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1 **Evaluation of floristic diversity in urban areas as a basis**  
2 **for habitat management**

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12

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Questions:** How can floristic diversity be evaluated in conservation plans, to identify sites of  
3 highest interest for biodiversity? What are the mechanisms influencing the distribution of  
4 species in human-dominated environments? What are the best criteria to identify sites where  
5 active urban management is most likely to enhance floristic diversity?

6 **Location:** The Hauts-de-Seine district bordering Paris (France).

7 **Methods:** We described the floristic diversity in one of the most urbanized French districts  
8 through the inventory of ca. 1000 sites located in 23 habitats. We built a new Index of  
9 Floristic Interest (IFI), integrating information on richness, indigeneity, typicality and rarity of  
10 species, to identify sites and habitats of highest interest for conservation. Finally, we explored  
11 the relationship between site IFI and Land Use Patterns

12 **Results:** We observed a total of 626 vascular plant species. Habitats with highest IFI were  
13 typically situated in “semi-natural” environments or environments with moderate human  
14 impacts. We also showed that neighboring (urban) structures had a significant influence on  
15 the floristic interest of sites: for example, the presence of collective dwellings around a site  
16 had a strong negative impact on IFI.

17 **Conclusions:** Our approach can be used to optimize management in urban zones; we  
18 illustrate such possibilities by defining a ‘Site Potential Value’, which was then compared  
19 with the observed IFI, to identify areas (e.g. river banks) where a better management could  
20 improve the district’s biodiversity.

21

22 **Key-words:** Index of Floristic Interest, Land Use Pattern, Spatial distribution, Urban  
23 biodiversity, Habitat units, Human impact, Conservation, Environmental planning

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Biodiversity in urban areas has long been neglected by ecologists, because urban ecosystems  
3 were regarded as highly disturbed and supporting relatively common species. Although the  
4 latter assertion is generally true (Kühn & Klotz 2006), considering urban biodiversity and the  
5 mechanisms that control its dynamics is of major importance for conservation biology. First,  
6 urbanization is a central component of land-transformation processes worldwide and one of  
7 the leading causes of species extinction (McKinney 2006). Cities are often located at the  
8 crossroads of major communication routes and may act as ‘hotspots’ of invasive species,  
9 which generally thrive in disturbed habitats. Understanding the mechanisms underlying the  
10 dynamics of invasive species, and biodiversity in general, in urban habitats is thus central to  
11 slow down the loss of biodiversity inside and outside cities. In addition, a majority of the  
12 world's human population lives in urban areas (Grimm et al. 2000), where the existence of  
13 healthy green zones supporting a variety of plant and animal species has been shown to  
14 contribute to human welfare (Tzoulas et al. 2007).

15 As a result of conservation and human welfare concerns, extensive studies of biodiversity,  
16 especially flora, have started to emerge in urban areas. A number of these studies were  
17 specific to a single habitat or land-use type, such as woodlands (Goodfellow & Peterken  
18 1981; Godefroid & Koedam 2003), wetlands (Mushet et al. 2002), wastelands (Muratet et al.  
19 2007) or parks and gardens (Hermy & Cornelis 2000; DeCandido 2004; Thompson et al.  
20 2004). However, a growing number of studies also addressed the distribution of common  
21 flora across all urban zones (see Pysek 1998 for a review) using standardized sampling (e.g.  
22 Berlin, Germany, Zerbe et al. 2003; Brussels, Belgium, Godefroid 2001; Plymouth, England,  
23 Kent et al. 1999; Birmingham, England, Angold et al. 2006; Rome, Italy, Ricotta et al. 2001;  
24 and Almeria, Spain, Dana et al. 2002). These studies showed that cities harbor relatively high  
25 plant diversity due to the co-existence of a large variety of habitats. However, urbanization is

1 also generally associated with increased frequency of alien species and loss of some habitat-  
2 specialist plants, such as wetland species.

3 Although these large-scale inventories of urban floristic diversity carry key information to  
4 understand the dynamics of biodiversity in urban areas, they remain mostly descriptive, i.e.  
5 they do not investigate the mechanisms responsible for observed patterns. The first studies in  
6 mechanistic urban ecology are recent (reviewed in Shochat et al. 2006) and concern animal  
7 populations mainly. Studies examining the floristic composition in the different land use types  
8 and assessing the impact of urban structures on floristic diversity are scarce (Kent et al. 1999;  
9 Roy et al. 1999; Maurer et al. 2000; Zerbe et al. 2003; Godefroid & Koedam 2007). Such  
10 knowledge is however necessary to incorporate biodiversity in urban planning and favour the  
11 maintenance of diverse urban ecosystems (Lofvenhaft et al. 2002). In the present study, we  
12 examine plant diversity in one of the most urbanized French districts (Hauts-de-Seine) and  
13 explore the potential influence of urbanization and urban structures on such diversity. We  
14 undertook a comprehensive habitat mapping (as in Sukopp & Weiler 1988) and performed  
15 about 1000 inventories to evaluate the floristic interest of sites and habitats. Our aims were:

16 (1) To describe species distribution over the whole region and locate areas of highest  
17 interest for plant diversity. Following previous studies describing site quality (Ratcliffe 1977;  
18 Wittig & Schreiber 1983; Swink & Wilhelm 1994; Maleyx 2001; Godefroid et al. 2003 and  
19 reviewed in Spellerberg 1992), we defined a new Index of Floristic Interest (IFI), combining  
20 information on richness, indigeneity, typicality and rarity of species present in a site or  
21 habitat. The use of IFI allowed us to rank habitats according to their contribution to the  
22 district's biodiversity.

23 (2) To evaluate the influence of urbanization on the floristic diversity of sites. Using data  
24 from the Land Use Pattern, we explored the relationship between site floristic interest and the  
25 presence of various urban structures around sites.

1 (3) To identify habitats and sites where active urban management is most likely to enhance  
2 floristic diversity. Using the available knowledge on the influence of urban structures on  
3 floristic interest, we built an index of Site Potential Value (SPV) that can be used to direct  
4 urban planning.

## 1 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2 *Study area*

3 The Hauts-de-Seine district (French administrative ‘département’) is a crescent-shaped area of  
4 176 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig.1) bordering the west of Paris (48°50’ N; 2°14’ E). The climate is oceanic with  
5 continental trends (mean annual temperature: 11.7°C and annual rainfall: 641mm). Hauts-de-  
6 Seine is composed of (1) a plain, (2) small hills, which reach 180 m at their highest point and  
7 are least favorable to urbanization and (3) a plateau, divided into 5 sub-regions by small  
8 valleys, relics of ancient waterways. The Seine River borders the northern part of the district  
9 for 39 km. This district is one of the most densely populated areas of France (8118 vs. 95  
10 people/km<sup>2</sup> on average in France, INSEE 1999). Built zones have covered about 70% of the  
11 territory for over 20 years (IAURIF 2003).

### 12 *Sampling design and inventories*

13 Using an exhaustive map of green spaces in Hauts-de-Seine (“cadastre vert”, Dewilde &  
14 Lafréchoux 2001), we calculated the total area occupied by each of 10 types of green spaces  
15 in the district. Inventory sites were sampled at random within each type; the area inventoried  
16 in each green space type was proportional to its total area in the district (proportional  
17 stratified sampling). Inventory sites were generally defined as the total area covered by a  
18 given plant community (used as a proxy for habitat type), and thus ranged from 3.39 to 116  
19 415 m<sup>2</sup>, except in forests where sites were forester-defined stands (from 806 to 40 842 m<sup>2</sup>).  
20 Following Westhoff & Werner (1983) and Kendle & Forbes (1997), each habitat type was  
21 assigned to one of three levels of anthropogenic impact: “semi-natural”, “intermediate” or  
22 “anthropogenic” (Table 1).

23 Between 2001 and 2005, we inventoried a total of 986 sites, in which we recorded all  
24 present wild vascular species once, in spring, summer or autumn. Species were classified as

1 “indigenous” or “naturalized” according to a list compiled by professional botanists of the  
2 National Botanical Conservatory of the Parisian region (CBNBP 2008). Naturalized species  
3 are non-indigenous species that now behave like indigenous species (Richardson et al. 2000).  
4 We dismissed cultivated or casual species that may reproduce occasionally in an area, but  
5 which do not form self-replacing populations and are unlikely to contribute significantly to  
6 community processes.

### 7 *Quantifying floristic interest: Index of floristic interest*

8 Species richness (Rich), the total number of species observed in a given location, is a widely  
9 used measure of biodiversity to evaluate habitat or site interest for conservation. However, not  
10 all species are equivalent and some of their characteristics should be incorporated to describe  
11 site interest accurately. Rare species, for example, often receive special attention in  
12 conservation programs. We measured the rarity of a species as the proportion of district sites  
13 in which it was not observed. Species rarity varied between 0.999 (e.g. for *Callitriche*  
14 *stagnalis* Scop. and *Serratula tinctoria* L., inventoried only once in 986 sites) and 0.365 (e.g.  
15 for *Taraxacum campylodes* G.E.Haglund inventoried in 626 sites). A site rarity index (Rar)  
16 was calculated as the average rarity over all species. We also considered two other  
17 characteristics that potentially influence conservation choices: indigeneity (Ind), the  
18 proportion of indigenous species (see definition above) and typicality (Typic), the proportion  
19 of typical species in each site. Typical species are habitat-specific species that were observed  
20 in a single habitat type in the Hauts-de-Seine (e.g. *Myriophyllum spicatum* L. was observed in  
21 aquatic habitats only -nine sites- and *Calluna vulgaris* (L.) Hull in Oak groves only -eight  
22 sites).

23 These four indices were significantly but weakly correlated across sites (Spearman rank  
24 correlation coefficient between 0.04 and 0.39), so that the information they carry is largely  
25 complementary. Using a one way ANOVA, we showed that there were strong differences



1 among seasons of inventory for all indices ( $P < 0.005$ ); to correct for the season effect, the four  
2 indices were thus incorporated as follows to build the “Index of Floristic Interest” (IFI):

$$3 \quad \text{IFI} = \frac{1}{4}(\text{Rich}/\text{Richmax} + \text{Typic}/\text{Typicmax} + \text{Ind}/\text{Indmax} + \text{Rar}/\text{Rarmax})$$

4 where each index is standardized by its maximum value observed in a given season, which  
5 removes differences in IFI among seasons. By construction, IFI lies between 0 and 1 (highest  
6 floristic interest) and can be defined at the site or habitat (mean across sites) level.

### 7 *Impact of urbanization on floristic interest*

#### 8 **Characteristics of urbanization**

9 Using a Geographic Information System, we calculated the area of inventory sites and their  
10 distance from the center of Paris, which is negatively correlated with intensity of urbanization  
11 (linear regression, *proportion of built up land* =  $1.18 - 0.05 \times \text{distance}$ ,  $r^2 = 0.83$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ).

12 The Land Use Pattern (LUP, IAURIF 2003) is composed of 83 different classes, which were  
13 grouped into nine major classes for the present study (Table 2). Using MapInfo software  
14 (MapInfo corporation 2004), we defined a buffer around each site and estimated the  
15 proportion of each class within this buffer. To select the most relevant scale at which  
16 urbanization influences site floristic interest, we varied the buffer radius between 100 m and  
17 2 km by steps of 100 m.

#### 18 **Relationship between floristic diversity and anthropogenic variables**

19 To assess the impact of broad-sense environment and urbanization on floristic interest, we  
20 explored the relationships between the floristic interest of sites (IFI) and (1) habitat type, (2)  
21 site age, defined as the number of years during which the site LUP class remained the same  
22 (3) distance from the center of Paris, (4) the (Arcsine square-root transformed) proportion of  
23 the nine LUP classes in a buffer around the site. Because the IFI (species richness notably)  
24 strongly depends on site area, the latter was added as a quantitative covariate in the model.

1 Hierarchical partitioning (Walsh & McNally 2004) and randomization (500 times) were  
2 conducted on  $r^2$  values to isolate variables with a significant independent effect on the IFI (the  
3 signs of the correlations were given by simple linear regressions) and to correct for  
4 multicollinearity (McNally 2002).

### 5 **Observed vs. potential floristic interest**

6 Using observed IFI values at 986 sites and inverse distance weighted (IDW) interpolation, we  
7 interpolated the IFI values in the non-sampled areas as a weighted average of a defined  
8 number of neighborhood sites within a 1.5 km-radius. The weight assigned to each  
9 neighborhood site decreased with increasing distance to the unsampled areas. This generated  
10 a map of “interpolated floristic interest”. Although interpolation might be problematic in  
11 highly structured landscapes, we showed that interpolation successfully predicted IFI in a  
12 subset of 186 sites used as ground-truthed samples ( $R= 0.364$ ,  $p<0.001$ , mean over five  
13 replicates).

14 We also built a map of potential floristic interest by extracting LUP classes with a  
15 significant effect on observed IFI and weighting their proportion by the R squares obtained  
16 from hierarchical partitioning. The Site Potential Value (SPV) was thus defined as follows:

$$17 \quad SPV = \sum_i (-1)^j r_i^2 \times \text{Arcsin} \sqrt{area_i}$$

18 where  $area_i$  is the proportion of area covered by LUP class  $i$  in a 200 m radius buffer;  $j = 1$  (2)  
19 for LUP classes with a negative (respectively positive) effect on observed IFI values. SPV  
20 was calculated for all inventoried sites and interpolated to the whole district (using IDW as  
21 described above) to generate the map of “potential floristic interest”. To assess whether SPV  
22 truly carried information on the actual floristic interest, we confronted it with ground-truthed  
23 samples by calculating SPV from a subsample of our dataset ( $n = 800$  sites sampled without

1 replacement) and comparing predicted SPV values to observed IFI values in the remaining  
2 sites (n = 186 sites). This operation was repeated five times.

3

## 1 **RESULTS**

2 Over 986 sites we observed a total of 626 plant species, including 522 indigenous species and  
3 104 (16.6%) naturalized species. Within habitats, the observed number of species varied  
4 between 19 (aquatic vegetation) and 365 (wastelands, Table 1).

### 5 *Habitat Floristic interest*

6 To estimate the floristic interest of each habitat, we scored each index and the IFI separately  
7 (Fig.2). Generally, the ranking of habitats varied across the four indices of floristic diversity.  
8 However, habitats of high floristic interest were mostly found in intermediate or semi-natural  
9 environments, as expected, whereas anthropogenic habitats were usually species-poor and  
10 contained more common and non-indigenous species. For example, the largest species  
11 richness was observed in wet thickets (42.3 species on average), a semi-natural habitat. In  
12 total, semi-natural and intermediate habitats hosted 477 and 523 species, respectively,  
13 whereas 315 species only were found in anthropogenic habitats. Except for the aquatic  
14 habitat, typicality was rather uniform across habitats, whereas the rarity index was much more  
15 discriminating: semi-natural habitats generally had a higher mean rarity index than  
16 anthropogenic habitats (0.90 vs. 0.83 on average), with the exception of gravestones and  
17 cracks of walls.

18 When habitats were ranked with respect to IFI, which synthesises all four indices, aquatic  
19 habitats came first despite their low specific richness (2.6 species per site, Fig.2), because  
20 they host species of high interest for conservation (rare, typical, indigenous species).  
21 Anthropogenic habitats such as base of walls or spaces between paving stones had a  
22 significantly lower interest. Among the thirteen habitats with highest IFI, four represented less  
23 than 3% of total inventoried area (namely aquatic vegetation, wet thickets, wastelands after  
24 culture, and embankments) and are thus likely to be also rare at the district scale.

## 1 *Impact of urbanization on site floristic interest*

2 When examining the relationship between site floristic interest and the proportions of each  
3 urbanization class (Table 2) in a buffer around the site, the buffer radius of 200 m generated  
4 the best fit (Appendix S1) and was thus retained for subsequent analyses. At the site level, the  
5 Index of Floristic Interest (IFI) varied between 0.29 and 0.76. Quite expectedly, variation  
6 among sites was explained by differences in site area, distance from the center of Paris and  
7 habitat type (Fig.3): site interest was high in large sites, located away from Paris and in more  
8 natural habitats. All land use classes had a significant influence on the floristic interest of a  
9 site. In particular, increasing proportions of collective dwellings around a site were correlated  
10 with a lower site floristic interest. In contrast, the presence of water (rivers, ponds...), and, to  
11 a lesser extent, woods, open and rural areas, vacant urban areas and building sites had a  
12 positive impact on the site IFI, whereas transport, activities, individual dwellings and facilities  
13 in the neighborhood seemed to have a negative influence (Fig.3).

## 14 *Observed and potential floristic interest*

15 As expected, the regions of highest observed or interpolated floristic interest were found near  
16 the Seine River (Fig.4.I, A) or in forests (Fig.4.I, B), whereas highly urbanized or industrial  
17 areas exhibited low IFI (Fig.4.I, C). The Site Potential Value, calculated from known  
18 contributions of LUP classes surrounding sites, proved to carry meaningful information  
19 regarding site floristic interest, as shown by a significant relationship between SPV calculated  
20 from a subsample of sites and observed IFI ( $R=0.204$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ; mean over 5 replicates),  
21 although this relationship varied across habitats (not shown). Therefore, site potential value  
22 generally exhibited the same patterns as interpolated IFI but proved very useful to identify  
23 specific sites with a high, but unrealized, potential (Fig.4). For example, all of the Seine River

- 1 banks and two parks with ponds generally exhibited a moderate observed IFI together with
- 2 some of the highest values of potential IFI (Fig.4.II, D).

## 1 **DISCUSSION**

2 As in most conservation plans, preserving biodiversity in urban zones requires to describe the  
3 existing patterns of species and habitat diversity, and identify areas of highest conservation  
4 interest (“comprehensive biotope mapping”, Sukopp & Weiler 1988). However, biodiversity  
5 cannot be efficiently managed without a good knowledge of the mechanisms affecting species  
6 distribution, which, in highly human-dominated urban habitats, can be very different from the  
7 usual ecological mechanisms acting in “natural” ecosystems. In the present study, we  
8 inventoried habitats and plant species in a highly urbanized French district to (1) describe  
9 species distribution, (2) locate sites and habitats of high interest, by building a new index of  
10 floristic interest (IFI) and (3) evaluate the influence of urbanization on the floristic interest of  
11 sites. We discuss the implication of these findings for the conservation of plant diversity in  
12 the Hauts-de-Seine.

### 13 *Distribution of floristic diversity in the Hauts-de-Seine*

14 In the Hauts-de-Seine district, we recorded 626 vascular plant species in 23 habitats. In face  
15 of similar studies in European urban areas, the observed species richness of the Hauts-de-  
16 Seine is comparatively low. For example, Pysek (1993) inferred the mean floristic richness of  
17 urbanized zones as a function of city area, using inventories from 55 cities of Central Europe.  
18 Applying this regression to the Hauts-de-Seine (176 km<sup>2</sup>), we expect 763 species over the  
19 whole district, i.e. about 20% more than what was observed in the present study (626 species).  
20 This suggests that plant diversity in the Hauts-de-Seine is slightly lower than the average of  
21 other European cities considered in Pysek (1993), but the difference might be attributable to:  
22 (1) differences in sampling effort, which is known to strongly influence the observed species  
23 richness (Hayek & Buzas 1997) and (2) differences in urbanization level (the Hauts-de-Seine

1 is part of the highly urbanized heart of Paris area (2720 km<sup>2</sup>), whereas the zones studied in  
2 Pysek (1993) comprised entire city areas including less highly developed outskirts).

3 On average, we found that the Hauts-de-Seine district hosted 16.6% of naturalized species.  
4 This was rather high compared with the national rate (9.4%, Vitousek et al. 1996) but  
5 comparable to an equivalent study in Brussels, where 19.8% of the vascular flora consisted of  
6 naturalized species (Godefroid 2001). Higher levels of naturalized species in urban areas are a  
7 general pattern (Kowarik 1995; Pysek 1998; Godefroid 2001), which can be explained by the  
8 presence of a complex network of roads, railways, rivers, and airports, contributing here to the  
9 dispersal and settlement of species such as *Conyza sumatrensis*, *Solidago canadensis* and  
10 *Erigeron annuus*.

11 Throughout the inventories, we observed five protected (one nationally and four regionally)  
12 species, three of which (*Cardamine impatiens*, *Cuscuta europaea*, and *Thelypteris palustris*)  
13 grow in wet habitats. Their presence legally justifies the preservation of wet zones, one of the  
14 most threatened habitats of urban areas. In Brussels, Godefroid (2001) showed that species of  
15 very humid to swamp soils were progressively replaced by more mesophilic taxa. In New-  
16 York, DeCandido et al. (2004) also found that humid habitats were most disturbed, and 9.9%  
17 of hosted species were rare or imperiled. These findings suggest that conservation of rare  
18 species is relevant also in cities.

### 19 *The Index of Floristic Interest*

#### 20 **Characteristics of IFI**

21 The Index of Floristic Interest incorporates four equally weighted variables (species richness,  
22 typicality, indigeneity and rarity). The choice is necessarily subjective, but we believe that we  
23 have accounted for the most classical criteria used in conservation studies, where they are  
24 often considered alone. Therefore, in contrast to most approaches, where site floristic interest  
25 is generally estimated via species richness alone, IFI provides information on both the number



1 and “quality” of present species. The three “quality” variables were chosen for their relevance  
2 to conservation issues (e.g. Godefroid & Koedam 2003), but also because they can be simply  
3 and objectively measured. Other indices exist to evaluate habitats or sites, but they usually  
4 include subjective criteria, such as potential value, intrinsic appeal (Ratcliffe 1977), or  
5 inhabitant attitudes (Maleyx 2001) to account for social value. The “coefficient of  
6 conservatism” is a good index of site floristic quality, accounting for plants’ tolerance to  
7 disturbance and fidelity to specific habitat integrity (Swink & Wilhelm 1994). However, it is  
8 assigned by experts, familiar with plant habitats of a specific region, and thus cannot be  
9 applied uniformly across regions. Other criteria, such as the recorded history of a site  
10 (Ratcliffe 1977) provide potentially useful information but may not be available for some  
11 sites and regions. In contrast, provided clear definitions are agreed upon (notably for  
12 indigeneity), IFI should be a simple, objective and repeatable index, devoid of subjective  
13 estimations. In addition, and most importantly, it can be readily used at a minimal cost in  
14 numerous cities where floristic presence/absence data already are available (though poorly  
15 published) in botanical gardens or conservatories, thanks to the work of amateur or  
16 professional botanists. As such, this index can prove a useful tool to evaluate the biodiversity  
17 of sites and habitats and identify locations of highest priority for conservation (see below).

18 Nonetheless, besides the simple fact that information is always lost in the process of  
19 summarizing different variables, IFI suffers one noticeable shortcoming inherent to its  
20 construction. Although the different variables incorporated in IFI are generally little  
21 correlated to one another, rarity and typicality exhibit non negligible levels of correlation  
22 (spearman  $\rho = 0.39$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). This is due to the fact that, at a small spatial scale, rare  
23 species (e.g. observed in a single site) are also categorized as ‘typical’. This suggests that IFI  
24 is to be used for comparison between sites of regions at least as large as a French district (a  
25 few hundreds of km<sup>2</sup>), as typicality and rarity are meaningless at too small spatial scales.

## 1 **Evaluation of habitat interest**

2 By synthesizing information on the quantity and quality of species, IFI proved a useful tool to  
3 identify such patterns and define conservation priorities, two tasks that could not have been  
4 correctly achieved by considering single variables and notably species richness alone. For  
5 example, the aquatic vegetation was the poorest habitat in terms of species number, but  
6 exhibited the highest rates of rare typical and indigenous species. Wet zones are thus a habitat  
7 of high interest for conservation, which is highly threatened by urbanization and is now  
8 poorly represented in the district (Table 1).

9 Here we focused on a single group, but floristic diversity is only one part of the evaluation  
10 process in nature conservation. Analysis of other groups could provide a better image of  
11 ecosystems and their conservation status. Moreover, the index of floristic interest was created  
12 from the point of view of the scientific conservationist only, it would be very helpful to  
13 integrate sociological (Hope et al. 2003; Kinzig et al. 2005) and economic dimensions to  
14 evaluate the effectiveness of management choices.

### 15 *Site interest and the mechanisms controlling floristic diversity in urban areas*

16 The Index of Floristic Interest was calculated in each of 986 sites, but also interpolated to the  
17 whole district (Fig.4.I). Although interpolation should be interpreted with caution in highly  
18 fragmented urban landscapes, we believe it is relevant here, because IFI was spatially  
19 autocorrelated across sites within 3km (results not shown) and because the average minimum  
20 distances among site centers was small (150 m), so that IFI at a given site was correctly  
21 predicted by interpolation from neighboring sites.

22 To evaluate the impact of urbanization on biodiversity on a finer scale, we characterized the  
23 relationships between site floristic interest and urban environment, defined as the  
24 (transformed) proportion of nine classes of the Land Use Pattern in a 200m-disc around the  
25 sites (Table 2). The results of the analysis showed that the variability explained by each LUP

1 class was low, because numerous other factors act on floristic diversity. Nevertheless, after  
2 eliminating the effects of habitat type, site area and distance to the center of Paris, all retained  
3 LUP classes had a significant impact on the site floristic interest. The presence of non-built  
4 zones (rivers and ponds notably, and, to a lesser extent, forests, open urban and rural areas,  
5 and vacant urban sites) had a positive impact on flora. In contrast, all classes of built zones,  
6 and especially collective dwellings, had a significant negative influence on floristic interest,  
7 with major consequences for management plans.

8 Thanks to this quantification of the effects of urban structures on floristic diversity, we were  
9 able to infer a potential floristic interest (Fig.4.II), accounting for the existing urban structures  
10 around a site. The significant correlation observed between the predicted SPV and the  
11 observed IFI suggests that SPV yields satisfying predictions regarding site interest, and that  
12 the comparison of the map of potential interest with the map of observed IFI (Fig.4.I)  
13 provides a useful tool for the definition of conservation strategies, and the identification of  
14 habitats that should be priorities for management and conservation. For example, the Seine  
15 River banks are zones of high potential floristic interest, but of generally low realized interest,  
16 due to inadequate management: when banks are concreted, the benefits of the aquatic habitat  
17 are lost. Biotechnical methods, such as live stakes, brushlayering, live cribwall, joint planting  
18 and tree revetment may be applied to stabilize river banks without destroying the vegetation  
19 (Li & Eddleman 2002). Large parks containing ponds are another example of zones with  
20 lower than expected floristic interest, (Fig.4.II, D): in these parks, intensive ornamental  
21 management may destroy indigenous biodiversity, which negatively impacts the biodiversity  
22 of surrounding green structures.

23

## 1 **APPLICATIONS**

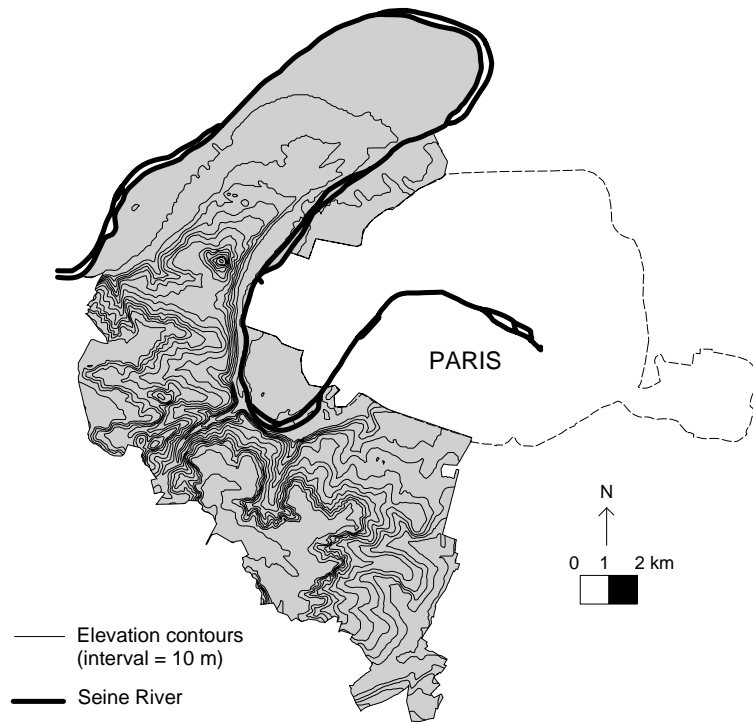
2 Resources for conservation actions are always limited, especially for conservation of urban  
3 habitats and species, so that priorities have to be defined. This requires tools to quickly and  
4 efficiently evaluate the conservation interest of species, sites and habitats. Here, we proposed  
5 a new Index of Floristic Interest, combining objective quantitative and qualitative information  
6 on floristic diversity; this index can be used by managers of green areas, in combination with  
7 knowledge of the factors influencing floristic interest, to make decisions regarding the  
8 preservation of biodiversity in urban areas.

9 In the Hauts-de-Seine, we demonstrated that “semi-natural” habitats, such as forests and wet  
10 zones, exhibited a high floristic interest and were the main reservoir of native biodiversity of  
11 the district. As such habitats are generally restricted at the district scale, and since species  
12 richness is positively correlated with area, they should be entirely preserved. Forests, for  
13 example, host a large number of rare species. Intermediate environments exhibit the highest  
14 plant richness, which is essentially concentrated in wastelands (365 species) and urban lawns  
15 (303 species). These habitats, which are well represented in the district, should be managed in  
16 a sustainable way to prevent (1) invasion by exotic species and (2) species homogenization  
17 among sites, reducing the percentage of typical species. We finally highlighted that some sites  
18 were characterized by large differences between the realized and potential IFI. Special  
19 attention should be given to such sites, to either (1) identify the effective management choices  
20 that explain the larger than expected site interest when  $IFI \gg SPV$  or (2) to improve  
21 management in sites where  $SPV \gg IFI$ .

1 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

- 2 We thank Sébastien Filoche for his help in floristic determination. Funding for this research  
3 was provided by the Conseil Général des Hauts-de-Seine.

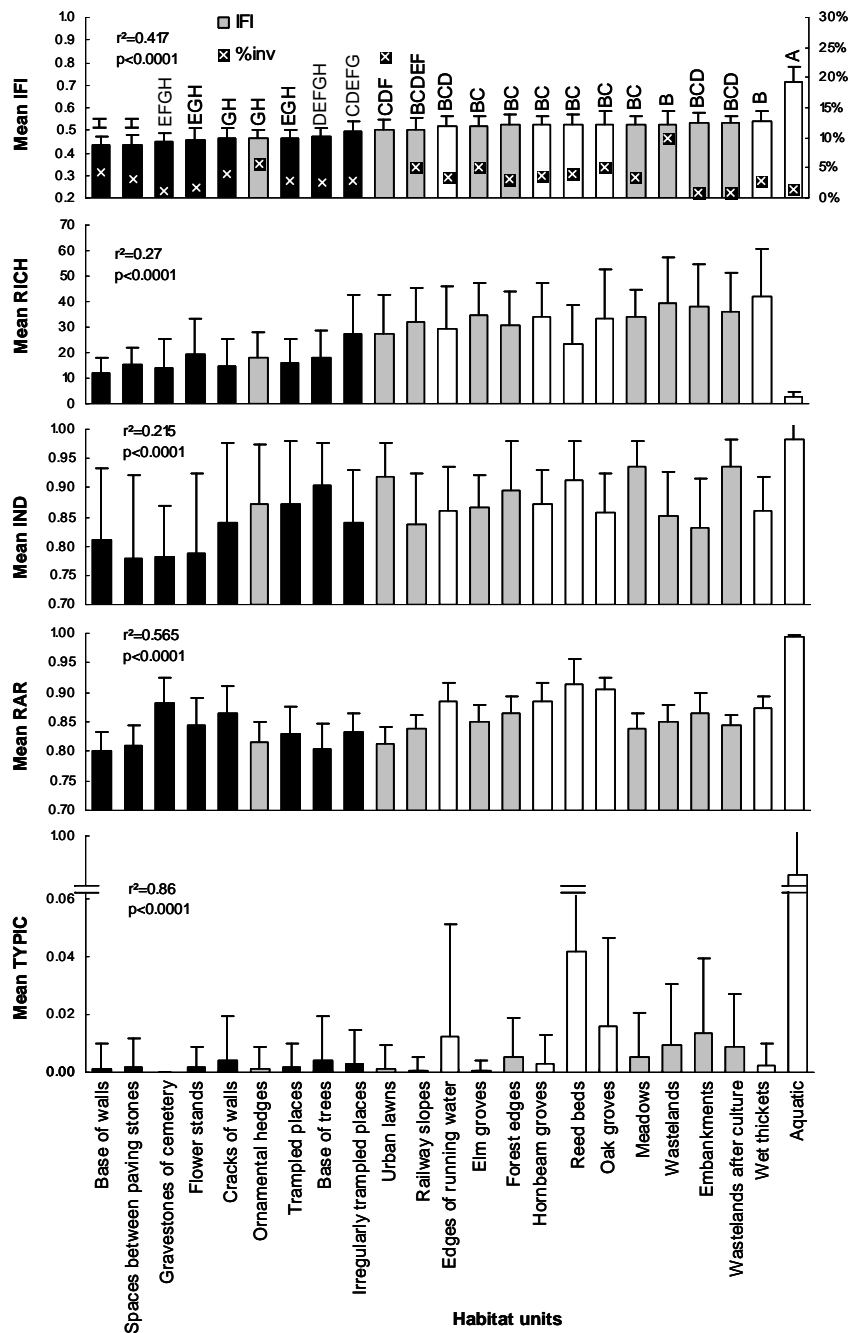
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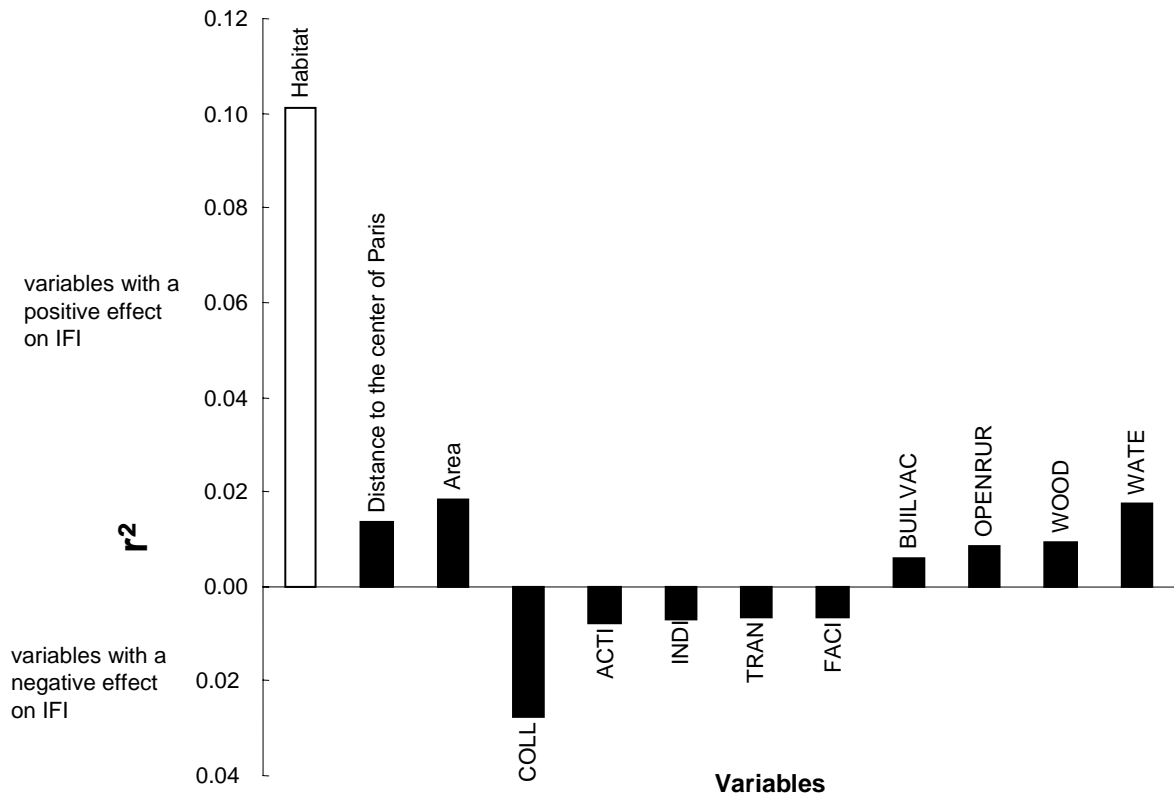
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**Fig.1.** Location of the study area (in grey): the French district of Hauts-de-Seine.



1  
2 **Fig.2.** Mean values of floristic interest variables across habitats (Rich: species richness,  
3 Typic: proportion of typical species, Ind: proportion of indigenous species, Rar: mean rarity  
4 index and IFI: Index of Floristic Interest) and percentage of sites inventoried for each habitat  
5 (%inv, top figure). Significant differences ( $p=0.05$ ) between IFI values are shown by different  
6 letters (Tukey's test). Semi-natural habitats are in white, intermediate habitats in grey, and  
7 anthropogenic habitats in black.

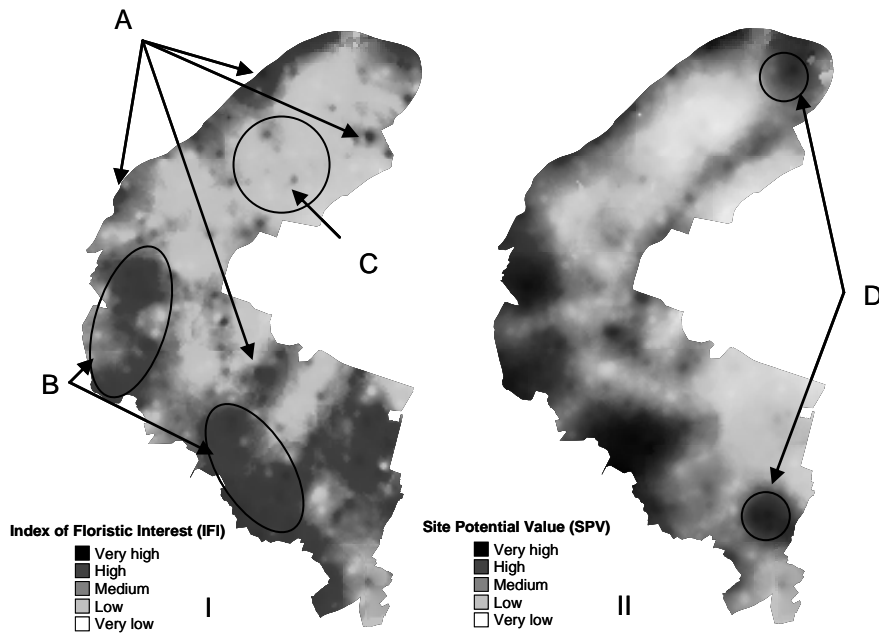


1  
 2 **Fig.3.** Distribution of  $r^2$  of independent effects on IFI, calculated from hierarchical  
 3 partitioning (500 randomizations). All contributions are significant at the upper 95%  
 4 confidence limit. All variables are quantitative (in black) except habitat (in white). See table 2  
 5 for definition of LUP classes.



1

2



3

4 **Fig.4.** Distribution of interpolated and potential floristic interest in the Hauts-de-Seine. (I):

5 Distribution of IFI inferred from the IDW interpolation (zones of higher interest are darker).

6 (A), (B): examples of high interest zones: the Seine river banks (A) and forests (B); (C):

7 example of a low interest zone: an industrial zone. (II): Distribution of potential floristic

8 interest inferred from IDW interpolation. (D): Example of zones of high potential interest:

9 two parks containing ponds.

1 **Table 1.** The 23 habitats of the Hauts-de-Seine, as defined from vegetation units of the  
 2 Parisian region (Bournérias et al., 2001), together with the total number of species and the  
 3 total area inventoried in each habitat.

<b>Semi-natural environment</b>			<b>Intermediate environment</b>			<b>Anthropogenic environment</b>		
Habitat	No. of species	Area in ha	Habitat	No. of species	Area in ha	Habitat	No. of species	Area in ha
Aquatic	19	0.002	Elm groves	279	20.13	Cracks of walls	179	5.97
Edges of running water	232	15.25	Embankments	161	0.83	Base of trees	138	3.50
Hornbeam groves	220	45.40	Forest edges	226	9.84	Base of walls	119	9.78
Oak groves	263	85.14	Meadows	231	16.91	Gravestones of cemetery	82	20.18
Reed beds	261	10.14	Ornamental hedges	197	7.79	Irregularly trampled places	208	7.25
Wet thickets	285	8.57	Railway slopes	249	14.30	Spaces between paving stones	140	4.10
			Urban lawns	303	98.35	Trampled places	158	2.82
			Wastelands	365	21.90	Flower stands	122	6.52
			Wastelands after culture	127	1.64			

1 **Table 2.** Description of the nine LUP classes (IAURIF, 2003)

<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Land Use Patterns</b>	<b>Definition</b>
ACTI	Activities	Warehouses, Offices, Companies
BUILVAC	Building sites and Vacant urban	
COLL	Collective dwellings	Tall buildings covering large areas
FACI	Facilities	Education, Health, Administration, Cemeteries, Electricity, Gas, Petroleum
INDI	Individual dwellings	Houses, including small private gardens
OPENRUR	Open urban areas	Parks, Gardens, Sports, Camping, Golf, Hippodrome
	Rural areas	Truck farming, horticulture, orchards, breeding grounds, pits
TRAN	Transportation	Railways, Highways, Streets, Parking lots
WATE	Water	
WOOD	Woods and forests	

2

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1 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

2 **Appendix S1.** Total independent variance ( $r^2$ ) explained by a model including (1) the area of  
3 each LUP classes in the buffer, (2) the site area, (3) the site distance to the center of Paris and  
4 (4) habitat type, for each variable of floristic interest (IFI: Index of Floristic Interest, Rich:  
5 species richness, Rar: mean rarity index, Typic: proportion of typical species and Ind:  
6 proportion of indigenous species) using hierarchical partitioning

<b>Circle radius</b>	<b>IFI</b>	<b>Rich</b>	<b>Rar</b>	<b>Typic</b>	<b>Ind</b>
100 m	0.222	0.148	0.306	0.310	0.132
200 m	<b>0.230</b>	<b>0.152</b>	<b>0.330</b>	<b>0.317</b>	<b>0.147</b>
300 m	0.229	0.151	0.322	0.314	0.143
400 m	0.225	0.149	0.315	0.312	0.136
500 m	0.222	0.148	0.306	0.310	0.132
1 km	0.207	0.144	0.262	0.304	0.118
2 km	0.197	0.153	0.240	0.300	0.104

7

8