

1 **Beyond pattern to process: current themes and future directions for the**
2 **conservation of woodland birds through restoration plantings**

3 Donna J. Belder ^{A B E}

4 Jennifer C. Pierson ^{A C}

5 Karen Ikin ^{A B D}

6 David B. Lindenmayer ^{A B D}

7

8 ^A Fenner School of Environment and Society, The Australian National University, Canberra, ACT,
9 2601 Australia

10 ^B National Environmental Science Program Threatened Species Recovery Hub, The Australian
11 National University, Canberra, ACT, 2601 Australia

12 ^C Environment, Planning and Sustainable Development Directorate, ACT Government, Canberra,
13 ACT, 2620 Australia

14 ^D ARC Centre of Excellence for Environmental Decisions, The Australian National University,
15 Canberra, ACT, 2601 Australia

16 ^E Corresponding author. Email: donna.belder@anu.edu.au

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Habitat loss as a result of land conversion for agriculture is a leading cause of global biodiversity
20 loss and altered ecosystem processes. Restoration plantings are an increasingly common strategy to
21 address habitat loss in fragmented agricultural landscapes. However, the capacity of restoration
22 plantings to support reproducing populations of native plants and animals is rarely measured or
23 monitored. This review focuses on avifaunal response to revegetation in Australian temperate
24 woodlands, one of the world's most heavily altered biomes. Woodland birds are a species
25 assemblage of conservation concern, but only limited research to date has gone beyond pattern data
26 and occupancy trends to examine whether they persist and breed in restoration plantings. Moreover,
27 habitat quality and resource availability, including food, nesting sites and adequate protection from
28 predation, remain largely unquantified. Several studies have found that some bird species, including
29 species of conservation concern, will preferentially occupy restoration plantings relative to remnant
30 woodland patches. However, detailed empirical research to verify long-term population growth,
31 colonisation and extinction dynamics is lacking. If restoration plantings are preferentially occupied
32 but fail to provide sufficient quality habitat for woodland birds to form breeding populations, they
33 may act as ecological traps, exacerbating population declines. Monitoring breeding success and site

34 fidelity are under-utilised pathways to understanding which, if any, bird species are being supported
35 by restoration plantings in the long term. There has been limited research on these topics
36 internationally, and almost none in Australian temperate woodland systems. Key knowledge gaps
37 centre on provision of food resources, formation of optimal foraging patterns, nest-predation levels
38 and the prevalence of primary predators, the role of brood parasitism, and the effects of patch size
39 and isolation on resource availability and population dynamics in a restoration context. To ensure
40 that restoration plantings benefit woodland birds and are cost-effective as conservation strategies,
41 the knowledge gaps identified by this review should be investigated as priorities in future research.

42

43 **Additional keywords:** breeding success, population dynamics, revegetation.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 A large fraction of the world's woodland and forest avifauna is declining (IUCN 2016; Waldron *et al.*
47 2017), reflecting the well-documented global trend of biodiversity loss associated with
48 intensifying anthropogenic activities (Butchart *et al.* 2010). An increasingly common strategy to
49 address habitat loss in fragmented agricultural landscapes is the creation of habitat through
50 revegetation, often referred to as 'restoration plantings' (Pastorok *et al.* 1997; Cairns 2000; Rey
51 Benayas *et al.* 2009; Barral *et al.* 2015). These are typically small patches of planted native
52 vegetation, and are often intended to facilitate landscape connectivity and conservation of fauna
53 such as birds (Block *et al.* 2001; Freudenberger 2001). Patterns of bird species occupancy and
54 abundance in restoration plantings are commonly used to infer habitat quality (Cunningham *et al.*
55 2008; Munro *et al.* 2011; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2012). However, there has been limited research on
56 the population responses of birds to restoration plantings or other forms of habitat restoration, such
57 as remediation (Larison *et al.* 2001; Germaine and Germaine 2002). It is crucial to understand the
58 population dynamics of birds in revegetated landscapes to establish whether restoration plantings
59 provide quality habitat in which birds can survive and reproduce. This is particularly relevant for
60 threatened and declining bird assemblages that may come to rely on restoration plantings for long-
61 term population stability.

62

63 The ecological value of temperate woodland restoration plantings for woodland birds in Australia
64 has traditionally been assessed using pattern data, primarily presence and abundance of bird species
65 in study sites. This pattern-based research (e.g. Table 2) provides a critical basis for understanding
66 the potential value of restoration plantings for woodland birds in fragmented environments.

67 However, to supplement the existing body of knowledge, a much deeper understanding is needed of

68 the demographic and behavioural responses (e.g. survival, site fidelity, breeding success, dispersal)
69 of woodland bird populations to habitat restoration. This is fundamental to determine the
70 conservation and management value of restoration plantings, including their potential contribution
71 to reversing species declines (Bennett and Watson 2011). For example, species that have been
72 classified as ‘planting specialists’ (Table 1) may be expected to successfully breed in restoration
73 plantings, but this has not been adequately tested. It is, therefore, essential to begin to explore these
74 processes in a restoration context, asking the following question: ‘Do restoration plantings facilitate
75 the long-term persistence of birds in fragmented landscapes?’.

76
77 Previous research on bird community population dynamics, such as breeding success, has mostly
78 dealt with birds in remnant habitat (e.g. Hoover *et al.* 1995; Zarette and Jenkins 2000; Berry 2001;
79 Zarette 2001; Herkert *et al.* 2003; Debus 2006a, 2006b; Holoubek and Jensen 2016), with a subset
80 of comparative studies in fragmented and intact landscapes (e.g. Burke and Nol 2000; Cooper *et al.*
81 2002; Luck 2003). The majority of earlier work in revegetated landscapes has focused on species
82 richness and abundance, with an emphasis on monitoring for occupancy by birds through time after
83 establishment of restoration plantings (e.g. Taws 2002; Twedt *et al.* 2002; Martin *et al.* 2004;
84 Barrett *et al.* 2008; Saunders and Nicholls 2008; Freeman *et al.* 2009; Gould 2011; Munro *et al.*
85 2011; Becker *et al.* 2013; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2016).

86
87 This earlier research has collectively established that some woodland bird species are able to
88 colonise and occupy restoration plantings. The pressure of potential extinction debts for woodland
89 birds (Ford *et al.* 2009), that is, continued declines even after habitat loss and degradation (or other
90 challenges) are eliminated or reversed (Kuussaari *et al.* 2009), adds impetus to the need for
91 replacing lost woodland habitat. However, it is imperative the effects of revegetation on avifauna
92 are more comprehensively understood, lest they fail to address (or at worst, exacerbate) population
93 declines.

94
95 *Approach*

96 In the present paper, we review the current knowledge on avifaunal response to revegetation and
97 habitat restoration, and provide a general overview and synthesis of existing and future research
98 directions on the topic of woodland birds in restoration plantings. We focus largely on Australian
99 temperate woodlands, the cover of which has been reduced by up to 90% over the past 150 years as
100 a result of land clearing for agriculture (Paton and O’Connor 2010). We build on the preliminary
101 overview by Munro *et al.* (2007), consolidating the most recent research on the relationship
102 between birds and restoration plantings and examining the available information that underpins

103 practical restoration of woodland habitat. We move beyond the scope of previous reviews by
104 exploring how the implementation of restoration plantings might influence the long-term survival
105 and persistence of woodland bird communities in fragmented agricultural landscapes. Finally, we
106 identify gaps in the current knowledge and propose further research that would enhance
107 understanding of the population dynamics of woodland birds in restoration plantings and
108 revegetated landscapes.

109

110 We identified relevant literature for the present paper by searching publication databases and
111 citation lists, including ScienceDirect, Scopus and Google Scholar. We took a non- systematic
112 approach and used a broad range and combination of search terms, including ‘woodland birds’,
113 ‘breeding success’, ‘population dynamics’, ‘occupancy’, ‘distribution’, ‘revegetation’ and
114 ‘restoration’. We searched the internet and an institutional library catalogue for non-peer-reviewed
115 work, including books, theses and reports.

116

117 **Background**

118 *Habitat degradation and restoration*

119 Temperate woodlands once covered an extensive area of southern Australia, however, most have
120 been cleared for agriculture since European settlement (Saunders and Curry 1990; Lindenmayer *et*
121 *al.* 2010a; Bradshaw 2012). Estimates vary, but ~32million hectares, or up to 90%, of native
122 temperate woodland vegetation cover has been cleared (Vesk and Mac Nally 2006; Paton and
123 O’Connor 2010). Scattered remnants persist, but because of their isolation and degradation history,
124 they are vulnerable to threatening processes such as agricultural intensification, grazing, nutrient
125 enrichment, weed invasion and climate change (Eldridge 2003; Maron and Fitzsimons 2007;
126 Duncan and Dorrough 2009; Mac Nally *et al.* 2009; Prober *et al.* 2012, 2014).

127

128 The negative effects of broad-scale habitat clearance on the Australian environment began to be
129 widely recognised in the 1980s (Saunders *et al.* 1991; Hobbs and Saunders 2012; Lindenmayer *et*
130 *al.* 2013; Campbell *et al.* 2017). Changes in attitude towards land management throughout the
131 1980s and 1990s led to small-scale revegetation programs that were initially instigated by the
132 farming and environmental sectors to address issues such as salinity and erosion (Stirzaker *et al.*
133 2002; Campbell *et al.* 2017), with larger-scale government- initiated revegetation programs such as
134 the National Tree Program and the One Billion Trees Program applied within the next two decades
135 (Hajkovicz 2009; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2013). Many early plantings were implemented without a
136 well-defined wildlife conservation plan, but have, nonetheless, in some cases been occupied by
137 woodland birds and other fauna (Munro *et al.* 2007; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2016).

138

139 In more recent years, some restoration plantings have been implemented with clear plans and goals
140 relating to ecological factors, such as the habitat requirements of focal species (Freudenberger
141 2001; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2013). Knowledge of effective revegetation techniques has also been used
142 to begin construction of large-scale habitat-linkage corridors (e.g. Gondwana Link) through the
143 acquisition and revegetation of farming properties (Paton and O'Connor 2010). An ongoing (up to
144 2020), large-scale government initiative is the 20 Million Trees Program (Australian Government
145 Department of the Environment and Energy 2017), which aims to 'improve the extent, connectivity
146 and condition of native vegetation', with explicit reference to threatened species such as the
147 southern emu-wren (*Stipiturus malachurus*) and regent parrot (*Polytelis anthopeplus*) (Australian
148 Government Department of the Environment and Energy 2017; Landcare Australia 2017).
149 Vegetation is also increasingly being planted for carbon sequestration, and such plantings have the
150 potential to enhance the conservation of biodiversity (Bradshaw *et al.* 2013; Collard *et al.* 2013).

151

152 With ongoing large-scale revegetation programs such as the 20 Million Trees Program underway in
153 Australia, extensive areas of temperate woodland restoration plantings are being added to the
154 landscape every year (Atyeo and Thackway 2009; Campbell *et al.* 2017). However, it is important
155 to note that Australia's rate of land clearing remains among the highest in the world (Bradshaw
156 2012; Evans 2016). With an ongoing net loss of habitat, restoration plantings are a critical
157 conservation strategy for woodland birds and other fauna. Many restoration projects claim to focus
158 on creating habitat for threatened or declining wildlife (e.g. Landcare Australia 2017). There is
159 evidence that a focal-species approach can be used to develop guidelines for revegetation programs
160 (Freudenberger 2001; Freudenberger and Brooker 2004; Wood *et al.* 2004). However, its usefulness
161 as a conservation tool is debated (Lambeck 2002; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2002). Recent research
162 suggests that although the focal-species approach has some merit, it is also necessary to ensure the
163 flexibility of management actions such that all species are accounted for in conservation; focusing
164 on one species may not benefit others of conservation concern, especially those that might not occur
165 in species-rich assemblages (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, a generalised lack of
166 information on the habitat requirements and population processes of many threatened and declining
167 woodland bird species (Rayner *et al.* 2014) means that many revegetation programs are being
168 implemented without sufficient knowledge as to the habitat requirements of the species they should
169 be supporting (Block *et al.* 2001; Montague-Drake *et al.* 2009; Polyakov *et al.* 2015).

170

171 Reviews of restoration practice as early as the 1990s have outlined steps that should be taken to
172 ensure the successful restoration of fragmented and degraded ecosystems, as well as challenges

173 posed by large-scale revegetation (Pastorok *et al.* 1997; Block *et al.* 2001; Hobbs 2003;
174 Lindenmayer *et al.* 2008; Duncan and Dorrough 2009; Prober and Smith 2009; Campbell *et al.*
175 2017); also see the National Standards for the Practice of Ecological Restoration in Australia
176 (McDonald *et al.* 2016). The importance of setting measurable goals for restoration is crucial and
177 underpins how we define long-term success in a restoration context (Cairns 2000; Block *et al.* 2001;
178 Ruiz-Jaen and Aide 2005; Herrick *et al.* 2006; Hobbs 2017). This should include assessing the
179 capacity of restoration plantings to support reproducing populations, an attribute that is rarely
180 measured in restoration monitoring projects (Ruiz-Jaen and Aide 2005; Vesk and Mac Nally 2006).

181

182 **Patterns: bird responses to revegetation in Australian temperate woodlands**

183 Many pattern-based studies have investigated the effects of habitat loss, fragmentation and
184 degradation on declining woodland bird species in Australia (reviewed by Ford *et al.* 2001; Ford
185 2011); fewer have examined how these species respond to restoration plantings (Nichols and
186 Watkins 1984; Heath 2003; Robinson 2006; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2007, 2010b, 2012; Barrett *et al.*
187 2008; Cunningham *et al.* 2008; Saunders and Nicholls 2008; Loyn *et al.* 2009; Selwood *et al.* 2009;
188 Munro *et al.* 2011; Shanahan *et al.* 2011; Bennett *et al.* 2013; Vesk *et al.* 2015). Much of the
189 research on birds in revegetated landscapes has focused on answering the question ‘Do birds use
190 restoration plantings?’, and, concurrently, ‘Which plantings are preferentially selected?’.

191

192 Previous research has discovered that some woodland bird species, including species of
193 conservation concern, will readily occupy restoration plantings, and may even preferentially select
194 plantings over remnant woodland (Nichols and Watkins 1984; Heath 2003; Kinross 2004; Martin *et al.*
195 2004; Kavanagh *et al.* 2007; Cunningham *et al.* 2008; Saunders and Nicholls 2008; Loyn *et al.*
196 2009; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2010b, 2012; Martin *et al.* 2011). These species have been termed
197 ‘planting specialists’, that is, species that are more likely to be found in restoration plantings than in
198 woodland remnants (Table 1). It should be noted that inferred habitat preferences for some species,
199 such as the eastern yellow robin, scarlet robin, and southern whiteface (see Table 1 for scientific
200 names), are not consistent among studies.

201

202

203 **Table 1 – Planting specialists**

204 Woodland bird species identified as ‘planting specialists’ – bird species more likely to be found in plantings
 205 than in remnants or other sites – in Australian studies of bird occurrence, distribution and abundance in
 206 revegetated landscapes. Species are listed in taxonomic order (Christidis and Boles 2008).

Species		Studies	Study region(s)
superb fairy-wren	<i>Malurus cyaneus</i>	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
white-browed scrubwren	<i>Sericornis frontalis</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008	South-west Slopes, NSW
speckled warbler ^C	<i>Chthonicola sagittata</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007; Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
weebill ^C	<i>Smicrornis brevirostris</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007; Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011	South-west Slopes, NSW
western gerygone	<i>Gerygone fusca</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
striated thornbill	<i>Acanthiza lineata</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007	South-west Slopes, NSW
yellow thornbill	<i>Acanthiza nana</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007; Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
yellow-rumped thornbill ^C	<i>Acanthiza chrysorrhoa</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
southern whiteface ^C	<i>Aphelocephala leucopsis</i>	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008;	South-west Slopes, NSW
white-plumed honeyeater	<i>Lichenostomus penicillatus</i>	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
red wattlebird	<i>Anthochaera carunculata</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
rufous whistler ^C	<i>Pachycephala rufiventris</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
grey shrike-thrush	<i>Colluricincla harmonica</i>	Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
grey fantail	<i>Rhipidura albiscapa</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
willie wagtail	<i>Rhipidura leucophrys</i>	Heath 2003; Martin <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	Goomalling Shire, WA; South-west Slopes, NSW
scarlet robin ^{CV}	<i>Petroica boodang</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008	South-west Slopes, NSW
red-capped robin ^C	<i>Petroica goodenovii</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
flame robin ^{CV}	<i>Petroica phoenicea</i>	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
hooded robin ^{CV}	<i>Melanodryas cucullata</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008	South-west Slopes, NSW
eastern yellow robin	<i>Eopsaltria australis</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008	South-west Slopes, NSW
red-browed finch	<i>Neochmia temporalis</i>	Kavanagh <i>et al.</i> 2007; Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2012	South-west Slopes, NSW
diamond firetail ^{CV}	<i>Stagonopleura guttata</i>	Cunningham <i>et al.</i> 2008	South-west Slopes, NSW

207 ^C Of conservation concern

208 ^V Classified as Vulnerable in NSW

210 Bird species occupancy and abundance in restoration plantings appear to be influenced by a
211 complex relationship between context (location within the landscape, e.g. proximity to other areas
212 of native vegetation), configuration (e.g. shape, area) and content (structural and floristic variables)
213 (Nichols and Watkins 1984; Kavanagh *et al.* 2007; Cunningham *et al.* 2008; Kinross and Nicol
214 2008; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2010b, 2016; Munro *et al.* 2011; Table 2). Differences in bird community
215 composition in restoration plantings and remnant woodland have been consistently reported in
216 Australia (Arnold 2003; Loyn *et al.* 2007; Martin *et al.* 2011; Munro *et al.* 2011; Lindenmayer *et al.*
217 2012), as well as in similarly restored habitat patches in Brazil (Becker *et al.* 2013), China (Zhang
218 *et al.* 2011), Mexico (MacGregor-Fors *et al.* 2010) and the United States (Brawn 2006; Ortega-
219 Álvarez *et al.* 2013). Some studies have noted that the bird community continually changes
220 following initial establishment as planted vegetation matures and becomes more similar to remnant
221 habitat (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2016; Debus *et al.* 2017); generalists and species favoured by open
222 habitats are more common in the early stages, whereas shrub-dwelling and canopy specialists
223 colonise as the habitat structure develops over time (Twedt *et al.* 2002; Heath 2003; Jansen 2005;
224 Freeman *et al.* 2009; Gould and Mackey 2015).

225

226 Habitat composition and structure strongly influence the composition and abundance of bird
227 communities in restoration plantings (Arnold 2003; Barrett *et al.* 2008; Munro *et al.* 2011; Gould
228 and Mackey 2015). In general, woodland bird abundance and diversity appear to increase with an
229 increasing habitat complexity; the inclusion of a more diverse plant species assemblage, leaf litter,
230 and an increase in canopy cover have all been positively associated with bird species richness and
231 abundance (Barrett *et al.* 2008; Bonifacio *et al.* 2011; Munro *et al.* 2011; Gould and Mackey 2015).
232 It is important to recognise the diverse ways in which different species or foraging guilds may
233 respond to habitat features in restoration plantings. For example, Comer and Wooller (2002) found
234 that a ‘clumped’ spatial arrangement of shrubs in restoration plantings facilitated competitive
235 exclusion of small honeyeaters by larger species, decreasing overall nectarivore diversity in the
236 plantings. Barrett *et al.* (2008) found that ground-foraging insectivores were under-represented in
237 restoration plantings, and postulated that lack of native forb diversity may have been a likely cause.
238 According to Arnold (2003), the inclusion of canopy and perching sites within 1 m of the ground
239 results in a greater abundance of insectivores in restoration plantings. Martin *et al.* (2004) found
240 significantly lower abundances of species that primarily forage on bark in restoration plantings than
241 in woodland remnants; this may be due, in part, to the fact that certain habitat features, such as
242 decorticating bark and fallen timber, take decades or even centuries to develop in temperate
243 woodland habitats (Cunningham *et al.* 2007; Mac Nally 2008; Vesk *et al.* 2008; Munro *et al.* 2009).

244 This may also be why restoration plantings are not predicted to support certain woodland-dependent
 245 bird species until 40, 60, or 100 years after establishment (Thomson *et al.* 2009).

246

247 There is evidence that the amount and proximity of remnant or planted vegetation in the area
 248 surrounding a restoration planting may have as much, if not more, influence on bird assemblage
 249 than does the content of the planting itself (Kavanagh *et al.* 2007; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2007, 2010b).

250 The rufous whistler (*Pachycephala rufiventris*) and grey fantail (*Rhipidura albiscapa*) are two
 251 species that exhibit a positive response to an increase in the amount of planted native vegetation
 252 surrounding a restoration planting (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2010b). A habitat patch that is close to other
 253 patches may provide better foraging opportunities for species with large home ranges, such as the
 254 rufous whistler. Well- connected restoration plantings may also be key to supporting species whose
 255 local persistence is limited by dispersal, such as the brown treecreeper (*Climacteris picumnus*).

256

257 **Table 2 – Restoration planting characteristics and woodland bird occupancy**

258 Variables found to influence occupancy by bird species in restoration plantings in Australian studies of bird
 259 occurrence, distribution and abundance in revegetated landscapes. Adapted from Lindenmayer *et al.*
 260 (2010b).

Variable type	Variable	Studies	Study region(s)
Context	Landscape vegetation cover, distance to nearest other native vegetation	Heath 2003; Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	Goomalling Shire, WA; Box-ironbark region, VIC; South-west Slopes, NSW; West Gippsland, VIC
Configuration	Shape	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Area	Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	Box-ironbark region, VIC; South-west Slopes, NSW; West Gippsland, VIC
	Topography	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
Content	No. plants	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	No. native plant species	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	South-west Slopes, NSW; West Gippsland, VIC
	Canopy depth	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Canopy height	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Overstorey cover	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Midstorey cover	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Understorey/ground cover	Heath 2003; Arnold 2003; Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	Goomalling Shire, WA; Wandoo woodland, WA; South-west Slopes, NSW
	Mistletoe	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW
	Logs, fallen timber, leaf litter	Barrett <i>et al.</i> 2008; Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	Box-ironbark region, VIC; South-west Slopes, NSW; West Gippsland, VIC
	Dead trees/shrubs	Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	South-west Slopes, NSW

	Remnant/paddock trees	Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	Box-ironbark region, VIC; South-west Slopes, NSW; West Gippsland, VIC
	Grazing	Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010b	Box-ironbark region, VIC; South-west Slopes, NSW
Other	Age	Selwood <i>et al.</i> 2009; Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	Box-ironbark region, VIC; West Gippsland, VIC
	Vegetation condition	Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011	West Gippsland, VIC

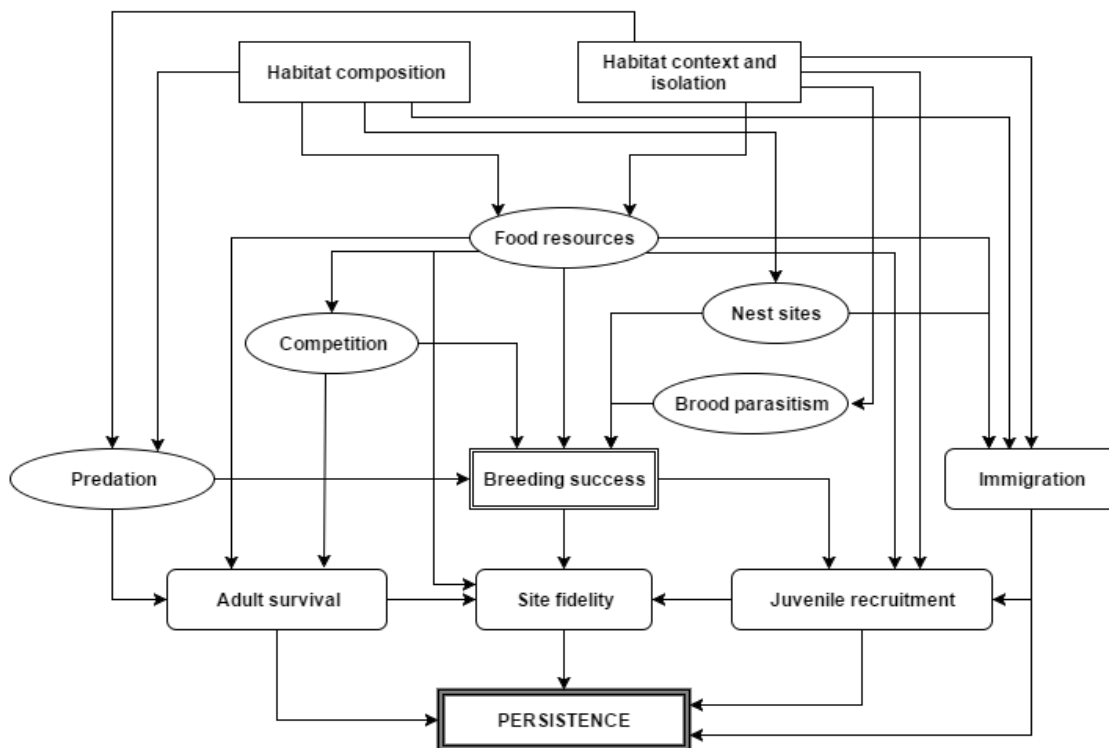
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262

263 **Process: breeding and persistence in restoration plantings**

264 Do restoration plantings actually provide suitable breeding habitat for woodland birds, and, if they
 265 do, are attempts at breeding by birds in these sites successful? To persist in the long term, birds
 266 must be able to gain required resources from the patch they select (or from adjacent areas). This
 267 includes resources such as food and nesting sites, but also habitat services such as adequate
 268 protection from predation and competition (Figure 1).

269



270

271 **Figure 1** Conceptual diagram of interrelated factors that may influence the breeding success
 272 and persistence of woodland bird populations in restoration plantings. Bold/double rectangles
 273 = the processes we focus on in this review (breeding success and persistence). Rounded
 274 rectangles = population processes i.e. what the birds are doing. Rectangles = broad patch-
 275 level characteristics i.e. what type of habitat the birds are living in and where. Circles = fine-
 276 scale patch-level attributes i.e. what the birds experience in the habitat patch.

277

278 There is documented evidence of breeding activity and site fidelity in multiple woodland bird
 279 species colonising young restoration plantings (2–3 years old) (Barrett *et al.* 2008). Bird breeding

280 activity also has been reported in more mature plantings (up to 26 years old for directly planted
281 sites, and 111 years for restored woodland remnants) (Selwood *et al.* 2009; Mac Nally *et al.* 2010;
282 Bond 2011). However, species preference for, and occupancy of, a given habitat type is not
283 necessarily correlated with long-term survival and persistence (Van Horne 1983; Battin 2004; Loyn
284 *et al.* 2009). This is particularly relevant for declining species, which may occupy a site but display
285 only limited evidence of successful breeding (Selwood *et al.* 2009; Mac Nally *et al.* 2010).

286

287 Restored habitats, including restoration plantings, have the potential to become ecological traps for
288 bird populations. Ecological traps occur when individuals use habitat cues to preferentially colonise
289 sites that are of inferior habitat quality or associated with lower breeding success than are other sites
290 (Kokko and Sutherland 2001; Schlaepfer *et al.* 2002; Battin 2004; Robertson and Hutto 2006). This
291 concept differs from an ecological ‘sink’, which is simply an area of poor-quality habitat that is not
292 preferentially occupied, in which the population tends towards decline (Dias 1996). Individuals may
293 also inadvertently avoid high-quality patches because of misleading habitat cues, which, likewise,
294 creates an ecological trap mechanism at the landscape level (Gilroy and Sutherland 2007). If
295 restoration plantings were to act as ecological traps, with remnant habitat patches as the population
296 sources, metapopulation declines may be worsened rather than reversed by the extensive planting of
297 native vegetation (Figure 2).

298

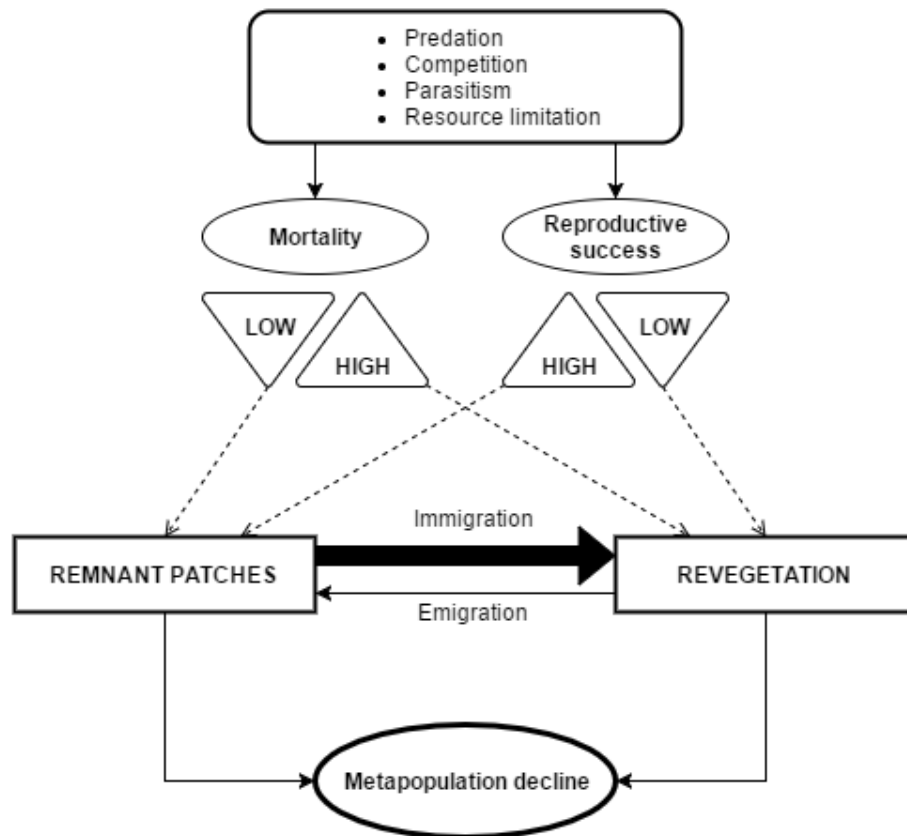


Figure 2 A conceptual model of an ecological trap mechanism operating in a fragmented landscape with restoration plantings and remnant patches. Restoration plantings have the potential to become ecological traps if they are preferentially occupied but lead to lower reproductive success and/or higher mortality than remnant patches. ○ = population process, △= trend in population process, □ = habitat type.

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307 There are some instances in the global literature of restored habitats acting as ecological traps. For
308 example, Larison *et al.* (2001) found that the song sparrow (*Melospiza melodia*) in California had
309 lower reproductive success in restored riparian forest than it had in naturally regenerating or mature
310 forest, owing to the restored stands providing fewer nesting-site choices and less protection from
311 predation. Managed prairie sites were described as ecological traps by Shochat *et al.* (2005),
312 because higher invertebrate abundances attracted breeding birds, which, subsequently, experienced
313 poorer nesting success than in other sites. Chalfoun and Martin (2007) also documented lower nest
314 success of Brewer's sparrow (*Spizella breweri*) in North American shrub-steppe landscapes with a
315 greater proportion of shrub cover, despite greater densities of birds settling in these landscapes.
316 Low-density populations, such as those of many declining woodland bird species in Australia, face
317 a high risk of local extinction in ecological traps (Kokko and Sutherland 2001). Many Australian
318 woodland birds are long-lived, with a lifespan of 10–20 years being common in many species
319 (Australian Bird and Bat Banding Scheme 2016). Consequently, there may be a time-lag before the
320 effects of a potential ecological trap mechanism become apparent. It is, therefore, important to
321 assess whether woodland birds are able to successfully breed in restoration plantings. In the

322 following sections, we discuss the primary factors likely to influence the reproductive success of
323 breeding birds in restoration plantings.

324

325 *Nest predation*

326 Predation is the primary driver of nest failure in most bird communities, causing up to 95% of failed
327 breeding attempts (Hanski *et al.* 1996; Zanette and Jenkins 2000; Guppy *et al.* 2017; Okada *et al.*
328 2017). Limited work has been conducted on the effects of predation on nest success in restoration
329 plantings internationally (Larison *et al.* 2001; Germaine and Germaine 2002), and no published
330 studies have sought to quantify nest predation or nest success in Australian temperate woodland
331 restoration plantings. Typical predation rates on the nests of birds vary greatly among species, even
332 for those with similar nest structures (Ford *et al.* 2001; Weidinger 2002). For example, studies of
333 the cup-nesting Australasian robins (Petroicidae) have consistently detected low nest success rates,
334 in the range of 10–47%, and identified nest predation as the most common cause of failure
335 (Robinson 1990; Zanette and Jenkins 2000; Armstrong *et al.* 2002; Debus 2006c). Conversely,
336 fantails (Rhipiduridae) typically have a 59–71% nest success rate, despite building cup-nests that
337 are less cryptic than those of robins (Cameron 1985). Parental behaviour, brood behaviour (e.g.
338 begging), nest-site choice and concealment, and habitat variables are among several factors that
339 may interact and contribute to highly variable nest-predation rates within and among bird
340 communities (Martin *et al.* 2000; Haskell 2002; Weidinger 2002; Haff and Magrath 2011;
341 Cancellieri and Murphy 2014). This variability is reflected in the diverse outcomes of nest-
342 predation studies (e.g. Zanette and Jenkins 2000; Debus 2006c; Guppy *et al.* 2017), and highlights
343 the importance of conducting such studies in restoration plantings.

344

345 Nest predation is also fundamentally dependent on the type and abundance of predators in the
346 vicinity of the nest (Muchai and du Plessis 2005; Guppy *et al.* 2017). Avian predators cause up to
347 96% of nest-predation events in Australian forests and woodlands (Gardner 1998; Piper *et al.*
348 2002), and many predatory bird species, such as the pied currawong (*Strepera graculina*) and
349 Australian magpie (*Cracticus tibicen*), have been favoured by habitat loss and fragmentation in
350 temperate woodlands (Taylor and Ford 1998; Maron 2007). We might, therefore, expect to see
351 higher rates of nest predation in restoration plantings in a fragmented landscape, where these
352 species are more abundant, than in intact woodland remnants. Predator control may be an effective
353 way of improving nest success in woodland birds (Debus 2006c), but is rarely undertaken, perhaps
354 because of the considerable effort and resources required, in addition to the complex ecological and
355 ethical considerations associated with controlling native predators (Wallach *et al.* 2010, 2015).

356

357 Patch size and isolation can interact with predation risk to influence breeding success and, thus,
358 recruitment and persistence of birds in fragmented landscapes (reviewed by Stephens *et al.* 2004).
359 Studies in fragmented landscapes worldwide have recorded lower breeding success and
360 reproductive output in smaller habitat patches than in larger patches (Hoover *et al.* 1995; Burke and
361 Nol 2000; Zанette and Jenkins 2000; Zанette 2001; Walk *et al.* 2010). These findings are frequently
362 attributed to ‘edge effects’, i.e. increased nest predation near habitat edges (Hoover *et al.* 1995;
363 Burke and Nol 2000; Willson *et al.* 2001; Vander Haegen *et al.* 2002; Herkert *et al.* 2003; Wozna *et*
364 *al.* 2017). However, this notion is challenged by other studies reporting no difference in nesting
365 success or recruitment in smaller fragments (Lehnen and Rodewald 2009; Lollback *et al.* 2010;
366 Walk *et al.* 2010) or no evidence of edge effects increasing predator activity on nests (Hanski *et al.*
367 1996; Lahti 2001; Woodward *et al.* 2001; Piper *et al.* 2002; Boulton and Clarke 2003; Reino *et al.*
368 2010). It is important to consider the spatial scale of fragmentation relative to nest predation and its
369 potential effects on bird populations, that is, whether fragmentation is occurring at the landscape,
370 patch or edge scale (Zанette and Jenkins 2000; Stephens *et al.* 2004). Furthermore, different
371 predation processes, including different primary predators, may operate in fragmented versus intact
372 landscapes (Vander Haegen *et al.* 2002).

373
374 The contrasting outcomes of studies of nest success in fragmented landscapes imply that the effects
375 of influential processes are either species-specific or landscape-dependent, or both. In general, we
376 might expect species that typically experience high levels of nest predation to experience greater
377 nest success in larger restoration plantings, or in plantings surrounded by a greater amount of
378 vegetation cover. However, surrounding land use may have unexpected effects on the distribution
379 and abundance of nest predators and, thus, nesting success, irrespective of patch size or
380 connectivity. Indeed, a recent study by Okada *et al.* (2017) found effects of both nest type and the
381 surrounding matrix (i.e. land use) on breeding success of small-bodied woodland birds in a
382 fragmented landscape. The results were contrary to expectations; nesting success for dome-nesting
383 species was higher in woodland patches surrounded by grazing land than in patches surrounded by
384 pine plantations, with an abundance of avian predator nests thought to be a contributing factor.
385 Monitoring nest predation and success is an under-utilised pathway to understanding which species
386 are being supported in the long term, and enabling management decisions to tailor restoration
387 programs for species more vulnerable to predation. These topics should be thoroughly investigated
388 in future research.

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390

391

392 *Nest-site selection*

393 The importance of nest-site microhabitat selection in bird breeding success has been documented
394 both internationally (Martin 1998; Mezquida 2004; Smith *et al.* 2009; Schlossberg and King 2010;
395 Murray and Best 2014) and in Australia (Oliver *et al.* 1998; Cousin 2009; Soanes *et al.* 2015).
396 However, research concerning woodland species nesting in restoration plantings is lacking, and
397 may be a critical determinant of breeding success (Martin 1998). This is particularly relevant for
398 species vulnerable to predation, such as cup-nesters (Okada *et al.* 2017). Nest-site selection for such
399 species may act as a stronger selective pressure than other variables. For example, the western
400 yellow robin (*Eopsaltria griseogularis*) favours sites with views of the nest surroundings over
401 foraging opportunities when selecting a nest site (Cousin 2009), indicating that predation is a
402 primary concern for nesting individuals of this species. It is crucial that restoration plantings
403 provide suitable nesting-sites for a range of woodland bird species, lest they fail to support breeding
404 populations (Larison *et al.* 2001). For example, the inclusion of trees with dense or pendulous
405 foliage may increase availability of well-concealed nesting-sites for foliage-nesters such as the
406 weebill and yellow thornbill. Species that nest in lower strata, such as the superb fairy-wren and
407 speckled warbler, may be better supported with the presence of native grasses and the accumulation
408 of dead woody material and leaf litter in the ground layer. These are factors rarely considered when
409 constructing or monitoring restoration plantings.

410

411 *Resource availability*

412 Resource distribution and abundance in habitat patches are critical determinants of woodland bird
413 site-occupancy and foraging patterns (Gilmore 1986; Barrett *et al.* 2008; Vesk *et al.* 2008;
414 Montague-Drake *et al.* 2009; Munro *et al.* 2011). For example, litter and bare ground are important
415 habitat features supporting ground-foraging birds such as robins and thornbills (Bromham *et al.*
416 1999; Antos and Bennett 2006). Species in these groups also prefer a low density of shrubs, as does
417 the diamond firetail (Antos *et al.* 2008). Other species may rely on various other resources, such as
418 woody debris; reintroduced brown treecreepers in a vegetation reserve responded positively only
419 when woody debris was included as a habitat feature (Bennett *et al.* 2013). A lack of woody debris
420 may be one reason the brown treecreeper is currently under-represented in restoration plantings
421 (Martin *et al.* 2004, 2011; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2012; Gould and Mackey 2015). Furthermore,
422 woodland bird species, including the brown treecreeper and southern whiteface, are known to vary
423 their foraging habits and use of foraging substrates between the breeding and non-breeding seasons
424 (Antos and Bennett 2006). This highlights the importance of using prior knowledge of species'
425 habitat requirements to inform predicted responses of birds to habitat restoration (Bennett *et al.*
426 2013).

427

428 Food is generally considered a limiting resource for breeding birds (von Brömssen and Jansson
429 1980; Hochachka and Boag 1987; Simons and Martin 1990; Verhulst 1994; Granbom and Smith
430 2006; Wellicome *et al.* 2013). However, the addition of food resources does not tend to prevent
431 major declines in fluctuating populations of terrestrial vertebrates (Boutin 1990), suggesting that the
432 mechanisms of species decline are not usually related to resource limitation alone. Nonetheless, it is
433 vital to assess the role of food resources in woodland bird habitat suitability. The study by Zanette
434 *et al.* (2000) is unique in its exploration of food shortage affecting birds in fragmented Australian
435 woodlands; the authors documented lower availability of food resources in smaller versus larger
436 fragments, with breeding success found to be lower in smaller fragments. Restoration plantings
437 overwhelmingly comprise small habitat patches (Freudenberger *et al.* 2004; Smith 2008), and are
438 known to attract a variety of bird species, including species of conservation concern (Lindenmayer
439 *et al.* 2010b). When colonising sites, birds are motivated by habitat cues indicative of high resource
440 availability, such as vegetation structure (Kokko and Sutherland 2001). If resource availability in
441 restoration plantings does not accurately reflect these cues, then there is an increased likelihood of
442 ecological trap mechanisms operating in revegetated landscapes (Schlaepfer *et al.* 2002).

443

444 Home range sizes of birds are inversely related to resource density and resource renewal rates (Ford
445 1983). This means that larger home ranges are required in habitats with fewer available resources.
446 In a fragmented landscape, birds that are unwilling to cross habitat gaps may be disadvantaged if
447 they are unable to expand their home ranges to exploit resources in adjacent patches (Fahrig 2007;
448 Robertson and Radford 2009). Patchily distributed or scarce food resources can lead to inefficient
449 foraging patterns, with subsequent reduced fitness and reproductive output in birds (Pyke 1984;
450 Martin 1987; Granbom and Smith 2006; Flockhart *et al.* 2016). In the breeding season, optimal
451 central-place foraging (i.e. the need to regularly return to the nest) influences searching movements,
452 distance travelled and prey selection (Pyke 1984). In a fragmented landscape, the need to expand
453 foraging areas or depart a patch because of resource depletion can measurably increase energy
454 expenditure for breeding birds, thus reducing their reproductive fitness. For example, birds in
455 fragmented landscapes may spend up to 64% more energy per chick raised than those breeding in
456 intact remnant woodland (Hinsley *et al.* 2008). Small woodland patches have also been associated
457 with the contraction of breeding seasons, eggs of lighter mass being laid, and smaller nestlings
458 being produced (Zanette *et al.* 2000). These issues could influence the breeding success of birds in
459 restoration plantings.

460

461 For insectivorous birds in particular, dietary composition and, hence, dietary quality is directly
462 related to habitat quality (Razeng and Watson 2012). Terrestrial invertebrates can display strong
463 responses to habitat variables in fragmented temperate woodlands (Bromham *et al.* 1999; Barton *et*
464 *al.* 2009; Lindsay and Cunningham 2009; Gibb and Cunningham 2010). As an example, Zanette *et*
465 *al.* (2000) identified a 50% lower biomass of surface-dwelling invertebrates in small (55 ha) relative
466 to large (>400 ha) woodland fragments, thereby linking food resources for insectivorous birds to
467 patch size. Species of Coleoptera constitute the largest proportion of prey items for declining
468 insectivorous woodland birds, followed by those of Formicidae and Lepidoptera (Razeng and
469 Watson 2012). Coleoptera and other preferred prey of insectivorous birds have been shown to
470 respond positively to some restoration treatments (e.g. removal of grazing pressure, addition of
471 fallen logs to habitat patches) (Lindsay and Cunningham 2009; Gibb and Cunningham 2010).
472 However, there is also evidence that restoration plantings may not help restore invertebrate
473 communities in agricultural landscapes (Jellinek *et al.* 2013). It is important to understand and
474 consider the effects of habitat fragmentation and restoration on invertebrate prey of woodland birds
475 when assessing habitat quality in restoration plantings.

476

477 *Competition*

478 Interspecific competition for resources is a strong selective process that is enhanced in habitats with
479 depleted or patchy resources (Cody 1981). Sought-after resources such as food and nesting sites are
480 defended by birds in established territories, especially during the breeding season (Robinson 1989;
481 Broughton *et al.* 2012; Belder 2013). Closely related species may compete for similar resources,
482 particularly food. For example, Robinson (1990) found that flame robins and scarlet robins compete
483 more for food resources than nest sites. The noisy miner (*Manorina melanocephala*) is a strong
484 competitor for territories and resources in Australian temperate woodlands, and actively disrupts
485 and excludes other small woodland birds (Grey *et al.* 1998; Maron 2007; Montague-Drake *et al.*
486 2011; Maron *et al.* 2013; Bennett *et al.* 2015). Competition from the noisy miner has been shown to
487 decrease breeding activity in species of smaller body mass, and can have a greater influence on
488 woodland bird distribution and recruitment than do vegetation characteristics (Bennett *et al.* 2015;
489 Mortelliti *et al.* 2016). Recent research has shown that the noisy miner is both increasing the risk of
490 woodland birds going extinct from habitat patches, and decreasing the chances of them colonising
491 patches (Mortelliti *et al.* 2016). The composition of restoration plantings can significantly affect the
492 likelihood of colonisation and occupancy by the noisy miner; inclusion of a *Eucalyptus* overstorey
493 increases the likelihood of noisy miner colonisation as the vegetation matures (Maron 2007).
494 Conversely, the inclusion of an *Acacia* understorey reduces noisy miner occupancy (Lindenmayer
495 *et al.* 2010b). Monitoring restoration plantings for factors likely to increase competition and

496 competitive exclusion will provide a better understanding of species persistence mechanisms in
497 these environments.

498

499 *Brood parasitism*

500 The influence of brood parasitism on nest success is a factor often discussed in international studies
501 of habitat restoration (Delphely and Dinsmore 1993; Fletcher *et al.* 2006; Small *et al.* 2007;
502 Forrester 2015), but limited research has been conducted on this topic in Australian temperate
503 woodland ecosystems (Ford 2011; but see Guppy *et al.* 2017). There is evidence suggesting that
504 parasitic cuckoos are dependent on large woodland remnants with an abundance of their preferred
505 host species, and that host species may experience greater breeding success in smaller fragments
506 where cuckoos are rare (Brooker and Brooker 2003). Restoration plantings typically create small
507 habitat patches (Freudenberger *et al.* 2004; Smith 2008); thus, brood parasitism events may be
508 infrequent in revegetated sites. However, to our knowledge, no empirical studies have documented
509 brood parasitism in temperate woodland restoration plantings, so its potential effect on the
510 reproductive success of woodland birds in revegetated landscapes remains unknown.

511

512 **Summary and future research directions**

513 Research has shown that the responses of woodland birds to revegetation are varied, and although
514 the habitat requirements of some species may be met, there is still much to learn about the long-
515 term responses of birds to landscape-scale habitat restoration. Ostensibly, occupancy data alone
516 may not expose underlying trends in population processes, or drivers of breeding success and site
517 fidelity. To prevent and reverse the ongoing decline of Australia's woodland avifauna, and re-
518 establish endangered habitat in highly fragmented agricultural landscapes, it is vital that temperate
519 woodland restoration efforts continue and increase over the coming years. However, to ensure that
520 restoration plantings are both an ecologically effective and cost-effective biodiversity conservation
521 strategy, it is also essential for their design and management to be informed by scientific research.
522 There is an increasing number of modelling studies proposing strategies for optimising landscape
523 restoration, aiming to solve the issues of catering for multiple species and ensuring maximum cost-
524 effectiveness in the face of limited conservation resources (Bennett and Mac Nally 2004;
525 Holzkämper *et al.* 2006; Thomson *et al.* 2007, 2009; Westphal *et al.* 2007; Lethbridge *et al.* 2010;
526 McBride *et al.* 2010; Huth and Possingham 2011; Polyakov *et al.* 2015; Ikin *et al.* 2016). Many of
527 these studies have provided information to help guide future restoration efforts in Australia.
528 However, because conservation and restoration remain low priorities for governments, almost all
529 the proposed strategies are yet to be empirically tested. Furthermore, to the best of our knowledge,
530 all such studies are based on pattern data. Because of the lack of knowledge on population

531 processes in revegetated landscapes, optimisation strategies for restoration to support breeding
532 populations of woodland birds are non-existent.

533

534 Developing a comprehensive understanding of woodland bird ecology in revegetated landscapes is
535 fundamental to devising knowledge-based solutions to reverse species decline (Bennett and Watson
536 2011), and a necessary key step is to move beyond pattern data, towards quantifying population
537 responses of birds to habitat restoration. We suggest that future research in restoration plantings
538 should focus on the areas of interest and knowledge gaps identified by the present review
539 (summarised in Table 3), with an emphasis on exploring factors at the landscape- and patch-scale
540 that are likely to contribute to restoration plantings acting as ecological traps. In particular, on the
541 basis of our review, we suggest that the following questions should be addressed as priorities:

- 542 - What cues do birds use to select habitat in revegetated landscapes?
- 543 - Are woodland birds resident in restoration plantings in the long term?
- 544 - Do restoration plantings have higher immigration or mortality rates than do woodland
545 remnants?
- 546 - Is habitat quality in restoration plantings sufficient for woodland birds to breed
547 successfully?
- 548 - Does habitat suitability for breeding birds change over time as plantings mature?
- 549 - How does the breeding success of birds in plantings compare to that of birds in remnant
550 woodland?
- 551 - What are the primary nest predators and rates of nest failure as a result of predation?
- 552 - Do restoration plantings provide suitable nesting-sites and adequate food resources for
553 woodland birds?
- 554 - What is the role of competitive exclusion by the noisy miner?
555 What is the role of brood parasitism in restoration plantings?

556

557 Finally, a more thorough approach to monitoring restored habitats is required to determine their
558 ability to support breeding populations of woodland birds. As Battin (2004) emphasised, ‘. . .we
559 cannot afford to ignore the possibility of ecological traps or fail to take them into account in the
560 study, management, and conservation of animal populations’ (p. 1490). Crucially, the capacity to
561 accurately evaluate the success of restoration plantings in achieving intended conservation goals
562 underpins effective utilisation of conservation resources, as well as ecologically sound
563 environmental management.

564

565

567 Summary of past and present research on birds in fragmented agricultural landscapes and landscapes
 568 undergoing habitat restoration, with recommended future research directions.

Key area	Early work		Present focus		Future directions
	Topic	Conclusions	Topic	Conclusions	
Distribution and abundance	Occupancy of restoration plantings by woodland birds (e.g. Munro <i>et al.</i> 2011; Lindenmayer <i>et al.</i> 2010)	(i) Woodland bird species, including species of conservation concern, occupy restoration plantings (ii) Restoration plantings and remnant sites support different bird communities	Role of restoration plantings as habitat for woodland birds in a landscape context (e.g. Mortelliti <i>et al.</i> 2016)	Restoration plantings may not act as habitat refuges for woodland birds, including species of conservation concern	Factors influencing habitat selection by woodland birds in fragmented agricultural landscapes
Population dynamics	Ecological traps (e.g. Battin 2004)	Importance of understanding interactions between habitat selection and habitat quality	Ecological traps and undervalued resources (e.g. Gilroy and Sutherland 2007)	Understanding factors that influence colonisation of high-quality sites can inform management decisions	Quantifying habitat quality in restoration plantings; identifying potential ecological trap mechanisms in revegetated landscapes
Resources	Food resources in woodland fragments (e.g. Zanette <i>et al.</i> 2000)	Food resource availability lower in smaller than in larger woodland fragments	Resources in restored landscapes (e.g. Le Roux <i>et al.</i> 2016)	Restoration plantings may take decades to develop habitat features of remnant sites, such as nest hollows	Resource availability (food and nesting sites) in restoration plantings
	Conservation of invertebrates in woodland remnants (e.g. Barton <i>et al.</i> 2009)	Coleoptera assemblage composition closely linked to microhabitat variables e.g. fallen logs	Invertebrate community responses to habitat restoration (e.g. Gibb and Cunningham 2010; Jellinek <i>et al.</i> 2013)	Coleoptera assemblages may show either positive or neutral responses to habitat restoration	Responses of invertebrate prey of woodland birds to restoration
Breeding success	Nesting ecology of woodland birds (e.g. Robinson 1990)	Nest failures mostly due to predation	Bird breeding success in restoration plantings (e.g. Mac Nally <i>et al.</i> 2010)	Little evidence of successful breeding in restoration plantings	Quantifying nest success in restoration plantings, identifying causes of success/failure
Species interactions	Nest predation in small patches (e.g. Zanette and Jenkins 2000; Vander Haegen <i>et al.</i> 2002)	Conflicting results; nest predation may be same in small and large fragments, or increased by edge-effects in small fragments	Role of nest predation in woodland bird species declines (e.g. Debus 2006)	Intense nest predation likely cause of decline for woodland bird species of conservation concern	Identifying nest predation, identifying primary nest predators in restoration plantings
	Brood parasitism in North American landscapes (e.g. Larison <i>et al.</i> 2001)	Brood parasitism by brown-headed cowbirds (<i>Molothrus ater</i>) lower in restored than in remnant landscapes	Brood parasitism in Australian temperate woodlands	Horsfield's bronze-cuckoo (<i>Chalcites basalis</i>) may be dependent on large habitat fragments	Brood parasitism in temperate woodland restoration plantings
	Influence of noisy miner on woodland bird communities (e.g. Grey <i>et al.</i> 1998)	Noisy miner disrupts and excludes small insectivorous birds from habitat patches in fragmented landscapes	Influence of noisy miner on landscape-level bird species distribution patterns (e.g. Mortelliti <i>et al.</i> 2016)	Noisy miner main driver of bird distribution patterns in fragmented woodlands, prevents restoration plantings acting as habitat refuges	Effects of noisy miner removal on landscape-level bird species distribution patterns and restoration planting occupancy

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578

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