

1 **Title:**

2 Field margins as substitute habitat for the conservation of birds in agricultural wetlands

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29 Abstract

30 Breeding birds in agricultural landscapes have declined considerably since the 1950s and
31 the beginning of agricultural intensification in Europe. Given the increasing pressure on
32 agricultural land, it is necessary to identify conservation measures that consume little
33 productive land. We tested the compensation hypothesis which states that field margins may
34 represent substitute habitats for bird species in agricultural wetlands. We monitored bird species
35 in 86 crop fields in rice paddy landscapes of Camargue (southern France), a wetland of
36 international importance for birds. We investigated whether the area of three types of field
37 margins (reed strips, grass strips and hedgerows) within a 500 meter buffer around the centroid
38 of each crop fields had an effect on the abundance of bird species from three groups defined
39 based on their primary habitat (reedbeds, grasslands, and forest edge species). We controlled
40 for the area of each type of semi-natural habitat (wetlands, grasslands, and woodlands), crop
41 diversity (rice, wheat, alfalfa, rape, and market gardening) and mean crop field size. Results
42 show partial support of the compensation hypothesis with species-dependent responses to
43 primary and substitute habitat area. Some species within the reedbed and grassland bird guilds
44 are favored by the area of their primary habitat as well as by the area of field margins, in line
45 with the compensation hypothesis. Eurasian reed warbler is favored by the area of both wetlands
46 and reed strips. Corn bunting is favored by grassland and grass strip areas. We could not confirm
47 the compensation hypothesis for other species. However, this may be due to the fact that most
48 of these species did not respond to their primary habitat. These results therefore suggest that
49 field margins may represent substitute habitats for some species but further studies, in contexts
50 where species are strongly associated with their primary habitat, would be needed to confirm
51 the generality of this hypothesis. Our results also suggest that species response to increasing the
52 area of a field margin type may vary among guilds and even within guilds. Therefore, it may
53 be difficult to favor all species within a given landscape and management actions may need to
54 be tailored to whichever species are locally associated with the highest conservation priority.
55 To tackle this challenge, it may be necessary to design landscape management actions at
56 different spatial scales.

57 **Keywords:** bird conservation, biodiversity, landscape heterogeneity, grassland birds, forest
58 edge birds, reedbed birds, wetland, rice, habitat compensation, land sharing

59 1 Introduction

60 Farmland bird populations have experienced a massive decline worldwide in recent
61 decades, primarily due to the loss of semi-natural habitats and intensification of agricultural
62 practices (PECBMS, 2022; Stanton et al., 2018; Sundar and Subramanya, 2010). Agricultural
63 areas represent 37 % of the **European terrestrial area** and host a large proportion of terrestrial
64 biodiversity (DataBank, 2018; Herzog et al., 2013). It is therefore not practical to rely solely on
65 the creation of protected areas to compensate for the declines in biodiversity observed in
66 European agricultural environments (Meyer et al., 2013; Warren et al., 2021). **Rather,**
67 **conservation efforts should also focus on maintaining and increasing the capacity of agricultural**
68 **landscapes to support biodiversity** through the adoption of biodiversity-friendly agricultural
69 practices and the protection of non-productive refuge areas, i.e. promote land sharing (Grass et
70 al., 2021).

71 Patches of semi-natural habitats, such as woodlands, grasslands and wetlands, remaining
72 within agricultural landscapes may provide permanent habitat for wildlife and host a large part
73 of farmland biodiversity (Newton, 2017; Toffoli and Rughetti, 2017). However, these patches
74 are scarce and under increasing pressure in Europe due to agricultural intensification which
75 leads to their progressive conversion to arable land despite efforts from the European Union to
76 slow down this trend through agri-environment schemes (Batáry et al., 2015). Hence, in some
77 agricultural landscapes, field margins, i.e. linear elements covered by semi-natural vegetation
78 along the edge of crops, are the only type of semi-natural habitat left (Marshall and Moonen,
79 2002). The habitat compensation hypothesis states that species may compensate for the loss of
80 their primary habitat by using alternative habitats as a substitute (Norton et al., 2000). For
81 instance, Montagu's harrier (*Circus pygargus*) primarily nests in shrublands and grasslands but,
82 in some part of its distribution range, it now relies exclusively on crop fields for breeding and
83 foraging (Norton et al., 2000). It has also been shown that aquatic invertebrates can use drainage
84 ditches as substitute habitats for natural lakes and rivers (Dollinger et al., 2015). **The habitat**
85 **compensation hypothesis has been investigated in the context of farmland abandonment and in**
86 **dry agricultural areas** (e.g. Brotons et al., 2005; Saura et al., 2014; Vallecillo et al., 2008) but
87 rarely in wetland agricultural areas (e.g. Declerck et al., 2015) despite their specific landscape
88 characteristics and biodiversity.

89 One of the main crops cultivated in wetlands is rice, a flooded cereal which represents
90 22.8 % of the world cereal surface area (FAO, 2018; Singh et al., 2001). In such rice paddy
91 landscapes, agricultural and semi-natural areas are generally intermingled with the presence of

92 large field margins along ditches. Among birds associated with these rice paddy landscapes,
93 there are both waterbirds (e.g. gulls, terns, herons, storks, ibises, waders...) and terrestrial bird
94 species. While the role of rice paddy landscapes as alternative habitat for waterbirds has been
95 largely studied, their role for terrestrial birds has received much less attention (Elphick, 2015).
96 Considering the long-term decline of terrestrial bird populations in agricultural landscapes
97 (Fraixedas et al., 2019), identifying conditions favoring them would be useful to improve
98 recommendations for agri-environmental management practices in rice paddy landscapes.
99 Terrestrial birds using rice paddy landscapes include different ecological guilds: reedbed birds,
100 which are primarily associated with freshwater marshes (Morganti et al., 2019); forest edge
101 species, which are originally associated with forest borders and clearings (Hinsley and Bellamy,
102 2019; Newton, 2017); and grassland species, which originally live in grassy or shrubby
103 vegetation with no tree cover (Di Giacomo et al., 2010). Field margins could provide resources
104 and nesting habitats for these species (Vickery et al., 2009), e.g. reed strips along ditches for
105 reedbed birds, hedgerows for forest edge species and grass strips for grassland species.
106 However, the role of field margins for terrestrial birds has rarely been considered in studies
107 conducted in rice paddy landscapes (King et al., 2010).

108 The Camargue (Rhône delta) is a biologically rich area listed in the Ramsar Convention
109 and classified as a Biosphere Reserve by UNESCO (Blondel et al., 2019). Natural areas cover
110 58,000 ha and agricultural areas 55,100 ha (Tamisier and Grillas, 1994). Rice represents 48 %
111 of the crop area and is mainly cultivated in rotation with wheat (19 %) and alfalfa (5 %). Within
112 this region, bird species associated with agricultural areas have experienced the greatest rate of
113 decline over the past 50 years compared to waterbirds (Fraixedas et al., 2019; Galewski and
114 Devictor, 2016). Hence, it is critical to assess whether field margins could constitute a lever for
115 bird conservation as their restoration and management may be readily changed by farmers.

116 In this paper, we tested the habitat compensation hypothesis in rice paddy landscapes of
117 Camargue by assessing whether field margins act as substitute habitats for reedbed birds, forest
118 edge birds and grassland birds. We conducted bird surveys in 86 crop fields in Camargue.
119 Specifically, we predicted that (i) forest edge species would be positively influenced by
120 woodlands and hedgerows; (ii) grassland birds would be positively influenced by grasslands
121 and grass strips and (iii) reedbed birds would be positively influenced by semi-natural wetland
122 areas and reed strips.

123 2 Material and methods

124 2.1 Study area

125 Our study was conducted in the Rhône River delta, a 180,000 ha polderized flood plain
126 located in Southern France and known as “Camargue”. Warm summers typical of the
127 Mediterranean climate (average monthly temperature between May and October above 15°C;
128 Blondel et al., 2019), as well as fresh water pumped from the Rhône River allows rice
129 cultivation. This flooded crop is essential for washing out salt-rich soils and allows rotation
130 with dry crops, mainly wheat and alfalfa. In Camargue, field margins are often wide (> 3 m) to
131 be waterproof and keep the crop fields flooded during the rice cultivation period. Several types
132 of vegetation can therefore co-occur within the same field margin, such as reed strips,
133 hedgerows or grass strips. In Camargue, the area of semi-natural habitats decreased from 67 %
134 to 39 % between 1942 and 1984 and since remained stable at around 58,000 ha (Mallet, 2022;
135 Tamisier and Grillas, 1994). These semi-natural areas are spatially segregated in the delta;
136 woodlands are mainly restricted to riparian areas along the Rhône River, wetlands occupy
137 depressions and cover large areas in the center and south of the delta while grasslands (mostly
138 constituted of meadows and salt steppes) surround the wetlands on slightly elevated areas
139 (Appendix A).

140

141 2.2 Study design

142 We selected 86 crop fields belonging to 17 farms across the Camargue (Fig. 1). All fields
143 were organic to limit confounding effects associated with variation in the intensity of
144 agricultural practices. We selected crop fields covered by the crop types representative of the
145 main agricultural production in Camargue (rice, wheat, alfalfa, rape, and market gardening).
146 Crop fields were selected along two independent gradients of semi-natural cover and hedgerow
147 cover using the methodology developed by Pasher et al., (2013). To do so, we measured semi-
148 natural and hedgerow areas in a 500 meters square moving window with a step size of
149 100 meters around every agricultural land of Camargue thanks to land-use data from 2019 of
150 the BD TOPO®, OSO Land Cover Map and the Regional Natural Park of the Camargue. No
151 maps of grass strip or reed strip were available prior to crop field selection. Therefore, we
152 checked for the distribution of sampled crop fields along gradients of explanatory variables
153 once the selection and on-site mapping were completed. We also checked for correlation among
154 the cover of different types of field margin and other landscape variables (see below).



156

157 *Figure 1. Location of the 86 crop fields monitored for birds in Camargue, Rhône delta.*
 158 *Triangles represent crop fields sampled in 2020 and stars represent crop fields sampled in*
 159 *2021.*

160

161 We calculated the area of each type of field margin and semi-natural habitat within a 500
 162 meter buffer around the centroid of each crop field, following Chan et al. (2007). The maximum
 163 size of the sampled crop fields was 14 ha, hence much smaller than this buffer. First, we
 164 estimated the area of the three types of field margins: (1) hedgerows, tree lines and bushy areas;
 165 (2) grass strips, grassy boundaries including grassy tracks or dirt roads used for the moving of
 166 agricultural machinery; (3) reed strips that grow in and along irrigation or drainage earthen
 167 ditches. Because we aimed at testing the hypothesis that field margins represent substitute
 168 habitats whatever their shape, we calculated the area and not the length of field margins.
 169 Second, we estimated the area of three categories of semi-natural areas: (1) woodlands (mainly
 170 riparian forests dominated by white poplar (*Populus alba*), pinewoods (*Pinus pinaster*), and
 171 tamarisk (*Tamarix gallica*) groves) and shrublands dominated by narrow-leaved mock privet
 172 (*Phillyrea angustifolia*); (2) grasslands including dry grasslands extensively grazed by free-

173 range cattle, Mediterranean salt meadows and halophilous scrubs and fallow lands; (3) wetlands
174 including freshwater and brackish marshes, reedbeds and ponds. Landscape mapping was based
175 on field observations done after the bird monitoring in June 2020 and June 2021 (see below)
176 because fine scale assessment was not feasible based on remote sensing approaches only,
177 particularly for reed strips. Finally, to account for the possible confounding effect of crop field
178 heterogeneity, we also estimated within each 500 meter buffer the mean crop field size and the
179 Shannon diversity index of crop types ($Crop_SHDI = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \ln p_i$, where p_i corresponds to
180 the proportion of crop cover type i in the landscape), following the method implemented in
181 Sirami et al. (2019). As a result, we obtained values for eight landscape variables for each
182 sampled crop field.

183

184 2.3 Bird monitoring and traits

185 Birds were monitored over 5-minute point counts halfway along the longest field margin
186 of each crop field during the breeding period. Two visits were conducted at each site between
187 mid-April and mid-June with at least 4 weeks between the two visits, following the protocol
188 from the French common breeding bird census scheme (Jiguet, 2003). Flying birds were
189 removed from the analyses because they were not interacting directly with the landscape. Birds
190 landing outside the sampled crop field and its field margins were also removed to avoid
191 detection bias potentially generated by hedgerows preventing the observer to see birds beyond
192 trees. We used the maximum abundance per site between the two visits for each species for
193 further analyses.

194 We assigned each species to one of three guilds according to the primary habitat used for
195 breeding: reedbed, grassland and forest edge birds. Assignment was based on the EUNIS habitat
196 classification that describes species communities related to woodlands, wetlands, grasslands or
197 urban areas (Appendix B). Generalist birds, i.e. not linked to one habitat in particular, **or birds**
198 **that use urban areas for breeding** were discarded from the analyses. We modulated the EUNIS
199 data with information provided by a local expert (T.G.) to take into account ecological
200 particularities of the Camargue. To avoid extreme cases of zero-inflation, we only kept species
201 present in more than 15 % of the sampled crop fields (Marja and Herzon, 2012). Fourteen
202 species were retained for the analyses (Table 1).

203

204

205

206

207 *Table 1. Species studied within the three guilds based on the EUNIS database combined with*
208 *information provided by local experts to take into account ecological particularities of the*
209 *Camargue (Appendix B).*

Guilds	Species
Forest edge birds	European greenfinch (<i>Chloris chloris</i>)
	Carrion crow (<i>Corvus corone</i>)
	Melodious warbler (<i>Hippolais polyglotta</i>)
	Common nightingale (<i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i>)
	Great tit (<i>Parus major</i>)
	Eurasian magpie (<i>Pica pica</i>)
	European green woodpecker (<i>Picus viridis</i>)
	Eurasian blackcap (<i>Sylvia atricapilla</i>)
	Eurasian hoopoe (<i>Upupa epops</i>)
Grassland birds	Crested lark (<i>Galerida cristata</i>)
	Corn bunting (<i>Emberiza calandra</i>)
	Eurasian skylark (<i>Alauda arvensis</i>)
Reedbed birds	Eurasian reed warbler (<i>Acrocephalus scirpaceus</i>)
	Great reed warbler (<i>Acrocephalus arundinaceus</i>)

210

211 In order to check for the completeness of our data, we calculated the coverage of our
212 sampling, which is defined as the proportion of the total number of individuals in an assemblage
213 that belong to the species present in the sample (Chao and Jost, 2012). This index corresponds
214 to the probability of occurrence of the species observed in the sample. The coverage was
215 calculated by crop field for all 14 species considered within the present study. The overall
216 coverage of our sampling was 73.5 %, which reflects no undersampling issue (Mallet et al.,
217 2022). The sampling completeness per crop field was not correlated with any explanatory
218 variable (Pearson coefficient < 0.24, Appendix C), which suggests that the study design was
219 robust and not biased toward one or several landscape variables.

220

221 2.4 Data analysis

222 We ran one linear mixed-effect model with bird abundance as the response variable, while
223 fixed effects were species identity, the area of the three field margin types (hedgerows, grass
224 strips and reed strips), the area of the three semi-natural habitat types (woodlands, grasslands
225 and wetlands), crop diversity, mean crop field size and all two-way interactions between species
226 identity and the other explanatory variables. All explanatory variables were centered and scaled.
227 Crop type and site identity were added as random effects. We did not include variable ‘year’ in
228 our final models because this variable was never significant and was not relevant to our research

229 question. We accounted for spatial autocorrelation by using an exponential structure on crop
230 field coordinates, and checked for the absence of autocorrelation in the residuals. We used a
231 negative binomial error distribution (type 2: variance increases quadratically with the mean) to
232 deal with over-dispersion. We ran models with a log-link function. We conducted post hoc
233 comparisons of slopes using the emtrends function.

234 Statistical analyses were run using glmmTMB (Magnusson et al., 2020), entropart (Marcon
235 and Hérault, 2015) and emmeans in R 4.0.5 (R Core Team, 2017).

236

237 3 Results

238 The spatial variation in field margin area around the 86 organic crop fields was similar
239 across the three margin types; hedgerows (median = 3.67 ha; range: [0; 17.47]), reed strips
240 (median = 3.60 ha; range: [1.46; 8.72]) and grass strips (median = 3.29 ha; range: [0; 6.27]).
241 The dominant type of semi-natural habitat was grassland (median = 7.38 ha; range: [0; 45.23]),
242 followed by wetland (median = 1.37 ha; range: [0; 48.15]) and by woodland (median = 0.71 ha;
243 range: [0; 20.78]). Crop diversity was on average 0.93 ± 0.04 (median = 0.98; range: [0; 1.6]).
244 Crop mean field size was on average 2.32 ± 0.10 ha (median = 2.27 ha; range: [1.09; 5.85]).
245 There was no correlation among explanatory variables since all Pearson correlation coefficients
246 were under 0.45 (Appendix C).

247

248 3.1 Forest edge bird guild

249 Woodland area only had a positive effect on the abundance of one of the nine forest edge
250 species, great tit ($\beta = 0.10 \pm 0.03$, Table 2, Fig. 2), while the area of hedgerows had a positive
251 effect on the abundance of European greenfinch ($\beta = 0.15 \pm 0.07$, Table 2, Fig. 2).

252 Grassland area had a negative effect on the European green woodpecker ($\beta = -0.12 \pm 0.05$,
253 Table 2, Fig. 2).

254 The area of reed strips had a negative effect on the abundance of carrion crow, common
255 nightingale, European green woodpecker and Eurasian blackcap (respectively $\beta = -0.30 \pm 0.14$,
256 $\beta = -0.16 \pm 0.04$, $\beta = -0.55 \pm 0.28$, $\beta = -0.26 \pm 0.12$, Table 2, Fig. 2).

257 Crop diversity had a positive effect on the abundance of European greenfinch and great tit
258 (respectively $\beta = 2.09 \pm 0.92$, $\beta = 1.39 \pm 0.56$, Table 2), while crop mean field size had a
259 positive effect on the abundance of carrion crow ($\beta = 0.62 \pm 0.20$, Table 2).

260 There was no significant effect of wetland area or grass strip area on the abundance of
261 species of this guild (Table 2, Fig. 2).

262

263 3.2 Grassland bird guild

264 The abundance of corn bunting was positively related to both grassland area
265 ($\beta = 0.12 \pm 0.03$, Table 2, Fig. 2) and the area of grass strips ($\beta = 0.46 \pm 0.18$, Table 2, Fig. 2).

266 Woodland area had a negative effect on the abundance of crested lark ($\beta = -0.33 \pm 0.15$,
267 Table 2, Fig. 2), while the area of hedgerows had a negative effect on the abundance of Eurasian
268 skylark and corn bunting (respectively $\beta = -0.29 \pm 0.10$, $\beta = -0.33 \pm 0.11$, Table 2, Fig. 2).

269 Wetland area had a positive effect on the abundance of Eurasian skylark and corn bunting
270 (respectively $\beta = 0.05 \pm 0.02$, $\beta = 0.06 \pm 0.02$, Table 2, Fig. 2), while the area of reed margins
271 had no effect on the abundance of grassland species (Table 2, Fig. 2).

272 Crop diversity had a positive effect on the abundance of corn bunting ($\beta = 2.33 \pm 0.87$,
273 Table 2), while crop mean field size had a negative effect on the abundance of Eurasian skylark
274 ($\beta = -0.74 \pm 0.37$, Table 2).

275

276 3.3 Reedbed bird guild

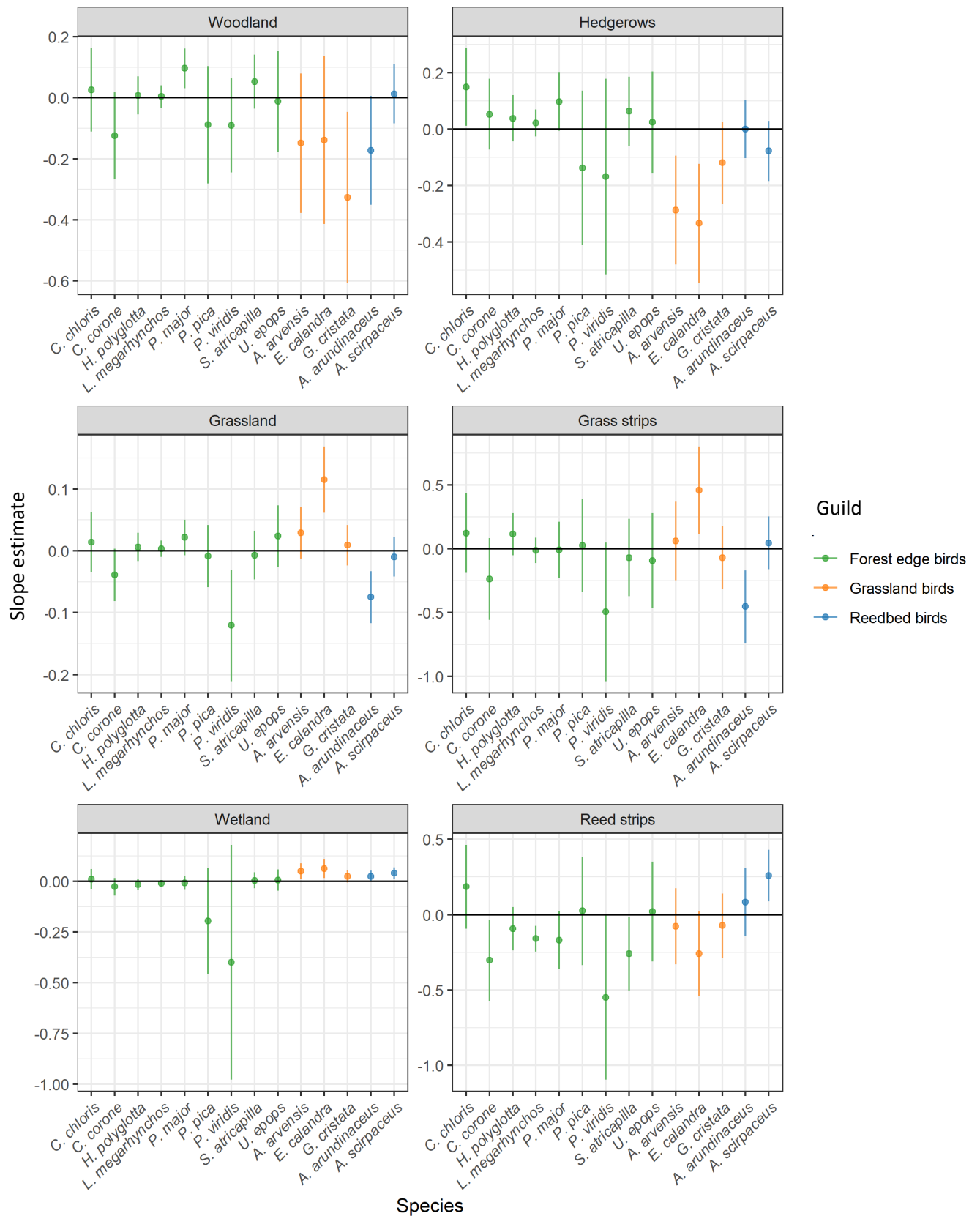
277 The abundance of Eurasian reed warbler was positively related to both wetland area
278 ($\beta = 0.04 \pm 0.01$, Table 2, Fig. 2) and the area of reed margins ($\beta = 0.26 \pm 0.09$, Table 2, Fig.
279 2).

280 The abundance of great reed warbler was negatively related to both grassland area ($\beta = -$
281 0.07 ± 0.02 , Table 2, Fig. 2) and the area of grass strips ($\beta = -0.45 \pm 0.14$, Table 2, Fig. 2).

282 There was no significant effect of woodland area, hedgerow area, crop diversity or crop
283 mean field size on the abundance of species of this guild (Table 2, Fig. 2).

284

285



286

287 *Figure 2. Estimates (\pm 95% confidence interval) of the effect of landscape variable for each*
 288 *species studied. Each graph corresponds to a landscape variable; the habitat patches on the*
 289 *left and the field margin of the right. The horizontal black line corresponds to 0.. If the 95%*

290 confidence intervals does not overlap with zero, the effect of the landscape variable on the
 291 abundance of the corresponding species is considered as significant.

292

293 Table 2. Averaged estimates of the effects of landscape variables for the three bird guilds
 294 monitored in agricultural crop fields of the Camargue. The 95 % confidence intervals are in
 295 brackets. Values in bold indicate significant effects.

Species name	Hedgerow	Grass strip	Reed strip	Woodland area	Grassland area	Wetland area	Crop diversity	Mean crop field size
European greenfinch (<i>Chloris chloris</i>)	0.15 [0.01;0.29]	0.12 [- 0.19;0.43]	0.18 [- 0.09;0.46]	0.03 [- 0.11;0.16]	0.01 [- 0.03;0.06]	0.01 [- 0.04;0.06]	2.09 [0.28;3.91]	-0.21 [- 0.92;0.49]
Carriion crow (<i>Corvus corone</i>)	0.05 [- 0.07;0.18]	-0.24 [- 0.56;0.08]	-0.30 [-0.54; -0.03]	-0.12 [- 0.27;0.02]	-0.04 [- 0.08;0.00]	-0.03 [- 0.07;0.02]	-0.14 [- 1.56;1.27]	0.62 [0.21;1.03]
Melodious warbler (<i>Hippolais polyglotta</i>)	0.04 [- 0.05;0.12]	0.11 [- 0.05;0.28]	-0.09 [- 0.24;0.05]	0.01 [- 0.05;0.07]	0.01 [- 0.02;0.03]	-0.02 [- 0.05;0.01]	0.19 [- 0.66;1.03]	-0.08 [- 0.41;0.24]
Common nightingale (<i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i>)	0.02 [- 0.03;0.07]	-0.01 [- 0.11;0.08]	-0.16 [-0.24; -0.07]	0.00 [- 0.03;0.04]	0.00 [- 0.01;0.02]	-0.01 [- 0.03;0.00]	0.06 [- 0.43;0.54]	0.17 [- 0.00;0.34]
Great tit (<i>Parus major</i>)	0.10 [- 0.01;0.20]	-0.01 [- 0.23;0.21]	-0.17 [- 0.36;0.02]	0.10 [0.03;0.16]	0.02 [- 0.01;0.05]	-0.01 [- 0.04;0.03]	1.39 [0.29;2.48]	0.23 [- 0.12;0.59]
Eurasian magpie (<i>Pica pica</i>)	-0.14 [- 0.41;0.14]	0.02 [- 0.34;0.39]	0.03 [- 0.33;0.38]	-0.09 [- 0.28;0.10]	-0.01 [- 0.06;0.04]	-0.20 [- 0.46;0.06]	-1.58 [- 3.81;0.64]	0.23 [- 0.44;0.90]
European green woodpecker (<i>Picus viridis</i>)	-0.17 [- 0.52;0.18]	-0.50 [- 1.04;0.05]	-0.55 [-1.09; -0.01]	-0.09 [- 0.24;0.06]	-0.12 [-0.21; -0.03]	-0.40 [- 0.98;0.04]	-1.32 [- 3.39;0.74]	-0.17 [- 1.10;0.76]
Eurasian blackcap (<i>Sylvia atricapilla</i>)	0.06 [- 0.06;0.19]	-0.07 [- 0.37;0.23]	-0.26 [-0.50; 0.01]	0.05 [- 0.04;0.14]	-0.01 [- 0.05;0.03]	0.00 [- 0.03;0.04]	1.33 [- 0.01;2.66]	0.36 [- 0.09;0.81]
Eurasian hoopoe (<i>Upupa epops</i>)	0.02 [- 0.16;0.20]	-0.09 [- 0.47;0.28]	0.02 [- 0.31;0.35]	-0.01 [- 0.18;0.015]	0.02 [- 0.03;0.07]	0.01 [- 0.05;0.06]	1.09 [- 0.83;3.01]	0.07 [- 0.59;0.74]
Crested lark (<i>Galerida cristata</i>)	-0.12 [- 0.26;0.03]	-0.07 [- 0.32;0.17]	-0.07 [- 0.29;0.14]	-0.33 [-0.61; 0.05]	0.01 [- 0.02;0.04]	0.02 [- 0.01;0.05]	0.22 [- 1.02;1.45]	-0.07 [- 0.57;0.42]
Corn bunting (<i>Emberiza calandra</i>)	-0.33 [-0.55; -0.12]	0.46 [0.11;0.80]	-0.26 [- 0.54;0.02]	-0.14 [- 0.41;0.14]	0.12 [0.06;0.17]	0.06 [0.02;0.11]	2.33 [0.62;4.03]	-0.13 [- 0.77;0.50]
Eurasian skylark (<i>Alauda arvensis</i>)	-0.29 [-0.48; -0.09]	0.06 [- 0.25;0.37]	-0.08 [- 0.33;0.18]	-0.15 [- 0.38;0.08]	0.03 [- 0.01;0.07]	0.05 [0.01;0.09]	1.12 [- 0.34;2.59]	-0.74 [-1.46; -0.02]
Eurasian reed warbler (<i>Acrocephalus scirpaceus</i>)	-0.08 [- 0.18;0.03]	0.04 [- 0.16;0.25]	0.26 [0.09;0.43]	0.01 [- 0.08;0.11]	-0.01 [- 0.04;0.02]	0.04 [0.01;0.07]	-0.40 [- 1.57;0.78]	-0.07 [- 0.51;0.36]

Great reed warbler (<i>Acrocephalus arundinaceus</i>)	0.00 [- 0.10;0.10]	-0.45 [-0.74; -0.17]	0.08 [- 0.14;0.31]	-0.17 [- 0.35;0.01]	-0.07 [-0.12; -0.03]	0.02 [- 0.00;0.05]	-1.42 [- 2.86;0.02]	-0.49 [- 1.19;0.21]
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296

297 4 Discussion

298 **Our study shows that different types of field margins can provide alternative habitats to**
 299 **terrestrial birds in a rice paddy landscape, but species responses vary even within species guilds.**

300 We found that (i) grass strips represent a substitute habitat to grasslands for corn bunting and
 301 (ii) reed strips represent a substitute habitat to wetlands for the Eurasian reed warbler, in line
 302 with the habitat compensation hypothesis. For these two species, the positive effect of field
 303 margins on the abundance of species was even stronger than the effect of the corresponding
 304 semi-natural habitat patch. This result suggests that field margins are currently valuable habitat
 305 rather than substitute ones for these two species. It is consistent with the meta-analysis
 306 conducted by Riva and Fahrig (2022), which highlighted the higher value of small habitat
 307 patches for biodiversity conservation. In contrast, we could not confirm the compensation
 308 hypothesis for 12 out of 14 species. Such a lack of support to the compensation hypothesis
 309 could be explained by different methodological and ecological reasons. First, we observed a
 310 general lack of species responses to their primary habitat with only 3 species responding
 311 positively to the primary habitat surface area. This may result from the use of broad categories
 312 of habitat preferences, while species abundance may vary along ecological continuums. Also,
 313 semi-natural habitats have been grouped into three primary habitat categories, which may not
 314 be detailed enough to match species habitats preferences. For example, wetlands include
 315 reedbeds but also ponds without emergent vegetation which are likely not very attractive for
 316 reedbeds birds. A more detailed mapping of primary habitats or functional description of
 317 habitats, such as habitat quality, nesting opportunities or food resources would therefore be
 318 necessary to further test the habitat compensation hypothesis for several of the species
 319 considered. In addition, the observed species might potentially accommodate a diversity of
 320 habitats. Indeed, in the Camargue, some forest edge species like carrion crow, Eurasian magpie
 321 or common nightingale are known to be able to nest in very open landscape e.g. in isolated trees
 322 within a matrix of cultivated fields. Further studies aiming to test the habitat compensation
 323 hypothesis should therefore focus on species that are more strongly associated with their
 324 primary habitat.

325 Our results show that the compensation hypothesis cannot be generalized to all bird species
326 within the three guilds studied. Indeed, only some species benefited from the presence of field
327 margins as substitute habitat. Moreover, some species within these guilds were not even
328 recorded within sampled agricultural landscapes. For example, the bearded reedling (*Panurus*
329 *biarmicus*), a reedbed bird, the blue tit (*Cyanistes caeruleus*), a forest edge bird, or the tawny
330 pipit (*Anthus campestris*), a grassland bird, breed in Camargue but were not contacted at all
331 during our surveys.

332 The lack of effect of field margins on some species may be partly explained by both the
333 quality of field margins and the ecological preferences of these species. Indeed, in Camargue,
334 ditches are increasingly being lined with concrete or buried, like in Japanese rice paddy
335 landscapes for example (Yamada et al., 2011). Some studies have highlighted that earthen
336 ditches host much more aquatic fauna and flora than concrete ones (Katoh et al., 2009). It was
337 also shown that the density of intermediate egrets (*Egretta intermedia*) was twice as high in rice
338 fields with shallow earthen ditches than in rice fields with deep concrete-lined ditches
339 (Katayama et al., 2012). Here, we found a positive effect of reed field margins for the Eurasian
340 reed warbler but not for the great reed warbler, the latter requiring wetter and larger patches of
341 reedbeds than the Eurasian reed warbler (BirdLife International, 2022). The absence of the
342 bearded reedling is also consistent with the fact that this species requires larger areas of
343 reedbeds and is not encountered in reed strips along artificial ditches (P.M. pers. obs.).

344 Our results nearly support the hypothesis that hedgerows represent a substitute habitat for
345 great tit with a positive effect of woodland and a positive but no significant effect of hedgerow.
346 The European greenfinch is the only species significantly positively affected by hedgerow, a
347 result that may be useful to encourage farmers to maintain and restore hedgerows. Yet, the lack
348 of effect of hedgerows for the other species was surprising since hedgerows are known to
349 benefit a broad range of forest edge species (Batáry et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2017). In
350 Camargue, the poor quality of hedgerows may explain the lack of response within a wider bird
351 community because several of them, i.e. coniferous or giant cane (*Arundo donax*) hedgerows,
352 are not suitable to forest edge birds as their volume and plant diversity are low (Graham et al.,
353 2018; Montgomery et al., 2020).

354 Our results highlight that grass strips have a stronger effect than grasslands for corn
355 bunting. The greater plant biomass of grass strips compared to Mediterranean salt meadows,
356 which constitute most of the grassland area habitat category, may explain this greater effect of
357 grass strips compared to other open habitats. The high density of seeds available in cultivated
358 fields where this species comes to feed (Madge and de Juana, 2020), can also be a confounding

359 effect. Unlike other types of field margins, grass strips are probably not used as a nesting habitat
360 due to disturbance from agricultural activity. In particular, these strips are frequently mowed
361 and used by farmers to move around the crop fields, which causes disturbances that might
362 prevent nesting (Vickery et al., 2009).

363 Further research should therefore assess the ecological value of field margins, for instance
364 by comparing the demographics of Eurasian reed warbler and corn bunting in the substitute
365 habitat and in natural habitat to ensure that field margins are not ecological traps (Horne, 1983).
366 This would also allow to develop recommendations on the most favorable field margin
367 management methods. It may also be relevant to study the role of different types of field
368 margins for generalist species. Indeed, a recent paper has highlighted the progressive
369 colonization of farmland habitats by generalist bird species over the last decades in Spain (Díaz
370 et al., 2022). Taking into account the response of generalist bird species may therefore help
371 avoiding the homogenization of bird communities in rice paddy landscapes. Finally, the value
372 of field margins may also depend on the availability of habitat patches within the landscape.
373 For instance, reedbeds may have a more positive effects when they are close to a large patch of
374 wetland. Testing such interactive effects would require an adequate study design with all
375 combinations of values for field margins and semi-natural patches, and a **sample size** large
376 enough to provide robust estimates of all parameters within associated statistical models.

377 Our study also highlights that increasing a type of field margins may have antagonistic
378 effects across different guilds. Indeed, four species within the forest edge bird guild were
379 negatively impacted by the area of reed strips. This result may be due to the fact that this type
380 of field margin provides too few resources in terms of food and nesting sites for forest edge
381 bird species (Shoffner et al., 2018). Similarly, the abundance of the great reed warbler is
382 negatively correlated to the area of grassland and grass strip as this species occur mainly in wet
383 habitats during the breeding season (Dyrzcz, 2020). As expected, grassland birds were negatively
384 impacted by the area of hedgerows and woodland confirming previous studies that observed a
385 similar negative effect of wooded habitats on different species of grassland birds (e.g. Ellison
386 et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2014). Woodland patches usually do not offer resources for grassland
387 birds and are avoided because they are a source of avian and mammalian predators (Burger et
388 al., 1994). Our study therefore confirms that it may not be possible to favor all bird species
389 **within a single landscape** and it may be necessary to focus on the **type of field margins that**
390 **most favor species in need of conservation attention.**

391 Our study confirms that increasing crop diversity and decreasing crop mean field size are
392 complementary levers to promote biodiversity in agricultural landscapes (Sirami et al., 2019).

393 Indeed, crop diversity benefited two of the nine forest edge species, European greenfinch and
394 great tit and one grassland species, corn bunting. Moreover, the decrease in crop field size had
395 a positive impact on Eurasian skylark. The results likely stem from the fact that higher
396 landscape heterogeneity provides readily available complementary resources (Batáry et al.,
397 2017; Sirami et al., 2019). On the other hand, we found a positive effect of the increase in crop
398 field size on the abundance of carrion crows. This effect is probably related to the fact that this
399 species feed in groups on the ground and may thus be favored by large open areas (Madge,
400 2020).

401 In conclusion, our results highlight that field margins are valuable landscape components
402 to improve biodiversity conservation but cannot be the only components to be promoted in rice
403 paddy landscapes. In Camargue, current conservation priorities concern the disappearance of
404 wetlands and grasslands as well as the degraded conservation status of species associated with
405 these habitats, whereas there is less concern for forest edge birds, which can be found in other
406 agricultural landscapes. Our study therefore suggests that conserving and restoring wetlands
407 and grasslands and the associates field margins, reed strips and grass strips, represent a
408 promising avenue to increase biodiversity in the agricultural landscapes of Camargue. On the
409 other hand, despite the negative impact of hedgerows on grassland birds and waterbirds
410 (Tourenq et al., 2001), they can host a diversity of auxiliary species as well as taxa of high
411 conservation importance in Camargue and other wetlands such as bats (Mas et al., 2021).
412 Hedgerows have also been shown to limit the presence of greater flamingos (*Phoenicopterus*
413 *roseus*), considered as a pest in rice fields (Ernoul et al., 2014). Taking into account the role of
414 hedgerows across taxa would be particularly relevant in the context of the current action plan
415 of replanting hedgerows carried out locally by the Regional Natural Park of the Camargue.
416 Land-use planning studies could be a good way to propose management actions to farmers and
417 stakeholders, maximizing both long-term agricultural benefits and biodiversity conservation.

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427

428 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

429 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest relating to the content of this article.

430

431 **Data, script and code availability**

432 Supplementary information, dataset and statistical scripts are available here:

433 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7685771>

434

435 **Supplementary information**

436 Appendix A: Map of habitat localization in Camargue

437 Appendix B: Table of species guilds

438 Appendix C: Correlation table between landscape explanatory variables and sampling
439 completeness (Cn).

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