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1 **A comparison of clearfelling and gradual thinning of plantations for**  
2 **the restoration of insect herbivores and woodland plants**

3

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12

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25 **Summary**

26

27 **1.** Testing restoration methods is essential for the development of restoration ecology  
28 as a science. It is also important to monitor a range of taxa, not just plants which have  
29 been the traditional focus of restoration ecology. Here we compare the effects on  
30 ground flora and leaf-miners, of two restoration practices used when restoring conifer  
31 plantations.

32

33 **2.** Two methods of restoration were investigated: clearfelling of plantations and the  
34 gradual thinning of conifers over time. Unrestored plantations and native broadleaved  
35 woodlands were also surveyed, these representing the starting point of restoration and  
36 the reference community respectively. The study sites consist of two forest types  
37 (acidic *Quercus* woodland and mesotrophic *Fraxinus* woodland) enabling us to  
38 compare the two restoration methods in different habitat types. We use a well-  
39 replicated, large-scale study system consisting of 32 woodland plots, each 2 ha in size.

40

41 **3.** There were 179 plant species identified in the plots. Clearfelled plots had greater  
42 overall ground flora species richness than other management regimes (thinned,  
43 unrestored plantation and native woodland), but the richness of woodland plant  
44 species did not differ between clearfelled, thinned, native woodland and unrestored  
45 plantation plots.

46

47 **4.** More than 10,000 leaf-miners comprising 122 species were collected. An increased  
48 plant species richness was associated with increased leaf-miner species richness under  
49 all management regimes except clearfelled plots.

50

51 **5.** Forest type did not affect the response to restoration method, i.e. there was no  
52 interaction between management regime and forest type for any of the variables  
53 measured.

54

55 **6. *Synthesis and applications.*** Both the clearfelling and gradual thinning approaches  
56 to plantation restoration maintained the woodland species in the ground flora of  
57 plantations. However, these restoration methods differed in their effects on the leaf-  
58 miner – plant species richness relationship. It is often assumed that during restoration  
59 increases in plant-species richness lead to increases invertebrate herbivore richness,  
60 but this was not the case on clearfelled sites. This study demonstrates the importance  
61 of testing and comparing restoration methods, and monitoring invertebrates as well as  
62 plants during restoration.

63

64 **Keywords**

65 Ancient woodland, ground flora, herbaceous layer, herbivore community, leaf-

66 miners, PAWS, plant community, plantation management, species richness

## 67 **Introduction**

68 Ecological restoration is essential for creating resilient ecological networks, ensuring  
69 sustainable provision of ecosystem services, and conserving threatened species and  
70 habitats (Young 2000; Hobbs & Harris 2001; Lawton *et al.* 2010). The restoration of  
71 degraded forests is taking place across the globe, and although forests vary in  
72 structure and species composition, similar methods are used for forest restoration  
73 worldwide (Stanturf, Palik & Dumroese 2014). In Britain the restoration of native  
74 woodland from plantations on ancient woodland sites has received increasing  
75 attention (Pryor, Curtis & Peterken 2002; Thompson *et al.* 2003; Harmer &  
76 Thompson 2013). Ancient woodland sites have had no other land use since at  
77 least 1600AD in England and Wales, or 1750AD in Scotland (Peterken 1977)). Native  
78 forests on ancient woodland sites are important habitats for many rare and threatened  
79 species (Peterken 1993), but between the 1930's and 1990's 40% of the remaining  
80 such woodlands in Britain were converted to plantations, mostly of non-native  
81 conifers (Spencer & Kirby 1992; Pryor & Smith 2002). Due to the increased  
82 recognition of the value of native woodland it is now policy to restore these  
83 plantations (Harmer, Kerr & Thompson 2010). Despite being greatly changed from  
84 native woodland, they often retain features such as veteran trees, coppice stools and  
85 remnant ground flora (Pryor, Curtis & Peterken 2002), making them good candidates  
86 for the successful restoration of native forest.

87 Degraded forests can be restored through clearfelling of the existing canopy, or by  
88 removing trees over an extended period of time (Stanturf, Palik & Dumroese 2014).  
89 Whilst the effects of different conifer removal regimes on tree regeneration have been  
90 investigated on plantations on ancient woodland sites (Harmer & Kiewitt 2006;

91 Harmer, Kiewitt and Morgan 2012), there has been little investigation into effects on  
92 other taxa. As different restoration approaches cause disturbances of different  
93 intensities and patterns they are likely to have a different impact on the ground flora  
94 (Roberts & Gilliam 2014).

95 This study compares two restoration methods – clearfelling planted conifers versus  
96 their gradual removal – and compares these to native woodland (as a reference  
97 community) and to conifer plantations on ancient woodland sites not undergoing  
98 restoration (the starting point of restoration). We focus on the effects on the ground  
99 flora and insect herbivore communities. Although the effects of tree-removal practises  
100 on the ground flora community have begun to be explored, they are still not well  
101 understood (Gilliam 2014). The plant diversity of forests is largely determined by the  
102 ground flora (Gilliam 2007), and it is important to conserve woodland ground flora  
103 species during restoration as many are slow to re-colonise once lost (Brunet & von  
104 Oheimb 1998; Hermy et al. 1999).

105

106 Restoration studies are often botanical in focus (Young 2000; Ruiz-Jaen & Aide  
107 2005), and it is often assumed that successful restoration of the plant community leads  
108 to the restoration of higher trophic levels. The diversity of herbivorous invertebrates is  
109 indeed often correlated with the diversity of the plant community (Brown & Hyman  
110 1986; Crisp, Dickinson & Gibbs 1998; Siemann, Haarstad & Tilman 1999; Rowe &  
111 Holland 2013), and there is evidence to suggest that restoring the diversity and  
112 structural complexity of vegetation will lead to the restoration of Hemipteran  
113 assemblages in *Eucalyptus marginata* (Donn ex Sm.) forests (Moir *et al.* 2005).  
114 However, other taxonomic groups and habitats need to be studied in order to  
115 determine if this is a general effect or specific to certain taxa or habitats. Here we

116 investigate leaf-mining insects. These have not been widely used in restoration  
117 ecology but, as a species rich guild of specialist herbivores including species from  
118 four insect orders (Coleoptera, Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera (Connor &  
119 Taverner 1997)), they are a useful group for monitoring restoration. They are also  
120 easy to collect and, as they live inside their food plant, host-plant relationships can be  
121 accurately determined.

122

123 This study has three objectives: 1) To determine whether the two restoration methods  
124 differ in their impact on the plant species richness of the ground flora and woodland  
125 specialist plants; 2) To assess whether plant species richness is correlated with leaf-  
126 miner species richness; 3) To test whether the efficacy of the two restoration  
127 approaches is affected by the type of woodland community being restored.



128 **Materials and methods**

129

130 **Field sites**

131 The study was carried out in the Forest of Dean, UK; a temperate forest spanning 106  
132 km<sup>2</sup> in the West of England (51.789 N, -2.546 W). The forest was previously  
133 exploited for minerals and stone as well as timber, and contained areas managed as  
134 coppice and wood pasture (Herbert 1996). The forest currently consists of a mix of  
135 native broad-leaved and non-native conifer species.

136

137 Thirty-two plots were chosen, each 2 ha in size: eight plots managed as native  
138 broadleaved woodland (herein native plots), eight within conifer plantations not  
139 undergoing restoration (herein plantations), eight within conifer plantations  
140 undergoing gradual removal of planted trees for restoration (herein thinned plots), and  
141 eight within clearfelled conifer plantations (herein clearfelled plots). All plots were on  
142 ancient woodland sites. All plots were at least 15 m from the forest or clearfell edge.  
143 Plots were spread across eight locations (blocks), with each block containing one plot  
144 under each management regime.

145

146 The eight blocks consisted of two different forest types. Four of the blocks were on  
147 acidic *Quercus* woodland (National Vegetation class W10 (*Quercus robur* - *Pteridium*  
148 *aquilinum* - *Rubus fruticosus*) (Rodwell, 1991)) and four were on mesotrophic  
149 *Fraxinus* woodland (National Vegetation class W8 (*Fraxinus excelsior* - *Acer*  
150 *campestre* - *Mercurialis perennis*) (Rodwell, 1991)). Both these woodlands are  
151 widespread in lowland Britain. For plantations, thinned plots, and clearfelled plots the  
152 forest type refers to woodland that existed before conifer planting occurred. There

153 was evidence of deer presence, an important factor in determining the plant species  
154 composition of forests (Waller 2014), in all plots.

155

156 On thinned plots, conifers are thinned every 5 years with thinning concentrated  
157 around native broadleaves. Plantations are also thinned every 5 years, with the pattern  
158 of thinning determined to maximise conifer growth. In the clearfelled plots all  
159 conifers were felled, and on all but one of these plots native broadleaves were planted.  
160 Native plots are thinned at most every 10 years depending on the degree of crown  
161 competition. Restoration commenced on thinned plots between 7 and 4 years prior to  
162 this study. Clearfelled plots were felled between 4 and 10 years prior to this study.  
163 Where possible plantations, thinned plots, and clearfelled plots in the same block had  
164 been planted with the same tree species. Plantations, thinned plots, and clearfelled  
165 plots were planted between 1958 and 1976, and in the same block were planted at  
166 most eight years apart (see Table S1 in Supporting Information for further plot  
167 information).

168

### 169 **Plant sampling and classification**

170 Plots were sampled for plants every four weeks between late April 2011 and July  
171 2011, with each of the 32 plots being sampled three times. Plots within the same  
172 block were sampled on the same or consecutive days. During each sampling round a  
173 100 m x 2 m transect, or on plots narrower than 100 m (due to the forest shape)  
174 multiple transects with a combined area of 200 m<sup>2</sup>, were randomly placed in each  
175 plot. A gap of 1 m was left between transects shorter than 100 m to prevent plants  
176 being counted twice. All transects within a plot were parallel, and transects used for  
177 different sampling rounds were at least 5 m apart.

178

179 Along each transect all vascular plants excluding Lycopodiopsida were identified.  
180 Plants with a diameter at breast height less than 5 cm, and shorter than 2 m, excluding  
181 the native trees planted on clearfelled plots, were counted as ground flora and each  
182 species was assigned a species cover score (Fehmi 2010) using the Domin scale; 1 =  
183 <4 % species cover - very scarce, 2 = <4 % - scarce, 3 = <4 % - scattered, 4 = 4–10%,  
184 5 = 11–25%, 6 = 26–33%, 7 = 34–50%, 8 = 51–75%, 9 = 76–90%, 10 = 91–100%  
185 (Mueller-Dombois & Ellenberg 1974). Domin scores were back-transformed to  
186 continuous percentage cover values using the Domin 2.6 transformation (Currall  
187 1987). Following transformation the mean abundance of each species from the three  
188 sampling rounds was calculated. These mean values were used in the statistical  
189 analyses. Species in the ground flora were classed as woodland species if “broad  
190 leaved, mixed and yew woodland” was identified by Hill, Preston and Roy (2004) as  
191 one of their broad habitats in the British Isles.

192

### 193 **Leaf-miner sampling**

194 Plots were sampled for leaf-miners between late April 2011 and August 2011. Each of  
195 the 32 plots was sampled four times. Plots within the same block were sampled on the  
196 same or consecutive days. The same transects were used as for plant surveys, with an  
197 additional round of sampling, following the same transect methodology, in August  
198 2011. Along each transect all leaves up to 2 m above the ground were inspected for  
199 leaf-mines and all leaves with mines collected.

200

201 Leaf-miners were reared in the laboratory. The combination of leaf-mine morphology,  
202 host plant species and adult miner morphology was used to identify leaf-miners using  
203 the British Leafminers website (n.d.) and Pitkin *et al.* (n.d).

204

## 205 **Statistical analyses**

206

### 207 **Objective 1: Do the two restoration methods differ in their impact on the ground**

208 **flora?** The effect of restoration method on the total ground flora and woodland  
209 species ground flora were analysed using generalized linear mixed effects models.

210 Management regime (native, plantation, thinned or clearfelled), forest type (acidic  
211 *Quercus* or mesotrophic *Fraxinus*), and their interaction were modelled as fixed

212 factors to analyse their effects on total ground flora species richness and woodland  
213 species ground flora richness of plots. Block was added as a random effect to all  
214 models to account for the blocked design of this study.

215

216 To evaluate the similarity in species composition of ground flora and woodland  
217 species ground flora between management regimes the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was  
218 used. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was used for visual inspection of  
219 the similarities between plots. The effects of management regime, and the interaction  
220 between management regime and forest type on the community composition of  
221 ground flora and woodland species ground flora were analysed using permutational  
222 multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) (Anderson 2001) with 9999  
223 permutations. Data were permuted within blocks to account for the nesting of plots  
224 within blocks. Significant differences may be due to different within-group variation  
225 or different mean values (Warton, Wright & Wang 2012). Therefore, prior to all

226 PERMANOVA analyses a test for homogeneity of multivariate dispersion was  
227 performed using 9999 permutations (Anderson 2006). For all such tests no difference  
228 in multivariate dispersion was found between plots of different types, and we are  
229 confident that significant results from PERMANOVA reflect differences in mean  
230 values.

231

232 Due to the split-plot design of this study, with management regime assigned to plots  
233 within blocks and forest type assigned to whole blocks, the main effect of forest type  
234 could not be analysed. It uses a different error term from the main effect of  
235 management regime and the forest type - management regime interaction (Snedecor  
236 & Cochran 1989), and the software used to perform PERMANOVA did not allow the  
237 use of two different error terms.

238

239 **Objective 2: Is plant species richness correlated with leaf-miner species richness?**

240 Rarefied leaf-miner species richness was calculated for each plot to adjust for  
241 differences in abundance (Gotelli & Colwell 2001). This estimated the expected  
242 species richness if 10 leaf-mines were sampled in each plot; the smallest number of  
243 mines found in a plot with the exception of one plot where no mines were found.

244 Estimates made using a rarefied sample size of 50 individuals were comparable,  
245 but led to plots being excluded due to having <50 mines. A rarefied sample size  
246 of 10 was therefore preferred to maximise the plot sample size.

247

248 Rarefied richness was analysed using a general linear mixed effects model. The plant  
249 species richness of plots, as well as management regime, forest type, and all two-way

250 interactions between these were modelled as fixed factors. Block was added as a  
251 random effect to all models to account for the blocked design of this study.

252

253 **Objective 3: Is the efficacy of the two restoration approaches affected by forest**  
254 **type?**

255 Forest type was included in the models described above. Although the effect of forest  
256 type on ground flora species composition could not be statistically assessed using our  
257 statistical models, PERMANOVA was able to determine if forest type interacted with  
258 management regime to affect species composition. The main effect of forest type on  
259 ground flora composition was determined graphically using NMDS.

260

261 **Model simplification and statistical software**

262 Maximum models were simplified using likelihood ratio tests (Bolker 2008).  
263 Explanatory variables were retained in models, and considered significant, if their  
264 removal resulted in a significant change in model deviance. The validity of final  
265 models was checked using visual examination of residuals (Bolker *et al.* 2009). *Post*  
266 *hoc* Tukey tests were performed for all pair-wise comparisons of fixed factors, and  
267 interactions between fixed factors, retained in optimal models, with *P* values adjusted  
268 using the false discovery rate method (Benjamini & Hochberg 1995; Verhoeven,  
269 Simonsen & McIntyre 2005; Pike 2011). If plant species richness, or an interaction  
270 between plant species richness and another variable, was retained in the optimal  
271 model of leaf-miner richness this was analysed graphically using effect displays (Fox,  
272 2003). These show the predicted relationship between main effects and their  
273 interactions on the response variable, as modelled using linear models such as those  
274 performed here. Generalized linear mixed effect models used the Poisson distribution

275 and log link function (Bolker *et al.* 2009), and all linear models were fitted by  
276 maximum likelihood estimates.

277

278 All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team 2012). Package ‘lme4’ (Bates,  
279 Maechler & Bolker 2012) was used to fit mixed models. Tukey tests were carried out  
280 in the ‘multcomp’ package (Hothorn, Bretz & Westfall 2008). Effect displays were  
281 produced using the ‘effects’ package (Fox 2003). Package ‘vegan’ (Oksanen *et al.*  
282 2012) was used for NMDS plots, tests for homogeneity of multivariate dispersion,  
283 PERMANOVA, and rarefaction.

## 284 **Results**

285

### 286 **Objective 1: Do the two restoration methods differ in their impact on the ground**

287 **flora?** One hundred and seventy-nine ground flora species were identified in the 32  
288 plots, 167 to species level and 12 to genus, comprising 110 genera in 53 families (see  
289 Table S2). Of these 86 were woodland species, comprising 69 genera in 47 families.

290 Management regime had a significant effect on species richness (Likelihood ratio test:  
291  $\chi^2 = 65.35$ , d.f.= 3,  $P < 0.001$ ) and clearfelled plots had significantly more ground flora  
292 species overall than other plots (Fig. 1a). However, all plots contained woodland  
293 species and there was no significant effect of management regime on woodland  
294 species richness (Likelihood ratio test;  $\chi^2 = 1.83$ , d.f.= 3,  $P = 0.607$ , Fig. 1b).

295

296 The overall ground flora community composition differed significantly between  
297 management regimes (Pseudo  $F = 4.05$ , d.f. = 3,  $P < 0.001$ ). Plantations and thinned  
298 plots had a similar community composition intermediate between that of native and  
299 clearfelled plots (Fig. 2a). The woodland species subset of the ground flora  
300 community showed a different pattern from that of the ground flora in general.

301 Woodland species composition differed between management regimes (Pseudo  $F =$   
302  $4.08$ , d.f.=3,  $P < 0.001$ ) but thinned, plantations and clearfelled plots overlapped in  
303 their composition whilst native plots had a different woodland species composition  
304 (Fig. 2b).

305

### 306 **Objective 2: Is plant species richness correlated with leaf-miner species richness?**

307 In total 10,025 mines were collected. Of these 9771 could be identified to at least  
308 order level and comprised 122 species (see Table S3): 68 Lepidoptera species and



309 four Lepidoptera taxa identified to genus level, 38 Diptera species and two Diptera  
310 taxa identified to genus level, 11 Hymenoptera species and one Hymenoptera taxon  
311 identified to order level, and two Coleoptera species.

312

313 The relationship between plant and rarefied herbivore species richness was not  
314 consistent between the different management regimes. Thus, there was a significant  
315 interaction between plant species richness and management regime (Likelihood ratio  
316 test:  $\chi^2 = 15.20$ , d.f.= 3,  $P = 0.002$ ). On plantations, thinned and native plots, there  
317 was a positive relationship between leaf-miner species richness and plant species  
318 richness (Figs. 3a, 3b, 3c). However, on clearfelled plots there was a negative  
319 relationship between leaf-miner species richness and plant species richness (Fig. 3d).

320

321 **Objective 3: Is the efficacy of the two restoration approaches affected by forest**  
322 **type?**

323 There was a significant effect of forest type on both total ground flora species richness  
324 (Likelihood ratio test:  $\chi^2 = 5.61$ , d.f.= 1,  $P = 0.018$ ) and woodland species richness  
325 (Likelihood ratio test;  $\chi^2 = 7.69$ , d.f.= 1,  $P = 0.006$ ) with mesotrophic *Fraxinus* plots  
326 having a greater mean species richness than acidic *Quercus* plots in both cases (Total  
327 ground flora species;  $49.36 \pm 8.5$  vs.  $32.19 \pm 5.85$ ; Woodland species;  $23.56 \pm 1.83$   
328 vs.  $13.75 \pm 2.79$ ). Plots on the two different forest types also differed in total ground  
329 flora species composition (Fig. 2a) and woodland species composition (Fig. 2b).

330

331 However, there was no interaction between management regime and forest type  
332 affecting either total ground flora community composition (Pseudo  $F = 1.33$ , d.f. = 3,  
333  $P = 0.110$ ), total ground flora species richness (Likelihood ratio test:  $\chi^2 = 4.46$ , d.f.=

334 3,  $P = 0.216$ ), woodland species composition (Pseudo  $F = 1.28$ , d.f. = 3,  $P = 0.173$ ),  
335 or woodland species richness (Likelihood ratio test;  $\chi^2 = 1.83$ , d.f.= 3,  $P = 0.605$ ).  
336 Neither was there an effect of forest type on leaf-miner species richness (Likelihood  
337 ratio test:  $\chi^2 = 0.69$ , d.f.= 1,  $P = 0.407$ ). Thus the two restoration approaches have the  
338 same impact on each type of woodland.

339

## 340 **Discussion**

341 During restoration it is important not only to re-establish, but to also maintain any  
342 species native to the target habitat already present. Both of the restoration methods  
343 studied here maintained woodland ground flora species. However, the restoration  
344 methods differed in their effects in other ways. Clearfelled plots had greater ground  
345 flora species richness than thinned plots, and leaf-miner species richness increased  
346 with plant species richness on thinned plots but not on clearfelled plots. Forest type  
347 did not interact with the restoration method, demonstrating that the two approaches  
348 have a consistent effect on different plant communities.

349

350 There are two caveats to consider when interpreting these results. Firstly, plant  
351 community data from plots prior to clearfelling or the onset of thinning were not  
352 available. Therefore, any differences seen between plots cannot be conclusively  
353 attributed to their management. However, there is no reason to suspect that the plant  
354 communities under the different management regimes differed systematically prior to  
355 restoration. Secondly, logistical constraints meant that leaf-miners were only sampled  
356 from vegetation up to 2 m tall, i.e. the tree canopy was not sampled. However,  
357 clearfelled plots had few trees taller than 2m, and the canopy of plantations and  
358 thinned plots mainly consisted of conifers. Although conifers do host leaf-miners no

359 mines were found on conifer leaves during this study. We are therefore confident that  
360 the samples from plantations, clearfelled and thinned plots reflect their leaf-miner  
361 community. The native plots, however, had an extensive canopy cover of broadleaved  
362 trees and their species richness of leaf-miners may be higher than reported here.

363

#### 364 **The effect of restoration method on ground flora**

365 The potential of plantations on ancient woodland sites to be restored to native  
366 woodland was confirmed by the presence of many woodland species, such as *Arum*  
367 *maculatum* (L.), *Mercurialis perennis* (L.), and *Anemone nemorosa* (L.) in their  
368 ground flora. Indeed plantations had the same number of woodland species in their  
369 ground flora as native plots. Furthermore, neither approach to removing conifers  
370 resulted in a decline in woodland ground flora species as restoration plots had the  
371 same number, and a similar composition, of woodland ground flora species as  
372 unreturned plantations. Due to the slow migration of many woodland plants (Brunet &  
373 von Oheimb 1998; Hermy *et al.* 1999) maintaining their populations is an important  
374 requirement of plantation restoration, and both approaches to restoration achieved  
375 this.

376

377 The thinning regime studied here differs little from the management regime on  
378 plantations not undergoing restoration, and both regimes result in a similar level of  
379 disturbance. This explains the similarity in woodland species composition and  
380 richness on these plots. Clearfelling of forests often results in the decline and loss of  
381 woodland species (Hannerz & Hånell 1997; Roberts & Zhu 2002; Godefroid,  
382 Rucquoi & Koedam 2005), here though clearfelled plots had the same number of  
383 woodland species as the other management regimes. There are four mechanisms

384 whereby ground flora species may reappear on sites following disturbance such as  
385 that caused by clearfelling; survival *in situ*, vegetative regeneration, regeneration from  
386 the seed bank, and regeneration from dispersed propagules (Roberts and Gilliam  
387 2014). Due to the absence of pre-restoration species lists we cannot be certain if these  
388 woodland species were present in the community before felling, or if they have  
389 subsequently colonised or regenerated from the seed bank of the clearfelled plots.  
390 However, they are unlikely to have all germinated from the seed bank, as, with the  
391 exception of *Rubus fruticosus* (L. agg.), woodland species do not produce long-lived  
392 seed banks (Thompson, Bakker & Bekker 1997). Furthermore, many woodland  
393 species have poor dispersal capabilities (Brunet & von Oheimb 1998; Hermy *et al.*  
394 1999; Verheyen *et al.* 2003). However, *Deschampsia cespitosa* (L.) P. Beauv., and *A.*  
395 *nemorosa*, both dispersal limited woodland species (Verheyen & Hermy 2001), were  
396 found on plantations as well as clearfelled plots. It is therefore most likely that  
397 survival *in situ* and vegetative regeneration from surviving vegetation are the  
398 mechanisms responsible for the appearance of woodland species in the ground flora of  
399 clearfelled plots, suggesting that remnant woodland species populations can survive  
400 clearfelling at least for the four to 10 year post-felling window during which this  
401 study was conducted. Many woodland species take advantage of canopy gaps and soil  
402 disturbance (Brunet, Falkengren-Grerup & Tyler 1996; Brunet, Falkengren-Grerup &  
403 Tyler 1997), and removal of the canopy can increase flowering, seed production, or  
404 the vegetative spread of some woodland species (Hughes & Fahey 1991; Mayer, Abs  
405 & Fischer 2004), aiding their survival following clearfelling. Furthermore, the  
406 abundant *Pteridium aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn cover on the clearfelled plots may have  
407 allowed shade tolerant woodland plants to survive (Pakeman & Marrs 1992).

408

409 Clearfelled plots had the greatest overall ground flora species richness. Canopy  
410 opening of abandoned coppice also results in an increase in species richness (Vild *et*  
411 *al.* 2013), and the species richness of clearfelled plots may reflect the community  
412 present following historical coppicing or clearfelling for timber. Clearfelling results in  
413 soil disturbance, more light reaching the ground (Ash & Barkham 1976; Collins &  
414 Pickett 1988; Mitchell 1992) and an increased availability of colonisation sites,  
415 leading to an increase in species richness through the dispersal of propagules into  
416 clearfelled plots and/or regeneration from the seed bank (Roberts & Zhu 2002; Pykälä  
417 2004). This is reflected in the species composition of clearfelled plots, which  
418 contained many ruderal and grassland species such as *Chamerion angustifolium* (L.),  
419 *Buddleja davidii* (Franch.) and *Ranunculus acris* (L.).

420

421 The woodland species composition of plantations, clearfelled or thinned plots did not  
422 resemble the native plots. This is likely due to the age of native plots; they have  
423 existed as native woodland for decades, or centuries, enabling the establishment of  
424 slow colonising woodland species. There is no list of ancient woodland indicator  
425 species for the Forest of Dean, but species such as *A. nemorosa*, *M. perennis*, and *Ilex*  
426 *aquifolium* (L.), have been identified as ancient woodland species in other regions  
427 (Hermy *et al.* 1999; Rose & O'Reilly 2006). While these species were present in  
428 plantations, thinned plots, and clearfelled plots, they were more abundant in the native  
429 plots. Continued monitoring is required to see if the woodland species composition of  
430 clearfelled and thinned plots moves towards that of native plots.

431

432 **The relationship between plant species richness and leaf-miner species richness**

433 The diversity of phytophagous invertebrates often follows that of the plant community  
434 (Brown & Hyman 1986; Crisp, Dickinson & Gibbs 1998; Siemann, Haarstad &  
435 Tilman 1999; Rowe & Holland 2013), and leaf-miner species richness did increase  
436 with plant species richness on plantations, thinned and native plots. Most leaf-miners  
437 are specialists on a small number of related host-plants (Memmott, Godfray & Gauld  
438 1994). Therefore, as plant species richness increases more niches are available for  
439 leaf-miner species, and more leaf-miner species are able to establish in the  
440 community. However, greater plant species richness did not necessarily lead to  
441 greater species richness of leaf-miners. On clearfelled plots leaf-miner species  
442 richness did not increase as plant species richness increased, demonstrating that the  
443 relationship between plant species richness and invertebrate herbivore species  
444 richness can differ under different management regimes.

445

446 Although not measured here, clearfelled plots had greater, denser, vegetation cover  
447 than the other plots. The vegetation cover on clearfelled plots may make it difficult  
448 for leaf-miners to locate host plants in species rich communities using visual or  
449 chemical cues (McNair, Gries & Gries 2000; Jactel *et al.* 2011; Dulaurent *et al.* 2012),  
450 preventing them from establishing. This could occur through reduced resource  
451 concentration, whereby herbivores are less able to find host plants when they do not  
452 form dense stands (Root 1973), and/or reduced focal plant apparency, whereby  
453 herbivores are less able to find host plants when they are concealed by taller non-host  
454 plants (Floater & Zalucki 2000; Hughes 2012; Castagneyrol *et al.* 2013). When plant  
455 species richness is lower, but the vegetation cover is high, these mechanisms will not  
456 occur, and leaf-miners may be even more likely to establish due to the ease of locating

457 host plants when they form dense stands. Further investigation is needed to determine  
458 if these mechanisms explain our results.

459

#### 460 **The effect of forest type on restoration outcome**

461 Forest type had no effect on leaf-miner species richness, but did affect the species  
462 richness of the ground flora and richness of woodland species in the ground flora,  
463 with mesotrophic *Fraxinus* plots having a greater species richness of both these  
464 groups. However, there were no significant interactions between forest type and  
465 management regime. Differences between the forest types are differences in the  
466 number of species present and not in the patterns of species richness between  
467 management regimes. This is important as it means that, for these two forest types at  
468 least, the results from a study of the ground flora community on one forest type can be  
469 applied to the other, saving time and money.

470

#### 471 **Conclusions**

472 Both restoration methods conserved the woodland plant species richness of sites  
473 during restoration. This has important management implications. Which restoration  
474 method to use depends on many factors, but the results here suggest that both can be  
475 considered. However, clearfelling may be the only option possible on sites that  
476 cannot easily be visited multiple times for thinning, and these results suggest  
477 that this will not be at the expense of the woodland ground flora. Clearfelling also  
478 requires less time and money. We found that the method of restoration influenced the  
479 relationship between plant and herbivore species richness. Therefore, species higher  
480 up the food chain, such as herbivores, should also be monitored during restoration.

481 Restoration aims to restore the integrity of degraded systems, and this necessarily

482 involves observing more than just plant species.

483



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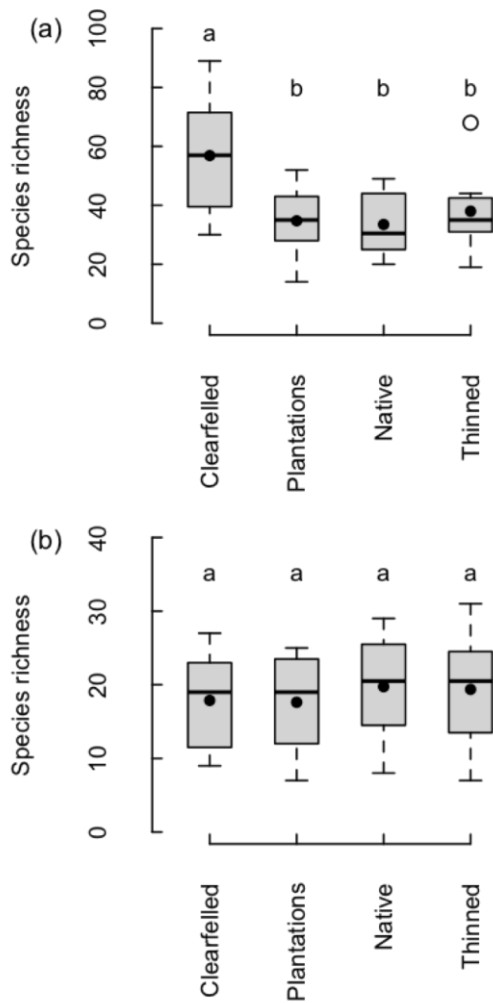
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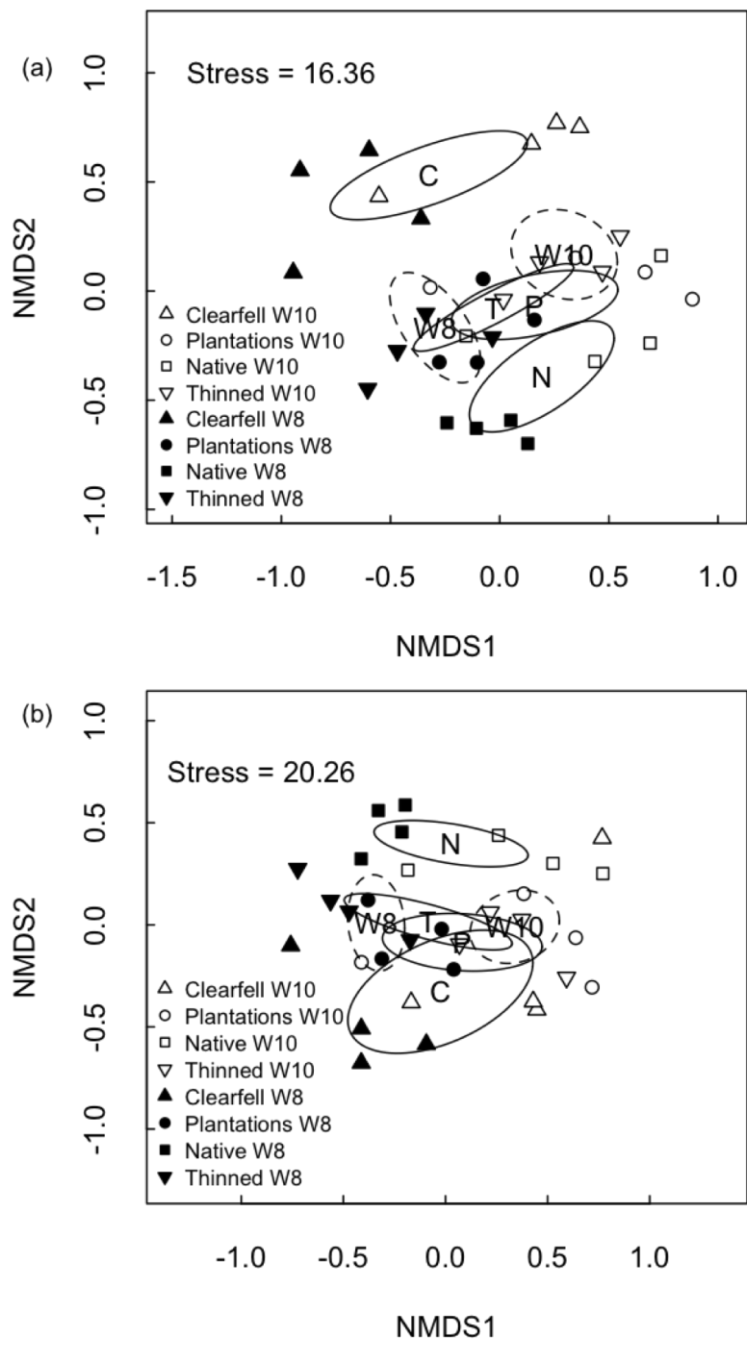
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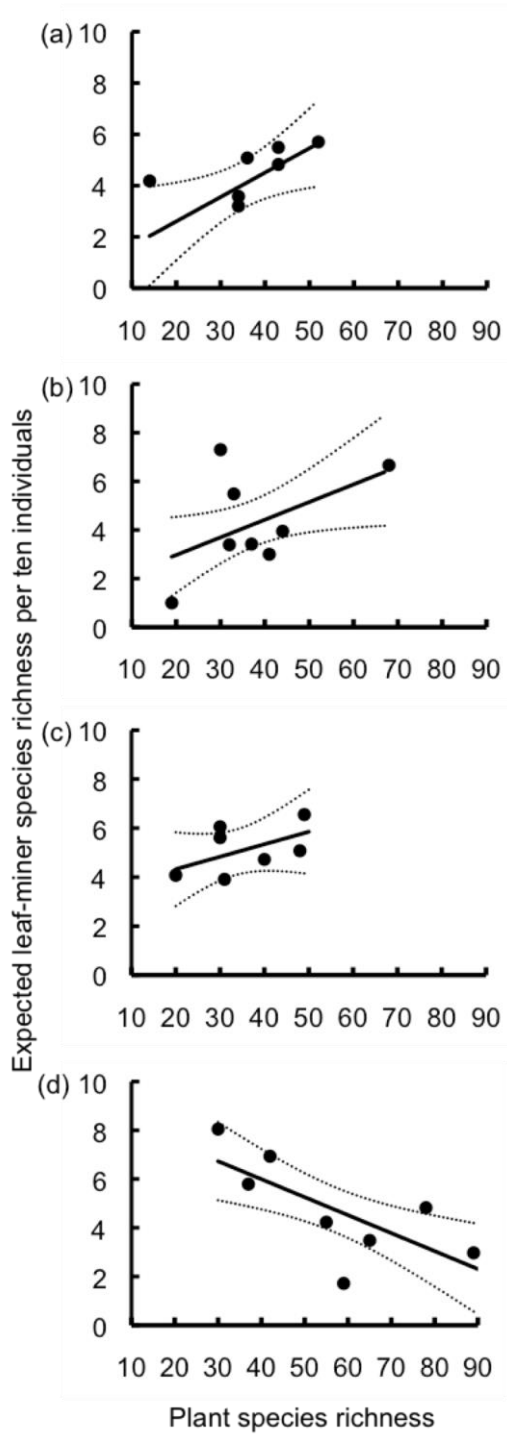
698

699 **Figure 1.** Plant species richness in the four types of plot: a) The total ground flora  
 700 species richness of plots under different management regimes; b) The woodland  
 701 ground flora species richness. Different letters within each panel indicate significant  
 702 differences ( $P < 0.0001$ ).



703

704 **Figure 2.** Nonmetric multidimensional scaling plot of the composition of the ground  
 705 flora (a), and the woodland species in the ground flora (b). Each point represents a  
 706 plot. Ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals of the mean score of management  
 707 regimes (solid lines) and mean score of forest types (dashed lines).



708

709 **Figure 3.** The relationship between plant species richness and rarefied leaf-miner  
 710 species richness for (a) plantations, (b) thinned plots, (c) native plots, and (d)  
 711 clearfelled plots. Dashed lines indicate 95% confidence intervals. The underlying  
 712 model is a general linear mixed model with site as a random effect.

713 **Supporting Information**

714 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:

715 **Table S1.** Details of the study plots used in this study.

716 **Table S2.** Plant species found in the ground flora of study plots.

717 **Table S3.** Leaf-miner species found in the ground flora of study plots.