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Fallow management for steppe bird conservation: the impact of cultural practices on vegetation structure and food resources

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Abstract— *The potential of fallow lands to favor farmland bird conservation is widely recognized . Since fallows provide key resources for birds within the agricultural matrix, such as nesting sites, shelter and forage, complete understanding of the effect of field-management strategies on vegetation structure and food is essential to fulfill bird requirements and improve habitat management. In this study we experimentally compare the most common field practices (ploughing, shredding, herbicide application and cover cropping) on fallow lands by assessing the resources they provide for birds in terms of vegetation structure and food resources (leaf and seed availability), as well as the economic costs of their implementation. Fallow management treatments are ranked for six target species in a lowland area of the north-eastern Iberian Peninsula, according to the available information on their requirements. The different agronomic practices offer various quantities and types of resources, highlighting the importance of fallow management in bird conservation. Shredding and early herbicide application (February) are estimated to be good practices for Little Bustard (*Tetrax tetrax*) and Calandra Lark (*Melanocorypha calandra*), providing both favorable habitat and foraging conditions, while being economical. Meanwhile, superficial tillage in spring is found to be optimum for the rest of the species tested, despite being among the poorest food providers. Alternating patches of the best treatments would improve the effectiveness of agri-environmental schemes by maximizing the harboring habitat for the endangered species.*

Keywords— **Non-cropped land; Habitat suitability; Farmland birds conservation; Field practices; Agri-environmental schemes.**

1. Introduction

Thousands of years of agricultural expansion have led to the reliance of wild species on land dedicated to human food production. Thus, their preservation strongly depends on traditional low-intensity practices (Tscharrntke et al. 2005). Throughout Europe, the effects of farm management on breeding birds are well documented, and intensified practices as well as the simplification of agricultural landscapes have been identified as the main causes of the decline of farmland bird populations (Benton et al. 2003; Donald et al. 2001). In order to slow and eventually halt this decline, farmland biodiversity has been the focus of

39 important conservation efforts in Europe in recent decades, including various common policy tools and
40 agri-environment schemes (AES) devoting great amounts of funding to the process (Kleijn et al. 2006).
41 Despite these efforts, the negative effects of agricultural intensification on European farmland
42 biodiversity persist (Donald et al. 2006), and it is still unknown how the extensive European agri-
43 environmental budget for conservation on farmland contributes to the policy objectives aimed at stopping
44 biodiversity decline (Guerrero et al. 2014; Kleijn et al. 2011; Vickery et al. 2004) . Kleijn et al. (2006)
45 found that the European schemes had limited usefulness for the conservation of endangered farmland
46 species and, therefore, suggested that the measures currently applied would require elaboration as well as
47 designs more tailored to the needs of these species. Furthermore, appropriate biodiversity conservation
48 targets and measures must also be identified, and modulated according to the landscape characteristics of
49 each region (Concepción et al. 2008; Butler et al. 2009; Cardador et al. 2014).

50 Cereal pseudo-steppes of the Iberian Peninsula are distinctive agricultural landscapes characterized by
51 open areas with flat or slightly undulated topography, dominated by winter cereal crops and a
52 Mediterranean continental climate (Suárez et al. 1997). These areas also represent a low yield farming
53 system due to climatic and soil limitations, with an average cereal supply of 2500 kg ha⁻¹; compared with
54 the 6000 kg ha⁻¹ represented by the European Union (EU) as a whole (Delgado and Moreira 2000; Oñate
55 et al. 2007). Steppe birds that inhabit this landscape are thought to be good indicators of overall farmland
56 diversity due to their narrow niche requirements, strongly linked with these habitats (Butler et al. 2007;
57 Stoate et al. 2001). Their populations have been reduced by almost half since 1970 and are at present the
58 most threatened bird group in Europe; 83% of the species has unfavourable status since it is highly
59 vulnerable to the effects of agricultural change (Benítez-López et al. 2013; Burdfield 2005). In this
60 context, the Iberian Peninsula is home to the most important populations of these endangered species
61 within Europe (Santos and Suárez 2005).

62 Establishment of temporary habitat patches such as fallow land is one of the most promising approaches
63 to compensate for the loss of semi-natural habitat and mitigate the negative effects of agricultural
64 intensification (Huusela-Veistola et al. 2011). Fallow lands are temporary habitat patches traditionally
65 included into crop rotations as a way to rest the land and get nutrient for the future crop season. In these
66 fields, no crops are sown during one year (sometimes more) and a limited number of agronomic practices
67 are applied (Oñate et al. 2007). Fallow land is an essential substrata during breeding and winter seasons
68 for a variety of steppe land bird species (McMahon et al. 2010; Vickery et al. 2004). Hence, leaving a
69 variable proportion of arable land fallow is one of the most common commitments when creating AES
70 (Oñate et al. 2007). Fallow habitat is extremely variable in terms of structure and composition, thus
71 allowing for the existence of different microhabitats within the same habitat type. Although many of these
72 species can live in similar habitats, differences in microhabitat selection between species or even between
73 different sexes of the same species may explain coexistence in steppe bird communities (Morales et al.
74 2008; Traba et al. 2015). Therefore, the maintenance and provision of microhabitat structure according to
75 different species' needs should be considered a priority in the management of agricultural environments
76 (Traba et al. 2015).

77 Agronomic practices applied on fallow land are key factors in understanding that variability, and
78 determining its value for birds since they strongly affect the vegetation development, microhabitat
79 characteristics, and food availability. Management practices act as a filter, changing the composition and
80 structure of plant communities which species select based on certain functional traits (Fried et al. 2012).
81 Grazing was a practice traditionally used in fallow lands, however nowadays shredding –cutting and
82 removal off the biomass-, sowing with a competitive grass –such alfalfa-, ploughing and tillage -of
83 varying depth- or spraying out with herbicide are among the preferred options for farmers, who mainly
84 aim to control weeds and prevent diseases. Regulating the timing and frequency of agricultural labors can
85 also modify the vegetation response. Yet there is a lack of information regarding the most appropriate
86 type of fallow management required to foster a suitable habitat for farmland bird conservation, and
87 particularly in steppe-land bird species (Hyvönen and Huusela-Veistola 2011; Morgado et al. 2010).
88 Previous research emphasizes that the availability of the nesting site, diet, foraging habitat, as well as easy
89 access to food and shelter from predators are the most important resources that explain habitat selection
90 (Cardador et al. 2014; Delgado et al. 2009; Green et al. 2000; Toivonen et al. 2013; Traba et al. 2015).
91 Thus, if habitat associations are largely dictated by the availability of key resources, it is crucial to
92 consider the habitat suitability (both the quantity and quality of the resources provided), rather than the
93 habitat per se (Butler and Norris 2013; Ponce et al. 2014).

94 While previous studies are mostly based on correlating bird presence with habitat or land-use availability,
95 here we utilized an experimental approach to compare the resources provided for birds among the most
96 common fallow management practices allowed in AES programs. Apart from assessing the vegetation
97 cover and height provided by each fallow treatment, we combined information from multiple functional
98 plant traits and vegetation characteristic to create trophic indexes that seek to inform about leaf and seed
99 availability. Due to the particular case of Iberian pseudo-steppes as a low productivity system, the
100 adoption of the proposed schemes or certain fallow treatments by farmers would be more attractive if they
101 were to combine environmental improvements with cost-minimization. So to address this reality, and
102 since considering the farmer's economy is critical to making progress towards maximizing AES
103 efficiency, the economic cost associated with each treatment or agronomic practice was estimated.

104 In summary, we aim to contribute to progress in improving AES effectiveness and farmland bird
105 conservation goals by 1) predict habitat suitability from these practices for different steppe bird species
106 during the breeding period through a structural and functional approach; 2) experimentally compare the
107 effects of the most common agronomic practices on bird resources such as availability of food and shelter
108 habitat provided by fallows; 3) identify fallow management treatments that better optimize bird benefits,
109 taking the economic cost of implementation.

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114 2. Material and methods

115 2.1 Study area and species

116 Our study area is located in the NE Iberian Peninsula, in a flat area of the Ebro basin with a
117 Mediterranean continental climate and only 300–400 mm of annual rainfall. A total of four separate
118 fallow lands sites were selected as study areas: Montcortés (41°42'35.22"N; 1°13'52.33"E), Ballobar
119 (41°32'55.37"N; 0°5'59.06"E), Balaguer (41°44'38.92"N; 0°45'21.63"E) and Mas de Melons (Castelldans)
120 (41°30'14.26"N; 0°42'40.18"E) owing to the homogeneous nature of the landscape.

121 All are included in Special Protection Areas (SPA), which are sites established under the 2009/147/EC
122 Birds Directive and included in the Natura 2000 network (i.e., the European network of natural protected
123 areas). These sites are classified as such due to the coexistence of many steppe bird species of
124 conservation concern in the region (Brotons et al. 2004; Estrada et al. 2004), and so they benefit from an
125 AES focused on steppe land bird conservation. According to regional AES, a fallow scheme forces an
126 interruption of cereal production for ≥ 1 years (the agreement can be renewed annually) with no
127 agricultural activities allowed during the breeding period which is from the 15th of April to the 1st of
128 September. The potential beneficiary species include Black-bellied sandgrouse (*Pterocles orientalis*) and
129 Little Bustard (*Tetrax tetrax*), species classified as endangered and vulnerable respectively at a European
130 level (BirdLife International 2015), and other species of conservation concern or protected species at the
131 European, national or regional level: Stone-curlew (*Burhinus oediconemus*), Short-toed lark (*Calandrella*
132 *brachydactyla*), Calandra Lark (*Melanocorypha calandra*) and Pin-tailed sandgrouse (*Pterocles alchata*).
133 All are ground-nesting species with specialized habitat requirements but depend on fallow to a greater or
134 a lesser extent during breeding period. Previous studies have described the vegetation structure (cover and
135 height range values) and the main food requirements preferred by our targets and other ecologically
136 similar bird species (e.g. Cardador et al. 2014; Martin et al. 2010; McMahan et al. 2010; Sanza et al.
137 2012; Suarez et al. 1997; Traba et al. 2013). From this information, a range of habitat suitability for the
138 selected species has been defined in terms of vegetation cover and height, and food resources (Table 1).

139 2.2 Experimental design

140 We conducted a 3-year field experiment (from the 2012 to the 2014 agronomic season, from October to
141 June-July) to examine the development of vegetation communities on fallow lands under different
142 cultural practices. In each of the four study sites, one fallow field (ranging from 5.18 to 14.54 ha) was
143 divided into 21 plots of 200 m². A scheme of the experimental design is given in the Supplementary
144 Online Material (Online Resource 1). With the aim to reproduce some of the most common cultural
145 practices, the following treatments were applied in each experimental plot: chisel plow, set to a minimum
146 tillage of 10 cm; shredding; a glyphosate herbicide spray at a 1.5 l ha⁻¹ dosage; alfalfa sowing, with
147 *Aragon* seed variety at 30 kg ha⁻¹ dose. Treatments were applied each year and administered at different
148 times according to common practices: “early dates” (February) for chisel and herbicide, and “late dates”
149 (April) for chisel, herbicide and shredding. Alfalfa was sown once in October of the first season.
150 Furthermore, some plots were untreated (control), giving a total of seven treatments repeated three times

151 in each study area: early-chisel (EChi), late-chisel (LChi), early-herbicide (EHer), late-herbicide (LHer),
152 late-shredding (Shre), early-alfalfa (Alf) and untreated/control (Cnt). Pictures of the different
153 management practices are given in the Supplementary Online Material (Online Resource 2).
154 Traditionally, fallow lands are treated two times per agronomic season. In order to reflect a real situation,
155 the vegetation of all experimental plots was mowed at the end of each agronomic season (October) to
156 remove an excess of organic matter accumulated after spring and summer seasons. By mowing, we allow
157 the maintenance of the soil seed bank and so, the preservation of the history effect of the previous
158 treatments.

159 **2.3 Vegetation sampling**

160 Vegetation data were collected each year from five fixed quadrates of 0.25 m² located on each
161 experimental plot in May, coinciding with the breeding period of the target bird species. Vegetation
162 structure (cover and height) was measured per each 0.25 m² quadrate. All species presents in each quadrat
163 were identified wherever possible (a total of 118 plant species). Coverage of each species was visually
164 estimated as a percentage of the area of the entire quadrate. Maximum height vegetation was measured in
165 each quadrat. Mean vegetation cover and height per plot was obtained by averaging the five quadrat
166 height and cover measures independently of the species identity.

167 **2.4 Trophic indexes**

168 By using functional traits information obtained from different data bases along with field data, seed and
169 leaf availability indexes were calculated to estimate the foraging value of each management type. Due to
170 the high mobility of arthropods and the size and proximity of the experimental plots, no arthropods
171 availability data was estimated as the results obtained could not be attributed directly to a specific
172 treatment. Despite this food component is relevant for chick survival or as an important part of the adults'
173 diet during the breeding period (Delgado et al. 2009; Holland et al. 2006; Jiguet 2002), arthropod
174 availability could be positively correlated with the leaf availability index across management treatments
175 given that most invertebrates and particularly the most abundant ones (usually phytophagous species) are
176 highly dependent on primary production (Di Giulio et al. 2001; Hoste-Danyłow et al. 2010).

177 **2.4.1 Leaf availability index**

178 To define leaf availability index, each plant species was given a value according to the data (coverage x
179 height x Specific Leaf Area (SLA, mm² mg⁻¹). The index of each plot was the result of summing each
180 species' index value. As a vegetation volume approach, cover and height data were taken into account.
181 Coverage data was obtained for each species by field sampling. However, height data was taken in the
182 field as a unique value independently of species identity, and for this reason, we obtained species-specific
183 height values from literature (de Bolòs et al. 1993). To avoid overestimation of height, field data was
184 utilized if the literature measure was higher than the average plot height, and vice versa when literature
185 data was smaller than the average height of the plot. SLA is a plant leaf trait obtained from literature
186 (Kattge et al. 2011), which is directly related to palatability, or the degree of toughness (low SLA) or

187 softness (high SLA) of leaves' tissues. This measurement ultimately determines the leaves' value to be
188 assimilated by herbivories (Storkey et al. 2013; Weiher et al. 1999).

189 **2.4.2 Seed availability index**

190 In a similar way, seed availability was quantified for each species as the product of its coverage x height x
191 seed mass (average of 1000 seed weight, g) and weighted by flowering period (months). The seed
192 availability index was finally obtained by the summation of each species' index, which had been
193 previously calculated. Cover information was taken per species and seed mass data obtained from
194 databases (Klotz et al. 2002; Royal Botanic Gardens Kew 2014). According to regional AES
195 requirements, no agricultural practices is allowed from the 15th of April to the 1st of September. Per this
196 rule, we weighted the index highlighting the species in flower during this period (de Bolòs et al. 1993),
197 giving 0 to species with no flower during the AES restriction period and values 1, 2, 3 or 4, depending on
198 the months in bloom. Considering the coverage and months of blossom (most were between two and four
199 months) during birds' breeding period gives an idea of the plants' fecundity and available resources. This
200 assumption is based on studies in the region which confirm that both invertebrates (mainly harvester ants)
201 and vertebrates remove seeds available on the soil surface during this period, causing a strong weed
202 suppressive effect (Baraibar et al. 2009). This makes it necessary to consider the species in bloom in order
203 to estimate the actual seed availability of the system at a specific time. High seed availability index values
204 are not linked with an increase in seed mass. Due to the lack of information on the number of seeds
205 produced by a plant and following the ecological rule directly relating the trade-off between seed size and
206 number of seeds produced (Leishman 2001), we assume that species with similar seed mass will produce
207 a comparable number of seeds. Averaging the seed weight of the most common plant species present in
208 the study (Figure 3) reveals that all of them have a comparable seed weight (1.2 ± 0.20 mg) and thus
209 similar seed production assumed.

210 Both trophic indexes were standardized, resulting in typed variables with zero mean and a standard
211 deviation of one.

212 **2.5 Economical evaluation**

213 Economic cost data of the implemented managements was provided by the agricultural services company
214 CUPASA. All the data was taken according to the average price of the season 2013-2014. With these
215 values, we calculated the estimated annual cost of each treatment per hectare. Also, it is important to take
216 into account that management practices could possibly favor the preponderance of high competitive plant
217 species that could affect negatively the yield of the future crop and so, cause an economical damage.

218 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

219 In a first step, we analyzed the differences in vegetation structure, coverage (in %) and height (in cm),
220 between field managements. A linear mixed model (LMM) and a post-hoc Tukey's pairwise comparison
221 was utilized to determine differences among treatments, including locality and plot as random factors.

222 The same analysis was done to estimate differences among treatments on dietary availability. Both
223 trophic indexes values were square-root transformed.

224 Information provided from previous studies was used to build habitat suitability range models for the
225 selected birds in terms of vegetation structure and food availability (Table 1). The degree of overlap
226 between the mean values (\pm CI) of each variable per field treatment and the bird species requirements was
227 quantified. To analyse flora community patterns in more detail, rank-abundance curves were constructed
228 for each of the seven field treatments at species level.

229 Statistical analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 2011) with VEGAN (Oksanen
230 et al. 2011), lme4 (Bates et al. 2008) and BiodiversityR (Kindt & Coe 2005) packages.

231

232 **3. Results**

233 Vegetation cover shows a significantly positive correlation to height ($R=0.465$; $p<0.001$) and
234 management practices display different habitats regarding vegetation structure (Figure 1). Late chisel
235 differs significantly from the other treatments, leading to less vegetation coverage and height (a mean of
236 35% and 28 cm, respectively) (Table 2). Early chisel application shows higher cover and height values
237 (up to 50% and 55 cm, respectively) compared to late chisel management, while we found similar
238 structural values between early and late herbicide applications (65-61% coverage and 41-43 cm height).
239 We observe similar height values between late chisel and late herbicide treatments, whilst not in
240 coverage. Shredding management is not significantly different from alfalfa sowing, late herbicide, early
241 chisel and herbicide treatments. Alfalfa and unmanaged plots (control) are significantly different in both
242 structural variables under late chisel management and they provide the highest values of cover and height
243 (80-79% and 52-61 cm).

244 The observed differences in vegetation structure greatly determine the fallow suitability for the different
245 target species. Control plots and alfalfa sowed fields do not fit into the vegetation structure requirement of
246 any of the target species, while the early chisel treatment does it partially, because of a tall and/or dense
247 resulting vegetation (Figure 1; Table 2). Moreover, the late chisel treatment provided fallows with a
248 vegetation structure adequate for all species, except for Calandra Lark. Furthermore, four species (Stone-
249 curlew, Short-toed lark, Pin-tailed sandgrouse and Black-bellied sandgrouse) would only find an optimal
250 habitat under this treatment. Finally, shredding and chemical treatments resulted in vegetation structure
251 that fit the main requirements for two species: Little bustard and Calandra lark. Food availability indexes
252 were positively correlated ($R=0.653$; $p<0.001$), indicating that the birds were finding more palatable
253 leaves when there were more seeds available in the system (Figure 2). Given that vegetation structure of
254 alfalfa and control plots was not suitable for birds, trophic indexes were not calculated for these
255 treatments since, yet providing food resources, they are not accessible for species Both trophic index
256 values were determined by management timing. Early treatments (February) led to significantly higher
257 foraging values than treatments applied in April (around 2.5 ± 0.5 and 1.5 ± 0.4 , respectively) (Table 3).
258 However, shredding (only applied on April) supplied significantly comparable seed resources when

259 compared with early herbicide. Early chisel is the treatment which offers the greatest amount of food
260 resources (2.7 ± 0.7 and 2.5 ± 0.7 seed and leaf availability index values, respectively). Despite being the
261 only valuable treatment in terms of vegetation structure for Stone curlew, Short-toed lark and both
262 sandgrouse species, late chisel management is among the poorest regarding food resources (1.4 ± 0.3 and
263 1.3 ± 0.3 seed and leaf availability index values, respectively).

264 Among the patterns of rank-abundance, there was pronounced dominance of *Anacyclus clavatus* (Figure
265 3) in all seven treatments. . However, its dominance is less noticeable in early treatments (herbicide and
266 chisel), comprising only around 30% of the total abundance, while it later increases by around 60% (70%
267 in control plots). The presence of *Salsola kali* as the second abundant species in early treatments shows
268 that the intervention time is a key factor for the germination of this late-spring species. Furthermore, late
269 management led to the appearance of *Malva sylvestris* as a common species. Soil remotion seemed to
270 promote graminoid species, such as *Lolium rigidum* that is always present as an important species in this
271 type of management including alfalfa (after *Medicago sativa*). An increase in hemicryptophyte forms was
272 observed in shredding treatment (*Seseli tortuosum* and *Crepis sp.*) since they have a greater likelihood of
273 surviving due to the possession of perennial buds at ground level.

274 The economic cost of the agricultural work carried out reveals that shredding and herbicide application
275 are the cheapest treatments (26€/ha and 26.7 €/ha, respectively), while alfalfa sowing is the most
276 expensive one (295 €/ha). Alfalfa is, however, a perennial forage crop that is normally sown every two-
277 four years (Table 4). Based on previous analysis, we constructed a ranking to 1) consider both the most
278 suitable treatments for the target species selected, based on the vegetation structure and trophic resources,
279 and 2) weigh the economic side (Table 5). Taking vegetation structure and food resources into account,
280 the optimal treatments for the target species appear to be early herbicide application, shredding and chisel
281 (early or late). If we consider both suitability for birds and the economic cost of each treatment, the
282 shredding and herbicide treatments seem to be the best options. However, in the case of Stone-curlew,
283 Short-toed lark, Pin-tailed sandgrouse and Black-bellied sandgrouse, only late chisel treatment is suitable
284 to their optimal habitat range.

285 **4. Discussion**

286 Our results reveal that field management and timing can play a key role in the aptitude of fallows for
287 steppe birds during the breeding season. Through an experimental approach, we show how different
288 fallow agronomic practices and timings determine the vegetation structure, as well as the amount and type
289 of food resources; two key factors behind bird habitat selection.

290 Among analysed managements, alfalfa sowing and untreated plots presented the greatest coverage and
291 vegetation height. At the other end of the spectrum, we find the late chisel plots with twice lower values
292 for the same variables. Early chisel, shredding and both herbicide treatments presented intermediate
293 values. Application time appears to be an important factor in determining trophic availability, while early
294 management provided more seed and leaves resources than late practices. This difference is reflected by

295 the breaking of *Anacyclus clavatus*' prominence, allowing for the recovery of that species, and leading us
296 to believe that early management promoted diversity enhancement.

297 Plant succession dynamics after different disturbance practices are the key to explaining the contrasting
298 result between two treatments made at the same time. It is known that life forms are relevant to
299 discriminate weeds according to physical or chemical disturbances (Gaba et al. 2013). Ploughing allows
300 for equal weed expansion dominated by pioneer annual plants with fast life cycles (Sojneková and Chytrý
301 2015). Meanwhile, herbicides favour the establishment of perennial species as well as ones with a short
302 interval between recruitment and anthesis (Gaba et al. 2013; Gulden et al. 2010). Glyphosate is a non-
303 selective contact herbicide that can affect a wide range of weeds. However, phanerophytes, chamaephytes
304 and most of the hemicryptophytes are less harmed, resulting in a rather heterogeneous habitat. The role of
305 these biological forms against annuals allows for a sparse and patchy habitat with lower density
306 vegetation. This diverse structure is also promoted by the layer of dead organic matter that remains on the
307 soil surface after the herbicide treatment.

308 As it has been previously mentioned, the identity of the plant species favoured by determined
309 management practices could affect the yield of the crop that follow fallow period. As an example, *Lolium*
310 *rigidum* and *Papver rhoeas* are two high competitive weeds considered as harmful in cereal crops of
311 Mediterranean regions (Izquierdo et al. 2003; Torra and Recasens 2008).

312 No treated fallows (control plots) and alfalfa-sowed ones offered vegetation cover and height values
313 above the habitat selection ranges of the objective species. The over fertilization with pig slurry detected
314 in many areas of the Ebro Valley (Berenguer et al. 2008) may explain the lack of fitness, characteristic to
315 the non-managed fallows, while the high nutrient load may be responsible for the overdevelopment of the
316 vegetation. Areas that are encroached on by dense vegetation result in the loss of farming habitat and
317 cause weed problems in future crop seasons, so it is usually a non-preferred scenario for farmers. This
318 implies that in other circumstances (considering different climate or soil fertilization), the results could be
319 lower than the ones obtained in our region. Even if our experimental approach is conditioned by the soil
320 fertilization levels of the study area, all treatments should be affected in the same way by those soil
321 conditions, allowing us to assume that the differences in vegetation structure we found between
322 treatments would remain constant, or at least very similar, in other areas where steppe and birds reside.

323 Previous studies described the importance of legume fields as a good habitat for steppe birds and
324 particularly for Little Bustard (Bretagnolle et al. 2011; Ponce et al. 2014). Here, alfalfa was not as
325 successful as expected, probably due to dry weather conditions after sowing. This undermined the
326 competitive capacity of alfalfa against other weeds that, along with the absence of any other treatment
327 after the sowing date, led to an evolution similar to that of the control plot vegetation. Maybe an annual
328 reseeded in these dryland areas could enhance alfalfa growth. Early chisel has the highest trophic index
329 values, but it is above the optimal range of all the bird species in terms of vegetation height, suggesting
330 that the latter would restrict the access to those food resources.

331 We predict that the early and late herbicide application together with shredding would offer the best
332 conditions for Little Bustard and Calandra Lark, as these treatments match their optimal habitat range for

333 both cover and height, according to bibliography. Nevertheless, if we also consider food resources, only
334 early herbicide application and shredding remain the best treatments for Little Bustard, while Calandra
335 Lark prefers the former. It seems paradoxical to suggest an herbicide treatment as one of the best ways to
336 achieve the optimal conditions on fallows for Little Bustard, considering that its diet is based on green
337 leaf resources (Jiguet 2002), so shredding seems to be a more conservative option than any chemical
338 treatment. Also, and based on the provided information, shredding and herbicide are among the less
339 expensive farmland practices. The controversial role of herbicide in conservation is mainly because of its
340 negative influence on floristic diversity and the invertebrate community (Boatman et al. 2004; Wilson et
341 al. 1999), as some insect groups are important food sources for chicks. Pollination decline is a well-
342 documented consequence of agricultural pesticide application, especially in places where spraying time
343 coincides with flowering time (Nicholls and Altieri 2012). Nevertheless, previous studies have found that
344 reduced herbicide inputs allow for the maintenance of a diverse invertebrate community (Vickery et al.
345 2002). In summary, we do not know the extent to which the benefits of early chemical application for
346 some of the target species exceed the potential damage that application could cause to the insects or
347 wildlife in general, which is why more specific studies are needed to explore the short and long-term
348 effects of chemical treatments in fallows. Furthermore, it would be necessary to assess the invertebrate
349 availability under different agronomic practices in future studies because breeding success for some bird
350 species may be dependent on this kind of food supply (Holland et al. 2006; Holland et al. 2014; Jiguet
351 2002).

352 According to our results, the other four bird species (Stone-curlew, Short-toed lark, Pin-tailed sandgrouse
353 and Black-bellied sandgrouse) would only find suitable vegetation structure conditions in late chisel
354 treated fallows. Thus, even if this treatment does not offer the highest food resources that early treatments
355 appear to provide, the microhabitat requirements of those species strongly limit the choices to manage
356 fallows for them. Short vegetation height and low cover is reported by other studies as the optimal habitat
357 for sandgrouse species (Martín et al. 2014), probably to better detect predators and reduce predation risk
358 (Butler and Gillings 2004). The Short-toed lark also shows a positive response to bare ground, selecting
359 low shrub cover, more herbaceous plants and low vegetation height (Moreira 1999; Suárez et al. 2002). It
360 mainly feeds on seeds found on the ground, so this type of open microhabitat following mechanical
361 treatment favors food accessibility and visibility (Llusia and Oñate 2005; Moreira 1999). Both processes
362 (anti-predator behaviour and foraging strategy) would be favoured by late chisel treatments on fallows.

363

364 **4.1 Conservation implications**

365 Temporary non-crop habitat establishment specifically designed with biodiversity goals in mind are
366 reported by several studies to offer suitable habitats for species of conservation concern (Cardador et al.
367 2014; Gillings et al. 2010; Huusela-Veistola et al. 2011; McMahan et al. 2010). To improve the
368 effectiveness of management actions, conservation guidelines for steppe birds should consider
369 microhabitat preferences giving importance not only to the amount of habitat provided but also to
370 vegetation structure and food availability. Moreover, it is also necessary for managers and farmers to

371 know how to achieve the desired microhabitats if biodiversity goals exist. This study contributes to better
372 understanding of how to attain the most suitable vegetation structure and food availability in fallows
373 designed for steppe bird conservation, whilst providing economic assessment of each agronomic practice,
374 essential to maintaining an environmentally-concerned farming culture with conservative aims. Although
375 it may be possible to find other ways to manage fallows, such as grazing (Krüess and Tschardtke 2002;
376 Hoste-Danyłow et al. 2010), in our experiment we reproduce the most common agricultural practices so
377 these results can be useful for other regions and farmland landscapes. Our study shows that early
378 management applications (February) play a relevant role in fostering habitats with more food resources
379 for birds than applications made in early spring. These effects are also results of the mowing treatment
380 applied in early autumn to homogenize and control the vegetation biomass in all the plots. A good
381 example of effectiveness maximization would be the shredding and early-herbicide application treatment
382 for Little bustard and Calandra lark, respectively, offering greater food resources and optimal habitat
383 parameters at a minimum cost. In contrast, managing fallows for the other four target species (Short-toed
384 lark, Stone-curlew, Pin-tailed sandgrouse and Black-bellied sandgrouse) is more constrained by the sparse
385 vegetation requirement of those species, only achieved through ploughing in early spring. It is clear from
386 our results that for suiting the needs of different target species in the geographical same area, it is
387 necessary to combine different types of management techniques and avoid the over implementation of a
388 particular treatment at landscape scale. Instead, alternating patches with management that promote
389 suitable habitat for foraging, such as early chisel, with others that offer good shelter and breeding
390 conditions, such as herbicide applications, shredding and late chisel, could lead to the ideal heterogeneous
391 mosaic needed to sustain a high diversity of bird species.

392 The main contribution of this study has been to experimentally assess how different microhabitats can be
393 achieved through fallow management and to make predictions on how the resulting vegetation structures
394 and food availability matches the main requirements of steppe land birds, one of the more threatened
395 groups of farmland birds. Now, as a next step, a validation of the study results will be required to confirm
396 the relationships between fallow management and our predictions on habitat suitability. Our study focuses
397 on the breeding period, which is a crucial step in the life cycle of any species or population, but in future
398 studies it would be desirable to explore the effects of fallow management on habitat suitability during the
399 whole year, given that species' habitat requirements may be season dependent (Marfil-Daza et al. 2013).

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408

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607 **Table 1** Habitat requirements of the bird species studied

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Bird species	Trophic resources	Structure patterns	
	Food	Cover	Height
Little bustard (<i>Tetrax tetrax</i>)	Mainly green plants (Jiguet et al. 2002)	25-75% (McMahon et al. 2010; Silva 2010)	Less than 50 cm (Martinez 1994; Morales et al. 2008; Silva 2010; Silva et al. 2013)
Stone-curlew (<i>Burhinus oedicephalus</i>)	Plant material, terrestrial invertebrates and occasionally small mammals (Giannangeli et al. 2004; Green et al. 2000 ; Traba et al. 2015)	Not exceed 50% (McMahon et al. 2010; Traba et al. 2013)	Less than 35 cm (Homem do Brito 1996)
Pin-tailed sandgrouse (<i>Pterocles alchata</i>)	Mainly seeds (Suarez et al. 1997; Martin et al. 2010)	Not exceed 50% (Martin et al. 2010)	Less than 30 cm (Martin et al. 2010)
Black-bellied sandgrouse (<i>Pterocles orientalis</i>)	Mainly seeds (Suarez et al. 1997; Martin et al. 2010)	Not exceed 50% (Martin et al. 2010; Traba et al. 2013)	Less than 30 cm (Martin et al. 2010)
Calandra lark (<i>Melanocorypha calandra</i>)	Mainly invertebrates and seeds (Sanza et al. 2012)	50-95% (Morgado et al. 2009)	10-45 cm (Cardador et al. 2014; Morgado et al. 2009)
Short-toed lark (<i>Calandrella brachydactyla</i>)	Mainly seeds (Suárez et al. 2009)	25-50% (McMahon et al. 2010)	Less than 30 cm (McMahon et al. 2010)

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622 **Table 2** Average of cover and height per treatment and post-hoc Tukey test results from linear mixed model
 623 between vegetation structures of the management practices

	Average per treatment		Post-hoc test between field treatments					
	Coverage (%)	Height (cm)	Control	Early-chisel	Early-herbicide	Late-chisel	Late-herbicide	Shredding
Alfalfa	80 (± 7.4)	52 (± 8.5)	C: ns H: ns	C: ** H: ns	C: ns H: ns	C: *** H: *	C: ns H: ns	C: ns H: ns
Control	79 (± 8.8)	61 (±13)		C: * H: ns	C: ns H: ns	C: *** H: ***	C: ns H: ns	C: ns H: *
Early-chisel	50 (±13.8)	55 (±14.6)			C: ns H: ns	C: ns H: *	C: ns H: ns	C: ns H: ns
Early-herbicide	65 (± 7.7)	41 (± 7.4)				C: ** H: ns	C: ns H: ns	C: ns H: ns
Late-chisel	35 (± 8.1)	28 (± 8.8)					C: * H: ns	C: * H: ns
Late-herbicide	61 (± 9.7)	43 (± 6.9)						C: ns H: ns
Shredding	63 (± 21)	38 (±13.3)						

624 C: coverage, H: height, ns: non-significant result, * = <0.05, ** = <0.01 and *** = <0.001

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Table 3 Average of seed and leaf availability indexes per treatment and post-hoc Tukey test results from linear mixed model between trophic indexes of the management practices

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	Average per treatment		Post-hoc test between field treatments			
	Seed availability index	Leaf availability index	Early-herbicide	Late-chisel	Late-herbicide	Shredding
Early-chisel	2.7 (± 0.7)	2.5 (± 0.7)	S.I.: ns L.I.: ns	S.I.: ** L.I.: *	S.I.: * L.I.: *	S.I.: * L.I.: ns
Early-herbicide	2.5 (± 0.6)	2.1 (± 0.4)		S.I.: * L.I.: *	S.I.: * L.I.: ns	S.I.: ns L.I.: ns
Late-chisel	1.4 (± 0.3)	1.3 (± 0.3)			S.I.: ns L.I.: ns	S.I.: ns L.I.: ns
Late-herbicide	1.4 (± 0.3)	1.5 (± 0.4)				S.I.: ns L.I.: ns
Shredding	1.5 (± 0.4)	1.8 (± 0.7)				

644 S.I.: seed availability index, L.I.: leaf availability index, ns: non-significant result, * = <0.05, ** = <0.01
645 and *** = <0.001

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663 **Table 4** Economic cost of the management implemented

Management Type		Dose/ha	€/u	€/ha	Total (€/ha)
Chisel		1	40	40	40
Shredding		1	26	26	26
Herbicide					26.7
	Glyphosate 45% Application	1.5	7.8	11.7	
		1	15	15	
Alfalfa sowing					295
	Subsoiler	1	65	65	
	Seeder (<i>Precision Planting</i>)	1	50	50	
		30	6	180	
	Alfalfa seed (<i>Aragon</i>)				

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Table 5 Summary of the most effective treatments according to vegetation structure, foraging availability and economic cost for the bird species considered in the study

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Ranking of the best treatments						
Bird species	Provides good vegetation structure			Provides more food resources*	Cheapest	Final Ranking
	Treatment name	Coverage suitability	Height suitability			
Little bustard	1. E. Herbicide	100%	100%	1. E. Chisel	1. Shredding Herbicide	1. Shredding Early Herbicide
	L. Chisel	100%	100%	E. Herbicide		
	L. Herbicide	100%	72%	Shredding	2. Chisel	2. Late Herbicide
	2. Shredding	89%	98%	2. L. Herbicide		
3. E. Chisel	0%	34%	L. Chisel		3. Late Chisel	
Calandra lark	1. E. Herbicide	100%	100%	1. E. Chisel	1. Shredding Herbicide	1. Early Herbicide
	L. Herbicide	100%	100%	E. Herbicide		
	2. Shredding	71%	98%	2. Shredding	2. Chisel	2. Shredding Late Herbicide
	3. E. Chisel	0%	17%	L. Herbicide		
Stone-curlew	1. L. Chisel	100%	100%	1. L. Chisel	1. L. Chisel	1. L. Chisel
Short-toed lark Pin-tailed sandgrouse Black-bellied sandgrouse	1. L. Chisel	100%	67 %	1. L. Chisel	1. Chisel	1. L. Chisel

688 *according to the food preferences per species (i.e. Little bustard mainly herbivorous)

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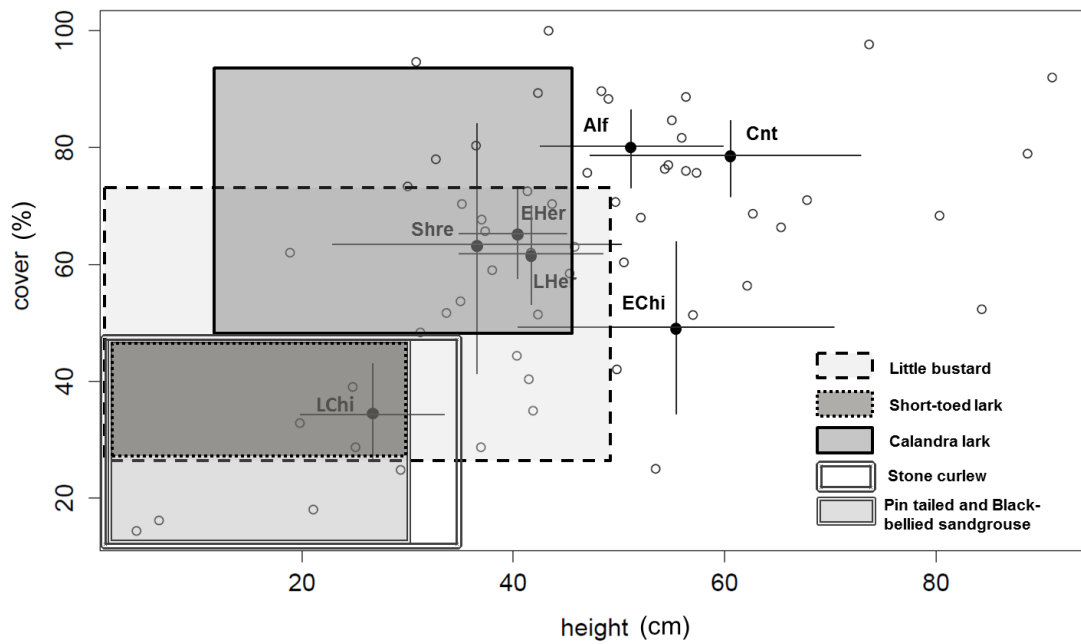
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704 **Fig. 1** Average (and the 95% confidence interval) of vegetation coverage and plant height experimentally
705 obtained across several fallow treatments (black dots) and optimal habitat range obtained from
706 bibliography for the selected bird species (overlapping rectangles). Sample sites are marked with white
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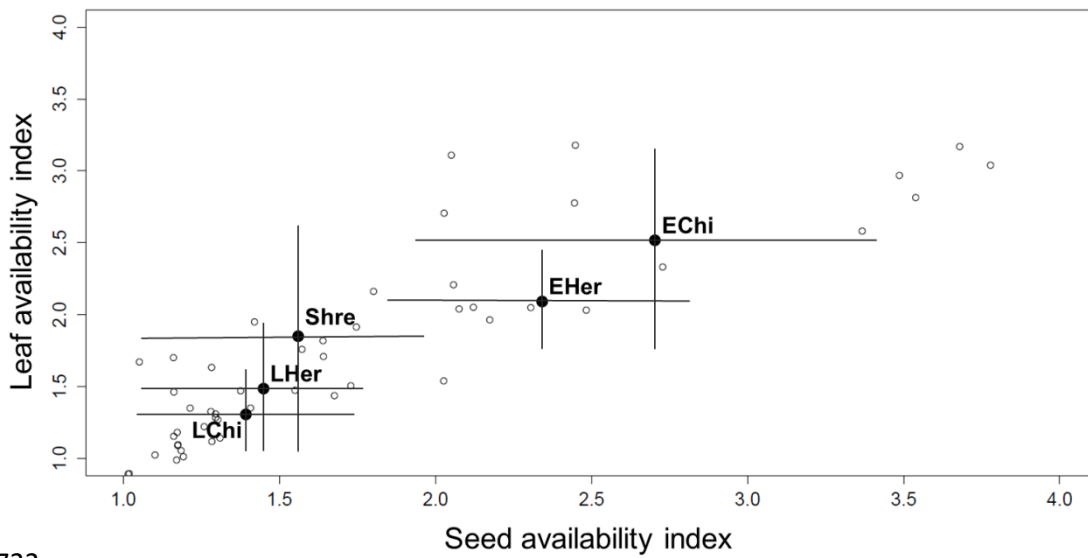
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Fig. 2 Black dots indicate the average of leaf and seed availability indexes along field managements (95% confidence intervals), white dots indicate surveyed sites

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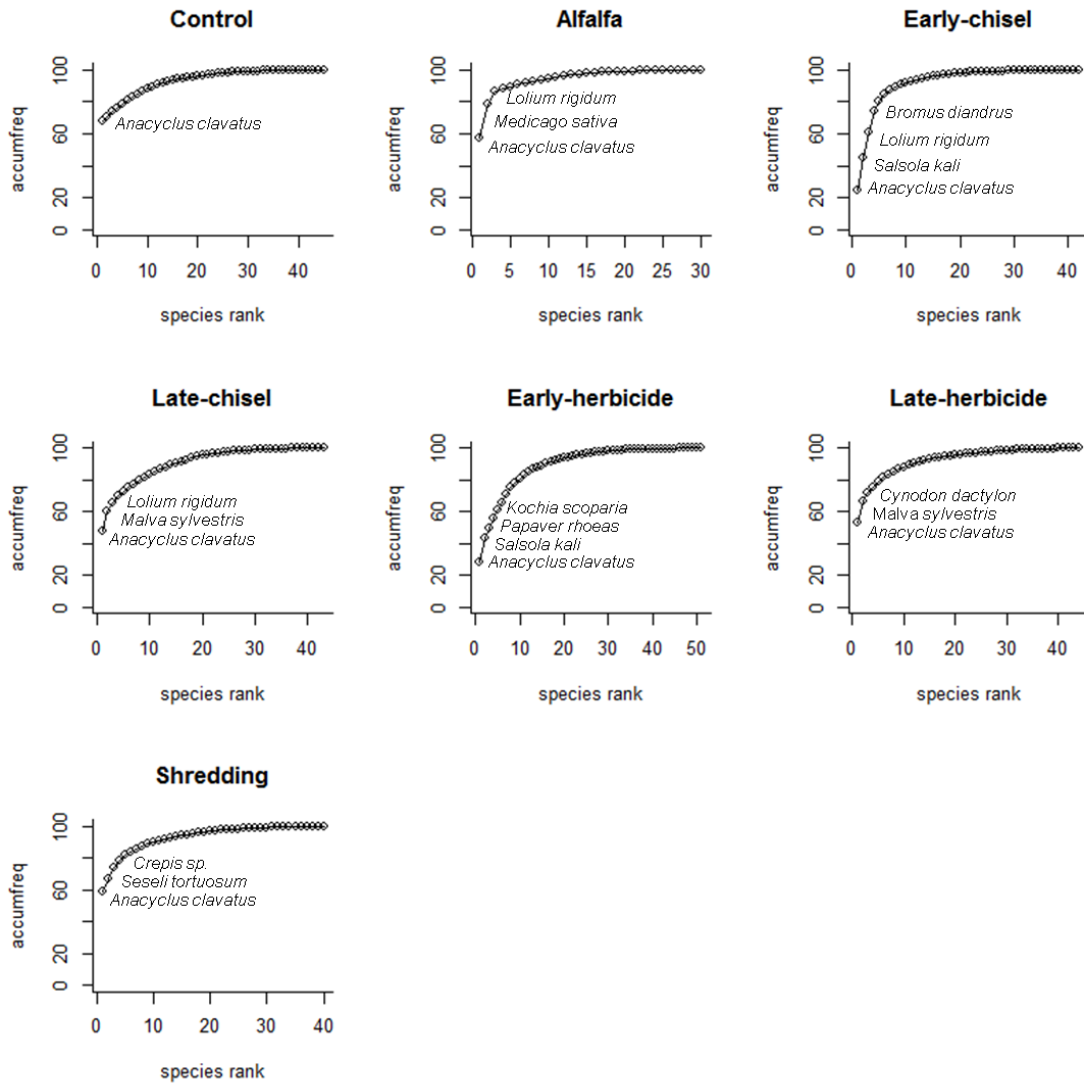
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Fig. 3 Rank abundance curves representing the accumulate proportional abundance (as a percentage) of the most common plant species present per management. The X-axis indicates the total number of plant species. Each point in a curve represents a plant species

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