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1 ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPER

2 **Title**

3 Conservation values of abandoned farmland for birds: a functional group approach

4

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35

## 36 **Conflict of interest**

37 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
38 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

39

## 40 **Availability of data, material, and code**

41 The datasets and code generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available  
42 from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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52 **Abstract** (249 / 250 words)

53 Abandoned farmland area has been expanding globally for decades. Studies showed that  
54 conservation value of abandoned farmland has differed among studies and regions and thus is  
55 difficult to predict. However, predicting the effects of farmland abandonment on biodiversity  
56 remains vital to the development of appropriate conservation strategies. Here, we compared  
57 the species-, community-, and functional group-level habitat suitability of abandoned  
58 farmland for birds by comparison with active farmland (pasture, cropland, and rice paddy)  
59 and natural wetland on Hokkaido, Japan, over a study area of 400 km × 500 km. Results  
60 differed markedly between functional groups. The abundance and species richness of  
61 grassland species in abandoned farmland were higher than that in active farmland, and  
62 comparable to that in wetland. In contrast, abundance and richness of bare-ground species  
63 was highest in active farmland. For most species, interactive effects between climate variables  
64 and abandoned farmland were not significant, suggesting a consistent habitat suitability of  
65 abandoned farmland irrespective of varied climatic conditions. Our results suggest that  
66 abandoned farmland plays an important role as habitat for grassland and forest species at large  
67 scales; farmland abandonment provides a valuable alternative habitat for species whose  
68 primary habitats have been lost to agricultural expansion. Especially, abandoned farmland in  
69 warmer areas in Hokkaido would represent a potential mitigation to the negative effects of  
70 wetland loss. A functional group approach synthesizes varied species-level responses and  
71 allows for a comprehensive understanding of the habitat suitability of abandoned farmland.  
72 Adopting this approach will contribute to establishing appropriate conservation strategies.

73

74 **Keywords**

75 Abundance, grassland, Hokkaido, land-use, species richness, temperature

76 **1. Introduction**

77           The conversion of land for agriculture has dramatically altered natural ecosystems  
78 worldwide (Foley et al. 2005; Newbold et al. 2015). Mainly due to the conversion to  
79 farmlands, approximately 80% and 20% of the world's wetlands and forests, respectively,  
80 have been lost since the 1700s (Ramankutty and Foley 1999; Davidson 2014). Thus, farmland  
81 now accounts for more than one third of Earth's ice-free land surface (Ramankutty and Foley  
82 1999). Agricultural expansion and intensification are expected to continue and thus pose an  
83 ongoing threat to biodiversity (Tilman et al. 2001; Foley et al. 2011). On the other hand,  
84 farmland abandonment has been caused by rural depopulation or an aging farming population  
85 (Rey-Benayas et al. 2007; Kobayashi et al. 2020), and its area has increased exponentially  
86 since the 1950s (Ramankutty and Foley 1999; Cramer et al. 2008).

87           Meta-analyses and review papers suggest that the effects of farmland abandonment on  
88 biodiversity are more complex (Queiroz et al. 2014; Normile 2016; Koshida and Katayama  
89 2018) than the consistent negative effects that result from agricultural expansion and  
90 intensification (Newbold et al. 2015; Beckmann et al. 2019). Indeed, some empirical studies  
91 have shown that species richness and abundance are lower in abandoned farmlands than in  
92 active farmlands (Verhulst et al. 2004; Öckinger et al. 2006), yet others have shown the  
93 opposite pattern (Kamp et al. 2011; Kitazawa et al. 2019). Understanding these discrepancies  
94 and developing subsequent conservation strategies are of increasing importance, since  
95 farmland abandonment is predicted to be a key driver of global biodiversity change (Pereira et  
96 al. 2012; Ockendon et al. 2018).

97           Previous work has suggested that the habitat suitability of abandoned farmland,  
98 relative to active farmland, may vary based on geographic region (Queiroz et al. 2014).  
99 However, habitat suitability of abandoned farmlands may also differ greatly among species  
100 groups within communities (e.g., functional groups). Since disturbances cease after farmland

101 abandonment, suitability of abandoned farmland may vary among species in responses to  
102 established vegetation. Most studies have failed to detect such group-specific differences  
103 because they have assessed community-level abundance and species richness in active and  
104 abandoned farmlands (Plieninger et al. 2014; but see Sirami et al. 2008). Therefore,  
105 examining functional group-level responses may provide greater insight into the conservation  
106 value of abandoned farmland and provide inferences beyond specific study regions. To  
107 address the gap, birds would be useful since they can respond to environmental changes well  
108 and exhibit diverse range of ecological functions (Gregory et al. 2005; Sekercioglu 2006).

109         The few studies that focused on bird functional group-level abundance or species  
110 richness in abandoned farmlands mainly dealt with two groups: forest and open-land species  
111 (Sirami et al. 2008; Zakkak et al. 2015; but see Katayama et al. 2015). It is widely  
112 acknowledged that abandoned areas may be preferable for forest species (Dyulgerova et al.  
113 2015; Regos et al. 2016) if tree regeneration follows farmland abandonment. However, the  
114 responses of open-land species may be more accurately understood if divided into two  
115 groups: bare-ground species and grassland species. We here defined bare-ground species as  
116 species that prefer bare ground, farmland, and short grassland. We also defined grassland  
117 species as species that prefer perennial or tall grassland (e.g., reed bed). Though bare-ground  
118 species and grassland species have not been separated, there would be large differences in  
119 habitat preferences between the groups.

120         We would expect to detect marked differences between the responses of these two  
121 groups to farmland abandonment, and hence explain the contrasting results observed in  
122 previous studies. For example, because bare ground or short grassland conditions are  
123 maintained in active farmland, their abandonment would negatively impact bare-ground  
124 species (e.g., Schmitt and Rákosy 2007; Brambilla et al. 2010; Uchida and Ushimaru 2014).  
125 In contrast, perennial vegetation that establish in abandoned farmland due to succession

126 (Benjamin et al. 2005; Dahlström et al. 2010) can serve as valuable habitat for grassland  
127 species (e.g., Yamanaka et al. 2017; Hanioka et al. 2018a).

128 Focusing on grassland species to evaluate abandoned farmland as alternative habitat  
129 for this group is also important (Hanioka et al. 2018b; Kitazawa et al. 2019), since these  
130 species have experienced drastic declines worldwide due to habitat loss (WWF 2008;  
131 Newbold et al. 2016). Existing evaluations of abandoned farmland have been heavily biased  
132 toward Europe, where the diversity of bare-ground species is high (Covas and Blondel 1998),  
133 and conservation actions are often focused on this group (Queiroz et al. 2014; Batáry et al.  
134 2015). Therefore, the habitat suitability and conservation value of abandoned farmlands for  
135 grassland species has not yet been fully examined.

136 We examined whether the habitat suitability of abandoned farmland was consistent  
137 among three bird functional groups (bare-ground, grassland, and forest species) using a larger  
138 scale survey (400 × 500 km) than that used in previous studies (< 100 × 100 km; Plieninger et  
139 al. 2014). Surveying a broad area may provide greater insight because climatic factors are  
140 determinants of species' habitat selection (Martin 2001); therefore, preferences for abandoned  
141 farmland may spatially vary with different climates, even for the same species. We compared  
142 the abundance and species richness of these three functional groups in five land-use types in  
143 floodplains (abandoned farmland, active farmland [pasture, cropland, and rice paddy], and  
144 natural wetland; see Method for detail definitions) and investigated spatial variations in  
145 climate and interactions between climate and land-use type.

146

## 147 **2. Methods**

### 148 **2.1. Study area**

149 This study was carried out across Hokkaido, northern Japan (41° 21'–45° 33' N, 139°  
150 20'–148° 53' E; 400 × 500 km; Fig. 1). Hokkaido is located in a transitional zone between the

151 temperate and boreal zones. Therefore, climatic conditions in Hokkaido vary among areas;  
152 average temperatures range from 4.4 to 16.5°C (Fig. A.1) and average precipitation ranges  
153 from 50 to 220 mm (Fig. A.2) during the bird breeding season (May–July). Several studies  
154 revealed that the climatic conditions affect bird abundance and distribution on Hokkaido  
155 (Fujimaki 2007; Kawamura et al. 2016). Within the last century, 60% of the natural wetland  
156 area in Hokkaido was converted into farmland (GSI 2000). Farmland expansion slowed  
157 during the 1990s and there is currently at least 3,050 ha of abandoned farmland on Hokkaido  
158 (MAFF 2019). Abandoned farmland is found in mountainous and floodplain areas on  
159 Hokkaido (Kobayashi and Nakamura 2018), where wetland vegetation may now be re-  
160 established in floodplain areas.

161

## 162 **2.2. Land-use types**

163 We focused on five land-use types: natural wetland (hereafter wetland) (Fig. A.1),  
164 abandoned farmland (Fig. A.2), and active pasture, cropland, and rice paddy (collectively  
165 termed active farmland hereafter) (Fig. A.3). We mapped these land-use types on Hokkaido  
166 using a vegetation map (scale: 1:50 000–1:25 000) provided by the Natural Conservation  
167 Bureau of the Ministry of Environment (<http://www.biodic.go.jp/trialSystem/top.html>). The  
168 dominant species in surveyed wetlands were common reed (*Phragmites australis*), bluejoint  
169 reedgrass (*Calamagrostis canadensis* subsp. *langsdorffii*), and sedges (*Carex* spp.). We  
170 ensured that all surveyed abandoned farmlands had been active in the 1970s and were no  
171 longer actively farmed by examining aerial imagery, interviewing land managers, and using  
172 field observations. In most instances we could not obtain an abandonment age (i.e., the time  
173 since cultivation ceased) due to the absence of previous land managers (Fig. A.2). Surveyed  
174 abandoned farmlands were characterized by common reed, sedges, Japanese iris (*Iris ensata*),  
175 Amur silver grass (*Miscanthus sacchariflorus*), and Japanese silver grass (*Miscanthus*

176 *sinensis*). Tree growth (e.g., willowleaf meadowsweet [*Spiraea salicifolia*] and alders [*Alnus*  
177 spp.]) was patchy in some abandoned farmland (Fig. A.2).

178

### 179 **2.3. Sampling plot selection**

180 To assess the influence of spatial climatic differences, specifically in average  
181 temperature and precipitation during the breeding season, we established 13 study areas  
182 across Hokkaido accounting for correlations between temperature and precipitation obtained  
183 from Mesh Climate Value 2010 (MLIT 2012; Fig. A.4, A.5). We then established one to four  
184 sampling plots within each land-use type in each area, for a total of 113 sampling plots (22 in  
185 wetlands and abandoned farmland, respectively, 26 in pasture, 27 in cropland, and 16 in rice  
186 paddy; Fig. 1; Table A.1). Sampling plots were located in agriculture-dominated floodplains  
187 (i.e., alluvial fans or deltas). We could not establish cropland plots in four areas and rice  
188 paddy plots in eight areas due to a lack of suitable sites (cultivation in these areas is limited by  
189 temperature). We were also unable to locate suitable abandoned farmland plots in two areas  
190 due to a lack of suitable sites.

191 All sampling plots were 300 m in length and 100 m in width (3 ha), and we ran a  
192 survey line through the center of each plot. Plots were randomly placed within pre-defined  
193 compartments of a single land-use type to avoid recording birds that breed in different land-  
194 use types adjacent to sampling plots. We then checked that each plot met the following  
195 criteria by using the vegetation map (<http://www.biodic.go.jp/trialSystem/top.html>) and site  
196 visits: (1) each plot was separated by at least 1 km to prevent double-counting (Ralph et al.  
197 1993); (2) a bare-ground and grassland ratio of plots (i.e., the ratio of wetland and active and  
198 abandoned farmland) was more than 50%. This was done by generating 300 m buffers around  
199 each plot and determining the proportion of bare ground and grassland within each buffer, as  
200 this is known to affect the densities of grassland and forest birds on Hokkaido (Hanioka et al.

201 2018a, 2018b). We thus did not consider landscape structure as explanatory variables in our  
202 models.

203

#### 204 **2.4. Bird surveys**

205 We performed three bird community surveys in each sampling plot throughout the  
206 breeding season (May–July) of 2017. The first, second, and third surveys were conducted  
207 from May 15 to June 7, from June 9 to July 5, and from July 8 to July 29, respectively. We  
208 avoided surveying on rainy, foggy, or windy (windspeeds > 4 m/s) days. Surveys were  
209 conducted from dawn to 10:00 h, when bird activity and singing is greatest (Bibby et al.  
210 2000). To reduce time of day bias, we divided surveys into two time zones, from dawn to  
211 07:00 h and from 07:00 h to 10:00 h, and ensured at least one survey per plot represented each  
212 zone.

213 A single surveyor (M.K.) slowly walked the survey lines (2 km/h) using a global  
214 positioning system device and recorded the species, sex, location, and behavior (e.g., singing,  
215 territorial conflict) of individuals within plots (territory mapping; Bibby et al. 2000). Then, we  
216 recorded the putative territories of individual species on a map based on observations from all  
217 three visits (Bibby et al. 2000) and estimated territory size (e.g., Hanioka et al. 2018a; Table  
218 A.2). We used the summed number of territories for each species within a given plot as our  
219 abundance metric. We considered that we detected any inhabited territory in at least one  
220 survey. This is because bare-ground and grassland birds have relatively high detectability  
221 (~0.6; Yamaura et al. 2016a), and hence three times surveys are considered to be enough to  
222 detect almost all territories. Furthermore, detectability of birds' songs within 50 m from the  
223 observer is high and stable among different habitats (Schieck 1997).

224

#### 225 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

226 We estimated the effects of land-use and climate variables on the abundance of each  
 227 detected bird species and functional group using abundance-based hierarchical community  
 228 models (HCMs; Yamaura et al. 2016b). We also estimated interactive effects between  
 229 abandoned farmland and climate variables to test if the relative habitat suitability of  
 230 abandoned farmland was consistent to those of other land-use types across Hokkaido. We first  
 231 assumed that the abundance of species  $i$  in plot  $j$  ( $Z_{ij}$ ) followed a Poisson distribution ( $Z_{ij} \sim$   
 232  $\text{Poisson}[\lambda_{ij}]$ ). We then assumed that the expected abundance of species  $i$  in plot  $j$  ( $\lambda_{ij}$ ) was a  
 233 function of five land-use categories (i.e., wetland, abandoned farmland, pasture, cropland, and  
 234 rice paddy), two climate variables (i.e., the 30-year average monthly temperature and  
 235 precipitation estimates extracted from Mesh Climate Value 2010; see details in Fig. A.1, A.2),  
 236 and interaction terms between the binary abandoned farmland category (i.e., 0: active  
 237 farmland and wetland; 1: abandoned farmland) and climate variables. Climate variables were  
 238 standardized prior to analyses. The intercept of the linear predictor was omitted (i.e., we  
 239 employed the cell means method; Kéry 2010) to allow for easy comparison of expected  
 240 abundance values among habitats using parameter estimates, derived using the equation:

$$241 \quad \text{Log}(\lambda_{ij}) = hab_i \times x_{j1} + \beta_{i1} \times x_{j2} + \beta_{i2} \times x_{j3} + \beta_{i3} \times x_{j4} + \beta_{i4} \times x_{j5} \quad (1)$$

242 where  $x_{j1}$  indicates the land-use category of plot  $j$ ,  $x_{j2}$  and  $x_{j3}$  indicate the average temperature  
 243 and precipitation of plot  $j$ , respectively, and  $x_{j4}$  and  $x_{j5}$  indicate interaction terms between  
 244 abandoned farmland and average temperature and precipitation.  $hab_i$  and  $\beta_{i1-4}$  represent the  
 245 partial regression coefficients of species  $i$  for each explanatory variable.

246 We also conducted alternative analysis which assumed that expected abundance was a  
 247 function of land-use categories, two climate variables, and interaction terms between climate  
 248 variables and another binary land-use category (i.e., 0: active farmland; 1: wetland and  
 249 abandoned farmland). This was done to consider the effects of the presence of management.  
 250 The results (Fig. A.6) were similar to those of the binary abandoned farmland category, which

251 we hereafter showed. Furthermore, the 30-year average climate values could underestimate  
252 the effects of climatic events which uniquely occurred in the surveyed year in a specific area.  
253 However, we adopted the average values since our focus is to examine the large-scale effects  
254 of land-use types and its spatial variations. We thus used 30-year average values, which is  
255 assumed to better represent the spatial characteristics of each area.

256 We categorized observed bird species as (i) bare-ground species, (ii) grassland species,  
257 and (iii) forest species according to published references (Takagawa et al. 2011; Hanioka et  
258 al. 2018a; Table A.2). We defined grassland species as any species inhabiting areas  
259 dominated by high perennial grass; hence, we included wetland species in this category. We  
260 then assumed that the species-level parameter  $\beta_i$  followed a functional group-level normal  
261 distribution with hyperparameters. This parameterization allowed us to model rare species  
262 using information from common species (Yamaura et al. 2012). Hyperparameters describe the  
263 mean values of the functional group and among-species heterogeneity as:

$$264 \quad \beta_{i1} \sim \text{Normal}[\mu_{\beta_1}, \sigma_{\beta_1}^2], \quad \beta_{i2} \sim \text{Normal}[\mu_{\beta_2}, \sigma_{\beta_2}^2], \dots \quad (2)$$

265 where  $\mu_{\beta_1}$  and  $\sigma_{\beta_1}$  are the mean and standard deviation of  $\beta_{i1}$ , respectively. These terms  
266 assume that different functional groups can have different means and variation for each  
267 coefficient; we expected that the effects of land use and climate would differ among  
268 functional groups.

269 We obtained parameter estimates from field survey data using a Markov Chain Monte  
270 Carlo method with three chains, a burn-in of 50,000, a thinning interval of five, and 100,000  
271 post-iterations. We conducted these analyses using R ver. 3.2.0 (R Core Team 2015), JAGS  
272 ver. 4.2.0 (Plummer 2016), and the R package jagsUI ver. 1.4.2 (Kellner 2016). To determine  
273 HCMs were appropriate for our dataset, we constructed generalized linear models assuming a  
274 Poisson distribution and generalized linear mixed models with surveyed area as a random  
275 effect to account for spatial autocorrelation. The parameter estimates of these models were

276 qualitatively similar to those obtained from HCMs (Table A.3).

277 Community and functional group-level total abundance were estimated by summing  
278 species-level expected abundance,  $\lambda_{ij}$  (hereafter abundance), for each. Similarly, we defined  
279 expected species richness (hereafter species richness) as the expected value of the number of  
280 species with at least one individual (i.e.,  $Z_{ij} \geq 1$ ). The probability of at least one individual  
281 occurring ( $Pr[z_{ij} \geq 1]$ ) was expressed using Eq. (3), and we summed this value for each  
282 functional group and community (Yamaura et al. 2016b).

$$283 \quad Pr[z_{ij} \geq 1] = 1 - \exp(-\lambda_{ij}) \quad (3)$$

284 We calculated the community- and functional group-level median values and 95% credible  
285 intervals of total abundance and species richness on the basis of the posterior distributions  
286 obtained for each species. When the 95% credible intervals did not overlap between two land-  
287 use categories, we interpreted the difference as significant.

288 For climate variables and interaction terms, we determined each covariate to be  
289 significant at the 5% significance level. To examine the response of each functional group to  
290 climate variables, we generated curves representing the effects of climate variables on the  
291 total abundance and species richness of each functional group in each land-use type using the  
292 estimated posterior distributions of each group. Curves were drawn for each climate variable,  
293 while the other climate variable was held to its mean. When the 95% credible intervals of  
294 total abundance or species richness did not overlap between the lowest and highest average  
295 temperature or precipitation value, we interpreted this as a significant effect of climate on  
296 total abundance or species richness.

297

### 298 **3. Results**

299 We recorded a total of 1,466 individuals of 56 bird species across all surveys (Table  
300 A.2). We excluded passage visitors, introduced species, and species whose territory sizes

301 were larger than the sampling plots. Therefore, we focused on 1,389 individuals of 33 species  
302 (bare-ground species: 206 individuals of four species; grassland species: 1,144 individuals of  
303 23 species; forest species: 39 individuals of six species) in subsequent analyses. The five most  
304 commonly observed species were black-browed reed warbler (*Acrocephalus bistrigiceps*, 300  
305 individuals), Middendorff's grasshopper-warbler (*Locustella ochotensis*, 164 individuals),  
306 Eurasian skylark (*Alauda arvensis*, 162 individuals), Stejneger's stonechat (*Saxicola*  
307 *stejnegeri*, 135 individuals), and reed bunting (*Emberiza schoeniclus*, 124 individuals). We  
308 observed fewer than 100 individuals of all remaining species.

309

### 310 **3.1. Functional group differences in habitat suitability**

311 The abundance of two of the four bare-ground species (Eurasian skylark and Eurasian  
312 tree sparrow [*Passer montanus*]) was significantly greater in pasture, cropland, or rice paddy  
313 than in abandoned farmland (Fig. A.7). The hyperparameters of bare-ground species did not  
314 differ significantly among land-use types (Fig. 2a). However, total abundance (i.e., the sum of  
315 the expected abundance for all bare-ground species) was significantly higher in cropland and  
316 pasture relative to wetland, abandoned farmland, and rice paddy (Fig. 2b). The species  
317 richness was higher in pasture and cropland than in abandoned farmland and wetland (Fig.  
318 2c).

319 The abundance of 14 of the 23 observed grassland species was significantly greater in  
320 abandoned farmland than in pasture, cropland, or rice paddy. The abundance of 21 species in  
321 abandoned farmland was comparable to or higher than in wetland (Fig. A.7). Reflecting  
322 species-level patterns, the hyperparameter in abandoned farmland was greater than in  
323 cropland and rice paddy, and comparable to that in wetland (Fig. 2d). Total abundance and  
324 species richness exhibited similar patterns to those of hyperparameters (Fig. 2e, f).

325 For forest species, the abundance of Japanese bush warbler (*Horornis diphone*) was

326 significantly higher in abandoned farmland than in pasture, cropland, and rice paddy. The  
327 abundance of the remaining five forest species and the hyperparameters did not differ among  
328 the five land-use types (Fig. A.7, Fig. 2g). Total abundance and species richness were higher  
329 in abandoned farmland than in cropland and pasture, but differences between other pairs of  
330 land-use types were not significant (Fig. 2h, i). The results of community-level total  
331 abundance and species richness were very similar to those found for grassland species (Fig.  
332 2j, k), which was the dominant group in the survey sites.

333

### 334 **3.2. Spatial differences in habitat suitability**

335 For 30 of the 33 observed species and each functional group, interaction terms  
336 between abandoned farmland (represented as a binary variable) and climate variables (i.e.,  
337 average temperature and precipitation) were not significantly related to abundance (Fig. 3;  
338 Fig. A.7). For bare-ground species, the partial regression coefficient for average temperature  
339 was positive but non-significant (Fig. 3a), and total abundance and species richness were  
340 significantly higher in areas with higher average temperature, excluding in abandoned  
341 farmlands (Fig. 4a, b). For grassland species, average temperature and precipitation had  
342 significant positive effects on five and four species, respectively (Fig. A.7). Group-level  
343 partial regression coefficients of both average temperature and precipitation were positive and  
344 significant (Fig. 3b, A.8). Total abundance and species richness were also significantly higher  
345 in areas with higher average temperature and precipitation, excluding in rice paddies (Fig. 4e–  
346 h, A.9). For forest species, neither climate variable had a significant effect on species-level or  
347 group-level partial regression coefficients, total abundance, or species richness (Fig. 3c; Fig.  
348 4i–l; Fig. A.7). The results of community-level hyperparameters were similar to those  
349 observed in grassland species (Fig. A.10).

350

351 **4. Discussion**

352 **4.1. Functional groups**

353           The habitat suitability of abandoned farmland differed markedly depending on  
354 functional group, but was consistent throughout Hokkaido for each group. We showed a clear  
355 difference in the habitat suitability of abandoned farmland for bare-ground and grassland  
356 species. The abundance and richness of bare-ground species was higher in active farmlands  
357 than in abandoned farmland, consistent with previous studies in Europe and southern Japan  
358 (Sirami et al. 2008; Katayama et al. 2015). For example, skylark, a bare-ground species, was  
359 found to avoid the tall dense perennial plant cover that had established in abandoned  
360 farmlands in Poland (Orłowski 2005). Our results suggest that abandoned farmland is  
361 unsuitable habitat for bare-ground species, meaning that continued farmland abandonment  
362 will result in loss of suitable habitat for these species.

363           By contrast, the abundance and richness of grassland species in abandoned farmland  
364 was higher than in active farmland, and comparable to natural wetlands. This is likely due to  
365 vegetation succession and the establishment of perennial grasses in abandoned farmland,  
366 which provides foraging and breeding habitat for these species (Kennerley and Pearson 2010).  
367 The importance of abandoned farmland as habitat for grassland species was also identified in  
368 some studies in Europe (e.g., Orłowski 2005; Berg and Gustafson 2007; Radovic et al. 2013;  
369 Kamp et al. 2018). Abandoned farmland likely becomes suitable habitat for grassland species  
370 once perennial grasses establish; farmland abandonment can provide valuable alternative  
371 habitat for species whose habitats have been lost to agricultural expansion. This could  
372 especially be the case in floodplain or valley plain landscapes where perennial grasses  
373 continue to dominate 20–50 years after farmland abandonment (e.g., Rosenthal 2010; Saito et  
374 al. 2018), possibly due to a rise in groundwater level (Morimoto et al. 2017). However, there  
375 is a possibility of tree species colonization in the future (Sirami et al. 2007; Zakkak et al.

376 2018). We also note that, due to high stem length, some types of grassland might not be  
377 included in openland, though we divided openland into bare ground and grassland.

378         Although the abundance and species richness of forest species in abandoned farmland  
379 was higher than in cropland, the estimated abundance in abandoned farmland (0.22  
380 individuals/ha) was substantially lower than an estimate obtained for forest habitat on  
381 Hokkaido (9.3 individuals/ha; Hanioka et al. 2018a). It is likely that these species do not  
382 occupy abandoned farmland due to the relatively lower level of shrub or tree cover in the  
383 sampling plots than those in forests (Fig. A.2). Previous studies have reported that tree and  
384 shrub cover are likely to establish in abandoned farmland in tropical and mountainous regions  
385 (e.g., Benjamin et al. 2005; Sirami et al. 2007; Rozendaal et al. 2019) and provide suitable  
386 habitat for forest species (Navarro and Pereira 2015; Acevedo-Charry and Aide 2019).

387         We note that we have evaluated only six forest and four bare-ground species. Future  
388 works should evaluate habitat suitability of abandoned farmland in other regions to test  
389 generality of our findings for those groups. Furthermore, habitat preferences of a species  
390 could differ among regions (Báldi and Batáry 2011), suggesting that a species might belong to  
391 other functional groups in other regions. For example, Eurasian tree sparrow prefers foraging  
392 in wetlands in the UK (Field and Anderson 2004), but in bare grounds such as levee,  
393 harvested, or plowed land in southern Japan (Maeda 2001). Thus, care is needed when  
394 extrapolating our species-level results to other regions. Future studies should also focus on  
395 breeding success in abandoned farmland since breeding success is sometimes lower in  
396 abandoned farmland than in undisturbed habitat (Lameris et al. 2016; but see Kitazawa et al.  
397 2019).

398

#### 399 **4.2. Spatial differences in habitat suitability**

400         It has been suggested that impact of farmland abandonment on biodiversity varies

401 between geographic regions (Queiroz et al. 2014). However, we observed weak and non-  
402 significant interactive effects between climate variables and abandoned farmland for 30 of the  
403 33 species used in our analyses and group hyperparameters. Instead, abandoned farmland was  
404 found to be more suitable for grassland species than active farmland, and was even  
405 comparable to natural wetlands, but abandoned farmland was less suitable for bare-ground  
406 species, and these trends were consistent across all of Hokkaido. It is possible that regional  
407 differences in habitat suitability could be detected at a larger spatial scale than that used here,  
408 for example at the continental scale, at which landscape composition and vegetation types  
409 change remarkably (Brown et al. 1995; Randin et al. 2006).

410 Average temperature and precipitation positively affected the abundance and richness  
411 of grassland species. This is likely a result of higher vegetation productivity. Temperature  
412 exerts a strong influence on shoot growth in reeds (Engloner 2009) and thus stem length of  
413 reed is likely to be higher in areas with higher average temperatures (Fig. A.1). Areas with  
414 rich vegetation and high precipitation provide abundant nesting sites (Fujimaki and Takami  
415 1986) and terrestrial food sources (Gorzo et al. 2016) for grassland species. Bird communities  
416 could also be affected by vegetation composition and plant species richness, which differ  
417 across Hokkaido (Ishikawa 1983). Although the relative importance of abandoned farmlands  
418 as habitat was consistent across Hokkaido, we note that climate factors influenced how many  
419 species or individuals abandoned farmland can harbor.

420

## 421 **5. Conclusion and conservation implications**

422 Farmland abandonment has negative impacts on bare-ground species and positive  
423 impacts on grassland and forest species. Therefore, distinct conservation strategies are  
424 required for these functional groups. Wetland cover has been reduced on Hokkaido,  
425 particularly in the warmer areas (e.g., Ishikari and Tomakomai; GSI 2000), and abandoned

426 farmland in those warmer areas can harbor double the abundance of grassland species as that  
427 in cool areas. Therefore, abandoned farmland represents a potential mitigation to the dramatic  
428 negative effects of wetland loss, especially in the warmer areas of Hokkaido. Maintaining  
429 active farmlands is also important in the warmer areas in Hokkaido since the abundance of  
430 bare-ground species was also high in those areas.

431 A functional group approach can provide a synthesis of varied species-level responses  
432 to agricultural abandonment and thus enable a comprehensive understanding of the habitat  
433 suitability of abandoned farmland. As demonstrated, the suitability of abandoned farmland  
434 was consistent across broad scales for all functional groups. However, the conservation  
435 priority of these functional groups may spatially vary depending on historical and  
436 biogeographical backgrounds (Betts et al. 2019). Therefore, adopting a functional group  
437 approach can contribute to developing regionally appropriate conservation strategies and  
438 targets in the era of agricultural abandonment.

439

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671 **Figure captions**

672 Fig. 1. Study area and the locations of the sampling plots. (a) Enlarged map of the study area,  
673 indicated by the red square, displaying the Hamanaka and Nemuro areas. The 113 sampling  
674 plots are represented by squares and land-use types are indicated by color. Source: DIVA-GIS  
675 Free spatial data.

676

677 Fig. 2. Estimates of hyperparameters, total abundance, and species richness for each land-use  
678 type (per 3 ha). Results are shown for each functional group in panels a–i. Community-level  
679 results are shown in panels j and k. Total abundance was calculated by summing the expected  
680 abundance of each species within a functional group. Climate variables were held to their  
681 means. Dots indicate median values and bars indicate 95% credible intervals. W = wetland, A  
682 = abandoned farmland, P = pasture, C = cropland, and R = rice paddy.

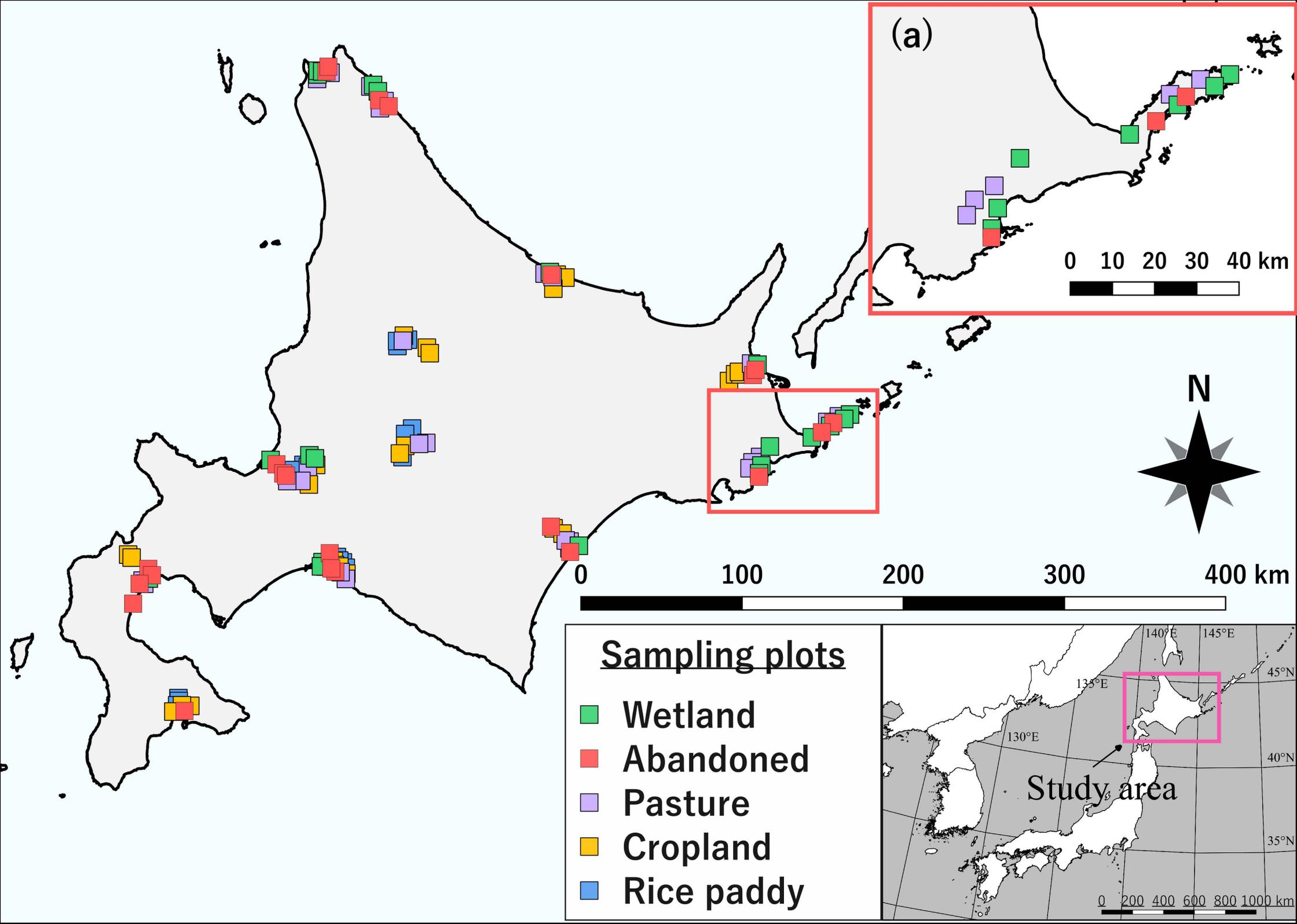
683

684 Fig. 3. Hyperparameters for climate variables and interaction terms for each functional group.  
685 Black dots indicate median values and bars indicate 95% credible intervals. T:Ab and P:Ab  
686 represent interaction terms between average temperature and abandoned farmland, and  
687 between average precipitation and abandoned farmland, respectively. Temp = temperature,  
688 Prec = precipitation.

689

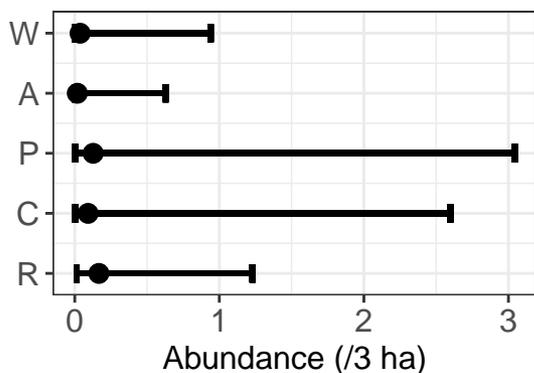
690 Fig. 4. The relationships between total abundance or species richness and climate variables  
691 for three functional groups. In each panel, the other climate variable is held to its mean value  
692 (i.e., 0). Solid lines represent median values and shading indicates 95% credible intervals.  
693 Land-use types are represented by colors. Because cropland and rice paddy only occurred in  
694 areas with higher average temperature, we also analyzed these data by excluding these two  
695 land-use types; the results were qualitatively similar, see Fig. A.8 and A.9. Green = wetland,

696 Red = abandoned farmland, Purple = pasture, Yellow = cropland, and Blue = rice paddy.

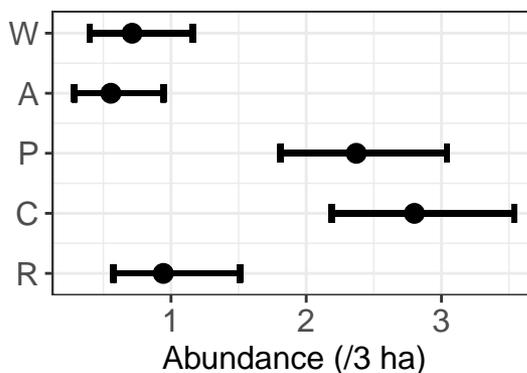


## Bare-ground species

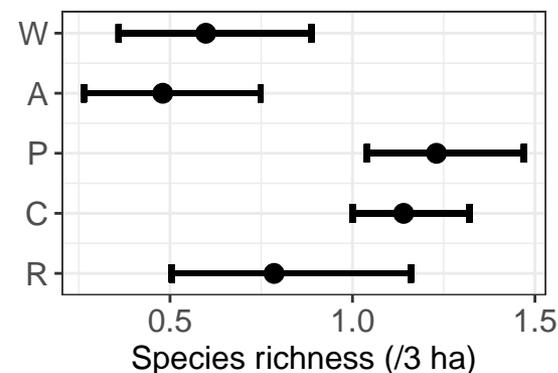
(a) Hyperparameter



(b) Total abundance

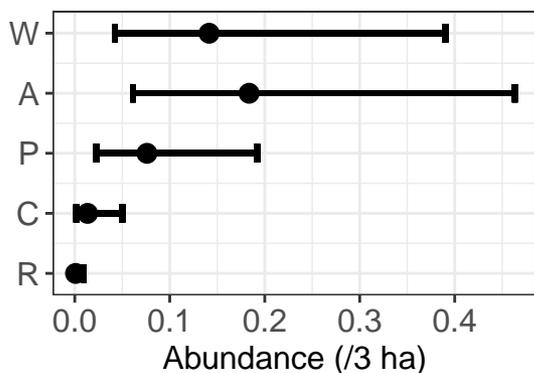


(c) Species richness

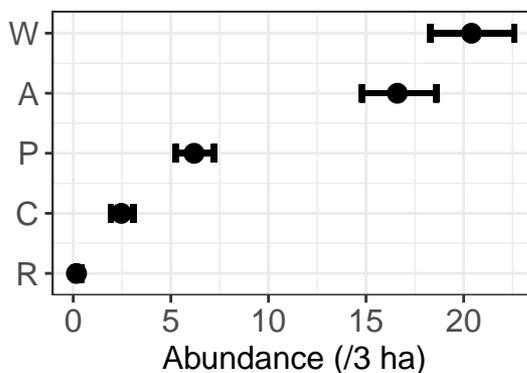


## Grassland species

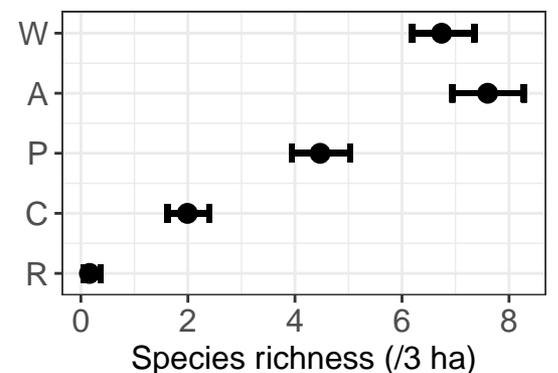
(d) Hyperparameter



(e) Total abundance

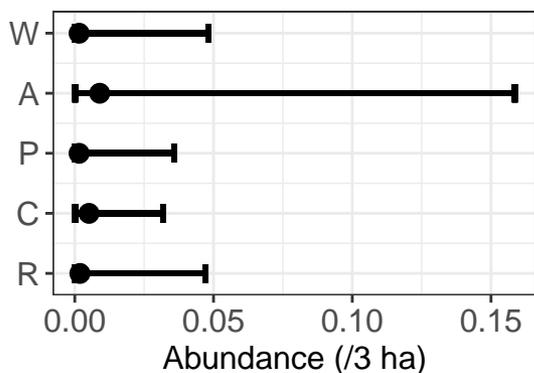


(f) Species richness

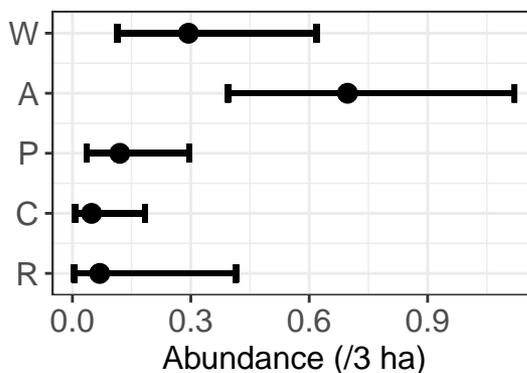


## Forest species

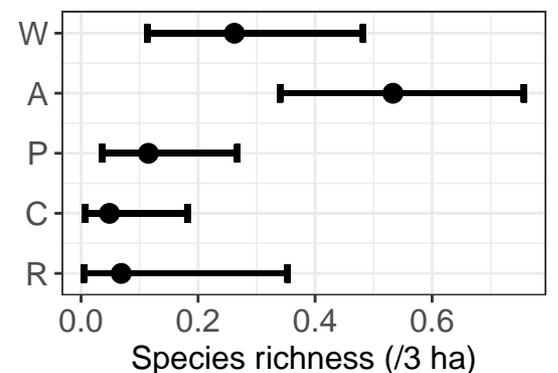
(g) Hyperparameter



(h) Total abundance

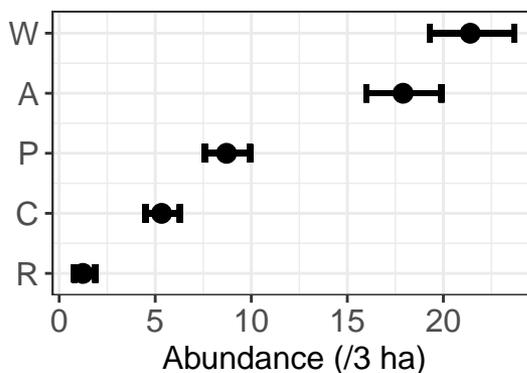


(i) Species richness

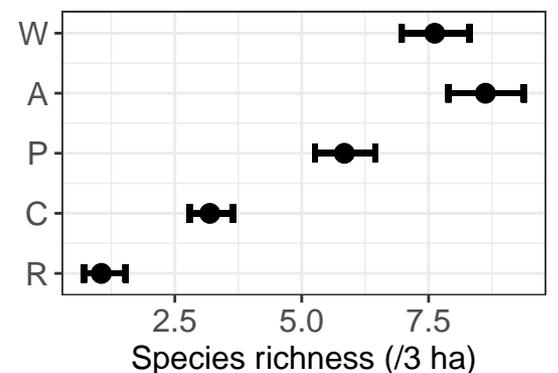


## Community

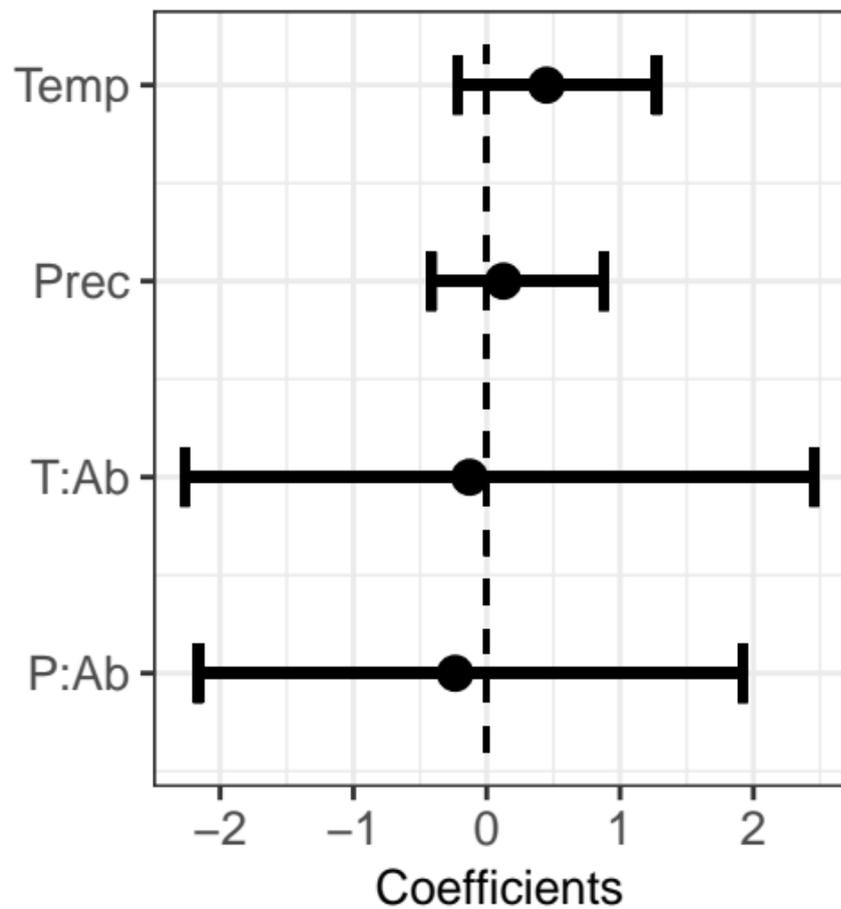
(j) Total abundance



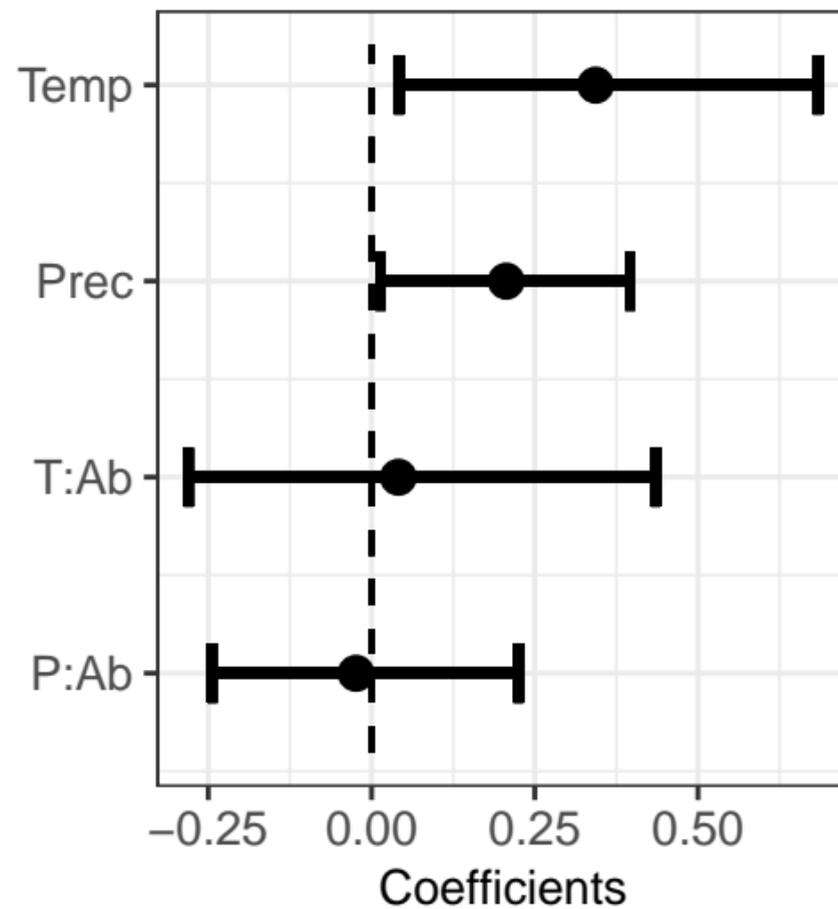
(k) Species richness



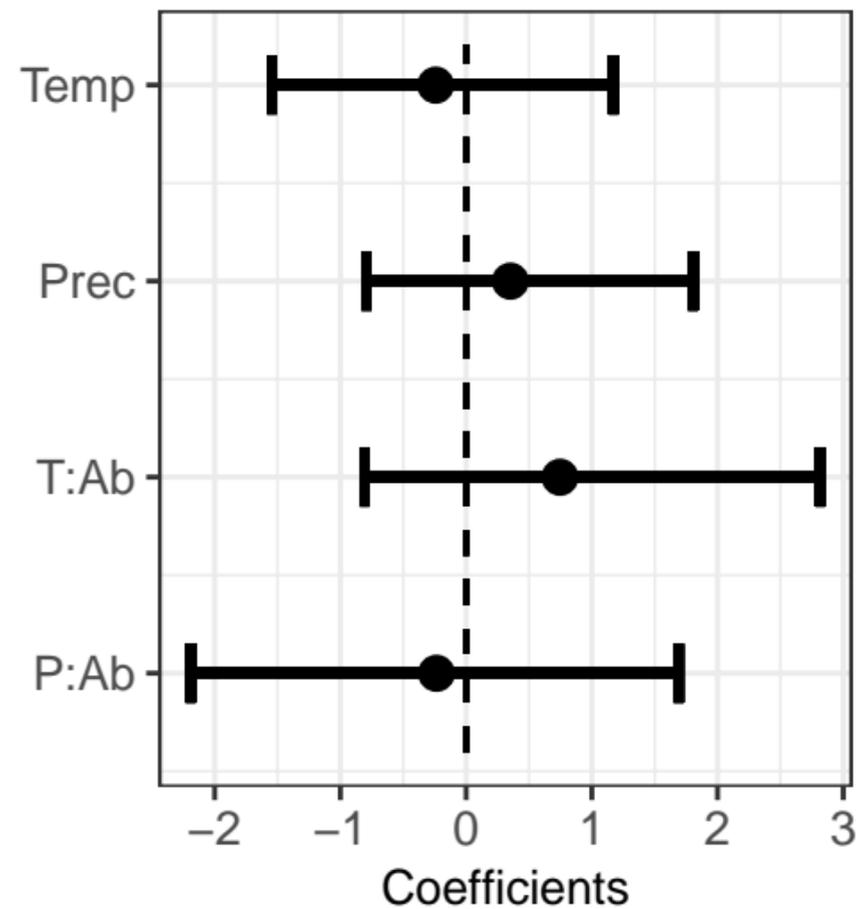
(a) Bare-ground species



(b) Grassland species

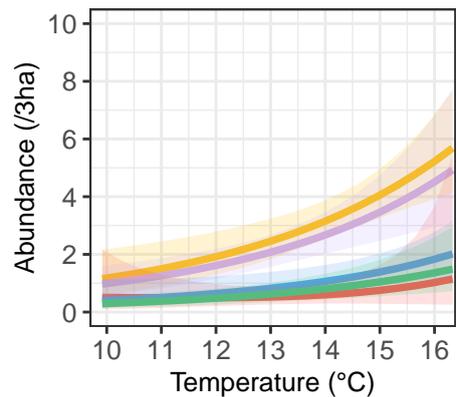


(c) Forest species

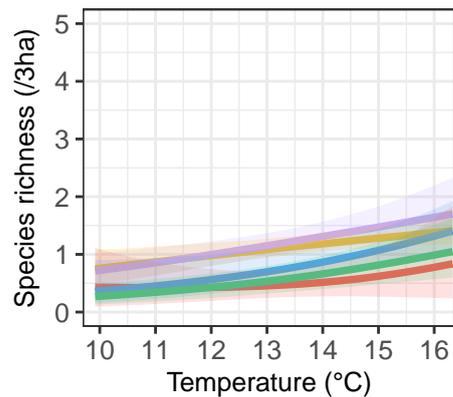


## Bare-ground species

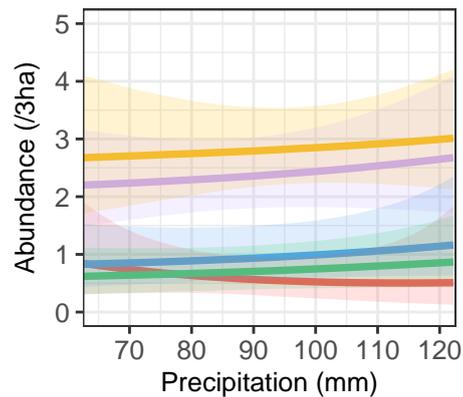
(a)



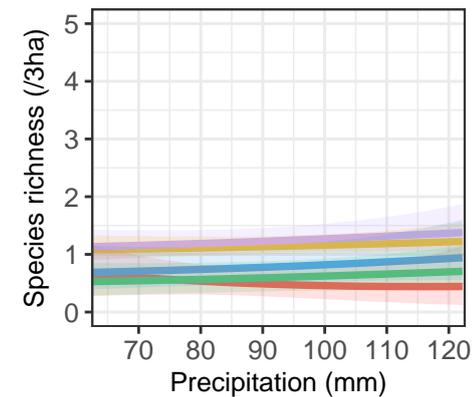
(b)



(c)

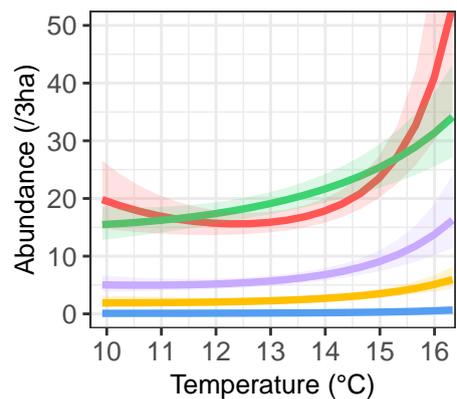


(d)

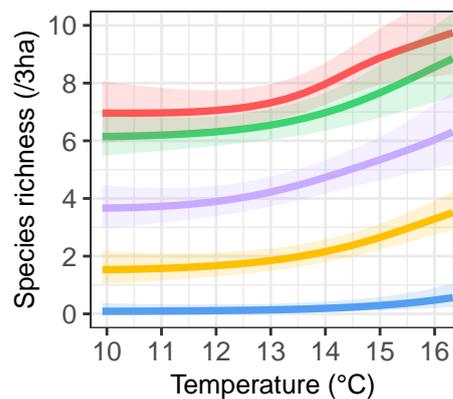


## Grassland species

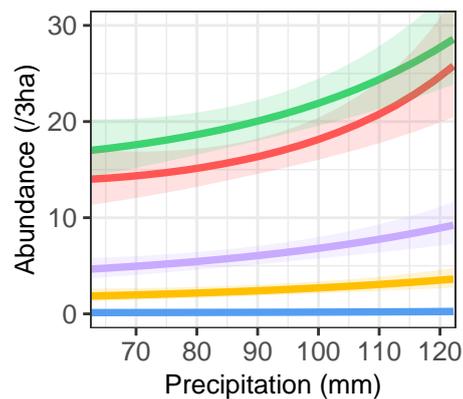
(e)



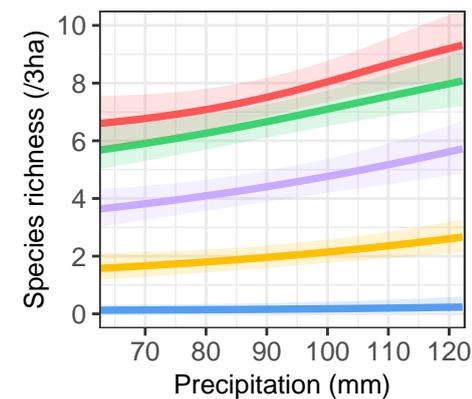
(f)



(g)

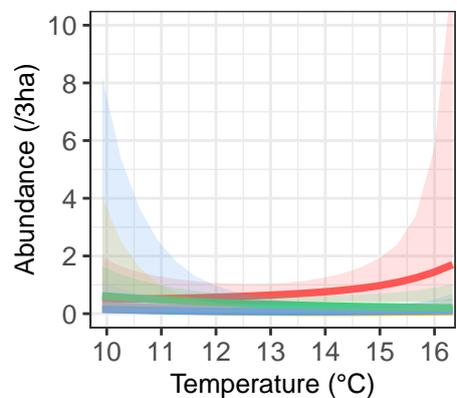


(h)

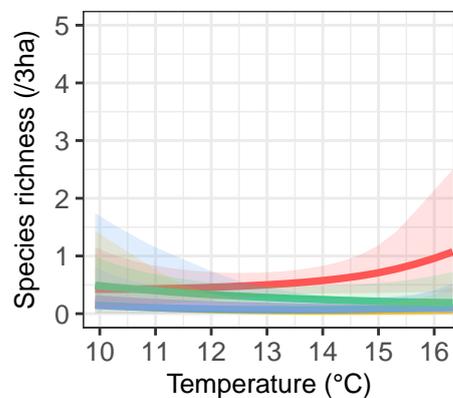


## Forest species

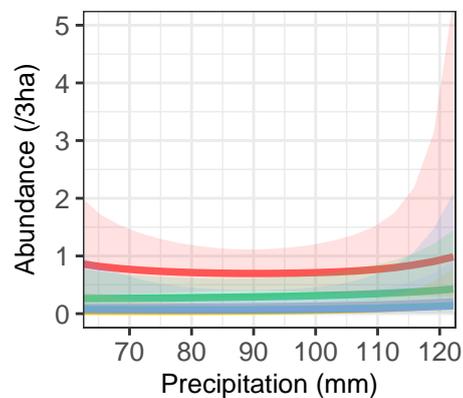
(i)



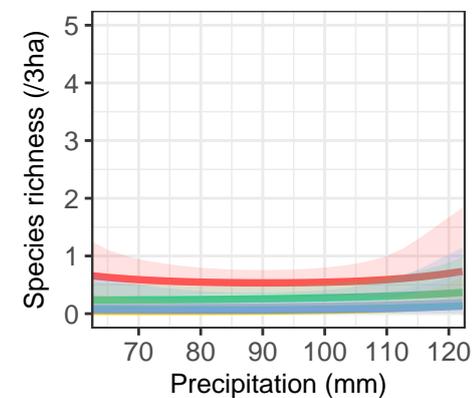
(j)



(k)



(l)



Land use ■ Wetland ■ Abandoned farmland ■ Pasture ■ Cropland ■ Rice paddy