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Fodder crop management benefits Northern Lapwing (*Vanellus vanellus*) outside agri-environment schemes

Running title: Conservation benefits of fodder crop management

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1 Abstract

2 To date, agri-environment schemes (AES) have had limited
3 success in reversing biodiversity loss over greater spatial extents
4 than fields and farms, and vary widely in their cost-effectiveness.
5 Here, over nine years, we make use of the management initiative
6 of a farmer in an upland livestock farming landscape in Scotland,
7 undertaken wholly outside AES, to examine its effect on breeding
8 densities of Northern Lapwing *Vanellus vanellus*. Management
9 designed by the farmer involved planting a *Brassica* fodder crop
10 for two consecutive years followed by reseeding with grass, with
11 eight out of 17 fields at the farm undergoing this management
12 since 1997. After controlling for other habitat parameters of
13 importance, the density of breeding Lapwings was 52% higher in
14 fields that had undergone fodder crop management than those
15 that had not. Densities were highest in the first year after the
16 fodder crop was planted, prior to reseeding with grass, but
17 remained above levels in control fields for approximately seven
18 years after the fodder crop was last planted. Very high Lapwing
19 densities (modelled density = 1 pair ha⁻¹) in the year after the
20 fodder crop was planted likely result from the heterogeneous
21 ground surface created by grazing of the crop providing an
22 “attractive” nesting habitat. Continued high densities following
23 reseeding with grass may partly be accounted for by philopatry,
24 but the fact that they are field-specific also suggests that these
25 fields continue to offer enhanced foraging conditions for several
26 years. Fodder crop management was implemented at the study

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27 site to fatten lambs over winter and ultimately improve grass
28 condition for grazing. This system is therefore based on active
29 farming and benefits both the farmer and breeding Lapwings. As
30 such, it may be possible to implement it more widely without the
31 need for high agri-environment payments. More generally, it is an
32 example of the land owner being actively involved in developing
33 conservation solutions in partnership with environmental research,
34 rather than being seen as a passive recipient of knowledge as has
35 typically been the case with the design of AES. Such approaches
36 need to be adopted more consistently in designing interventions
37 for environmental outcomes on farmland, but may be of particular
38 importance in the UK if the certainties of European Union AES are
39 to come to an end.
40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Agriculture is the principal land use across Europe and accounts
43 for over 40% of the European Union (EU) land area (European
44 Commission, 2017). The EU's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP)
45 has been instrumental in directing public subsidy to production
46 and thus driving agricultural intensification, with attendant
47 widespread wildlife losses that have been particularly well
48 documented for birds (Donald et al., 2006). Recognising the
49 negative impacts of agricultural intensification on biodiversity,
50 'greening' of the CAP since the early 1990s has included agri-
51 environment scheme (AES) funding designed to encourage the
52 adoption of environmentally friendly management practices by
53 compensating for lost income. To date, the success of AES in
54 halting biodiversity loss has been mixed and more associated with
55 the scale of implementation (farms) than the scale of policy
56 ambition (national biodiversity loss) (Kleijn et al., 2011;
57 Whittingham, 2011). Problems include implementation at too
58 small a spatial scale (O'Brien and Wilson, 2011; Broyer et al.,
59 2014), lack of appropriate measures for certain species, taxa or
60 farming systems (Redpath et al., 2010; Fuentes-Montemayor et
61 al., 2011) or conversely a large range of prescriptions that vary in
62 their effectiveness or fail to deliver all a species' requirements
63 (Smart et al., 2013). However, when schemes are targeted
64 effectively, are adaptable, and farmers are given site specific
65 advice, they can provide the desired conservation benefits, at
66 least locally or for species whose populations have been reduced

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67 to very small size and geographical range (Wilson et al., 2010;
68 Schmidt et al., 2017).

69

70 Farmland breeding shorebirds (waders) have suffered large
71 population declines as a result of agricultural change (Wilson et
72 al., 2009) and are a good example of the problems in ensuring
73 AES success described above. In the Netherlands and the UK,
74 two of the most important countries in Europe for this bird
75 assemblage (Birdlife International, 2004), there is good evidence
76 of localised demographic or population benefit but little translation
77 of these local successes to reversal of national population
78 declines (Kleijn and Zuijlen, 2004; Verhulst et al., 2007; O'Brien
79 and Wilson, 2011; Smart et al., 2014).

80

81 The need to deliver cost-effective conservation benefits for
82 shorebirds on farmland is now urgent, and alternatives to AES
83 which provide both conservation and economic benefits and could
84 be promoted without the need for compensatory payments should
85 be explored (e.g. Osgathorpe et al., 2011), especially given the
86 planned exit of the UK from the EU and potential accompanying
87 loss of CAP payments for agri-environment measures. Here, we
88 evaluate an unusual and innovative fodder crop management
89 system implemented on an upland grassland farm in Scotland that
90 is associated with nationally exceptional breeding densities of
91 waders, particularly Northern Lapwing *Vanellus vanellus*,
92 (McCallum, 2012), but which is implemented primarily for

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93 husbandry and commercial reasons, and not for conservation
94 purposes. The management system involves planting the forage
95 brassica 'tyfon' (*Brassica campestris* x *B.rapa*) for two consecutive
96 years in a field that was previously pasture, prior to reseeding the
97 field with grass (see Table 1 for timeline). This process improves
98 grass productivity after reseeding (EBLEX, 2008), as well as
99 providing fodder (stubble turnips) for fattening of lambs over the
100 winter (Koch et al., 1987). The ground is limed during fodder crop
101 management in order that the optimum soil pH for fodder crops
102 and grass growth is obtained prior to reseeding.

103

104 In this study we examine the utility of this management in
105 supporting high densities of breeding Lapwings. Specifically, we
106 test i) whether fields with a prior history of fodder crop
107 management have higher Lapwing densities and ii) whether the
108 density of breeding Lapwings is related to the number of years
109 since fodder crop management. We also test whether vegetation
110 height or percentage bare ground varies between grass fields that
111 had previously undergone fodder crop management and those
112 that had not.

113

114 **2. Methods**

115 *2.1 Study Site and fodder crop management*

116 The study took place in 2003 and from 2006 to 2011 on 315 ha of
117 commercially farmed grassland (56° 4'40.06"N 4° 0'45.00"W) in
118 Scotland, at 140 – 320 m altitude. The farmland supports

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119 approximately 1200 black-faced sheep and 50 limousin cross
120 cattle and comprises 120 ha of “in-bye” land (140 – 270 m
121 altitude) and 195 ha of “out-bye” (175 – 320 m altitude). “In-bye”
122 is the local term for agriculturally improved, enclosed fields below
123 the moorland wall, and “out-bye” is the land beyond the moorland
124 wall where vegetation is semi-natural in character (Gray, 2000)
125 grading from acid grassland to moorland dominated by ling
126 heather *Calluna vulgaris*.

127

128 Unusually for Scottish farmland, fodder crop management has
129 been used in the study area to keep sheep on in-bye fields over
130 winter. This management has been in place since 1997, and by
131 2011 eight fields had been placed in this management regime
132 (Figure 1), whereas the remaining nine had been subject to no
133 cultivation or reseeding. Data collected on these 17 fields, making
134 up the 120 ha of in-bye land, support the analyses presented
135 here. Fodder crop management involves planting of tyfon in late
136 June or early July for two consecutive years, after which the field
137 is reseeded with grass (perennial rye-grass *Lolium perenne* and
138 white clover *Trifolium repens* seed mix) in June or July of the third
139 year (Table 1). All fields that have undergone tyfon cultivation
140 have then remained as grass since reseeding.

141

142 Prior to sowing tyfon, soil pH was tested by the farmer. Lime (5
143 tonnes ha⁻¹ annum⁻¹) was applied for up to three consecutive years
144 with the first application at the time that tyfon was first planted with

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145 the objective of raising soil pH to 5.8 to coincide with grass
146 reseeding. The range of soil pH in the in-bye fields that had not
147 undergone fodder crop management was between 4.7 and 5.5
148 and it is likely that pH prior to fodder crop management fell within
149 this range across all in-bye fields. Fertiliser (NPK, 2:1:1, 250 kg
150 ha⁻¹) was applied at the same time as tyfon or grass was planted.
151 Fields that had not been subject to tyfon cultivation received this
152 fertiliser less frequently, and were limed no more frequently than
153 once every five years.

154

155 Lapwings arrive to nest from the beginning of March and leave at
156 the end of June or early July. Planting of tyfon or reseeding with
157 grass thus occurs at the end of the breeding season so that
158 Lapwing use is only potentially affected in the year after
159 management has occurred (Table 1).

160

161 *2.2 Lapwing and habitat surveys*

162 To test whether field use of breeding Lapwings was related to
163 fodder crop management, the number of breeding Lapwing pairs
164 in each in-bye field was counted in 2003 and from 2006 to 2011.
165 In each year either one (2003 and 2006-2007) or two (2008-2011)
166 survey visits were made. Where only one survey visit was made,
167 this was between 1st and 21st May. When an additional visit was
168 made, this was between 18th and 30th April with at least 18 days
169 between surveys. Surveys were carried out on foot, walking to
170 within 100 m of all points of each field and scanning ahead (up to

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171 400 m) with binoculars from appropriate vantage points to record
172 all Lapwings (O'Brien and Smith, 1992). Annual totals of Lapwing
173 pairs were calculated for each field by halving the number of
174 individuals recorded (Barrett and Barrett, 1984). Flocks of birds
175 not exhibiting signs of breeding behaviour were excluded.
176 Lapwings were counted on at least 12 in-bye fields in all years of
177 the study, with all 17 fields counted in four years. Table 2 shows
178 the number of fields in each treatment where Lapwings were
179 counted in different years.

180

181 Data on field characteristics likely to influence the suitability of a
182 field for breeding Lapwings were measured using ArcGIS 9.2
183 (ESRI, 2006), or in the field. The length of streams and ditches
184 and field boundaries were obtained from the OS Mastermap
185 Topography Layer (EDINA Digimap Ordnance Survey Service).
186 These data were used to calculate the density of streams and
187 ditches per hectare by dividing the total length of these within
188 each field by field area. This provides a measure of field wetness,
189 as breeding Lapwings are reliant on wet habitats (Rhymer et al.,
190 2010; Schmidt et al., 2017). Both field slope and enclosed
191 boundaries affect field suitability for Lapwings which require an
192 open view to allow early detection of predators (Elliot, 1985;
193 Milsom et al., 2000). Field slope (degrees) was extracted from the
194 OS digital terrain map (EDINA Digimap Ordnance Survey
195 Service), using the Spatial Analyst toolbox to first convert the data
196 to raster and then using zonal statistics to extract slope for each
[Type text]

197 field. The proportion of the field perimeter with enclosed
198 boundaries (either trees or buildings) was calculated by measuring
199 the length of perimeter made up of trees or buildings and dividing
200 this by total field perimeter. The remaining field boundaries were
201 either stone walls (farm boundary or boundary between in-bye and
202 out-bye fields) or rylock fences (boundaries between in-bye fields).

203

204 Vegetation height and percentage bare ground were measured in
205 one field that had been planted with fodder crop in the previous
206 year and had not yet been reseeded with grass (in March and
207 June 2009), grass fields with a prior history of fodder crop
208 management (n = 5 in March 2009 and 4 in June 2009) and grass
209 fields with no prior history of fodder crop management (n = 4 in
210 March 2009 and 6 in June 2009). Bare ground was estimated by
211 eye within a 1 m² quadrat at 9 or 10 random locations within each
212 field. Vegetation height was measured with a ruler at 5 locations
213 within the quadrat (one central location and at the four corners).

214

215 *2.3 Data analysis*

216 Two generalised linear mixed effects models (GLMMs) were
217 implemented to test the relationship between Lapwing field use
218 and field management history. The first tested whether fields
219 which had undergone fodder crop management had higher
220 densities of Lapwings than those that had not, whilst controlling for
221 the characteristics of a field likely to influence its suitability for use
222 by breeding Lapwings. Once a field had been planted with tyfon,

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223 it was included in the “fodder crop” treatment group for all Lapwing
224 surveys after the date this occurred. Lapwing count per field
225 within a single year was the response variable and field identity
226 was specified as a random (grouping) factor. The key explanatory
227 variable was whether or not a field had undergone fodder crop
228 management prior to the Lapwing survey (fixed factor, yes or no),
229 with length of streams and ditches (divided by field area), slope
230 and the proportion of the field boundary that was enclosed
231 included as covariates. Non-significant habitat covariates ($p >$
232 0.05) were sequentially removed from the model in a step-wise
233 fashion. The model was fitted using log link and Poisson error and
234 \log_e (field area) as an offset. Only the count from the survey visit
235 made between 1st – 21st May was used, as this survey visit was
236 available for all fields in all years. An additional model using all
237 available survey data gave comparable results.

238

239 The second model focused only on treated fields and tested
240 whether Lapwing density was related to the length of time (years)
241 since a field had last undergone fodder crop management. Any
242 field sown with tyfon in the summer before Lapwing counts was
243 assigned a value of ‘year =1’ (whether in the first or second year
244 of the two-year tyfon regime). In the year following reseeding, this
245 value was incremented to ‘2’, and was incremented by one,
246 annually thereafter, up to a maximum of 13 years since a field had
247 last been planted with fodder crop. The model was implemented
248 as the first model (including the same habitat covariates within the

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249 starting model), but whether or not a field had undergone fodder
250 crop management was replaced, as the response variable, with
251 the number of years since tyfon was last planted.

252

253 Two further GLMMs were used to test whether the percentage of
254 bare ground or vegetation height varied between grass fields with
255 or without a history of fodder crop management. In the first
256 model, percentage bare ground was the response variable, and
257 whether or not the field had previously been planted with tyfon the
258 key explanatory variable; the model was fitted with logit link using
259 binomial errors. Visit (March or June) was included as an
260 additional fixed factor with sample location nested within field
261 included as a random factor. In the second model vegetation
262 height was the response variable and was modelled using
263 Gaussian error structure; sample location nested within field, and
264 field, were fitted as random factors.

265

266 GLMMs were implemented using the MASS package (Venables
267 and Ripley, 2002) in R version 3.4.0 (R Development Core Team,
268 2017). The effect size of categorical variables was calculated
269 using the lseans package (Lenth, 2016). Models were checked
270 for overdispersion by comparing the residual deviance with the
271 residual degrees of freedom. Pseudo r^2 (from now on referred to
272 as r^2) was calculated by correlating the predicted values with the
273 observed data and squaring this (Zuur et al., 2009).

274

[Type text]

275 3. Results

276 3.1 Lapwing density and fodder crop management

277 In total, 250 territorial Lapwing pairs were recorded over 17 in-bye
278 fields and seven years using data from the survey visit carried out
279 between 1st and 21st May, giving a mean annual density over the
280 whole study area of 0.34 (95% confidence interval: 0.22 – 0.46)
281 pairs ha⁻¹. The highest count was obtained in 2006, when 54 pairs
282 were recorded on 12 fields, equating to a site density of 0.58 pairs
283 ha⁻¹. The modelled, field-by-field density of breeding Lapwings on
284 fields with a prior history of fodder crop management was 52%
285 higher than fields without a prior history of fodder crop
286 management; 0.32 (95% confidence interval: 0.23 – 0.45) pairs
287 ha⁻¹ vs. 0.21 (95% confidence interval: 0.16 – 0.28) pairs ha⁻¹,
288 having controlled for an inverse association between Lapwing
289 density and field enclosure (Table 3). The density of wet features
290 was only significant at the 10% level ($p = 0.09$) and was therefore
291 removed from the model. The r^2 for this model was 0.30.

292

293 In fields which were planted with tyfon ($n = 8$), we recorded 129
294 pairs of Lapwings over the seven years of the study. The density
295 of Lapwing pairs was highest the year after the fodder crop was
296 last planted with modelled density = 1 pair ha⁻¹ and declined at a
297 rate of 16.5% per annum thereafter (i.e. once the field had been
298 returned to grass, Table 4, Figure 2). Densities fell to
299 approximately the same as control fields around seven years after
300 the fodder crop was last planted. As with the previous model,

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301 there was an additive effect of field enclosure with lower Lapwing
302 densities in more enclosed fields. The density of wet features was
303 not a significant predictor of Lapwing density. This model
304 explained 38% of variation in the Lapwing counts.

305

306 *3.2 Vegetation structure and fodder crop management*

307 The percentage of bare ground was highest in the field that had
308 been planted with the fodder crop in the previous year and had not
309 yet been reseeded with grass, however due to the lack of
310 replication these data were not analysed further (Figure A.1,
311 Appendix A). However, there was no difference in the percentage
312 of bare ground ($t_{9,93} = -1.2, p = 0.26$) or vegetation height ($t_{9,102} =$
313 $1.3, p = 0.23$) in grass fields with a prior history of fodder crop
314 management and those without.

315

316 **4. Discussion**

317 Mean Lapwing density across the seven years of our study was
318 double the density that O'Brien and Bainbridge (2002) identified
319 as constituting a key site for breeding Lapwing on Scottish
320 farmland (16.8 pairs km⁻²). In-bye fields that had previously been
321 planted with the fodder crop supported 52% more breeding
322 Lapwing pairs than control fields, whilst controlling for other
323 habitat parameters that influence field suitability for breeding
324 Lapwings. Lapwing densities were highest the first year after the
325 fodder crop was last planted, once the crop had been grazed but
326 prior to the field being returned to grass. A possible mechanism

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327 for the positive effect of fodder crop establishment and
328 subsequent grazing by sheep on breeding Lapwing is its creation
329 of a highly heterogeneous ground surface, with a high percentage
330 of bare ground (Figure A.2, Appendix; McCallum 2012), which
331 disguises eggs, and provides clearer views to adults of
332 approaching predators than more heavily vegetated substrate
333 (Klomp, 1954; Berg et al., 2002). Fodder crop management
334 provides an alternative mechanism to spring tillage for creating the
335 mosaic of grassland and bare ground that is favoured by breeding
336 Lapwings because it provides good chick rearing habitat
337 (grassland) and good nesting habitat (bare or sparsely vegetated
338 ground) close to each other (Shrubb, 2007). Mixed farming
339 systems have largely been replaced in marginal farmland areas
340 such as our study area by livestock farms (Wilson et al., 2009).
341 Indeed, our study overlapped in timing with a substantial decline in
342 breeding Lapwing pairs close to our study site (approximately 20
343 km away), where the loss of spring cropping contributed to a very
344 high (88%) decline in breeding Lapwing pairs in 25 years (Bell and
345 Calladine, 2017).

346

347 The density of breeding pairs of Lapwing at the study site declined
348 steeply once the fodder crop field was reseeded with grass, but for
349 at least five years it remained higher than fields with no prior
350 history of fodder crop management, despite similar vegetation
351 structure between treated and un-treated fields. Lapwings exhibit
352 high site fidelity (Thompson et al., 1994). Consequently, the

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353 declining density of breeding Lapwings with increasing time since
354 a field was last planted with tyfon could result from initial attraction
355 of birds into the field when the nesting structure is good (i.e. when
356 the fodder crop has been grazed over winter), followed by high
357 local recruitment of philopatric birds. Whilst this study cannot
358 exclude this possibility, it is notable that the fodder crop
359 management system in place on this study farm generated big
360 differences in Lapwing density between individual fields on the
361 same farm, which suggests that field-specific management is also
362 a cause. The likely mechanism is that liming, an integral
363 component of fodder crop management, has a prolonged benefit
364 for breeding Lapwings because it increases soil pH relative to
365 non-limed fields for several years, thus increasing suitability of
366 these fields for earthworms and thus for foraging Lapwings
367 (McCallum et al., 2016).

368

369 At first sight our results contrast with previous research which
370 suggested that declines in breeding Lapwing density on in-bye
371 pasture resulted from agricultural improvements such as
372 reseeding and use of inorganic fertiliser (Baines, 1988; Taylor and
373 Grant, 2004), both of which are part of fodder crop management in
374 the current study. In northern England, densities of breeding
375 Lapwing were considerably lower on improved in-bye pasture in
376 comparison to unimproved in-bye pasture (0.14 vs 0.54 pairs ha⁻¹;
377 Baines, 1988); our study found Lapwing density over seven times
378 higher than that found by Baines (1988) on improved grassland in

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379 the first year after reseeded. The likely explanation for this
380 apparent anomaly lies in the multivariate nature of agricultural
381 intensification. For example, reducing soil acidity may be
382 beneficial to soil invertebrates and predators such as Lapwings.
383 However, if this is associated with other aspects of agricultural
384 intensification such as drainage and high livestock densities then
385 the costs to these species may exceed the benefits (Beintema and
386 Muskens, 1987; Wilson et al., 2009; Sabatier et al., 2015).

387

388 As well as Lapwings, Common Redshank (*Tringa totanus*),
389 Eurasian Curlew (*Numenius arquata*) and Snipe (*Gallinago*
390 *gallinago*) all bred in our study area and whilst the seven-year
391 mean density on the in-bye for these species did not reach the
392 minimum densities required for key sites in Scottish farmland
393 based on a 1992 survey (O'Brien and Bainbridge, 2002), densities
394 were higher than 98%, 84% and 77% respectively, of a resurvey
395 of a subsample (89) of these sites conducted in mainland
396 Scotland in 2005 (O'Brien and Wilson, 2011). These densities
397 suggest that wider implementation of fodder crop management
398 may not only benefit breeding Lapwing but a wider assemblage of
399 farmland-breeding shorebirds.

400

401 In addition to the relationship with fodder crop management,
402 Lapwing density was higher in fields with less enclosed field
403 boundaries and this is consistent with previous research (Milsom
404 et al., 2000). We found only a marginally significant effect of the

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405 density of wet features on Lapwing distribution across all in-bye
406 fields and it is possible that field scale variability in wetness was at
407 too small a spatial scale to detect a strong relationship between
408 Lapwing distribution and field wetness, as Lapwings would have
409 had access to wet areas in adjacent fields. Farm scale analysis
410 shows that site wetness is one of the main determinants of
411 Lapwing distribution (McCallum et al. 2015) and it is therefore
412 important that, any management strategy attempting to increase
413 numbers of breeding Lapwings, is targeted at fields and farms that
414 are otherwise suitable for this species.

415

416 Greenhouse gas emissions resulting from quarrying and transport
417 of lime, coupled with carbon dioxide release from soil following
418 lime application (Biasi et al., 2008), could mean that liming as a
419 conservation measure is viewed as controversial. This coupled
420 with potential changes in sward composition due to liming and
421 negative impacts of ploughing on botanically rich swards
422 (Jefferson 2005), mean that fodder crop management should only
423 be implemented as a conservation measure on species-poor,
424 sown grassland fields which have already undergone agricultural
425 improvement and that lime should only be used in response to soil
426 pH below that recommended for agricultural grass production
427 (McCallum et al., 2016).

428

429 *4.1 Conclusions*

[Type text]

430 This study made use of a long-term natural experiment at an
431 upland farm in Scotland and found that high densities of breeding
432 Lapwings are associated with a fodder crop management system
433 operating outside agri-environment support. Fodder crop
434 management provides an alternative mechanism to create the
435 habitat mosaic of mixed farming favoured by Lapwings that has
436 largely been lost from UK farmland, and may be particularly
437 beneficial in high-rainfall upland areas, especially over acidic
438 bedrock where leaching tends to reduce soil pH over time (White
439 2006). Here, its effects in raising soil pH to levels at which
440 densities of earthworms, a key prey resource for grassland-
441 breeding shorebirds, are higher, could have particular benefits for
442 breeding shorebirds, as suggested by an association between
443 Lapwing distribution in Scotland and higher altitude areas with
444 relatively high soil pH (McCallum et al., 2015). Improvements in
445 soil conditions for earthworms brought about by liming persist for
446 several years after the field has been returned to grass and
447 therefore have lasting benefits in terms of grass growth for the
448 farmer and for species dependent on earthworms as a prey
449 resource (McCallum et al., 2016).

450

451 Fodder crop management was implemented at our study site
452 without the use of agri-environment payments, as a means for the
453 farmer to fatten lambs over the winter and ultimately to improve
454 productivity of the grassland; benefits for breeding Lapwings were
455 a bi-product of this. However, when Lapwings began breeding in

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456 fields undergoing fodder crop management, the farmer delayed
457 planting from May to July to avoid destroying Lapwing nests, but
458 in doing so risked lower fodder crop yield (John Vipond, SAC *pers*
459 *comm*). Wider implementation of fodder crop management at
460 sites which are otherwise suitable for breeding Lapwing could
461 improve breeding habitat for a species which has undergone
462 substantial declines, without the need for substantial agri-
463 environment funding. However, further research is required to
464 establish the extent of any loss of income incurred by delaying
465 planting to assess whether some compensatory payment would
466 be needed to allow farmers to implement this management in a
467 way that brings benefits for Lapwings or other grassland-nesting
468 shorebirds.

469

470 Crucially, fodder crop management differs from most agri-
471 environment options in that it involves actively farming, rather than
472 receiving a payment to limit farming levels, for example by
473 excluding livestock from key fields during the breeding season.

474 This is likely to be more appealing to farmers (Alistair Robb,
475 Townhead Farm *pers comm*.). Of more general interest and
476 importance, it is also a simple example of the land manager being
477 actively involved in developing conservation solutions in
478 partnership with environmental research (Keeler et al., 2017)
479 rather than being seen as a passive recipient of knowledge as has
480 typically been the case with the design of AES. Such approaches
481 need to be adopted more consistently in designing interventions

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482 for environmental outcomes on farmland, but may be of particular
483 importance in the UK if the old certainties of EU AES are to come
484 to an end.

485

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496

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661 **Figure Captions**

662 **Figure 1.** Fields at Townhead Farm with dates that tyfon was
663 planted marked for fields that have a history of fodder crop
664 management (grey fields). In-bye fields with no history of fodder
665 crop management are white and out-bye fields are black.
666 Backward diagonal lines show a small area of woodland on the
667 farm which was not surveyed and the forward diagonal lines show
668 the farm buildings and yard.

669 **Figure 2.** Predicted change in Lapwing density with increasing
670 number of years since the fodder crop was last planted (solid line)
671 for a field with mean enclosed boundaries within the data set
672 (0.14), showing \pm 95% confidence interval The grey shaded area
673 indicates that the field was in grass at this stage (i.e. fields were
674 reseeded with grass after the end of the breeding season in the
675 year after the fodder crop was last planted, meaning that the first
676 breeding season a field was grass was two years after the fodder
677 crop was last planted). The dotted line represents the predicted
678 Lapwing density from fields with no prior history of fodder crop
679 management, generated from the previous model. Raw data for
680 fields with a prior history of fodder crop management are shown
681 by the open circles.

682

683 **Tables**684 **Table 1.** Timings of fodder crop management process in comparison to Lapwing use at the study site.

Farm management	Late June / July	Autumn / winter	March
Year 1	Tyfon planted	Tyfon grazed	Most of crop has been grazed
Year 2	Tyfon planted	Tyfon grazed	Most of crop has been grazed
Year 3	Grass planted	Grazing excluded for grass growth	Grass grazed
Lapwing activity	Leave for wintering grounds	Absent	Arrival for breeding

685

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687 **Table 2.** Number of fields within each treatment type that were surveyed for breeding Lapwings in each
 688 year of the study.
 689

	Number of in-bye fields surveyed		
	Fodder crop at some point prior to Lapwing survey	No fodder crop prior to survey	Total
2003	2	10	12
2006	4	8	12
2007	6	9	15
2008	6	9	15
2009	7	10	17
2010	7	10	17
2011	8	9	17

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691 **Table 3.** Statistical summary for final GLMM assessing the relationship between Lapwing density (\log_e -
 692 transformed) and field management history (i.e. whether or not a field had undergone fodder crop
 693 management).

	Parameter			
	DF	estimate \pm SE	t- value	p-value
Fodder crop prior to survey				
(yes compared to no)	87	0.44 \pm 0.17	2.49	0.0145
Proportion field enclosed	15	-5.28 \pm 1.22	-4.34	0.0006

694

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695 **Table 4.** Statistical summary for GLMM assessing the relationship between Lapwing density and
 696 number of years since a field was last planted with fodder crop). Lapwing density was also associated
 697 with field enclosure, but not with the density of wet features or field slope.

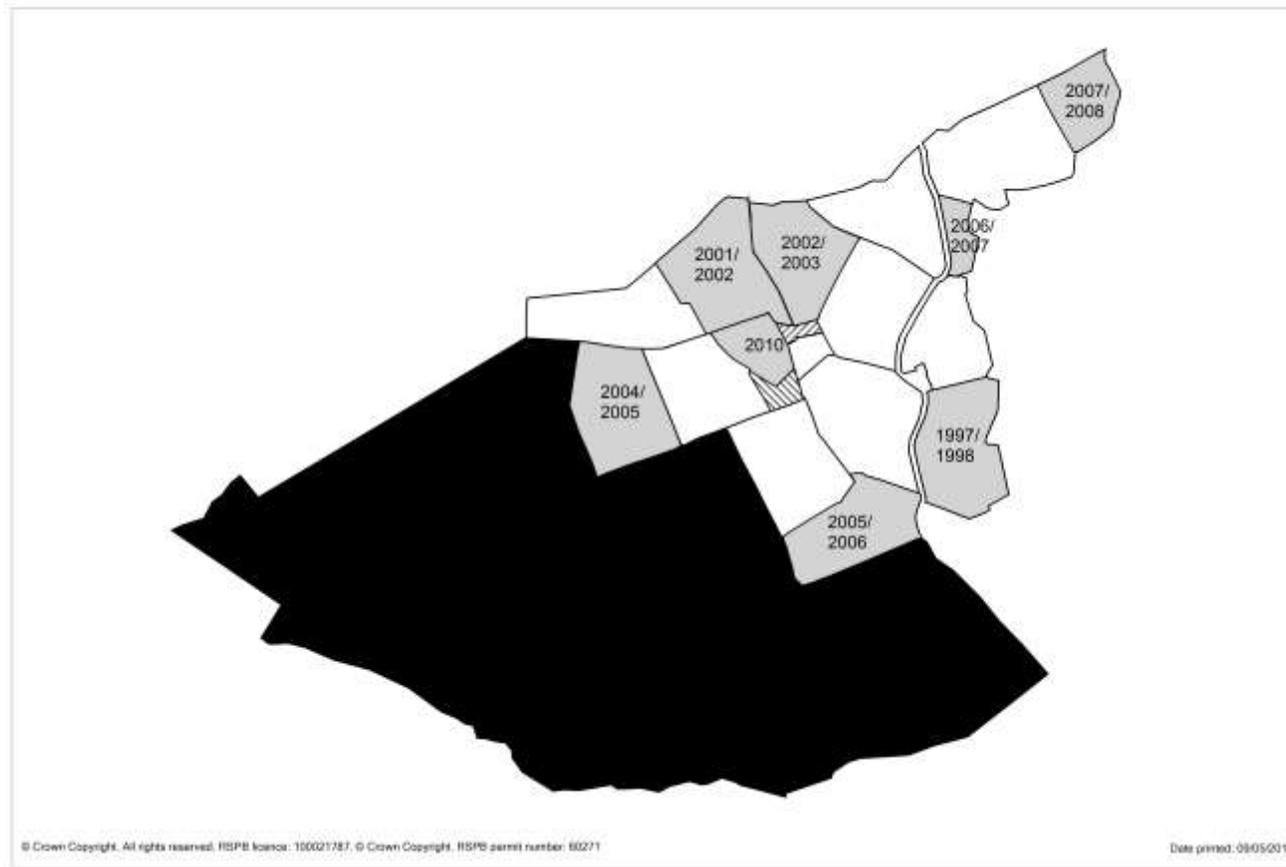
	Parameter			
	DF	estimate \pm SE	t- value	p-value
No. years since fodder crop				
last planted	31	-0.18 \pm 0.05	-3.7	0.0008
Proportion perimeter				
enclosed	31	-4.97 \pm 1.45	-3.4	0.014

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699 Fig 1

700



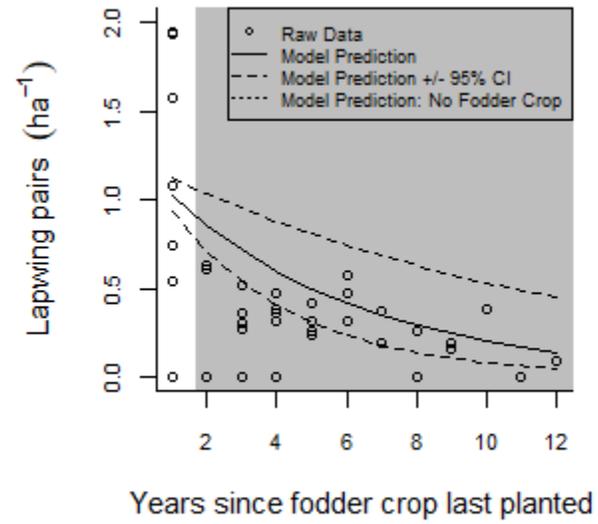
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703 Fig 2

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