

## **Does forest fragmentation affect the same way all growth-forms?**

Gloria RODRÍGUEZ-LOINAZ<sup>1\*</sup>, Ibone AMEZAGA<sup>1,2</sup>, Miren ONAINDIA<sup>1,3</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>Department of Plant Biology and Ecology. University of the Basque Country, P.O. Box

644. 48080 Bilbao, Spain;

<sup>2</sup> E-mail: [ibone.amezaga@ehu.es](mailto:ibone.amezaga@ehu.es); <sup>3</sup> E-mail: [miren.onaindia@ehu.es](mailto:miren.onaindia@ehu.es);

\* Corresponding author; Fax: 34-94-6013500; Phone: 34 94 601 2559;

E-mail: [gloria.rodriguez@ehu.es](mailto:gloria.rodriguez@ehu.es)

## 1 Does forest fragmentation affect the same way all growth-forms? 2

3 Fragmentation of natural habitats is one of the main causes of the loss of  
4 biodiversity. However, not all plant species show a uniform response to habitat  
5 fragmentation due to differences in species traits. We studied the effect of patch size  
6 and isolation on the biodiversity of vegetation in the mixed-oak forests in the north of  
7 the Iberian Peninsula. The aim was to evaluate whether all the growth-forms of  
8 vegetation are equally affected by forest fragmentation in order to improve the  
9 management strategies to restore this type of vegetation.

10 This study has shown that the effect of the area and spatial isolation of the  
11 patches was not the same for the different growth-forms. Fragmentation had a mainly  
12 negative effect on the richness and diversity of forest specialist species, especially ferns  
13 and herbaceous growth-forms. Moreover, the presence and/or cover of woodland  
14 herbaceous species (such as *Lamiastrum galeobdolon* and *Helleborus viridis*) and of  
15 woodland ferns (namely *Asplenium adiantum-nigrum*, *Asplenium trichomanes*,  
16 *Polystichum setiferum*, *Dryopteris affinis*) were negatively affected by patch size,  
17 possibly due to the reduction of habitat quality. This species have been replaced by  
18 more generalist species (such as *Cardamine pratensis*, *Cirsium* sp., *Pulmonaria*  
19 *longifolia* or *Rumex acetosella*) in small patches. Patch isolation had a negative effect  
20 on the presence of forest specialist species (namely, *L. galeobdolon*, *Frangula alnus*,  
21 *Hypericum androsaemum*, *A. adiantum-nigrum* and *Athyrium filix-femina*) and favored  
22 the colonization of more generalist species such as *Cirsium* sp., *Calluna vulgaris*, *Erica*  
23 *arborea* or *Ulex* sp. Hence, in this region a special attention should be given for the  
24 conservation of forest specialist species, especially ferns and herbs. In a conservation

25 policy focused on this forest specialist species, which are the most valuable species in

26 forested ecosystems, large forests should be promoted.

27

28 **Keywords:** Patch size / degree of isolation / species trails / forest specialist species

29 **1. Introduction**

30 The excessive destruction and fragmentation of natural and semi-natural habitats  
31 on the Earth's surface is recognized as one of the principal causes of the loss of wild  
32 biodiversity (D'eon and Glenn, 2005; Fischer and Lindenmayer, 2007; Haines-Young,  
33 2009; Harrison and Bruna, 1999; Hobbs, 2000; Meffe and Carroll, 1997; Wilcox and  
34 Murphy, 1985; Wood et al., 2000). The effects of habitat fragmentation on biodiversity  
35 have been studied for several decades, resulting in a vast literature on this topic, and,  
36 despite continued debate about the relative importance of habitat fragmentation and  
37 habitat loss (Fahrig, 2003; Hanski & Gaggiotti, 2004), it is mostly clear that the size and  
38 spatial distribution of habitat remnants alters the patterns of species distribution and  
39 abundance within a landscape (Ewers and Didham, 2006).

40 The processes of reduction, spatial division and increased isolation of habitats  
41 caused by fragmentation are associated with a reduction in the abundance, distribution  
42 and viability of species closely linked to these habitats (Bender et al., 2005; Fahrig and  
43 Merriam, 1994; Kleyer et al., 1996; Kupfer et al., 2006). However, not all plant species  
44 show a uniform response to habitat fragmentation. For instance, a number of studies  
45 have shown that the nature of the species-area relationship describing species loss from  
46 habitat fragments is confounded by differences in species traits (Cagnolo et al., 2006;  
47 Ewers and Didham, 2006; Godefroid and Koedan, 2003; Kolb and Diekmann, 2005).  
48 Some studies show that habitat fragmentation affected plants with specific dispersal  
49 modes (Kolb and Diekmann, 2005; Tabarelli et al., 1999), low frequency of occurrence  
50 and high habitat specificity (Hill and Curran, 2001; Iida and Nakashizuka, 1995). Plant  
51 species with different growth-forms (woody vs. herbaceous; short-lived vs. long-lived)  
52 can present different responses to fragmentation. Woody plants grow more slowly and  
53 devote the larger part of their photosynthesis to the production of structural materials for

54 long-term survival (Chapin, 1991). Meanwhile, the herbaceous plants grow and die  
55 more rapidly and devote the larger part of their photosynthesis to reproduction and rapid  
56 turn over. These characteristics can make the species respond differently to  
57 fragmentation and, if they are affected, have different response times (Ewers and  
58 Didham, 2006). In fact, it has been postulated that short-lived species like herbs should  
59 be more sensitive to edge effects which would favour colonisation by ruderal species  
60 (Cagnolo et al., 2006). Influence from surrounding vegetation may actually increase the  
61 total species richness of fragmented woodlots, but reduce the fraction of habitat  
62 specialists (Harrison, 1999). Thus, an assessment of the effect of fragmentation on plant  
63 communities should be based not only on species richness but also on species type,  
64 which can be defined in terms of conservation value or ecological traits (Honnay et al.,  
65 1999a; Hill and Curran, 2001).

66 In the north of the Iberian Peninsula the potential vegetation is mixed-oak  
67 forests, dominated by *Quercus robur* L. with *Fraxinus excelsior* L. and *Castanea sativa*  
68 Miller (Onaindia et al., 2004). However, since the beginning of the 20th century most of  
69 the potential area has been reforested by fast growing exotic species, namely *Pinus*  
70 *radiata* and *Eucalyptus globulus*, that have mainly affected forest specialist species  
71 (Amezaga and Onaindia, 1997). The aim of this research was to test whether the spatial  
72 configuration of those forests, namely size, form and degree of isolation of the patches,  
73 affects in the same way the vegetation as a whole or varies for different growth-forms  
74 (herbaceous, ferns, climbers, shrubs and trees) and forest specialist species (Aseginolaza  
75 et al., 1988).

76

77 **2. Methods**

78 *2.1. Study Area*

79 This study was carried out in the Urdaibai Biosphere Reserve (UBR) (area 220  
80 km<sup>2</sup>) located in the north of the Iberian Peninsula (43°19'N, 02°40'W) (Figure 1). The  
81 UBR is one of the most important natural areas of the Basque Country (Northern Spain)  
82 due to, among other features, its unique and diverse landscape which includes a craggy  
83 countryside occupied by meadow land, oak groves, deciduous woods and, especially,  
84 pine plantations.

85 The potential vegetation of the 80% of the UBR is mixed-oak forests, dominated  
86 by *Quercus robur* L. with *Fraxinus excelsior* L. and *Castanea sativa* Miller (Onaindia  
87 et al., 2004). Throughout the 20th century, these native mixed-oak forests were heavily  
88 fragmented and, as a result, today they cover only about 6% of the total area of the  
89 Urdaibai Reserve (Rodríguez-Loiñaz et al., 2011) as has happened with other natural  
90 forests in other parts of the world (Schessl et al., 2008). Afterwards, the traditional use of  
91 timber and coal production was abandoned and the remaining forest patches started a  
92 process of regeneration (Michel, 2006).

93

94 *2.2. Patch selection and vegetation sampling*

95 A total of 33 patches of mixed-oak forest situated in the UBR were selected by  
96 means of the land use map at a 1:10 000 scale (Figure 2). The selection was made as a  
97 function of size, since a principal objective was to establish if the diversity of the  
98 vascular plant species was affected by the size of the patch. Therefore, 18 patches of a  
99 size between two and three hectares and 15 patches of a size between ten and thirty  
100 hectares were selected. There was no difference on altitude, slope, soil type or  
101 geographical location between small and large patches (small patches: mean altitude:

102 133±18.89 m, slope: 25±2.10 %, pH: 4.65±0.10, UTM\_X: 525762±687, UTM\_Y:  
103 4.7984 10<sup>6</sup>±1534 and large: mean altitude: 174±17.36 m, slope: 30±2.61 %, pH:  
104 4.76±0.11, UTM\_X: 526363±962, UTM\_Y: 4.7965 10<sup>6</sup>±1693). This selection was  
105 determined after analysis of the distribution of patch sizes given that these were the only  
106 sizes that occurred in significant numbers. The following indices were determined for  
107 each patch: area, distance to the nearest patch of mixed-oak forests (edge to edge)  
108 (NND, measure of the degree of isolation) and the fractal dimension (FD, measure of  
109 the form) (Mc Garigal et al., 2002), for which the v-LATE software was used (Lang and  
110 Tiede, 2003).

111         Since sampling effort and number of species recorded are usually related  
112 (Magurran, 1988; Hill et al., 1994; Lomolino, 2001), the area sampled was kept  
113 constant in all sites in order to avoid sampling artefacts on the effects of habitat  
114 fragmentation (Hill et al., 1994). In each of the patches (large and small) one plot of  
115 25m x 25m was determined approximately in the centre of each patch in order to  
116 minimise possible edge effects. Within each plot, five sub-plots of 2x1m were  
117 delineated. One was in the centre and the other four separated by 12m, making a cross  
118 with an arm running with the slope and the other perpendicular to it. The number of  
119 sub-plots was determined according to the method of the species/area curve (Kent and  
120 Coker, 1992). In these sub-plots the pattern of vegetation during June and July 2005  
121 was studied. In each sub-plot, plant species were identified and the percentage cover for  
122 each plant species, calculated through visual estimation, was determined. In order to  
123 determine percentage cover, five different strata (levels) were considered, i.e. 0-0.20,  
124 0.20-1, 1-3, 3-7, >7 m, following Brower and Zar (1977) and Onaindia et al. (2004).  
125 Thus, the first stratum corresponded to herbaceous plants, the second to lower shrub-  
126 like plants, the third to higher shrub-like plants, the fourth to the lower tree canopy and,

127 finally, the fifth to the higher tree canopy. The total percentage cover for each plant  
128 species was obtained by adding up its percentage cover in each of the five different  
129 strata. In addition, the cover of trees as an indirect measure of quantity of light was  
130 measured, as light condition is one of the main factors in forest habitats (Sarlöv-Herlin  
131 and Fry, 2000) and it is known to affect vegetation (Amezaga et al., 2006; Borchsenius  
132 et al., 2004).

133         Summing the cover in the five sub-plots, the total cover of each species in the  
134 sampled area was obtained. Using these data the indices of richness (S) and Shannon  
135 ( $H'$ ) and Simpson (1-D) diversity were calculated. These indices were obtained for the  
136 overall vegetation, the different growth-forms present (herbaceous, ferns, climbers,  
137 shrubs and trees), the overall forest specialist species and finally for the different  
138 growth-forms within the forest specialist species. To classify a species as forest  
139 specialist the “Illustrated keys of the flora of the Basque Country and bordering  
140 territories” (Aseginolaza et al., 1988) was used. In this book the natural habitat for every  
141 species is described. All those species whose natural habitat was described as nemoral  
142 forest, beech forest, oak forest or humid and shaded sites in forest, were classified as  
143 forest specialist species.

144         Besides, the overall vegetation similarity in relation to patch size and distance to  
145 the nearest missed-oak forest patch was calculated using the Sorensen’s community  
146 similarity index. As the distance to the nearest patch was a continuous variable, the  
147 comparison was performed among the five patches with the smallest (<50 m) NND and  
148 the five patches with the largest (> 200 m) NND.

149



150 *2.3. Statistical analysis*

151 As patch indices (patch size, patch isolation, fractal dimension) were not  
152 correlated (Spearman rank correlation,  $P > 0.05$ ), a General Linear Model (GLM) was  
153 performed to analyze the effects of fragmentation on the richness and diversity of the  
154 vegetation. In this model the size (large or small) was introduced as a factor and the  
155 fractal dimension (FD), degree of isolation (NND) and cover of trees were introduced as  
156 co-variants.

157 Having analyzed the effects of fragmentation on richness and diversity, the  
158 effect of size and isolation (distance to the nearest patch of mixed-oak forest) on overall  
159 species composition was tested by means of the semi-parametric permutational  
160 multivariate analyses of variance (hereafter PERMANOVA) developed by Anderson  
161 (2001). Indicator Species Analysis (ISA; Dufrene and Legendre, 1997) was used to  
162 determine the characteristic species within patch size. Only species with  $P < 0.05$  were  
163 considered (assessed using Monte Carlo randomizations with 999 permutations and  
164  $INDVAL > 25$ ).

165

166 **3. Results**

167 *3.1. Vegetation structure*

168 A total of 110 plant species of which 53 (27 forest specialist) were herbaceous, 5  
169 (4 forest specialist) climbers, 18 (6 forest specialist) trees, 23 (7 forest specialist) shrubs  
170 and 11 (7 forest specialist) ferns were found in this study (Table 1). Of these 110  
171 species, 84 were found in the large patches and 90 in the small ones.

172 The vegetation similarity results showed that 78% of the species were the same  
173 for the large and small patches and 50% for the patches with the smallest and largest  
174 NND. Those species only present in the large patches were usually (80 %) forest

175 specialist species such as *Asplenium adiantum-nigrum*, *Asplenium trichomanes*,  
176 *Helleborus viridis* or *Lamiastrum galeobdolon* while those only present in the small  
177 patches were more ubiquitous and generalist such as *Cardamine pratensis*, *Cirsium* sp.,  
178 *Pulmonaria longifolia* or *Rumex acetosella*, and the same happened when the NND was  
179 applied. Species such as *L. galeobdolon*, *Frangula alnus*, *Hypericum androsaemum*, *A.*  
180 *adiantum-nigrum* or *Athyrium filix-femina*, appeared only in short distance (<50 m)  
181 patches while species more generalist, namely *Cirsium* sp., *Calluna vulgaris*, *Erica*  
182 *arborea* or *Ulex* sp., only appeared in the long distance (> 200 m) patches.

183

### 184 3.2. Environmental effect

185 The General Linear Model (GLM) was applied to the 36 calculated indices  
186 (Table 2) but significant results were obtained only in 14 cases: richness and diversity  
187 of forest specialist species considered as a whole ( $S_{f.e.}$ ,  $H'_{f.e.}$  and  $1-D_{f.e.}$ ); richness and  
188 diversity of overall and of forest specialist ferns ( $S_{ferns}$ ,  $H'_{ferns}$ ,  $1-D_{ferns}$ ,  $S_{ferns\ f.e.}$   
189 ,  $H'_{ferns\ f.e.}$  and  $1-D_{ferns\ f.e.}$ ); diversity of overall herbaceous species ( $H'_{herbaceous}$   
190 and  $1-D_{herbaceous}$ ); and richness and diversity of forest specialist herbaceous species  
191 ( $S_{herbaceous\ f.e.}$ ,  $H'_{herbaceous\ f.e.}$  and  $1-D_{herbaceous\ f.e.}$ ).

192 The model explaining the highest percentage of variance was related to the  
193 richness of forest specialist species considered as a whole (adjusted  $r^2 = 0.43$ ,  $P = 0.003$ ).  
194 Patch size had a positive effect on the number of forest specialist species ( $S_{f.e.}$   
195 (mean $\pm$ SE): 15.80 $\pm$ 1.35 for large and 12.83 $\pm$ 0.84 for small patches) while degree of  
196 isolation (NND) had a negative effect (Table 3). The same happened with the diversity  
197 of forest specialist species considered as a whole ( $H'_{f.e.}$  and  $1-D_{f.e.}$ ) (Table 2 and 3).

198 In the case of fern species richness, overall and forest specialist (f.e.), 39.8% and  
199 36.5% respectively of the total variance was captured by the model (adjusted  $r^2$ ,

200 P=0.007 and P=0.011 respectively). Both were negatively affected by isolation (NND)  
201 and positively by patch size (Table 3). Thus, large patches had higher overall and forest  
202 specialist fern species richness than small ones (S ferns (mean±SE): 4.20±0.54 and  
203 2.67±0.29 respectively and S ferns<sub>f.e.</sub> (mean±SE): 3.07±0.42 and 1.78±0.30 respectively  
204 for the forest specialist species). The same happened for the diversity of overall and  
205 those forest specialists (f.e.) fern (H' ferns, 1-D ferns, H' ferns<sub>f.e.</sub> and 1-D ferns<sub>f.e.</sub>)  
206 (Table 2 and 3).

207 In relation to the herbaceous species the model for the overall and forest  
208 specialist herbaceous species diversity accounted for 37% of the total variance (adjusted  
209 r<sup>2</sup>, P=0.012) and 24% (adjusted r<sup>2</sup>, P=0.043), respectively. These diversities decreased  
210 only with patch isolation (NND) and were not significantly affected by patch size  
211 (Table 3). Moreover, forest specialist herbaceous species richness was also negatively  
212 affected by patch isolation (adjusted r<sup>2</sup>= 0.29, P=0.045). The same happened with the  
213 forest specialist herbaceous species diversity (H' herbaceous<sub>f.e.</sub> and 1-D herbaceous<sub>f.e.</sub>)  
214 (Table 2 and 3).

215 Finally, patch form or tree cover did not have any significant effect on the model  
216 for any of the 36 studied indices.

217

### 218 3.3. Fragmentation effect on individual species

219 PERMANOVA conducted on the overall species composition showed only a  
220 significant effect of patch size ( $F_{(1,29)} = 1.80$ , P<0.05) and the Indicator Species Analysis  
221 identified three species, namely *L. galeobdolon*, *Polystichum setiferum* and *Dryopteris*  
222 *affinis* as indicators of large patches (Table 1).

223

#### 224 4. Discussion

225 Worldwide, land use change and habitat fragmentation caused by human beings  
226 have been identified as the most important processes that affect forest richness and  
227 composition (Guirado et al., 2007; Hobbs, 2000; Van der Veken et al., 2004; Wood et  
228 al., 2000). In the situation studied here, the positive effect of bigger size on vegetation  
229 richness and diversity was evident when considering only the forest specialist species  
230 rather than the total vegetation, which we know not to be a result of habitat diversity  
231 due to the sampling method (Petit et al., 2004). This positive effect of patch area on  
232 forest specialist species richness has also been shown by other studies (Godefroid and  
233 Koedan, 2003; Honnay et al., 1999b). This type of vegetation has some habitat quality  
234 requirements which, when patch size is reduced, are lost (Amezaga and Onaindia, 1997;  
235 Levenson, 1981; Peterken and Game, 1984; Petit et al., 2004). Moreover, this effect of  
236 size was mainly seen for the diversity and richness of the group of ferns. These results  
237 were consistent with those obtained by Murakami et al. (2005). This relationship could  
238 be due to the fact that the ensemble of the forest specialist ferns was made up of only  
239 seven species, most of which show very similar ecological and life cycle characteristics.  
240 They need certain conditions, particularly humidity, which are found in mature forests  
241 but are modified upon reduction of the patch size because of the increase of the edge  
242 effect (reduction of habitat quality) (Petit et al., 2004). Thus, when the species were  
243 individually considered, patch size clearly showed an effect on the cover of some forest  
244 specialist fern and herbaceous species, namely *L. galeobdolon*, *P. setiferum* and *D.*  
245 *affinis*. These species are considered indicators of good forest conservation and mature  
246 forest and have been shown to increase with patch age (Bossuyt et al., 1999; Grime et  
247 al., 1988; Honnay et al., 1999a; Onaindia et al., 2004; Verheyen and Hermy, 2001).  
248 When the overall species, not forest specialist species only, were considered, richness

249 and diversity might have not changed because species identity does not influence this  
250 factor and ubiquitous and generalist species such as *C. pratensis*, *Cirsium* sp., *P.*  
251 *longifolia* or *R. acetosella* have replaced species that are more intolerant to changes of  
252 forest conditions because of loss of habitat quality (Onaindia et al., 2004), namely *A.*  
253 *adiantum-nigrum*, *A. trichomanes*, *P. setiferum*, *D. affinis*, *H. viridis* and *L.*  
254 *galeobdolon*.

255         The external variables that affect the richness and diversity of forest plants are  
256 related to the context of the landscape in which those patches are found, for example,  
257 the degree of isolation and the characteristics of the surrounding matrix (Grashof-  
258 Bokdam, 1997; Laurence and Yensen, 1991; Petit et al., 2004; Schmidt et al., 2009; van  
259 Ruremonde and Kalkhoven, 1991). In this study, a negative effect of the degree of patch  
260 isolation on vegetation richness and diversity has been shown and, as in the case of size,  
261 it has been mainly detected when the forest specialist species were considered,  
262 especially for ferns and herbaceous species. Once these species have disappeared from a  
263 patch, they depend upon colonization from the surrounding patches and the probability  
264 of colonization decreases with increasing spatial isolation (Di Giulio, 2009; Jacquemyn  
265 et al., 2001). However, the generalist species or broad ranged species such as *Cirsium*  
266 sp., *C. vulgaris*, *E. arborea* or *Ulex* sp. are not influenced by the distance to the nearest  
267 patch since they are distributed throughout the territory. This is probably why the  
268 richness of the overall vegetation did not show the effect of the degree of isolation.  
269 Godefroid and Koedan (2003) also found a lack of isolation effect on richness of  
270 woodland flora (excluding ruderal species) but once species that usually exist in the  
271 matrix were removed the effect of isolation became significant. However, Cagnolo et  
272 al., (2006) did not found any effect of isolation on the richness of native plant species  
273 richness since the isolation range included in their study may have been too narrow (75-

274 200 m) for effects to be detected. In our case the range has been big enough, from 25 to  
275 740 m, to detect the isolation effect.

276 As for trees, shrubs and climber species no effect of patch size or isolation was  
277 found, which could be due to the fact that woody plants have longer response times,  
278 possessing a greater “ecological inertia” (López et al., 2002). It is also now apparent  
279 that the effects of fragmentation can take many decades to be expressed (Ewers and  
280 Didham,2006). Some authors (e.g. Renjifo, 1999) consider time-scales of 50 to 90 years  
281 as ‘long-term’ and sufficient to ensure that diversity patterns have reached a dynamic  
282 equilibrium. However, this time frame may not be long enough to allow all  
283 fragmentation effects to be exhibited (particularly for long-lived organisms). In our case  
284 the actual spatial pattern of the mixed-oak forest is the result of the expansion of fast  
285 growing exotic species plantations, namely *Pinus radiata* and *Eucalyptus globulus*, that  
286 started at the beginning of the 20th century and was accentuated in the 1950s. This time  
287 period can be short the effect of fragmentation to be exhibited in these long-lived  
288 growth-forms. Lopez et al. (2002) also found this lack of effect of fragmentation on  
289 woody vegetation in wetlands. However, other authors (e.g. Mikk and Mander, 1995;  
290 Cagnolo et al., 2006) found a negative effect of patch area of forest patches on the trees  
291 and scrubs diversity.

292 Patch form determined the extension of the internal habitat. Thus, It was  
293 expected to affect vegetation richness and diversity. However, it did not show any  
294 effect, perhaps because the studied patches were fairly homogenous (from 1.28 to 1.40).  
295 Previous works show contradictory results. In some cases the result is a positive effect  
296 (Honnay et al., 1999a; Mikk and Mander, 1995); in others the contrary was found  
297 (Bastin and Thomas, 1999; Dzwonko and Loster, 1992; Lovett-Doust et al., 2003); and  
298 in others, as in our case, no effect at all (Guirado et al., 2007; Petit et al., 2004).

299 **5. Conclusions**

300 Fragmentation of mixed-oak forest was found to mainly negatively affect the  
301 diversity of forest specialist species, particularly ferns and herbaceous growth-forms,  
302 due to reduction in patch size and increment in patch isolation. Based on these results,  
303 conservation policies should try to keep big well connected patches in the landscape in  
304 order to maintain mixed-oak forest biodiversity. However, the need for large woods  
305 highlighted in this study should not be taken as an argument against smaller patches.  
306 Nowadays, large patches are not easy to maintain due to the economic competition with  
307 other land uses, and as such, smaller patches could perform as stepping stones for the  
308 formers. Moreover, the fact that fragmentation did not affect equally the different  
309 species, shows the importance of weighing them rather than counting them, as the  
310 question is not which wood patch contains more total species, but which contain more  
311 vulnerable species, i.e. forest specialist, that would be doomed to extinction if the  
312 particular forest conditions are changed.

313

314

315

316 **6. Acknowledgments**

317           We gratefully acknowledge financial support from the Spanish Ministry of  
318 Education and Science (CGL2005-08046-C03 01 and CGL2008-05579-C02-01), the  
319 Department of Universities, Research and Education of the Basque Government  
320 (Groups bursar), UNESCO Chair of the University of the Basque Country and Basque  
321 Government (Industry Department-Etortek Project). We would also like to thank Sir  
322 Marrack Goulding for his contribution to the editing of this document.



323 **7. References**

- 324 The effect of evergreen and deciduous coniferous plantations on the field layer and seed  
325 bank of native woodlands. *Ecography* 20, 308-318.
- 326 Amezaga, I., Albizu, I., Gonzalez, A., Mendarte, S., Onaindia M., 2006. In: Areces R.  
327 (Eds), *Diversidad biológica y biodiversidad*, Madrid, pp. 109-114.
- 328 Anderson, M.J., 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of  
329 variance. *Austral Ecol.* 26, 32-24.
- 330 Aseginolaza, C., Gómez, D., Lizaur, X., Monserrat, G., Morante, G., Salaverria, M.R.,  
331 Uribe-Echebarria, P.M., 1988. *Vegetación de la Comunidad Autónoma del País*  
332 *Vasco*, Servicio de Publicaciones del Gobierno Vasco, Vitoria-Gasteiz.
- 333 Bastin, L., Thomas, C.D., 1999. The distribution of plant species in urban vegetation  
334 fragments. *Landsc. Ecol.* 14, 493-507.
- 335 Bender, O., Juergen Boehmer, H., Jens, D., Schumacher, K.P., 2005. Analysis of land-  
336 use change in a sector of Upper Franconia (Bavaria, Germany) since 1850 using  
337 land register records. *Landsc. Ecol.* 20, 149-163.
- 338 Borchsenius, F., Nielsen, P.K., Lawesson, J.L., 2004. Vegetation structure and diversity  
339 of an ancient temperate deciduous forest in SW Denmark. *Plant Ecol.* 175, 121-  
340 135.
- 341 Bossuyt, B., Hermy, M., Deckers, J., 1999. Migration of herbaceous plant species  
342 across ancient–recent forest ecotones in central Belgium. *J. Ecol.* 87, 628-638.
- 343 Brower, J.E., Zar, J.H., 1977. *Field and Laboratory Methods for General Ecology*, Wm.  
344 C. Brown Company Publishers, Iowa.
- 345 Cagnolo, L., Cabido, M., Valladares, G., 2006. Plant species richness in the Chaco  
346 Serrano Woodland from central Argentina: Ecological traits and habitat  
347 fragmentation effects. *Biol. Conserv.* 132, 510-519.

348 Chapin, F. S., 1991. Integrated response of plants to stresses. *BioScience* 41, 29-36.

349 D'eon, R. G., Glenn, S. M., 2005. The influence of forest harvesting on landscape  
350 spatial patterns and old-growth-forest fragmentation in southeast British  
351 Columbia. *Landsc. Ecol.* 20, 19-33.

352 Di Giulio, M., Holderegger, R., Tobias S., 2009. Effects of habitat and landscape  
353 fragmentation on humans and biodiversity in densely populated landscapes. *J.*  
354 *Environ. Manage.* 90, 2959-2968.

355 Dufrene, M., Legendre, P., 1997. Species assemblages and indicator species: the need  
356 for a flexible asymmetrical approach. *Ecol. Monogr.* 67, 345-366.

357 Dzwonko, Z., Loster, S., 1992. Species richness and seed dispersal to secondary woods  
358 in southern Poland. *J. Biogeogr.* 19, 195-204.

359 Ewers, R.M., Didham, R.K., 2006. Confounding factors in the detection of species  
360 responses to habitat fragmentation. *Biol. Rev.* 81: 117-142.

361 Fahrig, L., Merriam, G., 1994. Conservation of fragmented populations. *Conserv. Biol.*  
362 8, 50-59.

363 Fahrig, L., 2003. Effects of habitat fragmentation on biodiversity. *Annu. Rev. Ecol.*  
364 *Evol. Syst.* 34, 487-515.

365 Fischer, J., Lindenmayer, D.B., 2007. Landscape modification and habitat  
366 fragmentation: a synthesis. *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.* 16, 265-280.

367 Godefroid, S., Koedam, N., 2003. How important are large vs. small forest remnants for  
368 the conservation of the woodland flora in an urban context? *Global Ecol. and*  
369 *Biogeogr.* 12, 287-298.

370 Grashof-Bokdam, C., 1997. Forest species in an agricultural landscape in the  
371 Netherlands: Effects of habitat fragmentation. *J. Veg. Sci.* 8, 21-28.

372 Grime, J.M., Hodgson, J.G., Hunt, R., 1988. Comparative plant ecology: A functional  
373 approach to common British species, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

374 Guirado, M., Pino, J., Rodá, F., 2007. Comparing the role of site disturbance and  
375 landscape properties on understory species richness in fragmented periurban  
376 Mediterranean forests. *Landsc. Ecol.* 22, 117-129.

377 Haines-Young, R., 2009. Land use and biodiversity relationships. *Land Use Policy* 26,  
378 178-186.

379 Hanski, I., Gaggiotti, O.E., 2004. Ecology, Genetics, and Evolution of  
380 Metapopulations, Elsevier Academic Press, San Diego.

381 Harrison, S., Bruna, E., 1999. Habitat fragmentation and large-scale conservation: what  
382 do we know for sure? *Ecography* 22, 225-232.

383 Harrison, S., 1999. Local and regional diversity in patchy landscape: native, alien, and  
384 endemic herbs on serpentine. *Ecology* 80, 70-80.

385 Hill, J.L., Curran, P.J., 2001. Species composition in fragmented forests: conservation  
386 implications of changing forest area. *Applied Geography* 21, 157–174.

387 Hill, J.L., Curran, P.J., Foody, G.M., 1994. The effect of sampling on the species–area  
388 curve. *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr. Letters* 4, 97–106.

389 Hobbs, R.J., 2000. Land use changes and invasions. In: Mooney, H.A., Hobbs, R.J.  
390 (Eds), *Invasive species in a changing world*. Island press, Washington, pp. 55-64.

391 Honnay, O., Endels, P., Vereecken, H. & Hermy, M., 1999b. The role of patch area and  
392 habitat diversity in explaining native plant species richness in disturbed suburban  
393 forest patches in northern Belgium. *Divers. Distrib.* 5, 129–141.

394 Honnay, O., Hermy, M., Coppin, P., 1999. Effects of area, age and diversity of forest  
395 patches in Belgium on plant species richness, and implications for conservation  
396 and reforestation. *Biol. Conserv.* 87, 73-84.

397 Iida, S., Nakashizuka, T., 1995. Forest fragmentation and its effect on species diversity  
398 in sub-urban coppice forests in Japan. *For. Ecol. Manage.* 73, 197–210.

399 Jacquemyn, H., Butaye, J., Dumortier, M., Hermy, M., Lust, N., 2001. Effects of age  
400 and distance on the composition of mixed deciduous forest fragments in an  
401 agricultural landscape. *J. Veg. Sci.* 12, 635-642.

402 Kent, M., Coker, P., 1992. *Vegetation Description and Analysis. A Practical Approach*,  
403 Belhaven Press, London, England.

404 Kleyer, M., Kaule, G., Settele, J., 1996. Landscape Fragmentation and Landscape  
405 Planning, with a Focus on Germany. In: Settele, J., Margules, C., Poschlod, P.,  
406 Henle, K. (Eds), *Species Survival in Fragmented Landscapes*. Kluwer, Dordrecht,  
407 The Netherlands, pp. 138-151.

408 Kolb, A., Diekmann, M., 2005. Effects of life-history traits on responses of plant  
409 species to forest fragmentation. *Conserv. Biol.* 19, 929–938.

410 Kupfer, J.A., Malanson, G.P., Franklin, S.B., 2006. Not seeing the ocean for the islands:  
411 the mediating influence of matrix-based processes on forest fragmentation effects.  
412 *Global Ecol. and Biogeogr.* 15, 8-20.

413 Lang, S., Tiede, D., 2003. vLATE Extension für ArcGIS - vektorbasiertes Tool zur  
414 quantitativen Landschaftsstrukturanalyse, ESRI Anwenderkonferenz 2003  
415 Innsbruck. CDROM. Available from <http://www.geo.sbg.ac.at/larg/vlate.htm>

416 Laurence, W.F., Yensen, E., 1991. Predicting the impacts of edge effects in fragmented  
417 habitats. *Biol. Conserv.* 55, 45-67.

418 Levenson, J.B., 1981. Woodlots as biogeographic islands in Southeastern Wisconsin.  
419 In: Burgess, R.L., Sharpe, D.M. (Eds), *Forest island dynamics in man-dominated*  
420 *landscape*. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, pp. 13-39.

- 421 Lomolino, M.V., 2001. The species–area relationship new challenges for an old pattern.  
422 Prog. Phys. Geogr. 30, 1391–1403.
- 423 López, R.D., Davis, C.B., Fennessy, M.S., 2002. Ecological relationships between  
424 landscape change and plant guilds in depressional wetlands. *Landsc. Ecol.* 17, 43-  
425 56.
- 426 Lovett-Doust, J., Biernacki, M., Page, R., Cha, M., Natgunarajah, R., Timis, G., 2003.  
427 Effects of land ownership and landscape-level factors on rare-species richness in  
428 natural areas of southern Ontario, Canada. *Landsc. Ecol.* 18, 621-633.
- 429 Magurran, A.E., 1988. *Ecological Diversity and its Measurement*, Princeton University  
430 Press, Princeton.
- 431 Mc Garigal, K., Cushman, S. A., Neel, M.C., Ene, E., 2002. FRAGSTATS: Spatial  
432 Pattern Analysis Program for Categorical Maps. Computer software program  
433 produced by the authors at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Available  
434 from [www.umass.edu/landeco/research/fragstats/fragstats.html](http://www.umass.edu/landeco/research/fragstats/fragstats.html).
- 435 Meffe, G.K., Carroll, C.R., 1997. *Principles of Conservation Biology*. Sinauer,  
436 Sunderland.
- 437 Michel, M., 2006. El pino radiata en la historia forestal vasca. *Munibe, Aranzadi Zientzi*  
438 *Elkartea, Donostia*.
- 439 Mikk, M., Mander, Ü., 1995. Species diversity of forest islands in agricultural  
440 landscapes of southern Finland, Estonia and Lithuania. *Landsc. Urban. Plan.* 31,  
441 153-169.
- 442 Murakami, K., Maenaka, H., Morimoto, Y., 2005. Factors influencing species diversity  
443 of ferns and fern allies in fragmented forest patches in the Kyoto city area.  
444 *Landsc. Urban Plan.* 70, 221-229.

445 Onaindia, M., Dominguez, I., Albizu, I., Garbisu, C., Amezaga, I., 2004. Vegetation  
446 diversity and vertical structure as indicators of forest disturbance. *For. Ecol.*  
447 *Manage.* 195, 341-354.

448 Peterken, G.F., Game, M., 1984. Historical factors affecting the number and distribution  
449 of vascular plant species in the woodlands of central Lincolnshire. *J. Ecol.* 72,  
450 155-182.

451 Petit, S., Griffiths, L., Smart, S.S., Smith, G. M., Stuart, R.C., Wright, S.M., 2004.  
452 Effects of area and isolation of woodland patches on herbaceous plant species  
453 richness across Great Britain. *Landscape Ecol.* 19, 463-471.

454 Renjifo, L.M., 1999. Composition changes in a subandean avifauna after long-term  
455 forest fragmentation. *Conserv. Biol.* 13, 1124–1139.

456 Rodríguez-Loinaz, G., Amezaga, I., Onaindia, M., 2011. Efficacy of management  
457 policies on protection and recovery of natural ecosystems in the Urdaibai  
458 Biosphere Reserve. *Natural Areas Journal*. In press.

459 Sarlöv-Herlin, I., Fry, G., 2000. Dispersal of woody plants in forest edges and  
460 hedgerows in a Southern Swedish agricultural area: the role of site and landscape  
461 structure. *Landscape Ecol.* 15, 229-242.

462 Schessl, M., Da Silva, W.L., Gottsberger, G. 2008. Effects of fragmentation on forest  
463 structure and litter dynamics in Atlantic rainforest in Pernambuco, Brazil. *Flora*  
464 203, 215-228.

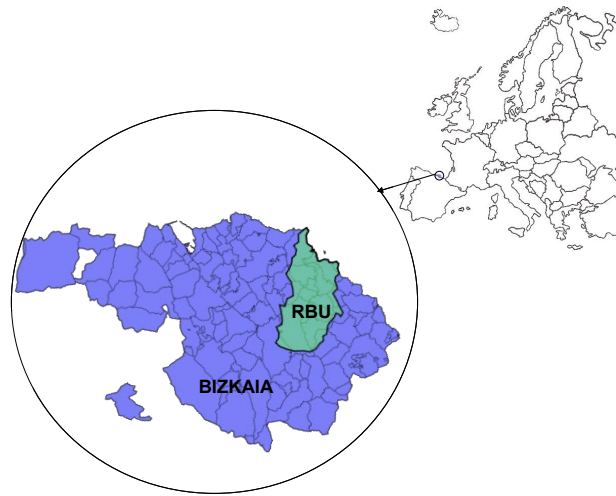
465 Schmidt, T., Arens, P., Smulders, M., Billeter, R., Liira, J., Augenstein, I., Durka, W.,  
466 2009. Effects of landscape structure on genetic diversity of *Geum urbanum* L.  
467 populations in agricultural landscapes. *Flora* 204, 549-559.

- 468 Tabarelli, M., Mantovani, W., Peres, C., 1999. Effects of habitat fragmentation on plant  
469 guild structure in the montane Atlantic forest of south-eastern Brazil. *Biol.*  
470 *Conserv.* 91, 119–127.
- 471 Van der Veken, S., Verheyen, K., Hermy, M., 2004. Plant species loss in an urban area  
472 (Turnhout, Belgium) from 1880 to 1999 and its environmental determinants. *Flora*  
473 199, 516–523.
- 474 van Ruremonde, R.H., Kalkhoven, J.T.R., 1991. Effects of woodlot isolation on the  
475 dispersion of plants with fleshy fruits. *J. Veg. Sci.* 2, 377-384.
- 476 Verheyen, K., Hermy, M., 2001. The relative importance of dispersal limitation of  
477 vascular plants in secondary forest succession in Muizen Forest, Belgium. *J. Ecol.*  
478 89, 829-840.
- 479 Wilcox, B.A., Murphy, D.D., 1985. Conservation strategy: the effects of fragmentation  
480 on extinction. *Am. Nat.* 125, 879-887.
- 481 Wood, A., Stedman-Edwards, P., Mang, J., 2000. The root causes of biodiversity loss,  
482 World Wildlife Fund and Earthscan Publications, London.

483

Figure 1: Location of the study area.

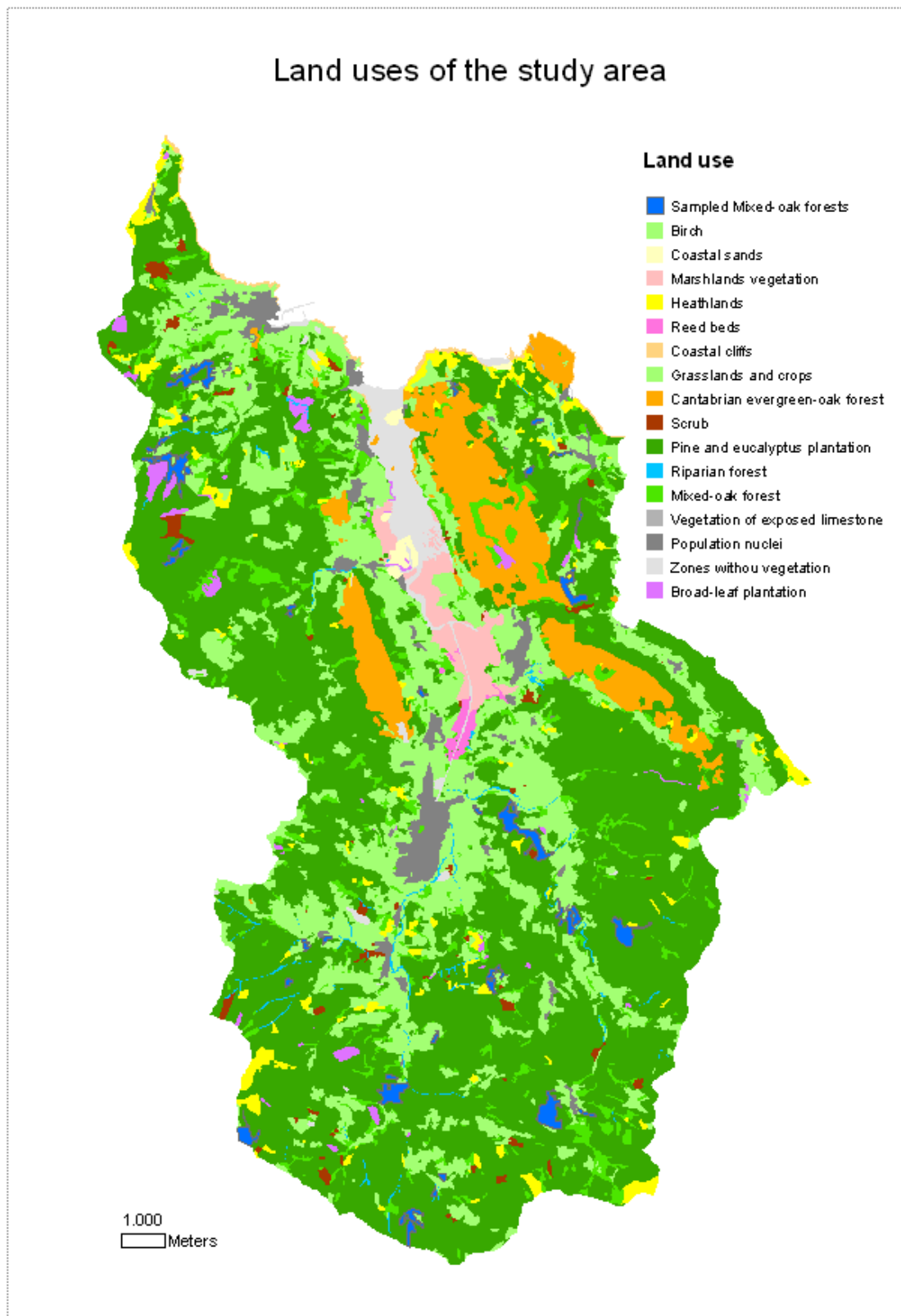
484



485



486 Figure 2: Map of land uses and localization of studied mixed-oak forests in the study area.



487

488

489 Table 1: Plant species composition and percentage cover (mean  $\pm$  SE) of the plant species for the large  
 490 and small patches of mixed-oak forest (small= 2 to 3 ha, and large= > 10 ha).

PLANT SPECIES	% COVER	
	Small patches	Large patches
<b>Herbaceous plants</b>		
<i>Ajuga reptans</i> L. (1)	1.72 $\pm$ 0.63	1.13 $\pm$ 0.65
<i>Euphorbia amygdaloides</i> L. (1)	0.83 $\pm$ 0.46	3.01 $\pm$ 1.75
<i>Euphorbia</i> sp.	2.39 $\pm$ 1.15	1.41 $\pm$ 1.07
<i>Geranium robertianum</i> L.	0.63 $\pm$ 0.31	0.47 $\pm$ 0.40
Gramineae	52.44 $\pm$ 9.62	30.27 $\pm$ 5.73
<i>Helleborus viridis</i> L. (1)	0 $\pm$ 0	0.27 $\pm$ 0.11
<i>Hypericum pulchrum</i> L. (1)	0.28 $\pm$ 0.16	0.41 $\pm$ 0.21
<i>Lamiastrum galeobdolon</i> (L.) Ehrend. & Polatschek (1)	0 $\pm$ 0	7.16 $\pm$ 3.33*
<i>Lathyrus linifolius</i> (Reichard) Bässler (1)	0.57 $\pm$ 0.24	0.40 $\pm$ 0.21
<i>Potentilla erecta</i> (L.) Rauschel	1.74 $\pm$ 1.07	0.13 $\pm$ 0.13
<i>Potentilla sterilis</i> (L.) Garcke	1.00 $\pm$ 0.58	0.30 $\pm$ 0.21
<i>Ranunculus tuberosus</i> Lapeyr.	1.29 $\pm$ 0.84	1.08 $\pm$ 0.47
<i>Rubia peregrina</i> L. (1)	2.29 $\pm$ 1.24	3.95 $\pm$ 1.63
<i>Saxifraga hirsuta</i> (1)	0 $\pm$ 0	1.28 $\pm$ 0.90
<i>Solidago virgaurea</i> L.	1.39 $\pm$ 0.65	0.13 $\pm$ 0.13
<i>Stachys officinalis</i> (L.) Trevisan	6.56 $\pm$ 2.28	2.83 $\pm$ 1.50
<i>Symphytum tuberosum</i> L. (1)	1.72 $\pm$ 1.11	0.93 $\pm$ 0.46
<i>Teucrium scorodonia</i> L.	6.36 $\pm$ 2.34	7.27 $\pm$ 2.99
<i>Vicia sepium</i> L. (1)	0.39 $\pm$ 0.39	1.67 $\pm$ 0.87
<i>Viola riviniana</i> Reichenb.	3.90 $\pm$ 1.60	2.35 $\pm$ 1.08
<b>Ferns</b>		
<i>Asplenium adiantum-nigrum</i> L. (1)	0 $\pm$ 0	1.27 $\pm$ 0.61
<i>Asplenium trichomanes</i> L. (1)	0 $\pm$ 0	0.72 $\pm$ 0.28
<i>Athyrium filix-femina</i> (L.) Roth (1)	5.29 $\pm$ 2.86	12.33 $\pm$ 5.76
<i>Blechnum spicant</i> (L.) Roth (1)	8.78 $\pm$ 2.51	15.75 $\pm$ 5.96
<i>Dryopteris affinis</i> (Lowe) raser- Jenkins (1)	2.44 $\pm$ 1.39	18.05 $\pm$ 5.24*
<i>Polystichum setiferum</i> (Forsskål) Woyнар (1)	3.06 $\pm$ 1.29	12.80 $\pm$ 4.93*
<i>Pteridium aquilinum</i> (L.) Kuhn	31.11 $\pm$ 7.69	11.60 $\pm$ 4.37
<b>Climbing plants</b>		
<i>Hedera helix</i> L. (1)	59.10 $\pm$ 7.26	44.94 $\pm$ 7.93
<i>Lonicera periclymenum</i> L. (1)	16.18 $\pm$ 3.31	23.05 $\pm$ 5.36
<i>Smilax aspera</i> L. (1)	16.78 $\pm$ 6.14	25.23 $\pm$ 7.88
<i>Tamus communis</i> L. (1)	5.94 $\pm$ 2.12	3.52 $\pm$ 1.32
<b>Trees</b>		
<i>Acer campestre</i> L. (1)	1.29 $\pm$ 1.08	4.56 $\pm$ 3.30
<i>Arbutus unedo</i> L.	1.50 $\pm$ 1.03	1.27 $\pm$ 1.27
<i>Betula alba</i> L.	3.00 $\pm$ 2.57	3.93 $\pm$ 3.17
<i>Castanea sativa</i> Millar (1)	19.67 $\pm$ 6.78	31.93 $\pm$ 9.69
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> L. (1)	11.01 $\pm$ 4.37	9.86 $\pm$ 4.41
<i>Laurus nobilis</i> L. (1)	18.68 $\pm$ 12.6	10.60 $\pm$ 6.31
<i>Prunus avium</i> L. (1)	1.33 $\pm$ 0.66	2.33 $\pm$ 1.88
<i>Quercus ilex</i> L.	4.00 $\pm$ 2.64	0 $\pm$ 0
<i>Quercus robur</i> L. (1)	98.53 $\pm$ 8.48	93.90 $\pm$ 7.70
<i>Salix atrocinerea</i> Brot.	9.06 $\pm$ 5.72	8.13 $\pm$ 4.38
<b>Shrubs</b>		
<i>Cornus sanguinea</i> L.	9.56 $\pm$ 5.64	8.81 $\pm$ 3.43
<i>Corylus avellana</i> L. (1)	33.39 $\pm$ 9.10	52.67 $\pm$ 15.7
<i>Crataegus monogyna</i> Jacq.	0.56 $\pm$ 0.28	6.24 $\pm$ 3.71
<i>Daboecia cantabrica</i> (Hudson) C. Koch	1.18 $\pm$ 0.48	1.08 $\pm$ 1.00
<i>Erica vagans</i> L.	0.46 $\pm$ 0.26	0 $\pm$ 0
<i>Euonymus europaeus</i> L.	1.56 $\pm$ 1.18	0.47 $\pm$ 0.32
<i>Frangula alnus</i> Miller (1)	2.52 $\pm$ 1.27	2.81 $\pm$ 1.54
<i>Hypericum androsaemum</i> L. (1)	1.44 $\pm$ 0.72	2.56 $\pm$ 1.02

<i>Ilex aquifolium</i> L. (1)	0.74 ± 0.43	3.64 ± 3.18
<i>Rosa</i> sp.	8.73 ± 3.48	8.01 ± 1.99
<i>Rubus</i> sp.	43.17 ± 6.83	67.81 ± 9.07
<i>Ruscus aculeatus</i> L. (1)	2.39 ± 1.39	5.27 ± 2.79
<i>Ulex</i> sp.	1.61 ± 1.02	1.13 ± 0.77

---

491

492

Only those species that were found in more than 20% of the patches of at least one of the sizes have been included. (1): Forest

493

specialist species \* Large patch indicator species.

494 Table 2: Diversity indices of vegetation composition.

	INDICES	Small patches (Mean ± SE)	Large patches (Mean ± SE)
<b>OVERALL SPECIES</b>	S	22.78 ± 1.14	24.67±1.77
	H'	3.46± 0.08	3.63±0.09
	1-D	0.87± 0.01	0.89±0.01
	S herbaceous	7.78±1.00	7.40±0.97
	H'herbaceous	1.82±0.17	1.81±0.23
	1-D herbaceous	0.59± 0.04	0.57±0.07
	S trees	3.94±0.35	4.27±0.36
	H'trees	1.15±0.13	1.37±0.13
	1-D trees	0.43± 0.05	0.52±0.04
	S shrubs	5.22±0.31	5.60±0.34
	H'shrubs	1.61±0.09	1.65±0.11
	1-D shrubs	0.59± 0.03	0.59±0.03
	S ferns	2.67±0.29	4.20±0.54
	H'ferns	0.94±0.15	1.59±0.17
	1-D ferns	0.38± 0.06	0.58±0.05
	S climbing plants	3.17±0.17	3.20±0.20
	H'climbing plants	1.14±0.09	1.13±0.16
	1-D climbing plants	0.48± 0.03	0.45±0.06
	<b>ONLY TYPICAL FOREST SPECIES</b>	S f.e.	12.83±0.84
H'f.e.		2.65±0.10	2.90±0.13
1-D f.e.		0.57±0.06	0.66±0.07
S herbaceous f.e.		3.94±0.64	4.67±0.77
H'herbaceous f.e.		1.22±0.23	1.51±0.22
1-D herbaceous f.e.		0.43±0.07	0.53±0.07
S trees f.e.		2.72±0.23	3.27±0.30
H'trees f.e.		0.86±0.10	1.10±0.13
1-D trees f.e.		0.36±0.04	0.43±0.05
S shrubs f.e.		0.83±0.22	2.27±0.34
H'shrubs f.e.		0.42±0.10	0.55±0.10
1-D shrubs f.e.		0.17±0.04	0.23±0.05
S ferns f.e.		1.78±0.30	3.07±0.42
H'ferns f.e.		0.54±0.16	1.16±0.20
1-D ferns f.e.		0.22±0.06	0.45±0.07
S climbing plants f.e.		2.56±0.12	2.53±0.19
H'climbing plants f.e.		0.98±0.06	1.00±0.14
1-D climbing plants f.e.		0.43±0.03	0.42±0.06

496 Both for the overall vegetation as well as for the forest specialist species (f.e.), totals and by growth-form (mean  $\pm$  SE) for both  
497 sizes. S=richness, H<sup>1</sup>=Shannon diversity, 1-D: Simpson diversity.

498 Table 3: Significant results of the general linear model for the vegetation indices analyzed.

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	$\beta$	$r^2$	F	p
H' ferns (adjusted $r^2$ :0.364, $p$ =0.011*)				
FD	0.091	0.011	0.313	0.580
NND	-0.359	0.162	5.432	0.027*
Area	0.481	0.262	9.940	0.004**
Tree cover	-0.245	0.074	2.236	0.146
S ferns (adjusted $r^2$ :0.398, $p$ =0.007**)				
FD	0.117	0.019	0.547	0.466
NND	-0.412	0.214	7.623	0.010**
Area	0.455	0.252	9.410	0.005**
Tree cover	-0.332	0.130	4.031	0.055
H' herbaceous (adjusted $r^2$ :0.370, $p$ =0.012*)				
FD	0.358	0.135	4.171	0.052
NND	-0.491	0.275	10.617	0.003**
Area	-0.006	0.000	0.002	0.969
Tree cover	-0.330	0.133	3.797	0.062
H' f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.365, $p$ =0.011*)				
FD	-0.028	0.001	0.030	0.864
NND	-0.546	0.310	12.606	0.001**
Area	0.321	0.136	4.409	0.045*
Tree cover	-0.062	0.005	0.142	0.709
S f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.433, $p$ =0.003**)				
FD	0.176	0.044	1.301	0.264
NND	-0.527	0.319	13.122	0.001**
Area	0.352	0.175	5.951	0.021*
Tree cover	-0.238	0.072	2.094	0.159
H' ferns f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.309, $p$ =0.03*)				
FD	0.017	0.000	0.009	0.923
NND	-0.353	0.147	4.834	0.036*
Area	0.435	0.210	7.437	0.011*
Tree cover	-0.242	0.067	1.995	0.169
S ferns f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.365, $p$ =0.011*)				
FD	0.075	0.008	0.214	0.647
NND	-0.402	0.196	6.815	0.014*
Area	0.448	0.235	8.606	0.007**
Tree cover	-0.275	0.092	2.823	0.104
H' herbaceous f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.244, $p$ =0.043*)				
FD	0.243	0.066	1.980	0.170
NND	-0.384	0.165	5.551	0.026*
Area	0.171	0.039	1.123	0.298
Tree cover	-0.320	0.099	2.968	0.096
S herbaceous f.e. (adjusted $r^2$ :0.294, $p$ =0.045*)				
FD	0.359	0.119	4.521	0.052
NND	-0.377	0.167	5.625	0.025*
Area	0.125	0.022	0.631	0.434
Tree cover	-0.365	0.133	4.149	0.052

499

500

501

502

503

The model was applied to the 36 calculated indices but only those for which significant results were obtained were included in this table. Results for Simpson diversity (1-D) have not been included since they are similar to those for Shannon diversity (H'). H'=Shannon diversity, S=richness, f.e. = forest specialist, FD=fractal dimension, NND=distance to the nearest patch, Area=patch area,  $\beta$ =standardized beta coefficient,  $r^2$ =  $r^2$  coefficient of regression,  $p$ =level of significance; \* $p$ ≤0.05; \*\* $p$ ≤0.01.