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Sánchez-Oliver, Rey Benayas & Carrascal, 2014. Local habitat and landscape influence predation of bird nests on afforested Mediterranean cropland. *Acta Oecologica*, vol. 58, pp.35–43.

Available at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.actao.2014.05.001





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# 1 Local habitat and landscape influence predation of bird nests

## 2 on afforested Mediterranean cropland

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#### 12 ABSTRACT

Afforestation programs such as the one promoted by the EU Common Agrarian Policy 13 have contributed to spread tree plantations on former cropland. Nevertheless these 14 15 afforestations may cause severe damage to open habitat species, especially birds of high 16 conservation value. We investigated predation of artificial bird nests at young tree plantations and at the open farmland habitat adjacent to the tree plantations in central 17 Spain. Predation rates were very high at both tree plantations (95.6%) and open 18 19 farmland habitat (94.2%) after two and three week exposure. Plantation edge/area ratio 20 and development of the tree canopy decreased predation rates and plantation area and 21 magpie (*Pica pica*) abundance increased predation rates within tree plantations, which 22 were also affected by land use types around plantations. The area of nearby tree 23 plantations (positive effect), distance to the tree plantation edge (negative effect), and habitat type (mainly attributable to the location of nests in vineyards) explained 24 predation rates at open farmland habitat. We conclude that predation rates on artificial 25 26 nests were particularly high and rapid at or nearby large plantations, with high numbers of magpies and low tree development, and located in homogenous landscapes 27 28 dominated by herbaceous crops and pastures with no remnants of semi-natural woody vegetation. Landscape planning should not favour tree plantations as the ones studied 29 30 here in Mediterranean agricultural areas that are highly valuable for ground-nesting bird 31 species.

32

*Keywords*: Artificial nests, Farmland habitat, Land use types, Magpie abundance, Pineplantations

#### 36 1. Introduction

A significant amount of abandoned cropland, low productive cropland and pastureland 37 has been converted into tree plantations in the last few decades, and ca. 7% of the total 38 forest land in the world are tree plantations at present (FAO, 2011). Different 39 afforestation programs have contributed to the spread of such tree plantations at the 40 regional level. Thus, the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) has favoured the 41 conversion of farmland into tree plantations in the European Union since 1992 by 42 means of a scheme of aid for forestry measures in agriculture (EEC Council Regulation 43 44 No. 2080/92), which has resulted in the afforestation of > 8 million has to date (European 45 Commission, 2013a, 2013b). Further, afforested cropland is expected to increase in the near future in countries such as Spain due to subsidies to afforestation of extirpated 46 47 vineyards (Spanish Agrarian Guarantee Fund, 2012). This afforestation program pursues both societal and environmental benefits, including control of erosion, 48 prevention of desertification, regulation of the water regime, and increasing the fixation 49 rate of carbon dioxide. However, whereas tree plantations provide a number of benefits 50 (Rey Benavas et al., 2007), they may have noticeable effects on biological communities, 51 52 as it has been exemplarily shown with birds (Shochat et al., 2001; Santos et al., 2006; Bremer and Farley, 2010; Felton et al., 2010; Lindenmayer et al., 2010; Rey Benayas et 53 54 al., 2010).

Agro-ecosystems are important for maintenance of bird diversity in Europe, especially for species of conservation concern (BirdLife International, 2004). The Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development (2012), using *the common farmland bird index* as "a barometer of change for the biodiversity of agricultural land 59 in Europe", shows a decline in these bird populations of ca. 20% between 1990 and 2008 (see also Gregory et al., 2005; Butler et al., 2010; Guerrero et al., 2012). Cropland 60 afforestations in southern Europe are mostly based on coniferous species such as Pinus 61 halepensis and P. pinaster, and are an example of novel and hybrid ecosystems sensu 62 Hobbs et al. (2009). These plantations may cause damage to open habitat species, 63 especially birds, by replacing high quality open farmland habitat and increasing risk of 64 predation (Díaz et al., 1998; Cresswell, 2008; Reino et al., 2009). Predation has both 65 66 direct and indirect effects on bird populations (Batáry and Báldi, 2004), the latter related to the avoidance of use of habitats that are perceived as risky (Murcia, 1995) or 67 fecundity reduction (Bonnington et al., 2013). Besides hindering the persistence of 68 69 established ground-nesting bird populations, predation may impede the colonization of the new afforested habitat by bird species (Murcia, 1995; Lindenmayer and Fischer, 70 71 2006).

Tree plantations act as sources of generalist predators of various types, including 72 73 rodents, lagomorphs, feral cats, dogs, and corvids (Andren, 1992; Pita et al., 2009; Reino et al., 2010; Suvorov et al., 2012). These generalist predators usually have very 74 75 low densities at treeless open habitats, but thrive in mosaic habitat landscapes where 76 they exhibit an exploratory behaviour (Andren, 1992; Pita et al., 2009; Reino et al., 77 2010). Particularly, predation by corvids is enhanced in humanized landscapes where 78 they attain high densities (Jokimaki et al., 2000; Newson et al., 2010), and Salek (2004) 79 experimentally showed that the presence of magpie (Pica pica) nests increased predation rates on bird eggs. Accordingly, Castilla et al. (2007) attributed in part the 80 81 relatively low predation on Red-legged Partridge (Alectoris rufa) eggs at Mediterranean fallow fields to the low presence of magpies due to their capture by humans. Magpies 82

are strongly attracted by trees in deforested landscapes for nesting, and this
phenomenon is highly noticeable at relatively small and isolated tree plantations in
Mediterranean cropland afforestations.

This study aimed to investigate the predation of bird eggs set on artificial nests 86 at young (< 20 yr) tree plantations established on former cropland and at the open 87 habitat adjacent to such tree plantations in a farmland and woodland Mediterranean 88 89 mosaic. We hypothesized that nest predation will be affected by both (1) the features of local breeding habitat and (2) the features of landscape –namely proportion of land use 90 91 types- surrounding local habitat. At tree plantations, we predicted that (i) a reduced area and a high edge-area ratio will favour permeability to predators and hence increase nest 92 93 predation rates and (ii) magpie abundance and predation rate will be positively 94 correlated. At open farmland habitat adjacent to tree plantations, we predict that predation rates will be influenced by (i) plantation area (positive effect), (ii) distance 95 from plantation (negative) and (iii) magpie abundance (positive). 96

97 Our experimental study sheds light on the risk of nest predation at 98 Mediterranean landscapes that have been subjected to afforestation projects of former 99 cropland, and provides insights for impact assessment and management of such projects 100 at the local habitat and landscape scales.

101

#### 102 **2. Methods**

103 *2.1. Study area* 

Field work was carried out in afforested cropland and open farmland located in Campo
de Montiel (La Mancha natural region, southern Spanish plateau, 38°41'53"N,

2°51'54''W, Figure S1 in Supplemental Material). The study area spreads on ca. 440
km<sup>2</sup> with altitude ranging between 690 and 793 m a.s.l. The climate is continental
Mediterranean with dry and hot summers and cold winters. Mean annual temperature
and total annual precipitation in the area during the last 30 years were 13.7 °C and 390
mm, respectively (Agencia Española de Meteorología, 2012). These figures were
16.6°C and 359.9 mm in 2011 and 15.8°C and 362.9 mm in 2012, when our nest
predation experiments took place (Junta de Castilla-La Mancha, 2013).

113 The area is a representative mosaic of different crops, pastures and semi-natural 114 or planted woody vegetation that are characteristic of large areas in Mediterranean landscapes. Croplands were mostly occupied by herbaceous crops (wheat and barley) 115 116 and permanent woody crops (olive groves and vineyards). Natural vegetation consisted 117 of holm oak (Quercus rotundifolia L.) woodland and riparian forests that have been 118 mostly extirpated from this region. Until 1992, woodland cover was restricted to open 119 holm oak parklands, usually grazed by sheep and goats. Major land use changes in the 120 last 20 years are the abandonment of herbaceous cropland and vineyard extirpation and their subsequent afforestation with the native Aleppo pine (Pinus halepensis Mill.) 121 122 alone or mixed with holm oak and (Retama sphaerocarpa (L.) Boiss) (Rey Benayas et al., 2010). These tree plantations are noticeably dominated by pines as they establish 123 124 better and grow faster than the other planted species.

125

## 126 2.2. Selection of tree plantations for predation experiments

127 The constraints associated with each habitat type, namely tree plantations and open128 farmland adjacent to tree plantations, prevented homogeneous experimental designs and

129 sampling methods, and consequently data from the different experiments were not 130 directly analysed together (see below). Thus, we run two independent experiments of 131 bird nest predation, (1) at tree plantations and (2) on open farmland. First, all tree plantations in the study area were located using both orto-photos (Geographic 132 Information System of Farming Land, 2010; hereafter SigPac) and Google Earth®, and 133 were later verified in the field. We found 99 tree plantations on former cropland that 134 took place in 1992 or later. Only tree plantations > 0.78 ha were selected for the 135 136 predation experiments to take advantage of bird survey plots of this size in the study area. In addition, a target tree plantation for the experiment on adjacent farmland had to 137 be placed at least 2-km away from another plantation to avoid that experimental nests 138 139 associated with a given tree plantation were affected by another tree plantation. 140 Following these criteria, we finally selected 30 tree plantations for the experiment at tree plantations and 38 tree plantations for the experiment on farmland adjacent to the 141 tree plantations, with 20 plantations that were used in both experiments (Figure S1 in 142 Supplemental Material). 143

144

## 145 2.3. Survey of magpie abundance

We recorded the abundance of magpie as a potential nest predator in the studied tree plantations and open farmland habitat adjacent to such plantations. At every tree plantation, magpies were surveyed using point-count stations (Bibby et al., 2000) lasting 10 minutes in May 2011. The point-counts were located at the centre of each tree plantation. All auditory and visual contacts were recorded, but only those within a 50 m radius (0.78 ha; **Figure S2 in Supplemental Material**) were used in subsequent analyses, in order to increase the probability of detection. Every point-count station was surveyed by two censuses in different days, one within the first 4 h in the morning and another in the afternoon beginning 3 h before sunset. We used the average of the two counts as a measure of magpie abundance. The same trained person conducted all the censuses (JSS-O) on nearly windless (wind speed  $<3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and rainless days.

The open farmland habitat adjacent to 38 tree plantations was also surveyed for 157 magpie abundance by means of one line transect of 400-m length and 200-m width in 158 may 2012 (Figure S2 in Supplemental Material). Again, all censuses were conducted 159 160 by the same well trained field ornithologist (JSS-O) on windless (wind speed < 3 m s-1) 161 and rainless days. We employed two different census methods and years for sampling magpie relative abundance according to the limitations imposed by the size of pine 162 plantations, where transects were not possible due to their small area. Nevertheless, this 163 164 is not a concern in this study as the aim is not to compare magpie abundance inside vs outside plantations, but to relate the relative abundance of magpies to nest predation 165 within plantations and outside plantations, separately. 166

167 Other corvid species were disregarded as key predators of artificial nests because 168 they were very scarce in the study area (the Carrion Crow, *Corvus corone*, was detected 169 at only one open farmland adjacent to tree plantations, and other species such as the Jay, 170 *Garrulus glandarius*, or the Raven, *C. corax*, were not observed in the study area).

171

## 172 2.4. Nest predation experiments

The two nest predation experiments used quail (*Coturnix coturnix*) eggs that were layed on exposed artificial wicker nests (two eggs at each artificial nest; see below details on egg placement). All eggs had the same origin (i.e., supplier), were washed and then dried at air temperature before being used for the field experiments (Vander Haegen and
DeGraaf, 1996; Conner and Perkins, 2003; Piper and Catterall, 2004), and were handled
with gloved hands to minimize human scent (Whelan et al., 1994).

The artificial nests at tree plantations and on open fields near plantations were not placed on the same date due to limitations inherent to the organization of the field work, which included a number of tasks, and considering the timing of agricultural activities in the study area (e.g., ploughing). Nevertheless, the data for the two experiments were analysed separately and were never directly compared.

184 We considered an artificial nest as predated when the eggs were either absent or damaged, excluding from analyses those artificial nests that were ploughed or trampled 185 186 (42 and 7, respectively, on open farmland and neither at tree plantations). Types of predators could not be distinguished for the eggs that were removed from the artificial 187 188 nests which, in turn, were most of them (see Results). Nevertheless, unidentified predation events were probably attributable to small corvids (Schaefer, 2004) such as 189 magpies considering their ability to store large items of food and to steal and remove 190 eggs from nests (Henty, 1975; Groom, 1993; Perrins, 1998). We were able to 191 192 distinguish predation by rodents (by their characteristic bites and, sometimes, faeces) 193 and by corvids (by their characteristic pecks) from some fresh egg remains, whereas for 194 the largest part of predated eggs with fresh remains we could not distinguish the source of predation. However, this issue is not a problem for the aims of this study since we 195 196 were interested in the effects of tree plantations on overall predation risk rather than in 197 the identification of predator assemblages.

198 *Experiment 1.- Predation at the tree plantations.* This experiment was run at 30 199 plantations in the spring of 2011, which averaged  $5.6 \pm 7.2$  ha and ranged between 1.5 200 and 36.5 ha. The artificial nests with two quail eggs each were placed at two different 201 positions (i.e. one nest on the ground and another nest on pine branches) at 25-m 202 intervals along an *a priori* line spanning from the edge (0 m) to the centre of the 203 plantation (Figure S2 in Supplemental Material), in May 22-25. The height above the 204 ground for those nests located on branches was estimated using a measuring tape. The 205 line where both on-ground and on-branches artificial nests were placed covered at least 206 50 m (i.e. three nest locations at 0, 25, and 50 m from the plantation edge), whereas the 207 maximum length of that line from the plantation edge was 225 m that included ten nest locations (average was 70.8 m and sd = 38.9). Total sample size was 230 nests, 115 208 located on the ground and 115 located on branches. We visited the nests in two 209 210 occasions, 7-9 days (May 31 and June 1) and 15-18 days after they were placed (June 9-11), counting the number of eggs that had been removed. Artificial nests were not 211 checked more often in order to reduce the effect of the observer on predation and to 212 preserve nest concealment (e.g., Major and Kendal, 1996). 213

214 Experiment 2.- Predation on open farmland adjacent to tree plantations. This experiment was run at 38 plantations in the spring of 2012. Each artificial wicker nest 215 216 was baited with two treated quail eggs (see above) and was placed on the ground along an *a priori* 300-m line; this line spanned at 25-m intervals from the plantation edge (0 217 m) until 150 m away from such edge, and then at 50-m intervals until 300 m (i.e., nine 218 219 nests at 0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 250, and 300 m; Figure S2 in Supplemental 220 Material). The artificial nests were placed on May 4-9. Total sample size was 342 nests. We took note of the habitat type where each nest was situated, considering five 221 222 habitat categories (olive groves, vineyard, abandoned cropland and pastures, seminatural woody vegetation, and dry herbaceous cropland). We checked the nests for egg 223

predation in two occasions (in May 15-22 and in May 27-June 1, 11-14 days and 21-23
days after the nests were placed), following the same protocol presented in Experiment
1.

- 227
- 228 2.5. Local habitat and landscape features

229 In each of the 46 tree plantations where experiments 1 and 2 took place, we 230 characterized variables related to vegetation structure, area, edge/area ratio, and 231 landscape surrounding the tree plantation (Table S1 in Supplemental Material). Vegetation structure at each surveyed plantation was characterized in one 25-m radius 232 233 plot (Figure S2 in Supplemental Material). We directly measured or estimated by eye, 234 after previous training, the following structural features of the vegetation: percentage cover of chamaephytes, shrubs and trees, average height of chamaephytes, shrubs and 235 236 trees, and number of trunks <5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-40 and >40cm in diameter at breast 237 height (dbh). Additionally, we estimated percentage cover of herbs and bare soil and measured the average height of the herb layer in one concentric 10-m radius plots within 238 the 25-m radius plot (Figure S2 in Supplemental Material) due to perceptual 239 240 limitations when carrying out visual estimations. Vegetation structure was sampled by 241 the same observer (JSS-O) to avoid inter-personal bias in vegetation measurements. We 242 also measured area and edge/area ratio using ArcGIS 10.0 (ESRI Inc.). Edge/area ratio was calculated as the quotient between the length of the edge (in m) and the square root 243 244 of the plantation area (in  $m^2$ ).

Land use types were identified by means of land use layers taken from SigPac (see source above) and were analysed with ArcGIS 10.0. We distinguished 14 land use

247 types: streams, rivers and lagoons, roads and rural tracks, urban areas and scattered 248 buildings, semi-natural woodland, dried-fruit orchards, orchards, waste lands, olive 249 grove, pastures with scattered trees, scrubland, pasture land, dry herbaceous cropland, 250 vineyard, and vineyard with olive trees. To characterize landscape surrounding the tree plantations for Experiment 1, the percentage of area of each land use types was obtained 251 252 in 1-km buffer-rings centred at each forest plantation (Figure S2 in Supplemental 253 Material). To characterize landscape for Experiment 2, the proportion of land use types 254 was measured as above at 600 m x 600 m squares that included the 300-m transects in farmland habitat were the artificial nests were set (Figure S2 in Supplemental 255 Material). 256

257

#### 258 2.6. Statistical analysis

The two experiments of nest predation were analysed independently. We used predation incidence obtained from the first checking date as most artificial nests were predated within the first 7-14 days after they were placed on the field (see Results).

262 We looked at the correlation among the independent variables of our models 263 (see below). Most correlations were not significant. Moreover, the VIF figures (variance 264 inflation factor) for predictors in the analyses were very low (<1.75). Particularly, the shared variance between magpie abundance and other explanatory variables was usually 265 very low (as measured by the coefficient of determination  $R^2$ ): (a) Within tree 266 plantations: log area 0.03; edge/area ratio <0.001; PC1 vegetation 0.14; PC2 vegetation 267 268 0.04; and PC1 land use 0.08; (b) On open farmland habitat: log area 0.09; pine height 269 <0.001; and PC1 land use 0.03.

270 Two statistical approaches were carried out for each experiment. First, we 271 analysed the predation of each individual nest using a binomial response variable 272 (predated-1, non-predated-0) by means of a Generalized Linear Mixed Effects Model, with the study location (the plantation or the farmed fields outside the plantation) as a 273 random factor and the position of the nests as fixed effects. Additionally, we analysed 274 275 global predation rates at the tree plantations and on open farmland by means of a generalized Poisson regression model. This model considered the whole sample of 276 277 artificial nests at each location. Predictor variables described the characteristics of the 278 plantations, the density of the magpie and the landscape structure around each study location. 279

280 Experiment 1.- A Generalized Linear Mixed Model was applied to the predation of each 281 individual nest at tree plantations using a binomial response variable (predated-1, nonpredated-0; logit link function). The plantation was included as a random factor and the 282 position of the nests were the fixed effects (distance of each artificial nest to the 283 284 plantation edge and height of artificial nests above the ground). The continuous predictor variables were standardized to mean = 0 and sd = 1 in order to obtain 285 286 standardized regression coefficients. Statistical significance was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors (Lindsey, 2004) after correcting for 287 288 overdispersion ( $\phi = 0.82$ ).

We also used a Generalized Linear Model based on a Poisson distribution (with the log-link function) for analysing the number of predated nests, with the total number of artificial nests placed at each plantation as an offset. This model was applied to analyse the effects of six predictor variables, namely tree plantation area (logtransformed), plantation edge/area ratio, magpie abundance, two components related to vegetation structure, and a principal component related to landscape features (see below). Statistical significance of the standardized regression coefficients of the predictor variables was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors after correcting for overdispersion ( $\phi = 0.72$ ).

We performed two different principal components analyses (PCA), one on vegetation structure variables within tree plantations and another on land use types surrounding the plantations, to obtain synthetic and independent environmental gradients that may affect nest predation.

302 Experiment 2.- A Generalized Linear Mixed Model was applied to the predation 303 of each individual nest on farmland habitat using a binomial response variable 304 (predated-1, non-predated-0; logit link function). The plantation was included as a 305 random factor and the position of the nests were the fixed effects (distance of each 306 artificial nest to the nearest plantation edge and a factor describing the location in six 307 different habitat categories). The continuous predictor variables were standardized to 308 obtain standardized regression coefficients. Statistical significance was estimated using 309 a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors after correcting for overdispersion ( $\phi$ = 0.36). 310

Additionally, we used another Generalized Linear Model based on a Poisson distribution (with the log-link function). The response variable was the number of predated nests placed at each transect, with the total number of artificial nests as an offset. Predictor variables were: area of the nearby tree plantation (log-transformed), average tree height of the nearest plantation, magpie abundance on the farmed field transect, and the principal component related to landscape features (see below). The continuous predictor variables were standardized in order to obtain standardized regression coefficients. Statistical significance of the standardized regression coefficients of the predictor variables was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors after correcting for overdispersion ( $\phi = 0.43$ ).

For this experiment we carried out another PCA on land use type categories measured at 600 m x 600 m squares.

Out of the 342 nests placed in total for the experiment, 40 nests were not found, seven were trampled, and 42 were located on cropland fields that were ploughed. All artificial nests at five out of the 38 tree plantations that were initially selected for Experiment 2 were lost due to ploughing or trampling.

327 Statistical analyses were carried out using GRETL 1.9.14 (Cottrell and
328 Lucchetti, 2007) for generalized linear models and STATISTICA 10 (StatSoft, 2011)
329 for principal components analyses.

330

#### 331 **3. Results**

### 332 *3.1. Dominant environmental gradients*

333 The first component on vegetation structure variables within tree plantations (51.2% of total variance) defined a gradient of increasing development of the tree canopy, as it 334 opposed tree cover (factor loading = 0.897), tree height (0.816) and number of trunks > 5 335 336 cm in dbh (0.852) to shrub height (-0.724) and cover (-0.523) and herb height (-0.656). The second component on vegetation structure variables (20.1% of the total variance) 337 338 was associated with the development of the shrub layer; it opposed shrub cover (0.727) and height (0.602) to herb cover (-0.611). The first component on land use around tree 339 plantations (36.3% of the total variance) opposed olive groves (0.964) and semi-natural 340

woodland (0.718) to roads and rural tracks (-0.842), vineyard (-0.766) and dry
herbaceous cropland (-0.637).

For land use type categories measured at 600 m x 600 m squares on open farmland habitat, the first component (14.8% of the total variance) opposed semi-natural woodland (0.644) and pastures with scattered trees (0.626) to dry herbaceous cropland (-0.715).

347

## 348 *3.2. Predation rates and magpie abundance*

Overall predation rates were very high at both the tree plantations and adjacent open farmland (**Figure 1**). 81.2% and 88.4% of the predated artificial nests were observed at tree plantations and on open farmland habitat, respectively, by the first counting, one to two weeks after being set. Only 4.4% and 5.8% of artificial nests at tree plantations and on open farmland habitat, respectively, were left un-predated two to three weeks after the start of the experiment (**Figure 1**).

All artificial nests at 12 (40%) tree plantations were predated by the first counting, and all artificial nests were left un-predated at only one tree plantation. On open farmland habitat, all artificial nests were predated in 21 (58.3%) transects by the first counting. The maximum number of artificial nests left un-predated in a transect by the first counting was 85.7%.

360 Of the total nests, 74.2% at tree plantations and 79.2% on open farmland were 361 removed and, consequently, their source of predation is unknown. Predation by rodents 362 at tree plantations and on open farmland were, respectively, 1.7% and 2.3%, whereas 363 5.2% and 6.9%, respectively, showed evidence of predation by corvids, namely magpie364 as the nearly exclusive corvid species present around and in plantations.

Mean magpie abundance at the 30 tree plantations was 1.37 birds per ha (sd = 1.87, range = 0-6.41), whereas it averaged 0.11 birds ha<sup>-1</sup> (sd = 0.18, range =0-0.63, n=38) at open farmland near tree plantations.

368

#### 369 *3.3. Nest predation at tree plantations*

The Generalized Linear Mixed Model analysing the predation probability of artificial nests at tree plantations showed substantial differences among plantations, but distance of artificial nests to the plantation edge and height of nests above the ground did not show any significant effect on nest predation (**Table 1**).

The Generalized Linear Model (Poisson distribution) of the number of predated nests at tree plantations, using the total number of artificial nests placed at each plantation as an offset (**Table 2**), revealed positive effects of tree plantation area and magpie abundance (**Figure 2**), and negative effects of edge/area ratio, development of the tree canopy (first PC of vegetation structure variables), and relative amount of tree crops and woodland in the landscape (first PC of land use type variables).

380

## 381 *3.4. Nest predation on open farmland adjacent to tree plantations*

The Generalized Linear Mixed Model analysing nest predation of individual nests on open farmland adjacent to tree plantations resulted in significant effects of the three predictors (**Table 3**). There were important differences among the 33 open farmland sites adjacent to tree plantations (random factor). Distance of nests to the nearest edge of tree plantations had a negative effect on predation risk (i.e., lower predation risk at longer distances from plantations). The habitat type where artificial nests were placed had also a significant effect, mainly attributable to the location of nests in vineyards that increased the probability of predation.

The Generalized Linear Model (Poisson distribution) of the number of predated nests on open farmland adjacent to tree plantations, using the total number of artificial nests placed outside plantations as an offset, showed only a significant effect of the nearby plantation area, global predation risk on open farmland being higher around larger tree plantations. Mean height of nearby tree plantations, magpie abundance and the relative amount of tree crops and woodland in the landscape (first PC of land use variables) did not show any significant effect on nest predation (**Table 4**).

The area of the tree plantations for predated (n = 224) and non-predated (n = 29) artificial nests were (mean  $\pm$  se) 6.4  $\pm$  0.48 ha and 3.1  $\pm$  0.24 ha, respectively. Predated and non-predated artificial nests were on average at a distance of 121.0  $\pm$  6.38 m and 144.0  $\pm$  20.75 from the tree plantations, respectively, and the modal values corresponded to a distance of 50 m for predated nests and 300 m for non-predated nests.

402

#### 403 **4. Discussion**

404 Overall, we found that predation of artificial bird nests at young tree plantations 405 established on former cropland and at adjacent open farmland habitat in a 406 Mediterranean mosaic located in central Spain was (1) very high at both habitats, (2) 407 influenced by local habitat features, and (3) influenced by landscape context. However, 408 we obtained different results for specific variables that were hypothesized to affect

409 predation rates inside and outside the investigated tree plantations (i.e. area, edge/area410 ratio, distance to edge, and magpie abundance).

The use of artificial nests to test predation rates is controversial due to factors 411 412 that are not controlled with respect to real nests, and several studies have demonstrated 413 that artificial nests do not estimate nest predation rates on natural nests precisely (Burke et al., 2004; Faaborg, 2004; Thompson and Burhans, 2004; Villard and Part, 2004). 414 415 Thus, artificial nests can reveal where birds would never choose to nest as opposed to 416 where their nests would suffer relatively high predation rates. Also, nest predation is 417 only one of demographic parameters and thus this study provides only a partial view of 418 the ecological relationships in the studied landscape.

419

## 420 *4.1. High predation rates on artificial nests*

Nest predation was very high and quick at both the tree plantations and adjacent open 421 422 farmland habitat (>80% in less than two weeks after the start of our experiments). These 423 rates are among the highest reported in the scientific literature (data and references in 424 
**Table 5**). Previous published figures of nest predation rates at tree plantations average
 59.5% with a range of 23-94% (**Table 5a**). Similarly, nest predation rates for natural 425 forest fragments are usually high (mean = 66.4%, range = 38.9-88.0%; **Table 5b**) but 426 lower than in our tree plantations (95.6%). Other studies that have assessed nest 427 428 predation rates at open habitat adjacent to tree plantations or natural forest fragments reported figures that average 60.0% (range = 13.7-100%; Table 3c), which are 429 substantially lower than our 94.2% predation rate. However, comparisons of these 430 431 figures with the figures obtained in our study should be cautious due to the different

experimental designs across studies. In an experiment that used eggs of red-legged
partridge located at Holm oak woodland patches in Central Spain, Castilla et al. (2007)
reported a predation rate of 38.9% after a 2-week exposure.

435 We attribute the high predation rates in our study to the following three 436 phenomena. First, our tree plantations were overall very small (mean size of 5.7±6.7 ha), which make nests easily accessible to predators in general even at the largest 437 plantations (Ford et al., 2001; Chalfoun et al., 2002). Second, they were located in an 438 439 agricultural and highly humanized landscape, which may favor predation by a number 440 of animals such as rodents, hares, feral cats and dogs (Danielson et al., 1997; Jokimäki et al., 2005; Pangau-Adam et al., 2006). Also, short vegetation -such as that in the 441 442 fields surrounding the studied plantations- is usually associated with very high predation 443 rates (Beja et al., 2014). And third, they were a very attractive habitat for magpies, a documented powerful nest predator (Andren, 1992; Roos, 2004; Suvorov et al., 2012) 444 that was particularly abundant in our study area (Sánchez-Oliver et al., 2013). 445

446

#### 447 *4.2. Factors affecting predation rates*

448 Nest predation at tree plantations increased with larger plantation area and abundance of 449 magpies and with a lower edge-area ratio and development of the tree layer, whereas 450 nest predation on open farmland habitat was higher if nearby tree plantations were of 451 large area and nests were located at closer distances from the plantations.

The small size and homogeneity of the studied tree plantations and the high predation rates explain why distance to edge and average height above the ground of individual nests did not have any effect on predation rates at tree plantations. However, a shorter distance to edge of the tree plantation may enhance predation on the open
farmland habitat because nests are closer to the source of predators (Batáry and Báldi,
2004; Reino et al., 2010) such as magpies. Lack of association between magpie
abundance and nest predation on open farmland makes unclear if magpies are or not a
major predator in open habitats, an issue that should be tested by using cameras to
identify the actual predators.

461 Predator identification in our experiments was relatively unsuccessful as the proportion of eggs that disappeared was high (>74%) and, unfortunately, egg shell 462 463 observation did not provide enough information to determine the main sources of predation. However, we detected a positive relationship between nest predation rates 464 465 and magpie abundance inside tree plantations, which points to relevance of nest 466 predation caused by magpies. Magpies have a high capability of exploring relatively new habitats and are prone to nesting in the most developed plantations (> 3 m in 467 height) that we surveyed in our mostly deforested study area (Carrascal et al., 2014). 468 Andren (1992) found predation rates of bird nests in forest fragments by this corvid that 469 ranged between 7.2% and 35.7%. As most of the studied tree plantations are of a 470 471 rectangular shape, low edge-area ratios mean larger plantations, which may function as a refuge habitat and harbour a higher abundance of magpies and other generalist 472 473 predators of bird nests such as domestic carnivores (Virgós et al., 2002; Barea-Azcón et 474 al., 2006; Pita et al., 2009; Fandos et al., 2012).

The higher predation rates at tree plantations with lower tree development may be explained by the facts that these plantations are newer habitats that call more the attention of exploring predators (Virgós et al., 2002) than older plantations and, additionally, they are more open and thus artificial nests are more visible (Suvorov et

al., 2012). The same influence of low vegetation cover can be related to the higher
predation risk suffered by artificial nests located at vineyards outside tree plantations, a
heavily anthropized habitat with no vegetation at ground level due to agricultural
practices that eliminate the natural herbaceous layer that may compete for water and
nutrients with grapevines.

Finally, we found significant landscape effects on nest predation at both the tree 484 plantations and the surrounding open farmland habitat. Other studies have found 485 486 relationships between landscape context and nest predation rates (Huhta et al., 1996; 487 Bayne and Hobson, 1997). In our study, nest predation in tree plantations was higher in landscapes with higher proportion of herbaceous crops and pastures and lower 488 489 proportion of woody crops and semi-natural woodlands. This finding supported by 490 correlational evidence hints at the importance of semi-natural vegetation for 491 conservation of ground-nesting birds in vast open farmed fields (Santos et al., 2006; 492 Zuria et al., 2007; Ludwig et al., 2012). However, some open farmland birds may have 493 strong negative reactions to woody habitats, either natural or planted, and they may also increase the abundance of generalist predators (Pita et al., 2009; Reino et al., 2009 and 494 495 2010). Deforested landscapes with a high proportion of herbaceous crops favour also 496 the abundance of lagomorphs, which can predate on eggs (Reino et al., 2010). In general, tree plantations in open, deforested, and homogenous landscapes are better 497 498 attractors and refuges of predators than tree plantations in more heterogeneous 499 landscapes where there is more availability of habitat with trees (e.g. Andren, 1992).

500

#### 502 **5. Conclusion**

503 Our experiments on predation rates at young afforestations of Mediterranean cropland 504 and adjacent open farmland hint local habitat and landscape features that are indicators 505 of predation risk for bird nests. We conclude that predation rates on artificial nests were 506 particularly high and rapid at or nearby large plantations, with high numbers of magpies and low tree development, and located in homogenous landscapes dominated by 507 508 herbaceous crops and pastures with no remnants of semi-natural woody vegetation. 509 Thus, the studied tree plantations should not be favoured, and even be extirpated, in 510 agricultural landscapes that are highly valuable for ground-nesting bird species and open farmland bird communities (Traba et al., 2006; Sánchez-Oliver et al., 2013). We 511 512 recommend assessments of real nest predation risk following afforestation in 513 agricultural landscapes to fully understand and, consequently, reduce its impacts on biodiversity, particularly on ground-nesting birds. 514

515

#### 516 Acknowledgments

Projects from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Education (CGL2010-18312) and the Government of Madrid (S2009AMB-1783, REMEDINAL-2) are currently providing financial support for this body of research. JSS-O was supported by a contract from Fundación Internacional para la Restauración de Ecosistemas (<u>www.fundacionfire.org</u>). We are indebeted to two anonymous reviewers and handling editor Patrick Doncaster who improved the contents and presentation of a previous version of this manuscript. We also thank Claire Jasinski for improving the English of the first draft of the 524 manuscript. All authors of this manuscript do not have any conflict of interest to

525 declare.

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- 728

**Table 1.** Results of the Generalized Linear Mixed Model (binomial distribution with logit link function) analysing the effects on nest predation of distance to edge of tree plantations and height above ground of individual artificial nests located in 30 tree plantations on former cropland (random factor). p: statistical significance was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors. Significant predictor variables at p<0.05 are emboldened. Beta ( $\beta$ ): standardized partial regression coefficients; se: standard error of beta.

	df	β	se	р
Distance to plantation edge (m)	1	-0.207	0.305	0.496
Height above ground (m)	1	-0.257	0.223	0.250
Plantation (random factor)	29			<<0.001

736

737

**Table 2.** Results of the Generalized Linear Model (Poisson distribution with log-link function) analyzing the effects of six predictor variables on the number of predated artificial nests at 30 tree plantations on former cropland. The total number of artificial nests placed at each plantation was used as an offset of the model. p: statistical significance was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors. Significant predictor variables at p<0.05 are emboldened. Beta ( $\beta$ ): standardized partial regression coefficients; se: standard error of beta.

	df	β	se	р
Area (ha; log-transformed)	1	0.127	0.055	0.021
Edge/area ratio	1	-0.153	0.061	0.012
Magpie abundance (no. individuals)	1	0.169	0.061	0.006
PC1 Vegetation structure	1	-0.085	0.043	0.050
PC2 Vegetation structure	1	0.075	0.041	0.066
PC1 Land use types	1	-0.165	0.063	0.009

746

748	Table 3. Results of the Generalized Linear Mixed Model (binomial distribution with
749	logit link function) showing the effects of predictor variables on predation of artificial
750	nests on open farmland adjacent to 33 tree plantations (random factor). p: statistical
751	significance was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors.
752	Significant predictor variables at p<0.05 are emboldened. Beta ( $\beta$ ): standardized partial
753	regression coefficients for continuous predictors and for the dummy variables built with
754	the levels of the factor habitat types.

	df	β	se	р
Distance to edge (m)	1	-1.122	0.363	0.002
Habitat types where nests were placed:	5			0.003
Olive groves		0.632	0.701	0.368
Vineyard		8.440	0.433	<0.001
Abandoned cropland and pastures		0.656	0.948	0.489
Semi-natural woody vegetation		-0.575	0.650	0.376
Dry herbaceous cropland		0.988	0.800	0.217
Plantation (random factor)	32			<<0.001

**Table 4.** Results of the Generalized Linear Model (Poisson distribution with log-link function) analysing the effects of predictor variables on the number of predated artificial nests on open farmland adjacent to 33 tree plantations. The total number of artificial nests in each open farmland habitat was used as an offset of the model. p: statistical significance was estimated using a robust approach with quasi-ML standard errors. Significant predictor variables at p<0.05 are emboldened. Beta ( $\beta$ ): standardized partial regression coefficients; se: standard error of beta.

	df	β	se	р
Plantation area (ha; log-transformed)	1	0.052	0.024	0.030
Average tree height in plantations (m)	1	-0.017	0.036	0.641
Magpie abundance (no. individuals)	1	0.016	0.031	0.602
PC1 Land use types	1	-0.061	0.039	0.116

764

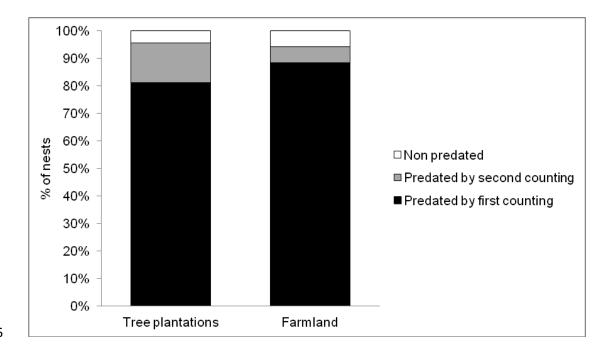
**Table 5.** Review of nest predation rates at (a) tree plantations, (b) forest fragments and (c) open habitat adjacent to tree plantations or forest fragments. The mean and range of predation rates and the mean  $\pm$  sd of exposure days for the three habitat types (i.e. a, b and c) have been calculated by the authors of this study on the basis of the referred studies.

Habitat type	Landscape context	Mean (range) predation rate (%)	Mean no. exposed days (±sd)	References
a) Tree plantations		59.5 (23.0-94.0)	12±2	
Conifer plantations	Sub-boreal forest	83.7 (64.7-94)	10	Pedersen et al. 2009
		23.0	14	Vander Haegen & DeGraaf 1996
		41.2 (36.7-45.8)	13	Carignan & Villard 2002
b) Forest fragments		66.4 (38.9-88.0)	11±4	
Forest fragments	Boreal agricultural	88.0	7	Andren 1992
Oak forest fragments	Mediterranean agricultural	87.5	8	Santos & Tellería 1992
		38.9	14	Castilla et al. 2007
Fagus forest fragments	Eurosiberian agricultural	41.7	14	Ludwig et al. 2012
Cloud forest fragments	Andean agricultural	48.9	15	Arango-Vélez & Kattan 1997
Rainforest fragments	Tropical pastures	71.9	9	Estrada et al. 2002
c) Open habitat adjacent fragments	t to tree plantation or forest	60.0 (13.7-100)	10±3	
Forest fragments	Boreal agricultural	99.0	7	Andren 1992
		41.0	14	Vander Haegen & DeGraaf 1996
Tree plantations and Oak forest fragments	Mediterranean agricultural	49.0	15	Reino et al. 2010

		13.7	14	Castilla et al. 2007
		50.0	8	Santos & Tellería 1992
Fallow	Template forest	86.5	14	Conner & Perkins 2003
Rainforest fragments	Pastures with tropical rainforest remnant	79.0	9	Estrada et al. 2002
Clearing 771	Turkey Oak forest	24.0	7	Purger et al. 2004

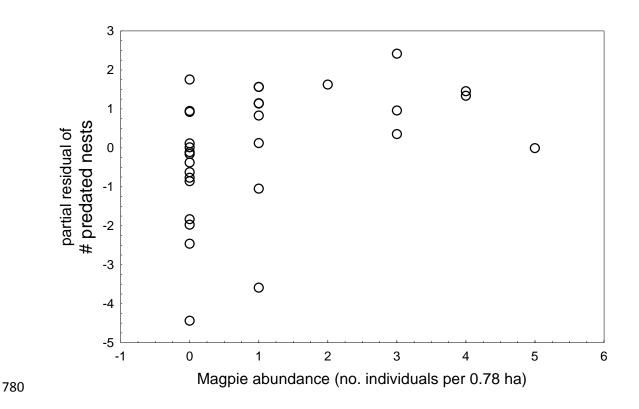
**Figure 1.** Percentage of predated artificial nests by the first counting and by the second

counting and of non predated nests at tree plantations (Experiment 1) and on adjacent



open farmland habitat (Experiment 2).

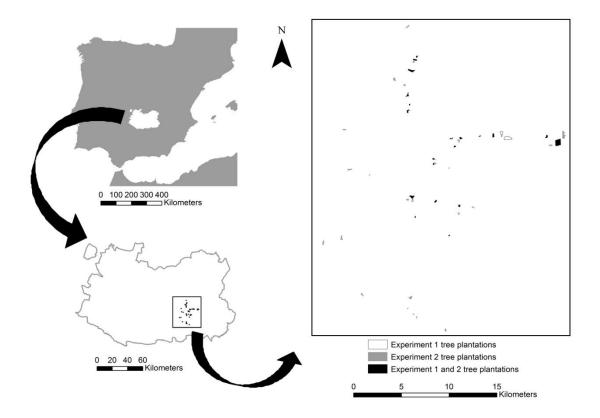
**Figure 2.** Partial residual plot of the influence of magpie abundance on predation intensity of nests at 30 tree plantations on former cropland. The residual plot shows the relationship with magpie abundance given that the other independent variables are also in the model, therefore partialling out their effects (see **Table 2** for more details).



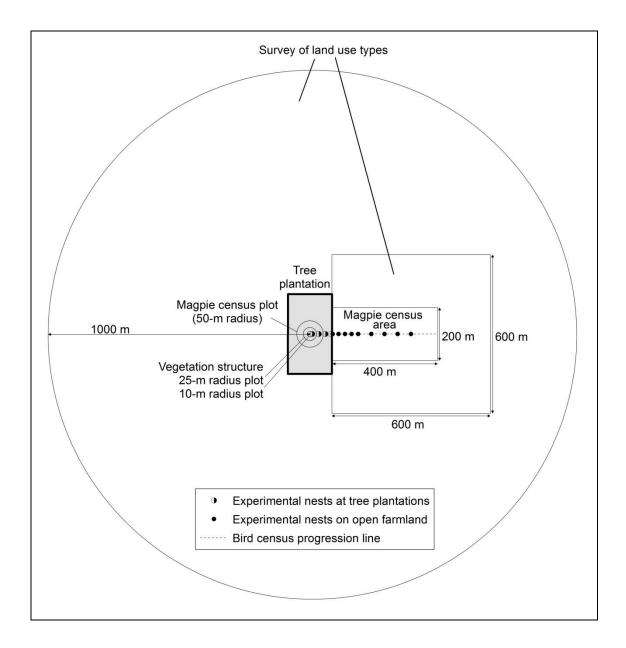
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## **Supplemental On-line Material**

**Figure S1.** Location of the study area in central Spain within the Ciudad Real province and distribution of the tree plantations on former cropland that were used to investigate nest predation at the tree plantations (Experiment 1), on open farmland adjacent to tree plantations (Experiment 2) and at both habitat types.



**Figure S2.** Sketch of the experimental design and associated surveys that were used to investigate nest predation at tree plantations and on adjacent open farmland.



**Table S1.** Mean, standard deviation (sd) and range (min/max) of the local habitat and landscape variables describing the characteristics of the 30 and 36 studied tree plantations for experiments 1 and 2, respectively. Note: all artificial nests at two out of the 38 tree plantations that were initially selected for Experiment 2 were lost due to ploughing or trampling.

Experiment 1	mean	sd	min	max
Characteristics of tree plantations				
Area (ha; log-transformed)	1.3	0.8	0.4	3.6
Edge/area ratio	4.7	0.6	4.0	6.2
Position of artificial nests				
Distance to edge (m)	35.4	19.4	25.0	112.5
Height above ground (m)	0.9	0.3	0.4	1.6
Vegetation structure				
Cover of tree layer (%)	36.1	25.5	2.2	100.0
Pine height (m)	3.6	1.6	0.9	7.2
No. Of pine trunks >5 cm dbh	69.7	51.5	0.0	185.0
Cover of shrub layer (%)	6.1	9.8	0.0	46.2
Height of shrub layer (m)	1.3	1.1	0.0	3.3
Cover of herbaceous layer (%)	38.5	37.3	0.0	100.0
Height of herbaceous layer (m)	0.3	0.3	0.0	1.0
Percentage of land use types				
Streams, rivers and lagoons	1.1	1.3	0.0	4.1
Roads and rural tracks	6.7	3.3	0.0	12.0
Urban areas and scattered buildings	2.2	1.9	0.0	7.4
Semi-natural woodland	4.8	5.4	0.3	25.2
Dried-fruit orchards	0.7	3.1	0.0	16.9
Orchards	1.3	1.5	0.0	5.4
Waste lands	7.0	4.1	0.0	14.8
Olive groves	13.6	19.0	0.0	71.2
Pastures with scattered trees	0.4	1.7	0.0	9.4
Scrubland	13.1	7.8	0.0	29.5
Pasture land	1.1	3.4	0.0	19.1
Dry herbaceous cropland	19.0	8.2	0.0	40.4
Vineyard	25.8	12.1	1.0	47.8
Vineyard with olive trees	3.0	3.9	0.0	10.6

Experiment 2	mean	sd	min	max
Characteristics of tree plantations				
Area (ha; log-transformed)	1.4	0.8	0.3	3.6
Average pine height (m)	3.6	1.4	1.0	6.4
Percentage of land use types				
Streams, rivers and lagoons	0.2	0.5	0.0	2.4
Roads and rural tracks	2.3	2.4	0.0	13.7
Urban areas and scattered buildings	0.4	0.6	0.0	2.3
Semi-natural woodland	0.9	2.2	0.0	9.4
Dried-fruit orchards	1.0	2.3	0.0	9.9
Orchards	0.2	0.8	0.0	4.5
Waste lands	1.3	2.6	0.0	13.0
Olive groves	17.1	14.9	0.0	57.4
Pastures with scattered trees	1.8	5.0	0.0	22.9
Scrubland	0.6	1.7	0.0	11.5
Pasture land	8.7	12.4	0.0	60.0
Dry herbaceous cropland	33.8	27.3	0.6	96.6
Vineyard	29.5	24.4	0.0	82.0
Vineyard with olive trees	0.9	2.7	0.0	10.6
	% of	No. of		
Habitat type where nests were placed	nests	nests		
Olive groves	17.4	45		
Vineyard	17.4	45		
Abandoned cropland and pastures	32.4	84		
Semi-natural woody vegetation	10.0	26		
Dry herbaceous cropland	19.7	51		
Waste lands, roads and rural tracks	3.1	8		