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1 **Increasing water-use efficiency in rice fields threatens an endangered waterbird**

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10

11 **ABSTRACT**

12

13 Many species have adapted successfully to traditionally cultivated agricultural environments but, as

14 production systems are intensified, this adaptation is reaching its limits. Conflicting facets of

15 sustainability compound the problem. Here we describe how reductions in the use of water in rice

16 fields is compromising the persistence of the largest known breeding population of the Australasian

17 Bittern (*Botaurus poiciloptilus*), a globally endangered waterbird. In fields with traditional, early

18 permanent water, bitterns began nesting around 77 days after inundation, with 65% of nests having

19 sufficient time for all chicks to fledge before harvest. Our breeding success model showed that all

20 nests could potentially be successful if permanent water was applied by early November, with a

21 ponding period – the phase when fields are flooded – of at least 149 days. The modelling suggests

22 that successful bittern breeding was unlikely where rice was grown using new water-saving methods

23 – drill-sown and delayed permanent water – because the ponding period is too short. These

24 methods have become the rice industry standard in Australia, rising from 34% of fields in 2014 to  
25 91% in 2020. While this saved 1.5-4.5 megalitres/ha per year, it has undermined the habitat value of  
26 these agricultural wetlands. 'Bittern-friendly' rice growing incentives could encourage timely nesting  
27 and maximise breeding success. Early and sufficient ponding can be complemented by establishing  
28 adjacent wetland habitat refuges, maintaining grassy banks, and creating dedicated patches to fast-  
29 track nesting. Increasing water-use efficiency in agro-ecosystems is widely touted as being beneficial  
30 to the environment, but our research demonstrates the urgent need to manage trade-offs with  
31 biodiversity conservation.

32

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34 **KEYWORDS:** Water resource management, Agricultural intensification, Australasian bittern *Botaurus*  
35 *poiciloptilus*, Murray-Darling Basin, Wildlife-friendly farming, Bittern-friendly rice

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## 38        **1. Introduction**

39    Managing agricultural habitats to incorporate biodiversity conservation effectively is essential for  
40    sustainability, but complex trade-offs need to be addressed (Altieri, 1999; Macchi et al. 2020;  
41    Saunders et al. 2016; Segre et al. 2020; Teuscher et al., 2015; Kremen and Merenlender, 2018; Fastré  
42    et al. 2020). Adjusting or maintaining farming practices to meet biodiversity objectives can struggle  
43    to balance agronomic development, economic pressures and conflicting sustainability imperatives  
44    (McShane et al., 2011; Roos et al. 2019; Samnegård et al. 2019, Wright et al. 2012). Agricultural  
45    expansion and intensification affect 62% of the world's threatened or near-threatened species  
46    (Maxwell et al., 2016), and collectively are considered the most important threats to birds, being  
47    implicated in the decline of 74% of the 1,469 species considered to be globally threatened (Birdlife  
48    International, 2018). In farming landscapes, agricultural intensification maximises production  
49    through increased fertiliser and pesticide use, mechanisation, loss of field-margin habitats, and  
50    resource-use efficiency. This has helped feed a growing human population, generated substantial  
51    economic benefits and improved some facets of sustainability, but in many cases it is jeopardizing  
52    the habitat values of agriculture (Birdlife International, 2018; Donald et al., 2006; Hayhow et al.,  
53    2019; Huntsinger et al. 2017; Gonthier et al., 2014; Maxwell et al., 2016; Stanton et al., 2018;  
54    Tschardt et al., 2012).

55    Unlike other fields that dominate global agriculture, such as corn, wheat and soy, rice farming  
56    involves the creation of agricultural wetlands, and has traditionally supported substantial and  
57    important aquatic biodiversity (Czech and Parsons, 2002; Elphick et al. 2010; Hasegawa and Tabuchi,  
58    1995; Herring and Silcocks, 2014; Kasahara et al. 2020; Katoh et al. 2009). Given that around 160  
59    million hectares of rice are planted annually, and that rice is eaten by three billion people every day  
60    (FAO, 2020a), the contribution of rice wetlands is significant at a global scale. Natural wetlands are  
61    among the most impacted ecosystems on Earth, with global loss estimated at 64-71% since 1900,  
62    and a majority of the remainder being degraded (Davidson, 2014), so augmenting the role of

63 agricultural wetlands, like rice fields, in providing surrogate habitat is appealing (Elphick, 2000).  
64 However, rice farming across the world is under pressure to reduce water-use, with shorter season  
65 varieties, upgraded irrigation infrastructure, and new growing methods like alternate wetting and  
66 drying, drill-seeding, delayed permanent water and mid-season drainage (Darbyshire et al., 2019;  
67 Dunn and Gaydon, 2011; DPI 2015; 2018; FAO, 2016; Farooq et al., 2011; SRI, 2019; Yamano et al.,  
68 2016). These alternatives to early permanent water and traditional, continuous flooding are lauded  
69 not just for their water-use efficiency but also for their roles in reducing methane emissions (LaHue  
70 et al., 2016; Miniotti et al., 2016; Peyron et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2016; Kunimitsu and Nishimori, 2020).  
71 Still, weed infestation under such water-saving schemes can incur large yield losses (Farooq et al.,  
72 2011) and higher nitrous oxide emissions (Ahn et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2012), nitrogen losses and  
73 agrochemical contamination risks (Pittelkow et al., 2016). Little attention, however, has been paid to  
74 the trade-offs with biodiversity and habitat values, even though they could be considerable. For  
75 example, in Italy, dry-seeding reduced bat activity in organic rice (Toffoli and Rughetti 2020) and  
76 reduced amphibian densities, possibly causing declines in nearby heron and egret breeding colonies  
77 (Fasola and Cardarelli 2015), while in Japan, productivity gains from incorporating direct-seeding  
78 machinery, modern drainage systems and increased synthetic fertilizer and pesticides have come at  
79 the expense of wetland biodiversity (Fujioka and Lane, 1997; Katayama *et al.*, 2015; Koji *et al.* 2014;  
80 Kidera et al., 2018). In California, reduced water availability and efforts to reduce greenhouse gas  
81 emissions by decreasing the amount of time fields are flooded, challenge the practice of winter-  
82 flooding of harvested rice fields which provides critically important non-breeding habitat for millions  
83 of migratory waterfowl and shorebirds (Golet et al., 2018; Petrie et al., 2014; Sesser et al., 2016,  
84 2018; Strum et al., 2013).

85 In Australia, water availability is the central issue affecting rice farming (Ashton et al., 2016). From  
86 2010-2020, the total rice field ranged from 4000-113,000 ha, driven by water allocations to  
87 permanent entitlements, together with the price of water on the temporary market (Ashton et al.,  
88 2016; RMB, 2020). Low allocations and high water costs undermine the economic viability of rice

89 farming (Aither, 2020). The Australian rice industry is concentrated in the Riverina region of  
90 southern New South Wales, where recent severe droughts have increased adoption of water-use  
91 efficiency measures, with predictions that dry conditions will become more frequent and intense  
92 (Dunn and Gaydon, 2011; Humphries et al., 2006; MDBA, 2020). Concurrently, there is both  
93 increasing competition for alternative water uses, notably cotton and almonds (Aither, 2020; Booth  
94 Associates, 2014) and water reforms in the broader catchment – the Murray-Darling Basin – that aim  
95 to restore degraded ecosystems and conserve biodiversity through environmental water recovery  
96 from irrigated agriculture (MDBA, 2010). These reforms assume a dichotomy between agriculture  
97 and nature conservation, and compound reduced water availability for irrigation, reinforcing  
98 pressure on growers to maximise rice yield per megalitre of water used (Aither, 2020; Gross and  
99 Dumaresq, 2014; Mushtaq et al. 2013). However, to date, the measures used to increase water-use  
100 efficiency have largely ignored the biodiversity that exists in rice fields despite the habitat value,  
101 including for threatened species.

102 The Riverina’s rice fields were recently found to support the stronghold for the globally endangered  
103 Australasian bittern (*Botaurus poiciloptilus*), a cryptic waterbird with 1000-2500 mature individuals  
104 remaining (Birdlife International 2021; Herring et al., 2019). Australasian bitterns rely on dense  
105 wetland vegetation for nesting and, before our present study, no detailed, field-based research on  
106 their breeding ecology had been undertaken (Kushlan and Hancock, 2005; O’Donnell, 2011). Bitterns  
107 from the Riverina region spend the non-breeding season at coastal wetlands, as well as more local  
108 sites, and usually arrive in rice fields in December, approximately two months after sowing, when  
109 there is both sufficient cover and abundant prey. First, males establish their territories then females  
110 start nesting (Herring et al., 2019). The aim of this study was to assess the impacts of water-use  
111 efficiency measures on bitterns breeding in rice fields, with a view to determining how rice growers  
112 could incorporate bittern conservation into their management by growing ‘bittern-friendly’ rice, a  
113 concept supported by the rice growers themselves (Bitterns in Rice Project, 2021). Given the trend  
114 towards a contraction of the ponding period – the number of days the fields are flooded – and the

115 limited opportunity for bitterns to breed successfully before harvest, we aimed to determine the  
116 water and habitat management guidelines most appropriate for bittern conservation in rice fields.  
117 Our key hypothesis was that a contraction of the ponding period would reduce opportunities for  
118 bitterns to fledge before the end of the rice season.

119

## 120 **2. Methods**

### 121 **2.1 Study area: Riverina rice farming**

122

123 Rice farming in the Riverina region of southern New South Wales, Australia, commenced in the early  
124 1900s and expanded rapidly during the 1970s and 1980s, peaking in the 2000-2001 season at around  
125 1.75 million paddy tonnes on about 184,000 ha before the decade-long 'millennium drought'  
126 (SunRice, 2002). Rice is grown in the Riverina from October to May with irrigation water primarily  
127 drawn from channels supplied by upstream dams in the Murray and Murrumbidgee River valleys.  
128 There are two main sowing and water management methods used for growing rice in the Riverina:  
129 1) 'early permanent water' with continuous flooding from the time of aerial (water-seeded) or dry  
130 broadcast sowing, usually in October or early November; and 2) direct drill-sowing, with similar  
131 sowing times but no permanent water until mid-late November through to December, and often  
132 with 'delayed permanent water' that involves periodic flooding pulses, then continuous ponding  
133 after germination. In both agronomic systems the depth of permanent water is initially around 5 cm  
134 and gradually increased to around 25 cm and maintained, then the water supply is terminated and  
135 draining occurs in preparation for harvest, which peaks in April (Ashton et al. 2016; DPI, 2015, 2018;  
136 Troidahl et al. 2020). A Riverina rice field usually includes 3-10 interconnected bays, each  
137 surrounded by banks, and managed collectively.

138

### 139 **2.2 Bittern breeding**

140

141 Bitterns were located primarily during population surveys from 2013-2017 at 189 sites on 95  
142 randomly selected rice farms (Herring et al. 2019), complemented by opportunistic surveys at 25  
143 additional rice fields where related research was being undertaken. All of these sites were rice fields  
144 with early permanent water because a pilot study indicated these were favored by bitterns (Herring  
145 et al., 2019). Nest searches were undertaken at a subset of these sites (n=32) that were selected  
146 because of the presence of a territorial male, which makes a distinctive, readily detectable,  
147 'booming' call, and detection of at least two individuals. Although Gilbert et al. (2007) found that  
148 only around half of wetland sites with booming male Eurasian bitterns (*Botaurus stellaris*) supported  
149 nesting females, booming is a simple and widely used indicator of bittern breeding (Kushlan and  
150 Hancock, 2005) because the nests themselves are very difficult to locate and inevitably many went  
151 undetected. Searches primarily involved walking through fields – with landholder permission – in  
152 areas where nesting was suspected based on the location of booming males and observations of  
153 bitterns made by scanning fields with binoculars for birds, including those that could be females  
154 delivering food to nestlings or returning to incubate after feeding (see Gilbert *et al.* 2007). Searches  
155 ranged from 1-12 hours per site, covered 1-10 ha and were concentrated on the parts of bays  
156 furthest from the banks. Repeat visits were avoided in order to minimize disturbance at located  
157 nests, except when an additional visit was required to improve estimates of nesting commencement  
158 date.

159

160 Information on Australasian bittern breeding phenology was augmented with data from its better-  
161 studied closest relative, the Eurasian bittern. Thus we assumed that: a full clutch was four or five  
162 eggs with eggs laid every second day; the incubation period was 25 days for each egg, beginning at  
163 the time of laying, with asynchronous hatching; chicks had left the nest by 15 days and fledged at 55  
164 days (Puglisi and Bretagnolle 2005; Demongin et al. 2007; Kushlan and Hancock, 2005; O'Donnell  
165 2011; Polak 2016). This meant a clutch of five eggs required 88 days from the time of nesting



166 commencement until all chicks had fledged. For full clutches, the estimated date for nesting  
167 commencement – the first egg laid – was determined by hatching date of the oldest nestling (n=7),  
168 or assuming the mid-way point of incubation for eggs when found (n=4). For nests where there was  
169 evidence of breeding (i.e. old, unhatched egg, dead chick, substantial trampled vegetation around  
170 nest), and the chicks had presumably already begun roaming and were not locatable, 15 days since  
171 hatching was assumed (n=5), representing minimum ages, while one nest was found at the second  
172 egg stage.

173

### 174 **2.3 Water management**

175

176 In November 2018, all Riverina rice growers who grew rice during the 2017-18 season (n=625) were  
177 sent a link by [SunRice](#) to complete a 25-minute anonymous, online questionnaire, and encouraged  
178 to do so through rice industry networks, social media and the [Bitterns in Rice Project](#). The survey  
179 included questions about the timing and duration of permanent water, irrespective of their water  
180 management and its potential suitability for bitterns. Ethics approval for this survey was obtained  
181 through the Charles Darwin University Human Ethics Committee (H17123). The survey was refined  
182 through two focus groups and tested with seven rice growers before implementation.

183

184 From this survey, water management data were collected for 191 fields from 58 growers (response  
185 rate of 9%). Water management data were also collected for the 14 fields where 17 nests were  
186 found. The hydroperiod, referred to hereafter as ‘ponding period’ – where the field is flooded during  
187 the growing season – was calculated using date ranges supplied for permanent water  
188 commencement and for ‘lock-up’ or drainage. It does not include the drawdown period when some  
189 water is still present in the field, especially in pools along field edges. For the 14 fields where nests  
190 were found, ponding period was calculated using permanent water commencement dates and by  
191 deducting 21 days from supplied harvest commencement dates, unless known. By harvest time, rice

192 fields and adjacent channels have usually dried out, with little or no aquatic prey like frogs and fish  
193 remaining for bitterns.

194

195 To assess the relationships between ponding commencement, ponding period and days to nesting  
196 commencement, the Spearman correlation coefficient was used as it is superior when the  
197 relationship is not necessarily linear (Zar 2010). To test for significant differences in ponding  
198 commencement and ponding period between the breeding fields and the grower survey fields, we  
199 used a Satterthwaite's approximate t test because it compensates for the possibility of unequal  
200 variances when using small sample sizes (Zar 2010).

201

#### 202 **2.4 Breeding success model**

203

204 Australasian bittern chicks begin roaming from the nest within two weeks of hatching (Kushlan and  
205 Hancock, 2005), and could evade harvesting machinery prior to fledging, but the loss of wetland  
206 habitat once the rice season ends is likely to increase mortality from predation and starvation,  
207 especially in the absence of adjoining habitats, and hence overall fecundity. We developed a simple  
208 predictive model incorporating data on agronomic water management and bittern breeding  
209 phenology to detect successful breeding opportunities. By applying a laying-since-ponding  
210 commencement parameter with the 88-day period for nesting commencement to fledging of all five  
211 chicks, and a 21-day period to harvest, we assessed how many of the 191 fields from the grower  
212 survey could have supported successful breeding before harvest. We applied 95% CLM (confidence  
213 limits of the mean) for upper and lower ranges.

214

215

## 216 **3. Results**

### 217 **3.1 Bittern Breeding**

218

219 A total of 17 nests were located, including 13 from ten of the 189 primary study sites, and four from  
220 the opportunistic sites, resulting in 14 individual fields with confirmed breeding. These were widely  
221 distributed across the study area (Figure 1). The two fields with multiple nests included one with  
222 three concurrently active nests, but with only one booming male, suggestive of polygyny, while  
223 another site appeared to be re-nesting following failure, as only one male and one female was  
224 present.

225

226 The mean date for estimated nesting commencement was 4 January (+-14 days; range: 15  
227 December-27 January), with 1 April (+-14 days; range: 12 March – 24 April) the mean for fledging of  
228 the youngest chick. The mean number of days until harvest for fledging of the youngest chick was  
229 6.6 (+- 14.8; range -19-31.), with all chicks able to fledge before harvest in 65% (11/17) of nests  
230 (Figure 2). There was a moderate negative relationship between nesting commencement and  
231 potentially successful breeding before harvest ( $R^2 = 0.52$ , Figure 2).

232

### 233 **3.2 Water Management**

234

235 Of the 58 growers who completed the online questionnaire, 45% said they used early permanent  
236 water; 36% used direct-drill and delayed permanent water; and 14% used a combination, while 3%  
237 had early permanent water with mid-season drainage. Of their 191 fields, 43% commenced ponding  
238 in October, and 33% had a ponding period of at least 141 days. There was a strong negative  
239 relationship between ponding commencement and ponding period (Spearman Correlation  
240 Coefficient;  $R_s = -0.81$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Ponding commencement date was significantly earlier, by an  
241 average of 25 days, at the 14 breeding fields compared to the 191 fields from the grower survey

242 (Satterthwaites approximate t test;  $T = 10.3$ ,  $df = 42.2$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 3). The breeding fields had a  
243 mean ponding period of 151 days, significantly higher than the 126 day mean for the grower survey  
244 fields (Satterthwaites approximate t test;  $T = -6.6$ ,  $df = 18.4$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 3).

245

246 Bitterns began nesting an average of 77 days after flooding and sowing (range: 53-106; 69-85, 95%  
247 CLM; Table 1). There was no significant relationship between ponding period and days to nesting  
248 commencement (Spearman Correlation Coefficient;  $R_s = 0.25$ ,  $p < 0.3969$ ), or ponding commencement  
249 and days to nesting commencement (Spearman Correlation Coefficient;  $R_s = -0.39$ ,  $p < 0.1664$ ) but the  
250 latter showed a tendency for later ponding to have fewer days until nesting commencement.

251

### 252 **3.3 Breeding success model**

253

254 For the 191 fields described in the grower survey, 20.4% (39/191;  $\pm 12\%$  95% CLM) were predicted  
255 to provide a successful breeding opportunity before harvest (Table 1), including 40% (34/83) of fields  
256 with ponding commencement in October and 4.6% (5/108) after October (Table 2). All 39 of the  
257 predicted successful breeding fields had a ponding period of 149 days or more, while none of the  
258 fields where breeding was predicted to be unsuccessful before harvest had a ponding period of  
259 more than 141 days (Figure 4; Table 2).

260

## 261 4. Discussion

### 262 4.1 Saving water at the expense of successful bittern breeding

263

264 Alternatives to early, continuous flooding in order to save water and reduce greenhouse gas  
265 emissions are promoted around the world as increasing the sustainability of rice farming (FAO,  
266 2020b; Sustainable Rice Platform, 2020). However, improving sustainability in one facet of a system  
267 is often only achieved by trading off benefits gained from others, with biodiversity commonly being  
268 disadvantaged (Fastré et al. 2020; Huntsinger et al. 2017; Marcilio-Silva et al. 2018; McInerney and  
269 Helton, 2016; Sesser et al. 2016; Thomson et al. 2019). We show here that the benefits of traditional  
270 rice farming practices to a globally endangered waterbird are inadvertently being traded off to  
271 increase water-use efficiency and maximise profit. Australasian bitterns will be unlikely to breed  
272 successfully in rice fields under the new agronomic protocols, undermining the ecological value of  
273 these important agricultural wetlands.

274

275 Potentially all nests could have been successful before harvest in rice fields with traditional, early  
276 permanent water that had a ponding period of at least 149 days, with 170 days between ponding  
277 commencement and harvest, but no nests in direct-drill and delayed permanent water fields with  
278 ponding less than 138 days ponding were likely to have succeeded. Unfortunately, the 77-day gap  
279 between ponding to nesting commencement recorded for aerial and broadcast sown early  
280 permanent water fields is unlikely to be markedly shorter in direct-drill and delayed permanent  
281 water fields because they attain heights that provide cover for bitterns later (B. Dunn, pers. comm.;  
282 L. Vial, pers. comm.), and the period between booming territory establishment and nesting in the  
283 Eurasian bittern is 1-2 months (Gilbert et al. 2007). Indeed, no bittern nests have ever been recorded  
284 in direct-drill and delayed permanent water fields. The early flooding appears to be more important  
285 for breeding success than prolonged ponding, given the moderate negative correlation between  
286 nesting commencement date and successful fledging before harvest. Early booming and nesting of

287 Eurasian bitterns in reedbeds is associated with increased breeding success, larger clutches and the  
288 capacity to re-nest or double brood, with the onset of booming linked to higher water levels and fish  
289 density (Mallord et al. 2000; Puglisi and Bretagnolle 2005; Gilbert et al. 2003; 2005; 2007).

290

#### 291 **4.2 Water-use efficiency trends in the Australian rice industry**

292

293 If rice growing is to be bittern-friendly, then early ponding and extended water retention will be  
294 essential for successful breeding, but the industry trend is in the opposite direction. During our  
295 study, delayed permanent water and drill-sowing, which involve a contraction of the ponding period,  
296 became the rice industry standard in Australia's Riverina, rising from 7% of fields in 2000, to 34% in  
297 2014, and 91% in 2020, though in 2021 it was 56% due to higher rainfall and favorable water  
298 allocations (Derbyshire et al. 2019; Ford, 2006; Herring et al. 2019; M. Groat, pers. comm). Water  
299 savings ranged from around 1.5-4.5 megalitres/ha per year, with approximately 11.9-14.9ML/ha  
300 needed for aerial sown rice with early permanent water compared to 10.4-12.9ML/ha in direct-drill  
301 sown rice with delayed permanent water, which offer substantial improvements in profit margin,  
302 especially in drought years (Dunn and Gaydon, 2011; Garnett et al., 2017; Dunn, 2018). The trend is  
303 reinforced by the increasing volatility of water markets and marginal water allocations, which delay  
304 sowing decisions and favour growing of short season varieties (Troidahl et al. 2020).

305

#### 306 **4.3 The importance of bittern prey**

307

308 Important relationships are likely to exist between breeding success, water management and bittern  
309 prey. Results from a pilot study suggest the bitterns' preference for nesting in fields with earlier  
310 ponding might be related to tadpole abundance, which was 12.3 times higher in December, as  
311 nesting commences, than those with the water-saving methods (Herring, M., unpublished data). Fish  
312 are also key prey for *Botaurus* bitterns (Kushlan and Hancock, 2005; Gilbert et al. 2007; Polak 2007,

2016) and can be more abundant as a result of early ponding: in Japan, the abundance of Cobitidae loaches, one species of which uses Riverina rice fields (*Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*; M. Herring, pers. obs.), was negatively correlated with ponding commencement date, probably because earlier inundation allowed more individuals to enter the rice fields and spawn (Katayama et al., 2011, 2019). In the Eurasian bittern, starvation was the main cause of chick mortality, significantly higher than predation (Puglisi and Bretagnolle 2005; Gilbert et al. 2007), emphasizing the importance of prey abundance. In Riverina rice fields, the non-native, invasive common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) was found to be the most abundant fish species, providing key prey for waterbirds (Taylor and Schultz, 2008), although their value may decline with the new agronomy and if a proposed large-scale, government-funded biological control program goes ahead (McColl, 2016; Kopf et al. 2019). There is also growing recognition of the latent value of integrating modern irrigation systems and inland fisheries to achieve multiple objectives for sustainability (Lynch et al. 2019; McCartney et al. 2019) and incorporating native fish conservation and fish farming in Riverina rice fields, while simultaneously producing rice, is appealing on multiple fronts beyond provision of waterbird prey. For example, the supply of zooplankton from rice fields to an adjoining river was associated with increased juvenile abundance of an endangered Japanese fish, Itasenpara bitterling (*Acheilognathus longipinnis*; Nishio et al., 2017), while Californian rice fields are being used to rear juvenile Chinook Salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*) as part of their upland-oceanic migration (Katz et al. 2017), and rice-fish farming systems can reduce synthetic inputs (Berg et al. 2017; Nayak et al. 2018) and improve food security (Ahmed and Garnett 2011).

333

#### 334 **4.4 Managing trade-offs to reduce biodiversity loss**

335

336 Novel habitats can sometimes have higher conservation values than their natural counterparts

337 (Maclagan et al. 2018; Sousa et al. 2019), but problems may arise when the habitat on which a

338 species has come to depend becomes less economically desirable and land-use changes (Luck et al.

2013, 2014; Singer and Parmesan, 2018; Stock et al. 2013). The biodiversity value of at least some rice fields could be maintained by using incentives that enable farmers to persist with early, continuous inundation, as well as triggering others to resume the traditional method. The bittern breeding habitat provisioning services of Riverina rice fields could be optimised for these fields, with the remainder continuing to focus on water-use efficiency and maximising yield per megalitre. As noted by Jessop *et al.* (2015), in optimizing restored wetlands for nutrient storage and removal, it is unrealistic to expect all ecosystem services to be maximised at every site. Incentives to alter agronomic practise have been used successfully elsewhere in the world, particularly in Europe and North America. For example, adjusting harvest and mowing regimes can increase the breeding success of bird species of conservation concern (e.g. Arbeiter et al., 2018; Bretagnolle et al., 2011; Holyoak et al. 2014; Santangeli et al., 2014; Weintraub et al. 2016). In Australia, such work could have benefits beyond bitterns, with a recent study showing this bird has the highest potential as a cost-effective, threat-based umbrella species among all current focal threatened taxa in Australia (Ward et al. 2020). Indeed, increasing the hydroperiod, while still maintaining a seasonal flooding-drying regime, has been identified as a key conservation action for successful reproduction in the threatened southern bell frog (*Litoria raniformis*), which uses Riverina rice fields and is key bittern prey (Hamer et al. 2016; Menkhorst, 2012; Wassens et al. 2010).

356

#### 357 **4.5 Adjacent refuges, grassy banks and nesting patches**

358

359 In addition to an early and sufficient ponding period, we have identified three management  
360 priorities for bittern conservation on rice farms. Firstly, bittern-friendly rice growing could  
361 incorporate dedicated refuges adjacent to rice fields, perhaps augmenting existing supply and  
362 drainage channels, and storage dams. In this way, irrigation infrastructure could complement rice  
363 field habitat during the growing season and enable use of rice farms after harvest, offering young  
364 birds additional time before dispersal, as well as earlier in the season prior to fields reaching



365 adequate heights that provide cover for bitterns. Water retention structures (excavated ditches)  
366 surrounding rice fields have been incentivised in Italy and Japan to reduce the negative effects of  
367 drying periods on aquatic organisms, offering a refuge from where recolonization of the rice field  
368 can occur, with larger, deeper structures being most successful (Giuliano and Bogliani, 2019; Miyu et  
369 al. 2020). Secondly, maintaining vegetated banks will provide cover from predators, along with  
370 assisting in integrated pest management (e.g. see Horgan *et al.* 2017), and supporting other cover-  
371 dependent wetland bird species. Many rice field banks are sprayed with herbicide to reduce weed  
372 prevalence but, in Italy, not only was rice field use by Eurasian bitterns higher in areas with  
373 vegetated banks (Longoni *et al.* 2011) but so too was butterfly and orthopteran diversity and  
374 abundance (Giuliano et al., 2018). Thirdly, to incentivise earlier bittern nesting within the field, rice  
375 growers could be compensated to create small nesting patches (e.g. 10-25 m<sup>2</sup>), where taller and  
376 thicker rice growth is encouraged, or other vegetation such as reeds is propagated in slightly deeper  
377 areas which would then retain both water and cover after field drainage and harvesting.

378

#### 379 **4.6 Targeted restoration and wetland management**

380

381 Another way to reduce the impact of increased water-use efficiency on bitterns is through  
382 restoration or augmentation of wetland habitats beyond rice farms. Fortunately, concerted bittern  
383 conservation efforts are underway, such as the targeted delivery of environmental water at key sites  
384 (DPIE, 2020), the design and modification of wetlands to encourage bittern breeding (Paloczi, 2020),  
385 and strategic burning to maintain early successional stages in reed-beds (GHCMA, 2019). Natural  
386 wetlands can support higher bittern breeding densities than occur in rice fields (Belcher et al. 2017),  
387 and bitterns appear to have no preference for breeding in rice, so despite the possibility of lower  
388 breeding success, it is unlikely rice fields will operate as ecological traps (see Battin, 2004). However,  
389 there is potential, as a result of increasing water-use efficiency, for a population sink to develop,  
390 with reproductive output falling below replacement levels. The risk of this would be reduced

391 through bittern-friendly rice growing and restoration of natural wetlands, the relative costs and  
392 multiple benefits of which need to be considered (e.g. see Gardali et al. 2021.).

393

## 394 **5. Conclusion**

395 While improved water-use efficiency in farming is widely touted as being beneficial to the  
396 environment and is a common feature of sustainable intensification, the effects on biodiversity have  
397 been neglected. We show here that the value of rice fields to the endangered Australasian bittern is  
398 being undermined by efforts to save water and it is likely other species are also impacted. We  
399 recommend development of bittern-friendly incentives for rice growers to maximise bittern  
400 breeding success while still producing an economically viable crop. Incentives should be targeted at  
401 providing a ponding period from October or early November and sustained for at least 149 days. This  
402 could be supplemented by: 1) providing or augmenting adjacent habitat refuges such as vegetated  
403 channels and storage dams, 2) maintaining grassy banks, and 3) trialling nesting patches. Future  
404 research should help understand the potential role of incentives, novel water policy and the  
405 feasibility of bittern-friendly rice products, where the consumer pays a premium to cover additional  
406 costs to growers. The capacity for farmland to complement biodiversity conservation in protected  
407 areas is greatly reduced with a simplistic, binary framing that water resources are either used to  
408 produce food and fibre, or used for the environment. The use of rice fields by bitterns provides an  
409 opportunity to develop and test integrated water management scenarios, managing trade-offs and  
410 maximising the multifunctional benefits per megalitre used.

411

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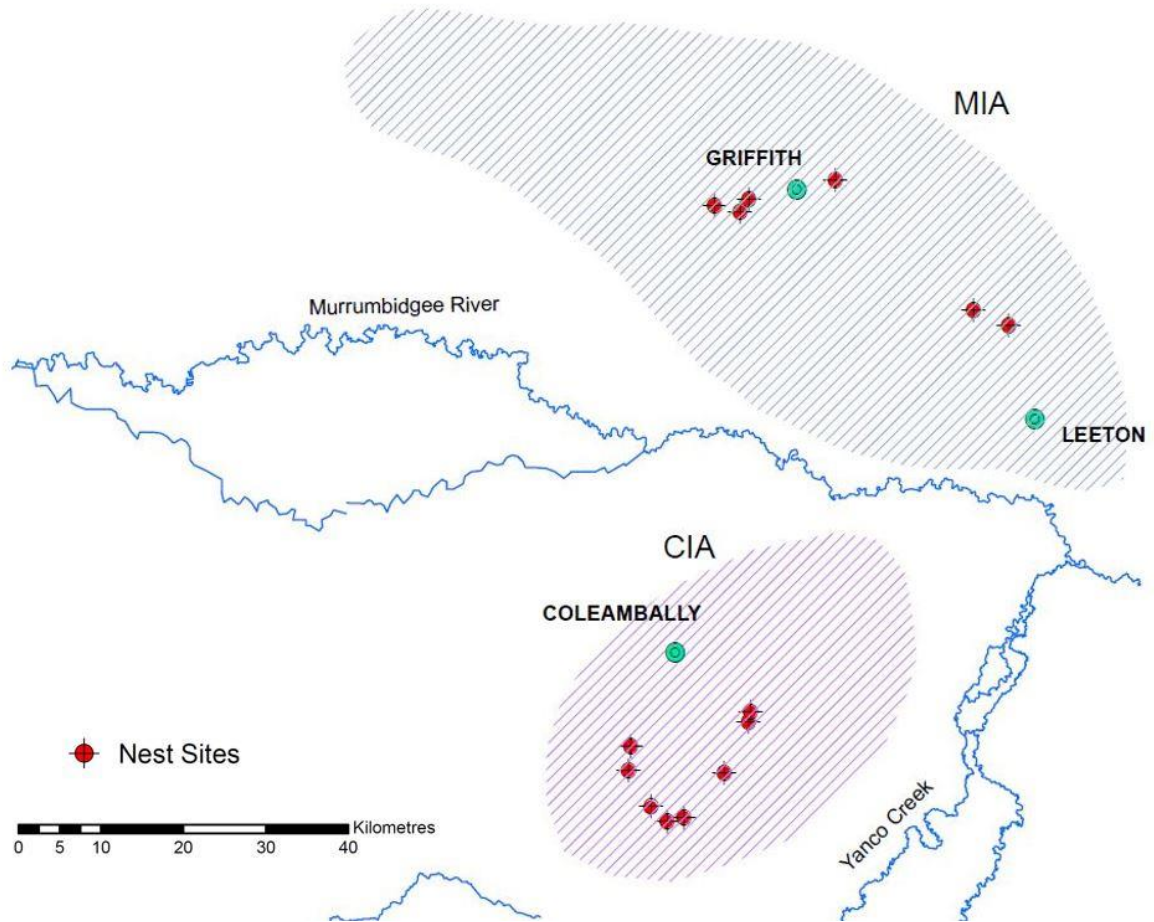
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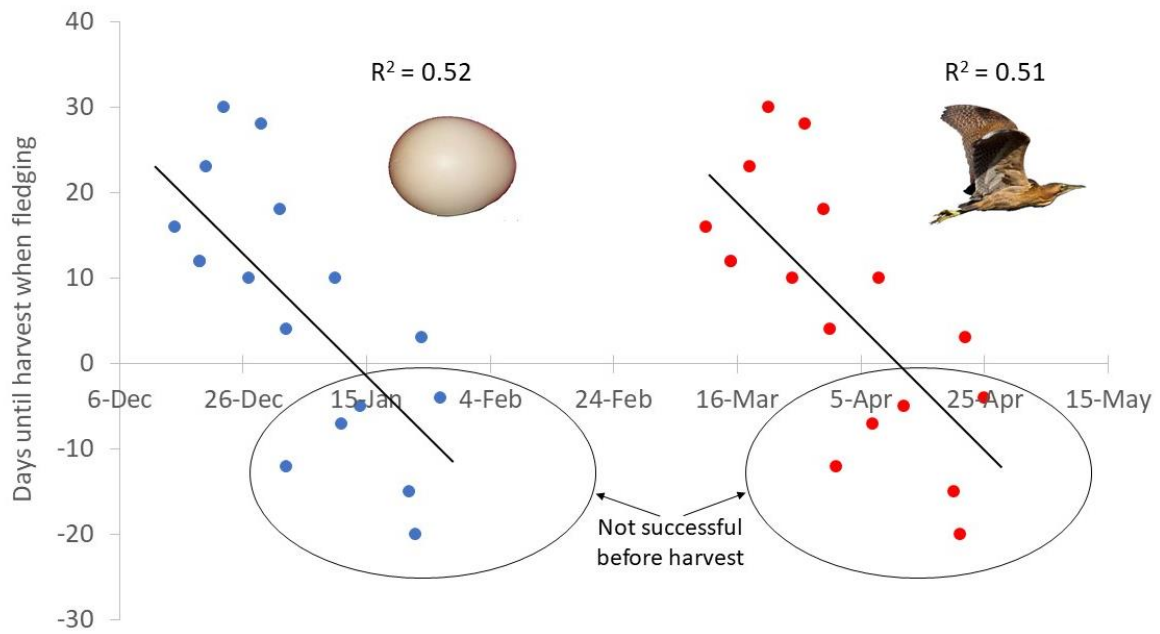
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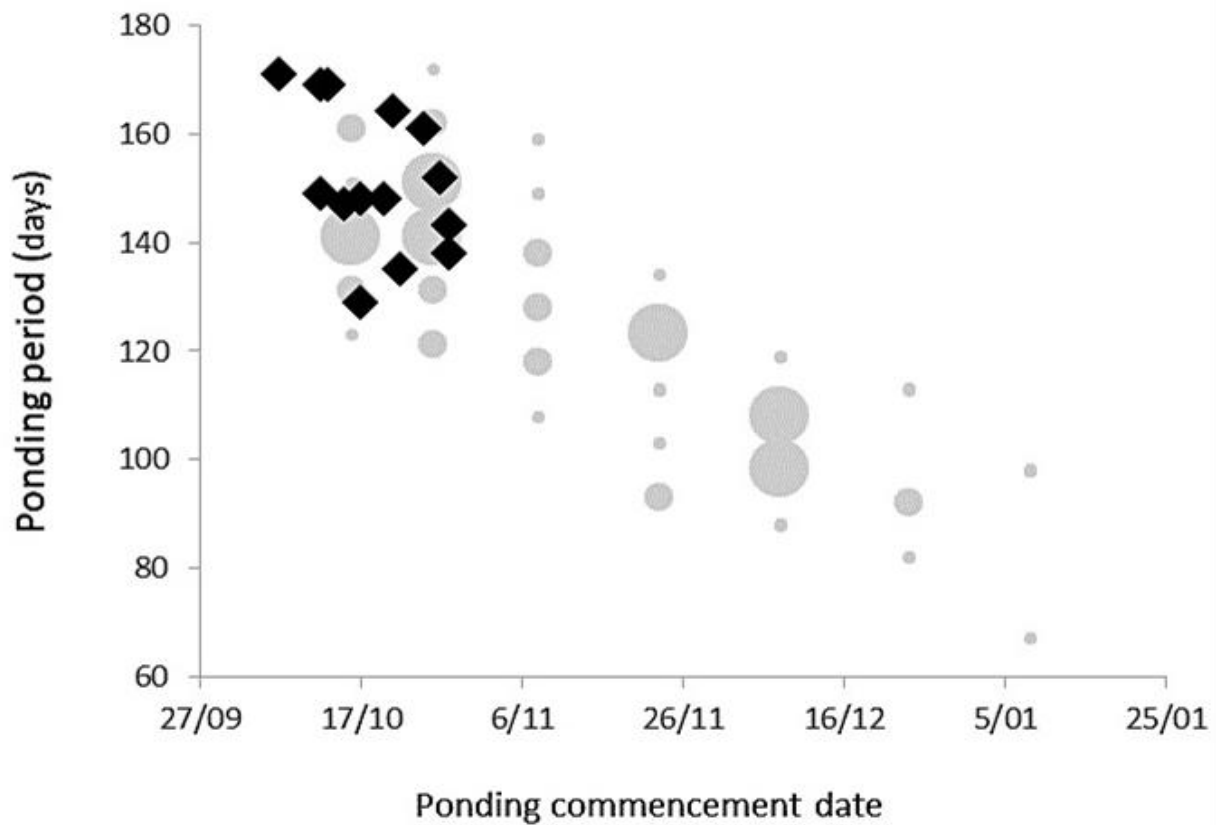
**Figure 1: Location of 14 rice fields where 17 Australasian bittern nests were located from 2013-2018 across the Murrumbidgee Irrigation Area (MIA) and Coleambally Irrigation Area (CIA) in the Riverina region, New South Wales.**



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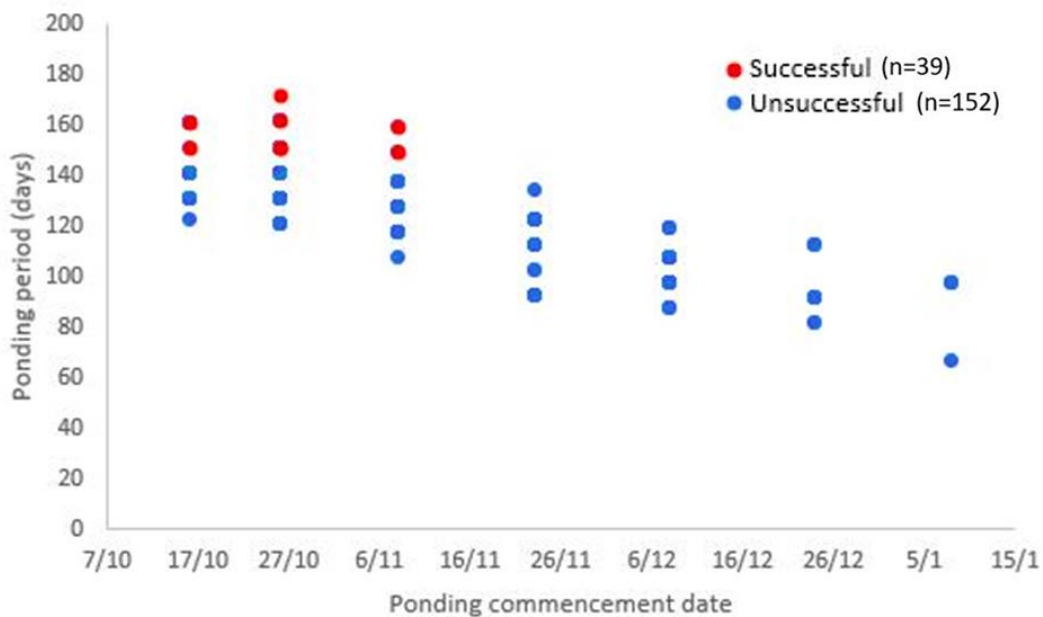
**Figure 2: Estimated nesting commencement (blue points) and final chick fledging date (red points), with number of days until rice harvest when the final chick fledged, for 17 Australasian bittern nests from 2013-2018 in the Riverina region, New South Wales, with separate coefficients of determination.**





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Figure 3: Pondering period and commencement date for 205 rice fields in the Riverina region, New South Wales, including 191 from a grower survey, and 14 where 17 Australasian bittern nests were found (black diamonds). Grey circles represent number of fields (small = 1-4, medium = 5-10, large = 11-18).



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**Figure 4: Ponding commencement and period for 191 rice fields in the Riverina region, New South Wales, with predictions for successful Australasian bittern breeding opportunities before harvest indicated in red.**

**Table 1: Proportion of 191 rice fields in the Riverina region, New South Wales, predicted to have potential successful bittern breeding before harvest for three different ponding to nesting commencement periods: mean, upper and lower 95% CLM.**

	<b>69 Ponding Days to Laying (Lower 95% CLM)</b>	<b>77 Ponding Days to Laying (Mean)</b>	<b>85 Ponding Days to Laying (Upper 95% CLM)</b>
<b>Successful</b>	37% (70)	20% (39)	8% (16)
<b>Unsuccessful</b>	63% (121)	80% (152)	92% (175)

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**Table 2: Ponding commencement and period for 191 rice fields in the Riverina region, New South Wales, with predictions for successful Australasian Bittern breeding opportunities before harvest (shaded in grey). Numbers are successful fields, with totals in parentheses.**

<b>Ponding commencement date</b>	<b>Ponding period (days)</b>							<b>Successful (%)</b>
	<b>≥162</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>159</b>	<b>151</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>&lt;138</b>	
<b>16-Oct</b>		7 (7)		2 (2)		0 (12)	0 (9)	30
<b>26-Oct</b>	7 (7)			18 (18)		0 (12)	0 (16)	47
<b>8-Nov</b>			2 (2)		3 (3)		0 (21)	19
<b>≥ 23-Nov</b>							0 (82)	0
<b>Successful (%)</b>	100	100	100	100	100	0	0	

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