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The effects of farming intensification on an iconic grassland bird species, or why mountain refuges no longer work for farmland biodiversity

Mattia Brambilla^{1,2*}, Francesco Gubert¹, Paolo Pedrini¹

¹ Sezione di Zoologia dei Vertebrati, MUSE Museo delle Scienze, Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza, 3, I-38122 Trento, Italy

² Fondazione Lombardia per l’Ambiente, Settore Biodiversità e aree protette, Largo 1976 1, I-20822 Seveso (MB), Italy

*corresponding author: Sezione di Zoologia dei Vertebrati, MUSE Museo delle Scienze, Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza, 3, I-38122 Trento, Italy. Email: brambilla.mattia@gmail.com

17 **Abstract**

18 Agricultural intensification is threatening ecosystems and causing the collapse of farmland birds.
19 Biodiversity-rich, semi-natural grasslands dramatically decreased in recent decades and were either
20 intensified, replaced by more remunerative crops or abandoned. We investigated the factors driving
21 habitat selection by corncrake *Crex crex*, a flagship species for grassland conservation, in Trentino
22 (Italy, European Alps), considering topography, public payments through Rural Development
23 Programme (RDP), agro-botanic grassland types and farming intensification, during 2010-2018.
24 Topographical variables were the most important predictors, but a synthetic model combining
25 different predictors was even more supported. Elevation (negatively) and solar radiation (positively)
26 affected occurrence; untargeted subsidies for grassland mowing had a negative effect, whereas
27 specific subsidies for the management of Natura 2000 grasslands had a positive effect. Stocking
28 density (livestock units/ha), taken as a direct measure of intensification, had a negative impact on
29 occurrence. Corncrakes preferred unfertilized grasslands, then species-rich grasslands with little
30 fertilization; mountainside and, especially, valley-floor grasslands were under-selected.
31 Corncrake has progressively disappeared from Trentino's valley-floors, 'shifting' to mountain areas,
32 but the effects of topography remind it is a lowland species pushed towards uplands by farming
33 intensification, which is now affecting also the 'mountain refugia'. Grassland types are selected by
34 the species according to a gradient from unmanaged to heavily managed; subsidized mowing and
35 livestock units/ha, a proxy for the amount of fertilizers and timing/frequency of mowing, had
36 negative impacts.
37 The conservation of the Alpine corncrake population and associated biodiversity critically depends
38 on the maintenance of low-intensity farming on a relevant portion of cultivated grasslands. The
39 reduction of fertilization, the adaptation of mowing regimes (to avoid early mowing, close
40 subsequent cuts and homogeneous cutting over large areas), and the broader adoption of
41 biodiversity-targeted payment schemes are urgently required. Grasslands at relatively moderate

42 elevation and sun-exposed are particularly important: lowering management intensity there is
43 crucial for conservation.

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45 **Keywords**

46 conservation; *Crex crex*; habitat selection; Rural Development Programme; topography

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Agricultural intensification is one of the main threats to biodiversity and ecosystems in current
49 decades. Among the several impacts that farming intensification has on wild species, its link with
50 the collapse of farmland birds is particularly renowned and highly concerning (Gamero et al., 2017).
51 The dramatic decline of many bird populations has been attributed to the changes occurred in
52 agricultural practices and landscapes (Donald et al., 2001). In Europe, the Common Agricultural
53 Policy (CAP), which involves the largest share of the EU total budget, has promoted intensification
54 in most accessible and economically profitable lands, whereas it has indirectly encouraged
55 abandonment in the less remunerative areas over the last 50 years, with huge impacts on
56 biodiversity (Bignal, 1998; Renwick et al., 2013). Such unsustainable outcomes of the CAP has led
57 to progressive policy changes, with e.g. the introduction of agri-environmental schemes (AESs; or,
58 more recently, agri-environment-climate payments, AEC), or with direct payments conditioned to
59 the implementation of greening measures by farmers (Pe'er et al., 2014). AESs include both broad-
60 scoped measures, such as habitat restoration or amelioration, and specifically-targeted options,
61 aimed at e.g. promoting the occurrence of a given species tied to specific farmed habitats (Kleijn
62 and Sutherland, 2003). On the other side, the largest share of CAP subsidies are unlikely to be
63 ecologically relevant, do not take into account the needs of farmland biodiversity, and may strongly
64 reduce the potential suitability of farmed areas for several species (Pe'er et al., 2014).
65 Those general considerations fully apply to European grasslands. Grasslands are a semi-natural
66 habitats, largely created and maintained by agriculture, which perfectly represent the unfortunate (at
67 least from an environmental point of view) trajectories of recent farming. They have dramatically
68 decreased in recent decades (e.g. -11.8% between 1993 and 2011 in the countries joining the EU in
69 2004; Pe'er et al., 2014), being replaced by more remunerative crops, or abandoned in areas where
70 conversion was not feasible (Assandri et al., 2019; Brambilla et al., 2010; Laiolo et al., 2004); the
71 remaining grasslands have been subject to a strong intensification and mechanization of farming
72 practices (Humbert et al., 2016), with a dramatic reduction of their value in terms of biodiversity

73 and ecosystem services. This is critical for biodiversity conservation in Europe, where a large
74 amount of wild species depend more or less strictly on agricultural land (e.g. around half of
75 European birds; Tucker and Evans, 1997), because grasslands are the most valuable agricultural
76 habitat in several areas and, in absolute terms, semi-natural grasslands are among the biodiversity-
77 richest habitats in Europe (Veen et al., 2009). Specific subsidies and measures for grassland
78 conservation have been introduced, including a greening measure in the last revision of CAP
79 targeted at maintaining permanent grassland. However, this greening measure allowed a further 5%
80 decrease of grassland extent by 2020 and included a commitment to preserve the overall extent of
81 grassland, but did not define the exact location of grassland parcels (resulting in potential relocation
82 with ploughing and reseeded) and did not consider the different values of different grassland types,
83 thus lacking in environmental prescriptions and leaving the door open to further intensification and
84 degradation (Assandri et al., 2019; Dicks et al., 2014; Pe'er et al., 2014). Therefore, measures and
85 subsidies included in the current CAP are not sufficient for the conservation of low intensity,
86 biodiversity-rich, grasslands.

87 Corncrake *Crex crex* (Aves: Rallidae) is a flagship species for grassland conservation, of particular
88 conservation concern and listed in the Annex I of the Birds Directive (2009/147/CE). During the
89 breeding season (mostly May-August) it inhabits grassland habitats of different types throughout
90 temperate Eurasia, being generally rather scarce. After a general dramatic decline and range
91 contraction in the past two centuries, this iconic grassland species have shown some local or
92 national recoveries in the last three decades, thanks to conservation interventions or to the positive
93 effect, even if ephemeral, of agricultural abandonment (Keiss, 2003). The historic collapse of the
94 species, which is still ongoing in many areas such as Italy (Pedrini et al., 2016), had been mostly
95 related to agricultural intensification, which implies early and mechanized mowing, high levels of
96 fertilization and other changes in agricultural practices (Broyer, 1987; Keiss, 2003; Moga et al.,
97 2010). Corncrake is believed to have originally inhabited floodplain and lowland grassland, often in
98 relatively wet or even flooded contexts; then, such habitats dramatically declined in Europe because

99 of drainage and land reclamation and the species mostly shifted to mown grassland (Koffijberg and
100 Schaffer, 2006), even if a preference for wet and often unmanaged grassland can be still observed in
101 some areas (Berg and Gustafson, 2007; Berg and Hiron, 2012). Several studies highlighted the
102 effect of mowing on the species, especially through a decrease of survival and breeding success
103 (e.g. Bellebaum et al., 2016; Broyer, 2003; Green et al., 1997b, 1997a; Tyler et al., 1998), but also
104 via the creation of suitable habitats (Arbeiter et al., 2018), especially in eutrophic contexts (Arbeiter
105 et al., 2017a), or when mowing is performed in alternate years (Berg and Gustafson, 2007).
106 Targeted AESs have been proposed for the species, mostly including delayed mowing (no cut before
107 August) and/or corncrake-friendly mowing, such as outwards mowing or conservation of unmown
108 strips (Bellebaum and Koffijberg, 2018). AESs somewhere led to population recovery, such as in
109 Scotland, where targeted AESs had been applied on large extents of suitable habitat and over a long
110 period (O'Brien et al., 2006), but they are in general considered to be largely insufficient to
111 significantly benefit the European corncrake population (Bellebaum and Koffijberg, 2018).
112 In Italy, corncrakes are mostly found in grassland mown for hay-making (hay-meadows; Pedrini et
113 al., 2016). Within our study region (Trento province, NE Italy, see below), they originally occupied
114 floodplains, marshes, wetlands and meadows in valley floors, and secondarily other grasslands
115 (Pedrini et al., 2002), then predominantly shifted to mid-elevation grasslands because of habitat
116 destruction or degradation in the valley floors (Pedrini et al., 2005 and Fig. 1; see also Alba et al.,
117 2020). It is possible that the species' scarcity on mountainsides in the past was due not only to
118 climate and topography, but also to widespread grazing, leading to unsuitable grassland structure
119 over many areas at mid-elevation. Widespread mechanization of mowing, also favoured by broad-
120 scoped, non-targeted AESs (Brambilla and Pedrini, 2013), as well as grassland conversion and
121 intensification (Assandri et al., 2019), are likely to be the current main obstacles to corncrake
122 conservation in the area (Pedrini et al., 2012). With this work, we investigated factors driving
123 habitat selection by corncrakes in mid-elevation grasslands in an Alpine area. More specifically, we
124 considered the effect of topography, AEC and other payment schemes comprised in the local Rural

125 Development Programme (RDP), of agro-botanic grassland typology and of farming intensification
126 on corncrake occurrence probability, providing an unprecedented evaluation of the concomitant
127 effects of such different drivers of farmland bird ecology on a species of high conservation concern.
128 We started from the following predictions, based on the general knowledge on corncrake ecology,
129 applied to the species in this Alpine area:

- 130 i) originally being “a lowland species”, also within the study region, in the mid-elevation belt they
131 currently inhabit in this region corncrakes should prefer milder environments and microhabitats,
132 being thus favoured by lower elevation and higher solar radiation, and flatter areas, being negatively
133 conditioned by slope;
- 134 ii) corncrakes should select ‘wetter’ grassland types, because they typically occupy (when available)
135 floodplains and wet grassland, and even marshes and wetlands;
- 136 iii) corncrakes could be impacted by RDP measures, with negative effects by those measures
137 promoting widespread, non-targeted mowing, which just focus on mowing and do not consider the
138 ecological needs of grassland species, in terms of management prescriptions at the relevant
139 temporal and spatial scales. Instead, corncrakes could be positively affected by AEC payments
140 encouraging delayed and/or targeted mowing. They could also be favoured by organic farming,
141 which could result in higher invertebrate preys, thanks to the expected lower toxicity of treatments,
142 and in lower management intensity;
- 143 iv) given that corncrakes are negatively affected by farming intensification (because of higher
144 inputs, species-poor vegetation and early and more frequent mechanized mowing), occurrence
145 probability should be negatively associated to proxies for intensification.

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150 **2. Materials and Methods**

151 **2.1 Study area and fieldwork**

152 Our study was carried out between 2010 and 2018 in the Trento province, north-eastern Italy, in the
153 eastern Alps (45.67–46.51 °N and 10.51–11.96 °E; elevation 65–3764m asl). This is a mountain
154 region, where cultivated grassland in form of hay-meadows and alpine pastures are generally
155 interspersed with woodland, other crops and urban areas, approximately between 250 m and 2000 m
156 (currently, they are mostly above 800 m). Hay-meadows, the most common corncrake habitat, are
157 used and managed by (cow) dairy farms to produce forage to feed cows in stables. Hay-meadows
158 generally occur below 1600 m, and have been undergoing a dramatic decline (from 37.761 to
159 20.367 ha between 1990 and 2010: Provincia Autonoma di Trento, 2017). Such a decline was
160 matched by a reduction in the number of livestock farms (-53.8% between 2000 and 2010), but such
161 changes were not mirrored by a comparable trend in the number of livestock units, which indeed
162 slightly increased in recent years (+11.8% between 2000 and 2010), resulting in a much higher
163 stocking density (La Notte et al., 2015; Scotton et al., 2012). Several meadows are experiencing an
164 anticipation of the first cut (to increase fodder quality), and a consequent increase of cut frequency
165 (Assandri et al, 2019). Mowing methods also changed in the last decades; the former mosaic
166 fashion of mowing, due to the highly fragmented properties mown at different time by the
167 respective owners, had been replaced by extensive, simultaneous, mowing over wide areas
168 (Brambilla and Pedrini, 2013).

169 Valleyfloors have been largely altered by human activities: natural (wetland, forest, flooded
170 grasslands) and semi-natural habitats (hay-meadow) have been replaced by intensive crops and
171 urban areas, whereas on mountainsides forest increased in recent decades at the expense of low-
172 intensity pastures and grasslands. Large meadow areas have been converted into intensive crops,
173 such as apple orchards or vineyards (Assandri et al., 2019; Pedrini et al., 2005). See Fig. 1 for a
174 graphical representation of the main landscape changes.

175 Corncrakes were surveyed on average twice per breeding season (May-July) within six study areas
176 (Fig. 2; overall elevation span 750 – 1450 m asl), which have been intensively surveyed since the

177 end of the last century to monitor the population trend of the species (Pedrini et al., 2012). Each
178 study area (extent between 113.9 and 807.5 ha) was surveyed simultaneously by different teams of
179 observers, who moved during the night (22:00-03:00) across team-specific sectors of the study
180 areas, following paths, tracks and minor roads, listening to singing males and broadcasting male's
181 song every 200-300 m (one minute of playback, followed by three minutes of listening, all repeated
182 twice) if no male was heard. The surveyors carefully recorded on detailed maps or on a GPS device
183 the exact location of all singing males. For further details see previous studies (Brambilla and
184 Pedrini, 2013, and references therein).

185

186 **2.2 Environmental predictors**

187 We considered three different kinds of predictors, in order to assess habitat selection by corncrakes
188 and test our initial expectations. Topographical predictors were derived from a 10-m resolution
189 Digital Terrain Model (DTM) of the Trento province, and included elevation, slope and solar
190 radiation; the latter was the global radiation on the 21st June, calculated in GRASS (Neteler et al.,
191 2012), taking into account the shadowing effect of reliefs. Management predictors included
192 stocking density, expressed as adult livestock units (LU) per hectare of meadows, and RDP
193 measures adopted on a given grassland parcel.

194 LU is an important parameter as it allows a quantification of the relative abundance of effluent
195 produced in stables and that is then spread over the meadows belonging to the farm; according to
196 Italian legislation, one LU corresponds to 83 kg/year of nitrogen equivalent. LU per ha was
197 corrected for the number of animals that spent the summer (calculated as three months) on alpine
198 pastures, according to the following formula:

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$$\text{LU per ha} = (\text{total LU} - (0.25 * \text{LU}_{\text{alp}})) / \text{meadow extent}$$

200 where LU_{alp} is the number of LU that moved to alpine pastures in summer. LU per ha therefore
201 provided a reliable estimate of the amount of effluents spread as fertilizer over the meadows of a
202 given farm.

203 RDP measures were grouped into a few groups of relatively homogeneous measures to avoid too
204 many values for this categorical factor. The resulting groups were the following ones: subsidies for
205 mowing, organic farming (all measures promoting introduction or maintenance of organic farming;
206 no prescriptions about mowing period; maximum LU/ha equivalent set to 2), compensation for
207 mountain farming (funds to compensate for lower income related to mountain farming, in relation
208 to farm size, slope steepness and elevation), specific management for Natura 2000 grasslands
209 (consisting in delayed mowing: no cuts between 25 May and 15 July).

210 Finally, agro-botanic grassland type was also considered on the basis of a four-level classification
211 (La Notte et al., 2015; Scotton et al., 2012):

212 i) dry or wet, species-rich, grasslands (mapped by means of specific fieldwork) that should not be
213 fertilized (*Nardetalia*, grasslands with *Festuca rubra* and *Agrostis tenuis*, *Bromion erecti*, included
214 patches of xeric *Bromion erecti*), wet mown grassland: *Molinietalia caeruleae*, fens (*Caricetum*
215 *davallianae* and *Caricion fuscae*);

216 ii) dry, species-rich, grasslands (mapped by means of specific fieldwork) with little fertilization
217 (transition forms between *Bromion erecti* and *Arrhenatherion*, *Anthoxanto-Brometum erecti* and
218 *Ranunculo bulbosi-Arrhenatheretum*, *Centaureo transalpinae-Trisetetum flavescens*, transition
219 forms between *Centaureo transalpinae-Trisetetum flavescens* and *Centaureo carniolicae-*
220 *Arrhenatheretum elatioris*, *Centaureo transalpinae-Trisetetum flavescens*, *Centaureo carniolicae-*
221 *Arrhenatheretum elatioris*);

222 iii) valleyfloor grasslands (easily accessible grassland on plains or slopes <10°, excluding species-
223 rich grassland);

224 iv) mountainside grasslands (all other grasslands).

225 Intensification increases from grasslands without any fertilization, to dry grasslands with little
226 fertilization, mountainside and valleyfloor grasslands.

227 The use of some environmental variables is associated with some uncertainties. In particular,
228 grassland type was defined in 2014, and the adoption of RDP measures was available for the year

229 2020. This means that some changes could have happened during the time span covered by our
230 study. However, considering that agro-botanic grassland type is the result of the interaction between
231 climate, topography, soil and long- or medium-term management, it is unlikely to have significantly
232 changed during the study period, which is centred around the definition of grassland type. For what
233 concerns RDP measures, they are part of the 2014-2020 programme, and usually adhesion to
234 measures is rather constant across the duration of a given RDP. Therefore, we can start from the
235 assumption that relevant changes in grassland type and RDP payment schemes are unlikely to occur
236 within the considered period, and that the effect of any variation should be negligible for the
237 purpose of our study. Finally, the value of LU per ha, which represents a direct measure of
238 fertilization and a good proxy for management intensity in general, is available as a unique value
239 for each farm and not as parcel-scale value; if an individual farm has more grassland parcels, it
240 could potentially dispose effluents in different proportions over different parcels. However, this is
241 the best indicator available for intensity of meadow management and it is likely to work well over
242 the broad scale, as in our study.

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244 **2.3. Statistical analyses**

245 To obtain pseudo-absence points, we followed previously adopted approaches linking selected sites
246 to surrounding ones (Bosco et al., 2019), having the survey area as a grouping factor in our case.
247 We therefore compared the characteristics of corncrake occurrence sites with surrounding, where no
248 records were obtained (pseudo-absence sites, available but not used habitat; Bosco et al., 2019). We
249 scattered random points within the study areas, subject to two constraints: to be at least 20-m apart
250 from a corncrake calling location, and 40-m apart from other random points. For 120 corncrake
251 locations and 2089 random points, all the considered environmental variables were available (for
252 some points, RDP measures and/or grassland type were lacking). When more RDP measures were
253 applied to a single grassland parcel (and hence were associated with a corncrake or random point),
254 one of them was randomly selected for the analyses.

255 We carried out a two-step GLMM (generalized linear mixed model) procedure. In the first step, we
256 evaluated the relative importance of different types of determinants of habitat selection; in the
257 second step, we identified the single, most relevant drivers of habitat selection in the corncrake
258 population we studied. In GLMMs, we added the study area as a grouping (random) factor,
259 corncrake occurrence as the dependent (binomial) variable and the environmental variables
260 described above as predictors (all continuous variables were centred around mean and scaled by
261 their standard deviation before the analyses). We did not consider year as a factor potentially
262 affecting occurrence probability because i) environmental variables are constant over the study
263 period, or are meant to be considered as average values over it, and ii) considering occurrence and
264 pseudo-absence sites all over the period is less sensitive to potential absence due to low return rates
265 in some specific years, rather than to habitat unsuitability, something not unlikely for a species
266 showing strong inter-annual fluctuations like the corncrake. We used for model building and
267 comparison an information-theoretic approach (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), using AIC
268 (Akaike's information criterion) as a measure of model support. We first compared the AIC value of
269 the most supported model (the one with the lowest AIC) for each single group of predictors
270 (topography, management and grassland type) to evaluate the support for each group (Brambilla et
271 al., 2020). Then, we selected the variables included in the most supported models for each group
272 and build a synthetic model to identify the most relevant drivers of habitat selection in corncrakes
273 (on the basis of the AICc, i.e. AIC corrected for small sample size, as the ratio between sample size
274 and number of predictors dropped below 40). To take into account the uncertainties associated with
275 model selection, the most supported models ($\Delta AICc < 2$) were conditionally averaged after the
276 removal of uninformative parameters (Arnold, 2010). We used the dredge command of the package
277 MuMin (Bartoń, 2020) to compare the AICc of all possible models within a given set, the package
278 glmmTMB (Brooks et al., 2017) to build GLMM models and estimate 95% confidence intervals,
279 and the package visreg (Breheny and Burchett, 2018) to plot variable effects in the software R (R

280 Development Core Team, 2020). Model validation was carried out on a model including all
281 variables comprised in the average model using the package Dharma (Hartig, 2020).
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284 3. Results

285 Between the three different groups of predictors, support was maximum for the topographical
286 variables, followed by the management model and the type of grassland (Table 1). However, the
287 synthetic model was more supported than the single-group ones (see Table 2 for the most supported
288 models).

289 Model averaging on the most supported synthetic models led to a final model including RDP
290 measures, elevation, solar radiation, LU per ha and grassland type (Table 3). The model including
291 all variables comprised within the most supported models was not overdispersed ($P > 0.5$).

292 Topographical variables were very important: even if slope did not enter the most supported models
293 (even at the single group level), elevation and, secondarily, solar radiation (Fig. 3) affected habitat
294 selection in corncrakes, according to our prediction (negative and positive effect, respectively).

295 Management variables were also highly relevant. LU per ha had a clearly negative impact on the
296 probability of corncrake occurrence (Fig. 3), matching our expectation. All RDP measures showed a
297 positive effect on corncrake occurrence when compared with the general and untargeted mowing
298 subsidy; as expected, the latter had thus a negative effect, whereas the most positive impact was
299 exerted by specific management measures for Natura 2000 grasslands (Fig. 4), and the latter was
300 the only measure for which the 95% CI of the effect did not encompass zero (Table 3). Finally,
301 grassland type was also supported, but its effect poorly matched our expectation: the order of
302 preference was dry and wet species-rich grassland that should not be fertilized, species-rich
303 grassland with little fertilization, mountainside grassland and valleyfloor grassland (Table 3).

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311 **4. Discussion**

312 Farming intensification stands at the very heart of current biodiversity crisis and has been pivotal in
313 driving the collapse of farmland birds throughout Europe from the last three decades of the past
314 century onwards (Donald et al., 2006, 2001; Pain and Pienkowski, 1997). Species-rich, low-
315 intensity management grasslands are a vanishing habitat of utmost importance for biodiversity in
316 Europe (Pe'er et al., 2014). Their widespread disappearance and/or degradation results in bird
317 species tied to grassland-like habitats being in a worse status than other farmland birds in many
318 areas (Brambilla, 2019; Gamero et al., 2017). Intensification of meadow management, resulting in
319 severe impacts on biodiversity (Humbert et al., 2016), at least in the Alpine region, is strongly and
320 circularly associated with intensive livestock farming (Assandri et al., 2019; Scotton et al., 2014).
321 This process of intensification includes high levels of organic fertilization, early and more frequent
322 mowing, species-poor grassland that are dominated by one or a few nitrophilous species and are
323 likely to be ploughed and resown. However, extensive grassland are irreplaceable in terms of
324 biodiversity value, because the degraded or resown meadows can no longer harbour rich biological
325 communities and/or specialized species (Assandri et al., 2019; Humbert et al., 2009; Marini et al.,
326 2008b, 2008a). These low-value (for biodiversity) grasslands, which are often associated to higher
327 risks for the broader environment (Scotton et al., 2014), have the same weight of biodiversity-rich
328 and low-intensity management grassland when calculating the amount of grassland required to
329 access the CAP greening requirement and when designing local RDP measures, this being a major
330 drawback of the recent CAP (Assandri et al., 2019; Pe'er et al., 2014).

331 Habitat selection by corncrakes in the Italian Alps provided a clear example of the impact of
332 farming intensification on grassland species. Originally a floodplain, lowland species, corncrake
333 disappeared decades ago from valley floors of the Trento province because of drainage, reclamation
334 and conversion of wetlands, marshes and natural grassland, and now mostly occur in areas at higher
335 elevation (Pedrini et al., 2002). The negative effect of elevation and the positive one of solar

336 radiation recall that this is not a mountain species, rather it is an example of those farmland birds
337 that have been progressively pushed towards uplands and mountain regions by farming
338 intensification in lowland areas (Archaux, 2007). Unfortunately, such ‘mountain refugia’ for
339 farmland birds are losing their role because of ongoing intensification (Archaux, 2007; Korner et
340 al., 2018), and the same applies to our corncrake population (Pedrini et al., 2012). In fact,
341 intensification is still degrading its potential habitat: grassland type are selected according to a
342 gradient perfectly matching the management intensity (from unmanaged to heavily managed). LU
343 per ha, a true indicator of management intensity, being correlated with the amount of fertilizers and
344 with timing and frequency of mowing, had a negative effect on occurrence probability. The
345 untargeted RDP measure promoting generalized grassland cutting (mowing subsidy), which had
346 been considered among the causes of the regional decline of the corncrake population (Brambilla
347 and Pedrini, 2013), was the less favourable for the species among all RDP measures, because it did
348 not consider corncrake-friendly management requirements. All these results clearly indicate how
349 intensification lowers habitat suitability for corncrakes, even in mountain and upland areas.

350 Other corncrake targeted and/or more environmentally oriented AEC payments provided benefits to
351 corncrake, increasing the occurrence probability at a given point. In particular, the most positive
352 effect was by far that of the specific management for Natura 2000 grassland (Fig. 4). This measure
353 included delayed mowing (no mowing between 25 May and 15 July within the elevational belt
354 considered by our study), with positive outcomes for corncrakes and likely other grassland species.
355 This is fully coherent with the positive effects found elsewhere for management (whether based on
356 AESs or not) promoting postponed or alternated mowing, or the preservation of unmanaged strips
357 of adequate width (Arbeiter et al., 2018, 2017b; Berg and Gustafson, 2007; O’Brien et al., 2006), as
358 well as with the positive effect on the short-term of grassland abandonment, which result in suitable
359 (but transitory) unmanaged grassland (Keiss, 2003). Such measures could also promote the
360 availability of invertebrate preys for corncrakes (Arbeiter et al., 2020) and of suitable conditions for
361 other bird species (Broyer et al., 2020). Postponing mowing until the end of July will likely increase

362 the chance of successful breeding by corncrakes. The contrasting effect of AEC payments on
363 corncrake is also consistent with the mixed effect of AESs on biodiversity reported at broader scales
364 (Kleijn et al., 2006; Kleijn and Sutherland, 2003).

365 Corncrake history and ecology in the Trento alpine area exemplifies the fate of several population
366 of farmland birds in Europe, which have declined and contracted because of agricultural
367 intensification and other environmental modifications, particularly in lowland areas, where
368 grasslands have been converted into other crops or urbanized areas. Such species often found some
369 sort of refuges in mountain areas; unfortunately, such areas have been and are currently impacted by
370 land abandonment and by farming intensification, which was only delayed with respect to lowland
371 areas. Such dynamics have been dramatic for grasslands, which include some of the biodiversity-
372 richest habitats of Europe. Many grasslands have been abandoned in hilly and mountain areas
373 (Brambilla et al., 2017), or converted into other (more remunerative) crops (Assandri et al., 2019),
374 while the remaining ones have underwent intensification of farming practices (Humbert et al.,
375 2016). All those unfavourable changes have led to the decline of many taxonomic groups, and,
376 among birds, particularly impacted on open habitat specialists (Brambilla, 2019).

377 The conservation of the declining corncrake population of Italian Alps (Pedrini et al., 2016), as well
378 as of a large amount of animal and plant species relying on grasslands in the same region (e.g.
379 Marini et al., 2008a), critically depends on the maintenance of low-intensity farming on a relevant
380 portion of cultivated grasslands. The reduction of fertilization with organic fertilizers or other
381 external inputs, a revision of mowing regimes (to avoid early mowing, close subsequent cuts and
382 homogeneous cutting over wide areas), and a broader adoption of biodiversity-targeted AEC
383 payments are urgently required. In particular, grassland patches at relatively moderate elevation (<
384 1100 m asl) and with good exposure to solar radiation ($> 8850 \text{ Wh/m}^2 * \text{ day}^{-1}$ on 21st June) are
385 particularly important: they are key sites for corncrakes (especially during the first part of the
386 breeding season, Brambilla and Pedrini, 2011) and are also likely to harbour rich and diverse plant
387 and arthropod communities. Preventing or (at least) reducing fertilization (below 2.5 UBA/ha) and

388 lowering management intensity in these contexts is crucial for conservation (cf. Marini et al.,
389 2008a) and could contribute also to restore the high cultural value and appeal for recreation and
390 tourism of grassland landscapes (Fischer et al., 2008). Promoting ‘traditional’ farming in Trentino,
391 with Alpine breeds, lower stocking rates and a sustainable use of landscape resources, is likely the
392 most efficient way to conserve both grassland species and cultural landscapes, and should be
393 favoured by e.g. strengthening the link between traditional farming and high-value productions
394 (Sturaro et al., 2013). This would also promote the refugia role of mountain grassland for farmland
395 species, especially in the light of climate change; the latter indeed will lead to an increase in the
396 climatic suitability of upland areas for several species (including corncrake), which have been
397 declining because of intensification and habitat alteration in lowland.

398

399

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411

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- 600

601 **Tables**

602 **Table 1.** Relative support (according to AIC) for the different groups of predictors considered as
 603 potential determinants of corncrake occurrence (most supported models, and the relative AIC
 604 values, are shown).

605

Model	AIC
Topography: elevation, solar radiation	851.36
Management: AEC measure, LU per ha	859.54
Grassland type	861.72
Synthetic: grassland type, AEC measure, elevation, LU per ha, solar radiation	846.20

606

607

608 **Table 2.** Most supported synthetic models (AICc < 2) among all the possible ones. Those in bold
 609 represent the models that were selected for the model averaging procedure.

610

int.	grassland	RDP	elevation	solar radiation	LU per ha	df	logLik	AICc	delta	weight
-3.36		+	-0.56	0.28		7	-416.93	847.9	0	0.2
-3.38		+	-0.55	0.26	-0.17	8	-415.92	847.9	0	0.2
-3.41		+	-0.47		-0.19	7	-417.34	848.7	0.81	0.13
-3.38		+	-0.48			6	-418.53	849.1	1.2	0.11
-1.29	+		-0.61	0.29		7	-417.57	849.2	1.28	0.11
-1.39	+		-0.61	0.28	-0.16	8	-416.66	849.4	1.47	0.1
-1.98	+	+	-0.62	0.27		10	-414.72	849.5	1.63	0.09
-2.1	+	+	-0.61	0.26	-0.16	11	-413.87	849.9	1.95	0.08

611

612

613 **Table 3.** Averaged model according to conditional averaging; estimates and relative standard errors
614 (SE) and confidence intervals are estimated by the GLMM modelling procedure followed by
615 conditional averaging of the most supported models, after the exclusion of the uninformative
616 parameters (see text for details).

617

Full average	Estimate ± SE	95% CI
intercept	-2.98 ± 1.24	-5.41 – -0.55
AEC measure (baseline: mowing subsidy)		
organic management	0.42 ± 0.38	-0.32 – 1.16
compensation for mountain farming	0.45 ± 0.35	-0.24 – 1.14
Natura 2000 grassland management	2.31 ± 0.77	0.80 – 3.82
elevation	-0.53 ± 0.15	-0.82 – -0.24
solar radiation	0.28 ± 0.16	-0.03 – 0.59
LU per ha	-0.19 ± 0.12	-0.43 – 0.05
grassland type (baseline: grassland that should not be fertilized)		
dry grassland (low fertilization)	-1.51 ± 0.70	-2.88 – -0.14
mountainside grassland	-1.80 ± 0.72	-3.21 – -0.39
valleyfloor grassland	-2.36 ± 0.78	-3.89 – -0.83

618

619

620 **Figure captions**

621 (colour figures only in print)

622

623 **Figure 1.** Simplified representation of landscape and farming changes from historical to current
624 time in the study region, with the associated changes in corncrake (shown as black birds)
625 distribution from lowland to mountainsides.

626

627 **Figure 2.** Study area with pictures representing the different survey sites. The upper inset shows the
628 position of Trento province within Italy.

629

630 **Figure 3.** Effect of continuous predictors on corncrake occurrence probability and relative 95% CI
631 according to a GLMM model including all factors comprised within the average model: elevation,
632 livestock unit per ha and cumulative (global) solar radiation (calculated for 21st June). Dashed lines
633 represent the overall occurrence probability of corncrakes over all the points included in the
634 analysis.

635

636 **Figure 4.** The effect (and the relative 95% CI, shown as vertical bars) of the measures included in
637 the Rural Development Programme shown as the relative impact compared to mowing subsidies,
638 according to the conditional averaged model (Table 3). Base occurrence probability (0.5) is shown
639 by the dotted line.