

1 **Grazing improves habitat suitability for many ground foraging birds in Mediterranean**
2 **wooded grasslands**

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21 **Abstract**

22 Wooded grasslands, usually grazed, cover vast areas in Southern Europe and Northern Africa.
23 They host rich resident bird communities and, in winter, receive large numbers of migrants from Central
24 and Northern European woodlands. Many species are partly or entirely dependent on ground foraging,
25 and since in winter food is often the most limiting factor for birds, maintaining suitable ground habitat is
26 crucial.

27 To study how grazing influences suitability of winter ground habitat for birds, we carried out an
28 experiment in a wooded grassland in Southern Iberia, whereby grazing was controlled in 12 purposely
29 fenced two-hectare plots (4 x 15 sheep/ha, 4 x 3 sheep/ha and 4 x no grazing). We quantified ground
30 habitat features, food abundance and intensity of use by ground-foraging birds in each of these 12 plots.
31 In addition, we made focal observations of birds feeding on the ground and compared the habitat of
32 1m² foraging patches with those of nearby control patches.

33 We found that virtually all birds prefer to forage in patches with short ground vegetation and
34 high food abundance. Measurements of these parameters in the experimental plots showed that while
35 grazing shortens vegetation it decreases food availability, and thus has opposing effects on important
36 determinants of habitat suitability. Nevertheless, the numbers of birds foraging in the plots indicate
37 that, overall, grazing benefits the assemblage of ground-feeding birds, presumably because for most
38 species the advantages of foraging in less cluttered habitats more than compensate the lower
39 abundance of prey. However, arboreal bird species that make short foraging forays to the ground had
40 lower numbers in grazed plots.

41 Most bird species that forage on the ground benefited from grazing, and although they can
42 forage under a broad range of grazing levels, some showed clear preferences along the gradient of
43 grazing intensity. Such preferences should be taken into consideration by managers. In general, grazing

44 should be maintained at a level sufficient to open up ground vegetation, increasing the area occupied by
45 patches of short vegetation, in which almost all bird species prefer to forage. At moderate levels, grazing
46 is thus a valuable management tool to promote winter bird habitat quality in Mediterranean wooded
47 grasslands, while increasing the economic value of these threatened landscapes.

48

49 **Highlights**

- 50 • Birds select to feed in ground patches with short vegetation and abundant prey
- 51 • Grazing improved foraging habitat, but decreased prey abundance
- 52 • Most species benefited from grazing, but a few were negatively affected by heavy grazing
- 53 • Grazing should be kept at levels sufficient to shorten and open up ground vegetation
- 54 • Moderate grazing results in best overall habitat for wintering ground-foraging birds

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56 **Keywords**

57 Wooded pastures; Grazing impact; Ground-foraging birds; Landscape management; Conservation;
58 Agroecosystems

59

60 **1. Introduction**

61 Wooded grasslands, characterized by a usually well-developed herb layer associated with tree
62 cover of variable composition and density, cover vast areas in the Western Palearctic and often host a
63 rich biodiversity (Plieninger *et al.*, 2015; Centeri *et al.*, 2016). Grazing may have been of great
64 importance shaping Palearctic ecosystems (e.g. Bradshaw *et al.*, 2003; Dengler *et al.*, 2014), which were

65 once populated by a rich fauna of wild large herbivores, such as bison, aurochs, wild horses, mammoths
66 and rhinoceros (Blondel *et al.*, 2010). Humans drove most of them to extinction and vegetation
67 structure is now greatly driven by human activities (Barnosky *et al.*, 2004; Blondel *et al.*, 2010). In these
68 new anthropogenic ecosystems, domestic grazers play some of the roles of the original herbivores
69 (Vera, 2000), particularly at the level of the ground vegetation. Wooded grasslands often host rich bird
70 assemblages that include many ground-foraging species. Such species that once relied on wild
71 herbivores to maintain areas with ground cover suitable for foraging may now be mostly dependent on
72 grazing by domestic ungulates, however, the impacts of this activity on birds and other wildlife are
73 highly variable and still poorly understood (Schieltz and Rubenstein, 2016).

74 From Iberia to the Balkans, Southern Europe hosts important areas of different types of wooded
75 grasslands (Plieninger *et al.*, 2015; Centeri *et al.*, 2016), some of which are also present in the North
76 African Maghreb. They all harbor rich resident bird assemblages (e.g. Hartel *et al.*, 2014; Correia *et al.*,
77 2015; Catarino *et al.*, 2016) and, during the winter, receive a large proportion of the populations of
78 migratory bird species nesting in central and northern Europe (e.g. Díaz *et al.*, 1997; Tellería, 2001; Leal
79 *et al.*, 2011; Arizaga *et al.*, 2012). Food availability tends to be particularly low during winter, when food
80 acquisition is often the most important constraint for birds (Hutto, 1985). Since many species wintering
81 in the grazed wooded grasslands of southern Europe are partially dependent on food collected on the
82 ground (e.g. Cramp and Perrins, 2006), it is critical to manage grazing pressure to maintain suitable
83 ground foraging habitats. In the absence of grazing or artificial maintenance, their usually well-
84 developed herb layer can be progressively replaced by scrub vegetation. In the western Mediterranean,
85 both in Europe and Northern Africa, the most extensive of these wooded grasslands have a tree cover
86 dominated by cork and holm oaks. In Portugal and Spain, these wooded grasslands, which are often also
87 used for low-intensity agriculture, are considered as an agro-silvo-pastoral system known as *Montado* or
88 *Dehesa*, respectively, and are recognized by their high economic value and rich biodiversity (e.g. Pinto-

89 Correia *et al.*, 2011; Leal *et al.*, 2016; Moreno *et al.*, 2016). This resulted in their classification as High
90 Nature Value Farmlands (HNVF) (Hoogeveen *et al.*, 2004) and inclusion in the Annex I of the European
91 Union (EU) Habitats Directive (92/43/CEE). Traditionally, these wooded grasslands have been mainly
92 grazed by sheep (Moreno and Pulido, 2009; López-Sánchez *et al.*, 2016), but management practices are
93 changing rapidly in response to ecological and economic pressures. For example, EU policies of financial
94 incentives have led to an increase in stocking rates and a progressive replacement of sheep by cattle
95 (Moreno and Pulido, 2009; Bugalho *et al.*, 2011).

96 Not only does grazing decrease vegetation height (Vickery *et al.*, 2001), but it can also influence
97 spatial heterogeneity and plant species composition (Putman *et al.*, 1991; Adler *et al.*, 2001; Bugalho *et*
98 *al.*, 2011). These can, in turn, influence nutrient distribution (Haynes and Williams, 1993; Dahlgren *et al.*,
99 1997; Peco *et al.*, 2017) and invertebrate abundance (e.g. Gibson *et al.*, 1992; Vickery *et al.*, 2001; Batáry
100 *et al.*, 2007; Dennis *et al.*, 2008). However, access to prey can be just as important for birds as prey
101 abundance (Buckingham and Peach, 2005), and grazing may also influence this parameter through its
102 effect on vegetation height and density (Fuller and Gough, 1999). This is very important for ground-
103 foraging birds because they may struggle to find and capture food in dense ground cover or even avoid
104 it altogether to minimize predation risk (Buckingham and Peach, 2005).

105 Since many of the birds wintering in Southern European wooded grasslands feed on the ground,
106 and ground cover depends on grazing, it is important to evaluate how grazing should be managed to
107 maintain adequate foraging conditions for birds. However, information to guide management is very
108 scarce and is mostly based on studies done in temperate grasslands of central and northern Europe (e.g.
109 Buckingham and Peach, 2005; Buckingham *et al.*, 2006; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Hartel *et al.*, 2014) where
110 conditions are potentially very different from those prevailing in their southern wooded counterparts.
111 Moreover, even in those better studied regions virtually all existing information has been obtained

112 during the nesting season and there is little information for the winter (e.g. Perkins *et al.*, 2000; Moreira
113 *et al.*, 2005).

114 Birds choose feeding sites at different spatial scales. First at the landscape level, which results in
115 the choice of a particular foraging habitat and then at the microhabitat level, selecting the exact location
116 of feeding patches (Hutto, 1985). For ground-foraging birds in grasslands, the availability of high-quality
117 ground feeding patches is critical. The overall objective of this study was to investigate how grazing
118 affects wintering bird species feeding on the ground in Mediterranean wooded grasslands, thus
119 contributing to the knowledge required for a science-based management of these valuable ecosystems.
120 We predicted that (i) feeding patch preferences would vary among bird species, (ii) grazing would affect
121 ground-level habitat structure and prey availability, (iii) and that, as a consequence, grazing would
122 influence the abundance of birds feeding on the ground. We discuss the implications of our findings for
123 the management of Mediterranean wooded grasslands.

124

125 **2. Methods**

126 *2.1 Study area and experimental design*

127 This study was carried out in Portugal, in “*Herdade do Freixo do Meio*” (38° 42’12’’N, -8° 19’29’’
128 W). This is a large organic farm that covers 650 ha and is dominated by cork and holm oak (*Quercus*
129 *suber* and *Q. rotundifolia*) woodlands and small olive groves. The ground cover is mostly composed of
130 grasses and forbs, and grazed by cattle, sheep, goats and pigs. We collected data on bird use and habitat
131 variables at two scales: a plot-scale involving measurements in large (2 ha) experimental plots, and a
132 patch-scale based on measurements made in 1m² patches and nearby controls, within the same
133 experimental plots.

134 We manipulated grazing intensity in 12 experimental plots separated by electric fences, in a
135 mixed cork and holm oak woodland. The plots were roughly homogeneous in terms of soil type and
136 ground cover and avoided the proximity of water courses; tree density varied somewhat across the
137 study area, but we made an effort to balance the representation of the different tree densities in the
138 three grazing levels (Figure 1). In this system, a grazing pressure of three sheep per hectare is generally
139 considered sustainable (Olea and San Miguel-Ayanz, 2006). Therefore, four plots were continuously
140 grazed by six sheep (Light Grazing), four plots were grazed by 30 sheep (Heavy Grazing) and four plots
141 were left without sheep (Not Grazed). According to local farmers these density treatments are
142 representative of sheep densities in the study region. The sheep were placed in the plots in December
143 2010 and remained there until data collection was completed at the end of February 2012, except
144 around the shearing period. Water was made available in all plots throughout the study. During the peak
145 of the long and dry summer bales of straw were provided. Prior to the establishment of the
146 experimental plots the entire study area was used for sheep grazing.

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148 *2.2. Choice of ground foraging sites at the patch-scale*

149 To locate foraging patches, the area within each experimental plot was scanned for birds on the
150 ground during January and February 2012. We did this by walking during the morning along a zig-zag
151 route within each plot, avoiding its edges. Search effort was equal across the three treatment levels, and
152 proximity between plots guaranteed that they were equally available to all birds in the study area. When
153 a bird was detected foraging, we characterized the patch by measuring several habitat variables, as
154 described in Table 1, within a 1m² quadrat centered on the location of the bird. The abundance of
155 invertebrates in these foraging patches was estimated using quadrat counts (Samways *et al.*, 2010). A
156 square frame delimiting an area of 0.5 m² was placed on the ground minimizing disturbance and

157 trampling by the observer. We then searched the quadrat for surface or sward active invertebrates
158 during a standardized period of one minute. Invertebrates were identified to order level. All these
159 variables were also quantified within two 1m² control patches, located 5 m to the north and south of
160 each foraging patch. In the case of flocks, the first bird observed was chosen for the characterization of
161 foraging patches. Invertebrate abundance was not used to model chaffinch (*Fringilla coelebs*) habitat
162 selection, because in the winter it mainly eats seeds (Cramp and Perrins, 2006).

163 To determine the set of microhabitat variables that influenced the choice of ground foraging
164 patch by each bird species within its activity area, we used conditional paired logistic regression (Clogit
165 model). We paired each foraging patch with the two corresponding controls. This paired technique is
166 suitable to model choices that individual birds are making at the microhabitat scale (Compton *et al.*,
167 2002). Variables with Spearman correlation values > 0.7 were excluded from the modelling procedure,
168 retaining the variable with potentially greater biological relevance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996; Hosmer
169 and Lemeshow, 2000). Further preliminary reduction of predictor variables was performed with
170 univariate modelling, eliminating those variables with $p > 0.25$. Finally, a model was constructed for each
171 species using a backward stepwise method, retaining the models with the lowest AIC (*Akaike*
172 *Information Criterion*). Model fit was evaluated using the area under the ROC curves (AUC, *Area under*
173 *the Receiver Operating Characteristics curve*) (Pearce and Ferrier, 2000).

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179 Table 1. Variables and methods used for the characterization of bird foraging patches and experimental
 180 plots.

| Variable | Methodology | Range | Patch/Plot |
|--------------------------|--|---------|------------|
| Distance to tree | Distance of center of patch to the nearest tree (m) | 0 - 17 | Patch |
| Dung | Count of the number of dung pellets within a 1m ² quadrat | 0 - 109 | Patch/Plot |
| Leaf litter | Point interception method using a meter long 11-pin frame placed along the two diagonals of each quadrat (Bråthen and Hagberg, 2004) (%) | 0 - 100 | Patch/Plot |
| Bare ground | Point interception method using a meter long 11-pin frame placed along the two diagonals of each quadrat (Bråthen and Hagberg, 2004) (%) | 0 - 100 | Patch/Plot |
| Overturnd soil | Visual estimation of the percentage of soil that was disturbed by wild boars or domestic pigs when searching for food in a 1m ² quadrat | 0 - 100 | Patch/Plot |
| Ground vegetation | Median herb layer height (cm) measured with a vertical ruler within a 1m ² quadrat, excluding emergent swards | 0 - 24 | Patch/Plot |

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182 2.3 Effect of grazing on the structure of ground habitat and prey availability

183 To characterize the influence of grazing on the structure of ground habitat, we used 30 1m²
 184 quadrats, placed five meters apart along a diagonal of each of the 12 plots. In each quadrat, we
 185 measured several habitat variables as described in Table 1.

186 To evaluate the effects of grazing on prey availability, we sampled epigeal invertebrates using
 187 pitfall traps (Ø 9.5 cm, filled with water, biodegradable detergent and salt) (Topping and Sunderland,
 188 1992; Samways *et al.*, 2010). Each plot was sampled at three sites with five traps each. Traps were set
 189 forming a one square meter quadrat with one trap at the center, and placed in flat terrain, avoiding tree
 190 canopies. Traps were left open for two weeks, and the arthropods collected were preserved in 70%
 191 alcohol with glycerin. Specimens with a body length greater than 2 mm were identified to order level.

192 We only included in the analyses taxa known to be regularly consumed by farmland birds across Europe
193 (Cramp and Perrins, 2006; Holland *et al.*, 2006). All data on habitat structure and prey availability were
194 collected during January and February 2012, 13 to 14 months after the sheep were placed in the
195 experimental plots.

196 The effect of grazing on habitat variables and prey availability was tested with generalized linear
197 models (GLM). Each of the three grazing levels was represented in this test by four replicates (plots).
198 Variables expressed as percentages were logit transformed prior to analysis to approximate normality.
199 We assumed a Poisson error structure for the variables expressed as counts and a Gaussian error
200 structure for all the remaining variables.

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202 *2.4 Association between grazing and number of birds foraging on the ground at the plot-scale*

203 We estimated the use of each experimental plot by counting birds foraging on the ground along
204 a series of parallel line transects, separated by 25 m and avoiding the edge of the plot. The length and
205 number of individual parallel transects in each plot varied because of constraints imposed by the
206 different shapes of plots, but they always totaled 600 m. These counts were repeated 16 times in each
207 plot, between sunrise and 11:00, alternating sampling times across plots to minimize potential biases
208 due to time-of-day (Palmeirim and Rabaça, 1994). The transect was only 2x25m wide because birds
209 foraging on the ground can be difficult to spot in dense ground cover unless they flee from the observer
210 (Buckingham *et al.*, 2006). However, all birds detected within the transect were registered
211 independently of their distance to the observer. The objective of this sampling strategy was to obtain
212 indexes of relative abundance, rather than estimates of density. The association between grazing
213 intensity and the use by the most common ground-foraging bird species was assessed with GLMs, using
214 four replicated plots for each of the three grazing levels. We also used GLMs to test if the numbers of

215 birds were influenced by the average ground vegetation height and invertebrate abundance in the
216 sampled plots. Since the three tit species present in the study area have similar environmental and
217 feeding needs (Cramp 1998), for this analysis, we pooled their data to increase sample size.

218 Clogit modelling was carried out using package Survival (Therneau and Lumley, 2017), and the
219 remaining statistical computations in Deducer (Fellows, 2012) in the R environment (R Development
220 Core Team, 2015).

221

222 **3 Results**

223 *3.1 Determinants of choice of ground foraging sites at the patch-scale*

224 We obtained data on the structure of ground habitat and prey abundance from 270 foraging
225 patches of 17 bird species and 540 control patches. However, for this analysis, we only considered
226 species for which we had data from a minimum of 20 foraging patches: meadow pipit, robin, chaffinch,
227 white wagtail and chiffchaff (Table 2).

228 Results of the final Clogit models, assessing the importance of habitat variables and prey
229 availability on the choice of foraging habitat at the patch-scale, are shown in Table 2. Height of the
230 vegetation was the only factor that was present in virtually all final species' models, in all cases with a
231 negative coefficient. Number of invertebrates had a positive influence on all insectivorous species.
232 Distance to trees had a positive effect for the white wagtail, but a negative one for the chiffchaff.

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235 Table 2. Final Clogit models for bird species at the foraging patch-scale, including the Area Under the
 236 ROC curve (AUC), the coefficients of variables in the models and corresponding standard errors (SE) (*p
 237 < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001).

| | AUC | Coefficient | SE (Coef) | Z value | p- value | |
|---|------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|-----|
| Chaffinch <i>Fringilla coelebs</i> | | | | | | |
| Vegetation | 0.67 | -0.37 | 0.14 | -2.72 | 0.00 | ** |
| Chiffchaff <i>Phylloscopus collybita</i> | | | | | | |
| Distance to tree | 0.85 | -0.55 | 0.19 | -2.87 | 0.00 | ** |
| Invertebrates | | 0.65 | 0.36 | 1.79 | 0.07 | . |
| Vegetation | | -0.22 | 0.12 | -1.86 | 0.03 | * |
| Meadow pipit <i>Anthus pratensis</i> | | | | | | |
| Invertebrates | 0.66 | 1.08 | 0.43 | 2.54 | 0.01 | * |
| Robin <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> | | | | | | |
| Invertebrates | | 1.07 | 0.46 | 2.33 | 0.02 | * |
| Vegetation | 0.85 | -0.65 | 0.16 | -4.01 | 0.00 | *** |
| Overtured soil | | 0.06 | 0.04 | 1.75 | 0.08 | . |
| White-wagtail <i>Motacilla alba</i> | | | | | | |
| Distance to tree | | 0.43 | 0.15 | 2.79 | 0.01 | ** |
| Invertebrates | 0.87 | 1.02 | 0.46 | 2.21 | 0.03 | * |
| Vegetation | | -0.73 | 0.32 | -2.27 | 0.02 | * |
| Dung pellets | | 0.02 | 0.02 | 1.29 | 0.20 | |

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240 3.2 Effect of grazing on the structure of ground habitat and prey availability

241 GLMs revealed a significant influence of grazing on all measured ground habitat variables (p <
 242 0.05). Grazing increased the abundance of dung pellets, the proportion of bare ground and of ground
 243 mostly covered by leaf litter. However, it greatly decreased vegetation height (mean ground vegetation
 244 height in ungrazed plots was 8.4 cm and in the heavily grazed plots just 1.5 cm). Percentage of soil
 245 overturned by wild boars and domestic pigs was lower in grazed areas, presumably because the
 246 vegetation in ungrazed areas provided better cover for these animals (Figure 2). We captured 1371

247 invertebrates >2mm, of which 479 belonged to taxa known to be consumed by birds in European
248 farmland. Ungrazed control plots had more captures of invertebrates than grazed areas (Figure 2).

249 Since the Clogit models showed that ground vegetation height is the single most important factor
250 determining choice of feeding patches by birds (Table 2), we compared the vegetation heights in those
251 patches used by each species with the heights available in the three studied levels of grazing (Figure 3).
252 It is evident that, overall, grazing increases the availability of the vegetation height class most often used
253 by the focal species (from 1 to 4 cm, the 25 and 75 % quartiles of the use by all species, Figure 3). In the
254 ungrazed plots, 75 % of the vegetation is taller than that preferred by any of the species when foraging
255 on the ground. Under light grazing, this value is reduced to 53 % and is virtually 0 % in heavily grazed
256 areas.

257

258 *3.3 Association between grazing and number of birds foraging on the ground at the plot-scale*

259 A total of 1 113 birds of 21 species were observed in the control and treatment plots (335
260 individuals of 15 species in ungrazed plots, 382 individuals of 17 species in lightly grazed and 396
261 individuals of 18 species in heavily grazed plots (Appendix 1)). Only the eight species with more than 30
262 observations were used in analyses (Figure 4). For five of these species there was a statistically
263 significant association between grazing and the numbers of individuals feeding on the ground. White
264 wagtail, robin and chaffinch were more abundant in grazed plots, whereas blue tit and great tit were
265 more abundant in ungrazed areas. Goldfinch, chiffchaff and meadow pipit did not show a clear response
266 to grazing intensity.

267 Vegetation height and invertebrate abundance were particularly important predictors of habitat
268 selection by birds at the patch-scale, therefore we also evaluated the importance of these variables at
269 the plot-scale. Plots with low average vegetation height tended to be more used by chaffinch ($p=0.03$),

270 white wagtail ($p=0.004$) and robin (nearly significant, $p=0.07$), but less used by tits ($p=0.002$). Chaffinch
271 and robin used more frequently plots with low average invertebrate abundance ($p=0.03$ and $p=0.04$,
272 respectively).

273

274 **4 Discussion**

275 *4.1 At the patch-scale choice of foraging sites is mostly determined by vegetation height and arthropod* 276 *abundance*

277 The analysis of foraging-patch selection showed that, when foraging on the ground, all studied
278 bird species select areas with specific characteristics. These characteristics varied from species to
279 species but two were important for most of them: invertebrate abundance and vegetation height.
280 Patches with greater invertebrate abundance than controls were selected by all insectivorous species.
281 This is to be expected because food acquisition is a major constraint for wintering birds (Hutto, 1985).
282 Vegetation height is also of general importance and, with the exception of the Meadow pipit, all species
283 foraged in patches where the vegetation was shorter than the local average. This preference for patches
284 with short ground vegetation may be explained by an easier access to prey and reduced predation risk.
285 In fact, it has been shown that in patches with short vegetation both granivorous and insectivorous birds
286 locate food items more efficiently (Butler and Gillings, 2004) and the detection of approaching predators
287 tends to be easier (Devereux *et al.*, 2004; Whittingham and Evans, 2004). Moreover, if the perceived
288 predation risk is lower, birds can spend less time in surveillance and thus increase their intake rates (e.g.
289 Whittingham *et al.*, 2004; Whittingham and Evans, 2004). It has been experimentally demonstrated for
290 ground foraging birds that taller vegetation decreases patch profitability (Powolny *et al.*, 2015).

291

292 *4.2 Grazing influences the structure of ground habitat and prey availability*

293 Our analysis shows that the selection of ground foraging sites by birds in Mediterranean wooded
294 grasslands is greatly influenced by the characteristics of ground habitat. The comparison of ground
295 habitat structure across the three treatments shows that grazing has a major impact on some of those
296 characteristics, such as vegetation height and invertebrate abundance.

297 Our pitfall capture data show a significant, but relatively small, decrease of invertebrate
298 abundance with grazing. Other studies have reported declines of invertebrates with grazing (e.g. East
299 and Pottinger, 1983; Morris, 2000; van Klink *et al.*, 2015). However, it is important to note that the
300 decrease that we report is probably substantially underestimated because of known biases of pitfall
301 trapping (Greenslade, 1964). In fact, captures depend not only on the abundance of invertebrates, but
302 also on trappability (Melbourne, 1999) which is known to be greater in the shorter and sparser
303 vegetation of more intensely grazed areas (Greenslade, 1964; Melbourne, 1999). This bias may thus
304 inflate the apparent abundance of invertebrates in grazed areas. In contrast with the negative impact on
305 most invertebrates, grazing can facilitate the occurrence of coprophagous insects (Vickery *et al.*, 2001;
306 Jay-Robert *et al.*, 2008).

307 Finally, it is important to note that, although in general the impact of grazing on vegetation
308 features increased progressively along the three grazing intensities, the differences between ungrazed
309 and lightly grazed areas tended to be less accentuated than those between lightly grazed and heavily
310 grazed regimes. This suggests that the impact of light grazing on habitat is comparatively less
311 pronounced.

312

313 *4.3 Grazing is associated with the numbers of birds feeding on the ground*

314 The studied grasslands are typical of managed Mediterranean oak landscapes and have a fairly
315 high density of trees. Therefore, the majority of birds observed feeding on the ground are woodland
316 species, such as robin, chaffinch, chiffchaff and tits, which tend to spend much of their time on trees
317 (Ceia and Ramos, 2014; Pereira *et al.*, 2014). Nevertheless, at least during winter, many species obtain
318 much of their food on the ground (Cramp and Perrins, 2006), and we found that grazing was associated
319 with the number of birds feeding in this stratum. However, the strength and direction of this association
320 differed between species.

321 Three species showed a statistically significant positive association with grazing: chaffinch, robin
322 and white wagtail. These birds search for food (seeds or invertebrates) on the ground surface or swards
323 while walking or hopping on the ground. They may thus benefit from the opening up of the ground layer
324 by grazers that facilitates the mobility of birds and increases prey and seed visibility. Moreover, sparser
325 vegetation allows greater visibility for birds while on the ground, and thus decreases their investment in
326 vigilance against predators (e.g. Whittingham *et al.*, 2004). For this group of species, such advantages
327 more than compensate the lower abundance of food caused by grazing. Grazing may reduce not only
328 the abundance of invertebrates but also of seeds (Bertiller, 1996; Sternberg *et al.*, 2003), and this should
329 be relevant for the chaffinch and other seedeaters. However, we did not sample seed availability
330 because granivorous species were a small proportion of the birds feeding on the ground in the wooded
331 grasslands that we studied. The most extreme example in this group is the white wagtail, a ground bird
332 that searches for prey while walking and running (Cramp and Perrins, 2006), and thus benefits greatly
333 from the reduction of obstacles resulting from grazing. Studies conducted in other habitats have also
334 reported a positive influence of grazing on various ground-foraging birds, both through the shortening of
335 ground vegetation and the creation of areas of bare ground (e.g. Atkinson *et al.*, 2004; Buckingham *et*
336 *al.*, 2006; Schaub *et al.*, 2010).

337 Only two species were negatively associated with grazing, blue tit and great tit. They are both
338 predominantly arboreal gleaners that make forays to feed on the herb layer or soil (Cramp and Perrins,
339 2006). They made little use of heavily grazed areas, where prey tend to be scarcer. Finally, there are also
340 species that seem to be unaffected by grazing, such as goldfinch chiffchaff and meadow pipit. However,
341 this lack of a significant effect may also be due to the relatively small number of plot-scale replicates;
342 more replicates would presumably result in significant effects for a greater number of species.

343 The greater usage of plots with short average vegetation by most birds is in line with the
344 observed preference for foraging in patches with short vegetation. However, the results of the two
345 scales did not match in the case of invertebrate abundance, as some species were more abundant in
346 plots with fewer invertebrates. We suggest that this is explained by a dominant role of vegetation height
347 in the selection of foraging habitat; the higher number of birds in plots with low invertebrate abundance
348 is due to a preference to forage in plots with low average vegetation height, which tend to have fewer
349 invertebrates. However, it is worth noting that, within those plots, they chose patches with more
350 invertebrates.

351 Our results suggest that, during winter, Mediterranean wooded grasslands are important for
352 both resident and migratory bird species that forage on surface or sward-dwelling invertebrates, and
353 that they tend to benefit from grazing because it decreases ground clutter. The generalized use of these
354 grasslands by such species in winter contrasts with the situation in grasslands further north, mostly used
355 in this season by birds that feed on soil-dwelling invertebrates (Perkins *et al.*, 2000; Buckingham *et al.*,
356 2006).

357

358 4.4 Conclusions and management implications

359 In the studied Mediterranean wooded grasslands grazing has opposing impacts on two very
360 important determinants of the suitability for most birds foraging on the ground: it decreases vegetation
361 height and density, which is beneficial, but reduces the abundance of food. Differences in the way
362 species respond to this trade-off are likely to explain variations in the impact of grazing on birds. In line
363 with this hypothesis, our patch and plot level analyses indicate that, overall, grazing benefits the
364 assemblage of birds that feed on the ground, presumably because for most species the advantages of
365 foraging in less cluttered habitats more than compensate the lower abundance of prey. However,
366 arboreal bird species that make short foraging forays to the ground have lower numbers in grazed plots.
367 The response of birds to grazing is not homogeneous and is influenced by the foraging strategy of each
368 species.

369 Our results indicate that it is not possible to identify a single level of grazing that benefits all bird
370 species. However, we can suggest a number of management options that, with the necessary
371 adjustments to the specific area and type of livestock, may be useful for decision makers involved in
372 management.

373 (1) Most birds are flexible and able to forage in all levels of grazing, even though some have
374 clear preferences along the gradient of grazing intensity. However, there were comparatively few birds
375 foraging in ungrazed areas, and none of the species had a clear preference for them. Therefore, keeping
376 Mediterranean wooded grasslands ungrazed results in a loss of economic value of these ecosystems
377 without any significant conservation benefit, at least for birds that forage on the ground. In the long
378 term, eliminating grazing results in scrub encroachment which changes bird assemblages substantially,
379 as shown in previous studies (Rabaça, 1990; Nikolov *et al.*, 2011; Santana *et al.*, 2012; Listopad *et al.*,
380 2018).

381 (2) Moderate grazing by sheep and presumably other domestic ungulates, at a level considered
382 sustainable in the studied system (Olea and San Miguel-Ayanz, 2006), does not have negative impacts
383 on any of the focal species, and results in the best overall habitat for the assemblage of birds that forage
384 on the ground. Grazing should be maintained at a level sufficient to open up ground vegetation,
385 increasing the area occupied by patches of short vegetation, in which almost all bird species prefer to
386 forage. This is important during the winter, but it is likely to be even more important in the early spring,
387 when higher temperatures result in fast growth of the herb layer (Buckingham and Peach, 2005).

388 (3) Heavy grazing (15 sheep per ha) greatly increases the availability of vegetation heights
389 preferred by most birds, but it is probably only better than light grazing for insectivorous specialist
390 ground foragers, or for species that feed on coprophagous invertebrates. Moreover, grazing with a very
391 high impact on ground vegetation makes it unsuitable for foraging by some bird species, and is likely to
392 affect other components of the ecosystem, such as tree recruitment (Carmona *et al.*, 2013; López-
393 Sánchez *et al.*, 2016), so it should only be prescribed for specific situations.

394 In Mediterranean wooded grasslands most ground foraging birds benefit from grazing by
395 domestic ungulates, which partly replace the ecological functions once fulfilled by wild ungulates, many
396 of which are now extinct. It is thus evident that well-managed grazing is a potentially important tool to
397 maintain the high biodiversity value of these grasslands. For birds that forage on the ground in winter,
398 and considering that the preferences of species vary, our results support fostering mosaics of variable
399 grazing intensity. The optimal representation of grazing intensities in such mosaics depends on
400 conservation priorities, but when the target of conservation is the overall species assemblage then a
401 gradient of different levels of moderate grazing should be maintained. Birds are just one of the many
402 values to consider in the definition of grazing strategies, particularly in ecologically rich systems, such as
403 Mediterranean wooded grasslands. More research is needed to better understand the effects of grazing
404 at different times of the year and on other taxa (Schielitz and Rubenstein, 2016). Nevertheless, our

405 results are reassuring evidence that, at moderate levels, this economically important activity is
406 compatible with the preservation of bird biodiversity in wooded grasslands.

407

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413

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576

577

578 **Figure Captions**

579 Figure 1. Study area in “Herdade do Freixo do Meio” (38° 42’ 12’’N, -8° 19’ 29’’ W), Alentejo, Portugal.

580 Experimental plots with different grazing pressures are identified as Not grazed – NotG, Light grazing –

581 LightG, and Heavy grazing – HeavyG.

582

583 Figure 2. Characterization of the ground habitat and prey abundance. Bars are averages of the four

584 replicates of each grazing level; lines represent one SE. Significance level are indicated with . $p < 0.1$, * $p <$

585 0.05 , *** $p < 0.001$.

586

587 Figure 3. Boxplots showing vegetation height (cm) in the foraging patches for species with more than 20

588 focal observations (white), for all the species combined (black), and experimental plots with different

589 grazing pressure (grey tones). A few outliers are not visible because they exceed the upper limit of the

590 scale. The height of vegetation preferred by all the studied species is very scarce in the ungrazed

591 experimental plots.

592

593 Figure 4. Number of birds per transect (\pm SE) in plots with different grazing pressure (Not grazed, Light

594 grazing and Heavy grazing). Significant results are marked with * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

595

596