

1 Long-term Effects of Rewilding on Species Composition: 22-years of Raptor 2 Monitoring in the Chernobyl Exclusion Zone

3 Valery.C. Dombrovski ^{1,2}, Dzmitry V. Zhurauliou ¹, Adham Ashton-Butt ^{3,4}

4 1. National Academy of Sciences, Scientific and Practical Center for Bioresources, Minsk, Belarus

5 2. Polesie State Radiation-Ecological Reserve, Khojniki, Belarus

6 3. British Trust for Ornithology, The Nunnery, Thetford, UK

7 4. Department of Biological and Marine Sciences, University of Hull, UK

8
9 Corresponding authors:

10 Valery Dombrovski: valdombr8@gmail.com

11 Adham Ashton-Butt: a.ashtonbutt@gmail.com

12
13 VCD conceived and designed the research; VCD, DZ collected the data; AAB, VCD analysed the data
14 and wrote and edited the manuscript.

16 **Abstract**

17 Large-scale rewilding has been proposed as an effective method to combat the global biodiversity crisis,
18 although there is a lack of data to support this. Rewilding generally refers to a process that allows nature
19 to recover by reducing human interference, without the predefined end-goal that more traditional
20 restoration projects usually have. The Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (CEZ) is perhaps the most famous
21 example of passive rewilding (rewilding with little or no management), but until now, most research has
22 focussed on the impact of radiation on wildlife rather than rewilding. Here, we analyse species
23 composition change of raptors in the Belarusian CEZ over a twenty-two year period, starting twelve years
24 after the accident, alongside national raptor monitoring data. Generalist and farmland-associated
25 mesopredators, super-abundant at the beginning of our study, strongly declined, as open habitats (former
26 agricultural land) rewetted or became overgrown. Increase in waterlogged areas saw wetland specialists
27 increase in abundance, including two species locally extinct from the area before the accident: Greater
28 Spotted Eagle (Endangered in Europe) and White-tailed Eagle. Greater Spotted Eagles are an indicator of
29 wetland habitat quality, and whilst declining throughout Europe in recent decades, they have increased
30 from zero to at least thirteen pairs, over the whole Belarusian CEZ. Our research is evidence that
31 rewilding could be an effective way of restoring species and species interactions found in near-natural
32 habitats, and if human interferences in ecological processes are reduced, *a priori* restoration goals and
33 continued management are not always necessary to conserve threatened species.

34 **Running title:** Effects of Rewilding on Raptors

35 **Keywords**

36 Passive restoration, conservation, predators, birds, biodiversity, endangered species,

37 **Implications for practice**

38 Our work shows evidence that passive rewilding can return European lowland ecosystems to
39 near-natural states in both habitat and species composition.

40 We show that passive rewilding can support recovery of species of conservation concern.

41 Passive rewilding can drive a change from generalist to specialist species due to habitat change
42 and species interactions.

43 Monitoring over multiple decades of rewilding projects is needed in order to detect change at an
44 appropriate timescale.

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56 **Introduction**

57 Rewilding is a hotly discussed topic, with projects such as Knepp rewilding and Oostvardeplassen
58 bringing widespread publicity. Rewilding refers to a process that allows nature to recover in an area by
59 removing or reducing human interference, with the aim of increasing ecosystem functioning, biodiversity
60 and resilience against perturbations (Perino et al. 2019). This can differ from more traditional
61 conservation or restoration activities that involve managing or restoring an area to create a predefined
62 habitat or ecosystem. Rewilding projects generally operate on a scale from virtually no human
63 interference (passive rewilding) to constant management in order to promote natural processes. Cases of
64 passive rewilding are rare, however, and on large-scales practically non-existent, with most large projects
65 at least beginning with the goals and management inputs of a restoration project (Hayward et al. 2019).

66 Management can range from reintroducing locally extinct large herbivores or top-predators to provide
67 important ecosystem functions (e.g. Yellowstone national park (Dobson 2014)), or using domesticated
68 animals to provide similar functions such as grazing pressure (e.g. Knepp rewilding (Tree 2017)).

69 To evaluate the efficacy of rewilding as a biodiversity conservation tool, the impact on species
70 assemblages needs to be quantified, with interspecific comparisons necessary to predict impacts across
71 species with a diverse array of ecological niches (Jarzyna & Jetz 2017). Empirical studies on the effects
72 of rewilding are surprisingly scarce, however, (Svenning et al. 2016), and the literature is dominated by
73 reviews and opinions pieces, both positive and negative (Rubenstein & Rubenstein 2016; Nogués-Bravo
74 et al. 2016; Corlett 2016; Van Meerbeek et al. 2019; Fernández et al. 2017; Perino et al. 2019).

75 Avian predators can be excellent indicators of ecosystem health due to their position at the top of the food
76 chain and ecological specialisation, providing insights into the effects of habitat change (Burgas et al.
77 2014; Martín & Ferrer 2013). In this study, we analyse species composition change using a long-term
78 data set of breeding raptor abundances from the Belarusian Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (CEZ). Since the
79 reactor meltdown of Chernobyl nuclear power plant in 1986, human interference in Chernobyl and the
80 surrounding 4700 km² of landscape has been heavily reduced. Before 1986, the area was largely a
81 production landscape; housing large pig and cow farms, densely populated settlements and undergoing
82 intensive arable agriculture. Since 1986, ecological research has largely focused on the potential negative
83 effects of radiation on wildlife, within the affected area (Howard et al. 2010). Of this body of research,
84 findings have been largely mixed, with both negative and null effects of chronic radiation exposure found
85 (Beresford et al. 2019).

86 The nuclear meltdown and the subsequent annexing of the exclusion zone (CEZ) inadvertently led to a
87 huge rewilding project. The natural return of wolves (*Canis lupus lupus*) and elk (*Alces alces*), and the
88 reintroduction of Przewalski's (*Equus przewalskii*) and Bison (*Bison bonasus*) have has been well
89 documented in the media, but until now, there has been little attempt to quantify and explain the impact of
90 land-abandonment and reduction of human interference on the environment and wildlife, by the scientific
91 community. There is only one research paper, to our knowledge, (Deryabina et al. 2015) documenting the
92 impact on animal populations, finding large herbivore numbers and much higher wolf abundance than
93 other nature reserves in the region.

94 Here, we present long-term breeding raptor data from a 147 km² study plot within the Belarusian CEZ;
95 an area of former intensive agricultural land that has been abandoned for over thirty-three years (fig. 1).
96 Sampling began twelve years after the Chernobyl accident, and we quantify raptor species composition
97 and habitat change over the next twenty-two years. We relate these changes in raptor composition to sites
98 across a gradient of human interference in Belarus, from heavily transformed sites, with high agricultural
99 land cover to near-natural sites with high wetland cover. From these data we assess the impact of land-
100 abandonment on raptor community composition, whether rewilding can be a viable alternative to more
101 traditional restoration projects and the timescale such projects need to be monitored over.

102 **Methods**

103 *CEZ study plot*

104 We conducted our study in the 2162 km² Belarusian CEZ. Prior to the nuclear accident in 1986, the CEZ
105 was largely used for intensive agriculture, facilitated by the drainage of natural wetlands and deforestation
106 (Schlichting et al. 2019). Since 1986, the CEZ has been largely annexed to the public, resulting in much
107 reduced human interference (Schlichting et al. 2019). Immediately after the accident, all locks on the
108 drainage canals were closed and earthen dams were built where locks were insufficient to hold the water.
109 Canals have also become blocked due to lack of maintenance and from damming by beavers.
110 Management has also included planting of scots pine in some areas for commercial forestry and to
111 sequester radiation. The near absence of human interference and management, combined with the
112 blocking of drainage canals has resulted in large areas of natural succession of habitats, recolonisation by
113 previously extinct species and rewetting of the area, facilitated by natural and human damming of rivers
114 and canals (to reduce the spread of radiation) (Deryabina et al. 2015; Schlichting et al. 2019).

115 Our study plot was an area of 147 km² in the North-East of the Belarusian CEZ (fig. 1). It is situated on
116 the edge of the CEZ, bordered by intensive arable farmland. In 2008 the density of contamination of the
117 territory with caesium¹³⁷ was 10.8 to 54.0 Ci / km² and strontium 0.15 to 2.03 Ci / km². The impact of
118 radiation was not taken into account in this study as it has not been shown to have an effect on animal
119 populations (Lyons et al. 2020; Deryabina et al. 2015).

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121 *Raptor surveys in the CEZ*

122 Surveys of breeding raptors were carried out between 1998 and 2019. The entire 147 km² plot was
123 surveyed in 1998, 2016 and 2019 from a network of fourteen elevated observation points, 2-3 km apart,
124 with binoculars and a telescope (20-60x) (Dombrovski & Ivanovski 2005a). A reduced area of the main
125 plot was surveyed in 2004 (120km²/ seven points), 2007 (120km²/ seven points), 2010 (95km²/ seven
126 points) and 2013 (120km²/ nine points). Number of points do not equate equitably to area surveyed, as
127 some observation points were on the edge of the study plot.

128 Points were located so that each sector of the plot was viewable from different sides and locations of
129 breeding raptors were marked on a map after verifying from more than one tower. Duration of each
130 observation at each point was at least 4 hours, with one point observed in one day, by one observer.
131 Timing of observation was from 10:00 am to 3:00 pm, i.e. the time of main summer activity of birds-of-
132 prey. On cloudy and rainy days counts would either be cancelled for the whole day, or would only start
133 from the moment when permanent fine weather has re-established. The following parameters were
134 recorded for each raptor sampled:

- 135 1) Species (all individuals were identified to species) and sex of bird (only possible for species with
136 dimorphic plumage).
 - 137 2) Distance to the observed bird, visually determined.
 - 138 3) The azimuth at which the bird was observed, with the help of a compass with a scale division of 1–2
139 degrees,
 - 140 4) Any features of bird behaviour e.g. Displaying behaviour, nest building, prey delivery.
 - 141 5) All distinctive features of birds under observation were recorded (peculiar plumage, colour, absence of
142 flight feathers and tail feathers) for their individual identification.
- 143 Birds were considered breeding or occupying a breeding territory if elements of nesting behaviour were
144 observed (aerial display, aggressiveness towards larger species, bringing nest material or prey). This was
145 largely determined by male behaviour, as females spend more time sitting on the nest incubating eggs or
146 brooding chicks.

147 In many cases, the nest was found to increase accuracy of the breeding location, although this was not
148 always possible. The search for nests was carried out primarily for the most numerous species in cases
149 where the supposed nesting sites were very close to each other, to make sure that they were different
150 pairs. For example, in 1998, half of inhabited nests of buzzards and common kestrel were found and two
151 nests of a lesser spotted eagle. Since 2004, the buzzard population significantly decreased, and the search
152 their nests to clarify their nesting density was carried out to a lesser extent.

153 We also searched nests of all *Clanga clanga* and *Clanga pomarina* to confirm their identification, as this
154 can be difficult in the field, particularly those of mixed pairs. All individuals were subsequently identified
155 to species. During 2019 we used camera traps on the nests for the same purposes. Borders of the
156 presumed nesting ranges were mapped to prevent double counting of breeding birds, if the nest was not
157 found. The land cover type around the nest was described e.g. forest or wetland type and these data were
158 used for future land cover change analysis.

159 In 1998, 2016 and 2019 observations at each point were carried out twice: in mid-April to May and in
160 June to July. The maximum number of breeding pairs observed was used for the analysis. In 2004, 2007
161 and 2013 single counts were carried out in June. By using the above methods we endeavoured to sample
162 every breeding pair. However, non-soaring, forest dwelling species, such as Eurasian Sparrowhawk
163 (*Accipiter nisus*), may have been undersampled.

164 *Land cover change in the CEZ*

165 Land cover change was estimated within and directly surrounding the study plot using the “remap” tool
166 (Murray et al. 2018). Remap allows analysis of land cover type from cloud free composite images
167 between 1999-2003 and 2014-2017. To map land cover change we first split land cover into four classes:
168 forest, wetland, dry open and open sandy areas. We then used 855 (1999-2003) and 1145 (2014-2017)
169 georeferenced training points (with a minimum of 55 training points of each class) identified from a
170 mixture of aerial images and ground-truthing to identify the land cover classes. Ground-truthed points
171 were gathered from extensive field notes collected by the first author (VD), whilst conducting field
172 surveys, between 1999-2003 and 2014-2017 respectively. Each training point then samples a range of
173 satellite datasets (predictors) from LANDSAT and USGS to train a random forest classifier. Once the

174 random forest is trained, remap classifies all of the pixels present in a focal region into the map classes
175 defined by the training set (Murray et al. 2018).

176 *National raptor data*

177 We used raptor abundance data from fourteen plots in Belarus to put species composition in the CEZ in a
178 national context. Detailed methods can be found in Dombrovski & Ivanovski, (2005a). Briefly, surveys
179 were conducted between 1999 and 2002, using similar methods to the CEZ study plot, with counts
180 conducted from elevated points, with telescope and binoculars, twice during the breeding season. Data
181 from twenty-five study plots were available, but so as to compare sampling plots with similar overall
182 area, we discounted eleven plots from the analysis that were below 50 km² or above 200 km². Land
183 cover composition of these study plots was collected by combining topographic and forestry inventory
184 maps, satellite images and ground-truthing when visiting study sites. Initially, land-use types were
185 divided into 14 types (Dombrovski & Ivanovski 2005b), here for the purposes of simpler data
186 presentation, we combined them into five different land-use types particularly relevant to the species in
187 our study: dry forest (coniferous and deciduous non-flooded forest), wet forest (flooded deciduous forest),
188 wetlands (mire, bog and floodplain meadows), agricultural and fellings.

189 Three species were removed from the analysis as they only appeared once in the data set (*Milvus milvus*,
190 *Milvus migrans*, *Pandion haliaetus*) and one species as it only appears in the Northern part of Belarus,
191 *Falco columbarius*.

192 *Statistical analysis*

193 We modelled change in raptor community composition from 1998-2019 by using a multivariate
194 generalized linear latent variable model (gllvm) with the R package “gllvm” (Niku et al. 2019).
195 Multivariate abundance data often has a strong mean–variance relationship, which if not accounted for,
196 can introduce artefacts into the analysis (Wang et al. 2012). Generalized linear latent variable models
197 allow similar model visualisations to traditional ordinal techniques such as NMDS, but have advantages,
198 as they specify a statistical model for the data intended to capture key data properties, including the mean-
199 variance relationship. Furthermore, diagnostic tools can be used to check model fit and model selection is
200 possible through AIC (Niku et al. 2019).

201 To examine how raptor species composition changed in the CEZ over time, we modelled abundance of
202 breeding pairs for each species for each site (year of data collection), with time as an explanatory variable
203 (*abundance ~ time*). The model was fitted with a negative binomial distribution with two latent variables,
204 (the latent variables can be interpreted as a way of accounting for any residual covariation not explained
205 by the covariates [Mehner et al. 2021]) and an offset ($\log(\textit{area})$) to account for the different area of the
206 study plot sampled between years.

207 We used a pure latent gllvm (no environmental variables) with three latent variables to compare raptor
208 species composition in the CEZ to nineteen other sites situated throughout Belarus and show species
209 associations with sites. We used gllvm as a model-based approach to unconstrained ordination by
210 including latent variables in the model but no predictors (Hui et al. 2015; Walker & Jackson 2011). The
211 latent variables are unknown and therefore assumed to be random, drawn from a bivariate, standard
212 normal distribution and estimated simultaneously with the coefficients and row effects (Hui et al. 2015).
213 Latent variables “can be thought of unmeasured environmental variables, or as ordination scores,
214 capturing the main axes of covariation of abundance (after controlling for observed predictors)” (Niku et
215 al. 2019). The corresponding ordination plot then provides a graphical representation of which sites are
216 similar in terms of their species composition.

217 We modelled abundance of breeding pairs for each species for each site (each year of CEZ monitoring +
218 national raptor monitoring sites). The site associated latent variable scores (row effect) then allow
219 comparison of site similarity which was interpreted visually in an ordination plot. Individual species also
220 get associated latent scores allowing for species association with specific sites, or groups of sites (Niku et
221 al. 2019). We did not include land cover as an explanatory variable in our model as data collection
222 methods were not comparable between the CEZ study plot and the other sites. We did, however, present
223 land cover for national raptor monitoring site visually, in the ordination plot (fig. 5). Model selection for
224 all gllvms was done by comparing AICc values with additional latent variables and model distributions
225 using the “*anova*” function. Model fit was assessed by Dunn-Smyth residuals and a quantile–quantile plot
226 with simulated point-wise 95% confidence interval envelopes (fig. S1 and fig. S2.).

227 To quantify positive and negative associations between raptor species in the CEZ study plot and national
228 monitoring sites, we used factor loadings from the residual covariance matrix induced by the latent

229 variables using the “*getResidualCor*” function. Latent variables induce correlation across response
230 variables, and so provide a means of estimating correlation patterns across species, and the extent to
231 which they can be explained by environmental variables. Information on correlation is stored in the factor
232 loadings θ_j , so the residual covariance matrix, storing information on species co-occurrence that is not
233 explained by environmental variables, can be calculated as $\Sigma = \Gamma\Gamma'$, where $\Gamma = [\theta_1 \dots \theta_m]'$. The
234 *getResidualCor* function can be used to estimate the correlation matrix of the linear predictor across
235 species, which was visualised using the *corrplot* package.

236 **Results**

237 **Raptor composition in the CEZ from 1998-2019**

238 During the twenty- two year study period, we recorded thirteen species of breeding diurnal raptors in our
239 147 km² study plot in the CEZ.

240 Species composition changed during our study period with some species declining and others increasing.
241 Montagu’s Harrier (*Circus pygargus*), Lesser Spotted Eagle (*C. pomarina*), European Honey Buzzard
242 (*Pernis apivorus*) and Common Buzzard (*Buteo buteo*), species associated with dry forest and open
243 habitats, all declined during our monitoring period (fig. 2). Numbers of pairs of Honey Buzzard, Common
244 Buzzard and Eurasian Sparrowhawk declined dramatically from 1998-2004 from levels above the
245 national mean, but then stabilised to near the national mean in later years of the study. Lesser Spotted
246 Eagles experienced a continued decline from thirteen pairs in 1998 to just four in 2019 (Table SI1) and
247 Short-toed Snake Eagle (*Circaetus gallicus*) also declined from three to one remaining pair in 2019.
248 Breeding pairs of Northern Goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*) also declined after the first sampling year, but
249 numbers stabilised throughout the next eighteen years, although below the national mean.

250 Four species showed increases in number of breeding pairs during our study period: Greater Spotted
251 Eagle (*C. clanga*), White-tailed Eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*), Marsh Harrier (*Circus aeruginosus*) and
252 Eurasian Hobby (*Falco subbuteo*). Greater Spotted Eagle (*C. clanga*), White-tailed Eagle (*Haliaeetus*
253 *albicilla*), and Eurasian Hobby (*Falco subbuteo*) were found at higher densities in the CEZ study plot
254 than the national mean. Greater Spotted Eagle was possibly the most noticeable increase, from zero pairs
255 breeding in 1998 to four pairs in 2019. Until 2000, Greater Spotted Eagle had been locally extinct in the

256 CEZ. Mixed pairs of Greater Spotted Eagle and Lesser Spotted Eagle also showed an increase throughout
257 our study period, from zero in 1998 to two in 2019, reflecting the increase in Greater Spotted Eagles.

258 Common Kestrel (*Falco tinnunculus*) abundance fluctuated within the CEZ, but remained considerably
259 higher than the national mean.

260 The most numerous species in 2019 was still Common Buzzard and European Honey Buzzard, while the
261 Lesser Spotted Eagle has been replaced by the Marsh Harrier and Eurasian Hobby.

262 From the coefficients of our gllvm, five species showed significant declines (95% CIs that did not cross
263 zero): Montagu's Harrier, Lesser Spotted Eagle, European Honey Buzzard, Eurasian Sparrowhawk and
264 Short-toed Snake Eagle. Greater Spotted Eagle and mixed pairs of Greater Spotted Eagle and Lesser
265 Spotted Eagles showed significant increases in abundance. Other declining or increasing species (e.g.
266 Marsh Harrier [increasing] and Common Kestrel [decreasing]) show near-significant changes in breeding
267 pair abundance during our study period, with 95% CIs slightly overlapping zero. Large CIs are likely
268 caused by the small sample sizes of each species and natural fluctuations in population, such as the
269 relatively low abundance seen in the majority of species in 2013 (fig. 3). The spring of 2013 was
270 unusually dry and the summer unusually wet, likely leading to unfavourable breeding conditions. Pairs
271 may have failed to breed or abandoned breeding altogether that year.

272 *Land cover change*

273 Between 1999 and 2017, in our study plot and the surrounding area, wetland area increased by 680 % and
274 forest by 14% (Table 1. and fig. 4). Open field decreased by 45 % and sand by 31 %. Our models of land
275 cover showed an 86.5 % accuracy rate for the period 2014-2017 and 93.3 % accuracy rating for 1998-
276 2001.

277

278 *Raptor community change in the CEZ in a national context*

279 From 1998 to 2019, raptor species composition in the CEZ study plot became more similar to sites
280 throughout Belarus associated with wetland species (fig. 5). From the two primary latent variables, there
281 was clustering of sites with high wetland cover, which were separated from sites with high agricultural
282 and dry forest cover. The raptor species association with the latent variables was separated broadly into

283 two groups comprising of wetland and bog associated species: Greater Spotted Eagle, White-tailed Eagle,
284 Marsh Harrier, Short-toed Snake Eagle and Hen Harrier and forest associated and farmland species,
285 Lesser Spotted Eagle, Common Buzzard, Honey Buzzard and Eurasian Sparrowhawk, Northern Goshawk
286 and Eurasian hobby, Montagu's harrier and Common Kestrel. This reflects the change in species
287 composition seen in the CEZ during the study period with forest and farmland associated species more
288 common in 1998 and wetland species increasing in latter years. All study sites were large, $> 90\text{km}^2$, and
289 often contained multiple land-use types, which may have reduced the separation on the axes for certain
290 species, particularly agricultural and dry-forest associated species (e.g. Montagu's Harrier and Northern
291 Goshawk).

292 Similar relationships were also seen in the correlation analysis, with the wetland and bog associated
293 species (Greater Spotted Eagle, White-tailed Eagle, Marsh Harrier, Short-toed Snake Eagle and Hen
294 Harrier) positively associated with each other and negatively associated with the dry, open country
295 species (Montagu's harrier, and Common Kestrel) (fig. 6).

296 Figure 5. Correlation plot of raptor species in the CEZ study plot across all years and raptor survey sites
297 across Belarus. Red squares signify the intensity of a negative correlation and blue squares positive.

298 **Discussion**

299 Rewilding, or passive restoration, is becoming an increasingly employed method to deal with the global
300 biodiversity and climate change crisis. However, long-term data on the impact of rewilding on faunal
301 communities are scarce or non-existent (Svenning et al. 2016). Our data-set offers a rare exception,
302 allowing us to quantify the effects of over thirty years of land-abandonment of an intensively farmed area,
303 on raptor species composition. There were "winners" and "losers" in breeding raptors over the study
304 period, while some species fluctuated after land-abandonment. Broadly, top-predators and wetland
305 specialists, such as the Endangered Greater Spotted Eagle, increased in abundance, coinciding with an
306 increase in wetland area as former fields became flooded due to the collapse of drainage canals.
307 Generalist mesopredators and farmland specialists, such as the Common Buzzard, and Montagu's Harrier,
308 at super-abundant levels at the beginning of our study (twelve years after the Chernobyl disaster),
309 suffered sharp declines which levelled off after a number of years. Drier forest species, such as the Lesser
310 Spotted Eagle showed continuous declines, which alongside the increase in abundance of Greater Spotted

311 Eagle shows the opposite relationship to the national trend. Over time, the raptor composition in the CEZ
312 became more similar to other sites in Belarus with high wetland composition and natural habitat cover
313 (mires and raised bogs) and less similar to habitats with high agricultural and dry-forest cover. The
314 increase in abundance of specialist raptors in the CEZ at the expense of generalists, indicate the reversal
315 of environmental degradation, in which generalists usually increase in abundance at the expense of habitat
316 specialists (Devictor et al. 2008; Julliard et al. 2006). Overall, our study shows that rewilded areas have
317 the potential to offer important refugia for species of conservation concern and return assemblages and
318 habitats to those seen in native, near-natural landscapes.

319 *Land cover and species composition change*

320 Since 1986, with the reduction of human habitat management the study area underwent considerable land
321 cover change. Between 1999 and 2017, wetland and bogs substantially increased in area (680%) as open
322 fields rewetted (leading to their corresponding decrease in area). Forest also increased by 14 %. Although
323 we do not have land cover data from before 1999, a previous study shows that between abandonment in
324 1986 and 1999 forest cover and wetland area increased (Bulavik et al. 2013). Rewetting was facilitated by
325 the silting up and collapse of drainage canals, blocking of waterways by beavers, and the blocking of
326 canals by humans to prevent the travel of radiation immediately after the Chernobyl accident, and to
327 increase the resistance to fires (Bulavik et al. 2013). In 2019 the habitat more closely resembled near-
328 natural areas in Northern Ukraine and Southern Belarus that undergo seasonal flooding events and
329 contain Europe's largest expanse of peatland bogs.

330 Overall, species composition changed from raptor communities more associated with agricultural or dry
331 forest to those found in near-natural wetlands in the region. This saw species such as Montagu's Harrier
332 and Lesser Spotted Eagle replaced by Marsh Harrier and Greater Spotted Eagle. The colonisation of
333 Greater Spotted Eagle and its continued increase in abundance is one of the most remarkable findings of
334 our study. In 2019, there were four breeding pairs in the study plot and at least thirteen pairs present
335 within the Belarusian exclusion zone (*own unpublished data*). This is contrary to national and global
336 trends (Väli et al. 2010; Väli 2015), and to our knowledge, is the only recorded increase throughout the
337 Greater Spotted Eagle distribution in recent history. Greater Spotted Eagles are classed as globally
338 Vulnerable with less than 4500 pairs (Ferguson-Lees & Christie 2001) and Endangered in Europe, with

339 between 770 and 1040 pairs remaining (BirdLife International 2017). The species has become extinct in
340 Western Europe, and has tiny remnant populations in Poland, Estonia, Ukraine and Lithuania. Belarus,
341 however, is relative stronghold with an estimated 120-160 pairs, although Greater Spotted Eagle numbers
342 have declined considerably in the last twenty years (Dombrovski 2013). Greater Spotted Eagles are
343 considered an indicator of wetland quality, and their decline has largely been attributed to the reduction
344 and degradation of wetland habitats and disturbance from people (Dombrovski & Ivanovski 2005b).
345 Another major threat is hybridisation with Lesser Spotted Eagles (Väli et al. 2010) which occupy drier
346 habitats (Cramp et al. 1992). Lesser Spotted Eagle range has extended into Eastern Europe, coinciding
347 with drainage of wetlands for agriculture and forestry (Väli et al. 2010).

348 White-tailed Eagle, another raptor sensitive to anthropogenic disturbance (Helander & Stjernberg 2003),
349 also increased from one to two breeding pairs in our study plot. White-tailed Eagles were not breeding in
350 the CEZ prior to the accident and were first reported in 1992 (A. Tishechkin, *personal communication*),
351 increasing to at least twenty pairs in 2010 (Yurko 2016). Unlike Greater Spotted Eagle, this species is
352 resident, needing a regular supply of large prey throughout the winter months. The increase in abundance
353 of wolves and their prey species (e.g. Elk, Red Deer) in the CEZ (Deryabina et al. 2015) may provide
354 White-tailed Eagles with carrion during winter (Schlichting et al. 2019) allowing them to survive
355 throughout this period.

356

357 Greater Spotted Eagle and White-tailed Eagle can be seen as umbrella species for the wider conservation
358 success of the CEZ. They rely on high abundances of other species of conservation importance, such as
359 Great Snipe (*Gallinago media*), Corncrake (*Crex crex*) and an array of wader and waterfowl species that
360 are indicators of wetland and forest quality (Sulkava, Tornberg, and Koivusaari 1997; Dombrovski 2010).
361 Although changes in abundance in these species were relatively subtle in our study plot, the species'
362 colonisation and change in breeding abundance in the wider CEZ indicates a "true" relationship.

363 ***Decline of farmland-associated raptors and mesopredators***

364 The largest declining species in the period 1998–2019, were three widespread, myophagous species that
365 prefer non-waterlogged and open or dry forest habitats for hunting (Montagu's Harrier, Lesser Spotted

366 Eagle and Honey Buzzard) (Cramp & Simmons, 1980). Common Buzzard abundance also decreased by
367 more than 60% between 1998 and 2013, but saw increases in later years and which led to confidence
368 intervals crossing zero in our statistical analysis over the whole study period. The decrease in abundance
369 of these species occurred with a progressive reduction of open dry areas; previously agricultural fields. At
370 the beginning of our research in 1998, the breeding densities of these species in the reserve were much
371 higher than the average for the region, or Belarus as a whole (Dombrovski & Ivanovski 2005a).
372 Unfortunately, we do not have data from the first twelve years after the accident, however, it is unlikely
373 that such high abundances were present before the accident, since the region had a high density of human
374 population and was intensively managed for agriculture and commercial forestry. Raptor mesopredator
375 abundance may have rapidly increased in the first decade after the Chernobyl accident due to the
376 preservation of favourable feeding conditions alongside the reduction in anthropogenic pressure
377 (Nikiforov et al. 1995). In the absence of humans and large raptors, nest sites were likely not limited, and
378 from 1993-1998 we found numerous Common Buzzard nests in clearly visible places - on narrow forest
379 belts, along roads and on single trees. In later years, only pairs that nested in the forest were observed.

380 The reduction in preferred hunting grounds and mesopredator suppression by White-tailed Eagle and
381 Greater Spotted Eagle may have contributed to the decline of these species (Jiménez et al. 2019; V V
382 Yurko 2016; Kamarauskaitė et al. 2020). Short-toed Snake Eagle, a specialist predator of reptiles, also fell
383 from three to one pairs, possibly due to competition with other increasing top predators. A White-tailed
384 eagle was observed in the Ukrainian CEZ by camera-trap, predating a Short-toed Snake Eagle nest in
385 2020 (Simon, *personal communication* 2020) and Short-toed Snake Eagle remains have been found in
386 Greater Spotted Eagle nests in Belarus (Dombrovski, *unpublished data*).

387 We did not analyse fine-scale distributions of breeding raptors between years, due to small sample sizes,
388 but we observed that the greatest changes in breeding densities of common raptors occurred in the centre
389 or edge of plot furthest away from human habitation. Prior to the rewetting and overgrowth of former
390 fields in our study plot, breeding density of Common and Honey Buzzard was high towards the middle of
391 the CEZ. These areas showed the largest decrease in breeding density of these species in latter years,
392 when overall breeding density decreased. Large, rarer species such as Greater spotted, White-tailed and
393 Short-toed Snake Eagles did not display a similar pattern, and the appearance of new pairs occurred both

394 on the periphery and inside the reserve, possibly explained by the comparatively large home ranges of
395 these species.

396 ***Rewilding of the CEZ in a broader context***

397 We show that rewilding has the potential to reverse the effects of anthropogenic land-use change without
398 continued habitat management. Thirty three years after abandonment and aided by the initial blocking of
399 drainage canals to prevent spread of radiation, the CEZ has undergone major land cover change. This is
400 likely the main driver for the change in raptor community composition in the CEZ, particularly rewetting,
401 shown by the increase in abundance of wetland specialists. An increase in the complexity of species
402 interactions is also likely to have been important. For example, increase in White-tailed Eagle abundance
403 may have been enabled through provisioning of carrion during lean winter months by wolves (Schlichting
404 et al. 2019), and top-down control of mesopredators by other raptors likely impacted their abundance
405 (Alston et al. 2019). Reduced human pressure, such as raptor persecution, road collision and physical
406 disturbance may have also contributed to changes in raptor abundance (McClure et al. 2018), although it
407 is difficult to ascertain how this affected species differently, species particularly sensitive to nest
408 disturbance, such as Greater Spotted Eagles, may have more greatly benefited than less sensitive species.
409 Our research is evidence that rewilding could be an effective way of restoring species and species
410 interactions found in near-natural habitats, and if human interferences in ecological processes are reduced,
411 *a priori* restoration goals and continued management are not always necessary to conserve threatened
412 species. Priority conservation species, such as Greater Spotted Eagles, showed considerable recovery,
413 going against declining national and continental trends. To the best of our knowledge, this is the only
414 documented conservation success for this species throughout its range. This coincides with increase in
415 mammalian top-predators, such as a bear or lynx, which have colonised the CEZ since the accident
416 (Shkvyrina & Vishnevskiy 2012). Our study plot was situated on the edge of the CEZ, bordered by
417 intensive arable farmland. This indicates that rewilding projects within heavily managed landscapes can
418 be an effective restoration tool.

419 Finally, we stress the importance of long-term monitoring to evaluate results of rewilding projects.

420 Several species took nearly twenty years to stabilise in breeding abundance, and some species (Lesser

421 Spotted Eagle, Greater Spotted Eagle) show continued changes. Focal species for conservation may also
422 take time to respond; Greater Spotted Eagle, one of the key indicators for the conservation success of the
423 CEZ, only began to colonise the area sixteen years after abandonment. Depending on the initial state of a
424 rewilding project, it is likely that several decades will be needed to sufficiently assess changes in
425 biodiversity, continued research in the CEZ, and in other long-term rewilding projects, globally is needed
426 to effectively quantify the impacts of rewilding on biodiversity (Poorter et al. 2021).

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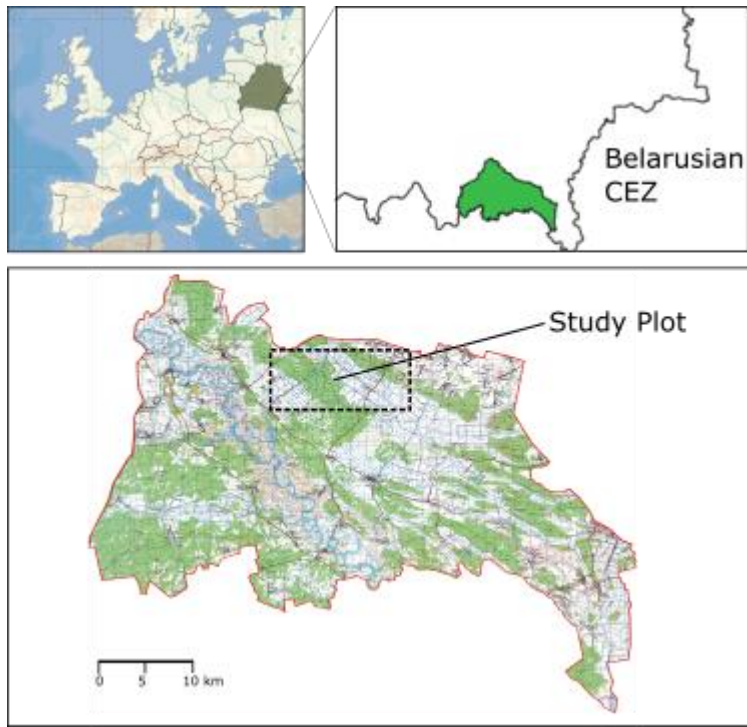
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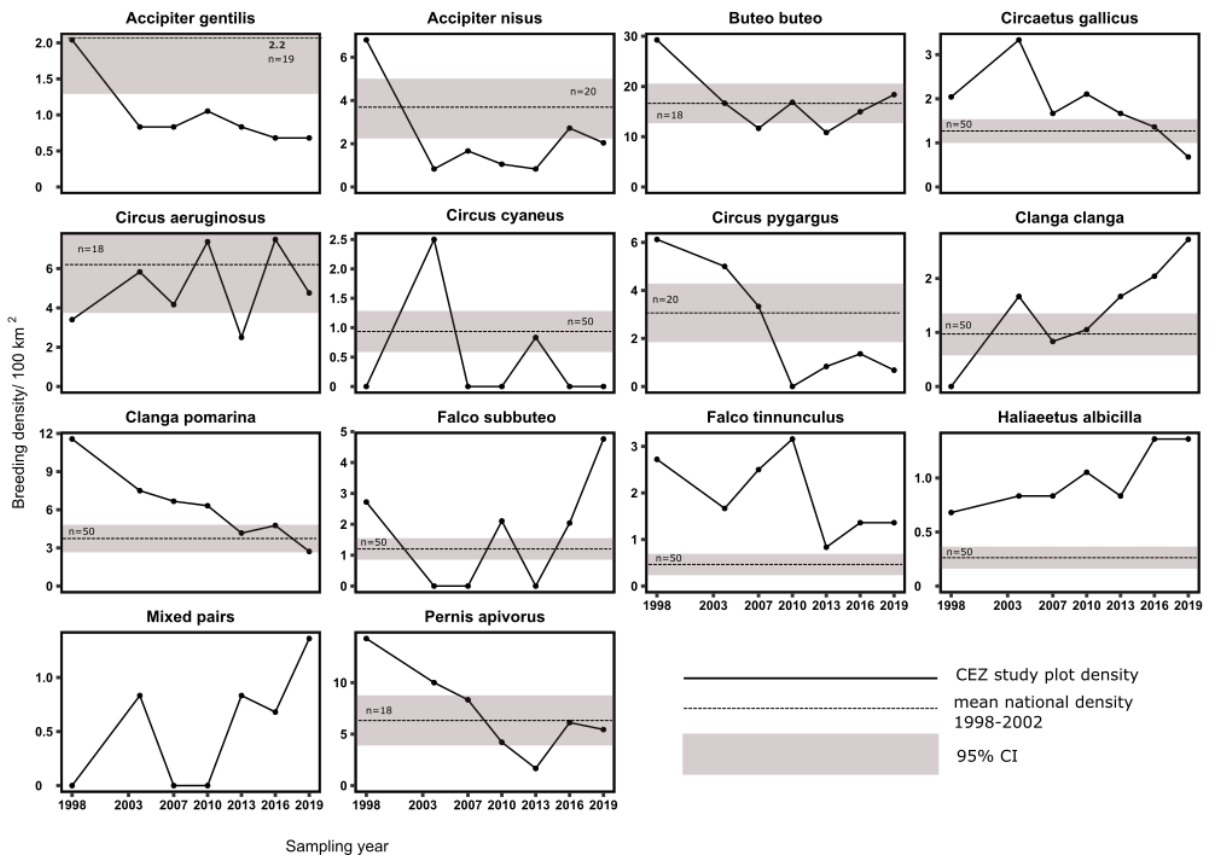
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546 Figure 1. Location of study plot in the Belarusian Chernobyl Exclusion Zone.

547 Table 1. Land cover of the 147 km² and the surrounding area from remote-sensed data

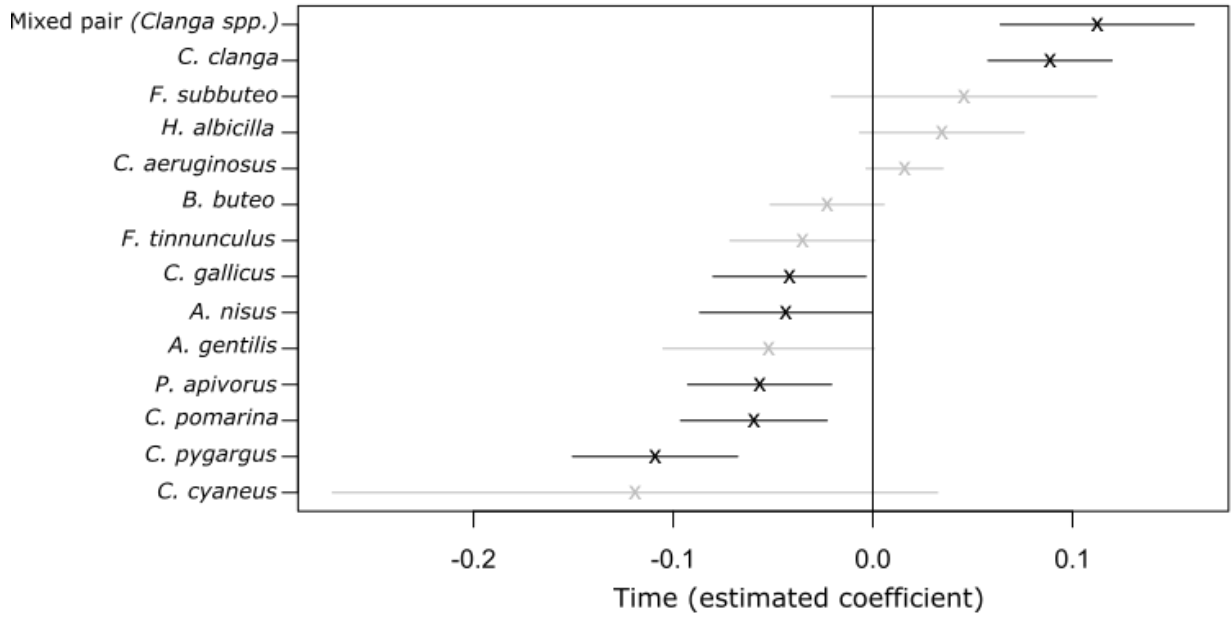
Land cover	1999-2003 (km ²)	2014-2017(km ²)
Open field	158	86.5
Forest	104	118.6
Wetland	10	68.8
Sand	3.2	2.2

548



549

550 Figure 2. Density of breeding raptors / 100 km² plotted against sampling year. The dashed lines represent
 551 the mean density of the species, with 95 % CIs (grey bars) from national raptor monitoring sites over 60
 552 km² from Dombrovski and Ivanovski, 2005a. Mean density of *A. gentilis* is presented numerically for
 553 clarity, and for *A. gentilis* and *C. aeruginosus* the upper confidence intervals are not entirely included.
 554 Sample sizes for means and CIs from Dombrovski and Ivanovski, 2005a differ between species as species
 555 considered as common were not recorded for many sites. Mixed pairs refer to *C. clanga* x *C. pomarina*.
 556 Mean density for national monitoring plots was not presented for mixed pairs as they were not recorded in
 557 Dombrovski and Ivanovski, 2005.



558

559 Figure 3. Coefficient plot from the gllvm, with change in raptor breeding pair abundance over the study
 560 period with time as an explanatory variable. The unit of change covariate equates to a multiplicative
 561 change of the species specific predicted mean. Error bars are 95% CIs. Plots in bold are those where the
 562 CIs do not cross zero.

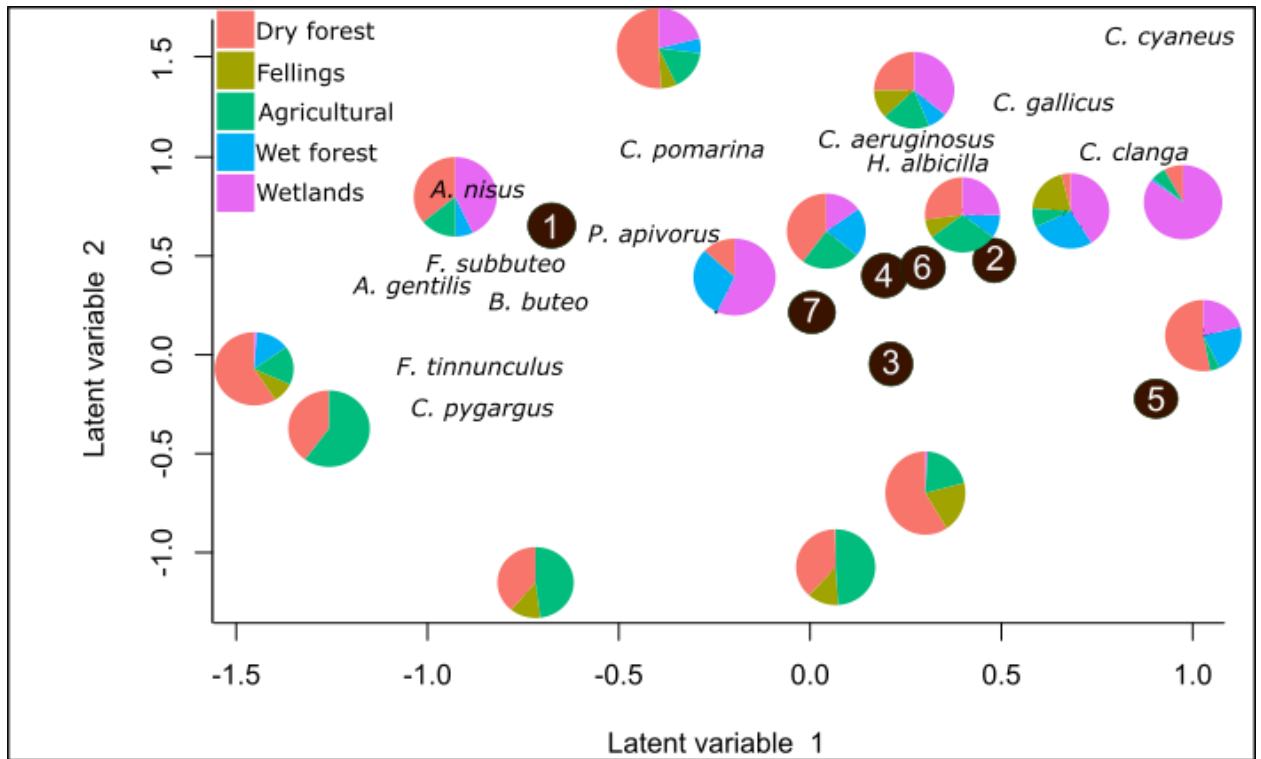
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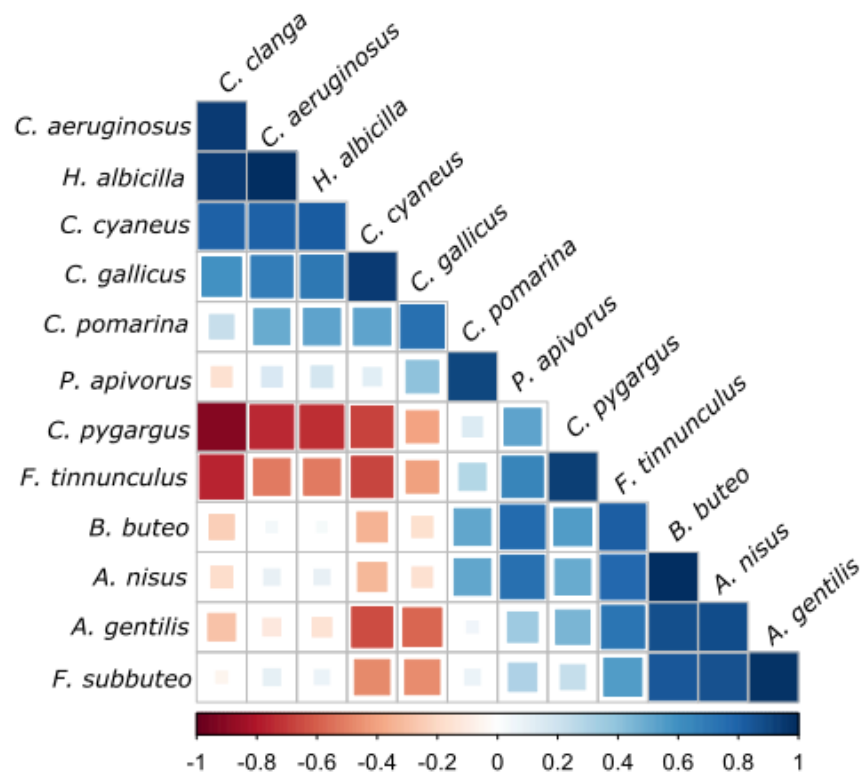


565

566 Figure 4. Photos of wetland (a) and open field (b) habitats in the CEZ study plot. Evidence of White-
 567 tailed Eagle feeding on an Elk carcass killed by wolves (c) and a Greater Spotted Eagle chick in the nest
 568 (d) from the study plot.



569
 570 Figure 5. Ordination plot of the latent variables of sites, showing raptor composition from each sampling
 571 year from 1998-2019 (shown by the black circles: 1=1998, 7=2019) compared to other raptor monitoring
 572 sites in Belarus, represented as pie charts with segments representing percentage habitat composition.
 573 Species specific latent variables are also spotted so site association with specific species can be compared.



574

575 Figure 6. Correlation plot of raptor species in the CEZ study plot across all years and raptor survey sites
 576 across Belarus. Red squares signify the intensity of a negative correlation and blue squares positive.

577

578