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4

5 **Will agri-environment schemes deliver substantial biodiversity gain and if not**  
6 **why not?**

7

8

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16 **Summary**

17

18 1. One of the main aims of agri-environment schemes (AESs) is to increase  
19 biodiversity on farmland. Common conservation practice is to identify areas  
20 containing valuable resources (e.g. habitats, ecosystems or species) and then to protect  
21 them – ‘protected area’ schemes. AESs differ from typical protected area schemes  
22 because they are often applied to small patches of land, such as field boundaries, and  
23 they are sometimes located in areas where the target species does not occur.

24

25 2. AESs require an enormous amount of funding and they have been applied across a  
26 large geographical area, i.e. the European Union. However, recent evidence suggests  
27 mixed results for the effects of agri-environment schemes on biodiversity.

28

29 3. It is hard to predict the consequences of AESs on biodiversity because a number of  
30 factors are seldom accounted for explicitly. For example: (1) both Optimal Foraging  
31 Theory and Metapopulation Theory predict that the distance from breeding  
32 individuals is likely to determine patch use; (2) occurrence of target species will vary  
33 between patches; (3) there will be variation in habitat preference by species in  
34 different geographical areas; (4) if resources are widely spread then the home ranges  
35 of some species may need to increase to encompass the multiple resources needed for  
36 breeding. The potential for these factors to affect the outcome of AESs on biodiversity  
37 are discussed.

38

39 4. *Synthesis and applications.* AESs are likely to increase biodiversity if a lower  
40 number of larger resource patches are provided (in contrast to current practice which  
41 promotes many small fragmented areas of environmental resource). One way of  
42 achieving this may be to run these schemes more like traditional ‘protected area’  
43 schemes with farms or groups of farms managed using extensive farming methods.  
44 Such an approach negates some of the problems of current AESs and may help  
45 address a wider range of concerns held by different countryside stakeholders.

46

47 *Key-words:* wildlife and farmland, spatial ecology, integrated farming systems,  
48 farmland birds, biodiversity conservation, Common Agricultural Policy, agro-  
49 ecology.

## 50 **Introduction**

51           The role that agri-environment schemes (AESs) can play in improving  
52 biodiversity on farmland appears with increasing frequency within the scientific  
53 literature (Figure 1). AESs have other aims including the maintenance and  
54 enhancement of landscapes, the protection of the historic environment, the protection  
55 of natural resources and promoting public access to the countryside  
56 (<http://www.defra.gov.uk/erdp/schemes/es/default.htm>), however benefiting  
57 biodiversity gain is a major goal of these schemes. It has recently been highlighted  
58 that, overall, progress towards achieving the European Union's target to halt  
59 biodiversity loss on farmland by 2010 is not visible and the target is unlikely to be  
60 reached without additional integrated policy efforts (EEA 2006). This editorial  
61 discusses why these schemes provide particular challenges to biodiversity  
62 conservation within farmland ecosystems. It is not intended as an exhaustive  
63 ('systematic') review of the literature on AESs but as an overview, to place the papers  
64 within this Special Profile in context and to suggest directions for future research.

65           A common approach to conservation is to identify areas containing valuable  
66 resources (e.g. habitats, ecosystems or species) and then to protect them. Conservation  
67 schemes designed for these 'protected areas' have been categorised into five groups  
68 by the IUCN (1994) (listed in Pullin 2002): (1) 'strict' Nature Reserve – usually these  
69 contain high priority species, habitats or ecosystems; (2) Wilderness Area –  
70 unmodified or only slightly modified land designated with the aim of preserving its  
71 natural condition; (3) National Park – mainly used to protect ecosystems and land  
72 used for recreation; (4) Natural Monument – used for conservation of specific natural  
73 features; (5) Habitat or Species Management Area – management intervention to aid  
74 specific habitat/s or species/s. The rationale underpinning groups 1-4 is relatively  
75 simple: identify an important area and protect it.

76           The Habitat or Species Management Area classification (group 5) incorporates  
77 a range of different conservation approaches. Most are aimed at networks of sites,  
78 such as Special Protection Areas (SPAs) under the Birds Directive, or Special Areas  
79 of Conservation (SACs) under the Habitats & Species Directive, both of which are  
80 European designations aimed at minimising developments and protecting what is on  
81 the site by encouraging favourable management within the designated area. Agri-  
82 environment schemes also fall under this category. However, two properties of AESs  
83 set them apart from typical protected area schemes: (i) they are **often applied to very**

84 **small patches of land**, such as a field boundary or an individual field, and thus they  
85 create at larger scales (such as at the farm scale or larger) a complex mosaic of  
86 differing habitat quality (see Figure 2); (ii) they are sometimes **placed in areas where**  
87 **the target species is absent** with the intent of improving conditions necessary for the  
88 return of the target species.

89

90 *Have agri-environment schemes benefited biodiversity?*

91 Although boosting populations of wildlife is a major aim of AESs, the  
92 evidence for their effects on biodiversity are mixed. A recent review by Kleijn &  
93 Sutherland (2003) reported that the research design of most AESs was inadequate to  
94 assess the reliability of the schemes. Of nineteen bird studies providing results, four  
95 yielded positive increases in species richness or abundance, two gave negative results  
96 and eleven showed results in both directions. For the twenty arthropod studies, eleven  
97 yielded an increase in species richness or abundance and three showed mixed results,  
98 but none showed a decrease. Amongst the fourteen plant studies examined, six  
99 showed increases in species richness or abundance and two showed decreases. More  
100 recent studies have added to our knowledge of how AESs affect biodiversity, e.g.  
101 Kleijn *et al.* (2006) found that AESs in five European countries have performed  
102 poorly for a range of taxa that were considered either uncommon or were listed in Red  
103 Data Books, whereas poor to moderate effects were reported across a range of more  
104 abundant and widespread taxa including vascular plants, birds, bees, grasshoppers and  
105 crickets, and spiders.

106 AESs require an enormous amount of money (€24 billion was spent by the  
107 European Union between 1992 and 2003 on these schemes - Kleijn & Sutherland  
108 2003) and they have been applied across a large geographical area: the European  
109 Union. Given the importance of this topic it is not surprising that the efficacy of these  
110 schemes is of great interest to scientists, policy-makers and the general public. For  
111 example, *What lessons can be learned from agri-environment schemes to optimise*  
112 *their biodiversity gain and ecological benefit?* has recently been identified by policy-  
113 makers and scientists as one of the key policy relevant ecological questions in the UK  
114 (Sutherland *et al.* 2006). Optimising the use of available measures (such as agri-  
115 environment schemes) under the reformed Common Agricultural Policy is seen by the  
116 European Commission (CEC 2006) as a major part of the European Strategy to halt  
117 biodiversity loss on farmland by 2010. Recent studies have begun to question whether

118 the current approach is optimal and to suggest changes. In the section below I explore  
119 three areas of particular concern.

120

### 121 **Why might AESs fail to benefit biodiversity substantially?**

122 Clearly AESs need to provide ‘good quality’ habitats (e.g. by providing  
123 preferred food, improving access to food or minimising predation risk) and research is  
124 still on-going to quantify optimal environmental resources in farmland systems.

125 Papers in this Special Profile illustrate this, for example bumblebees *Bombus* spp.  
126 make extensive use of the legume-based ‘pollen and nectar flower mix’ as prescribed  
127 under an English AES but this type of resource is short-lived and alternatives are  
128 needed (Carvell *et al.* 2007). Both cutting regime and fertilizer input affect beetles on  
129 grass margins, with no fertilizer input being particularly beneficial to a range of beetle  
130 species (Woodcock *et al.* 2007). Grassland restoration is a complex issue and there are  
131 a range of practical options that can be used to provide both very high quality habitat  
132 (as source populations) and other less intensive measures (Pywell *et al.* 2007).

133 Farmland bird species that flee from predators prefer to forage in open areas, such as  
134 stubble cut short to circa 6 cm, whereas other species that rely on crypsis prefer longer  
135 vegetation, such as stubble of a length found in typical fields, circa 13 cm (Butler,  
136 Bradbury & Whittingham 2005) and so heterogeneity is a key factor (see Benton,  
137 Vickery & Wilson 2003 for a useful discussion). However, designing ‘good quality’  
138 habitat does not take account of several factors which affect AESs. These factors set  
139 AESs apart from typical protected area schemes and may contribute to suboptimal  
140 performance (see below).

141

#### 142 (i) Application to small patches of land

143 Prediction of the effect of environmental resource provision (e.g. management of  
144 hedges or field margins) to small patches of land by AESs is complicated by several  
145 factors. First, species require multiple environmental resources when breeding. For  
146 example, providing a section of hedge 50 m long may be important for many nesting  
147 birds but if suitable resources for foraging nearby are insufficient, then the hedgerow  
148 may be of little value for birds. Secondly, the distance between environmental  
149 resource provision and source breeding populations may be important, e.g. will an  
150 isolated hedgerow or weed rich grass margin created under an AES attract many  
151 birds, invertebrates and plants if the nearest breeding individual or population is some

152 distance away? Metapopulation Theory predicts that the more distant the source  
153 population the less likely that the patch will be colonised (Hanski & Gilpin 1991;  
154 Sutherland 1998): for taxa with poor dispersal abilities (e.g. mainly plants and some  
155 invertebrates) even relatively small distances may affect the likelihood that a patch  
156 will be colonised. Optimal Foraging Theory (or more specifically Central Place  
157 Foraging Theory) predicts that given two patches of equal 'value' the nearest one (e.g.  
158 nearest to the nest for a bird or a bumblebee) will be preferred because it uses up less  
159 energy to visit the closer patch (Stephens & Krebs 1986; Krebs & Davies 1991).  
160 There are many empirical studies supporting these theories but two good examples  
161 from farmland systems are provided in this Special Profile. Öckinger & Smith (2007)  
162 found that grass margins further from source patches (in this case semi-natural  
163 grassland) were lower in species richness and density for both butterflies and  
164 bumblebees (*Bombus* spp.). Secondly, Clough, Kruess & Tschardtke (2007) report  
165 that insect herbivore species diversity was higher on newly created plots of their host  
166 plant (in this case creeping thistle *Cirsium arvense* L.) placed within organic wheat  
167 fields compared with those placed within conventionally managed wheat fields,  
168 probably because of the naturally higher cover of *C. arvense* in the organic fields  
169 (thus plots were on average likely to be closer to source populations in the organic  
170 fields). Thus the distance from breeding populations is likely to be critical to the use  
171 by insect communities of non-cropped areas (which are often part of AES options). In  
172 addition, the application of AESs to a variety of small patches of land may mean that  
173 collectively these do not provide sufficient additional resources to maintain viable  
174 increases in the target populations and/or offset the adverse influences of the  
175 surrounding landscape.

176

177 (ii) Placement of environmental resources by AESs where target species are absent

178       Clearly, AESs are likely to be most effective when applied to areas in which  
179 target species occur. A good illustration of this is provided within the farmland bird  
180 literature. The Countryside Stewardship Scheme (an English AES) has been  
181 successful in targeting management for ciril bunting *Emberiza cirilus* L. populations in  
182 a small part of SW England (the only area in which they occur in the UK) resulting in  
183 a population increase of 83% on Countryside Stewardship land. In contrast  
184 populations lying on land adjacent to agreements areas have increased by only 2%  
185 (Peach *et al.* 2001). On the other hand, studies of AESs applied over wide areas

186 (which can thus be applied to areas in which a species is absent) have reported either  
187 limited or no effect of these schemes on bird abundance (Kleijn *et al.* 2001; Bradbury  
188 & Allen 2003; Kleijn *et al.* 2006). This is illustrated in this Special Profile in a study  
189 of waders in Holland by Verhulst, Kleijn & Berendse (2007). Dry fields, which are of  
190 little value to waders such as redshank *Tringa totanus* L. and lapwings *Vanellus*  
191 *vanellus* L., may still be entered into AESs in Holland; unsurprisingly, management  
192 changes to such fields as part of the AES agreement made little difference to wader  
193 numbers (Verhulst *et al.* 2007).

194

### 195 (iii) Generality of habitat models

196 An underlying assumption of AESs is that they will have similar effects on  
197 target species across the range at which the scheme is applied. This assumption is  
198 relatively under-explored in farmland systems but one recent study suggests it may  
199 not be valid. Whittingham *et al.* (in press) found that for a range of eleven farmland  
200 bird species in England and Wales, good predictors derived from sites in one  
201 geographical region tended to have little or no predictive value when applied in other  
202 areas. For example, the height of boundaries (mainly hedges) had significantly  
203 different positive effects on territory occupancy by the eleven species across south-  
204 east, northern and south-western England. This suggests that AES options targeted at  
205 a regional scale are more likely to yield beneficial results for farmland birds than  
206 options applied uniformly in national schemes. In contrast, Kleijn *et al.* (2004) found  
207 no differing effects of AESs in different landscapes (as determined by soil type: sand,  
208 peat or clay). However, neither of the biodiversity measures recorded by Kleijn *et al.*  
209 (plant species richness and meadow bird abundance) differed between control fields  
210 and fields under AESs suggesting that this may not have been the best study system to  
211 examine the interaction between AESs and landscape.

212

### 213 **Potential changes to AESs**

214 First, there may be benefits to adopting the traditional ‘protected area’  
215 framework for AESs. If whole farms or groups of farms were managed using  
216 extensive farming methods and the farmers compensated appropriately then this may  
217 yield greater biodiversity gain (especially if access to this scheme was limited to those  
218 farms with existing healthy wildlife populations). This approach is also suggested by  
219 Kleijn & Sutherland (2003) who propose that the same level of reduction in

220 agricultural intensification in extensive systems may produce greater biodiversity  
221 gains (i.e. the relationship between agricultural intensification and biodiversity is non-  
222 linear). The effects both of nearest breeding individual/s and multiple resource  
223 requirements (discussed above) may be significantly reduced if larger patches of high  
224 quality resource are provided. It could be argued that steps are already in place to this  
225 end. For example, the Higher Level Scheme (an English AES) goes some way to  
226 addressing this concern but it remains to be seen whether it will provide patches of  
227 environmental resource of sufficient quality or size.

228 A second issue is the current link between conservation research and policy.  
229 Currently, conservation policy is often informed by research but once a policy is  
230 formed then the process may take some time to be reviewed and updated. Perhaps  
231 AES monitoring could be viewed more as ongoing research which feeds back into  
232 policy to inform future changes to AESs? A simplistic example to illustrate this point  
233 is as follows. The process of policy development usually involves three major steps:  
234 first, conservation ‘problems’ (e.g. why is farmland biodiversity declining?) are often  
235 defined by a government or wildlife non-governmental organisation (NGO); secondly,  
236 research programmes are initiated to investigate the underlying causes and to trial  
237 solutions; thirdly, the results from step two are used to develop policy. However, what  
238 if the policy performs poorly or does not work? Changes are clearly needed but the  
239 time scale may be speeded up if AESs are used as the basis for trialling management  
240 options and the results are used to revise current practice.

241

### 242 **Could an integrated countryside deliver biodiversity gains?**

243 Farming to maximise economic performance is usually in conflict with  
244 wildlife needs. Two papers in this Special Profile address this issue. Olsen & Wäckers  
245 (2007) investigated whether field margins, which benefit the conservation of northern  
246 bobwhite quail *Colinus virginianus* L., enhance biological pest control in adjacent  
247 wheat fields. They found that AESs targeted at biodiversity did not affect pest control.  
248 Bullock, Pywell & Walker (2007), also in this Special Profile, show that the re-  
249 creation of diverse grasslands for conservation also increases yields from hay crops.  
250 These approaches help to bring farming and wildlife needs together and merit further  
251 research.

252 How can AESs be integrated more generally with other countryside needs?  
253 Conservation management could be aligned with other anthropogenic issues such as



254 health, flood protection, water purification, tourism and transport policy (Sutherland  
255 2002, 2004; Stephens, Pretty & Sutherland 2003). Steps in this direction may yield  
256 many gains and the organic farming movement (or similar movements such as low-  
257 input farming systems) is one area which could deliver, at least in part, this kind of  
258 vision particularly given the increasing consumer demand for organic food (Lohr  
259 2001).

260

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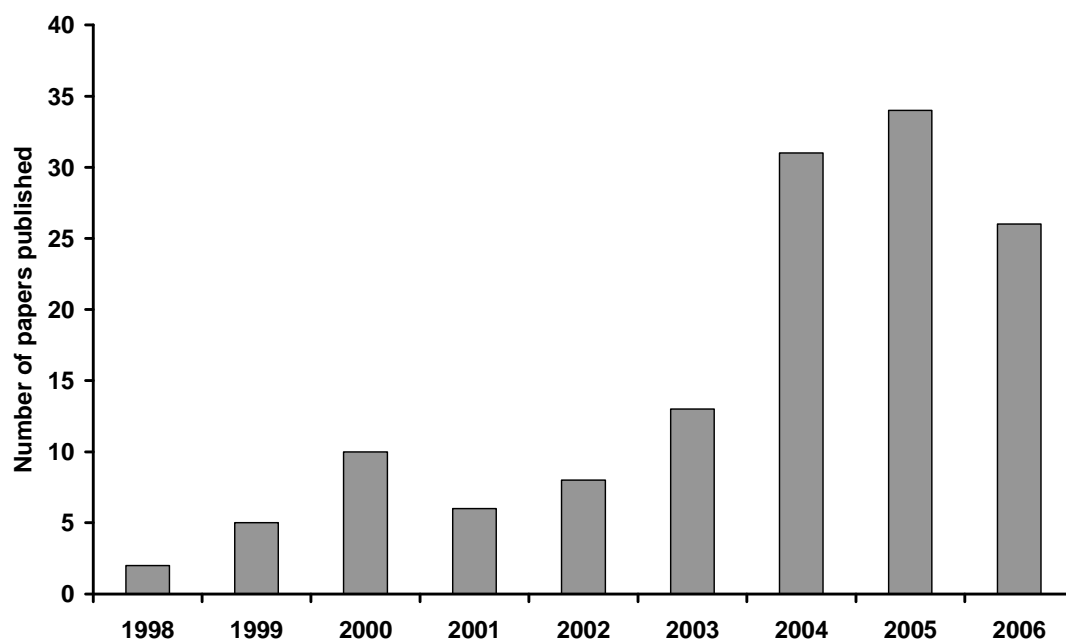
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392 **Figure 1.** A graph showing the increase in numbers of journal articles about Agri-  
393 Environment Schemes. These papers were those listed in 'Web of Science' using the  
394 search term 'agri-environment schemes' carried out on 18/10/06. The *Journal of*  
395 *Applied Ecology* published more papers than any other journal (23 out of 136 – 17%),  
396 with a total of 39 journals publishing one or more papers. *Journal of Applied Ecology*  
397 papers together accounted for 36% (434/1202) of citations. Note: the papers listed  
398 under 2006 are only those listed up until 18/10/06 and are thus only around three-  
399 quarters of those likely to be published by the year end.

400



401

402

403 **Figure 2.** A fictitious example of a future ‘protected’ farmland area (in which the entire  
404 area shaded in grey is managed sympathetically for wildlife – i.e. a ‘protected area’  
405 approach) and an AES in which small parts of a farm are managed for wildlife (the  
406 boundaries marked in black are managed for wildlife by planting grass margins, increasing  
407 hedge height and width). The ‘protected area’ approach outlined in the text lessens the  
408 problems associated with distance from nearest colonising source and multiple resource  
409 provision because i) the area is much larger, and ii) entry is restricted to landowners with  
410 existing ‘healthy’ wildlife populations.



411  
412