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2 **Combining habitat requirements of endemic bird species and other ecosystem**  
3 **services may synergistically enhance conservation efforts**

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5 Mattia Brambilla<sup>1,2</sup>, Luca Ilahiane<sup>1,3</sup>, Giacomo Assandri<sup>2,3</sup>, Silvia Ronchi<sup>1,4</sup>, Giuseppe Bogliani<sup>3</sup>

6  
7 <sup>1</sup> Fondazione Lombardia per l'Ambiente, Settore biodiversità e aree protette, Largo 10 Luglio 1976  
8 1, I-20822 Seveso (MB), Italy

9 <sup>2</sup> Museo delle Scienze, Sezione Zoologia dei Vertebrati, Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza 3, I-38123  
10 Trento, Italy

11 <sup>3</sup> University of Pavia, Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Via Adolfo Ferrata 9, I-  
12 27100 Pavia, Italy

13 <sup>4</sup> Politecnico di Milano, Department of Architecture and Urban Studies, via Bonardi 3, I-20133  
14 Milano, Italy

15  
16 Corresponding author: M. Brambilla, Fondazione Lombardia per l'Ambiente, Settore biodiversità e  
17 aree protette, Largo 10 Luglio 1976 1, I-20822 Seveso (MB), Italy  
18 email [brambilla.mattia@gmail.com](mailto:brambilla.mattia@gmail.com)

19

## 20 **Abstract**

21 Biodiversity conservation and the optimisation of other ecosystem service delivery as a contribution  
22 to human well-being are often tackled as mutually alternative targets. Modern agriculture is a great  
23 challenge for the fulfilment of both. Here, we explore the potential benefits of integrating  
24 biodiversity conservation and the preservation of wider ecosystem services, considering the  
25 conservation of an endemic species (Moltoni's warbler *Sylvia subalpina*; Aves: Sylviidae) and soil  
26 erosion control (a final ecosystem service) in intensive vineyards in Italy.

27 We modelled factors affecting warbler occurrence and abundance at 71 study plots by means of N-  
28 mixture models, and estimated soil erosion at the same plots by means of the Universal Soil Loss  
29 Equation. Shrub cover had positive effects on both warbler abundance and soil retention, whereas  
30 higher slopes promote warbler abundance as well as soil erosion. Creating shrub patches over  
31 sloping sites would be at the same time particularly suited for warblers and for soil retention.

32 We simulated three alternative conservation strategies: exclusive focus on warbler conservation (1),  
33 exclusive focus on soil preservation (2), integration of the two targets (3). Strategies assumed the  
34 creation of 1.5-ha shrub patches over 5% of the total area covered by plots and targeted either at  
35 wildlife or soil conservation. The exclusive strategies would allow an increase of 105 individuals  
36 and the preservation of 783 tons ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Each individual strategy would ensure  
37 benefits for the other target corresponding to 61-64% of the above totals.

38 The integrated strategy would allow for the achievement of 91-93% of the benefits (96 warblers and  
39 729 tons ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>) of the individual strategies.

40 The integration of the two approaches could provide important synergies, allowing to broaden the  
41 effects of conservation strategies, such as agri-environmental schemes that could be drawn from our  
42 results (and which are particularly urgent for intensive permanent crops).

43

## 44 **Keywords**

45 Agri-environmental schemes; erosion; Mediterranean; permanent crops; soil loss; *Sylvia moltonii*

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47

48 Biodiversity conservation and the optimisation of ecosystem service delivery (or ecosystem  
49 management) as a contribution to human well-being are often tackled as mutually alternative targets  
50 in landscape planning (Mace et al., 2012), which is frequently focused only on biodiversity or  
51 exclusively on (other) ecosystem services, even if the strict link between biodiversity and ecosystem  
52 functions is inextricable (Butler et al., 2007). Biodiversity can be a regulator of ecosystem  
53 processes, as well as a final ecosystem service itself or a good (Mace et al., 2012), and biodiversity  
54 conservation could contribute to (other) ecosystem service supply (Christie & Rayment, 2012), and  
55 vice versa (Goldman et al., 2008). Considering that biodiversity conservation schemes, aimed at  
56 preserving certain species or habitats, may have either positive or negative impacts on wider  
57 ecosystem services (Austin et al., 2016), it is essential to integrate biodiversity conservation and  
58 delivery of ecosystem services into an effective strategy for ecosystem management (Mace et al.,  
59 2012).

60 Biodiversity and other ecosystem services can be integrated into landscape and conservation  
61 planning by means of spatial conservation prioritization (e.g. Goldman et al., 2008; Geneletti,  
62 2011). Several examples of trade-offs between regulating and supporting services (e.g. Geneletti,  
63 2013) and between biodiversity and other ecosystem services have been reported (e.g. mammal  
64 conservation and carbon stocking, Budiharta et al., 2014), but the ones between biodiversity and  
65 many provisioning services are particularly challenging (Reyers et al., 2012) and have caused a  
66 dramatic loss of biodiversity during the last decades (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005) by  
67 means of the human land use associated with many provisioning services (especially agriculture;  
68 Tilman, 1999; Foley et al., 2005). Agricultural ecosystems (agroecosystems) support indeed  
69 essential provisioning services, but agriculture is also the cause of disservices (Power, 2010) and  
70 may have a strong impact on biodiversity leading to severe conflicts (e.g. Henle et al., 2008). These  
71 conflicts are expected to exacerbate in the next future as a response to the increase in global

72 population and food demand. There is thus a need to increase food production and maintain it at that  
73 higher level through time, while ensuring environmental and social sustainability, conserving  
74 biodiversity and ecosystem services (Godfray et al., 2010; Tilman et al., 2002).

75 Modern agriculture is thus a great challenge to the conservation of both biodiversity and ecosystem  
76 services, with agricultural intensification thought to be the main reason for the dramatic population  
77 declines experienced by many wild species in the last decades in Europe (Chamberlain et al., 2000;  
78 Donald et al., 2001). Recent assessments at the European and global scale showed that farming is  
79 (and will be) the single biggest source of threat to bird species, especially in developing countries  
80 (BirdLife International, 2015; Green et al., 2005). Agriculture intensification and agricultural land-  
81 uses are thus at the heart of the current biodiversity crisis, as well as of the reduction of many  
82 ecosystem services different from provisioning ones (Foley et al., 2005; Tilman, 1999).

83 The aim of our paper is, therefore, to hypothesize potential conservation strategies in an agricultural  
84 landscape for wildlife and (other) ecosystem services within the same area, and to explore how the  
85 integration of biodiversity conservation and the preservation of (other) ecosystem services could  
86 lead to a 'win-win' strategy in landscape planning. We used as models two 'classic' examples: the  
87 conservation of a single wild species of particular concern on the basis of its habitat requirement  
88 and the soil erosion control (soil retention) in intensively farmed areas. We aim to evaluate whether  
89 species conservation and soil retention could be part of an integrated strategy, and how the latter  
90 would perform compared to individual strategies mutually focused on biodiversity or soil.

91 We focus on vineyards, which are characterised nowadays by a highly intensive management and  
92 almost invariably have a high impact on biodiversity (Viers et al., 2013), with reported impacts on  
93 several different groups (e.g. Schmitt et al., 2008; Trivellone et al., 2012; Assandri et al., 2017). In  
94 addition to such an impact on wildlife, vineyards in hilly areas are often also associated with very  
95 high risks of soil loss (Galati et al., 2015; Van der Knijff et al., 2000). Soil erosion is indeed a key  
96 factor for land degradation in general and in particular it has a severe impact on agricultural  
97 sustainability (Cerdà et al., 2010, 2009).

98

99

## 100 **2. Material and methods**

101

### 102 *2.1. Model environment*

103

104 In the Mediterranean basin, vineyard is a typical crop and viticulture had a preeminent role in  
105 creating impressive “cultural landscapes” (Cohen et al., 2015), characterised by extensive and  
106 traditionally terraced areas supported by dry stone-walls (Petit et al., 2012), which also supported a  
107 high level of biodiversity (Kizos et al., 2012). The European CAP induced intensification and  
108 restructuring of vineyards, with strong impacts on landscape structure especially in the  
109 Mediterranean region (Martínez-Casasnovas et al., 2010). One of the most striking effects of  
110 vineyard intensification on Mediterranean slopes is soil erosion, which could be particularly high in  
111 such environmental contexts (Martínez-Casasnovas and Ramos, 2006), because of an unfavourable  
112 combination of slope, rainfall intensity and continuous tillage of ground vegetation (Novara et al.,  
113 2011; Prosdocimi et al., 2016a; Ries, 2010; Ruiz-Colmenero et al., 2013; Tarolli et al., 2015). The  
114 intensification that viticulture is experiencing and the expansion of areas devoted to vine production  
115 is also resulting in homogeneous monocultures (Martínez-Casasnovas et al., 2010) and in a  
116 substantial reduction of natural habitats in the Mediterranean biome (Viers et al., 2013). Due to their  
117 high economic value and in response to climate change pressure, vineyards are rapidly expanding,  
118 also in areas where historically they never occurred (Hannah et al., 2013; Winkler and Nicholas,  
119 2016). Such an expansion is occurring especially at the expense of more natural ecosystems, in  
120 particular in the Mediterranean basin, the second largest biodiversity hotspot in the world (Critical  
121 Ecosystem Partnership Fund, 2011).

122

### 123 *2.2. Study area*

124

125 Our study was carried out within the Oltrepò pavese area, located in the southern extreme of  
126 Lombardy, Northern Italy. Oltrepò pavese extends from the Po river to the Apennines mountains,  
127 from 50 to 1724 m asl. We focused on the vineyard belt, which is largely comprised between 70 and  
128 500 m asl, in the Apennine foothill. Dominant habitats are vineyards, broadleaved woodlands,  
129 heterogeneous farming systems including mown grassland, cereal crops and fodder (mostly  
130 lucerne). The density of towns and villages decreases from lowland to upper elevations. The climate  
131 is temperate (rainfall c. 700–1500 mm/year, average year temperature 5°–12° C; Bogliani et al.,  
132 2003; Abeli et al., 2012).

133 Vineyards in Oltrepò pavese are managed under an intensive regime, and the intensification has led  
134 to structural changes in plantations in hilly areas (where virtually no terraced landscapes occur).

135 Vine plants in sloping areas were once planted in rows aligned perpendicularly to the maximum  
136 slope, to prevent erosion and to promote soil stability (known as “girapoggio” system). However,  
137 such a type of plantation is hardly accessible by machineries, and thus vines on slopes are now  
138 aligned along the maximum slope (“ritocchino” system) to promote access by tractors; the shift  
139 from the former to the latter system has resulted in increased soil erosion and instability, with  
140 frequent landslides (Persichillo et al., 2017). These processes are also determining frequent  
141 abandonment of cultivated fields (Brambilla et al., 2016b), including vineyards (Persichillo et al.,  
142 2017), in less accessible areas, both because of economic constraints (as they are less remunerative)  
143 and because of higher risks of erosion and landslides and associated higher management costs.

144

### 145 2.3. Conservation targets: Moltoni’s warbler and soil erosion

146

147 A conservation priority species for the Mediterranean region and in particular for the central-  
148 western part of the region is the endemic Moltoni’s warbler (*Sylvia subalpina* syn. *Sylvia moltonii*;  
149 Aves: Sylviidae; Brambilla et al., 2008a, 2008b). Italy hosts at least two thirds of its global

150 population (Nardelli et al., 2015), thus the conservation of this species is a true priority at the  
151 national level (Gustin et al., 2016; Peronace et al., 2012). Moltoni's warblers arrive on their  
152 breeding grounds in the second half of April – early May, usually remaining until the end of August-  
153 early September. The species breeds in shrubland, at forest edge with shrubs, within large  
154 hedgerows and also in vineyards with scattered bushes (although it does not feed or nest on vines),  
155 with shrub availability being the most important factor affecting species habitat use (Brambilla et  
156 al., 2007). The average territory size of breeding pairs is around 2,500 m<sup>2</sup> (M. Brambilla, unpubl.  
157 data). The preferred habitats of the species, i.e. shrubland and small patches of shrubs and trees,  
158 frequently occur interspersed within the vineyard matrix in many Mediterranean regions, and could  
159 be readily occupied by the species as vineyards mimic the semi-open and rather low vegetation  
160 usually inhabited by the species (Brambilla et al., 2006). These habitats are associated with high  
161 levels of soil preservation (e.g. García-Ruiz et al., 2010), and their recovery over once cultivated  
162 areas often lead to a reduction of soil erosion (e.g. (Keesstra, 2007)). Therefore, the re-establishment  
163 of patches of natural vegetation over vineyards in the sites most prone to soil loss can be seen as a  
164 promising way to reduce losses due to erosion in sloping sites.

165 One of the main environmental impacts associated with vine cultivation in the Mediterranean region  
166 is indeed the high soil erosion associated with vineyards on slopes (Prosdocimi et al., 2016a; see  
167 also above). Agricultural practices in hilly and mountain areas are generally associated with high  
168 risk of soil erosion, as the soil is compacted by machine use and the ground cover provided by  
169 natural vegetation is removed, thus favouring landslides and instability. Vineyards are indeed  
170 among the land use associated with the highest risk of soil loss (Van der Knijff et al., 2000), and are  
171 likely the most erosive crop type in the Mediterranean region (Kosmas et al., 1997; Tropeano,  
172 1983). Soil loss in Mediterranean vineyards could have also relevant economic costs (Martínez-  
173 Casanovas and Ramos, 2006), and soil loss in vineyards in several hilly areas, including Oltrepò  
174 pavese, has increased because of recent planting of vines parallel to maximum slopes, performed to  
175 allow machine access to the fields (Persichillo et al., 2017). Vineyards and abandoned vineyards are

176 often subjected to shallow landslides or other forms of slope instability (also within the study area;  
177 Meisina et al., 2015), which could be exacerbated by high soil erosion rates. Therefore, preventing  
178 or reducing soil erosion in vineyards is a priority and many strategies have been proposed or tested  
179 (e.g. Marques et al., 2010; Ramos et al., 2015; Prosdocimi et al., 2016b).

180

#### 181 *2.4. Warbler counts and recording of habitat variables*

182

183 We counted Moltoni's warblers along line transects scattered within all the vineyard belt in Oltrepò  
184 pavese. Counts were conducted in the morning, between dawn and 11 a.m., over 71 different linear  
185 transects, each one 200-m long, as done in other studies focusing on farmland (Brambilla et al.,  
186 2012) and vineyard birds in particular (Assandri et al., 2016). Transects were almost regularly  
187 scattered over all the vineyard belt in the study area, and they were mostly placed over pre-existing  
188 tracks or paths. Birds were counted within a 100 m buffer from the transect (hereafter 'plot',  
189 corresponding to a censused area equal to 7.15 ha), by means of two different visits to each transect  
190 (first visit: 16 May – 30 May 2015; second visit: 10 June – 19 June 2015). Heavy rain and strong  
191 wind conditions were avoided. Most individuals were located thanks to their song or calls  
192 (Moltoni's warblers are often hard to see, but highly vocal). Once found, each individual was  
193 carefully followed by the observer to avoid double counting of the same birds (Assandri et al.,  
194 2016).

195 At each plot, we estimated very carefully the proportional cover of the following habitats:  
196 vineyards, abandoned vineyards, shrubland, other abandoned areas (former arable land and  
197 pastures), forest, grassland, grassland with trees, arable land, urban areas, marginal habitats (e.g.  
198 hedgerows, field margins; Assandri et al., 2016). The proportional cover of the habitat variables was  
199 estimated in a GIS environment after digitalizing a land-cover map drawn in the field, using  
200 detailed aerial images (1:2,000) as a basis. The final output was checked against a coarser (scale  
201 1:10,000, minimum mapping unit 20 m and 0.16 ha) land-cover map (DUSAF 4, developed by



202 ERSAF - Regional Agency for Services to Agriculture and Forestry in 2012 and based on the  
203 Corine Land Cover legend, available on [www.geoportale.regione.lombardia.it](http://www.geoportale.regione.lombardia.it); see e.g. Brambilla &  
204 Ronchi, 2016 for a research application based on that map), to be sure that no habitat type was left  
205 out. In a GIS environment (GRASS 6.4, Neteler et al., 2012), we also estimated for each plot the  
206 average values of slope ( $^{\circ}$ ), total solar radiation (taking 21st June as reference day) and elevation,  
207 using a 20-m resolution Digital Elevation Model of the study area.

208

### 209 *2.5. Modelling warbler occurrence and abundance*

210

211 We worked with N-mixture models (Royle, 2004) to evaluate the effect of habitat characteristics on  
212 the occurrence and abundance of Moltoni's warblers correcting for imperfect detection. We  
213 evaluated the factors affecting the 'true' occurrence and abundance of our target species at transects  
214 by means of a hierarchical approach, modelling the latent presence and density of the species. We  
215 used the package 'unmarked' (Fiske & Chandler, 2011) in R 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016) to built  
216 models for occurrence (command 'occu') and abundance ('pcount').

217 As we focused on a single season, we assumed population closure. We considered the following  
218 factors as potentially impacting on the observation process and thus affecting the detection  
219 probability: hour of the day, date of the census, cloud cover (categorical variable with three levels:  
220 no clouds, partial, complete), duration (minutes used to census a given plot), rain (categorical  
221 variable with three levels: no rain, slightly raining, raining), wind (categorical variable with three  
222 levels: no wind, weak, moderate or higher).

223 As factors potentially affecting occurrence or abundance, we entered in the models the habitat  
224 variables recorded at plots (habitat cover and topographic variables). To reduce the number of  
225 predictors tested in the models, we selected the habitat variables potentially more important for the  
226 species based on previous knowledge (Brambilla et al., 2007) and of the relative average cover over  
227 the plots: shrubland, broadleaved forests, abandoned fields and pastures, abandoned vineyards,

228 urban areas. All variables were standardized (centred around zero and scaled by the standard  
229 deviations) before the analyses to enable the comparison of the relative effects (Schielzeth, 2010).  
230 The importance of this procedure before running regression analyses had been recently highlighted  
231 (Cade, 2015).  
232 Then, by means of the package ‘MuMIn’ (Bartoń, 2016), we computed the AICc value of all the  
233 possible models for occurrence and abundance (Supplementary material). We firstly built detection  
234 only models. For occurrence, there was a single most supported model and two additional models  
235 with  $\Delta\text{AICc} < 2$  including ‘uninformative parameters’ (Arnold, 2010; Jedlikowski et al., 2016), i.e.  
236 those variables included exclusively in models comprising more parsimonious, simpler models as  
237 nested ones (Brambilla et al., 2016a; Ficetola et al., 2011). Therefore, we took the most supported  
238 model. For abundance, we selected the variables significantly affecting the detected abundance  
239 according to model averaging carried out on the most supported models ( $\Delta\text{AICc} > 2$ ) with the  
240 exclusion of the uninformative parameters.  
241 Then, we built hierarchical models using the above selected detection factors and the habitat  
242 variables (habitat cover, slope, solar radiation, elevation).  
243 For both occurrence and abundance hierarchical models, the single most supported N-mixture  
244 models were substantially more supported than all other models ( $\Delta\text{AICc} > 2$  for all other models  
245 excluding those including only uninformative parameters in addition to the variables included in the  
246 most supported model), and were thus selected as ‘final’ models.

247

## 248 *2.6. Modelling potential erosion risk*

249

250 The potential erosion risk in our study area is very high (Meisina et al., 2015; Van der Knijff et al.,  
251 2000). To estimate the average potential soil loss within our study site, we adopted the commonly  
252 employed Universal Soil Loss Equation. The USLE is an empirical equation used to predict average  
253 annual erosion (A) in terms of six factors (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978). USLE is expressed as:

254  $A = R \times K \times L \times S \times C \times P$

255 where A is soil loss ( $t\ ha^{-1}\ y^{-1}$ ); R is a rainfall-runoff erosivity factor ( $MJ\ mm\ ha^{-1}\ h^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$ ); K is a  
256 soil erodibility factor ( $t\ h\ MJ^{-1}\ mm^{-1}$ ); LS is a combined slope length (L) and slope steepness (S)  
257 factor (non-dimensional); C is a cover management factor (non-dimensional); and P is a support  
258 practice factor (non-dimensional).

259 We considered only the three main types of land-cover (vineyards, forests, and shrubs), which  
260 together covered  $81\% \pm 19\ SD$  of the plot surface and included both the type most (vineyard) and  
261 less (forest) prone to soil erosion. We derived the value of the C factor from the literature (Panagos  
262 et al., 2015), taking the values proposed for the individual land-cover type for Italy (vineyards:  
263 0.3454, shrub: 0.0242, broad-leaved forest: 0.0013). For each plot, we calculated a C factor  
264 according to the relative cover of these three land-cover types (rescaled as they occupied together  
265 100% of the plot surface).

266 We calculated the LS according to the unit contributing area method (UCA) proposed by (Moore  
267 and Wilson, 1992), following (Moore et al., 1993) and (Van der Knijff et al., 2000):

268  $L = 1.4(A_s/22.13)^{0.4}$

269  $S = (\sin \theta / 0.0896)^{1.3}$

270 where  $A_s$  is the unit contributing area (m) and  $\theta$  is the slope in radians.

271 The topographic factor (LS) and the cover management factor (C) are the two factors that have the  
272 greatest influence on USLE model overall efficiency (Risse et al., 1993). The former in particular is  
273 of key importance (Oliveira et al., 2015; Risse et al., 1993). We applied a simplified model for soil  
274 erosion in vineyard landscapes, basically considering the potential effect of slope and ground cover  
275 on the estimated soil loss. We deliberately did not include the potential effect of vineyard ground  
276 cover and management (see Prosdocimi et al., 2016), as this is highly variable in the study area,  
277 totally depending on farmer's will (but note that in c. 65% of the vineyard area within our study  
278 transects, ground vegetation was mechanically removed by farmers). As we aimed to provide a  
279 general evaluation of the benefits of including different land-cover types, we also did not include

280 the age of vineyards among the factors affecting soil loss and considered R and K as constant  
281 (which incidentally is quite likely to be true within our study area). R was set to 850 (MJ mm ha<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>  
282 y<sup>-1</sup>) and K to 0.04 following Van der Knijff et al. (2000). P was set to 1. L was set as constant  
283 (200). L and S describe the effect of topography on soil erosion. Increments in slope length and in  
284 slope steepness are associated with higher velocities of overland flow and thus to a higher soil  
285 erosion (Haan et al., 1994). Importantly, gross soil loss has been reported to be in general more  
286 sensitive to variation in slope steepness, rather than to different values of slope length (McCool et  
287 al., 1987).

## 288

### 289 *2.7. Evaluating the benefits of exclusive and synergistic conservation synergies*

290

291 We simulated three alternative conservation strategies targeted at the study plots and focusing in a  
292 mutually exclusive way on warbler conservation (1) or reduction of soil erosion (2), or integrating  
293 the two (3). In each case, we supposed that a portion of vineyards corresponding to c. 5% of the  
294 total area covered by the plots (analogous to the 5% of the surface subjected to Ecological Focus  
295 Areas in non-permanent crops according to the ‘greening’ requirements of the Common  
296 Agricultural Policy now in force) could be retired from production. We considered a simple  
297 potential agri-environmental scheme, consisting in the conversion within a plot of a 1.5-ha patch of  
298 vineyard into shrubland, dedicated to wildlife or soil conservation (in addition to the already  
299 existing non-cultivated portions). We allowed one patch per plot, over 16 plots (for a total 24 ha,  
300 approaching the 5% of the whole area covered by plots). We did not consider the potential creation  
301 of forest patches, even if they would be effective both as warbler habitat and for the prevention of  
302 soil erosion, as they occurrence within vineyards would potentially limit solar radiation to vines and  
303 because it has been reported that spontaneous secondary woodlands grown over abandoned  
304 vineyards (monospecific stands of black locust *Robinia pseudoacacia*) are more susceptible to  
305 shallow landslides (Bordoni et al., 2016). In addition, shrub patches are likely to be even more

306 suitable for warblers and other species of conservation concern inhabiting the semi-open landscapes  
307 of the area (Bogliani et al., 2003; Brambilla, 2015; Brambilla et al., 2016b, 2016c, 2010, 2007), thus  
308 are likely to be a more suitable conservation measure for the area.

309 Within the vineyard belt in Oltrepò pavese, Moltoni's warbler is rather widespread and occurs in  
310 sites with suitable habitats (shrub patches or forest margins with shrubs) throughout all the area.  
311 Therefore, we considered the entire study area as potentially suitable in terms of climate and  
312 focused only on topographical and habitat factors deemed as important by the analyses. According  
313 to the warbler conservation simulated strategy, we selected the 16 plots where the conversion of 1.5  
314 ha of vineyards into shrubland may maximize warbler abundance (after calculating the potential  
315 increase in warblers associated with the patch creation for each transect, by means of the abundance  
316 model). Soil and climate are also rather uniform across the vineyard belt, thus we considered soil  
317 erosion as mainly dependent on topography and land cover. In the soil preservation strategy, we  
318 identified those sites that could maximize soil conservation through the creation of the 1.5-ha  
319 shrubland patches (after calculating the potential reduction in soil loss associated with the patch  
320 creation for each transect). In the integrated conservation strategy, we selected sites for conservation  
321 to maximize the potential combined effects, i.e. the best compromise for both warbler and soil  
322 conservation.

323 For each strategy, we estimated the potential increase in the number of warblers within the plots and  
324 in tons of soil preserved from erosion compared to the current conditions. Then we compared the  
325 relative efficacy of the three alternative strategies, as the percentage of benefit that could be  
326 achieved with alternative strategies compared to the exclusive one (e.g. the increase in the number  
327 of warblers achievable with the soil strategy compared with the increase expected from the warbler  
328 strategy). If synergies are possible, the combined conservation strategy should enable to reach  
329 globally higher targets than the specific strategies.

330

331

### 332 3. Results

333

#### 334 3.1. Factors affecting warbler occurrence and abundance

335

336 The mean number of warblers per occupied transect was  $1.94 \pm 1.00$  SD (min. 1, max. 5, mode and  
337 median 2). The most supported model (occurrence intercept:  $-1.98 \pm 0.47$ ; detection intercept:  
338  $1.09 \pm 0.67$ ) for latent occurrence revealed a positive effect of slope ( $1.44 \pm 0.60$ ,  $z=2.39$ ,  $P=0.017$ )  
339 and solar radiation ( $0.96 \pm 0.43$ ,  $z=2.23$ ,  $P=0.025$ ) on warbler occurrence probability; the detected  
340 warbler occurrence was affected by a marginally significant effect of date ( $-1.47 \pm 0.88$ ,  $z=-1.66$ ,  
341  $P=0.096$ ).

342 The most supported model for latent abundance suggested that the local (i.e. at the plot scale)  
343 abundance of Moltoni's warbler was driven by positive and significant effects of slope, solar  
344 radiation, shrub cover and forest cover (Table 1), whereas the number of warblers counted was  
345 affected by count duration (the higher the time spent on a transect, the higher the number of  
346 warblers found; Table 1).

347 The most supported N-mixture models for both occurrence and abundance are reported in  
348 Supplementary material.

349

#### 350 3.2. Erosion risks in the vineyard landscape

351

352 The potential soil loss due to erosion within each 7.15-ha plot varied from 1 (on a flat vineyard) to  
353  $191 \text{ tons ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (for a plot with an average slope of  $20^\circ$ ), being on average ( $\pm$  SD) equal to  $78 \pm 32$   
354  $\text{tons ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ .

355

#### 356 3.3. Evaluation of potential conservation strategies

357

358 The positive effect of shrub cover on both Moltoni's warbler abundance and on soil retention made  
359 conservation synergies actually possible (Fig. 2). In addition, higher slope values promote warblers'  
360 abundance as well as soil erosion (Fig. 3); this suggests that creating shrub patches over sloping  
361 sites would be at the same time particularly suitable for warblers and particularly important to limit  
362 soil erosion.

363 According to the simulated conservation strategies, the warbler conservation strategies (i.e. creating  
364 shrub patches within the 16 most suited plots) would allow an increase of 105 Moltoni's warblers  
365 within the study area (and would result as a side effect in the retention of c. 479 tons of soil per ha  
366 per year). The soil-oriented strategy would allow the preservation of c. 783 tons ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (and to  
367 the potential establishment of further c. 68 individuals of Moltoni's warbler). Therefore, each  
368 individual strategy applied to the study plots would ensure benefits for the other conservation target  
369 corresponding to 61-64% of the benefits ensured by the individual strategy for the latter. The  
370 integrated strategy was globally more efficient, allowing for the achievement of 91-93% of the  
371 benefits (with an increase of 96 warblers and a soil preservation equal to 729 tons ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>) of the  
372 individual strategies for each conservation target (Table 2).

373

374

## 375 **4. Discussion**

376

### 377 *4.1. Biodiversity conservation and other ecosystem services*

378

379 Decisions about ecosystem management usually come with trade-offs among ecosystem services  
380 (Mace et al., 2012). Biodiversity conservation and the supply of (other) ecosystem services, either  
381 provisioning, regulating, cultural or supporting, are usually treated as alternative approaches, with  
382 often different conservation objectives, which may either conflict or reinforce each other (Balvanera  
383 et al., 2001). In fact, the relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem services is often multi-

384 faceted and in many instances still unclear and poorly considered in spatial planning (Mace et al.,  
385 2012). Nevertheless, it is clear that strategies focusing on the same set of targets for biodiversity and  
386 other ecosystem services may lead to both wins, losses or trade-off results (Persha et al., 2011).

387 Large-scale mapping of spatial proxies for both biodiversity and other ecosystem services reported  
388 a positive correlation between the selected indicators for biodiversity and ecosystem services (Maes  
389 et al., 2012). The same study showed how the relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem  
390 services was affected by spatial trade-offs between different ecosystem services (particularly crop  
391 production vs. regulating services) and how habitats in a favourable conservation status may better  
392 provide both biodiversity and regulating and cultural services (Maes et al., 2012). Despite the  
393 extremely complex relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem services (and among the  
394 different services themselves) and the multiple roles of biodiversity in ecosystem services, a  
395 synergy between biodiversity conservation and the supply of other ecosystem service is thus  
396 possible and should be ideally pursued, within comprehensive management plan (Mace et al.,  
397 2012), aligning different incentives for conservation (Balvanera et al., 2001).

398 Here we regard the conservation of an endemic Mediterranean bird species (a good) and soil  
399 preservation (a final ecosystem service) in vineyards as complementary conservation objectives  
400 within an integrated conservation strategy. Moltoni's warblers mostly occur on (relatively) steep  
401 (and well exposed to solar radiation) areas, and their abundance is indeed promoted by slope and  
402 shrub cover. Slope is also an important predictor of soil loss (in vineyards and in general), being one  
403 of the factors mostly affecting the amount of soil erosion (McCool et al., 1987; Moore and Wilson,  
404 1992). Given that both warbler and soil loss are particularly related to the steeper slopes in the study  
405 area, and that shrub occurrence may favour both warbler abundance and soil retention, the two  
406 conservation objectives may be part of an integrated conservation strategy. Our simulation indeed  
407 show that integrated conservation strategies for species and soil preservation could provide  
408 important synergies, allowing to broaden the effects of conservation strategies, maximizing their  
409 potential benefits. Potentially similar effects of some zoning strategies on species habitat and soil



410 retention have been reported also at very different spatial scales and geographical contexts  
411 (Geneletti, 2013).

412

#### 413 *4.2. Modelling pros and cons*

414

415 Our modelling approach allowed us to estimate the factors affecting the ‘true’ abundance of  
416 Moltoni’s warblers in vineyard-dominated landscapes, providing results coherent with the previous  
417 knowledge and further highlighting the importance of both habitat and topographical characteristics.  
418 The estimation of potential soil erosion was carried out according to a well-established and reliable  
419 method, which also when applied in other areas suggested highest soil loss in vineyards located on  
420 steep slopes (Prosdocimi et al., 2016a). Despite this, in our specific case, the adopted approach was  
421 suited to obtain an estimate for the evaluation of the potential effects of different conservation  
422 strategies, but was not ideal for a site-specific evaluation of soil erosion, because of some basic  
423 assumptions we made. Even if the estimated values are generally coherent with the range of soil  
424 losses reported for vineyards in the Mediterranean region (Prosdocimi et al., 2016a), we  
425 acknowledge that keeping constant some likely varying (and important) factors, such as slope  
426 length (L) and cover management factor (C), means that for a precise estimation of local intensity  
427 of soil erosion, such values should be calculated case-by-case. However, such a generalization  
428 (which is commonly adopted e.g. to compare soil risk across different areas, see e.g. Van der Knijff  
429 et al., 2000) does not affect the general comparison of the efficacy of conservation strategies; in  
430 addition, in most of vineyard parcels the ground is largely managed by machineries (e.g. through  
431 ploughing) to prevent grass growth, thus variation in C are unlikely to have a large effect.  
432 We are aware that further insights will contribute to a thorough planning of environmental-friendly  
433 vineyard management. At a broader scale, an evaluation of the effect of parcel management on  
434 biodiversity (e.g. Buehler et al., 2017) and soil loss (e.g. Prosdocimi et al., 2016b) would also be  
435 important. At a fine scale, site-by-site assessments are required in the case of local planning, which

436 should also benefit from the inclusion of an evaluation of the local risk of shallow landslides  
437 (Bordoni et al., 2016; Cuomo and Della Sala, 2015).

438

439

## 440 **5. Conclusions**

441

442 Effective strategies for ecosystem conservation and management, especially in the light of the  
443 increasing pressure due to human activities, should optimize both the supply of ecosystem service  
444 and the conservation of species and habitats (Mace et al., 2012). In our study system, integrating  
445 species and soil strategies could lead to maximizing the efficacy of environmental conservation, as  
446 well as of the potential agri-environmental scheme that could be drawn from our results. Such a  
447 kind of agri-environmental schemes is particularly urgent for intensive permanent crops, for which  
448 environmental prescriptions from the current CAP are almost completely lacking (Pe'er et al.,  
449 2014), and which have severe or even extreme impacts on biodiversity, ecosystem services and soil  
450 loss, especially in the Mediterranean region. Intensive farming is a major challenge for both  
451 biodiversity and the supply of other ecosystem services, at both the level it occurs, i.e. the field and  
452 the landscape scale (Fahrig et al., 2011; Tschardt et al., 2005). A striking effect of agricultural  
453 intensification on biodiversity is given by the huge decline of many bird species in Europe (Donald  
454 et al., 2001) and elsewhere, as well as by the dramatic reduction of several ecosystem services  
455 (Power, 2010). In the Mediterranean region, intensification in vineyards has resulted also in severe  
456 soil loss, favoured by the concomitant reduction of ground vegetation over sloping terrains, in areas  
457 often characterized by high-intensity rainfall (Martínez-Casasnovas et al., 2010; Ries, 2010; Ruiz-  
458 Colmenero et al., 2013). Soil loss (and landslide risk) has been exacerbated by structural changes  
459 induced by intensification and by mechanization in particular, with a shift from vineyards  
460 perpendicular to the slope, to vines planted in rows parallel to the maximum slope, as well as by  
461 abandonment of less profitable vineyards (Persichillo et al., 2017). All those factors contribute to a

462 highly concerning context, which makes particularly urgent the definition of strategies targeted at  
463 reducing the loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services in intensive vineyards. Preliminary  
464 discussions with individual farmers and farmers' organizations revealed a positive attitude towards  
465 a potential agri-environmental scheme promoting the creation of shrubland patches over vineyards  
466 on steepest slopes, as the latter are hard to access and manage and are frequently abandoned. This  
467 also implies that the creation of shrub patches on steep slopes would result in a moderate (likely  
468 negligible at a broad scale) reduction in crop production.

469 Under a broader perspective, evaluating potential synergies between the conservation of individual  
470 species and the more general optimisation of ecosystem service delivery should be regarded as a  
471 priority to formulate more efficient and appealing conservation strategies, which could  
472 simultaneously promote wildlife and (other) service supply, and be perceived as more appealing  
473 thanks to the broader benefits they could provide to the environment and people.

474

475

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481

#### 482 **Supplementary material**

483 List of the most supported models ( $\Delta AICc < 2$ ) for occupancy and abundance of Moltoni's Warbler  
484 *Sylvia subalpina* along transects in vineyards.

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- 747

748 **Table 1**

749 Most supported model for Moltoni's warbler detection and abundance in vineyard plots.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Estimate ± SE</b>	<b>z</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>Abundance</b>			
intercept	-0.958 ± 0.335		
shrubland	0.313 ± 0.116	2.69	0.007
forest	0.325 ± 0.140	2.32	0.020
solar radiation	0.444 ± 0.198	2.24	0.025
slope	0.440 ± 0.206	2.13	0.033
<b>Detection</b>			
intercept	-0.476 ± 0.477		
duration	0.882 ± 0.444	1.986	0.047

750

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752

753 **Table 2**

754 Modelled efficacy of the individual and integrated conservation strategies. Percentage values are  
755 related to the maximum increase achievable following the individual strategies and are used to  
756 compare the combined effect of each strategy.

757

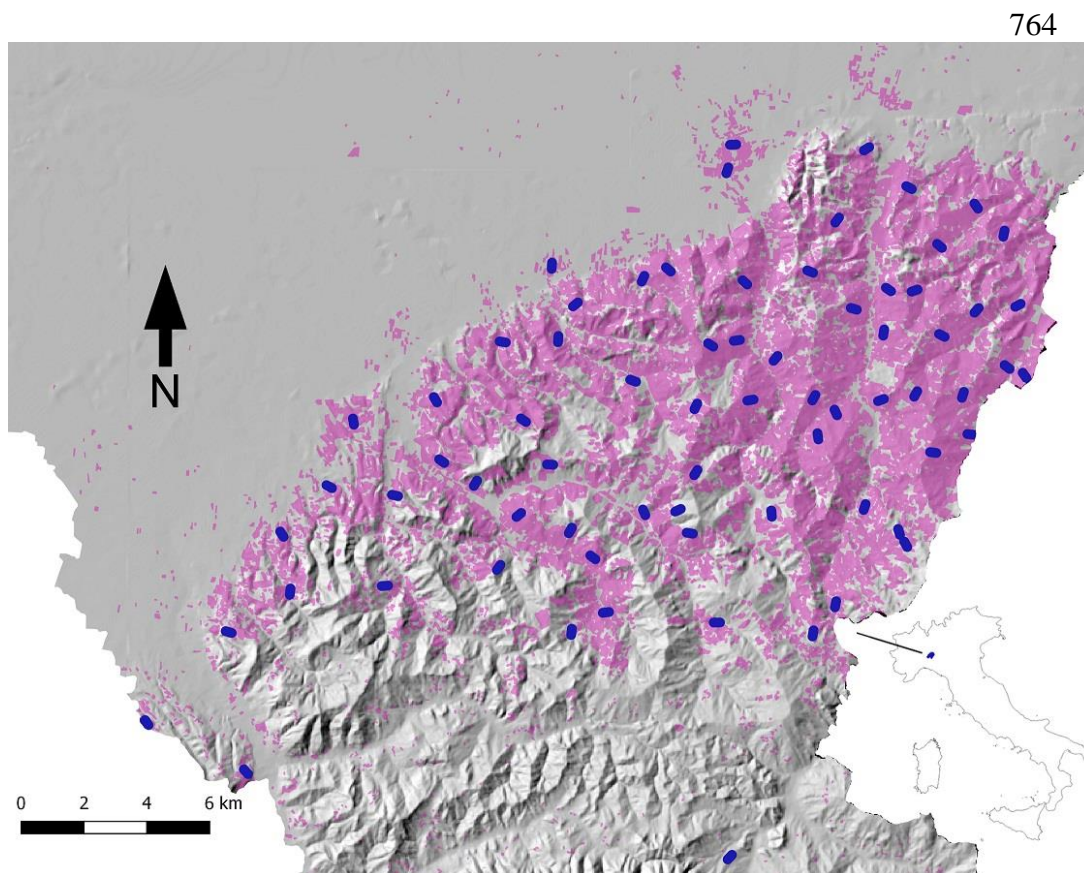
	<b>Warbler strategy</b>	<b>Soil strategy</b>	<b>Integrated strategy</b>
Warbler individual increase (%)	105.24 (100%)	67.79 (64.42%)	96.08 (91.30%)
Soil tons saved per year per ha (%)	479.02 (61.15%)	783.38 (100%)	729.37 (93.11%)
Total (sum of relative percentages)	161.15	164.42	184.41

758

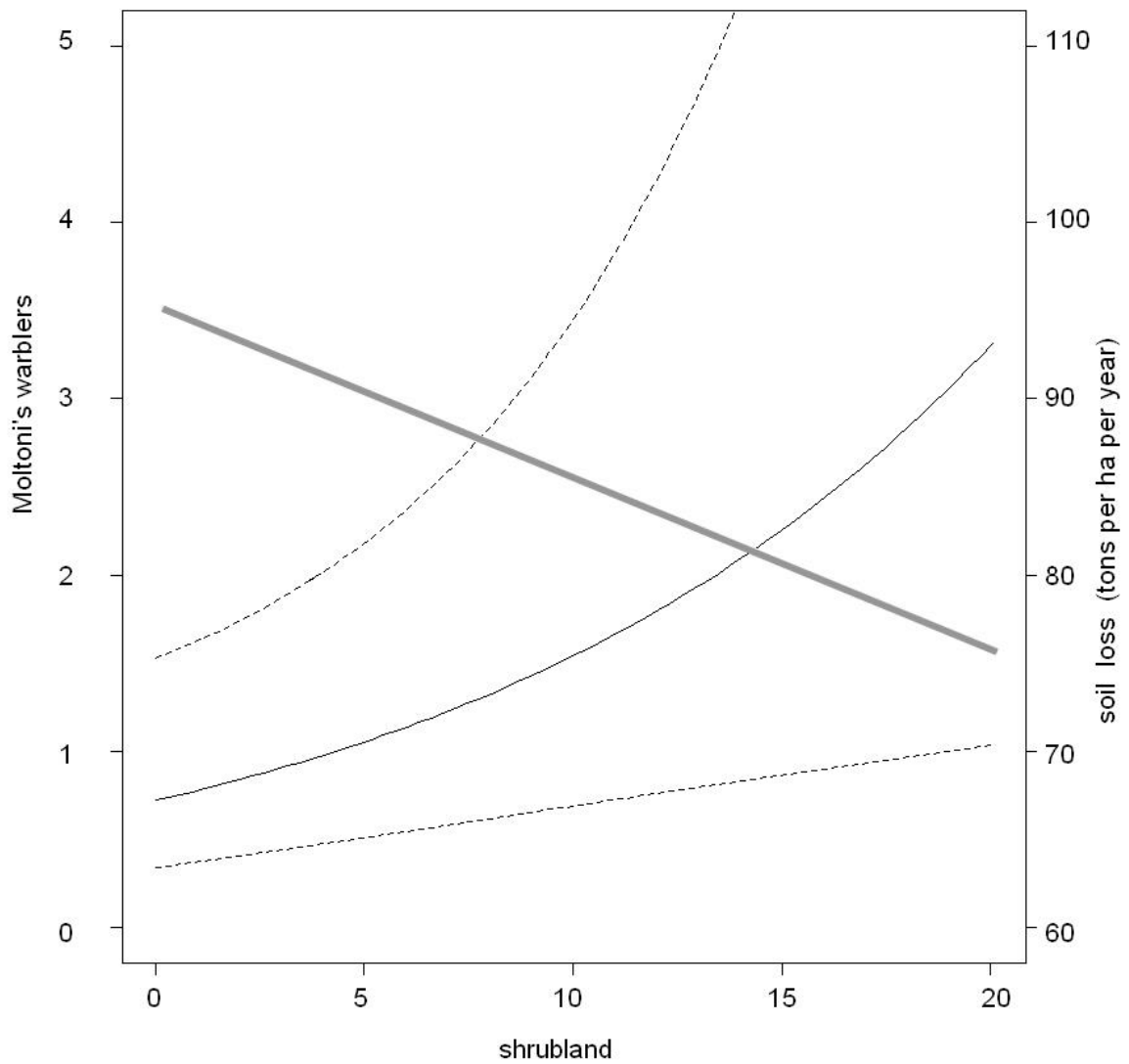
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761 **Fig. 1.** Study area: transects are shown in blue, vineyards in violet (source: DUSAF 4 database;  
762 <http://www.geoportale.regione.lombardia.it/>). The inset shows the location of the study area in Italy.  
763



765 **Fig. 2.** Predicted abundance of Moltoni's warblers (black line, dotted lines are the 95% confidence  
766 intervals of the mean) and predicted soil loss (solid grey line) in relation to percentage shrub cover,  
767 for a hypothetical plot (7.15 ha) located on a 10° slope well exposed to sun (solar radiation 5675  
768 W/m<sup>2</sup> on 21<sup>st</sup> June), with a unit contributing area of 1000.



769

770 **Fig. 3.** Predicted abundance of Moltoni's warblers (black line, dotted lines are the 95% confidence  
771 intervals of the mean) and predicted soil loss (solid grey line) in relation to slope, for a hypothetical  
772 plot (7.15 ha) located on a site well exposed to sun (solar radiation 5675 W/m<sup>2</sup> on 21<sup>st</sup> June), with a  
773 unit contributing area of 1000 and a 10% shrub cover.

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