useful information for
343 practitioners; and (2) practitioners do not make conservation decisions that are supported by

344 evidence, either because such evidence is not readily available or because it does not exist;
345 leading to scarce conservation funding being wasted.

346 Using seabirds as an example, we suggest that existing knowledge **should** be **more often**
347 brought together in a fully realised pressure-state-response framework that connects climate
348 change ecology and evidence of intervention effectiveness (OECD et al., 1994). **Our approach**
349 **identified several threats for which there are limited local management options to prevent or**
350 **reduce their impacts on seabirds, and several conservation actions which are currently not well**
351 **supported by scientific evidence. This is despite the fact that seabirds in Western Europe are a**
352 **well-researched group of animals that receives high conservation attention. The presented**
353 **framework** provides an easily transferable platform for identifying missing information and
354 areas where connections between research and management need to be tightened to improve
355 conservation outcomes. Combining research on climate change threats and management
356 interventions in such a coherent way can facilitate coordination and synthesis of insights
357 between multiple disciplines (e.g., ecology, veterinary sciences, geography, meteorology) and
358 stakeholders (e.g., policy makers, wildlife managers), while enabling scientists to prioritise
359 research for the most pressing threats. In the face of rapidly changing environmental conditions,
360 we believe the adoption of frameworks such as ours could help align efforts to prioritise and
361 implement evidence-based climate change adaptation practices to safeguard a future for the
362 species most at risk.

363

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481 Table 1: Ranked climate change threats to seabirds in Western Europe and possible **local**
482 **management** solutions. For each threat, practitioners (N=35) were asked how much of a
483 threat they perceived it posed to the seabird population they managed. Vote percentage
484 indicates the percentage of conservationists who thought the threat was “serious” or “very
485 serious”. For each threat we identified several theoretically possible types of actions that
486 could be used to **alleviate** or prevent the threat; some of these actions may however not be
487 practically feasible at a sufficiently large scale. For each action we indicate how many studies
488 have assessed their effectiveness **for seabirds**, as detailed in Conservation Evidence (CE).

489

Threat	Vote percentage	Suggested actions	# seabird studies in CE
Reduced prey availability	79%	Provide supplementary food	13
		Translocate the population to a more suitable area	5
		Make new sites more attractive to encourage birds to colonise them	16
		Artificially incubate eggs or hand-rear chicks in captivity	5
Increased threats from human activities	64%	Increase legal protection	2
Reduced habitat availability	64%	Restore or create habitat	7
		Control or remove habitat-altering species	4
		Provide artificial nesting sites	27
		Translocate the population to a more suitable area	5
		Make new sites more attractive to encourage birds to colonise them	16
		Alter current site to encourage birds to move away	1

Nest destruction caused by extreme climate events	45%	Provide artificial nesting sites	27
Increased exposure to disease	45%	Vaccination or treatment against disease and parasites	2
Increased foraging difficulty due to extreme weather	39%	Provide supplementary food	13
Increased predation and/or competition	36%	Manage/eradicate mammalian predators	22
		Manage/eradicate avian predators	8
		Reduce competition by removing competitor species	7
		Physically protect nests with barriers or enclosures	9
		Artificially incubate eggs or hand-rear chicks in captivity	5
Increased heat stress on adults/chicks/eggs	33%	Translocate the population to a more suitable area	5
		Make new sites more attractive to encourage birds to colonise them	16
		Alter current site to encourage birds to move away	1
Increased migration costs due to changes in climate along migration route	27%	None available	NA

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491

492

FIGURES

493

494 Figure 1: Study area. We broadly focused our research on the northeast Atlantic region as
495 defined by Oslo/Paris convention (OSPAR). We also considered seabird populations in
496 countries that surround the Baltic Sea, such as Finland and the Baltic states: this adjustment
497 was made in response to known distributions of significant fish stocks, as well as information
498 on areas known to be important breeding and/or wintering grounds for species otherwise
499 common in Western Europe.

500

501 Figure 2: Summary of types of conservation actions (i.e., interventions) listed in
502 Conservation Evidence that can be considered to **reduce** the impacts of climate change on
503 birds. Each type of conservation action is a summary of several related actions (see
504 Supplementary Material for the comprehensive list). For each type of conservation action, the
505 output of the effectiveness assessment carried out by the Conservation Evidence team is
506 summarised. The percentage of practitioners having identified each threat as serious or very
507 serious **to seabird populations in Europe** is provided in pie charts (in purple).

508

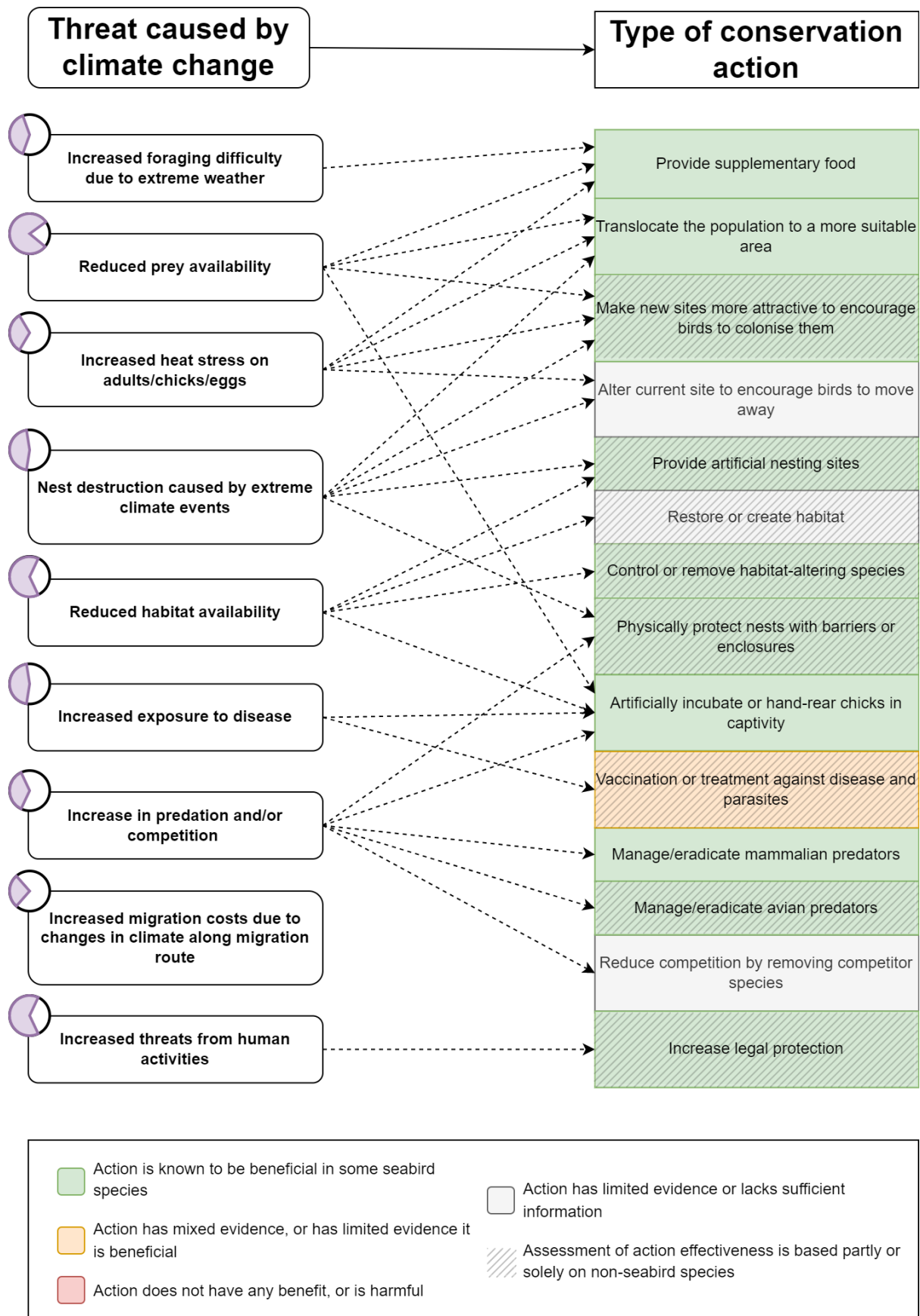
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510

511 Figure 1.

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Figure 2