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6 **Altering perceived predation risk and food availability: management prescriptions to**  
7 **benefit farmland birds on stubble fields**

8

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## 1 **Summary**

2 1. European farmland bird populations have fallen dramatically and sympathetic management of key  
3 habitats is one crucial way to help boost these populations. Maximising the value of habitats for foraging  
4 birds has largely focused on practical measures to increase food abundance but energy intake, the key  
5 determinant of habitat quality, is also affected by food accessibility and perceived predation risk. We  
6 tested the importance of manipulating perceived predation risk and access to food on the distribution of  
7 birds on stubble fields, a key wintering habitat for many UK species and used by many species in  
8 different parts of the world.

9 2. Recent evidence suggests simple reductions in vegetation height alter perceived predation risk for some  
10 species. Light cultivation, by scarification of the soil surface, could potentially alter both perceived  
11 predation risk (via changes in vegetation structure) and food availability (by opening up the soil and  
12 bringing seeds to the surface) and so be a single solution to enhancing suitability of stubble fields for  
13 birds. In experiment 1, we investigated the effects of changing vegetation height (via topping) and  
14 scarification on vegetation structure, seed density and distribution of farmland birds, using a 2x2 factorial  
15 within-field design. In experiment 2, we tested the temporal effects of scarification on bird distribution,  
16 using a similar within-field design.

17 3. Scarified plots supported higher abundances of invertebrate feeders (e.g. thrushes). Plots that were  
18 scarified within the past 7-13 days were used more by invertebrate feeders and granivores (e.g.  
19 yellowhammer) than plots scarified 2-3 months ago. Both results were probably a consequence of food  
20 availability being temporarily increased by scarification making prey more accessible.

21 4. Granivorous passerines and invertebrate feeders preferred plots with shorter stubble whilst the  
22 abundance of skylarks *Alauda arvensis* L., partridges, pigeons and meadow pipits *Anthus pratensis* L.  
23 was higher on plots with taller stubble. This was probably due to differing anti-predation strategies.

24 5. *Synthesis and applications.* Prescriptions that generate fine-scale heterogeneity should benefit a range  
25 of species. Although our work was confined to stubble fields, the importance of simultaneous  
26 consideration of predation risk and access to food is likely to apply across European farmland landscapes

1 and elsewhere, and could apply to other arable crops and potentially to grassland systems. On stubble  
2 fields specifically, topping of part of the field in the autumn could be combined with successive strip  
3 scarification treatments throughout the winter, to provide optimal conditions for a range of species. This  
4 could be incorporated as a management option in agri-environment schemes such as the English  
5 Environmental Stewardship Scheme.

6

7 *Key-words:* agri-environment schemes, vigilance, biodiversity conservation, agricultural  
8 intensification, Common Agricultural Policy

9

10

11

## 1        **Introduction**

2            Animals select foraging sites based on a trade-off between energy gain and predation risk  
3 (Lima & Dill 1990). All else being equal, animals will feed in patches with lower predation risk  
4 and will only feed in higher risk patches when they are rewarded with higher energy gains  
5 (Moody *et al.* 1996; Butler *et al.* 2005a) although they can be forced to feed at suboptimal sites  
6 due to density dependence or competition (Sutherland 1996). Higher energy gains can be  
7 achieved most simply through higher food abundance but also through increases in food  
8 availability mediated through detectability of food as well as accessibility (Whittingham &  
9 Markland 2002). In this paper, we concentrate on varying both perceived predation risk and food  
10 availability on crop stubble fields. Although our work was undertaken in the UK, stubble fields  
11 are selected by farmland birds in many different regions of the world (e.g. UK - Wilson *et al.*  
12 1996; Moorcroft *et al.* 2002; Portugal - Moreira *et al.* 2005; Spain – Lane *et al.* 2001; Kenya –  
13 Gichuki 2000; Argentina - Leveau & Leveau 2004).

14            Vegetation structure can influence both the energy gain and perceived predation risk of a  
15 patch (Lima & Dill 1990) and is therefore likely to be an important patch characteristic  
16 influencing habitat selection. Recently Butler *et al.* (2005b) demonstrated that stubble height  
17 affects within-field distribution of farmland birds in different ways according to their predator  
18 escape strategies. In general, smaller birds (e.g. yellowhammer *Emberiza citrinella* L., reed  
19 bunting *Emberiza schoeniclus* L.) that typically fly to cover upon attack by a predator  
20 (Whittingham & Evans 2004), tended to use the half of each stubble field that was cut short in  
21 preference to the other half of the field that contained longer stubble. In contrast, species which  
22 rely on crypsis to avoid predation (e.g. partridges) tended to prefer longer stubble in which they  
23 could hide.

24            Agricultural intensification is widely recognized as the major cause of European farmland  
25 bird declines over recent decades (e.g. Donald, Green & Heath 2001) and agri-environment  
26 schemes are now being promoted to try and halt, and hopefully reverse, these declines (Kleijn &

1 Sutherland 2003; Vickery *et al.* 2004). One element of intensification has been the trend towards  
2 homogenisation of sward structure both within and between fields and it has been argued that this  
3 is an important component contributing to farmland bird population declines (Benton *et al.* 2003;  
4 Wilson *et al.* 2005). In this study we focus on creating within-field habitat heterogeneity on  
5 stubble fields. Although we focus on just one crop type our results should apply equally to other  
6 tillage crops and to grass fields.

7           Inversion ploughing of arable fields in autumn, using the mouldboard plough, is a  
8 widespread technique that buries surface seeds in the ground and thus reduces the weed burden on  
9 fields (Cunningham *et al.* 2005). The numbers of earthworms in the soil tends to decline  
10 following ploughing, either through direct mortality or the destruction of the earthworm burrows  
11 (Jordan *et al.* 1997). As a consequence of these reductions in food abundance, various groups of  
12 birds avoid ploughed fields while often gathering in numbers on stubble fields (e.g. Wilson *et al.*  
13 1996). In the UK, availability of winter stubbles can help to increase subsequent breeding  
14 densities (Whittingham *et al.* 2005; Gillings *et al.* 2005). Many of the species that favour stubble  
15 fields in winter in the UK and elsewhere are of current conservation concern (Gregory *et al.*  
16 2002). Consequently, the provision of over-wintered stubble has been included as a management  
17 option in the British Government's Arable Stewardship Pilot Scheme (Bradbury *et al.* 2004),  
18 Countryside Stewardship Scheme and Environmental Stewardship Scheme (Grice *et al.* 2004).

19           Stubble quality, in terms of available weed seeds and grain, has been reduced by a  
20 combination of effective herbicide programmes, competition from the preceding cereal crop, and  
21 efficient harvesting, with most wheat stubble fields supporting no birds, and few fields holding  
22 high densities of birds (Vickery *et al.* 2005). There is therefore the potential to improve resource  
23 delivery by stubbles. Increasing food abundance is a key goal (Stephens *et al.* 2003) and  
24 management options, such as reducing herbicide inputs in the previous crop, are available in agri-  
25 environment schemes to achieve this (Evans, Vickery & Shrubbs 2004). However, there are also  
26 methods to alter perceived predation risk, such as stubble height manipulation, which could

1 further improve the value of stubble fields for farmland birds. In addition, many stubbles are  
2 quickly depleted of surface seeds, and methods to bring new flushes of seeds from the seed bank  
3 to the surface may provide temporary new sources of food. The ground surface of stubble fields is  
4 often extremely hard (Gillings 2003) and so disturbance of the soil is likely to enhance  
5 accessibility of sub-surface invertebrates, such as earthworms, and thus explain the higher  
6 foraging rates of invertebrate-feeding birds such as lapwing *Vanellus vanellus* L. on ploughed  
7 compared with unploughed fields (Gillings 2003). Although inversion ploughing brings some  
8 seeds to the surface from the seed bank the benefits for birds are outweighed by the large numbers  
9 of surface seeds that are buried, in contrast light cultivation techniques result in far fewer surface  
10 seeds being buried but still results in seeds being brought to the surface (Cunningham *et al.*  
11 2005). This probably explains why birds prefer lightly cultivated (non-inversion minimally tilled)  
12 fields to fields prepared by inversion ploughing (Cunningham *et al.* 2005). Neither stubble height  
13 manipulation nor cultivation (i.e. disturbing the soil) is explicitly considered by the current  
14 stubble management options available under environmental management schemes.

15         In this study we vary stubble height in the same way as Butler *et al.* (2005b). It is  
16 possible that light cultivation, as well as bringing seeds from the seed bank to the surface and  
17 increasing accessibility to soil invertebrates, could create variable stubble height and thus create  
18 within-field stubble heterogeneity without the need for explicit stubble height manipulation.  
19 There is therefore a need to understand how varying stubble height manipulation directly (as  
20 investigated by Butler *et al.* 2005) and light cultivation interact to alter vegetation structure, food  
21 availability and farmland bird distribution and also to examine how any beneficial effects of  
22 cultivation for birds may alter with time.

23         The overall aim of our work is to make recommendations for stubble field management  
24 that benefits farmland birds. In experiment 1 we tested the null hypothesis that farmland bird  
25 distribution was affected by neither stubble height manipulation nor light cultivation (using a 2 x  
26 2 factorial within-field design). This experiment also enabled us to contrast the effects of stubble

1 height manipulation and light cultivation. Experiment 2 tested the null hypothesis that use of  
2 lightly cultivated patches did not alter with time (two treatments: 2-3 month old cultivated patch  
3 vs 1-13 day cultivated patch) using a within-field design. We strongly support measures that  
4 increase food abundance for farmland birds (e.g. reducing herbicide inputs) and we view our  
5 work as providing additional techniques to improve habitats for birds.

6

## 7 **Methods**

### 8 STUDY SITES

9 Experiment 1. Experiment 1 was carried out from December 2004 to March 2005 on 16 stubble  
10 fields (15 following wheat and one following oats) from nine lowland farms in central England  
11 (one farm with three fields, five farms with two fields and three farms with a single field). Each  
12 field was either over-wintering as stubble prior to spring sowing of an arable crop or had been  
13 entered into rotational set-aside.

14 The stubble on one half of each field was cut (earliest field in late December, latest in  
15 early February) using a standard topper to lower vegetation height. Additional chaff generated by  
16 topping was left on the fields. The stubble on the other half of each field was left untouched to act  
17 as a control area. The section of field to receive stubble height reduction was allocated randomly.  
18 Within a few days of topping, half of each field (perpendicular to the topping treatment) was  
19 lightly cultivated with discs or tines ('scarified'). These treatments created four plots per field: tall  
20 scarified, tall non-scarified, short scarified and short non-scarified. Each plot thus covered  
21 approximately 25% of the area of each field.

22 The area of each field was obtained from the landowner (mean field size  $\pm$  1 se = 11.3  $\pm$   
23 2.1 ha). The boundary characteristics of each plot were recorded in order to calculate a boundary  
24 height index (Whittingham *et al.* 2003), a characteristic which can affect the attractiveness of  
25 fields to some species, e.g. skylark. The external perimeter of each plot was divided into sections  
26 according to the following categories: 0 – no vertical structure; 1 – a low (< 2 m) hedgerow, wall

1 or bank without trees; 2 – a tall (> 2 m) hedgerow, wall or bank without trees; 3 – a hedgerow  
2 with trees or a line of trees; 4 – woodland edge or other boundary type such as a garden, scrub or  
3 farm buildings. The length of each section (m) was multiplied by its category score and the  
4 boundary height index calculated by dividing the sum of these values by the total plot perimeter  
5 length.

6

7 Experiment 2. Experiment 2 was carried out on a sub-set of the fields used in experiment 1 (five  
8 fields on four farms). In early March 2005, the half of the field that had not been scarified as part  
9 of experiment 1 was scarified. This created one half of the field that had undergone scarification  
10 some time ago (on average 66 days ago, range 49-90) – OLD, and half the field that was scarified  
11 within 13 days of the survey visit – NEW (note: called ‘Date of scarification’ in Table 2).

12

13 BIRD COUNTS

14 Experiment 1. Fourteen fields were visited on six occasions between December 2004 and  
15 February 2005 and two fields on five occasions; each visit to a field was made on a separate day.  
16 Bird abundance and distribution were estimated by walking parallel transects (which ran  
17 perpendicular to the boundary of the short and tall plots) at 50 m intervals and counting all birds  
18 that flushed, recording which plot they had flushed from. Care was taken to avoid double  
19 counting by noting where previously flushed birds landed. Counts were undertaken between one  
20 hour after dawn and one hour before dusk to avoid periods when birds were leaving or arriving at  
21 roost sites. Periods of wet or windy weather were avoided due to the effects of these conditions  
22 on bird activity. Birds flying over fields but not landing on them were not included in analyses.

23

24 Experiment 2. Five fields were visited on seven occasions in March 2005; each visit to a field was  
25 made on a separate day. Birds were surveyed as above. Surveys began the day after the second  
26 scarification treatment and were completed (i.e. seventh visit completed) on average 10 days



1 (range 7-13) after the second scarification treatment. Thus, we were able to get an idea of the  
2 short-term impact of scarification.

3

#### 4 VEGETATION SAMPLING

5 Vegetation characteristics (stubble height and other vegetation height) in the four plots in  
6 experiment 1 (post-treatment) were recorded from five samples placed randomly within each plot  
7 (i.e. 20 samples per field), although not close (within 20 m) to the boundary (as distance to  
8 boundary could affect seed depletion rates, e.g. by animals living in hedges). Samples were  
9 collected within a few days of the soil samples (see below).

10 At each sample point, the mean vegetation height, the mean stubble height and the  
11 percentage of bare earth within a 50 x 50 cm quadrat were recorded. Mean vegetation height and  
12 mean stubble height was calculated from four height measurements, taken from the stem nearest  
13 the four corners of each quadrat. Measurements were taken from 14 of the 16 fields (two fields  
14 were ploughed before measurements were taken).

15

#### 16 SOIL SEED DENSITIES

17 Seeds were collected from surface soil scrapes (20 x 20 cm) from each of the four plots within  
18 each field in experiment 1. To restrict sampling to the part of the seed bank likely to be accessible  
19 to small passerines (Robinson 1997), only soil on or immediately below the surface was collected  
20 (approximately 3mm below the surface). Five samples were taken per plot (i.e. 20 samples per  
21 field) between 40 m and 60 m from the field boundary. All five samples from the plot were  
22 pooled and mixed. These were then placed in resealable polythene bags and stored within 24 h at  
23 4 °C (to prevent germination) until they could be analysed (usually within a week).

24 The bulked samples were weighed and a random subsample (25% of original mass) was  
25 removed. Seeds from each subsample were extracted by washing the soil through sieves of  
26 decreasing mesh size (1 mm and 500 µm). The contents of the sieves were then washed into a

1 white sample tray and allowed to dry before being hand sorted, with each seed being counted and  
2 identified using an appropriate guide (Flood & Richardson 1986; Jones, Taylor & Ash 2004) and  
3 reference material collected in the field. Soil samples were collected in January and February  
4 2005, to give an idea of the effects of scarification on seed availability. On average soil samples  
5 were collected  $24 \pm 3.7$  ( $\pm 1$  se) days since scarification occurred.

6

#### 7 ANALYSIS

8 Most bird species were not recorded in sufficient numbers to permit statistical analysis of  
9 abundance at the species level (Appendix S1a & S1b). Species were therefore assigned to  
10 functional groups, based on ecological and taxonomic characteristics (Butler *et al.* 2005b) with  
11 particular emphasis on foraging requirements and predator escape strategy (see Appendix S1 for  
12 details of groupings). To examine temporal effects of scarification ('timing of visit' in Tables 1  
13 and 2) the surveys in both experiments were grouped into two temporal categories: EARLY,  
14 experiment 1 the first three surveys, experiment 2, the first four surveys; LATE, all subsequent  
15 surveys in both experiments (generally three for both experiments).

16 The effect of stubble height reduction and scarification (experiment 1) and date of  
17 scarification (experiment 2) on the abundance and distribution of seven functional groups  
18 (granivorous passerines, invertebrates feeders, skylarks, corvids, partridges, pigeons, meadow  
19 pipit – for further details see Supplementary material) was tested using logistic regression in  
20 GLIM 4.0 (NAG 1993). The term 'field' was included in all models to allow within-field  
21 comparisons, while controlling for variation resulting from unmeasured site-specific parameters  
22 (we present the results of models including 'field' as a fixed effect; however, we obtained very  
23 similar results when these models were repeated in Genstat with 'field' as a random effect, and  
24 these alternative models did not alter any of the conclusions drawn – we chose to present the  
25 results this way as the *P*-values associated with the random GLMM procedure in Genstat are  
26 approximate, R. Payne pers.comm.). To investigate whether the relative abundance of birds on

1 plots changed with time since scarification, the term ‘timing of visit’ (see above) was  
2 incorporated into the model. The term ‘topping’ was included to account for the effects of  
3 manipulation of stubble height. The term ‘scarification’ was included in the analysis for  
4 experiment 1 to indicate whether a plot was scarified or not, and the term ‘Date of scarification’  
5 was included in the analysis of experiment 2 to account for the time since scarification (see  
6 above). In experiment 1, the number of times each of the four plots (tall non-scarified, tall  
7 scarified, short non-scarified, short scarified) was noted to have one or more of each functional  
8 bird group present was specified as the response variable and the number of surveys in each  
9 season was identified as the binomial denominator (specifying a binomial error structure with  
10 logit link function, (Crawley 1993) e.g. if skylarks were present on 2 visits out of 6 in tall non-  
11 scarified then 2 was specified as the response variable and 6 as the denominator). In experiment  
12 2, a similar method was used except there were only two plots (OLD or NEW  
13 SCARIFICATION). This method of abundance analysis represents a biologically realistic  
14 approach as birds are unlikely to select foraging habitats independently of conspecifics in a flock  
15 but frequency of occurrence is often related to total number of individuals recorded, which is  
16 likely to indicate the relative value of a foraging site (see Perkins *et al.* 2000; Moorcroft *et al.*  
17 2002).

18 As expected, given the random allocation of stubble height reduction and scarification  
19 plots, GLMs showed that there were no significant differences in boundary height index between  
20 the four plots used in both experiments 1 and 2 ( $P = 0.98$  and  $P = 0.38$  respectively). The  
21 significance of each predictor in the analyses of both experiments was assessed using the change  
22 in deviance ( $\Delta D$ ), which is distributed asymptotically as  $\chi^2$ , on removal of each term from a  
23 model including all predictors. The fit of the model to the assumptions of a binomial distribution  
24 can be approximated by comparing the ratio of residual deviance / residual degrees of freedom  
25 (Crawley 1993). Ratios close to one indicate a reasonable fit to the data, whereas ratios greater

1 than 2.5 indicate a poor, overdispersed fit (Crawley 1993). All probabilities quoted are two-tailed.

2 Means and standard errors are presented in the form mean  $\pm$  1 standard error.

3 Only one sample per plot per field was used in the analysis of vegetation structure and  
4 seed density data.

5

6

## 7 **Results**

8

### 9 **Effect of scarification and stubble height manipulation on bird distribution**

10 A total of 34 bird species (5154 individuals) were recorded at the study sites during the  
11 survey period in experiment 1 (Appendix S1a) and 26 species (1631 individuals) in experiment 2  
12 (Appendix S1b).

13 In experiment 1, scarification had a positive effect on the distribution of invertebrate  
14 feeders and skylarks (Table 1). A total of 1371 invertebrate feeders and 339 skylarks were  
15 recorded on scarified plots whilst only 251 and 288 individuals respectively were recorded on  
16 plots that did not receive a scarification treatment (Figure 1). In both cases the interaction  
17 between timing of visits and scarification was also significant, with more records occurring on  
18 scarified patches on early visits than on later visits (Table 1). The results of experiment 2  
19 supported the idea that the effect of scarification changed with time. Granivorous passerines,  
20 invertebrate feeders and corvids all preferred recently scarified plots to older scarified plots  
21 (Table 2, Figure 2, Appendix S1b). A total of 177 granivores, 491 invertebrate feeders and 135  
22 corvids were recorded on recently scarified plots whilst only 7, 183 and 40 individuals  
23 respectively were recorded on plots that were scarified 3-4 months ago (Figure 2).

24 Meadow pipits preferred non-scarified and also more recently scarified plots (Tables 1  
25 and 2). The interaction between topping and scarification was significant with meadow pipits  
26 preferring plots with the most vegetation (non-scarified tall) (Table 1, Figure 1).

1           In experiment 1, both granivorous passerines and invertebrate feeders tended to make  
2 greater use of shorter stubble patches that had been topped (Table 1). In contrast, skylarks,  
3 partridges, pigeons and meadow pipits all preferred longer stubble in control patches (Table 1), as  
4 did corvids in experiment 2 (Table 2). The interaction between scarification and topping was  
5 strongly significant for partridges. Whilst both longer stubble treatments were used by partridges  
6 to a similar extent, most of the variation that contributed to this significant interaction came from  
7 the greater use of short stubble that had been scarified.

8

### 9 **How does scarification affect vegetation structure?**

10           In experiment 1, stubble height was significantly reduced by both topping ( $F_{1,40} = 259.8$ ,  
11  $P < 0.001$ ) and scarification ( $F_{1,40} = 24.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (statistics derived from a GLM: natural log  
12 stubble height = scarification + topping + field). The height of vegetation other than stubble  
13 (grass, weed spp. etc.) was also affected by both scarification ( $F_{1,40} = 19.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and topping  
14 ( $F_{1,40} = 20.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (statistics derived from a GLM: natural log vegetation height =  
15 scarification + topping + field). The amount of exposed bare earth was strongly influenced by  
16 scarification ( $F_{1,40} = 103.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) but was not affected by topping ( $F_{1,40} = 0.15$ ,  $P = 0.70$ )  
17 (statistics derived from a GLM: arcsine percentage bare earth = scarification + topping + field).  
18 Summary information for the effects of scarification and topping on the different measures of  
19 vegetation structure is presented in Appendix S2. Overall, stubble stalks on plots which were  
20 scarified were reduced in height by an average of 24% compared with stubble heights on plots  
21 which had not been scarified (mean height of scarified short stubble =  $4.8 \pm 2.7$ cm; mean height  
22 of non-scarified short stubble =  $6.3 \pm 3.4$  cm; mean height of scarified long stubble =  $12.5 \pm 9.4$   
23 cm; mean height of non-scarified long stubble =  $16.8 \pm 5.5$  cm). Other vegetation was affected in  
24 a similar way. The sward was broken up by scarification so that there was more than double the  
25 amount of exposed bare earth on scarified plots compared with plots that remained unscarified  
26 (mean % bare earth scarified short stubble =  $69.7 \pm 2.8$ ; mean % bare earth non-scarified short

1 stubble =  $24.8 \pm 3.8$ ; mean % bare earth scarified long stubble =  $62.6 \pm 3.3$ ; mean % bare earth  
2 non-scarified long stubble =  $36.4 \pm 4.9$ .

3

#### 4 **How does scarification affect seed availability for birds?**

5 Seed density (number of seeds per kg of soil) taken from soil samples from the top few  
6 millimetres of earth, on average 24 days post-scarification, was not significantly influenced by  
7 either scarification ( $F_{1,46} = 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.96$ ) or by topping ( $F_{1,46} = 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.98$ ) (statistics derived  
8 from a GLM: natural log seeds per kilogram = scarification + topping + field). Seed densities  
9 tended to be lower on scarified plots, but there was a large amount of variation in the data (see  
10 Appendix S2).

11 In order to determine whether any differences in bird distribution in experiment 2 (see  
12 below) were due to seed availability changes caused by scarification, we measured seed densities  
13 in NEW and OLD SCARIFIED plots but found no significant differences ( $F_{1,13} = 1.14$ ,  $P = 0.30$ ;  
14 see also Appendix S2) (statistics derived from GLM: natural log seeds per kilogram =  
15 scarification + topping + field).

16 It is possible that the result in experiment 1 was a product of differences in seed depletion  
17 between plots because they were not sampled until, on average, 24 days after scarification. To  
18 investigate this we carried out another GLM (natural log seeds per kilogram = scarification +  
19 topping + field + time between scarification and soil sampling) and found that seed density was  
20 again not influenced by either scarification ( $F_{1,45} = 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.98$ ) or topping ( $F_{1,45} = 0.01$ ,  $P =$   
21  $0.97$ ).

22

#### 23 **Discussion**

24 This study has shown that both vegetation height manipulation (topping) and scarification  
25 can bring about differential spatial and temporal use of stubble fields by a range of farmland bird

1 groups. In general the effects of stubble height manipulation were stronger and affected more  
2 species than scarification (strength of effects in Table 1 all greater for topping than scarification)  
3 suggesting that scarification should not be used as a single solution to alter vegetation height and  
4 food accessibility, but should be used in combination with topping to provide optimal conditions  
5 for farmland birds. Our study also found that the benefits of scarification for farmland birds were  
6 most marked within a few days of treatment.

7

### 8 **Effects of scarification on bird distribution**

9         We found evidence that invertebrate feeders (e.g. thrushes, starlings *Sturnus vulgaris* L.)  
10 and corvids (e.g. rooks *Corvus frugilegus* L.) made more use of scarified plots than control plots  
11 (Figure 1). This is possibly because they can exploit invertebrates (e.g. earthworms,  
12 leatherjackets) in freshly disturbed soil. We also found that these groups tended to exploit  
13 scarified plots to a greater degree soon after treatment had occurred rather than after a few weeks  
14 ('Timing of visit \* scarification' in Table 1; 'Date of scarification' in Table 2). Perhaps some  
15 invertebrates are killed and exposed by cultivation or are more easily accessible in disturbed soil  
16 (Jordan *et al.* 1997; Gillings 2003).

17         Skylarks and granivorous passerines also showed positive responses to scarification, but  
18 the underlying reasons are less obvious. Seed sampling on plots in both experiments showed no  
19 significant effects of scarification on seed density. However, it is possible that scarification may  
20 have brought seeds to the surface that would otherwise have remained buried and thus although  
21 seed density *per se* (in the top part of the soil) was unaffected, seeds may have become more  
22 accessible for granivorous bird species, at least temporarily.

23         Meadow pipits prefer to forage by picking surface-dwelling invertebrates from ground  
24 vegetation, they often crouch when predators approach and within our study they made little use  
25 of hedges (Perrins 1988). This may explain why meadow pipits preferred the non-scarified plots  
26 because they contained the most vegetative cover (see results and Appendix 2). Perhaps meadow

1 pipits also preferred non-scarified plots to a greater degree initially (i.e. interaction between  
2 'timing of visit' and 'scarification' in Tables 1 and 2) because as plant cover increased on  
3 scarified plots with time they became more attractive. Partridges were found to have a strong  
4 preference for long stubble by Butler *et al.* (2005b) and in this study. We suspect they were able  
5 to make greater use of short-scarified plots than short unscarified plots because scarification  
6 created small-scale ridges and furrows in the earth, the heterogeneity of which might have  
7 increased cover for partridges.

8

### 9 **Effect of stubble height manipulation on bird distribution**

10 We found that topping had similar effects to those reported by Butler *et al.* (2005b). In  
11 experiment 1, both granivorous passerines and invertebrate feeders made greater use of shorter  
12 stubble patches than longer stubble, whereas skylarks, partridges, pigeons and meadow pipits all  
13 showed the opposite pattern. It is unlikely that seed abundance or invertebrate abundance  
14 differed between plots that received the topping treatment and those that did not, because the  
15 treatment was applied at random. The most likely explanation for the difference in use of the  
16 short and long stubble patches is due to perceived predation risk. The granivorous passerines and  
17 invertebrate feeders recorded in this study are likely to rely on early detection of predators to  
18 retreat to protective cover (Lima & Dill 1990; Whittingham & Evans 2004), often feeding near  
19 field edges and using surrounding hedgerows and trees as refuges (Robinson & Sutherland 1999).  
20 The level of visual obstruction offered by the vegetation within a foraging patch is therefore  
21 likely to have a far greater influence on their perception of predation risk than the degree of  
22 protection it offers. Whittingham *et al.* (2004) showed that, at equal food densities, chaffinches  
23 foraging in a short (3 cm) artificial stubble responded to attack by a model predator  
24 approximately 24% faster than those foraging in a long (13 cm) artificial stubble. This was  
25 despite spending 13% more time with their heads raised (i.e. being more vigilant) in the long  
26 stubble, which resulted in a 13% decrease in intake rate. Further aviary experiments varied the



1 food abundance on the two patches and gave chaffinches the choice of foraging in either the short  
2 or long stubble (Butler *et al.* 2005a). There needed to be approximately 2.5 times more food in  
3 the long stubble before the increase in potential energetic gain outweighed the increase in  
4 predation risk and chaffinches showed parity of use between the short and long stubble patches.  
5 In addition, two studies of starlings feeding on invertebrates in grass showed they spent more  
6 time being vigilant, reduced their feeding rate and were slower to respond to a model hawk in  
7 long vegetation (13cm) than in short vegetation (Devereux *et al.* 2004; Devereux *et al.* 2006).  
8 These results suggest that the preferential selection of short plots by granivorous passerines and  
9 invertebrate feeders in this study occurred because they are likely to have associated short plots  
10 with both a lower predation risk and greater potential energetic gain.

11 Partridges, skylarks and meadow pipits adopt different predator avoidance strategies to  
12 granivorous passerines and invertebrate feeders. Instead of retreating to cover, partridges often  
13 remain still and rely on crypsis to avoid predator detection (Madge & McGowan 2002). The usual  
14 raptor avoidance behaviour of skylark and meadow pipits is also to crouch, often not breaking  
15 cover until the last minute (Cramp 1985). Whilst the shorter stubble may have provided less  
16 visual obstruction and allowed earlier predator detection, it is likely to have offered less  
17 protection to partridges, skylarks and meadow pipits once a predator had been detected. The  
18 greater abundance of partridges, skylarks and meadow pipits on long stubble suggests they  
19 associated lower predation risk with these plots.

20 Both corvids and pigeons may have shown a preference for longer stubble because it  
21 provides cover from predators (Whittingham & Evans 2004). Neither of these groups showed any  
22 preference in the study by Butler *et al.* (2005b) but, by chance, the length of the stubble was  
23 slightly longer in this study.

24 It is also possible that predator behaviour may have been influenced by stubble height.  
25 Sparrowhawks *Accipiter nisus* L. are the main predators of adult farmland birds (Götmark & Post  
26 1996). Sparrowhawks hunt more successfully when they can launch attacks closer to their prey

1 (Quinn & Cresswell 2004), which is likely to be affected by vegetation structure, and studies of  
2 kestrels *Falco punctatus* L. have shown that foraging activity and hunting success are higher over  
3 less densely vegetated habitats (Shrubb 1980). The effect of stubble height manipulation on  
4 hunting behaviour by farmland bird predators, both avian and mammalian, needs further  
5 investigation of its influences on actual predation risk for farmland birds.

6         Although there is evidence for the effects of various forms of non-inversion tillage on  
7 various taxa (Cunningham *et al.* 2004; Holland 2004), it is not known exactly how the two  
8 treatments reported here would affect other taxa, such as insects, small mammals and weed  
9 populations, which play an important role in stubble field dynamics. Future work should examine  
10 how these various factors interrelate and also whether these manipulations have consequences for  
11 soil erosion risk on stubble fields, and consequently for particulate and nutrient loading of water  
12 draining from these fields.

13

#### 14 **Can scarification be used to vary stubble field heterogeneity?**

15         Scarification altered vegetation height (see results and Appendix S2). However, it did not  
16 reduce sward height to the same extent as topping and, in general, the effects of stubble height  
17 manipulation were stronger and affected more species than scarification (strength of effects in  
18 Table 1 all greater for topping than scarification). If scarification destroyed the stubble structure  
19 created by topping this would not be the case, as birds would not demonstrate the clear  
20 differences between topped, or untopped, patches that had received scarification and those plots  
21 that did not (see Fig 1). Our study provides clear evidence that both topping and scarification  
22 have separate effects.

23

#### 24 **Conservation recommendations**

25         We have shown that scarification and stubble height manipulation can influence foraging  
26 site selection by a range of farmland bird species, many of which are of current conservation

1 concern. Our work adds to that of Butler *et al.* (2005b) by showing that changes to vegetation  
2 height are likely to have a greater effect on bird distribution than light cultivation. The effects of  
3 scarification are short-lived; for invertebrate feeders and granivorous bird species, newly scarified  
4 patches were used more than patches scarified 2-3 months ago. Invertebrate feeding species also  
5 showed a very rapid drop off in use of scarified patches after just a few days. It is possible that  
6 stubble height manipulation at the beginning of the winter could be combined with successive  
7 strip scarification treatments to benefit farmland birds throughout the winter. Our results could  
8 potentially be applied to other tilled crops, such as oil seed rape, and also to grass fields, so long  
9 as food items are sufficiently abundant. Grass height can be managed via mowing or grazing to  
10 create within-field structural heterogeneity. Livestock use of fields creates areas of disturbed bare  
11 earth (poaching) which may enhance food accessibility for insectivorous birds species, although  
12 further work is needed to confirm this.

13         Incorporating targeted management options into agri-environment schemes such as the  
14 English Government's new Environmental Stewardship Scheme may represent a cost-effective  
15 means to achieve these two treatments. In this experiment, farmers were paid £5-22 per hectare  
16 for topping and £20-22 per hectare for scarification: although payments for strip scarification are  
17 likely to be more costly. The results we report here apply to the soil types of our study farms  
18 which were mainly clay; we recommend repeating these treatments on lighter soil types, where  
19 scarification may have different effects on food accessibility for birds.

20

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3

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11

1 **Table 1.** Results of logistic regression analyses for seven functional groups of birds surveyed on  
2 sixteen stubble fields at nine lowland farms in central England (experiment 1). Probability values  
3 are presented for the effects of field, timing of visit (first three or subsequent visits), topping  
4 (either tall or short) and scarification on within-field distribution of birds. Significant effects of  
5 topping and scarification are shown in bold with the direction of association (scar = more on  
6 scarified plots; Non = more on plots that were not scarified; C = more on tall plots; T = more on  
7 short plots; E = more on early visits) between predictor variable and frequency of occurrence.  
8 Timing of visit was nested within field and plot (i.e. 16 fields, 4 plots per field). Note: almost  
9 identical results were obtained for ‘topping’, ‘scarified’, ‘field’ and the interaction between  
10 ‘topping’ and ‘scarified’ from a model excluding ‘timing of visit’ and the interaction between  
11 ‘timing of visit’ and ‘scarification’.  
12

	Model goodness-of-fit (res. dev./res. d.f.)*	Field	Timing of visit	Topping	Scarified	Topping * Scarified	Timing of visit * Scarified
Granivorous passerines	1.07	<0.001	>0.25	<b>&lt;0.01 (T)</b>	>0.50	>0.75	>0.25
Invertebrate feeders	0.68	<0.001	0.07 (E)	<b>&lt;0.05 (T)</b>	<b>0.05 (Scar)**</b>	>0.10	<b>&lt;0.05</b>
Skylarks	1.25	<0.001	>0.10	<b>&lt;0.001 (C)</b>	<b>&lt;0.05 (Scar)</b>	>0.10	<b>&lt;0.05</b>
Corvids	0.99	<0.001	>0.50	>0.50	>0.10	>0.25	0.08
Partridges	0.53	<0.001	>0.75	<b>&lt;0.001 (C)</b>	>0.25	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	>0.10
Pigeons	0.44	0.005	>0.50	<b>&lt;0.05 (C)</b>	>0.50	>0.25	>0.10
Meadow Pipit	0.80	<0.001	>0.75	<b>&lt;0.001 (C)</b>	<b>&lt;0.05 (Non)</b>	<b>&lt;0.05</b>	<b>&lt;0.05</b>

13 \*Res. Dev., residual deviance; res. d.f., residual degrees of freedom; \*\* Note that probability value for effect of  
14 scarification on invertebrate feeders was 0.054.

15

16

17

1 **Table 2.** Results of logistic regression analyses for seven functional groups of birds surveyed on  
2 five stubble fields in March at four lowland farms in central England (experiment 2). Probability  
3 values are presented for the effects of field, date of scarification (either NEW – all surveys within  
4 13 days of scarification or OLD – surveys 2-3 months after scarification), timing of visit (either  
5 Early, first four visits, or Late - subsequent three visits) and topping (either tall or short) on  
6 within-field distribution of birds. Significant effects of topping and scarification are shown in  
7 bold with the direction of association (new = more on new scarified plots; C = more on control  
8 plots) between predictor variable and abundance. Timing of visit was nested within field and plot  
9 (i.e. 5 fields, 4 plots per field). Note: almost identical results were obtained for ‘topping’, ‘date of  
10 scarification’ and ‘field’ from a model excluding ‘timing of visit’ and the interaction between  
11 ‘date of scarification’ and ‘timing of visit’.

12

	Model goodness-of-fit (res. dev./res. d.f.)*	Field	Date of Scarification	Topping	Timing of visit	Date of Scarification * timing of visit
Granivorous passerines	1.19	<0.05	<b>&lt;0.01 (new)</b>	>0.50	>0.50	>0.50
Invertebrate feeders	0.69	<0.001	<b>&lt;0.05 (new)</b>	>0.75	<b>&lt;0.01 (E)</b>	>0.10
Skylarks	1.64	<0.001	>0.10	>0.50	>0.25	>0.10
Corvids	1.31	<0.001	<b>&lt;0.01 (new)</b>	<b>&lt;0.05 (C)</b>	0.07	>0.50
Partridges	0.76	<0.001	>0.25	0.09	>0.75	0.07
Pigeons	0.48	>0.10	>0.50	>0.50	>0.25	>0.10
Meadow Pipit	0.66	<0.001	>0.50	>0.25	>0.75	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

13

14

1 **Fig. 1.** The number of visits on which each of the seven functional groups of birds were recorded  
2 on the four plots (experiment 1): scarified tall (dotted bars); scarified short (vertical stripes); non-  
3 scarified tall (open bars); non-scarified short (horizontal stripes). A total of 94 visits were made:  
4 fourteen fields were surveyed six times and two fields on five occasions. A '+' indicates a  
5 significant effect of topping (which alters stubble height) and '#' indicates a significant effect of  
6 scarification on within-field distribution (+ or # =  $P < 0.05$ , ++ or ## =  $P < 0.01$ , +++ or ### =  $P$   
7 < 0.001). The total number of individuals seen on each treatment is given above each bar (e.g. a  
8 total of 203 skylarks was recorded on the scarified tall plots).

9

10 **Fig. 2.** The number of visits on which each of the seven functional groups of birds was recorded  
11 on each of the four plots (experiment 2): NEW tall (dotted bars); NEW short (vertical stripes);  
12 OLD tall (open bars); and OLD short (horizontal stripes). NEW plots had recently been scarified  
13 whereas OLD plots were scarified 3-4 months ago. A total of 35 visits were made; five fields  
14 were each surveyed seven times. A '+' indicates a significant effect of topping (which alters  
15 stubble height) and '\*' indicates a significant effect of scarification age on with-field distribution  
16 of birds (+ or \* =  $P < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $P < 0.01$ ). The total number of individuals seen on each  
17 treatment is given above each bar (e.g. a total of 71 skylarks were recorded on the NEW tall  
18 plots).

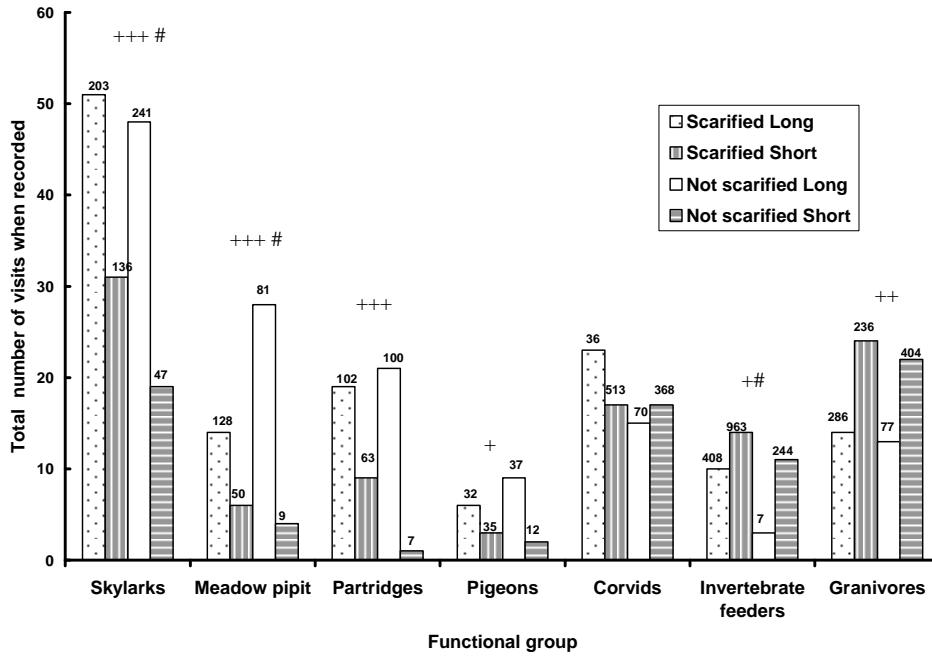
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1 Fig 1.

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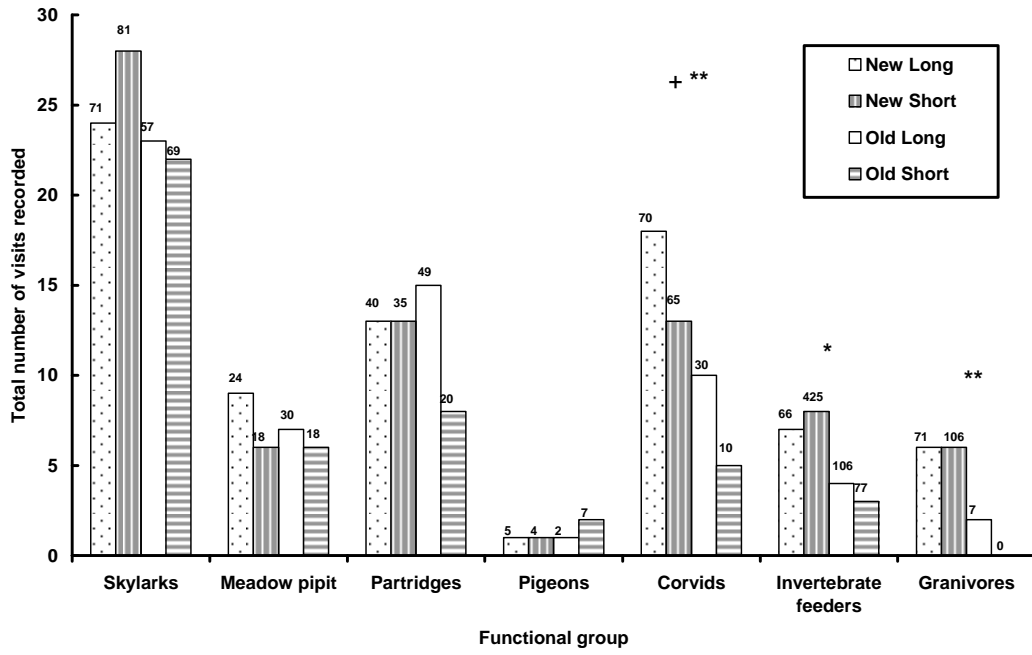
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1 Fig 2.

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