

1 Hedging against biodiversity loss: forest herbs' performance in 2 hedgerows across temperate Europe

3 **Short running title:** Forest herbs' performance in hedgerows

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32 **Abstract**

33 *Questions*

34 How do contrasting environmental conditions among forests and hedgerows affect the vegetative and reproductive
35 performance of understorey forest herbs in both habitats? Can hedgerows support reproductive source
36 populations of forest herbs, thus potentially allowing progressive dispersal of successive generations along the
37 linear habitats?

38 *Location*

39 Hedgerows and deciduous forest patches in agricultural landscapes across the European temperate biome.

40 *Methods*

41 First, we assessed differences in environmental conditions among forests and hedgerows. Next, we quantified plant
42 performance based on a set of functional life-history traits for four forest herbs (*Anemone nemorosa*, *Ficaria verna*,
43 *Geum urbanum*, *Poa nemoralis*) with contrasting flowering phenology and colonization capacity in paired
44 combinations of forests and hedgerows, and compared these traits among both habitats. Finally, we assessed
45 relationships between plant performance and environmental conditions in both habitats.

46 *Results*

47 All study species showed a higher aboveground biomass in hedgerows than in forests. For *P. nemoralis* and *G.*
48 *urbanum*, we also found a higher reproductive output in hedgerows, which was mainly correlated to the higher sub-
49 canopy temperatures therein. The ‘ancient forest herb’ *A. nemorosa*, however, appeared to have a lower reproductive
50 output in hedgerows than in forests, while for *F. verna* no reproductive differences were found between the two
51 habitats.

52 *Conclusions*

53 This is the first study on such a broad geographical scale to provide evidence of reproductive source populations
54 of forest herbs in hedgerows. Our findings provide key information on strategies by which forest plants grow,
55 reproduce and disperse in hedgerow environments, which is imperative to better understand the dispersal corridor
56 function of these wooded linear structures. Finally, we highlight the urgent need to develop guidelines for

57 preserving, managing and establishing hedgerows in intensive agricultural landscapes, given their potential to
58 contribute to the long-term conservation and migration of forest herbs in the face of global environmental change.

59 **Keywords**

60 Agricultural landscapes, contrasting environmental conditions, forest herbs, functional traits, hedgerows, forest
61 fragmentation, metapopulation dynamics, microclimate, migration corridors, plant performance, source-sink
62 dynamics, understorey vegetation

63 1. Introduction

64 Forest ecosystems across the globe are increasingly threatened by human activities (Curtis et al. 2018), with severe
65 implications for global biodiversity (Haddad et al. 2015; Tracewski et al. 2016) and ecosystem functioning (van der
66 Plas et al. 2016) as well as the delivery of essential supporting (e.g. primary production), provisioning (e.g. wood
67 and medicinal plants), regulating (e.g. carbon sequestration and pest control) and cultural (e.g. recreational
68 activities) services (Valdés et al. 2020). Forests harbour about two-thirds of all terrestrial species on Earth
69 (Millenium Ecosystem Assessment 2005). Among vascular plants in temperate forests, the large majority is
70 concentrated in the herb layer (Gilliam 2007; Landuyt et al. 2019). Many herb-layer species are characterized by
71 slow colonization rates and specific habitat requirements (Honnay et al. 2002; Matlack 2005), making them
72 particularly susceptible to the effects of habitat loss and fragmentation (Flinn & Vellend 2005; Honnay et al. 2005).
73 These species are often poor at crossing open habitats such as grassland and arable land, and their long-term
74 survival in agricultural landscapes depends on the availability of remnant habitat patches as well as the connectivity
75 among remnant and newly established patches.

76 Wooded corridors (e.g. hedgerows and other linear woody habitats) are traditional components of agricultural
77 landscapes across Europe (Baudry et al. 2000), and have been repeatedly advocated as a tool for land managers to
78 enhance habitat connectivity (Davies & Pullin 2007). Indeed, a myriad of studies have shown that hedgerows may
79 function as a refuge habitat or dispersal route for forest herbs among otherwise isolated forest fragments (Corbit
80 et al. 1999; Sitzia 2007; Liira & Paal 2013; Van Den Berge et al. 2019). From this perspective, hedgerows may be
81 crucial to the long-term persistence of forest herbs in forest devoid agricultural landscapes. Moreover, their
82 importance for species movements through the landscape is expected to increase given the predicted range shifts
83 of species under climate change (McGuire et al. 2016).

84 Even so, over the past decades, the efficacy of hedgerows as migration corridors has been the subject of
85 considerable debate (Gilbert-Norton et al. 2010; Paal et al. 2017). Most importantly, for hedgerows to act as
86 efficient dispersal conduits, they must support persistent populations of forest herbs with the ability to reproduce,
87 thus allowing the progressive movement of successive generations along the corridor (Corbit et al. 1999). Yet, due
88 to their linear structure, hedgerows are generally characterized by a reduced habitat quality for many understorey
89 forest herbs owing to edge effects, e.g. high soil nutrient levels combined with high light levels and less buffered
90 microclimates, stimulating the growth of highly competitive ruderal species at the expense of typical forest herbs

91 (Roy & de Blois 2008; Wehling & Diekmann 2008; Vanneste et al. 2020a). These deteriorated conditions compared
92 to forest habitats could further aggravate the risk of local extinction in hedgerows, because long-term persistence
93 is potentially hampered for forest herb species that have colonized these wooded linear structures (see Schmucki
94 & de Blois 2009).

95 Hitherto, we know little about the performance of forest herb species once they have colonized hedgerows, and
96 how their performance relates to the prevailing abiotic and biotic conditions in these corridors. Some studies (e.g.
97 Endels et al. 2004; Wehling & Diekmann 2008; Schmucki & de Blois 2009) reported that hedgerows may harbour
98 viable populations of forest plants, but that reduced recruitment could hamper their persistence and sustainability
99 as a source population. However, these studies focussed on relatively small study regions, making it difficult to
100 generalize conclusions. A promising approach to resolve this knowledge gap is to compare plant performance
101 traits (i.e. a combination of vegetative and reproductive characteristics) of forest herbs between forest interiors and
102 hedgerows, and repeat this along a large environmental gradient in a systematically paired design (forests *vs.*
103 hedgerows). Indeed, it is expected that, for instance, macroclimate variables that vary at continental scales will
104 significantly affect hedgerow habitats, e.g. via increased thermal buffering in warmer, southern macroclimates
105 (Vanneste et al. 2020b). Plant performance traits provide vital information on the strategies by which forest plants
106 survive and reproduce in the sub-optimal forest environment of hedgerows (McGill et al. 2006; Zanne & Falster
107 2010; Diaz et al. 2013; Poorter et al. 2018), and how these strategies will in turn influence their capacity to persist
108 and migrate along these linear landscape structures (see also Paal et al. 2020).

109 Here, we compiled data from eight regions across the European temperate forest biome and quantified
110 intraspecific differences in the functional trait attributes of forest plant species using a systematic paired design of
111 comparison between forest interiors and hedgerows. For this study, four temperate forest herbs were chosen based
112 on differences in colonization capacity and flowering phenology: *Anemone nemorosa* (spring flowering, slow
113 colonizer), *Ficaria verna* (spring flowering, fast colonizer), *Poa nemoralis* (summer flowering, moderate colonizer) and
114 *Geum urbanum* (summer flowering, fast colonizer). The large-scale environmental gradient along which the study
115 sites are located, assured that the wide climatic variation of temperate Europe was represented adequately in our
116 study and allowed us to test the generality of the observed patterns. Specifically, we addressed the following
117 questions:

- 118 (1) Do abiotic and biotic environmental conditions differ in forests vs. hedgerows along a macro-
119 environmental gradient within temperate Europe?
- 120 (2) Can differences in plant performance traits of the four study species be detected between the two
121 contrasting habitats along the gradient?
- 122 (3) What are the relationships between plant performance traits and environmental conditions in the two
123 habitats?
- 124 (4) Can hedgerow understories support reproductive source populations of forest herbs (including ancient
125 forest specialists), thus potentially allowing the progressive dispersal of successive generations along the
126 corridor?

127 2. Materials and methods

128 2.1. Study area

129 This study was conducted in eight regions across the European temperate forest biome (**Fig. 1**). These regions
130 were chosen to represent a broad environmental gradient with a mean annual temperature (MAT) range of 5.1–
131 10.4 °C and mean annual precipitation (MAP) range of 601–1251 mm year⁻¹ (long-term average values for the
132 period 1970–2000; Fick & Hijmans 2017) (**Fig. S1**). In each region, we selected four paired combinations of
133 hedgerows connected to ancient forests (i.e. no land-use change since 1850), whereof the canopy mainly consisted
134 of broadleaved woody species. The selected hedgerows were at least 50 years old (critical age to be colonized by
135 typical forest herbs; Brunet & Von Oheimb 1998), had a diverse vertical structure (herbs, shrub and tree layer) and
136 were surrounded by a non-wooded habitat (e.g. road, cropland, etc.) (see also Vanneste et al. 2020b).

137 2.2. Study species

138 Four model plant species were specifically selected for this study based on their distribution range (present in a
139 majority of the study regions), reproductive traits (both sexual and clonal propagation), and their flowering
140 phenology (two early spring vs. two summer flowering species) and colonization capacity (along a gradient of very
141 slow to relatively fast colonizers; **Table S2**): *Anemone nemorosa* L. (*Ranunculaceae*), *Ficaria verna* L. (*Ranunculaceae*), *Poa*
142 *nemoralis* L. (*Poaceae*) and *Geum urbanum* L. (*Rosaceae*). These species are common for temperate Europe's deciduous
143 forests, but are sometimes also found in forest edges, hedgerows and open habitats. To illustrate, the European
144 forest species list of Heinken (2019) classifies *A. nemorosa* and *P. nemoralis* as 'true forest specialists' (1.1 species),
145 while *F. verna* and *G. urbanum* are classified as 'species of both forests and open habitats' (2.1 species).

146 *Anemone nemorosa* and *F. verna* are both vernal geophytes (Taylor & Markham 1978; Shirreffs 1985). Flowers of *A.*
147 *nemorosa* are hermaphroditic and mostly pollinated by insects, though selfing occurs sporadically (Müller et al. 2000).
148 Each flowering ramet produces 10–30 flask-shaped, single-seeded fruits (often referred to as ‘achenes’) per year.
149 The seeds are mainly gravity-dispersed, although dispersal via slugs or ants can occur as well (Türke et al. 2010).
150 *A. nemorosa* also propagates clonally via rhizomes (Philipp & Petersen 2007). The species is known as an ‘ancient
151 forest specialist’, and has very slow colonization rates (Verheyen et al. 2003). *Ficaria verna* starts its growth in winter,
152 and the flowers appear in early spring. The carpels develop into achenes, each containing a single seed. The diploid
153 subspecies of *F. verna* produces a larger number of seeds, while the tetraploid subspecies (not sampled here)
154 produces only very few seeds (Taylor & Markham 1978). *Ficaria verna* also spreads vegetatively via adventitious
155 roots or by means of bulbils or tubers, which separate easily and develop into new plants allowing the species to
156 colonize new habitats rapidly. The species is often associated with moist woodland soils and frequently occurs
157 along streams or river banks, but is sometimes also found on drier, upland soils (Taylor & Markham 1978).

158 *Poa nemoralis* and *G. urbanum* are respectively tussock- and rosette-forming hemicryptophytes (Taylor 1997). *P.*
159 *nemoralis* produces flowers arranged in panicles from June to August. Fruits (caryopses) are mostly dispersed via
160 epizoochory. The bristly diaspore (i.e. with straight appendages) is an adaption to disperse by adhesion to animals’
161 fur, mainly to mid-sized mammals (Heinken & Raudnitschka 2002). Zoochory and a high quantity of seeds ensures
162 the quick colonisation success of *P. nemoralis* in new forest plantations within abandoned arable lands (Brunet &
163 Von Oheimb 1998) and abandoned wooded grasslands (Dahlgren et al. 2006). Even so, the species mainly spreads
164 clonally via tussock growth, and therefore has slow vegetative colonization rates (Heide 1986; Plue et al. in press).
165 For *G. urbanum*, however, vegetative spread is rather limited and sexual reproduction via seeds is more common.
166 It is self-compatible and flowers from July to September. Each flowering head can produce up to several hundreds
167 of achenes. These achenes typically have a hooked awn, which enables them to attach to the fur of animals and
168 hence assist seed dispersal over large distances via epizoochory (Taylor 1997).

169 2.3. Plant performance traits

170 In each of the selected forest-hedgerow pairs, we sampled populations of each species, both in the hedgerow and
171 in the adjacent, connected forest patch. Specifically, we located a point in both the hedgerow and forest patch at
172 50 m from their connection, and defined the search area as a circle with 30 m radius around these points. For the
173 hedgerows, the sampling was not performed outside the hedgerow canopy area (**Fig. S2**). Notably, we strictly

174 focused on the forest-hedgerow paired combinations. So, if a species occurred only in the forest and not in the
175 corresponding hedgerow (or vice versa), the species was not sampled in this particular site (**Table S3**). All trait
176 measurements were performed on healthy individuals at seed maturity, following the standardized protocol of
177 Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. (2013). Individuals with obvious symptoms of pathogen attack or insect predation were
178 avoided. Depending on the phenology of the species and the geographical region, the sampling was performed on
179 different dates (see **Table S4**).

180 Both in the forest and in the corresponding hedgerow, we randomly selected 10 healthy-looking individuals of
181 each species at the time of seed maturity (10 individuals \times 2 plots \times 4 sites = 80 individuals of each species per
182 region). Because not all species were available in all regions, our total number of individuals was 1032.
183 Subsequently, the following set of functional life-history traits was measured on each of these individuals: plant
184 height, specific leaf area (SLA), dry aboveground biomass, seed releasing height, seed number, seed mass and
185 resource investment in reproduction (RIR). We avoided performing measurements on neighbouring individuals
186 (i.e. less than 50 cm from each other; especially for clonal species) to avoid a potentially strong spatial
187 autocorrelation signal in plant traits.

188 Plant height was measured as the vertical distance between the ground level and upper boundary of the main
189 photosynthetic tissues, excluding inflorescences (i.e. the highest leaf). Plant height at maturity is associated with a
190 species' competitive vigour as well as its ability to cope with various forms of environmental stress (Westoby 1998).
191 Next, seed-releasing height was measured as the vertical distance between the ground level and highest elevation
192 of seeds or fruits. For species with multiple flowers per individual (e.g. *G. urbanum*), this measurement was repeated
193 and averaged for all flowering heads. This trait is strongly related to a species' dispersal potential (Tackenberg et
194 al. 2003).

195 For the SLA measurements, we collected a young but fully expanded, healthy leaf for each plant individual. Leaves
196 were oven-dried to constant mass (carefully flatted between drying papers) in a drying stove at 60 °C for 48 h. The
197 leaf area (mm²) was measured with a LiCor LI-3000C Area Meter (LI-COR Biosciences, Nebraska, USA). Leaf dry
198 matter (mg) was weighed to the nearest 0.1 mg with a Mettler Toledo AG204 DeltaRange Analytical Balance
199 (Mettler Toledo, Ohio, USA). Specific leaf area (mm² mg⁻¹) was then calculated as leaf area divided by leaf dry
200 matter. Specific leaf area typically reflects the trade-off between leaf photosynthetic capacity and leaf longevity
201 (Wright et al. 2004). High SLA species usually have shorter leaf lifespans but higher photosynthetic rates. Besides,

202 increasing SLA is generally associated with higher potential growth rates and higher resilience against various
203 disturbance regimes (Bernhardt-Römermann et al. 2011). Finally, we harvested all aboveground biomass of each
204 individual. The plant material was oven-dried to constant mass in a drying stove at 60 °C for 48 h, and subsequently
205 weighed to the nearest 0.1 mg.

206 To determine the seed number and seed mass, we collected all seeds per individual in the field. The number of
207 seeds was simply counted by hand, and the seed mass was calculated as the total mass of all seeds divided by the
208 seed number. Seed traits play a key role in a species' colonization capacity, and are associated with dispersal
209 distances, seed bank persistence, germination, establishment and survival potential of the seeds (Coomes & Grubb
210 2003). In general, smaller seeds can be produced in larger number with the same reproductive effort. Heavier seeds,
211 however, typically have a higher survival and establishment rate upon emergence, notably in the face of
212 environmental stress (e.g. drought, herbivory, etc.) (Moles et al. 2007). To account for this trade-off, we calculated
213 the resource investment in reproduction (RIR) of each individual as the seed mass multiplied by the seed number
214 (sensu De Frenne et al. 2009).

215 2.4. Site characteristics

216 Five variables were used to describe the canopy structure in each forest and hedgerow: the total canopy cover, the
217 total shrub and tree cover (quantified as the sum of cover percentages of the individual shrub and tree species,
218 respectively), and the average shrub and tree height. Height measurements were performed with a vertex (Haglöfs
219 Vertex IV), while the total canopy cover was estimated with a convex spherical densiometer (Forestry Suppliers,
220 Model A). Furthermore, the composition of the canopy was characterized by the shade-casting ability (SCA) and
221 litter quality (LQ) of all overstorey (shrub and tree) species. For each forest and hedgerow, these variables were
222 calculated as the cover-weighted average of SCA and LQ scores of the individual canopy species, respectively
223 (sensu Verheyen et al. 2012). These scores range between '1' (very low SCA or LQ) and '5' (very high SCA or LQ)
224 (see **Table S5**).

225 Mineral topsoil (0-10 cm) samples were collected as mixed-soil samples from three random locations in each forest
226 and hedgerow. The samples were subsequently dried to constant weight at 40 °C for 24 h and sieved through a 2
227 mm mesh before analysing pH-H₂O, carbon-to-nitrogen (C/N) ratio, bio-available soil phosphorous (P)
228 concentrations (mg kg⁻¹) and sum of basic cations (Ca²⁺ + Mg²⁺ + K⁺) (mg kg⁻¹) (see **Appendix S1; Table S1**).

229 Sub-canopy (microclimate) temperatures were recorded in each forest and hedgerow using “HOBO Pendant” data
230 loggers. These loggers were mounted at 1 m height in a radiation shield, and recorded the air temperature every
231 two hours from 1st September 2017 to 1st September 2018. For each logger, we computed daily summary statistics
232 (that is, minimum, mean and maximum temperatures). Corresponding ‘free-air’ (macroclimate) temperature data
233 were retrieved for each study site from nearby weather stations (**Table S6**). Temperature offset values were
234 calculated for each summary statistic as microclimate temperatures minus macroclimate temperatures. In this study,
235 we mainly focused on the effect of maximum summer temperature offsets, because this summary statistic has been
236 shown to differ most between forests and hedgerows (Zellweger et al. 2019; Vanneste et al. 2020b). Finally, it
237 should be noted that sub-canopy temperature measurements were available for all sampled sites, except for the
238 four forest-hedgerow combinations in Poland. For these sites, the maximum summer temperature offset was
239 predicted based on the available temperature data from the 28 remaining sites taking into account the
240 corresponding canopy characteristics and macroclimate temperature (see **Appendix S1**).

241 2.5. Data analyses

242 To test for differences in abiotic and biotic environmental conditions between forests and hedgerows, we fitted
243 linear mixed-effect models (LMM) with restricted maximum-likelihood model estimation (REML) (Zuur et al.
244 2009). In these models, the environmental variables (canopy cover, tree and shrub cover, tree and shrub height,
245 SCA, LQ, soil pH, soil C/N ratio, soil P, sum of basic cations and maximum summer temperature offset; **Table S7**)
246 were included as response variable and the factor variable ‘habitat’ (‘forests’ vs. ‘hedgerows’) as fixed effect. In
247 addition, a nested random intercept term (‘region/site’) was included to account for the hierarchical structure of
248 the dataset and spatial autocorrelation between populations of the same geographical region or study site.

249 Next, we assessed whether the functional traits of each species differed between the two contrasting habitats. As
250 above, we built LMMs with REML including the functional traits as response variable, ‘habitat’ (‘forests’ or
251 ‘hedgerow’) as fixed effect, and ‘region/site’ as nested random intercept term. Finally, we tested the relationship
252 between the functional traits of each species and the different environmental variables in both habitats. For each
253 species and for each functional trait, we ran a series of separate univariate LMMs, one per predictor variable as
254 fixed effect. We specifically used this univariate regression approach to avoid multicollinearity issues. As above, the
255 models were fit with REML including the functional traits as response variable, the environmental variable as fixed
256 effect, and ‘region/site’ as nested random intercept term. All predictors were centred to a mean of zero and scaled

257 to a standard deviation of one prior to analysis. *P* values were adjusted for multiple testing via the false discovery
258 rate (FDR) correction, i.e. the adjusted *P* values depict the expected proportion of type I errors (rejections of a
259 true null hypothesis or “false discoveries”) when the threshold for rejecting the null hypothesis is set at the original
260 *P* value (sensu Benjamini & Hochberg 1995). The FDR-based correction procedure for multiple comparisons is
261 more appropriate for detecting significant results than the traditional methods (e.g. Bonferroni), and has been
262 shown to be especially useful for studies in ecology and evolution (Verhoeven et al. 2005; Pike 2011).

263 All data analyses were performed in R Version 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2019), using the functions *p.adjust* of the *stats*
264 package (R Core Team 2019), *lmer* of the *lme4* package (Bates et al. 2015) and *r.squaredGLMM* of the *MuMIn* package
265 (Barton 2017). Several response variables required a transformation prior to analysis to achieve normality of their
266 distribution (Zuur et al. 2009). Shrub height, shrub cover, and bio-available P were transformed with natural
267 logarithm. The seed releasing height, seed number, seed mass and RIR of *Ficaria*, the seed number, RIR and SLA
268 of *Poa*, and the seed number, RIR and biomass of *Geum* were square root transformed.

269 3. Results

270 3.1. Abiotic and biotic environment

271 Trees in hedgerows were 10.9 (± 1.9 SE) m smaller than in forests, while shrub cover was higher in hedgerows.
272 Tree cover and SCA were marginally lower in hedgerows (**Fig. 2; Fig. S4**). The total canopy cover, shrub height,
273 litter quality, soil C/N ratio and sum of basic cations did not differ between habitat types. As to soil properties,
274 only bio-available P concentrations differed significantly between habitats, with consistently higher values in
275 hedgerows than in forests. Maximum summer temperature offset was 0.941 (± 0.053 SE) °C less negative (i.e. lower
276 thermal buffering) in hedgerows (**Fig. 2; Fig. S4**).

277 3.2. Plant performance traits

278 In general, we found higher vegetative performance in hedgerows than in forests in all study species. For instance,
279 plant individuals of *Anemone* were 0.751 (± 0.268 SE) cm taller in hedgerows than in forests. In addition, all species
280 showed a higher biomass and all species except *Ficaria* showed a significantly lower SLA in hedgerows than in
281 forests (**Fig. 3; Fig. S6-S9**). The reproductive performance was higher in hedgerows than in forests in *Poa* and
282 *Geum* but lower in *Anemone* and not significantly different between habitats in *Ficaria*. To illustrate, we observed a
283 higher seed releasing height, seed number per individual and seed mass in hedgerows for *Poa* as well as a higher

284 RIR in hedgerows for both *Poa* and *Geum*. For *Anemone*, however, we detected a reduced RIR in hedgerows, notably
285 due to the lower seed mass (**Fig. 3; Fig. S5; Fig. S6-S9**).

286 3.3. Trait-environment relationships

287 Plant height of the studied forest herbs was mainly affected by overstorey variables. In general, we found smaller
288 plant individuals under denser canopies. To illustrate, plant height decreased with increasing tree cover in *Anemone*
289 and with increasing total canopy cover in *Ficaria* and *Poa*. In *Poa*, we also detected a negative effect of soil C/N
290 ratio on plant height. Furthermore, SLA showed consistent negative relationship with tree height in all study
291 species. As to the biomass, no such consistent results among species were found, albeit individual negative effects
292 of tree cover and microclimatic buffering on the biomass could still be detected in *Anemone* and *Poa*, respectively.
293 Finally, reproductive output (RIR) of the vernal species was not affected by any of the environmental variables,
294 whereas for both summer-flowering species a strong positive effect of lower microclimatic buffering was found.
295 In *Poa*, RIR also correlated positively to soil P levels (**Fig. 4**; see **Table S8-S10** for additional analyses with
296 hedgerow-specific characteristics).

297 4. Discussion

298 Using a systematic paired design among forest interiors and hedgerows across temperate Europe, we show that
299 contrasting environmental conditions among the two habitat types led to differences in the life-history traits as
300 well as vegetative and regenerative performance of understorey forest herbs. Overall, we found a higher biomass
301 of the studied forest plants in hedgerows than in forests, while the reproductive fitness showed a divergent
302 response being higher in hedgerows than in forests for the summer-flowering species but equal or slightly lower
303 for the vernal species. This suggests that hedgerows will likely act as suitable habitats and, on a longer time scale,
304 also as effective corridors for some (albeit not all) forest plant species to migrate among remnant and newly formed
305 woodland patches. These findings underpin the importance of preserving, managing and establishing hedgerows
306 in intensively managed agricultural landscapes with few remaining forest habitats, given their potential to contribute
307 to the long-term conservation and migration of forest herbs in the face of global environmental change.

308 4.1. Divergent environmental conditions of forests and hedgerow habitats

309 As expected, the abiotic and biotic environment of hedgerows and forest interiors differed consistently. For
310 instance, trees in the studied hedgerows were consistently smaller than in the adjacent forests. This can, at least

311 partly, be attributed to contrasting growth strategies of trees in both habitats (Loehle 1998; Sterck et al. 2005).
312 Hedgerows also tended to have a higher cover of shrubs compared to forest interiors, likely because of the higher
313 light availability in hedgerow environments allowing the formation of a dense and structurally diverse shrub layer.
314 The higher soil P content in hedgerows than in forest interiors is likely caused by the inflow of fertilizers and
315 runoff from adjacent agricultural lands (Wehling & Diekmann 2008). Here it is noteworthy that the soil P values
316 in our hedgerows ($\sim 40 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) were markedly higher than the ones reported by Sitzia et al. (2014) ($\sim 12 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$),
317 presumably owing to a difference in soil fertility and soil pH being neutral in our study vs. weakly alkaline in Sitzia
318 et al. (2014). Finally, linear habitats such as hedgerows are also more prone to edge effects, including greater wind
319 speeds and higher levels of lateral radiation reaching the understorey. These conditions directly affect the near-
320 ground microclimate of hedgerows, most notably causing consistently higher temperature extremes than in forests
321 interiors (Vanneste et al. 2020b).

322 4.2. Performance of forest herbs in hedgerows

323 Interestingly, all studied forest herbs displayed a higher vegetative performance in hedgerows than in forest
324 interiors. This is clearly demonstrated by the consistently higher aboveground biomass of plant individuals growing
325 in the hedgerow habitats. A similar observation for post-agricultural vs. ancient forests was made by Baeten et al.
326 (2010), who reported that the biomass of several forest herb species tended to respond positively to the higher
327 resource availability as well as higher light levels in post-agricultural forest stands. In our study, we indeed found
328 that several structural canopy characteristics related to a higher light availability and warmer microclimate in
329 hedgerows than in forests (e.g. lower and more open tree canopy as well as lower SCA) positively affected the
330 biomass production of the studied forest herb species. Additionally, the SLA of all species (albeit not significant
331 for *Ficaria*) was lower in hedgerows, and displayed a consistent negative relationship with tree height (shown to be
332 lower in hedgerows). Low SLA values are a clear response to higher light availability and may reflect a greater
333 physical strength of the leaves, and allow the plant individuals to cope with the higher irradiance and lower humidity
334 in hedgerow understoreys (Dahlgren et al. 2006). Alternatively, their lower SLA values could also reflect higher
335 herbivore pressure in hedgerows, because plants have to invest more in protection tissues (Schädler et al. 2003;
336 Agrawal & Fishbein 2006). Finally, we also found larger plant individuals of *Anemone* in the hedgerow habitats. On
337 the one hand, plant height can be linked to competition strategies, with hedgerow plants thus being competitively
338 stronger. In this respect, the higher stature could be perceived as a potential response of the species to competition
339 from generalist and grassland species in the linear habitats (Roy & de Blois 2008; Paal et al. 2017). On the other

340 hand, plant height has also been related to light limitation and nutrient stress (Westoby 1998), which is reflected
341 by the negative effect of overstorey cover (in *Anemone*, *Ficaria* and *Poa*) as well as C/N ratio of the topsoil (only in
342 *Poa*) in our systems.

343 As to their reproductive performance in the understorey of both habitat types, the studied forest plant species
344 seemed to respond in three different ways. First, the ‘ancient forest herb’ *Anemone* showed a lower reproductive
345 output in the hedgerows than in the adjacent forest patches. A potential explanation could be the strong
346 competition with opportunistic competitors such as *Urtica dioica* and *Rubus sp.* that benefit from the higher nutrient
347 availability (particularly phosphate) in hedgerows (Endels et al. 2004; Hipps et al. 2005; Baeten et al. 2009). Indeed,
348 several earlier studies have reported the vigorous growth of these species as a key factor limiting the successful
349 colonization and establishment of many ancient forest species in the herb layer of nutrient-enriched, post-
350 agricultural forests (Verheyen & Hermy 2004; Orczewska 2009). Besides, while De Frenne et al. (2010) found
351 consistently positive effects of warmer temperatures on the sexual reproduction of *A. nemorosa*, it is not unlikely
352 that the species’ reproductive success might still be reduced by drought in the hotter and drier microclimate of
353 hedgerows (see e.g. Ali et al. 2007; Mondoni et al. 2008; Leuschner & Lenzion 2009). Owing to the stronger
354 competition and less favourable environment, we argue that *Anemone* individuals in hedgerows are more likely to
355 allocate a greater amount of energy to growth and persistence, and thus invest less in their generative reproductive
356 output. Alternatively, the reduced reproductive success of this forest specialist in hedgerows could also be a
357 consequence of its generally smaller and more sparsely distributed populations in these habitats. Smaller
358 populations tend to attract fewer pollinators, which could in turn negatively affect seed production (Jacquemyn et
359 al. 2002; Brys et al. 2004; Hofmeister et al. 2013).

360 Even so, it should be noted that, as a typically clonally spreading species, *Anemone* does not so much rely on sexual
361 reproduction via seeds, but could also spread vegetatively via rhizomes and thus still maintain a viable population
362 in hedgerows. Moreover, echoing Herben et al. (2012), we could expect that *Anemone* will compensate the
363 unfavourable conditions for sexual reproduction by investing more in vegetative reproductive organs and thus
364 even enhance its clonal spread in hedgerow habitats. This is further corroborated by Klimešová et al. (2011), who
365 highlighted that (i) extensive lateral spread is typical for plants growing in more productive habitats with high levels
366 of aboveground competition where seedling establishment could be hampered, and that (ii) this higher investment
367 vegetative reproduction tends to be strongly correlated with plant height. Although speculative, the later could
368 partly explain the higher stature of *Anemone* individuals found in hedgerows. Yet, this hypothesis remains to be

369 confirmed, for instance, by comparing clonal traits for this species (or even a larger set of clonally spreading species)
370 among forest and hedgerow habitats (e.g. Lohmus et al. 2014; Paal et al. 2020).

371 Second, *Ficaria* seemed to be indifferent to both habitat types, albeit with a marginally higher RIR in hedgerows.
372 This is not surprising given that the species has been shown to exhibit a broad ecological amplitude (Taylor &
373 Markham 1978). For instance, *Ficaria* performs equally well in ancient and newly established forests on former
374 agricultural land (Verheyen & Hermy 2004; Baeten et al. 2009), with both forest types displaying highly divergent
375 habitat characteristics (e.g. pH, nutrient and light availability) (Flinn & Vellend 2005). Besides, as a very early vernal
376 geophyte *Ficaria* has the major part of its photosynthetic active period before the canopy has flushed, so that the
377 effect of forest canopy density and shading on its performance is almost negligible.

378 Third, the reproductive success of the summer-flowering species *Poa* and *Geum* was consistently higher in the linear
379 habitats. For *Geum*, this could be mainly attributed to the higher diurnal temperature maxima during the growing
380 season, whereas for *Poa* also the higher soil P levels and lower tree height played an important role. Indeed, both
381 species have been shown to occur abundantly in hedgerows. For instance, Endels et al. (2004) demonstrated that
382 the fast-colonizing *G. urbanum* is able to cope relatively well with both edaphic and microclimatic conditions
383 experienced in hedgerow habitats. Even more, in many across Northwest Europe, *G. urbanum* is much more a
384 species of hedges and woodland margins than of woodland interiors (see also Schmidt et al. 2009). The species'
385 preference for hedgerow environments is also corroborated by Taylor (1997), who reported that the reproductive
386 success and viable seed production of *G. urbanum* was enhanced as a response to increased light availability and
387 higher soil temperatures in the rooting zone after canopy disturbance. For *P. nemoralis*, Plue et al. (2013) found that
388 seed production increases as populations grow larger over time. In addition, the authors detected a negative effect
389 of increasing canopy cover on population size, leaving them to conclude that populations growing in shaded
390 habitats produce fewer seeds. Furthermore, it has been repeatedly documented in literature that the species tends
391 to forage after the available light at the forest floor, and therefore avoids darker forests or sites with varying light
392 intensities (see e.g. Diekmann 1994; Tinya and Odor 2016). This also suggests that the higher irradiance level in
393 hedgerows may actually be beneficial for its growth and essential for its regeneration. Finally, it should be noted
394 that, apart from a higher seed production, the ability of *Poa* and *Geum* to benefit from hedgerows as movement
395 conduits may be further enhanced by their dispersal mode. Seeds of these species may attach to the feet or fur of
396 vertebrates that move through hedgerows, hence achieving dispersal over large distances or across gaps in these

397 linear features. Ant- or slug-dispersed forest herbs such as *A. nemorosa*, on the other hand, have much lower rates
398 of population expansion and may experience difficulty crossing gaps in hedgerows (Matlack 2005).

399 5. Conclusion

400 Hedgerows are common forest-like elements in agricultural landscapes (Baudry et al. 2000), and have been
401 repeatedly advocated as an effective surrogate habitat for many forest herbs (Corbit et al. 1999; Roy & de Blois
402 2008; Liira et al. 2012; Vanneste et al. 2020a). Furthermore, given the predicted range shifts under contemporary
403 climate change, hedgerows may be crucial to allow the migration of species among isolated habitat fragments. The
404 occurrence of forest herbs in hedgerows has often been considered as evidence for habitat suitability (see de Blois
405 et al. 2002; Wehling & Diekmann 2009). However, to enhance the function of hedgerows as migration corridors
406 for forest plants, it is important that they also support the progressive, short-distance dispersal of multiple
407 generations. This is particularly the case for many forest specialist herbs, which are more likely to proximally
408 colonize a hedgerow attached to a forest patch, and then gradually migrate along the wooded corridor through
409 successive generations (see Lenoir et al. 2019). Our findings suggest that overall plant performance (i.e. a
410 combination of vegetative traits and reproductive fitness) of the summer-flowering forest herbs tends to be better
411 in hedgerows than in forest interiors, most probably due to the direct effect of the higher light and soil
412 phosphorous availability as well as more benign microclimate (i.e. higher growing season temperatures). The
413 ancient forest specialist *A. nemorosa*, however, showed a reduced reproduction from seeds in the hedgerows, but
414 could potentially maintain a viable population in these linear habitats by relying on its vegetative spread. Yet, since
415 sexual reproduction is still considered most important for population spread in this species (Brunet & Von Oheimb
416 1998), it remains unclear whether its progressive dispersal along hedgerow corridors will be limited on the longer
417 term. At large geographical scale, we demonstrate that hedgerows may contain reproductive populations of some
418 but not all forest herbs, and could therefore act as functional migration corridors to connect isolated forest
419 fragments (see also Endels et al. 2004; Paal et al. 2017; Lenoir et al. 2019). We underpin that strategies to conserve,
420 manage and establish hedgerow corridors in degraded agricultural landscapes across the globe are urgently needed,
421 given their potential to host diverse plant communities, and benefit the long-term persistence and migration of
422 species in an era of environmental change. These measures should not only focus on improving the habitat quality
423 within the hedgerows themselves, but also consider the surrounding landscape context as well as spatial positioning
424 of the hedgerows (i.e. proximity to historically continuous seed-source habitats; de Blois et al. 2002; Lenoir et al.
425 2019; Vanneste et al. 2020a).

426 Even so, deriving generalized conclusions from our results remains difficult because the response of forest plant
427 performance to hedgerow conditions is undoubtedly highly species specific (see Endels et al. 2004; Schmucki &
428 de Blois 2009). While some forest herbs perform better in hedgerows by taking advantage of the greater access to
429 resources and withstanding microclimatic stress, others may still prefer the environment of forest interiors where
430 potential competitors are suppressed due to reduced light and lower nutrient supply. Finally, even though our
431 findings suggest that well-established populations of forest herbs may thrive in hedgerows, it must be kept in mind
432 that recruitment was not explicitly accounted for in this study. Schmucki and de Blois (2009) found significantly
433 less seedlings and juveniles of *Trillium grandiflorum* in hedgerows than in forests, and suggested that the greater
434 microclimatic and edaphic stress observed in the linear habitats adversely affected the recruitment of this species.
435 Ultimately, lower germination rates as well as reduced survivorship of seedlings and juveniles may limit long-term
436 population persistence and hamper migration of forest herbs along hedgerow corridors. More detailed
437 demographic studies during multiple growing seasons are required to fully unravel the demography of forest herbs
438 once they have colonized these linear habitats.

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442 **Author contributions**

443 TV, PDF and KV conceived and designed the study. All authors were involved in the site selection and data
444 collection. TV and PDF conducted the statistical analyses. TV and PDF wrote the first draft of the paper, while
445 all authors contributed to revisions.

446 **Data availability statement**

447 Data available from Figshare, with identifier [10.6084/m9.figshare.8104499](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.8104499).

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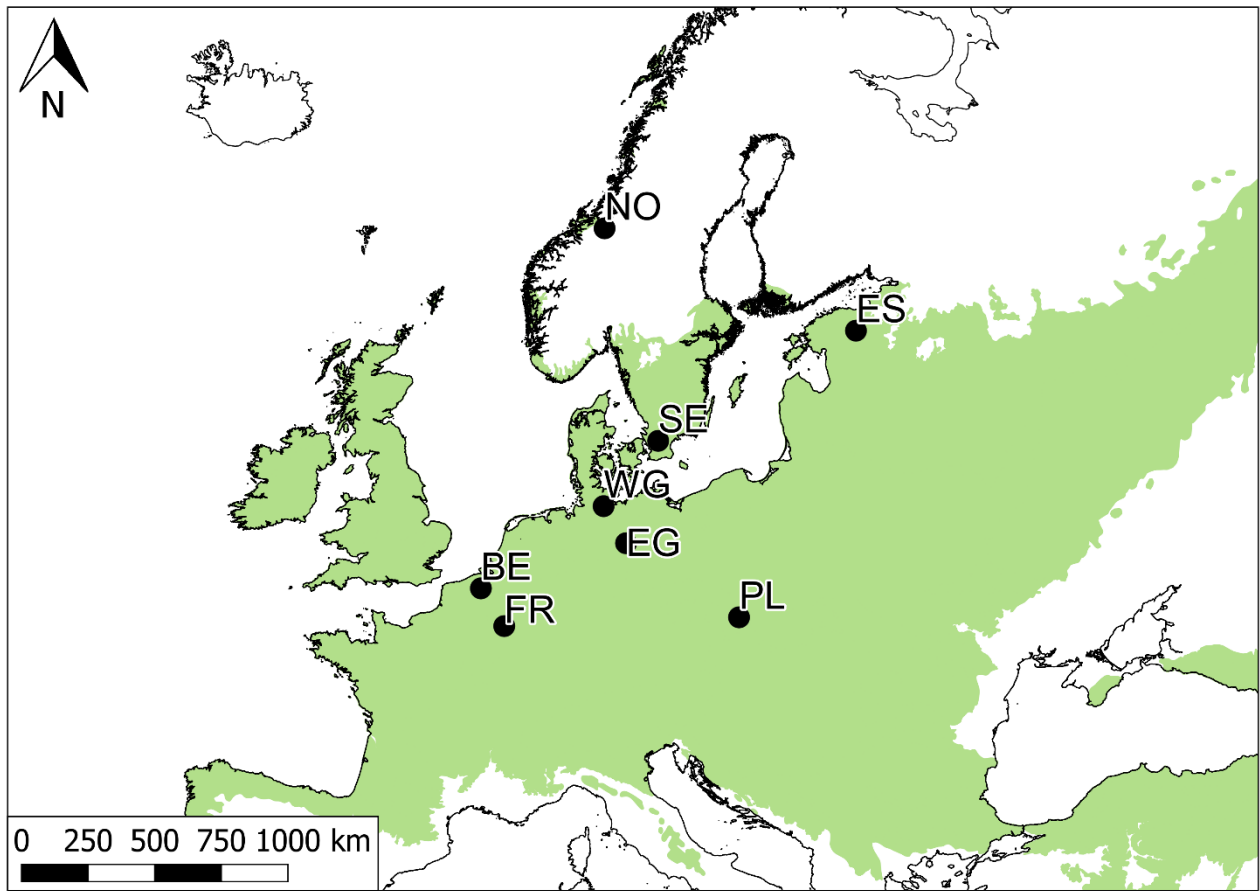
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678 **Supporting Information**

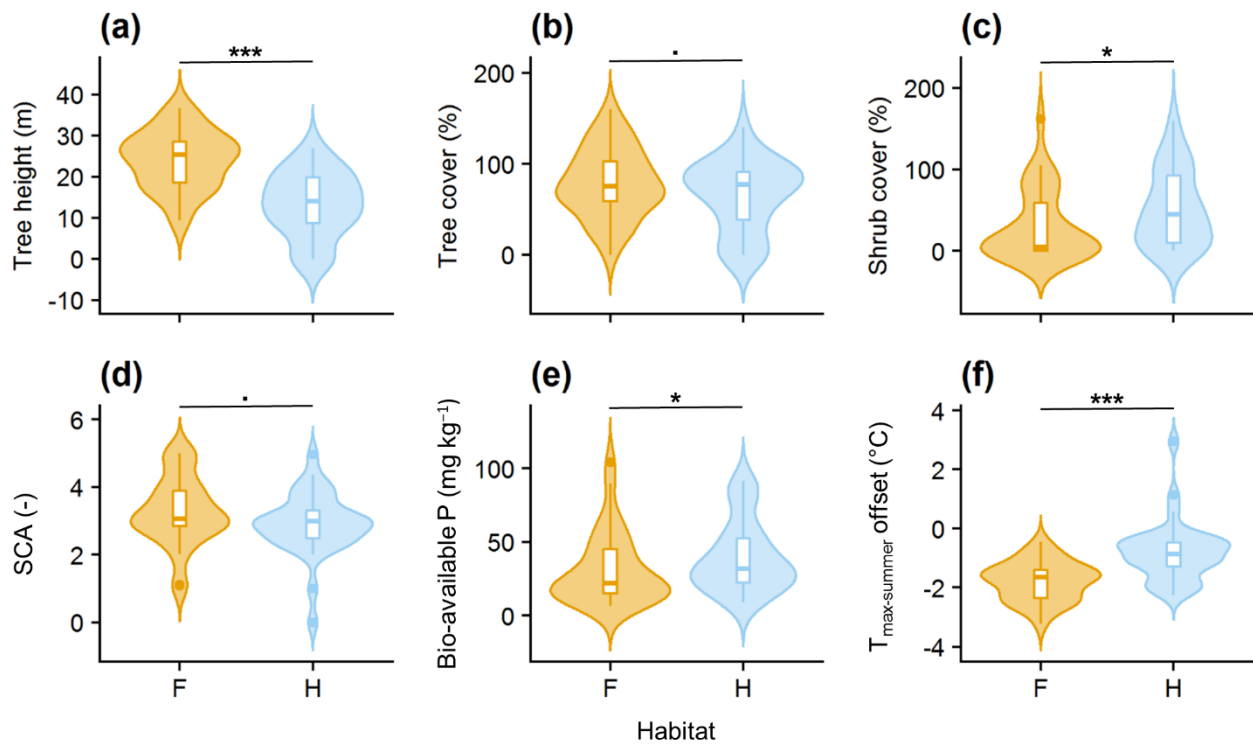
679 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

680 **Appendix S1.** Supplementary Materials & Methods, Tables and Figures.



682

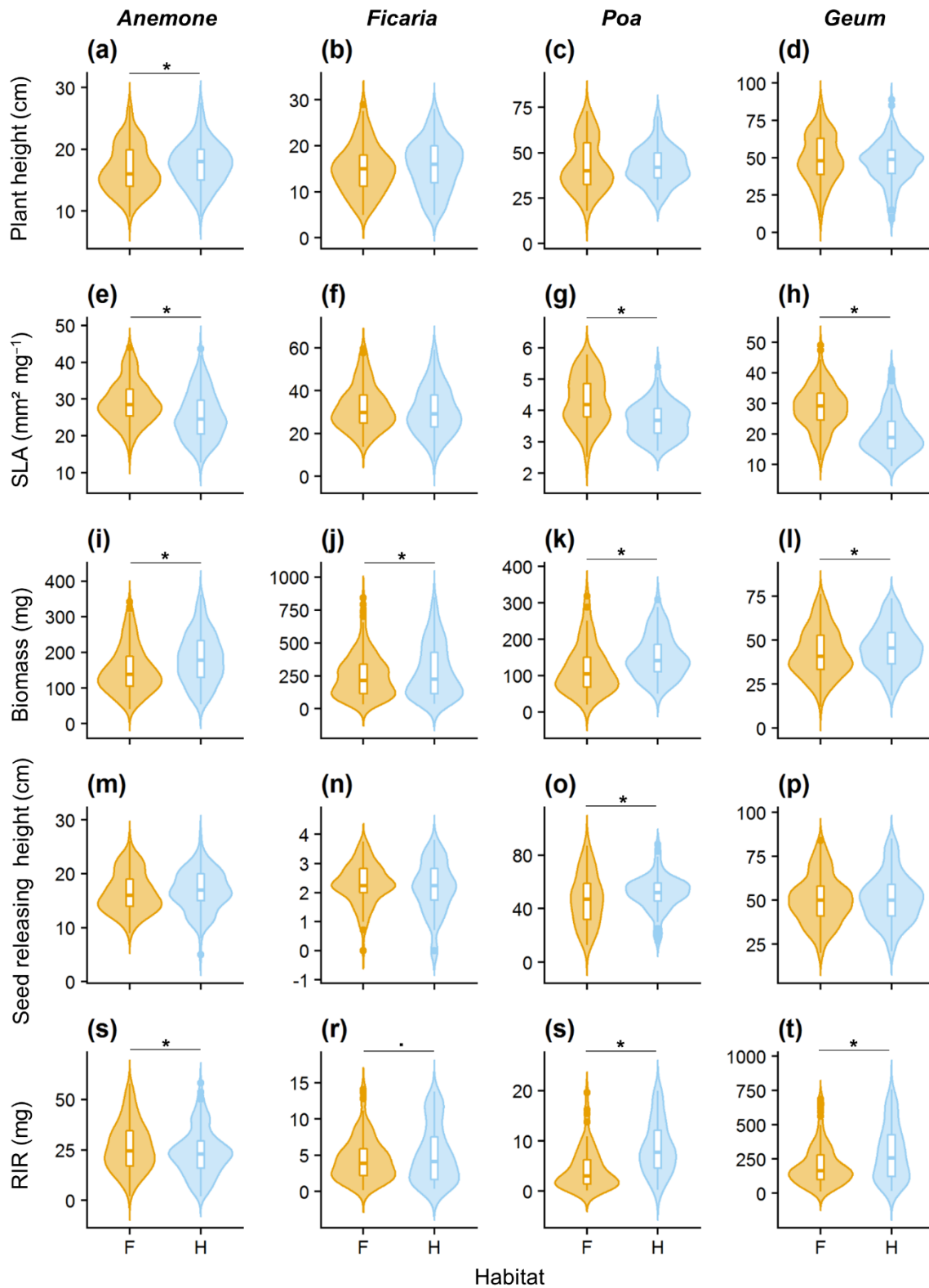
683 **Fig. 1.** Map showing the distribution of the eight study regions across Europe. The *light green* area represents the
684 temperate forest biome (broadleaf, mixed and coniferous forests) (adapted from Olson et al. 2001).



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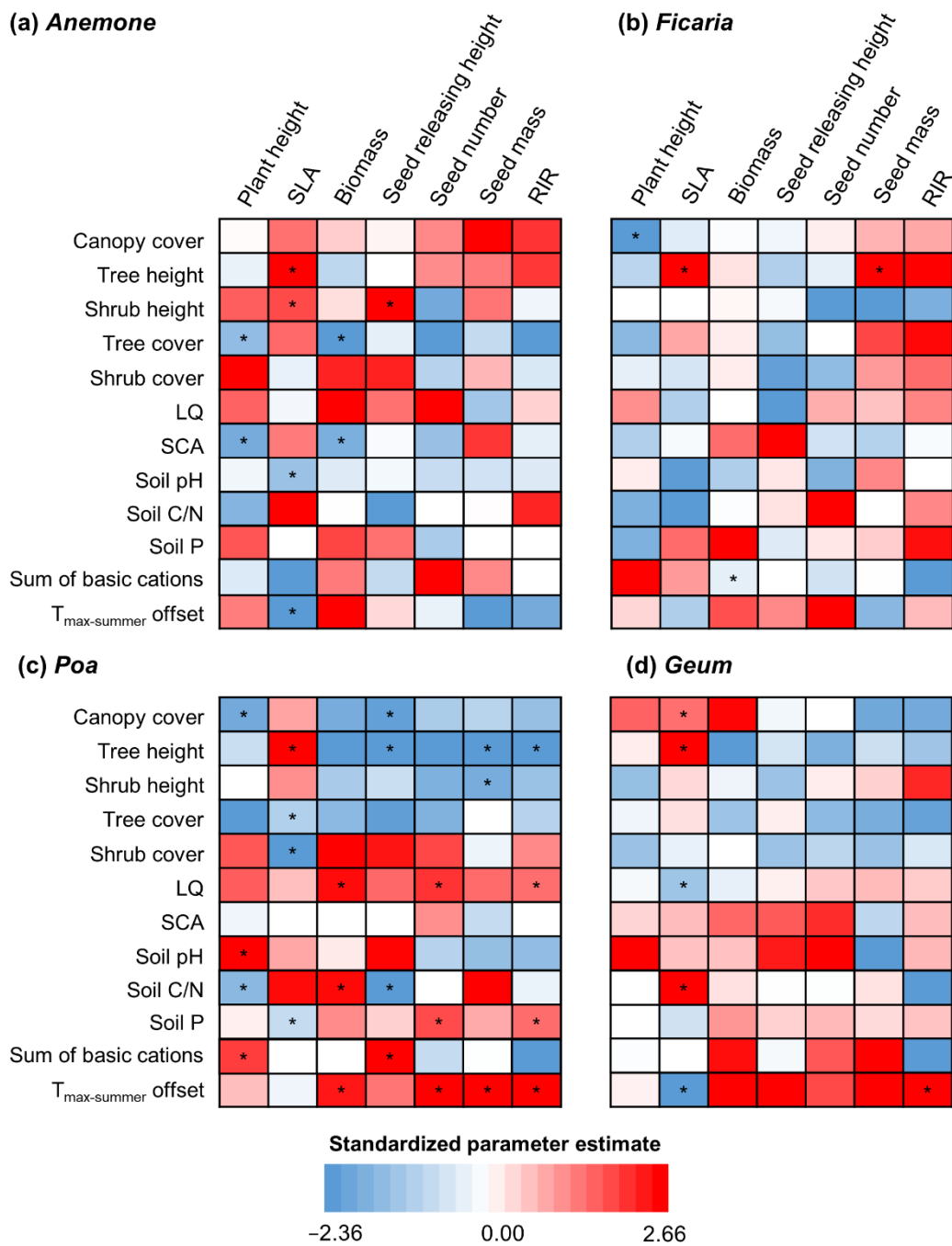
686 **Fig. 2.** Violin plots showing the difference in tree height (a), tree cover (b), shrub cover (c), shade-casting ability
 687 (SCA) (d), bio-available soil phosphorous (P) concentrations (e) and maximum summer temperature ($T_{\text{max-summer}}$)
 688 offset (temperature difference with a nearby weather station) (f) among forests and hedgerows. Differences
 689 between both habitats were tested with a linear mixed-effect model (LMM), and are indicated as “***” for $P <$
 690 0.001, “**” for $P <$ 0.01, “*” for $P <$ 0.05 and “.” for $P <$ 0.1.

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692

693 **Fig. 3.** Violin plots showing the difference in plant height (a, b, c, d), specific leaf area (SLA) (e, f, g, h), biomass
 694 (i, j, k, l), seed releasing height (m, n, o, p) and resource investment in reproduction (seed number × seed mass;
 695 RIR) (q, r, s, t) among forests and hedgerows for *Anemone nemorosa*, *Ficaria verna*, *Poa nemoralis* and *Geum urbanum*,
 696 respectively. Differences between both habitats were tested with a linear mixed-effect model (LMM), and are
 697 indicated as “***” for $P < 0.001$, “**” for $P < 0.01$, “*” for $P < 0.05$ and “.” for $P < 0.1$.



698

699 **Fig. 4.** Heat maps showing the predictive pairwise relationships between plant performance traits and
 700 environmental variables for *Anemone nemorosa* (a), *Ficaria verna* (b), *Poa nemoralis* (c) and *Geum urbanum* (d). The
 701 relationships between plant performance traits and environmental variables were tested with linear mixed-effect
 702 models (LMM). The colours represent the standardized parameter estimates (SPEs) and direction of the
 703 relationships; red and blue squares denote positive and negative relationships, respectively. Statistically significant
 704 relationships after correction for false discovery rate (FDR) are indicated as “*” at $P < 0.001$.