

1 Regional distribution predicts bird occurrence in Mediterranean
2 cropland afforestations

3 Luis M. Carrascal · Ismael Galván · Juan S. Sánchez-Oliver · José M. Rey Benayas

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5 L. M. Carrascal (corresponding author)

6 Departamento de Biogeografía y Cambio Global, Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales (MNCN-
7 CSIC), José Gutiérrez Abascal 2, 28006 Madrid, Spain

8 e-mail: Imcarrascal@mncn.csic.es; Tel: +34 915668963; Fax: +34 915668960

9

10 I. Galván

11 Laboratoire d'Ecologie, Systématique et Evolution, CNRS UMR 8079, Université Paris-Sud 11,
12 Bâtiment 362, 91405 Osay Cedex, France

13

14 J. S. Sánchez-Oliver · J. M. Rey Benayas

15 Departamento de Ciencias de la Vida – UD Ecología, Universidad de Alcalá, Edificio de Ciencias,
16 Ctra. de Barcelona km 33'600, 28871 Alcalá de Henares, Spain

17

18 Author Contributions: LMC and JMRB conceived and designed the study. JSSO
19 conducted fieldwork. LMC and IG analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript.

20

21 **Abstract** Part of the abandoned cropland in Mediterranean landscapes is being subjected
22 to afforestation dominated by pines. Here we simultaneously evaluate the effect of three
23 categories of factors as predictors of the interspecific variation in bird habitat occupancy of
24 fragmented afforestations, namely regional distribution, habitat preferences and life history
25 traits of species. We use the "natural experiment" that highly fragmented pine plantations
26 of Central Spain represent due to the prevailing pattern of land ownership of small
27 properties. Many species with marked habitat preferences for woodland habitats were very
28 scarce or were never recorded in this novel habitat within a matrix of deforested
29 agricultural landscape. Interspecific variability in occurrence was mainly explained by
30 regional distribution patterns: occurrence was significantly and positively associated with
31 the proportion of occupied 10x10 UTM km squares around the study area, regional habitat
32 breadth, and population trend of species in the period 1998-2011. It was also positively
33 associated with regional occupancy of mature and large pine plantations. Other predictor
34 variables related to habitat preferences (for woodland, agricultural and urban habitats) or
35 life history traits (migratory strategy, body mass and clutch size) were unrelated to the
36 occurrence of species. Thus, small man-made pinewood islands funded by the Common
37 Agrarian Policy (CAP) within a landscape dominated by Mediterranean agricultural
38 habitats only capture widespread and habitat generalist avian species with increasing
39 population trends, not contributing to enhance truly woodland species.

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41 **Keywords** Bird occurrence · Cropland abandonment · Habitat preferences · Pine
42 plantations · Regional distribution

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Afforestation represents a strategy to produce forest land on abandoned cropland that
46 avoids the long time that secondary succession usually takes, particularly in the drylands
47 of the world (Rey Benayas and Bullock 2012). In the European Union, the Common
48 Agrarian Policy (CAP) has favoured the transformation of farmland into tree plantations
49 since 1992 by means of a scheme of aid for forestry measures in agriculture (EEC Council
50 Regulation No. 2080/92), which has resulted on the afforestation of ca. 921,210 ha to date
51 (Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development 2012). These afforested
52 fields, which in southern Europe are mostly based on coniferous species such as *Pinus*
53 *halepensis* and *P. pinaster*, usually form an archipelago of habitat patches in the dominant
54 agricultural matrix (Izhaki 1999; van Meijl et al. 2006). These afforestations impact on
55 biodiversity because pine plantations have higher tree cover and less structural
56 heterogeneity than natural Mediterranean woodlands (Sirami et al. 2007; Rey Benayas et
57 al. 2010).

58 Birds represent the group of vertebrates upon which these impacts have been most
59 intensively studied, and are good indicators of the success of colonization of these
60 afforestations because they are highly mobile animals that easily reach these novel
61 ecosystems. It is widely known that the age, area and habitat structure of woodland
62 islands are tightly related to species richness and bird community composition of pine
63 plantations (e.g. Díaz et al. 1998; Shochat et al. 2001). Nevertheless, little is known about
64 the filtering processes determining the identity of species occupying pine plantations within
65 the regional pool of species in Mediterranean landscapes dominated by agricultural
66 habitats. Three major types of effects may determine bird species identity in
67 Mediterranean cropland afforestations, namely regional distribution patterns, habitat
68 preferences of species and autoecological traits related to life history. Species with high
69 density are more likely to be included in habitat fragments than scarce ones as a

70 consequence of their abundance (Connor and McCoy 1979; Andrén 1999), and thus bird
71 communities inhabiting afforested fields would represent random subsets of the regional
72 species pool independently of any ecological process. In fact, density seems to be a good
73 predictor of the probability of species' presence in forest fragments (e.g. Bolger et al. 1991;
74 Tellería and Santos 1997, 1999). Additionally, species that tolerate a relatively wide range
75 of ecological conditions are in turn more widespread and are able to occupy a large variety
76 of habitats (Swihart et al. 2003; Bohning-Gaese et al. 2006; Hurlbert and White 2007;
77 Carrascal et al. 2008). Therefore, pine plantations within a matrix of arable land would not
78 selectively filter species according to the habitat characteristics of the plantations, but they
79 would be occupied by those eurytopic species that are highly spread and abundant in the
80 region.

81 However, pine plantations could impose a selective filter to the colonization by the
82 species of the regional pool according to their strict habitat selection and spatial niches
83 (e.g. preferences for pine foliage or trunks for foraging or nesting). The habitat
84 requirements of bird species that are characteristic of the dominant agricultural
85 environments, or of Mediterranean habitats with marked preferences for broadleaf
86 sclerophyllous foliage or for a well developed understory (e.g. Tellería et al. 1999),
87 contrast with structural characteristics provided by coniferous plantations with a generally
88 poor shrub layer. Therefore, the habitat-matching hypothesis predicts that habitat structure
89 of afforestations would constrain its colonization by the regional pool of species, favouring
90 only those birds which exhibit a marked preference for coniferous trees and a high cover of
91 the tree canopy (Santos et al. 2006; Sirami et al. 2008a, 2008b; Rey Benayas et al. 2010).
92 Moreover, birds may have a higher colonization success of pine plantations, in a
93 landscape dominated by arable lands, if they are able to survive in human-altered novel
94 habitats such as urban environments. Several studies have shown that urban-exploiter
95 birds have larger brains than urban-avoider species (Maklakov et al. 2011), probably

96 because large-brained animals are behaviourally innovative species that have higher
97 success and experience lower mortality when exposed to a novel environment (Sol et al.
98 2005a, 2007, 2008).

99 Some autoecological traits of bird species, such as sedentariness, body mass and
100 clutch size may also predict the colonization success of pine plantations within the matrix
101 of arable lands. Smaller birds usually attain high local and regional densities according to
102 the inverse allometric relationship 'body mass–population density' (Carrascal and Tellería
103 1991; Gaston and Blackburn 2000), a pattern more pronounced in assemblages exploiting
104 foliage or in habitats with a high foliage volume, in which smaller bird species predominate
105 because of ecomorphological constraints (low body mass for hovering and hanging; e.g.,
106 Tellería and Carrascal 1994). Moreover, small body size is a predictor of establishment
107 success across species (Cassey 2001) and is inversely related to extinction susceptibility
108 in birds (Gaston & Blackburn, 1995; Owens & Bennett, 2000). Species that are sedentary
109 and have large clutch sizes are more likely to occupy pine plantations, as these species
110 are more likely to visit and explore the ecological opportunities provided by afforestation on
111 a year-round basis and may attain high rates of population growth (Galván and Rey
112 Benayas 2011), whereas resident species tend to rely more on innovative feeding
113 behaviours in winter when food is harder to find (Sol et al. 2005b). In short, the factors that
114 affect the success of pine plantations as a restoration strategy in Mediterranean croplands,
115 as reflected by the capacity to hold bird species, can be divided into passive processes
116 and active filters related to habitat requirements and preferences and autoecological traits
117 of the bird species.

118 Here we evaluate interspecific differences in bird species occurrence in the novel
119 fragmented habitat provided by small and young pine plantations of Central Spain,
120 established over a predominantly treeless landscape dominated by herbaceous or woody
121 cultures, where large mature forests of holm oak *Quercus rotundifolia* that may serve as

122 sources of woodland bird species are very scarce. This habitat consists of an archipelago
123 of young and small afforestations that punctuates the agricultural landscape, because it
124 has been favoured by the EU CAP in the early 90s, and the size of the cropped fields is
125 usually small (< 5 ha) due to the pattern of land ownership. The woodland avifauna of this
126 region is impoverished and is dominated by species of Mediterranean origin and woodland
127 generalists, as abundance of many forest birds decreases along a north-west/mesic to
128 south-east/xeric gradient (Tellería and Santos 1993, 1994), especially for those of
129 European biogeographic origin (Carrascal and Díaz 2003). The “natural experiment”
130 associated with these plantations allows us to ascertain the relative influence of regional
131 distribution patterns versus habitat preferences and some auto-ecological traits of the bird
132 species in determining the occupancy of the referred novel afforested habitat. We
133 hypothesize that bird species with a higher occurrence in afforested fields will be those
134 with (i) broader geographical distribution, larger habitat breadth and increasing population
135 trends in the recent years, (ii) marked preferences for woodland habitats and with high
136 occupancy of novel habitats, and (iii) sedentary migration strategy, large clutch size and
137 small body mass.

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140 **Materials and methods**141 **Study area**

142 Field work was conducted in tree plantations located in Campo de Montiel ($38^{\circ} 45' 36''$ N,
143 $3^{\circ} 23' 7''$ W; La Mancha, situated in the southern Spanish plateau; Fig. 1). The study area
144 spreads on 440 km^2 and altitude ranges between 690 and 793 m a.s.l. The area is
145 included within the Mesomediterranean bioclimate region of the Iberian Peninsula (Rivas
146 Martínez 1981). The climate is continental Mediterranean with dry and hot summers and
147 cold winters. Mean annual temperature and total annual precipitation in the area during the

148 last 30 years were 13.7 °C and 390 mm, respectively (Agencia Española de Meteorología
149 2012). These figures were 16.6 °C and 359.9 mm in 2011, when bird surveys took place.

150 The area is a representative mosaic of different crops and semi-natural or
151 introduced woody vegetation patches that are characteristic of large extensions of
152 Mediterranean landscapes. Croplands were mostly occupied by herbaceous crops (wheat
153 and barley), harvested once a year in June, and permanent woody crops (olive trees — 3
154 to 5 m high, and vineyards — 1 m high). Natural vegetation typically consisted of dense
155 Holm Oak *Quercus rotundifolia* L. woodland and riparian forests that have been mostly
156 extirpated from this region. Until 1992, woodland cover was restricted to open Holm Oak
157 woodlands, usually grazed by sheep and goats. However, as in many other Mediterranean
158 landscapes, the agricultural land is subjected to intensive management (e.g., irrigation of
159 vineyards and olive groves) and land use change. A major result of land use change is the
160 abandonment of herbaceous cropland and vineyard extirpation and their afforestation with
161 the native Aleppo pine *Pinus halepensis* alone or mixed with holm oak or *Retama*
162 *sphaerocarpa*, which has increased forest land in the last 20 years. The relative extent of
163 major land use types according to our ortophoto analysis (taken from SigPac Geographic
164 Information System of Farming Land,

165 [http://www.magrama.gob.es/es/agricultura/temas/sistema-de-informacion-geografica-de-](http://www.magrama.gob.es/es/agricultura/temas/sistema-de-informacion-geografica-de-parcelas-agricolas-sigpac-/)
166 parcelas-agricolas-sigpac-/, in 1-km radius circles around the center of the 31 tree
167 plantations studied here, 97.4 km² in total) were the following: olive grove (18.1% of the
168 total land area), vineyard (22.3%), dry herbaceous cropland (19.7%), and scrubland
169 (10.2%). We identified ten additional land use types, namely, waste lands, roads and rural
170 tracks, vineyard with olive trees, woodland, urban areas and scattered buildings, fruit
171 groves, pasture land, pastures with scattered trees, streams, rivers and lagoons, and
172 dried-fruit orchards, each representing between 0.3 and 7.1% of the total area.
173 Particularly, tree plantations and woodland spread on 3.1% and 0.8%, respectively, of the

174 above mentioned 1-km radius circles (Table 1). A previous study found that 85% of the
175 ortophoto identification coincided with field observations of checking points (Moreno-
176 Mateos et al. 2011).

177

178 Bird censuses

179 First, all pine plantations in the study area were located using both ortophotos (see source
180 above) and Google Earth®, and were later verified in the field. We found 100 pine
181 plantations that took place in 1992 or later. Next, we selected the plantations to be
182 surveyed for birds, considering those with pines taller than 3.5 m and area larger than 1 ha
183 (31 plantations; Fig. 1), which were 12-18 years old. Details on habitat structure of the 31
184 study pine plantations are shown in Table 1.

185 To asses bird occurrence in the novel habitat defined by the archipelago of pine
186 plantations, bird censuses were carried out in spring (April and May) 2011. We did not
187 intend to exhaustively census all the area covered by each single studied plantation
188 because our goal was not to characterize species richness, but to establish a protocol to
189 quantify species occurrence in the investigated novel habitat (for details on spatial
190 variation of bird species richness with area of pine plantations in the study region, see
191 Díaz et al. 1996 and Santos et al. 2006). Thus, only one census plot was established in
192 each one of the 31 pine plantations, in order to avoid pseudoreplication when quantifying
193 relative abundance of bird species in this novel habitat. We assessed the occurrence of
194 bird species in these census plots using point-count stations (Bibby et al. 2000) lasting 10
195 minutes. All auditory and visual contacts were recorded, but only those within a 50 m
196 radius (0.78 ha) were used in subsequent analyses, in order to increase the detection
197 probability of studied species. Every census plot was surveyed twice on different days,
198 once in the morning between sunrise and three hours later and once in the evening two
199 hours before sunset. All censuses were conducted by the same well trained field

200 ornithologist (JSSO) on windless (wind speed < 3 m s⁻¹) and rainless days. Nocturnal
201 birds, aerial feeders such as swallows or swifts and raptors were not considered in data
202 analyses, as this census method does not accurately estimate the occurrence of these
203 species. A species was considered to be present in the census plot if it was detected in at
204 least one of the censuses. The cumulative census time of 20 min in the two censuses
205 carried out in each plot defines a long time devoted to bird census per unit of area,
206 maximizes the detection probability of species and, thus, the accurate estimations of their
207 occurrence in the habitat provided by the studied plantations (Shiu and Lee 2003).

208

209 Regional patterns of bird distribution

210 Three data sources were used to characterize the patterns of distribution, habitat
211 preferences and population trends of common birds in the region around the study area.
212 First, the distribution area of each species 150 km around the geographical centre of the
213 study area was obtained from the National Breeding Bird Atlas (Martí and del Moral 2003)
214 as the proportion of occupied 10 x 10 UTM km squares (308 UTM squares in total). The
215 region defined by this circle includes the study area where Díaz et al. (1996) carried out
216 the analysis of bird occupation of mature pine plantations during the breeding season (ca.
217 85 km to northeast).

218 Secondly, habitat breadth of the bird species in 15 main habitat categories as well
219 as their relative abundance in woodlands, agricultural areas and urban environments
220 within the Mesomediterranean region of Central Spain were obtained from Carrascal and
221 Palomino (2008; electronic Appendix: <http://avesbiodiv.mncn.csic.es/19mono-suppl.pdf>).

222 Habitat breadth was calculated using Levins' (1968) index, divided by the number of
223 habitat categories considered. This index ranges between 1 (evenly distributed across the
224 15 habitats) and 1/15 (only present in one habitat). Relative abundances for each species
225 were calculated by dividing the measured densities provided by Carrascal and Palomino

226 (2008) in each habitat by the maximum regional density recorded in the 15 main habitats
227 of the Mesomediterranean region of Central Spain (considering the maximum density
228 measured in three types of forests –pine, holm oak and deciduous woodlands–, five types
229 of agricultural habitats –dry arable lands, irrigated lands, vineyards, olive groves and
230 agricultural mosaics with woody cultivations–, and two types of urban habitats –towns and
231 periurban developments with scattered buildings); relative abundances range between 1
232 (maximum density attained at that habitat) and 0 (absent). Preference of bird species for
233 mature pine plantations in the study region was obtained from Díaz et al. (1996), and was
234 estimated as the proportion of occupied plantations (n=48).

235 And third, the Spanish SACRE programme (monitoring of common breeding birds in
236 Spain) was used to quantify the population changes of the studied species from 1998 to
237 2011 in Central Spain (SEO/Birdlife, 2012). Population changes were measured as the
238 percentage of change in 2011 respect to the 1998 baseline data (see Online Resource 1).

239

240 Morphological and life-history traits of birds

241 Data on body mass was obtained from Cramp (1998), and information on clutch size from
242 Lislevand et al. (2007). The migratory strategies of birds (trans-Saharan migrant, score 0
243 vs. resident species not migrating outside the Iberian Peninsula, score 1) in the study area
244 were taken from Díaz et al. (1996) and Tellería et al. (1999); see Online Resource 1 for
245 details.

246

247 Data analyses

248 The number of occupied afforested plots by each bird species was used as a measure of
249 their occurrence in the novel habitat defined by the archipelago of pine plantations. The
250 interspecific variation in occurrence was analyzed using a generalized linear model with
251 negative binomial errors and the log-link function (Crawley 1993). In this kind of model, the
252 response variable represents a count of the occurrence and must have only non-negative

253 integer values, and the conditional variance of the count is given by $\mu(1+\alpha)$, where μ
254 denotes the conditional mean and α is calculated by the model using the maximum-
255 likelihood (ML) estimation. Statistical significance of the predictor variables (see below)
256 was estimated using a robust approach where quasi-ML standard errors are calculated
257 using a "sandwich" of the inverse of the Hessian and the Outer Product of the Gradient
258 (Lindsey 2004; Cottrell and Lucchetti 2011). The negative binomial generalized linear
259 model is a good solution for zero-inflated Poisson models where the over-dispersion
260 parameter ϕ is highly deviated from one. In fact, the Poisson regression model produced a
261 higher AIC figure (231.5) and a poorer residual plot than the negative binomial model (AIC
262 = 183.4). Standardized regression coefficients (β) were obtained in the regression analysis
263 (i.e., analysis was performed with standardized variables, so that their averages were zero
264 and variances were 1). Statistical analyses were carried out using Gretl package 1.9.5cvs
265 (<http://gretl.sourceforge.net/>).

266 It is commonly acknowledged that species are evolutionarily related throughout a
267 phylogenetic scheme, and therefore they should not be treated as independent sample
268 units in comparative analyses (Harvey and Purvis 1991; but see Westoby et al. 1995;
269 Price 1997). Nevertheless, we are not interested in patterns of biological diversification
270 throughout evolutionary time in this particular study, but only in present-day relationships
271 pertaining to the occurrence of species in an intensively human-transformed environment.
272 Thus, we simplified the data analyses by avoiding the complexity and drawbacks of
273 comparative methods (i.e., uncertainty about models of evolutionary change, phylogeny
274 topology or branch lengths).

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278 **Results**

279 Twenty-four out of 80 terrestrial bird species of the study region were observed in the 31
280 tree plantations that were studied. The most widespread species were the wood pigeon
281 *Columba palumbus* and the goldfinch *Carduelis carduelis*, which occurred in more than
282 80% of the pine plantations. The magpie *Pica pica* and the great tit *Parus major* were also
283 relatively frequent, occurring in more than one-third of the pine plantations. The remaining
284 species were relatively scarce, and 12 species were present in less than one-tenth of the
285 plantations (Online Resource 1). Many species with marked habitat preferences for
286 woodland habitats were very scarce (except the great tit) or were never recorded in the
287 pine plantations (e.g. firecrest *Regulus ignicapilla*, short-toed treecreeper *Certhia*
288 *brachydactyla*, long-tailed tit *Aegithalos caudatus*, nuthatch *Sitta europaea*, crested tit
289 *Lophophanes cristatus*, great spotted woodpecker *Dendrocopos major* and European jay
290 *Garrulus glandarius*).

291 Occurrence of species in pine plantations was significantly explained by a model
292 including the ten predictor variables ($\chi^2_{10} = 62.34$, $P < 0.001$; Nagelkerke pseudo $R^2 =$
293 0.640), and was significantly and positively associated with the proportion of occupied 10 x
294 10 UTM km squares around the study area, habitat breadth, the population trend of
295 species within the period 1998-2011, and the occupation index of mature pine plantations
296 in the study region (Table 2 and Fig. 2). The extent of regional distribution and habitat
297 breadth were the two predictor variables with the highest magnitude effects according to
298 the standardized regression coefficients. The remaining predictor variables were not
299 significantly related to the occurrence of species in the pine plantations ($P > 0.24$; Table
300 2).

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302

303

304 **Discussion**

305 This study clearly shows that woodland restoration based on small, highly fragmented,
306 pine plantations in a Mediterranean landscape matrix dominated by agricultural habitats
307 does not contribute to enhancing avian diversity by capturing woodland birds, especially if
308 the natural forests of the region do not belong to the coniferous vegetation domain. Under
309 these circumstances, the chance of encountering a particular species in pine plantations is
310 the consequence of the pattern of regional distribution, instead of ecological processes
311 mediated by preferences for a particular subset of habitats or life history traits, where the
312 most widespread species with broader habitat preferences (eurytopic taxa) and increasing
313 population trends are favoured.

314 The low influence of autoecological traits of species in determining the probability of
315 occurrence in pine plantations is reinforced by two additional characteristics of the studied
316 region and plantations: the low maturity and small size of pine plantations, and the low
317 favourability of the region for the forest avifauna considering biogeographic constraints
318 (Tellería and Santos 1993; Carrascal and Díaz 2003). The young and small isolated pine
319 plantations, within a matrix of deforested agricultural landscape (<1% of broadleaf dry
320 sclerophyllous forests in our study area), reduce their attractiveness for woodland
321 specialist species, considering the fragmentation of populations as several studies have
322 shown (e.g. Diaz et al. 1998; Izhaki 1999; Santos et al. 2002, 2006, for the Mediterranean
323 region). Moreover, and as Shochat et al. (2001) have shown with pine plantations in Israel,
324 pine plantations in Mediterranean zones are generally too simplistic in structure to
325 maintain rich bird communities, mainly due to the lack of suitable microhabitats in the
326 understory (see also López and Moro 1997). On the other hand, the studied plantations
327 are located in a region with impoverished forest avifauna dominated by species of
328 Mediterranean origin with marked preferences for sclerophyllous shrublands or open
329 woodlands (Monkkonen 1994; Tellería and Santos 1994; Carrascal and Díaz 2003).

330 Moreover, the future aging effect for newly established plantations seems to be of minor
331 importance favouring avian biodiversity in these plantations, because forest specialists of
332 Mediterranean coniferous forests require larger woodland patches (Díaz et al. 1998;
333 Santos et al. 2006). In fact, coniferous forest specialists, such as the firecrest *Regulus*
334 *ignicapillus*, the crested tit *Lophophanes cristatus*, the coal tit *Periparus ater*, the nuthatch
335 *Sitta europaea* or the crossbill *Loxia curvirostra* were very scarce or never recorded in the
336 region, thus emphasizing the low favourability of the study area for forest avifauna of the
337 coniferous domain. Santos et al. (2006) have also demonstrated that large mature pine
338 plantations (≥ 100 ha) in the southern plateau of the Iberian Peninsula reach an average of
339 16 bird species with only 3 forest specialist species, a figure considerably lower than the
340 average of 27 species recorded in similarly mature and large pine plantations in the
341 northern plateau (and 6 forest specialists). This observed pattern reinforces the
342 importance of the biogeographic context when designing restoration plans based on
343 afforestations in agricultural landscapes (Suárez-Seoane et al. 2002).

344 The pattern of bird species occurrence in the mosaic of pine plantations surrounded
345 by cropland arose just as a consequence of probabilistic reasons related to the abundance
346 and population trends of the species at a regional scale: those species occupying greater
347 proportions of territory around the study area, exhibiting larger habitat breadth and with
348 increasing population trends were those most frequently encountered in the plantation
349 plots. Thus, the commonness of bird species in the study region determine their
350 occupation of pine plantations, a result that agrees with the rather common positive
351 relationship between regional abundance and distribution of species in many animal
352 groups (Gaston 1994). The tight relationship between regional habitat breadth and
353 occupancy of this novel, highly fragmented habitat, is consistent with the value of niche-
354 based characteristics of species in explaining patterns of bird distribution from the level of

355 local habitats to that of geographical ranges (see also, Swihart et al. 2003; Böhning-Gaese
356 et al. 2006; Hurlbert and White 2007; Carrascal et al. 2008; Slatyer et al. 2013).

357 By contrast, bird species that were expected to occur most frequently in the pine
358 plantations due to their preferences for woodland habitats and avoidance of agricultural
359 and urban habitats (Santos et al. 2006; Sirami et al. 2008a, 2008b; Rey Benayas et al.
360 2010) did not exhibit a higher frequency than species with other habitat preferences. Only
361 the occupancy of mature pine afforestations in the same region had a relevant influence
362 on the frequency of occurrence of birds in the small and highly fragmented plantations of
363 agricultural areas of Central Spain, although its magnitude effect was relatively low
364 according to its standardized regression coefficient (see Table 2). Similarly, species that
365 were expected to be good colonizers of novel habitats because of characteristics like
366 sedentariness, large clutch size and small body size (Galván and Rey Benayas 2011), did
367 not occur more frequently in the studied plantations than species with other autoecological
368 traits. Therefore, our analyses indicate that the occurrence of birds in pine plantations in
369 abandoned Mediterranean cropland is explained by the regional pattern of bird distribution,
370 but it is poorly related to the habitat preferences and autoecological traits of the bird
371 species. This pattern is probably the consequence of the small area of the pine plantations
372 in the study region, determined by the scheme of land tenure of small agricultural
373 properties. In fact, the small area of plantations, with an average of 4.6 ha and ranging
374 between 1 and 22 ha, is considerably lower than the minimum area requirements of many
375 woodland specialists in Central Spain that need more than 10 ha to be present, such as
376 the stock dove *Columba oenas*, the great spotted woodpecker *Dendrocopos major*, the
377 orphean warbler *Sylvia hortensis*, the golden oriole *Oriolus oriolus*, the Eurasian jay
378 *Garrulus glandarius* or the cirl bunting *Emberiza cirlus* (Díaz et al. 1998).

379 However, it would not be correct to design restoration strategies based on pine
380 plantations ignoring the autoecological traits of the bird species just because they cannot

381 predict bird occurrence. Some autoecological traits of birds, in particular migratory
382 strategy, egg mass and body mass, have been shown to predict the density, not
383 occurrence, of bird species in other pine plantations on an agricultural matrix located in a
384 nearby study region (Galván and Rey Benayas 2011). Bird species density in pine
385 plantations were determined by ecological processes as expected by the fact that species
386 that are sedentary and have small egg and body masses are good colonizers of novel
387 habitats (Cassey 2001; Duncan et al. 2003; Galván and Rey Benayas 2011). It may thus
388 be possible that two different indicators of the success of pine plantations in gathering bird
389 populations, namely species occurrence and local density, are determined by different
390 processes, the former being dependent on regional distribution at larger scales and the
391 latter responding to the autoecological traits of species. This suggestion, however, must be
392 taken with caution because the afforested fields of the present study are considerably
393 smaller (mean area = 4.6 ha) than those in which bird density was found to be associated
394 with autoecological traits of the species (area > 25 ha; Galván and Rey Benayas 2011), so
395 processes controlling their colonization by birds cannot be straightforward compared.
396 Future studies should investigate if bird occurrence and density are actually dependent on
397 different factors in Mediterranean cropland afforestations.

398 In conclusion, pine plantations favoured by the European CAP resulting in an
399 archipelago of man-made woodland islands within a Mediterranean agricultural landscape,
400 only capture widespread and habitat generalist avian species with increasing population
401 trends, not contributing to favouring truly woodland species. This result casts doubts on
402 the value of this restoration practice for the conservation and management of avian
403 diversity in the Mediterranean region if it is developed in very small woodland areas
404 considering the pattern of land tenure of small properties.

405

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412

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560 **Table 1** Mean, standard deviation (sd) and range (min / max) of the habitat structure
 561 variables in 31 tree plantations and landscape cover variables around such plantations in
 562 Campo de Montiel (La Mancha, Central Spain) during spring 2011.

	mean	sd	range	
Habitat structure				
Area (ha)	4.6	3.7	1.3	21.9
Tree layer cover (%)	50.6	24.1	15.3	100.0
Average tree height (m)	4.7	1.0	3.5	7.2
Density of trunks 10-20 cm dbh (# in 0.2 ha)	79.5	42.2	16.0	168.0
Density of trunks >20 cm dbh (# in 0.2 ha)	2.7	5.7	0.0	26.0
Cover of shrubs (%)	2.8	7.2	0.0	31.7
Average shrub height (m)	0.9	1.0	0.0	2.9
Cover of the herbaceous layer (%)	46.1	39.2	0.0	100.0
Landscape cover around plantations (%)				
Streams, rivers and lagoons	0.8	1.3	0.0	4.3
Roads and rural tracks	7.1	5.2	0.2	22.1
Woodlands	3.9	4.1	0.4	18.9
Holm oak Woodland	0.8	1.5	0.0	7.4
Pine plantations	3.1	2.6	0.4	11.5
Fruit groves	1.1	1.3	0.0	5.3
Waste lands	7.1	4.2	0.0	13.3
Olive groves	18.1	21.8	0.0	68.9
Pastures with scattered trees	0.3	0.4	0.0	2.0
Scrubland	10.2	7.3	0.0	28.4
Pastures	1.3	1.6	0.0	7.7
Dry herbaceous cropland	19.7	8.8	0.0	37.7
Vineyards	22.3	14.2	0.0	45.4
Vineyards with olive trees	5.4	9.6	0.0	33.6
Dried fruit orchards	0.8	2.3	0.0	9.5
Urban areas and scattered buildings	1.8	1.9	0.0	6.7

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566 **Table 2** Generalized linear regression model (with negative binomial errors and the log-
 567 link function) relating the habitat occupancy of 80 bird species in young and small pine
 568 plantations of agricultural areas of Central Spain and ten predictor variables describing
 569 regional distribution, habitat breadth, population trends (1998-2011), regional habitat
 570 preferences (four variables), migratory strategy, body mass, and clutch size. p: Statistical
 571 significances were estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors.
 572 Regional distribution: proportion of occupied 10 x 10 UTM km squares 150 km around the
 573 study area. Occupation index of mature plantations: proportion of occupied plantations in
 574 southern xeric Iberian plateau obtained from Díaz et al. (1996). Migratory strategy: 1 -
 575 resident. 0 - trans-Saharan migrant. Coefficient: standardized regression coefficients that
 576 inform about the magnitude and sign of the partial relationships of the predictor variables
 577 and the response variable. The meaning of the rest of the variables is described in the
 578 Methods section; data for the 80 studied species can be found in Online Resource 1.

	Coefficient	se	p
Regional distribution	1.03	0.53	0.050
Habitat breadth	0.94	0.36	0.009
Population trend (1998-2011)	0.39	0.12	<0.001
Occupation index of mature plantations	0.25	0.10	0.009
Relative abundance in woodlands	-0.08	0.31	0.806
Relative abundance in agricultural habitats	-0.07	0.23	0.751
Relative abundance in urban environments	-0.03	0.22	0.903
Migratory strategy	0.29	0.24	0.236
Body mass (in ln)	-0.02	0.16	0.879
Clutch size	0.06	0.18	0.714

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582 Legends to figures:

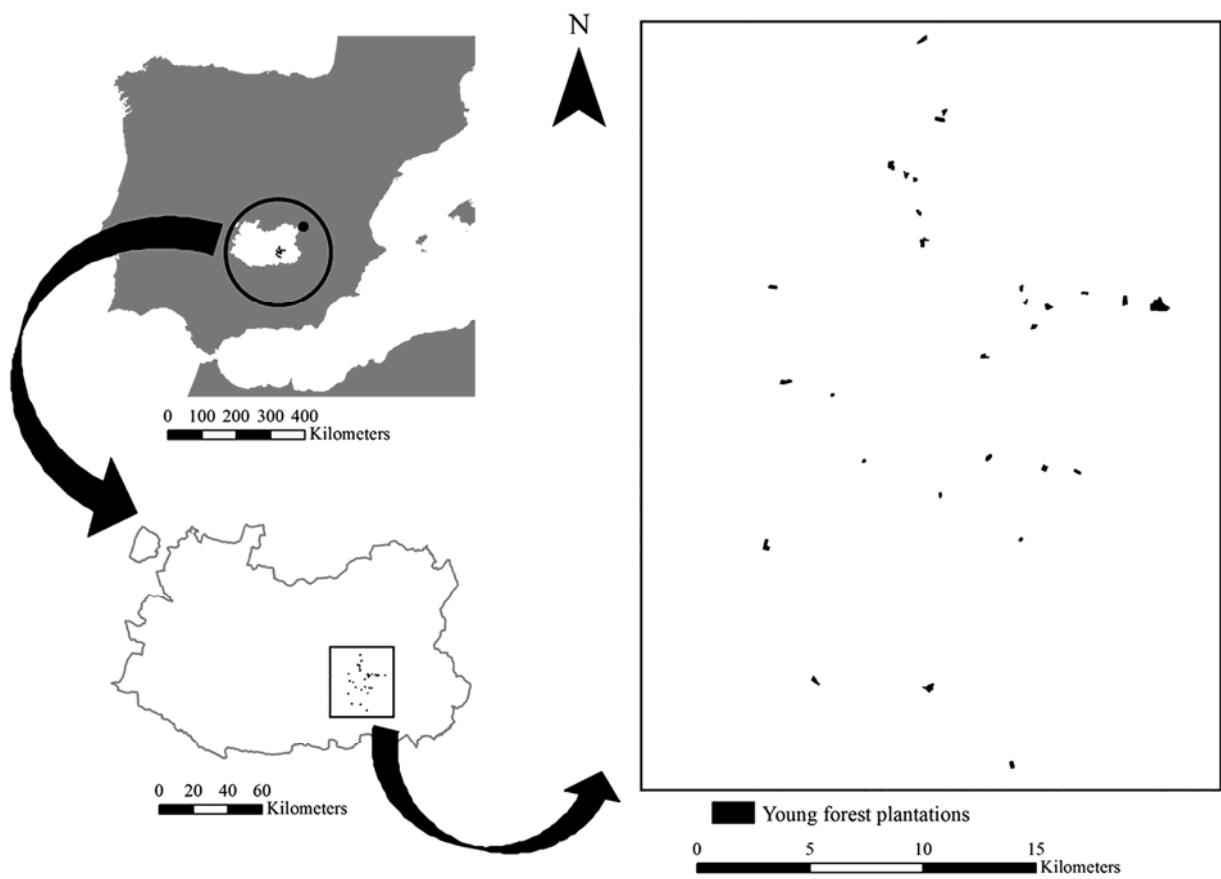
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584 **Fig. 1** Location of the study area (rectangle) within the Ciudad Real province (white area)
585 in central Spain and distribution of the 31 tree plantations that were investigated in this
586 study. A circle of radius = 150 km is centered at the baricenter of the study area, and has
587 been used to select the UTM squares of 10x10 km² that have been considered to quantify
588 the regional distribution area of each species (number of occupied UTM squares). The
589 black dot on the gray map of the Iberian Peninsula shows the location of the study area of
590 Díaz et al. (1996).

591

592 **Fig. 2** Relationship between interspecific variation in habitat occupancy of young and small
593 pine plantations of agricultural areas of Central Spain and regional distribution (proportion
594 of occupied 10x10 UTM km squares 150 km around the study area), population trends
595 (percentage of change from 1998 to 2011), regional habitat breadth, and occupation index
596 of mature plantations (proportion of occupied plantations in southern xeric Iberian plateau
597 obtained from Díaz et al. 1996). Habitat occupancy is the number of occupied census plots
598 where the species were present, divided by the total number of censused plots. Sample
599 size is 80 bird species.

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602 Fig. 1

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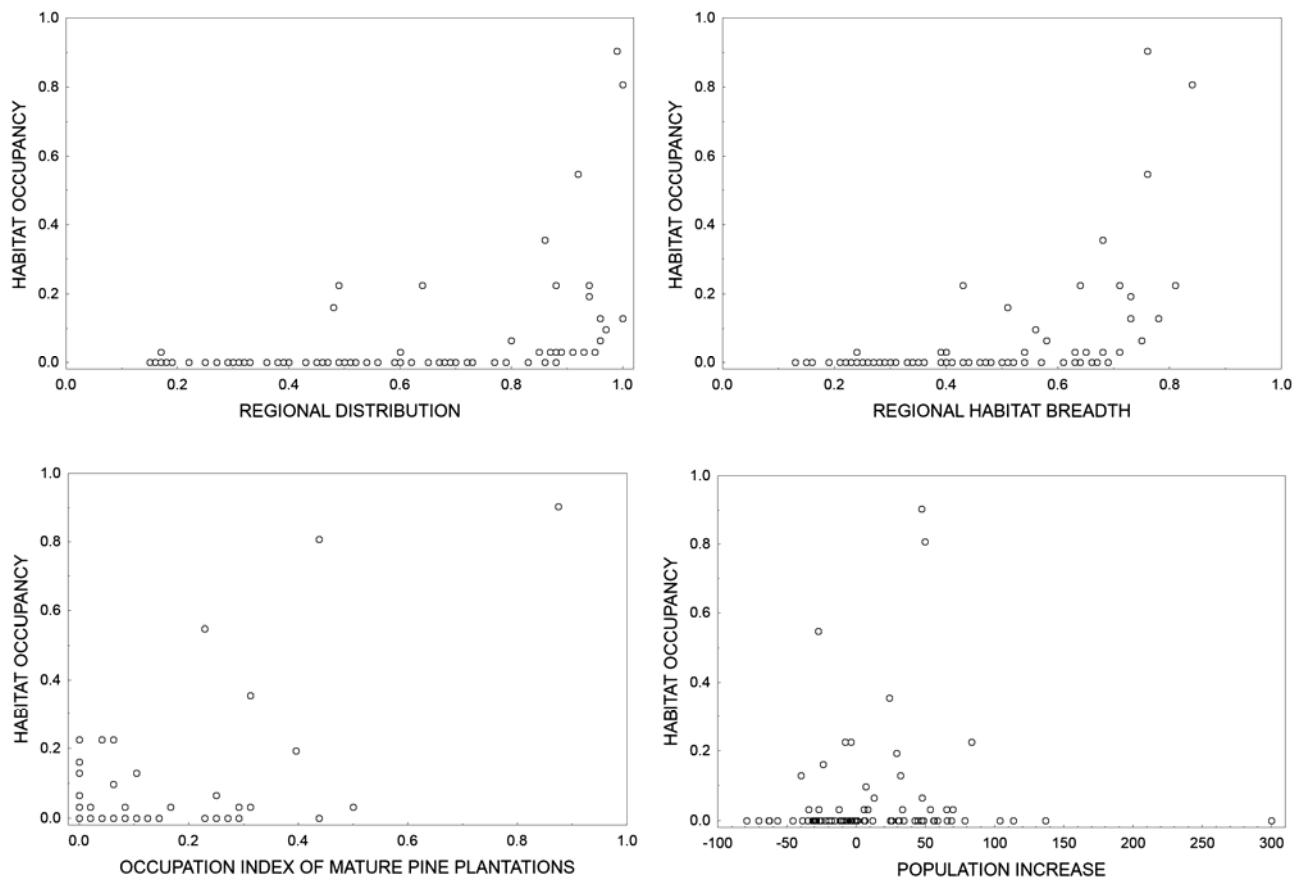
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613 Fig. 2