

# Plant and spider communities benefit differently from the presence of planted hedgerows in highway verges

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## PLANT AND SPIDER COMMUNITIES BENEFIT DIFFERENTLY FROM THE PRESENCE OF PLANTED HEDGEROWS IN HIGHWAY VERGES.

22 Abstract: Road verges should play a crucial role as a refuge for native flora and fauna 23 in human dominated landscapes. However, the influence of construction choices, such 24 as plantation of woody species, on the biodiversity supported by roadsides has received 25 little attention, although the presence of hedgerows in roadsides is likely to enhance 26 their role as a refuge, notably for woodland species. Using standardised methods, we 27 assessed the impact of planted hedgerows on two taxonomic groups (plants and spiders) 28 inhabiting highway verges within an intensive agricultural landscape. We examined 29 community richness, taxonomic and functional composition in sites with and without 30 planted hedgerows. At the site level, the response of plant and spider communities to 31 the presence of planted hedgerows differed markedly: hedgerows were associated with 32 significantly higher plant richness (higher  $\alpha$ -diversity), but similar spider richness. Plant 33 communities in sites without hedgerows appeared as a subset of communities in sites 34 with hedgerows, whereas spider communities in non-planted sites were complementary 35 to that of planted sites (increased  $\beta$ -diversity). The presence of planted hedgerows was 36 also associated with increased taxonomic and functional trait diversity at the landscape 37 level ( $\gamma$ -diversity), through an increased  $\beta$ -diversity in both plants and spiders. Our 38 results thus suggest that a mosaic of planted hedgerows and grassland habitats is crucial 39 for the maintenance of biodiversity at a landscape scale. By providing information for 40 road practitioners and policy makers regarding their potential impact on biodiversity, 41 these results have important direct implications for the management of road networks.

42 Key words: α and β-diversity, Biodiversity, Functional traits, Roadside management,
43 Revegetation, RLQ analysis.

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### 45 **1.** Introduction

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47 Road networks, which have expanded over large areas with human population growth 48 (Watts et al., 2007), are known to influence landscape structure and have major negative 49 impacts on ecosystems dynamics (Trombulak and Frissel, 2000). However, the potential 50 biological value of road verges has also long been recognised (Way, 1977) with 51 possible contribution to the conservation of indigenous flora (Spooner et al., 2004; 52 O'Farrell and Milton, 2006) and fauna (Meunier et al., 2000; Ries et al., 2001). This 53 role as a refuge depends on the surrounding landscape: in natural habitats, generally 54 supporting a high species diversity, road verges may not serve as a refuge (O'Farrell 55 and Milton, 2006) and even have negative effects, notably by promoting invasion by 56 non-indigenous species (Hansen and Clevenger, 2005; Brown, 2006). In contrast, in 57 human dominated areas such as intensive agricultural landscapes, where non-58 agricultural habitats (e.g. edges) are critical to the conservation of biological diversity 59 and ecological processes (Burel, 1996), road verges should play a crucial role as a 60 refuge and as ecological corridors (Tikka et al., 2001; Smart et al., 2006).

61 Road verges support intensively managed habitats, which are artificially created 62 on bare soil after road construction (restoration) and subsequently experience frequent 63 mowing. This has direct consequences on the communities they can support and there is 64 a need to identify and promote biodiversity-friendly construction and management 65 practices, in order to optimise the role of road verges as a refuge for wild flora and 66 fauna. As in any habitat, community composition in road verges is controlled by an 67 array of distinct factors acting as filters at both landscape and local scales (Bochet et al., 68 2007), few of which can easily be manipulated to optimise biodiversity conservation.

69 There have been extensive studies addressing the influence of management on roadside 70 biodiversity, notably mowing frequency and timing (Schaffers, 2002; Jantunen et al., 71 2007). In contrast, construction choices have received much less attention, with the 72 exception of revegetation with herbaceous species (Matesanz et al., 2006; Leps et al., 73 2007). In particular, the role of planted trees in the maintenance of diversity in road 74 verges was never considered to our knowledge, even though the presence of hedgerows 75 along roadsides is likely to enhance their role as a refuge, by increasing the diversity of 76 microhabitats. This role of hedgerows as a refuge however depends on their ability to 77 receive a significant proportion of the local species pool and of the functional diversity 78 they shelter (Roy and de Blois, 2006). Outside of roadsides, hedgerows appear to be a 79 sustainable habitat and even functional corridors (flora: Corbit et al., 1999, Roy and de 80 Blois, 2008; fauna: Maudsley, 2000, Griffiths et al., 2007; Davies and Pullin, 2007 for a 81 review) even though other authors consider hedgerows as sink habitats (McCollin et al., 82 2000; Sitzia, 2007).

83 The aim of the present study is to evaluate the effect of hedgerows on the 84 surrounding biodiversity of highway verges at different spatial scales, and on the 85 distribution of biodiversity within and among sites in the context of an intensive 86 agricultural landscape. Highway verges offer ideal settings to study the influence of 87 hedgerows, because, in contrast to other habitats, the influence of history on community 88 composition is strongly reduced, due to common history of all study sites. To address 89 the impact of hedgerows on biodiversity, we compared the community richness and 90 composition in sites with and without planted hedgerows for two taxonomic groups 91 (plants and spiders), because no single taxon can inform on the ecological behaviour of 92 other groups (Lowell et al., 2007); In addition, in the context of the search for

93 biodiversity indicators, it is of great importance to better assess the characteristics of 94 different taxa (Pearman and Weber, 2007). These two groups differ in their ecological 95 requirements and dispersal capabilities and are likely differentially affected by the 96 presence of hedgerows: plant community composition is expected to be controlled 97 mostly by soil and light characteristics (Schaffers, 2002) whereas spider communities 98 are known to be highly sensitive to habitat structure and microclimatic conditions (Marc 99 et al., 1999; Entling et al., 2007; see also Beals, 2006) and may exhibit variation on 100 much smaller time scales than plants. By comparing similar grassland habitats in sites 101 with and without planted hedgerows, we specifically examined (1) whether the presence 102 of planted hedgerows influenced the surrounding specific and functional trait diversity, 103 (2) whether plant and spider communities exhibited different environmental patterns, 104 and (3) whether artificial hedgerows resulted in a higher overall biodiversity supported 105 by highway verges.

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#### 107 **2.** Methods

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#### 109 **2.1.** Study area

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111 This study was conducted within a 50 km section of highway A11 ( $1^{\circ}39'30''E - 48^{\circ}29'15''N$  to  $1^{\circ}03'E - 48^{\circ}14'N$ ) in the Beauce region, an intensive agricultural 113 landscape, West of Paris, France. The Beauce covers about 6 000 km<sup>2</sup> and is 114 characterised by a temperate climate and high base status soils. This study area is a 115 fairly typical modern open field landscape with a complete absence of hedgerows and 116 very few semi-natural habitats, such as remnant woodland patches. Agricultural117 practices consist mostly of intensive cereal production.

118 A11 Highway was built thirty years ago and enlarged in 1992. At this time, the 119 newly created verges, devoid of vegetation, were sown with the same seed mixture, 120 including mainly Leguminosae and Poaceae species (Festuca rubra, Festuca ovina, 121 Lolium perenne, Festuca arundinacea, Bromus inermis, but also Medicago lupulina, 122 Lotus corniculatus, Trifolium arvense and Achillea millefolium), along the whole 123 highway section studied, and were planted with trees at discrete locations (Cofiroute 124 construction company, personal communication). In the following, we define 125 hedgerows as linear patches of planted shrubs and trees longer than 150 m, following 126 the definition of Baudry et al. (2000). Sites with and without planted hedgerows are 127 subsequently referred to as "WT" sites and "WO" sites, respectively. Management 128 practices of highway verges depend on distance from the carriageway edge: all verges 129 receive a visibility cut up to 6 m from the road edge twice a year, but areas behind this 130 safety zone are only cut once a year, whereas vegetation growing under planted trees is 131 seldom, if ever, cut.

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- 133 **2.2.** Field sampling and data collection
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135 2.2.1. Field sampling

We selected 25 field sites (Fig. 1) based on the following structural and biological criteria: highway sections were "roadcuts" (resulting from excavation), with edges of the same shape (width = 16.1 m  $\pm$  0.7 SE, height = 4 m  $\pm$  0.3 SE), slope (30°  $\pm$  2.4 SE) and aspect, and were bordered by crop fields. Within the 50 km study area, we selected 140 11 sites with planted hedgerows (WT) along these criteria, using geomorphic maps, 141 aerial photographs, and field surveys. Hedgerows consisted of mature deciduous trees in 142 the canopy layer, and were on average above 3 meters tall and 5 meters wide (5.2  $\pm$  0.5 143 SE, varying between 3 and 8 meters). They were generally pluri-specific, including 144 most frequently the following planted species: Acer campestre, Acer platanoides, Acer 145 pseudoplatanus, Alnus cordata, Betula verrucosa, Betula pendula, Carpinus betulus, 146 Cornus alba, Cornus mas, Cornus sanguinea, Corylus avellana, Cotinus coggygria, 147 Fraxinus excelsior, Prunus avium, Prunus mahaleb, Prunus padus, Prunus spinosa, 148 Quercus sessiliflora, Quercus robur, Robinia pseudo-acacia, Salix caprea, Sambucus 149 nigra, Sorbus aucuparia, Sorbus torminalis, Viburnum lantana, Viburnum opulus. 150 When possible, one site without hedgerows (WO) was chosen within 1.5 km of a given 151 site with hedgerows (WT). We thus selected 7 pairs of geographically close sites with 152 and without hedgerows and completed this sample with isolated WT (n = 4) and WO 153 sites (n =7), for a total of 25 sampled sites (11 WT - 14 WO). WO sites were always 154 located at least 50 m from the closest tree.

155

156 2.2.2. Data collection

All inventories were performed through a 60 m transect running parallel to the carriageway, located at least 7.5 m from the carriageway edge and at  $8.2 \pm 0.6$  SE from the neighbouring crop field. Such location corresponded to extensive management practices. In WT sites, transects were also located 0.5 to 1 m from the canopy of planted trees (vertical projection of lower branches), and started and ended at least 50 m away from the end of the hedgerow, to avoid border effects. For flora, sites were surveyed from May 10th to June 10th 2006. In each site, all vascular plant species were inventoried once in five 1 m<sup>2</sup> quadrats regularly distributed over the 60 m transect. Almost all taxa were identified to species level according to the International Plant Names Index. A few species that were difficult to distinguish when not in flower or fruit (*Vicia gr tetrasperma-hirsuta* for example) were grouped.

168 Spiders were sampled using five pitfall traps per site. Traps were placed within 169 30 cm of each vegetation quadrat on the 60 m transect and were left in place from May 170 10 to June 10 2006. Each trap was 8.5 cm wide in diameter and 10 cm deep, and 171 contained ethylene glycol, a non-attractive preservative. Two pitfall traps were 172 destroyed and were omitted in the analyses (n = 123). Adult spiders were identified to 173 species level following the nomenclature of Platnick (2007). We failed to identify three 174 individuals to species level; nevertheless, because they were obviously different from 175 other species, they were conserved for analyses. Spider juveniles were generally not 176 identifiable to species level and were not considered.

177 Sites characteristics: sampling design was defined to test impact of hedgerows, 178 so that the variation of other environmental variables was minimised. We recorded sites 179 characteristics and checked the absence of correlation between presence/absence of 180 hedgerows and other environmental factors using pearson correlations, to check that the 181 effects of hedgerows were not confounded with other environmental factors. For each 182 site, we recorded geographic coordinates, verge width (final variation: 10-20 m), 183 adjacent land use type (crop vs. temporary fallow), slope, distance from crop edge, 184 aspect, and soil nutrient status. The latter was characterised via determination of soil 185 pH, as well as phosphorus (P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Olsen %), salt (Na<sub>2</sub>O), and total nitrogen (%) 186 concentration in a bulked representative soil sample, taken to a depth of 10 cm in each

187 of five plots and subsequently mixed. For each site, we also recorded the distance from 188 the nearest woodland patch (411.6 m  $\pm$  70.4 SE), as well as the total woodland area 189 within 250 m, 500 m and 1 000 m radius buffers, using aerial photographs and the 190 Geographical Information System package ARCGIS 8 (ESRI, 2000). In this open-field 191 system, woodland patches can be considered as the main natural habitat in Beauce. 192 Consequently, we considered that they could be important reservoirs of species 193 compared to others habitats, providing a pool of both plants and spiders from which 194 species were able to disperse and potentially colonise highway verges.

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- 196 **2.3.** Species attributes
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198 To address the influence of hedgerows on community functional composition, we 199 characterised species based on readily available functional traits. As such data were 200 analyzed using multivariate methods that are highly sensitive to "rare" species or 201 classes, we chose to group some classes to minimize the resulting bias (see caption of 202 fig. 2). For plants, these functional traits include Raunkier types, maximum adult height, 203 and seed dispersal mode, scored according to a literature review (supplementary 204 material 1). For spiders, we retained hunting strategies, body size and aerial-dispersal 205 behaviour (ballooning vs. non-ballooning species). Hunting strategies (diurnal cursorial 206 hunters, nocturnal cursorial hunters, ambush hunters, and web-builders) and species-207 specific body sizes were derived from Roberts (1985, 1987). As body sizes usually 208 differ between sexes, the mean value of male and female median sizes was retained. 209 Species exhibiting aerial dispersal using silk (ballooning) are considered species with 210 great dispersal capabilities (Bell et al., 2005 for review) and were defined using the

211 world species list of ballooning Araneomorphae established by Bell et al. (2005). All 212 species that did not appear in this list were considered "non ballooners", which may be 213 incorrect because the list is not exhaustive. However, as we worked with common 214 species frequently found in agricultural landscapes and whose biology is generally well-215 known, we expect that this bias should be small. For both plants and spiders, a given 216 taxon was assigned attributes only when it was identified to species level and observed 217 in more than four instances (quadrats or traps), which yielded a total of 46 plant species 218 (100% of species observed in more than four quadrats) and 56 spider species (84% of 219 species detected in more than four pitfalls) for which all traits were scored.

220

#### 221 2.4. Data analysis

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223 To remove the obvious increase in plant species richness due to the simple presence of 224 planted species and examine solely indirect effects of planted hedgerows on plant 225 community composition, we chose to work with spontaneous plant species only. Hence, 226 unless otherwise stated, shrub or tree species that were observed in the herbaceous strata 227 in a site where they had been planted (as inferred from historical plantation map data, 228 *Cofiroute – Vegetude*) were discarded in subsequent analyses, i.e. they were excluded of 229 this particular site; not however that these species were retained in other sites. In 230 addition, for spider species, we chose to work with presence/absence data only, so that a 231 range of different analyses, some of which valid with presence/absence data only, could 232 be used on the same dataset. With few exceptions, including abundance data yielded 233 very similar results. All analyses were conducted with R (R Development Core Team, 234 2007).

#### 236 2.4.1. Species richness

237 To assess the effect of hedgerows at different spatial scales, we considered species 238 richness at the quadrat scale (Slocal, plants only), at the site scale (Ssite, in a transect of 60 m, plants and spiders) and at the highway section scale, within each type of site ( $S_{type}$ , 239 240 within WT or WO types of sites, plants and spiders). For plants, we considered local 241 species richness (S<sub>local</sub>) within quadrats because we assumed that all species were 242 detected, whereas for spiders, pitfall trapping is known to be influenced by the activity-243 density of species (Melbourne, 1999). In addition, analysis on local spider richness 244 showed no effect of any environmental variable. Comparing observed species richness 245 across sites and habitats might not be valid in case of unequal species detection 246 probabilities (Boulinier et al., 1998; Nichols et al., 1998). We therefore used statistical 247 methods derived from capture-recapture approaches in population or community 248 dynamics to estimate species richness and changes in community composition As in 249 recent studies (Lekve et al., 2002; Doherty et al., 2003; Selmi and Boulinier, 2003; 250 Devictor et al., 2007; Kerbiriou et al., 2008) addressing richness estimation and 251 differences in community composition from species count data, we used the program 252 COMDYN (Hines et al., 1999), based on the jack-knife estimator of Burnham and 253 Overton (1979). To estimate species richness at the site level ( $S_{site}$ ), we used quadrat or 254 pitfall captures as replicates. To estimate richness at type of site level (Stype within WT 255 or WO type of sites), we used sites as replicates (n = 11): analyses were based on 256 presence-absence data at the site level, pooled across the five quadrats for plants and the 257 five pitfall traps for spiders. As 11 replicates only were available for WT sites, we 258 sampled randomly without replacement 11 sites out of 14 in the WO group; this

sampling procedure was performed 15 times. Each of 15 pairs of (1) 11 sampled WO sites plus (2) the 11 WT sites was input into program COMDYN to obtain estimated richness per type of site. The estimated richness in each type of site was then characterised using the mean and standard error of the 15 outputs.

263 We analysed the combined influence of hedgerows and environmental variables 264 on both local species richness for plants (Slocal) and estimated richness per site for 265 plants and spiders (S<sub>site</sub>), using linear models and analyses of variance, as follows: for 266 each taxonomic group (plants and spiders) and dependent variable (Slocal and Ssite), we 267 selected the most informative model using a stepwise algorithm based on Akaike 268 Information Criterion (StepAIC, library MASS in R) starting from the most complete 269 model including all environmental variables likely to influence species richness (listed 270 above : see "site characteristics"). Plant richness was included as an additional 271 environmental variable for spiders. Data were log-transformed when necessary to meet 272 normality assumptions; the effects of variables retained by the stepwise algorithm were 273 tested adjusted to others and the nested structure of the data was taken into account 274 (local richness per quadrat nested within site: lme, library nlme in R).

275

276 2.4.2. Species composition

We investigated a possible spatial autocorrelation in community composition by performing mantel tests (mantel.randtest, library ade4 in R) to assess the correlation between matrices of geographic vs. specific distances among sites. For plants and spiders, matrices of specific distances across sites were computed with the Jaccard index on presence/absence matrices. This effect was also tested separately within both types of edges (WT and WO sites). For these analyses, all species were retained.

283 We also examined the effect of hedgerows on the composition of plant and 284 spider communities in the herbaceous strata using two types of multivariate analyses: 285 Constrained Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP) and partial Constrained 286 Correspondence Analysis (pCCA), followed-up by ANOVA-like permutation tests (n =287 999) to assess significance of effects. CAP (capscale, library vegan in R, see Anderson 288 and Willis, 2003) is an ordination method similar to Redundancy Analysis (RDA), i.e. 289 exploring the relationship between two sets of variables, but allowing non-Euclidean 290 dissimilarity indices. It was used to examine whether species similarity among sites 291 depended on the presence/absence of hedgerows, and on the distance to nearest 292 woodland patch, which was used as a covariable. It was performed on presence/absence 293 matrices across sites, using the Jaccard index. pCCA (cca, library vegan in R, ter Braak, 294 1986) is an ordination method based on CCA, a constrained ordination method 295 developed to relate community composition to known variation in the environment. It is 296 considered as a good choice if the user has clear and strong a priori hypotheses on 297 constraints. Here, we used pCCA to test whether the presence of some species was 298 associated with the presence or absence of planted hedgerows. We chose pCCA instead 299 of a simple CCA to remove the effect of the distance to the nearest woodland patch, 300 used as a covariable, as in CAP. As both analyses are sensitive to rare species, we only 301 retained species observed in more than four samples, i.e. 46 plant species and 67 spider 302 species.

Third, we examined the complementarity of communities (Nichols et al., 1998) in each type of site (WO type and WT type) using COMDYN with sites as replicates (n= 11). In addition to estimating richness within each type of site (S<sub>type</sub> within WO and WT type of sites), we obtained the following estimators: complement of "extinction

307 probability" between the two types,  $\Phi$  (i.e. proportion of WT species present in WO), 308 estimated complement of species "turnover",  $\gamma$  (i.e. proportion of WO species present in 309 WT), and "estimated local colonising" species, *B* (i.e. number of species not present in 310 WT but present in WO). As for richness, we compared the mean and standard error 311 (over 15 re-sampling events) of these estimators between WT and WO types.

312

313 2.4.3. Functional trait composition

314 We investigated whether some species attributes were more likely associated with one 315 type of site and distance to neighbouring woody patch (environmental variables). To 316 this end, we used a multivariate ordination analysis, RLQ, which is an extension of 317 coinertia analysis. RLQ performs a double inertia analysis of two arrays (R, here the 318 environmental array and Q, here the trait array), i.e. measures the adequacy between the 319 two arrays, with a link expressed by a contingency table (L, here the species array: 320 matrix of presence-absence of species across sites) (rlq, library ade4 in R, complete 321 description: see Doledec et al., 1996; for an example: Ribera et al., 2001). The general 322 significance of the relationship between environmental variables and species traits was 323 tested using random permutations test (n = 999). We also used only species observed in 324 more than four samples to limit the potentially strong effects of rare species.

325

#### 326 **3. Results**

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Across 25 highway verge sites, we observed a total of 85 plant species and 123 different spider species. For spiders, we captured 8 300 individuals, 7 862 of which were adults that could be identified to species level. Only eight of the 85 plant species (*A*. *campestre, A. pseudoplatanus, B. pendula, F. excelsior, P. avium, P. padus, P. spinosa, V. opulus*) were identical to those planted in the immediately neighbouring hedgerow in
WT sites and were excluded from most analyses; note however that including them had
no effect on the following results.

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- 336 **3.1.** Species richness
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#### 338 3.1.1. Influence of planted hedgerows on plant communities

339 We observed a significant positive effect of the presence of hedgerows (Table 1) on 340 plant richness at the local scale (quadrat level, n = 125,  $S_{localWT} = 10.20 \pm 0.46$  SE; 341  $S_{\text{localWO}} = 8.20 \pm 0.47$  SE,  $F_{1,20} = 5.79$ , p = 0.026). We also found a negative effect of 342 distance from crop edge ( $F_{1,20} = 5.75$ , p = 0.026), as well as tendencies for effects of 343 adjacent land use (higher richness with temporary fallow,  $F_{1,20} = 4.15$ , p = 0.055) and 344 phosphorous rate (negative :  $F_{1,20} = 4.00$ , p = 0.059) on local plant richness. In contrast, 345 no effect of hedgerows or any environmental factor was detected on plant richness at the 346 site level (n = 25,  $S_{siteWT}$  = 25.45 ± 1.66 SE;  $S_{siteWO}$  = 23.75 ± 3.12 SE) and there was no 347 difference in detection probabilities between the two types of sites. However, at the 348 section level (n =11), the estimated plant richness was 139.16 over all WT sites ( $S_{typeWT}$ , 349  $\pm$  29.20 SE; detection probability dp = 0.47  $\pm$  12.42 SE) vs. 87.51 over all WO sites 350 (S<sub>typeWO</sub>,  $\pm$  19.43 SE; detection probability dp = 0.68  $\pm$  SE = 0.12).

351

#### 352 3.1.2. Influence of planted hedgerows on spider communities

We found no effect of the presence of planted hedgerows on spider richness at the site level. Spider richness was significantly affected by distance to the nearest woodland patch (negative effect,  $F_{1,18} = 5.94$ , p = 0.025), site slope (positive effect,  $F_{1,18} = 4.65$ , p = 0.044) and plant richness (positive effect,  $F_{1,18} = 6.81$ , p = 0.018). There was no difference in detection probabilities between the two types of sites. At the section level, (n = 11), estimated spider richness was 119.3 over all WT sites ( $S_{typeWT}$ ,  $\pm 19.6$  SE; detection probability dp =0.80  $\pm$  0.10 SE) and 142.0 over all WO sites ( $S_{typeWO}$ ,  $\pm 27.15$ SE; detection probability dp = 0.64  $\pm$  0.11 SE).

- 361
- **3**62 **3.2.**
- 363

#### 364 3.2.1. Spatial autocorrelation

**Community composition** 

Using Mantel tests on the full dataset, we found significant spatial autocorrelation in plant communities (p = 0.001), but not in spider communities (p = 0.066). In contrast, within types of site, spatial autocorrelation was observed in plants (WT: p = 0.006; WO: p = 0.001) and spiders (WT: p = 0.007; WO: p = 0.028). However, as WO and WT sites were randomly distributed in space (Fig. 1), autocorrelation should not interfere with our main purpose, i.e. to assess the influence of hedgerows on community composition.

371

372 3.2.2. The presence of planted hedgerows influence community composition

Sites with and without planted hedgerows supported significantly different plant and spider communities, as shown by CAP (ANOVA-like permutation tests: plants:  $F_{1,22} =$ 2.26, p < 0.001, inertia explained by hedgerows = 9% and by distance to the nearest woodland patch = 4%; spiders:  $F_{1,22} = 1.90$ , p = 0.006, inertia explained = 7% and 6%, respectively). This effect of hedgerows on plant and spider community composition was confirmed by the pCCA analysis (ANOVA-like permutation tests: plants:  $F_{1,22} = 2.13$ , p < 0.01, inertia explained = 8% and 4% respectively; spiders :  $F_{1,22} = 1.81$ , p < 0.005, inertia explained = 7% and 5% respectively). This method also identified species that seemed preferably associated with WT sites. For plants, these were *A. campestre*, *B. pendula*, *Galium mollugo*, *Centaurium erythraea*, *Trifolium repens*, and for spiders, *Panamomops sulcifrons*, *Maso sundevalli*, *Walckenaera dysderoides*, *Ceratinella brevis*, *and Drassodes cupreus*. In contrast, the spider species *Tegenaria picta*, *Ero furcata*, and *Palliduphantes ericaeus*, were preferably associated with WO sites.

386

387 3.2.3. Nested vs. complementary communities

388 We found that the plant community observed in WO sites was a subset of the plant community in WT sites (Table 1). WO sites did not exhibit any private species: we 389 390 found 99% of WO sites species in WT sites, so that all WO species were expected in 391 WT sites (COMDYN estimator B = 0). The reverse was not true: WT exhibited several 392 private species (14%), with only 86% of WT sites species also observed in WO sites. In 393 contrast, spider communities appeared complementary. Respectively 83% (WT) and 394 77% (WO) of spider species were present in the other type of site, so that each type of 395 sites exhibited private species.

396

#### **397 3.3.** Relationship between species attributes and presence of hedgerows

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For both plants and spiders, there was a significant relationship between species attributes and environmental variables (Fig. 2; RLQ randtest, p = 0.001 and p = 0.001). For the two taxa, the presence/absence of planted hedgerows was associated with the first axis, which explained respectively 81% and 80% of the total inertia, whereas the

403 distance to the nearest woodland patch tended to be associated with axis 2 (respectively 404 19% and 20% of inertia). In spontaneous plant species, Raunkier type was influenced by 405 the presence of hedgerows, with Phanerophytes and Chamaephytes (Rank: P) positively 406 associated with WT sites (Fig. 2). In contrast, adult height was not significantly 407 associated with site type. Finally, species with no specific means of dispersal 408 (barochory, autochory) tended to be more present in WT sites than in WO sites, whereas 409 animal-dispersed species (zoochory) were more common in WO than in WT sites; 410 wind-dispersed species were not affected by the presence of hedgerows. In spiders, the 411 mode of dispersal (ballooning vs. non ballooning) was strongly affected by the presence 412 of hedgerows: ballooning species were more likely found in WO sites, and non-413 ballooning species in WT sites. In addition, web-builders were more common in WT 414 than in WO sites, and diurnal wandering hunters in WO sites. Finally, larger species 415 tended to be more common in WT sites than in WO sites.

416

#### 417 **4. Discussion**

418

We addressed the effect of the presence of planted hedgerows on neighbouring plant and spider communities of highway verges. We showed that (1) planted hedgerows were associated with higher species richness, i.e. a higher  $\alpha$ -diversity ( $\alpha_{WO} < \alpha_{WT}$ ), for plants, but not for spiders. This was due to the fact that plant communities in sites without hedgerows (WO) were a subset of communities in sites with hedgerows (WT), whereas spider communities in WO sites were complementary to communities in WT sites. Below, we argue that such differences are attributable to different ecological 426 characteristics of species, which is supported by the distribution of functional traits, and427 derive the consequences in terms of roadside management.

428

429 4.1. The influence of propagule source vs. local conditions on plant and spider430 community composition

431

Following the environmental filter model (Keddy, 1992), two non-exclusive hypotheses
may explain the effect of hedgerows on community composition, depending on
taxonomic group. Hedgerows could either be a source of dispersers ("source"
hypothesis) or could provide microclimatic conditions that affect the presence of some
species due to their environmental requirements ("local conditions" hypothesis).

437

438 4.1.1. "Source" hypothesis and the effect of hedgerows on plant communities

439 The dispersal of some species from neighbouring hedgerows into a suboptimal habitat 440 (grassland) would affect community composition in the suboptimal habitat. This 441 phenomenon, known as the edge effect, has been observed in several taxa: contrasted 442 adjacent habitats supporting distinct species assemblages often mix over a few meters 443 on either side of the interface (see for example Bedford and Usher, 1994). For example, 444 Downie et al. (1996) studying spider community composition across a plantation-445 pasture ecotone, found that most of the community (70% of species) was formed by the 446 overlap of both pasture and plantation species encroaching across the interface through 447 dispersal or foraging processes. Interface-specialist species were present but contributed 448 less to the interface community content than the other species categories (23% of 449 individuals and 25% of species).

450 Under the "source" hypothesis, communities are therefore expected to exhibit 451 higher species richness in WT vs. WO sites. This was the case for plant communities 452  $(\alpha_{wo} < \alpha_{wt})$ , at the quadrat scale, but not at the site level. Another prediction of the 453 source hypothesis is that WO communities should be a subset of WT communities. This 454 was true again for plants: in WT sites, we observed 'private' species which were not 455 supported by WO sites, whereas the reverse was not true. Finally, in the case of a higher 456 effect of dispersal vs. local conditions on species distribution within similar habitats, a 457 distance effect can be expected independently of presence/absence of hedgerows. In 458 plant communities, spatial autocorrelation was in fact detected regardless of the 459 presence of hedgerows. These three observations converge to suggest that dispersal is a 460 major driver of community composition in this group.

461 The distribution of plant functional traits is consistent with this role of 462 dispersal. We found that Phanerophytes and Chamaephytes were more represented in 463 WT sites, corresponding mostly to the occurrence of the following species: A. 464 campestre, B. pendula, C. scoparius, F. excelsior and P. spinosa. These species 465 observed in the herbaceous strata most likely originated from seed-bearer trees that 466 grow spontaneously within the otherwise planted hedgerow. Thus, hedgerows offer a 467 sustainable habitat where particular species, and notably woody plants, can grow and 468 reproduce, whereas such species cannot reach maturity within WO sites, due to frequent 469 mowing. The fact that zoochory was more represented in WO sites is however not 470 easily interpreted in this framework.

471

472 4.1.2. Local conditions hypothesis and the effect of hedgerows on spider communities

473 Microclimatic conditions (influenced, among others, by the neighbouring hedgerows) 474 might be responsible for observed community composition, especially in spiders. For 475 example, spider richness within sites was positively correlated with local plant richness; 476 plant community composition and consequently the architecture of habitat are well-477 known predictors of spider community composition (e.g. Beals, 2006). Moreover, 478 woody hedgerows are known to provide particular microclimate conditions in their 479 neighbourhood (Forman and Baudry, 1984) and most authors agree that those are a 480 major factor controlling spider distribution (see Marc et al., 1999). For example, 481 Downie et al. (1996), examining spider community composition, proposed that close to 482 an interface, the role of vegetation structure is low compared to other factors, including 483 changes in microclimate. Finally, perennial non-crop habitats are known to be used by 484 spiders as overwintering sites and refuges (Oberg et al. 2008). Grassland habitats 485 located next to hedgerows maybe therefore provide better conditions than sites without 486 hedgerows for overwintering, with direct consequences on spider community 487 composition. Thus, neighbouring hedgerows may have an environmental filter effect, 488 which leads to the selection of species with particular ecological requirements.

489 Under the 'local conditions' hypothesis, we expect that sites with and without 490 planted hedgerows support different species. This was the case with spiders: WT and 491 WO communities were complementary instead of nested, thus yielding similar species 492 richness with or without hedgerows. This implies that some spider species occurring in 493 WO sites were absent from planted sites. As the two types of sites offered the same 494 habitat (grassland with similar percentage cover and dominance of graminoïds), the 495 observed differences are likely be explained by specific microclimatic conditions 496 created by the neighbouring hedgerows. Finally, the role of hedgerow-induced local

497 conditions in spider community composition is also supported by patterns of spatial
498 autocorrelation: the dominant impact of neighbouring hedgerows on spider community
499 composition removed spatial autocorrelation patterns across all sites, whereas spatial
500 autocorrelation remained significant within WT and WO sites.

501 Despite the significant role of local conditions, spider community composition is 502 also likely affected by dispersal. For example, spider richness within sites was 503 negatively correlated with the distance to the nearest woodland patch. Such effect of 504 distance is well known from the theory of island biogeography (Mac-Arthur and 505 Wilson, 1967) and consistent with results from other field studies: spider species 506 richness in wheat fields has been shown to increase with the proportion of non-crop 507 habitats in the surrounding landscape (Schmidt and Tscharntke, 2005; see also Bianchi 508 et al., 2006 for other groups).

509 Although the observed distribution of species between site types suggests a 510 major role of local conditions, trait analyses outlined that aerial dispersal capabilities are 511 an important factor explaining the interaction between the presence of hedgerows and 512 spider community composition: species exhibiting ballooning behaviour were more 513 represented in WO sites and the reverse was true for non-ballooning species. This result 514 is comparable to that of Bonte et al. (2004), who found that the distribution of 29 spider 515 species inhabiting fragmented grey dunes depended on their aerial dispersal potential, as 516 well as on the interaction between patch connectivity and area. Ballooning is thought to 517 be more common in species from unstable and ephemeral habitats (Bonte at al., 2003; 518 Bell et al., 2005); moreover, high dispersal capabilities are generally dominant in 519 disturbed habitats (e.g. Nyffeler and Sunderland, 2003 for spiders; Ribera et al., 2001 520 for beetles), allowing the maintenance of populations in ephemeral agricultural

521 ecosystems (Weyman et al., 1995). We therefore suggest that the significantly higher 522 proportion of ballooning species in WO sites may be due to the absence of a 523 neighbouring hedgerow, i.e. of a stable habitat. In contrast, species that do not exhibit 524 this behaviour should be more common in WT sites because hedgerow likely provides 525 more stable conditions, both in terms of management (no mowing) and microclimatic 526 variables. Hedgerows would thus be overwintering refuges (see also: Pywell et al., 527 2005), from which species colonise the surrounding habitats in spring. Sites without 528 planted hedgerows, which receive a cut, generally in autumn, would be poor refuges 529 that are partly recolonised from more distant sources in spring. Hence, they support a 530 higher proportion of species exhibiting large dispersal capabilities, i.e. "ballooners". 531 Dispersal and local conditions therefore appear to drive spider community composition 532 at different temporal scales.

Finally, note that taxonomic differences in composition of spider communities were also associated with differences in hunting strategies: web-builder were more represented in WT sites possibly due to the greatest heterogeneity of support provided by the presence of neighbouring hedgerow and the higher richness of plant whereas diurnal wandering hunter were more abundant in WO sites.

538

539 4.1.3. Conclusions

540 Planting generally increased the  $\gamma$ -diversity of highway verges, via an increase in both 541 taxonomic and functional trait β-diversity between sites with and without hedgerows, 542 but this positive effect was different in the two taxa considered. For plants, it was 543 mostly due to an increase in taxonomic α-diversity within sites with hedgerows, 544 whereas for spiders it was related to a direct increase of taxonomic β-diversity between

545 the two types of sites. Note that this partition of diversity is likely to vary through time 546 as well (e.g. due to overwintering dispersal patterns in spiders), with different temporal 547 scales in the two taxa, but this was not the focus of the present study. From a theoretical 548 viewpoint, the fact that the partitioning of diversity between  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  diversity differed 549 between the two taxa is probably due to the different spatial and temporal scales at 550 which the heterogeneity of interactions between organisms and their environment can 551 be found (see Loreau 2000). According to Loreau (2000), "the challenge now is to 552 understand the relationship between  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  diversity at multiple scales, and the 553 processes that determine it". In our opinion, comparing the partitioning of diversity 554 among several taxa and functional groups at different spatial scales is therefore a 555 promising way to explore the processes that control the distribution of biodiversity.

556

557

#### 4.2. Consequences for the management of highway verges

558

559 Our findings have direct consequences for the management and conservation of 560 highway verges in agricultural landscapes, where most biodiversity is aggregated in 561 more stable non-crop habitats and field edges (Bianchi et al., 2006). Increasing the 562 botanical and structural heterogeneity of hedgerows by planting is likely to have 563 significant beneficial effects on native flora and fauna (Maudsley, 2000). Obviously, 564 plantation increases species richness both directly (introduction of new species) and 565 indirectly, by providing particular environmental conditions within woody hedgerows 566 and thus contributing to the maintenance of some species (e.g. woody plants) in 567 landscapes where they are poorly represented. But our results suggest that planted

hedges may also affect community composition of nearby herbaceous strata, enhancing
both taxonomic and functional trait γ-diversity along highway verges.

570 In practice, our results highlight the importance of creating a mosaic of planted 571 sites alternating with non planted sites in highly disturbed landscapes. Of course, 572 "natural" dynamics could yield the same results and probably a greater biodiversity as 573 demonstrated by Boutin et al. (2002), who compared natural vs. planted hedgerows. However, in the case of highway verges, natural hedgerows would only arise by 574 575 recolonisation of the newly created habitats, which involves successional dynamics with 576 intermediate states, and the presence of pioneer species often considered as weeds. In 577 the context of intensive agricultural landscape, where farmers wish to limit weeds in 578 field boundaries as much as possible, planting trees along highways verges appears as a 579 compromise between biodiversity conservation and anthropogenic pressures. The issues 580 of the identity of planted species (which are usually exotic species), of management of 581 hedgerows (Croxton et al., 2004) and of their spatial arrangement along highway verges 582 (to provide effective corridors) remain to be addressed. Given the urge to conserve 583 biodiversity, especially in the context of climate change, road practitioners should 584 consider plantation not only for esthetical reasons but also as a possibility to increase 585 the role of verges as a refuge and, consequently, landscape connectivity.

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589

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781	Table 1 -	Changes in	species com	position in t	he herbaceous	strata of highway	verges in
		U	1	1		0 1	0

782 sites without planted hedgerows (WO) vs. sites with planted hedgerows (WT).

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784	Fig. 1-	Location	of the 25	study sites.
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- 786 Fig. 2 RLQ analysis ordination biplot illustrating relationships among environmental
- 787 parameters and plant species attributes (A) and spider species attributes (B).

788

l

- **Table 1** Change in species composition in the herbaceous strata of highway verges in
- 790 sites without planted hedgerows (WO) vs. sites with planted hedgerows (WT).

	Φ	γ	
Plants	$0.86 \pm 0.11$	$0.99 \pm 0.10$	
Spiders	$0.77\pm0.09$	$0.83\pm0.08$	

 $\Phi$  is the proportion of WT sites species still present in WO sites and  $\gamma$  is the proportion

793 of WO sites species still present in WT sites.



**Fig. 1**- Location of the 25 study sites.



Fig. 2 - RLQ analysis ordination biplot illustrating relationships between environmental
parameters and plant species attributes (A) and spider species attributes (B).

The analysis is based on presence/absence of species with known attributes that were observed in more than four samples (46 plant species and 56 spider species).

833 1) Environmental parameters. WT: sites with planted hedgerows, WO: sites without hedgerows; dist: distance to the distance to the nearest woodland patch. 2) Plant traits 834 835 (A). rank: raunkier type: H: Hemicryptophytes and Geophytes (28 species), P: Phanerophytes and Chamaephytes (6), T: Therophytes (12); heigh: maximum adult 836 837 height: S: small (0 to 45 cm: 9), M: medium (46 to 100 cm: 19), H: high (100 and more: 18); seed: Seed dispersal: A : anemochory (30), B: barochory and autochory (9), Z: 838 zoochory (7). 2) Spider traits (B). ballo: ballooning behaviour: Y: Yes (30), N: No 839 840 (26); size; hunt: hunting strategies: W: diurnal wandering (18); N: nocturnal wandering 841 (10); W: web-builders (21); A: ambush hunters (7).