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- 1 Dynamics of avian species and functional diversity in secondary tropical forests
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18 Abstract

- Deforestation for agriculture in the tropics, followed by abandonment, has resulted in large areas 19
- 20 of secondary forest. Some authors have suggested that this secondary regrowth could help
- prevent mass extinction in the tropics by providing habitat for forest species. However, there is 21
- 22 little generalised understanding of the biodiversity value of secondary forest. To address this
- 23 knowledge gap, we conducted an analysis of avian responses to secondary forest succession,
- comparing data from 44 tropical secondary forest sites with nearby primary forest sites and 24
- investigating both species and functional diversity based metrics. Total species richness in 25 secondary forests was 12% lower than in primary forests and was not related to secondary forest 26
- 27 age. In contrast, forest specialist species richness increased with time since disturbance, reaching
- 28 99% of primary forest values after 100 years. In terms of functional diversity, functional
- 29 dispersion (FDis) and functional divergence (FDiv) were similar in primary and secondary
- forests. However, functional evenness (FEve) was 5% higher in secondary than in primary 30
- 31 forests. The standardized effect size of functional diversity (sesFD) was higher in young
- 32 secondary forests than primary forests and declined with time since disturbance. Overall, these
- 33 results suggest that secondary tropical forests can support provision of ecosystem services but
- 34 that these services may be less stable in young forests. Therefore, secondary tropical forests,
- particularly older regrowth, have biodiversity value and can support important ecosystem 35
- functions. These secondary forests should be protected from further disturbance but preserving 36
- 37 primary forest is vital for supporting overall and forest specialist species richness.
- 38
- 39 Key words: forest recovery; birds; functional diversity; ecosystem functioning; avian
- 40 biodiversity
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- 42

43 Introduction

44 Agricultural expansion in the tropics has led to large-scale deforestation (Gibbs et al., 2010), 45 causing loss of forest species. Traditionally, protected areas have been seen as the best way to reduce deforestation and limit the resulting loss of biodiversity. These protected areas generally 46 47 consist of natural or near-natural ecosystems, such as primary forest (Dudley, 2008). In the 48 tropics such primary forests are generally considered to be irreplaceable for their biodiversity 49 value (Gibson et al., 2011), as well as providing numerous ecosystem services. However, 50 biodiversity declines continue in many tropical forest protected areas (Curran, 2004; Laurance et al., 2012). Additionally, it is not always feasible to designate sufficient land to adequately 51 52 represent the range of communities found in specific biomes (Cox and Underwood, 2011) or support viable populations of all species (Struhsaker et al., 2005). Thus, it is clear that we cannot 53 rely solely on protected areas of primary forest to conserve tropical forest biodiversity. 54

55 Forests that have been altered as a result of unsustainable use or natural disasters are 56 considered degraded, and this includes secondary forests, which have undergone forest clearance 57 (ITTO, 2002). While degraded tropical forests may be of lower biodiversity value than primary forests, given that over half of all tropical forests are now considered to be degraded (ITTO, 58 2002), they may provide a valuable opportunity for conservation. Wright and Muller-Landau 59 (2006) suggested that expansion of secondary forests could play an important role in preventing 60 61 extinctions by providing alternative habitat for forest species. Previous reviews suggest that 62 secondary forests may provide habitat for forest specialists, but also that these forests differ in their conservation value depending on connectivity, disturbance history and, in particular, site 63 64 age (Bowen et al., 2007; Chazdon et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2007). Recently, the increasing recognition of the importance of degraded forests has led to ambitious restoration targets such as 65 the Aichi Targets and the New York Declaration on Forests, which aim to restore more than 15% 66 of degraded forests (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2010) and 200 million hectares of 67 degraded forests (United Nations, 2014) worldwide, respectively. However, although there are 68 69 numerous site and landscape level studies, there are a lack of syntheses on the benefits of 70 secondary forests for biodiversity and ecosystem services, and those published are largely 71 limited to impacts on plant communities and carbon storage (Derroire et al., 2016; Martin et al., 72 2013) or to a limited number of biodiversity metrics, such as species richness (Dent and Wright, 73 2009; Dunn, 2004a).

74 Measures of the conservation value of an ecosystem commonly use species-based metrics 75 (Myers et al., 2000), with the value of an area measured by the community species richness or 76 the presence of particular species of interest. A complementary approach to species-based metrics is to assess changes in functional diversity, which describes the range of functional roles 77 played by species within a community (Petchey and Gaston, 2006). Ecosystem functioning in 78 79 general tends to be correlated with both species richness and functional diversity, with indices based on traits (e.g. feeding behaviour) performing better than those based solely on species 80 richness and abundance (Griffin et al., 2009; Petchev and Gaston, 2006). Both the identity and 81 distribution of functional traits have been shown to be important in predicting function (Gagic et 82 83 al., 2015).

In this study we focus on birds as they provide key functions, such as pollination, seed predation and dispersal, removal of carrion, and predation of other animals, in tropical forests, and as the roles of individual species can be characterized in terms of their feeding behaviour (Sekercioglu et al., 2004). We conducted a systematic review and analysis to assess: i) how avian species richness and species richness of forest specialists in secondary tropical forests compares 89 with that of primary tropical forests; ii) the functional diversity of avian communities in

90 secondary tropical forests compared with that of primary tropical forests; and iii) how both

91 metrics change, and possibly recover, with secondary forest age.

92

93 Materials and Methods

94 Data collation

Using a standard methodology (Pullin and Stewart, 2006), a systematic review of the literature
was conducted in May 2013 by searching Thomson Reuters Web of Knowledge with the terms
bird* AND (secondary or disturb*) AND forest AND tropic*. Additional studies were found in
the reviews by Barlow et al. (2007), Bowen et al. (2007), Gardner et al. (2007), Dent and Wright
(2009) and Chazdon et al. (2009). Gilroy et al. (2014) and the PREDICTS database (Hudson et al., 2017), were searched for additional relevant data.

101 Studies were selected if they included details of avian community composition in at least 102 one secondary forest site and a reference undisturbed primary forest site. A primary forest was 103 defined as a naturally forested area where there was no evidence of previous deforestation or degradation. A secondary forest was defined as a previously forested area undergoing secondary 104 105 succession following total or near-total removal of trees (Corlett, 1994). This definition allowed inclusion of forests that had previously been clear-cut or cleared for agriculture or villages, but 106 107 not those undergoing succession after fires. Additionally, forests that had been selectively logged 108 were excluded as these recover differently (Corlett, 1994; Dunn, 2004b). Only studies from the tropics and sub-tropics between the latitudes of 40°N and 40°S were included. 109

110 Data on the abundances of bird species present in forest sites were extracted from the articles. Additionally, for each secondary forest site, the age, land use history and whether the 111 site was continuous or discontinuous with primary forest were noted. Article authors were 112 113 contacted to request these data when articles suggested that they had been collected but were not presented. The median age of the secondary forest was recorded when a range of values was 114 given. Methodologies used to sample bird communities, including sampling effort, were 115 116 consistent within studies, but differed among studies. Methodologies used were recorded for use 117 in statistical analyses to control for differences among studies. Data were recorded from only one study when multiple studies used the same dataset. 118

Data on the traits of bird species were obtained from Wilman *et al.* (2014), the Handbook of the Birds of the World (del Hoyo et al., 2016) and BirdLife International (BirdLife International, 2013). For this study we selected traits with importance for ecological functions: (i) foraging strata (ground, understory, mid-high levels in trees, canopy, or well above vegetation); (ii) diet (invertebrates, mammals/birds, reptiles/amphibians, fish, scavenger, fruit,

nectar, seeds, or other plant material); (iii) body mass in grams; (iv) body length in cm; and (v)
 movement pattern (migrant/not migrant). We selected these traits because they can be directly

126 linked to ecosystem processes such as seed dispersal and pollination. Where no match was found

for the Latin binomial name of a species in the trait database of Wilman *et al.* (2014) a web

128 search was carried out to find synonymous names and the correct trait values assigned using

these (10 species). Forest dependency data for all bird species were provided by BirdLife

International, with each species categorised as having high, medium or low forest dependency, or
 being a non-forest species (BirdLife International, 2013). Species with high forest dependency

were then classed as forest specialists and forest specialist species richness was calculated for

133 each site.

134 We then calculated total species richness and six functional diversity metrics: functional diversity (FD), the standardized effect size of FD (sesFD), functional richness (FRic), functional 135 136 evenness (FEve), functional divergence (FDiv) and functional dispersion (FDis) for each of our secondary and primary forest sites (see Table 1 for a description of the functional diversity 137 138 metrics used). Species richness was calculated by summing the number of species found at each 139 site. Using the R package fundiv we calculated FD (Petchey and Gaston, 2006). Since FD is 140 known to be correlated with species richness, following this we calculated sesFD, a metric which 141 adjusts FD for species richness. To calculate sesFD we used the r package picante (Kembel et al., 2010) to compare observed FD to 999 iterations in which the number of species is constant but 142 the identity of species is randomly drawn from the community, following previous studies 143 (Edwards et al., 2013; Prescott et al., 2016). We calculated the remaining functional diversity 144 metrics (FRic, FEve, FDiv and FDis; Table 1) using the R package FD (Laliberté and Legendre, 145 146 2010).

147

148 Statistical analyses

149 This work aimed to compare changes in different metrics of species and functional diversity in 150 avian communities in secondary tropical forests. However, functional diversity metrics are often highly correlated with species richness. Prior to analysis the log response ratio (Hedges et al., 151 1999) for species richness and all functional diversity metrics, apart from sesFD, in secondary 152 153 forests relative to primary forests was calculated for all paired sites. The log response ratio 154 represents a standardized effect size which can range from $-\infty$ to ∞ , where negative values 155 indicate lower values in secondary forests, positive values represent higher values in secondary forests, and 0 indicates no difference. The log response ratio is commonly used in ecological 156 syntheses because it conforms to statistical assumptions and is intuitive (Hedges et al., 1999). 157 Since values of sesFD can be negative or positive, calculation of the log response ratio for this 158 metric would be problematic. As a result, we calculated the raw difference between secondary 159 160 and primary forests sesFD. Before analysis, data exploration was carried out following the 161 protocol of Zuur et al. (2010). As a result we identified that a small number of older sites strongly influenced coefficient values. To reduce the effect of these outliers we log transformed 162 163 the variable forest age as recommended by Zuur et al. (2010).

164 Linear mixed-effects models were constructed for all response variables using the R 165 package lme4 (Bates et al., 2015). Models tested included additive models containing all combinations of variables describing secondary forest age and land-use history, as well as a null 166 intercept only model. Models including a variable describing proximity of forests to undisturbed 167 forests were not possible as not all studies contained data on this. Study identity was included as 168 169 a random effect to avoid pseudoreplication as some studies compared multiple secondary forest 170 sites with a single primary forest site. Models were run using maximum likelihood methods and model selection was based on Akaike information criterion adjusted for small sample size 171 172 (AICc). The models with lowest AICc were considered to be the most well supported. The goodness of fit of the most parsimonious models was estimated by calculating R^{2}_{GLMM} using the 173 package MuMIn (Barton, 2015) following Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013). 174

Prior to model selection the impact of different sampling methods on results was tested
by fitting models with methods (point count, transect, mist-netting) included as random effects
with the model with lowest AICc selected. On no occasion did a model including sampling
methods outperform one which solely contained a random effect for each individual study (Table

179 S1). Phylogenetic correction was not used as we assessed functional trait changes in terms of

180 their putative impact on ecosystem function and not to explain changes in the avian community.

181 All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.3.0 (R Core Team, 2016).

182 183 **Results**

A total of 24 studies that aimed to sample the entire avian community with data on 44 paired secondary and primary forest sites were found through the systematic review (Table 2). These studies documented 29,023 observations of 1,673 bird species. Sites were widely distributed across the tropics but most were found in the Americas or Asia (Table 2, Figure 1). Secondary forest sites had regenerated for between one and 100 years but nearly half of the sites had been disturbed within 10 years prior to the studies taking place (Table 2). Only five sites had been

- 190 recovering for at least 40 years since disturbance.
- 191

192 Total and forest specialist species richness

193 The most well supported model describing differences in species richness in secondary and

primary forests was a null model (Table S2). Species richness in secondary forests was on
 average 12% lower than in primary forests (intercept=-0.13, SE=0.06, p=0.03, Figure 3).

The species richness of forest specialists was best described by a model including only secondary forest age as a predictor (Table S2). Forest specialist species richness increased with time since disturbance (slope=0.21, SE=0.07, p=0.01), but was not predicted to reach equivalence with primary forests within 100 years (Figure 2a). After one year since disturbance forest specialist species richness in secondary forests was predicted to be 63% lower than primary forests, and after 100 years this had risen to 1% lower than primary forests. This model showed a reasonable explanatory power (R^2_{GLMM} =0.14, Table S2).

203

204 Functional diversity metrics

FD and FRic were found to be highly correlated both with each other (correlation coefficient of 0.9) and with species richness (correlation coefficient of 0.9 with FD and 0.8 with FRic). As a result, these two metrics were removed from this analysis. A null, intercept only model was the most well supported for FDis, FDiv and FEve (Table S2, Figure 3). FDis and FDiv did not differ significantly between primary and secondary forests. However, FEve was 5% higher in secondary forests than in primary forests (intercept=0.06, SE=0.03, p=0.03).

211 sesFD declined with time since last disturbance (slope=-1.17, SE=0.24, Figure 2b) and 212 was higher in younger forests than in primary forests (Table S2). sesFD was predicted to reach 213 equivalence with primary forest values after approximately 22 years (Figure 2b). This model 214 showed relatively high explanatory power (R^2 charge 0.35. Table S2)

showed relatively high explanatory power (R^{2}_{GLMM} =0.35, Table S2). 215

216 Discussion

Our study represents the largest quantitative synthesis of avian responses to secondary tropical 217 218 forest succession to date. Our results indicate that avian species richness is lower in secondary forests than in primary forests. Forest specialist species richness increases with secondary forest 219 220 age and is likely to take over 100 years to recover. Regarding functional diversity, two metrics (FDis and FDiv) were similar in secondary and primary forests, whereas FEve was higher in 221 secondary forests. Once differences in species richness were accounted for, sesFD showed a 222 223 marked decline with increasing age of secondary forests, suggesting increasing functional 224 redundancy in avian communities during succession. 225

226 Species Richness

227 Our results show that avian species richness is lower in secondary forests than in primary forests, 228 in agreement with previous reviews (Barlow et al., 2007; Bowen et al., 2007), and also that 229 species richness does not respond to secondary forest age. The latter result is in contrast to Dunn 230 (2004a) who found that avian species richness in secondary forests increased with time since 231 disturbance and reached equivalence with primary forests after 20 years. However, Dunn (2004a) considered a more limited number of sites than our analysis and only one of these sites had been 232 233 recovering for more than 40 years. It is possible that in younger secondary forests time since 234 disturbance has an important role in determining avian community composition, but for older 235 secondary forests other factors, such as patch size, have a greater influence on the successional 236 state.

237 Although our analysis found species richness of forest specialists failed to recover within 100 years, this metric was predicted to be only 1% lower in secondary forests after 100 years of 238 239 recovery than in primary forests. This mirrors the observation that avian community composition 240 of secondary forests approaches equivalence with that of primary forests after around 100 years (Dent and Wright, 2009). The rate of change in forest specialist species richness is perhaps 241 242 unsurprising given that although secondary forests attain much of the structure and plant diversity of primary forests within 50 years, tree community composition, and therefore the 243 244 structural complexity of forests, is likely to take much longer (Derroire et al., 2016; Martin et al., 245 2013; Poorter et al., 2016). Thus, the results of our study reinforce the view that, although 246 conservation value is accumulated relatively rapidly in secondary forests, primary forests (and 247 potentially mature secondary forests) are vital to prevent extinctions of forest specialists (Gibson 248 et al., 2011).

Although some guilds are particularly sensitive to disturbance (e.g. understory 249 insectivores; see Powell et al., 2016, 2015), our results indicate that some forest specialist species 250 are found in young secondary forests. After one year of succession forest specialist species 251 252 richness in secondary forests was 63% lower than in primary forests. This raises the question of 253 why are there any forest specialist species at all in such young secondary forests. Part of the 254 answer to this relates to how forests are cleared prior to agricultural use. Many secondary forests 255 in the tropics are the result of abandonment of subsistence agriculture during which some large 256 trees are often retained during forest clearance (Guevara et al., 1986; Harvey and Haber, 1998). 257 Harvey and Haber (1998) found that agricultural fields in Costa Rica contained an average of 25 trees per hectare, and that a third of these trees were primary forest specialist species. As a result, 258 259 large trees located in the agricultural matrix may be used by forest species to feed or roost (Harvey and Haber, 1998), increasing the species richness of avian forest specialists in young 260 261 secondary forests.

263 Functional diversity

262

264 FDis, a unified metric for functional diversity (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010), was found to be equivalent between primary and secondary forests. FDiv in secondary forests was also similar to 265 primary forest levels, suggesting that the degree to which abundant species had the most extreme 266 trait values was similar in secondary and primary forests. These results both suggest similar 267 levels of ecosystem functioning between the two forest types. Only one other study has 268 investigated the effects of forest degradation or conversion on FDis, finding that it was higher in 269 pastures and oil palm plantations than in forest remnants (Prescott et al., 2016). Together with 270 271 our results, this study hints that degradation through conversion of forests to other habitat types

may lead to increased FDis and a reduction in ecosystem function (Prescott et al., 2016),
although more work is needed to relate FDis to specific ecosystem functions.

274 FEve was 5% higher in secondary forests than primary forests, suggesting a more equal 275 abundance of species in trait space in secondary forests. Assuming that resources are evenly 276 distributed, this means in theory that resources within secondary forests are being used more efficiently than in primary forests (Mason et al., 2005), which would be an unexpected result. 277 278 However alternatively, a high FEve value could also suggest that the habitat is not very 279 structurally complex, meaning that there are a smaller number of evenly occupied niches with few interactions between species (García-Morales et al., 2016; Schleuter et al., 2010). As 280 281 primary forests have greater structural complexity than secondary forests (Derroire et al., 2016), this could explain the difference in FEve between these two forest types in our analysis. 282

At present, there is no clear picture on the relationship between FEve of avian communities and forest degradation in the literature. Prescott et al. (2016) found FEve to be lower in pasture than in forest remnants but equivalent in forest remnants and oil palm plantations. In contrast, Edwards et al. (2013) found that FEve was lower in oil palm plantations (and in twice-logged forests) than in unlogged (and once-logged) forests. Thirdly, Ibarra and Martin (2015) found no relationship between the degree of deforestation and FEve. Given these conflicting results, we suggest this is an area requiring further research.

290 The most pronounced relationship with forest age was seen in the standardized effect size 291 of FD (sesFD). As secondary forest age increased sesFD declined, reaching equivalence with primary forests after approximately 22 years. This metric adjusts FD by accounting for species 292 293 richness at sites, with negative values indicating lower FD than expected given site level 294 richness. Thus, the reduction in relative sesFD with forest age that we observed suggests increasing functional redundancy in older secondary forests (Pavoine and Bonsall, 2011). 295 Previous studies have found that sesFD for bird communities can increase (Edwards et al., 2013) 296 297 or decrease across a gradient of degradation (Prescott et al., 2016). However, our observation of 298 an increase in functional redundancy suggests that the resilience of ecosystem processes may 299 increase with secondary forest age due to buffering of the negative impacts of species extinction. 300 Equally this suggests that even where functional diversity in young secondary tropical forests is 301 similar to that found in primary forests, these communities and the ecosystem services they 302 supply may be less stable over time.

304 Caveats

303

305 Our study represents the most comprehensive synthesis of avian functional diversity in secondary forests to date but, like all syntheses, it was affected by the quality and 306 307 representativeness of the data we used (Gonzalez et al., 2016). As a result there are two 308 important caveats that relate to our analysis. Firstly, our study highlights the importance of the age of secondary forests as a determinant of the biodiversity it plays host to, but there are many 309 310 other important variables that we could not account for in this study. For example, the duration and intensity of previous land use affect the initial conditions of secondary forests following 311 abandonment (Jakovac et al., 2015). Following abandonment, the connectivity, proximity to 312 primary forest, and patch size can all play important roles in determining the rate at which forest 313 species colonise degraded forests (Banks-Leite et al., 2010; Maldonado-Coelho and Marini, 314 2000; Prugh et al., 2008). Secondly, the primary forest sites used in our study may have varied in 315 quality as statistical controls since definitions of primary forest probably differed between 316 317 studies. In both of these cases it was not possible to account for this potential variation amongst

studies and addressing how these factors interact with age of secondary forests is a key researchgap.

Regarding representativeness, the sites used in our study are likely to be broadly representative of secondary forests throughout the tropics. Few sites had been intensively farmed and the majority of sites were under 40 years old, reflecting secondary tropical forests generally (Asner et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2003).

325 Conclusion

324

The conservation value of secondary tropical forests will vary depending upon the aims of 326 327 conservation strategies. If the aims are to support overall or forest specialist species richness at primary forest levels then our results suggest that preservation of primary forests is vital, in 328 agreement with previous reviews (Barlow et al., 2007; Bowen et al., 2007), although the richness 329 330 of forest specialist species, and hence the conservation value of regrowth, does increase with 331 secondary forest age. If strategies are related to the levels of ecosystem functioning of the forests 332 then, although there were some differences between secondary and primary tropical forests for 333 functional diversity metrics, our results suggest that secondary forests can support provision of 334 ecosystem functions, including pollination and seed dispersal (but see Markl et al., 2012). Our 335 results also suggest that secondary forest age influences conservation value in terms of 336 ecosystem functioning, with older secondary forests having increased functional redundancy.

337 The conservation value of secondary forests will never be maximised if regrowth is deforested. However, mid-age stands are often converted to agriculture in South America (Smith 338 339 et al., 2003) and degraded forests are regularly converted to oil palm or rubber plantations in 340 Southeast Asia (Abood et al., 2015; Koh and Wilcove, 2008), resulting in loss of avian species 341 and functional diversity (Edwards et al., 2013; Prescott et al., 2016; Tscharntke et al., 2008). Therefore, to maximise the biodiversity value of tropical landscapes, secondary forests should be 342 protected, particularly in landscapes where little pristine habitat remains. Protecting older 343 344 secondary forests provides high conservation value now, whereas protecting young regrowth 345 promises future returns. Restoration of young secondary forests could also play a role. 346 Enrichment planting can be used to enhance biodiversity by adding tree species that are unlikely 347 to colonise unassisted, for example late-successional species or those lacking dispersers (Griscom and Ashton, 2011; Lamb et al., 2005). Assisting vegetative recovery to a late-348 349 successional species composition could improve habitat suitability for forest specialists and hence, accelerate their recovery. Secondary forests have a role to play in the conservation of 350 351 forest species and provision of ecosystem services and this should be recognised in tropical 352 conservation strategies.

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364

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745 746 Figures



747 748 749 Figure 1 Geographic distribution of the study sites used in this analysis.





Figure 2 The relationship between secondary forest age and (a) forest specialist species richness
and (b) standardized functional diversity (sesFD) in secondary tropical forests relative to primary
tropical forests. The dotted black line represents the point at which metrics are equal in
secondary and primary forest sites. Solid lines represent predictions from models with the lowest
AICc and grey shaded areas represent the 95% confidence intervals for these predictions.



Figure 3 Difference between secondary and primary tropical forest site diversity for variables
 where the null model was considered most parsimonious. Dots represent mean differences
 between secondary and primary sites and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. The
 dotted black line represents the point at which metrics are equal in secondary and primary forest
 sites.

768 769 770 Tables

Table 1 Descriptions of functional diversity metrics used in this study

Metric name	Abbreviation	Metric description	Relevant references
	used in this		
	study		
Functional	FD	A distance based metric of	Petchey and Gaston,
Diversity		functional diversity that is not	2006
		influenced by species abundances.	
Functional	FRic	The volume multidimensional trait	Laliberté and Legendre,
Richness		space occupied by a community.	2010; Villéger et al.,
		High FRic indicates that many traits	2008
		are present within a community.	
Functional	FEve	The evenness of species abundances	Laliberté and Legendre,
Evenness		in multidimensional trait space. High	2010; Villéger et al.,
		FEve values suggest a relatively	2008
		equal abundance of species in trait	
		space, and in theory this means that	
		resources within an ecosystem are	
		being used in an efficient manner	
		(Prescott et al., 2016)	
Functional	FDiv	The distribution of species	Laliberté and Legendre,
Divergence		abundance along multidimensional	2010; Villéger et al.,
		trait axes. FDiv is low when	2008
		abundant species have trait values	
		that are close to the centre of	
		functional trait space, but high when	
		abundant species have extreme trait	
		values (Villéger et al., 2008). This	
		can be seen as a measure of the	
		niche differentiation within a	
		community, such that if FDiv is	
		high, then there are high levels of	
		niche differentiation (Prescott et al.,	
		2016).	
Functional	FDis	The distance from the centroid of	Laliberté and Legendre,
Dispersion		multidimensional trait space,	2010; Villéger et al.,
		weighted by species abundances.	2008
		This metric has been suggested as a	
		unified metric for functional	
		diversity (Laliberté and Legendre,	
		2010).	

Table 2 Studies from which avian community composition data were extracted, with location

recorded at a country level and the age of secondary forest sites (measured as the number of years since disturbance) in each study

Reference	Location of forest sites	Age of secondary forest site(s) (years)
Andrade and Rubio-Torgler, 1994	Colombia	3, 11.5
Banks-Leite et al., 2012	Brazil	50
Barlow et al., 2007	Brazil	16.5
Becker and Agreda, 2005	Ecuador	17.5
Becker et al., 2008	Ecuador	17.5, 17.5, 40
Blake and Loiselle, 2001	Costa Rica	5, 27.5
Borges, 2007	Brazil	4.5, 11, 27.5
Dawson et al., 2011	Papua New Guinea	20
Gilroy et al., 2014	Colombia	3, 8, 8, 20, 20, 35
Hutto, 1989	Mexico	2,5
Johns, 1991	Brazil	1
Maas et al., 2009	Indonesia	3.5, 4, 5.5
Mallari et al., 2011	Philippines	10, 30
Marsden et al., 2006	Papua New Guinea	5, 14
Mulwa et al., 2012	Kenya	50
Naidoo, 2004	Uganda	13
O'Dea and Whittaker, 2007	Ecuador	17.5
Raman et al., 1998	India	1, 5, 10, 25, 100
Reid et al., 2012	Costa Rica	9
Renner et al., 2006	Guatemala	4
Sodhi et al., 2005	Indonesia	40
Terborgh and Weske, 1969	Peru	7.5
Tvardikova, 2010	Papua New Guinea	7

	Wijesinghe and Brooke, 2005	Sri Lanka	5
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777 Supplementary materials

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Table S1 Model selection table showing test of different random effects structures for different variables investigated.

Variable	Random_effects	AICc	Model
			Rank
Species Richness	Study	33.76	1
	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	36.45	2
	Mist_nets+Study	36.45	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	39.31	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	42.38	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	45.66	6
Forest Specialist	Study	70.59	1
Species Richness	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	73.15	2
	Mist_nets+Study	73.15	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	75.87	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	78.73	5
	Point observation+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	81.77	6
Functional	Study	20.16	1
Diversity (FD)	Mist_nets+Study	22.81	2
	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	22.84	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	25.71	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	28.77	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	32.05	6
Functional	Study	171.03	1
Richness (FRic)	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	173.72	2
	Mist_nets+Study	173.72	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	176.58	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	179.64	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	182.92	6
Functional	Study	-44.77	1
Evenness (FEve)	Mist_nets+Study	-42.09	2
	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	-42.09	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	-40.07	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	-37.01	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	-33.73	6
Functional	Study	-77.38	1
Divergence	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	-74.69	2
(FDiv)	Mist_nets+Study	-74.69	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	-73.27	4

	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	-70.22	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	-66.93	6
Functional	Study	-9.47	1
Dispersion (FDis)	Mist_nets+Transect+Study	-6.82	2
	Mist_nets+Study	-6.80	3
	Mist nets+ Transect+Vocal+Study	-4.42	4
	Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	-1.36	5
	Point obs+Mist nets+Transect+Vocal+Study	1.92	6

Variable	Model	AICc	ΔAICc	Conditional R ²
Species Richness	Null model	24.93	0.00	0.00
	Age	25.68	0.76	0.04
	Disturbance type	28.83	3.90	0.22
Forest Specialist	Null model	65.41	1.78	0
Species Richness	Age	63.63	0	0.14
	Disturbance type	70.50	6.87	0.25
Functional Diversity	Null model	8.78	0.00	0.00
(FD)	Age	11.29	2.51	0.00
	Disturbance type	14.80	6.02	0.17
Functional Richness	Null model	168.37	0.00	0.00
(FRic)	Age	170.74	2.36	0.00
	Disturbance type	174.16	5.79	0.16
Functional Evenness	Null model	-58.52	0.00	0.00
(FEve)	Age	-57.24	1.28	0.02
	Disturbance type	-50.65	7.87	0.12
Functional Divergence	Null model	-93.68	0.00	0.00
(FDiv)	Age	-92.15	1.54	0.03
	Disturbance type	-84.39	9.30	0.05
Functional Dispersion	Null model	-21.34	0.00	0.00
(FDis)	Age	-19.92	1.42	0.01
	Disturbance type	-16.47	4.87	0.24
Standardised Effect	Null model	148.74	12.59	0
Size of FD (sesFD)	Age	136.15	0	0.35
	Disturbance type	145.09	8.94	0.19

Table S2 Model selection table for all models considered in this study.