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1 **Mediation of area and edge effects by adjacent land use**

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21 **Running head:** Matrix mediates fragmentation effects

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 Habitat loss, fragmentation and degradation have pervasive detrimental effects on tropical
27 forest biodiversity, but the role of the surrounding land use (i.e. matrix) in determining the
28 severity of these impacts remains poorly understood. We surveyed bird species across an
29 interior-edge-matrix gradient to assess the effects of matrix type on biodiversity at 49 different
30 sites with varying levels of landscape fragmentation in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest – a highly
31 threatened biodiversity hotspot. Our findings revealed that both area and edge effects are
32 more pronounced in forest patches bordering pasture matrix, while patches bordering
33 *Eucalyptus* plantation maintained compositionally similar bird communities between the edge
34 and the interior, in addition to exhibiting reduced effects of patch size. These results suggest
35 that the type of matrix in which forest fragments are situated can explain a substantial amount
36 of the widely-reported variability in biodiversity responses to forest loss and fragmentation.

37

38 **Introduction**

39 The type of matrix surrounding native forest patches in human-modified landscapes can
40 modulate the responses of species and ecological communities to habitat loss and
41 degradation (Brockhoff et al., 2008; Prevedello & Vieira 2010). However, the mechanisms
42 through which the matrix influences the effects of habitat change on biodiversity are still
43 unclear. For instance, do inhospitable matrix types accelerate the local extinction of sensitive
44 species in fragmented landscapes or promote the invasion of disturbance-tolerant species?
45 Are patch area effects less pronounced (Prugh et al. 2008) in a permeable matrix because of
46 rescue effects or weaker edge effects? Answering these questions is crucial if we are to
47 manage matrix land uses to reduce biodiversity loss (Driscoll et al. 2013).

48 With the growing recognition that some matrix types are more permeable and
49 hospitable to some species than others (Brockhoff et al. 2008; Felton et al. 2010), recent
50 research has increasingly focused on the interplay between matrix type and landscape
51 composition (Driscoll et al. 2013). However, the extent to which matrix type can modulate
52 biodiversity responses to area, edge and isolation remains controversial (Prugh et al. 2008;

53 Prevedello & Vieira 2010; Watling et al. 2011). Prugh et al. (2008) found isolation and area to
54 be poor predictors of species occupancy when matrix type was highly permeable (e.g. semi-
55 natural habitats), while area and isolation were strong predictors of biodiversity in more hostile
56 types of matrix. This is logical as any increase in structural similarity between the matrix and
57 habitat patches can increase population connectivity among patches (Renjifo 2001;
58 Prevedello & Vieira 2010), reducing local extinction by means of rescue effects. On the other
59 hand, Prevedello and Vieira (2010) argued that these matrix effects are smaller and more
60 species-specific than those of area and isolation.

61 The capacity of the matrix to buffer edge effects is expected to increase if matrix
62 habitats approximate to the physiognomy of native habitats, reducing the impact of biotic and
63 abiotic gradients at edges (Banks-Leite & Ewers 2009). For example, Amazonian tree mortality
64 appears to be higher at edges bordering cattle pastures than those bordering secondary
65 forests (Mesquita et al. 1999). Shade coffee plantations have also been found to dampen edge
66 effects in tropical montane forest when compared to corn plantations (Santos-Barrera &
67 Urbina-Cardona 2011). Other effects such as spill-over of matrix species into forest patches
68 may create an influx of disturbance-tolerant species, with concomitant high species turnover
69 (Banks-Leite et al. 2012, 2014) and changes to ecosystem function (De Coster et al. 2015).
70 Changes in species composition can be problematic when they involve large-scale biotic
71 homogenisation, involving the proliferation of generalist species and the decline or local
72 extinction of many specialists (Solar et al. 2015). Given the likely complexity of the underlying
73 mechanisms governing these changes in community assembly, a rigorous landscape-based
74 approach (Fahrig 2003) is required to determine the propensity of the matrix to influence the
75 effects of habitat loss and landscape configuration (i.e. isolation, patch area and edge effects).

76 To examine the ability of the matrix to mitigate the detrimental effects of landscape
77 configuration on biodiversity, we considered bird communities in the highly fragmented and
78 biodiverse Brazilian Atlantic Forest (Myers et al. 2000; Ribeiro et al. 2009). To obtain a full
79 picture of how bird communities change, we collected data with four temporal replicates
80 spanning seasonal variation, stratifying sampling across fragment interiors, fragment edges

81 and the surrounding matrix. Within this framework we examined both a habitat fragmentation
82 gradient and different matrix types. To better understand how community composition
83 changes, we analysed species richness, community integrity (compositional similarity to
84 continuous forest) and richness of both forest-dependent and disturbance-tolerant species.
85 Disturbance-tolerant species richness was expected to be higher in fragments surrounded by
86 the open pasture matrix with forest species being more commonly associated with fragments
87 bordered by plantation forest. We also expected that a *Eucalyptus* plantation matrix, which
88 bears higher structural similarity to Atlantic Forest, would show reduced edge and area effects
89 when compared to an open pasture matrix.

90

91 **Methods**

92 Study Design

93 The study area was located in the Vale do Paraíba and Serra do Mar regions in the state of
94 São Paulo, Brazil. The area is composed of sub-montane forest of varying age surrounded by
95 a range of matrix types. The mean native forest cover at the 10,000-ha scale across all sites
96 was 30% with mean total forest cover being 40% and altitude varying between 600 and 1130
97 m (Appendix S1). Continuous forest sites were located within the largest remaining well-
98 connected forest patch network comprising over one million ha (Ribeiro et al. 2009). We
99 surveyed a total of 49 sites, including 15 near continuous reference sites and 34 fragmented
100 forest sites. At each site, we sampled three transects with three point count stations each.
101 Points within transects were approximately 75 m apart (where terrain and landscape
102 configuration allowed) and the three transects were also spaced by 75 m (Fig. 1). This design
103 was chosen to ensure that even small forest fragments could be surveyed with equal effort. In
104 fragmented forest sites, a single transect was conducted in each of three positions relative to
105 the focal forest patch; patch interior, patch edge and in the matrix bordering the focal patch
106 (Fig. 1).

107 Fifteen patches were bordered by *Eucalyptus* plantation and 19 bordered pasture. The
108 median patch size was 28 ha. There were six different transect types surveyed across the
109 fragmented forest sites, representing the six unique combinations of position (interior, edge or
110 matrix) and matrix land use (*Eucalyptus* plantation or cattle pasture). Due to availability and
111 accessibility, as well as the mosaic nature of the landscape, patches were not surrounded by
112 a uniform matrix; however, all transects were conducted in areas of the patch that bordered
113 the chosen matrix type. Surveyed fragments were selected to sample the full range of
114 fragment area and connectivity found in the study region and were part of the *name removed
115 for review* project (Appendix S1). The 15 reference sites were chosen to encompass one land
116 use each, and we thus sampled five large areas of forest (CF), five large areas of cattle pasture
117 (CP), and five large *Eucalyptus* plantations (CE). Continuous sites were designed with the
118 same grid configuration as explained above, but with all transects conducted in the same land
119 use type.

120 Avifaunal surveys

121 Bird surveys were conducted between December 2015 and February 2017 using point counts.
122 Each count was 15 minutes in duration, during which we recorded all birds identified within a
123 25 m radius of the point, with four temporal replicates (equally split between wet and dry
124 seasons) per point. The spatial and temporal replicate points for each of the 147 transects
125 were then aggregated, providing a sampling effort of 12 point counts per transect. Species
126 richness was calculated as the total number of species recorded at each transect. We also
127 calculated a frequency of occurrence (i.e. an encounter rate) for each species in each transect.
128 This was done by summing the number of times the species was detected at a site, a measure
129 that ranged between 0 and 12, thus providing a proxy for abundance (Solar et al. 2015). This
130 minimised the influence of single detections, which was especially useful for the matrix surveys
131 where some species may be transients infrequently recorded passing between forest patches.
132 From the frequency of occurrence, we calculated community composition based on a Bray-
133 Curtis dissimilarity matrix using the R package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2016). Values were then

134 assigned based on the scores from the first axis of a Principal Coordinate Analysis conducted
135 on the dissimilarity matrix. For fragmented sites we used community integrity rather than
136 community composition to allow comparison to continuous forest. Community integrity used
137 the raw distances extracted from the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix calculating the mean
138 distance between each transect and the continuous forest transects. This Bray-Curtis distance
139 was then subtracted from 1 to provide a scale where 1 indicates a transect that highly
140 resembles control forest and 0 indicates transects extremely dissimilar from continuous forest
141 hence community integrity can be seen as a measure of similarity to the reference continuous
142 forest (for a similar approach see De Coster et al. 2015).

143 Landscape metrics

144 Forest cover (%) was measured for each site using radii of 600 m, 800 m, 1,500 m, and 3,000
145 m from the centre of the site and for the 10,000-ha landscape (5 by 5 km , hereafter: landscape
146 forest cover). A single forest cover scale was chosen per model based on model fit because
147 multiple scales could not be modelled together due to high levels of collinearity (Appendix S2).
148 We also measured size and proximity index (800 m search distance) for focal fragments with
149 both being \log_{10} transformed for analysis. Proximity index takes into account the area of
150 surrounding patches and weights this by distance (Gustafson & Parker 1994). All
151 measurements were conducted using ESRI ArcGIS v.10. (Environmental Systems Research
152 Institute, Redlands, California, USA) and Fragstats v.4. (McGarigal et al. 2012). For more
153 details see Appendix S1.

154 Data analysis

155 All analysis was conducted in R v.3.3.2 (R Core Team 2016). We examined the effect of
156 transect type (the combination of position and matrix type) using mixed effect modelling in
157 lme4 (Schielzeth & Nakagawa 2013) with site as a random factor to account for spatial
158 dependency between transects in the same landscape. For species richness, a generalised
159 linear mixed model (Poisson error structure checked for over-dispersion (Appendix S1)) was

160 used and community composition metrics used linear mixed models. The influence of transect
161 type on the avifaunal community was only investigated for the 34 fragmented sites; with the
162 position and matrix land use combination (e.g. Interior-Pasture) as a single fixed effect,
163 conducting post-hoc contrasts to assess significance. Although we do not include p-values
164 from our main results, we provide them with the mixed effects models for factor level contrasts
165 to aid in interpretation. The continuous sites were not included in the models because there
166 was only one land use type surveyed at each of these sites, however, we analysed them
167 separately to provide a baseline for comparison. The data was then partitioned into interior,
168 edge and matrix to investigate the effects of landscape metrics using linear and generalised
169 linear models. Landscape metric models were selected based on AICc (due to small sample
170 size) or F tests in the case of overdispersion (Appendix S1). Due to small sample sizes, we
171 were unable to fit all the interactions. We did however fit the interactions between matrix type
172 and the other metrics as investigating the effect of matrix type is a major aim of this study.
173 Plots from models containing multiple explanatory variables used partial residuals (Appendix
174 S1).

175 We conducted analyses on the whole bird community as well as two subsets – termed
176 forest species and disturbance-tolerant species owing to the high species turnover observed
177 in Atlantic Forest bird communities (Banks-Leite et al. 2012, 2014). By dividing the community
178 into two groups we were able to reveal trends that are concealed by turnover when examining
179 the community as a whole; for example, whether compositional changes are governed by loss
180 of forest species or gain of disturbance-tolerant species. These groups represented those
181 species associated with the fragmented areas and those associated with the intact areas.
182 Thus, this allowed us to individually consider those species responding negatively to
183 disturbance and those that respond in a positive manner, but our categorisation is not intended
184 as a definitive classification. These distinctions were created using a species ranking system
185 based on weighted averages ordination (Banks-Leite et al. 2014). Species presence/absence
186 was first weighted by site scores taken from the first axis of a PCoA based on Bray-Curtis

187 dissimilarity. The mean is then calculated from all non-zero weights. The division was made
188 relative to the mean of the site scores (the value for a species that occurs at all sample
189 locations).

190 Our method for partitioning the community into groups is a post-hoc approach based
191 on observed species turnover across sites. We favoured this approach because previous
192 classifications of species sensitivity or habitat use, such as Parker III et al. (1996), are not
193 transparent regarding where data were obtained, the level of uncertainty associated with each
194 classification, and do not separate between different stressors (e.g. a species may be sensitive
195 to hunting but insensitive to the land use changes we investigated here)(Alexandrino et al.
196 2016). Our approach thus allowed us to identify the “winners” (i.e. disturbance-tolerant) and
197 “losers” (i.e. forest-associated species) in our dataset. We then used information on forest
198 habitat restriction to better understand how our approach of community partitioning was
199 related to the previous classification of Parker III et al. (1996) – with taxonomic disagreement
200 resolved following the checklist produced by BirdLife International (2017). *Estrilda astrild* was
201 excluded from this comparison due to a lack of habitat usage information.

202 Site-scale analyses were conducted by aggregating the three transects at each site.
203 This produced a frequency of occurrence for each species potentially ranging between 0 and
204 36 from which community integrity was calculated. Species richness and community integrity
205 were modelled against percentage forest cover for the 10,000-ha landscape and matrix type
206 surveyed using generalised linear and linear models, respectively.

207 **Results**

208 Overall we detected 267 species across the 49 landscapes. The first PCoA axis explained
209 27.6% of the total variance. Using the weighted averages approach, the community was split
210 into 177 forest species and 90 disturbance adapted species. When compared to habitat usage
211 information in Parker III et al. (1996), 72% of species that we assigned to the forest species
212 group were found to be restricted to forest habitats based on the published information,

213 compared with 2% of the species in disturbance-tolerant group. Although we do not examine
214 this further, these comparisons demonstrate that our community split tallies well with published
215 classifications.

216 Continuous sites

217 Analyses of the whole community revealed that both continuous plantation ($z = -5.56$, $p < 0.01$)
218 and continuous pasture ($z = -6.82$, $p < 0.01$) did not differ significantly from one another but
219 both showed lower species richness than continuous forest transects (Fig. 2a). However, the
220 community composition of three transect types were all significantly different from each other
221 (Fig. 2b; CE – CF: $z = -14.24$, $p < 0.01$; CP – CF: $z = -26.07$, $p < 0.01$; CP – CE: $z = -11.83$, p
222 < 0.01). Changes in community composition were driven by a decrease in forest species
223 richness in both types of matrix, together with an increase in disturbance-tolerant species (Fig.
224 2c, d). All continuous blocks were significantly different from each other in forest species (CE
225 – CF: $z = -7.79$, $p < 0.01$; CP – CF: $z = -12.38$, $p < 0.01$; CP – CE: $z = -6.63$, $p < 0.01$) and
226 disturbance-tolerant species richness (CE – CF: $z = 4.94$, $p < 0.01$; CP – CF: $z = 9.21$, $p <$
227 0.01 ; CP – CE: $z = 6.90$, $p < 0.01$).

228 Fragmented forest sites

229 Transect type (i.e. position and matrix combination) influenced total species richness in the
230 fragments ($F = 32.83$). Species richness in the matrix was significantly lower than both edge
231 and interior (Figure 2e), and pasture matrix transects had on average 39% more species than
232 *Eucalyptus* ($z = 6.10$, $p < 0.01$). The results for community integrity however showed a different
233 trend. Although transect type continued to have a significant influence ($F = 194.69$), edge
234 effects were only observed in patches bordering pasture, while forest patches bordering
235 *Eucalyptus* presented similar levels of integrity at edges and interiors (Fig. 2f), mirroring results
236 for continuous sites, where *Eucalyptus* transects had higher integrity than pasture transects
237 (Fig. 2f).

238 The edge effects observed in patches bordering pastures was mostly driven by an
239 increase in disturbance-tolerant species rather than a reduction in forest species. The richness
240 of forest species did not differ between edge and interior, regardless the bordering matrix (Fig.
241 2g; $z = -5.31$, $p < 0.01$), but the richness of disturbance-tolerant species in patches bordering
242 pasture was lower in forest interiors when compared to edges ($z = -3.68$, $p < 0.01$).
243 Furthermore, the species richness of disturbance-tolerant species in the interior of patches
244 bordering pasture was, on average, 1.9 times higher than fragment interiors bordering
245 *Eucalyptus* ($p = 0.02$), and similar to the number of species found in *Eucalyptus* matrix.

246 Landscape configuration

247 Interior and edge

248 Interior and edge transects showed a similar mediation of matrix type on community integrity
249 responses to landscape configuration and habitat amount (Interior: $\text{adj-}R^2 = 0.57$; Edge: adj-
250 $R^2 = 0.55$). In both cases, integrity was only positively affected by patch size in fragments
251 bordering pasture (Fig. 3a and 4a; Interior: $t = 2.12$, $p = 0.04$; Edge: $t = 2.87$, $p < 0.01$).
252 Landscape forest cover (10,000-ha) on the other hand positively influenced integrity both in
253 pasture and *Eucalyptus* bordering fragments (Interior: $t = 5.11$, $p < 0.01$; Edge: $t = 3.98$, $p <$
254 0.01), and while the slope of this relationship was not affected by matrix type, the intercept
255 was always higher in *Eucalyptus* bordering patches (Fig. 3b and 4b). None of the landscape
256 metrics (e.g. forest cover, patch size, proximity index) significantly correlated with species
257 richness for interior transects whereas for edge transects total species richness was found to
258 decrease with forest cover at the 3 km scale ($z = -2.04$, $p = 0.04$).

259 Forest species richness was not significantly affected by any landscape metric, but the
260 richness of disturbance-tolerant species found at interior (Fig. 3c; $t = -2.14$, $p = 0.03$) and edge
261 (Fig. 4c; $t = -2.29$, $p = 0.03$) transects was negatively correlated with patch size only in pasture
262 bordering patches. Richness of disturbance-tolerant species found in interior transects

263 reduced with forest cover; the intercept was different between the matrix types, but the slope
264 was the same ($z = -2.53$, $p = 0.01$).

265 Matrix

266 Community integrity was lower for pasture matrices than plantation ($t = -5.95$, $p < 0.01$), and
267 integrity was positively correlated with patch area (Fig. 4e, $t = 2.06$, $p = 0.05$, $\text{adj } R^2 = 0.53$).
268 Species richness was influenced by matrix type with pasture matrices having higher richness
269 ($t = 4.10$, $p < 0.01$).

270 Forest species richness was positively correlated with forest patch area (Fig. 4f, $t =$
271 2.57 , $p = 0.02$) and pasture matrices had lower forest species richness than plantation ($t = -$
272 3.55 , $p < 0.01$). Disturbance-tolerant species richness was only significantly affected by matrix
273 type, with pasture matrices having higher richness ($t = 9.25$, $p < 0.01$).

274 Site scale

275 At the site scale (Interior, edge and matrix transects combined; Fig. 5) community integrity
276 was found to increase with forest cover ($t = 3.06$, $p < 0.01$) with fragments bordering pasture
277 having lower integrity than those bordering plantations ($t = -3.10$, $p < 0.01$), yielding an
278 adjusted- R^2 of 0.42. Species richness was only affected by matrix type with pasture bordering
279 fragments having more species ($z = 5.90$, $p < 0.01$).

280 Discussion

281 We found that *Eucalyptus* plantation matrices were more beneficial for bird communities in the
282 Atlantic Forest when compared to pasture matrices. Although pastures had higher species
283 richness than *Eucalyptus* plantations, forest fragments bordering *Eucalyptus* have higher
284 community similarity to continuous forest and weaker edge effects (Fig. 2, 3 and 4). We also
285 show that the strengthening of edge and area effects in patches bordering pastures was
286 mostly due to the increase in disturbance-specialists, rather than the loss of forest species.

287 Nonetheless, our findings suggest that spill-over of species can occur in both directions in
288 fragmented tropical forests, from fragments to matrix and vice versa.

289 In our study landscape, the *Eucalyptus* plantation matrix supported fewer bird species
290 than pasture yet retained more forest species (Fig. 2). This aligns with previous studies
291 showing that non-native plantations provide habitat for a small subset of tropical forest species
292 (Barlow et al. 2007; Lees et al. 2015; Millan et al. 2015), without acting as a species source
293 (Hawes et al., 2008). Pastures, on the other hand, not only provide a habitat for different
294 species (Moura et al. 2013; Lees et al. 2015), but also allow them to spill-over into native
295 forest, as shown by the increase in the richness of disturbance-tolerant species in fragments
296 (Fig. 2h and 3c). We also found evidence of reverse spill-over effects from the forest into the
297 surrounding pasture (Tscharntke et al. 2012) in contrast to Boesing et al. (2018a) who found
298 minimal spill-over of birds into cattle pasture in the Atlantic Forest. Our results suggest that
299 community integrity in matrix transects increases with forest patch area (Fig. 4e), indicating
300 that large native forest patches help maintain community integrity in the surrounding matrix.

301 These results reinforce previous findings highlighting the value of extensive forest
302 patches in providing source populations of forest-dependent bird species (Mayhew et al.
303 2019), thereby enriching the surrounding matrix via a spill-over of ecosystem services, such
304 as pollination, pest control and seed dispersal. Spill-over of services has been widely
305 documented for a range of taxa (Tscharntke et al. 2012) including insect and bird pollinators
306 (Renjifo 2001; Ricketts et al. 2008) and bird spill-over has been shown to be particularly
307 important in coffee plantations (Boesing et al. 2018a), where birds control populations of pests
308 (Johnson et al. 2010). Hence, species spill-over from large forest patches into the matrix may
309 benefit crop productivity while also increasing seed dispersal of native trees which is key to
310 natural reforestation and forest recovery (Bregman et al. 2016).

311 Edge effects are prominent in the Atlantic Forest bird community (Banks-Leite et al.
312 2010; Ewers & Banks-Leite 2013; Pfeifer et al. 2017) where they are thought to drive the widely

313 observed area effects on biodiversity in this fragmented landscape (Ewers et al. 2007; Fletcher
314 et al. 2007; Banks-Leite et al. 2010). Our results provide further corroboration of this
315 hypothesis as we only detected significant edge effects in patches bordering pasture matrices,
316 where patch area also had a significant influence on the interior bird community. Conversely,
317 for fragments with a plantation matrix, we found neither significant edge effects, nor significant
318 area effects.

319 The large difference in edge effects observed could be due to two main factors. First,
320 plantations are known to harbour fewer open matrix species (Umetsu & Pardini 2007) limiting
321 changes in community composition due to turnover. Second, plantations may contribute to the
322 retention of forest species. Our results indicating that plantations may mitigate edge effects
323 mirror those of Renjifo (2001), who found that exotic tree plantations had a buffering effect on
324 the abundance of some forest species when compared to pasture. Ruffell et al. (2017) also
325 found that the reduction in bird species richness with habitat loss was less severe when the
326 matrix contained exotic tree plantations, even when plantations occupied as little as 10% of
327 the matrix. In addition, Boesing et al. (2018b) have shown that the extinction thresholds for
328 the bird community detected in fragments surrounded by coffee plantations was at 19% forest
329 cover compared to 35% when the matrix is pasture.

330 Overall, this study supports the view that a shared border with *Eucalyptus* plantations
331 is less detrimental to forest bird communities than a shared border with pasture. *Eucalyptus*
332 plantations are likely able to buffer edge effects and reduce the infiltration of disturbance-
333 tolerant species into patch edges and interiors when compared to cattle pasture. They also
334 provide higher community integrity for a given level of native forest cover. From the
335 perspective of conservation, plantations therefore offer a management solution to reduce the
336 impact of fragmentation on biodiversity without requiring large increases in the area of native
337 forest. However, these potential benefits carry several caveats.

338 One of the important characteristics of plantations is their greater structural complexity
339 compared with pastures. They are often structurally similar to native forest (Prevedello & Vieira
340 2010), but variation in structural complexity of plantations is also important, as those with
341 higher complexity (e.g. multiple vegetation strata) generally contain higher bird species
342 richness and abundance (Nájera & Simonetti 2010; Millan et al. 2015). The plantation sites
343 surveyed in this study often retained understory foliage, a practice that is not universal, but
344 which matches the management practices in other studies that concluded that plantations
345 have some utility for biodiversity (e.g. Barlow et al. 2007). Thus, it is likely that the detrimental
346 impacts of plantations on native biodiversity are much stronger when plantation understory is
347 cleared. The cyclic nature of plantations is another important consideration: while plantations
348 consisting of adult trees may buffer edge effects, it is unlikely that young sapling trees will
349 provide the same benefit, especially given the large reduction in structural complexity after
350 harvesting. Future research should focus on extending the temporal span of data collection
351 so that the effects of plantations can be assessed throughout the harvesting cycle. There is
352 also scope to investigate the impacts of management, for example if certain management
353 techniques or harvesting rotations provide a higher conservation benefit than others (Moreira
354 et al. 2013).

355 In the wider context of expanding plantations worldwide and especially in the case of
356 *Eucalyptus* in Brazil, the benefits may be more varied and depend on the land use plantations
357 are replacing (Brockhoff et al. 2013). Comparisons of plantations and pasturelands have
358 been found to be highly contingent on the taxonomic focus and landscape specifics (Felton et
359 al. 2010). Conversion of agricultural land to plantations has also received ample attention due
360 to the other environmental benefits they may bring, such as climate change mitigation through
361 carbon storage and sequestration (Jackson & Schlesinger 2004). However, other effects such
362 as changes in soil organic carbon are less clear (Fialho & Zinn 2014).

363 Manipulation of the matrix can moderate species responses to habitat loss and
364 fragmentation and the ongoing conversion of pasturelands to plantation may yet yield benefits

365 for bird biodiversity via improved connectivity among populations and the reduction of edge
366 effects. As with secondary forests (Mayhew et al. 2019), the conservation value of plantations
367 largely depends on the maintenance and extent of embedded native forest patches.
368 Nonetheless, although intensive research has been conducted on the effects of management
369 on biodiversity within plantations themselves (Nájera & Simonetti 2010; Millan et al. 2015),
370 little is known about how plantation management and harvesting practices affect adjacent
371 native forests. We recommend that future research investigates how management practices
372 mediate effects of plantations on biodiversity in adjacent forest fragments, as doing so may
373 provide a key insight into practical conservation solutions for human modified tropical forest
374 landscapes.

375 **Supporting Information**

376 Additional methods (Appendix S1), comparison of the different forest cover radii (Appendix
377 S2) and information on species occurrence in the different land use types (Appendix S3) are
378 available online. The authors are solely responsible for the content and functionality of these
379 materials. Queries (other than absence of the material) should be directed to the
380 corresponding author.

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531 **Figure 1 –** (a): Map of sample site locations. Forest cover (all forest types) is shown in gray
532 and represents areas with > 50% canopy closure in 2000 (Appendix S1: Hansen et al.
533 (2013)/UMD/Google/USGS/NASA - Licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0
534 International License - <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>). (b) and (c): composite
535 forest cover map and sampling points within transects for a fragmented site (b) and a
536 continuous site (c), forest is shown in gray and non-forest in white. Point counts formed a
537 regular (where terrain, patch size and edge shape allowed) nine-point grid spaced by 75m.
538 Three points were situated in each position – interior, edge and matrix.

539 **Figure 2 –** Richness and composition measures for bird communities found at each site
540 partitioned by transect type for continuous forest (CF), continuous plantation (CE),
541 continuous pasture (CP), fragment interiors (I), fragments edges (E) and the surrounding
542 matrix (M). Results are shown for control landscapes (top) and fragments (below) as well as
543 for all species, forest species and disturbance adapted species. Letter labels show transect
544 type groupings based on post-hoc significance tests. Fragments with pasture matrices are
545 represented in white and plantation matrices in light gray. Continuous forest is indicated in
546 dark gray.

547 **Figure 3 –** Partial residual values for community integrity and disturbance-tolerant species
548 richness (DSR) against patch size in ha (a and c) and percentage forest cover (b and d) for
549 interior transects. Plantation matrix fragments are shown in black, pasture in gray.

550 **Figure 4 –** Partial residual values for community integrity, species richness, disturbance-
551 tolerant species richness (DSR) and forest species richness (FSR) against patch size in ha
552 (b and d) and percentage forest cover (a, c, e and f) for edge (a – d) and matrix (e - f)
553 transects. Plantation matrix fragments are shown in black, pasture in gray. d shows only a
554 single line as matrix type was not found to be influential in this model.

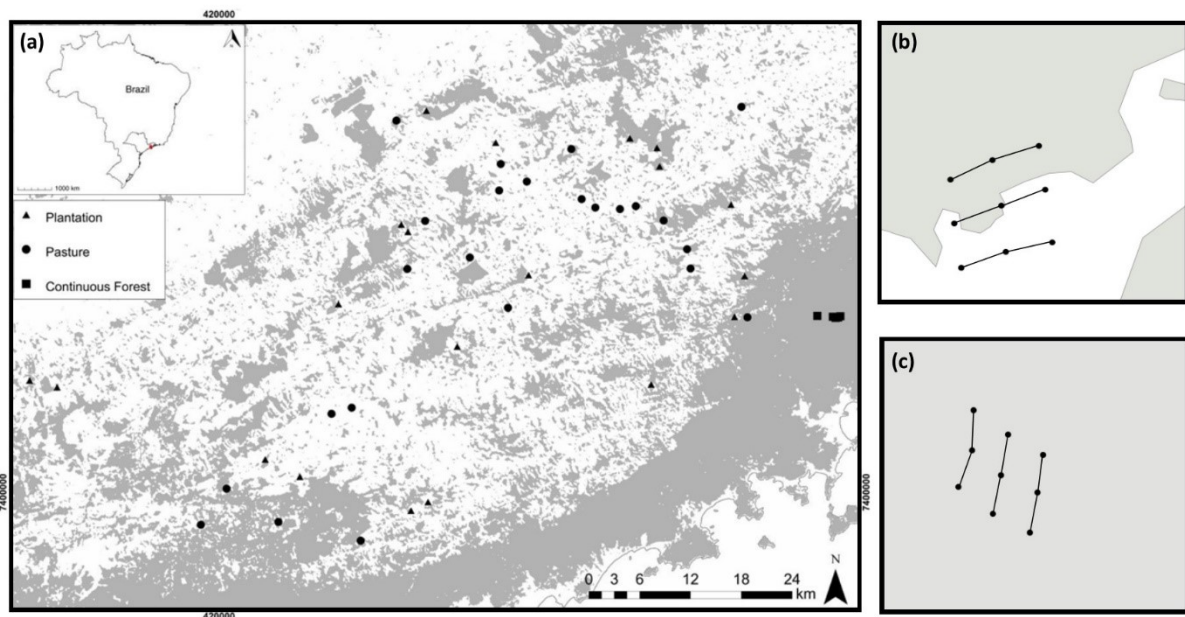
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556 **Figure 5**– Community integrity against forest cover percentage (a) and species richness (b)
557 compared between the two matrix types - *Eucalyptus* plantation (Eu) and pasture (Pa). Gray
558 is used for pasture matrix fragments with black representing plantation.

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563 **Figure 1 – (A):** Map of sample site locations. Forest cover (all forest types) is shown in gray
564 and represents areas with > 50% canopy closure in 2000 (Appendix S1: Hansen et al.
565 (2013)/UMD/Google/USGS/NASA - Licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0
566 International License - <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>). (B) and (C): composite
567 forest cover map and sampling points within transects for a fragmented site (B) and a
568 continuous site (C), forest is shown in gray and non-forest in white. Point counts formed a
569 regular (where terrain, patch size and edge shape allowed) nine-point grid spaced by 75m.
570 Three points were situated in each position – interior, edge and matrix.

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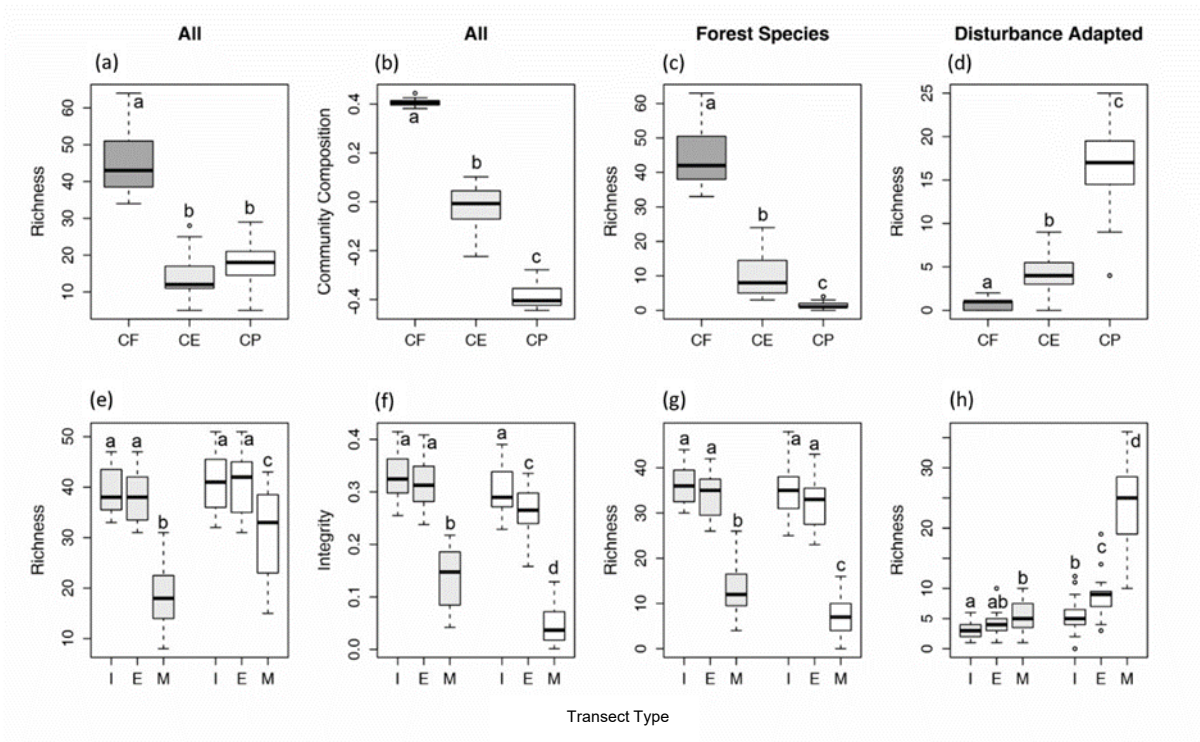
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582 **Figure 2** – Richness and composition measures for bird communities found at each site

583 partitioned by transect type for control forest (CF), control plantation (CE), control pasture

584 (CP), fragment interiors (I), fragments edges (E) and the surrounding matrix (M). Results are

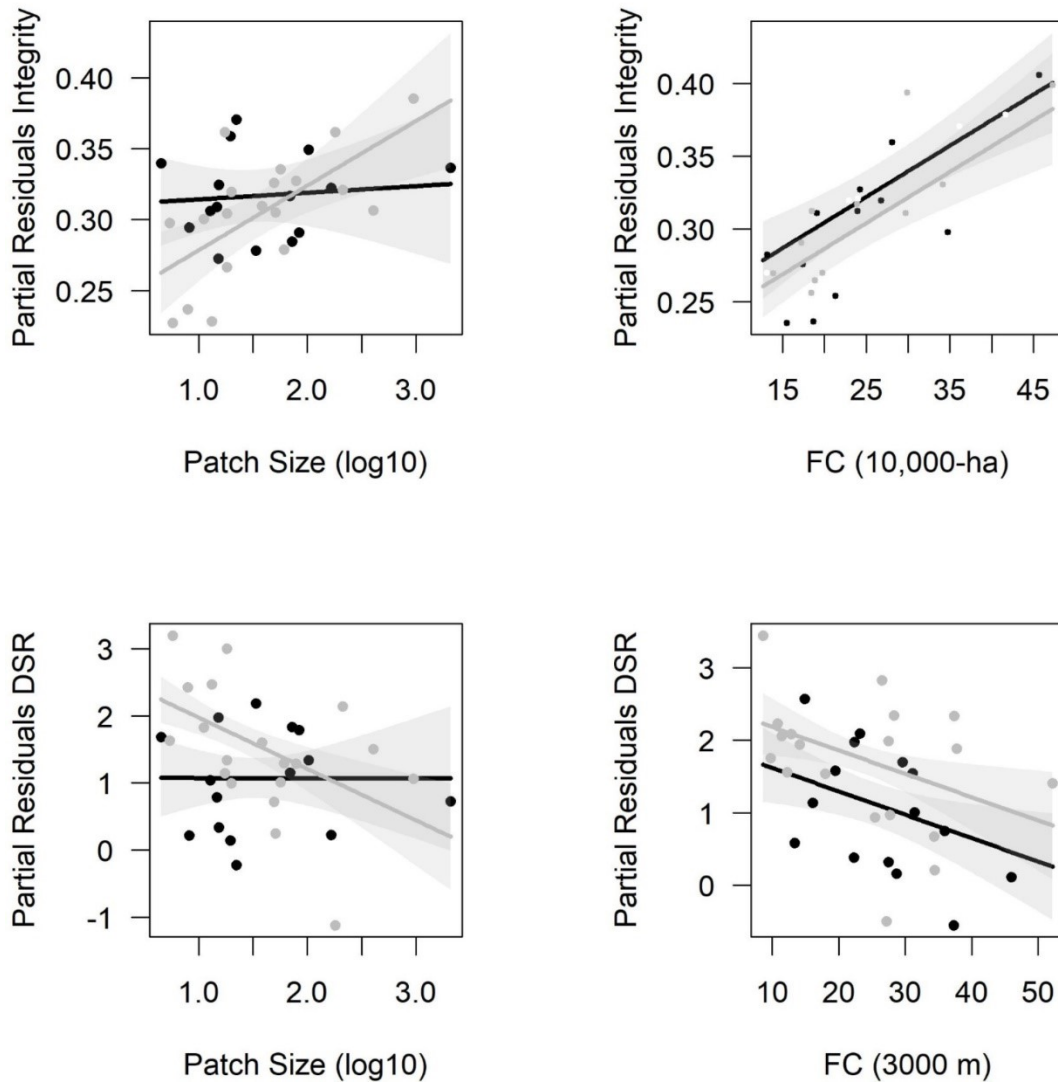
585 shown for control landscapes (top) and fragments (below) as well as for all species, forest

586 species and disturbance adapted species. Letter labels show transect type groupings based

587 on post-hoc significance tests. Fragments with pasture matrices are represented in white and

588 plantation matrices in light gray. Control forest is indicated in dark gray.

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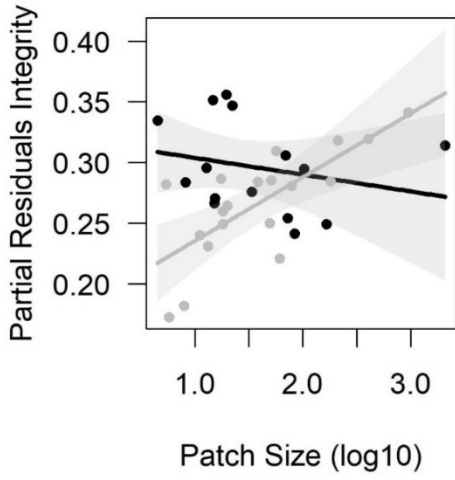


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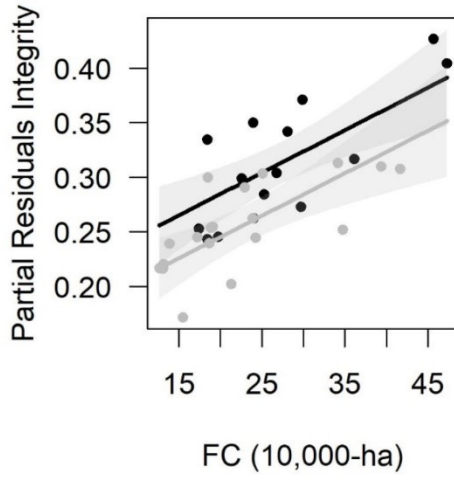
591 **Figure 3** – Partial residual values for community integrity and disturbance-tolerant species
 592 richness (DSR) against patch size in ha (a and c) and percentage forest cover (b and d) for
 593 interior transects. Plantation matrix fragments are shown in black, pasture in gray.

Fragment Edge

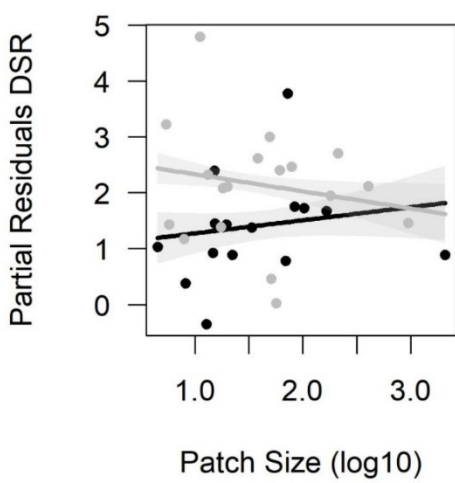
(a)



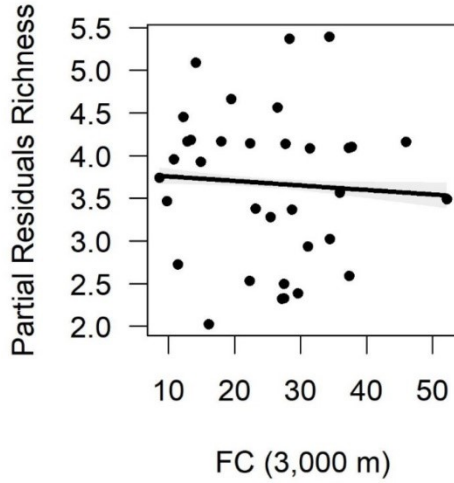
(b)



(c)

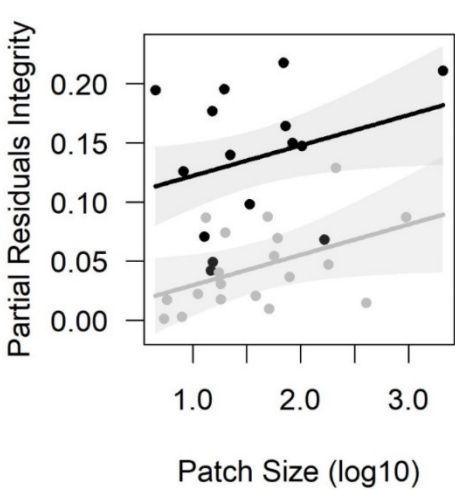


(d)

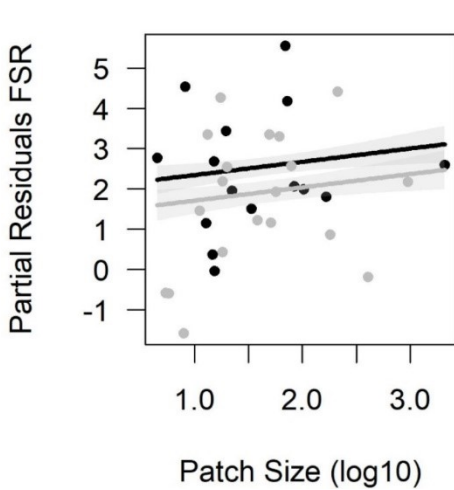


Matrix

(e)

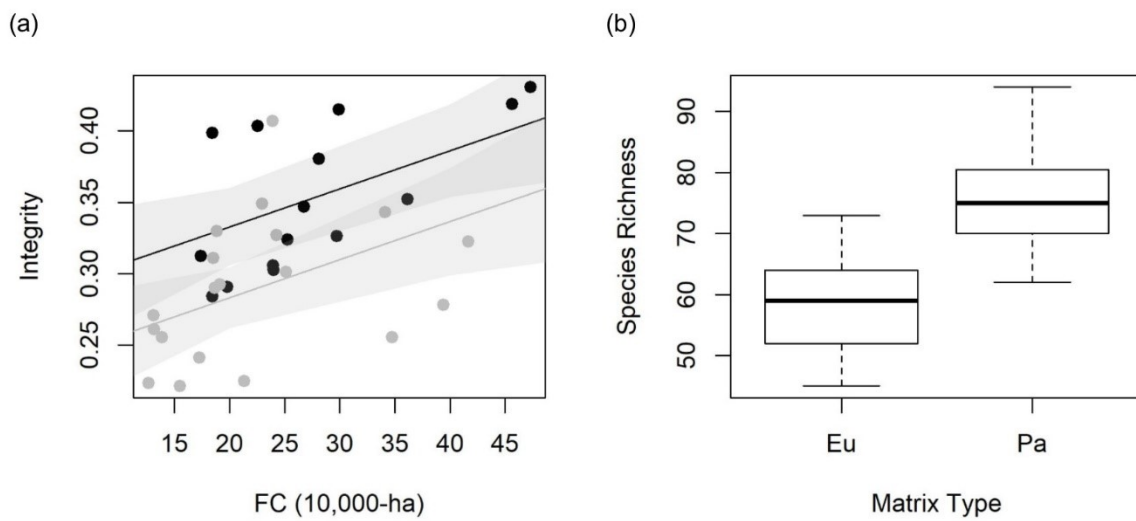


(f)



595 **Figure 4 –** Partial residual values for community integrity, species richness, disturbance
596 tolerant species richness (DSR) and forest species richness (FSR) against patch size in ha
597 (b and d) and percentage forest cover (a, c, e and f) for edge (a – d) and matrix (e - f)
598 transects. Plantation matrix fragments are shown in black, pasture in gray. d shows only a
599 single line as matrix type was not found to be influential in this model.

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602 **Figure 5–** Community integrity against forest cover percentage (a) and species richness (b)
603 compared between the two matrix types - *Eucalyptus* plantation (Eu) and pasture (Pa). Gray
604 is used for pasture matrix fragments with black representing plantation.

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