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4 **Title:**

5 EARLY CHANGES OF ORTHOPTERAN ASSEMBLAGES AFTER GRASSLAND
6 RESTORATION: A COMPARISON OF SPACE-FOR-TIME SUBSTITUTION VERSUS
7 REPEATED MEASURES MONITORING

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23 ABSTRACT

24 Grasslands harbour significant biodiversity and their restoration is a common intervention in
25 biodiversity conservation. However, we know very little on how grassland restoration influences
26 arthropod groups. Here we compared orthopteran assemblages in croplands, natural grasslands
27 and one to four-year-old grasslands restored in a large-scale restoration on former croplands in
28 Hortobágy National Park (E-Hungary). Sampling was done by standardized sweep-netting both
29 in a repeated measures design and space-for-time substitution (chronosequence) design. General
30 linear models with repeated measures from five years showed that species richness, abundance
31 and Shannon diversity of orthopterans decreased in the year following restoration but increased
32 afterwards. By the fourth year, species richness almost doubled and abundance increased almost
33 ten-fold in restored grasslands compared to croplands. Multivariate analyses showed that species
34 composition in the first two years did not progress much but by the third and fourth year there
35 was partial overlap with natural grasslands. Local restoration conditions (last crop, seed mixture)
36 and landscape configuration (proportion of natural grasslands < 1 km away) did not influence the
37 above patterns in either the repeated measures or the chronosequence design, whereas time since
38 restoration affected almost all community variables. Our results suggest that generalist
39 ubiquitous species appeared in restored grasslands first and the more sensitive species colonized
40 the restored fields gradually in later years. The qualitative and quantitative properties of the
41 orthopteran assemblages in restored fields did not yet reach those of natural grasslands,
42 therefore, our study suggests that the full regeneration of the orthopteran assemblages takes more
43 than four years.

44

45

46 KEY-WORDS

47 arthropods; chronosequence; grasshoppers katydids and crickets; grassland diversity; habitat
48 restoration; space-for-time substitution

49

50

51 INTRODUCTION

52 Lowland natural and seminatural grasslands play an important role in the maintenance of
53 biological diversity. In most of Europe, the majority of such grasslands have been ploughed for
54 crop production or used as pastures, and thus natural grasslands have remained only in very
55 small fragments (Bakker and Berendse 1999). The preservation and enhancement of these
56 fragments by habitat restoration have become a priority. It is not surprising that grassland
57 restoration is one of the most frequent habitat restoration intervention (Hedberg and Kotowski
58 2010; Kiehl et al. 2010; Török et al. 2011).

59

60 Habitat restoration has traditionally aimed to enhance or re-create vegetation patterns and less
61 attention has been paid to the restoration of animal assemblages. As a result, studies of habitat
62 restoration based on trophic levels other than plants have remained rare (Woodcock et al. 2008;
63 Mortimer et al. 1998). However, invertebrates such as ground-dwelling collembolans, lumbricids
64 and carabids as well as herbivores such as orthopterans and butterflies also play highly important
65 roles in grassland ecosystems (Walker et al. 2004). Arthropods can also be important as tools or
66 subjects for biological control and in providing ecosystem services, therefore, they need to be
67 involved into studies of habitat restoration (Woodcock et al. 2008; Young 2000; Longcore 2003).

68

69 Orthopterans (including the superfamilies of grasshoppers Acridoidea, katydids/bush crickets
70 Tettigonioidea and crickets Grylloidea) are highly suitable to monitor grassland ecosystems for
71 several reasons. Orthopterans are a diverse taxa and most species can be reliably sampled and
72 easily identified in their imago stage (Gardiner et al. 2005). Most orthopterans are herbivorous
73 and thus orthoptera assemblages are expected to correlate particularly well with plant community
74 composition (Báldi and Kisbenedek 1997). Their habitat and food specialization vary greatly
75 from generalist to specialist (mono- or oligophagous on forbs) and they can have substantial
76 impact on plants (Whiles and Charlton 2006).

77

78 The aim of this study was to quantify changes in the richness, diversity and composition of
79 orthopteran assemblages following grassland restoration. A previous study of ours using habitat
80 affinity indices showed that combined arthropod species richness did not vary significantly
81 between croplands and restored grasslands but that the naturalness of arthropod assemblages
82 increased between the first and the second year following restoration (Déri et al. 2011). Based on
83 these results, our first hypothesis was that orthopterans will also respond to grassland restoration
84 with a change in species composition but not with changes in species richness, abundance or
85 diversity. Our alternative hypothesis was that orthopteran assemblages will show large numerical
86 responses to restoration because our restoration method involved deep ploughing which likely
87 corresponded with the destruction of many orthopteran eggs laid in the soil of the croplands. We
88 tested these two hypotheses by measuring the species richness, abundance, diversity, and species
89 composition of orthopteran assemblages in croplands (restoration start), natural grasslands
90 (restoration target) and one to four-year-old fields restored in a large-scale grassland restoration
91 programme on former croplands in Hortobágy National Park (E-Hungary). Furthermore, we also

92 quantified the four most important aspects of restoration (last crop, seed mixture, restoration
93 year, proportion of target vegetation in the landscape) and used general linear models to test
94 relationships between restoration conditions and orthopteran responses to restoration.

95

96

97 METHODS

98 **Grassland restoration**

99 In the Egyek-Pusztakócs landscape-scale rehabilitation program, grassland restoration was
100 started on 760 hectares of former cropland south of the village of Egyek (47°33'N, 20°54'E) in
101 Hortobágy National Park (E-Hungary) between 2005 and 2008. The area has continental climate,
102 the mean annual temperature is 9.5 °C and mean annual precipitation is 550 mm. Large
103 fluctuations in both rainfall and temperature are typical. The region was an active floodplain
104 until 1856, when the regulation of river Tisza ended the floods. The area underwent several steps
105 of drainage and marshes have retreated to the deepest parts by 1969. A long-term landscape
106 rehabilitation programme between 1976 and 1997 restored the water supply to the marshes. Most
107 areas between the marshes, however, continued to be cultivated as croplands. The second phase
108 of the restoration programme aimed to decrease the areal proportion of croplands and restore
109 grasslands in ecological corridors, buffer zones and other critical areas.

110

111 Areas selected for restoration were cultivated as alfalfa, cereal (wheat, barley) and sunflower
112 fields. Restoration was started after harvest (late August) by soil preparation that included one
113 round of deep ploughing and two rounds of smoothing. This was followed by sowing of two
114 low-diversity seed mixtures (in September-October) at 20-25 kg/ha. The alkali mixture, sown on

115 lower-lying fields (< 90 m a.s.l.), consisted of seeds of two grass species (67% *Festuca*
116 *pseudovina*, 33% *Poa angustifolia*), and the loess mixture, sown on higher-lying loessy plateaus,
117 consisted of seeds of three grass species (40% *Festuca rupicola*, 30% *Poa angustifolia*, 30%
118 *Bromus inermis*). Restoration was started in early September and completed in early October in
119 each year between 2005 and 2008. Restored fields in Year 1 after restoration were covered by
120 weedy forbs, which facilitated the growth of grass cover of the sown species. Perennial grass
121 cover dominated most fields by Year 3 and the diversity of common species and the cover of
122 species typical to target natural grasslands increased continuously from Year 1 to 4 after
123 restoration. A more detailed overview of the restoration programme and its early results on
124 vegetation development is given in Lengyel et al. (2012) and references therein.

125

126 **Sampling of orthopterans**

127 We established one sampling site per c. 25 ha restored grassland. In this study, we used data
128 from 33 sampling sites on 22 fields scattered in a landscape of 4000 ha. The distance between
129 sampling sites was at least 250 m but usually much more. At each sampling site, two pitfall traps
130 were installed 50 m apart from each other for other studies. For the present study, we conducted
131 standardized sweep-netting around the pitfall traps in each year between 2005 and 2009. Sweep-
132 netting was carried out once every three weeks or a total of six times in the vegetation period
133 (May to September) to allow the recording of phenological changes in Orthoptera assemblages.
134 On any one occasion, we collected Orthoptera and other vegetation-dwelling arthropods by
135 taking 200 strokes with a sweep-net (diameter: 0.45 m) along transects (50 strokes/transect) in
136 two different directions from any pitfall trap (total of four transects per sampling site), which
137 resulted in 1200 strokes/site/year. Because the identity of the sampler and variation in sampling

138 technique are known to influence orthopteran diversity and abundance estimates, we
139 standardized collection height, distance and speed to reduce sampling noise as much as possible
140 (O'Neill et al. 2002). The collected individuals were frozen and stored in the laboratory at -20 °C
141 until processing and identification. Imago individuals were identified to the species level. Larval
142 individuals, for which species-level identification was not possible, are included in our
143 abundance calculations but not in species richness or diversity estimates. Besides monitoring
144 restored fields, we also collected data from natural (alkali and loess) grasslands and croplands
145 following the above sampling protocol.

146

147 **Variables and data analysis**

148 We defined species richness as the number of species identified and abundance as the number of
149 individuals. We calculated both the Shannon index ($H = - \sum p_i \ln(p_i)$), where p_i is the relative
150 abundance of species i) and the Simpson index ($D = \sum p_i^2$) of species diversity because the
151 former is more sensitive to rare species and the latter is more sensitive to common species
152 (Magurran 2004). Finally, we calculated evenness as $E = H / \ln(S)$, where S is the number of
153 species. Response variables in statistical analyses were species richness, abundance, species
154 diversity and evenness ('assemblage variables' hereafter). We used four predictor variables
155 (three local, one landscape-scale) to describe restoration conditions. The previous history of the
156 field was characterized by the last crop type that was present in the fields in the vegetation period
157 just before restoration (spring/summer of Year 0; alfalfa, cereal or sunflower). The restoration
158 method was the sowing either the alkali or the loess seed mixture. The years passed since
159 restoration was the time since restoration. Finally, we used ArcGIS 10.0 for Windows to

160 calculate the proportion of natural grasslands in 1000-m circular buffers around the sampling
161 sites to quantify the landscape context of potential sources of the colonization of orthopterans.
162

163 In data analysis, we first compared assemblage variables among habitat types (croplands,
164 restored fields, natural grasslands). Second, we used paired tests (t-test and Wilcoxon signed
165 ranks test) to directly compare assemblage variables on fields that were croplands during 2005
166 and restored grasslands in 2009. Third, we analyzed the effects of restoration conditions (four
167 predictor variables) on assemblage variables in two ways. We first analyzed data collected in
168 2009 as a space-for-time substitution design (chronosequence), where we compared data from
169 croplands, from fields restored four, three, two and one year before data collection and from
170 natural grasslands using General Linear Models (GLM). Because some fields had two and some
171 had one sampling site, which can introduce non-independence at the field level, we performed
172 this analysis also as a Generalized Linear Mixed-effects Model (GLMM) in which “Field” was a
173 random factor. The random factor did not have a substantial contribution to explaining total
174 variance (residual SD > intercept SD) (Pinheiro and Bates 2000), thus, we present results from
175 the original GLM. In the second approach, we used GLM with repeated measures from those
176 fields that were restored in 2005 and had data from all five years (Year 0 as cropland and Years 1
177 to 4 as restored fields). Finally, we used non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on
178 presence-absence data and Euclidean distances to evaluate changes in the species composition of
179 restored fields based on data collected in 2009. We used by the 'metaMDS' function of R
180 package 'vegan' (Oksanen et al. 2011). All statistical analyses were performed in SPSS 17.0 for
181 Windows or R 2.13.0. (R Development Core Team 2011).
182

183 RESULTS

184 We collected a total of 5883 individuals of 37 species on the restored fields, 562 individuals of
185 19 species on croplands and 3535 individuals of 36 species on natural grasslands. When
186 assemblages from the three different habitat types were compared, the abundance of orthopterans
187 was highest, whereas evenness was lowest in restored fields (**Fig. 1**). While there was no
188 significant difference in overall species richness among habitat types, the contrasting patterns in
189 Shannon and Simpson diversity suggested that croplands and restored fields were richer in
190 common species and that natural grasslands were richer in rare species (**Fig. 1**).

191
192 Croplands were dominated by *Calliptamus italicus*, the abundance of which, however, decreased
193 considerably in Year 1 and later (Online Resource, **Table S1**). Fields in Year 1 to 3 after
194 restoration were dominated by the widespread generalist *Chorthippus parallelus* and the
195 ubiquitous *Ch. brunneus*. Acridoidea species more characteristic to alkali grasslands appeared
196 from Year 2 (*Chorthippus oschei*, *Omocestus rufipes*) and Year 3 (*Euchorthippus declivus*, *E.*
197 *pulvinatus*). The species richness and abundance of Tettigonioids, likely related to the
198 development of perennial grass cover fields, also increased with time, and species typical in
199 natural loess/alkali grasslands appeared in higher numbers (e.g. *Metrioptera roeselii*) or
200 sporadically (e.g. *Gampsocleis glabra*) in Year 3 and 4 after restoration (**Table S1**).

201
202 Paired tests using data from fields that were croplands in 2005 and restored by 2009 (n = 8 sites)
203 showed a significant increase in species richness ($5.3 \pm \text{S.D. } 2.82$ to 9.5 ± 2.73 , paired $t_7 = -$
204 3.991 , $p = 0.005$), a ten-fold increase in abundance (25.3 ± 23.86 to 254.3 ± 243.14 , Wilcoxon
205 signed rank test, $Z = -2.521$, $p = 0.012$) and a decrease in evenness (0.8 ± 0.07 to 0.5 ± 0.08 , $t_7 =$

206 9.785, $p < 0.001$). There were also non-significant decreases in Shannon and increases in
207 Simpson diversity.

208
209 The space-for-time-substitution analysis based on data from 2009 showed that the development
210 of Orthoptera assemblages was not sensitive to either local (last crop, seed mix) or landscape-
211 scale (proportion of natural grasslands in 1000-m buffers around sampling sites) restoration
212 conditions (**Table 1**). Abundance, Shannon diversity and evenness, however, were affected by
213 time since restoration (**Table 1**). Abundance was higher in older than in younger restorations,
214 and Shannon diversity as well as evenness were higher in one-year-old restored fields than in
215 older ones (**Fig. 2**).

216
217 General linear models using repeated measures from fields sampled in all five years ($n = 7$)
218 confirmed the above patterns in that neither the previous history (last crop type) nor the seed
219 mixture used (alkali/loess) played a role in shaping Orthoptera assemblages, whereas time since
220 restoration affected all but one community variable (**Table 2**). After a sharp decline in Year 1,
221 species richness increased nearly two-fold, whereas abundance increased almost ten-fold by Year
222 4 after restoration (**Fig. 3**). Shannon and Simpson diversity changed in opposite directions with
223 time, whereas evenness decreased from a peak in Year 1 to Year 4 (**Fig. 3**). General linear
224 models on a larger sample (fields sampled in at least three years, $n = 17$) also showed that neither
225 the previous history nor the seed mixture influenced Orthoptera assemblages, whereas time since
226 restoration affected all but one community variable (Online Resource, **Table S2**).

227

228 The species composition of restored fields did not change much in Year 1 and 2 after restoration
229 (except for one site) but became more variable and progressed slowly towards that of target
230 alkali and loess grasslands in older restorations (Fig. 4).

231

232

233 DISCUSSION

234 Our study provided three key results. First, restored fields had higher orthopteran species
235 richness than did croplands and the abundance of orthopterans increased considerably on
236 restored fields compared to both croplands and natural grasslands (Fig. 1). Second, the methods
237 of restoration (last crop, seed mixture) did not influence orthopteran assemblages which
238 nevertheless showed substantial changes with time after restoration. The most important of these
239 changes were the doubling of species richness, the ten-fold increase in abundance and the
240 decreasing evenness from Year 1 to 4 after restoration (Fig. 3). Finally, species composition
241 diversified and progressed slowly towards target-state natural grasslands, although declining
242 evenness showed that assemblages on restored fields were increasingly dominated by a few
243 common species.

244

245 The decline of species richness, Shannon diversity and abundance in Year 1 after restoration
246 (Fig. 3) could be explained by our restoration method, in which deep ploughing was applied,
247 which probably led to the destruction of orthopteran eggs laid in the ground. In Year 1, we found
248 a mere 328 individuals belonging to an average of 3.9 species per site, which resulted in high
249 evenness in Year 1 (Fig. 2, 3). In Year 2, species richness increased greatly, whereas abundance
250 and Shannon diversity have reached values obtained on the originating croplands (Fig. 3). We

251 conclude that most orthopterans appearing in Year 2 must have resulted from a quick
252 colonization of the restored fields from neighboring semi-natural and natural grasslands. For
253 example, fields restored in 2005, most of them alfalfa fields, had several specialist species
254 (*Metrioptera roeselii*, *Gampsocleis glabra*, *Euchorthippus declivus*), which disappeared in Year
255 1 but re-appeared in later years (**Table S1**). The increase in species richness, Shannon diversity
256 and abundance continued in Year 3. In Year 4, orthopteran assemblages could be characterized
257 by increasing abundance and Simpson diversity and by decreasing Shannon diversity and
258 evenness (**Fig. 2**). The abundance of common species (*Chorthippus brunneus*, *Ch. oschei*,
259 *Omocestus rufipes*) increased gradually in Year 2 to 4, whereas new species also appeared in
260 Year 3 (e.g. *Ruspolia nitidula*) and Year 4 (e.g. *Omocestus petraeus*) (**Table S1**). These results
261 suggest that assemblages became more homogeneous in Year 4, and were dominated by fewer
262 common species rather than by many rare species. The lack of rare species in Year 4 may be
263 explained either that no further establishment occurred from the neighboring grasslands or that
264 nearby natural grasslands were also deficient in rare species. Alternatively, it is also possible that
265 the colonization and establishment of rare species take more time than the four years studied. For
266 example, rare plant species, especially forbs, are also slow to colonize the newly restored fields
267 (Lengyel et al. 2012). Because Orthopteran species show strong associations with plant
268 communities (Mortimer et al. 1998; Craig et al. 1999), it appears plausible that specialist species
269 may lack the resources they need even in four-year-old restored fields.

270

271 Our results differ from previous findings on the effect of grassland restoration on Orthopteran
272 assemblages in several aspects. Bomar (2001) compared remnant and restored tallgrass prairie
273 patches in western Wisconsin and found higher overall diversity on natural than on restored

274 patches, with the exception of the largest (48-ha) prairie fragment, where species richness (10
275 species) was comparable to that of remnant prairies. Nemeč & Bragg (2008) studied Hemiptera
276 and Orthoptera communities at three restored and three native tallgrass prairie sites in central
277 Nebraska. Although Orthoptera species richness was higher in restored than in native sites,
278 mostly due to the higher species richness of Acrididae, both the species richness and Shannon
279 diversity of Tettigoniidae showed an opposite relationship (native > restored). The abundance of
280 either group did not differ between native and restored sites (Nemeč and Bragg 2008). In contrast
281 to these studies, our results suggested no difference in species richness but higher Shannon and
282 lower Simpson diversity on natural grasslands than on restored fields as well as higher total
283 abundance on restored fields than on natural grasslands (Fig. 1). These differences may be
284 explained by the facts that in both of the above studies (i) the time scales (time since restoration)
285 were longer than in our study and (ii) the restored areas were small and rather isolated. In a
286 shorter, nine-year study of primary succession of natural revegetation of abandoned mine
287 tailings, Picaud & Petit (2007) found that Orthoptera species richness peaked around 3-4 years
288 after restoration and decreased afterwards. Although we followed secondary succession after an
289 active grassland restoration, our results using repeated measurements corroborated this pattern,
290 although continued monitoring is required to test whether species richness will decrease beyond
291 four years.

292

293 Our study, which, to our knowledge, is the first to apply both a space-for-time substitution and
294 repeated measurements of Orthopteran assemblages following habitat restoration, provides
295 important insights into the effectiveness of these two approaches in detecting post-restoration
296 changes in Orthoptera assemblages. Space-for-time substitution is frequently the method of

307 choice in restoration studies (Michener 1997; Pickett 1989) due to its feasibility and
308 convenience. Chronosequences record the combined end results of (i) the effect of restoration,
309 (ii) variation in environmental conditions (weather, e.g. rainfall, groundwater level, or other
300 factors, e.g. salinity) and (iii) population fluctuations in previous years, which can be substantial
301 in insects (Whiles and Charlton 2006). Older restorations will be subject to more environmental
302 fluctuations, and the detection of post-restoration processes may be more difficult by the
303 masking effect of such fluctuations. On the other hand, younger restorations may not be effective
304 at detecting post-restoration processes operating on longer time scales. For these and other
305 reasons, recent reviews warn against the widespread use of space-for-time substitution (Johnson
306 and Miyanishi 2008). Instead, repeated, long-term measurements on the same sites provide a
307 trajectory of changes occurring at a place and are less subject to the masking effect of
308 environmental fluctuations (Foster and Tilman 2000). Our study suggests that some trends, e.g.
309 increasing orthopteran abundance after restoration, are found similarly by both methods, e.g.
310 increasing abundance on older restorations, cf. **Fig. 2B** vs. **3B**). However, the space-for time
311 approach did not detect any increase in species richness (**Fig. 2A** vs. **3A**) and found a one-time
312 decline rather than a gradual decrease of evenness (**Fig. 2E** vs. **3E**). Our results support the view
313 that repeated measurements provide more information and slightly more precise information on
314 post-restoration processes. Our study thus provides an example for recent calls to supplement
315 chronosequences with repeated measurements (Johnson and Miyanishi 2008).

316

317 In conclusion, grassland restoration resulted in significant increases in species richness and
318 abundance of Orthoptera. Restoration methods did not directly affect any of the major variables
319 describing Orthoptera assemblages. Several results suggested that the increase in species richness

320 and abundance in time co-occurs with assemblages becoming more homogeneous and dominated
321 by a few common species rather than by rare species of conservation importance. Although
322 changes in species composition generally point to target natural grasslands, the species
323 composition of older restorations only partially overlaps with those of target natural grasslands.
324 These results support the hypothesis that generalist species appear first (in Year 1 to 4, e.g.
325 *Chorthippus biguttulus*, *Ch. brunneus*, *Ch. parallelus*) and more sensitive, rare species (e.g.
326 *Gampsocleis glabra*, *Chorthippus albomarginatus/oschei*, *Dirshius haemorrhoidalis*, *D.*
327 *petraeus*, *Stenobothrus stigmaticus*, *Aiolopus thalassinus*, *Dociostaurus brevicollis*,
328 *Euchorthippus declivus*) are colonizing later. The quantitative and qualitative properties of
329 species composition did not yet reach those of natural grasslands in four years. We thus believe
330 that reaching the state of seminatural grasslands takes more time and that continued monitoring
331 is warranted.

332

333

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341

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410

411 FIGURE LEGENDS

412

413 **Fig. 1** Mean \pm S.E. values of Orthoptera assemblage variables on croplands (n = 12), restored
414 fields (n = 33) and natural grasslands (n = 24) in the Egyek-Pusztakócs marsh-grassland complex
415 (E-Hungary). (A) ANOVA, $F_{2,66} = 2.354$, n.s.; (B) Kruskal-Wallis $H_2 = 15.899$, $p < 0.001$; (C)
416 $H_2 = 22.008$, $p < 0.001$; (D) $H_2 = 22.795$, $p < 0.001$; (E) ANOVA, $F_{2,66} = 20.218$, $p < 0.001$

417

418 **Fig. 2** Mean \pm S.E. values of Orthoptera assemblage variables by year of restoration on restored
419 fields sampled in 2009 (n = 33 or 11, 11, 6, 5 sites in 2005 to 2008, respectively). Statistics are
420 given in **Table 1**

421

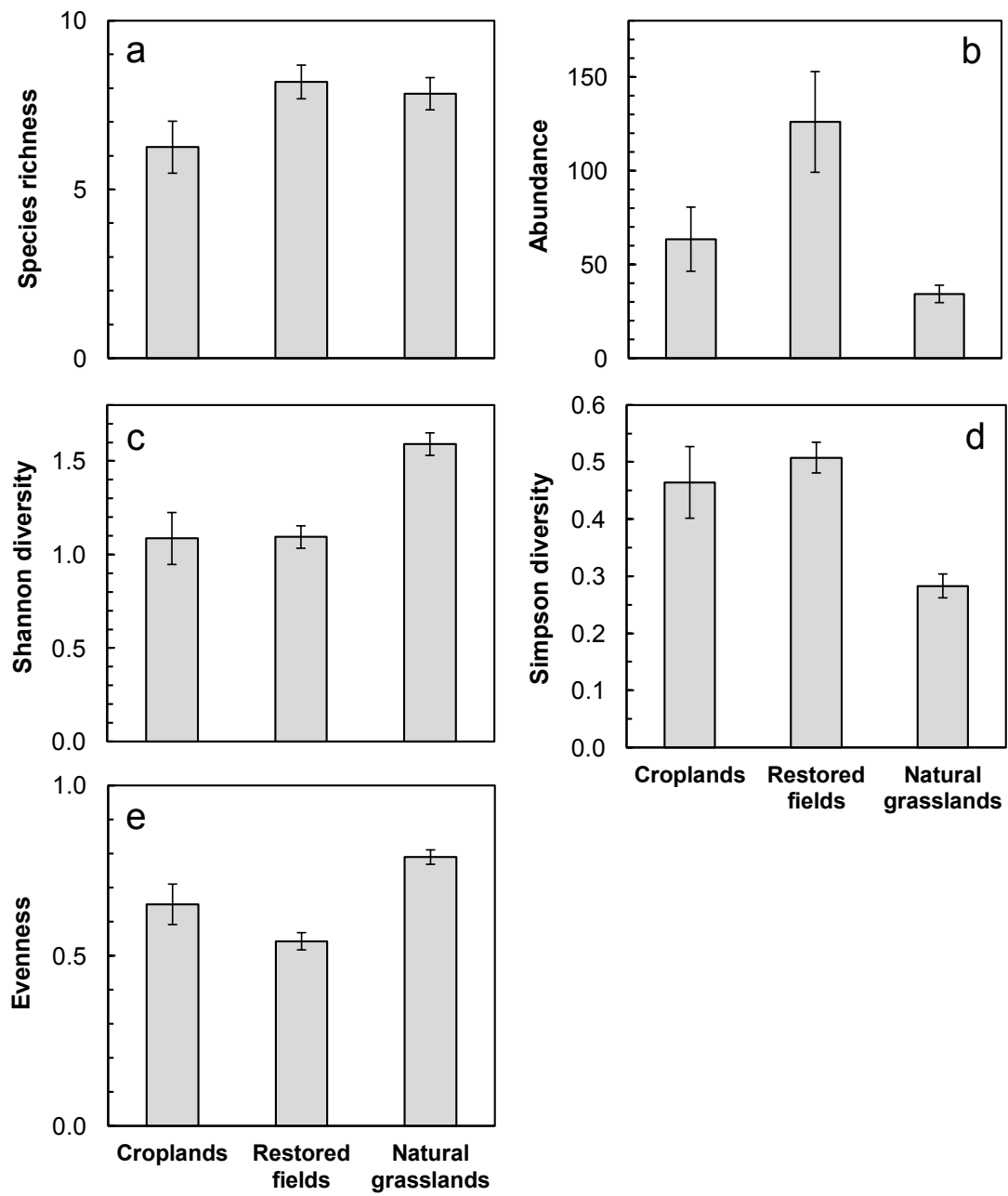
422 **Fig. 3** Mean \pm S.E. values of Orthoptera assemblage variables on croplands sampled in all five
423 years (n = 7), i.e., before restoration (Year 0) and after restoration (Year 1 to 4). Statistics are
424 given in **Table 2**

425

426 **Fig. 4** Changes in Orthoptera species composition with restoration age based on data collected in
427 2009 (one-year-old: restored in 2008, four-year-old: restored in 2005). Non-metric
428 multidimensional scaling based on Euclidean distances of species presence-absence data (stress
429 value: 0.177)

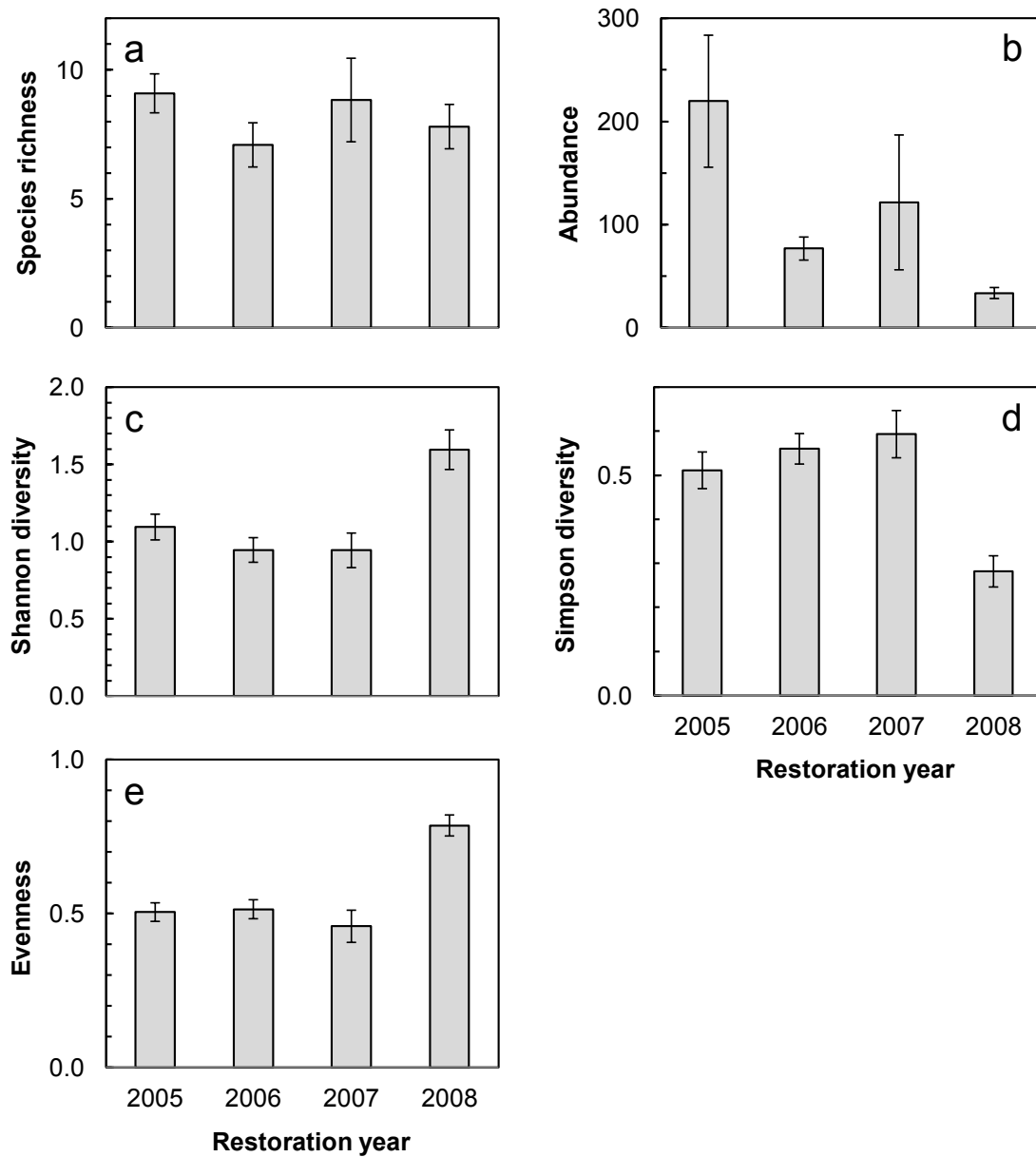
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431 Figure 1.
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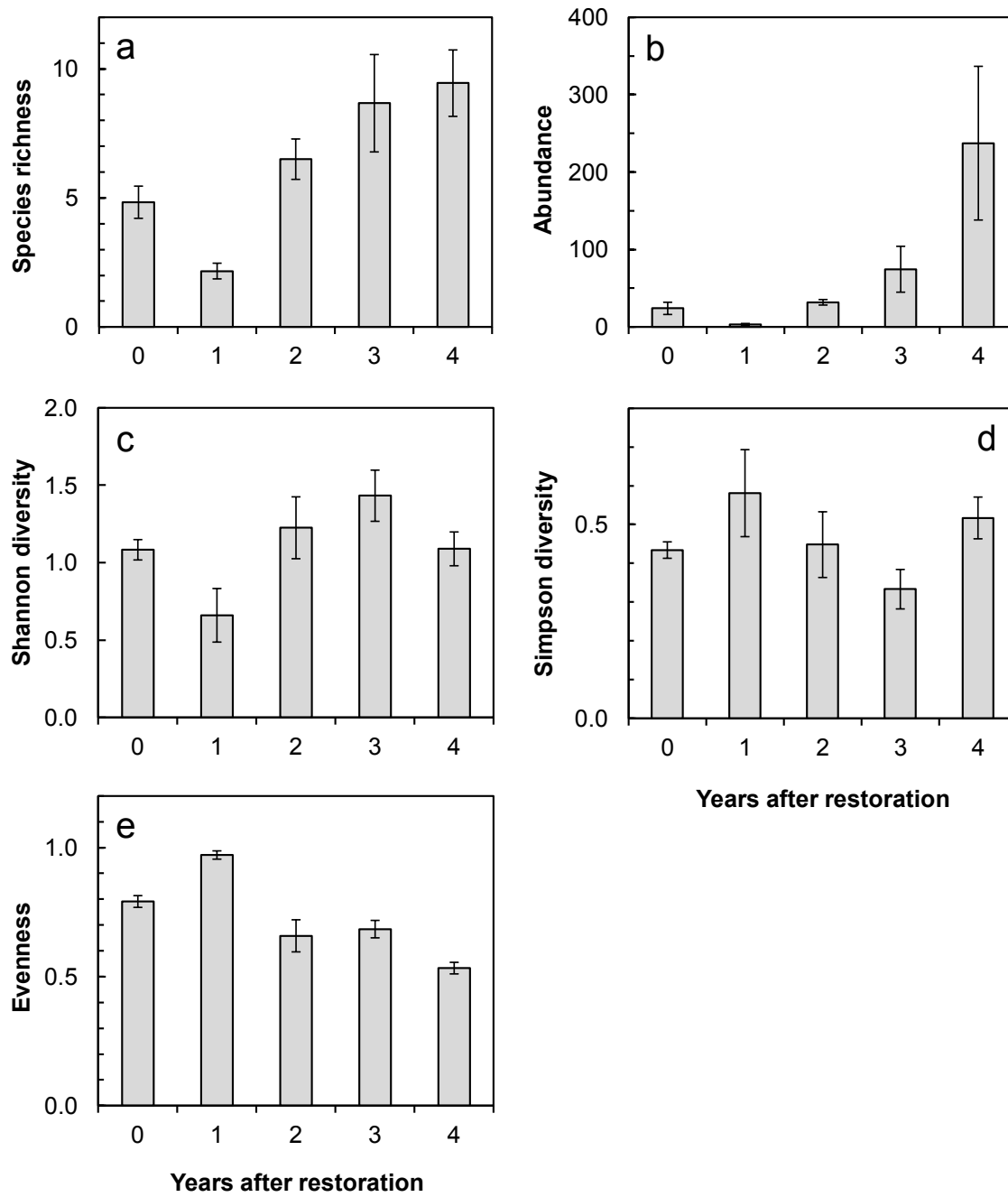
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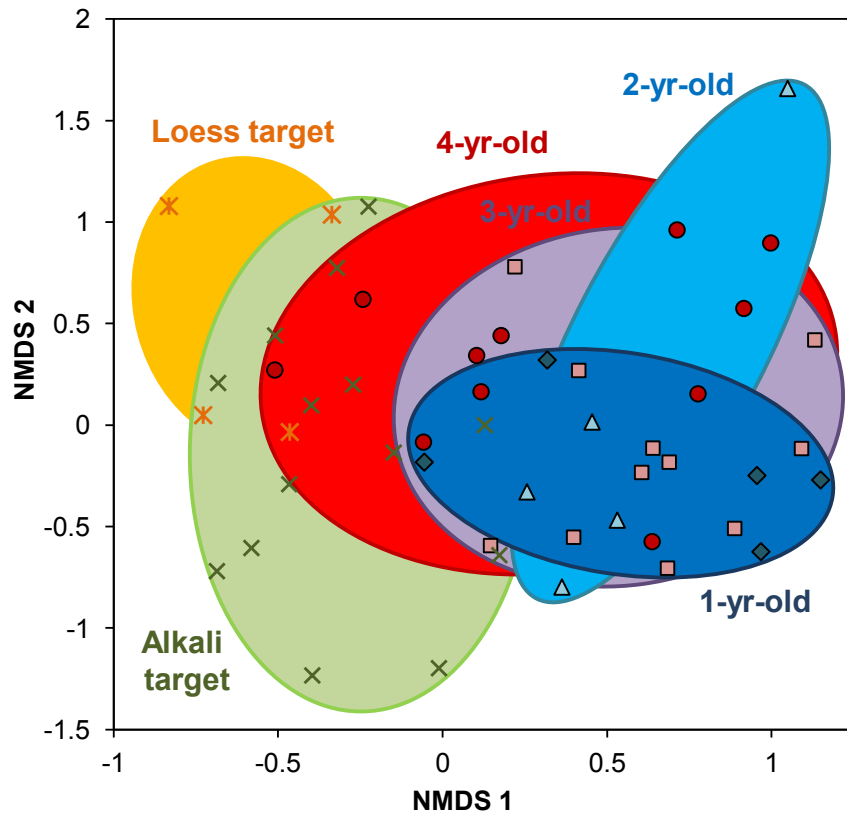
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439 Figure 3.
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447 TABLES

448

449 **Table 1.** Results of General Linear Models testing the effects of restoration conditions on
 450 Orthoptera assemblages using data collected in 2009 on fields restored in 2005-2008. Restoration
 451 conditions were (i) previous field history - Last crop with three levels (alfalfa, cereal, sunflower),
 452 (ii) restoration method - Seed mixture with two levels (alkali, loess), (iii) Time since restoration
 453 (Year 0 to 4) and (iv) Proportion of natural grasslands in a 1-km circular buffer zone around the
 454 sampling site. Results shown are from backward stepwise elimination of non-significant ($p >$
 455 0.05) factors and covariates from the full model (Last crop + Seed mixture + Last crop * Seed
 456 mixture + Time since restoration + Proportion of natural grasslands). Significant effects are in
 457 Bold.

Response variable	Predictor variable	df _{num}	df _{denom}	F	p
Species richness	Last crop	2	26	0.541	0.589
	Seed mixture	1	26	0.030	0.864
	Last crop * Seed mixture	2	26	2.049	0.149
	Proportion of natural grasslands	1	26	2.684	0.113
Abundance	Time since restoration	1	31	5.150	0.030
Shannon diversity	Time since restoration	1	30	4.560	0.041
	Proportion of natural grasslands	1	30	2.600	0.118
Simpson diversity	Time since restoration	1	31	4.035	0.053
Evenness	Time since restoration	1	31	9.075	0.005

458

459 **Table 2.** Results of General Linear Models using repeated measures of seven sampling sites for
 460 five years, testing the effects of restoration conditions on Orthoptera assemblages. Restoration
 461 conditions were (i) previous field history - Last crop with two levels (alfalfa, cereal) and (ii)
 462 restoration method - Seed mixture with two levels (alkali, loess) as between-subject effects and
 463 time since restoration (Time as within-subject effect with five levels, with df adjusted by Huynh-
 464 Feldt's correction against deviations from sphericity when necessary). Significant effects are in
 465 Bold.

Response variable	Predictor variable	df _{denom}	F	p
Species richness	Last crop	4	0.322	0.601
	Seed mixture	4	0.269	0.631
	Time	3.550	11.859	< 0.001
Abundance *	Last crop	4	1.000	0.374
	Seed mixture	4	2.288	0.205
	Time	4	45.048	< 0.001
Shannon diversity	Last crop	4	0.380	0.571
	Seed mixture	4	0.095	0.773
	Time	4	5.668	0.005
Simpson diversity	Last crop	4	0.229	0.657
	Seed mixture	4	0.093	0.776
	Time	3.495	2.115	0.138
Evenness	Last crop	4	0.728	0.483
	Seed mixture	4	0.112	0.769
	Time	3.668	38.355	< 0.001

466 * log-transformed before analysis to correct for heteroscedasticity in the original data