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**Habitat restoration benefits wild bees: a meta-analysis**

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#### 34 **ABSTRACT**

- 35 1. Pollinator conservation is of increasing interest in light of managed honeybee (*Apis*  
36 *mellifera*) declines, and declines in some species of wild bees. Much work has gone into  
37 understanding the effects of habitat enhancements in agricultural systems on wild bee  
38 abundance, richness, and pollination services. However, the effects of ecological restoration  
39 targeting “natural” ecological endpoints (e.g., restoring former agricultural fields to historic  
40 vegetation types or improving degraded natural lands) on wild bees have received relatively  
41 little attention, despite their potential importance for countering habitat loss.
- 42 2. We conducted a meta-analysis to evaluate the effects of ecological restoration on wild bee  
43 abundance and richness, focusing on unmanaged bee communities in lands restored and  
44 managed to increase habitat availability and quality. Specifically, we assessed bee abundance  
45 and/or richness across studies comparing restored vs. unrestored treatments and studies  
46 investigating effects of specific habitat restoration techniques, such as burning, grazing,  
47 invasive plant removal and seeding.
- 48 3. We analysed 28 studies that met our selection criteria: these represented 11 habitat types and  
49 7 restoration techniques. Nearly all restorations associated with these studies were performed  
50 without explicit consideration of habitat needs for bees or other pollinators. The majority of  
51 restorations targeted plant community goals, which could potentially have ancillary benefits  
52 for bees.
- 53 4. Restoration had overall positive effects on wild bee abundance and richness across multiple  
54 habitat types. Specific restoration actions, tested independently, also tended to have positive  
55 effects on wild bee richness and abundance.
- 56 5. *Synthesis and applications.* We found strong evidence that ecological restoration advances  
57 wild bee conservation. This is important given that habitat loss is recognized as a leading  
58 factor in pollinator decline. Pollinator responses to land management are rarely evaluated in  
59 non-agricultural settings and so support for wild bees may be an underappreciated benefit of  
60 botanically focused management. Future restoration projects that explicitly consider the

61 needs of wild bees could be more effective at providing nesting, foraging and other habitat  
62 resources. We encourage land managers to design and evaluate restoration projects with the  
63 habitat needs of wild bee species in mind.

64

#### 65 **Keywords**

66 Abundance, bees, burning, conservation, grazing, habitat, land management, pollinators,  
67 restoration, species richness

#### 68 **Introduction**

69 Bees are arguably the most important pollinators worldwide (Buchmann and Nabhan 1996),  
70 responsible for the majority of pollination in agricultural and natural systems (National Research  
71 Council 2007). Recent declines in bee species, and their importance as ecosystem service  
72 providers, have brought bees to the forefront of conservation efforts. For bee species with  
73 documented losses and in geographic regions with historic bee community data available, habitat  
74 loss is a frequently cited factor in bee declines (Grixti et al. 2009, Winfree et al. 2009, Cameron  
75 et al. 2011). To combat habitat loss, there has been considerable research evaluating the  
76 effectiveness of habitat enhancements for wild bees in otherwise developed landscapes, such as  
77 agricultural systems or cities (Shepherd et al. 2003, Vaughan 2008, Grixti et al. 2009, Pawelek et  
78 al. 2009, Dicks et al. 2010, MacIvor and Packer 2015, Hall et al. 2016).

79 To date, most bee conservation efforts have focused on providing resources for wild bees  
80 (e.g., nesting and foraging resources) within otherwise human-dominated land uses (Shepherd et  
81 al. 2003, Batáry et al. 2010). In a recent meta-analysis, habitat enhancements for wild bees were  
82 found to be effective in agricultural systems (Scheper et al. 2013). For example, addition of  
83 native hedgerows or planting of wildflowers in field margins can provide consistent foraging  
84 opportunities, leading to greater wild bee diversity and abundance (Pywell et al. 2005, Haaland  
85 et al. 2011, Pywell et al. 2012). Likewise, installing nesting boxes or maintaining patches of  
86 bare, untilled ground have been found to provide nesting habitat (Wesserling and Tschardtke  
87 1995, Severns 2004, Dicks et al. 2010). In residential and urban areas, similar habitat  
88 enhancements can provide nesting and foraging resources for wild bees (Shepherd et al. 2003,  
89 but see MacIvor and Packer 2015). These enhancements have led to greater bee abundance and  
90 diversity relative to unmanipulated control sites in city parks and residential neighbourhoods  
91 (Frankie et al. 2009, Hernandez et al. 2009, Pawelek et al. 2009), yet the extent to which habitat

92 enhancements provide resources for a functionally diverse suite of wild bees remains uncertain  
93 (Woodcock et al. 2014a).

94 On a larger scale, ecological restoration of undeveloped lands (e.g., degraded natural  
95 areas or restoration of former working lands, such as agricultural fields, back to pre-settlement  
96 habitats) of may be an effective conservation tool to counter the effects of habitat loss on wild  
97 bees. Through restoration, practitioners assist the recovery of an ecosystem that has been  
98 degraded, damaged or destroyed (SER 2004). Historically, habitat restoration has focused on  
99 plant community outcomes, and restoration management techniques frequently involve direct  
100 manipulation of the plant community (Young 2000). Typical restoration actions include removal  
101 of invasive plant species, seeding and planting of native flora, reinstating historic fire regimes,  
102 reintroducing grazers, and other regionally habitat-specific management actions.

103 Theoretically, restoration could be a ‘tide that raises all ships,’ improving habitat quality  
104 by directly altering plant communities. For example, vegetation dominated by a single invasive  
105 plant species provides little diversity in floral resources or bloom times, limiting the portfolio of  
106 bees that can be supported (M’Gonigle et al. 2016). In such cases, increased plant diversity  
107 associated with invasive species management and subsequent restoration of a desirable botanical  
108 community could increase foraging opportunities for bees. These actions could lead to increases  
109 in bee abundance and richness, similar to habitat augmentations in agricultural areas (Scheper et  
110 al. 2013). Unlike small-scale enhancements of otherwise developed sites, restoration of natural  
111 areas can also return larger areas of contiguous habitat for native bees, returning landscape-level  
112 and metacommunity processes (Montoya et al. 2012).

113 However, there is also potential for actions associated with restoration to act as  
114 disturbances to wild bees (Moretti et al. 2009, Williams et al. 2010). For example, removal of  
115 invasive species and burning or mowing without immediate replacement of mature plants may  
116 reduce foraging opportunities available to bees. Prescribed burning is commonly used in  
117 restoration to alter habitat structure and clear invasive or undesired vegetation; early in a  
118 restoration project, fire frequency may exceed that of the historic burn cycle (Packard 1997).  
119 While burning could reveal more bare ground for soil nesters through removal of herbaceous  
120 litter, burning also removes standing dead material, such as the pithy stems and dead wood that  
121 many species require for nests (Michener 2000). Burning and other disturbances are likely to

122 differentially affect bees representing different nesting guilds, or even those of similar guilds  
123 found across different habitats (Moretti et al. 2009).

124 We conducted a meta-analysis to evaluate the overall impact of habitat restoration on  
125 wild bees, and the relative impact of specific management techniques (i.e., burning, grazing,  
126 overall restoration, ecological compensation meadows, invasive plant removal, mowing and  
127 seeding). Through meta-analysis we could calculate the relative and overall effect sizes of each  
128 restoration action and for restoration overall, while incorporating study size and replication into  
129 the strength of each response. We considered wild bee richness and/or abundance as responses  
130 and restricted our analysis to restorations targeting “natural” end-points, e.g., grasslands or  
131 forests, but not anthropogenic or novel habitats like farms, housing developments or urban  
132 gardens. We retained studies of ecological compensation meadows, which are large-scale (i.e.,  
133 multiple hectare) efforts to convert land used for hay production or pasturing to closer  
134 approximations of wild habitats. While these lands have an agricultural component, we  
135 considered them more comparable to grassland restorations than to crop production systems; as  
136 livestock grazing is a recognized tool for restoring grasslands in both Europe and North America  
137 (Hayes and Holl 2003, Dostálek and Frantík 2008).

138 We hypothesized that (1) habitat restoration would have generally positive effects on  
139 wild bee abundance and richness, (2) overall restoration would have a greater positive impact on  
140 wild bee abundance or richness than any one restoration action tested independently and (3)  
141 some specific restoration actions would function as disturbances, with negative effects on bee  
142 abundance or richness.

143

## 144 **Materials and Methods**

### 145 *Literature search*

146 To identify relevant studies we searched Web of Science (Clarivate Analytics 2015) using the  
147 following term combinations “bee AND (restor\* OR habitat manag\* OR habitat enhanc\*)” with  
148 topic filters of “ecology” and “biodiversity conservation” on December 6, 2016. This search  
149 yielded 412 papers.

150 From this point, we individually examined studies and excluded those that took place  
151 within production agricultural settings (e.g., pollinator-friendly hedgerows around tomato fields)  
152 or focused on managed bees such as honeybees (*Apis mellifera*). We included studies that

153 evaluated the effects of restoration overall (e.g., restored vs. unrestored comparisons) and studies  
154 of specific management actions frequently implemented in restoration (e.g., mowing, grazing  
155 and burning) that took place in degraded lands and former agricultural lands that were converted  
156 to pre-settlement conditions. We did not evaluate the effects of habitat remediation in lands that  
157 had been structurally transformed and/or polluted by human activities (e.g., strip mines, landfills,  
158 or quarries). After identifying a total of 38 papers that met our criteria, we searched within the  
159 references in these papers for additional suitable studies. This yielded an additional 9 papers, for  
160 a total of 47.

161

### 162 *Calculation of effect sizes*

163 Of the 47 studies, 28 contained data suitable for analysis, i.e., bee abundance and/or species  
164 richness were reported before and after restoration treatments or compared between restored vs.  
165 unrestored treatments in the article itself, in supplemental information, or in communications  
166 with the authors (see Table S1 in Supporting Information). For the 19 excluded studies, data  
167 were not reported in a way that allowed us to calculate bee richness or abundance (e.g., authors  
168 reported total number of insects and insect species) and raw data were either unavailable or did  
169 not provide the necessary information (e.g., only insect counts were reported, not bees  
170 specifically). From the final 28 studies, we extracted a total of 70 data points for inclusion in the  
171 meta-analyses. For studies with multiple categorical treatments, we extracted multiple data  
172 points comparing each test variable (e.g., low-intensity grazing and high-intensity grazing) to the  
173 control or reference condition, as described in Koricheva et al. (2013). For 14 papers, both wild  
174 bee abundance and richness were reported as response variables to restoration or management  
175 actions.

176 We calculated Hedge's  $d$ , an unbiased standardized mean difference corrected for small  
177 sample size, which is suitable for meta-analyses with few studies (Hedges and Olkin 1985,  
178 Koricheva et al. 2013). The effect size  $d$  can be interpreted here as the inverse-variance-weighted  
179 difference in abundance or richness of bees between restored and unrestored or reference  
180 conditions, measured in units of standard deviation. Large effect sizes can result from a large  
181 difference in mean bee abundance or diversity between treatments or from a small estimate of  
182 the pooled variance between treatments.

183 Whenever possible, we calculated effect size based on reported sample size, mean and  
184 standard deviation values of bee abundance or richness for each treatment (Koricheva et al.  
185 2013). If data were not available, we emailed the corresponding author requesting these data. For  
186 studies where the author did not respond or necessary data were not available, we calculated an  
187 effect size based on a reported  $F$ -test or using mean and standard deviation values extracted from  
188 figures using Web Plot Digitizer (Rohatgi 2015). For studies with a continuous design (e.g., bee  
189 response to grazing intensity), we ran a Fischer's  $z$  transformation on the correlation coefficient  $r$   
190 to calculate an effect size and then converted this value to Hedge's  $d$  using the metafor package  
191 (Viechtbauer 2010) in R version 3.3.3 (R Development Core Team 2015).

192 In our calculations of Hedge's  $d$  we were not able to account for variance arising from  
193 measurement error in the underlying studies. Measurement error could arise from factors such as  
194 misidentification of specimens, differences in identification skill or data-entry errors. As articles  
195 included in this meta-analysis did not report measurement errors, we were unable to perform  
196 study-level corrections or attempt to calculate an average error correction term. That said,  
197 ecologists do increasingly attempt to estimate measurement error, as reviewed by Morrison  
198 (2016), and its incorporation into ecological meta-analyses may become more common – as is  
199 the case, for example, in medical research (Schmidt and Hunter 2015).

#### 200 201 *Analyses of effect size and heterogeneity*

202 All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.3.3 (R Development Core Team 2015)  
203 using the package metafor (Viechtbauer 2010). For each response variable (bee abundance or  
204 richness), we created a random effects model with study and restoration action (burning, grazing,  
205 overall restoration, ecological compensation meadows, invasive plant removal, mowing and  
206 seeding) as random factors to account for non-independence between different treatments within  
207 the same study or of responses to the same treatment across studies. Models were fitted using  
208 restricted maximum-likelihood estimation (Koricheva et al. 2013).

209 We grouped studies by restoration action (Table 1) and constructed models within each  
210 of these categories with study as a random factor to account for non-independence. To determine  
211 if effect sizes across studies were similar, we calculated heterogeneity ( $Q$ ) within each  
212 restoration category and for all studies combined.

213

214 *Publication bias and sensitivity analyses*

215 To explore the possibility of publication bias we constructed funnel plots – scatter plots of effect  
216 sizes against a measure of their variance – to determine if reported studies were unbalanced, as  
217 recommended by Koricheva et al. (2013). A publication bias toward significant results would  
218 create an asymmetrical funnel, typically missing small studies with non-significant effects.  
219 Having found funnel asymmetry, we used trim-and-fill plots to estimate “missing” studies. We  
220 then updated mean effect sizes with imputed missing studies, and compared original and updated  
221 mean effect sizes using *t*-tests. Finally, we calculated Rosenberg’s weighted fail-safe number  
222 (Rosenberg 2005), an estimate of the number of unpublished studies with an effect size of zero  
223 that would need to be added to make the observed effect size non-significant ( $p > 0.05$ ).

224

225 **Results**

226 Overall, restoration in general and specific restoration actions had positive effects on bee  
227 abundance ( $d = 1.49$ , 95% CI = 0.92, 2.06,  $p < 0.0001$ , Fig. 1) and richness ( $d = 1.01$ , 95% CI =  
228 0.65, 1.38,  $p < 0.0001$ , Fig. 2). Effects of restoration and management differed by study and were  
229 heterogeneous for bee abundance ( $Q = 637.50$ , d.f. = 38,  $p < 0.0001$ , Figure 1) and richness ( $Q =$   
230 117.88, d.f. = 31,  $p < 0.0001$ , Fig. 2).

231 Of the 70 data points identified, 39 reported wild bee abundance and 31 reported wild bee  
232 richness (see Table S1). The majority of studies were conducted in Europe ( $n = 17$ ) and North  
233 America ( $n = 10$  United States,  $n = 1$  Canada) with 2 additional studies conducted, at least  
234 partially, in Israel. These included studies that evaluated the effects of restoration in general and  
235 creation of ecological compensation meadows, as well as mowing, burning, grazing, invasive  
236 plant removal and seeding (Table S1).

237

238 *Mean effect sizes of restoration and heterogeneity among studies: Bee abundance*

239 All restoration categories had positive mean effect sizes for bee abundance (Fig. 1). The greatest  
240 effect size was attributed to a removal and mulching treatment of the invasive plant Chinese  
241 privet (*Ligustrum sinense*) in a woodland (Hanula and Horn 2011). Invasive plant removal had  
242 the greatest positive effect on bee abundance ( $d = 4.84$ , 95% CI = 3.59, 6.09,  $p < 0.0001$ , Fig. 1).  
243 Negative effects of restoration on bee abundance were found in two mowing studies and one  
244 grazing study (Fig. 1). Bee abundance outcomes were significantly heterogeneous within



245 mowing and grazing categories, respectively ( $Q = 500.41$ , d.f. = 4,  $p < 0.0001$  and  $Q = 29.32$ , d.f.  
246 = 12,  $p < 0.003$ , Table 1); other restoration actions did not exhibit significant heterogeneity  
247 between individual study results (Table 1).

248

#### 249 *Mean effect sizes of restoration and heterogeneity among studies: Bee richness*

250 With the exception of mowing, all restoration actions had significant positive effects on bee  
251 richness (Fig. 2). Invasive plant removal had the greatest positive effect on richness ( $d = 6.38$ ,  
252 95% CI = 2.55, 10.20,  $p = 0.001$ , Fig. 2), though studies within this category were heterogeneous  
253 with respect to their individual effect sizes ( $Q = 32.81$ , d.f. = 4,  $p < 0.0001$ , Table 1). Two  
254 individual studies found negative effects on bee richness; Russel et al. (2005) reported a negative  
255 effect of continuous mowing of powerline strips relative to unmown controls, and Potts et al.  
256 (2006) found fewer species of bees in pine forests that had been burned for 10 or more years  
257 compared to unburned controls. Grazing, ecological compensation meadows, and invasive plant  
258 removal groups were all heterogeneous in effect sizes ( $Q = 11.29$ , d.f. = 4,  $p < 0.02$ ;  $Q = 19.02$ ,  
259 d.f. = 3,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $Q = 32.81$ , d.f. = 4,  $p < 0.0001$ , respectively Table 1); other restoration  
260 actions did not exhibit significant heterogeneity.

261

#### 262 *Evidence of publication bias*

263 Asymmetrical funnel plots indicated potential publication bias, specifically that studies with low  
264 effect sizes and high standard errors (located in the lower left quadrant) were “missing”. Trim  
265 and fill analysis estimated zero missing studies for abundance (SI Fig. 1a), but four missing  
266 studies for richness (SI Fig. 1b). Inclusion of these missing studies would slightly decrease  
267 effect-size estimates but still maintain a significant positive effect of restoration on bee richness  
268 ( $d = 0.84$ , 95% CI [0.31, 1.37],  $p = 0.002$ ).

269 Calculation of Rosenberg’s fail-safe number indicated that 1,299 studies with null results  
270 for effects of restoration on bee richness would be needed to make the observed effect non-  
271 significant ( $p > 0.05$ ); 3,103 such studies would be needed to make the effect of restoration on  
272 bee abundance non-significant. These results provide robust evidence of significant, positive  
273 effects of restoration on wild bee abundance and species richness.

274

## 275 **Discussion**

276 Overall, ecological restoration had a positive effect on wild bee abundance and richness across  
277 multiple studies, habitat types, and geographic regions. With the exception of mowing, all  
278 restoration categories had net positive effects on bee abundance and bee richness (Figs. 1 & 2).  
279 The effects of restoration on bee abundance and richness ranged from nearly 10-fold increases  
280 (Fielder et al. 2012) to non-significant effects; no restoration categories were found to have  
281 negative mean effects (*d*).

282 Of the 28 studies evaluated in this meta-analysis, only 5 stated that bee habitat support  
283 and conservation were explicit goals of restoration efforts. Restorations tend to be completed  
284 with plant community outcomes in mind (Young 2000), with reference plant communities in  
285 high-quality remnant sites as ideal targets. Bees and other pollinators have frequently fallen  
286 under the “Field of Dreams” hypothesis: “if we build it, they will come” (Hilderbrand 2005), as  
287 opposed to having habitats explicitly designed and managed for their needs. If restorations are  
288 producing positive effects on wild bee abundance and richness without explicit consideration of  
289 their habitat needs, perhaps incorporating bee considerations into restoration planning and design  
290 could further increase the benefits provided to bees by ecological restoration, as has been  
291 demonstrated in enhanced agricultural systems (Scheper et al. 2013).

292 Restoration or management techniques could be directly or indirectly affecting bee  
293 abundance or richness. For example, grazing and burning commonly employed in grassland  
294 restoration can stimulate floral blooming (Packard 1997), leading to more potential foraging sites  
295 for bees. However, techniques such as burning could also directly impact bee abundance and  
296 richness via the physical disturbance itself, e.g., by destroying overwintering larvae in stem or  
297 twig nests. Overall, as most of the restoration techniques evaluated in this meta-analysis were  
298 focused on plant-community outcomes, the indirect benefits of a “higher-quality” plant  
299 community are the most likely drivers of patterns in bee abundance and richness.

300

### 301 *Identifying gaps and future research opportunities*

302 Over 90% of the studies that fit our selection criteria were performed in North America or  
303 Europe, which also means the restoration techniques examined here may not be representative of  
304 global restoration efforts. Studies tended to be from grasslands (e.g., prairie and savanna) and  
305 forests, on lands that had been heavily impacted by invasive plant species, were former  
306 agricultural fields, or were being used as “working” grasslands for grazing or hay production. As

307 demonstrated by Moretti et al. (2009), the response of bees to restoration actions cannot be  
308 assumed to be the same across habitat types or regions. Though a strength of a meta-analytical  
309 approach is to synthesize effect sizes across studies, this approach is sensitive to the size and  
310 diversity of the pool of available studies. Further research addressing bee responses to restoration  
311 in more parts of the world, in more habitat types, and with respect to more management actions  
312 is needed to gain a deeper understanding of the benefits of restoration to bees.

313 It is important to note that data on community composition of bees were not available for  
314 most studies, thus we were unable to perform analyses of how different types of bees responded  
315 to restoration (e.g., cavity-dwelling vs. soil-dwelling bees). For example, evidence from  
316 agricultural systems suggests habitat enhancements promote increased functional redundancy in  
317 bee communities (Woodcock et al. 2014a). Williams et al. (2010) found that bees' responses to  
318 disturbance were mediated by their traits, and Tonietto et al. (2017) found that bee functional  
319 trait composition varied among restorations of different age. As species lists are more commonly  
320 published and archived, functional analysis of wild bee species' responses to restoration will  
321 become possible.

322

### 323 *Conservation implications and recommendations for management*

324 Habitat restoration can help to counteract habitat loss, the greatest threat to wild bee abundance  
325 and richness (Winfrey et al. 2009). Here, we document an overall positive effect of habitat  
326 restoration on wild bee abundance and richness, even when restoration planning and goalsetting  
327 did not explicitly consider the habitat needs of wild bees. This is important, considering a recent  
328 survey found that only 11% of grassland managers in the Midwestern USA considered the  
329 habitat needs of wild bees during the restoration process (Harmon-Threatt and Chin 2016).

330 To better support wild pollinators, recent studies have documented the importance of  
331 designing restoration seed mixes for forbs with overlapping bloom times and multiple floral  
332 morphologies (Harmon-Threatt and Hendrix 2014, Havens and Vitt 2016, M'Gonigle et al.  
333 2016). For many localities, pollinator friendly plant species lists have already been developed  
334 (e.g., Mader 2010) for use in managed lands or residential gardens. Our findings raise the  
335 possibility that still greater conservation results for bees could be achieved were land managers  
336 to take the additional step of incorporating bee foraging and nesting needs as design  
337 considerations (e.g., Shepherd 2002, Shepherd et al. 2003, Shepherd et al. 2008, Vaughan 2008).

338

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344 Woodcock, one anonymous reviewer and the editor, whose comments greatly improved the  
345 manuscript.

346

347 **Authors' contributions**

348 R.K.T. and D.J.L. conceived the study. R.K.T. collected and analysed data and drafted the  
349 article. R.K.T. and D.J.L. revised the article and gave final approval for publication.

350

351 **Data accessibility**

352 All data used in this manuscript are present in the manuscript and its supporting information, and  
353 are available from the Dryad Digital Repository. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.q1791>  
354 (Tonietto and Larkin, 2017)

355

356 **Supporting information**

357 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

358 **Table S1.** Studies included in analyses. Includes measures of Hedge's  $d$  and variance,  
359 response and test variables and full citations.

360

361 **Figure S1.** Trim-and-fill funnel plots indicating publication bias for studies reporting  
362 effects of restoration on a) wild bee abundance and b) wild bee richness. Filled circles  
363 represent publications included in the meta-analysis; open circles are "missing" studies  
364 estimated by imputation. The vertical line represents the mean effect size updated to  
365 include the estimated influence of missing and real studies.

366 **Table 1.** Heterogeneity of effect sizes ( $Q$ ) between studies within restoration categories for the  
367 response variables wild bee abundance and species richness.

Restoration category	Abundance			Richness		
	d.f.	$Q$	$p$	d.f.	$Q$	$p$
Restoration	4	3.87	0.42	4	4.89	0.28
Ecological compensation meadows				3	19.02	0.0003
Burning	6	10.98	0.08	6	8.26	0.21
Grazing	12	29.32	0.003	4	11.29	0.02
Invasive plant removal	4	2.89	0.57	4	32.81	<0.0001
Mowing	5	537.78	<0.0001	3	7.19	0.06
Seeding	2	1.94	0.37			

**Study description (Authors, year)**

**Restoration**

- Scrub Oak (Bried and Dillon 2012)
- Riparian forest (Williams 2011)
- Sand dunes (Exeler et al. 2009)
- Roadsides (Hopwood 2008)
- Tallgrass prairie (Petersen 1997)

**RE model for restoration subgroup**

**Burning**

- Recent burn vs. unburned pine forest (Potts et al. 2006)
- Historic burn vs. unburned pine forest (Potts et al. 2006)
- Fire frequency, Pine woodland (Potts et al. 2003)
- Fire frequency, Pine scrub (Moretti et al. 2009)
- Fire frequency, Chestnut forest (Moretti et al. 2009)
- Fire frequency, Oak forest (Grundel et al. 2010)
- Burned vs. unburned (Rubene et al., 2015)

**RE model for burning subgroup**

**Grazing**

- Sheep, June (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Cattle/sheep, June (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Sheep, July (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Cattle/sheep, July (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Sheep, August (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Cattle/sheep, August (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Low intensity vs. ungrazed (Sjodin et al. 2008)
- Low vs. high intensity (Sjodin et al. 2008)
- Cattle, late vs. continuous (Sjodin 2007)
- Cattle, low vs. conventional density (Batary et al. 2010)
- Cattle, intensity continuum (Soderstrom et al. 2001)
- Cattle, restricted vs. continuous (Woodcock et al., 2014)
- Cattle, grazed vs. ungrazed (Elwell et al., 2016)

**RE model for grazing subgroup**

**Invasive plant removal**

- Buckthorn (Fiedler et al. 2012)
- Chinese privet mulched (Hanula and Horn 2011)
- Chinese privet felled (Hanula and Horn 2011)
- Chinese privet mulched yr 2 (Hanula and Horn 2011)
- Chinese privet felled yr 2 (Hanula and Horn 2011)

**RE model for invasive plant removal subgroup**

**Mowing**

- Continuous vs. none (Russell et al. 2005)
- Once vs. none (Noordijk et al. 2009)
- Once, hay removed vs. none (Noordijk et al. 2009)
- Twice vs. none (Noordijk et al. 2009)
- Twice, hay removed vs. none (Noordijk et al. 2009)
- Once vs. twice (Woodcock et al., 2014)

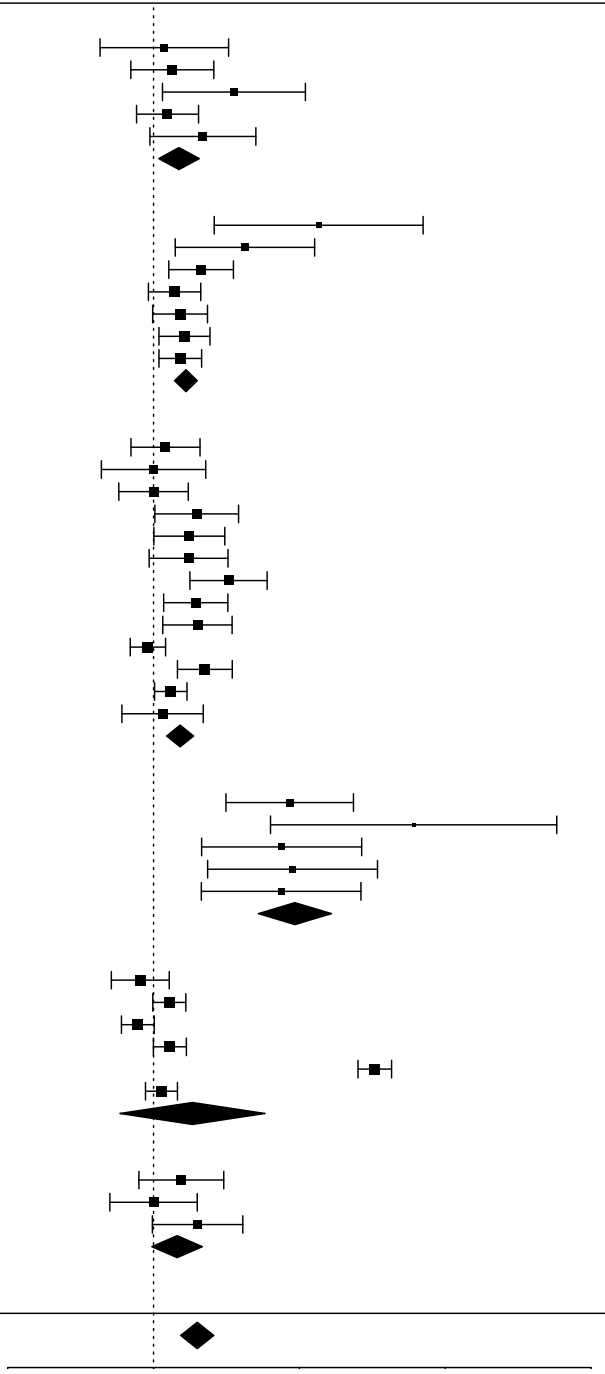
**RE model for mowing subgroup**

**Seeding**

- Bee/bird mix, June (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Bee/bird mix, July (Redpath et al. 2010)
- Bee/bird mix, August (Redpath et al. 2010)

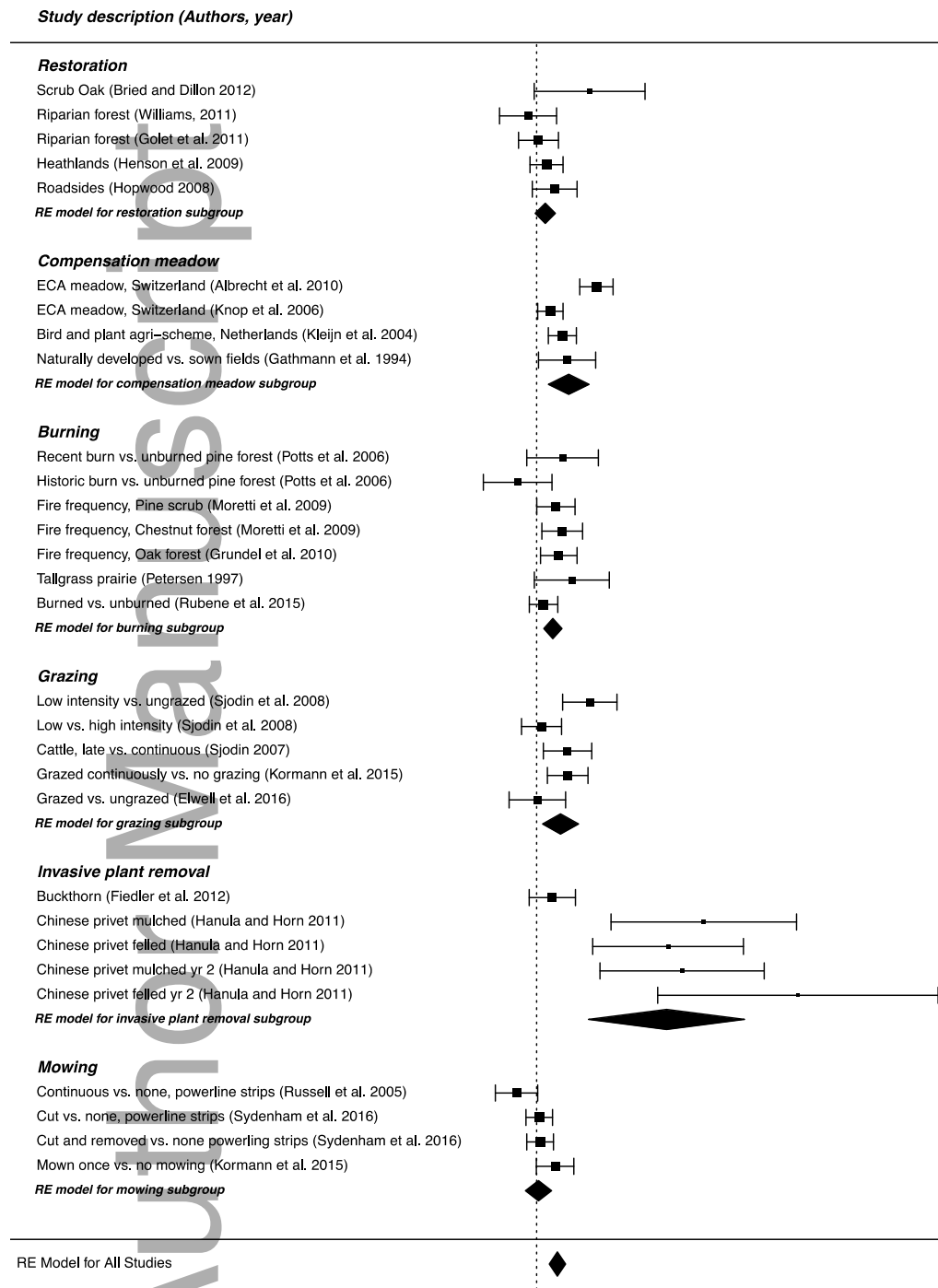
**RE model for seeding subgroup**

**RE Model for All Studies**



369  
 370 **Figure 1** The effects of habitat restoration on wild bee abundance. Forest plot showing effect  
 371 size (Hedge's *d*) and 95% C.I. calculated for each study. The diamond below each category  
 372 represents the mean effect size for all studies within the group based on a random effects model.  
 373 The random effects model encompassing all studies from all subgroups is reported at the bottom

374 of the forest plot. The dotted line represents an effect size of zero.



375  
 376 **Figure 2** The effects of habitat restoration on wild bee richness. Forest plot showing effect size  
 377 (Hedge's *d*) and 95% C.I. calculated for each study. The diamond below each category  
 378 represents the mean effect size for all studies within the group based on a random effects model.

379 The random effects model encompassing all studies from all subgroups is reported at the bottom  
380 of the forest plot. The dotted line represents an effect size of zero.

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