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Title: Weak evidence of long-term extinction debt in Pannonian dry sand grasslands.

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Abstract: Habitat loss is one of the major drivers of the reduction in biological diversity worldwide. European dry grasslands are particularly endangered. However, the persistence of populations can temporarily mitigate species loss - a process referred to as 'extinction debt'. We test this hypothesis using historical and present day habitat maps and current plant biodiversity data collected in the forest-steppe zone of Europe. In 16 5×5 km study sites, representing the landscape heterogeneity of the Kiskunság region (Hungary), 86 20×20 m vegetation plots were made in open and closed calcareous sand grasslands. Grassland diversity was measured as the number of specialist species, defined by statistical fidelity measures using primary and secondary grassland plots. Landscape context was quantified using the areal extent of semi-natural forest-steppe vegetation in a 300 m neighbourhood of the plots, based on recent and historical maps (1783, 1860, 1950s, 1987-89 and 2005). The number of specialist species was estimated with Poisson generalized linear models using the present landscape context, climatic conditions, and a proxy of soil type as covariates. To test for the effect of historical legacies, Pearson residuals from the present models were tested for significant relationships between the residuals and the historical landscape contexts using linear models. We found that the present landscape context had no significant relationship with the specialist species richness of the primary grassland fragments. However, we found a significant relationship between the historical landscape context of the 19th century and the residuals of the present model. Even though the extent of natural vegetation in the 20th century showed more drastic changes, the landscape context in 1950s and 1987-1989 exhibited no significant statistical relationship with the residuals. This delay of species loss is consistent with the extinction debt hypothesis.

- Effect of present and past landscape context examined on sand grassland biodiversity.
- Primary grassland specialist species defined by statistical fidelity measures.
- Present landscape had no significant relationship with specialist species richness.
- Landscape context of 19<sup>th</sup> century affects significantly the present biodiversity.
- Long term delay of species loss is consistent with the extinction debt hypothesis.

1 Weak evidence of long-term extinction debt in Pannonian dry sand grasslands.

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3 Rédei, Tamás<sup>a</sup>, Szitár, Katalin<sup>a</sup>, Czúcz, Bálint<sup>a</sup>, Barabás, Sándor<sup>b</sup>, Lellei-Kovács, Eszter<sup>a</sup>,

4 Pándi, Ildikó<sup>c</sup>, Somay, László<sup>a</sup> and Csecserits, Anikó<sup>a</sup>

5

6 a: Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Centre for Ecological Research,

7

Institute of Ecology and Botany

8

Alkotmány út 2-4. 2163 Vácrátót, Hungary,

9

b: Corvinus University of Budapest, Department of Botany

10

Ménesi út 44. 1118 Budapest, Hungary

11

c: Szent István University, Botanical Garden

12

Páter K. u. 1. 2103 Gödöllő, Hungary

13

14 Corresponding author: Tamás Rédei, (redei.tamas@okologia.mta.hu); +3628360122

15

16 Abstract

17

18 Habitat loss is one of the major drivers of the reduction in biological diversity worldwide.

19 European dry grasslands are particularly endangered. However, the persistence of populations

20 can temporarily mitigate species loss – a process referred to as 'extinction debt'. We test this

21 hypothesis using historical and present day habitat maps and current plant biodiversity data

22 collected in the forest-steppe zone of Europe. In 16 5×5 km study sites, representing the

23 landscape heterogeneity of the Kiskunság region (Hungary), 86 20×20 m vegetation plots

24 were made in open and closed calcareous sand grasslands. Grassland diversity was measured

25 as the number of specialist species, defined by statistical fidelity measures using primary and

26 secondary grassland plots. Landscape context was quantified using the areal extent of semi-  
27 natural forest-steppe vegetation in a 300 m neighbourhood of the plots, based on recent and  
28 historical maps (1783, 1856, 1950s, 1987-89 and 2005). The number of specialist species was  
29 estimated with Poisson generalized linear models using the present landscape context,  
30 climatic conditions, and a proxy of soil type as covariates. To test for the effect of historical  
31 legacies, Pearson residuals from the present models were tested for significant relationships  
32 between the residuals and the historical landscape contexts using linear models.  
33 We found that the present landscape context had no significant relationship with the specialist  
34 species richness of the primary grassland fragments. However, we found a significant  
35 relationship between the historical landscape context of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and the residuals of  
36 the present model. Even though the extent of natural vegetation in the 20<sup>th</sup> century showed  
37 more drastic changes, the landscape context in 1950s and 1987-1989 exhibited no significant  
38 statistical relationship with the residuals. This delay of species loss is consistent with the  
39 extinction debt hypothesis.

41 Keywords: calcareous sand, primary grassland, land use change, historical map, habitat  
42 continuity

44 Nomenclature: Simon (2000) for vascular plants.

## 47 1 Introduction

49 Loss and fragmentation of natural and semi-natural habitats are among the main reasons for  
50 the erosion of biological diversity experienced worldwide (Foley et al., 2005). In Europe, dry

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grasslands are particularly endangered by habitat loss and fragmentation; therefore, they are a major focus of nature conservation. Large areas of dry grasslands were ploughed prior to the 20th century (Drobnik et al., 2011; Török et al., 2011, Molnár et al., 2012), and the loss of dry grasslands continues to the present day due to afforestation and urbanization. The residual fragments are often degraded by inappropriate management (e.g. over- or undergrazing, lack of mowing). However, these remnants maintain significant plant biodiversity (Ruprecht et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2012). Long term habitat continuity of semi-natural grasslands increases the proportion of grazing dependent species without significantly changing total species richness (Johansson et al., 2008).

Habitat loss and fragmentation result in a decline of species diversity due to both increased extinction risk and reduced colonization rate (Cristofoli et al., 2010; Cousins and Vanhoenacker, 2011). Species diversity reduction can happen immediately following habitat destruction but usually occurs after a species specific time lag or ‘relaxation time’ (Diamond, 1972). The number of species extinctions expected to occur in the future is termed ‘extinction debt’ (Tilman et al., 1994), which is offset when the community reaches its new equilibrium species diversity corresponding to the altered landscape configuration (Jackson and Sax, 2010). Revealing the magnitude and time scale of this delay is important to estimate the conservation potential of a given habitat (Kuussaari et al., 2009).

Although extinction debt may be common in many natural communities worldwide (Kuussaari et al., 2009), our knowledge on the occurrence and magnitude of this phenomenon across ecosystems and taxa is highly incomplete (Krauss et al., 2010). Several studies found evidence of plant species extinction debt in semi-natural grasslands in north-western Europe (Lindborg and Eriksson, 2004; Helm et al., 2006; Piessens and Hermy, 2006; Ellis and Coppins, 2007; Cousins, 2009; Cousins and Vanhoenacker, 2011). Other studies did not detect the presence of extinction debt (Adriaens et al., 2006, Cousins et al., 2007).



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76 However, knowledge of the presence of extinction debt in grasslands of the Eastern European  
77 forest steppe zone is lacking, and there is a clear need for more studies from different parts of  
78 the world (Cousins, 2009; Kuussaari et al., 2009).

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79 Plant species differ significantly in their likelihood of showing an extinction debt (Vellend et  
80 al., 2006; Kuussaari et al., 2009; Piqueray et al., 2011a). When populations come close to  
81 their extinction threshold, time delay to their extinction can last for particularly long periods  
82 (Kareiva and Wennegren, 1995; Hanski and Ovaskainen, 2002). Relaxation time can be long  
83 in cases of long-lived species (Helm et al., 2006), species with persistent seed bank (Piessens  
84 and Hermy, 2006; Cristofoli et al., 2010), species showing long-distance dispersal potential  
85 by wind and animals (Purschke et al., 2012), and species able to spread clonally (Purschke et  
86 al., 2012). Species with a high degree of habitat specialization are expected to exhibit greater  
87 sensitivity to habitat changes than generalist species (Kuussaari et al., 2009); therefore, they  
88 are expected to have a smaller extinction debt than generalists (Cousins and Vanhoenacker,  
89 2011). Despite this trend, several studies demonstrated extinction debt of habitat specialists  
90 (Ellis and Coppins, 2007; Cristofoli et al., 2010; Cousins and Vanhoenacker, 2011). As the  
91 effects of habitat change can be masked with the arrival of new species, the number of habitat  
92 specialists can be a better indicator of extinction debt than total species richness (Kuussaari et  
93 al., 2009). In the study by Helm et al. (2006), habitat specialists showed an extinction debt in  
94 Estonian alvar grasslands after 70 years, while past landscape structure did not have any  
95 significant effect on total species richness.

96 Kuussaari et al. (2009) describes several approaches to evaluate extinction debt. As long-term  
97 data on species occurrences are rarely available, most studies assess extinction debt by  
98 comparing current species richness in currently stable and unstable fragmented landscapes  
99 (Hanski and Ovaskainen, 2002; Helm et al., 2006; Piqueray et al., 2011a; Piqueray et al.,

100 2011b) or by assessing if current species richness can be better interpreted by past rather than  
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2 101 present landscape variables (Adriaens et al., 2006; Ellis and Coppins, 2007; Sang et al., 2010).  
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4 102 Piqueray et al. (2011a) compared these two methods in calcareous grasslands in Belgium and  
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7 103 found that the two methods resulted in the same conclusions. As the determination of stable  
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10 104 and unstable fragmented landscapes is rather arbitrary, we use the second approach in our  
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12 105 study.



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17 107 In this paper, we address the following questions:  
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- 19 108 1. What is the magnitude of natural habitat loss in the surroundings of the Pannonian  
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21 primary sand grasslands?  
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24 110 2. Is the number of specialists in primary grasslands related to either the current or  
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26 historical extent of adjacent semi-natural forest steppe habitats?  
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29 112 3. Can extinction debt be observed in the vascular flora of primary sand grasslands in the  
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31 European forest steppe zone?  
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## 33 34 114 35 36 115 37 38 116 2 Materials and methods

### 39 117 40 41 118 2.1 Study area

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46 120 Our study area, the Kiskunság, is an inland sand dune area in the centre of the Pannonian  
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48 biogeographic region with an extent of 7500 km<sup>2</sup>. The climate of the region is continental  
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51 121 with submediterranean influence. The mean annual temperature is 10 °C with monthly means  
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53 122 ranging from –1 °C in January to 22 °C in July. Mean annual precipitation is 500–550 mm,  
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56 123 with a peak in June, and a second, minor peak in November with a gradual decrease from  
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125 North to South and from West to East. (Borhidi, 1993; Kovács-Láng et al., 2000). The  
126 dominant substrate is calcareous sand, on which various sand soil types developed with high  
127 sand (over 90%) and low humus content (below 3%) (AGROTOPO, 1994; Csecserits et al.,  
128 2011). The elevation is between 110 and 160 m a.s.l. in the entire region. The natural  
129 vegetation mosaic consists of sand forest steppe with wetlands in lower elevation areas  
130 (Zólyomi, 1974). The major components of the forest-steppe complex have continuously  
131 persisted in a significant extent during the Holocene (Zólyomi and Fekete, 1994; Fekete et al.,  
132 2010; Magyari et al., 2010). Most of the endemic plant species in the region are dry grassland  
133 specialists (e.g. *Festuca vaginata*, *Festuca x wagneri*, *Colchicum arenarium*, *Dianthus*  
134 *diutinus*, *Dianthus serotinus*, *Iris arenaria*), which is also indirect evidence for the long-term  
135 persistence of dry grasslands in the region (Zólyomi and Fekete, 1994; Magyari et al., 2010).  
136 The species pool of sand forest steppe gets impoverished by loosing several elements of  
137 Central-European grasslands with decreasing precipitation eastwards and southwards in the  
138 Kiskunság region ( Kovács-Láng et al., 2000; Fekete et al., 2010).

139 At present, this region is dominated by agricultural fields, including both annual and perennial  
140 crops, as well as vast timber plantations consisting of native and non-native tree species.  
141 Nevertheless, the remnants of sand forest steppe vegetation also constitute a substantial  
142 component of the present land cover. Sand forest steppe vegetation is a fine scale mosaic of  
143 dry and semi-dry grasslands, *Juniperus communis*-*Populus alba* shrublands and open steppic  
144 *Quercus robur*-*Quercus pubescens* forests with small extents of closed *Quercus robur* and  
145 *Populus x canescens* forests at the lowest elevations. The ratio of grasslands to woodlands  
146 varies with the climatic gradient (Kovács-Láng et al., 2000). This ratio has also changed over  
147 centuries because of drastic alterations in land use and fire regime. Most of the grassland  
148 specialist plant species can also colonize and survive in the forested parts of the landscape,  
149 which means that the whole landscape is permeable for these species. According to archive



150 maps, most of the grasslands were never ploughed. Hereafter, we refer to this never ploughed  
151 grassland components of the natural forest steppe vegetation complex as 'primary grasslands'.  
152 Until the 18<sup>th</sup> century, extensive grazing was the dominant land-use in the region. In the 19<sup>th</sup>  
153 century, a significant increase in human population and agricultural activities led to  
154 fragmentation of semi-natural vegetation. The maximum of agricultural activity in the region  
155 occurred after the Second World War in the 1950's. This was followed by a process of land  
156 abandonment due to socio-economic changes, as well as a significant decrease in the  
157 groundwater table (Biró, 2003, Biró et al., 2008, Molnár et al., 2012). Former studies have  
158 found that the dry grassland vegetation of this region has a relatively good regeneration  
159 potential on abandoned agricultural fields (Csecserits & Rédei 2001, Csecserits et al., 2011).  
160 Henceforth, we refer to the regenerating grasslands of former agricultural areas as 'secondary  
161 grasslands'. Land abandonment, which still continues to impact this region today, was partly  
162 compensated by an increase of forestry activities. Large plantations of non-native trees, such  
163 as *Robinia pseudoacacia*, *Pinus nigra*, *Pinus silvestris* and *Populus x euramericana*, and the  
164 native trees, including *Populus alba* and *Populus x canescens*, were established on abandoned  
165 fields and also on primary grasslands (Biró et al., 2013)

## 2.2 Vegetation data

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169 The vegetation sampling was done in June–August 2007 within the field site network of the  
170 Kiskun Long-Term Ecological Research program, which consists of 16 5×5 km sites  
171 representing the entire Kiskunság region (Figure 1.), with all major land cover types  
172 (agricultural, abandoned agricultural, forest plantation and semi-natural vegetation) in varying  
173 proportions (Rédei et al., 2008, Csecserits et al., 2011).

174 Plot selection for the sampling was based on a series of habitat maps starting from the first  
175 military survey (1783), and was verified in the field by observing the fine scale relief of the  
176 site to confirm the unploughed status of the plots. We recorded a total of 86 20×20 m plots in  
177 primary grasslands within the field sites. We sampled the following two types of primary  
178 grasslands: open perennial sand grassland with total canopy cover of vascular plants less than  
179 50%, dominated by *Festuca vaginata* and *Stipa borysthenica* ( $n = 40$ ) and closed perennial  
180 sand grasslands with total canopy cover more than 80%, dominated by *Festuca x wagneri*,  
181 *Stipa capillata*, *Poa angustifolia* and *Bothriochloa ischaemum* ( $n = 46$ ). These two grassland  
182 types dominate the grassland component of the forest-steppe vegetation in the Kiskunság  
183 region, with open stands occupying coarse and poor sandy soils mainly on the top of the  
184 dunes and closed stands on humus rich sandy soils at lower elevations.

185 In addition to primary grassland data, we sampled 161 20x20 m plots in secondary grasslands  
186 on former cropland and vineyards abandoned after 1950 according to historical aerial  
187 photographs. The data from these secondary grasslands were used to determine the specialist  
188 species of primary grassland areas. Replicates of a given habitat were taken from separate  
189 grassland patches from different parts of each site (spatially stratified sampling). In each plot,  
190 the estimated percentage aboveground cover of each vascular plant species was recorded.

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### 192 2.3 The number of specialist species

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194 During our analysis, we used the richness of primary grassland specialist plant species ( $N_p$ ) as  
195 a response variable. To define this species group, we used the data from all primary and  
196 secondary grassland plots. The fidelity of species to primary grasslands was determined by  
197 Fisher's exact test (Chytrý et al., 2002) with the Juice program (Tichý, 2002). Species faithful  
198 to open, closed or both primary grasslands types, at  $\alpha = 0.01$  level of significance, were

199 regarded as specialist species of primary grasslands. Fidelity was tested in each case against  
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2 200 the rest of grassland data in the table. Data of shrubs and trees were removed from the species  
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4 201 list, because they were avoided during the field sampling of the grasslands and were present  
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7 202 in the plots as rare accessory elements.  
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#### 11 204 2.4 Landscape context

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16 206 We created 6×6 km habitat maps for each study site (containing the 5×5 km site plus a buffer  
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19 207 of 500 m) for the current day (2005) and four historical timelines. Habitat maps were based  
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22 208 on the first and second military maps of the Austrian Empire (from 1783 and the 1850s,  
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24 209 respectively), as well as on aerial photos from the 1950s and from 1987-89.

26 210 The first military map (originally prepared without projection) was georeferenced by  
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29 211 identifiable objects and landscape context, with an accuracy usually not better than 100 m.

31 212 The second military map (originally prepared in Cassini projection, geodetic datum is Zach-  
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34 213 Oriani ellipsoid) were georeferenced by projection transformation, with an accuracy mostly  
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36 214 better than 100 m. Old aerial photos were orthorectified, and a polynomial fitting was  
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39 215 performed based on a digital terrain model and old military maps. Local polynomial fitting  
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41 216 improved all old maps and photos to an accuracy of better than 30 m. Recent aerial photos  
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44 217 were also orthorectified and fitted to the terrain model and recent geographical maps, with an  
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46 218 accuracy of about 1 m.

48 219 We distinguished the following habitat types on the habitat maps: semi-natural grasslands,  
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51 220 semi-natural forests, forest plantations, secondary grasslands of abandoned fields, wetlands,  
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53 221 agricultural lands and other man-made objects (e.g. buildings, roads). The habitat categories  
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56 222 and the classification protocol used are documented in Rédei et al., 2008. The landscape  
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58 223 context of the plots was characterized by using the total percentage cover of semi-natural  
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224 forest steppe habitats (dry and semi-dry grasslands, shrublands, and semi-natural forests  
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2 225 combined) in the 100, 300 and 500 m radius zone around the plots in each habitat map with  
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4 226 the help of the GIS software ArcGIS 9.2 (ESRI, 2006).  
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## 9 228 2.5 Other environmental predictors

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14 230 In order to fit sensible models for the species richness of the studied grasslands, we  
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17 231 considered several basic environmental factors in the models in addition to landscape context.  
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19 232 We used two climatic variables (annual precipitation and mean annual temperature) as a  
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22 233 minimum set of environmental variables. Annual precipitation was derived from interpolated  
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24 234 climatic data from 1961-1990 from the Hungarian Meteorological Service (HMS 2001),  
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27 235 whereas temperature data come from the WORLDCLIM database (Hijmans et al., 2005).  
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29 236 Furthermore, even though we did not possess any soil data for our plots, habitat type (open  
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32 237 and closed sand grasslands) can be regarded as a proxy of soil fertility in case of sand steppe  
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34 238 grasslands. Accordingly, our minimum set includes two climatic predictors and a proxy for  
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36 239 soil type.  
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## 41 241 2.6 Data analysis

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46 243 To test for the presence of extinction debt in the Kiskunság landscape, we applied the  
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49 244 following strategy. As a preliminary step, we performed an extensive data validation check  
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51 245 following the recommendations of Zuur et al. (2010). During this step, we found that our  
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54 246 response variables match a Poisson distribution with no significant overdispersion, landscape  
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56 247 and environmental predictors are only minimally correlated, and that the residuals of the  
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58 248 overfitted Poisson generalized linear models (GLM) (see later) for specialist species are free  
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249 from spatial autocorrelation. All calculations were performed in the R statistical environment  
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2 250 ver. 2.15.0 (R Development Core Team, 2012), and several add on packages were used,  
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4 251 including *pscl::odTest* to test for overdispersion (Jackman, 2009), *car::vif* to check for  
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6 252 collinearity, *ncf::correlog* (Bjornstad, 2009) to test for spatial autocorrelation, and the *reshape*  
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9 253 package for data conversion (Wickham, 2007).  
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12 254 We compared three potential buffer sizes (100, 300 and 500 m) to quantify the amount of  
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14 255 semi-natural vegetation in the surrounding landscape around the plots (landscape context)  
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17 256 based on the most recent (2005) aerial photographs. To this end, we fitted Poisson GLM at the  
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19 257 number of primary grassland species ( $N_p$ ), using climate, habitat type and landscape context  
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22 258 as predictors for each buffer size. We quantified the AIC values characterizing model fit to  
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24 259 compare the models with the different buffer sizes. The buffer size which yielded the most  
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27 260 informative (best fitting) landscape context predictor was selected, and used as 'the best  
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29 261 buffer' size during all subsequent analyses.  
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32 262 As a next step, we fitted GLM with Poisson error distribution to  $N_p$  in the plot data. Grassland  
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34 263 type, annual precipitation, annual mean temperature and the most recent (2005) landscape  
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36 264 context as well as their second order interactions were used as predictors. We derived the  
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39 265 Pearson residuals from the GLM. Using all of these predictors and their binary interactions  
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41 266 results in an overfitted model, but this does not lead to any problem as far as only the  
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44 267 residuals are used for testing further predictors.  
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46 268 To study the long-term impacts of the historical landscape contexts (i.e. extinction debt), we  
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49 269 fitted linear models between landscape contexts (one by one for each historical timeline) and  
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51 270 the residuals. The different timelines were compared using the residual sum of squares as a  
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53 271 goodness of fit measure, which is in a strictly monotonous relationship with likelihood and  
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56 272 thus AIC over this limited set of models with the same number of parameters. The historical  
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58 273 landscape context (timeline) with the highest fit was thereafter selected and tested for  
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274 significance compared to a constant null model for the residuals from the GLM with specialist  
275 species. A significant relationship between any of the residuals and a historical landscape  
276 context can be interpreted as an evidence of long-term effects of landscape changes, which  
277 can shed insight on the existence of extinction debt in primary grasslands of the Kiskunság  
278 landscape.

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### 281 3 Results

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#### 283 3.1 Landscape changes

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285 Figure 2. shows changes in distribution of the proportion of semi-natural habitats in 300 m  
286 buffers around the sampling plots during the last 230 years. At the time of the first Military  
287 Survey (1783), nearly the entire landscape was covered by semi-natural forest steppe  
288 vegetation. Land use intensification began locally in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century  
289 (Second Military Survey, 1850's). From the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when arable farming  
290 reached its maximum extent, we found variable levels of land use intensity in the region. The  
291 proportion of semi-natural vegetation decreased further in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century  
292 through to the end of the communist period in Hungary (1989). In the 20 years following the  
293 intensification of land-use decreased.

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#### 295 3.2 Specialist species of primary grasslands

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297 The complete set of 247 plots in primary and secondary grasslands contained 365 vascular  
298 plant species. Altogether 249 species occurred in the 86 20x20 m primary grassland plots, 141

299 and 233 species in the open and closed types, respectively. The average species richness of  
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2 300 open perennial sand grasslands (N=40) were 29.98 (standard deviation 6.27), while it was  
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4 301 36.17 (standard deviation 7.99) for the closed grasslands (N=46).  
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7 302 We found 54 native species faithful to primary grasslands according to fidelity values.  
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9 303 Additional 7 and 15 species were faithful exclusively to open or closed grasslands,  
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11 304 respectively. *Tragus racemosus*, a neophyte species, was faithful to open primary grasslands,  
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13 305 but was excluded from further analyses because of its local history completely different from  
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15 306 that of indigenous specialists. Accordingly, we involved altogether 76 species as specialists of  
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17 307 primary grasslands in the further analyses. The average number of specialist species was  
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19 308 21.44 (standard deviation 4.17) in open grasslands, and 25.3 (standard deviation 5.9) in closed  
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21 309 grasslands.  
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### 27 311 3.3 The effect of landscape on grassland species richness

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29 313 We found that the landscape context of a medium size (i.e. 300 m) provides more information  
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31 314 on the number of primary grassland species than either larger (500 m) or smaller (100 m)  
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33 315 buffer sizes.  
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36 316 The goodness of fit of the linear models between the present day residuals and the historical  
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38 317 landscape contexts from the studied time horizons are shown in Figure 3. The relationship  
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40 318 between the residuals and all of the past landscape contexts were tested and the landscape  
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42 319 context in 1856 (second Austrian military mapping) was found significant at the  $\alpha=0.05$  level  
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44 320 (Table 1.). To further understand the nature of this relationship, we created a series of  
45  
46 321 diagnostic plots (Figure 4.). These plots reveal that human landscape transformation was a  
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48 322 gradual process, and even though there were relatively few sites which had been transformed  
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323 early during the 18<sup>th</sup> century, these sites can be associated with strong negative anomalies in  
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2 324 present species numbers, which can explain the significant relationship observed.

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10 327 4 Discussion

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14 329 The time series of the landscape data of our sampling sites shows continuous habitat loss of  
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17 330 the sand forest steppe vegetation since the second half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Similarly, Biró et  
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19 331 al. (2008) showed that between 1783 and 2005 93-94% of the forest steppe vegetation was  
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22 332 destroyed in the whole Kiskunság region.

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24 333 We found 76 habitat specialist species faithful to primary grasslands by using statistical  
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27 334 fidelity measures (Chytrý et al., 2002). Although sand grasslands of the region are generally  
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29 335 assumed to have significant regeneration potential in abandoned arable fields (Csecserits and  
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32 336 Rédei 2001, Halassy 2004, Csecserits et al. 2011), there are several specialist species (e.g.  
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34 337 *Astragalus varius*, *Onosma arenaria*, *Silene borysthenica*) of limited colonisation potential  
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36 338 which are therefore particularly sensitive to the loss of primary habitats. Consequently, the  
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39 339 remaining primary grassland fragments are the most important refuges of these species in the  
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41 340 region. The relatively high number of primary grassland specialists (76 of 249 species)  
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44 341 confirms that habitat continuity is a determining factor in forming grassland biodiversity  
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46 342 patterns in the examined region. According to former studies, the extent of semi-natural  
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49 343 habitats in the surrounding landscape can be an important predictor of species richness in  
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51 344 semi-natural habitat fragments (e.g. Johansson et al., 2008; Aavik and Liira, 2009). Semi-  
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54 345 natural habitat fragments with nearby semi-natural habitats can maintain higher species  
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56 346 richness with larger and more persistent populations (Andrén 1994; Krauss et al., 2004;  
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58 347 Adriaens et al., 2006, Reitalu et al., 2012) due to increased survival and decreased extinction



348 rates (Hanski and Ovaskainen, 2002; Bennie et al., 2006). In our study, however, the current  
1  
2 349 extent of semi-natural habitats in circles with a 300 m radius had no significant effect on dry  
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4 350 grassland specialist species richness, while the extent of the semi-natural habitats in the same  
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7 351 circles in 1856 showed a weak significant effect. The extent of semi-natural habitats in 1783  
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10 352 was nearly significant in a statistical sense ( $p=0.094$ ), even though this relationship was based  
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12 353 only on two plots with entirely fragmented natural neighborhood. The later periods (i.e. 1950,  
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14 354 1989) did not show a pattern of delayed impact. The habitat losses that occurred in these time  
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17 355 periods did not convey any information independent from the present extent of semi-natural  
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19 356 habitats.

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22 357 Based on our study, we can give a rough estimation for the local time scale of resilience. In  
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24 358 our sampling areas, the richness of primary grassland species was reduced in areas where  
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26 359 natural habitat loss in the surrounding landscape began prior to the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The weak but  
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29 360 significant relationship found between the extent of natural habitat in 1856 and recent  
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32 361 biodiversity can be seen as a delayed impact of long term intensive land use upon the local  
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34 362 biodiversity.

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36 363 One possible explanation is that richness of specialist species has not come to equilibrium  
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39 364 with the current land use since 1856, i.e. there may be an extinction debt of specialist species  
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41 365 of dry primary grasslands in the Kiskunság region. The presence of extinction debt is  
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44 366 determined by the extinction threshold conditions of populations (Hanski and Ovaskainen,  
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46 367 2002): species capacity for developing remnant populations below an extinction threshold  
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49 368 (Lindborg and Eriksson, 2004), magnitude of habitat loss, and time elapsed since habitat loss  
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51 369 (Kuussaari et al., 2009). Although habitat specialist species are more sensitive to habitat  
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54 370 changes and therefore generally face extinction earlier than generalists (Cousins and  
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56 371 Vanhoenacker, 2011), inclusion of every species into the analyses may mask the potential  
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58 372 presence of delayed extinction following semi-natural habitat loss if altered landscape  
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373 elements can maintain generalist species populations (Kuussaari et al., 2009). Most studies  
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2 374 consider extinction debt of grassland species following habitat loss 50-100 years ago (Sang et  
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4 375 al., 2010; Cousins and Vanhoenacker, 2011; Piqueray et al., 2011); however, earlier timelines  
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7 376 are rarely investigated (Gustavsson et al., 2007; Cristofoli et al., 2010; Purschke et al., 2012).  
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10 377 The study of extinction debt for more than a century is severely constrained in many cases, as  
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12 378 high-quality historical habitat data are often not available for evaluation (Kuussaari et al.,  
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14 379 2009) or major habitat loss started only in the last century (Krauss et al., 2010).  
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16  
17 380 The potential existence of extinction debt of dry grassland specialist species in the Kiskunság  
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19 381 region for 150 years may indicate that these species possess traits allowing for long-term  
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22 382 persistence in habitat fragments (Vellend et al 2006). These species may have either long life  
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24 383 span and are therefore subjected to slower turnover rate (Lindborg and Eriksson, 2004; Helm  
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26 384 et al., 2006), or may regenerate due to a persistent seed bank (Piessens and Hermy, 2006) or  
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29 385 long-distance dispersal potential (Purschke et al., 2012). Furthermore, the high heterogeneity  
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31 386 of the sand dune landscape complex results in the presence of small-scale landscape elements  
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34 387 (e.g. small forest fringes, verges, embankments and sand pits) that may work as temporary  
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36 388 refuges in the heavily transformed landscape and support the significant resistance of dry  
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39 389 grassland specialists against habitat loss even at the time scale of centuries.  
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41 390 Undiscovered extinction debt may lead to incorrect evaluation of individual species  
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44 391 sensitivity to habitat loss, consequent overestimation of long-term species richness and  
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46 392 underestimation of habitat loss effects (Kuussaari et al., 2009; Sang et al., 2010). As long as  
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49 393 species predicted to become extinct persist, there is an opportunity to reduce extinction debt  
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51 394 by mitigating the effects of habitat loss (Kareiva and Wennegren 1995, Helm et al., 2006;  
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53 395 Kuussaari et al., 2009).  
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565 Figure 1. Map of the study area with the 16 sampling sites.

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567 Figure 2. Changes in the distribution of the proportion of the seminatural forest steppe  
568 habitats during the last 230 years.

569 Plotted based on the 300 m radius buffers around the 86 sampling plots. Horizontal axis refers  
570 to the cumulative proportion of the plots with equal or less percentage extent of seminatural  
571 forest steppe habitats delineated on vertical axis.

572  
573 Figure 3. RSS and AIC values of the linear models predicting present-day GLM residuals.  
574 Based on historical landscape contexts (the percentage of natural habitats in a 300 m buffer of  
575 the plots) for the studied timelines. RSS values at 2005 equal the total sum of squares of the  
576 response variable.

577  
578 Figure 4. Present day GLM residuals of specialist species number plotted against historical  
579 landscape context values for the studied timelines.  
580 Landscape context was characterized by the percentage cover of natural habitats in a 300 m  
581 buffer of the plots. The trend line of the linear regression in 1856 indicates a significant  
582 relationship.

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585 Table title and description

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587 Table 1.: F test results describing the relationship between the 1856 landscape context ( $LC_{1856}$

588 – defined as the percentage cover of semi-natural forest steppe habitats in 1856 in a 300 m

589 circle around each plot), and the residuals of the number of specialist plant species in 2008

590 after removing the influence of the present-day landscape context in the Kiskunság region of

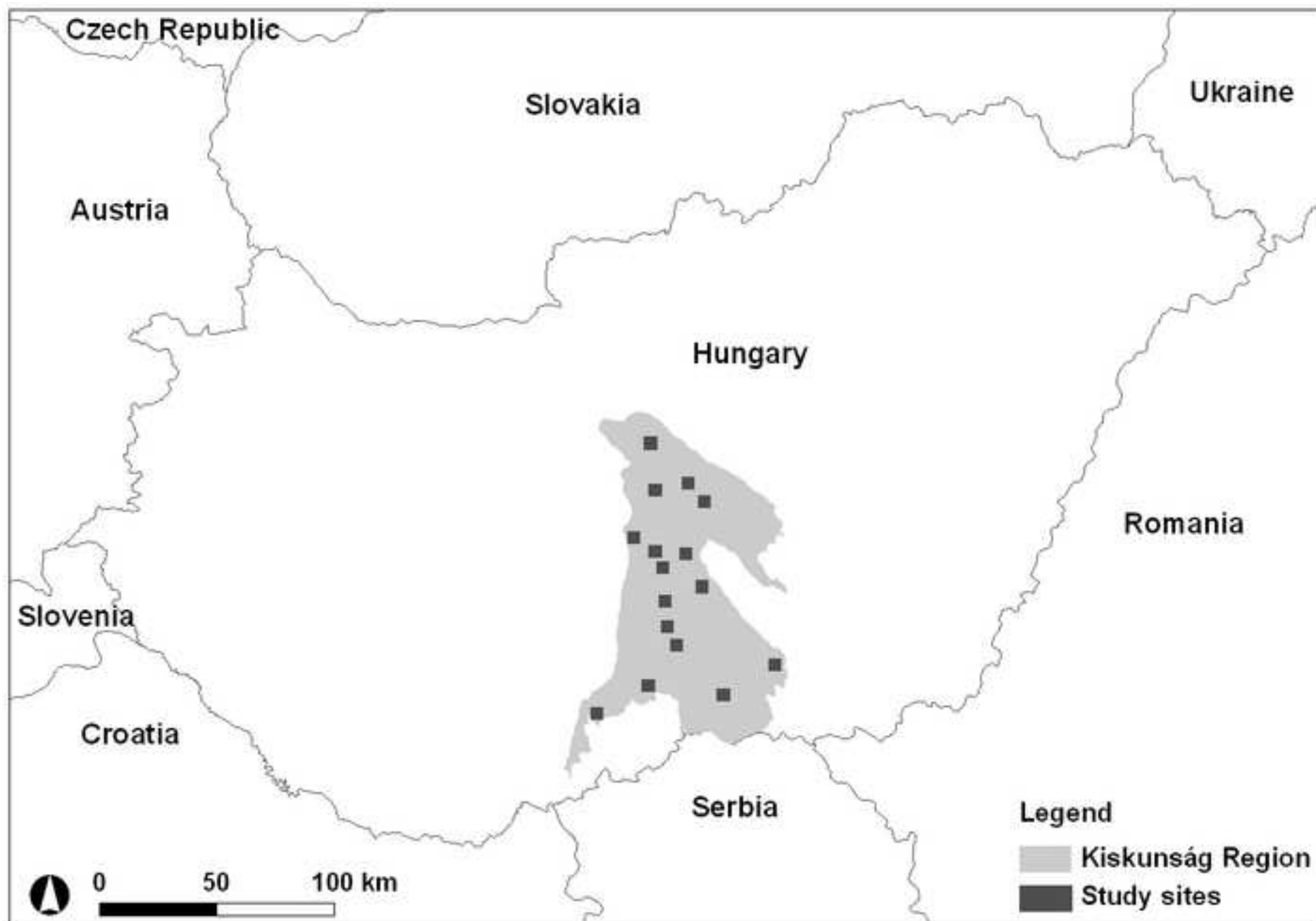
591 Hungary.

Table 1.

	<b>Df</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Pr(&gt;F)</b>	
		<b>Sq</b>	<b>Sq</b>	<b>value</b>		
<b>LC<sub>1860</sub></b>	1	5.244	5.2442	5.5848	0.02	*
<b>Residuals</b>	84	78.878	0.939			

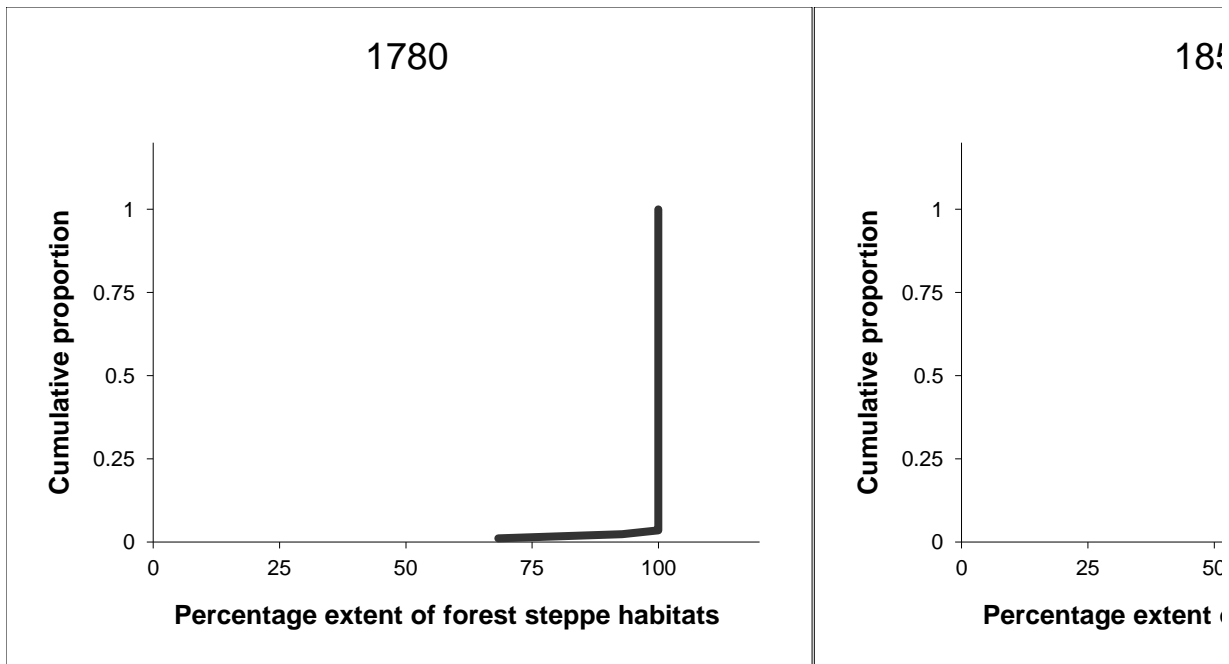
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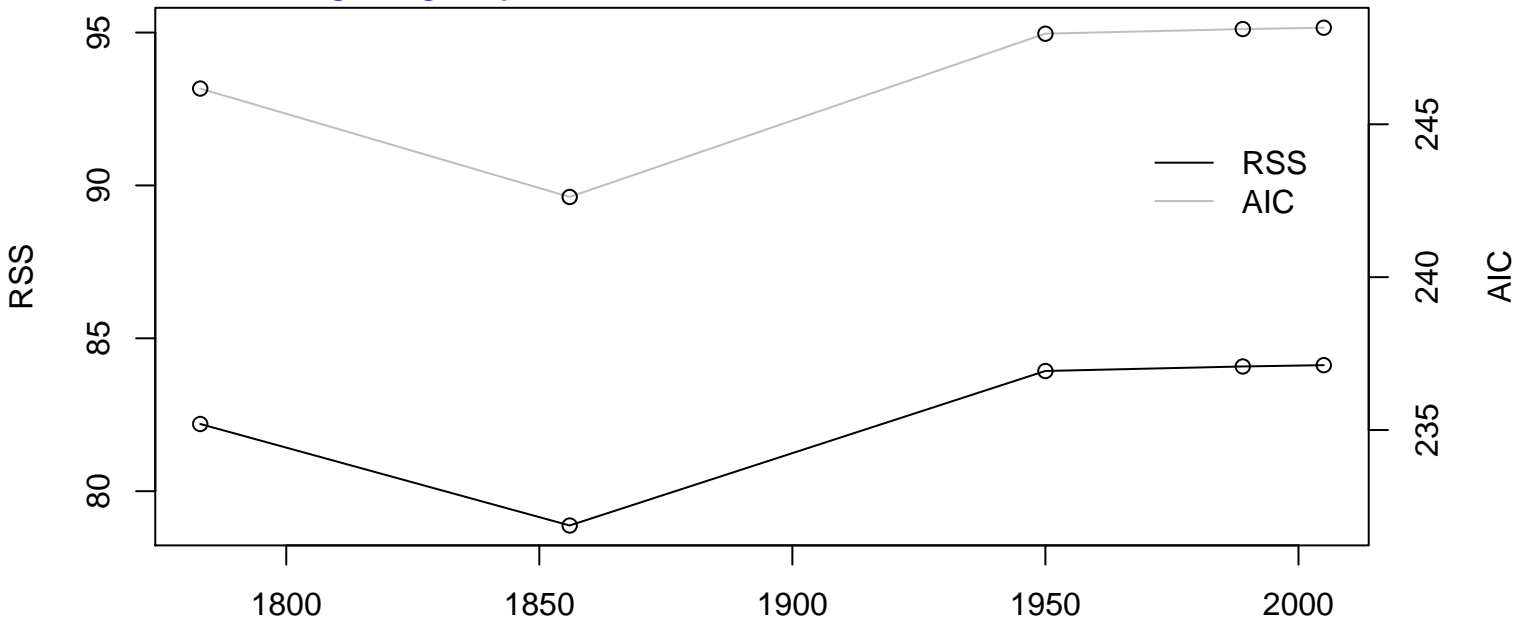
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