

# Unpaved roads disrupt the effect of herbivores and pollinators on the reproduction of a dominant shrub.

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#### 1 Abstract

Anthropogenic linear developments, such as trails and firebreaks, also called soft linear developments (SLD), can influence animal behavior, altering the ecological interactions in which animals are involved. For example, SLD can affect the behavior of pollinators and herbivores, but little is known about the combined effect of these three elements on plant reproduction.

7 We evaluated the combined effect of SLD, insect pollinators and herbivores (ungulates) 8 on three reproductive output variables (fruit set, seed set, and seed mass) of a Mediterranean 9 shrub (Halimium halimifolium). We considered two different habitats (SLD verges vs. adjacent 10 scrublands), two scenarios of herbivory (with and without ungulates), and three scenarios of 11 pollinator activity (without pollinators, with manual pollination and with natural pollination). 12 SLD had contrasting effects on H. halimifolium reproduction. In the absence of 13 herbivores, overall fruit set was lower in the verges of SLD than in adjacent scrublands, 14 probably due to lower flower pollination rates. Where herbivores were present, overall fruit set 15 was similar between habitats, because ungulate browsing was lower in SLD verges than in adjacent scrublands. The quantity and weight of seeds per fruit was similar in both habitats, 16 17 probably because all fertilized flowers received similar amounts of pollen. 18 SLD can alter the interaction among pollinators, herbivores and plants, leading to

changes in the reproductive performance of the latter. These changes can have strong negative
impacts on endangered plants that rely on fruit and seed production to persist. However, SLD
verges could be safe places for plants particularly sensitive to herbivory by ungulates.

22 Zusammenfassung

Anthropogene lineare Landschaftselemente wie Wanderwege oder Feuerschneisen
können das Verhalten von Tieren beeinflussen und damit die ökologischen Interaktionen, an
denen die Arten beteiligt sind, verändern. Diese grünen linearen Strukturen (GLS) können
beispielsweise das Verhalten von Bestäubern und Herbivoren beeinflussen, aber wenig ist über
den gemeinsamen Effekt dieser drei Elemente auf die Reproduktion von Pflanzen bekannt.

| 28 | Wir untersuchten den gemeinsamen Effekt von GLS, bestäubenden Insekten und                     |  |  |  |  |  |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 29 | Herbivoren (freilaufende Nutz- und Wildtiere) auf drei die reproduktive Leistung               |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | beschreibenden Variablen (Fruchtansatz, Samenansatz und Samengewicht) bei einem                |  |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | mediterranen Strauch (Halimium halimifolium). Wir untersuchten zwei Habitattypen (Ränder       |  |  |  |  |  |
| 32 | von GLS und benachbartes Buschland), zwei Herbivorievarianten (mit und ohne Huftiere) und      |  |  |  |  |  |
| 33 | drei Bestäubungsszenarien (ohne Bestäuber, manuelle Bestäubung und natürliche Bestäubung).     |  |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | GLS hatten unterschiedliche Auswirkungen auf die Reproduktion von H. halimifolium.             |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | Bei Herbivorenausschluss war der Gesamtfruchtansatz an den Rändern der GLS geringer als im     |  |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | Buschland, möglicherweise aufgrund von geringerer Bestäubung. Bei Anwesenheit von              |  |  |  |  |  |
| 37 | Herbivoren war der Gesamtfruchtansatz in beiden Habitattypen ungefähr gleich, weil die         |  |  |  |  |  |
| 38 | Huftiere an den GLS-Rändern weniger weideten als im Buschland. Die Menge und das Gewicht       |  |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | der Samen pro Frucht waren in beiden Habitattypen ähnlich, vermutlich weil alle befruchteten   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 40 | Blüten ähnliche Mengen von Pollen erhielten.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | GLS können die Interaktionen zwischen Bestäubern, Herbivoren und Pflanzen                      |  |  |  |  |  |
| 42 | verändern, was zu veränderter reproduktiver Leistung bei den Pflanzen führt. Diese             |  |  |  |  |  |
| 43 | Veränderungen können stark negative Auswirkungen auf gefährdete Pflanzenarten haben, die       |  |  |  |  |  |
| 44 | auf Frucht- und Samenproduktion angewiesen sind, um zu persistieren. Indessen können GLS-      |  |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | Ränder sichere Orte für Pflanzen sein, die gegen Pflanzenfraß durch Huftiere empfindlich sind. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | Keywords: ecosystem services, fruit set, Halimium halimifolium, herbivory,                     |  |  |  |  |  |
| 47 | pollination, trails.   |  |  |  |  |  |

# 48 Introduction

| 49 | Human-induced changes in plant and/or pollinator populations often lead to the            |  |  |  |  |  |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 50 | disruption of pollination mutualisms and consequently to pollen limitation (Ashman,       |  |  |  |  |  |
| 51 | Knight, Steets, Amarasekare, Burd et al. 2004; Gómez, Abdelaziz, Lorite, Muñoz-           |  |  |  |  |  |
| 52 | Pajares & Perfectti 2010; González-Varo, Arroyo & Aparicio 2009). Pollen limitation       |  |  |  |  |  |
| 53 | leads to decreased fruit and seed production in countless crops and wild plants, which    |  |  |  |  |  |
| 54 | negatively affects agricultural yields (Garibaldi, Aizen, Klein, Cunningham & Harder      |  |  |  |  |  |
| 55 | 2011) as well as the colonization ability and the persistence of wild plants (Biesmeijer, |  |  |  |  |  |
| 56 | Roberts, Reemer, Ohlemüller, Edwards et al. 2006; Bond 1994; Burd 1994).                  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 57 | Understanding how and to what extent human activities affect plant-pollinator             |  |  |  |  |  |
| 58 | interactions and, ultimately, plant reproductive performance, is therefore a priority for |  |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | conserving the supply of goods and services that plants provide (Biesmeijer et al. 2006;  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | Bond 1994; Isbell, Calcagno, Hector, Connolly, Harpole et al. 2011).                      |  |  |  |  |  |
| 61 | At a global scale, human activities have led to the so-called "pollination crisis"        |  |  |  |  |  |
| 62 | (Kearns, Inouye & Waser 1998). More specifically, pollinators are declining due to        |  |  |  |  |  |
| 63 | habitat loss and fragmentation (i.e. reduced availability of feeding and nesting          |  |  |  |  |  |
| 64 | resources), agriculture intensification (which usually involves pesticide and herbicide   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 65 | application), and climate change, in addition to the spread of pests, pathogens and alien |  |  |  |  |  |
| 66 | species (Potts, Biesmeijer, Kremen, Neumann, Schweiger et al. 2010). At smaller           |  |  |  |  |  |
| 67 | scales, pollinator abundance and behavior can be negatively influenced by local           |  |  |  |  |  |
| 68 | anthropogenic habitat transformation (Elliott, Lindenmayer, Cunningham & Young            |  |  |  |  |  |
| 69 | 2012; Kennedy, Lonsdorf, Neel, Williams, Ricketts et al. 2013; Winfree, Aguilar,          |  |  |  |  |  |
| 70 | Vázquez, LeBuhn & Aizen 2009).  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 71 | One of the most pervasive human-mediated habitat transformations is the                   |  |  |  |  |  |

72 construction of paved roads (e.g. highways), as well as similar structures that involve

minor habitat transformation such as trails and firebreaks (also known as "Soft Linear 73 Developments", SLD; Suárez-Esteban, Delibes & Fedriani 2013a). Paved roads can 74 have contrasting effects on plant pollination. For example, they can reduce the 75 frequency of pollinating birds visiting flowers (Geerts & Pauw 2011; but see Francis, 76 Kleist, Ortega & Cruz 2012; Magrach, Guitián & Larrinaga 2011). On the other hand, 77 roadsides often host flourishing grasslands that provide suitable habitats for diverse and 78 abundant populations of pollinators (Hopwood 2008; Noordijk, Delille, Schaffers & 79 80 Sýkora 2009).

SLD are as pervasive as paved roads (e.g. Pasher, Seed & Duffe 2013). 81 However, very few studies have assessed their effects on plant reproduction. For 82 example, SLD can result in increased habitat fragmentation and edge effects, such as 83 dust deposition on flowers, extreme climate conditions and pollinator mortality 84 85 (Cunningham 2000; Huang, Sun, Yu, Luo, Hutchings et al. 2009; Jules & Rathcke 1999; Kolb 2008; but see Magrach, Santamaría & Larrinaga 2013), that can reduce the 86 87 abundance of plants and pollinators, and also affect the behavior of the latter. On the 88 other hand, shrub hedgerows may exist in the verges of SLD, either because they were planted (Karim & Mallik 2008) or because they established naturally (Suárez-Esteban, 89 Delibes & Fedriani 2013b). In such cases, SLD might assist pollination, as hedgerows 90 91 are known to provide food resources and shelter for pollinators (Morandin & Kremen 92 2013; Schmucki & De Blois 2009). Interestingly, SLD can also modify the behavior of large herbivores such as ungulates. Wild ungulates usually avoid SLD and other similar 93 94 habitat edges (Cadenasso & Pickett 2000; Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013a). Therefore, SLD could buffer herbivore damage on plant reproduction (e.g. predation of leaves, flowers, 95 96 unripe fruits or whole plants), limiting the loss of plant attractiveness for pollinators (Gómez 2003). 97

| 98  | Although both pollinators and ungulates can be affected by SLD (Huang et al.                     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|-----|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 99  | 2009; James & Stuart-Smith 2000), and all these three elements pervasively co-occur in           |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 100 | the wild, no prior study has assessed their combined effect on plant reproduction. A             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 101 | better understanding on the potential of SLD to disrupt key plant-animal interactions            |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 102 | (e.g. pollination, herbivory) will allow us to better predict the effects of SLD and             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 103 | increase our efficiency when planning SLD networks. We specifically chose to evaluate            |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 104 | the combined effect of SLD, ungulate herbivores (e.g. deer, cattle) and pollinators on           |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 105 | the reproductive output of the common shrub Halimium halimifolium L. (Cistaceae) in              |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 106 | several patches of Mediterranean scrubland. We compare three measures of                         |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 107 | reproductive output (fruit set, seed set, and seed mass) in naturally-pollinated flowers         |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 108 | between two habitats (SLD verges and scrubland) under two scenarios of herbivory                 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 109 | (with and without ungulates). In order to link reproductive output and pollination               |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 110 | (Cunningham 2000), we compared flowers exposed to different pollination scenarios                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 111 | (without pollinators, with manual pollination and with natural pollination).                     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 112 | With this experimental design, we aimed to answer the following questions: does                  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 113 | herbivory by ungulates limit the reproductive output of <i>H. halimifolium</i> ? Are the effects |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 114 | of ungulates conditioned by the presence of SLD? Is the reproductive output of $H$ .             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 115 | halimifolium dependent upon pollination? Is this species' reproductive output affected           |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 116 | by SLD? Based on the literature, the net effect of SLD on <i>H. halimifolium</i> predispersal    |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 117 | reproductive performance is difficult to anticipate.   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 118 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 119 | Materials and methods  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

120 Study system

This study was carried out during April-August of 2010 and 2011 in Doñana
National Park (SW Spain; 37° 9' N, 6° 26' W; 510 km<sup>2</sup>; elevation 0-80 m). The climate

is Mediterranean sub-humid, characterized by dry, warm summers (June–September) 123 and mild, wet winters (December-March). Annual rainfall is irregular, averaging 577 124 125  $mm \pm 39$  SE, with 88.4% of rain falling between October and April (data from Natural Processes Monitoring Group, Doñana Biological Station, http://www-126 127 rbd.ebd.csic.es/Seguimiento/seguimiento.htm). 128 The Doñana area contains several habitats (e.g. marshland, scrubland, dunes) and a vast SLD system (over 2,000 km) composed mainly of dirt trails (62.5%) and 129 130 firebreaks (35.5%). The scrubland patches harbor a diverse community of native Mediterranean shrubs. This community of shrubs includes our model species, Halimium 131 halimifolium L., an abundant Cistaceae shrub that grows in a wide range of 132 environmental conditions in the Western Mediterranean. At Doñana, it dominates 133 134 extensive scrubland patches from the edges of marshlands to mobile dunes (Díaz 135 Barradas, Zunzunegui & García Novo 1999). Throughout the study area, it reaches similarly high densities in both SLD verges ( $10.14 \pm 1.33$  mean number of 136 individuals/ $m^2 \pm SE$ ) and in adjacent scrublands (9.79 ± 1.13; Suárez-Esteban et al. 137 138 2013b).

H. halimifolium has large (up to 62 mm in diameter) hermaphrodite yellow 139 flowers that bloom mainly in late-spring and early-summer (May-June; Herrera 1988). 140 141 Flowers emerge as apical inflorescences and are pollinated mainly by pollen-eating 142 beetles, such as Heliotaurus ruficollis Fabricius (Tenebrionidae), and less frequently by 143 some bees (Halictidae; (Herrera 1986). Both beetles and bees are usually observed feeding on *H. halimifolium* flowers both near and far from SLD in our study area 144 145 (Authors personal observation). Fertilized flowers lead to small dry fruits, containing 25 146 seeds on average (Herrera 1987a). After the fruiting period, fruits dry up and usually drop their seeds on the ground. Although no evident specialized dispersal mechanism is 147

observed, this species seems to have a great colonization ability, as documented in otherCistaceae species (Bastida & Talavera 2002).

Within our study area, browsing ungulates such as red deer (*Cervus elaphus* L.),
fallow deer (*Dama dama* L.), and livestock (e.g. cattle, horses) reach high densities,
because of the absence of both hunting pressure and natural predators. These ungulates
can severely damage *H. halimifolium* (Silva, Barradas & Zunzunegui 1996).

154

#### **Experimental design**

155 Because reproductive output can vary in time and space, we surveyed three 156 different study sites separated from each other by 2.5 - 14 km that are called "Reserva", "Rocina" and "Matasgordas" (described in detail in Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013a), during 157 two consecutive years (2010 and 2011). At each site, we set up two independent 158 159 experimental blocks separated by a minimum of 1 km (Fig. 1). Within each experimental block we set up four plots (~ 36 m<sup>2</sup> each). Two of the plots were located 160 along SLD verges and the other two were located in the scrubland, 60 meters away from 161 162 SLD (since most edge effects cease to be significant within 50 m; Murcia 1995; Fig. 1). 163 Of the two plots established in each habitat, one was fenced to exclude large herbivores 164 (i.e. ungulates such as deer and cattle), while another was left completely open (Fig. 1). Open and fenced plots within each habitat were adjacent, ensuring that they were 165 166 subjected to the same environmental conditions. In total, we established 24 plots (12 in SLD verges, 12 in the scrubland), all of them containing at least ten reproductive H. 167 halimifolium individuals. 168

169 To evaluate whether herbivory by ungulates affected the reproductive output of 170 *H. halimifolium* both near and far from SLD verges, we compared fruit set, seed set, and 171 seed mass between open and fenced plots in SLD verges and in the scrubland. To assess 172 whether SLD alone affected the reproductive output of *H. halimifolium*, we also

173 compared the same three reproductive measures between fenced plots (i.e. controlling174 for the effect of herbivory) in SLD verges and in the scrubland.

Linking habitat differences in reproductive output with differential pollination
requires confirmation that pollen reception limits the reproductive output (Cunningham
2000). To do this, in each plot we simulated three scenarios of pollinator activity:

a) Without pollinators:

After counting the flower-buds, we tagged and bagged a number of 179 180 inflorescences (five in 2010 and two in 2011) of each of five randomly selected H. halimifolium plants within each plot to preclude pollinator access (Parker 1997). 181 Overall, we tagged and bagged 779 inflorescences with 53152 flowers. After the 182 183 flowering period (July-August), we counted the resulting fruits and randomly sampled 184 three of them from each bagged inflorescence. All collected fruits were stored in paper 185 bags, then dissected in the lab to count the number of seeds produced per fruit and to measure their mass (using a precision scale). 186

187 b) Manually supplemented cross-pollination:

Using the same five *H. halimifolium* plants mentioned above, we randomly selected five open inflorescences that were different from those that had been bagged to exclude pollinators. For each of these open inflorescences, we added supplemental pollen to one randomly selected flower per inflorescence (hereafter "supplemented flower"), by rubbing its stigma with collected anthers from distant (20-30 m) conspecifics until it was completely covered with pollen.

Pollen addition may overestimate the magnitude of pollen limitation if plants
reallocate resources from non-manipulated flowers to supplemented flowers (Haig &
Westoby 1988; Knight, Steets & Ashman 2006). To assess whether such resource
reallocation occurs (thereby potentially affecting our results), for each supplemented

flower we labeled three control flowers: one within the same inflorescence as the 198 supplemented flower (hereafter "intra-inflorescence control"), one within another 199 200 inflorescence on the same plant (hereafter "inter-inflorescence control"), and the last one on another adjacent individual, outside the plot (hereafter "external control"). All 201 202 control flowers were exposed to natural pollination (no pollen was added). For this, we 203 tagged and monitored 1034 flowers for each of the four treatments (i.e. supplemented cross-pollination and three controls). After the flowering period, we counted all 204 205 resulting fruits set by supplemented and control flowers, harvesting and processing all 206 of them as above.

207

c)

Natural pollination

208 To estimate *H. halimifolium* natural fruit set, we tagged five inflorescences 209 (when possible) of each of five additional H. halimifolium plants (different from the five 210 plants used to simulate the absence of pollinators and the effect of supplemented crosspollination) within each plot and counted their flowers, which were exposed to natural 211 212 pollination (hereafter "naturally-pollinated flowers"). Overall, we tagged 1149 213 inflorescences with 80038 flowers. As above, we counted the number of fruits set by all 214 tagged inflorescences and randomly sampled three fruits from each. In the 2011 surveys, we selected the same individuals used in 2010 when possible. 215

216

#### Statistical analyses

Fruit set of bagged flowers (i.e. those that were not exposed to pollinators) was ~2% in both habitats, confirming that *H. halimifolium* reproductive output relies on animal pollination. Because of its small sample size, we excluded this treatment from the analyses.

Using data on the supplemented flowers, we evaluated whether habitat,herbivory or their interaction altered the importance of pollination for *H. halimifolium* 

reproductive output. To address the effect of habitat, we compared plots in SLD verges *vs.* plots in the scrubland. To address the effect of herbivory by ungulates, we compared
open *vs.* fenced plots. Finally, to quantify a potential interaction between habitat and
herbivory, we compared SLD verges with the scrubland in terms of any differences
between open and fenced plots.

We fitted three generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with three different response variables: (1) the proportion of flowers that set fruits, i.e. fruit set, per plant (using a binomial error-distribution and logit-link function), (2) the number of seeds produced per fruit, i.e. seed set (using a negative binomial distribution and log-link function), and (3) the overall seed mass per fruit (using a Gaussian distribution and identity-link function). In these models, we also included data on control flowers to assess the potential occurrence of resource reallocation.

Using data on natural pollination, we evaluated the effect of habitat, herbivory and their interaction on the reproductive output of naturally-pollinated flowers. To do so, we fitted three additional GLMMs with the same response variables as above (i.e. fruit set per plant, seed set per fruit and seed mass per fruit).

All GLMMs were implemented using the SAS 9.2 GLIMMIX procedure (Littell, 239 Milliken, Stroup, Wolfinger & Schabenberger 2006) and adjusted using maximum 240 241 likelihood (Bolker, Brooks, Clark, Geange, Poulsen et al. 2009). In all models we 242 considered the habitat (SLD verges vs. scrubland), herbivory by ungulates (open vs. 243 fenced plots), and their interaction as fixed factors. When analyzing whether pollen reception and resource reallocation varied among factor combinations, we also included 244 245 the pollination treatment (i.e. supplemented vs. control flowers; referred to as 246 "Supplement" in Table 1) and its interactions with habitat and herbivory as fixed factors. When any interaction was significant, we performed tests for the effect of a 247

factor at the different levels of the other factor ("tests of simple main effects") using the
SLICE option in the LSMEANS statement (Littell et al. 2006).

The use of GLMMs allowed us to model non-normal variables as well as to introduce random factors in order to account for temporal and spatial heterogeneity, in addition to potential individual effects that might influence our results. Specifically, we included the year, the study site, the plot (nested within site), and the plant (nested within plot) as random factors. For every model concerning seed set and seed mass, we removed from the dataset all fruits that presented some fault (e.g. with depredated, unripe or rotten seeds), which happened rarely.

257 **Results** 

#### 258

#### Supplemented cross-pollination

Pollen supplementation increased fruit set by 114.6%, seed set by 35.0% and seed mass by 29.0%, as compared with control (naturally-pollinated) flowers (see "Supplement" in Table 1; Fig. 3). This suggests that the reproductive output of *H. halimifolium* (all three variables) is generally limited under natural conditions. As found for naturally-pollinated flowers, fruit set of both supplemented and control flowers was slightly higher in fenced plots than in open plots in the scrubland, although these differences were only marginally significant (Table 1).

With respect to the possibility of resource reallocation, control flowers showed similar (P > 0.05) fruit set (Fig. 2), seed set (Fig. 3) and seed mass. This indicates the lack of resource reallocation in *H. halimifolium* at any scale, reinforcing the strength of our inference on the link between pollen reception and reproductive output in our study system.

The effect of pollen supplementation on fruit set was consistent in both habitats, and in both fenced and open plots (i.e. habitat, herbivory and their interactions with the

pollination treatment were not statistically different between either habitats or plots;
Table 1). However, when analyzing seed set and seed mass, we found marginally
significant differences between habitats (see "Habitat" in Table 1). These marginal
differences were the result of a higher seed set and seed mass of pollen-supplemented
flowers in the scrubland than in SLD verges (see Fig. 3). We did not find any other
significant effect of habitat or herbivory on seed set or seed mass (Table 1).

279

#### Natural pollination

280 Naturally-pollinated flowers set 27689 fruits (overall fruit set 34.6%; n = 281 80038). Habitat and herbivory did not significantly affect fruit set (Table 1). However, the interaction between habitat and herbivory was significant (Table 1), suggesting that 282 283 the effect of ungulates differed between habitats. Indeed, the exclusion of ungulates had 284 a significant effect in the scrubland, but not in SLD verges. In SLD verges we found no 285 differences in the fruit set between open and fenced plots. In the scrubland, however, fruit set was 33.0% higher in fenced than in open plots (Fig. 4). Considering exclusively 286 287 the differences between fenced plots in both habitats (i.e. controlling for the effect of 288 herbivory), the fruit set per plant was a 33.1% higher in the scrubland than in SLD verges (test of slices:  $F_{1,113} = 6.90$ ; P < 0.01; Fig. 4). Thus, SLD negatively affected H. 289 halimifolium fruit set in absence of ungulates. 290

We collected 2612 fruits (9.43% of the counted fruits) to estimate the number of seeds and their overall mass per fruit of naturally-pollinated flowers. The number of seeds produced per fruit ranged between 1 and 72. The mean number of seeds produced per fruit was similar between SLD verges ( $20.12 \pm 1.81$ ; mean  $\pm$  SE) and adjacent scrublands ( $21.87 \pm 1.96$ ; Table 1). We did not find a significant effect of herbivory by ungulates on seed set (Table 1). This lack of ungulate effect was consistent in both habitats (the interaction Habitat\*Herbivory was not significant; Table 1).

The overall seed mass per fruit ranged between 0.1 and 31.4 mg. As was true for the average seed set, seed mass was similar between SLD verges ( $8.97 \pm 0.59$  mg; mean  $\pm$  SE) and adjacent scrublands ( $9.80 \pm 0.59$  mg). We did not detect any significant effect of habitat, herbivory, or their interaction on seed mass (Table 1). These results for both seed set and seed mass suggest that SLD did not affect seed production.

303 **Discussion** 

304

#### Effects of SLD on pollination

As found by Herrera (1987a), bagged H. halimifolium barely produced fruits in 305 306 either habitat. Furthermore, Herrera (1987b) found that self-pollinated flowers of a 307 closely related species (H. calycinum) did not set any fruit. This evidence suggests that 308 *H. halimifolium* is highly dependent on cross-pollination mediated by insects regardless of the presence of SLD. H. halimifolium did not reallocate resources in response to 309 310 pollen supplementation. This confirms that the more pollen a plant receives, the more fruits and seeds it produces, i.e. *H. halimifolium* is pollen-limited, as found for other 311 species (Burd 1994; Parker 1997). This pollen-reception dependence was consistent in 312 both habitats. 313

We found that, in the absence of herbivores, plants in SLD verges produced 314 315 relatively fewer fruits despite having a similar seed yield (i.e. seed number and mass) 316 per fruit than plants in the scrubland. Given that pollen-reception is positively correlated 317 with both fruit and seed production, our results suggest that the proportion of pollinated 318 flowers was lower in SLD verges than in the scrubland (which resulted in a lower fruit 319 set), but all pollinated flowers received similar amounts of pollen, regardless of the 320 habitat (which explains the consistency of seed set and seed mass between habitats). 321 Lower flower pollination rates in SLD verges relative to adjacent scrubland in 322 the absence of herbivores can be related to the reception of fewer or poorer quality

pollen grains (Aizen & Harder 2007). Lower pollen arrival is usually associated with
either lower visitation rates by pollinators (Kolb 2008; Parker 1997) or with lower
pollinator efficiency when removing and transporting pollen, e.g. due to briefer visits
(Aizen et al. 2007; Wilson & Thomson 1991). As our results suggest that all pollinated
flowers received a similar amount of pollen, we assume that pollinator efficiency did
not vary between habitats. Thus, we propose that this pattern is largely explained by
lower visitation rates.

330 Flower visitation rates by pollinators can be affected by abiotic conditions (Jules et al. 1999). As a matter of fact, we observed that H. halimifolium flowers tended to 331 close with windy weather. Wind turbulence and exposure is probably much higher at 332 SLD verges, given the lack of surrounding, protective vegetation. This probably 333 334 decreased the period of time during which H. halimifolium flowers along SLD were 335 available relative to those within the scrubland. Reduced availability of open flowers could have reduced the likelihood of pollen reception and fecundation in SLD due to 336 337 both a reduced time of exposure for each flower, as well as an overall reduction in 338 attractiveness for pollinators. Furthermore, wind intensity and turbulence can hinder pollinator activity (Sayre, Kelty, Simmons, Clayton, Kassam et al. 2013), which could 339 act in synergy with the reduced availability of flowers. 340

Considering that in the absence of herbivores, naturally-pollinated flowers set more fruits in the scrubland than along SLD verges, the overall production of seeds in the scrubland was higher than in SLD verges. Although the number of seeds per fruit set by naturally-pollinated flowers was similar in both habitats, we found that pollensupplemented flowers set a significantly higher number of seeds per fruit in the scrubland than along SLD verges (see "Suppl" in Fig. 3). This suggests the existence of

other effects of SLD (e.g. dust deposition and interference with pollen, Lewis, Schupp
& Monaco 2012) that would affect negatively the seed set when pollen is unlimited.

349

#### Combined effect of SLD and ungulates on plant reproduction

Large ungulates such as red deer and caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*) usually avoid
linear structures such as SLD (James et al. 2000; Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013a).

Accordingly, we only found a negative effect of ungulates on *H. halimifolium* fruit set

in the scrubland (Fig. 4). Thus, SLD had a partly beneficial effect on *H. halimifolium* 

354 reproductive output. We did not detect any significant effect of herbivory by ungulates

355 on the number of seeds produced per fruit. This suggests that ungulates mainly disrupt

356 fruit set, probably by removing flowers and entire inflorescences (Vázquez &

Simberloff 2004). By reducing the fruit set in the scrubland, ungulates diminished in
turn the overall production of seeds in that habitat, but not at SLD verges. However, this

359 potentially positive effect of SLD was counterbalanced by other negative effects on

pollination (see above). We expect this reduction in herbivory mediated by SLD will berather advantageous in other plant ontogenetic stages, such as the seedling and the

362 sapling stage (Cadenasso et al. 2000).

363

#### **Conclusions and implications**

Effective management of plant populations in anthropic ecosystems requires an 364 365 understanding of the ecological drivers of plant reproduction and how they interact with pervasive human features. Our results suggest that SLD can have negative effects on 366 local pollination and thereby on the reproductive output of *H. halimifolium*, a dominant 367 Mediterranean shrub. However, limited fruit or seed production do not necessarily mean 368 369 a negative effect on plant populations (Herrera, Medrano, Rey, Sánchez-Lafuente, 370 García et al. 2002). Negative effects of SLD on pollination might be overcome by positive effects at other stages such as seed dispersal (Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013a), 371

while the resulting net effect will ultimately determine plant fitness (Magrach et al.
2013). Despite the importance of considering all ontogenetic stages as a whole, very
little is known about whether SLD affect seed predation, germination, and seedling
establishment (Ogden, Heynen, Oslender, West, Kassam et al. 2013; but see SuárezEsteban 2013). Thus, further research is clearly needed.

377 Given that H. halimifolium readily colonizes SLD after one year without perturbations (Authors personal observation), fruit and seed set do not seem to be the 378 379 most limiting factors for population size. Rather, the availability of empty sites without 380 competitors is more likely to influence H. halimifolium dynamics. However, the fact that we detected a negative effect of SLD on the reproductive output of such locally 381 382 widespread and abundant species suggests that SLD disturbances could have a deeper 383 impact on other taxa (Cunningham 2000). For instance, those plants with small 384 populations, depending upon specialist pollinators sensitive to SLD derived effects (e.g. wind, dust), and those whose fitness relies mainly on sexual reproduction, will likely be 385 386 significantly deterred by SLD. On the other hand, SLD could have a positive effect on 387 plant populations whose viability is negatively affected by ungulates. Therefore, careful 388 SLD development in conjunction with further research is desirable to effectively manage sensitive plant populations. 389

SLD effects are likely heterogeneous among different species (i.e. SLD effects are context-dependent; Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013b). This highlights the importance of local scale studies that can be translated into management practices. In order to reduce the negative effects of SLD on pollination, we propose the conservation of roadside native vegetation. SLD verges have the potential to host shrubby hedgerows (Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013b) that can act as wind and dust screens, as well as provide pollinators with habitat for both foraging or nesting (Morandin et al. 2013; Mwangi,

- 397 Kasina, Nderitu, Hagen, Gikungu et al. 2012). Natural hedgerows along roadsides can
- be achieved by conserving endozoochorous seed dispersal vectors that positively select
- 399 SLD verges for defecation (Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013a) and by promoting shrub
- 400 establishment along SLD verges (Karim et al. 2008; Suárez-Esteban et al. 2013b).

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565

### 567 **TABLES**

**Table 1.** Results of the GLMMs fitted for testing the effects of habitat, herbivory, pollen-supplementation (Supplement) and their interactions on

the fruit set, seed set and seed mass. *P*-values are represented by asterisks (m.s. P < 0.07; \* P < 0.05; \*\*\* P < 0.001).

|                | Supplemented cross-pollination |                      |          |                      |           |                      | Natural pollination |       |          |       |           |      |
|----------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|----------------------|---------------------|-------|----------|-------|-----------|------|
|                | Fruit set                      |                      | Seed set |                      | Seed mass |                      | Fruit set           |       | Seed set |       | Seed mass |      |
| Factor         | df                             | F                    | df       | F                    | df        | F                    | df                  | F     | df       | F     | df        | F    |
| Habitat        | 1,763                          | 0.16                 | 1,1369   | 3.73 <sup>m.s.</sup> | 1,1369    | 3.73 <sup>m.s.</sup> | 1,113               | 2.72  | 1,2491   | 1.90  | 1,2491    | 1.61 |
| Herbivory      | 1,763                          | 0.23                 | 1,1369   | 2.27                 | 1,1369    | 2.04                 | 1,113               | 2.71  | 1,2491   | 0.002 | 1,2491    | 0.08 |
| Supplement     | 3,763                          | 127.89***            | 3,1369   | 39.04***             | 3,1369    | 34.86***             | -                   | -     | -        | -     | -         | -    |
| Hab*Suppl      | 3,763                          | 2.19                 | 3,1369   | 0.63                 | 3,1369    | 1.57                 | -                   | -     | -        | -     | -         | -    |
| Herb* Suppl    | 3,763                          | 1.74                 | 3,1369   | 1.62                 | 3,1369    | 1.01                 | -                   | -     | -        | -     | -         | -    |
| Hab*Herb       | 1,763                          | 3.29 <sup>m.s.</sup> | 1,1369   | 0.00                 | 1,1369    | 0.34                 | 1,113               | 4.34* | 1,2491   | 0.13  | 1,2491    | 0.04 |
| Hab*Herb*Suppl | 3,763                          | 0.45                 | 3,1369   | 1.35                 | 3,1369    | 0.88                 | -                   | -     | -        | -     | -         | -    |

#### **Figure captions**

**Fig. 1.** Spatial distribution of our three study sites inside Doñana National Park (SW Spain). In each of the three sites, we set up two experimental blocks, with open and fenced plots both along SLD (dark grey stripe) verges and in the scrubland, as shown by the diagram in the top-right.

**Fig. 2.** Model-adjusted means ( $\pm$  SE) of fruit set by pollen-supplemented ("Suppl") and control flowers (from left to right: intra-inflorescence, inter-inflorescence and external controls) along SLD verges (black bars) and in the scrubland (white bars). We only found significant differences between supplemented (a) and all types of control flowers (b). No significant differences were found between habitats (n.s. = non significant, *P* > 0.05).

**Fig. 3.** Model-adjusted means ( $\pm$  SE) of seed set by pollen-supplemented ("Suppl") and control flowers (from left to right: intra-inflorescence, inter-inflorescence and external controls) along SLD verges (black bars) and in the scrubland (white bars). We only found significant differences between supplemented and control flowers. No significant variations were found between habitats, though the overall seed set was slightly higher in the scrubland as compared with SLD verges (\*\* *P* < 0.01; m.s. *P* = 0.054; n.s. = non significant, *P* > 0.054).

**Fig. 4.** Model-adjusted means ( $\pm$  SE) of fruit set by naturally-pollinated flowers along SLD verges (black bars) and in the scrubland (white bars) between open and fenced plots (i.e. with and without ungulates, respectively). Letters show whether differences between least-square means were significant (n.s. = non significant).

# FIGURE 1

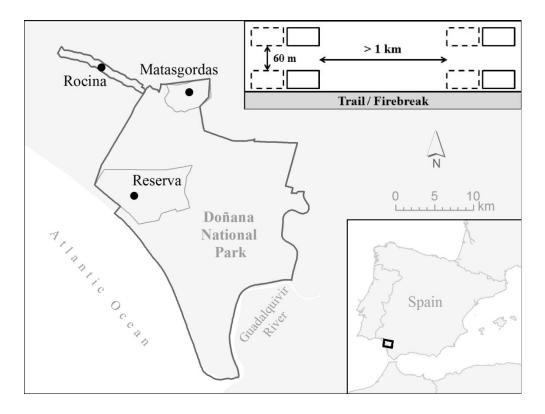


FIGURE 2

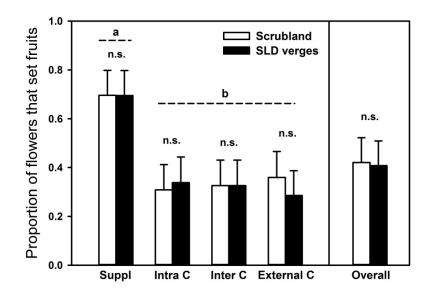


FIGURE 3

